CHAPTER VI.
HINDOSTAN.

The region known to the ancients by the name of India, to the Arabs by that of Al Hind, and now most commonly by the Persian appellation of Hindostan, has always been the most celebrated country of the East. In every age it has been the peculiar seat of Oriental pomp, of an early and peculiar civilization, and of a commerce supported by richer products than that of any other country, ancient or modern.

Sect. I.—General Outline and Aspect.

The nominal limits of Hindostan have varied at different times. In the west, especially, it has sometimes been extended over a great part of Afghanistan, which was often the seat of its ruling potentates. The real Hindostan, however, seems clearly marked both by precise natural boundaries, and by the fixed and deep-seated character of its native population. The boundary on the north, but running in a north-westerly direction, consists of that unbroken and amazing range of mountains, which receives in India the name of Himmaleh, or Himalayah, and separates its fine plains from the bleak table-land of Thibet. On the west, it is the Indus, from the point where it bursts through the northern mountains, to that in which it joins the Indian Ocean. Into that ocean, southern Hindostan projects, in the form of a vast triangular peninsula, which presents two opposite coasts, Malabar to the south-west, and Coromandel to the south-east, both terminating in the southern extremity of Cape
Comorin. Thence India is prolonged by the large contiguous island of Ceylon. The coast of Coromandel, with the opposite shores of Arakan and Malacca, enclose a large sea, called the Bay of Bengal. Between this bay and the termination of the Himalayas occurs a short interval, forming the most eastern and the least accurately defined boundary of Hindostan. The natural limit here seems to be the channel of the lower Brahmapoutra, though Bengal claims a certain extent of hill and jungle on the other side.

Amid the grand features of nature in this region, the extended mountain range of Himalayas, which forms its northern boundary, is pre-eminent. After crossing the Indus, and enclosing the beautiful valley of Cashmere, this range, which, in bounding Afghanistan, under the name of Hindoo Koh, had an almost due easterly course, takes a south-easterly line, which it nearly follows till it passes the frontier of Hindostan. The name, which is derived from the Sanscrit term hima, snow, is evidently suggested by that long range of pinnacles, white with eternal snow, that is seen far along the wide plain of central India, which luxuriates in the perpetual summer of the tropics. Although the wonderful distance from which these peaks are discerned could not but indicate them to be exceedingly lofty, yet the difficulty of reaching them across a hostile country long prevented any accurate observation. Thirty years ago, their summits were not supposed to rival those of the Cordilleras, believed then the most elevated on the globe. It was in 1802 that Colonel Crawford, after a residence in Nepal, communicated observations, according to which Chimboraazo must yield the palm to Dhaulagiri and Chandradathani. Intense curiosity was thus excited, and a series of investigations followed. The missions of Kirkpatrick and Hamilton to Nepal; the expeditions of Hardwicke, Webb, Moorcroft, Fraser, and others to the source of the Ganges, with the application of the modern formulae, at length fully established the fact. Although the height of the chain is everywhere stupendous, no part of it rivals those amazing peaks which tower on one side over the sources of the Jumna and the Ganges, on the other over those of the Sampo and the Indus.

Central Hindostan, below its great mountain boundary, consists generally of a vast expansion of plain; but the southern part, composing the great peninsula between the Malabar and Coromandel coasts, though it cannot comparatively be called mountainous, is a very hilly country. Two great chains extend along the opposite coasts, parallel to each other, or rather diverging, and leaving between them and the sea only a plain of forty or fifty miles in breadth. They rise in few places above 3000 or 4000 feet high; but are very rugged and steep, and the entrance into the interior is only by very narrow and difficult passes. The name of Ghaut, which, through the Teutonic languages, has come to ours in the word gate, being applied to these passes, has been gradually extended to the mountains themselves. The most continuous chain is that of the Western Ghauts, which extends, for nearly 1000 miles, from Surat to Cape Comorin. It forms, evidently, the highest land of southern India, since all the great rivers flow across it to the opposite coast. Though steep and stony, the hills are not broken, but covered generally with a stratum of earth, sustaining stately forests, particularly of bamboo, which is found nowhere else in equal perfection. The Eastern Ghauts seldom rise to the height of 3000 feet. Mr. Hamilton limits their extent to a line of about 300 miles from the Cavery to the Krishna; but, as a low chain runs from that river to the Godavery, which beyond rises again into a lofty barrier, almost closing the passage between the Ghats and the interior, there seems little reason why the whole should not be considered as one continuous chain, almost equal in length to the western. The interior, between these two chains, consists chiefly of successive table-lands supported by the opposite Ghauts and by chains crossing from one to the other, diversified also by single precipitous eminences, which are formed into almost impregnable hill forts. One continuous chain, the Vindhya mountains, runs across the broad base of the peninsula, and forms a rugged boundary between it and the great plain of Hindostan Proper. On the west it is connected with a range of bold and lofty hills, which compose the territory of Rajasthan.

The rivers of Hindostan form a feature no less important and celebrated than its mountains. The Himalayas, from its lofty magazines of tempests and snow, pours down a world of waters, which, everywhere descending its steeps, unite at length in the two great branches of the Indus and the Ganges. These, with their tributaries, even before they reach the plain, present the mass and breadth of great rivers, while they retain the rapidity of mountain torrents.

The Ganges holds a pre-eminent place among the rivers of Hindostan, and indeed of Asia; not, however, from the length of its course, which some others surpass, but from its watering the finest plains of this celebrated country. The Ganges had been represented as flowing out of the lake Manasarowara, when, after a long westerly course, it turned to the southward, and penetrated across the Himalayas. Mr. Colebrooke, however, considering these reports as very doubtful, sent, in 1808, an expedition to this spot, which has since been very fully explored by successive travellers. They have never, indeed, been able to penetrate into the mass of mountains piled upon mountains, from which the Ganges is first seen descending; but they have traced it till it appears a mere rivulet issuing from under beds of eternal snow. There cannot thus be the least doubt that it rises in the southern steeps of
the Himalaya, and not in any point north of that chain. About thirty miles below Seriagur, the *prayauga* or junction takes place between the Bhagirathi and the Alaknanda, the two original branches of the Ganges; of which the former, though not of so long a course, is generally regarded as the original stream. About five hundred miles below, at Allahabad, it receives the Jumna or Yamuna, almost equal to itself, which has risen in a lofty peak not far to the west of its own source, and, by means of its tributaries, the Chambull and the Betwah, has drained the northern side of the Vindhyia mountains. From this side also it receives the Sonea. But its main tributaries are from the north, as it runs parallel to the Himalaya mountains, the Gogra, the Coosy, the Gunduck, poured down from their steeps. After receiving this last stream at Moughir, it may be considered as having reached its greatest magnitude, being from one to three miles broad, and thirty feet deep. It is navigable without interruption to the mountain districts, consideribly above Allahabad. The rise occasioned by the rainy season begins in the end of April, and continues to increase until the middle of August, when it reaches in many places thirty-two feet, and all the level districts on its lower course are inundated, sometimes for the breadth of one hundred miles. About 200 miles from the sea, the Ganges ramifies into a delta, of which the numerous branches, in entering the Bay of Bengal, form a labyrinth of channels and creeks called the Sunderbunds. In most of them, particularly those into which the larger branch divides, the force of the current is insufficient to clear away the bar of sand accumulated at the mouth. It is only by the Hoogly branch, which passes by Calcutta, that large vessels can penetrate.

The Indus, or Sind, the western limitary stream of India, arises from very imperfectly known sources, in the interior of Thibet. Its longest branch appears to be that called the river of Ladak, which rises near the lake Mansaarowar, and flows north-west to the above

References to the Map of Hindostan.—Part 1.
city, where it is swelled by the Shyok descending in an opposite direction from amid the snows of the mountain-range called the Kuelun. It seems to have been by mistake that a branch, considered even as the real Indus, was supposed to join it at Drau. After descending from the mountains and passing Attock, where it is first considered an Indian river, the Indus, through all its remaining course, flows almost due south. The Kuma river pours into it the mountain streams of Kabul and Cashgar; but its grand accession is about 400 miles farther down, where it receives in one united channel the waters of five streams celebrated in history; the Jelum (Hydaspes), the Chenab (Acesines), the Ravec (Hydrates), the Beya (Hyphasis), and the Sutlej (Hesudrus). These drain all the western steeps of the Himalaya, and the last mentioned even crosses it from a source in Thibet. The Indus now becomes a river of the first magnitude, about a mile in breadth, and from twenty to thirty feet deep, capable of receiving vessels of considerable burthen. It is estimated by Mr. Burns to pour into the sea four times as much water as the Ganges. In its lower course it separates into two large branches, ramifying into many smaller ones, which enclose a delta about 70 miles broad, composing the kingdoms of Sind and Tatta, part of which is extremely fertile, but that nearest to the sea consists of a desert of flat and marshy sand. These branches are so encumbered with sand, as to admit only flat-bottomed boats; but it is supposed that steam-vessels duly constructed might enter and reach as high as Moulant and Lahore.

The Brahmaputra, which forms the eastern limitary river of India, pours a vast body of water into the lower Ganges before its junction with the sea, where the two streams unite form a bay with numerous islands. Modern geography long identified it with the Sumpoo, and consequently assigned to it a long course along the table-plain of Thibet. But this origin is now generally discarded. Recent expeditions have shown it fed by waters descending from the southern side of the high mountains of Assam, though it remains still uncertain whether its principal branch may not come from beyond these ranges.

The Ganges and the Indus finally absorb all the waters which descend from the southern face of the Himalaya; and these, flowing either eastward or westward over the vast plain of central India, leave between them a large expanse of arid desert bordering on the Indus.

All the other waters of India belong to the southern peninsula. Beginning from the nortli, the first two that occur flow westward into the Gulf of Cambay: the Nerbudda, parallel to the Vindhyas chain, and fed by its streams; and the Taptee, which passes by Surat. There the chain of the western Ghants begins, whence, as already observed, all the other large rivers flow eastward into the Bay of Bengal. The principal are the Godavery, the Krishna or Kistnar, and the Cavery; all sacred in the eyes of the Hindoo, and truly valuable by their services to irrigation and commerce. Though rivalling the great rivers of Europe, they hold only a secondary place in the geography of Hindostan.

It is somewhat remarkable that, in so large a region, with so many lands and waters, there should not be a lake, with the exception of Chilka on the Coromandel coast, which is a mere salt marsh, like the Marneotis or Menzelle, and a few very small lakes in the territory of Rajpootana. To find this feature on a great scale, we must penetrate its northern barrier into central Asia.

References to the Map of Hindostan.—Part 2.
I. Himalaya.—The Himalaya mountains may be divided, in a geognostical view, into three different zones. On approaching this colossal range from the plains, a sandstone formation is the first which arrests the attention, and forms the first or lowest zone or belt. This rock, which has a clayey basis, and is often in the state of conglomerate, is distinctly stratified, and the strata generally dip to the N.E. under 20° or 25°. It contains layers of coals, said to be of the lignite or brown coal family; which statement, if correct, renders it probable that the sandstone is much more recent than that of the great coal formation of Britain. This sandstone seldom attains an elevation of more than 3500 feet above the level of the sea, or 2500 feet above the plains at its base.

To the sandstone succeeds the second zone, or zone of slaty rocks. These are at first transition clay slate with greywacke, and limestone enclosing remains of shells and corals; next primitive clay slate, which is succeeded by mica slate, in both of which occur talc slate, chlorite slate, beds of quartz rock, often of great magnitude, limestone or marble, potstone, and hornblende slate. The copper mines of these mountains are situated in the limestone and potstone districts. Veins of porphyry are observed traversing the mica slate. This zone ranges in height from 1500 to 8000 feet. This tract is remarkable for attaining its greatest elevation on its northern and southern extremities, while between it is of less height; forming, in fact, if the mean surface only be considered, a sort of basin or trough. A peculiarity of geognostical structure accompanying this is the disposition along this lowest level of granite tracts or nuclei, each of comparatively small extent, frequently putting on the appearance of veins, and distributed at intervals along the line from the Kalee to the Sutlej. Generally the granite masses, being in the lowest tract, are themselves not very high; but an exception is found in the Chur mountain, which rises to a height of 12,000 feet, and forms the summit of a very lofty, extensive, and well-defined range. Gneiss is occasionally met with on the borders of these masses of granite, but never extensively; and beyond it again succeeds mica slate.

The third zone is that of the Himalaya proper, the snowy ridge itself, and is composed principally of gneiss. It is distinctly stratified, and, like the sandstone, dips to the N.E. It is traversed by veins of granite, some of which are of considerable magnitude: various simple minerals, as garnet, schorl, cyanite, hyacinth, and native gold, occur embedded in it. Dr. Gerard collected fossil shells among strata beyond the region of slates which succeeded to the Himalaya gneiss in going northward. Some of them are said to resemble the Producta scotica, found in Scottish coal-fields; some pectons, not unlike those met with in the York lias; a terebratula, differing but little from that found so abundantly in the inferior olite, near Bath; an ammonite closely resembling the Ammonites subradialis of Sowerby, which is a fossil of the Bath olite: belemnites were frequently found, and of all dimensions; orthoceratites in a clay ironstone. Tertiary deposits are alleged to occur high among the mountains; and an interesting display of rocks of this class, containing remains of sea-shells and fishes, and mutilated fragments of bones of the genus Anthropotherum, of a kind of musk-ox, a viverra, &c., was discovered near Silhet, in the north-east corner of Bengal, and similar remains in some other points of the same province. Dilkium, with bones of various animals, is also mentioned as occurring in this mountainous region. Hitherto but small quantities of ore have been met with in the Himalayas, and these are of copper, iron, lead, and graphite or black lead: of this latter, many are included under this head.

II. Middle India.—This vast tract of country forms an inclined plane, of which the great declivity sinks gradually towards the mouth of the Ganges, while the other inclines towards the Indus. It is almost entirely composed of clays, loams, sands, and gravels, with occasional intermixtures of calcareous concretions named kunkur, fossil woods, and animal remains. In this division of India, we may include the coal-field of Damoda. This deposit of coal, which occupies both sides of the Ganges, through a considerable tract of country, and rests upon granite, appears to be geognostically the same formation as the coal formation of Britain. In the coal-pits, of which there are but three sunk to a depth of ninety feet, there are seven beds of coal; one of them exceeds nine feet in thickness. The coal is said to resemble that of Sunderland, in England; but leaves a larger portion of cinders and ashes. It is now extensively consumed in and about Calcutta.

III. Peninsular India.—Primitive rocks. A very large portion of the peninsula of India is composed of Plutonian rocks, as of granite, syenite, and trap, the Neptunian strata being much less abundantly distributed. The Neptunian deposits are gneiss, mica slate, clay slate, chlorite slate, talc slate, potstone, quartz rock, and limestone or marble. These deposits are variously upraised, broken, and otherwise changed by vast bodies of Plutonian rocks, of which the most abundant are granite and syenite, two rocks which together form very extensive tracts of country.

Transition rocks.—These occur abundantly, resting upon the primitive deposits, and
frequently covered more or less deeply with secondary formations. The following rocks are mentioned by authors; viz., greywacke, clay slate, quartz rock, and limestone.

Secondary rocks. Rocks of this class abound more in the northern than in the southern and middle districts of the peninsula. Old red sandstone occurs in considerable quantity, resting upon transition deposits; this formation in its turn supports mountain limestone, and rocks of the coal formation. These older secondary formations are overlaid, to a greater or less depth, with new red sandstone, and other rocks apparently belonging to the lias and colitic series. The green sand and chalk deposits have not hitherto been met with. These secondary deposits are variously upraised, broken, and otherwise changed by secondary trap, which extends over vast tracts of country. The great western or Malabar chain of mountains, which commences in Candish, and terminates at Cape Comorin, is at its northern extremity covered by a part of an extensive overlying trap formation, which extends in this quarter from the sea-shore of the Northern Concan to a considerable distance eastward, above and beyond the Ghauts, as far as the river Tumabdra and Nagpore. The trap hills are tabular, terraced, separated from each other by ravines, often of vast magnitude, and the whole frequently covered with splendid forests of teak and other trees, forming some of the most beautiful and romantic scenes in India.

Tertiary rocks. Tertiary deposits, containing fossil trees erroneously said to be the tamarind tree, occur near Pondicherry; and clays and sands with sea-shells, asserted to be tertiary, are met with near Madras.

Alluvial rocks. These occur generally distributed; and, in some places, the diluvium is of great thickness.

Minerals useful in the arts found in Peninsular India.—Granite and syenite. These rocks, which occupy a great part of the Carnatic, Malabar, and Mysore, nearly the whole of the Nizam's dominions, and a large part of Bahar, are employed as building stones. Talc slates and pozzolana are employed by the natives for the manufacture of various utensils. All the fine plaster with which the walls of the houses are covered in India, and which is so much admired by strangers, is composed of a mixture of fine lime and soapstone rubbed down with water. When the plaster is nearly dry, it is rubbed over with a dry piece of soapstone, which gives it a polish very much resembling that of well polished marble. Marbles are quarried in different parts of the country, but nowhere extensively. The laterite, or brick stone, is used as a building stone, for which it is excellently fitted. Most of the handsome Roman Catholic churches at Goa are built of it.

Gems. The most valuable of all the gems, the diamond, occurs in alluvial deposits, as Cudapah, Banagampelly, &c., in the river district of the Krishna; also in the bed of the river Godavery; at Sambulpore, in the district of Mahanuddy; and at Pannah, in Bundelcund. Cornalium, from its coarsest state to its finest, in the form of Oriental ruby, occurs in the granite and syenite district; the spinel ruby is also a native gem, and the same is the case with zircon, which occurs in alluvium in the Ellore district. Schoenite, topazes, tourmaline, and sapphire, occur in the granite and syenite districts. Chrysolite is an inmate of the secondary trap rocks; precious garnet, pyrome garnet, and garnetite garnet, are met with in primitive tracts of country, as also rock crystal, and various beautiful fossils. Amethysts and cutters, and many kinds of cornelian, jasper, and agate, are also natives of the peninsula of India. The annual value of cornelian exported from India formerly amounted to 11,000l. The secondary trap rocks afford beautiful and splendid specimens of different species of the elegant zeolite family. Metalliferous minerals occur but in small quantities. Gold and silver are but sparingly distributed; iron is abundant, but hitherto its ores have not been mined to any considerable extent. There are, at present, no copper mines of any importance, although the general use of copper or brass utensils among the natives of India, and the preference given to them before all other kinds of vessels, would seem to show that this metal was mined much more extensively in former times.

SUBJECT. 2.—Botany.

British India, notwithstanding its vast extent, its varied vegetation, and great importance, must, inasmuch as regards its botany, be passed over in fewer words than we could wish. The present volume would not suffice to contain half of what is known of the useful or curious vegetables with which botanists are now acquainted, through the indefatigable exertions of a few individuals, whose names, nevertheless, deserve to be recorded, even in this brief notice. Only forty years ago, and nothing was ascertained, comparatively speaking (save through the medium of the Hortus Malabaricus), of the vegetation of this vast country, extending from near the equator to beyond the thirtieth degree of north latitude, and from the sixty-eighth to the ninety-third degree of east longitude. In 1793, Dr. Roxburgh was appointed to the charge of the botanic garden at Calcutta; which includes within its boundaries an area of 300 acres; and this gave rise to the Hortus Botanicus Calcuttensis and the splendid Plants of Coromandel. Between the years 1829 and 1834, the learned and excellent missionary, Dr. Carey, edited the two volumes (extending no farther than the...
class Pentandria and order Monogynia) of Flora Indica, from the MSS. of Dr. Roxburgh, Dr. Wallich, and Dr. Jack. For a short period, during the illness and consequent absence of Dr. Roxburgh, Dr. Francis Buchanan Hamilton was appointed to the care of the Calcutta garden. To him succeeded on his decease, Dr. Wallich, whose assumption of this office forms a new era in the botany of India. This gentleman, a pupil of the celebrated Hornemann of Copenhagen, brought a degree of zeal to the duties of his situation which is rare in any country, and certainly unequalled in a tropical climate. At his suggestion, the Honourable Directors of the East India Company placed the garden establishment upon a footing far surpassing any thing of the kind known in Europe. The spot of ground is no less than five miles in circumference, and upwards of 300 gardeners and labourers are employed in the charge of it. Gardens, in connection with it, have been formed in other remote parts of the Indian possessions; collectors have been sent out to discover new and especially useful plants; and the residents and other gentlemen attached to science were invited to transmit the vegetable productions of their respective districts to Calcutta, both in a living and dried state; and among these, the Honourable Mr. Gardner, long the Company's Resident at Silhet, furnished most extensive and valuable collections.

In 1820, Dr. Wallich himself undertook a journey to Nepal, in order to investigate and procure its rich stores for the garden and herbarium. This occupied eighteen months; at the expiration of which he visited Singapore and Penang, and returned to Calcutta, enriched with new treasures. His last important excursion was to Ava, immediately after the reduction of the Birman empire. Here an entirely new field was laid open to his view; and when the collections of this vast and fertile country were added to those already deposited in Calcutta, the mass was estimated at 80,000 or 90,000 species. Of the difficulty of preserving dried plants in an Indian country, few can possibly form an idea, except by actual experience. In addition to the coleopterous insects, which in all climates commit most provoking ravages on these vegetable mummies, the ants are ready in the tropics to devour both the specimens and the paper in which they are preserved. To secure them from these attacks, the only remedy is to have the cabinets insulated, by setting the feet of them in troughs of water. But so rapid is evaporation under an Indian sun, that it was the entire office of a Hindoo, to go the round of the room and replenish these troughs with water as fast as it evaporated, until the shadows of evening came on.

With this vast herbarium, and with many seeds and chests of living plants, Dr. Wallich arrived in England in the autumn of 1824. Here he expressed the generous wish that all the civilised world should benefit as much as possible by his exertions, and that the duplicate specimens, which were exceedingly numerous, should be divided among the principal botanists, who were also invited to take a share in the publication of those genera or families with which they are most conversant. In this dispersion, he was aided by the most zealous botanists in England, and by M. A. Decandolle from Geneva, and Professor Kunth from Berlin. The entire examination of many species, in order to the formation of a complete catalogue, with numbers corresponding to the specimens distributed, was executed by Dr. Wallich. But his great work is his Planta Asiatice Rariores; a work which, whether for the beauty or rarity and interest of the subjects, the execution of the plates, or the accuracy of the descriptions, is surpassed by no publication of any period.

Dr. Wight is another gentleman to whom the botany of India is greatly indebted. To his able charge was intrusted the Company's garden at Madras, so long as this establishment continued: thus giving this gentleman, as it were, the same command over the vegetable productions of the southern peninsula of India which Dr. Wallich enjoyed over those of Hindostan Proper. In many long, painful, and expensive journeys, he made ample collections, and employed, at his own charge, an excellent draughtsman. In the year 1831 he arrived in London with an herbarium of 4000 species, and about 100,000 specimens of plants of the presidency of Madras.

Another excellent botanist, Mr. Royle, has subsequently arrived in London, from a most interesting district near the northern limit of the British territories in India, namely Scharanpur, where an institution, similar to that above mentioned, as being in charge of Dr. Wallich, has been taken under the protection of the Honourable East India Company. In the year 1779, Tabita Khan first appropriated the revenues of seven villages for the maintenance of a public garden; an income, however, which was much reduced by the native princes, his successors. The Marquess of Hastings, with the enlightened views of a statesman, determined that what had been intended for the gratification of an Asiatic sensualist, should contribute to the advancement of science, at the same time that it was a means of increasing the comforts of the people, and administering to the tastes of the most civilised Europeans.

The situation of Scharanpur, in point of latitude, elevation, vicinity to the hills, and the facility of irrigation from the Doub canal, renders it particularly eligible for such a purpose;

* See an account of the Honourable Company's Botanical Garden at Scharanpur, by F. Royle, Esq., late superintendent; published in the Journal of the Asiatic Society, February, 1830.
in short, in latitude 30°, the same parallel which passes through Persia, Arabia, Egypt, and over the southern boundaries of Libya, Barbary, and Morocco, by New Orleans, between Old and New Mexico, and passing through the very centre of China and Tibet. The elevation, too, 1000 feet above the level of the sea, renders the climate particularly favourable for the introduction into India of plants from the more temperate countries. The state of the atmosphere, indeed, for nearly six months in the year, is so similar to that of Europe, that most of the annual plants from that country may be successfully cultivated, while the cold is not sufficiently great, or of long continuance enough, to destroy the more southern plants, with the exception, indeed, of such tropical ones as cannot bear frost.

The best crops of European and medicinal plants, Mr. Royle tells us, are obtained from seed sown in November; after which the weather becomes steadily colder till Christmas, when some heavy rains usually fall. During this season the growth of perennial and of herbaceous plants from warm climates is checked; but in March a rapid rise takes place in the mean temperature of the month, and the increase, amounting to 42° of Fahrenheit, affords a powerful stimulus, and rapidly accelerates the vegetation of spring. About the middle of April the hot winds begin to blow, and continue to do so till the beginning of June, when the rainy season commences, and according as it terminates, towards the beginning or close of September, depends the late or early diminution of temperature which ushers in the cold weather.

The mean temperature of Scharanpur throughout the year is about 73° Fahrenheit, and of the months of January 52°, May 85°, September 79°, February 55°, June 90°, October 79°, March 67°, July 85°, November 64°, April 78°, August 88°, December 55°.

With a zeal that does him the highest credit, Mr. Royle introduced to this garden a great number of exotics. From China, the Litchi, Loquat, Wampum, Longan, Flat Peach, and Dignate Citron, the Spinae corymbosa, Dianthus chinensis, Rosa chinensis, and Althea rosea.—From America, the Mahogany, Logwood, Sapota, Cherimoja, Ash-leaved Maple, Pimento, and Dahlia.—From Africa and New Holland, Aloes, Polargonia, Stapelia, Amaryllis, Casaurina, Cajuputi, &c. The Barley of the hills, called o-a, from an elevation of 10,000 feet above the level of the sea, has become perfectly naturalised in Scharanpur, and a singular species of Wheat from Kanawar, at an equal elevation, succeeds remarkably well. Florin Grass is there seen by the side of the Guinea Grass and Lucerne, Succory and Clover, in a thriving state. Many precious medicinal plants are already cultivated, and it is hoped that many more will be introduced. Among the former may be mentioned Rhusarb; the long-leaved Fir, which yields by distillation a valuable oil of turpentine; Hennbace, of which the extract is of a very superior quality; Sonna, &c. Among timber trees are the Teak, Sali, Tsch, Liscio, Sessis Maple, Casaurina, Bamboo, Jasmine, and Mulberry. From the Sali tree above mentioned a very excellent resin is produced; while various gums are yielded by several trees, from the lower hills, now naturalised at Scharanpur. The fine sugar, for which this district is noted, is chiefly refined by the muscilage of two plants, the Kydia calycina and Hibiscus Abelenus.

Our knowledge of the geographical distribution of plants, too, is considerably extended by the establishment of this garden; for its able superintendent has most successfully explored the country in its vicinity, and, indeed, in the northern provinces of India, especially from the tract of country running along the Ganges and Jumna, from Allahabad up the Sutledge, and from the low range of hills which skirt the Himalayah as well as those of Deyra Dun; again from that part of the Himalayan range extending from the plains to the sources of the Ganges and Jumna, and included between the former river to the east and the Sutledge to the west; from Kanawar, a place lying along both sides of the Sutledge within the British territories, but beyond the snowy passes of the Himalayah, and likewise from the valley of Cashmere, whence Dr. Royle has received living bulbs of the "Saffron" of commerce, and roots of the true Saly Orchiis, or Miswi. The number of species collected amounts to nearly 4000; namely, of Dicoteledones 2791, Monocoteledones 783, Acoteledones - 279, total 3853.

The forests of India are, it is well known, upon an extensive scale; and little, comparatively speaking, has as yet been ascertained of the species of trees they contain. The indefatigable Dr. Wallich has, chiefly by his own industry, and the various missions in which he was employed in various parts of India, to Nepal and the Himalayah mountains, and in the Birmese territories, together with what are grown in the Calcutta Botanic Garden, collected no less than 456 different species of Indian wood, of which an account is given in the forty-eighth volume of the Transactions of the Society of Arts. Of these a large proportion are employed by the natives. Among them is the superb Butea frondosa (fig. 597.), from Guatelpea: two species of Careya, from Nepal; six species of Chestnut, one of Hornbeam, two Cedrelas, a genus nearly allied to mahogany; a Croton, five cubits in girth; two species of
Daphne, D. Gardneri and D. cannabinum, of which the wood, indeed, is not used, but the inner bark is, in Nepal, most extensively manufactured into paper, which possesses the advantages of being strong, not liable to crack, and which is free from the attacks of the white ant; Dipterocarps grandiflora, a stupendous tree, one of those which yields wood, oil, and dammar; five species of Spindle tree; numerous kinds of Fig, but whose wood is usually light and of comparatively little value; an Ash (Fraxinus floribunda), whose wood is exactly similar to the Ash of England; Gmelina arborea, used for tannery-ware of all kinds, and cylinders of which, of a proper size, are turned very thin for drums; other musical instruments are also made of it; Cordonia integrifolia, of which the Burnese have a superstition that one beam in every house should always consist of its wood; three Hibiscus, Hopea tinctoria, which grows to an enormous size, of which canons are made, and which produces a valuable resin or dammar; a Holly, a Walnut, "an exceedingly large tree;" a Juniper, from Himalaya; three species of the beautiful Lagerstroemia, several of Laurel, a Privet, which constitutes a "timber;" a Magnolia, two kinds of Mulberry, three of Nutmeg, whose wood is extensively used; a large Olive; five species of Pine, natives of Nepal, one of which, Pinus Deodarn, yields a fragrant wood; the very large Pine of Tawey (P. Dammara!); a tree-fern of Nepal forty-five feet high, poly podium giganteum; three species of Plum, four species of Pyrus, ten of Oak, of which the Quercus semecarpifolia becomes a very large tree, having a clean trunk eighty to one hundred feet in height, and fourteen to eighteen feet in the girth at five feet from the ground; a Buckthorn whose wood is very hard and heavy, not unlike English Yew; three Rhododendrons, among them the splendid K. arboreum, of which gun-stocks are made, and which resembles a Plum-tree; a Rubus (or Bramble), as thick as a stonemason's arm; three Willows, among them the Weeping Willow (Salix babylonica), which in Nepal attains an enormous size; Shorea robusta (fig. 598); Sual, or Sole, the staple timber of Hindostan for building purposes; vast quantities of dammar or resin are extracted from it, as well as from Dipterocarpus and Hopea, all of which belong to one family.

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* Butea Froom.: Shkena Robusta. Tectona Grandis.

the Dipterocarpeæ; a Yew; and, lastly, we shall only further mention the Teak (Tectona grandis) (fig. 598), of which ships are extensively built, and these are said to be quite equal to those built of oak; the trunk attains to an enormous size, and the leaves are a foot and a half or more long. Notwithstanding the abundance of valuable timber yielded by India, none is ever exported; and though there is a prodigious extent of forest, neither pot nor pear ashes have ever been manufactured.

Cotton (Gossypium herbaceum) (fig. 600.) is a native of the East Indies, and extensively cultivated; so that, in 1818, 67,450,411 lbs. were imported into Great Britain; but the quality is very inferior to that of other countries: the best of it in the London markets is worth 3d. per lb. less than the best West India cotton. It is half the value of Berbice cotton: that from Pernambuco, and the modern Egyptian cotton, are reckoned to be 90 per cent. better: and this inferiority, again, is attributed to the ignorance and prejudices of the Hindoos. It is indeed extraordinary, that, admirably as the East Indies are calculated for the growth and exportation of cotton, out of 197,544,850 lbs. the average import into Great Britain of the years 1827 and 1828, the United States furnished 151,834,000; Brazil, 17,754,890; Egypt, 6,957,500; the West Indies (English dependencies), 9,010,560; and the East Indies, 11,957,040.

Sugar, the produce of Saccharum officinarum, (fig. 601.) is equally a native of the East Indies, and is, in fact, more or less an object of agriculture in every considerable country of the vast regions comprehended under that name, from the eighth degree of south to the 30th degree of north latitude, and from Persia to China, both inclusive. Of all this wide extent, it is universally allowed that no portion is more suitable to its growth than the British possessions. To obtain sugar in abundance, and of the best quality, nothing more is requisite than to remove the idle and pernicious restraints on the settlement of Europeans. But, as
matters stand now, of 38,390,536 lbs. of sugar imported into Great Britain from the East Indies in 1826, no less than 20,859,440 lbs., or more than half of the whole amount, was the produce of the island of Mauritius. And this inequality is not owing to the difference of duty between Mauritius and the other East Indian sugars: this is not the cause that the trade in the one article is stationary, and in the other advancing with an extraordinary rapidity of increase. A new soil, as yet unexhausted by bad husbandry, the introduction of European machinery, and the superintendence of European resident proprietors, are the true causes.

