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MAHUA.—A tree, *BASSIA LATIFOLIA*, producing flowers used (when dried) as food or for distilling liquor, and seeds which furnish oil.

MAIDAN.—An open space of level ground; the park at Calcutta.

MAJOR WORKS.—Irrigation works for which separate accounts are kept of capital, revenue, and interest.

MAKTAR.—An elementary Mahomedan school.

MALGUZAR (revenue payer).—(1) The term applied in the Central Provinces to a co-sharer in a village held in ordinary proprietary tenure; (2) a cultivator in the Chamba State.

MALI.—A gardener.

MALIK.—Master, proprietor.

MAMLATDAR.—The officer in charge of a taluka, Bombay, whose duties are both executive and magisterial; syn. tahasildar.

MANDAP, or **mandapam.**—A porch or pillared hall, especially of a temple.

MANGOSTEEN.—The fruit of *GARCINIA MANGOSTANA*.

MARKHOR.—A wild goat in North Western India, CAPRA FALCONERI.

MASJID.—A mosque. Jama Masjid, the principal mosque in a town, where worshippers collect on Fridays.

MASNAD.—Seat of state or throne, Mahomedan; syn. gaddi.

MATH.—A Hindu conventual establishment.

MAULANA.—A Mahomedan skilled in Arabic and religious knowledge.

MAULVI.—A person learned in Muhammadan law.

MAUND, ver. **Man.**—A weight varying in different localities. The Ry. maund is 80 lbs.

MAYA.—Sanskrit term for delusion.

MEHEL or **MAHAL.**—A palace.

MELA.—A religious festival or fair.

MIAN.—Title of the son of a Rajput Nawab resembling the Scottish "Master."

MIHRAB.—The niche in the centre of the western wall of a mosque.

MIMBAR.—Steps in a mosque, used as a pulpit.

MINAR.—A pillar or tower.

MINOR WORKS.—Irrigation works for which regular accounts are not kept, except, in some cases, of capital.

MIR.—A leader, an inferior title which, like "Khan", has grown into a name, especially used by descendants of the Chiefs of Sind.

MIRZA.—If prefixed, "Mr." or "Esquire."

MISTRI.—(1) a foreman, (2) a cook.

MONO, **MOUNG**, or **MAUNG** (Arakanese)—Leader.

MONSOON.—Lit. 'season,' and specifically (1) The S. W. Monsoon, which is a Northward extension of the S. E. trades, which in the Northern Summer cross the equator and circulate into and around the low pressure area over North India, caused by the excessive heating of the land area, and (2) The N. E. monsoon,

which is the summer monsoon blowing down during the Northern winter from the cold land areas of Central Asia and India only in S. E. Madras and Ceylon through moisture acquired in crossing the Bay of Bengal, and passing across the equator into the low pressure areas of the Australasian Southern summit.

MOPLAH (Mappila).—A fanatical Mahomedan sect in Ma'abar.

MOULVI or **MAULVI.**—A learned man or teacher.

MUDALIYAR or **MUD-LIAR.**—A personal proper name, but implying "steward of the lands".

MUFASSAL, **mofussil.**—The outlying parts of a District, Province or Presidency, as distinguished from the head-quarters (Sadri).

MUKADDAM, **muccadam.**—A representative or headman.

MUKHTAR (corruptly **mukhtiar**).—(1) A legal practitioner who has not got a sanad and therefore cannot appear in court as of right; (2) any person holding a power of attorney on behalf of another person.

MUKHTIARKAR.—The officer in charge of a taluka, Sind, whose duties are both executive and magisterial; syn. tahasildar.

MUKTI, 'release.'—The perfect rest attained by the last death and the final reabsorption of the individual soul into the world—soul, syn. **NIRVANA**, **MOKSHA**.

MUMTAZ-UD-DAULA.—Distinguished in the State **MULK**, in the country.

MUNG, **mug.**—A pulse, *PHASEOLUS RADATUS*; syn. **mag**, Gujarat.

MUNJ.—(1) A tall grass (*SACCHARUM MUNJA*) in North India, from which mats are woven, and the Brahman sacred thread worn; (2) the said thread.

MUNSHI.—A teacher of Hindustani or any Perso-Arabian language. President or presiding official.

MUNSI.—Judge of the lowest Court with civil jurisdiction.

MURUM, **moorum.**—Gravel, used for metalling roads.

MYOWUN.—"Mr."

NACHANI-NAGLI.—See **RAGI**.

NAGARKHANA, **Nakkarkhana.**—A place where drums are beaten.

NAGARSHETH.—The head of the trading guild of Hindu and Jain Merchants in a city.

NAIB.—Assistant or Deputy.

NAIK.—A leader, hence (1) a local chieftain, in Southern India; (2) a native officer of the lowest rank (corporal) in the Indian army.

NAT.—A demon or spirit, Burma.

NAWAB.—A title borne by Musalmans, corresponding roughly to that of Raja among Hindus. Originally a Viceroy under the Moghal Government, now the regular leading title of a Mohammedan Prince, corresponding to "Maharaja" of the Hindus.

NAZAR, NAZARANA.—A due paid on succession or on certain ceremonial occasions.

NAZIM.—A ruler.

NET ASSETS.—(1) In Northern India, the rent or share of the gross produce of land taken by the landlord; (2) in Madras and Lower Burma, the difference between the assumed value of the crop and the estimate of its cost of production.

NEWAR.—Broad cockney woven across beds instead of iron slats.

NGAPI.—Pressed fish or salted fish paste, largely made and consumed in Burma.

NILGAI.—An antelope, *BOSELAPHUS TRAQUACAMELUS*.

NIM, neem.—A tree, *MELIA AZADIRACHTA*, the berries of which are used in dyeing.

NIRVANA.—See **MUKTI**.

NIZAM.—The title of the ruler of Hyderabad, the one Mohammedan Prince superior to Nawab.

NIZAMAT.—A sub-division of a Native State, corresponding to a British District, chiefly in the Punjab and Bhopal.

NON-AGRICULTURAL ASSESSMENT.—Enhanced assessment imposed when land already assessed as agricultural is diverted to use as a building site or for industrial concerns.

NON-COGNIZABLE.—An offence for which the culprit cannot be arrested by the police without a warrant.

NONO (Tibetan).—The ruler of Spitta.

NON-OCCUPANCY TENANTS.—A class of tenants with few statutory rights, except in Oudh, beyond the terms in their leases or agreements.

NON-REGULATION.—A term formerly applied to certain Provinces to show that the regulations of full code of legislation was not in force in them.

NULLAH, NALA.—A ravine, watercourse, or drain.

OCCUPANCY TENANTS.—A class of tenants with special rights in Central Provinces, in United Provinces.

PADAUK.—A well known Burmese tree (*PTEROCARPUS* sp.) from the behaviour of which the arrival of the monsoon is prognosticated.

PADDY.—Unhusked rice.

PAGA.—A troop of horses among the Marathas.

PAOL.—A tracker of thieves of strayed or stolen animals.

PAIGAH.—A tenure in Hyderabad State.

PAIK.—(1) A foot soldier; (2) in Assam formerly applied to every free male above sixteen years.

PAIRIE.—The name of the second best variety of Bombay mango, distinguishable from the *APHUS* (q. v.) by its pointed tip, and by the colour being less yellow and more green and red.

PALAS.—See **DUAK**.

PAKTI.—A palanquin or litter.

PAN.—The betel vine, **PIPE BETLE**.

PANCHAMA.—Low caste, Southern India.

PANCHAYAT.—(1) A committee for management of the affairs of a caste, village, or town; (2) arbitrators. Theoretically the panchayat has five (panch) members.

PANDI OR PUNDI.—A learned man.

PANDIT.—A Hindu title, strictly speaking applied to a person versed in the Hindu scriptures, but commonly used by Brahmans. In Assam applied to a grade of Inspectors of primary schools.

PANSUPARI.—Distribution of PAN and SUPARI (q. v.) as a form of ceremonial hospitality.

PARAB.—A public place for the distribution of water, maintained by charity.

PARABADI.—A platform with a smaller platform like a dovecot on a centre pole or pillar built and endowed or maintained by charity, where grain is put every day for animals and birds.

PARDA, purdah.—(1) A veil or curtain; (2) the practice of keeping women secluded; syn. *go-sha*.

PARDESI.—Foreign. Used in Bombay especially of Hindu servants, syces, &c., from North India.

PARGANA.—Fiscal area or petty sub-division of a tahsil, Northern India.

PASHM.—The fine wool of the Tibetan goat.

PASO.—A waistcloth.

PAT, put.—A stretch of firm, hard clay.

PATEL.—A village headman, Central and Western India; syn. *reddi*, Southern India *gaon-bura*, Assam; *padhan*, Northern and Eastern India; *Mukhi*, Gujarat.

PATIDAR.—A co-sharer in a village, Gujarat.

PATTAWALLA.—See **CHAPRASI**.

PATWARI.—A village accountant; syn. *karnam* Madras; *kulkarni*, Bombay Deccan; *talati*, Gujarat; *shambhog*, Mysore, Kanara and Coorg; *mandal*, Assam; *tapedar*, Sind.

PEON.—See **CHAPRASI**.

PESHKASH.—A tribute or offering to a superior.

PESHKUP.—Manager or agent.

PHULAV, (Pillow).—A dish of rice and other ingredients, and by Anglo-Indians specifically used of chicken with rice and spices.

PHULKARI.—An embroidered sheet; lit. flower-work.

PICE, paisa.—A copper or bronze coin worth one farthing; also used as a generic term for money.

PICOTTAH.—A lever for raising water in a bucket for irrigation, Southern India; syn. *dhenkul* or *dhenkuli*, or *dhukli*, Northern India.

PIPAL.—A sacred tree, *FICUS RELIGIOSA*.

PIR.—A Mahomedan religious teacher or saint.

PLEADER.—A class of legal practitioner.

PONGYI.—A Buddhist monk or priest, Burma.

POSTIN, poshteen.—A coat or rug of sheepskin tanned with the wool on, Afghanistan.

PRANT.—An administrative sub-division in Maratha States, corresponding to a British District (Baroda) or Division (Gwalior); also in Kathiawar.

PRESIDENCY.—A former Division of British India.

PRINCE.—Term used in English courtesy for "Shahzada," but specially conferred in the case of "Prince of Arcot" (called also "Armin-i-Arcot").

PROTECTED.—Forests over which a considerable degree of supervision is exercised, but less than in the case of "reserved" forests.

PROVINCE.—One of the large Divisions of British India.

PUJA.—Worship, Hindu.

PUJARI.—The priest attached to a temple.

PUNDIT.—See **Pandit**.

PURANA.—Lit. 'old' Sanskrit (1) applied to certain Hindu religious books, (2) to a geological 'group'; (3) also to 'punch-marked' coins.

PUROHIT.—A domestic chaplain or spiritual guide, Hindu.

PWE.—An entertainment, Burma.

PYALIS.—Bands of revellers who accompany the Muharram processions.

QILLA.—A Fort.

RABI.—Any crop sown after the main South-West monsoon.

RAGI (ELEUSINE COCOANA).—A small millet used as a food-grain in Western and Southern India; syn. *marua*, Nagli Nachni.

RAJA.—A Hindu Prince of exalted rank, but inferior to "Maharaja". The feminine is *Rani* (Princess or Queen), and it has the variations *Raj, Rana, Rao, Rai, Rawal, Rawat, Raikwar, Raikhar* and *Raikat*. The form *Rai* is common in Bengal, *Rao* in S. & W. India.

RAJ RAJESHWAR.—King of Kings.

RAMOSHI.—A caste whose work is watch and ward in the village lands and hence used of any *chaukidar* (q. v.).

RANA.—A title borne by some Rajput chiefs equivalent to that of Raja.

RANI.—The wife or widow of a Raja.

RAO.—A title borne by Hindus, either equivalent to, or ranking below, that of Raja.

REGAR.—Name for a black soil in Central and Southern India, which is very retentive of moisture, and suitable for growing cotton.

REGULATION.—A term formerly applied to certain provinces to show that the Regulations or full code of legislation applied to them.

REH.—Saline or alkaline efflorescences on the surface of the soil, Northern India.

RESERVED.—Forests intended to be maintained permanently.

RICKSHAW.—A one or two seat vehicle on two wheels drawn by coolies, used in the hills.

RISALDAR.—Commander of a troop of horse.

ROHU.—A kind of fish, *LABEO ROHITA*.

RYOTWARI.—The system of tenure in which land revenue is imposed on the actual occupants of holdings.

SADR, sudder.—Chief (adjective). Hence the headquarters of a District; formerly applied to the Appellate Courts.

SAFA JANG.—A long-handled battleaxe carried by Jat Sikhs.

SAFFLOWER.—A thistle which yields a yellow dye from its petals and oil from its seeds (*CARTHAMUS TINCTORIUS*), var. *kardai*, *kushanti*.

SAHEB.—The Native Hindu term used to or of a European ("Mr. Smith" would be mentioned as "Smith Sahab," and his wife "Smith Mem-Sahab," but in addressing it would be "Sahab," fem. "Saheba," without the name); occasionally appended to a title in the same way as "Bahadur," but inferior (inferior). The unusual combination "Nawab Sahab" implies a mixed population of Hindus and Mohammedans.

SAHIBZADA.—Son of a person of consequence.

SAID, SAYID, SAIYID, SIDI, SYED, SYUD.—Various forms for a title adopted by those who claim direct male descent from Mohammed's grandson Husain.

SAL.—A useful timber tree in Northern India, *SHOREA ROBUSTA*.

SAMBAR.—A deer, *CERVUS UNICOLOR*; syn. *sarai*.

SAN.—Bombay hemp, *CROTALARIA JUNCICA*.

SANAD.—(1), A charter or grant, giving its name to a class of States in Central India held under a sanad, (2) any kind of deed of grants.

SANGATHAN.—Literally tying together. A movement which aims at unity and the knowledge of the art of self-defence among Hindus. Roughly similar to Fascismo.

SANNYASI.—A Hindu mendicant.

SARI.—A long piece of cloth worn by women as a shawl.

SARANJAM.—Land held revenue free or on a reduced quit-rent in consideration of political services rendered by the holder's ancestors.

SARDAR (corrupted to *SIRDAR*).—A leading Government official, either civil or military, even a Grand Vizier. Nearly all the Punjab Barons bear this title. It and "Diwan" are like in value and used by both Hindus and Mohammedans. So, but Mohammedans only, are "Wali," "Sultan," "Amir," "Mir," "Mirza," "Mian," and "Khan."

SARKAR.—(1) The Government; (2) a tract of territory under Muhammadan rule, corresponding roughly to a Division under British administration.

SARSUBAH.—An officer in charge of a Division in the Baroda State corresponding to Commissioner of British territories.

SATI.—Suicide by a widow, especially on the funeral pyre of her husband.

SATYAGRAHA.—(lit.) One possessed by the truth; one who follows the truth wherever it may lead. (Commonly used to denote the passive resistance movement.)

SAWAI.—A Hindu title implying a slight distinction (lit one-fourth better than others).

SAWBUA.—A title borne by chiefs in the Shan States, Burma.

SEMAL or cotton tree.—A large forest tree with crimson flowers and pods containing a quantity of floss, BOMBAY MALABARICUM.

SEROW, SARAU.—A goat antelope, NEMOR-HÆDUS BUDALINUS.

SETTLEMENT.—(1) The preparation of a cadastral record, and the fixing of the Government revenue from land; (2) the local inquiry made before Forest Reserves are created; (3) the financial arrangement between the Government of India and Local Governments.

SHAHID.—A martyr.

SHAHZADA.—Son of a King.

SHAIKH or SHEIKH (Arabic).—A chief.

SHAMS-UL-ULANA.—A Mohammedan title denoting "learned."

SHAMSHIR-JANG.—"Sword of Battle" (a title of the Maharaja of Travancore.)

SHANBUOG.—See PATWARI.

SHASTRAS.—The religious law-books of the Hindus.

SHEGADI, seggaree.—A pan on 3 feet with live charcoal in it.

SHER, ser, seer.—A weight, or measure varying much in size in different parts of the country. The Railway ser is about 2 lbs.

SHETH, shethia.—A Hindu or Jain merchant

SHIGURAM.—See TONGA.

SHISHAM or sissu.—A valuable timber tree, DALBERGIA SISSOO.

SHUDDHI.—Literally purification. A movement started in Rajputana and Northern India for the reconversion to Hinduism of those, like the Malakhana Rajputs, who, though Mahomedans for some generations, have retained many Hindu practices.

SIDI.—A variation of "Said".

SILLADAR.—A native trooper who furnishes his own horse and equipment.

SINDHIA.—See under "Gaekwar".

SOLA.—A water-plant with a valuable pith, AESCHYNOMENE ASPERA.

SOWAR.—A mounted soldier or constable.

SRI OR SHRI.—Lit. fortune, beauty, a Sanscrit term used by Hindus in speaking of a person much respected (never addressed to him; nearly "Esquire"); used also of divinities. The two forms of spelling are occasioned by the intermediate sound of the *s* (that of *s* in the German *Stadt*).

STUPA or tope.—A Buddhist tumulus, usually of brick or stone, and more or less hemispherical, containing relics.

SUBAH.—(1) A province under Mahomedan rule; (2) the officer in charge of a large tract in

Baroda, corresponding to the Collector of a British District; (3) a group of Districts or Division, Hyderabad.

SUBAHAR.—(1) The governor of a province under Mahomedan rule; (2) a native infantry officer in the Indian Army; (3) an official in Hyderabad corresponding to the Commissioner in British territory.

SUB-DIVISION.—A portion of a District in charge of a junior officer of the Indian Civil Service or a Deputy Collector.

SULTAN.—Like "Sardar".

SUPARI.—The fruit of the betel palm, ARECA CATECHU.

SUPERINTENDENT.—(1) The chief police officer in a District; (2) the official in charge of a hill station; (3) the official, usually of the Indian Medical Service, in charge of a Central Jail.

SURTIL.—Native of Surat, specially used of persons of the Dhed or Mahar caste who work as house servants of Europeans, and whose house speech is Gujarati.

SWAMI.—A Hindu religious wanderer.

SYCE, sals.—A groom.

SYED, SYED.—More variations of "Said".

TABLIGH.—The Mahomedan conversion movement.

TABUT.—See TAZIAH.

TAHSIL.—A revenue sub-division of a District; syn. taluka, Bombay; taluka, Madras and Mysore; township, Burma.

TAHSILDAR.—The officer in charge of a tahsil; syn. Mamlatdar, Bombay; township officer or myo-ok, Burma; Mukhtarkar, Sind; Vahivatdar, Baroda. His duties are both executive and magisterial.

TAKAVI.—Loans made to agriculturists for seed, bullocks, or agricultural improvements; syn. tagal, Bombay.

TALATI.—See PATWARI.

TALAV, or talao.—A lake or tank

TALUK, taluka.—The estate of a talukdar in Oudh. A revenue sub-division of a District, in Bombay, Madras and Mysore; syn. tahsil.

TALUKDAR.—A landholder with peculiar tenures in different parts of India. (1) An official in the Hyderabad State, corresponding to the Magistrate and Collector (First Talukdar) or Deputy Magistrates and Collectors (Second and Third Talukdars); (2) a landholder with a peculiar form of tenure in Gujarat.

TALPUR.—The name of a dynasty in Sind.

TAMTAM, tumtum.—A North Indian name for a light trap or cart.

TANK.—In Southern, Western, and Central India, a lake formed by damming up a valley; in Northern India, an excavation holding water.

TANZIM.—Literally "organization". A movement among the Mahomedans which aims at securing better education and a closer approach to unity among Mahomedans in India.

TAPEDAR.—See PATWARI.

TARAI.—A moist swampy tract; the term especially applied to the tract along the foot of the Himalayas.

TARI, toddy.—The sap of the date, palmyra, or cocoanut palm, used as a drink, either fresh or after fermentation. In Northern India the juice of the date is called Sendhi.

TASAR, tussore.—Wild silkworms, ANTHRAEA PAPPIA; also applied to the cloth made from their silk.

TAZIA.—Lath and paper models of the tombs of Hasan and Husain, carried in procession at the Muharram festival; syn. tabut.

TEAK.—A valuable timber tree in Southern and Western India and Burma, TECTONA GRANDIS.

TELEGRAPHIC TRANSFERS.—See Council bills.

THAGI, thuggee.—Robbery after strangulation of the victim.

THAKUR.—(1) The modern equivalent of the caste name Kshattriya in some parts of Northern India; (2) a title of respect applied to Brahmans; (3) a petty chief; (4) a hill tribe in the Western Ghats.

THAMIN.—The brow-antlered deer, Burma, CERVUS ELDI.

THANA.—A police station, and hence the circle attached to it.

TIKA.—(1) Ceremonial anointing on the forehead; (2) vaccination.

TIKAM.—The English pickaxe (of which the word is a corruption).

TIL.—An oilseed, SESAMUM INDICUM; also known as gingelly in Madras.

TINDAL, tandel.—A foreman, subordinate officer of a ship.

TIPAI, Teapoy.—A table with 3 legs, and hence used of any small European style table.

TOLA.—A weight equivalent to 180 grains (—troy).

TONGA.—A one or two horsed vehicle with a covered top; syn. SHIGURAM.

TSINE.—Wild cattle found in Burma and to the southward, BOS SONDAICUS; syn. healing and banteng.

TIHMANDAR.—A Persian word denoting some Office.

UMARA.—Term implying the Nobles collectively.

WILDPIG.—A wild pig—(FICUS GLOMERATA).

UNIT.—A term in famine administration denoting one person relieved for one day.

URIAL.—A wild sheep in North-Western India, OVIS VIGNEI.

URID, UNID.—A pulse, 'black grain,' (PHASEOLUS MUNGO).

USAR.—Soil made barren by saline efflorescence, Northern India.

VAHIVATDAR.—Officer in charge of a revenue sub-division, with both executive and magisterial functions, Baroda; syn. tahsildar.

VAID or baidya, Bengal.—A native doctor practising the Hindu system of medicine.

VAKIL.—(1) A class of legal practitioner; (2) an agent generally.

VIHARA.—A Buddhist monastery.

VILLAGE.—Usually applied to a certain area demarcated by survey, corresponding roughly to the English parish.

VILLAGE UNION.—An area in which local affairs are administered by a small committee.

WADA or WADI.—(1) an enclosure with house built round facing a centre yard; (2) private enclosed land near a village.

WAKF.—A Muhammadan religious or charitable endowment.

WALI.—Like "Sardar." The Governor of Khetlat is so termed, whilst the Chiefs of Cabi are both "Wali" and "Mir."

WAO.—A step well.

WATAN.—A word of many senses. In Bombay Presidency used mostly of the land or cash allowance enjoyed by the person who performs some service useful for Government or to the village community.

WAZIR.—The chief minister at a Mahomedan court.

WET RATE.—The rate of revenue for land assured of irrigation.

YOGI.—A Hindu ascetic who follows the yog system, a cardinal part of which is that it confers complete control over the bodily functions enabling the practiser, for instance to breathe in through one nostril and out at the other.

YUNANI.—Lit. Greek; the system of medicine practised by Mahomedans.

ZAMINDAR.—A landholder.

ZAMINDARI.—(1) An estate; (2) the rights of a landholder, zamindar; (3) the system of tenure in which land revenue is imposed on an individual or community occupying the position of a landlord.

ZANANA.—The women's quarters in a house hence private education of women.

ZIARAT.—A Mahomedan shrine, North-Western Frontier.

ZILA.—A District.

The Peoples of India.

It is essential to bear in mind, when dealing with the people of India, that it is a continent rather than a country. Nowhere is the complex character of Indians more clearly exemplified than in the physical type of its inhabitants. No one would confuse the main types, such as Gurkhas, Pathans, Sikhs, Rajputs, Burmans, Nagas, Tamils, etc., nor does it take long to carry the differentiation much farther. The typical inhabitants of India—the Dravidians—differ altogether from those of Northern Asia, and more nearly resemble the tribes of Malaya, Sumatra and Madagascar. Whatever may be their origin, it is certain that they have settled in the country for countless ages and that their present physical characteristics have been evolved locally. They have been displaced in the North-West by successive hordes of invaders, including Aryans, Scythians, Pathans and Moghals, and in the North-East by Mongoloid tribes allied to those of Burma, which is India only in a modern political sense. Between these foreign elements and the pure Dravidians is borderland where the contiguous races have intermingled.

The people of the Indian Empire are divided by Sir Henry Risley (Caste, Tribe and Race, Indian Census Report, 1901; the Gazetteer of India, Ethnology and Caste, Volume I, Chapter 6) into seven main physical types. There would be eight if the Andamanese were included, but this tiny group of Negritos may be disregarded.

The Turko-Iranian, represented by the Baluch, Brahui and Afghans of Baluchistan and the North-West Frontier Province. Probably formed by a fusion of Turki and Persian elements, in which the former predominate. Stature above mean; complexion fair; eyes mostly dark but occasionally grey; hair on face plentiful; head broad, nose moderately narrow, prominent, and very long. The feature in these people that strikes one most prominently is the portentous length of their noses, and it is probably this peculiarity that has given rise to the tradition of the Jewish origin of the Afghans.

The Indo-Aryan occupying the Punjab, Rajputana, and Kashmir, and having as its characteristic members the Rajputs, Khattris, and Jats. This type, which is readily distinguishable from the Turko-Iranian, approaches most closely to that ascribed to the traditional Aryan colonists of India. The stature is mostly tall; complexion fair; eyes dark; hair on face plentiful, head long; nose narrow, and prominent, but not specially long.

The Scytho-Dravidian, comprising the Megastha Brahmins, the Kunbis, and the Coorgs of Western India. Probably formed by a mixture of Scythian and Dravidian elements. This type is clearly distinguished from the Turko-Iranian by a lower stature, a greater length of head, a higher nasal index, a shorter nose, and a lower orbito-nasal index. All of these characters, except perhaps the last, may be due to a varying degree of intermixture with the Dravidians. In the higher groups the amount of crossing seems to have been slight; in the lower Dravidian elements more pronounced.

The Aryo-Dravidian or Hindustani, found in the United Provinces, in parts of Raj-

putana, and in Bihar and represented in its upper strata by the Hindustani Brahman and in its lower by the Chamar. Probably the result of the intermixture, in varying proportions, of the Indo-Aryan and Dravidian types. The head-form is long with a tendency to medium; the complexion varies from lightish brown to black; the nose ranges from medium to broad, being always broader than among the Indo-Aryans; the stature is lower than in the latter group, and usually below the average according to the scale. The higher representatives of this type approach the Indo-Aryans, while the lower members are in many respects not very far removed from the Dravidians. The type is essentially a mixed one, yet its characteristics are readily definable, and no one would take even an upper class Hindustani for a pure Indo-Aryan or a Chamar for a genuine Dravidian. The distinctive feature of the type, the character which gives the real clue to its origin and stamps the Aryo-Dravidian as racially different from the Indo-Aryan is to be found in the proportions of the nose.

The Mongolo-Dravidian, or Bengali type of Lower Bengal and Orissa, comprising the Bengali Brahmins and Kayasthas, the Mahomedans of Eastern Bengal, and other groups peculiar to this part of India. Probably a blend of Dravidian and Mongoloid elements, with a strain of Indo-Aryan blood in the higher groups. The head is broad; complexion dark; hair on face usually plentiful; stature medium; nose medium, with a tendency to broad. This is one of the most distinctive types in India, and its members may be recognised at a glance throughout the wide area where their remarkable aptitude for clerical pursuits has procured them employment. Within its own habitat the type extends to the Himalayas on the north and to Assam on the east, and probably includes the bulk of the population of Orissa; the western limit coincides approximately with the hilly country of Chota Nagpur and Western Bengal.

The Mongoloid type of the Himalayas, Nepal, Assam, and Burma, represented by the Kanets of Lahul and Kulu; the Lepchas of Darjeeling and Sikkim; the Limbus, Murmis and Gurungs of Nepal; the Bodo of Assam; and the Burmese. The head is broad; complexion dark, with a yellow tinge; hair on face scanty; stature short or below average; nose fine to broad; face characteristically flat; eyelids often oblique.