Indigo, a staple article of the East Indies, one of the most valuable of its products, and one of the most profitable of cultivation in all Hindostan, is yielded by the Indigofera tinctoria (fig. 602.): and it is in that country so lucrative, because an immense extent of land is required to produce but a moderate bulk of the dye; because labour and land are cheaper here than anywhere else; and because the raising of the plant and its manufacture can be carried on even without the aid of a house. The first step in its cultivation is to render the ground, which should be friable and rich, perfectly free from weeds, and dry, if naturally moist. The seeds are then sown in narrow drills, about a foot apart. The rainy season must be chosen for sowing; otherwise, if the seed is deposited in dry soil, it heats, corrupts, and is lost. The crop, being kept free from weeds, is fit for cutting in about two or three months, and this may be repeated in rainy seasons every six weeks. The plants must not be allowed to come into flower; as the leaves, in that case, become dry and hard, and the indigo produced is of less value; nor must they be cut in dry weather, otherwise they will not spring again. A crop generally lasts two years. Being cut, the herb is first steeped in a vat, till it becomes macerated, and has parted with its colouring matter; then the liquor is let off into another, in which it undergoes the peculiar process of beating, to cause the cells to separate from the water. This fœcula is let off into a third vat, where it remains for some time, and is then strained through cloth bags, and evaporated in shallow wooden boxes, placed in the shade. Before it is perfectly dry, it is cut into small pieces of an inch square; and finally packed into boxes or sewn up in bags for sale. Indigo was not extensively cultivated in India before the British settlements were formed there; its profits were, at first, so considerable, that, as in similar cases, its culture was carried too far, and the market was overglutted with the commodity. The indigo is one of the most precocious of Oriental crops; being liable to be destroyed by hail-storms, which do comparatively little injury to the sugar-cane and other plants. European skill and capital have been, in India, especially applied to its management for nearly fifty years. What was manufactured by the natives of India, prior to that time, was trash, unfit for the European market, then almost wholly supplied by South America, which furnished England with about 1,200,000 lbs. weight. There are at present, in Bengal, 900 manufactories of indigo for exportation, of which thirty-seven only are conducted by natives, and these in imitation of the European process. The Indians, however, cannot even imitate Europeans to any advantage, with so many examples before them, and in full possession of all the land, to the complete exclusion of their competitors; for the indigo thus prepared is full 15 per cent. lower in value than that manufactured by Europeans; and as to indigo made by the old native process, it is still wholly unfit for the foreign market; and even when re-manufactured by Europeans, which is sometimes done, it is still, from the deterioration it has undergone in their hands, a very inferior commodity. The average yearly quantity of indigo produced for some time back in the British dominions in India, has ranged from 8,500,000, to 9,000,000 lbs. weight, and in value from 2,700,000l. to 3,300,000l. The produce of 1828, the greatest ever known, amounted to 12,000,000 lbs. Before Europeans undertook the culture and manufacture of Indian indigo, it was, as already stated, so bad as to be unsaleable in any foreign market. On an average, it is now about
twelve and a half per cent. better than South American indigo. In short, about four-fifths of the consumption of Europe, Asia, and America is now supplied with good Indian indigo; a commodity which, fifty years ago, had no existence.

Cajuput oil is obtained from an East India shrub, the Melaleuca Leucadendron, and, in a pure state, is considered one of the best preservatives of preparations for natural history. It is used externally, and with much success, as a cure for rheumatic affections and pains in the joints. In India, too, it has been employed in the almost hopeless task of curing the cholera morbus. When that disease first broke out in England, and indeed before it actually made its appearance, Cajuput oil was in such demand, that the price rose to a most extravagant height. But when its inefficiency was unfortunately proved, it was soon reduced to its ordinary standard.

Caoutchouc, or Indian Rubber, is the inspissated juice, not only of several species of Ficus, but of the Ureaca elastica of Dr. Roxburgh, or Elastic Gum Vine. To the same natural order with the latter belongs the Strychnos Nux Vomica (fig. 603) (the Poison nut or Vomica nut), whose seed is among the most powerful of all vegetable poisons; yet the pulp of the fruit appears to be innocuous, being eaten by birds, &c. Of the same genus is the Cleansing Nut (Strychnos potatorum). "The ripe seeds," says Dr. Roxburgh, "are dried and sold in every market to clear muddy water. The natives never drink clear well-water, if they can get pond or river water, which is always more or less impure, according to circumstances. One of the seeds or nuts, as they are generally called, is rubbed very hard, for a minute or two, round the inside of the vessel containing the water, which is generally an unglazed earthen one, and the water left to settle; in a very short time the impurities fall to the bottom, leaving the water clear, and, so far as I have been able to learn, perfectly wholesome."

To the Fig tribe belongs the famous Banyan of India, commonly called Peepul tree, and constantly planted about the Hindoo temples (Ficus religiosa) (fig. 604):—

These roots or props occupy such a space of ground, that one growing on the banks of the Nerbullah covers an almost incredible area. The circumference which now remains (for much has been swept away by the floods of the river) is nearly 2000 feet. The overhanging branches, which have not yet blown down their props or supports, overshadow a much larger space: 320 large trunks are counted of this singular tree, while the smaller ones exceed 3000; and each of them is continually sending forth branches and pendant roots, to form other trunks, and become the parents of a future progeny. The whole, according to Forbes's Oriental Memoirs, has been known to shelter 7000 men beneath its wide-spread shade.

No less gigantic, as a grass, than the Banyan as a tree, is the Bamboo (Arundo Bambos) (fig. 605.), whose jointed stems or culms not unfrequently exceed 100 feet in height, with a diameter of a foot near their base. It is of the most rapid growth, clothed, especially at the top, with copious dark green foliage, and literally constitutes forests. It is one of the most extensively useful of all plants, where lightness and durability are required. Houses are built of this cane, and Dr. Patrick Browne assures us that they have been known to endure upwards of 100 years. Besides masts for boats, boxes, cups, baskets, mats, palankeens, and carriages, and a great variety of other utensils and furniture, both domestic and rural, are made of it. Paper is prepared from it, by bruising and steeping in water, when it becomes a paste. It is the common fence for gardens and fields, and is frequently used for water-pipes.
Ginseng, (Panax Ginseng) (fig. 606.), which constitutes a valuable article of trade in China (though its medicinal properties are grossly exaggerated by that extraordinary people), and the root of a nearly allied species of which (P. quinquefolia) is sold by the Americans to the amount of nearly $200,000 per annum, might, there is every reason to believe, be collected to great advantage in Nepal; and this has been suggested by Dr. Wallich, who published the species, under the name of Panax tetraphylla, in his splendid work, Plantes Asiatico-Rurives.

Sandal wood (Santalum album) (fig. 607.), the produce of a well-known fragrant tree, is extensively collected in the western part of India, on the coast of Malabar. In some parts it sells at so high a price that the tree is seldom allowed to grow more than a foot in diameter. It is manufactured into musical instruments, small cabinets, boxes, escritoires, and similar articles; as no insect can exist, nor iron rust, as it is said, within its influence. From the dust of this wood the Brahmins make the pigment which they employ in giving the frontal mark to their god Vishnu; and oil used in their ceremonies is obtained from the shavings, or at least scented with them.

The Valeriana Jatamansi (fig. 608.) (Nardostachys Jatamansi of De Candolle) abounds in the hilly parts of Nepal, and is determined by Sir W. Jones to be the true Spikenard of the ancients, or Indian Nard of commerce, and has been employed as a valuable perfume from the remotest antiquity. It is carried across the desert to Aleppo, where it is used, in substances, mixed with perfume, and worn in small bags, or in the form of essence, and kept in little boxes or phials, like attar of roses.

Still lakes, pools, and tanks of water, in various parts of India, abound with many highly curious aquatic plants. Water-lilies of different hues are very common, and one is rendered famous in history, namely, the Cyamus Nelumbo (fig. 609.) or Sacred Bean of India, the Asparagus of the ancients, whose splendid flowers, of a full rose colour, are embellished in large peltate leaves of the tenderest green, and which, as well as the flower-stalk, rise considerably above the surface, not floating like the water-lilies of our country. Sola, too, is an aquatic plant, of which an interesting account is given by General Hardwicke, in the Botanical Miscellany. "It has very often interested me, and gratified my curiosity," says that gentleman, to remark how many useful purposes the Sola is applied by the natives of India. It is the Aschynomenec paludosa of Roxburgh. It grows abundantly on the marshy plains of Bengal, and on the borders of jheels, or extensive lakes, in every province between Calcutta and Hardwar. The plant is perennial, of straggling low growth, and seldom exceeds a diameter of two inches and a half in the stem. It is brought to the Calcutta bazaar in great quantities in a green state; and the thickest stems are cut into laminas, from which the natives form artificial flowers and various fancy ornaments to decorate their shrines at Hindu festivals. The Indians make hats of it, by cementing together as many layers as will produce the requisite thickness: in this way, any kind of shape may be formed; and when covered with silk or
cloth, the hats are strong, and inconceivably light. It is an article of great use to fishermen; it forms floats of the best description to their extensive nets. The slender stems of the plants are bundled into fascines about three feet long; and with one of these under his arms does every fisherman go out to his daily occupation. With his net on his shoulders, he proceeds to work without a boat, and stretches it in the deepest waters and most extensive lakes, supported by this buoyant flaget. I must not forget to give you the native name of the plant, which in Bengal is Shola, commonly pronounced Solo. Dr. Roxburgh considered the plant as annual, I believe. The foliage, and other parts of the plant, where water is wanting, die down to the roots; but where water is plentiful, the stems remain, and branch out fresh in the proper season."

Lastly, we shall mention, among the grandest features of Indian scenery, the Palms, those princes of the vegetable kingdom, which administer to so many of the wants and luxuries of the natives, and which are not confined to the hottest parts of the country; for one species, the Clamaterous Martiana of Wallich’s Planta Asiatica Rariore, was found by that famous botanist in the valley of Nepal, in lat. 28° N., and at an elevation of 5000 feet above the level of the sea. The south coast of India abounds with the Cocoa-nut (Cocos nucifera) (fig. 610.), of which the Hindoos celebrate 365 uses that they derive from it. Far superior to this, in the magnitude of its leaves, of which a single one will shelter twelve men, is the Palmira Palm (Borassus flabeliformis) (fig. 611.), which sometimes attains to 100 feet, while its trunk yields abundantly the Toddy or Palm wine. The Caryota urens, in the diameter of its stem, which is three feet; and the Betel nut (Areca Catechu), in the gracefulness of its trunk and foliage, also excel the cocoa-nut. The fruit of the latter is eaten with the pungent leaf of the Betel pepper already mentioned, whence arises its appellation of Betel-nut Palm. Dr. Roxburgh describes a dwarf palm, under the name of Phoenix farinifera, which yields a farinaceous substance in the heart of the stem or cabbage, similar to the Sago of the shops. This latter substance is the product, it would appear, of two plants, the Sagus farinifera (fig. 612.), a native of the peninsula of India, and the Cycas revoluta, a Chinese and Japanese plant.

Himalayah, and the southern boundary of Thibet.*—The chain of the Himalayah mountains, an immense barrier which divides the population, the animals, the vegetation, and the climate of the East Indies and Southern Asia, begins, easterly, not far from the river Brahmaputra, about lat. 28°, and extends in a north-west direction as far as the Indus, lat. 35°. In the south it rises abruptly from the plains of Nepal; to the north, it is nearly on a level with the high ground of Thibet. The highest known mountains belong to this chain; they

* Extracted from the Géographie Botanique of M. Mirbel, in the 14th volume of the Mémoires du Museum d’Histoire Naturelle.
are situated between the 28th and 32d parallels. Mr. Colebrooke has deduced the following elevations from the observations of Captain Blake;viz., the Peak of Chandragiri, 21,935 feet; that of Swatagar, 25,261 feet; that of Dhaivalagiri, 28,015 feet; this latter peak exceeding Chimborazo by 6000 feet. Fraser estimates the height at which the snow becomes perpetual on the Himalayas ranges at from 14,000 to 18,000 feet; an elevation which is surprising at a distance of from five to nine degrees from the tropics, which may be explained by the peculiar conformation of this Asiatic region. While large sheltering chains of mountains, running almost parallel to the equator, and rising like steps, one above another, from the north of Siberia to Nepal, break and arrest the currents of cold air which descend from the hyperborean country; on the other hand, the warm breezes from the vast plains of Hindostan sweep gently upward on the easy slopes of the Himalayas ranges, and reach the higher regions without intermixtue or contact with the northern atmosphere; thus causing the Himalayan range to partake of the equatorial zone, in the character of its climate and vegetation.

The lower plains of Nepal and Boutan differ little from Hindostan in their vegetation. Warmth and constant moisture keep up a semipeternal verdure; the cultivated spots produce, at the same time, the Mango, the Orange, the Pomegranate, the Peach, the Apple and Pear, the Walnut-tree, the Banana, the Bamboo, &c. The Erythrina monoasperma and Bombax heptaplyium are the most common trees in uncultivated spots. The forests of the lower ridges of the Himalayas ranges are composed particularly of Shorea robusta, mixed with Dalbergia, Cedrela, &c. At an elevation of from 2000 to 2500 feet, the Pinus longifolia and Minosa Catechu grow. At this height, in about 27° 17' N. lat., Hamilton computes the mean annual temperature at +23° 3'. In proportion as the ground rises, the species of plants that belong to the plains of Hindostan become rare, and those which are peculiar to the mountains usurp their places. The vegetation imperceptibly assumes the generic character of the productions of the north, while it still presents a number of specific types that are foreign to Britain. The Pine Apple, Sugar Cane, Bamboo, and Rice are still cultivated in the valleys, at an elevation of from 3200 to 4400 feet: but beyond 6300 feet nothing but barley, wheat, millet, and the other grain of northern zones, will succeed. The common trees are species of Michelia, Gordonia, Fir and Pine trees, Podocarpus, Chestnut, Oak, Walnut, Laurel, Ilex, &c.

There is never either frost or snow in Boutan, except on the high mountains; but at Katmandu (lat. 27° 41'), the capital of Nepal, at an elevation of about 4000 feet, it snows every winter. In that part of the Himalayas range which looks towards Hindostan, and on the southern frontier of Thibet, Fir, Spruce, Juniper, Salix tetrasperma, Birch, &c. attain a great height, when not arrested by the sterility of the soil, the precipitous ledges, and the avalanche of snow. At from 12,000 to 13,000 feet, upon those peaks which shelter the masses of perpetual snow from which the sources of the Ganges take their rise, Captain Hodgson remarked a tree of the family of the Coniferae, the branches of which, as thick as a man's leg, swept the ground. This tree, which he conceives to be a Pine, and which the Hindoos call Chandan, is perhaps the Abies dumosa of Don, which in that country holds the place which Pinus Pumila does on the higher parts of the British mountains. Hodgson found the Chandan in lat. 31° to 33°, on the peak of Chour, and on the snowy mountains of Kounavur, which arise from Thibet. In this region, at a pass about 15,000 feet high, A. and P. Gerard observed, on the 24 of October, under a tent, the thermometer indicating, at noon, +10°; at 4 o'clock it was zero, and the following morning at sunrise the temperature was 8° 3'. This cannot be considered cold, if we take into consideration the season, the height, and the latitude. The vine, in a favourable exposure, produces delicious grapes at an elevation of from 8000 to 12,000 feet English. It must be observed that this is owing to the immediate efficacy of the solar radiation, which is more powerful as the intervening stratum of air is less thick and more rarefied. The last villages, the last cultivated fields, are at 13,000 feet: and this is the usual limit of the large Pine forests. At this elevation it is almost needless to say that the harvest pays very inadequately for the labour of cultivation: it consists of some of the Cerealia, Beet root, Millet, &c. A thousand feet higher up, some clumps of Fir, Birch, Gooseberry bushes, Rhododendron, Vaccinium, &c. may yet be seen. Then come the small woody or herbaceous flowering plants that are peculiar to the arctic regions, and the Mosses and Lichens attain to the borders of perpetual snow. The last expiring efforts of vegetation here are scarcely different from what is presented by the summits of the Andes, of Caucasus, the Carpathian and Swiss Alps, the Pyrenees, &c., nor from the productions of the extreme northern regions, and the antarctic districts which are divided from Patagonia by the Straits of Magellan. The larger natural floras, however decidedly pronounced their distinguishing characters may be, when, under the influence of a favourable climate, they display all their richness and variety of form, are insensibly reduced, by the effect of a gradual diminution of annual temperature, to a small number of families and of genera, whose specific types are, everywhere, if not the same, yet so much alike, that botanists themselves are often tempted to confound them.

The aspect of the southern boundary of Thibet is wild and melancholy. High plains, Vol. II. 29 2S
bounded on all sides by chains of mountains, surmounted by enormous peaks that are covered with perpetual snow, often present the traveller with nothing but those saline incrustations and metallic substances which induce an almost absolute sterility. No large vegetable productions can be seen, only a few herbs and shrubs, whose stunted growth denotes the congenital nature of the soil. In some districts the land is rather better, and is either covered with spontaneous forests and verdure, or brought into cultivation by the hands of man. The winters are long and severe; for three whole months, the inhabitants are immured in their villages by the heavy snows; and the summers are scorching, the sides of the mountains reflecting back the sun’s rays with extreme force. In valleys that are about 9300 feet high, such as those which intersect the Himalaya chain and the Mount of Cailas to the west, Rice, Wheat, Barley, Mulberries, and Opium Foppies are cultivated. There are also some extensive vineyards, rivaling, in the excellence, size, and flavour of their produce, the grapes of Cabulistan. Apricots, Walnuts, and Apple trees grow in the forests.

There are certainly some remarkable discrepancies between the climate of the eastern and western parts of Thibet. The former, of less elevation, and nearer the tropics, lies, like the equatorial zone, its periods of rain and drought; and it is probable that the winter temperature is generally lower there than in Kousawur, though the cold be very severe.

The Alps of Thibet, like those of Nepal and Bouatan, produce Spruce, Fir, Juniper, Oak, Hazel, Alder, Willow, Birch, Elder, Horsechestnut, Ash, Ilex, Gooseberry, Raspberry, Rhododendron, Vaccinium, &c.

Himalayah and Thibet bring us to the western frontier of China, where we meet with the Transition Zone. But what positive information can be given us to the vegetation of a country, which the unalterable manners, and, as it were, the very instinct, of its inhabitants sent out from the rest of the world, even more completely than could be effected by trackless seas, howling deserts, or mountains of greater elevation and asperity than the Alps of the Himalayah?

SUBJECT. 3.—Zoology.

The native zoology presents a vast field for observation; and although many parts have been explored by Europeans, there still remain entire provinces which have never yet been visited by the naturalist. Pennant brought together all the information which was known in his time; but the revolutions in nomenclature, which more enlarged views of natural science have since occasioned, and the important discoveries since made, have now rendered the “Indian Zoology” of little service to the modern naturalist. It is not a bare list of animals, with their scientific names, that is now wanted, but rather information on the geographic range and the natural economy of each, viewed in reference to the peculiarities of the countries they respectively inhabit. The publication of the voluminous materials, collected by General Hardwicke, during a long residence in British India, will materially illustrate these questions. In the mean time, the following brief notices on the chief peculiarities of Indian zoology, will not be uninteresting to the general reader, as tending to illustrate our previous remarks on the distribution of Asiatic animals in general.

The Quadrupeds which appear to characterise more particularly the regions of continental India are the following. They are arranged under those divisions of the peninsula where naturalists inform us they are chiefly found:

1. Nilgiriad generally.
   - Mus giganteus. Gigantir rat.
   - Cervus radiatus. Radiated Monkey.
   - Papio apella. Thimbleful Baboon.
   - Pteropus. Black Pigeon.
   - Rhinoceros Indicus. Indian Rhinoceros.
   - Pteropus johntis. Bottled Rat.
   - Ursus ursus. Malay Bear.
   - Ursus ursus. Thick-tipped Bear.
   - Murea Musum. Indian Elephant.
   - Pteropus africana. White-faced P.
   - Lox amethist. Purple Antelope.
   - Vela Tigris. Royal Tiger.
   - Vela nativa. Rhinoceros Huting Lionard.
   - Cervus porcinus. Brown stag.

2. Bengal.
   - Rhinocerus unicornis. The Murluck.
   - Nictidelle henographus. Shaw Lion.
   - Nictidelle leucophaeus. Bengal Rat.
   - Pteropus javanensis. Bottled Rat.
   - Pteropus javanensis. Bottled Rat.
   - Vivera piroxilla. Prehensile Vivera.
   - Murea mureus. Short-tailed Muren.
   - Cervus nipponicus. Great Rabbit.

3. Forests.
   - Pteropus leucophaeus. Flayed Rat.
   - Lox amethist. Purple Antelope.
   - Vivera typica. Common Vivera.
   - Murea mureus. Bottled Muren.
   - Pteropus javanensis. Bottled Rat.

From the foregoing list, it would appear that the carnivorous quadrupeds, in regard to the number of species, are very small; and that this fact tends to invalidate the position, previously advanced, that the chief peculiarity of Asiatic India, when compared with America, appears to be the abundance of its ferocious quadrupeds. It must, however, be remembered, that numerical quantities must be taken into the account; for it is quite inmaterial to the question, whether that abundance is occasioned by number or by species. To illustrate this further, we may state, that during two years and a half spent in traversing the forests of Brazil, with the sole view of investigating its productions, we never once saw, or procured, a ferocious animal: so thinly do they appear scattered in that empire, or, at least, over such provinces as we visited. Now, the Tigers of India are well known to be so numerous, that it is impossible to enter the woods or jungles without seeing the print of their feet, or incurring
the danger of their attack. Even the common people employed in agriculture are frequently alarmed by their appearance, and fall a prey to their ferocity, close to human habitations; neither can the abundance of these terrific animals be traced to a thinness of population, in respect to which the interior of Brazil is much more deficient. If the accounts of Oriental travellers are to be relied upon, the proportion of population between the two regions may be no greater than one to five. The "next neighbour" to a Brazilian of the interior frequently resides at a distance of thirty miles, and often of a two days' journey, particularly in the central province of Matto Grosso, or the "Great Wood."

A brief notice of the following quadrupeds will be interesting or instructive:—the Rhinoceros, the Tiger, the Ichneumon, and the Antelope.

The Indian one-horned Rhinoceros of the continent (fig. 613.) is distinct from that of the islands. Thicker and more unwieldy for his size than the Elephant, he exhibits in confinement much of the singular sagacity observed in that gigantic animal. A young one described by M. Cuvier, and which was lately alive in Paris, evinced many such habits. He smelt at every thing, and seemed to prefer sweet fruits, and even sugar itself, to any other food. Like the elephant he collected and held every thing intended for his mouth with the moveable upper lip; and when he ate hay, he formed it first into little bundles, which he placed between his teeth by means of his tongue. The nature of its hide has been much exaggerated by old writers. The whole body is covered with a very thick tuberculous grayish skin, nearly naked, and disposed in irregular folds, under which it was flesh-coloured: over this, particularly on the tail and ears, were scattered a few stiff thick hairs. But it is in a wild state only that the belligerent powers of this creature can be fully estimated: and these are frequently displayed in a surprising degree. A few years ago, as Major Smith relates, a hunting party of Europeans, with their native attendants and elephants, met with a herd of seven; apparently led by one, much larger and stronger than the rest. This boldly charged the hunters. The leading elephants, instead of using their tusks as weapons, suddenly wheeled round, and received the thrust of the Rhinoceros's horn on the posteriors: the blow brought them and their riders to the ground. No sooner had they risen than it was repeated, and in this manner did the contest continue, until four of the seven were shot, when the rest retreated. This anecdote shows the tremendous power of the Rhinoceros, sufficient to overcome the active ferocity of the Lion and the ponderous strength of the elephant; but this is only exerted in self-defence. The Rhinoceros derives all his food from the vegetable kingdom, and is quiet and peaceful if left to himself.

The Bengal or Royal Tiger (fig. 614.) is the scourge of Asia and the Indian islands. Equal in size to the Lion, though generally inferior in strength, it wants not courage or ferocity to attack the king of beasts; a temerity which generally proves fatal. Ferocity cannot be more horridly developed than in the Tiger: it may, indeed, be termed a sanguivorous animal, for it will suck the blood of its victim previously to eating it, and will seize on any other that may come in sight; treating it in the same way. Its horrid avidity is such, that, while so engaged, it will almost bury its head and face in the reeking carcase of its prey. According to Marsden, the tigers in Sumatra are so abundant, that whole villages are sometimes depopulated by them. Yet, from a superstitious prejudice, it is with difficulty the natives are prevailed upon, even by large rewards, to use means for their destruction, until revenge for some loss in their own family bursts the shackles of fanaticism under which they habitually sink.

The Indian Ichneumon has some resemblance to the weasel, and is called by the natives Mongoose. Its total length, with the tail, is about two feet. It feeds entirely upon small animals, particularly birds, and, for its size, appears as voracious as the tiger. Although capable of being tamed, and even taking pleasure in the caresses of its master, it becomes extremely ferocious at sight of those little animals which constitute its prey. If within reach of a bird, it will spring forward with a rapidity which the eye cannot follow, seize its victim, break its head, and then devour it with the utmost voracity. This animal lives in holes, or in burrows, near habitations.
The four-horned Antelopes (fig. 615.) (for there are probably two species) are peculiar to India. That which is named Chickara inhabits the forests and hilly tracts along the western provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa. It is a delicate-shaped, wild, and agile little creature, measuring about twenty inches and a half high from the shoulders. Its general colour is bright bay above, and whitish beneath. The form of the horns is simple; the largest pair being three inches long, and the others only three quarters of an inch.

The Birds, as we before observed, are numerous; but, however interesting to the scientific naturalist, there are few which demand, in this place, a particular description. The Peacock is the glory of Indian ornithology. The Jungle Cock (fig. 616.) is spread over the whole of this peninsula, but is replaced, in the islands, by other species: it is perhaps more beautiful than that domesticated in Europe. The Oriental Pigeon vie with the Parrots in the brilliancy, yet softness, of their tints. There are no less than twenty-one species described as inhabiting the continents of India, and eleven more are peculiar to China, Molucca, and the islands. It is singular that this family, in point of species, is distributed in the two hemispheres in nearly equal proportions; twenty-four being described as American, and thirty-one as Asiatic: most of the latter have the ground colour of their plumage bright green, and principally belong to the genus Ptilonopus Sexain. The gigantic Cranes have already been noticed, as well as the groups of such smaller birds as are sufficient to indicate the nature of the whole.

The Peacock appears to have been introduced into Greece about the time of Alexander. It is without doubt the most superb bird in creation, although a familiar acquaintance with its form takes something from that admiration which it would otherwise excite. It is said to occur in the greatest profusion over the extensive plains of India, where it grows to a much larger size than with us. It appears, nevertheless, to be a shy bird; and domesticated individuals are sometimes of a pure white colour. It has been asserted, that the natives have the following very curious mode of catching these birds. A kind of banner is prepared, lighted by candles, and ornamented with painted figures of Peacocks. This is carried, during the night, and held up to such trees as are known to be their roosting-places. The birds, dazzled by the light, and deceived by the figures, repeatedly stretch out their necks, till they become entangled in a noose, fixed on the banner: the fowler then draws the cord, and secures his game.

The domesticated animals may be briefly enumerated. The Asiatic Elephant, long confounded with that of Africa, may be at once recognised by its much smaller ears. Its services appear universal, and it is as essential to the Indian sportsman as a good horse is to an English fox-hunter. Domestication has so far counteracted the instinct of nature, that tame elephants are employed to catch and decoy their wild brethren. The Oxen are all of the humped breed; and the Buffalo is chiefly employed in agriculture. The Asiatic Sheep, in general, observes Major Smith, are partly of the same broad-tailed races as are found in Africa. There is, however, another breed in India, rather high on the legs, with moderate curved horns, and a collar of hair reaching to the shoulders; the tail is more hairy than the body, and reaches below the houghes: this variety is also found in China.

SECT. III.—Historical Geography.

The name of India has always been celebrated in the Western world, not only as a region abounding in rich products, but as an early seat and fountain of civilisation and philosophy. Whatever literary talent or application, however, the Hindoos might possess, none of it was turned to history; of which only some faint traces appear, amid the most extravagant fables. The first authentic notice is afforded by the invasion of Alexander; but that event, so celebrated in Greek history, was a mere partial inroad, producing no lasting effects. Yet the narratives of this expedition are precious, in so far as they show that the Hindoos were then precisely the same people as now; divided into castes, addicted to ascetic superstition, religious suicide, and abstruse philosophy. It does not appear that India was then the seat of any extensive empire; but it was divided among a number of smaller states. The expedition of Seleucus and the embassy of Megasthenes brought to light the existence of a great empire, of which the capital was Palibothra, on the Ganges; but the histories neither of the East nor of the West convey any details of the dynasty which reigned in that mighty metropolis. The interposition of the hostile monarchy of the Parthians cut off all communication between Rome and India, though one embassy from the latter country is said to have reached the court of Augustus.
The Mahometan conquest by the Gazynevide dynasty formed the era at which a regular series of authentic history commences for India. The bold and rough population who inhabit the mountains of Afghanistan enabled Mahmoud the Great to unite all the west of India, with Khorasan and great part of Tartary, into one empire. His dynasty, indeed, was subdued by that of Ghori, which was followed by the long series of the Panen emperors. In 1398 they were vanquished by Timour; but it was more than a century afterwards that Baber founded the Mogul empire, which, extended under Akbar and Aurengzebe, displayed a power and splendour scarcely equalled by any monarchy even of Asia. Along with Afghanistan, it included nearly the whole of Hindostan, except some obscure corners and mountain districts; and even all these, more or less, owned its supremacy. The sway of Aurengzebe extended probably over 80,000,000 souls, while his treasure was estimated at 32,000,000l.; a sum equal in value to nearly triple the same amount in this quarter of the world.

The empire of Aurengzebe was soon undermined by disputed succession and effeminate habits among his descendants; it was shaken by the rise of the Mahratta power, and in 1734 it was overthrown by the successful invasion of Nadir Shah. Nadir carried off all the treasures of Delhi, estimated by the lowest computation at 70,000,000l. sterling. Yet he returned to Persia, leaving to the Mogul all the territory east of the Indus; but from that moment the Mogul empire remained the mere shadow of a mighty name. All the tribes which, during its day of power, had taken refuge in the mountains, now descended to dispute its finest provinces; even private adventurers raised themselves into sovereigns. Among these tribes were pre-eminent the Mahrattas, who, from the Vindhyas mountains, and the head of the western Ghauts, had already over-run the north of the Deccan, and now penetrated to the imperial provinces of Delhi and Agra; while, in the south, Hyder Ali erected the powerful kingdom of Mysore. A shadow of the Mogul name was preserved only by the policy of rival chiefs, endeavouring each to draw round himself the reverence which that name still commanded. A new power appeared in the field. Ahmed Shah, who had raised himself to the throne of Cabul, entered India, and completely defeated the Mahrattas in the great battle of Paniput. But while these chiefs contended thus fiercely for empire, a new power was rising, beneath which they were all destined to bend.

The European powers, in exploring through many dangers the passage by the Cape of Good Hope, had made it their first object to gain access to the splendid commerce of which India had always been the theatre. To carry it on with security, and protect themselves against the violence and extortion of the native powers, fortified factories were perhaps indispensable. This step, once made, soon led to further acquisitions. The Portuguese, under Albuquerque, began a career of conquest, and founded, at Goa, a species of kingdom, which, however, fell soon into decay. The other nations long confined themselves to commercial pursuits. The vast commerce of England was protected, in Bengal by Fort William, in the Carnatic by Fort George, and in the West by Bombay, on the Island of Salsette; while the French fixed the chief seat of their power at Pondicherry. The triumphant war of 1756 gave to England a decided pre-eminence in India over the other European powers. About the same time she began to acquire territorial possessions in Hindostan. Her first enterprises were on the side of the Carnatic; but there she was long held in check by the vigour and power of Hyder Ali. In Bengal her military career opened under the darkest auspices. Surajah Dowlah, the soubah, invested Fort William with a large army, and, having forced it to surrender, threw the small garrison into that horrid dungeon, named the Black Hole of Calcutta, where the greater part of them perished. Soon after, however, Lord Clive arrived with a reinforcement, and, having taken the field, proved, in the battle of Plassey, how superior a small body of English were to the undisciplined numbers of the East. The soubah was deposed, put to death, and succeeded by his general, Meer Jaffier, who was destined to rule altogether as the vassal of the English East India Company. Not being found sufficiently compliant with the tenure, he was superseded, as were others in succession, until 1765, when the Company assumed to itself, under a nominal reference to the Mogul, the entire sovereignty of Bengal, Oude, and Orissa. At the same time the victories gained over the Nabob of Oude extended the virtual dominion of Britain nearly to the Jumna. Meantime the Carnatic was a scene of the most bloody and obstinate struggles, especially with Hyder, by whom the British dominion was repeatedly brought to the brink of destruction. Being threatened, however, by the Mahrattas, and vigorously pressed by Sir Eyre Coote, that chiefman at length entered into a treaty of peace. His son, Tippoo, though brave, did not inherit the policy or experience of his father; and, after two obstinate wars, his career was terminated in 1799: Seringapatam was taken, himself killed, his kingdom appropriated by Britain in full sovereignty, or divided among her vassals. Such vast acquisitions, however, placed that country in open rivalry with the Mahrattas, whose power, now completely pre-eminent above that of the Mogul, extended over all the central provinces. In 1803, while the Marquess Wellesley was governor-general, this rivalry broke out into open war. The bold and comprehensive plan of the campaign formed by that statesman, seconded by the military talents of Lake and Sir Arthur Wellesley, who, on the field of Assaye, com-
spicieously displayed those talents which afterwards made him the first captain of the age, completely broke the power of that formidable confederacy. The Peishwa, its nominal head, was indeed replaced in his supremacy over the military chiefs who had assumed independent power; but an auxiliary force stationed at Poonah, his capital, ensured the administration of every thing according to the mandate of the council at Calcutta. The British, after making a pecuniary provision for the last representative of the Mogul dynasty, took into their immediate sovereignty Agra and Delhi, the once proud capitals of India; and there remained only in the northern and western extremities a few states who were not their subjects, allies, or tributaries. In 1817, a new war was undertaken for the reduction of the Pindarees, a rude lawless tribe, harboured in the recesses of the Vindhya mountains. Though attempting only a flying and predatory warfare, they spread so wide, and caused such desolation, that the Marquess of Hastings conceived their suppression to be indispensable for the tranquillity of India. The opening of the campaign, however, gave occasion for the great Mahatta chief Holkar, the Peishwa, and the Rajah of Bevar, to shake off the yoke, on which the contest assumed a very formidable character. The Peishwa was at length vanquished, and obliged to retire upon an annual stipend of 100,000; while the other two chiefs were reduced to a state of entire vassalage, and the British sway over Hindostan was more firmly established than at any former period. It was still further extended by an unsuccessful attempt at resistance made by the Rajah of Nepal. That prince, however, though humbled, retained his independence; and his territories, with those of the Seiks, in the west, are at present the only parts of India not placed completely under the control of the British.

Sect. IV.—Political Geography.

India has, for many successive ages, been the theatre of absolute empire, exercised by foreign military potentates. It presents, however, many peculiarities distinguishing it from a mere ordinary despotism. The basis of its population still consists of that remarkable native race who, during a subjection for thousands of years, have retained, quite unaltered, all the features of their original character. They preserve in full force that earliest form, a village constitution, their attachment to which seems only to have been rendered stronger by the absence of every other political right and distinction. The village, considered as a political association, includes all the surrounding territory from which the inhabitants draw their subsistence. Not only the public services, but all trades, with the exception of the simple one of cultivating the ground, are performed by individuals who hold them usually by hereditary succession, and who are paid with a certain portion of the land, and by fixed presents. The principal of these are the potai, or head man of the village; the police officers, with servants under them; an officer whose business it is to understand all local rights and boundaries, and to be the arbiter of disputes respecting land; the superintendent of watercourses; the brahmin; the astrologer; the village registrar; the smith, carpenter, poet, musician, dancing girl. So deep is the principle of this association, and so strong the feeling of the rights connected with it, that it has remained unaffected by all the storms of revolution which have passed over India. Even after the inhabitants of a village have been obliged to flee before the devastation of a successful invading army, they have never failed, on the return of peace, to seek their native spot, and have been allowed, without controversy, to resume their occupancy.

"Infant potails," according to Sir John Malcolm, "the second and third in descent from the emigration, have in many cases been carried at the head of these parties. When they reached their villages, every wall of a house, every field, were taken possession of by the owner or cultivator, without dispute or litigation among themselves or government; and in a few days every thing was in progress, as if it had never been disturbed." Such is the strength of this principle of union, that a wise ruler, even the most arbitrary, in levying a revenue or demanding services of any kind, has found it the most expedient method to apply to the heads of the village, and delegate to them the task of collection and apportionment. In rural or hilly districts, the collection of the revenue was confided to a class of officers called zamindars, who acquiring by degrees an hereditary tenure, and being merely obliged to pay a certain fixed rent cause to be viewed as proprie-

The classes now enumerated belong all to the Hindoo population, and, so long as they are permitted to move unmolested in this circle, they quietly behold all the high places occupied by any people, however strange or foreign, with whom rests the power of the sword. They have no idea of political rights or privileges, of a country or nation of their own, and in whose glory and prosperity they are interested; they never converse on such subjects, and can scarcely be made to comprehend what they mean. Their only political bond is to a chief who possesses popular qualities, and attaches them by pay and promotion: to him
they often manifest signal fidelity, but are strangers to every other public feeling. Despotism is not only established by long precedent, but is rooted in the very habits and minds of the community. Such habits naturally predispose the people of a fertile region, bordered by poor and warlike tribes, to fall into a state of regular and constant submission to a foreign yoke.

The power, as we have seen, which for many centuries ruled over Hindostan, was Mahometan. The votaries of Islam, as usual, entered India sword in hand, announcing proscription and desolation against all who should profess a faith opposite to their own; but while by these unlawful instruments they had converted the whole west and centre of Asia, in India their religion never made the slightest impression. The Hindoos opposed to it a quiet and passive, but unmoveable resistance. The conquerors, finding in them such a fixed determination upon this point, while on every other they were the most submissive and peaceable subjects, allowed their own bigotry to be disarmed. With the exception of Aurangzebe and Tippoo, they have long left the votaries of Brahma in the unmolested possession of their faith, and of the various observances with which it is connected. The Mahometans have been reckoned at nearly 10,000,000, or about a tenth of the population of Hindostan; but in this number we suspect that those of the kingdom of Cabul have been included, and that it is only in the provinces on the western frontier that they enter largely into the mass of population. They do not appear to have employed themselves as cultivators, or in the fabrics of the country. They consisted almost solely of the troops maintained by the Great Mogul, and officers employed by him, who, with their families and posterity, swelled gradually into a numerous corps.

The residence of the Mogul was rather a great moving camp, than a fixed metropolitan city. Delhi, Agra, or any other places, which his abode caused to rank with the most splendid cities of the East, when deserted by his army and train, sunk into towns of secondary magnitude. The great lords who were once his courtiers, counsellors, and the commanders of the troops, were called omrahs, of whom there were four principal. They were supported, not by pay, but by certain portions of land assigned to them, of which they drew the revenues. The provinces were governed also in a military manner by vouchsafes, who, like other despotic viceroyes, exercised within their own limits all the authority of the Mogul. In many cases, they came gradually to regard these territories as belonging to them by a sort of hereditary right; and, on the breaking up of the empire, openly erected themselves into independent rulers. The family of Hyder was Mahometan. That dynasty, however, and almost all the others, have been crushed, by the power either of Britain or by the Mahrattas; and there is now scarcely any other sway in India. The Mahometans have become a subject race.

In contemplating Hindostan, as it now exists, the power of Britain appears entirely predominant. This absolute sway of an island comparatively so small, over an empire of 100,000,000 inhabitants, situated nearly at its antipodes, and accessible only by so vast a circuit of ocean, presents one of the most remarkable phenomena in the history of the world. Yet the subjection is complete, and almost universally peaceable; and the pressages of its short continuance, which some entertain, are perhaps chimerical. We have already observed that profoundly passive disposition which prevails among the great body of the nation, so long as no violence is done to their faith, and their ordinary habits are not interfered with. The number of Europeans by whom such vast dominions are held in subject in very little exceeds 30,000. But this number is multiplied by that peculiarity in the character of the Hindoo, which makes it easy to train him into an instrument for holding his own country in subjection. He has scarcely the idea of a country to fight for. "The Asiatic," says Mr. Fraser, "fights for pay and plunder; and whose bread he eats, his cause he will defend against friends, country, and family." Accordingly, the sepoys (Indian troops commanded by British officers, and trained after the European manner) are found nearly as efficient as troops entirely British; and, so long as nothing is done to shock their religion and prejudices, they are equally faithful. Their number amounts to 181,517 men. The purely European troops maintained by the Company do not exceed 5000, but a large body of the king's troops are always employed in India; these at present are about 20,000. The Company doubles the pay of all the king's troops employed within their territories. These forces are variously distributed throughout India; for, besides defending and holding in subjection the territories immediately under British sway, bodies of them are stationed at the capitals of the subsidiary princes, at once to secure and overawe them. The degree of vassalage in which the different states of India are held somewhat varies. The Nizam, or souabh of the Deccan, the king of Oude, the rajas of Nagpoor, Mysore, Satara, Travancore, and Cochín, with the representative of the house of Holkar, though they exercise, not without some interference, their internal administration, are entirely under the control of Britain. The Gwickwar in Guzerat, and the numerous petty Rajpoot principalities, are rather friendly allies under her protection. Scindia is still nominally quite independent; but his territories are so enclosed by those of the Company, that, in case of any general movement, he can scarcely act, unless under the dictation of the Company.
The government of British India is vested in the Court of Directors of the East India Company, under the control of a Board of Commissioners, consisting of several of the chief ministers of the crown, and commonly called the Board of Control. The country is divided into the three Presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay.* The president of Bengal is styled the Governor-General of India. The Governor-General in Council is empowered to legislate for India, under certain limitations, and subject to the revision of the Board of Control and the Court of Directors. The council consists of four members, beside the governor, appointed by the directors with the royal sanction. The business of the executive is divided among five boards: viz., of revenue; of customs, salt, and opium; of trade; of military affairs; and of medical affairs. The other Presidents in Council possess the same authority within their respective governments, but subject in all matters of general policy to the Governor-General, who has the power of declaring war, making peace, and concluding treaties, and, as captain general, may head the military operations in any part of the country, and who may suspend the governors of the other presidencies, and sit as president in their councils.

The British ecclesiastical establishment in India consists of the three bishops of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, with seventy-six chaplains. — Am. Eqn.

Amid the general conquest and subjugation of India by Britain, the western provinces alone have never as yet come even into hostile collision with that power. The state with which it is in most immediate contact is that of the Seiks, or Sikhs. This remarkable people began their career as a religious sect, adopting a sort of combination of the Hindoo and Mahometan creeds. Their habits were originally mild, abstracted, and almost philosophic; but persecution, and the treacherous and cruel death inflicted on two of their chiefs, roused their fury, and converted them into a race of savage and desperate warriors. While the Mogul power, however, continued in its vigour, they could only avenge their wrongs by hasty and stolen ravages; after which they sought the recesses of the northern mountains. On the dissolution of the great empire, they showed themselves capable of resisting any of the native armies, and were only kept in check by the hardy troops of the king of Cabul. They possess nearly the whole territory of Lahore, or the Punjab, watered by the upper course of the five great rivers which convey to the Indus the waters of the Himalayas; they also possess the northern part of Delhi, as far as the Jumna. Their government forms a species of theocracy, under a body of chiefs uniting the heterogeneous characters of priests, warriors, and statesmen. Of these a grand national council is held at Amritsar, the sacred city of the Seiks, in which, after a number of peculiar religious ceremonies, the national affairs are taken into consideration, and a plan of operations suited to the emergency is formed. Disunion has prevailed among these chiefs, but they are now united under the almost absolute sway of Runjeet Sing, who has also conquered Cusheere and a great part of the kingdom of Cabul, including Peshawer, lately its capital. He has fixed his residence at Lahore, and maintains an army of eighty regiments of infantry equipped in the European manner, and disciplined by French officers, though they are led into the field by the hereditary chiefs or khans. The artillery and cavalry are also respectable, and he is supposed to have accumulated a large treasure.

Moultan, composing the lower course of the five rivers, with all the territories along the Indus, including Sinde, its delta, is governed by chiefs formerly tributary to the king of Cabul; but at present subject to Runjeet Sing. This region is separated from Guzerat, and the other fine provinces of central Hindostan, by a vast tract of desert. Yielding, however, some coarse grain and pasture, it supports a certain population, and is occupied by a number of rude chieftains, or petty princes, called Rajpoors, who paid even to Aurungzebe only a slight form of submission. At present they are engaged in almost perpetual contests with each other; but no foreign power seems to interfere with them in the possession of these dreary wastes.

The following estimate has been made, in a recent parliamentary paper, of the extent and population of the territories under the immediate administration of the Company:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presidency</th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>290,312</td>
<td>60,710,071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>141,923</td>
<td>13,507,533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>59,426</td>
<td>6,221,146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>421,673</strong></td>
<td><strong>90,470,150</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are, besides, 85,700 square miles in Bengal, and 5550 in Bombay, the population of which has not been ascertained; but, as they consist of rude districts situated on the Upper Nerbuddah and in the Concean, their population is probably not extensive; and British India will not much exceed 90,000,000. Mr. Hamilton has formed, apparently with

* By the act of 1833, provision was made for the erection of a new presidency at Agra; but by an act of 1835 the Directors were empowered to suspend the execution of this provision.*
some care, an estimate of the population of the subject and independent states. The following come under the first head:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Nizam</td>
<td>90,000</td>
<td>10,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The King of Oude</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Rajah of Negropur</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Maharajah of Mysore</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of Sattara</td>
<td>14,000</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Gwichkwar</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>9,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travancore and Cochin</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajput and various minor principalities</td>
<td>285,000</td>
<td>10,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>40,000,000</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To this list must be added the island of Ceylon, which is a royal colony, and contains, on 24,660 square miles, nearly 1,000,000 inhabitants; making the grand total of British India above 1,000,000 square miles, with a population of 131,000,000 souls.

The states that still remain independent of Britain are thus estimated:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scindia</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>4,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Seiks (Lahore Rajah)</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>23,000</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cashmere and other districts subject to the Seiks</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sinda</td>
<td>34,000</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>11,000,000</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is painful to reflect that the sway of Britain, which has extended so widely over Hindostan, was in the first instance decidedly injurious. The observation applies peculiarly to Bengal, which had previously attained a most flourishing state, under the benevolent administration of Aliverdi Khan. The military adventurers, by whom chiefly affairs were at first administered, aimed directly to fulfill the boundless expectations entertained by the Company from the possession of an empire so famed for wealth, and to return laden with riches to their native country. Every mode of arbitrary exaction and extortion was therefore practised. A larger revenue was raised from the country than it had paid to the Mogul in its greatest prosperity. During that dreadful famine in 1770, when a third of the inhabitants are supposed to have perished, and multitudes of the cultivators fled into other districts, the revenue was still forcibly maintained at its former standard by heavy surcharges on those who remained. Under this system, the finest country in the world was in danger of being rapidly reduced to a desert; and large tracts, formerly covered with waving harvests, were converted into jungle, the abode of wild beasts. The breaking up of the native authorities, without any effective substitute, gave a dreadful extension to the system of *decency*; a species of robbery, unknown at least in the civilized kingdoms of Europe. It is carried on somewhat after the manner of the predatory tribes, who infest the neighbouring regions, on a great scale, and by persons who are not considered as disgraced by it, either in their own estimation or that of others. They exercise this propensity to plunder, not on their immediate neighbours, but in distant forays, in which they surprise villages during the night, and employ the most dreadful terrors to procure hidden treasure.

It is but justice to the Company to observe, that they appear from the first to have cast an anxious eye on the distressed state of their Indian possessions. Several expedients were tried without success, till, in 1784, Lord Cornwallis went out with full powers, and the foundation was at length laid of an ameliorated system. The leading arrangements were:—A settlement of the landed property was made, first for ten years, but afterwards rendered perpetual; upon payment of which, the zamindars were invested with the absolute property of the lands, having under them the ryots, who, on payment of a fixed rent, were also to maintain their tenures. To secure this property against the encroachments of power, it was rendered unlawful for any European to possess land in India. At the same time, civil and criminal courts on the British model, and administered by British judges, were established; the former in every town, with an appeal to superior tribunals at the cities of Calcutta, Dacca, Patna, and Moorsheadabad, and a final resort to a supreme tribunal in the capital. Criminal justice was to be administered by separate judges performing a circuit through the same cities.

Notwithstanding the excellent intentions with which this system was formed, and the good general principles on which it is founded, it has but imperfectly fulfilled the object of restoring the prosperity of British India. Although the annual payments exacted as land revenue were no longer arbitrary, yet they were fixed too high; and, being enforced with the utmost rigour, and by sales of the property on which the arrear arose, they soon produced the impoverishment or ejection of almost the whole body of the former zamindars. The ryots, being too poor to purchase the forfeited lands, were only exposed under this system to new oppressions. The zamindary and village police, which had, though in a somewhat rough way, generally maintained the country in tranquillity and security, were found to be very disadvantageously supplanted by the system, in itself so excellent, of British jurisprudence. That system, administered by young judges who came out with little study, and little view but of making a fortune, was found to exhibit faint traces of its native excellence.
Even the best lawyers have found it a matter of extreme difficulty to judge Indians, a people whose language, manners, and whole train of ideas are foreign and opposite to those of Europe. The natives, too, are woefully addicted to perjury, and have been greatly encouraged in it by the facility which this ignorance of their judges affords them of escaping detection. Hence the British tribunals are often completely at a stand in cases where the fact and experience of a native judge would at once have unravelled the truth. The consequence has been, that an armour of civil cases has accumulated, amounting almost to an absolute denial of justice; while, in the criminal courts, it is often necessary, for want of evidence, to dismiss individuals, of whose guilt the most perfect conviction is entertained. Thus, after a long and profound internal peace, under a strong government, and an administration of justice intended to be strictly equitable, the country has recovered only very imperfectly from the state to which it had been reduced by the original system of spoliation. In fact, the exertions of the Company have of late been employed to restore the original system of police and society; and this object, though difficult, has been effected in some degree, and with favourable results. The natives have for several years been admissible to civil offices, and to act as civil and criminal judges; they are also summoned to sit in the punctaets (native juries), and to try in some places criminal, in others both civil and criminal questions. By the Act of 1833, for the better government of the Indian territories, it is further provided, that no native shall, by reason of his religion, place of birth, descent, or colour, be disabled from holding any office or employment under the Company.—Am. Ed.]

[For more than forty years a dividend of 10% per cent. has been paid on the East India stock, although during that whole period no profit was made, and the pretended dividend was paid with borrowed money. In consequence of this state of things, the original value of the stock has been nearly doubled in the market, and by the new charter of 1833, a fund of two millions sterling is set apart to accumulate at compound interest, until it amounts to twelve millions, the price of six millions of stock at ten per cent.; and the dividend is in the mean time to be paid out of the territorial revenues, that is, out of the purses of the Hindoos. The following is the statement of the company's affairs, in 1832:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Territorial and Political Debt</th>
<th>£201,107,732</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commercial</td>
<td>1,925,494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Debt</td>
<td>£203,033,226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Territorial and Political Credits</td>
<td>£291,579,625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial</td>
<td>21,017,149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Credits</td>
<td>£312,596,774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance Deficient</td>
<td>£311,920,684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company's Home Bond Debt</td>
<td>3,544,894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Deficiency</td>
<td>£25,442,458</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following table shows the income and charges for the five years ending with 1830:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Charges</th>
<th>Charges in Bengal, Prince of Wales Island, &amp;c.</th>
<th>Interest on Debt</th>
<th>Charges in England</th>
<th>Surplus Charge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1825</td>
<td>21,086,900</td>
<td>22,340,365</td>
<td>214,245</td>
<td>1,573,911</td>
<td>1,417,203</td>
<td>4,950,687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1826</td>
<td>22,340,365</td>
<td>23,424,904</td>
<td>207,073</td>
<td>1,749,064</td>
<td>2,490,694</td>
<td>2,419,036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1827</td>
<td>23,424,904</td>
<td>21,177,431</td>
<td>272,014</td>
<td>1,655,313</td>
<td>2,264,141</td>
<td>3,570,715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1828</td>
<td>29,014,186</td>
<td>29,280,711</td>
<td>299,574</td>
<td>2,191,365</td>
<td>1,987,492</td>
<td>1,967,190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1829</td>
<td>21,086,900</td>
<td>19,300,715</td>
<td>213,304</td>
<td>2,007,693</td>
<td>1,748,740</td>
<td>600,152</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Am. Ed.]

Sect. V.—Productive Industry.

India has always been, in a peculiar manner, celebrated for its fertility, and for its profusion of magnificent and valuable products. In fact, the tropical countries, wherever water abounds, must surpass the regions under the temperate zone in this respect, were it only from the circumstance of producing more than one crop in the year. The large and copious streams of Hindostan maintain generally throughout that country a perennial abundance. This character, however, is by no means universal. All the west of central India, except where it is watered by the Indus and its tributaries, consists of sand, in which the traveller sinks knee-deep. Sand forms even the basis of all the flat country of Bengal; though inundation and culture have covered it with a thin surface of productive clay. A great part also of the hilly districts, being over-run with that species of rank underwood called jungle, is unfit for any useful product. Although the Hindoos, too, have ever been an agricultural people, and remarkable for their industry, nothing can be more imperfect than the instruments, or the skill, with which they conduct that important art. The cultivators, for security under an imperfect police, or from mere custom, live in large villages, having
each a small spot, on the tillage of which they occupy themselves, in conjunction with the labours of the boors and with other employments. Holding their lands by no tenure except that of usage, they never think of expending capital in their improvement, and could not, probably, with safety, show themselves possessed of property. Their plough, in comparison with ours, does not deserve the name. Rudely constructed, at the cost of less than half a crown, it cannot penetrate beyond two or three inches deep, and has no contrivance for turning over the soil. It is drawn, not by horses, but by oxen and buffaloes, sometimes yoked together. The ground, after being scratched in several directions by this instrument, followed by the rough branch of a tree as a substitute for the harrow, is considered fit for receiving the seed. Manure is employed only in some rare cases, and consists merely of ashes and decayed vegetables. Cow-dung is not only scarce, but is accounted holy; it is also employed as fuel, and is even plastered on the walls by way of ornament. There is no idea of any rotation of crops, except the succession to be raised within the year; and this is conducted on a principle of raising the utmost possible quantity, until the ground is completely exhausted. It is then abandoned to a state not of fallow, but of lay, and the cattle are pastured upon it, until by continued rest it has regained its fertility. This rude system of husbandry resembles that which was practised in Europe during the early ages. It is not supposed that even in Bengal more than one acre in three is under actual tillage. The cultivators are poor in the extreme, their annual rents on an average not exceeding four pounds; and, instead of possessing any capital, they are usually sunk in debt.

Notwithstanding all these deficiencies, nature is bountiful, and the products of India are copious. Rice is the article upon which the whole region rests its main dependence; it is raised on every spot where irrigation can be procured. The periods of sowing and reaping vary, and produce a corresponding variety in the quality. Only one crop is raised in the year; but with another of millet or pulse on the same field. In some of the western Mahrratta districts it is necessary to substitute d'houtra, the arid and coarse grain of Nubia. Wheat and barley are sown only for these tracts which, from their more elevated site, approximate to the temperate climates.

Hindostan has other highly valuable products. The most important, perhaps, is cotton, the material of the great national manufacture. It is chiefly raised in the inland and somewhat dry tracts of Agra and the Deccan. Mirzapour, in the province of Agra, is the general market for cotton, the price of which varies from 11. 13s. to 24s. 6d. per cwt. It is not equal in quality to the American. Silk is also a very ancient staple of India, particularly of Bengal, though not to the same extent as in China; and the Italian silk is now decidedly superior to both. There is also a wild species brought in from the eastern wooded tracts of Assam and Sylhet, which is useful from its cheapness. The continent of India does not produce those more delicate spices which distinguish the islands; but pepper, so extensively used in Europe, grows in the greatest perfection and abundance on the high wooded mountains that rise above the coast of Malabar. Sugar was plentiful in Hindostan before it was known in Europe. The interior of Bengal might yield it to any extent, and at much less expense than that raised in the West Indies; but, from the defective mode of preparation, it is of very inferior quality, and is in that form called clayed, which is not suited to the European taste. Opium, that favourite though pernicious luxury of the East, is the staple of the interior province of Balur, and is raised of still superior quality in Malwa. It is a precious crop; and the British renders it still worse by monopolizing, and then using compulsory measures to make the farmers grow it; but by recent regulations these restrictions have been in a great measure removed. Indigo has been an early product of India, of which it bears the name; but that of Mexico obtained the preference in Europe, until within the last twenty years, when, by the vigorous exertions of some active individuals, it has been so much improved, that it is imported now to a large annual amount. It is cultivated by the roots upon advances made by the British; but the cleaning and preparing it for use are entirely performed by Europeans, and with machinery of their erection. The average produce of Bengal and Oude, the latter of which is of considerably inferior quality, is estimated at 9,000,000 lbs. Coffee has become an article of considerable importance; and in the year 1831, 3,000,000 lbs. were imported into Britain from Malabar. Saltpetre is produced more abundantly in Balur than in any other known country. Its formation takes place chiefly during the hot winds, and seems to be connected with that phenomenon.

Besides these luxuries destined for exportation, there are others extensively consumed in the interior. The nut of the areca, combined with the leaf of the betel, is one universally used in India, which has never found its way into Europe. The customs of the country cause a vast consumption of vegetable oils, which are supplied from the sesamum, also from lint, mustard-seed, and the cocoa-nut. Woods of various kinds grow luxuriantly on the lower declivities of the Indian hills. The canes, composing the thick jungle or underwood which abounds in marshy grounds, are not only used as in Europe, but are much employed in building. The teak has been found unrivalled for ship-building; but, though it flourishing on the hills of Malabar, it does not attain such perfection there as in Java and the Eastern peninsula.
Malabar furnishes also a large supply of sandal wood, of the species called red-wood, as well as others used for dyeing, or for ornamental furniture.

The following estimate of the produce of the British Bengal territory, including Benares, Bahar, and part of Orissa, was made, seemingly with great diligence and attention, by Colonel Colebrooke. To appreciate the extreme cheapness of Indian produce, we must observe, that the maund consists of eighty lbs., or within a trifle of an English bushel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Quantity (maunds)</th>
<th>Price (£)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice, wheat, and barley</td>
<td>150,000,000</td>
<td>11,300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Millet, 90,000,000</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulse, 90,000,000</td>
<td>5,025,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeds</td>
<td>4,028,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar, tobacco, cotton, opium, and</td>
<td>9,000,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other articles</td>
<td></td>
<td>132,913,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The space on which these products are raised is estimated to contain 160,000 square miles, and 30,000,000 souls. Hindostan, taken altogether, may be quadrupled as to extent and population, but not quite so as to wealth. We may, therefore, conjecture its entire produce at about 100,000,000l. ; but it must be remarked, that the same articles would be considered very cheap in England at six times the prices above stated.

It is not, however, for the natural products alone, but, in an especial degree, for manufactures, that the commerce of India has been so much prized in the Western world. Cotton, her native material, though not possessing any peculiar original beauty, has, by the skill of her artisans, been worked up into forms of dress the most elegant that human industry has ever produced. That of muslins, ingenious and delicate beyond all others, is appropriate and peculiar to Bengal, in whose eastern district of Dacca it is fabricated in a perfection elsewhere unrivalled. Though especially adapted, as it were, for the climate of India, so general has been its attraction, that this delicate fabric has become the staple of Scotland and the north of England. There, by the employment of machinery and the division of labour, it is produced much cheaper, and, in some instances, even of finer texture; but the muslin of India, richer, softer, and more durable, still maintains its reputation.

The same superiority is preserved by the calicoes, gingham, and chintzes, which form the staple manufactures of Coromandel, and particularly of the Circars. Though nearly driven out of the European market by cheap and successful imitations, they are still preferred over the East, where the curios consider themselves able to distinguish by the touch, and even by the smell, these genuine products of the Indian loom. The central and western provinces are not so eminent in manufactures, with the exception of Guzerat, where, especially in Surat and its neighbourhood, they are cheap, good, and of great variety, yet do not attain the same high excellence as in Eastern India.

Silk, though holding only a secondary place as an Indian manufacture, is still ancient and considerable. Its main seats are the great cities of Moorsabad and Benares, with their neighbouring districts: at Surat, also, the quantity manufactured is considerable. Taffetas, brocades, and embroidered gauzes, are its prevailing forms.

Woolen manufactures are not suited to the climate of that tropical plain of which Hindostan chiefly consists. In the upper regions, however, which form the slope of the Himalayas, they are made in large quantities, though coarse, and for home consumption. Cashmere alone collects that fine wool, peculiar to the goats which feed on the table-land of Thibet; and from this material are manufactured those exquisitely beautiful shawls which Europe has striven to rival, but unsuccessfully, except in cheapness. The shawl manufacture of Cashmere has suffered peculiarly by the revolutions of that country; and the looms employed in it have been reduced from 40,000 to 16,000.

The commerce of India has always possessed, in the eyes of Europeans, a dazzling and indeed illusive splendour, derived from its remoteness, and the brilliant character of some of its articles. It possesses by no means the magnitude or importance which these circumstances have led men to ascribe to it. Besides, though, both in ancient and modern times, it has afforded a grand impulse to trade and enterprise, the Indians have never been a trading nation. They never carried any of their own precious products into other countries; but, disdainfully, as it were, granted them to those who came to seek them from the farthest extremities of the globe. With equal disdain, they rejected almost every article which was offered in exchange, and would except nothing but treasure in its most solid and palpable form. The course of Indian trade was hence a constant theme of regret to those politicians who considered the benefit of this intercourse as dependent solely on what was called a favourable balance, and who viewed India as a gulf in which all the treasures of the West were buried. Modern enquiries have fully shown that this by no means prevented the trade with India from being highly beneficial; though the limited export, no doubt, rendered it less so than it otherwise would have been. Yet the importance of Indian commerce has always been, and is, grossly exaggerated.

The mining operations of India are confined to one object, of so brilliant a character, however, as to throw a lustre on this and on all the Oriental regions. It produces the finest diamonds in the world; for those of Brazil, though of greater size, are inferior in hardness.
and brilliancy. The Indian diamonds occur chiefly in a high and rugged tract, inhabited by tribes almost independent, and extending from Golconda across the interior of Orissa. The principal mines are described by Tavernier as situated at Raolconda, Color, and Sumbulpore. In the first of these places, the diamonds occur in narrow veins traversing the rock, and mixed with the sand and earth which fill their cavities; at Color they are found in the soil of a plain which stretches along the foot of some high mountains; while at Sumbulpore they are mixed with the sand of the river Gouel, which falls into the Mahanuddy. The diamonds at this last place are exquisitely fine, but small when compared with those at Color, which yielded to Shah Jehan the famous stone, weighing upwards of 7000 carats. Tavernier found at this mine alone 60,000 persons employed; but the importance of the working appears to have since diminished, either from the exhaustion of the mines, or the diminution of the demand among the native princes. The sands of the rivers of this tract yield also some gold dust, but not in sufficient quantity to become a national object. The diamonds of Panna, in the district of Bundelcund, are celebrated, though not of such fine quality as those already described. India produces some iron, lead, and tin, though not in sufficient quantities for home consumption. Zinc is in particular abundance; and the same may in some degree be said of these products of calcareous countries, marble, sal-gem, alabaster, common salt both in rocks and plains covered with this mineral; but the great masses of rock salt are to the west of the Indus. Saltpetre has been already noticed.