The Dravidian type extending from Ceylon to Madras, Hyderabad, and Coorg, and covering the Central India and Chota Nagpur. Its most characteristic representatives are the Paniyans of Malabar and the Santals of Chota Nagpur. Probably the original type of the population of India, now modified to a varying extent by the admixture of Aryan, Scythian, and Mongoloid elements. In typical specimens the stature is short or below mean; the complexion very dark, approaching black; hair plentiful, with an occasional tendency to curl; eyes dark; head long; nose very broad, sometimes depressed at the root, but not so as to make the face appear

flat. This race, the most primitive of the Indian types, occupies the oldest geological formation in India, the medley of forest-clad ranges, terraced plateau, and undulating plains which stretch roughly speaking, from the Vindhyas to Cape Comorin. On the east and the west of the peninsular area the domain of the Dravidian is continuous with the Ghats, while further north it reaches on one side to the Aravalis, and on the other to the Rajmahal Hills. Where the original characteristics have been unchanged by contact with Indo-Aryan or Mongoloid people, the type is remarkably uniform and distinctive. Labour is the birthright of the pure Dravidian whether hoeing tea in Assam, the Duars, of Ceylon, cutting rice in the swamps of Eastern Bengal or doing scavenger's work in the streets of Calcutta, Rangoon and Singapore, he is recognizable at a glance by his black skin, his

squat figure, and the negro-like proportion of his nose. In the upper strata of the vast social deposit which is here treated as Dravidian these typical characteristics tend to thin and disappear, but even among them traces of the original stock survive in varying degrees.

The areas occupied by these various types do not admit of being defined as sharply as they must be shown on an ethnographic map. They melt into each other insensibly; and, although at the close of a day's journey from one ethnic tract to another, an observer whose attention had been directed to the subject would realise clearly enough that the physical characteristics of the people had undergone an appreciable change, he would certainly be unable to say at what particular stage in his progress the transformation had taken place.

MAIN STATISTICS OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE.

The Indian Empire has an area of 1,805,332 square miles about 3,000 square miles being added at the last census owing to the enumeration by estimate of certain tracts in Burma which had been excluded from previous censuses.

Of the total area 1,094,300 square miles, or 61 per cent. lie in British Territory, while the Indian States cover an area of 711,032 square miles, or 39 per cent. The total population is 318,942,480. British Territory containing 247,003,293 persons, or 77 per cent., and the Indian States 71,939,187 persons, or 23 per cent. of the whole population. It is usual to illustrate

these figures by comparison with the countries of Europe and in respect of area and population the Indian Empire has been frequently compared to Europe without Russia. The war has, however, considerably altered the national and political distribution of countries and the new political map of Europe is perhaps hardly yet sufficiently familiar to form a graphic contrast. Turning further west we find that India with an area about half that of the United States has a population almost three times as large.

The most important statistics are set out in the following table:—

	India.	British Provinces.	Indian States.
Area in Square Miles	1,805,332	1,094,300	711,032
Number of Towns and Villages	687,981	500,088	187,893
(a) Towns	2,316	1,561	715
(b) Villages	685,665	498,527	187,138
Number of Occupied Houses	65,198,389	50,441,636	14,756,753
(a) In Towns	6,765,014	5,046,820	1,718,104
(b) In Villages	58,433,375	45,394,816	13,038,550
Total Population	318,942,480	247,003,293	71,939,187
(a) In Towns	32,475,276	25,044,368	7,430,003
(b) In Villages	286,467,204	221,958,925	64,508,270
Males	163,995,554	126,872,116	37,123,438
(a) In Towns	17,845,248	13,971,136	3,874,112
(b) In Villages	146,150,306	112,900,980	33,249,326
Females	154,946,926	120,131,177	34,815,749
(a) In Towns	14,630,028	11,073,232	3,556,796
(b) In Villages	140,316,898	109,057,945	31,258,953

Density.—Over the whole of India the population per square mile averages 177, the mean density in the British Provinces being 228 and in the States 101. If the districts (and small States) are taken as a unit, and the cities are excluded, the mean density ranges between a minimum of 1 and a maximum of 1,882 per square mile. The unequal distribution of the population of India is due to causes analysed in previous editions of the Year Book; it is chiefly dictated 'by physical conditions. Other influences are at work, such as the state of law and order, the means of communication, climate, and the existence of irrigation. Industrial factors are becoming more and more important as the population moves out of the congested rural tracts to supply the labour needed for industrial enterprise—for the tea in Assam,

the docks and jute mills of Calcutta, the minerals of Bengal and Chota Nagpur, the cotton of Bombay and the coffee and rubber of Southern India. For the purposes of comparison the manner in which the population is distributed in other countries of the world is indicated in the following statement:—

Belgium	654
England and Wales	649
France	184
Germany	332
The Netherlands	544
Austria	199
Spain	107
Japan	215
United States	32
New Zealand	118

MOVEMENT OF THE POPULATION.

The population of India has increased by 1·2 per cent. during the decade. The figures of previous censuses with the variations per cent. are given below. The average increase since the census of 1872 falls at a rate of 5·5 per cent., but the real gain is considerably less than this figure owing to two factors, (a) the additions of area and population included at each census and (b) the progressive increase in the accuracy of the enumeration from census to census. So far as the present census is concerned the additional area and population included amount to 2,675 square miles and 86,533 persons, respectively, while for the present purpose it may be taken that the enumeration of 1921 was, as regards numbers, as accurate but not more accurate than that of 1911. The real increase in the population during the last 49 years is thus estimated at about fifty-four millions or 20·1 per cent.

Census of	Population.	Variation per cent. since previous census.
1872	206,162,360	—
1881	253,826,330	+23·2
1891	287,314,671	+13·2
1901	294,381,056	+2·5
1911	315,156,396	+7·1
1921	318,942,480	+1·2

Factors in the Movement.—The increase was slightly greater in the British districts (1·3) than in the States (1·0). Assam and Burma show comparatively high rates of increase; immigration is an important factor in the rise in Assam, but neither of these Provinces was exposed to the invasion of influenza which wiped off the whole of the natural increase in the Central Provinces and Berar, Bihar and Orissa, and Bombay, and substantially reduced the population in the United Provinces and Rajputana, the Central India Agency, and Hyderabad State. The stimulus given to agricultural prosperity in the Punjab by a large expansion of canal irrigation did much to neutralise the effects of the high death rate in 1918. In Bengal and Madras unhealthy conditions were more localised and the development of the population was only partially retarded.

The War.—The war itself had little direct effect on the population of India. Such effect could operate in three ways (1) by death casualties, (2) by increasing the number of persons outside India at the census, and (3) by decreasing the birth-rate. The actual number of death casualties among the officers and ranks of Indian Army units and labour corps was 58,238. The maximum number serving out of India in combatant and labour units at any one time between 1914 and 1919 was, approximately, Indian troops 250,000, labour corps 230,000, total 480,000; the number about the time of the census being troops 105,000, labour corps 20,800, total 125,800. So far as the larger totals are concerned the war is not a direct factor of any importance in the census in any province.

Economic Conditions.—In considering the economic factors which determined the movement of the population during the decade it can be divided into two periods, a fairly normal period from 1911 to 1917 and the disastrous epidemic year 1918, accompanied by scarcity and followed by a second crop failure in 1920. In 1917 conditions in India began to respond to the world conditions of the war, men for the fighting and labour units and food, munitions and war material of all kinds were demanded. The strain on the railway organisation dislocated the local markets and the distribution system of the country was impaired. The rising prices of imported necessities hit the poorer classes. Then followed the disastrous seasons of 1918 and 1919. Famine relief organisation is now so highly perfected in India that scarcity is not necessarily accompanied by high mortality but influenza, starting in 1918, visited almost every portion of the country and in a few months wiped out the natural increase in the population of the previous seven years.

Public Health.—The distinctive feature of the decade 1901-1911 was plague. The recorded number of deaths from plague in the ten years was 6½ millions. In the recent decade the deaths were less than half that number. Cholera is normally most prevalent in the Eastern Provinces.

Virulent as the epidemic can still be when its hold is established it is now usually of a temporary and local nature, and the total death-rate in British India from the disease during the decade did not amount to more than 1·5 per cent. By far the largest number of deaths

India are entered under the category of 'fever,' and allowing for inaccuracy of diagnosis it has usually been assumed that about one-third of the deaths so recorded may be ascribed to malaria. Recent investigations made in special areas, however, suggest that its proportion has been considerably overestimated and that malaria only accounts for one-fifth to one-fourth of the number of reported fever cases, the remainder being cases of dysentery, pneumonia, phthisis and other diseases.

In the last few years the prevalence of an affection which is the cause of considerable mortality called *Relapsing Fever* has received considerable attention by the Health Department. This disease has been diagnosed as common in most parts of the country, specially the northern provinces and in the Central Provinces and Berar and Bombay, but the extent of the mortality which can be ascribed to it is not at present to be estimated. Nor can figures given of phthisis which is undoubtedly responsible for considerable mortality; especially the towns of western India, the deaths from this disease in Ahmedabad amounting in 1918 to 5 per mille of the population. All other factors in the health of the people have been overshadowed by the influenza epidemic of 1918 and 1919 which has dominated the population figures at the 1921 census.

Influenza.—The influenza epidemic of 1918 invaded India in two distinct waves. The infection apparently radiated from Bombay, it is impossible to say where the more virulent virus of the second invasion came from.

The rural areas were most severely infected, the reason probably being that while villages have little advantage over towns in the matter of overcrowding, sanitation and ventilation the urban areas have the benefit of qualified medical aid and organised effort. Mortality was specially high among adults (20-40), particularly among adult females, the disease being generally fatal to women in pregnancy. At its worst period whole villages were absolutely deserted by the disease. There was sometimes no means of disposing of the dead, crops were left unharvested and all local official action was largely paralysed, owing to the fact that the majority of the official staff were put out of action by the epidemic. To add to the distress a disease came at a period of widespread crop failure and reached its climax in November when the cold weather had set in; and, as the rice of cloth happened at the time to be at its highest, many were unable to provide themselves with the warm clothing that was essential in the case of an illness that so readily attacked the masses. The disease lasted in most provinces all into 1919 and gave a high mortality in that year in Bengal and the United Provinces. Even after it had subsided there were in the central Provinces, Bombay and Burma mild recrudescences later in the year, while local outbreaks continued over the country during the next two years.

There is no direct means of ascertaining the mortality from the epidemic. Various estimates

have been made based on the excess mortality over some suitable mean. The average of these calculations gives a total number of deaths in the areas under registration of about 7,100,000 in 1918, to which must be added, as the results of similar calculation, another 1½ million deaths in 1919, giving a total recorded mortality of nearly 8½ millions in the two years. Even this, however, must be a substantial underestimate since, owing to the complete breakdown of the reporting staff, the registration of vital statistics was in many cases suspended during the progress of the epidemic in 1918.

The total influenza mortality for India is put at between 12 and 13 millions. This is a conservative estimate. Even this estimate makes the influenza mortality, a large part of which occurred in three or four months, exceed by nearly two millions the total estimated deaths from plague in twenty years. On an estimated case mortality of ten per cent. the total number of persons affected was 125 millions or two-fifths of the population of India. There was a further reaction on the birth rate.

Houses and Families.—The average number of persons per house has not changed in the last decade, though there was a decline between 1881 and 1911. The trend of the figures varies in different provinces, but they do not afford substantial ground for any material inference. It would, for example, be expected that the incidence of the influenza mortality would fall fairly evenly upon the individual households and would therefore cause a reduction in the number of persons per house. It does not appear to have done so either in Bombay, the United Provinces, the Central Provinces, or Rajputana, while in Bengal, where there is a rise in the population, there is a fall in the size of the household. The figures are unsatisfactory, and though they invite a discussion on the condition of the joint family it is doubtful if they can really be held to illuminate it. The general opinion of the Provincial Superintendents is that they do not do so and that other indications do not show that the joint family system has yet undergone any radical change, at any rate in the agricultural tracts of the country.

Census.	Persons per house.	Houses per square mile.
1921	4·0	36·1
1911	4·0	35·8
1901	5·2	31·6
1891	5·4	33·9
1881	5·8	31·7

Variation in Natural Population 1911-1921.

Province, State or Agency.	POPULATION IN 1921.				POPULATION IN 1911.				Variation per cent. (1911-1921) In Natural Increase (+) Decrease (-)
	Actual population.	Immi- grants.	Emi- grants.	Natural population.	Actual population.	Immi- grants.	Emi- grants.	Natural population.	
INDIA.	318,885,980	603,526	1,050,951	319,333,403	315,110,231	625,122	1,023,505	315,508,614	1.2
Ajmer-Merwara	465,271	109,890	42,420	497,801	501,359	96,578	84,110	488,927	-12.5
Andamans & Nicobars	27,086	15,120	316	12,282	26,495	14,102	970	13,027	5.7
Assam	7,970,216	1,290,157	75,978	6,776,067	7,058,857	882,063	74,294	6,252,083	8.4
Baluchistan	799,625	78,337	60,421	781,639	834,703	55,500	76,273	852,476	8.2
Bengal	47,592,462	1,929,640	697,017	46,359,889	46,303,642	1,970,778	58,1757	44,919,621	3.2
Bihar & Orissa	37,991,858	422,244	1,935,048	39,494,662	38,433,293	419,712	1,916,806	39,902,387	1.0
Bombay	26,701,148	1,081,649	592,009	26,211,508	27,038,152	995,844	622,831	26,665,139	1.7
Burma	13,212,192	706,725	20,294	12,525,762	12,113,217	719,985	14,166	11,338,418	8.6
C. P. & Berar	15,979,660	609,504	407,294	15,777,450	16,032,310	590,965	313,232	15,598,558	1.1
Coorg	163,838	33,937	2,832	162,753	171,976	45,535	3,862	133,303	0.4
Madras	42,794,135	209,862	1,756,462	44,340,755	41,870,160	253,877	1,518,179	43,134,462	2.7
N.-W.F. Province	5,076,473	137,562	81,493	5,003,409	3,819,027	133,345	67,378	3,751,060	23.3
Delhi	488,188	185,770	69,350	371,768	211,877,50	660,219	517,485	24,045,016	5.9
Punjab	25,101,060	627,137	519,429	25,023,352	48,014,080	660,085	1,429,310	48,783,205	2.7
United Provinces	46,510,668	480,414	1,402,541	47,432,763	2,032,798	222,957	235,528	2,045,369	3.4
Baroda State	2,126,522	232,494	221,602	2,115,630	9,356,980	474,255	536,133	9,418,858	3.1
Gwalior State	3,186,075	290,340	239,029	3,184,764	9,356,980	474,255	536,133	9,418,858	3.1
Central India (Agency)	5,997,023	518,094	486,643	5,935,572	918,110	47,266	23,268	894,112	8.2
Cochin State	979,080	39,739	28,338	967,659	13,374,678	260,713	306,388	13,420,351	5.8
Hyderabad State	12,471,770	202,781	363,751	12,632,740	13,158,126	76,773	81,968	13,163,321	5.6
Kashmir State	3,320,518	63,420	84,291	3,341,389	5,806,193	312,908	139,607	5,632,892	2.3
Mysore State	5,978,892	314,531	102,104	5,766,465	10,530,432	303,533	853,947	11,082,826	5.5
Rajputana (Agency)	9,844,384	213,002	868,117	10,469,499	87,020	29,835	3,445	61,530	2.1
Sikkim State	81,721	22,978	4,133	62,876	3,428,975	61,165	33,143	3,400,953	16.5
Travancore State	4,006,062	73,591	30,250	3,962,721					

NOTES.

- (1) The figures for the Provinces are inclusive of the States attached to them except in the case of Madras where they exclude Cochin and Travancore.
- (2) The Actual and Natural population shown in this table is less by 56,500 persons owing to the exclusion of Aden where Table XI was not compiled.
- (3) Columns 2 and 6—Persons not enumerated by birth-place or whose birth-place was not returned have been included in these columns.
- (4) Columns 4 and 8—The figures against India in columns 4 and 8 represent emigrants to foreign countries, details of which for 1921 will be found in Subsidiary Table V of Chapter III.

AREA OF INDIA AND THE PROVINCES AND STATES.

Province, State or Agency.	AREA IN SQUARE MILES IN		Difference, Increase +, Decrease -.
	1921.	1911.	
INDIA.	1,805,332	1,802,657	+2,675
Provinces.	1,094,300	1,093,074	+1,226
Ajmer-Merwara	2,711	2,711	—
Andamans and Nicobars	3,143	3,143	—
Assam	53,015	53,015	—
Baluchistan (Districts and Administered Territories)	51,228	51,228	—
Bengal	76,843	78,099	-1,856
Bihar and Orissa	83,161	83,181	-20
Bombay	123,621	123,059	+562
Burma	233,707	230,839	+2,868
Central Provinces and Berar	99,876	99,823	+53
Coorg	1,582	1,582	—
Madras	142,260	142,330	-70
North-West Frontier Province (Districts and Administered Territories)	13,410	13,418	+8
Punjab and Delhi	100,139	99,779	+360
United Provinces	106,295	107,267	-972
States and Agencies.	711,032	709,583	+1,449
Assam State (Manipur)	8,456	8,456	—
Baluchistan States	80,410	80,410	—
Baroda State	8,127	8,182	-55
Bengal States	5,434	5,393	+41
Bihar and Orissa States	28,648	28,648	—
Bombay States	63,153	63,864	-711
Central India Agency and Gwalior State	77,888	77,367	+521
Central Provinces States	31,176	31,174	+2
Hyderabad State	82,698	82,698	—
Kashmir State	84,258	84,432	-174
Madras States	10,696	10,549	+147
Mysore State	29,475	29,475	—
North-West Frontier Province (Agencies and Tribal Areas)	25,500	25,500	—
Punjab States	37,059	36,551	+508
Rajputana (Agency)	128,987	128,987	—
Sikkim State	2,818	2,818	—
United Provinces States	5,919	5,079	+840

NOTE.—The difference in areas is due to the use of revised survey figures and to corrections for fluvial action: in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the Punjab and the United Provinces it is also due to inter-provincial transfers.

THE POPULATION OF INDIA AT SIX CENSUSES.

		India.	British Provinces.	Indian States.
Total Population	1921	318,912,480	247,003,203	71,939,187
	1911	315,156,396	243,933,178	71,223,218
	1901	291,361,056	231,259,098	63,101,958
	1891	287,314,671	220,879,388	66,435,283
	1881	253,896,330	198,545,380	55,350,950
	1872	206,162,360	184,858,172	21,304,188
Males	1921	163,995,554	126,872,116	37,123,438
	1911	161,338,935	121,707,915	36,631,020
	1901	149,951,824	117,482,836	32,468,988
	1891	146,769,629	112,391,551	34,378,078
	1881	129,949,290	101,165,117	28,784,173
	1872	106,055,545	95,136,615	10,918,930
Females	1921	154,916,926	120,131,177	34,815,749
	1911	153,817,461	119,225,263	34,592,198
	1901	144,409,232	113,776,262	30,632,970
	1891	140,545,042	108,484,837	32,060,205
	1881	123,947,040	97,380,263	26,566,777
	1872	100,106,815	89,721,557	10,385,258

Future Population of India.—A study of the growth of the population of India and the problems which it presents is vitiated by the abnormal conditions of the past decade. It was pointed out in the census report of 1911 that the rate of increase of population between 1872 and 1911 was equivalent to about 9 per cent., and that at this rate the population would double itself in about a century and a half. The real increase in the last fifty years in the population of India is just over 20 per cent. At this rate the doubling will take another 190 years. But calculations of this kind, though of interest, can hardly be taken seriously. Almost every one of the last five decades has witnessed some special disaster. A severe famine in South India checked the increase in the decade 1872-1881. The decennium 1891-1901 was dominated by the great famines of the closing period. Growth in Northern and Western India was checked in the succeeding decade by plague and we have had in the past decennium an epidemic which has caused more concentrated mortality than any previous calamity. The decade 1881-1891 alone

was free from any exceptional calamity and is usually considered a period of fairly normal progress.

Difference between the birth-rate and death-rate estimated by the actuary for certain provinces in certain decades.

Province.	1881-1891.	1901-1911.
Bengal	7.0	7.3
Bombay	13.9	5.2
Burma	..	11.1
Madras	13.3	8.5
Punjab	9.8	5.7
United Provinces ..	6.5	0.6
Combined Provinces ..	..	8.2

TOWN AND COUNTRY.

The progress of urbanisation in India—if there has been any progress at all—has been very slow during the past thirty years, the whole increase being less than one per cent. An examination of the statistics shows that whilst towns with populations above 50,000, increased by over 16 per cent. in the decade, the increase was considerably less in those

between 5,000 and 50,000, whereas the population of towns between 10 to 20 thousand did not keep abreast of the progress of the general population of the country. The statistics reveal the gradual decadence of the medium-size country town and the growth of the larger cities under the influence of commercial and industrial development.

DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN GROUPS OF TOWNS ACCORDING TO SIZE AND IN RURAL TERRITORY.

Class of places.	1921.		1921.
	Places.	Population.	Per cent.
Total Population	687,935	316,017,751	100.0
Urban Territory	2,313	32,418,776	10.2
Towns having—			
I. 100,000 and over	35	8,211,704	2.6
II. 50,000 to 100,000	54	3,517,749	1.1
III. 20,000 to 50,000	199	5,925,675	1.8
IV. 10,000 to 20,000	450	6,209,583	2.0
V. 5,000 to 10,000	885	6,223,011	2.0
VI. Under 5,000	690	2,331,054	.7
Rural Territory	685,622	283,598,975	89.8

Cities.—Statistical information for the 33 largest cities of India which have 100,000 or more inhabitants is given in the statement below :—

CITY.	Population 1921.	Number of persons per sq. mile.	Proportion of foreign born per mille.	Percentage of variation. 1911-21.
Calcutta with suburbs and Howrah ..	1,327,547	21,412	629	+ 4.3
Bombay	1,175,914	48,996	840	+20.1
Madras and Cantonment	526,911	18,169	335	+ 1.6
Hyderabad and Cantonment	404,187	7,925	275	+10.4
Rangoon and Cantonment	341,962	4,500	677	+16.6
Delhi and Cantonment	304,420	4,883	450	+30.7
Lahore and Cantonment	281,781	6,715	440	+23.2
Ahmedabad and Cantonment	274,007	24,909	397	+17.7
Lucknow and Cantonment	240,566	1,350	229	— 4.6
Bangalore	237,496	20,931	310	+25.3
Karachi and Cantonment	216,833	19,716	605	+42.8
Cawnpore and Cantonment	216,436	22,620	425	+21.2
Poona and Cantonment	214,796	5,369	373	+13.8
Benares and Cantonment	198,447	19,930	140	— 2.6
Agra and Cantonment	185,532	11,000	119	..
Amritsar and Cantonment	160,218	16,534	181	+ 4.9
Allahabad and Cantonment	157,220	10,250	266	— 8.4
Mandalay and Cantonment	148,917	5,917	209	+ 7.7
Nagpur	145,193	7,259	258	+43.2
Srinagar	141,735	15,653	21	+ 8.9
Madura	138,894	17,105	178	+ 2.8
Bareilly and Cantonment	129,459	16,800	128	..
Meerut and Cantonment	122,609	15,542	210	+ 5.1
Trichinopoly and Cantonment	120,422	13,622	176	— 2.5
Jaipur	120,207	40,069	63	—12.3
Patna	119,976	7,998	160	—11.0
Sholapur	119,581	17,083	391	+94.9
Dacca	119,450	17,566	140	..
Surat and Cantonment	117,434	39,144	183	..
Ajmer	113,512	6,677	537	..
Jubbulpore and Cantonment	108,793	7,252	366	..
Peshawar and Cantonment	104,452	34,817	319	..
Rawalpindi and Cantonment	101,142	11,802	532	..

In these statistics the population of Calcutta is taken as embracing the suburbs, and this method is apparently adopted in dealing with Calcutta only. It is not, for instance, adopted in dealing with the considerable suburbs of Bombay just outside the limits of the Island. The actual population of Calcutta within the Municipal area is 885,815.

Migration.—Of the population of the Indian Empire only 603,526 were enumerated as born in other parts of the world. Of these about four-fifths came from other Asiatic countries, such as Nepal, Afghanistan, China, Siam, Ceylon, and Arabia and the remainder mostly from Great Britain and other countries of Europe. The emigration from India is approximately 1·7 million, so the numbers who move between India and other countries is about two millions. Of the total immigrant population of 707,000 in Burma 573,000 are Indians, 102,000 Chinese, representing 80 and 15 per cent. respectively of the whole number. Of the Provinces which contribute most largely to the streams of migrants the most conspicuous are Bihar and Orissa, about 1½ million, the United Provinces about 1 million, Madras ¾th of a million, Rajputana 3-5th of a million and Hyderabad 1-6th of a million. The number of persons resident in India who were born outside the Indian Empire is 603,526 and of these 274,000 were born in Nepal, 116,900 in the British Isles, 108,060 in China and 48,000 in Afghanistan.

The statistics of emigration outside India are far from complete.

The number of Indians belonging to regiments and labour-corps outside India at the time of the census was about 125,000. Of these the majority were probably in Mesopotamia and Palestine. According to the returns

the number of Indians in the colonies, irrespective of birth-place, amounts to 1,662,000, of whom 1,028,000 or about two-thirds are males. More than four-fifths are Hindus and about half of the remainder are Muslims. The colonies which attract an appreciable number of emigrants are shown below. About one-ninth of the emigrants failed to specify their province of birth, and of the remainder no less than 841,000 or 80 per cent. were from Madras, 24,000 from Bombay, 18,000 from the Punjab, 17,000 from the North-West Frontier Province and 11,000 from Bengal. The majority of the emigrants work as agricultural labourers on rubber, tea, coffee and other plantations. Under the Defence of India Rules indentured labour emigration was stopped in March 1917, but there had been a considerable outflow of labourers to the colonies in the previous years and more than 2·4 millions of natives of India passed through the ports of Madras and Calcutta as indentured labourers for the various colonies during the decade. Of the labourers 33,000 went from Calcutta, but the bulk were from the Madras Presidency and their destination was Ceylon and the Straits Settlements. There is very little emigration from the ports of Bombay and Karachi. Altogether about two million labourers returned to India from the colonies during the decade:

Indian emigrants to certain Colonies.

	In thousands.
Ceylon	461
Straits Settlements and Malay..	401
Natal	47
Trinidad	37
Fiji	33
Mauritius	17
Kenya	17

RELIGIONS.

The subject of religion is severely controversial in India, where often it is coloured by politics and racialism. As the Year Book aims at being impartial, all disputed inferences are excluded. Speaking broadly, of every hundred persons in the Indian Empire 68 are Hindus, 22 Mahomedans, 3 Buddhists, 3 follow the religion of their tribes, one is a Chris-

tian and one a Sikh. Of the remaining 2 one is equally likely to be a Buddhist or a Christian, and the other most probably a Jain, much less probably a Parsi and just as possibly either a Jew, a Brahmo, or a holder of indefinite beliefs. The enumerated totals of the Indian religions are set out in the following table:—

Religion.	Actual number in 1921. (000's omitted.)	Proportion per 10,000 of population in 1921.	Variation per cent. (Increase + Decrease—), 1911-1921.
Indo-Aryan	232,723	7,362	+ 1
Hindu	216,735	6,856	— 4
Brahmanic	216,261	6,841	— 5
Arya	468	15	+ 92·1
Brahmo	6	2	+ 16·1
Sikh	3,239	103	+ 7·4
Jain	1,178	37	— 5·6
Buddhist	11,571	366	+ 7·9
Iranian [Zoroastrian (Parsi)]	102	3	+ 1·7
Semitic	73,511	2,325	+ 4·2
Musalman	68,735	2,174	+ 5·1
Christian	4,754	150	+ 22·6
Jew	22	6	+ 3·8
Primitive (Tribal)	9,775	309	— 5·1
Unclassified (Minor Religions and religions not returned)	18	1	— 51·5

An excellent example of the increase by the increase w.

The Hindus largely predominate in the centre and south of India, and in the Madras Presidency they are no less than 89 per cent. of the population. Hindus are in the majority in Assam, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Central India tracts, Rajputana and Bombay. Muhammadans monopolize the North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan and Kashmir and are considerably in excess in the Punjab and Eastern Bengal and Sind. They form about 28 per cent. of the population of Assam, 14 per cent. in the United Provinces and 10 per cent. in Hyderabad. The Buddhists are almost entirely confined to Burma where they are 85 per cent. of the population. The Sikhs are localized in the Punjab and the Jains in Rajputana, Ajmer-Merwara and the neighbouring States. Those who were classed as following Tribal Religions are chiefly found in Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and Assam, but Bengal, Burma, Madras, Rajputana, Central India and Hyderabad also returned a considerable number under this head. More than three-fifths of the total number of Christians reside in South India including the Hyderabad State. The remainder are scattered over the continent,

the larger numbers being returned in the Punjab, the United Provinces, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Burma, Bombay and Assam. The Parsis and Jews are chiefly residents of the Bombay Presidency.