The mode of conducting British commerce with India has always, till very recently, been by means of exclusive companies; and the only competition was between these rival associations. About the middle of the seventeenth century, they were combined into “the United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies,” by whom, from that time, all the concerns of government and trade were administered. Between 1770 and 1784, the Company were obliged to yield a great share of their political power, which is now jointly exercised by the Board of Control. But no material breach was made in their exclusive privileges as traders till 1813, when the intercourse with Hindostan was thrown generally open to British subjects, with only some restrictions as to the tonnage of the vessels and the ports from which they were to proceed; and even these have been in a great measure removed. Under the liberty thus granted, the private trade has increased astonishingly, and has almost driven that of the Company out of the field. [By the acts of August 28, 1833, for the Better Government of his Majesty’s Indian Territories (3 and 4 Will. iv. ch. 85), and for Regulating the Trade to China and India (3 and 4 Will. iv. ch. 90), the commercial privileges of the East India Company are abolished, its functions now being merely political, and the trade to India and China is thrown open to all British subjects. It is further declared lawful for all British subjects to reside in the East Company’s dominions without any license, on merely making known to the proper officer, on their arrival, their name, place of destination, and objects of pursuit; and any person so resident may acquire and hold lands, in the parts where he may be authorised to reside, for any term of years, and carry on any trade or profession.]

General View of the Commerce of British India, for 1833.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTS</th>
<th>EXPORTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Merchandise</td>
<td>Bullion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>£3,014,135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>146,185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>69,040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>4,180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>130,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>17,230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamburg</td>
<td>9,560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Islands</td>
<td>45,823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabia, Persian Gulf, N. &amp; W. India, &amp;c.</td>
<td>45,257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>3,197,997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>£7,203,091</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Am. Ed.

Sect. VI.—Civil and Social State.

In surveying the political state of Hindostan, an estimate has already been given of its population, by which it amounts to about 140,000,000. Of this vast multitude, nine-tenths are still believed to consist of that native original race, who, though subject to a foreign power during so many ages, have remained always unmixed, and have retained unaltered their ancient habits and institutions. This people, who have attained a considerable degree of civilisation, though in a form quite different from the European nations, present a highly interesting subject of contemplation.

In their external form, the Hindoo, though, by the action of the climate, rendered as black as the negro, have otherwise nothing of the negro aspect. Neither do they exhibit the broad
and flat visage, nor the other distinctive marks, of the Mongol race who people China and Eastern Tartary. Their form belongs to that variety termed, by Blumenbach, the Caucasusian, and which includes also the people of Europe. Even from them they are distinguished by a peculiar delicacy and exility of shape, suggesting the idea of a refined, and even effeminate people. The race, however, bred to war, who inhabit the mountains and the western tracts, are of a bodily constitution much more hardy and athletic.

The manners of the Hindoos, still more than their persons, bespeak peculiar refinement. They are described as in a remarkable degree polished, graceful, and engaging; and in the whole intercourse of society, a politeness and urbanity reigns, much beyond what is observed in European circles. The impression made by them upon a stranger is that of a benevolent and amiable people. Those gentlemen, however, who have of late communicated the results of more intimate inspection, present a much less favourable picture. That outward politeness, it is said, soon resolves itself into the smooth and interested servility which men acquire in courts and under despotic governments, by habitual intercourse with those on whom they are dependent. It is entirely prompted, therefore, by self-interest, which forms the basis of the Hindoo character, and is cherished without regard to any feelings of honour and dignity. These are entirely broken down by the influence of that despotism which, according to Mr. Grant, "is not only the principle of the government of Hindustan, but an original, irreversible, and fundamental principle in the very frame of society." In such a government, where men are excluded from the pursuits of ambition, and checked at least in any public or lively amusements, selfishness turns almost entirely into avarice; and this is described as quite the ruling passion in the breast of the Hindoo. It appears to be indulged with an almost total disregard of the principles of honour or honesty: the grossest breaches of which are so common, as to cause no surprise, and scarcely any indignation, even in those who suffer by them. In the same light do they regard that deliberate and systematized violation of truth, which seems rooted in the Indian character. "It is the business of all," says Sir John Shore, "from the rye to the dowan, to conceal and deceive; the simplest matters of fact are designedly covered with a veil which no human understanding can penetrate." "This extends even to a form of guilt, from which the religious, or rather the superstitious, habits of the nation, might have been expected to secure them. Perjury, the most deliberate and complete, marks every deposition made before an Indian court of justice. What involves the tribunals in particular perplexity is, that even those who mean well, and have truth to tell or to attest, think not that they do enough, unless they perform it by false additional particulars; and it would thus be impossible for courts of justice to carry on their investigations, if they should reject evidence because it was combined with the most palpable falsehoods and perjuries. On a close inspection, too, much disappears of the mildness and quietude which are so conspicuous on the surface of the Hindoo character. Deadly feuds reign in the interior of villages; and, between those who have no motive to be on ceremony or on terms of courtesy with each other, violent bloody altercations often take place, seldom, however, proceeding to blows. In particular, the already mentioned prevalence of despoty, and the dreadful cruelties with which it is accompanied, go far to strip the Hindoo character of its fame for gentleness. Similar habits of violence are general among the predatory tribes of the West; but these indeed may be considered as differing in almost every point from the proper Hindoo character.

After all, the Hindoo certainly possesses some good qualities; and, perhaps, the late very unfavourable pictures are drawn chiefly from the populace of great cities, and from men otherwise placed in situations trying to human virtue. It is admitted that, in fidelity to a master or chief from whom they have received treatment at all kind, they are surpassed, and indeed equalled, by very few nations. Their religion enjoins, and it is admitted that they perform, very remarkable acts of beneficence; and to assert that these proceed merely from a mercenary view of purchasing heaven, would be to judge with rather a scanty measure of charity. The habits of Hindoo life are pre-eminently domestic. Respect for old age is carried to a great height; and, when parents are no longer capable of labour, they are supported by their children, and never allowed to become a burden on the public. Marriages are held as a perfectly indispensable part of life, without which a man would not be considered as possessing a regular place in society, or as qualified for exercising any important function. His marriage, and his marriage festival, are regarded as the most critical and splendid crises in the history of a Hindoo. Yet the wife, when obtained, is the object of very slight respect or regard. She is considered wholly unfit to be the companion of her husband, or even to be spoken to; and indeed care is taken to render her so. It is deemed disgraceful for her ever to open a book, to be able even to read a syllable, or to know anything of what is passing in the world. She is regarded merely as a sort of privileged slave, created only to obey and reverence her husband, and bound to view him with the most reverence and awe. She is generally, however, faithful to him; and her attachment is manifested in an extraordinary and cruelly superstitious manner, by the sacrifice of herself on his funeral pile. Although a variety of motives may co-operate, this sacrifice would scarcely have become so prevalent, had not the principle of conjugal attachment been generally strong in the
nation. Polygamy does not widely prevail; and dissolute manners, though strangely combined in many instances with religious observances, do not seem to be otherwise so general as in most parts of Europe.

The religion of India, such as it is, reigns with unrivalled sway, and forms the basis of all its laws and institutions. It is not merely the object of internal meditation or occasional observance, but the guide in all the actions, outward and inward, small and great, of human life. Thus, however, which, in an enlightened and rational sense, might be considered as marking a peculiar excellence, is combined, in the vulgar at least, with habits of gross ignorance and mean superstition. Yet the Hindoo system fails not to comprise some very lofty elements; but these, being chiefly confined to the sacred books, which are inaccessible to the vulgar, have little influence on the general ideas of the nation.

The Hindoo mythology is a system so vast and multifarious, that to introduce even a sketch would, within our limits, be scarcely possible. It is founded on the grand and philosophical idea of an immense all-pervading mind, from which the universe derived its existence. To this Nature, which is called the Brahm, or Brimh, they ascribe the most exalted attributes of power, wisdom, and beneficence. This being, however, is not personified as the active ruler of the universe, but as fixed in subllime and perpetual repose. He did not even, strictly speaking, create finite natures, but emitted them as it were, out of his own substance, into which those which are most perfect will again be absorbed. Thus sprung the Hindoo triad, Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva, the supreme objects of popular worship. Brahma, though the highest in dignity, and manifesting even the qualities of the source from which he emanates, is comparatively little regarded, has no temples raised, and no national worship paid to him. Vishnu is the most active member of the triad. His nine fulfilled incarnations, and his tenth expected one, are prominent epochs in Hindoo mythology. On these occasions he appeared sometimes as a man, sometimes as a boar, a lion, or a tortoise, to deliver oracles, to destroy giants, and deliver the earth from the ills which oppressed it. In two of them he appeared as Rama and as Krishna, names which have almost superseded his own; and under the last appellation, by his extravagant amorous adventures, he has afforded ample theme to the luxuriant fancy of the Hindoo poets. As Vishnu is called the preserver and saviour, so Siva bears the title of the destroyer, and in that character has a numerous class of peculiar worshippers. He is usually represented under a form calculated to inspire terror, of gigantic size, naked, riding on a bull, his eyes inflamed, and serpents hanging from his ears like jewels. Wars with the gods and extermination of giants form the leading events of his history, which, as well as his worship, comprises some peculiarly indecent adventures and observances.

Among interior deities, the first place is held by Indra, bearing the lofty title of "king of heaven." This high place is maintained only by perpetual contests with the Asuras and Rakshasas, the giants and Titans of India. He is even liable to be ejected by Brahmns skilled in mighty magic, or by a king who can sacrifice an hundred horses that have never felt the rein. Other objects of worship are Kartikeya, god of war; Surya, the sun; Pavana, the god of the winds; Varuna, the waters; Yama, the holy king who judges the dead,—a green man in red garments, and of terrible aspect, who keeps his court in the deepest mountain recesses, and at the hour of death extorts shrieks of terror from the guilty Hindoo. Juggernaut, or Jugganmutha, considered an earthly deity, is distinguished by crowded pilgrimages, and by the frightful character of the worship paid to him. The rivers of India are also accounted divinities, particularly the Ganges, which is supposed to descend from heaven, and the affusion of its waters to purify from all sin. That the lowest forms of superstition may not be wanting, the worship of animals is extremely prevalent. The cow, above all, is held in deep and general reverence, and by many families one is even kept for the mere purpose of worshipping it. Next ranks the monkey, whose exploits are largely celebrated in the sacred books. It is considered a pious disposal of money to expend large sums on the marriage of monkeys.

The religious observances of the Hindoos do not tend to give a higher idea of their wisdom than the creed on which they are founded. India is covered with temples, but those recently erected display nothing of that art, or even of that magnitude, which astonish us in those of Egypt and Greece. A temple may be built for twenty pounds; and the largest does not cost more than one hundred, or contain above three apartments. The rich seek to distinguish themselves by planting a number together: one pious lady has covered a plain near Burdwan with no fewer than 104 temples. Every temple must have its image, made of gold or silver, or, in default of these, of iron, brass, lead, or tin, sometimes even only of clay and pottery. The deity is manufactured by the workers in these metals and materials, and without the display of any skill in the art of sculpture; after its completion, the Brahmns, by sundry ceremonies and invocations, are supposed to infuse the spiritual character. The person who builds the temple makes a grant for the support of its servants, among whom, besides Brahmns, it is necessary, in many parts of India, that there should be a certain number of courtans; a truly singular instance of depravity in a people among whom female virtue is otherwise respected. The religious festivals are often prolonged for several
days, with music, dancing, revelry, and various excesses which are proscribed by Hindoo manners on all other occasions. The rage for pilgrimage is universal, and is in itself, indeed, rather the most venal form of superstition, since it affords considerable opportunities both of information and commerce. The great periodical festivals at Hurtwar and Juggernaut attract millions, but are often accompanied with considerable sacrifice of human life. The bloody scenes at Juggernaut are well known: in those the frantic victims of superstition throw themselves under the wheels of the car (fig. 617) in which that idol is drawn furiously along, and fondly imagine that they thus secure a happy futurity. Another mode of religious suicide is by drowning in holy waters, particularly those of the Ganges, and at the island of Sagur. Parents sacrifice their children to the Ganges, or to any power whom they wish to propitiate; but this savage practice was prohibited by the Marquess Wellesley, and his order has been obeyed without resistance or murmur. It is not known from what motive a race of Rajpoots, in the west, have been induced to immolate all their female children. The number of these victims has been estimated at nearly 20,000; and the effects of the benevolent exertions of Colonel Walker for the suppression of this horrid practice, which were, at least in a great measure, successful, have not been permanent. Religious feeling, however, certainly enters into that fatal sacrifice by which the Indian widows are induced, and sometimes even compelled, to sacrifice themselves on the funeral pile of their husbands. This practice also was, in 1829, prohibited by a proclamation of Lord William Bentinck; a measure applauded by all the enlightened Hindoos, though it has excited considerable discontent among the bigoted adherents of the ancient superstition.

The various forms of penance and self-infliction form another mode of propitiating the favour of the Deity, and of obtaining with the vulgar the character of sanctity. These, always more or less prevalent among superstitious nations, are carried by the Hindoos to an extent elsewhere unparalleled. The Indian Yogues, or Fakers, bury themselves in the depth of woods, allow their hair and their nails to grow, and their persons to be covered with filth, till they almost cease to present any vestige of humanity. Others remain for years fixed in one painful position, with the arm raised above the head, till the limbs become shrivelled or distorted. Instances have been given of persons who buried themselves under ground, leaving only a narrow tube by which they might breathe, and by which food might be introduced. A long course of such austerities is imagined to invest them not only with the highest character of sanctity, but even with power over the invisible world; and stories are related of mortals who have thus ejected potent deities from their place in the sky. A more obvious advantage is derived from the admiration of the multitude, who lavish not only homage but gifts on these uncouth devotees: and, as a certain period is supposed to complete the merit of the penance, they obtain time to enjoy its fruits, and often abandon themselves to every species of licentious indulgence.

The ideas of a future state present also a strong and peculiar character under the Hindoo mythology. The human mind being considered an emanation from the Brah, or supreme mind, they have adopted, to account for its pre-existence, the doctrine of the metempsychosis, or transmigration of souls, which is diffused over the whole East. Under this system, the souls of all animals are supposed to be those of men thus degraded, in punishment of their sins, but capable, after many ages, of regaining their pristine condition. In a cow, or a dog, they recognise, perhaps, a deceased friend or ancestor; and are thus led to treat them with a tenderness characteristic of the nation. This weakness they often carry to a ridiculous height, keeping hospitals for aged and even noxious creatures. Their creeds afford also, for the reward of the good, a variety of heavens, glittering with gold and precious stones, watered by crystal streams, and affording in abundance pleasures not always of the purest nature. The places of future punishment are in like manner multiplied, and filled with various species of torture; such as being burnt with hot irons, dragged through thorns, bitten by snakes, or thrown into vessels of liquid fire. The deeds, according to which these rewards or punishments are awarded, compose the moral code of the Hindoo. As it includes all the elementary principles of human duty, it has no doubt, to a great extent, a salutary influence. Too great a proportion, however, of the actions to which merit is attached, consists merely of outward idle ceremonies and absurd penances; and, in particular, the bestowing of gifts upon Brahmins, is a duty diligently inculcated by these reverence instructors.

Religion has evidently been the main agent in causing that distribution into castes which forms the most prominent feature in Hindoo society. In all half-civilized communities, aristocratic distinctions are carried to an extreme height; but nowhere is the distinction
between man and man rendered so broad and so monstrous as by this institution. In Egypt, and other ancient countries, a similar distinction appears to have existed, but was never so strong nor so permanent. A greater variety are enumerated by the Greek writers, as existing in their time among the Hindoos; but at present there appear to be only four prominent castes: the Brahmins, or priests; Chsatryas, or military class; the Vaisyas, or merchants; and the Sudras, or labourers. The functions and station of all these are fixed by their birth in the most decided manner.

The Brahmins hold, beyond all comparison, the first place in point of dignity, and are regarded by the other classes with profound and spontaneous veneration. Yet no established provision is made by the public for supplying them with even the means of subsistence. Their ordinary dependence is upon alms; and to this mode of support they have given such a lustre, that over all India he who receives alms is considered as ranking higher than he who bestows them. This situation, at once powerful and dependent, is not favourable to the character of the Brahmins, who are led to employ their influence over a superstitious people entirely to the furtherance of their private views. The bestowal of copious gifts upon a Brahmin, and his consequent benediction, are represented as effacing every sin, and securing the most ample blessings. His curse is the forerunner of the most dreadful evils: it has even been represented as sufficient to strike its victim dead on the spot. At marriages, funerals, and on other great festal occasions, the rich Hindoos strive to distinguish themselves by large donations to Brahmins, of cloth, cows, rice, gold, and whatever is esteemed most valuable. Their influence is augmented by the use of mantras, or mighty words, deemed to have power even over invisible creatures, as well as by the discernment of the lucky and unlucky times and modes for doing all things. A prince or great man thus reckons it indispensable to keep near him some eminent Brahmins to be his guides in all the actions and emergencies of life.

The Chsatryas, though inferior to the Brahmins, rank high in public estimation. The name signifies "sons of kings," and implies a boast of their descent from the ancient Rajas. In their persons, they are handsome, tall, and athletic; but they are generally destitute of principle; and many of them practise the trade of robbery on a great scale.

The Vaisyas, or mercantile class, are numerous in the cities, particularly of the coast, where they bear the title of Banians. Though their character is often disgraced by deceit and low cunning, some of them maintain a high character for mercantile talent and probity, and accumulate immense fortunes. In the interior their situation is more equivocal; they are found acting in various capacities, and many even serve as mercenaries in the Mahatta armies, or in the British service.

The Sudras include the ryots, or cultivators of the ground, and also most of those engaged in handicraft trades. Though generally ranked below the Vaisyas, they do not altogether admit their inferiority: many of them acquire considerable wealth, and maintain a respectable place in society. There are, moreover, a number of small detached classes formed by the mixture of the four primary ones, and called the Burrunsnaker, by whom most of the handicraft trades are exercised.*

A class of outcaste beings yet remains, whom Hindoo society excludes, and to whom it denies the common rights of humanity. These consist of those persons who, from a neglect or violation of any of those minute observances which are necessary to preserve caste, have been expelled from any of the four classes above mentioned. From that moment the individual is deserted by his nearest relations, is excluded from all the charities and social connections of life; he forfeits even his property, and is commonly forced to flee into distant exile. The Pariahs in the south form a class of hereditary outcasts. No human beings exist in a more lost and deplorable state. It is contamination to enter their house, or eat any victuals prepared by Pariahs; nay, some consider themselves polluted by their very touch.

* [These representations as to the intolerable obstructions and stations of the different castes in India have been shown by Mr. Colebrooke (Asiatic Researches, vol. iv.) to be extremely exaggerated. He states, that the number of the mixed classes is almost innumerable, and that, while the four great primary castes various professions are performed by persons of mixed races, hardly any is forbidden. A Brahmin, says he, "unable to subsist by his duties, may live by the duty of a soldier; if he cannot get a subsistence by either of these employments, he may apply to tillage and attendance on cattle, or gain a competence by trade, avoiding certain communities. A Chsatrya in distress, may subsist by all these means; but he must not have recourse to the highest functions. In seasons of distress, a further latitude is given. The practice of medicine, and other learned professions, painting, and other arts, work for wages, manual service, and usury, are among the modes of subsistence allowed both to the Brahmin and Chsatrya. A Vaisya, unable to subsist by his own industry, may descend to handicrafts, principally following those mechanical operations, as joinery and masonry, and practical arts, as painting and writing, by which he may serve men of superior classes; and although a man of lower class is in general restrained from the arts above higher classes, the Sudra is expressly permitted to become a trader or an husbandman. Besides the particular occupation assigned to each of the mixed classes, they have the alternative of following that profession, which regularly belongs to the class from which they derive their origin on the mother's side; those at least have such an option who are born in the direct order of the castes. The mixed classes are also permitted to subsist by any of the duties of a Sudra, that is, by manual service, by handicrafts, by commerce, and agriculture. Hence it appears, that almost every occupation, though regularly it be the profession of a particular class, is open to most other classes; and that the limitations, far from being rigorous, do in fact reserve only the peculiar profession of the Brahmin, which consists in teaching the Veda, and officiating at religious ceremonies."—Am. Ed.]
They are confined in the towns to separate quarters, and employed in the rudest and most disgusting labour. In this degraded condition, it is but too natural that they should lose all sense of character, and, by filth, intoxication, and other excesses, justify, in some degree, the contempt in which they are held.

This strictness and uniformity of the Indian system does not wholly prevent the rise of sectarian distinctions. The Vishnuites and Sivites, without an absolute separation, have each adopted a train of opposite worship and observances. Contrary to the toleration generally prevalent in India, they engage in violent quarrels, which often come to blows, on the merits of their respective systems. The Vishnuites lead a wandering, irregular life, like gypsies. The Jains are entire separatists. Instead of one supreme being, they worship mortals exalted into deities; but their habits of life are strict and austere. The Buddhism, or followers of Boodh, profess a creed somewhat similar, but with a much more entire separation. Originating in or near India, they have been almost expelled from that country, but have obtained the supreme religious sway in Thibet, Tartary, and the whole east of Asia. We shall therefore have opportunities to treat of them more particularly.

The literature of Hindostan rests, like its social state, almost entirely upon its religion. To all the books which it owns as valuable or classical, a divine origin is ascribed. The four Vedas, the grand basis of Hindoo learning, are believed to have issued simultaneously from the mouth of Brahma, though they are strangely enough supposed to have required the labours of Vyasa, a learned Brahmin, to bring them into a state fit for perusal. They consist in a great measure of invocations or addresses to the multifarious deities worshiped throughout India, many of which, when duly repeated, are supposed to have the power of charms, calling down good on the worshipper and his friends, and the most dreadful evils upon his enemies. They contain also precepts for the conduct of life, various in character and merit; with a full exposition of the national creed respecting the origin of the gods, the creation of the world, a future state, and the transmigration of souls. They are illustrated by the Sutras and other most extensive glosses and comments; all of which, like the original, are supposed to be the result of inspiration. This primary fountain of Indian knowledge is carefully shut, unless to Brahmans; none of any other class must throw his eyes on these sacred pages, or even understand the language in which they are written. Second to them are the Puranas, which, like the Vedas, are composed almost entirely in verse; and the ten Puranas contain nearly half a million of stanzas. They form a strange and heterogeneous medley of sound precept, useful doctrine, wild fable, and directions for puerile observances. The narrative part relates rather to the gods than to men; but these superior natures are exhibited as conforming very ill to the duties which are inculcated upon mortals; bloody wars and licentious amours forming the exploits most frequently recorded. Below the Puranas in celebrity and sanctity are the Mahabarat and Ramayana, two great epics, or rather wild metrical romances, similar in strain to the Puranas; for, though the basis be narrative, they abound in precept; and though they profess to detail the adventures of human heroes, the actors and the events are almost wholly supernatural.

In this enumeration, which includes all the serious literature of Hindostan, one capital defect must be obvious: history finds in it no place. Their wild legends are plausibly supposed to have a foundation in the story of some celebrated early kings or conquerors; but it is impossible, through the mist of fable, even to conjecture anything precise respecting their real existence. The Iliad and Odyssey are, in comparison, plain and authentic chronicles. Every thing in the shape of history that India possesses is due to her Mahometan conquerors. The geography of the Hindoos, in like manner, is a mere poetical, or rather puerile, delineation, in which they arrange the features of the globe in fancied symmetry, describe it as containing mountains of gold, silver, and gems, seas of milk, clarified butter, curds, and spirits. Their chronology, like that of the Greeks, is divided into four ages, of which three are fabulous; and the first consists of nearly 2,000,000 years.

In the mathematical sciences, the Hindoos possess a considerable share of genuine merit. Algebra, in particular, had advanced farther with them than, till very lately, among the nations of Europe; since they had made a considerable progress in the indeterminate analysis. Their astronomy has been famed, but with less reason; for its tables, which have been supposed to indicate observations commencing at 3100 A.C., are now proved to have been calculated at a period much more recent. Even the skill by which they were produced is now extinct; and the most learned Brahmin of the present day can with difficulty attain a knowledge of the period of eclipses, to be employed by him for the purposes of divination.

In the lighter and more elegant branches of literature, India displays greater excellence. The fables of Pilpi, interspersed with moral maxims, possess the highest merit of which that species of composition can boast, and have been translated into all languages. The dramatic literature of the nation is very extensive, being little less voluminous than ours; and, though defective in plot, and destitute of the varied merits which characterize the works of a Shakespeare, a Racine, and a Moliere, presents many passages distinguished for sweetness, pathos, and humour. Love, too, forms a copious theme; and the amatory poets of
India are eminent, though none of them has attained the fame of Hafiz. These compositions, however, want the genuine language of passion; they are distinguished by splendid imagery, but empty profession; there is something about them stately, sophisticated, and gravely extravagant. It may be observed, with regard to these and to all the other branches of Indian literature, that their productions are ancient; the language in which they are written is dead; and we know few Hindoo authors of the present day who are at all distinguished. The Brahmins, who alone ought to be learned, are now almost wholly illiterate. The only tincture of literature and thought appears to exist among some of the higher inhabitants of the great cities, who have derived it chiefly from intercourse with Europeans, and particularly with the missionaries. Among these, Rammohun Roy is the most distinguished.

Considering the Hindoos as a refined and wealthy people, it seems surprising that their architectural monuments should at present be of so humble a character. Even their temples, on which a superstitious people might have been expected to spare neither cost nor art, are immensely numerous, indeed, but both small in size and rude in structure. This character does not apply to the ancient religious edifices. The pagoda of Tanjore, and the mighty excavations of Ellora and Elephanta, present features which may rival the most splendid of those found in other Oriental empires. Temples erected even in the small Rajput principalities display a beauty rivaling those of ancient Egypt and even of Greece. Colonel Tod conceives, indeed, that Hindoo art has undergone a progressive degeneracy; and the more ancient the specimens are, they are always the more valuable. Since the sway of Mahometan nations was established in India, all the finest structures have been reared by them, and in their own peculiar style. The mosques and tombs constructed by Akbar, Shah Jahan, and Aurangzebe, rank with the most splendid specimens of Saracen art. The palaces are also magnificent, yet built in a light and airy style, rather resembling pavilions. They are contrived for the admission of air from every point of the compass: they have spacious halls, long galleries, projecting roofs, and terraces open to the sky, with accommodation for sleeping there when the weather permits. They enclose shaded courts, gardenis full of trees, marble baths, jets d'eau, arbours; every thing which can prevent the heat from being painfully felt. The great display of wealth is in the furniture, particularly in the fabrics of silk and cotton ornamented with gold, which are either spread on the floor and seats, or hung round the walls. The throne of the Mogul was estimated at 4,000,000/ sterling, made up by diamonds and other jewels, received in gifts during a long succession of ages. Meantime, the habitations of the ordinary class are of the humblest description, rudely composed of canes and earth, and roofed with thatch. Irregular collections of these hovels, like clusters of villages crowded together, form the main composition of the greatest Mogul capitals, the splendour of which consists wholly in a few great streets or squares, formed by the houses of the grandees.

The vestments of the Hindoos are suited to the climate, and composed of the manufactures of the country; they consist of long flowing robes of cotton, both loose and light (Fig. 618). In some of the higher regions only, coarse woollens of home manufacture are preferred. The clothes worn by the higher ranks do not differ much, unless in their superior fineness; but the rank of the wearer is indicated by a profusion of jewels, embroidery, and gilding, the display of which caused the Mogul court in its glory to be regarded as without a parallel in the world. The fallen princes and sultans, who have risen upon its ruins, console themselves by maintaining as much of this parade as their reduced revenues will support.

In regard to diet, the Hindoos practise abstemiousness more than any other nation; and this from feelings not merely of duty, but of pride. The man who consumes, or even tastes, animal food or spirituous liquors, is considered by all the higher castes as an inquiring and degraded being, who must be thrust out from among them, and doomed to mingle with the vilest of his race. Rice and water suffice for the food of the purest classes, and scarcely any who have the slightest pretension to caste will admit within their lips a morsel of beef. The scruple diminishes as we descend; but it is only among the outcaste classes that intemperance is found to prevail. The Mahometans, though by no means so scrupulous, are yet temperate. Their chief luxury is fruit, the best of which, being brought from the mountainous regions round India, is seen only at the tables of the great.

SECT. VII.—Local Geography.

In surveying that vast field which the local geography of India opens, we shall reduce it into five subdivisions: the Bengal provinces, including the former seats of Mogul empire; the western provinces; central India; the south of India; and, lastly, the countries on the Himalaya. The island of Ceylon will close the section.
In pursuing the local survey of Hindostan, it will be expedient to begin with Bengal, the most fertile province, and, since it became the seat of the power which rules over Hindostan, the centre of political influence. The Bengal presidency, the greatest of the three into which British India is divided, comprises much more than the mere province of that name. It is a great empire, extending over all the fine regions watered by the Ganges and the Jamna, and comprising the provinces, or rather kingdoms, of Bengal, Bahar, Benares, Oude, Allahabad, Agra, Delhi, and Orissa. These territories, according to estimates made with some care, are supposed to contain about 250,000 square miles, and 70,000,000 inhabitants. Within this presidency are forty interior courts, stationed at the principal towns, six courts of appeal, and one supreme court at Calcutta.

Bengal Proper consists of a vast alluvial plain, intersected by the lower courses of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, with their numerous branches. These, during the rainy season, which lasts from June to September, inundate the whole country, and convert it into a sea, extending for hundreds of miles in every direction. The whole region is then navigable, and boats are seen sailing through the corn-fields, in which the ears of rice appear above the water. The soil consists entirely of sand and clay, not a rock or even a stone, being found for 400 miles up the Ganges. Fields thus profusely irrigated produce immense crops of rice, of which Bengal is the chief granary. The sugar-cane also flourishes; but the other Indian products are not so copious as in the upper provinces. The mango, that most delicious of Oriental fruits, grows here in perfection; but other fruits and culinary vegetables are watery and insipid. A great trade is carried on, up and down the Ganges, in boats of various form and dimension, the navigation of which is supposed to employ nearly 300,000 men. The main staple of their trade is the conveyance of rice from the country districts to the great cities, and salt from the coast to the interior.

Nearly the whole sea-coast of Bengal consists of the Sunderbunds, extending for about 180 miles. The Ganges, in entering the sea by eight large mouths, divides itself into a labyrinth of streams and creeks, through which boats make a difficult and perilous passage amid conflicting tides and eddies. The lands intersected by these numerous channels, being inundated by the water, which is everywhere salt, have never been brought under any regular culture. They form a vast desert, overgrown with thick forests, whence Calcutta is supplied with wood for firing, and for the building of boats. These extensive marshes afford also the opportunity of producing, by mere solar evaporation, large quantities of excellent salt, for which there is a constant demand in the upper districts of India. The Ganges appears, in the course of ages, to have experienced successive altercations in the main channels by which it is entered. The only one at present navigable for large vessels is the most westerly, called the Hoogly, but which by no means transmits the main body of its waters.

On the Hoongly branch is situated Calcutta (fig. 619.), which, from a few straggling cottages in a wooded marsh, has been raised by Britian to be the capital of India. In 1690, the English were allowed by Ausrongzabe to establish a factory, and in the following year to secure it by a fort. In 1757, it had not above seventy English houses, when it was taken and destroyed by Sunjah Dowlah, Lord Clive, having become master of Bengal, made Calcutta the capital, and founded a fort, which has cost about 2,000,000L., and is very strong, though requiring at least 10,000 troops for its defence. Calcutta has from that time been perpetually increasing, and is supposed to contain 500,000 inhabitants; while, within a radius of twenty miles, there are upwards of 2,000,000. The situation was originally very unhealthy, being in the midst of forests and swamps; and, though these have been in a great measure cleared away, it still suffers by the damp breezes from the Sunderbunds. The English town, or suburb, called Chowringhe, consists of 4300 houses. Though built only of brick, it is elegant, and even superb: the houses are handsome, covered with fine plaster, called chunam, each being detached, and surrounded by a wall. Strangers ascending the river are particularly struck by the number of elegant villas, with which all the environs are studded. The Black Town, comprising much the greater part of Calcutta, consists, as in other parts of India, of miserable cottages of mud and bamboo. The government house is a very splendid and costly structure; and considerable state is maintained, though not to that degree which can rival the parade of Asiatic courts. A college was founded by the Marquess Wellesley, which boasted many
illustrious members, but has of late been much reduced. The allowances to all the servants of government are liberal; and though their aim, in going out, has generally been to return with an independent fortune, they indulge in a hospitable, splendid, and expensive style of living. Large dinner parties, in preference to public amusements, form the favourite recreation.

Bengal, on the west, touches almost immediately on the frontier of the province of Orissa; but, before ascending into the interior, we must take a view of Chittagong, the most easterly district, situated beyond the estuary of the Brahmaputra, and touching almost immediately on the Burman frontier. A large part of it consists of mountain and woodland tracts, through which roam large herds of wild elephants; but other tracts are very well adapted for cultivation; and the result of enquiries made by the Marquess Wellesley gave reason for computing its inhabitants at 1,200,000. The agricultural population are called Choomens: they live, in a peaceable manner, under a rajah who pays a tribute to government; but the interior is occupied by the Kookies or Lanetas, who live almost the life of savages; have their villages on the top of high hills, surprise their enemies in the night, massacre the males, and carry off the women and children as slaves. Islamabad, the capital, is an ancient city, on a navigable river, with a tolerable harbour; and attempts have been made to render it the emporium of Bengal; but the difficulty of communication with it has always secured the preference to the western ports.

Returning to Calcutta, and ascending the Hoogly branch, we come first to Serampore, a neat thriving little town, at which is a Danish settlement. This place is interesting as the seat of the Baptist missionaries, who have distinguished themselves by such learned and extensive labours in the pious task of translating the Scriptures into all the languages of India, and even of China. About twenty miles above Calcutta is Chandernagore, noted as the capital of the settlements belonging to the French in Bengal. It surrendered, however, to Lord Clive; and, though restored, has never regained any importance. Six miles higher is Hoogly, for several centuries the port of Bengal, and the seat first of the Portuguese, and afterwards of the Dutch and British factories. It ranked at one time among the greatest Indian emporia; but, on the rise of Calcutta, gradually lost its splendour, though it is still populous and considerable.

About 120 miles above Calcutta, and on the same branch, occurs Moorshedabad, made, in 1704, the capital of Bengal, and still the residence of the Nabob, who, being allowed a handsome pension by the British government, lives in considerable state. This city, and the contiguous one of Cossimbazar, also large and populous, situated on an island in the Ganges, form the main seat of the silk manufacture, which is nowhere else in India carried to equal perfection. The fabrics are chiefly taffetas, satins, carpets, and knitted stockings.

To the west of the line up the river, are the districts of Burdwan and Birbhum, the former of which is reckoned nearly the most fertile in India. Though only seventy-three miles long and forty-five broad, it maintains a population of 2,000,000; and the rajah, as zemindar, pays a revenue of 400,000L. It is entirely agricultural, and contains no town of importance.

To the east of this line, also between the Ganges and the Megna or Lower Brahmaputra, is Dacca, a very fine and interesting district. Wholly intersected by these rivers and their branches, it is liable to extensive inundations, which often alter the boundaries of fields, and convert many into jungle, while to others they communicate extreme fertility. Dacca is the chief seat of the muslin manufacture, and its fabrics of this description are the finest and most beautiful in the whole world. Of late, however, the demand has so much diminished, that the hereditary skill by which this beautiful art is preserved is in danger of being lost. Cotton quilts, dimities, and cloths are also manufactured. Dacca was the capital of Bengal in the reign of Jehangir, and is still a very large city. It contains 150,000 inhabitants, displays no particular splendour, but is the seat of a great trade.

We return to the Ganges; and, joining its main stream, soon discover the remains of Rajmahal, the residence of the sultans of Bengal under Aurungzebe, and celebrated even in the East for its magnificence. Marble halls and desert courts mark the departed grandeur of the palace of Sultan Shajah. A little to the north, on a river which falls into the Ganges, is Maithil, a thriving place, with considerable manufactures of silk, and of mixed silk and cotton. A few miles from Maithil, along a branch of the Ganges now dried up, extend for many miles the remains of Gour, which, in the thirteenth century, the Mahometan conquerors established as a proud capital of India. The materials appear to have been carried away to form modern cities: a great part of the pro-
sent site consists of jungle, the abode of tigers; but wherever cultivation takes place, the brickdust in the soil indicates ancient habitation. A diligent search has recently discovered the remains of a considerable number of mosques and palaces. One minaret (fig. 620), represented by Mr. Daniel, displays the traces of peculiar magnificence.

Upper Bengal presents a considerably different aspect from the lower province. The climate is cooler; and wheat and barley are raised, in preference to rice. The northern tracts are hilly and irregular, inhabited by a race of short, stout, rough mountaineers, who sometimes annoy the inhabitants of the plains, but who display an honesty and veracity very superior to that of Hindoos in general. The Ganges, which had hitherto spread its waters so wide over the plain, is now confined between granite rocks, which at Siclygully approximate so closely, that attempts were made to defend the passage by a fortification, now abandoned to decay. On emerging from this narrow pass, we enter another district.

Bihar, though properly a distinct province, is often almost identified with Bengal. The territory is fertile and beautiful; not so copiously inundated, but still well watered by the Ganges and numerous tributaries, particularly the Soame, from the Vindhyas chain, and the Gunduck from the Snowy Mountains. In preference to rice, it yields very fine wheat; but opium and saltpetre, both excellent and in large quantity, form its characteristic products. It abounds also in all the manufactures of India, though none of them attain the same unrivalled excellence as at Dacca and Moorsheedabad.

The Ganges is still the line upon which the great cities are situated. Monghhir, capital of a fine district of the same name, is a considerable and ancient town, commanding a peculiarly admirable view along the banks of the Ganges. It was the frequent residence of Sultan Shujah, and Cossim Ali Khan, who bestowed great pains in erecting a very strong fort for its defence. To this erection the British government have ceased to attach much importance, since their dominions were extended so far to the westward as to render Monghhir no longer a frontier station. Somewhat lower down is Boglipoor, a neat manufacturing town, which sometimes gives name to the district.

The city of Bihar stands at some distance from the river; and though the ancient capital, and even a royal residence, has now fallen much into decay. The chief city of the province, and one of the greatest in India, is Patna, extending about four miles along the river. It has been supposed to be the ancient Palibothra; at all events, it is of considerable antiquity, and was the residence of the soubans of Bihar before its government was merged into that of Bengal. There are a number of mosques and temples; but the only part of the city which can be considered handsome is the suburb of Bankipoor, occupied by the British residents. The prosperity of Patna is founded on the fertility and high cultivation of the district in which it is situated, and on its importance as the emporium for the staple products of opium and saltpetre. Dinapore, in the vicinity of Patna, forms a fine military station. Gayni, about fifty miles south of that city, and on a tributary of the Ganges, is one of the holy cities of the Hindoos, and the scene of a most crowded pilgrimage. About forty miles above Patna, the Ganges receives the Gogra, the second of its tributaries in magnitude; and, soon after passing Buxar, a strong fortress, now dismantled, we quit Bihar.

Allahabad, the next province, is very extensive, reaching farther north and south of the river than along its banks: the latter portion, however, is by much the finest. The first district which occurs is that of Benares, considered sometimes as a separate province, and even occasionally annexed to Oude. It is supposed, with the single exception of Bardwan, to be the richest and most cultivated district of all India, and, within a narrow compass, contains a population of 3,000,000. Its chief ornament, however, is the city of Benares (fig. 621.), which is universally accounted by the Hindoos to be ancient and holy beyond all others. It may be said to form the grand depository of the religion and learning of this vast country. Its sacred character, which is supposed to ensure the salvation of all who die within its precincts, cannot fail, in a nation devoted to pilgrimage, of rendering Benares a scene of extensive and crowded resort. Its own population, long supposed to exceed 500,000, has been found by a late census not to be more than 200,000; but it is augmented, at certain seasons, by pilgrims to a much greater number. Benares, in fact, presents a more lofty and imposing aspect than any other Indian city. Its houses, instead of being a mere collection of mud and straw huts, are most of them built of brick, and some of them five or six stories high; so that
they make a very magnificent appearance, especially from the opposite side of the river. Partly, however, with a view to coolness, the streets are very narrow, with small windows, and terraced roofs. Benares contains also temples and mosques in vast numbers; though, as in the case of other modern Hindoo structures, not on a scale commensurate with the grandeur of the country and city. The greatest of them was levelled to the ground by Aurengzebe, who in its stead erected a mosque, which now forms the principal ornament of Benares. Chunarghur, (fig. 622.), near Benares, is one of the strongest of the Indian hill-forts, and has been converted by the British into a great military station. It was ancidently a town of great importance, and contains a mosque, the entrance to which has been delineated by Mr. Daniel, as one of the finest examples of this species of architecture (fig. 623.)

The next division of the province, in ascending the river, is that of Allahabad Proper. It is highly productive, more in wheat than in rice; for, though traversed by the parallel streams of the Jumna and Ganges, it is little inundated, and the water, so essential to the growth of rice, requires to be conveyed by laborious processes over the fields. The city of Allahabad is extensive, but not distinguished by any peculiar magnificence or ornament. Its chief feature consists in the fortified palace (fig. 624.) begun by the emperor Akbar, on which upwards of 12,000,000 rupees are supposed to have been expended. It is of surprising extent, having one side on the Jumna, and the other near the Ganges, which rivers here unite. It was considered by the Hindoos as impregnable; but, not being found proof against cannon, the English have fortified it in the European manner, and have made it a grand military depot for the upper provinces. The Hindoos regard with religious veneration all junctions of rivers, particularly with the sacred stream of the Ganges. This junction, therefore, of the Ganges with its greatest tributary becomes, without dispute, the holiest spot in all Hindostan. Accordingly, it attracts hosts of pilgrims, of whom many endeavour to secure a happy futurity by seeking death in its hallowed stream. The most approved mode has been, for the devotee to cut off his own head, and allow it to drop in, as an offering to the Gangetic deity. Not far from Allahabad is Mirzapoor, one of the greatest inland trading towns of India, a great mart for cotton and spin silk, and the seat of very considerable manufactures.

The other districts of Allahabad extend chiefly south-west from the Jumna towards the Vindhyas and the head of the Nerbuddah. This territory is of great extent, but, being hilly and often arid, is by no means so productive as the tract watered by the two rivers. It is a very strong country, the hills generally presenting that form of precipitous sides, with a table-land at top, which renders them, as natural fortifications, stronger than any which can be made by art. To the greater part of this district is given the name of Bundelcund, the chief city of which is Callingor, the strongest fortress of the character we have just described, and the rival of Gwalior. It was long held by an independent rajah, even against the Mogul; but in 1810, by prodigious efforts of valour, and after one severe repulse, the British became masters of it. Cawnpour, on the Ganges, has become highly important as a military station. Bundelcund is distinguished by the diamond mines of Pan-
The province or kingdom of Oude extends north from Allahabad, near whose eastern frontier the Ganges, as already mentioned, receives the Gogra or Sarjou, which is its greatest tributary next to the Jumna; and forms a broad and copious stream descending from the Himalayas. Its course had previously watered the plain of Oude, a rich territory, the lower districts of which are not inferior to those of Bahar and Benares, on which they border; and the upper, though not equal, by no means barren. By the treaty of 1801, a large and valuable portion was ceded to the British; the nabab retains the rest, and continues to reside, in diminished splendour, at Lucknow. This city, while the nabobs of Oude were in full power, ranked with the most splendid in India. Sojah ul Dowlah, who had a peculiar architectural taste, embellished it with a number of mosques and palaces, with varied ornaments and gilded domes, which have a very brilliant effect. The population has been reckoned at 300,000, but it is probably diminished. Oude, the earlier capital, is in ruins; but Fyzabad, which succeeds it as such, is still a populous city.

Proceeding up the parallel streams of the Ganges and Jumna, we find the space between them, and for some distance westward, occupied by the province of Agra. This extensive territory presents sensible indications of its approach to the great mountain territory of India. The climate, unless when hot winds blow, is cool, and even actually cold; and the rivers, less ample, and confined within higher banks, administer sparingly the boon of moisture. It derives its chief lustre from containing Agra, one of the great Mogul capitals. This it owed to Akbar, who, from a village, converted it into one of the greatest cities of Asia. It completely shared, however, the fall of the dynasty, and the greater part of it is now in ruins. Yet the eye may still range over a vast extent of country, covered with the remains of ancient magnificence. The houses, like those of Benares, are high, and the streets narrow. The vicinity is adorned by the palace of Akbar, and still more by the Taj Mahal (Fig. 625.), erected by Shah Jahan, in memory of his sultana; which is reckoned the finest tomb in the world. It is composed entirely of white marble, inlaid with precious stones, and is said to have cost 750,000. Agra, since its capture by General Lake in 1803, has remained in the possession of the British, and is become the seat of one of their grand courts of justice and revenue.

Suggra and Muttra are two ancient and remarkable cities, situated on the Jumna, a little above Agra. The former, now in ruins, is only distinguished as containing the splendid and ornamented tomb of Akbar (Fig. 626.), composed entirely of white marble. Muttra is one of the most ancient and venerable Hindu cities, considered by Herodotus as resembling Benares. It is still a considerable place, and important as an miltary station.

The finest and most fertile part of the province of Agra is the Doab, or the country between the rivers; and it is in the immediate occupation of the British government. Within this district are the remains of Kanouge, now a poor village, situated to the west of the Ganges, but whose brick walls, extending for six miles, attest the ancient grandeur of a capital which, eight centuries ago, ranked superior to any other in northern Hindustan. A Hindu temple, and the mausoleum of two Mahometan saints, still display magnificence; and a number of ancient coins have been dug up on the spot. Furruckabad, capital of a small district of the same name, is a thriving commercial city.

Agra, west of the Jumna, is divided into two parts by the tributary stream of the Chambal, flowing eastward from the vicinity of Oojain. The northern part is held by a number of rajahs, whom fear or policy maintains in a dependent alliance with Britain. They belong chiefly to the warlike tribe of the Jatts, who, in the seventeenth century, migrated from the banks of the lower Indus, and, availing themselves of the distracted state of the empire, seized a number of the strongest places in the district. The capital of their most powerful chief is Bhorpore, perhaps the most formidable of all the mountain fortresses of India. Its
siege in 1805 cost the British army a greater loss than it had sustained in any three pitched battles; and the raja, at the close of it, was able to secure very favourable terms. In 1827, however, it yielded to the British arms. The province to the south of the Chambal was allowed by the treaty of 1805 to be annexed to the territories of Scindia. It contains also a number of hill-forts, among which is pre-eminent Gwalior (fig. 627.) which, for natural strength, has scarcely, perhaps, its equal in the world. It consists of a table plain a mile and a half long, and less than a quarter broad; and, being surrounded on all sides by precipitous face of rock, was supposed impregnable, till, in 1780, it was carried by escalade by Major Popham; and again, in 1804, so formidable a breach was effected by

Colonel White, as to cause its surrender. Lord Cornwallis afterwards ceded it to Scindia, the Maharatta chief, who has made it his capital; an act of his lordship which has been considered more generous than politic. Gwalior is also an important place, though not of the same military strength. Its raja acted for some time an important part in Indian politics; but he is now almost entirely dependent upon Scindia.

Continuing to ascend in a north-westerly direction up the great rivers, and approaching to their mountain sources, we find Delhi, raised latterly to high distinction as the chief seat of Mogul empire. This province is ruder, and less susceptible of culture, than any of those hitherto named. Few parts of it enjoy the benefit of inundation, except the banks of the Cunvar; while artificial irrigation and agricultural improvement have been almost annihilated by the desolating ravages, first of Nadir Shah, and subsequently of the Afghans and Maharratts. The central district of the province between the two rivers is held by the British in immediate sovereignty; and, notwithstanding some defects of administration, it is sensibly recovering, and its population is increasing. On the banks of the Jumna, near the northern frontier, is found, moldering in decay, the city of Delhi. It was, in early times, a great Hindoo metropolis, under the name of Indrapat; but Shah Jehan, in the middle of the seventeenth century, made it the chief seat of Mogul dominion, and such it afterwards continued. Here, in 1806, died Shah Allum, the last of that mighty dynasty who could be said to enjoy any portion of real empire. His son Akbar is still allowed by the British to bear that great name, and to receive a considerable proportion of the revenues of the province, which enables him to live in some splendour. What remains of Delhi is still rather a handsome city: the streets, though narrow, contain many good houses, built of brick, and partly of stone. It contains some manufactures of cotton cloth, and is the rendezvous of caravans which maintain the communication of India with Cabul and Cashmere. The palace of Shah Jehan, with its gardens, a mile in circumference, bears still a most magnificent aspect, particularly its gateway; but a long range of those belonging to the great chieftains and orphans of the empire, adorned with gilded mosques, pavilions, and tombs, now present only one vast scene of ruin and desolation.

Delhi contains the most splendid modern edifices by which any part of the empire is adorned. The mosque called the Jumna Musjeeed (fig. 628), erected by a daughter of Aurangzebe, of red stone inlaid with marble, is considered decidedly the finest structure in India dedicated to Moslem worship. The Cuttub Minar (fig. 629.), reared by one of the Patan emperors named Altunish, is 242 feet high, and considered by Bishop Heber the finest tower he ever saw. It rises in five stages, the three lowest of which

are of fine red granite, the fourth of white marble. The summit commands a most extensive prospect.
In the northern part of the province of Delhi, to the east, are the large and industrious towns of Bareily, Meerut, Shahjahanpur, and Rampoor. The two former possess importance as military stations, and the barracks at Meerut are very extensive. A large Christian church has recently been erected there.

The north-western part is composed of the district of Sirhind, which is now chiefly possessed by the Seiks. Though traversed by the sacred stream of the Sereswater, it is for the most part arid and barren. It has been further desolated by the hostile operations of the Seiks, and has also suffered from the ravages of the Persian and Tartar conquerors, having been the regular track by which they penetrated into Hindostan. The city of Sirhind, celebrated, under Sultan Feroze, in the fourteenth century, as a gay and flourishing capital, is now in a state of total ruin. The most flourishing place in the district is now Putialah; but a greater historical celebrity belongs to Kuralal and Paniput, one the scene of the victory of Nadir, the other of that of Ahmed Shah, which broke the power of the Mahrattas.

SUBJECT 2.—Western Provinces.

As it is intended to treat separately of the territory situated along and within the great range of the northern mountains, we shall proceed direct from Delhi to the provinces on the western frontier. This range by no means prevents the luxuriant and fertile aspect of those watered by the Ganges and its tributaries. It consists of a vast plain of sand, whose uniformity is only broken in the north by the Punjab, or the region of the five rivers, which, descending across it from the Himalayah, enter the Indus by one united channel.

Lahore, the chief of the western provinces, includes the greater part of the Punjab, with a considerable extent of mountainous territory to the north. This last is by no means unproductive; the earth washed down by the rains being formed into terraces by parquets of stone. Thus all the kinds of grain peculiar to the temperate climates are raised in abundance, and even large forests of trees grow on the higher acclivities. The finer and more beautiful part of Lahore, however, is that situated on the rivers, where the plains are covered with the richest tropical productions, and, in the days of their prosperity, were regarded as almost the garden of India. The ravages of the Persian and Afghan conquerors, and the rude sway of the Seiks, have reduced culture and industry to a low ebb; but it has of late begun to revive. Very fine salt and sla-gren are found on the banks of the Indus, which, at Attock, is crossed by a range principally composed of this mineral.

Lahore has now entirely fallen into the possession of the Seiks, who, from a religious sect, have become a great political body; and, as such, have been already described. Besides Lahore, they occupy, as has been seen, the north-west of Delhi, and the greater part of Moudtan; and are the most important native state now existing. The Malwhan, formerly the ruling people, are kept by them in a completely subject and degraded state, and are allowed even a scanty measure of religious toleration. The dissension of the Seiks, and their rude habits, are unfavourable to industry and commerce, which would have required a protecting hand to enable them to emerge from the effects of long civil conflict, and of the repeated passage of desolating armies from Persia and Afghanistan. Although, therefore, the Seik chiefs are beginning to see their error, and are endeavouring to afford encouragement to trade, the country has lost much of its ancient fertility and beauty, and does not contain a population adequate to its extent.

Lahore, the nominal capital of this province, was one of the most beautiful cities of India, when, under the early Mogul princes, it was made an intermediate residence between Cabul and the interior. Akbar, Jehangire, and Ferhoshreer successively contributed to its embellishment. The mausoleum of Jehangir, only surpassed by the Taj Mahal at Agra, is still nearly entire; and there are ample remains of the palace adorned in the highest style of Eastern magnificence. Its terraced roof, covered with a parterre of the richest flowers, suggests the idea of the hanging gardens of Babylon. All, however, went rapidly to ruin, under the multiplied desolations which Lahore has suffered; though its situation, on the fertile banks of a fine river, and on the high road from India to Persia, must always secure to it a certain degree of population and wealth. Recently, also, Runjeet Sing, the supreme Seik chief, has made it his capital, and it has a population of 80,000.

The importance of Lahore is, in a great measure, shared by Umritsir, the holy city of the Seiks, and the rendezvous of their gurumata, or great national council. The object of attraction here is a tank or pond, formed by Ginn Govind, an early chief and saint, who gave it the name of the "pool of immortality," and taught, that those who bathed in its waters were purified from all sin. This belief has led to an immense concourse of the sect, whose contributions support a large temple, built in the midst of the water, with 600 nalders or priests attached to it. Umritsir is an open town; but it contains the strong fort of Govind Garrah, in which Runjeet Sing keeps his treasure and arsenal. It is eight miles in circumference, well built of brick, but without any structures of peculiar magnificence. It forms the centre of a considerable caravan trade with Cashmere; and, from the security found there amid recent revolutions, it has been chosen as a residence by the chief moneyed men in this part of India. It has 100,000 inhabitants.
To the south of Lahore is Moultan, an appellation which Mr. Elphinstone reduces within very narrow limits, by confining it to the district immediately dependent on the city of that name, and excluding those of Bawulpoor and Lein; but we shall adhere to the original Hindoo idea, which comprehends under Moultan all the lower course of the five rivers after their union into two great channels, and thence westward to the Indus. These rivers roll through a desert; but the partial inundation, and the conveyance of the water over the fields by Persian waterworks, diffuse fertility to a considerable distance on each side of their banks. Their immediate vicinity, indeed, is in some places covered with mud so soft, that it cannot bear the tread of a horse. Wheat and cotton are the most valuable products. Agriculture, however, with its essential process of irrigation, exhibits visible marks of decay, consequent upon the successive conquests and inroads to which the land has been exposed. The whole of this province, lately tributary to the king of Cabul, is now under the dominion of Runjeet Sing, chief of the Sikhs. Moultan is a fine city, about four miles in circumference, and surrounded by a very handsome wall. It contains a temple of great antiquity, highly venerated, and the object of crowded pilgrimage from all parts of India. There are also several very beautiful tombs, covered with high cupolas of glazed and painted tiles. It is distinguished by manufactures of silks and carpets, the latter in imitation of those of Persia, but of inferior excellence.

Beyond the river Gharr, which forms the eastern boundary of Moultan Proper, stretches the district of Bawulpoor, governed by Bawul Khan. Near the river it is very fertile; but, in receding, it passes into almost complete desert, of which the greater part of this extensive tract consists. It extends also south, occupying a considerable reach of the banks of the Indus. Bawul Khan, the most powerful chief in this tract, raises a revenue of 1,500,000 rupees. He maintains a well-appointed army of 10,000 men, and has a cannon foundry, which supplies him with good and well-mounted guns. The city of Bawulpoor is as extensive as Moultan, but not so populous; a great part of its area being occupied in gardens. The houses are built chiefly of unburnt brick. It is remarkable for the manufacture of loon-gies, or silken girdles, and of turbans.

The western part of Moultan, between the Acesines and the Indus, composes the district of Lein. Every thing here begins to assume an Afghan aspect. The mighty snow-covered mountains of that country appear in the distance; the higher ranks of the people affect the Persian language and manners; and the farm-yards and agricultural economy display that superior neatness, and those almost European modes of management, which characterise the countries beyond the Indus. The territory at all remote from the river is little better than a desert. The chief raises a revenue of 500,000 rupees. His armed force consists of two regiments of musketry, and 5000 cavalry. Lein being a poor village, the residence of the rajah is at Bukhur, a flourishing little town near the Indus.

The population of the whole province of Moultan is properly neither Hindoo nor Afghan. It consists of Jants, the race whom we have noticed in the western parts of Agra, and of colonists from Beloochistan: these people are all Mahometans. There is an intermixture of Hindoes, which is greater in the more easterly tracts, but nowhere composes the leading race. Camels are extensively employed for the purpose of travelling over the vast bordering deserts.

The lower Indus, after receiving by one channel the united waters of the five rivers of the Punjab, flows for a great space through a region which, beyond its immediate banks, is almost entirely desert. Its character, however, changes when separating into two branches, of which the western is the largest: it forms a delta similar, though on a smaller scale, to that of Egypt. This delta, with a considerable extent of territory on each side, forms the kingdom of Sinde, which was highly flourishing while it was maintained in a pacific posture under the sway of the Mogul. Its alluvial and inundated territory was kept in high cultivation, and yielded abundant crops of rice, sugar, indigo, and cotton. Tattah, the ancient Pattala, situated on the western branch, was then one of the greatest of Oriental emporia. Enjoying a free navigation for large vessels up the Indus as far as Lahore, it became the grand medium by which the products of Western India and Afghanistan were exchanged for those of Malabar and Coromandel, and for European goods. One of the chief materials of trade was afforded by its own manufactures of cotton cloth, which, even in the time of Nadir, are said to have employed 40,000 weavers. Amid the breaking up of the Mogul empire, however, an opportunity was given to the chiefs of a warlike and barbarous race, called Talpore, who occupied the neighbouring deserts of Beloochistan, to seize upon the government. The king of Cabul at one time undertook to drive them out; but found the task so difficult, that he ultimately consented to accept a tribute, which, however, was paid only scantily, when extorted by the appearance of an Afghan force upon the frontier, and has now entirely ceased. The rapacious chiefs who now tyrannise over Sinde, strangers to all arts of good government, seek only to extract from the country the utmost present advantage to themselves. In racking the land rents, they have broken up all the old tenures of the husbandman, and deprived him of all permanent interest in the ground. Protection being no longer afforded to commerce and property, the European nations have withdrawn
the important factories which they maintained at Tattah; and, of the fleets which formerly navigated the Indus, only small boats are seen ascending and descending. The Ameers have increased the desolation, by converting large tracts of the finest land into jungle, with the view of affording the amusement of hunting. To their other violations they add a spirit of bigotry, which impels them to relentless persecution against all who profess the Hindoo religion. The consequence of this misgovernment has been, that the revenue, which amounted at one time to eighty lacs of rupees, sank in 1813 to sixty, and was found by Mr. Burnes, in 1827, not to exceed forty. Yet the Ameers are supposed to have amassed a considerable treasure. They are particularly rich in jewels, which they studiously collect, and obtain, often at easy rates, amid the vicissitudes of the Cabul monarchy, from its fallen chiefs. Their collection of muskets and sabres ornamented with gems is supposed to be the most extensive in the world.

Tattah, from the causes now enumerated, has two-thirds of its area in ruins, and does not contain above 20,000 inhabitants. The streets are narrow and dirty, and the ordinary habitations, as usual in India, are only cottage of canes and mud. The old English factory is still the best house in the place. On a mountain, at the distance of a mile, are an amusing number of tombs, some of them very splendid; but the mosques and pagodas are in a great measure going to ruin. The decay of Tattah is hastened by the transference of the seat of government to Hyderabad. This place is situated higher up, about two miles from the Indus, on a branch called the Falacle, by which it is formed into an island. There are some manufactures of arms and leather; but, instead of rivalling the former greatness of Tattah, it scarcely equals the present magnitude of that city.

The sea-coast of the Indian delta, in consequence of frequent inundation by the salt water, presents a desert of flat and marshy sand, nearly similar to that part of Egypt which immediately borders on the Mediterranean. Somewhast west from this river is Calcare, the only sea-port of Sind, and which, from that circumstance, still retains some commercial importance. It contains a population of about 8000 people, among whom the Hindoos are the most active and industrious.

In making a circuit of the Ganges, and down the Indus, we have left an intermediate space of great extent, not traversed by these rivers or by any of their tributaries. This forms the province of Ajmeer, or Agimere, a rude, mountainous tract, which has scarcely been subdued by any of the conquerors of Hindostan. It is the native seat of that remarkable military race called Rajpoors, who present, both in figure and character, a complete contrast to the other Hindoos. They are tall, vigorous, and athletic; all their habits are rude, and their only trade is war. Although their territory approached at several points to within less than a hundred miles of the great Mogul capitals of Delhi and Agra, they never ranked even as regular tributaries of that empire. It was by pincions only that they were induced to join as auxiliaries in war. The Rajpoors, enjoying thus a succession of hereditary power, unbroken by foreign invasion, boast of a long line of ancestry, and are considered of higher birth than any other Hindoo rulers. Even the Maharratt chiefs, though far superior in power, conceived it an honour to form family alliances with them. They are by no means a degraded and enslaved race, like most other Hindoos; they have raitores, or nobles, of different grades, who owe to the sovereign merely fealty and military service, and are nearly as independent as the chieftains in feudal Europe. Though turbulent and violent, they are considered by Tod as imbued with sentiments of honour, fidelity, and generosity, scarcely known among the inhabitants of the plain. They do not hold the female sex in that degraded state so general over India. The Rajpoor ladies are well informed, and regarded with somewhat of that romantic gallantry which prevailed in Europe during the middle ages. Yet they are guilty of a dreadful enormity, that of infanticide; many of the female children being murdered in the moment of birth: but this is said to be prompted by a preposterous pride, on account of the difficulty of procuring marriages suitable to their dignity, and even by a consideration of the enormous expense which it is supposed necessary to incur in the nuptial festival. Such is the extravagant display made on these occasions, that a year's income of the state is considered as a moderate amount. The only populous and powerful tract of this province is that reaching from Agra to Guzerat, on the western bank of the Chumbul. The country here does not present the same flat and sandy character as elsewhere: it is traversed by the long mountain chain of the Aravulli, on each side of which extend fine and fruitful valleys. It thus unites great military strength with considerable fertility.

Ajmeer, the capital of this province, being near the frontier of Agra, is not held by its native chiefs. It was an occasional residence of the Mogul emperors. For 600 years it has been a favourite resort of Mahometan pilgrimage, as it contains the tomb of a great saint, who is venerated even by the Hindoos. Eleven hundred attendant priests are maintained by the contributions of the pilgrims. The city has still a handsome palace, which was erected by the emperor Shah Jehan; but in other respects it is poor and in decay. The fort, built at the extremity of a range of hills, is of no great strength, but within it is
an ancient temple, which Colonel Tod considers as one of the most perfect monuments of Hindoo architecture. The surrounding country is flat and sandy.

The principal Rajpoot chiefs are those of Marwar, Mewar, and Jyeepoor or Jyenagur. The first is the most powerful: the rajah's territories extend along the western border of the Aravalli, passing gradually into the desert. His capital is Jodhpoor. His chiefs are brave and daring, and he is considered at present one of the chief native powers of India. He may be regarded as almost independent, though owning the supremacy of Britain. Mewar is a fine and beautiful valley, extending along the eastern side of the Aravalli. Its Rama, as he is called, is accounted the most noble of all these chiefs. His power, however, is inferior to that of the Marwar rajah; and a great part of his dominions, being contiguous to Malwa, the main seat of the Mahrattas, has been exposed to dreaded devastations from them. His capital of Oodipoor, however, is of peculiar natural strength; being enclosed, as well as several hundred surrounding villages, within an amphitheatre of hills, which can only be entered by one deep and dangerous defile. The palace of Oodipoor, on the borders of a beautiful lake, is peculiarly splendid; and that of Jugmunder, on an island in another lake, presents almost a magic scene. Chittore, once the capital, though now in decay, contains extraordinary monuments of ancient grandeur. The great column of victory, 122 feet high, and covered all over with exquisite sculpture, representing the principal objects of the native mythology, has been considered the most perfect specimen of Hindoo art. Jyeepoor is the most easterly and the most fertile of these principalities. It is even supposed that, with a better government than it has yet enjoyed, it might yield a revenue of 120 lacs of rupees, about 1,500,000L sterling. The capital, of the same name, is a handsome city, considered the most regularly built of any in Hindostan. The fortified palace of Umeer, built by one of the rajahs, is considered by Heber not inferior to Windsor.