Christians.—The Christian community now numbers just 4½ millions of persons in India or 1½ per cent. of the population. Fifty-nine per cent. of Christians are returned from the Madras Presidency and its States, and the community can claim 32 persons in every 1,000 of the population of the British districts of Madras and as large a proportion as 27 per cent. in Cochin and 29 per cent. in Travancore, where the increase during the decade was about 30 per cent. Elsewhere the Christians are scattered over the larger Provinces and States of India, the Punjab and Bihar and Orissa each having over 300 thousands, Bombay, Burma and the United Provinces between 200 and 300 thousands and Bengal and Assam between 100 and 150 thousands. Divided racially Europeans (and allied races) number 176 thousands, Anglo-Indians 113 thousands and Indians nearly 4½ millions, so that out of every 100 Christians 93 are Indians, 4 are Europeans and 3 are Anglo-Indians.

SECTS OF CHRISTIANS.

Sect.	Total.	
	1921.	1911.
INDIA.		
Abyssinian	4,753,174	3,873,958
Anglican Communion	1	23
Armenian	533,180	492,752
Baptist	1,467	1,200
Congregationalist	444,179	337,226
Greek	237	301
Lutheran	240,816	218,500
Methodist	208,135	171,814
Minor Protestant Denominations	28,852	12,460
Presbyterian	254,838	181,130
Protestants (Unsectarian or Sect not specified)	73,909	32,180
Quaker	1,036	1,245
Roman Catholic	1,823,079	1,400,863
Salvationist	88,922	62,407
South India United Church	65,747	..
Syrian, Chaldean	1,926	13,780
Syrian, Jacobite	252,989	225,190
Syrian, Nestorian	97	..
Syrian, Reformed	119,017	75,84
Syrian, Romo-Syrian	429,968	413,142
Unsectarian	559	..
Total	73,904	1

AGE AND SEX.

The figures of the total population of India are not tabulated by annual age-periods but the table below gives the age distribution of 10,000 males and females in the Indian population:

Age-group.	1921.		1911.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
0—5	1,202	1,316	1,327	1,433
5—10	1,471	1,491	1,383	1,383
10—15	1,245	1,081	1,165	997
15—20	842	815	818	826
20—25	775	881	822	930
25—30	865	885	896	909
30—35	825	833	829	835
35—40	636	565	622	556
40—45	621	621	634	631
45—50	392	316	380	338
50—55	434	438	432	443
55—60	185	168	177	164
60—65	266	208	257	305
65—70	81	79	83	75
70 & over	160	180	145	175
Mean age	24·8	24·7	24·7	24·7

In the whole of British India the infant death-rate amounts to about one-fifth of the total death-rate for all ages and about one-fifth of the children die before the age of one year. The ratios of deaths vary in different provinces the birth-rate being an important factor. Thus the death-rate is especially high in the United Provinces and Central Provinces where the birth-rate is high and low in Madras which has a lower general birth-rate. The recorded rates in some of the cities are phenomenally high but may, somewhat exaggerated.

Special causes contribute to the high mortality of infants in India. Owing to the custom of early marriage co-habitation and child-birth commonly take place before the woman is physically mature and this, combined with the primitive and insanitary methods of midwifery, seriously affects the health and vitality of the mother and through her of the child. Available statistics show that over 40 per cent. of the deaths of infants occur in the first week after birth and over 60 per cent. in the first month. If the child survives the pre-natal and natal chances of congenital debility and the risks of child-birth, it is exposed to the dangers of death in the early months of life from diarrhoea or dysentery.

Infant mortality in Cities.

Bombay	..	..	556
Calcutta	..	..	386
Rangoon	..	..	303
Madras	..	..	282
Karachi	..	..	249
Delhi	..	..	233

whilst to the increase

Sex Ratio.—In the whole of India there is an excess of males over females, the figures being 915 females per thousand males. These results being opposed to experience in most other countries of the world have been challenged and attributed to errors in the Indian census. This reasoning is rejected by the Census authorities, who insist that the disparity between the sexes is due to special conditions in the Indian Empire. The sex ratio has fallen in the last twenty years throughout India. The statistics of birth suggest that the proportion of females born to males born has, if anything, declined during this period, and in any case there has been a marked decline in the last five years of the last decade in most provinces. The decline in the proportion of women however is chiefly due to (a) the absence of famine mortality which selects adversely to males and (b) the heavy mortality from plague and influenza which has selected adversely to females.

Marriage.—The subject of polygamy has been discussed fully in the report of 1911. Both Hindus and Muhammadans are allowed more wives than one, Muhammadans being nominally restricted to four. As a matter of practice polygamy is comparatively rare owing to domestic and economic reasons and has little effect on the statistics. The table shows the number of married women per 1,000 married men in India and the main provinces. No definite conclusions however can be drawn from these figures because (1) they probably contain a certain number of widows, divorcees and prostitutes who have wrongly returned as married and (2) it is impossible accurately to gauge the effect of migration on the figures of the married in any area. The custom of polyandry is recognized as a regular institution among some of the tribes of the Himalayas and in parts of south India. It is also practised among many of the lower castes and aboriginal tribes. Its effect is reflected in the statistics of a few small communities such as the Buddhists of Kashmir where the proportion of married women to married men is exceptionally low, but otherwise the custom is of sociological rather than of statistical interest.

Number of married females per 1,000 males.

India	..	..	1,008
Assam	..	..	976
Bengal	..	..	966
Bihar and Orissa	..	..	1,034
Bombay	..	..	987
Burma	..	..	924
C.P. and Berar	..	..	1,024
Madras	..	..	1,061
Punjab	..	..	1,021
United Provinces	..	..	1,013

Widows.—The proportion of widows in the population, viz. 11·5 per cent. is strikingly

large. The large number of Indian widows is due partly to the early age of marriage, partly to the disparity in the ages of the husbands and wives but chiefly to the prejudice against the remarriage of widows. The higher castes of Hindus forbid it altogether and, as the custom

is held to be a mark of social respectability, many of the more ambitious of the lower castes have adopted it by way of raising their social status, while Muhammadans who are closely brought into touch with their Hindu neighbours are apt to share the prejudice.

Proportion of widows in the population per 1,000.

Age.		India, 1921	England and Wales, 1911	Age.		India, 1921	England and Wales, 1911
All ages	..	175·0	73·2	20—25	..	71·5	1·5
0—5	..	7	..	25—35	..	146·9	13·1
5—10	..	4·5	..	35—45	..	325·2	50·5
10—15	..	16·8	..	45—65	..	619·4	193·3
15—20	..	41·4	..	65 and over	..	834·0	565·9

Early Marriage.—The figures clearly show an increase in the numbers of those in the early age-categories who are still unmarried. The movement is most marked in the Hindu community but is shared by the other religions,

the change being less noticeable among the Buddhist and Christian communities who are not addicted to early marriage. The change is most conspicuous in the age-categories 10 to 15 for women and 10 to 20 for men.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.

Literacy.—The number of persons in India literate in the sense of being able to write a letter and read the reply is 22·6 millions, amounting, if children under five years of age are excluded, to 82 in every thousand of the population. Of males 139 in every thousand at age five and above are literate, the corresponding proportion in the case of females being 21.

The Hindus have one literate person in every thirteen; for males the ratio is one in eight and for females one in sixty-three. The proportion of Sikh males who are literate is less than that of Hindus. One Mahomedan male in 11 and one female in 116 can read and write. The low position of Muhammadans is partly due to the fact that in Bengal, the Punjab, North-West Frontier Province and Sind, where they predominate, they are mostly agricultural. Where they are in a minority, as in the Central Provinces, United Provinces and Madras, they are usually town-dwellers and have a considerably higher proportion of literates. The Hindu community embraces every stratum of society and the proportion of literacy is seriously affected by the inclusion of the vast mass of the lower rural classes. Some of the higher Hindu castes have more literate males than the Parsis whilst others are on a level with or even below the aboriginal tribes.

English.—In the whole of India 2·5 million persons or 160 males and 18 females in every ten thousand persons of each sex aged five and over can read and write English.

One in thirty males in Bengal and one in forty-three in Bombay are literate in English.

In Madras, Assam and Burma the proportion is 2 per cent. while in Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and the United Provinces it is below 1 per cent. Of the States Cochin and Travancore have between 3 and 4 per cent., but in others the proportions are much lower. More than half the number of Parsi males and one-fourth of their females can read and write English. Of Christians nearly all the Europeans and many of the Anglo-Indian are literate in English; but except on the southern coast English literacy is rare among the Indian Christians and the regional proportions therefore largely follow the racial distribution. Though the proportions in the other communities, taken on the total populations, are small, some of the higher castes have a fairly large number of English-knowing members. In Bengal about half of the Baidya males and a quarter of the Brahman and Kayastha males are literate in English, while in Madras more than a quarter of the Tamil Brahmins can claim this accomplishment. Of the Jains in Kathiawar nearly a tenth are literate in English though the Chaturth Jains of Kolhapur, who are cultivators, are less literate than the average of the Presidency. During the decade the number of males knowing English rose by 51 per cent. and that of females by 57 per cent. Among the main Provinces the greatest progress has been made by Bengal, Assam and Bombay and in the States by Cochin, Travancore, Mysore and Baroda.

Languages.—In the whole Indian Empire 222 languages were returned at the census, as has been previously explained having been separately considered. The

pal languages are given in the following statement:—

Language.	Number of speakers in (000's omitted).		Percent age of increase or decrease.
	1921.	1911.	
Western Hindi ..	96,714	96,041	+ 1
Bengali ..	49,294	48,368	+ 2
Telugu ..	25,601	23,543	+ 2
Marathi ..	18,798	19,807	— 5
Tamil ..	18,780	18,128	+ 4
Punjabi ..	16,234	15,877	+ 2
Rajasthani ..	12,681	14,068	— 10
Kanarese ..	10,374	10,526	— 1
Oriya ..	10,143	10,162	— 2
Gujarati ..	9,552	9,238	+ 3
Burmese ..	8,423	7,894	+ 7
Malayalam ..	7,498	6,792	+ 10
Lahnda or Western Punjabi ..	5,652	4,779	+ 18

The necessity of a common medium of conversation and intercourse, which has given rise to bi-lingualism and the consequent displacement

ment of tribal languages, has formed the subject of a considerable amount of discussion and suggestion during the last decade and a good deal has been written on the possibility of a *lingua franca* for India. The combined speakers of Eastern and Western Hindi considerably exceed in number the strength of any other individual language in India, and if we add to these two languages Bihari and Rajasthani, which so resemble Hindi as to be frequently returned under that name in the census schedules, we get well over 100 millions of speakers of tongues which have some considerable affinities and cover a very large area of northern and central India. In their pure forms these four languages may be scientifically distinct; but this is not the popular view. There is a common element in the main languages of northern and central India which renders their speakers, without any great conscious change in their speech mutually intelligible to one another, and this common basis already forms an approach to a *lingua franca* over a large part of India.

Infirmities.—These are classes under four main heads—insanity, deaf-mutism, blindness and leprosy. The appended statement shows the number of persons suffering from each infirmity at each of the last five censuses and the proportion per hundred thousand of the population:—

Infirmity.	NUMBER AFFLICTED WITH RATIO PER HUNDRED THOUSAND OF THE POPULATION.				
	1921.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.
Insane	88,305	81,006	66,205	74,279	81,132
	28	26	23	27	35
Deaf-mutes ..	189,644	199,891	153,168	196,861	197,215
	60	64	52	75	86
Blind	479,637	443,653	354,104	458,868	526,748
	152	143	121	167	229
Lepers	102,513	109,094	97,340	126,244	131,968
	32	35	33	46	57
TOTAL ..	860,099	833,644	670,817	856,252	937,063
	272	267	229	315	407

There had been a continuous decline in the total number as well as in the proportion of persons recorded as afflicted up to 1901. This fall has been ascribed, partly, to a progressive improvement in the accuracy of the diagnosis and, partly, to an actual decrease in the prevalence of the infirmities, owing to the improvement in the material condition of the people to better sanitation and (especially in the case of blindness) to the increasing number of cures effected with the aid of modern medical and surgical science. In the decade ending 1901 the relatively high mortality of the afflicted in the two severe famines must have been a considerable factor in the decline shown at that census, but the method of compilation adopted in 1901 and in the previous census was defective, and, certainly in 1901, many of the persons

afflicted must have escaped notice in the course of tabulation. Compared with the year 1891, there was a slight decrease in the total number of persons recorded as afflicted in 1911, the proportion per hundred thousand persons falling from 315 to 267. The small increase in the present decade, amounting to 26,455 persons or one per 100,000 may be due to improvement in record and tabulation but is certainly unexpected.

Caste.—The enormous complexity of the caste system makes it impossible to give more than the briefest results here; the curious must be referred to the extensive literature on the subject, and to the whole chain of census reports where it is discussed in various aspects. All we can do here is to give the census figures of the main castes, with a comparison with 1911.

Variation in certain main castes.

CASTE.	PERSONS.	
	1921	1911
Ahir	9,032,861	9,481,194
Arain	1,119,486	998,222
Babhan	1,167,373	1,264,379
Bagdi	895,397	1,015,738
Baliya	1,042,097	1,041,246
Baluch	1,321,053	1,334,756
Banliya	2,726,007	2,085,427
Banjara	651,927	866,020
Barhai	969,017	1,033,879
Bhil	1,795,808	1,590,690
Brahman	14,254,991	14,568,472
Burmese	8,370,152	7,643,742
Chamar	11,224,557	11,448,786
Chambra	1,146,779	1,254,150
Dhobi	2,020,531	2,029,495
Dosadh	1,167,686	1,189,274
Fakir	790,714	865,511
Gadaria	1,299,770	1,340,631
Golla	1,416,758	1,515,794
Gond	2,902,592	2,995,593
Gujar	2,179,485	2,195,168
Hajjam	2,905,724	2,972,928
Jat	7,374,817	6,887,655
Jolaha	2,698,132	2,739,623
Kachhi	1,228,590	1,281,515
Kabar	1,707,223	1,726,546
Kathartia	2,877,758	2,711,960
Kamma	1,160,984	1,126,095
Kammalan	1,288,711	1,047,585
Kapu	3,379,328	3,327,179
Karen	1,042,131	1,102,695
Kayastha	2,312,235	2,133,213
Kewat	1,150,427	1,129,799
Koli	1,680,615	1,726,977
Kori	2,499,014	3,164,968
Kori	837,025	900,062
Kumbar	3,353,029	3,423,942
Kunbi	3,191,694	4,512,182
Kurmi	3,574,808	3,707,090
Lincayat	2,738,214	2,968,440
Lodia	1,616,662	1,703,556
Lohar	1,546,312	1,517,587
Kamar	779,886	786,431
Madiga	1,687,857	1,920,462
Mahar	3,002,516	3,325,712
Mal	1,986,414	2,067,521
Mali	1,875,610	1,939,869
Tapdilla	1,103,385	1,044,557
Taratha	6,566,334	4,972,954
Tochi	923,714	926,426
Tamasandra	2,172,823	2,082,547

Variation in certain main castes—*contd.*

CASTE.	PERSONS.	
	1921	1911
Nayar	1,311,112	1,127,264
Pali	2,809,999	2,820,161
Paraiyan	2,407,309	2,447,370
Pasi	1,488,582	1,461,902
Pathan	3,517,863	3,629,534
Rajbansi	1,818,674	1,914,868
Koch	360,602	367,109
Rajput	9,772,518	9,400,885
Satyid	1,601,247	1,541,629
Santal	2,265,282	2,127,878
Sheikh	33,387,909	31,851,028
Sindhi	858,051	1,697,486
Sonar	1,137,611	1,180,624
Tell or Till	4,159,470	4,178,145
Vakkaliga	1,302,552	1,316,758
Vellala	2,716,350	2,592,282

There has been much discussion of recent years of the position and numbers of "The Depressed Classes"—a term which has never been accurately defined, but which may be described as the classes outside the pale of

Hindu Society. Their numbers are given in the census as between 55 and 60 millions.

The main figures of Europeans and Anglo-Indians are given below:—

Province, State or Agency.	European and Allied Races in 1921.			Total European and Allied Races in 1911.	Anglo-Indians.	
	British Subjects.	Others.	Total.		1921.	1911.
India	163,918	10,129	174,057	197,639	113,012	100,420
Provinces	148,525	9,124	157,649	178,130	96,529	86,196
States and Agencies	15,393	1,015	16,408	19,509	16,483	14,224

OCCUPATIONS.

India is essentially an agricultural country and agriculture proper supports 224 millions of persons or 71 per cent. of the population of the Empire. If we add the pastoral and hunting occupations the percentage rises to 73, while a considerable proportion of the unfortunately large number of persons in the category of vague and unclassifiable occupations are probably labourers closely connected with the occupations of the land. Industries support 10 per cent. of the population, but the bulk of these are engaged in unorganised industries connected with the supply of personal and household necessities and the simple implements of work.

Organized industries occupy only 1 per cent. of the people. In trade and transport, on which less than 6 per cent. and 2 per cent. respectively depend a not inconsiderable number are connected with the disposal of the various kinds of agricultural products. The administration and protection of the country engage only 4,825,179 persons, or 11 per cent. of the population, and the remainder are supported by domestic, miscellaneous and unproductive occupations. Though the extent to which agriculture predominates in individual provinces varies, there is no region in which it does not in some form easily take the first place.

Occupations.

In spite of the trade of Calcutta and the numerous industrial and mining concerns of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa the population of the eastern provinces is overwhelmingly agricultural and contains a higher percentage of persons supported by the land than any other tract of India. Of industrial workers the largest proportions in the local population are in the Punjab, the United Provinces and Bombay. Of these three provinces, however, agriculture dominates the economic life of the first two, where the industrial occupations, though they engage a substantial number of persons, are mostly of the cottage industry type. In Bombay the development of organized industry is of some economic importance, but is at present largely confined to a few of the biggest cities. In the category of unclassified occupations the majority of persons are labourers whose particular form of labour is unspecified and the rest mostly unspecified clerks.

Compared with 1911 the agriculturists have increased a little faster than the total population, though fishermen and hunters are fewer. Miners have risen in number with the recent expansion of the industry. Industries have substantially decreased and of the principal forms of industry the textile workers have dropped considerably, as also have potters and workers in wood and metal. An increase under transport by rail is countered by a drop under transport by road. Trade has increased, trade in textiles showing a slight rise and trade in food a slight drop. The number employed in public administration is practically stationary. But the army has risen while the police has fallen heavily. Law and medicine have gained at the expense of religion, and though instruction has spread letters have fallen. Rentiers are fewer and domestic servants as many. Beggars and vagrants, the raw material of crime and disease, have decreased but criminals, the finished article, have risen in numbers.

Occupation or means of Livelihood.

Occupation.	Number of persons supported.
INDIA	316,055,231
Pasture and agriculture	229,045,019
Fishing and hunting	1,607,331
Mines, quarries, salt, etc.	542,053
Industry	33,167,018
Textiles	7,847,829
Dress and toilet	7,425,213
Wood	3,613,583
Food Industries	3,100,361
Ceramics	2,215,011
Building industries	1,753,720
Metals	1,802,208
Chemicals, etc.	1,191,263
Hides, skins, etc.	731,124
Other industries	3,483,676
Transport (including postal, telegraph and telephone services)	4,331,054
Trade	18,114,622
Hotels, cafe, etc., and other trade in foodstuffs	9,988,983
Trade in textiles	1,286,277
Banks, exchange, insurance, etc.	993,492
Other trades	5,845,870
Army and Navy	757,954
Air force	1,033
Police	1,422,610
Public administration	2,613,882
Professions and liberal arts	5,020,571
Religion	2,457,614
Instruction	805,228
Medicine	659,583
Others	1,088,146
Domestic Service	4,570,151
All others	14,831,933

NOTE.—Occupation was not recorded for 2,887,249 persons.

Collieries.—Of a total of 288 thousand supported by collieries 205 thousand are actual workers. The most important coal mines lie in the provinces of Bihar and Orissa and Bengal. The Jherria coal-field in Manbhum, the importance of which is due to its accessibility and the superior quality of its coal, alone produces over fifty per cent. of the total annual output of coal in India. According to the industrial census the total population employed in the coal mines of Manbhum was 82,619, of whom 347 were managers, 1,519 belonged to the supervising and technical staff and 1,482 to the clerical staff, while 32,843 were skilled and 46,428 unskilled workers.

Textiles—Cotton.—Of the industries the textile industries are by far the most important, the number of persons occupied in industries connected with cotton being returned as 5,872,000 or just three-quarters of the whole number of those supported by textile industries.

The bulk of the organized establishments are in the western tracts, where the large cities owe a considerable portion of their prosperity to the development of the textile industries and the cotton-growing country is covered with mechanically worked gins and presses for the preliminary treatment of the raw material. Of the 2,037 establishments connected with cotton manufacture, employing in all 431,600 persons, no less than 737 establishments, with 277,080 employees or 64 per cent. of the personnel, belong to the western Presidency and its States.

Jute.—The spinning, pressing and weaving of jute support a population of 493,099, as compared with 362,369 ten years ago. There are a few mills and presses in Assam, Bihar and Orissa, and Madras, but the industry is practically confined to Bengal.

Nature of Ownership.—Of the total number of 15,606 establishments 677 are owned by Government, 3,292 by registered companies and 11,637 by private persons. The Government owned concerns are mostly railway and engineering workshops and other concerns such as brick and tile factories connected with the construction of roads and building and printing presses. The tea and rubber plantations are mostly the property of companies. Out of the 795 tea plantations in Assam 632 belong to companies. On the other hand the coffee plantations of Madras, which are much smaller concerns than the tea gardens, are mostly privately owned, only 23 out of 127 belonging to companies in Madras and 10 out of 212 in Mysore. The collieries are mostly company-owned, but of the 42 manganese mines of the Central Provinces half are owned by companies and half by private persons. Of the 392 cotton spinning mills in Bombay 333 are private owned, but of the cotton weaving mills 129 out of 345 are owned by companies. Similarly the jute presses are mostly private, while 60 out of the 62 jute mills of Bengal are company owned. Practically all the printing presses are private concerns, and so are a large number of the general workshops and such concerns like flour and rice mills and brick and tile works, which are mostly on a small scale. European companies own the majority of the tea gardens of

Assam and Bengal, but as has already been seen Indian enterprise is growing in regard to the private ventures. Indigo in Bihar and Orissa, coffee in Madras and rubber in Travancore are mostly in European hands but the coffee plantations of Mysore are largely owned by Indians. Most of the large collieries of Bengal are held by European companies, but 65 out of the 73 private concerns belong to Indians. The cotton industry of Western India is almost entirely Indian; while the jute mills of Bengal are in European hands though the small presses are mostly owned by Indians. The rice and flour mills and the brick and tile factories, with the exception of a few large concerns, are in the hands of Indians.

Women as Workers.—The adult women (unskilled) number 508 per 1,000 adult men and the proportion of the children of both sexes under 14 years old is 140 per 1,000 adults. By far the majority of women labourers, viz., 322 out of 340 thousand, are on the plantations, where their proportion per 100 men is as high as 94 the children being 190 per 1,000 adults. Women and children are also numerous in the textile and mining industries and in the former there are 408 adult women (unskilled) per 1,000 men and in the latter 521. Nearly 30 per cent. of the women employed in textile industries are recorded as skilled. About 61 per cent. of the total number of children employed in organized industries are boys and the girls almost equal the boys on the plantations and in the mines and form about one-fifth of the child labour in the textile industries. In the larger industries (20 persons and above) both female and child labour has dropped since 1911. The proportion of women (unskilled) being 515 now against 561 in 1911 per 1,000 men and the proportion of children per 1,000 adults 241 against 191 in 1911. The figures vary curiously in different industries and suggest that they are not altogether trustworthy. Women have increased in the plantations and textiles and declined in the mines. Children have decreased in the plantations and textiles and increased in the mines. Both women and children find considerable employment in the establishments connected with glass, pottery, cement and building and to a less extent in those of food and dress.

Occupation of Europeans.—Of the 103,405 male Europeans, 63,538 belong in some capacity to the category of Public Force, i.e., the Army, Navy, Air Force and Police; over 9,000 to Transport, i.e., largely railway, officials and about 6,000 to Public Administration; 4,600 to Mines and Industries; 5,900 to professions; 4,600 to trade, while there are about 4,200 imperfect entries, a number which together with the known deficiency in the census of Europeans generally somewhat detracts from the value of the details. The abnormal constitution of the foreign European population is exhibited by the small number of dependants viz., 62,000, as against 111,000 workers, whereas the number of Anglo-Indian dependants is just about double the number of their workers. Nearly one-third of the Anglo-Indian males are employed on Transport, i.e., chiefly Railway, and the remainder mostly find employment as clerks and upper subordinates.

Manners and Customs.

Next to the complexion of the people, which varies from fair to black, the tourist's attention in India is drawn by their dress and personal decoration. In its simplest form a Hindu's dress consists of a piece of cloth round the loins. Many an ascetic, who regards dress as a luxury, wears nothing more, and he would dispense with even so much if the police allowed him to. The Mahomedan always covers his legs, generally with trousers, sometimes with a piece of cloth tied round the waist and reaching to the ankles. Hill men and women, who at one time wore a few leaves before and behind and were totally innocent of clothing, do not appear to-day within the precincts of civilisation and will not meet the tourist's eye. Children, either absolutely nude or with a piece of metal hanging from the waist in front, may be seen in the streets in the most advanced cities, and in the homes of the rich. The child Krishna, with all the jewels on his person, is nude in his pictures and images.

Dress.—The next stage in the evolution of the Hindu dress brings the loincloth nearly down to the feet. On the Malabar coast, as in Burma, the ends are left loose in front. In the greater part of India, they are tucked up behind—a fashion which is supposed to befit the warrior, or one end is gathered up in folds before and the other tucked up behind. The simplest dress for the trunk is a scarf thrown over the left shoulder, or round both the shoulders like a Roman toga. Under this garment is often worn a coat or a shirt. When an Indian appears in his full indigenous dress, he wears a long robe, reaching at least down to the calves: the sleeves may be wide, or long and sometimes puckered from the wrist to the elbow. Before Europeans introduced buttons, a coat was fastened by ribbons, and the fashion is not obsolete. The Mahomedan prefers to button his coat to the left, the Hindu to the right. A shawl is tied round the waist over the long coat, and serves as a belt, in which one may carry money or a weapon, if allowed. The greatest variety is shown in the head-dress. More than seventy shapes of caps, hats, and turbans, may be seen in the city of Bombay. In the Punjab and the United Provinces, in Bengal, in Burma and in Madras other varieties prevail. Cones and cylinders, domes and truncated pyramids, high and low, with sides at different angles: folded brims, projecting brims: long strips of cloth wound round the head or the cap in all possible ways, ingenuity culminating perhaps in the "parrot's beak" of the Maratha turban—all these fashions have been evolved by different communities and in different places, so that a trained eye can tell from the head-covering whether the wearer is a Hindu, Mahomedan or Parsi, and whether he hails from Poona or Dharwar, Ahmedabad or Bhavnagar.

Fashion Variations.—Fashions often vary with climate and occupation. The Bombay fisherman may wear a short coat and a cap, and may carry a watch in his pocket; yet, as he must work for long hours in water, he would not cover his legs, but suspend only a coloured kerchief from his waist in front. The Pathan of the cold north-west affects loose baggy

trousers, a tall head-dress befitting his stature and covers his ears with its folds as if to keep off cold. The poorer people in Bengal and Madras do not cover their heads, except when they work in the sun or must appear respectable. Many well-to-do Indians wear European dress at the present day, or a compromise between the Indian and European costumes, notably the Indian Christians and Parsis. Most Parsis however have retained their own head-dress, and many have not borrowed the European collar and cuffs. The majority of the people do not use shoes: those who can afford them wear sandals, slippers and shoes, and a few cover their feet with stockings and boots after the European fashion in public.