The principalities now described are all arranged along the frontier of the central provinces of Malwa and Agra. As we retrace thence towards the Indus, we enter a vast and trackless desert of sand, which gives to this part of India an aspect resembling that of Arabia and Africa. Mr. Elphinstone, in his route from Delhi to Cabul, had an opportunity of observing it. The country of the Sheikbawattee, a rude predatory tribe, commencing 100 miles from the first-mentioned capital, was interspersed with cultivated spots, and the sands were sprinkled with tufts of long grass, and of a green plant called phoke; and there were towns of considerable magnitude. In the next territory of Bikanee, verdure was found only on detached spots, like the African oases. The traveller, however, was always refreshed with fine water-melons, the most juicy of fruits, which grew with their roots in the sand. The last hundred miles, between Pujul and Balowulpoor, presented a total absence of water or habitation. The ground was a flat of hard clay, which sounded under the feet like a board. Yet this most desolate portion of Ajmeer contains two chiefs of considerable power, those of Bikaner and of Jesselmure. Bikaner is populous, and its walls and towers present the aspect of a great and magnificent city in the midst of a wilderness. The dominions of the rajah of Jesselmure have been still less explored, it being only known that he reigns over a vast extent of desert, thinly interspersed with inhabited tracts; and that the population, composed almost wholly of native Hindoos, have never been subject to the Mogul, even in the greatest height of his power.

To the south of the mountainous and desert tracts of Ajmeer, and forming, as it were, its sea-coast, is the province of Cutch, extending from the Indus to the gulf of that name. The sterility here is but partially mitigated, though considerable numbers of horses and cattle are reared, and cotton forms an article of export. The inhabitants consist of a Rajpoot tribe called Jharejus, subject to chiefs who boast of never having been conquered. Their habits are predatory, and they take advantage of their extensive sea-coast to carry on a system of piracy, for which considerable scope is afforded by the commerce of Malabar. It is remarkable, that the population, though purely native, were converted, without conquest or compulsion, to the Mahometan religion. They practise infanticide to an excess beyond any other tribe, the whole of the female children having long been sacrificed, because peculiar circumstances of situation and taste preclude them altogether from the possibility of obtaining suitable marriages for their daughters. The British government, in a late treaty by which they extended their protection to the chiefs of this district, exacted a stipulation that they should discontinue this criminal system; but Mr. Baines suspects, from the small number of female children that make their appearance, that it is still extensively practised in the interior of palaces and castles.

On reaching the eastern shore of the Gulf of Cutch, we find ourselves in the province of Guzerat, which is peculiarly distinguished for the variety both of its aspect and population. It has districts as fertile and highly cultivated, and commercial emporia as flourishing, as any in India or in the world. Yet other tracts present the same rude and arid aspect, and are filled with the same wild and predatory races, as the desert provinces adjoining. The Gulf of Cambay, by which it is deeply indented, affords very large scope both for commerce and piracy. This district has produced an unexampled variety of castes and races. Among these, a number who, under the names of Bheels, Callies, Coo-
lees, and Grassias, occupy the ruder tracts in the interior, despise all approach to civilization, and subsist chiefly by preying on their more opulent neighbours. The unoccupied shores, also, of the gulls of Cambay and Cutch contain the holds of many desperate pirates. Guzerat has received the remnants of that oppressed and injured race the Magians, or ancient fire-worshippers of Persia, bearing still the appellation of Parsees. They are a peaceable, industrious, well-disposed people, to whom the province is indebted for much of its commercial prosperity. Surat numbers from 17,000 to 18,000, among whom are some of its richest merchants. They still retain their ancient reverence for fire, manifested by a peculiar reluctance to extinguish it; and also the strange custom of exposing their dead in handsome open tombs, to be devoured by birds of prey, with which their cemeteries are always crowded. They are divided into two classes, the nobobs and heerdans, clergy and laity, who are allowed only under narrow restrictions to intermarry with each other. The female sex are more on a level with the male than in other Oriental countries, and are distinguished by propriety of conduct. The religious sect called the Jains are also very numerous in Guzerat.

The pride of Guzerat is in its cities. Surat, at the first arrival of Europeans, was the greatest emporium of India, and at present it ranks scarcely second to Calcutta. The population is usually, though perhaps with some exaggeration, rated at 600,000. It has suffered by the desolation which has overtaken many of the neighbouring districts, and by the British having established the chief seat of their commerce at Bombay. It still, however, carries on extensive manufactures of silks, brocades, and fine cotton stuffs; while it exports also the fabrics of other parts of Guzerat, and even the slavels of Cashmere. At the same time, by the Taptee, Nerbuddah, and the gulf of Cambay, it introduces foreign commodities of every description into central and western India. It contains many houses handsomely built of stone, but intermixed with those wretched cottages of reeds and mud which form everywhere the habitation of the ordinary Hindoos. Surat contains many very opulent merchants, chiefly Banians and Parsees. The former carry to a great extent all the peculiarities of their religion, and manifest in a peculiar degree their tenderness for animal life, by erecting hospitals for birds, monkeys, and other animals accounted sacred. Ahmedabad, the political capital of Guzerat, now included within the British territory, and Cambay, its port, at the head of the gulf of the same name, are still flourishing cities, though much decayed since the time when the former was the seat of an independent government. It still, however, retains a gay city, and sends round the neighbouring districts a tribe of itinerant poets, minstrels, and musicians. Baroda, which, under the ancient name of Barygaza, was the chief emporium of this coast, is described by Heber as poor and dilapidated, though situated in a delightful country, and carrying on still some trade in cotton. Baroda, now the capital of the Gwinekar, the principal native chief, is still large and flourishing. Dwarka, an ancient and sacred city, and Puttan Sumnun, whose temple, the richest in India, was destroyed in the eleventh century by Mahmoud the Gaznavide, are now chiefly remarkable for the crowds of pilgrims which they attract. Diu, situated on an island off this coast, has lost all the importance it possessed at the time when it was conquered by the Portuguese.

SUBSEC. 3.—Central India; with the Deccan.

On leaving Guzerat, we ascend into the high and strong centre of India, the seat of its powerful and refractory tribes, who never fully owned the supremacy of the Mogul, and maintain, even in face of the still more overwhelming power of Britain, a remnant of independence. This character applies peculiarly to the province of Malwa, or, as it has been called, Central India. It occupies that elevated table-land over which the Nerbuddah flows during the greater part of its course, and, being placed at the base of the great southern peninsula, separates Hindostan Proper from what is called the Deccan. According to Sir John Malcolm, this table-land is “in general open, and highly cultivated, varied with small conical and table-crowned hills and low ridges, watered by numerous rivers and small streams, and favoured with a rich productive soil, and a mild climate, alike conducive to the health of man, and to the liberal supply of his wants and luxuries.” Though considerably above the general level of India, it seldom attains a greater elevation than 2000 feet above the sea. The climate is mild, and the soil, though generally of little depth, is not surpassed in fertility by any part of the empire. The most striking natural feature is the chain of the Vindyha mountains, which, extending from east to west, separates what is reckoned Malwa Proper from Nemiour, or the Valley of the Nerbuddah. The declivity of the Malwa side is small, but on the other is an abrupt and considerable ascent. The Nerbuddah rises near the eastern extremity of these mountains, in the district of Gundwana, close to the same spot which gives rise to the Soone. Its course is almost due west, parallel to the Vindyha mountains, of which it receives all the southern waters; and continues altogether for about 700 miles. It is not, however, navigable even for boats above 100 miles from its mouth, the upper course being completely obstructed by rocks and shallows.

The history of Malwa has been eventful, its strong position having rendered it often the seat of powerful, and even conquering governments. The exploits of Vicramaditya, one
of its early Hindoo kings, are much celebrated in Hindoo lore, though in a very indistinct and fabulous manner. Even after the Mahometan invasion, Malwa had Moolem rulers, among whom Mohammed Khiljee was pre-eminent; by him it was raised to a great height of power. As soon, however, as the Maharattas, amid the decline of Mogul sway, began to pour in from the Deccan, rearing the standard of Hindoo independence, they were received with open arms in Malwa, which had always remained strongly attached to native ideas and institutions. This province soon became the seat of the most powerful chiefs, who thence spread their conquests over Hindostan. In the course of these struggles, a complete ascendency was gained by the houses of Scindia and Holkar, the founders of which rose from the lowest stations. Setting out in the character of officers of the Peishwa, the acknowledged head of the Maharatta government, they soon became his masters, and were only prevented from entirely crushing his power by the interference of Britain. As soon as her armies came into the field, the pride of these chiefs was humbled; they were confined to the provinces of Malwa and Cundiesh, and reduced to a tributary and dependent state. In 1817, however, when the bands of robbers, organised under the name of Pindarees, placed the British government in alarm, the Maharatta states manifested a general disposition to seize the opportunity of reasserting their independence. Among the chiefs of Malwa, however, only the Holkar family openly declared themselves. As they were completely defeated in the battle of Meeulpoor, and all their principal fortresses taken, Britain then dictated the terms of a peace, which established a subsidiary force in Malwa, and placed the capital and the heir of the house within her tutelage. Scindia, on account of some very suspicious movements made by him, was also obliged to receive a British garrison within his strong fort of Asseergahur. His force now consists of about 20,000 foot and 10,000 horse, while that of Holkar is reduced to less than 5000.

The population of Malwa has not been accurately ascertained, unless in regard to the territories of Holkar. These, including the domain of some dependent chiefs, were found to contain in Malwa Proper 591,732; in Nemaur, 129,101. A comparison with the extent, gave ninety-eight to the square mile; which might, it was supposed, apply with tolerable accuracy to the whole region. A remarkably small proportion profess the Mahometan faith; in some of the towns, not a twentieth. Those in the country are chiefly converted Hindoes, who, as they still cling to their original rites, are not held in any esteem by the orthodox Mussulman. The country, previous to its conquest by the British, was entirely over-run by professional robbers, acting under hereditary princes. Besides the Bheels on the Gazerat frontier, who boast of an ancient and venerable origin, both to themselves and their calling, there is a numerous class called Grassias, consisting of small chiefs, who have been driven out by more powerful neighbours, but who, mustering round them a few followers, endeavour to maintain by plunder a portion of their former state. With them the British meditated an agreement that they should relinquish this turbulent system, on receiving a revenue or compensation from the hands on which they had any claim.

Trade and every branch of industry had sunk to a very low state, in consequence of the continued system of predatory warfare of which Malwa had been the theatre. A caravan of merchants resembled a military expedition, requiring the escort of a large body of troops; and even this precaution did not ensure its safety. The territories of the different chiefs, also, are so crossed and intermixed with each other, as to cause an exaction of hostages, tolls, and customs, almost at every step. These evils have been in some degree counteracted by a remarkably bold system of insurance, which undertakes to cover all these hardships and charges. The insurers maintain a large body of troops; and, by an understanding with the princes and those concerned in levying the duties, they make very considerable profits. The staple article of export is opium, to the extent of 6500 mounds, of which the price has lately been upwards of 60l. per maund; but this is ascribed to casual circumstances; and the future average is not expected to exceed 25l. Cloths of superior quality, produced at Chanderer and other places, have also been in request all over India; and though their fabric has been interrupted by recent anarchy, it is now expected to revive. Nemaur produces a valuable breed of black cattle. The principal imports are silks, chintzes, and other fine manufactures, with British woollens; which last, however, are used not as apparel, but for trappings and ornaments. These, being all articles of luxury, have been materially diminished by the poverty of the country; but may augment, if it shall continue to enjoy the blessings of peace.

Among the cities of Malwa, the most ancient, and still the most important, is Oojain. It is situated about seventy miles north of the Nerbullah, on the Sepr, a small river tributary to the Chumbul. Oojain holds a high rank among the sacred cities of the Purans; and the Hindoo geographers have even fixed on it as their first meridian. Under the name of Ozene, it is mentioned as a great interior capital by Ptyleny and the author of the Periplus. The modern town stands at some distance from the old site, which was overwhelmed by a change in the channel of the river. Of late years it derived great additional lustre from being chosen by Scindia for his capital; and its circuit of six miles was filled with a crowded population; but he has now quitted it for Gwalior. A large proportion consists of Mahomet-
ANS, who have built four handsome mosques. Indore, the capital of the Holkars, is a modern place, raised from a village by the Princess Alia Bhye, the most illustrious ruler of that race. As a capital, it is still not of very great magnitude. Dhar, the ancient Dharmagur, is a place of very great antiquity, and appears at one period to have been a most flourishing capital. Though not occupying above a fourth of its former site, it is still the residence of an independent rajah, Rumbhunder Picar, who reigns over a very fertile district, yielding him a revenue of 125,000 rupees. Nennur, a rich pastoral district, composed of the valley of the Nerhuddah, has for its capital Mhysir, pleasantly situated on the right bank of the river, and raised to its present rank by Alia Bhye, who made it her residence, and adorned it with a number of beautiful temples. In the district of Harrowtie, bordering on Ajmer, Kotah has been raised by its present rajah, Salim Singh, to be one of the most opulent and beautiful cities of Malwa. The conduct of this prince, at once prudent and vigorous, has rescued him and his people from all the calamities and wars which have lately desolated central India, and has converted his little principality into the most effective and flourishing of its states. He maintains a well disciplined army of 25,000 men, and enjoys a revenue of 4,700,000 rupees. Near Kotah, at Baroli and Jalrapatan, Colonel Tod discovered temples, which, in the beautiful profusion of sculptured ornaments, surpass those found in any other part of India. Jalrapatan has become a great seat of inland trade. Bhopal, a town situated on a lake upon the immediate frontier of Gondwana, is the capital of a rajah, who reigns over an uneven, jingly, but in many places fertile tract. This prince, after suffering severely from an unequal contest with Scindia, has had his power and territory augmented by the friendship of Britain. He now maintains an army of 6000 troops, with 180 guns, and draws a revenue of 900,000 rupees. Rath is the name given to a wild, hilly, and wooded district bordering on Guzerat. It is occupied by Bhools and a number of petty predatory princes, who has each his little capital; but it contains no city of magnitude. Bagar and Kantul are districts of similar character, continued along the frontier of Ajmer. This range of territory conceals many beautiful valleys, and presents also numerous monuments of antiquity, of which the most remarkable are the excavated temples near the town of Bang, in Rath. A few remains, covered with jungle and crumbling to pieces, alone survive of the glory of Mandeo, which, raised by Mohammad Khiljee, during the period of the greatest prosperity of Malwa, attained a magnificence never equalled by any other capital of central India. Like Babylon, it seems to have been rather a fortified district than a mere city; being thirty-seven miles in circumference, and enclosing 12,500 acres. It occupied the crest of the Vindhy mountains, and was enclosed on all sides by a rugged natural ravine, which a strong interior wall rendered almost inaccessible to Indian attack. Nothing is left of this noble city but a small fort, frequented by religious mendicants, and some fragments of tombs and palaces, sufficient, however, to attest its departed grandeur. The ancient city of Woon, in Malwa, is distinguished by some very splendid architectural remains.

After passing the Nerhuddah commences the division of India called the Deccan, a large expanse of territory, filling all the broadest part of that triangular peninsula which has its vertex at Cape Comorin, while its base is formed by the Nerhuddah, and by a line continued from that river to the mouth of the Ganges. This region, with the exception of the seacoast, from which it is separated by the Ghauts, composes a table-land of some elevation, though inferior to Malwa on one side, and to Mysore on the other. It thus enjoys a happier climate, and displays more brilliant vegetation, than can be attained without inundation, on the level plains of the tropic. The Deccan is watered by two rivers, second, indeed, to those of Hindostan Proper, but still great and sacred streams: the Krishna, or Kistna, and the Godavery, which both rise in the Western Ghauts, and flow across the entire breadth of the peninsula. The former, bearing the name of one of the most popular Hindoo deities, has a course of about 650 miles, the latter of about 800. The Deccan, separated from Hindostan Proper by a considerable space, and by strong natural barriers, was never reduced by foreign invaders to nearly the entire subjection. The Mogul empire, in its greatest energy, scarcely held Vizianspoo and Golconda as much as the tributaries. As soon as the strength of that empire was shaken, the Mahrattas severed from it the principal Deccanee provinces, and pursued beyond those boundaries their career of conquest and ravage.

Candish, or Khandeish, a long narrow province, extending along the southern bank of the Nerhuddah, is, perhaps, the strongest military country in the world. It is entirely studded with that species of fortress, seemingly formed by nature to be absolutely impregnable. Solitary hills, composed of surrounding perpendicular walls of rock, with a plain on their summit, require only slight artificial defences to become impregnable alike to sap, artillery, and assault; and yield only to the influence of panic or famine. In the last campaign, before the war of sieges began, the spirit of the confederacy was entirely broken by the total rout of the Holkar forces at Mehindpool; and the different kildars or governors sought little more than to make a decent show of resistance. Though Candish has a surface thus diversified, it is not, generally, a mountainous territory; many parts of it are capable of high cultivation, and, notwithstanding the late scenes of war and devastation, are rendered surprisingly productive. Besides the bounding stream of the Nerhuddah, this pro-
vince is traversed by the Taptce or Tuptce, which, falling into the sea at Surat, after a course of 500 miles, would afford, in peaceable times, ample facilities for commerce.

The most important among the forts of Candeish, and the centre of the strength of Scindia, is Asseerghur. A perpendicular rock, of the kind common in this part of India, rises above its surrounding bed of small hills. On one side, indeed, it is almost accessible; and there it is defended by two retaining walls, which form, however, an imperfect substitute for the natural rocky barrier. In the last war, neither the supplies nor the defences were found to answer expectation. The vicinity consists of wild ravine and jungle, dreadfully infested with tigers. Malligauum is on the frontier of Aurungabad, to which some consider it as belonging; but the narrator of the late Indian campaign considers it as the key of Candeish, and reports an Indian proverb, "Get but possession of Malligauum, and you have Candeish by the nose." It is a solitary hill, in the midst of a rich, extensive, and completely level plain; but its strength seems less due to natural position, than to its lofty walls, the succession of exterior works, and of six strong gateways, which bar the approach. It stood a month's hard siege by the British in the last campaign. If Malligauum owes so much to art, nature has done all for the splendid fortress of Unkie Tunkie. A more complete specimen of natural fortification seems scarcely to exist. On every side the perpendicular wall rises to the height of 150 to 200 feet, enclosing on the top a level plain of a mile in circuit. The ascent is by flights of steps cut in the solid rock, secured by the strongest possible gateways. It has copious magazines, granaries, armories, all hewn out of the rock, and thus setting bombardment at defiance. It was only, therefore, through the determination of the rajah to abandon a sinking cause, that the attack of the British, on the 5th of April, 1818, was immediately successful, and their flag was seen "waving on the lofty and beautiful battlements of Unkie." Trimback, on a larger scale, is a tremendous and wonderful hill-fort, impregnable to any army or artillery, however numerous. It measures ten miles round its base, and about four round its upper surface. The ascent is by a flight of 200 almost perpendicular steps; but it is impossible, without danger, to look back on the perilous steep of 600 or 700 feet beneath. From the top of this hill descends, falling drop by drop, the rill which forms the source of the great Godavery. In crossing the Tuptce, the English troops almost unexpectedly came upon Tahnair, which defends its passage, and owes its chief strength to the being surrounded on all sides either by the river or a deep ravine. Burhanpoor, formerly the capital of Candeish, is still a large city, strengthened by a fort which, however, has never made any formidable resistance. The city is distinguished chiefly by being the head-quarters of a Mahometan sect called Bohrahs, whose habits are very commercial, and of whom 6000 reside in Surat.

Directly south from Candeish, and forming the western part of the Deccan, stretch the large provinces of Aurungabad and Beiaipoor, containing the original seats of Maharatta power. They present a great similarity in their general aspect; the surface being rugged, irregular, and among the western Ghaunts even mountainous. These provinces are watered by the upper streams of the Kistna and the Godavery, not yet become rivers of the first magnitude. The soil is in some parts dry and rugged, but in many is capable of the highest culture. It supports, accordingly, a population which, though not supposed equal to what it is capable of maintaining, is estimated, in Aurungabad at 6,000,000, and in Beiaipoor at 7,000,000. These two provinces are strong in a military sense; containing many natural fortresses, though neither so numerous nor so complete as those of Candeish. They have never been subject, for any length of time, to the general government of Hindostan. Even after the reduction of the native governments, Adil Shah, in 1489, founded the kingdom of Beiaipoor, or, as it was called in Europe, Viziaipoor, which held high sway over the Deccan, till the year 1689, when it yielded to the arms of Aurungzebe. Scarcely, however, had this conquest been completed, when the Maharatta power arose, which disputed the conquests of that emperor, and soon drove his feeble successors from all this part of India. Poona then became the residence of the Peishwa, and the chief nominal seat of Maharatta sovereignty; though the success of the rebel houses of Scindia and Holkar transferred the real seat of that power to the more northern provinces.

Poona, thus become metropolitan among the Maharatta cities, is, however, by no means the most splendid. None of its sovereigns possessed that peaceful wealth which could enable them to indulge the Oriental taste for costly architecture. It seems to have been originally destined rather for a camp than a city; and in the great assemblages of the Maharatta confederacy, nearly 500,000 have mustered in and around it. The fixed population does not exceed 100,000. It resembles a huge village rather than a city; the houses are irregularly built, chiefly of slight brick walls, by which even the palace is entirely enclosed. For resisting the violent rains, these structures depend chiefly on interior timber frames: they are painted with innumerable representations of the Hindoo Pantheon. The markets are plentifully supplied with provisions of every kind. Poona is now included in the British territory, and attached to the presidency of Bombay. Satara, a hill-fort, about fifty miles to the south, after being long the state prison of the hereditary rajahs, became the nominal capital, since Britain deposed the Peishwa, and restored the ancient head of the confederacy to
some degree of power; but, as this way is limited, Satara will not probably rise to the rank of a great city.

A very different degree of magnificence is perceptible in the remains of the ancient capital of Vizianagar, or Bejaipur. The fort is, perhaps, the largest in the world, being eight miles in circumference, and containing numerous gardens, mosques, and palaces. The great mosque of Adil Shah, which cost 700,000 rupees and occupied 6500 men for thirty-seven years, is still in tolerable preservation. The fort, with the city, separated from it by a large plain, now presents a district covered by ruins, interspersed with several detached towns, the population of which has not been estimated. Aurungabad and Dowratabad form two great ancient capitals, almost contiguous to each other. The latter, originally called Deogir, is the most ancient; and in the fourteenth century Mahomet III. made extraordinary efforts to render it the general capital of Hindostan. It is very strongly situated on the side of a hill, and, being well fortified, is considered as the key of the Deccan. Till the Mogul conquest, it gave name to the province; but Aurangzebe conferred the former appellation (Anrungabad) on the neighbouring village of Gurka, which he soon made the capital of the Deccan. Both cities are still populous, and contain vestiges of ancient grandeur. At present, they form part of the dominions of the Nizam. Ahmednagar, once the capital of another powerful dynasty, and still a considerable city, is now included in the British territory.

Near Dowratabad are found the wonders of Ellora, perhaps the most extensive and surprising monuments of ancient Hindoo architecture. They consist of an entire hill, excavated into a range of highly sculptured and ornamented temples. “The number and magnificence of the subterranean temples,” says Mr. Erskine, “the extent and loftiness of some, the endless diversity of sculpture in others, the variety of curious foliage, of minute tracery, highly wrought pillars, rich mythological designs, sacred shrines and colossal statues, astonish but distract the mind.” It appeared truly wonderful “that such prodigious efforts of labour and skill should remain, from times certainly not barbarous, without a trace to tell us the hand by which they were designed, or the populous and powerful nation by which they were completed.” The courts of Indra, of Juggernart, of Parasu Rama, the Dommur Leyna, or nuptial palace, are the names given to several of these grand excavations. But the greatest admiration has been excited by the one called Keylas or paradise, consisting of a conical edifice, separated from the rest, and hewn out of the solid rock, 100 feet high, and upwards of 500 feet in circumference, and entirely covered with mythological sculptures.

The interior of the Deccan, to the eastward, comprising the provinces of Hydralab, Nandere, Beeder, and the greater part of Barar, composes a large surviving fragment of the Mogul empire, under the government of the Nizam. This officer, at first a mere viceroy, took advantage, like others, of the downfall of the empire, to assume independence. Having connected himself by alliance with Britain, he was enriched with the spoils of the Mahretta empire, and finally obtained a territory extending upwards of 400 miles in length by 200 in breadth, and containing more than 8,000,000 inhabitants. Though allowed, however, to carry on the internal government, he is kept in a state of entire dependence as to all his foreign relations; and a subsidiary, or, more properly, a ruling, force is constantly stationed in his capital. So irksome, it is suspected, does the Nizam feel this protection, that he was strongly inclined, in the last war, to join the Mahretta confederacy; but, if he entertained any such intention, the rapid success of the British arms deterred him from open hostilities. The whole of this territory is a table-land, diversified by hills considerably less lofty than those of the Western Deccan. It has many fertile spots, particularly in the small province of Nandere, extending along the Godavery, and in the more southerly one of Beeder. It benefits little by its exemption from foreign internal sway, being one of the most oppressed and misgoverned districts in India, without wealth or population adequate to its natural resources. It has no flourishing manufactures, and the import of European goods is not supposed to exceed the annual value of 25,000l.

Hydralab, capital of the province of the same name, may be considered also the present capital of the Deccan, the removal of the Nizam thither from Aurungabad having attracted to it a population of about 120,000. It is seven miles in circumference, surrounded by a wall, not sufficiently strong, however, to convert it into a military position. Though not a fine city, Hydralab contains some handsome mosques; and the Nizam maintains, on a smaller scale, a semblance of Mogul pomp. He has large magazines filled to the ceiling with fine cloths, watches, porcelain, and other ornamental articles presented to him by European embassies.

About six miles from Hydralab is Golconda, formerly the capital of a kingdom which has a splendid name in Europe, from its diamond mines in the subject district in Gumwana. It is situated on a high rock, so strong by nature and art that it is believed by the natives to be impregnable. No European has ever been admitted. The vicinity is adorned with a
number of splendid tombs. Warangal, about fifty miles from Hyderabad, presents only the ruins of the ancient metropolis of Telangana, when that name, now only applied to a language, designated a large extent of eastern and central India. Nandere and Beeder, capitals of their respective provinces, are both fortified towns, but not of remarkable extent. Of Beeder, it has been remarked, that in its vicinity are spoken the three languages of the east, west, and south; the Telenga, the Mahrrta, and Canara. The most northerly part of the territories of the Nizam consists of that largest part of Berar, of which Ellichpoo is the capital. The province is high, rude, and in general imperfectly cultivated, though its bullocks are reckoned the best in Hindostan.

The eastern portion of Berar, with the greater part of the rugged border province of Gundwana, forms the domain of the rajah of Nagpoor, or of Berar, chief of what are called the Eastern Mahrrtta. Ragajee Bhoonsoolal, the founder of this dynasty, boasted a higher descent than the Pei-lawn, though he began his career only as an officer under that personage. In 1803, he joined Scindia against Britain; but the signal successes gained by General Wellesly obliged him to consent to a treaty, by which he ceded the district of Cuttack in Orissa, and a great part of Berar. In 1817, the rajah, Appa Sahib, at the commencement of the campaign, lulled the British into security by lavish professions of fidelity; but on the 27th of November the Arabs in his service made a sudden attack on their corps stationed at Nagpoor, and it was not without great loss that they were repulsed, and obliged to quit the place. The rajah then offered a semblance of submission; but soon afterwards seized an opportunity of escaping and joining the enemy. The issue of the campaign converted him into an exile and a fugitive. The British placed on the throne his son, a youth; but arranged that all affairs should be carried on by a regency, the leading member of which was their own resident. Nagpoor, chief among the cities of the rajah, raised from a village by Ragajee Bhoonsoolal, contains about 50,000 inhabitants, but is meagrely built, and possesses no great strength as a fortress. The bulwark of the territory is considered to be Gwailghour, in Berar. This strong-hold, consisting of an outer and an inner fort, is built on a high rocky hill, and was regarded by the natives as impregnable, till 1803, when it yielded in a few days to the army of General Wellesly.

Gundwana, with a few exceptions, is the poorest and rudest province of Hindostan. It is mountainous, ill-watered, covered with jungle, and thinly inhabited; it was consequently almost neglected by the Mogul potentates, and left to the Goonds, its almost savage native possessors. When the Mahrrtta, however, established a government at Nagpoor, they took possession of all the parts that were at all valuable or cultivated, and the Goonds were driven into the highest and most inaccessible tracts, from whence they descend only for the purposes of plunder.

Orissa, to the east of Gundwana, occupies the whole sea-coast of the Deccan, from the Carnatic to Bengal. The interior, traversed by a portion of the great chain of the Ghauts, is still more rugged than Gundwana: it is marshy, covered with jungle, and infested by a dangerous malady, called the hill-fever. The Oureas, a tribe of fierce and rude natives, inhabit these wild recesses, and render themselves formidable to the Mahrrtta; but the influence of British law has converted them into peaceable subjects. The three great rivers, the Mahanundy, Gavdary, and Kistna, discharge themselves into the sea; the first at the north, and the two latter at the southern extremity of this province.

The Circars, comprising that part of Orissa which is situated between the Ghauts and the sea, is of quite a different character from the interior regions now described: it is indeed one of the most valuable districts in Hindostan; equal to the Carnatic in fertility, and superior in manufacturing industry. It is remarkable also, as being the first territory of any considerable extent which came under the dominion of the East India Company. The French, in 1759, having been driven from Masulipatam, Lord Clive obtained from the Mogul the grant of the territory; and the Nizam, though then in actual possession, was not in a condition to dispute the transaction. The internal government has not been materially altered, the villages being ruled according to their ancient institutions; but the power of the zamindar, who, at the first occupation, could assemble 41,000 troops, has been greatly broken. Calicoes and chintzes are the staple manufacture, the finest of which are produced on the island of Nagur, forming the delta of the Godavery. These manufactures are exported to Europe, and various parts of the East, but particularly to Persia, where the demand for them is most extensive. The Circars are five in number; Guntore, Condapilly, Ellore, Rajambur, and Cicacole: Masulipatam has lately been considered as forming a sixth.

The important trade of this district centres almost entirely in Masulipatam, a large seaport, with the best harbour in the whole coast from Cape Comorin. More than half of its exports are to Bassora, the rest chiefly to Madras, which it supplies with a considerable quantity of grain.

Cuttack, traversed by the lower Mahanundy, forms an extensive district, connecting the
Circars with Bengal. It is in many parts fertile, with some flourishing manufactures; and it supports a population of 1,200,000 people. Cuttack, the capital, situated on a broad channel of the Mahanuddy, is a town of importance. But the most remarkable district and place is in the holy land of Juggernaut, which comprises a circuit of fifteen miles, and has already been described as the strange and horrible scene of Indian fanaticism and idolatry.

In surveying the Western Deccan, we purposely reserved the coast, which displays a character quite different from the interior. It contains one grand feature, Bombay (fig. 630), the western capital of British India. This city is situated on a small island connected by an artificial causeway with the larger one of Salsette. It commands a beautiful view over a bay, diversified with rocky islets, and crowned by a background of lofty and picturesque hills. Tanna, in Salsette, was the original settlement of the Portuguese. Attracted by the fine harbour of Bombay, they erected a small fort there; but none of their establishments on this coast were allowed to rival Goa. In 1661, Bombay was ceded to Charles II., as part of Queen Catherine's portion; two or three years after, a settlement was established, and in 1666 the chief seat of English trade was transferred thither from Surat. Since that time, Bombay, notwithstanding considerable vicissitudes, has continued on the whole in a state of constant increase, and has become the great emporium of western India, with a population of 220,000. Of these, about 8000 are Parsees, the most wealthy of the inhabitants, and by whom its prosperity is mainly supported. There are also Jews, Mahometans, and Portuguese in considerable numbers; but the Hindoos comprise three-fourths of the whole. The presidency of Bombay is not of the same extent with those on the eastern side of the empire, being closely hemmed in by the great holds of Mahratta power in the Deccan. It includes, however, Surat, Baraugh, and the finest districts of Guzerat; and thus comprehends a population of about 6,250,000. Bombay has a governor and council, subordinate to the supreme government at Calcutta. It contains also a court of judicature, administered by a single judge, with the title of Recorder. The number of civil servants in the establishment amounted, in 1811, to seventy-four, and the appointments of the whole civil service to 174,236l. A literary society has been established at Bombay, chiefly with a view of exploring the learning, history, and antiquities of India. The commerce direct with Britain is not so extensive as that of the other two presidencies, the adjacent territory affording few of the staple Indian commodities. The exports, not exceeding 200,000l., consist chiefly of miscellaneous articles, collected from different parts of India. The Cancon and Guzerat supply it with grain and provisions, and the latter with fine manufactures, which are re-exported to every part of the East. Pepper and other spices are drawn from Canara, and raw silk in large quantity from Bengal. The communication with China is extensive, that empire furnishing many articles suited to the consumption of the natives, and receiving a large supply of opium. The intercourse with Cutch, Sinde, and the Persian Gulf, is also considerable. The total imports, in 1811-12, amounted to 16,970,000 rupees, and the exports to 14,550,000.

The vicinity of Bombay is distinguished by the most ancient and remarkable of the religious structures formed by the Hindoos. The most celebrated is that of Elephanta (fig. 631), on a small adjoining island of the same name. It is situated about three-quarters of a mile up the side of a mountain, from the rocks of which it is entirely excavated. The entry is by four rows of massive columns, forming three magnificent avenues. The interior is 220 feet long by 150 broad, but little more than fifteen feet in height. The most remarkable object consists in three colossal heads, which have been supposed to be those of the Hindoo Trinity; but it seems now agreed that they are only different representations of Siva.

The caves of Kenneri, on the larger island of Salsette; and those of Carli, on the opposite shore of the continent, present phenomena almost equally striking. The mountain of Ken-
neri, according to Mr. Forbes, appears to have had a city hewn in its rocky sides (fig. 632), capable of containing many thousand inhabitants. There are tanks, terraces, flights of steps; every thing that could conduce to their accommodation; yet the ground is now never trodden by a human footstep, except that of the curious traveller. There is a cavern-temple, the interior (fig. 633) of which, though less spacious than that of Elephanta, is loftier, and adorned with more numerous ranges of columns. The cave-temple at Carli is on a still greater scale than that of Kenmeri.

The coast extending south from Bombay is called Concan. It consists of a strip of territory about forty miles in breadth, sloping down from the Ghauts to the sea. Though uniform in its general character, it is broken into a number of little bays and harbours, while the rising grounds behind afford an extensive prospect over the sea. These advantages, in a maritime district, which forms a great commercial thoroughfare between flourishing states, caused it to be frequented at an early period by predatory adventurers, and it then acquired the appellation of the "coast of the pirates," which has ever since been strictly applicable. Towards the close of the seventeenth century, Anjiria, a piratical chief, established there an extensive power, which yielded, however, in 1736, to the united arms of the British and the Maharrattas. The territory was at first annexed to that of the Poonah Maharrattas; but it is now, with the exception of a small portion, subject to the Rajah of Colapoor, and almost wholly under British control.

Goa, at the southern extremity of the Concan, having been captured by the Portuguese in 1510, became their principal settlement, and was long the European capital of India. Even in its present utter decay, it retains traces of its early magnificence. The cathedral, and the convent of the Augustines, are superior to any other specimens of European, and perhaps of native, architecture in India. It retains an air of gloomy monastic grandeur. A territory of forty miles in length, and twenty in breadth, is still dependent upon it; but the settlement seems almost entirely abandoned by the government at home.

SUBJECT 4.—The South of India.

In passing the confines of Vizianagar and the Concan, we leave all that ever constituted part of the Mogul empire, or at least was regularly apportioned among its provinces. The south of India, reaching from this point to Cape Comorin, is divided into a number of little kingdoms, always independent, until they were absorbed under the dominion of Britain.

We shall begin with the maritime tract of Malabar. This name properly belongs to a small kingdom, of which the capital, Calicut, was found by the first Portuguese navigators to be the seat of a most ample dominion, under a sovereign called the Zamorin. Hence Malabar has extended its name to the whole of the tract in question, and has even been applied loosely to all the western coast of the peninsula, as far as the Gulf of Cambay. Considered as the coast reaching from the Concan to Cape Comorin, it forms a region 500 miles in length, thirty or forty in breadth, interposed between the Indian Ocean and the almost continuous chain of the Western Ghauts. This position supplies it with copious moisture. Its surface, rugged, rocky, and irregular, may be rendered highly productive with careful cultivation, which is generally bestowed. It yields very large crops of rice, forming an article of export to Bombay and the northern coasts. But the staple of its European commerce is pepper, produced in greater abundance and perfection than in any other part of the globe. It produces, also, very copiously, the noted Indian luxury of the betel leaf and areca nut; likewise ginger, cardamoms, and several other spices. The upper districts abound with fine timber, particularly the teak, so pre-eminently valuable for ship-building; also sandal, sapan, and other dyeing and ornamental woods. The region does not contain...
any fine or flourishing manufactures; but with its grain, timber, and spices, purchases the
fine cottons of Guzerat.

Social life, throughout Malabar, presents a varied and often very peculiar aspect. The
original structure of Hindoo society has not been altered by foreign conquests, though varied
by some casual migrations; but it has assumed within itself some forms decidedly in contrast
with those which it elsewhere exhibits. The tyrannical prejudices of caste are carried to a
more violent and inhuman pitch than in the rest of India. If a cultivator (tiar) or fisherman
(mucua) presume to touch one of the nairs, or military class, the nair is considered fully
justified in killing him on the spot. The same fate befalls the paria who ventures even to
look him in the face, and does not, on seeing him at a distance, instantly take flight. This
last race are all slaves; a condition not common in the rest of Hindostan. But there is
another class of sufferers, whom a barbarous pride has stripped beyond any other of the most
common rights of humanity. The niadie are excluded from all human intercourse, forced
to wander in unfrequented places, without any means of support, except the alms of passen-
gers. These they endeavour to attract, by standing at a little distance from the public
road, and “howling like hungry dogs,” till the charitable wayfarer lays on the ground some
donation, which, after his departure, they hastily carry off.

While these unhappy races are kept in the lowest misery, the nairs, or nobles, revel in
extravagant pomp and gaiety. This remarkable body are, in the Hindoo system, classed as
sadus, though they rank immediately under the brahmans, the intermediate classes being
here wanting. Indeed, they are manifestly equal in dignity with the eschatryas of North-
western Hindostan. Their most peculiar but least honourable characteristic consists in the
arrangements with regard to the nair females. For them a system of the most shameless
profligacy is marked out, and enforced even by sacred sanctions. They are married at ten
years of age, and have an aliment transmitted to them by their husband, whom they must
not, however, see, or hold any intercourse with: a single instance of such connexion would
be considered scandalous. They reside with their mother, and, after her death, with their
brother; and they are allowed, and regard it an honour, to attract as many lovers as possible,
provided they be of equal or superior rank. It is thus considered a ridiculous question to
ask a nair who is his father. The only real parentage rests with the brother of the wife,
whose children are considered as belonging to him, and to whom all his property and titles
are transmitted.

A striking peculiarity, on the Malabar coast, consists in the early colonies of Christians
and Jews, which still form a considerable part of its population. So numerous are the former,
as to give Malabar, in many quarters, the appearance of a Christian country: they are com-
puted, on the whole, at from 100,000 to 150,000. They derive from a somewhat doubtful
tradition the title of Christians of St. Thomas; yet their origin really does not appear to be
much later than the apostolic age. Their original form of worship was simple and primitive;
but the Portuguese, who at an early period became masters of this coast, considering such
worship as heresy, began a violent persecution, by which these poor people were at length
obliged to admit into their churches saints and images, to embrace the doctrines of purgatory
and transubstantiation, and to treat the marriage of priests as unlawful. They could not,
however, be induced to hear the service read in Latin: the Portuguese were obliged to
concede this point, and allow the use of the Syriac. A sort of Syro-Roman church was thus
formed; but Dr. Claudius Buchanan, on penetrating into the interior of Travancore, discovered
a body of these Christians in their original simplicity. The intelligence of the people, the
virtuous liberty of the female sex, and the whole aspect of society, seemed to indicate a Pro-
testant country. They were poor, having suffered much from the Portuguese, but now enjoy
almost entire toleration.

The Jews of Malabar, who amount to about 30,000, are divided into White and Black,
forming quite distinct classes; the white considering the other as comparatively low and
impure. They are supposed to have arrived not very long after the destruction of Jerusalem;
and in 490 obtained the gift of the city of Cranganore; but, having incurred the hostility
of a neighbouring potentate, this settlement was broken up and dispersed. The black Jews
have been supposed by some to be Hindoo converts; but Dr. Buchanan rather imagines them
to be of an earlier race, who emigrated at the time of the Babylonish captivity. Both tribes
have Hebrew manuscripts of the Old Testament, which appear to be preserved in a state of
tolerable purity.

In surveying this coast in detail, we begin with Canara, which extends along the sea about
200 miles. The northern part is very hilly, and produces chiefly teak wood; but the southern,
called by the natives Tulava, is well cultivated, and exports large quantities of rice. The
former contains about 7000, the latter about 80,000 houses; and we may reckon about five
inhabitants to each house. Hindoos of that peculiar sect called the Jains abound in the
country. There are also a considerable number of Christians; but the sea-coast is chiefly
possessed by a class of Mahometans called Moplahs, apparently emigrants from Arabia.
Through their means, Hyder and Tippoo were complete masters of Canara, and the latter
carried on a violent persecution against the professors of all other religions. After his fall, however, Canara, in 1799, was annexed to the British dominion, and toleration was restored.

The principal city of Canara is Mangalore, long a flourishing emporium. It suffered in the war between the Mysore sovereigns and the British government. Being taken by the British in 1738, it was defended with extraordinary valour against the whole force of Tipoo. In the following year, it was surrendered by treaty to that prince, who then dismantled the fortifications. Since coming under British dominion, Mangalore has flourished, and carries on a very great export of rice. It is situated on a peninsula formed by a very beautiful arm of the sea, and on the bank of a considerable river. The port will not admit vessels drawing more than ten feet water; but the anchorage at the mouth of the river is good. Omne, Curwar, and Barcoloe were deprived, by the devastations of Tipoo, of the great trade they once possessed, but are reviving under British auspices.

Proceeding southwards, the next district is that of Malabar Proper, which occupies about 200 miles of coast, and contains upwards of 600,000 inhabitants. The soil immediately along the shore is poor and sandy; but in the interior it consists of hills, the sides of which are formed into terraces, with fertile valleys interposed. Pepper, abundantly raised in the hill-forests of this country, forms the staple of a very extensive foreign trade. Calicut, which first gave to De Gama an idea of the splendour of Indian cities, was the residence of the Zamorin, whose empire then extended wide along Malabar. Its power was materially broken by unsuccessful contests with the Portuguese; and, towards the close of the last century, was finally destroyed by the invasions of Hyder and Tipoo. In the struggle which terminated in the downfall of the latter, Britain derived some aid from the native chiefs, who in return were invested with the internal jurisdiction of the country, subject to the payment of a regular tribute. Between powers placed in so delicate a relation, dissensions were not long of arising; and conflicts ensued, which terminated in favour of the British, who assumed the uncontrolled dominion of this country, its territory being annexed to the Madras presidency. The Zamorin, like the Mogul, is now a stipendiary of the British Indian government.

Calicut, the once proud capital of Malabar, was entirely destroyed by Tipoo; but, as soon as British ascendency permitted, the inhabitants, animated by that local attachment which is strong in India, hastened to return. It is now supposed to contain from 20,000 to 30,000 inhabitants, and has an improving trade. The most remarkable modern city, however, has been Cananore, the seat of a great female potentate called the Bihy; and, from its almost impregnable position, regarded as the main hold of the Moplays or Mahometans of Malabar. The Bihy is still allowed to administer Cananore and the fine country in its immediate vicinity. She carries on also considerable mercantile transactions with Bengal and Arabia, and includes in her sovereignty the Laccadives, an archipelago of low shingly islets, facing the coast of Malabar, at the distance of from seventy-five to 150 miles. They, however, produce nothing but betel and plantains, and are inhabited by poor Moplay fishermen. Tellebery, long the principal English settlement and seat of trade, still contains many rich merchants, and a polished society; but since the capture, in 1793, of Malé, then the principal French settlement, the preference has been given to that place, which has the advantage of a particularly fine situation.

South of Malabar Proper is the small province of Cochin, which presents the same general aspect as the rest of the coast, and particularly abounds in teak timber, though the finest trees have now been cut, without any care to renew them. The Jewish and Christian colonies are particularly numerous in this territory. Cochin, the capital, was the first point at which the Portuguese were allowed to erect a fort. In 1663, it was taken by the Dutch, and was rendered by them one of the most flourishing cities of India. The rajah has maintained his independence better than most Hindoo princes. He was merely tributary to Tipoo, and is allowed even by Britain to carry on the internal affairs of his state, though under payment of a heavy tribute. Cochin still enjoys a considerable trade. Ten miles to the north is Cranganore, which the Portuguese have made the seat of a bishop's see, holding authority over eighty-nine churches.

The extended line of coast from Cochin to Cape Comorin is filled by the dominions of the Rajah of Travancore. They contain a population of about 2,000,000, and possess all the advantages peculiar to the Malabar coast. The inland districts, in particular, are remarkable for fertility and beauty. They exhibit a varied scene, consisting of hills clothed with lofty forest, and of winding streams, with valleys clad in perpetual verdure. The woods are perfumed with numberless aromatic plants. Besides the staple article of pepper, Travancore yields ginger, turmeric, and inferior species of nutmeg and cinnamon. The rajah, like that of Cochin, conducts the internal affairs of his dominions, but on a footing completely subject and tributary to the Company. An attempt made in 1809 to shake off this yoke only riveted his chains the closer. Travancore, the ancient capital, is situated somewhat up the country, in a soil of white sand; but it is much decayed since the rajah removed to a new palace, built on the European model, at Trivandrapatam. Trivander, Coolan, Anjengo, and Coleshay, afford
convenient havens for trade, though the strong currents which run along the coast render navigation difficult.

At the extreme point of the territory of Travancore is situated Cape Comorin, the southern boundary of India; a bold and commanding feature, which presents to the ocean a lofty hill covered with the most brilliant verdure; but the rocks scattered along the shore render it necessary for the navigator to keep at a distance.

After turning Cape Comorin, we find ourselves in that extensive territory, to which Europeans have given the name of Carnatic. It stretches about 500 miles along the coast, as far as Montapilly, thus stopping somewhat short of the great natural boundary of the Kistna. It is divided into two parts by the chain of Eastern Ghauts, running, like the Western, parallel to the coast. One of these divisions is called the Carnatic above, and the other the Carnatic below, the Ghauts; but the former is better known, and will be described, under the title of Mysore; and the territory on the coast will be here considered as the proper Carnatic. It is called also the coast of Coromandel; and, though in its general structure similar to Malabar, presents some marked differences. The mountains are distant from the sea fifty, seventy, or a hundred miles; and, instead of being clothed with vast and majestic woods, are in most places naked and rocky. The region is watered by several great rivers, rising in the western Ghauts, and running across the whole peninsula, among which the Cavery stands pre-eminent. Upon the whole, however, instead of numberless torrents dashing down the sides of the hills, and requiring only to be confined and guided, this tract contains large arid plains, to which the industrious husbandman can with difficulty, by canals and tanks, convey the necessary moisture. The Ghauts, also, from their great altitude, intercept the heavy rains which the monsoon brings on the western coast; and there are only occasional showers, from May to June, to fertilise the ground and cool the intensity of the heat. Hence the Carnatic, in seasons of drought, is subject to severer sunniness than any other part of India. Yet, though there are many barren tracts, the country, on the whole, is highly cultivated, and very productive.

The population of the Carnatic is estimated at 5,000,000; of which a peculiarly large proportion consists of native Hindus. The tide of Mahometan conquest did not reach it before the fourteenth century; nor was the subjection nearly complete until the reign of Aurengzebe. A race of Mogul viceroyas was then established at Arcot, who, on the fall of the empire, set up an independent power. Pressed, however, by the overwhelming force of the sovereigns of Mysore, they were forced to implore British aid. The Company readily interposed, and, after a long and desperate struggle, subverted the throne of Hyder and Tippoo. The Nabob, however, then found, that he was entirely at the mercy of his defenders; and his attempts to extricate himself from this dependence afforded them ground for proceeding to farther extremities. On the death of the reigning Nabob in 1801, his successor was compelled to sign a treaty by which the sovereignty of all his territories was transferred to the Company; and there was reserved to himself only from two to three lacs of pagodas, and a portion of household lands. The country was then divided into eight districts or collectorships, administered by British officers. Arcot and its immediate vicinity is chiefly peopled by Mussulmans; and on the southern part of the coast there are emigrants from Arabia, though not in nearly so great numbers as on the Malabar coast. The rest of the population is Hindu, and the customs and religion of this native race have been preserved here in unusual purity. The pagodas are extremely numerous, and rival in splendour those of the sacred cities of Benares and Allahabad. The Brahmins, not generally oppressed, as elsewhere under Mahometan ascendency, had intrusted to them most of the civil employments in the state and revenue. Another class, almost peculiar to this district, is that of the Polygars. Originally district officers of the British government, they took advantage of its periods of weakness, and erected castles, from which, like too many of the baronial chiefs in the feudal ages, they plundered and oppressed the surrounding country. Government were often obliged to purchase their orderly behaviour by giving them an independent power and jurisdiction. There is no class whose subjection proved so expensive to Britain. The Carnatic is much more of a manufacturing country than Malabar; yet it does not produce those fine fabrics which distinguish Bengal and the Circars. Piece goods, blue cloths, chintzes, &c., all of a coarser kind, are its principal product.

Our detailed survey of the Carnatic must begin with Madras, now its capital, and that of the British possessions on the eastern coast. The choice, as in many other countries, has not been so happy as that made by the French; Pondicherry being every way a finer and more convenient station. Madras has no harbour; but a mere road, through which runs a strong current, and which is often exposed to dangerous winds. On the beach breaks so strong and continual a surf, that only a peculiar species of large light boats, the thin planks of which are sewed together with the tough grass of the country, can, by the dexterous management of the natives, be rowed across it. For the conveyance, also, of letters and messages, they employ what is called a catamaran, consisting merely of two planks fastened together, with which they encounter the roughest seas with wonderful address, and, when swept off by the waves, regain it by swimming. The sums, however, now invested in the
various edifices of Madras as the capital of the presidency, are so great, that to transfer the seat of government to another place would be out of the question. Fort St. George, planned by Mr. Robinson, a celebrated engineer, and placed at a small distance from the sea, is a strong and handsome fortress, not nearly on so great a scale as Fort William at Calcutta, but more advantageously situated, and defensible by a smaller number of men. The public offices and storehouses form a range of handsome buildings along the beach, their upper stories being adorned by colonnades resting on arched bases. With this exception, European Madras is merely an assemblage of country houses situated in the midst of gardens, and scattered over an extent of several miles. The houses consist usually only of one story, and are of a light and elegant structure, having porticoes and verandas supported by columns covered with that fine polished composition of shed limestone called chunam. The diligent hand of art has covered with verdure a somewhat arid and ungrateful soil; but fruits and flowers are still raised with some difficulty. The mode of living is nearly the same as at Calcutta, but on a more limited scale. The morning, from nine to eleven, is spent in calling and visiting; at two, a substantial meal, called tiffan, is taken; at five, when the air becomes more cool, the family usually drive out; and at seven or eight, a late dinner concludes the day. The Black Town is extensive, and the scene which it presents, of minarets and pagodas mixed with trees and gardens, is striking at a distance; but the interior, like that of most Asiatic towns, consists of poor bamboo cottages thatched with leaves. There are, however, some great native merchants, who have splendid mansions in the Oriental style. The commerce of Madras is not so extensive as that of the other two presidencies; piece goods from the Circars and the southern Carnatic forming the only considerable article.

In the vicinity of Madras is the district of Chingleput, originally obtained as a jaghire from the Mogul, and still kept up as a distinct collectorship. Though the soil is generally dry, it is made by industry to yield tolerable crops of rice. The town of Chingleput is somewhat inland, and not of much importance. About thirty-five miles to the south of Madras is Mahabalipore, or the city of the Great Bali, called also the Seven Pagodas. It consists of a range of sculptured edifices representing the exploits of Bali, Krishna, and other chiefs celebrated in the Mahabharat. It is sacred to Vishnu, a colossal image of whom is found in the principal temple. The monuments, though not on the same gigantic scale as in some other parts of India, are said to be very beautifully executed. In the interior of the country is Triputta, one of the most crowded scenes of Hindoo pilgrimage; the ceremonies of which, however, Europeans, it is said, have never been admitted to view.

Proceeding southwards, we arrive at Pondicherry, the seat of French empire in India. This empire, founded in 1749 by M. Duplex, presented for some time a brilliant aspect, and, seconded by native alliances, threatened to subvert the foundations of the British power in the East. Although the French were, however, skilful in their negotiations with the native powers, their intolerant spirit led them to refuse to the people the free exercise of their religion, which must have rendered it next to impossible for them to hold any large territorial possessions. In fact, towards the close of the war of 1756, Pondicherry fell into the hands of the British; and, though restored by subsequent treaties, never, on the renewal of war, made any effectual resistance. Pondicherry was raised by the French from a village to be the handsomest European city in India. It contained many fine houses in the European style; and the high culture of the vicinity, the numerous canals crossed by neatly constructed bridges, the roads planted with trees, and partly adorned by statues, gave to the surrounding district the appearance of a great garden. The inhabitants have suffered much by repeated hostilities, and, being unfavourably situated for trade, have been unable to retrieve their affairs. In this last respect, Pondicherry is surpassed by Cuddalore, a well-built town, at the mouth of a considerable river. In war, it has followed the fortunes of Pondicherry; though its capture in 1783 was not effected without very great loss on the part of the British.

The kingdom of Tanjore is an important territory, consisting of the delta of the Cavery, a large river, which, rising in the western Ghauts on the borders of Malabar, traverses Mysore, and falls into the sea, after a course of 400 miles. The Hindoos attach to its stream a peculiarly sacred character. At Trichinopoly, about 100 miles above the sea, it separates into two great branches, one retaining the original name, and another called Coleroon. Numerous channels derived from these convert the river into a delta, not surpassed by any part of Egypt or Bengal in culture and fertility. Art has been industriously employed to improve these natural advantages. Immense mounds have been erected, to prevent the tendency shown by the two channels at one place to reunite; and artificial canals convey to every quarter the benefits of irrigation. The chief produce consists of rice, grain, cocomuts, and indigo, which are largely exported. The population introduced by Mogul conquest has never reached Tanjore, and the only Mahometans consist of a few refugees from Arabia. This country, therefore, has retained, almost entire, the ancient religion, constitution, and manners of India. It is particularly distinguished by the splendour of its pagodas and other edifices destined to religious worship. Tanjore was governed by an independent rajah until 1799, when the British took advantage of their ascendancy to oblige him to resign the administration, accepting a revenue of a lack of rupees (10,000l), with other allowances,
somewhat exceeding that amount. He was also permitted, in time of peace only, to keep possession of the strong fortresses by which his capital is defended.

The city of Tanjore may be considered as the native capital of Southern India, and the rival of Benares in learning, splendour, and antiquity. Its pagoda is greatly celebrated, rising from the ground by twelve successive stages, and considered the finest specimen of that species of structure existing in India (fig. 634.). As college is also attached to it. The place is six miles in circumference, and contains two large and strong forts, the smallest of which is about a mile in circumference, surrounded with a broad and deep ditch, cut in the solid rock. In one of these forts is the pagoda, and in the other the palace of the raja, who is allowed at present to garrison both.

Trichinopoly is a large and strong city, farther up the Cavery, and distinguished by being the residence of Mohammed Ali and his son, who, under British auspices, reign over the Carnatic. The siege of Trichinopoly, in 1755, is celebrated in Indian history for the gallant defence made by British officers against the French and their Indian allies, which terminated in a great part of the former being obliged to surrender. Opposite to Trichinopoly is the large island of Seringham, formed by the two branches of the river. It contains a pagoda pre-eminent in magnitude and sanctity, being about four miles in circumference, and surrounded by seven successive enclosures. The innermost shrine has never been violated by any hostile power. It is visited by crowds of penitents from all parts of Hindostan, who, in return for the pardon of their sins, bestow copious gifts; and the Brahmins attached to the temple are thus maintained in a state of luxurious ease.

Among the sea-ports by which the commerce of the kingdom of Tanjore is carried on, we may mention Negapatam, at the mouth of the Cavery, once the chief factory of the Dutch on this coast, and made by them a very strong and commercial place: but it has declined in both these respects since it came under the power of Britain, and is now chiefly used as a place of refreshment. At the mouth of one of the deluge branches is Tranquebar, which the steady and prudent conduct of the Danish government converted from a small village to a thriving mart of trade, now containing from 15,000 to 20,000 souls. It is also the seat of a very active mission, to which the public is indebted for some important memoirs relative to India. Devicotta, at the mouth of the Coleroon, is a considerable British factory, though the approach to the fort is somewhat dangerous.

The districts of Madura, Dindigul, and Tinnevelly, added to Travancore on the opposite coast, constitute the extreme south of India. They are inferior to Tanjore in natural fertility, and still more in cultivation. They are less copiously watered, and a great part of their surface is covered with jungle, the rude retreat of Polygars, whose incursions disturbed all the pursuits of peaceful industry. It is reviving, however, under British protection. Cotton forms the staple product, particularly of Tinnevelly; and a considerable quantity of coarse manufactures is transmitted to Madras. The capitals of the same name are not of particular magnitude or importance, and in their situation and structure strength was mainly studied; but since the country has attained a more settled state, their fortifications have fallen into decay. Madura is a very ancient city, and is regarded by the Hindoos as peculiarly sacred. It has a pagoda or temple much more than commensurate to the greatness of the city, and one of the most splendid in southern India (fig. 635.).

The northern part of the Carnatic still remains to be mentioned: it is generally inferior to the southern, and yields no remarkable product, either of land or manufacture. Arcot, nearly in a direct line inland from Madras, was raised to high importance by the Mogul government, who, attracted by its superior salubrity, made it their capital. It is
situated, however, in a barren country, and surrounded by naked granite hills. Pulicat, a sea-port, after enjoying for a long time high prosperity as the chief seat of Dutch commerce on the Coromandel coast, has declined greatly since it came under the power of the British. In the most northerly quarter, Nellore, on the navigable river Penamar, and Ongole, once a strong fortress, are now chiefly distinguished by a considerable trade in salt.

The high table-land of Mysore, rising between the two coasts of southern India which have now been surveyed, is bounded on each side by the chains of the Ghatas. Its general level is about 3000 feet above the sea, and it is diversified by many hills, branching out, sometimes in clusters, from the boundary chains. This elevation, and the coolness which it maintains, render Mysore the most agreeable and healthful country of India. The western Ghats break the force of those tremendous floods which are dashed against them from the Indian Ocean, at the same time allowing enough to pass for fertilising the territory. It is accordingly well fitted for yielding all the fruits and agricultural products of India, combined with some which belong to the southern temperate climates. The natives cultivate the territory with imperfect instruments and skill, but with considerable care, and with great attention to the means of irrigation and to the collection of manure. Rice is considered the most important object of culture, and is raised wherever a sufficient supply of water can be procured; but no attempt is made to produce two crops in the year. On the more arid grounds, raggy, a coarser grain, is cultivated for the food of the lower orders. Sugar, betel-leaf, opium, and the cocoa-nut palm, are also considerable articles. Iron ore abounds, but it is impure, and is worked by the natives in a very slovenly manner.

Mysore, at the conclusion of the last century, was a very powerful kingdom, and a most formidable enemy of Britain. Hyder, the son of a Mahometan emigrant officer from the Punjab, began by distinguishing himself in the service of the rajah, and ended by deposing him. He conquered, or rendered tributary, Canara, Calicut, and the other countries on the Malabar coast. On that of Coromandel, he had a harder struggle to maintain. By joining the French, however, he gained several important advantages; and, though repeatedly defeated in the field by Sir Eyre Coote, was always, by his superior cavalry, enabled to keep the field. At the same time he carried on with activity the internal administration; protected property, and promoted the prosperity of his subjects. His son, Tipoo Saib, inherited his courage, without any of his prudence or policy. He ruined his subjects by arbitrary exactions, and used the most intolerant means for converting to Mahometanism a people almost universally attached to the Hindoo creed. He was engaged in almost constant war with Britain; and, in the partial successes which he obtained, treated with the greatest cruelty the captives of that nation who fell into his hands. He was utterly unable, however, in the long run, to resist the mass of disciplined troops which this country brought against him. In 1792 he was completely humbled by Marquess Cornwallis, and stripped of half his dominions. In 1799, having engaged in intrigues with France, he involved himself in a war, the issue of which was still more disastrous. His capital was carried by storm, and he himself killed, fighting sword in hand. A young prince, descended from the ancient dynasty of the country, was invested with the sovereignty of part of his dominions, but allowed to reign entirely as the vassal of Britain.

Among the cities, our attention is first arrested by Seringapatam (fig. 636.), long the celebrated bulwark of Mysore, and the centre of its power. It is situated at the upper end

of an island formed by the Cavery, here a large and rapid river, and is properly called Sri Ranga Patam, or the city of Sri Ranga, an appellation of Vishnu. Tipoo transferred thither the seat of government from Bangalore, the favourite residence of Hyder; but he did not display much skill either in strengthening or embellishing the place. Naked rock and dirty mud walls are the predominant features of the island; and the citadel forms an immense, unfinished, unsightly, and injudicious mass of building. The streets are narrow and confused, most of the houses mean, and even those of the chiefs not proportionate to their wealth, as Tipoo would allow no property in houses. Having no manufactures, it was almost entirely supported by the court and camp, the residence of which may have
raised the population in its days of splendour to about 150,000. It did not appear to Dr. Buchanan to exceed 32,000.

Bangalore (fig. 637.) was founded by Hyder, and rendered by him a place of considerable trade, consisting chiefly in the export of betel, pepper, and sandal wood. It manufactures also a considerable quantity of cloth for internal use. Neglected and oppressed, it has recovered its prosperity under the protection afforded by the reigning dynasty. The fortifications, upon Indian principles, are accounted strong, but proved inadequate to resist the attack of British troops; a circumstance which disgusted Tipoo with the place; though he was unable, as we have seen, to establish another of greater strength. Bangalore, though a royal residence, contains no trace of any splendid building, except the mahal, or palace, which, only composed of mud, displays in its halls and courts a certain spacious magnificence and superficial ornament. The accommodations, however, are in many respects imperfect and inconvenient. The gardens appear to have been laid out with very great care. They are divided into square plots, each of which, according to the Mussulman fashion, has some plant or flower allotted to it, with which it is exclusively filled. The great and difficult operation is to water these gardens; and Tipoo, in the machinery for this purpose, employed such masses of masonry as to leave nothing but holes, as it were, through which the trees grow. The vine, the cypress, even the apple and peach, have been here cultivated with success. The town of Mysore, about nine miles from Seringapatam, had been the seat of the native dynasty, but was neglected under the Mahometan sovereigns. Since their downfall, both the fort and palace have been rebuilt, and, the rajah having made it his capital, a new and increasing city has been formed around them.

The Nilgherries, a mountain range, on the southern extremity of Mysore, comprise the most elevated tract in that region, and even in Southern India, rising, at some points, to upwards of 8000 feet. At this height, the climate becomes so temperate, that the Nilgherries have lately been employed as a sanitary station for those whose constitutions have been impaired by the intense heats of the plains below. Here the invalid enjoys cool and refreshing breezes, with a rich and romantic scenery of hills, lakes, and waterfalls. This high region is inhabited by the Tudas, a simple and manly race of shepherds, speaking a peculiar language, and almost entire strangers to the mythology and manners of the rest of India.

SUBJECT 5.—Countries on the Himalaya.

In order to complete the survey of the continent of India, we have still to contemplate the Himalaya, a region but loosely appended to it, and marked by characters essentially different from the rest. The luxuriant plains of that region are girt, along their whole northern boundary, by this belt of mountains, the most awful and inaccessible in any part of the globe. On the other side, they sink into the lofty table-land of Thibet; but as they face India, and descend by successive stages to the level of Delhi and Bengal, they exhibit every variety of climate, from the snows of the arctic circle to the burning plains of the tropic. In this descent, kingdoms lie along their sides, which, in regard both to man and nature, present a rude and northerly aspect, rather European than Indian.