Women's Costumes.—The usual dress of a woman consists of a long piece of cloth tied round the waist, with folds in front, and one end brought over the shoulder or the head. The folds are sometimes drawn in and tucked up behind. In the greater part of India women wear a bodice: on the Malabar coast many do not, but merely throw a piece of cloth over the breast. In some communities petticoats, or drawers, or both are worn. Many Mussalman ladies wear gowns and scarfs over them. The vast majority of Mahomedan women are *goshas*, and their dress and persons are hidden by a veil when they appear in public: a few converts from Hinduism have not borrowed the custom. In Northern India Hindu women have generally adopted the Mussalman practice of seclusion. In the Dekhan and in Southern India they have not.

As a rule the hair is daily oiled, combed, parted in the middle of the head, plaited and rolled into a chignon, by most women. Among high caste Hindu widows sometimes shave their heads in imitation of certain ascetics, or monks and nuns. Hindu men do not, as a rule, completely shave their heads, Mahomedans in most cases do. The former generally remove the hair from a part of the head in front, over the temples, and near the neck, and grow it in the centre, the quantity grown depending upon the fancy of the individual. Nowadays many keep the hair cropped in the European fashion, which is also followed by Parsis and Indian Christians. Most Mussalmans grow beards, most Hindus do not, except in Bengal and elsewhere, where the Mahomedan influence was paramount in the past. Parsis and Christians follow their individual inclinations. Hindu ascetics, known as Sadhus or Bairagis as distinguished from Sanyasis, do not clip their hair, and generally coil the uncombed hair of the head into a crest, in imitation of the god Shiva.

Hindu women wear more ornaments than others of the corresponding grade in society. Ornaments bedeck the head, the ears, the nose, the neck, the arms, wrists, fingers, the waist—until motherhood is attained, and by some even later—and the toes. Children wear anklets. Each community affects its peculiar ornaments, though imitation is not uncommon. Serpents with several heads, and flowers, like the lotus, the rose, and the champaka, are among the most popular object of representation in gold or silver.

Caste Marks.—Caste marks constitute a mode of personal decoration peculiar to Hindus, especially of the higher castes. The simplest mark is a round spot on the forehead. It represents prosperity or joy, and is omitted in mourning and on fast-days. It may be red, or yellowish as when it is made with ground sandalwood paste. The worshippers of Vishnu draw a vertical line across the spot, and as Lakshmi is the goddess of prosperity, it is said to represent her. A more elaborate mark on the forehead has the shape of U or V, generally with the central line, sometimes without it, and represents Vishnu's foot. The worshippers of Shiva adopt horizontal lines, made with sandalwood paste or ashes. Some Vaishnavas stamp their temples, near the corners of the eyes, with figures of Vishnu's conch and disc. Other parts of the body are also similarly marked. The material used is a kind of yellowish clay. To smear the arms and the chest with sandalwood paste is a favourite kind of toilet, especially in the hot season. Beads of Tulsi or sacred Basil, and berries of *Rudraksha elaeagnus*, strung together are worn round their necks by Vaishnavas and Shaivas, respectively. The Lingayats, a Shaiva sect, suspend from their necks a metallic casket containing the Linga or phallus of their god. Bairagis, ascetics, besides wearing Rudraksha rosaries round their necks and matted hair, smear their bodies with ashes. Religious mendicants suspend from their necks figures of the gods in whose name they beg. Strings of cowries may also be seen round their necks. Muslim dervishes sometimes carry peacock's feathers.

Hindu women mark their foreheads with a red spot or horizontal line. High caste widows are forbidden to exhibit this sign of happiness, as also to deck themselves with flowers or ornaments. Flowers are worn in the chignon. Hindu women smear their faces, arms, and feet sometimes with a paste of turmeric, so that they may shine like gold. The choice of the same colour for different purposes cannot always be explained in the same way. The red liquid with which the evil eye is averted may be a substitute for the blood of the animal slaughtered for the purpose in former times. In many other cases this colour has no such associations. The Muslim dervish affects green, the Sikhs Akal is fond of blue, the Sanyasi adopts orange for his robe, and no reason can be assigned with any degree of certainty.

Shiva.—India is a land of temples, mosques and shrines, and the Hindu finds at every turn some supernatural power to be appeased. Shiva has the largest number of worshippers. He has three eyes, one in his forehead, a moon's crescent in his matted hair, and at the top of the coil a woman's face representing the river Ganges. His abode is the Mount Kailas in the Himalayas, from which the river takes its source. Round his neck and about his ears and limbs are serpents, and he also wears a necklace of skulls. In his hands are several weapons, especially a trident, a bow, and a thunderbolt, and also a drum which he sounds while dancing for he is very fond of this exercise. He sits on a tiger's skin, and his vehicle is a white bull. His wife Parvati and his son Ganesha sit on his thighs. An esoteric mean-

ing is attached to every part of his physical personality. The three eyes denote an insight into the past, present and future: the moon, the serpents, and the skulls denote months, years and cycles, for Shiva is a personification of time, the great destroyer. He is also worshipped as a Linga or phallus which represents creative energy.

Ganpati.—Ganesh or Ganpati, the controller of all powers of evil subject to Shiva, is worshipped by all sects throughout India. Every undertaking is begun with a prayer to him. He has the head of an elephant, a large abdomen, serpents about his waist and wrists, several weapons in his hands, and a piece of his tusk in one hand. He is said to have broken it off when he wanted to attack the moon for ridiculing him. The different parts of his body are also esoterically explained. His vehicle is a rat.

Parvati.—Parvati, the female energy of Shiva, is worshipped under various names and forms. She is at the head of all female supernatural powers, many of whom are her own manifestations. Some are benign and beautiful, others terrible and ugly. Kali, the tutelary deity of Kalkat or Calcutta, is one of her fierce manifestations. In this form she is black: a tongue smeared with blood projects from her gaping mouth; besides her weapons, she carries corpses in her hands, and round her neck are skulls. Bombay also takes its name from a goddess, Mumbadevi. Gouri, to whom offerings are made in Indian homes at an annual festival, is benign. On the other hand the epidemic diseases like the plague and small-pox are caused by certain goddesses or "mothers."

Vishnu. the second member of the Hindu trinity, is the most popular deity next to Shiva. He is worshipped through his several incarnations as well as his original personality. His home is the ocean of milk, where he reclines on the coils of a huge, many-headed serpent. At his feet sits Lakshmi, shampooing his legs. From his navel issues a lotus, on which is seated Brahma, the third member of the trinity. In his hands are the conch, which he blows on the battlefield, and the disc, with which the heads of his enemies are severed. Round his neck are garlands of leaves and flowers, and on his breast are shining jewels. As Shiva represents destruction, Vishnu represents protection, and his son is the god of love. To carry on the work of protection, he incarnates himself from time to time, and more temples are dedicated nowadays to his most popular incarnations, Rama and Krishna, than to his original personality. Rama is a human figure, with a bow in one of his hands. He is always accompanied by his wife Sita, often by his brother Lakshmana, and at his feet, or standing before him with joined hands, is Hanuman, the monkey chieftain, who assisted him in his expedition against Ravana, the abductor of his wife. Krishna is also a human figure, generally represented as playing on a flute, with which he charmed the damsels of his city, esoterically explained to mean his devotees.

Brahma is seldom worshipped: only a couple of temples dedicated to him have yet been discovered in all India.

Minor Deities.—The minor gods and goddesses and the deified heroes and heroines who fill the Hindu pantheon, and to whom shrines are erected and worship is offered, constitute a legion. Many of them enjoy a local reputation, are unknown to sacred literature, and are worshipped chiefly by the lower classes. Some of them, though not mentioned in ancient literature, are celebrated in the works of modern saints.

The **Jains** in their temples, adore the sacred personages who founded and developed their sect, and venerate some of the deities common to Hinduism. But their view of Divinity is different from the Hindu conception, and in the opinion of Hindu theologians they are atheists. So also the **Buddhists** of Burma pay almost the same veneration to Prince Siddhartha as if he was a god, and indeed elevate him above the Hindu gods, but from the Hindu standpoint they are also atheists.

Images.—Besides invisible powers and deified persons, the Hindus venerate certain animals, trees and inanimate objects. This veneration must have originated in gratitude, fear, wonder, and belief in spirits as the cause of all good or harm. Some of the animals are vehicles of certain gods and goddesses—the eagle of Vishnu: the swan of Brahma: the peacock of Saraswati: Hanuman, the monkey of Rama: one serpent upholds the earth, another makes Vishnu's bed: elephants support the ends of the universe, besides one such animal being Indra's vehicle: the goddess Durga or Kali rides on a tiger: one of Vishnu's incarnations was partly man and partly lion. The cow is a useful animal: to the Brahman vegetarian her milk is indispensable, and he treats her as his mother. So did the Rishi of old, who often subsisted on milk and fruits and roots. To the agriculturist cattle are indispensable. The snake excites fear. Stones, on which the image of a serpent is carved, may be

seen under many trees by the roadside. The principal trees and plants worshipped are the Sacred Fig or Pipal, the Banyan, the Sacred Basil, the Bilva or Wood Apple, the Asoka, and the Acacia. They are in one way or another associated with some deity. The sun, the moon, and certain planets are among the heavenly bodies venerated. The ocean and certain great rivers are held sacred. Certain mountains, perhaps because they are the abodes of gods and Rishis, are holy. Pebbles from the Gandaki and the Narmada, which have curious lines upon them, are worshipped in many households and temples.

Worship.—Without going into a temple, one can get a fair idea of image worship by seeing how a serpent-stone is treated under a tree. It is washed, smeared with sandal, decorated with flowers: food in a vessel is placed before it, lamps are waved, and the worshipper goes round it, and bows down his head, or prostrates himself before the image. In a temple larger bells are used than the small ones that are brought to such a place: jewels are placed on the idol: and the offerings are on a larger scale. Idols are carried in public procession in palanquins or cars. The lower classes sacrifice animals before their gods and goddesses.

Domestic Life.—Of the daily domestic life of the people a tourist cannot see much. He may see a marriage or funeral procession. In the former he may notice how a bridegroom or bride is decorated: the latter may shock him, for a Hindu dead body is generally carried on a few pieces of bamboo lashed together: a thin cloth is thrown over it and the body is tied to the frame. The Mahomedan bier is more decent, and resembles the Christian coffin. Some Hindus, however, carry the dead to the burial ground in a palanquin with great pomp. The higher castes cremate the dead: others bury them. Burial is also the custom of the Muslims, and the Parsis expose the dead in Towers of Silence.

Indian Names.

The personal name of most Hindus denotes a material object, colour, or quality, an animal, a relationship, or a deity. The uneducated man, who cannot correctly pronounce long Sanskrit words, is content to call his child, father, brother, uncle, or mother, or sister, as the case may be. This practice survives among the higher classes as well. Appa Saheb, Anna Rao, Babaji, Bapu Lal, Bhai Shankar, Tatacharya, Jijibhai, are names of this description, with honorific titles added. It is possible that in early society the belief in the re-birth of departed kinsmen lent popularity to this practice. Nothing could be more natural than to call a man white, black, or red: gold or silver: gem, diamond, ruby, pearl, or merely a stone: small or tall, weak or strong: a lion, a snake, a parrot, or a dog: and to name a woman after a flower or a creeper. Thus, to take a few names from the epics, Pandu means

white, and so does Arjuna: Krishna black: Bhima terrible: Nakula a mongoose: Shunaka a dog: Shuka a parrot: Shringa a horn. Among the names prevalent at the present day Ilira is a diamond: Ratna or Ratan a jewel: Sonu or Chinna gold: Velli or Belli, in the Dravidian languages, means white metal or silver. Men are often called after the days of the week on which they were born, and hence they bear the names of the seven heavenly bodies concerned. When they begin to assume the names of the Hindu deities, they practically enter upon a new stage of civilisation. It is doubtful whether the Animists ever venture to assume the names of the dreaded spirits worshipped by them. To pronounce the name of a devil is to invite him to do harm. If the spirits sometimes bear the names of human beings, the reason seems to be that they were originally human.

and expressive grandeur with the greatest masterpieces of Egyptian art. The outstanding characteristics of Hindu sculpture are the power displayed in angust movement; the fine sense of decorative arrangements of line and mass; and an overpowering ingenuity in intricate design. Mahomedan sculpture in India, though not exclusively confined to geometric forms as is that of the more severe Arabian school, is very restrained as compared with that of the Hindus. Floral motifs are often used in the ornaments to tombs and palaces, but rarely in those of mosques. Their geometric ornament shows great ingenuity and invention; and wonderful decorative use is made of Persian, Arabic and Urdu lettering in panels, and their borders. The representation of human or animal figures is rarely to be met with. Sculptured and modelled relief is, as a rule, kept very low; and is mainly confined to the decoration of mouldings, architraves, lintels, or the bands of ornament which relieve large exterior wall spaces. Buildings of purely Mahomedan design and workmanship show greater restraint than those upon which Hindu workmen have been employed and are more satisfactory; but at Ahmedabad the two celebrated windows are striking examples of a happy combination of the two styles.

Painting.—Much of the carved stonework upon ancient Indian buildings was first plastered and then decorated with colour, but the only paintings, in the modern acceptation of the term, now existing, which were executed prior to the Moghul period, are those upon the walls of the cave temples at Ajanta. These remarkable works were produced at intervals during the first 600 years of the Christian era. They exhibit all the finer characteristics of the best Indian sculpture, but with an added freedom of expression due to the more tractable vehicle employed. They remained hidden in the Deccan jungles for nearly twelve hundred years, until accidentally discovered in 1816. They are painted in a species of fresco; and when first brought to light were well preserved, but they have greatly deteriorated owing to the well meant, but misguided action of copyists, and the neglect of the authorities. Their origin is as wrapped in mystery as is that of the artists who painted them; for no other paintings of similar power and character are known to exist; and the artists, so far as is known, left no successors. Nine hundred years elapsed between the completion of the Ajanta paintings and the commencement of the second period of Indian painting. This owed its origin to the introduction of Persian artists by the Moghul Emperor Akbar; and the establishment of the indigenous Moghul school was due to the encouragement and fostering care of his successors, Jehangir and Shah Jahan. Unlike the works of the Ajanta painters, which were designed upon a large scale, the pictures of the Moghul school were miniatures. They were executed in a species of opaque water-colour upon paper or vellum, resembling in technique the illuminated missals produced by the monks in Europe during the middle ages. Some of the finest of the earlier specimens in India are of a religious character; this phase of development being closely allied to the art

the calligraphist. As its range extended, a remarkable school of portrait painters arose notable for restrained but extremely accurate drawing, keen insight into character, harmonious colour, fine decorative feeling, and extraordinary delicacy and finish in the painting of detail. The artists of a Hindu off-shoot of this movement, known as the Rajput school, were less fully endowed with the technical and purely aesthetic qualities than were the Moghul painters; but they brought to their work poetry and sentiment which are not to be found in that of the Mahomedans. The pictures of both branches of the Moghul school, although highly decorative in character, were not intended for exhibition upon the walls of rooms, according to Western practice, and, when not used as illustrations or decorations to manuscript books, were preserved in portfolios. As this school of painting was the last expression of traditional art in India, in the restricted sense here applied to the term, and, as the question has a distinct bearing upon the modern development of painting, a few words may be added regarding the difference between the conventions followed by Eastern and Western painters. Until the middle of the fourteenth century the conventions of both East and West were practically the same, though the use of them differed according to environment and national temperament. These conventions the artists of the East have retained; and development has been upon the line of decorative fitness, harmony of colour, and expressive action. Their art has throughout been decorative, and when natural objects have been depicted, their treatment has been that of a flat pattern. The European painters, after the period above mentioned on the contrary, sought to attain the appearance of actuality in the objects depicted by the study of the science of light and shade, and perspective; and in achieving this end, and developing it into the realisation of atmosphere and light, they sacrificed a large measure of the decorative quality which characterised the work of the earlier school. Eastern artists have ignored or been blind to light and shade; and in works entirely free from European influence one will look in vain for any suggestion of it in their figures or for shadows of objects cast upon the ground. During the last fifty years there has been a strong movement toward a return to decorative conventions, on the part of European artists who have assimilated much that the East has to teach them, without thereby affecting the distinctively Western character of their work. Indian and Japanese artists have been less successful when attempting the reverse of this practice, and appear to lose whatever is best in their traditional practice without acquiring the finer qualities of that of the West.

Modern Painting.—As the reign of Shah Jahan exhibits the high tide of artistic development in India, so the reign of his successor Aurangzeb marks the period of its rapid decline. The causes of this are attributable to the absence of encouragement by this Emperor; to his long periods of absence from the court at Delhi or Agra, entailed by the continuous wars he waged in his efforts to bring the whole of the Peninsula under his rule; and partly to the tendency strongly inherent in the Indian artist

to become stereotyped in his practice. All foreign designers, painters and craftsmen who had been attracted to India by the great works carried out by Akbar, Jehangir and Shah Jahan left the country, and their places were taken by no successors. The indigenous artists left to themselves in the isolated courts of small Indian princes, or collected in schools in remote districts, employed themselves mainly upon repeating the works of a previous age, instead of seeking new motifs for artistic treatment. So purely mechanical did the work become that in some of the schools or guilds of painters, the execution of a single picture was subdivided; one craftsman painting the face, a second the drapery, and a third the background. Such methods could only lead to deterioration and decay. At the time when the British East India Company ceased to be only a guild of merchants and became a great administrative power in 1757, very little vitality survived in the ancient art of the country. During the century of its administrative history between the battle of Plassey and the Indian Mutiny, the "Company" was too fully occupied in fighting for its existence, extending its borders and settling internal economy of its ever increasing territories, to be able to give much attention to conserving any remnant of artistic practice which had survived. Without any deliberate intention of introducing western art into the country, Greek and its derivative styles of architecture were adopted for public and private buildings in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras because these were found to be more suitable for their purpose than buildings of indigenous pattern. The practical result was the same; for the Indian craftsmen employed upon their erection were confronted with styles affording no scope for the application of their traditional ornament and concerning which they had no knowledge or sympathy. As there were no sculptors in India capable of modelling or carving civil sculpture, the monuments to distinguish public servants were all imported from England; and the portraits, or other paintings which decorated the interior walls of the buildings, were furnished by European painters who visited India or by artists in England. Although a considerable amount of research work of a voluntary nature was done by Archaeologists, no official interest was taken in artistic education until the Government of India was transferred to the British Crown in 1859. In England itself, the first fifty years of the nineteenth century was a period of gross commercialism and artistic degradation; but with the advent of the International Exhibition of 1851 the eyes of the nation were opened to the value of art as applied to industry.

The Schools of Art then instituted throughout England were imitated in a timid and tentative manner in India; and were attached to the educational system, which had been previously modelled upon a definitely European basis. These schools of art, it should be remembered, were specially established to assist the artistic industries of the country, and not to provide instruction in architecture, sculpture and painting. In fact at a subsequent period they narrowly escaped extinction by the Secretary of State, upon the ground that they had become schools of painting and had thus

been diverted from performing the original function for which they were established. The work of the Schools of Art in regard to industrial art is referred to elsewhere; and as two of them, that at Madras and that at Lahore, have confined their activities almost exclusively to this branch of the subject it is necessary to mention only the work of the Schools at Calcutta and Bombay in the present article. The Calcutta school, except for occasional experiments in the application of the graphic arts to lithography, engraving and stained glass, has become a school of painting and drawing. That at Bombay covers a wider field; for in addition to classes for modelling, painting and design it possesses a special school of architecture; a range of technical workshops, in which instruction is given in the applied arts; and research laboratories and studios devoted solely to the improvement of the Pottery industry. It is in the principles underlying the instruction in painting that the schools at Calcutta and Bombay have taken almost diametrically opposite roads to reach the end they both have in view, namely, the revival of the art of painting in India by means of an indigenous school of Indian painters. Mr. Havell, who until a few years back was the Principal of the Calcutta School, banished from within its walls every vestige of European art; and claimed that the traditional art of India, or in its old forms, is not dead, but merely sleeping or smothered by the blanket of European culture laid upon it for the last 150 years, and needed but to be released from this incubus to regain its pristine vigour. Well equipped with literary ability; backed by intense enthusiasm for the views he held, which he advocated with admirable persistence; he imposed upon his students an exclusive and severe study of the Moghul and Rajput schools of painting. He was fortunate in finding a willing and equally enthusiastic disciple in Mr. Abanindranath Tagore, an artist of fine imagination and fancy, endowed with technical ability of a high order, combined with a serious devotion to his art. He with other Bengal painters, inspired by Mr. Havell's precepts, founded, about fifteen years ago, what has since become known as the Calcutta School of painting. In their early work the painters of this school closely adhered to the conventions of Moghul and Rajput artists, whom they took as their models; and these early examples made a great impression upon all European critics who saw them. They were welcomed as the first sign of a genuine revival of Indian painting, based upon traditional lines, and it was confidently hoped that the movement would meet with the support it merited from Indians of all classes. Interesting as many individual works of the school undoubtedly are the anticipations which greeted its inception have scarcely been fulfilled by the Calcutta school. The painters themselves have never reached the high technical standard of the artists who produced the best works of the Moghul or Rajput school; and, as time has passed, their outlook appears to have shifted, and, while stemming the flood of western influence, they appear to have drifted into a backwater of Japanese conventions. The Indian public has failed to give the school the support it was hoped they would afford, and the movement has had to depend for encourage-

ment mainly upon Europeans in England and India.

Bombay School of Art.—The attitude towards the development of art in modern India taken by Mr. Cecil Burns, who long guided the policy of the Bombay school, was diametrically opposite to that favoured by Mr. Havell. While yielding to no one in his admiration for the ancient art of India, and giving every encouragement to his students to study its masterpieces, the view he takes is that with European literature dominating the system under the educated classes in India are trained; with European ideas, and science permeating the professional, commercial, industrial, and political life of the country, it is not possible for modern Indians now to recapture the spirit which alone gave vitality to the great works of the past; that without this spirit, the conventions the ancient artists adopted are mere dead husks; and that to copy these would be as unprofitable as it would be for the artists of Europe to harness themselves to the conventions of the Greek and Roman sculptors or to those of the mediæval painters: that with European pictures, often of inferior quality illustrating every educational text book, and sold in the shops of every large city, it is essential for the proper education of art students that they should have before them the masterpieces of European art; and that, with the wide adoption of European styles of architecture in India, it is necessary for a school of art to possess the best examples of ornament applicable to the great historic styles, for the purpose of study and reference. There are certain basic principles common to the technique of all great art, such as fine and accurate drawing in its widest sense, composition and design, and the science of colour harmony. By means of these an artist can express his individuality and emotions, and Mr. Burns held that the main function of a School of Art is to equip its students with the power of expression, untrammelled by any set conventions, so that when they leave the school, they do so with the capacity to employ their faculties in any direction their sympathies and tastes may impel them to take. Which of these two very divergent theories will produce the result both these gentlemen unite in wishing to see brought to pass, time alone will show. Certain it is that the driving force of any artistic impulse must come from within the nation, and that India, like every other country, in its art, as in other matters, must work out its own salvation.

One striking success of hopeful augury has been achieved by the Bombay School in recent years. This is the establishment of a flourishing

school of architecture in which the study of Indian architecture takes an important place. Connected with this school is a students' architectural association designed to keep past students in touch with the school and with one another. As architecture embraces and influences every branch of decorative and industrial art, it is to be hoped that this school may be the means whereby the ancient glories of Indian architecture will be some day revived in new forms, bringing in its train a vitalising influence upon every other form of artistic activity.

Mural Painting.—Mr. W. E. Gladstone Solomon, the present Principal, has during the last four years studiously avoided any dogmatic theories as to the ultimate end which Indian art is destined to attain, though he has consistently pointed out the Indian's pre-eminence in the decoration of wall spaces. The guiding principle with Mr. Solomon has been to teach the students to draw and to paint what they see; and further to encourage by all possible means their natural progress in the direction towards which their inherent instinct most obviously urges them. The application of this close training in the study of form and colour from the life to a decorative purpose, which accords both with ancient traditions and modern manifestations of the Indian artistic genius, has recently taken a definite line in the production of mural paintings executed by the students. Specimens of mural paintings by the students of the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, were sent to the Empire Exhibition at Wembley and exhibited in a small room specially constructed for the occasion. Indian mural painting was also to be seen in the Bengal Court at the Exhibition which was decorated by Mr. Mukul Dey, a Bengali artist resident in London, and in the Punjab Court for which the Lahore School of Art prepared an elaborate scheme. A band of past and present students from Lahore was sent to carry out this scheme and they made the walls glow with the colours of the seventeenth century mosaic work to be seen at Lahore and in its greatest perfection in the Wazir Khan Mosque. These decorations are historically accurate; the animal panels are full-size facsimile drawings of those in Lahore Fort; the floral panels and spandrels and the geometric drawings either represent the tile work of the Fort, the Wazir Khan Mosque, and other historic buildings, or are designed in the style of those decorations. This representation of a school of architecture which was overshadowed by other splendours was rounded off by a miniature painted model of the west front of Wazir Khan's Mosque, which is the finest example of this style of Moghul architecture.

Indian Architecture.

I. ANCIENT.

The architecture of India has proceeded on lines of its own, and its monuments are unique among those of the nations of the world. An ancient civilization, a natural bent on the part of the people towards religious fervour of the contemplative rather than of the fanatical sort, combined with the richness of the country in the sterner building materials—these are a few of the factors that contributed to making it what it was, while a stirring history gave it both variety and glamour. Indian architecture is a subject which at the best has been studied only imperfectly, and a really comprehensive treatise on it has yet to be written. The subject is a vast and varied one, and it may be such a treatise never will be written in the form of one work at any rate. The spirit of Indian art is so foreign to the European of art culture that it is only one European in a hundred who can entirely understand it, while art criticism and analysis is a branch of study that the modern Indian has not as yet ventured upon to any appreciable extent. Hitherto the one, and with a few exceptions the only recognized authority on the subject has been Fergusson, whose compendious work is that which will find most ready acceptance by the general reader. But Fergusson attempted the nearly impossible task of covering the ground in one volume of moderate dimensions, and it is sometimes held that he was a man of too purely European a culture, albeit wide and eclectic, to admit of sufficient depth of insight in this particular direction. Fergusson's classification by races and religions is, however, the one that has been generally accepted hitherto. He asserts that there is no stone architecture in India of an earlier date than two and a half centuries before the Christian era, and that "India owes the introduction of the use of stone for architectural purposes, as she does that of Buddhism as a state religion, to the great Asoka, who reigned B.C. 272 to 236."

Buddhist Work.

Fergusson's first architectural period is then the Buddhist, of which the great tope at Sanchi with its famous Northern gateway is perhaps the most noted example. Then we have the Gandharan topes and monasteries. Perhaps the examples of Buddhist architecture of greatest interest and most ready access to the general student are to be found in the Chaitya halls or rock-cut caves of Karli, Ajunta, Nasik, Ellora and Kanheri. A point with relation to the Gandhara work may be alluded to in passing. This is the strong European tendency, variously recognized as Roman, Byzantine but most frequently as Greek, to be observed in the details. The foliage seen in the capitals of columns bears strong resemblance to the Greek acanthus, while the sculptures have a distinct trace of Greek influence, particularly in the treatment of drapery, but also of hair and facial expression. From this it has been a fairly common assumption amongst some authorities that Indian art owed much of its debt to European influence, an assumption that is strenuously combated by others as will be pointed out later.

The architecture of the Jains comes next in order. Of this rich and beautiful style the most noted examples are perhaps the Dilwara temples near Mount Abu, and the unique "Tower of Victory" at Chittore.

Other Hindu Styles.

The Dravidian style is the generic title usually applied to the characteristic work of the Madras Presidency and the South of India. It is seen in many rock-cut temples as at Ellora; where the remarkable "Kylas" is an instance of a temple cut out of the solid rock, complete, not only with respect to its interior (as in the case of mere caves) but also as to its exterior. It is, as it were, a life-size model of a complete building or group of buildings, several hundred feet in length, not built, but sculptured in solid stone, an undertaking of vast and, to our modern ideas, unprofitable industry. The Pagoda of Tanjore, the temples at Srirangam, Chidambaram, Vellore, Vijayanagar, &c., and the palaces at Madura and Tanjore are among the best known examples of the style.

The writer finds some difficulty in following Fergusson's two next divisions of classification, the "Chalukyan" of South-central India, and the "Northern or Indo-Aryan style." The differences and the similarities are apparently so intermixed and confusing that he is fain to fall back on the broad generic title of "Hindu"—however unsatisfactory he may thereby stand confessed. Amongst a vast number of Hindu temples the following may be mentioned as particularly worthy of study:—Those at Mukteswara and Bhuvaneshwar in Orissa, at Khajuraho, Bindraban, Udaipur, Benares, Gwalior, &c. The palace of the Hindu Raja Man Singh at Gwalior is one of the most beautiful architectural examples in India. So also are the palaces of Amber, Datia, Uricha, Dig and Udaipur.

Indo-Saracenic.

Among all the periods and styles in India the characteristics of none are more easily recognizable than those of what is generally called the Indo-Saracenic which developed after the Mahomedan conquest. Under the new influences now brought to bear on it the architecture of India took on a fresh lease of activity and underwent remarkable modifications. The dome, not entirely an unknown feature hitherto, became a special object of development, while the arch, at no time a favourite constructional form of the Hindu builders, was now forced on their attention by the predilections of the ruling class. The minaret also became a distinctive feature. The requirements of the new religion,—the mosque with its wide spaces to meet the needs of organized congregational acts of worship—gave opportunities for broad and spacious treatments that had hitherto been to some extent denied. The Moslem hatred of idolatry set a tabu on the use of sculptured representations of animate objects in the adornment of the buildings; and led to the development

of other decorative forms. Great ingenuity came to be displayed in the use of pattern and of geometrical and foliated ornament. This Moslem trait further turned the attention of the builders to a greater extent than before to proportion, scale and mass as means of giving beauty, mere richness of sculptured surface and the aesthetic and symbolic interest of detail being no longer to be depended on to the same degree.

The art was thus the gainer by the new conditions. It gained in power and variety much as "Classic" architecture gained under the Romans. But it equally lost something too. The Indo-Saracenic is apt to appear cold and hard. The writer was impressed by this on his first view of the Gwalior palace already mentioned. Though a Hindu building that palace has yet much of what might be called the more sophisticated quality of the Indo-Saracenic work as well as some similarity of detail. It has, being Hindu, a certain amount of sculptured ornament of animated forms, and the general effect of roundness, richness and interest thereby imparted seemed eloquent in suggestion as to what is lacking in so many of the Mahometan buildings.

Foreign Influence.

There would appear to be a conflict between archaeologists as to the extent of the effect on Indian art produced by foreign influence under the Mahometans. The extreme view on the one hand is to regard all the best of the art as having been due to foreign importation. The Gandharan sculptures with their Greek tendency, the development of new forms and modes of treatment to which allusion has been made, the similarities to be found between the Mahometan buildings of India and those of North Africa and Europe, the introduction of the minaret and, above all, the historical evidences that exist of the presence in India of Europeans during Mogul times, are cited in support of the theory. On the other hand those of the opposite school hold the foregoing view to be due to the prevailing European preconception that all light and leading must come by way of Europe, and the best things in art by way of Greece. To them the Gandharan sculpture, instead of being the best, is the worst in India even because of its Greek tincture. They find in the truly indigenous work beauties and significances not to be seen in the Graeco-Bactrian sculptures, and point to those of Borobudur in Java, the work of Buddhist colonists from India, wonderfully preserved by reason of an immunity from destructive influences given by the insular position, as showing the best examples of the art extant. It is probable that a just estimate of the merits of the controversy, with respect to sculpture at any rate, cannot be formed till time has obliterated some of the differences of taste that exist between East and West.

To the adherents of the newer school the undisputed similarities between Indo-Mahometan and Hindu buildings outweigh those between Indian and Western Mahometan work, especially in the light of the dissimilarities between the latter. They admit the changes produced by the advent of Islam,

but contend that the art, though modified, yet remained in its essence what it had always been, indigenous Indian. The minaret, the dome, the arch, they contended, though developed under the Moslem influence, were yet, so far as their detailed treatment and craftsmanship are concerned, rendered in a manner distinctively Indian. Fergusson is usually regarded as the leader of the former school, while the latter and comparatively recent school has at present found an eager champion in Mr. E. B. Havell, whose works on the subject are recommended for study side by side with those of the former writer. Mr. Havell practically discards Fergusson's racial method of classification into styles in favour of a chronological review of what he regards to a greater extent than did his famous precursor as being one continuous homogeneous Indian mode of architectural expression, though subject to variations from the influences brought to bear upon it and from the varied purposes to which it was applied.

Agra and Delhi.

Agra and Delhi may be regarded as the principal centres of the Indo-Saracenic style—the former for the renowned Taj Mahal, for Akbar's deserted capital of Fatehpur Sikri, his tomb at Secundra, the Moti Masjid and palace buildings at the Agra fort. At Delhi we have the great Jumma Masjid, the Fort, the tombs of Humayun, Safdar Jung, &c., and the unique Quth Minar. Two other great centres may be mentioned, because in each there appeared certain strongly marked individualities that differentiated the varieties of the style there found from the variety seen at Delhi and Agra, as well as that of one from that of the other. These are Ahmedabad in Gujarat and Bijapur on the Dekhan, both in the Bombay Presidency.

Ahmedabad.

At Ahmedabad with its neighbours Sirkhej and Champanir there seems to be less of a departure from the older Hindu forms, a tendency to adhere to the lintel and bracket rather than to have recourse to the arch, while the dome though constantly employed, was there never developed to its full extent as elsewhere, or carried to its logical structural conclusion. The Ahmedabad work is probably most famous for the extraordinary beauty of its stone "jali"—or pierced lattice-work, as in the palm tree windows of the Sidi Sayyid Masjid.

Bijapur.

The characteristics of the Bijapur variety of the style are equally striking. They are perhaps more distinctively Mahometan than those of the Ahmedabad buildings in that here the dome is developed to a remarkable degree, indeed the tomb of Mahmud—the well-known "Gol Gumbaz"—is cited as shewing the greatest space of floor in any building in the world roofed by a single dome, not even excepting the Pantheon. The lintel also was here practically discarded in favour of the arch. The Bijapur style shows a bold masculine quality and a largeness of structural conception that is unequalled elsewhere in India, though in richness and delicacy it does not attempt to rival the work of the further North. In this we recognize among other influences

that of the prevailing material, the hard uncompromising Dekhan basalt. In a similar manner the characteristics of the Ahmedabad work with its greater richness of ornamentation are bound up with the nature of the Gujarat freestone, while at Delhi and Agra the freer

choice of materials available—the local red and white sandstones, combined with access to marble and other more costly materials—was no doubt largely responsible for the many easily recognizable characteristics of the architecture of these centres.

II. MODERN.

The modern architectural work of India divides itself sharply into two classes. There is first that of the indigenous Indian "master-builder" to be found chiefly in the Native States, particularly those in Rajputana. Second there is that of British India, or of all those parts of the peninsula wherever Western ideas and methods have most strongly spread their influence, chiefly in the case of architecture, through the medium of the Department of Public Works. The work of that department has been much animadverted upon as being all that building should not be, but, considering it has been produced by men of whom it was admittedly not the *metier*, and who were necessarily contending with lack of expert training on the one hand and with departmental methods on the other, it must be conceded that it can shew many notable buildings. Of recent years there has been a tendency on the part of professional architects to turn their attention to India, and a number of these has even been drafted into the service of Government as the result of a policy initiated in Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty. In time, therefore, and with the growth of the influence of these men, such of the reproach against the building of the British in India as was just and was not merely thoughtlessly maintained as a corollary to the popular jape against everything official, may gradually be removed. If this is so as to Government work progress should be even more assured in the freer atmosphere outside of official life. Already in certain of the greater cities, where the trained modern architect has established himself, in private practice, there are signs that his influence is beginning to be felt. He still complains, however, that the general public of India needs much educating up to a recognition of his value, both in a pecuniary sense and otherwise. It is also to be observed that the survival of a relic of the popular idea of the time before his advent, to the effect that though an architect might occasionally "design" a building it was always an engineer who built it, is still indicated by the architect in some cases deeming it advisable to style himself "architect and engineer."

To the work of the indigenous "master-builder" public attention has of recent years been drawn with some insistence, and the suggestion has been pressed that efforts should be directed towards devising means for the preservation of what is pointed out—and now universally acknowledged—to be a remarkable survival—almost the only one left in the world—of "living art," but which is threatened with gradual extinction by reason of the spread of Western ideals and fashions. The matter assumed some years ago the form of a mild controversy centring round the question of the

then much discussed project of the Government of India's new capital at Delhi. It was urged that this project should be utilised to give the required impetus to Indian art rather than that it should be made a means of fostering European art which needed no such encouragement at India's expense. The advocates of this view appear for the most part to have been adherents of the "indigenous Indian" school of archaeologists already mentioned, and to have based their ideas on their own reading of the past. They still muster a considerable following not only amongst the artistic public of England and India, but even within the Government services. Their opponents, holding what appears to be the more official view both as to archaeology and art, have pointed to the "death" of all the arts of the past in other countries as an indication of a natural law, and deprecate as waste of energy all efforts to resist this law, or to institute what they have termed "another futile revival." The British in India they contend, should do as did the ancient Romans in every country on which they planted their conquering foot. As those were wont to replace indigenous art with that of Rome, so should we set our seal of conquest permanently on India by the erection of examples of the best of British art. This is the view which, as we have indicated, appears to have obtained for the moment the more influential hearing, and the task of designing and directing the construction of the principal buildings in the new Capital has accordingly been entrusted jointly to a London and to a South African architect, neither of whom can be unduly influenced by either past or recent architectural practice so far as India is concerned.

The results cannot but be awaited with the keenest interest, and meanwhile the controversy, with suspended judgment, naturally falls into abeyance. It is, moreover, however vital to the interests of the country's architecture, too purely technical and academic for its merits to be estimated by the general reader or discussed here. Its chief claim on our attention has in the fact that it affords an added interest to the tourist, who may see the fruits of both schools of thought in the various modern buildings of British India as well as examples of the "master builders" work in nearly every native town and bazaar. The town of Lashkar in Gwalior State may be cited as peculiarly rich in instances of picturesque modern Indian street architecture, while at Jaipur, Udaipur, Benares, etc., this class of work may be studied in many different forms both civil and religious. The extent to which the "unbroken tradition from the past" exists may there be gauged by the traveller who is architect enough for the purpose.

The ancient industrial arts of India formed two distinct groups. The first included those allied to, and dependent upon, architecture; the second comprise those applied to articles devoted to religious ritual; military weapons and trappings, domestic accessories; and to personal adornment.

The articles of the first group were intended for some fixed and definite position, and the style of their design and the character of their workmanship were dictated by that of the building with which they were incorporated. Those of the second group were movable, and the range of their design was less constricted and their workmanship was more varied. Examples of work in both groups are so numerous, and the arts comprise such a diversity of application, that only a cursory survey can be attempted within the limits of a short review. Although the design and treatment differ in the two groups, the materials used were often the same. These materials cover a very wide range but space only permits of reference to work applied to the four materials upon which the Indian craftsman's skill has been most extensively displayed. These are stone, wood, metal and textiles.

Before dealing separately with each of these materials a few words upon the principal Indian styles are necessary. The two distinctive styles are Hindu and Mahomedan. The former may be termed indigenous, dating as it does from remote antiquity; the latter was a variation of the great Arabian style, which was brought into India in the fourteenth century, and has since developed features essentially Indian in character. The art of both Hindus and Mahomedans is based upon religion and the requirements of religious ritual. The obvious expression of this is shown in the different motifs used for their ornament. In Hindu art all natural forms are accepted and employed for decorative purposes; but in that of the Mahomedans, nearly all natural forms are rejected and forbidden. The basis of Mahomedan decoration is therefore mainly geometrical. In each of them, racial characteristics are strikingly exhibited. The keynote of Hindu work is exuberance, imagination and poetry; that of Mahomedan, reticence, intellect and good taste. The Hindus are lavish, and often indiscriminate, in their employment of ornament; the Mahomedans use more restraint. In fact the two styles may be compared, without straining the analogy, to the Gothic and classic styles in Europe. In both styles the fecundity of ideas and invention in design are marvellous, and the craftsmanship often reaches a very high standard. Hindu art had been subjected throughout the ages to many foreign influences, but the artistic instincts of the people have proved so conservative that, whether these alien ideas came from the east or the west, they have been absorbed, and are now stamped with a definite Indian character. Recognition of this fact alone should relieve the anxiety of those critics who fear that the penetration of Western art and culture into India at the present time will eventually rob Indian art of its national character.

Stone Work.—Carved stone work is the principal form of decoration employed in Hindu temples. In variety and scope it ranges from the massive figures in the Buddhist and Brahminical Cave Temples, and the detached sculpture of the temples of Southern India, to the delicately incised reliefs and elaborately fretted ornament of the Jain temples at Mount Abu. A curious fact in relation to Hindu work is that priority of date appears to have no relation to artistic development. It is not possible to trace, as in the case of Greek, Roman and Mediæval craftwork, the regular progressive steps from art in its primitive state to its culminating point and its subsequent decay. Styles in India seem to spring into existence fully developed; the earlier examples often exhibiting finer craftsmanship than those of a later date. There can be little doubt that stone carving in India was simply the application of the wood carvers' art to another material. The treatment of stone by the Hindu craftsmen, even in the constructive principles of their buildings, bears a closer resemblance to the practice of the wood-worker than to that of the stone mason. The earlier wooden examples from which the stone buildings and their decorations were derived have long since disappeared, but their influence is apparent. The keynote of Hindu design is rhythmic rather than symmetrical; that of their craftsmanship, vigour rather than refinement. In the carving of the human figure and of animals great power of expressing action is shown, and this spontaneous feeling is preserved despite the greatest elaboration and detail. The industry displayed is amazing, no amount of labour appears to have daunted the Hindu craftsmen in carrying out their huge and intricate schemes of decoration.

The stone carving on Mahomedan buildings, except where Hindu carvers have been allowed a free hand, is much more restrained than that on Hindu temples. The fact that geometrical forms were almost exclusively used, dictated lower relief and greater refinement in the carving; while the innate good taste of the designers prompted them to concentrate the ornament upon certain prominent features, where its effect was heightened by the simplicity of the rest of the building. The invention displayed in working out geometrical patterns for work screens, inlay, and other ornamental details appears to be inexhaustible; while wonderful decorative use has been made of Arabic and Persian lettering in panels and their framing. To obtain a rich effect the Hindus relied upon the play of light and shade upon broken surfaces, the Mahomedans to attain the same end used precious materials; veneering the surfaces of their buildings with polished marble which they decorated with patterns of mosaic composed of jade, agate, onyx and other costly stones. Although the art of inlaying and working in hard stones was of Italian origin, it proved to be one eminently suited to the genius of the Indian craftsman; and many wonderful examples of their skill in the form of book rests, tables, thrones, footstools, vases and sword handles are extant to show the height of proficiency they attained. The treatment of precious

stones by Indian jewellers may here be referred to. Sir George Birdwood states that "the Indian jeweller thinks of producing the sumptuous, imposing effect of dazzling variety of rich and brilliant colours and nothing of the purity of his gems." This is true in a general sense and "full many a gem of purest ray serene" was utterly ruined by crude cutting and piercing. But although as early as the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries diamonds and precious stones from the Indian mines were taken to Europe to be cut, many of the finest jewels found their way back to the treasure houses of Indian princes.

Wood Work.—With a fine range of timbers suitable for the purpose, wood has played a great part in the construction and decoration of Indian buildings. Unfortunately, most of the ancient wood work has been destroyed by the action of the climate and the teeming insectivorous life of India; and that which escaped these enemies was wiped out by fire and the sword. It is therefore only possible to conjecture the height of artistic development these buildings and their decorations displayed by the copies in stone which have been preserved. Few if any examples of a date earlier than the sixteenth century are to be found. Many of these, and specimens of a later date to be seen in towns and cities throughout the country, are masterpieces of design and craftsmanship. The carved timber fronts and inner courtyards of houses in Ahmedabad, Nasik, and other parts of Western India are notable for their picturesqueness and beauty; the structural beams, the overhanging balconies, with their screens and supporting brackets, being carved in a manner which unites richness of effect with good taste and propriety. Of furniture, as the term is now understood, few examples were in use in India before Europeans introduced their own fashions. These were confined to small tables and stools, book rests, clothes chests and screens, the designs of which conformed somewhat closely to the architectural style of the period. Many of these were decorated with inlays of coloured woods, ivory and metal; while in some cases the wooden basis was entirely plated with copper, brass or silver. In Southern India, where close grained sandalwood is grown, jewel cases and boxes are enriched with carving executed with the attention to detail and the finish generally associated with the carving of ivory. Coloured lac was freely used to decorate many articles of furniture, especially those turned on the lathe; and rich colour effects were obtained in this, perhaps the most distinctive and typically Indian development of decoration as applied to woodwork.

Metal Work.—With the exception of weaving, the metal working industry employed and still employs the greatest number of artistic craftsmen in India. Copper and brass have always been the two metals most widely used for domestic purposes by the humble Hindus. The shapes of many of these vessels are among the most beautiful to be found in the country. The personality which are only given by the work of the human hand; and the skill of the material with the simplest implements. In the technical treatment of

brass and copper Indian craftsmen have shown a taste and skill unsurpassed by those of other nations, except in the department of fine casting. In this, and in the working of gold and silver, a higher standard of technical and constructive exactness has been reached by the metal workers of Europe and Japan. It may be taken as an axiom that the more beautiful the shape of an article is, and this especially applies to metal work, the less need exists for the decoration of its surface. It is equally true that the highest test of craftsmanship is the production of a perfect article without any decoration. The reason being that the slightest technical fault is apparent on a plain surface, but can be hidden or disguised of one which is covered with ornament. The goldsmiths and silversmiths of India were extremely skilful and industrious, but judged by this test their works often exhibit a lack of care and exactness in the structural portions and a completely satisfactory example of perfectly plain work from the hands of the gold and silversmiths of India is rarely to be met with. Much of the excessive and often inappropriate ornamentation of the articles that they produced owed its application as much to the necessity of hiding defective construction as it did to any purely decorative purpose. For many generations, ornaments of gold and silver were regarded in the light of portable wealth, a practice which naturally made for massiveness. These solid ornaments are most effective and picturesque; and, despite an enormous output of elaborate and delicate work from their hands, the most valuable contribution of the Indian metal workers to the sum total of man's artistic use of the precious metals will probably be found to lie in a certain barbaric note which distinguishes these pieces—a note not present in the craft work of other countries. In the design of Hindu gold and silver ornaments, religious symbols have been extensively used. The ornaments which bedeck the early sculptured figures, and those depicted in the paintings at the Cave Temples of Ajanta are precisely the same in design and use as similar articles made at the present time, thus affording a striking evidence of the inherent conservatism of the Hindu people and its effect upon an industrial art that makes a closer personal appeal than any other.

Textiles.—The textile industry is the widest in extent in India and is that in which her craftsmen have shown their highest achievements. Other countries, east and west of India have produced work equal, if not superior, in stone, wood, and metal; but none has ever matched that of her weavers in cotton and wool, or excelled them in the weaving of silken fabrics. Some of the products of the looms of Bengal are marvels of technical skill and perfect taste, while the plum bloom quality of the old Cashmere shawls is an artistic achievement which places them in a class by themselves. Weaving being essentially a process of repetition, was the first to which machinery was applied, and modern science has brought power loom weaving to such a state of perfection that filaments of a substance finer even than those of Dacca, which astonished our ancestors, are now produced in the mills of Lancashire. But for beauty of surface and variety of texture, no machine-made fabrics have ever equalled

the finest handwork of the ancient weavers of India. Many of the most beautiful varieties of Indian textile work have disappeared, killed by the competition of the power loom: and it is to be feared that under modern conditions they are never likely to be revived. In other branches of art as applied to textiles India does not hold so pre-eminent a position as in that of weaving. The printed silks and calicoes of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries deservedly held a high place in the estimation of Western nations, whose craftsmen learnt many valuable lessons from the technical skill, and artistic taste they display. In embroidery and fine needlework the West and the Far East have more than held their own, while nothing approaching the tapestries made in Europe in the middle ages has been produced in India. The nearest approach to these is in carpets and rugs. This art was introduced from Persia; but Indian craftsmen have never succeeded in equalling the finest work of their instructors either in colour or design.

Modern Conditions.—In the foregoing sketch of the ancient industrial art of India, as applied to the four principal materials employed, only a general indication of its more striking characteristics has been possible. A volume would be required to give a detailed description of any one of them, and would leave many other minor arts to be considered. All these branches of art came into existence, were developed and flourished in India when social and economic conditions were vastly different from those of the present day. Like similar artistic crafts carried on in Europe up to the end of the eighteenth century, they were executed by hand labour. The processes involved had not been discovered by scientific inquiry, such as is now understood by the phrase, but were the outcome of generations of slowly built up experience. We now come to the effect upon them of the changed conditions which have revolutionised industrial art in Europe during the last century.

The invention of the steam engine, and the application of mechanical power and scientific research to industry in Europe, mark the dividing line between ancient and modern industrial art. Not only on its technical side is this so, but the effect of these changes has been to alter the character of the work itself and the spirit which animated the craftsmen. In place of the ancient ideal of variety in design and treatment, which meant a limited output, the modern one of uniformity and unlimited output has been substituted. The capitalist has displaced the master craftsman; the organised factory, the small workshop; specialisation and division of labour have taken the place of general proficiency among the artisans; the function of the designer has been separated from that of the craftsman; local markets have been extended to serve the whole world; and the skilled handicraftsman has, in a great measure, become a machine-minder. It took about one hundred years of gradual change for the craftsmen of Europe fully to adjust themselves to these altered conditions; and during the greater portion of that period India, protected by the difficulties of transport, continued its immemorial practice. Fifty years ago this protective barrier was removed by the

opening of the Suez Canal, and the handicraftsmen of India have since been struggling to avoid the same fate which overtook those of Europe half a century before. With less time to adapt themselves to the changed conditions the Indian craftsmen have had to meet the competition of European rivals already fully equipped with new and unknown weapons. Even before this period of intense competition, observers interested in Indian craftwork had noticed evidences of its deterioration. The falling off, both in design and workmanship, was attributed to the conservative practice of the craftsmen; to the gradual loss of foreign markets, and to the long period of internal disorder which had deprived them of both the patronage of the rulers of an earlier age and the stimulating contact with foreign craftsmen who had previously been attracted to the splendid courts at Delhi and Agra. During the same period, an even greater degradation in design had overtaken the craftwork of Europe. This was due to entirely different causes, namely, to the introduction of machinery. Attention had been so concentrated upon speedy production, mechanical accuracy and commercial organisation that beauty of design had been almost entirely neglected. This was so forcibly demonstrated at the International Exhibition of 1851 that efforts were at once made to bring art and industry together once more. Schools of Art and Museums were founded throughout England and the same system was copied in a tentative and timid fashion in India. The function of these institutions was accurately estimated in England, where the artistic industries were already highly organised and were commercially successful, and whose products were to be found in every market of the world. Their business was to assist these industries by training a body of efficient designers capable of furnishing the factories with suitable designs, new or old, and in any style, to satisfy the requirements of customers in any country. It was never supposed for an instant that a School of Art could lead an industry. In India their function was as completely misunderstood as were the causes of the depression in Indian craftwork. The schools were not only expected to lead the industries which were living, but to revive those which were moribund, and resurrect those which were dead. In the report of the Indian Industrial Commission the need for some State-aided system of industrial and commercial organisation of the industrial arts with an expanded scheme of technical and artistic instruction for the craftsmen has been recognised; and valuable suggestions were made by experts who gave their evidence when the Commission visited the different Provinces. The success of the scheme recommended by the Commission will depend entirely upon the energy with which it is applied, and the practical knowledge and the assistance required by each of the different crafts on the part of those who control it. If, in addition, the same financial assistance and encouragement are given by the Imperial and Local Governments to the Indian craftsmen that have been bestowed by the Japanese Government upon the art workers of Japan, industrial art in India will quickly emerge from the gloom of depression, which has hung over it for a century past, into the sunlight of prosperity.

Archæology.

The archæological treasures of India are as varied as they are numerous. Those of the pre-Muhammadan period may roughly be divided into (1) architectural and sculptural monuments and (2) inscriptions. No building or sculpture in India with any pretensions to be considered an example of architecture or art can be ascribed to a time earlier than that of Asoka (circa 250 B.C.). In the pre-Asoka architecture of India, as in that of Burma or China at the present day, wood was solely or almost solely employed. Even at the close of the 4th century, B.C., Megasthenes, the Greek Ambassador at the court of Chandragupta, grandfather of Asoka, describes Pataliputra, the capital of the Indian monarch, as "surrounded by a wooden wall pierced with loop-holes for the discharge of arrows." If the capital itself was thus defended, we can easily infer that the architecture of the period was wooden. And long after stone was introduced the little styles continued to be influenced by, or copied from, the wooden.

Monumental Pillars.—The first class of works that we have to notice are the monumental pillars, known as *stūpas*. The oldest are the monolithic columns of Asoka, nearly thirty in number, of which ten bear his inscriptions. Of these the Lauriya-Nandgarh column in the Champaran District, Tirhut, is practically uninjured. The capital of each column, like the shaft, was monolithic, and comprised three members, viz., a Persepolitan bell, abacus, and crowning sculpture in the round. By far the best capital of Asoka's time was that exhumed at Sarnath near Benares. The four lions standing back to back on the abacus are carved with extraordinary precision and accuracy. Of the post-Asokan period one pillar (B.C. 150) stands to the north-east of Benares in the Gwalior State, another in front of the cave of Karli (A.D. 70), and a third at Eran in Central Provinces belonging to the 5th Century, A.D. All these are of stone; but there is one of iron also. It is near the Qutb Minar at Delhi, and an inscription on it speaks of its having been erected by a king called Chandra, identified with Chandragupta II. (A.D. 375-413) of the Gupta dynasty. It is wonderful "to find the Hindus at that age forging a bar of iron larger than any that have been forged even in Europe to a very late date, and not frequently even now." Pillars of later style are found all over the country, especially in the Madras Presidency. No less than twenty exist in the South Kanara District. A particularly elegant example faces a Jaina temple at Mudabidri, not far from Mangalore.

Topes.—*Stūpas*, known as *dagabas* in Ceylon and commonly called *Topes* in North India, were constructed either for the safe custody of relics hidden in a chamber often near the base or to mark the scene of notable events in Buddhist or Jaina legends. Though we know that the ancient Jains built *stūpas*, no specimen of Jaina *stūpas* is now extant. Of those belonging to the Buddhists, the great *Topo* of Sanchi in Bhopal, is the most intact and entire of its class. It consists of a low circular drum supporting a hemispherical dome of less diameter. Round the drum is an open passage for circum-

ambulation, and the whole is enclosed by a massive stone railing with lofty gates facing the cardinal points. The gates are essentially wooden in character, and are carved, inside and out, with elaborate sculptures. The *stūpa* itself probably belonged to the time of Asoka, but as Sir John Marshall's recent explorations have conclusively shown, the railing and the gateways were at least 150 and 200 years later, respectively. Other famous Buddhist *stūpas* that have been found are those of Bharhut between Allahabad and Jubbulpore, Amravati in the Madras Presidency, and Piprahwa on the Nepalese frontier. The *tope* proper at Bharhut has entirely disappeared, having been utilised for building villages, and what remained of the rail has been removed to the Calcutta Museum. The bas-reliefs on this rail which contain short inscriptions and thus enable one to identify the scenes sculptured with the *Jātakas* or Birth Stories of Buddha give it a unique value. The *stūpa* at Amravati also no longer exists, and portions of its rail, which is unsurpassed in point of elaboration and artistic merit, are now in the British and Madras Museums. The *stūpa* at Piprahwa was opened by Mr. W. C. Peppe in 1898, and a steatite or soap-stone reliquary with an inscription on it was unearthed. The inscription, according to many scholars, speaks of the relics being of Buddha and enshrined by his kinsmen, the Sakyas. And we have thus here one of the *stūpas* that were erected over the ashes of Buddha immediately after his demise.