Of these kingdoms, the most important is Nepal; but, for the sake of method, we shall begin with the eastern one of Bount, or Bootan. This territory rises above Bengal, and is separated by the snowy pinnacles from Thibet, the territory of the Grand Lama. Its aspect is rugged and lofty in an almost unequalled degree, often presenting scenes the most grand and awful; hills clothed to the summit with large and lofty trees, deep and dark gorges, and the tops of lofty mountains lost in the clouds. Their sides are diversified by abrupt precipices, deep dells, and cascades that often dash from an amazing height. Near its northern frontier towers the sovereign peak of Chumulaire, covered with eternal snow, and seen at a great distance from the plain of Bengal, though it does not appear very lofty from the mountain table-land on which it rests. Beyond this point the traveller begins to descend, and soon enters Thibet. On the Indian side, so steep has been the acclivity, that from Ghassa, where eternal winter reigns, may be seen Punukha, where the rays of a vertical sun cannot be faced without danger. As the traveller ascends, vegetation continually changes its character. He is soon gratified with the view of European fruits, the peach, the apple, the pear, and the apricot; nor is it long before homelier plants, docks, nettles, primroses, and rosebushes, remind him of England. Strawberries, despised by the natives, spontaneously cover the fields. By-and-by the pine and fir, characteristic of northern latitudes, supplant
trees of richer foliage. At length even these disappear, and the ground shows only a few stunted shrubs and scanty herbage; but the appearance of the Thibetian peak now marks the approach to a different region. Bhoutan is separated from Bengal by a tract of wild and marshy forest, about twenty miles in breadth. The excess of heat and moisture here produces a rank luxuriance of wood and jungle, generating an atmosphere truly fatal to the human constitution. A British detachment, stationed here in 1772, was almost entirely cut off; and even the natives, whom habit enables to endure the climate, are a sickly, diminutive, and stunted race.

The Bhoutans are an entirely different people from those of India, and bear all the characteristics of a Mongol race. They have black hair, small eyes, a broad flat triangular face. Their weapons are chiefly bows and arrows, which they dip with poison, and shoot with dexterity; but though the timid Hindoos fly before them at the first onset, in their contests with each other they do not display any remarkable prowess. Their battle, as viewed by Major Turner, was carried on by hiding themselves beneath bushes, thence occasionally starting up, making a hasty discharge, and replacing themselves under covert. Their industry struggles with most meritorious energy against the rugged surface on which it has to operate. Almost every favourable spot, studded with the smallest portion of soil, is cleared and adapted to cultivation, by being shelved into horizontal beds; not a slope or narrow slip of land remains unimproved. Many of the loftiest mountains bear on their summits and on their sides populous villages amidst orchards and other plantations. The most extravagant traits of rude nature and laborious art are everywhere presented. The irrigation of the fields is the object of peculiar attention, and water is conveyed by a very simple and useful species of aqueduct, composed of the hollowed branches of trees joined together. Considerable art is often necessary in the construction of bridges over rapid torrents and deep ravines; timber is the usual material, but occasionally iron chains are employed. Their palaces and monasteries are often handsome and spacious; but, having no chimneys, the fire, which is often required, must be made in the middle of the open room, which is soon enveloped in smoke. They are vigorous and healthy, with exception of the prevalence of the gout, that universal scourge of such situations. The climate imposes the necessity of a very different dress from that of India, and renders general the wearing of woollen cloth and even of fur. The people have none of the Hindoo scruples relative to animal food and spirituous liquors: but their favourite refreshment is tea, not infused, but beaten up into a mess with water, flour, salt, and butter, in a manner by no means suited to an European palate. Their religion is that of Boddhists, or of the Lama, and is exactly similar to that which we shall find existing on a greater scale in Thibet.

Tassak Soon, the residence of the Rajah of Bhoutan, is situated in a very fertile valley, or rather glen, three miles in length and surrounded by finely wooded mountains. The citadel in the centre is very lofty, the rajah residing near the top, in a palace accessible only by several lofty stairs or ladders. In this palace are accommodated 1500 gylongs, or monks of Boddhist; and in its neighbourhood is a large manufactury of brass gods and religious implements. Glimsa, a western capital, is situated amid a range of mountains covered with snow. Waspur, capital of another province, is reckoned a very strong place, and contains numerous convents of monks. Buxadewar is a strong fort, commanding the pass from Hindostan into Bhoutan. Moorichom, a small village on a lofty hill, is only mentioned for the beauty of its situation, and the industry displayed in the cultivation of the surrounding fields.

From the eastern frontier of Bhoutan westward to the Sutlej and the frontier of the Punjab stretches an expanse of varied mountain territory, which the conquests of the house of Gorkha have united into one great kingdom; but, from the theatre of the first conquest, and from the fertility and populousness of its divisions, it receives the name of Nepal. Like Bhoutan, it consists of a series of tracts, changing their character as their rise from the level of the British frontier on the plain of Hindostan. It is girt with a belt of wild and wooded territory, called the Terjor, which, both from the rank excess of moisture, and from having been the theatre of frequent hostilities, has been almost abandoned by men, and has become the haunt of beasts of prey. These circumstances have, as usual, generated a pestilential air, which renders it at certain seasons destructive to any army acting within its limits. Above the plain rises a range of low hills, watered by numerous streams descending from the mountains behind, and separated by broad valleys similar to the straths of Scotland. Yet, though this district might be rendered very productive, it is greatly neglected, and is covered with an almost uninterrupted forest, composed of a vast variety of trees, among which the most valuable is a species of cinnamon, and the mimoza, out of which caoutchouc, or Indian rubber, is extracted. Above these hilly tracts towers a region decidedly mountainous, which comprises Nepal Proper, and all the most important districts of this territory. The mountains are here arranged in long steep ridges, with narrow valleys interspersed; a structure which renders travelling across them very laborious. The level even of the valleys is supposed to be 4000 feet above that of the plain of Hindostan. Where they present any extent of soil, they are exceedingly productive, the supply of water being ample,
and the temperature corresponding to that of the south of Europe. Great agricultural
industry is here displayed, and the sides of the mountains are formed into terraces, by which
the supply of water may be increased or diminished almost at pleasure; so that the crops
are surer than in almost any other part of the world. The woods are particularly magnifi-
cent, and flowers of every form and tint cover the fields. No fruits, however, except the
orange and pine-apple, come to perfection; and both here and in Bount, vegetables are scantly
and defective. Above this mountain region, towers another, called Kuehar, of more awful
height, and almost inaccessible, consisting of the loftiest and most rugged steeps of the
higher Himalaya. It contains immense rocks, broken into the most tremendous precipices,
and shooting up into sharp pinnacles, which are either perpendicular, or covered with per-
petual snow. A little scanty herbage, and occasional cultivation, is still found in the steep
and narrow glens, till the highest ridge is approached, where the whole region is subject to
perpetual winter. The Kuehar is about thirty or forty miles in breadth, and communicates
only by tremendous defiles formed by mountain torrents, and overhung by immense precipi-
tices, with the table-land of Thibet on the other side of the mountains.

A considerable portion of mineral wealth is included in this mountain region. Copper,
iron, and lead are produced in abundance, and of excellent quality. Copper, being
more scarce in the East than in Europe, affords a very handsome profit. Sulphur and lead are
found in every part, and particularly in the Kuehar; but the former is avoided, on account
of the deleterious quality of the arsenic with which it is combined; while the lead mines
are rendered of little value by the impure system of rendering them a government mono-
poly. The quality of the iron is represented to be such, that weapons are produced from it
without the necessity of forming it into steel. Rumour has assigned to Nepal metals which
occupy a more brilliant place in the estimation of mankind: but the gold thence transmitted
appears to come almost entirely from beyond the mountains, and the small quantity of silver
ore existing in lead or galena cannot be extracted by the skill of the natives. The valley of
Nepal does not contain even a stone; and, rather than incur the expense of transporting
the excellent building materials found in the neighbouring mountains, the primitives use bricks,
for which clay of admirable quality is found in the country.

The population of Nepal is singularly aggregated of various classes and descriptions of
people. Placed on the brink of two great divisions of the human race, the Hindoo and the
Tartar, they have received successive colonies from both. The Newars, who form the basis
of the population, are doubtfully traced to either class; but Dr. Hamilton, the latest and most
accurate observer, regards them as decidedly Mongol, considerably altered by Hindoo mix-
ture. These Newars are a peaceable diligent race, on whose exertions mainly depends the
prosperity of the country, though they are liable to severe exactions from the military go-

government established by the ruder tribes. The Brahmins, at a period prior to any known
record, penetrated in great numbers into Nepal, where their superior knowledge soon en-
abled them to act a leading part. They have now absorbed most of the civil departments of
the government, and effected the complete conversion of the people. In this operation, the
principal difficulty consisted in persuading these hardy and hungry mountaineers to abstain
from using as food the animals with which their pastures abounded. The whole nation is
still suspected of a deep hankering after the flesh-pots, and every pretence is seized for an
occasional trespass; but, generally speaking, the exclusion of beef as an article of diet is
now complete. In every other outward observance, the Nepalese surpass the zeal of their
Hindoo teachers. Colonel Kirkpatrick found almost as many temples as houses, and as
many idols as inhabitants. The number of these, indeed, seems much more conspicuous
than their richness or ornament. The chief shrine, that of Sumbhoonah, overlooking from a
height the valley of Nepal, could only be entered by a high ladder; and, when looked
into, presented rather the aspect of a poor kitchen than that of a magnificent temple. This
shrine is dedicated to Boohd, and dependent on the rajah of Bount. We are sorry to learn
that no corresponding purity of life and conduct attends this extreme devotion of the in-
habitants of Nepal.

This whole territory is subject to the military government of the rajahs of Gorkha, origi-
nally masters only of a small territory of that name, to the west of Nepal, among the heights
of the Upper Himalaya. It was tenanted, however, by the Mugsars; a bold and warlike
race, who were an overmatch for the industrious people of the valleys. In 1761, Pritwi
Narnyan, partly by marriage and partly by conquest, obtained possession of Nepal Proper.
He then employed its ample resources in extending his dominion over that large territory
subject to the Chabuis, or Twenty-four Rajahs, and other surrounding districts. The career
of conquest was pursued by his successors. Sikim, the most easterly of the present Nepalese
dominions, was conquered in 1798; but it was not until the commencement of the present
century that the ascension of Gurhwal, in which Seringur is situated, extended the empire
to its western limit beyond the Jumna. The government, however, having involved itself
in war with Britain, and being completely vanquished, has been obliged to cede these western
conquests. Nepal is now bounded on the west by the Kali, leaving Keraoon, Gurhwal,
and the banks of the Sudjedge entirely under British protection. In the chief government,
only some institutions remain, which temper the entire despotism of the sovereign. Much regard is paid to birth, and, on occasions of great emergency, a kind of assembly of notables is held, in which men who have neither office nor connection with the government are allowed to speak their sentiments with great freedom; and, though the court is in no degree controlled by these assemblies, which are supposed by Dr. Hamilton to be employed merely as a means of allowing the discontentments of the nation to evaporate, they doubtless afford an opportunity for public opinion to declare itself. The three chief ranks are the chanterija, or counsellor; the karije, or man of business; and the sirdar, or military commander. The individual appointed to any of these ranks holds it for life, and communicates the title to his brothers. The chanterija, who is nearest relation to the king, is officially prime minister, even though he should be only a minor; but, of course, the authority, in many such cases, must be merely nominal. In the classification of the people, however, the principal distinction is between those of pure and sacred Hindoo birth, and those who, under the brand of Khas, or infidel, excite in the mind of the Nepalese the idea of every thing that is impure and base. The character of the former is supported by abstinence from animal food and strong liquors, by strict cleanliness, and by a certain degree of refinement of manners. The khas, on the contrary, are distinguished by a secret partiality to the religion of the Lama, an eager longing after beef, and generally by ruder and more uninstructed habits. The reigning dynasty, however, though their own origin is dubious, have zealously adopted the Hindoo cause, and have prohibited, under the strictest penalties, all killing of cows for food; so that the hungriest of the impure tribes dare only feast on those which have died a natural death.

In treating the details of this territory, we shall begin with Sikim, the most easterly district, immediately bordering on Boutan. It is the abode of the Lapchas, "a set of vigorous barbarians, about one-half of whom have been excluded by the monkish austerities and superior learning of the Lamas." They are chiefly armed with swords and with bows, from which they shoot poisoned arrows. It was with considerable difficulty that they were subjected to the Gorkha kingdom, and compelled to renounce beef, pork, strong liquors, and sundry similar abominations, in which they delighted. Indeed, there still remains a corner, to the extreme east, which retains its independence and ancient customs. Two great rivers traverse this territory, and descend into Bengal; the Tista, on the east, supposed to come from the domain of Lassen and to cross the Snowy Mountains; and on the west the Kankayi.

West from Sikim, the Kiratas inhabit a territory of considerable extent, between the Kankayi and the great river Cossy. They are a warlike and enterprising people, and in the days of their independence could muster an army of 80,000 men. Like the Sikimites, they are much addicted to the worship of the Lama and to the eating of animal food; and though the early conquest made by the Hindoos was strenuously employed in suppressing these propensities, they were never completely put down till the late ascendency of the Gorkha dynasty. Still the Kiratas are understood to feel their changed worship and sparse diet as a severe privation, and their very name sounds impure in the ears of a genuine Hindoo. The narrow valleys into which this territory is divided form a number of districts with towns of some magnitude, such as Vijupoor, Chayanpoor, Khutang, and Dalka; but none of these plains are of great extent, nor are any of the cities of considerable magnitude.

On crossing the Cossy, we find, between two lofty ridges, the Valley of Nepal Proper, the finest and most fertile, Cashmere excepted, of any which the mountain world of India contains. The principal valley is about twenty-two miles from east to west, and twenty from north to south. Its aspect is delightful, being everywhere finely wooded, well cultivated, and surrounded by a varied amphitheatrical of hills, above which tower lofty peaks of eternal snow. The entirely alluvial character of its soil strongly indicates that it was once a lake, the limits of which may almost be traced, and which is even mentioned in the early traditions of the nation. The multitude of streams, however, by which it must have been fed, now unite in that of the Gunduck, which forces a passage through the hills into the Tarrawi, and ultimately reaches the Ganges. The inhabitants of the valley are chiefly the Newars, already described, and the Pariatiyas or mountaineers, few of whom can be induced to take up their abode in the cities. The chief of these are Khatmandu, or Catmandoo, the present capital, Zalita Patan, and Bhatgang. The number of houses has been stated at 18,000 in the first, 24,000 in the second, and 12,000 in the third; but Dr. Hamilton does not conceive that the whole number of people can exceed these numbers, unless it be to a small extent in Catmandoo.* These towns are neatly built with brick, and the palaces, though possessing no high architectural character, are yet more spacious than could be expected from the narrow territories of the princes by whom they were erected. Colonel Kirkpatrick, on conjectural data, in which Dr. Hamilton seems to acquiesce, estimates the entire population of the valley at about 500,000.

The river Traill Ganga separates Nepal Proper from the country of the Chaubisi, or the Twenty-four Rajahs; an extensive territory, traversed from west to east by the great river

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* [In the spring of 1854, 10,000 houses were destroyed in Catmandoo and its vicinity, by an earthquake.]
Gunduck, which appears to rise from beyond the Himalayah. These rajahs occupied each his own little valley, under a sort of feudal dependence on the chief of Yumila, once the most powerful of northern India. These states, however, are chiefly distinguished as containing among their number the original seat of the Gorkhali dynasty, who now hold undisputed empire over all these mountains. Gorkha is a valley much inferior in extent to Nepal, but with a warmer climate, and a soil of considerable fertility. The cultivators consist of Brahmins, but the fighting race are the Magars. Pritwi Narayan introduced the use of matchlocks, which, though neither good nor well managed, gave his troops a great superiority over the other mountainers, who had no weapons but the sword and the arrow. Although the dynasty have now settled in the rich valley of Nepal, their followers still pride themselves in the title of Gorkhali. Gorkha, the capital, is a considerable town of 2000 houses. Previous to the entire ascendency of this dynasty, the rajahs of Palpa were considered the most powerful of the twenty-four, and were at the head of a numerous confederacy.

West from the Chaubisi occurs another cluster of twenty-two, called the Baisi Rajahs. Of these, previous to the Gorkha conquest, by far the most distinguished was Yumila, forming the most northerly district, and extending along the foot of the highest mountains. It contains a valley almost equal in extent to that of Nepal, overtopped on all sides with snowy peaks, but fertile in grain, though not suited to rice or the sugar-cane. It supplies, however, the neighbouring countries with salt, from a place called Mukthul. The capital is Chinchin, which has not been visited by any European; but is described as a large straggling town. The chief of Yumila is a Rajpoet, and was long acknowledged as supreme lord over all the mountain chiefs towards the west. His power, however, was not quite equal to that exercised by the emperors of Germany over the members of that confederacy. Each chief sent him an annual embassy with presents; he bestowed the mark of royalty on each heir, at his succession; and he had a right to interpose in keeping the stronger from overpowering the weaker. The reigning chief, however, had not the foresight to interpose in defending any of his neighbours against the spreading power of Gorkha, but allowed it to increase, till it eventually overwhelmed himself.

The western boundary of Yumila and of the Baisi Rajahs is formed by the Kali, which is considered as dividing the mountain territory of India into two great portions, and which, since the last treaty, forms the western boundary of the Nepal dominions. On crossing to its western side, we enter the region of Hindu purify, where the veneration for the Luma and the hankering after beef, for which the eastern tribes are regarded with such disgust and horror by every pure worshipper, no longer prevail.

The first district is Kemanon, or Kuman, though mountainous, is covered with fine verdure and extensive forests, and in many places yields large crops of summer rice. The inhabitants consist chiefly of Rajpoets, with a mixture of Sadruns and Brahmins; the impure races having been either expelled or converted. In consequence of the last war, it is now subject to Britain. Alimora, the capital, is a town of 1000 houses, irregularly scattered over the top of a high ridge of mountains, and carries on a considerable trade.

To the west of Kemanon is the territory now called Gurkwal, but much better known under that of Serinagar. It is in an especial sense the holy land of the Himalayah, containing the source of the Ganges, and five pranyas, or junctions of its tributary streams. Thence it derives sufficient claims, according to Indian ideas, to be considered as a place of the loftiest sanctity. Indeed, the awful scene which it everywhere presents, of rugged rocks, deep glens, and mountain rising over mountain, could not fail to excite the deepest emotions in the pilgrims by whom it was visited. Serinagar presents none of those deep and fertile valleys which enable the countries to the east to support a large population. The places capable of culture consist almost solely of small ridges, or table-lands, at the top of the mountains. The roads are often cut along the sides of high perpendicular rocks, and the torrents are passed by bridges of rope stretched across. On the largest of these tablelands, about a mile and a half square, Serinagar is built, from the mere imposibility, it would seem, of finding another spot which would afford sufficient space. Various vicissitudes, however, and particularly the invasion of the Gorkhalis, and the system of mierniel by which they established, entirely deprived Serinagar of the slender measure of prosperity which it ever enjoyed, and it is now a scene of extreme poverty. It is still, however, a considerable thoroughfare for those devoted pilgrims who, after frequenting the fair of Hardwar, venture to visit the thrice-sacred spot where the infant Ganges descends from the snowy steeps of Himalayah. The journey is attended with great difficulty and peril, and a considerable number perish on the road. The first town above Serinagar is Josimath, the winter residence of the high-priest of the Ganges, which contains numerous temples. It lies on the Alacananda, one of the two branches which concur to form the Ganges. On tracing it upwards, is found Manah, a village containing 14,000 or 15,000 inhabitants; the chief practicable entrance into which is across the mountain passes by this place. On the opposite side of the river is Bhadrinath, the seat of that famed sanctuary which is frequented by crowds of Hindoo pilgrims. It is built in the form of a cone, roofed with copper, and
having a spire surmounted with a golden ball at the top. Only an imperfect view is allowed of the inner sanctuary, in which is seated the image of Bhadrinath, a figure of black stone, about three feet high, covered with a rich drapery of gold and silver brocade. A silver salier is handed round to receive the offerings, which are expected to be liberal. There are also several cold and hot springs, each of which has a sanctifying virtue, to be purchased by the penitent with a portion of his earthly goods. Such transactions would render these shrines very rich, were it not that the chiefs, in their extreme need, have often eyed them as a source of pecuniary relief; and though the sanctity of the place may prevent them from absolute plunder, yet, by borrowing or exchange, of which they can dictate the terms, they have dissipated a large portion of these holy treasures.

About thirty miles west from Bhadrinath is Gangoutri, a village near the head of the Bhagirathi, considered the main and proper head of the Ganges. A few miles above, it is seen flowing with a moderate current, fifteen or twenty yards broad, and about waist-deep. Higher up, it flows beneath beds of snow, so deep that even its sound is not heard. At length is perceived a wall of rock, from an angle of which, called by the Hindoos the Cow's Mouth, on account of its rude resemblance to that orifice, issues the Ganges. "Nothing," according to Mr. Fraser, "can surpass the grandeur of the scene which is here presented. The bare and peaked cliffs shoot to the skies; their ruins lie in wild chaotic masses at their feet, and scanty wood imperfectly relieves their nakedness; even the dark pine more rarely roots itself in the deep chasms which time has worn. Thus on all sides is the prospect closed, except in front to the eastward, where, from a mass of bare spires, four huge, lofty, snowy peaks arise: these are the peaks of Roordroo Himalayah. There could be no finer finishing, no grander close, to such a scene."

At a small distance, and from the same stupendous ridge which contains the source of the greatest river of India, is found that of its main tributary, the Jumna. The glen near Bun- derpooh, through which its infant course passes, is described to be rugged and gloomy beyond description. "It looks like the ruins of nature, and appears," as it is said to be "impracticable and impenetrable. Little is to be seen, except dark rock; wood only fringes the lower parts and the water's edge; perhaps, the spots and streaks of snow, contrasting with the general blackness of the scene, heighten the appearance of desolation. No living thing is seen; no motion but that of the waters; no sound but their roar."

The territory of Sirmore, and that of the Twelve Lordships, extending along the Sutledge, subject to a number of independent rajas till over-run by the Gorkhas, have now been restored to those chiefs under the protection of Britain. The valley of the Sutledge presents little cultivation: the mountains are brown, barren, steep, and rocky; the bed of the river narrow and arid. In the territory of Joobul, however, the mountains are covered with the most magnificent forests; pines, holies, oaks, sycamore, and yew, of the most varied forms, and often of gigantic size. The cultivation is very great, and the perpendicular sides of the mountains have been most laboriously fitted for it; so that districts naturally barren are even enabled to export grain. The inhabitants appeared to Mr. Fraser every way superior in external accommodation to the Scotch highlanders; but their character was by no means regarded in so favourable a light, combining the rude habits and violent feds of a barbarous race with the cringing and abject spirit of an Asiatic despotism. West from the Sutledge, the territory along the head of the Punjab is occupied by a number of independent rajas, engaged in frequent hostilities with each other. Among the principal are Bischur, Sirmore, Joobul, Kulhare, Hindoor. These territories occupy the deep mountain valleys of the Sutledge, overhung by brown heathy steeps, of the Touse, and of the Pahur, which flows through a more smiling valley. The capitals are small towns, built often in stages on the steep sides of rocky mountains. Such is the situation of Rampoor, capital of Bischur, on a high bank above the Sutledge. Nuh, the capital of Sirmore, occupies so rugged a steep, that its streets consist of steps cut in the rock. Notwithstanding the barrenness of the surrounding country, the commerce with Thibet and Tartary enables these mountain capitals to attain some little wealth and importance.

After scaling the mighty boundary wall of western India, the traveller looks down on its northern side into Cashmere, an extended valley, which nature has lavishly adorned with all the attributes of a terrestrial paradise. It is enclosed on every side within tremendous steers, which separate it, to the north from Thibet, and to the west from Cabul and Cundahar. Numberless rivulets, descending from these heights, diffuse on all sides verdure and fertility, and render the whole country, as it were, an evergreen garden. Rice, wheat, barley; the grain and the fruits both of the tropical and temperate climates, are produced in equal abundance and perfection. The plane tree nowhere spreads such a pomp of foliage. But the peculiar boast of Cashmere is its rose, a favourite theme of Eastern poetry, whose tints and perfume are said to be alike unrivalled. The numerous streams unite in the Jelum, which, after forming several small lakes, rolls westward, forces the mountain barrier, and finally joins the Chenab.

The Cashmerians are a Hindoo race, differing in several respects from those by whom they are surrounded. They are active, industrious, and, at the same time, witty and inge-
nious, with a taste for poetry and the sciences. On the other hand they are represented as volatile, treacherous, extravagantly addicted to pleasure, rapacious in acquiring money, lavish in spending it. The beauty of the females is much famed in the Eastern world, and seemingly not without reason, though greatly enhanced by contrast with the dark complexions of India, and the deformed visages of the Tartar races. A sad reverse has befallen their country since the time when it was the favourite residence of the Mogul, who, viewing it as the paradise of the Indies, repaired thither whenever he wished an interval of recreation, and bestowed his cares and wealth in lavishly adorning it. On the fall of that power, Cashmere was subdued by the Afghans, and placed under the rule of governors who have cruelly tyrannised over it, and stripped it of a large portion of its former prosperity. Since their kingdom was broken up, this country has been disputed between one of the branches of its royal family, and Ranjeet Singh, in whose power it now is. The revenue is reckoned at 300,000L.

The Cashmerians are a manufacturing nation. They work skilfully in wood, make the best paper in the East, and excel in cutlery and lacquered ware. But the grand branch of industry consists in their shawls, from the wool of the goats of Thibet, which are in general request all over the world. The natives complain that the tyranny of the Afghans has made deep inroads on this branch of industry, and has reduced the number of looms from 40,000 to 16,000. This work seems to be conducted upon a more extended scale than is usual in India, one merchant often employing a great number of looms. Three men work at each loom; and a year is sometimes spent in making a single shawl. In the best and most elaborate kinds, it is considered enough if they execute an inch and a half in the day. Of course, the ordinary shawls are made with much greater expedition.

The city of Cashmere, called anciently Srinagur, is the largest in the Afghan dominions, containing from 130,000 to 200,000 people. It extends three miles along the banks of the Jelum, in a situation, the beauty of which has been widely celebrated, particularly its lake, studded with numberless islands, green with gardens and groves, and having its banks adorned with villas and ornamented grounds.

SUBJECT. 6.—Ceylon.

Ceylon, an extensive, somewhat wild, but beautiful island, forms a close appendage to India, lying to the east of its southern extremity, whence it is separated by the Straits of Mannar. It is nearly 300 miles in length, and 160 in its greatest breadth. The territory, along the western coast, is occupied by a somewhat extensive plain; beyond which, ranges, first of hills, and then of mountains, rise successively behind each other, and with their rugged surface cover a great extent of the island. They do not, however, rise to any very lofty height; since Adam's Peak (the most elevated) is only 6152 feet above the sea. These steeps are generally covered with extensive forests and dense underwood, which give to a great part of the island the character of jungle.

The history of Ceylon is scarcely at all known previous to the arrival of the Portuguese in 1505, at which time they found the native sovereign defending himself with difficulty against the attack of the Arabs. They at first merely exacted a tribute, but soon engaged in a series of warfare, which ended in driving the natives from Colombo and most of the other stations on the coast, and obliging them to take refuge in the interior. They settled in considerable numbers; and a pretty large body of their posterity, mingled with the natives, still survive. Ceylon, however, shared the lot of their other Indian possessions; and, in the course of the seventeenth century, after a series of bloody struggles, was wrested from them by the Dutch. It remained in their possession, with the exception of a short occupation of Trincomalee by the British in 1792, till 1796, when an English expedition entirely subdued it; and by the peace of Amiens it was finally ceded to that power. In 1815 the British beat the king of Candy, occupied his capital in the mountainous interior of the country, and thus became entire masters of this fine island. It has been made a royal colony, not subject to the rule of the East India Company.

The produce and wealth of Ceylon are not in proportion to its natural capacities. Much of its surface, indeed, is mountainous and craggy; and there are large sandy tracts along the coast. Rice, though almost the only object of native culture, is not raised in sufficient quantity for the support of the inhabitants. The most peculiar product is cinnamon, one of the most delicate of spices, and for which there exists an extensive demand in Europe. It is a species of laurel, from four to ten feet high, with numerous branches, and with a light porous wood. It grows spontaneously over a great part of the island; but that reared in gardens in the vicinity of Colombo is considered the best. The bark, which is the valuable part, is taken off when the plant is three years old, and requires no preparation except being spread out to dry. The cocoa-nut tree is also in great abundance; and its fruit, as well as coir, a species of rope manufactured from its husk, are staple exports. A great quantity of arrack is distilled from its juice. Animals, chiefly wild, are abundant; but the only valuable one is the elephant, which, in Ceylon, is considered of better quality than in any other country in the world: it is not, indeed, so tall as on the Continent, but peculiarly active,
hastily, and docile. No elephants are reared in a tame state; but they are easily caught in pits prepared for the purpose, and are tamed in eight or ten days. An uncommon variety of precious minerals are found in Ceylon; the ruby, the amethyst, the topaz, and even the diamond; but none of them are of fine quality. There are mines of lead, iron, tin, and quicksilver; but little wrought. A very extensive pearl fishery is carried on in the Straits of Mannar, about fifteen miles from the shore; but chiefly by boats from the coast of India. In 1801 it was leased for 120,000L; but since that time it has declined; and in 1828 its amount was only 30,612L. A species of conch-shells called chanksh, much used by the Hindoos for rings and other ornaments, is fished in the straits of Mannar. Mr. M'Culloch gives the value of the exports in 1825, at—Cinnamon, 114,418L; arracah, 31,500L; coir, 10,000L; cocoanuts, 7500L; clams shells, 8219L; timber, 12,100L; jaggery, 4,946L; coffee, 13,983L. The trade has been much fettered by impolitic restrictions; both the produce and sale of cinnamon being made a monopoly of the government; but a more liberal system has recently been adopted.

The population of Ceylon was estimated at about a million and a half, in 1814, a census of all the part of it then in possession of Britain gave only 496,000; and another, in 1823, of the whole island, exhibited only 754,000. These enumerations were probably somewhat defective, and the numbers are supposed to have since increased, and to amount now to about 900,000. The natives, called Cingalese, appear to partake of the character of those of Hindostan, Branh, Siou, and the Oriental islands, with all of whom they hold intercourse. They are a fine and handsome race, and in their manners polished and courteous; but they are indolent, and very little advanced in the arts and sciences. As in all countries bordering on India, the religion of Buddhism is established. The Sinhalese are said to look to Ceylon as the quarter from which they received that faith; but this sacred character is probably an illusion derived from distance and mystery. It is remarkable that, here, as in Thibet and some other Buddhist countries, the unnatural custom of the plurality of husbands prevails; and it is said to be accompanied, in a certain extent, with the crime of infanticide. The rugged jangly tracts of the interior are inhabited by a savage race called the Veddas, who subsist by hunting, and sleep under trees, which they climb like monkeys; some of them, however, are employed in exchanging ivory, honey, and wax, for cloth, iron, and knives. The Portuguese and Dutch inhabitants retain their European customs, considerably modified by the adoption of those of the natives. No such modification has taken place in the case of the English, who consist chiefly of king's troops stationed at the chief towns.

Of the towns and sea-ports of Ceylon, Columbo, on the west coast, is the seat both of government and of almost all the foreign trade. It owes this advantage to its situation in the midst of the most fertile and productive territory in the island. Its accommodation for shipping consists merely of a roadstead, tenable only during four months of the year. The place is well built, with broad and regular streets, and contains about 50,000 inhabitants, who include an uncommon variety of Asiatic races. The fort is spacious, surrounded with a broad and deep ditch. Trincomalee, on the north-east, is situated amid a mountain territory that is singularly grand and beautiful, but very unfruitful. It has, however, the advantage of containing the finest harbour in those seas. The value of this is greatly heightened by being, on the whole coast of Coromandel, a safe roadstead; so that all vessels driven from their stations on that coast seek shelter at Trincomalee. The town, however, being supported only by this resort, is small and poor; though the late establishment of a naval arsenal promises to give it greater importance. Point de Gale, at the southern extremity, has a spacious and generally secure harbour, in a beautiful and healthy situation. The native population is numerous; but there are few European settlers. At Beliegen, in the vicinity, is a large temple of Bocheh, with a colossal statue of that divinity. Candy, the interior capital, is only a large struggling village, surrounded by wooded hills that echo continually with the cries of birds and wild animals. It contains an extensive though not lofty palace of the king, and several Buddhist temples painted with gaudy colours. The British government has constructed an excellent road to this place from the coast.