Caves.—Of the rock excavations which are one of the wonders of India, nine-tenths belong to Western India. The most important groups of caves are situated in Bhaia Beda, Karli, Kanheri, Junnar, and Nasik in the Bombay Presidency, Ellora and Ajanta in Nizam's Dominions, Barabar 16 miles north of Gaya, and Udayagiri and Khandagiri 20 miles from Cuttack in Orissa. The caves belong to the three principal sects into which ancient India was divided, viz., the Buddhists, Hindus and Jains. The earliest caves so far discovered are those of Barabar which were excavated by Asoka and his grandson Dasaratha, and dedicated to Ajivikas, a naked sect founded by Makkhali Gosala. This refutes the theory that cave architecture was of Buddhist origin. The next earliest caves are those of Bhaia, Pitalkhora and cave No. 9 at Ajanta and No. 19 at Nasik. They have been assigned to 200 B.C. by Ferguson and Dr. Burgess. But there is good reason to suppose from Sir John Marshall's recent researches and from epigraphic considerations that they are considerably more modern. The Buddhist caves are of two types—the *chaityas* or chapel caves and *viharas* or monasteries for the residence of monks. The first are with vaulted roofs and horse-shoe shaped windows over the entrance and have interiors consisting of a nave and side aisles with a small *stūpa* at the inner circular end. They are thus remarkably similar to Christian basilicas. The second class consist of a hall surrounded by a number of cells. In the later *viharas* there was a sanctum in the centre of the back wall containing a large image of Buddha. Hardly a *chaitya* is found without one or more *viharas* adjoining it. Of the Hindu cave tem-

ies that at Elephanta near Bombay is perhaps the most frequented. It is dedicated to Siva and is not earlier than the 7th century A.D. but by far the most renowned cave-temple of the Hindus is that known as Kailasa at Ellora. It is on the model of a complete structural temple but carved out of solid rock. It also is dedicated to Siva and was excavated by the Kashtrakuta king, Krishna I. (A. D. 768), who may still be seen in the paintings in the ceilings of the upper porch of the main shrine. Of the Jaina caves the earliest are at Khandgiri and Udayagiri; those of the mediæval type, at Indra Sabha at Ellora; and those of the latest period, at Ankai in Nasik. The ceilings of many of these caves were once adorned with fresco paintings. Perhaps, the best preserved among these are those at Ajanta, which were executed at various periods between 350-650 A.D. and have elicited high praise as works of art. Copies were first made by Major Gill, but most of them perished by fire at the Crystal Palace in 1866. The lost ones were again copied by John Griffiths of the Arts School, Bombay, half of whose work was similarly destroyed by a fire at South Kensington. They were last copied by Lady Herringham during 1909-11. Her pictures, which are in full scale, are at present exhibited at the Indian Section of the Victoria and Albert Museum, South Kensington, and have been reproduced in a volume brought out by the India Society.

Gandhara Monuments.—On the north-west frontier of India, anciently known as Gandhara, are found a class of remains, ruined monasteries and buried stupas, among which we notice for the first time representations of Buddha and the Buddhist pantheon. The free use of Corinthian capitals, friezes of nude Erotes bearing a long Garland, winged Atlantes without number, and a host of individual motifs clearly establish the influence of Hellenistic art. The mound at Peshawar, locally known as Shah-ji-ke-Dheri, which was explored in 1909, brought to light several interesting sculptures of this school together with a reliquary casket, the most remarkable bronze object of the Gandhara period. The inscription on the casket left no doubt as to the mound being the *stupa* raised over the bones of Buddha by the Indo-Scythian king Kanishka. They were presented by Lord Minto's Government to the Buddhists of Burma and are now enshrined at Mandalay. For about the same age belong the stupas at Masliyal in the Punjab opened by Ranjit Singh's French Generals, Ventura and Court, in 1830. Some of them contained coins of Kanishka.

Structural Temples.—Of this class we have one of the earliest examples at Sanchi, and another at Tigowa in the Central Provinces. In South India we have two more examples, viz., Lad Khan and Durga temples at Alibole in Bijapur. All these belong to the early Gupta period and cannot be later than 500 A.D. The only common characteristic is flat roofs without spires of any kind. In other respects they are entirely different and already here we mark the beginning of the two styles, Indo-Aryan and Dravidian, whose differences become more and more pronounced from the 7th century onwards. In the Indo-Aryan style, the most prominent lines tend to the perpendicular, and in the

Dravidian to the horizontal. The salient feature of the former again is the curvilinear steeple, and of the latter, the pyramidal tower. The most notable examples of the first kind are to be found among the temples of Dhruvaneswar in Orissa, Khajarah in Bundelkhand, Osla in Jodhpur, and Dilwara on Mount Abu. One of the best known groups in the Dravidian style is that of the Mamallapuram Rathas, of 'Seven Pagodas', on the seashore to the south of Madras. They are each hewn out of a block of granite, and are rather models of temples than *rathas*. They are the earliest examples of typical Dravidian architecture, and belong to the 7th century. To the same age has to be assigned the temple of Kailasarath at Conjeeveram, and to the following century some of the temples at Alibole and Pattadakal of the Bijapur District, Bombay Presidency, and the monolithic temple of Kailasa at Ellora, referred to above. Of the later Dravidian style the great temple at Tanjore and the Srirangam temple of Trichinopoly are the best examples.

Intermediate between these two main styles comes the architecture of the Deccan, called Chalukyan by Fergusson. In this style the plan becomes polygonal and star-shaped instead of quadrangular; and the high-storied spire is converted into a low pyramid in which the horizontal treatment of the Dravidian is combined with the perpendicular of the Indo-Aryan. Some fine examples of this type exist at Dambal, Ratthihall, Tiliwalli and Hangal in Dharwar, Bombay Presidency, and at Ittigi and Warangal in Nizam's Dominions. But it is in Mysore among the temples at Hallebid, Belur, and Somnathpur that the style is found in its full perfection.

Inscriptions.—We now come to inscriptions, of which numbers have been brought to light in India. They have been engraved on varieties of materials, but principally on stone and copper. The earliest of these are found incised in two distinct kinds of alphabet, known as Brahmi and Kharoshthi. The Brahmi was read from left to right, and from it have been evolved all the modern vernacular scripts of India. The Kharoshthi was written from right to left, and was a modified form of an ancient Aramaic alphabet introduced into the Punjab during the period of the Persian domination in the 5th century B.C. It was prevalent up to the 4th century A.D., and was supplanted by the Brahmi. The earliest dateable inscriptions are the celebrated edicts of Asoka. One group of these has been engraved on rocks, and another on pillars. They have been found from Shahbazgarhi 40 miles north-east of Peshawar to Nigliva in the Nepal Tatal, from Gilra in Kathiawar to Dhauli in Orissa, from Kalsi in the Lower Himalayas to Siddapur in Mysore, showing by the way the vast extent of territory held by him. The reference in his Rock Edicts to the five contemporary Greek Princes, Antiochus II. of Syria, Ptolemy Philadelphus, and so forth is exceedingly interesting, and fixes B.C. 269 as the date of his coronation. His Rumindil pillar inscription, again, discovered in Nepal Tatal, now settles, beyond all doubt, the birth-place of Buddha which was for long disputed. Another noteworthy record is the inscription of the Beshnagar pillar. The pillar had been known for a long time, but Sir John

Marshall was the first to notice the inscription on it. It records the erection of this column, which was a Garuda pillar, in honour of the god Vasudeva by one Heliodoros, son of Dion, who is described as an envoy of King Antialcidas of Taxila. Heliodoros is herein called a *Bhagavata*, which shows that though a Greek he had become a Hindu and presumably a Vaishnava. Another inscription worth noticing and especially in this connection is that of Cave No. 10 at Nasik. The donor of this cave, Ushavadata, who calls himself a Saka and was thus an Indo-Scythian, is therein spoken of as having granted three hundred thousand kine and sixteen villages to gods and Brahmins and as having annually fed one hundred thousand Brahmins. Here is another instance of a foreigner having embraced Hinduism. Thus for the political, social, economical and religious history of India at the different periods the inscriptions are invaluable records, and are the only light but for which we are 'forlorn and blind.'

Saracenic Architecture.—This begins in India with the 13th century after the permanent occupation of the Muhammadans. Their first mosques were constructed of the materials of Hindu and Jaina temples, and sometimes with comparatively slight alterations. The mosque called *Adhuri-din-ka-jompra* at Ajmer and that near the Qutb Minar are instances of this kind. The Muhammadan architecture of India varied at different periods and under the various dynasties, imperial and local. The early Pathan architecture of Delhi was massive and at the same time was characterised by elaborate richness of ornamentation. The Qutb Minar and tombs of Altamsh and Ala-ud-din Khilji are typical examples. Of the Sharqi style we have three mosques in Jaunpur with several tombs. At Mandu in the Dhar State, a third form of Saracenic architecture sprang up, and we have here the Jami Masjid, Hoshang's tomb, Jahaz Mahall and Hindola Mahall as the most notable instances of the secular and ecclesiastical styles of the Malwa Pathans. The Muhammadans of Bengal again developed their own style, and Pandua, Malda, and Gaur teem with the ruins of the buildings of this type, the important of which are the Adina Masjid of Sikandar Shah, the Elakhi mosque, Kadam Rasul Masjid, and so forth. The Bahmani dynasty of Gulbarga and Bidar were also great builders, and adorned their capitals with important buildings. The most striking of these is the great mosque of Gulbarga, which differs from all mosques in India in having the whole central area covered over so that what in others would be an open court is here roofed by sixty-three small domes. "Of the various forms which the Saracenic architecture assumed," says Fergusson, "that of Ahmedabad may probably be considered to be the most elegant." It is notable for its carved stone work; and the work of the perforated stone windows in Sidi Sayyid's mosque, the carved niches of the minars of many other mosques, the sculptured *Mihrabs* and domed and panelled roofs is so exquisite that it will rival anything of the sort executed elsewhere at any period. No other style is so essentially Hindu. In complete contrast with this was the form of architecture employed by the Adil Shahi dynasty of Bijapur.

There is here relatively little trace of Hindu forms or details. The principal buildings now left at Bijapur are the Jami Masjid, Gagan Mahall, Mihra Mahal, Ibrahim Rauza and mosque and the Gol Gumbaz. Like their predecessors, the Pathans of Delhi, the Moghuls were a great building race. Their style first began to evolve itself during the reign of Akbar in a combination of Hindu and Muhammadan features. Noteworthy among the emperor's buildings are the tomb of Humayun, and the palaces at Fatehpur, Sikri and Agra. Of Jehangir's time his mosque at Lahore and the tomb of Imdad-ud-daula are the most typical structures. "The force and originality of the style gave way under Shah Jahan to a delicate elegance and refinement of detail." And it was during his reign that the most splendid of the Moghul tombs, the Taj Mahal at Agra, the tomb of his wife Mumtaz Mahal, was constructed. The Moti Masjid in Agra Fort is another surpassingly pure and elegant monument of his time.

Archæological Department.—As the archaeological monuments of India must attract the attention of all intelligent visitors, they would naturally feel desirous to know something of the Archæological Department. The work of this Department is primarily two-fold, conservation, and research and exploration. None but spasmodic efforts appear to have been made by Government in these directions till 1870 when they established the Archæological Survey of India and entrusted it to General (afterwards Sir) Alexander Cunningham, who was also the first Director-General of Archæology. The next advance was the initiation of the local Surveys in Bombay and Madras three years after. The work of these Surveys, however, was restricted to antiquarian research and description of monuments, and the task of conserving old buildings was left to the fitful efforts of the local Governments, often without expert guidance or control. It was only in 1878 that the Government of India under Lord Lytton awoke to this deplorable condition, and sanctioned a sum of 34 lakhs to the repair of monuments in United Provinces, and soon afterwards appointed a conservator. Major Cole, who did useful work for three years. Then a reaction set in, and his post and that of the Director-General were abolished. The first systematic step towards recognising official responsibility in conservation matters was taken by Lord Curzon's Government, who established the seven Archæological Circles that now obtain, placed them on a permanent footing and united them together under the control of Director-General, provision being also made for subsidising local Governments out of imperial funds, when necessary. The Ancient Monuments Preservation Act was passed for the protection of historic monuments and relics especially in private possession and also for State control over the excavation of ancient sites and traffic in antiquities. Under the direction of Sir John Marshall, Kt., C.I.E., Director-General of Archæology, a comprehensive and systematic campaign of repair has been prosecuted, and the result of it is manifest in the present altered conditions of many old and historic buildings and in the scientific excavation of buried sites such as Taxila and Patalliputra.

For many years Indian time was in a state of chaotic confusion. What was called Madras or Railway time was kept on all the railways; and each great centre of population kept its own local time, which was not based on any common scientific principle and was divorced from the standards of all other countries. It was with a view to remedying this confusion that the Government of India took the matter up in 1904, and addressed to the Local Governments, and through them to all local bodies, a long letter which reviewed the situation and made suggestions for the future. The essential points in this letter are indicated below:

"In India we have already a standard time, which is very generally, though by no means universally, recognised. It is the Madras local time, which is kept on all railway and telegraph lines throughout India and which is 5h. 21m. 10s. in advance of Greenwich. Similarly, Rangoon local time is used upon the railways and telegraphs of Burma, and is 6h. 24m. 47s. ahead of Greenwich. But neither of these standards bears a simple and easily remembered relation to Greenwich time.

"The Government of India have several times been addressed by Scientific Societies, both in India and in England, and urged to fall into line with the rest of the civilised world. And now the Royal Society has once more returned to the attack. The Committee of that Society which advises the Government of India upon matters connected with its observatories, writes:—'The Committee think that a change from Madras time to that corresponding to a longitude exactly 5½ hours east of Greenwich would be an improvement upon the existing arrangements; but that for international scientific purposes the hourly zone system, making the time 5 hours in advance of Greenwich in the west, and 6 hours in advance in the east of India, would be preferable.'

"Now if India were connected with Europe by a continuous series of civilised nations with their continuous railway systems all of which had adopted the European hour-zone system, it would be imperative upon India to conform and to adopt the second suggestion. But as she is not, and as she is as much isolated by uncivilised States as Cape Colony is by the ocean, it is open to her to follow the example of that and some other similarly situated colonies and to adopt the first suggestion.

"It is believed that this will be the better solution. There are obvious objections to drawing an arbitrary line right across the richest and most populous portions of India, and so as to bisect all the main lines of communication, and keeping times differing by an hour on opposite sides of that line. India has become accustomed to a uniform standard in the Madras time of the railways; and the substitution for it of a double standard would appear to be a retrograde step; while it would, in all probability, be strongly opposed by the railway authorities. Moreover, it is very desirable that whatever system is adopted should be followed by all Europeans and Indians alike; and it is certain that the double standard would puzzle the latter greatly; while by emphasising the fact that railway differed from local time, it might postpone or even altogether prevent the acceptance of the former instead of the latter by people generally over a large part of India. The one great advantage which the second

possesses over the first alternative is, that under the former, the difference between local and standard time can never exceed half an hour; whereas under the latter it will even exceed an hour in the extreme cases of Karachi and Quetta. But this inconvenience is believed to be smaller than that of keeping two different times on the Indian system of railways and telegraphs.

"It is proposed, therefore, to put on all the railway and telegraph clocks in India by 8m. 50s. They would then represent a time 5½ hours faster than that of Greenwich, which would be known as **Indian Standard Time**; and the difference between standard and local time at the places mentioned below would be approximately as follows, the figures representing minutes, and F. and S. meaning that the standard time is in advance of or behind local time respectively:—Dibrugarh 51 S., Shillong 38 S., Calcutta 24 S., Allahabad 2 F., Madras 9 F., Lahore 33 F., Bombay 39 F., Peshawar 44 F., Karachi 62 F., Quetta 62 F.

"This standard time would be as much as 54 and 55 minutes behind local time at Mandalay and Rangoon, respectively; and since the railway system of Burma is not connected with that of India, and already keeps a time of its own, namely, Rangoon local time, it is not suggested that Indian Standard Time should be adopted in Burma. It is proposed, however, that instead of using Rangoon Standard Time as at present, which is 6h. 24m. 47s. in advance of Greenwich, a Burma Standard Time should be adopted on all the Burmese railways and telegraphs, which would be one hour in advance of Indian Standard Time, or 6½ hours ahead of Greenwich time, and would correspond with 97° 30' E. longitude. The change would bring Burma time into simple relation both with European and with Indian time, and would (among other things) simplify telegraphic communication with other countries.

"Standard time will thus have been fixed for railways and telegraphs for the whole of the Indian Empire. Its general adoption for all purposes, while eminently advisable, is a matter which must be left to the local community in each case."

It is difficult to recall, without a sense of bewilderment, the reception of this proposal by various local bodies. To read now the fears that were entertained if Standard Time was adopted is a study in the possibilities of human error. The Government scheme left local bodies to decide whether or not they would adopt it. Calcutta decided to retain its own local time, and to-day Calcutta time is still twenty-four minutes in advance of Standard Time. In Bombay the first reception of the proposal was hostile; but on reconsideration the Chamber of Commerce decided in favour of it and so did the Municipality. Subsequently the opposing element in the Municipality brought in a side resolution, by which the Municipal clocks were put at Bombay time which is thirty-nine minutes behind Standard Time. On the 1st January 1906 all the railway and telegraph clocks in India were put at Indian Standard Time; in Burma the Burma Standard Time became universal. Calcutta retains its former Calcutta time; but in Bombay local time is retained only in the clocks which are maintained by the Municipality and in the establishments of some orthodox Hindus. Elsewhere Standard Time is universal.

Coinage, Weights and Measures.

As the currency of India is based upon the rupee, statements with regard to money are generally expressed in rupees, nor has it been found possible in all cases to add a conversion into sterling. Down to about 1873 the gold value of the rupee (containing 165 grains of pure silver) was approximately equal to 2s., or one-tenth of a £, and for that period it is easy to convert rupees into sterling by striking off the final cipher (Rs. 1,000=£100). But after 1873, owing to the depreciation of silver as compared with gold throughout the world, there came a serious and progressive fall in the exchange, until at one time the gold value of the rupee dropped as low as 1s. In order to provide a remedy for the heavy loss caused to the Government of India in respect of its gold payments to be made in England, and also to relieve foreign trade and finance from the inconvenience due to constant and unforeseen fluctuations in exchange, it was resolved in 1893 to close the mints to the free coinage of silver, and thus force up the value of the rupee by restricting the circulation. The intention was to raise the exchange value of the rupee to 1s. 4d., and then introduce a gold standard at the rate of Rs. 15=£1. From 1899 onwards the value of the rupee has been maintained, with insignificant fluctuations, at the proposed rate of 1s. 4d., and consequently since that date three rupees have been equivalent to two rupees before 1873. For the intermediate period, between 1873 and 1899, it is manifestly impossible to adopt any fixed sterling value for a constantly changing rupee. But since 1899, if it is desired to convert rupees into sterling, not only must the final cipher be struck off (as before 1873), but also one-third must be subtracted from the result. Thus Rs. 1,000=£100-⅓=(about) £67.

Notation.—Another matter in connection with the expression of money statements in terms of rupees requires to be explained. The method of numerical notation in India differs from that which prevails throughout Europe. Large numbers are not punctuated in hundreds of thousands and millions, but in lakhs and crores. A lakh is one hundred thousand (written out as 1,00,000), and a crore is one hundred lakhs or ten millions (written out as 1,00,00,000). Consequently, according to the exchange value of the rupee, a lakh of rupees (Rs. 1,00,000) may be read as the equivalent of £10,000 before 1873, and as the equivalent of (about) £6,667 after 1899, while a crore of rupees (Rs. 1,00,00,000) may similarly be read as the equivalent of £1,000,000 before 1873, and as the equivalent of (about) £666,667 after 1899.

Coinage.—Finally, it should be mentioned that the rupee is divided into 16 annas, a fraction commonly used for many purposes by both Indians and Europeans. The anna was formerly reckoned as 1/4d., it may now be considered as exactly corresponding to 1d. The anna is again sub-divided into 12 pies.

Weights.—The various systems of weights used in India combine uniformity of scale with immense variations in the weight of units. The scale used generally throughout Northern India, and less commonly in Madras and

Bombay, may be thus expressed one maund=40 seers, one seer=16 chittaks or 80 tolas. The actual weight of a seer varies greatly from district to district, and even from village to village, but in the standard system the tola is 180 grains Troy (the exact weight of the rupee), and the seer thus weighs 2·057 lb., and the maund 82·28 lb. The standard is used in official reports.

Retail.—For calculating retail prices, the universal custom in India is to express them in terms of seers to the rupee. Thus, when prices change what varies is not the amount of money to be paid for the same quantity, but the quantity to be obtained for the same amount of money. In other words, prices in India are quantities, not money prices. When the figure of quantity goes up, this of course means that the price has gone down, which is at first sight perplexing to an English reader. It may, however, be mentioned that quantity prices are not altogether unknown in England, especially at small shops where pennyworths of many groceries can be bought. Eggs, likewise, are commonly sold at a varying number for the shilling. If it be desired to convert quantity prices from Indian into English denominations without having recourse to money prices (which would often be misleading), the following scale may be adopted—based upon the assumption that a seer is exactly 1 lb., and that the value of the rupee remains constant at 1s. 4d., 1 seer per rupee=(about) 3 lb. for 2s., 2 seers per rupee=(about) 6 lb. for 2s., and so on.

The name of the unit for square measurement in India generally is the *bigha*, which varies greatly in different parts of the country. But areas have been expressed in this work either in square miles or in acres.

Proposed reforms.—Indian weights and measures have never been settled upon an organised basis suitable for commerce and trade characteristic of the modern age. They vary from town to town and village to village in a way that could only work satisfactorily so long as the dealings of towns and villages were self-contained and before roads and railways opened up trade between one and the other. It is pointed out that in England a hogshead of wine contains 63 gallons and a hogshead of beer only 54 gallons; that a bushel of corn weighs 46 lbs. in Sunderland and 240 lbs. in Cornwall; that the English stone weight represents 14 lbs. in popular estimation, but only 5 lbs., if we are weighing glass, and eight for meat, but 6 lbs. for cheese. Similar instances are multiplied in India by at least as many times as India is bigger than England. If we take, for instance, the maund denomination of weight common all over India, we shall find that in a given city there are nearly as many maunds as there are articles to weigh. If we consider the maund as between district and district the state of affairs is worse. Thus in the United Provinces alone, the maund of sugar weighs 48½ seers in Cawnpore, 40 in Muttra, 72½ in Gorakhpur, 40 in Agra, 50 in Moradabad, 43½ in Saharanpur, 50 in Bareilly, 46 in Fyzabad, 48½ in Shahjehanpur, 51 in Goshalgurze. The maund

varies throughout all India from the Bengal or railway maund of 82-2/7 lbs. to the Factory maund of 74 lbs 10 oz. 11 drs., the Bombay maund of 28 lbs., which apparently answers to the Forest Department maund in use at the Fuel Depot, and the Madras maund, which some authorities estimate at 25 lbs. and others at 24 lbs. and so on.

Committees of Inquiry.—These are merely typical instances which are multiplied indefinitely. There are variations of every detail of weights and measures in every part of India. The losses to trade arising from the confusion and the trouble which this state of things causes are heavy. Municipal and commercial bodies are continually returning to the problem with a view to devising a practical scheme of reform. The Supreme and Provincial Governments have made various attempts during 40 years past to solve the problem of universal units of weights and measures and commerce and trade have agitated about the question for the past century. The Indian railways and Government departments adopted a standard tola (180 grains), seer (80 tolas) and maund (40 seers) and it was hoped that this would act as a successful "lead" which would gradually be followed by trade throughout the empire, but the expectation has not been realised.

The Government of India considered the whole question in consultation with the provincial Governments in 1890-1894 and various special steps have at different times been taken in different parts of India. The Government of Bombay appointed a committee in 1911 to make proposals for reform for the Bombay Presidency. Their final report has not been published, but they presented in 1912 an *ad interim* report which has been issued for public discussion. In brief, it pointed out the practical impossibility of proceeding by compulsory measures affecting the whole of India. The Committee stated that over the greater part of the Bombay Presidency a standard of weights and measures would be heartily welcome by the people. They thought that legislation compulsorily applied over large areas subject to many diverse conditions of trade and social life would not result in bringing about the desired reform so successfully as a "lead" supplied by local legislation based on practical experience. The want of coherence, *savoir faire*, or the means of co-operation among the people at large pointed to this conclusion. The Committee pointed out that a good example of the results that will follow a good lead is apparent in the East Khandesh District of the Presidency, where the District Officer, Mr. Simcox, gradually, during the course of three years, induced the people to adopt throughout the district uniform weights and measures, the unit of weight in this case being a tola of 180 grains. But the committee abstained from recommending that the same weights and measures should be adopted over the whole Presidency, preferring that a new system started in any area should be as nearly as possible similar to the best system already prevailing there.

Committee of 1913.—The whole problem was again brought under special consideration by the Government of India in October, 1913,

when the following committee was appointed to inquire into the entire subject anew:—

Mr. C. A. Silberrard (President).
Mr. A. Y. G. Campbell.
Mr. Rustomji Fardoonji.

This Committee reported, in August, 1915, in favour of a uniform system of weights to be adopted in India based on the 180 grain tola. The report says:—Of all such systems there is no doubt that the most widespread and best known is that known as the Bengal or Indian Railway weights. The introduction of this system involves a more or less considerable change of system in parts of the United Provinces (Gorakhpur, Bareilly and neighbouring areas), practically the whole of Madras, parts of the Punjab (rural portions of Amritsar and neighbouring districts), of Bombay (South Bombay, Bombay city and Gujarat), and the North West Frontier Province. Burma has at present a separate system of its own which the committee think it should be permitted to retain. The systems recommended are:—

FOR INDIA.		
8 khaskhas	=	1 chawal
8 chawals	=	1 ratti
8 rattis	=	1 masha
12 mashes or 4 tanks	=	1 tola
5 tolas	=	1 chatak
16 chataks	=	1 seer
40 seers	=	1 maund
FOR BURMA.		
2 small ywes	=	1 large ywe
4 large ywes	=	1 pe
2 pes	=	1 mu
5 pes or 2 1/2 mus	=	1 mat
1 mat	=	1 ngamau
2 ngamaus	=	1 tikal
100 tikals	=	1 pektha or visa.

The tola is the tola of 180 grains, equal to the rupee weight. The visa has recently been fixed at 3' 60 lbs. or 140 tolas.

Government Action.—The Government of India at first approved the principles of the Report and left the Provincial Governments to take action, but they passed more detailed orders in January, 1922. In these they again, for the present and subject to the restrictions imposed by the Government of India Act and the devolution rules, left it entirely to local Governments to take such action as they think advisable to standardise dry and liquid measures of capacity within their provinces. Similarly, they announced their decision not to adopt all-India standards of length or area.

As regards weight, they decided in favour of the standard mentioned under the heading "Weights", near the commencement of this article, this having been recommended by a majority of the Weights and Measures Committee and having received the unanimous support of the Local Governments. At the same time they provisionally undertook to assist provincial legislation or standardisation and stated that "if subsequently, opinion develops strongly in favour of the Imperial standardisation of weights, the Government of India will be prepared to undertake such legislation, but at present they consider that any such step would be premature."

The History of India in Outline.

No history of India can be proportionate, and the briefest summary must suffer from the same defect. Even a wholesale acceptance as history of mythology, tradition, and folklore will not make good, though it makes picturesque, the many gaps that exist in the early history of India: and, though the labours of modern geographers and archaeologists have been amazingly fruitful, it cannot be expected that these gaps will ever be filled to any appreciable extent. Approximate accuracy in chronology and an outline of dynastic facts are all that the student can look for up to the time of Alexander, though the briefest excursion into the by-ways of history will reveal to him many alluring and mysterious fields for speculation. There are, for example, to this day castes that believe they sprang originally from the loins of a being who landed "from an impossible boat on the shores or a highly improbable sea"; and the great epic poems contain plentiful statements equally difficult of reconciliation with modern notions of history as a science. But from the Jataka stories and the Puranas, much valuable information is to be obtained, and, for the benefit of those unable to go to these and other original sources, it has been distilled by a number of writers.

The orthodox Hindu begins the political history of India more than 3,000 years before Christ, with the war waged on the banks of the Jumna between the sons of Kuru and the sons of Pandu; but the modern critic prefers to omit several of those remote centuries and to take 600 B. C. or thereabouts, as his starting point. At that time much of the country was covered with forest, but the Aryan races who had entered India from the north, had established in parts a form of civilization far superior to that of the aboriginal savages, and to this day there survive cities, like Benares, founded by those invaders. In like manner the Dravidian invaders from an unknown land, who overran the Deccan and the Southern part of the Peninsula, crushed the aborigines, and at a much later period, were themselves subdued by the Aryans. Of these two civilizing forces, the Aryan is the better known, and of the Aryan Kingdoms the first of which there is authentic record is that of Magadha, or Bihar, on the Ganges. It was in, or near, this powerful kingdom that Jainism and Buddhism had their origin, and the fifth King of Magadha, Bimbisara by name, was the friend and patron of Gautama Buddha. The King mentioned was a contemporary of Darius, autocrat of Persia (521 to 485 B. C.) who annexed the Indus valley and formed from his conquest an Indian satrapy which paid as tribute the equivalent of about one million sterling. Detailed history, however, does not become possible until the invasion of Alexander in 326 B. C.

Alexander the Great.

That great soldier had crossed the Hindu Kush in the previous year and had captured Aornos, on the Upper Indus. In the spring of 326 he crossed the river at Ohind, received the submission of the King of Taxila, and marched against Porus who ruled the fertile country between the rivers Hydaspes (Jhelum) and

Akesines (Chenab). The Macedonian carried all before him, defeating Porus at the battle of the Hydaspes, and crossing the Chenab and Ravi. But at the River Hyphasis (Bias) his weary troops mutinied, and Alexander was forced to turn back and retire to the Jhelum where a fleet to sail down the rivers to the sea was nearly ready. The wonderful story of Alexander's march through Mekan and Persia to Babylon, and of the voyage of Nearchus up the Persian Gulf is the climax to the narrative of the invasion but is not part of the history of India. Alexander had stayed nineteen months in India and left behind him officers to carry on the Government of the kingdoms he had conquered: but his death at Babylon, in 323, destroyed the fruits of what has to be regarded as nothing but a brilliant raid, and within two years his successors were obliged to leave the Indian provinces, heavily scarred by war but not hellenized.

The leader of the revolt against Alexander's generals was a young Hindu, Chandragupta, who was an illegitimate member of the Royal Family of Magadha. He dethroned the ruler of that kingdom, and became so powerful that he is said to have been able to place 603,000 troops in the field against Seleucus, to whom Babylon had passed on the death of Alexander. This was too formidable an opposition to be faced, and a treaty of peace was concluded between the Syrian and Indian monarchs which left the latter the first paramount Sovereign of India (321 B. C.) with his capital at Pataliputra, the modern Patna and Bankipore. Of Chandragupta's court and administration a very full account is preserved in the fragments that remain of the history compiled by Megasthenes, the ambassador sent to India by Seleucus. His memorable reign ended in 297 B. C. when he was succeeded by his son Bindusara, who in his turn was succeeded by Asoka (269—231 B. C.) who recorded the events of his reign in numerous inscriptions. This king, in an unusually bloody war, added to his dominions the kingdom of Kalinga (the Northern Circars) and then becoming a convert to Buddhism, resolved for the future to abstain from conquest by force of arms. The consequences of the conversion of Asoka were amazing. He was not intolerant of other religions, and did not endeavour to force his creed on his "children". But he initiated measures for the propagation of his doctrine with the result that "Buddhism, which had hitherto been a merely local sect in the valley of the Ganges, was transformed into one of the greatest religions of the world—the greatest, probably, if measured by the number of adherents. This is Asoka's claim to be remembered; this it is which makes his reign an epoch, not only in the history of India, but in that of the world." The wording of his edicts reveal him as a great king as well as a great missionary, and it is to be hoped that the excavations now being carried on in the ruins of his palace may throw yet more light on his character and times. On his death the Maurya kingdom fell to pieces. Even during his reign there had been signs of new forces at work on the borderland of India, where the inde-

pendent kingdoms of Bactria and Parthia had been formed, and subsequent to it there were frequent Greek raids into India. The Greeks in Bactria, however, "could not withstand the overwhelming force of the westward migration of the Yueh-chi horde, which, in the first century A. D., ousted the Indo-Parthian kings from Afghanistan and North-Western India."

The first of these Yueh-chi kings to annex a part of India was Kadphises II (A. D. 85—125), who had been defeated in a war with China, but crossed the Indus and consolidated his power eastward as far as Benares. His son Kanishka (whose date is much disputed) left a name which to Buddhists stands second only to that of Asoka. He greatly extended the boundaries of his empire in the North, and made Peshawar his capital. Under him the power of the Kushan clan of the Yueh-chi reached its zenith and did not begin to decay until the end of the second century, concurrently with the rise in middle India of the Andhra dynasty which constructed the Amaravati stupa, "one of the most elaborate and precious monuments of piety ever raised by man."

The Gupta Dynasty.

Early in the fourth century there arose, at Pataliputra, the Gupta dynasty which proved of great importance. Its founder was a local chief, his son Samudragupta, who ruled for some fifty years from A.D. 326, was a king of the greatest distinction. His aim of subduing all India was not indeed fulfilled but he was able to exact tribute from the kingdoms of the South and even from Ceylon, and, in addition to being a warrior, he was a patron of the arts and of Sanskrit literature. The rule of his son, Chandragupta, was equally distinguished and is commemorated in an inscription on the famous iron pillar near Delhi, as well as in the writings of the Chinese pilgrim Fa-hien who pays a great tribute to the equitable administration of the country. It was not until the middle of the fifth century that the fortunes of the Gupta dynasty began to wane—in face of the onset of the White Huns from Central Asia—and by 480 the dynasty had disappeared. The following century all over India was one of great confusion, apparently marked only by the rise and fall of petty kingdoms, until a monarch arose, in A.D. 606, capable of consolidating an Empire. This was the Emperor Harsha who, from Thanagar near Ambala, conquered Northern India and extended his territory South to the Nerbudda. Imitating Asoka in many ways, this Emperor yet "felt no embarrassment in paying adoration in turn to Siva, the Sun, and Buddha at a great public ceremonial." Of his times a graphic picture has been handed down in the work of a Chinese "Master of the Law," Hsien Tsiang by name. Harsha was the last native paramount sovereign of Northern India; on his death in 648 his throne was usurped by a Minister, whose treacherous conduct towards an embassy from China was quickly avenged, and the kingdom so laboriously established lapsed into a state of internecine strife which lasted for a century and a half.

The Andhras and Rajputs.

In the meantime in Southern India the Andhras had attained to great prosperity and

carried on a considerable trade with Greece, Egypt and Rome, as well as with the East. Their domination ended in the fifth century A.D. and a number of new dynasties, of which the Pallavas were the most important, began to appear. The Pallavas made way in turn for the Chalukyas, who for two centuries remained the most important Deccan dynasty, one branch uniting with the Cholas. But the fortunes of the Southern dynasties are so involved, and in many cases so little known; that to recount them briefly is impossible. Few names of note stand out from the record except those of Vikramaditya (11th century) and a few of the later Hindu rulers who made a stand against the growing power of Islam; of the rise of which an account is given below. In fact the history of medieval India is singularly devoid of unity. Northern India was in a state of chaos from about 650 to 950 A.D. not unlike that which prevailed in Europe of that time, and materials for the history of these centuries are very scanty. In the absence of any powerful rulers the jungle began to gain back what had been wrested from it: ancient capitals fell into ruins from which in some cases they have not even yet been disturbed, and the aborigines and various foreign tribes began to assert themselves so successfully that the Aryan element was chiefly confined to the Doab and the Eastern Punjab. It is not therefore so much for the political as for the religious and social history of this anarchical period that one must look. And the greatest event—if a slow process may be called an event—of the middle ages was the transition from tribe to caste, the final disappearance of the old four-fold division of Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas, and Sudras, and the formation of the new division of pure and impure largely resting upon a classification of occupations. But this social change was only a part of the development of the Hindu religion into a form which would include in its embrace the many barbarians and foreigners in the country who were outside it. The great political event of the period was the rise of the Rajputs as warriors in the place of the Kshatriyas. Their origin is obscure but they appeared in the 8th century and spread, from their two original homes in Rajputana and Oudh, into the Punjab, Kashmir, and the Central Himalayas, assimilating a number of fighting clans and binding them together with a common code. At this time Kashmir was a small kingdom which exercised an influence on India wholly disproportionate to its size. The only other kingdom of importance was that of Kanauj—in the Doab and Southern Oudh—which still retained some of the power to which it had reached in the days of Harsha, and of which the renown extended to China and Arabia.

With the end of the period of anarchy, the political history of India centres round the Rajputs. One clan founded the kingdom of Gujarat, another held Malwa, another (the Chauhans) founded a kingdom of which Ajmer was the capital, and so on. Kanauj fell into the hands of the Rathors (c. 1040 A.D.) and the dynasty then founded by that branch of the Gahwars of Benares became one of the most famous in India. Later in the same century the Chauhans were united; and by

1163 one of them could boast that he had conquered all the country from the Vindhya to the Himalayas, including Delhi already a fortress a hundred years old. The son of this conqueror was Prithwi Raj, the champion of the Hindus against the Mahomedans. With his death in battle (1192) ended the golden age of the new civilization that had been evolved out of chaos; and of the greatness of that age there is a splendid memorial in the temples and forts of the Rajput states and in the two great philosophical systems of Sankaracharya (ninth century) and Ramanuja (twelfth century). The triumph of Hinduism had been achieved, it must be added, at the expense of Buddhism, which survived only in Magadha at the time of the Mahomedan conquest and speedily disappeared there before the new faith.

Mahomedan India.

The wave of Mahomedan invaders that eventually swept over the country first touched India, in Sind, less than a hundred years after the death of the Prophet in 632. But the first real contact was in the tenth century when a Turkish slave of a Persian ruler founded a kingdom at Ghazni, between Kabul and Kandahar. A descendant of his, Mahmud (967-1030) made repeated raids into the heart of India, capturing places so far apart as Multan, Kanauj, Gwalior, and Somnath in Kathiawar, but permanently occupying only a part of the Punjab. Enduring Mahomedan rule was not established until the end of the twelfth century, by which time, from the little territory of Ghor, there had arisen one Mahomed Ghorl capable of carving out a kingdom stretching from Peshawar to the Bay of Bengal. Prithwi Raj, the Chauhan ruler of Delhi and Ajmer, made a brave stand against, and once defeated, one of the armies of this ruler, but was himself defeated in the following year. Mahomed Ghorl was murdered at Lahore (1206) and his vast kingdom, which had been governed by satraps, was split up into what were practically independent sovereignties. Of these satraps, Qutb-ud-din, the slave ruler of Delhi and Lahore, was the most famous, and is remembered by the great mosque he built near the modern Delhi. Between his rule and that of the Mughals, which began in 1526, only a few of the many Kings who governed and fought and built beautiful buildings, stand out with distinction. One of these was Ala-ud-din (1296-1316), whose many expeditions to the south much weakened the Hindu Kings, and who proved himself to be a capable administrator. Another was Feroz Shah, of the house of Tughlaq, whose administration was in many respects admirable, but which ended, on his abdication, in confusion. In the reign of his successor, Mahmud (1398-1413), the kingdom of Delhi went to pieces and India was for seven months at the mercy of the Turkish conqueror Taimur. It was the end of the fifteenth century before the kingdom, under Sikandar Lodi, began to recover. His son, Ibrahim, still further extended the kingdom that had been recreated, but was defeated by Babar, King of Kabul, at Panipat, near Delhi, in 1526, and there was then established in India the Mughal dynasty.

The Mahomedan dynasties that had ruled in capital other than Delhi up to this date

were of comparative unimportance, though some great men appeared among them. In Gujarat, for example, Ahmad Shah, the founder of Ahmedabad, showed himself a good ruler and builder as well as a good soldier, though his grandson, Mahmud Shah Begara, was a greater ruler—acquiring fame at sea as well as on land. In the South various kings of the Bahmani dynasty made names for themselves, especially in the long wars they waged on the new Hindu kingdom that had arisen which had its capital at Vijayanagar. Of importance also was Adil Khan, a Turk, who founded (1490) the Bijapur dynasty of Adil Shahis. It was one of his successors who crushed the Vijayanagar dynasty, and built the great mosque for which Bijapur is famous.

The Mughal Empire.

As one draws near to modern times it becomes impossible to present anything like a coherent and consecutive account of the growth of India as a whole. Detached threads in the story have to be picked up one by one and followed to their ending, and although the sixteenth century saw the first European settlements in India, it will be convenient here to continue the narrative of Mahomedan India almost to the end of the Mughal Empire. How Babar gained Delhi has already been told. His son, Humayun, greatly extended his kingdom, but was eventually defeated (1540) and driven into exile by Sher Khan, an Afghan of great capabilities, whose short reign ended in 1545. The Sur dynasty thus founded by Sher Khan lasted another ten years when Humayun, having snatched Kabul from one of his brothers, was strong enough to win back part of his old kingdom. When Humayun died (1556) his eldest son, Akbar, was only 13 years old and was confronted by many rivals. Nor was Akbar well served, but his career of conquest was almost uninterrupted and by 1594 the whole of India North of the Nerbudda had bowed to his authority, and he subsequently entered the Deccan and captured Ahmednagar. This great ruler, who was as remarkable for his religious tolerance as for his military prowess, died in 1605, leaving behind him a record that has been surpassed by few. His son, Jehangir, who married the Persian lady Nur Jahan, ruled until 1627, bequeathing to an admiring posterity some notable buildings—the tomb of his father at Sikandra, part of the palace at Agra, and the palace and fortress of Lahore. His son, Shahjahan, was for many years occupied with wars in the Deccan, but found time to make his court of incredible magnificence and to build the most famous and beautiful of all tombs, the Taj Mahal, as well as the fort, palace and Juma Masjid at Delhi. The quarrels of his sons led to the deposition of Shahjahan by one of them, Aurangzeb, in 1658. This Emperor's rule was one of constant intrigue and fighting in every direction, the most important of his wars being a twenty-five years' struggle against the Marathas of the Deccan who, under the leadership of Sivaji, became a very powerful faction in Indian politics. His bigoted attitude towards Hinduism made Aurangzeb all the more anxious to establish his Empire on a firm basis in the south, but he was unable to hold his many conquests, and on his death (1707) the

Empire, for which his three sons were fighting, could not be held together. Internal disorder and Maratha encroachments continued during the reigns of his successors, and in 1739 a fresh danger appeared in the person of Nadir Shah, the Persian conqueror, who carried all before him. On his withdrawal, leaving Mahomed Shah on the throne, the old intrigues recommenced and the Marathas began to make the most of the opportunity offered to them by puppet rulers at Delhi and by almost universal discord throughout what had been the Mughal Empire. There is little to add to the history of Mahomedan India. Emperors continued to reign in name at Delhi up to the middle of the 19th century, but their territory and power had long since disappeared, being swallowed up either by the Marathas or by the British.

European Settlements.

The voyage of Vasco da Gama to India in 1498 was what turned the thoughts of the Portuguese to the formation of a great Empire in the East. That idea was soon realized, for, from 1500 onwards, constant expeditions were sent to India and the first two Viceroy's in India—Almeida and Albuquerque—laid the foundations of a great Empire and of a great trade monopoly. Goa, taken in 1510, became the capital of Portuguese India and remains to this day in the hands of its captors, and the countless ruins of churches and forts on the shores of Western India, as also farther East at Malacca, testify to the zeal with which the Portuguese endeavoured to propagate their religion and to the care they took to defend their settlements. There were great soldiers and great missionaries among them—Albuquerque, da Cunha, da Castro in the former class, St. Francis Xavier in the latter. But the glory of Empire loses something of its lustre when it has to be paid for, and the constant drain of men and money from Portugal, necessitated by the attacks made on their possessions in India and Malaya, was found almost intolerable. The junction of Portugal with Spain, which lasted from 1580 to 1640, also tended to the downfall of the Eastern Empire and when Portugal became independent again, it was unequal to the task of competing in the East with the Dutch and English. The Dutch had little difficulty in wresting the greater part of their territory from the Portuguese, but the seventeenth century naval wars with England forced them to relax their hold upon the coast of India, and during the French wars between 1795 and 1811 England took all Holland's Eastern possessions, and the Dutch have left in India but few traces of their civilisation and of the once powerful East India Company of the Netherlands.

The first English attempts to reach India date from 1498 when Cabot tried to find the North-West passage, and these attempts were repeated all through the sixteenth century. The first Englishman to land in India is said to have been on Thomas Stephens (1579) who was followed by a number of merchant adventurers, but trade between the two countries really dates from 1600 when Elizabeth incorporated the East India Company which had been formed in London. Factories in India were founded only after Portuguese and Dutch opposition had been overcome, notably in the

sea fight off Swally (Suvali) in 1612. The first factory, at Surat, was for many years the most important English foothold in the East. Its establishment was followed by others, including Fort St. George, Madras, (1640) and Hughli (1651). In the history of these early years of British enterprise in India the cession of Bombay (1661) as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza stands out as a landmark; it also illustrates the weakness of the Portuguese at that date, since in return the King of England undertook to protect the Portuguese in India against their foes—the Marathas and the Dutch. Cromwell, by his treaty of 1654, had already obtained from the Portuguese an acknowledgment of England's right to trade in the East; and that right was now threatened, not by the Portuguese, but by Sivaji and by the general disorder prevalent in India. Accordingly, in 1686, the Company turned its attention to acquiring territorial power, and announced its intention to establish such a policy of civil and military power, and create and secure such a large revenue..... as may be the foundation of a large, well-grounded, sure English dominion in India for all time to come. Not much came of this announcement for some time, and no stand could be made in Bengal against the depredations of Aurangzeb. The foundations of Calcutta (1690) could not be laid by Job Charnock until after a humiliating peace had been concluded with that Emperor, and, owing to the difficulties in which the Company found itself in England, there was little chance of any immediate change for the better. The union of the old East India Company with the new one which had been formed in rivalry to it took place in 1703, and for some years peaceful development followed; though Bombay was always exposed by sea to attacks from the pirates, who had many strongholds within easy reach of that port; and on land to attacks from the Marathas. The latter danger was felt also in Calcutta. Internal dangers were numerous and still more to be feared. More than one mutiny took place among the troops sent out from England, and rebellions like that led by Keigwin in Bombay threatened to stifle the infant settlements. The public health was bad and the rate of mortality was at times appalling. To cope with such conditions strong men were needed, and the Company was in this respect peculiarly fortunate; the long list of its servants, from Oxenden and Augier to Hastings and Raffles, contains many names of men who proved themselves good rulers and far-sighted statesmen, the finest Empire-builders the world has known.

Attempts to compete with the English were made of course. But the schemes of the Emperor Charles VI to secure a share of the Indian trade were not much more successful than those made by Scotland, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia. By the French, who founded Pondicherry and Chandernagore towards the end of the 17th century, much more was achieved, as will be seen from the following outline of the development of British rule.

The French Wars.

When war broke out between England and France in 1744, the French had acquired a

strong position in Southern India, which had become independent of Delhi and was divided into three large States—Hyderabad, Tanjore, and Mysore—and a number of petty states under local chieftains. In the affairs of these States Dupleix, when Governor of Pondicherry, had intervened with success, and when Madras was captured by a French squadron, under La Bourdonnais (1746) Dupleix wished to hand it over to the Nawab of Arcot—a deputy of the Nizam's who ruled in the Carnatic. The French, however, kept Madras, repelling an attack by the disappointed Nawab as well as the British attempts to recapture it. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle restored Madras to the English. The fighting had shown the Indian powers the value of European troops, and this was again shown in the next French war (1750-54) when Clive achieved enduring fame by his capture and subsequent defence of Arcot. This war arose from Dupleix supporting candidates for the disputed successions at Arcot and Hyderabad while the English at Madras put forward their own nominees. One of Dupleix's officers, the Marquis de Bussy, persuaded the Nizam to take into his pay the army which had established his power, and in return the Northern Circars, between Orissa and Madras, was granted to the French. This territory, however, was captured by the English in the seven years' war (1756-63). Dupleix had by then been recalled to France. Lally, who had been sent to drive the English out of India, captured Fort St. David and invested Madras. But the victory which Colonel (Sir Eyre) Coote won at Wandiwash (1760) and the surrender of Pondicherry and Gingee put an end to the French ambitions of Empire in Southern India. Pondicherry passed more than once from the one nation to the other before settling down to its present existence as a French colony in miniature.

Battle of Plassey.

While the English were fighting the third French war in the South they became involved in grave difficulties in Bengal, where Siraj-ud-Daula had acceded to power. The headquarters of the English at Calcutta were threatened by that ruler who demanded they should surrender a refugee and should cease building fortifications. They refused and he marched against them with a large army. Some of the English took to their ships and made off down the river, the rest surrendered and were cast into the jail known as the "Black Hole." From this small and stifling room 23 persons, out of 146, came out alive the next day. Clive who was at Madras, immediately sailed for Calcutta with Admiral Watson's squadron, recaptured the town (1757), and, as war with the French had been proclaimed, proceeded to take Chandernagore. The Nawab Siraj-ud-Daula then took the side of the French, and Clive, putting forward Mir Jafar as candidate for the Nawab's throne, marched out with an army consisting of 900 Europeans, 2,000 sepoys and 8 pieces of artillery against the Nawab's host of over 50,000. The result was the historic battle of Plassey (June 23) in which Clive, after hesitating on the course to be pursued, routed the Nawab. Mir Jafar was put on the throne

at Murshidabad, and the price of this honour was put at 22,340,000 in addition to the grant to the Company of the land round Calcutta now known as the District of the twenty-four Parganas. In the year after Plassey, Clive was appointed Governor of Bengal and in that capacity sent troops against the French in Madras and in person led a force against the Oudh army that was threatening Mir Jafar, in each case with success. From 1760 to 1765 Clive was in England. During his absence the Council at Calcutta deposed Mir Jafar and, for a price, put Mir Kasim in his place. This ruler moved his capital to Monghyr, organized an army, and began to intrigue with the Nawab Wazir of Oudh. He soon found, in a dispute over customs dues, an opportunity of quarrelling with the English and the first shots fired by his followers were the signal for a general rising in Bengal. About 200 Englishmen and a number of sepoys were massacred, but his trained regiments were defeated at Gheria and Oodeynullah, and Mir Kasim sought protection from the Nawab of Oudh. But in 1764, after quelling a sepoymutiny in his own camp by blowing 24 ring-leaders from the guns, Major (Sir Hector) Munro defeated the joint forces of Shah Alam, the Mughal Emperor, and the Nawab of Oudh in the battle of Buxar. In 1765 Clive (now Baron Clive of Plassey) returned as Governor. "Two landmarks stand out in his policy. First, he sought the substance, although not the name, of territorial power, under the fiction of a grant from the Mughal Emperor. Second, he desired to purify the Company's service, by prohibiting illicit gains, and by guaranteeing a reasonable pay from honest sources. In neither respect were his plans carried out by his immediate successors. But our efforts towards a sound administration date from this second Governorship of Clive, as our military supremacy dates from his victory at Plassey." Before Clive left India, in 1767, he had readjusted the divisions of Northern India and had set up a system of Government in Bengal by which the English received the revenues and maintained the army while the criminal jurisdiction was vested in the Nawab. The performance of his second task, the purification of the Company's service, was hotly opposed but carried out. He died in 1774 by his own hand, the House of Commons having in the previous year censured him, though admitting that he did render "great and meritorious services to his country."

Warren Hastings.

The dual system of government that Clive had set up proved a failure and Warren Hastings was appointed Governor, in 1772, to carry out the reforms settled by the Court of Directors which were to give them the entire care and administration of the revenues. Thus Hastings had to undertake the administrative organization of India, and, in spite of the factious attitude of Philip Francis, with whom he fought a duel and of other members of his Council, he reorganized the civil service, reformed the system of revenue collection, greatly improved the financial position of the Company, and created courts of justice and some semblance of a police force. From 1772 to 1774 he was Governor of Bengal and from 1774 to 1785

he was the first Governor-General, nominated under an Act of Parliament passed in the previous year. His financial reforms, and the forced contributions he enacted from the rebellious Chet Singh and the Begam of Oudh, were interpreted in England as acts of oppression and formed, together with his action in the trial of Nuncowar for forgery, the basis of his seven years' trial before the House of Lords which ended in a verdict of not guilty on all the charges. But there is much more for which his administration is justly famous. The recovery of the Marathas from their defeat at Panipat was the cardinal factor that influenced his policy towards the native states. One frontier was closed against Maratha invasion by the loan of a British brigade to the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, for his war against the Rohillas, who were intriguing with the Marathas. In Western India he found himself committed to the two Maratha wars (1775-82) owing to the ambition of the Bombay Government to place its own nominee on the throne of the Peshwa at Poona, and the Bengal troops that he sent over made amends, by the conquest of Gujrat and the capture of Gwalior, for the disgrace of Wadgaon where the Marathas overpowered a Bombay army. In the South—where interference from Madras had already led (1769) to what is known as the first Mysore war, a disastrous campaign against Hyder Ali and the Nizam—he found the Madras Government again in conflict with those two potentates. The Nizam he won over by diplomacy, but against Hyder Ali he had to despatch a Bengal army under Sir Eyre Coote. Hyder Ali died in 1782 and two years later a treaty was made with his son Tipu. It was in these acts of intervention in distant provinces that Hastings showed to best advantage as a great and courageous man, cautious, but swift in action when required. He was succeeded, after an interregnum, by Lord Cornwallis (1786-93) who built on the foundations of civil administration laid by Hastings, by entrusting criminal jurisdiction to Europeans and establishing an Appellate Court of Criminal Judicature at Calcutta. In the Civil Service he separated the functions of the District Collector and Judge and organized the "writers," and "merchants" of the Company into an administrative Civil Service. This system was subsequently extended to Madras and Bombay. Lord Cornwallis is better known for his introduction, on orders from England, of the Permanent Settlement in Bengal. (See article on Land Revenue). A third Mysore war was waged during his tenure of office which ended in the submission of Tipu Sultan. Sir John Shore (Lord Teignmouth), an experienced Civil Servant, succeeded Lord Cornwallis, and, in 1798, was followed by Lord Wellesley, the friend of Pitt, whose projects were to change the map of India.

Lord Wellesley's Policy.

The French in general, and "the Corsican" in particular, were the enemy most to be dreaded for a few years before Lord Wellesley took up his duties in India, and he formed the scheme of definitively ending French schemes in Asia by placing himself at the head of a great Indian confederacy. He started by obtaining from the Nawab of Oudh the cession of

large tracts of territory in lieu of payments overdue as subsidies for British troops, he then won over the Nizam to the British side, and, after exposing the intrigues of Tipu Sultan with the French, embarked on the fourth Mysore war which ended (1799) in the fall of Seringapatam and the gallant death of Tipu. Part of Mysore, the Carnatic, and Tanjore roughly constituting the Madras Presidency of to-day then passed to British rule. The five Maratha powers—the Peshwa of Poona, the Gackwar of Baroda, Sindhia of Gwalior, Holkar of Indore and the Raja of Nagpur—had still to be brought into the British net. The Peshwa, after being defeated by Holkar, fled to British territory and signed the Treaty of Bassein which led to the third Maratha war (1802-04) as it was regarded by Sindhia and the Raja of Nagpur at a betrayal of Maratha independence. In this the most successful of British campaigns in India, Sir Arthur Wellesley (the Duke of Wellington) and General (Lord) Lake carried all before them, the one by his victories of Assaye and Argaum and the other at Aligad, and Laswari. Later operations, such as Colonel Monson's retreat through Central India were less fortunate. The great acquisitions of territory made under Lord Wellesley proved so expensive that the Court of Directors, becoming impatient, sent out Lord Cornwallis a second time to make peace at any price. He, however, died soon after his arrival in India; and Sir George Barlow carried on the government (1805-7) until the arrival of a stronger ruler, Lord Minto. He managed to keep the peace in India for six years, and to add to British dominions by the conquest of Java and Mauritius. His foreign policy was marked by another new departure, inasmuch as he opened relations with the Punjab, Persia, and Afghanistan, and concluded a treaty with Ranjit Singh, at Lahore, which made that Sikh ruler the loyal ally of the British for life.

The successor of Lord Minto was Lord Moira, who found himself obliged almost at once to declare war on the Gurkhas of Nepal, who had been encroaching on British territory. After initial reverses, the English, under General Ochterlony, were successful and the Treaty of Sagauli (1816) was drawn up which defines British relations with Nepal to the present day. For this success Lord Moira was made Marquis of Hastings. In the same year he made preparations for the last Maratha war (1817-18) which was made necessary by the lawless conduct of the Pindaris, gangs of Pathan or Rohilla origin, whose chief patrons were the rulers of Native States. The large number of 120,000 that he collected for this purpose destroyed the Pindaris, annexed the dominions of the rebellious Peshwa of Poona, protected the Rajput States, made Sindhia enter upon a new treaty, and compelled Holkar to give up part of his territory. Thus Lord Hastings established the British power more firmly than ever, and when he resigned, in 1823, all the Native States outside the Punjab had become parts of the political system and British interests were permanently secured from the Persian Gulf to Singapore. Lord Amherst followed Lord Hastings, and his five years' rule (1823-28) are memorable for the first Burmese war and the capture of Bharatpur. The former opera-

tion was undertaken owing to the insolent demands and raids of the Burmese, and resulted in the Burmese ceding Assam, Aracan, and the coast of Martaban and their claims to the lower provinces. The capture of Bharatpur by Lord Combermere (1826) wiped out the repulse which General Lake had received there twenty years earlier. A disputed succession on this occasion led to the British intervention.

Social Reform.

A former Governor of Madras, Lord William Bentinck, was the next Governor-General. His epitaph by Macaulay, says: "He abolished cruel rites; he effaced humiliating distinctions; he gave liberty to the expression of public opinion; his constant study was to elevate the intellectual and moral character of the nations committed to his charge."

Some of his financial reforms, forced on him from England, and his widening of the gates by which educated Indians could enter the service of the Company, were most unpopular at the time, but were eclipsed by the acts he took for the abolition of *Sati*, or widow-burning, and the suppression—with the help of Captain Sleeman—of the professional hereditary assassins known as *Thugs*. In 1832 he annexed Cacher, and, two years later, Coorg. The incompetence of the ruler of Mysore forced him to take that State also under British administration—where it remained until 1881. His rule was marked in other ways by the despatch of the first steamship that made the passage from Bombay to Suez, and by his settlement of the long educational controversy in favour of the advocates of instruction in English and the vernaculars. Lord William Bentinck left India (1835) with his programme of reforms unfinished. The new Charter Act of 1833 had brought to a close the commercial business of the Company and emphasized their position as rulers of an Indian Empire in trust for the Crown. By it the whole administration, as well as the legislation of the country, was placed in the hands of the Governor-General in Council, and authority was given to create a Presidency of Agra. Before his retirement Bentinck assumed the statutory title of Governor-General of India (1834), thus marking the progress of consolidation since Warren Hastings in 1774 became the first Governor-General of Fort William. Sir Charles Metcalfe, being senior member of Council, succeeded Lord William Bentinck, and during his short tenure of office carried into execution his predecessor's measures for giving entire liberty to the press.

Afghan Wars.

With the appointment of Lord Auckland as Governor-General (1836-42) there began a new era of war and conquest. Before leaving London he announced that he looked with exultation to the prospect of "promoting education and knowledge, and of extending the blessings of good Government and happiness to millions in India;" but his administration was almost exclusively comprised in a fatal expedition to Afghanistan, which dragged in its train the annexation of Sind, the Sikh wars, and the inclusion of Baluchistan in the protectorate of India. The first Afghan war was undertaken partly to counter the Russian advance

in Central Asia and partly to place on the throne at Kabul the dethroned ruler Shah Shuja in place of Dost Mahomed. The latter object was easily attained (1839) and for two years Afghanistan remained in the military occupation of the British. In 1841 Sir Alexander Burnes was assassinated in Kabul and Sir William Macnaghten suffered the same fate in an interview with the son of Dost Mahomed. The British Commander in Kabul, Gen. Elphinstone, was old and feeble, and after two months' delay he led his army of 4,500 and 12,000 camp followers back towards India in the depth of winter. Between Kabul and Jallalabad the whole force perished, either at the hands of the Afghans or from cold, and Dr. Brydon was the only survivor who reached the latter city. Lord Ellenborough succeeded Lord Auckland and was persuaded to send an army of retribution to relieve Jallalabad. One force under Gen. Pollock relieved Jallalabad and marched on Kabul, while Gen. Nott, advancing from Kandahar, captured Ghazul and joined Pollock at Kabul (1842). The bazaar at Kabul was blown up, the prisoners rescued, and the army returned to India leaving Dost Mahomed to take undisputed possession of his throne. The drama ended with a bombastic proclamation from Lord Ellenborough and the parade through the Punjab of the (spurious) gates of Somnath taken from the tomb of Mahmud of Ghazul.

Sikh Wars.

Lord Ellenborough's other wars—the conquest of Sind by Sir Charles Napier and the suppression of an outbreak in Gwalior—were followed by his recall, and the appointment of Sir Henry (1st Lord) Hardinge to be Governor-General. A soldier Governor-General was not unacceptable, for it was felt that a trial of strength was imminent between the British and the remaining Hindu power in India, the Sikhs. Ranjit Singh, the founder of the Sikh Kingdom, had died in 1839, loyal to the end to the treaty he had made with Metcalfe thirty years earlier. He left no son capable of ruling, and the *khalsa*, or central council of the Sikh army, was burning to measure its strength with the British sepoys. The intrigues of two men, Lal Singh and Fej Singh, to obtain the supreme power led to their crossing the Sutlej and invading British territory. Sir Hugh Gough, the Commander-in-Chief, and the Governor-General hurried to the frontier, and within three weeks four pitched battles were fought—at Mudki, Ferozeshah, Aliwal and Sobroon. The Sikhs were driven across the Sutlej and Lahore surrendered to the British, but the province was not annexed. By the terms of peace the infant Dhuleep Singh was recognized as Rajah; Major Henry Lawrence was appointed Resident, to assist the Sikh Council of Regency, at Lahore; the Jullundur Doab was added to British territory; the Sikh army was limited; and a British force was sent to garrison the Punjab on behalf of the child Rajah. Lord Hardinge returned to England (1848) and was succeeded by Lord Dalhousie, the greatest of Indian proconsuls.

Dalhousie had only been in India a few months when the second Sikh war broke out. In the attack on the Sikh position at Chillianwala the British lost 2,400 officers, and mea-

besides four guns and the colours of three regiments: but before reinforcements could arrive from England, bringing Sir Charles Napier as Commander-in-Chief, Lord Gough had restored his reputation by the victory of Gujrat which absolutely destroyed the Sikh army. As a consequence the Punjab was annexed and became a British province (1849), its pacification being so well carried out, under the two Lawrences that on the outbreak of the Mutiny eight years later it remained not only quiet but loyal. In 1852 Lord Dalhousie had again to embark on war, this time in Burma, owing to the ill-treatment of British merchants in Rangoon. The lower valley of the Irawaddy was occupied from Rangoon to Prome and annexed, under the name of Pegu, to those provinces that had been acquired in the first Burmese war. British territories were enlarged in many other directions during Lord Dalhousie's tenure of office. His "doctrine of lapse" by which British rule was substituted for Indian in States where continued misrule on the failure of a dynasty made this change possible, came into practice in the cases of Satara, Jhansi, and Nagpur (which last-named State became the Central Provinces) where the rulers died without leaving male heirs. Oudh was annexed on account of its misrule. Dalhousie left many other marks on India. He reformed the administration from top to bottom, founded the Public Works Department, initiated the railways, telegraphs and postal system, and completed the great Ganges canal. He also detached the Government of Bengal from the charge of the Governor-General, and summoned representatives of the local Governments to the deliberations of the Government of India. Finally, in education he laid down the lines of a department of public instruction and initiated more practical measures than those devised by his predecessors. It was his misfortune that the mutiny, which so swiftly followed his resignation, was by many critics in England attributed to his passion for change.

The Sepoy Mutiny.

Dalhousie was succeeded by Lord Canning in 1856, and in the following year the sepoys of the Bengal army mutinied and all the valley of the Ganges from Delhi to Patna rose in rebellion. The causes of this convulsion are difficult to estimate, but are probably to be found in the unrest which followed the progress of English civilisation; in the spreading of false rumours that the whole of India was to be subdued; in the confidence the sepoy troops had acquired in themselves under British leadership; and in the ambition of the educated classes to take a greater share in the government of the country. Added to this, there was in the deposed King of Delhi, Bahadur Shah, a centre of growing disaffection. Finally there was the story—not devoid of truth—that the cartridges for the new Enfield rifle were greased with fat that rendered them unclean for both Hindus and Mahomedans. And when the mutiny did break out it found the Army without many of its best officers who were employed in civil work, and the British troops reduced, in spite of Lord Dalhousie's warnings, below the number he considered essential for safety. On May 10

the sepoys at Meerut rose in mutiny, cut down a few Europeans, and, unchecked by the large European garrison, went off to Delhi where next morning the Mahomedans rose. From that centre the mutiny spread through the North-Western Provinces and Oudh into Lower Bengal. Risings in the Punjab were put down by Sir John Lawrence and his subordinates, who armed the Sikhs, and with their help reduced the sepoys, and Lawrence was subsequently able to send a strong body of Sikhs to aid in the siege of Delhi. The native armies of Madras and Bombay remained for the most part true to their colours. In Central India, the contingents of some of the great chiefs joined the rebels, but Hyderabad was kept loyal by the influence of its minister, Sir Salar Jung.

The interest of the war centres round Delhi, Cawnpore and Lucknow, though in other places massacres and fighting occurred. The siege of Delhi began on June 8 when Sir Henry Barnard occupied the Ridge outside the town. Barnard died of cholera early in July, and Thomas Reed, who took his place, was obliged through illness to hand over the command to Archdale Wilson. In August Nicholson arrived with a reinforcement from the Punjab. In the meantime the rebel force in Delhi was constantly added to by the arrival of new bodies of mutineers; attacks were frequent and the losses heavy; cholera and sunstroke carried off many victims on the Ridge: and when the final assault was made in September the Delhi army could only parade 4,720 infantry, of whom 1,960 were Europeans. The arrival of siege guns made it possible to advance the batteries on September 8, and by the 13th a breach was made. On the following day three columns were led to the assault, a fourth being held in reserve. Over the ruins of the Kashmir Gate, blown in by Hoare and Salkeld, Col. Campbell led his men and Nicholson formed up his troops within the walls. By nightfall the British, with a loss of nearly 1,200 killed and wounded, had only secured a foothold in the city. Six days' street fighting followed and Delhi was won; but the gallant Nicholson was killed at the head of a storming party. Bahadur Shah was taken prisoner, and his two sons were shot by Captain Hudson.

Massacre at Cawnpore.

At Cawnpore the sepoys mutinied on June 27 and found in Nana Sahib, the heir of the last Peshwa, a willing leader in spite of his former professions of loyalty. There a European force of 240 with six guns had to protect 870 non-combatants, and held out for 22 days, surrendering only on the guarantee of the Nana that they should have a safe conduct as far as Allahabad. They were embarking on the boats on the Ganges when fire was opened on them, the men being shot or hacked to pieces before the eyes of their wives and children and the women being mutilated and murdered in Cawnpore to which place they were taken back. Their bodies were thrown down a well just before Havelock, having defeated the Nana's forces, arrived to the relief. In Lucknow a small garrison held out in the Residency from July 2 to September 25 against tremendous odds and enduring the most fearful hardships. The relieving force, under Havelock and Outram, was itself invested, and the garrison was

not finally delivered until Sir Colin Campbell arrived in November. Fighting continued for 18 months in Oudh, which Sir Colin Campbell finally reduced, and in Central India, where Sir Hugh Rose waged a brilliant campaign against the disinherited Rani of Jhansi—who died at the head of her troops—and Tantia Topi.

Transfer to the Crown.

With the end of the mutiny there began a new era in India, strikingly marked at the outset by the Act for the Better Government of India (1858) which transferred the entire administration from the Company to the Crown. By that Act India was to be governed by, and in the name of, the Sovereign through a Secretary of State, assisted by a Council of fifteen members. At the same time the Governor-General received the title of Viceroy. The European troops of the Company, numbering about 24,000 officers and men were—greatly resenting the transfer—amalgamated with the Royal service, and the Indian Navy was abolished. On November 1, 1858, the Viceroy announced in Durbar at Allahabad that Queen Victoria had assumed the Government of India, and proclaimed a policy of justice and religious toleration. A principle already enunciated in the Charter Act of 1833 was reinforced, and all, of every race or creed, were to be admitted as far as possible to those offices in the Queen's service for which they might be qualified. The aim of the Government was to be the benefit of all her subjects in India—"In their prosperity will be our strength, in their contentment our security, and in their gratitude our best reward." Peace was proclaimed in July 1859, and in the cold weather Lord Canning went on tour in the northern provinces, to receive the homage of loyal chiefs and to assure them that the "policy of lapse" was at an end. A number of other important reforms marked the closing years of Canning's Viceroyalty. The India Councils Act (1861) augmented the Governor-General's Council, and the Councils of Madras and Bombay by adding non-official members, European and Indian, for legislative purposes only. By another Act of the same year High Courts of Judicature were constituted. To deal with the increased debt of India, Mr. James Wilson was sent from England to be Financial Member of Council, and to him are due the customs system, income tax, license duty, and State paper currency. The cares of office had broken down the Viceroy's health. Lady Canning died in 1862 and this hastened his departure for England where he died in June of that year. His successor, Lord Elgin, lived only a few months after his arrival in India, and was succeeded by Sir John (afterwards Lord) Lawrence, the "saviour of the Punjab."

Sir John Lawrence.

The chief task that fell to Sir John Lawrence was that of reorganising the Indian military system, and of reconstructing the Indian army. The latter task was carried out on the principle that in the Bengal army the proportion of Europeans to Indians in the infantry and cavalry should be one to two, and in the Madras and Bombay armies one to three: the artillery was to be almost wholly European. The re-organisation was carried out in spite of

financial difficulties and the saddling of Indian revenues with the cost of a war in Abyssinia with which India had no direct concern; but operations in Bhutan were all the drain made on the army in India while the re-organising process was being carried on. Two severe famines—in Orissa (1866) and Bundelkhand and Upper Hindustan (1868-9)—occurred, while Sir John Lawrence was Viceroy, and he laid down the principle for the first time in Indian history, that the officers of the Government would be held personally responsible for taking every possible means to avert death by starvation. He also created the Irrigation Department under Col. (Sir Richard) Strachey. Two commercial crises of the time have to be noted. One seriously threatened the tea industry in Bengal. The other was the consequence of the wild gambling in shares of every description that took place in Bombay during the years of prosperity for the Indian cotton industry caused by the American Civil War. The "Share Mania," however, did no permanent harm to the trade of Bombay, but was, on the other hand, largely responsible for the series of splendid buildings begun in that city during the Governorship of Sir Bartle Frere. Sir John Lawrence retired in 1869, having passed through every grade of the service, from an Assistant Magistracy to the Viceroyalty. Lord Mayo, who succeeded him, created an Agricultural Department and introduced the system of Provincial Finance, thus fostering the impulse to local self-government. He also laid the foundation for the reform of the salt duties, thereby enabling his successors to abolish the inter-provincial customs lines. Unhappily his vast schemes for the development of the country by extending communications of every kind were not carried out to the full by him, for he was murdered in the convict settlement of the Andaman Islands, in 1872. Lord Northbrook (Viceroy 1872-6) had to exercise his abilities chiefly in the province of finance. A severe famine which threatened Lower Bengal in 1874 was successfully warded off by the organization of State relief and the importation of rice from Burma. The following year was notable for the deposition of the Gaikwar of Baroda for misgovernment, and for the tour through India of the Prince of Wales (the late King Edward VII). The visit of the Duke of Edinburgh to India when Lord Mayo was Viceroy had given great pleasure to those with whom he had come in touch, and had established a kind of personal link between India and the Crown. The Prince of Wales' tour aroused unprecedented enthusiasm for and loyalty to the British Raj, and further encouragement was given to the growth of this spirit when, in a durbar of great magnificence held on January 1st, 1877, on the famous Ridge at Delhi, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India. The Viceroy of that time, Lord Lytton, had, however, to deal with a situation of unusual difficulty. Two successive years of drought produced, in 1877-78, the worst famine India had known. The most strenuous exertions were made to mitigate its effects, and eight crores of rupees were spent in importing grain; but the loss of life was estimated at 5½ millions. At this time also Afghan affairs once more became prominent.

Second Afghan War.

The Amir, Sher Ali, was found to be intriguing with Russia and that fact, coupled with his repulse of a British mission led to the second Afghan War. The British forces advanced by three routes—the Khyber, the Kurram, and the Bolan—and gained all the important vantage points of Eastern Afghanistan. Sher Ali fled and a treaty was made with his son Yakub Khan, which was promptly broken by the murder of Sir Louis Cavagnari, who had been sent as English envoy to Kabul. Further operations were thus necessary, and Sir F. (now Lord) Roberts advanced on the capital and defeated the Afghans at Charasia. A rising of the tribes followed, in spite of Sir D. Stewart's victory at Ahmed Kheyl and his advance from Kabul to Kandahar. A pretender, Sirdar Ayub Khan, from Herat prevented the establishment of peace, defeated Gen. Burrows' brigade at Maiwand, and invested Kandahar. He was routed in turn by Sir F. Roberts who made a brilliant march from Kabul to Kandahar. After the British withdrawal fighting continued between Ayub Khan and Abdur Rahman, but the latter was left undisputed Amir of Afghanistan until his death in 1901.

In the meantime Lord Lytton had resigned (1880) and Lord Ripon was appointed Viceroy by the new Liberal Government. Lord Ripon's administration is memorable for the freedom given to the Press by the repeal of the Vernacular Press Act, for his scheme of local self-government which developed municipal institutions, and for the attempt to extend the jurisdiction of the criminal courts in the Districts over European British subjects, independently of the race or nationality of the presiding judge. This attempt, which created a feeling among Europeans in India of great hostility to the Viceroy, ended in a compromise in 1884. Other reforms were the re-establishment of the Department of Revenue and Agriculture, the appointment of an Education Commission with a view to the spread of popular instruction on a broader basis, and the abolition by the Finance Minister (Sir Evelyn Baring, now Lord Cromer) of a number of customs duties. Lord Dufferin, who succeeded Lord Ripon in 1884, had to give his attention more to external than internal affairs: one of his first acts was to hold a durbar at Rawalpindi for the reception of the Amir of Afghanistan which resulted in the strengthening of British relations with that ruler. In 1885 a third Burmese war became necessary owing to the truculent attitude of King Thibaw and his intrigues with foreign Powers. The expedition, under General Prendergast, occupied Mandalay without difficulty and King Thibaw was exiled to Ratnagiri, where he died on 16th December 1916. His dominions of Upper Burma were annexed to British India on the 1st of January, 1886.

The Russian Menace.

Of greater importance at the time were the measures taken to meet a possible, and as it then appeared a probable, attack on India by Russia. These preparations, which cost over two million sterling, were hurried on because of a collision which occurred between Russian and Afghan troops at Panjdeh, during the delimitation of the Afghan frontier

towards Central Asia, and which seemed likely to lead to a declaration of war by Great Britain. War was averted, but the Panjdeh Incident had called attention to a menace that was to be felt for nearly a generation more. It had also served to elicit from the Princes of India an unanimous offer of troops and money in case of need. That offer bore fruit under the next Viceroy, Lord Lansdowne, when the present system of Imperial Service Troops was organised. Under Lord Lansdowne's rule also the defences of the North-Western Frontier were strengthened, on the advice of Sir Frederick (now Earl) Roberts, who was then Commander-in-Chief in India. Another form of precautionary measure against the continued aggression of Russia was taken by raising the annual subsidy paid by the Indian Government to the Amir from eight to twelve lakhs.

On the North-Eastern Frontier there occurred (1891) in the small State of Manipur a revolution against the Raja that necessitated an inquiry on the spot by Mr. Quinton, the Chief Commissioner of Assam. Mr. Quinton, the commander of his escort, and others, were treacherously murdered in a conference and the escort ignominiously retreated. This disgrace to British arms led to several attacks on frontier outposts which were brilliantly defeated. Manipur was occupied by British troops and the government of the State was reorganised under a Political Agent. Lord Lansdowne's term of office was distinguished by several other events, such as the passing of the Parliamentary Act (Lord Cross's Act, 1892), which increased the size of the Legislative Councils as well as the number of non-officials in them; legislation aimed at social and domestic reform among the Hindus; and the closing of the Indian Mints to the free coinage of silver (1893). In Burma great progress was made, under Sir Alexander Mackenzie, as Chief Commissioner: comparative order was established, and large schemes for the construction of railways, roads, and irrigation works were put in hand. (The Province was made a Lieutenant-Governorship in 1897).

Frontier Campaigns.

Lord Elgin, who succeeded Lord Lansdowne in 1894, was confronted at the outset with a deficit of Rs. 21 crores, due to the fall in exchange. (In 1895 the rupee fell as low as 1s. 1d.) To meet this the old five per cent. Import duties were reimposed on a number of commodities, but not on cotton goods: and within the year the duty was extended to piece-goods, but not to yarn. The reorganisation of the Army, which involved the abolition of the old system of Presidency Armies, had hardly been carried out when a number of risings occurred along the North-West Frontier. In 1895 the British Agent in Chitral—which had come under British influence two years previously when Sir H. M. Durand had demarcated the southern and eastern boundaries of Afghanistan—was besieged and had to be rescued by an expeditionary force. Two years later the Wazirs, Swatis, and Mohmands attacked the British positions in Malakand, and the Afridis closed the Khyber Pass. Peace was only established after a prolonged campaign (the Tirah campaign) in which 40,000 troops were employed, and over 1,000 officers

and men had been lost. This was in itself a heavy burden on the finances of India, which was increased by the serious and widespread famine of 1896-97 and by the appearance in India of bubonic plague. The methods taken to prevent the spread of that disease led, in Bombay, to rioting, and elsewhere to the appearance in the vernacular press of seditious articles which made it necessary to make more stringent the law dealing with such writings.

Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty.

With famine and plague Lord Curzon also, who succeeded Lord Elgin in 1899, had to deal. In 1901 the cycle of bad harvests came to an end; but plague increased, and in 1904 deaths from it were returned at over one million. Of the many problems to which Lord Curzon directed his attention, only a few can be mentioned here: some indeed claim that his greatest work in India was not to be found in any one department but was in fact the general gearing up of the administration which he achieved by his unceasing energy and personal example of strenuous work. He had at once to turn his attention to the North-West Frontier. The British garrisons beyond our boundary were gradually withdrawn and replaced by tribal levies, and British forces were concentrated in British territory behind them as a support. An attempt was made to check the arms traffic and work on strategic railways was pushed forward. The fact that in seven years he only spent a quarter of a million upon repressive measures and only found it necessary to institute one blockade (against the Mahsud Waziris) is the justification of this policy of compromise between the Lawrence and Forward schools of thought. In 1901 the trans-Indus districts of the Punjab were separated from that Province, and together with the political charges of the Malakand, the Khyber, Kurram, Tochi, and Wana were formed into the new North-West Frontier Province, under a Chief Commissioner directly responsible to the Government of India. That year also witnessed the death of Abdur Rahman, the Amir of Afghanistan, and the establishment of an understanding with his successor Habibullah. In 1904 the attitude of the Dalai Lama of Tibet being pro-Russian and anti-British, it became necessary to send an expedition to Lhasa under Colonel (Sir Francis) Younghusband. The Dalai Lama abdicated and a treaty was concluded with his successor.

In his first year of office Lord Curzon passed the Act which, in accordance with the recommendations of the Fowler Commission, practically fixed the value of the rupee at 1s. 4d., and in 1900 a Gold Reserve fund was created. The educational reforms that marked this Viceroyalty are dealt with elsewhere: chief among them was the Act of 1904 reorganising the governing bodies of Indian Universities. Under the head of agrarian reform must be mentioned the Punjab Land Alienation Act, designed to free the cultivators of the soil from the clutches of money-lenders, and the institution of Agricultural banks. The efficiency of the Army was increased (Lord Kitchener was Commander-in-Chief) by the re-arming of the Indian Army, the strengthening of the artillery, and the reorganisation of the transport service. In his relations with the Feuda-

tory Chiefs, Lord Curzon emphasized their position as partners in administration, and he founded the Imperial Cadet Corps to give a military education to the sons of ruling and aristocratic families. In 1902 the British Government obtained from the Nizam a perpetual lease of the Assigned Districts of Berar in return for an annual payment of 25 lakhs. The accession of King Edward VII was proclaimed in a splendid Durbar on January 1, 1903. In 1904 Lord Curzon returned to England for a few months but was re-appointed to a second term of office, Lord Ampthill, Governor of Madras, having acted as Viceroy during his absence. The chief act of this second term was the partition of Bengal and the creation of a new Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam—a reform, designed to remove the systematic neglect of the trans-Gangetic areas of Bengal, which evoked bitter and prolonged criticism. In 1905 Lord Curzon resigned, being unable to accept the proposals of Lord Kitchener for the re-adjustment of relations between the Army headquarters and the Military Department of the Government, and being unable to obtain the support of the Home Government. Lord Curzon was succeeded by Lord Minto, the grandson of a former Governor-General. It was a stormy heritage to which Lord Minto succeeded, for the unrest, which had long been noticed, developed in one direction into open sedition. The occasion of the outburst in Bengal was the partition of that province. The causes of the flood of seditious writings and speeches, of the many attempts at assassination, and of the boycott of British goods are less easily definable. The mainspring of the unrest was "a deep-rooted antagonism to all the principles upon which Western society, especially in a democratic country like England, has been built up."

Outside Bengal attempts to quell the disaffection by the ordinary law were fairly successful. But scarcely any province was free from disorder of some kind and, though recourse was had to the deportation of persons without reason assigned under an Act of 1818, special Acts had to be passed to meet the situation, viz.:—an Explosives Act, a Prevention of Seditious Meetings Act, and a Criminal Law Amendment Act which provides for a magisterial inquiry in private and a trial before three judges of the High Court without a jury. Concurrently with these legislative measures steps were taken to extend representative institutions. In 1907 a Hindu and a Mahomedan were appointed to the Secretary of State's Council, and in 1909 a Hindu was appointed for the first time to the Viceroy's Council. The Indian Councils Act of 1909 carried this policy further by reconstituting the legislative councils and conferring upon them wider powers of discussion. The executive councils of Madras and Bombay were enlarged by the addition of an Indian member.

As regards foreign policy, Lord Minto's Viceroyalty was distinguished by the conclusion (1907) between Great Britain and Russia of an agreement on questions likely to disturb the friendly relations of the two countries in Asia generally, and in Persia, Afghanistan and Tibet in particular. Two expeditions had to be undertaken on the North-West frontier, against the Zakka Khels and the Mohmands

and ships of the East Indies Squadron were frequently engaged off Maskat and in the Persian Gulf in operations designed to check the traffic in arms through Persia and Mekran to the frontier of India.

Visit of the King and Queen.

Sir Charles (Lord) Hardinge was appointed to succeed Lord Minto in 1910. His first year in India was marked by the visit to India of the King Emperor and the Queen, who arrived at Bombay on December 2, 1911. From there they proceeded to Delhi where, in the most magnificent durbar ever held in India, the coronation was proclaimed and various boons, including an annual grant of 50 lakhs for popular education, were announced. At the same ceremony His Majesty announced the transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi; the reunion of the two Bengals under a Governor-in-Council; the formation of a new Lieutenant-Governorship for Behar, Chota Nagpur and Orissa and the restoration of Assam to the charge of a Chief Commissioner.

In August, 1913, the demolition of a lavatory attached to a mosque in Cawnpore was made the occasion of an agitation among Indian Mahomedans and a riot in Cawnpore led to heavy loss of life. Of those present at the riot, 106 were put on trial but subsequently released by the Viceroy before the case reached the Sessions, and His Excellency was able to settle the mosque difficulty by a compromise that was acceptable to the local and other Mahomedans.

Still more serious trouble occurred in September, 1914, when a riot at Budge-Budge among a number of Sikh emigrants returned from Canada gave a foretaste of the revolutionary plans entertained by those men. The sequel, revealed in two conspiracy trials at Lahore, showed that the "Ghad" conspiracy was widespread and had been consistently encouraged by Germany.

Lord Chelmsford as Viceroy.

Lord Hardinge, whose great services had been rewarded with the Knighthood of the Garter, left India in 1916 and was succeeded by Lord Chelmsford, whose tenure of office was destined to be one of the most eventful in the modern history of India. The part played by India in the war was developed in every possible way. Not only was the Indian Army increased but the resources of the country were developed with the help of the Munitions Board and India assumed responsibility for 100 millions of the war debt. The share of India in the Imperial burden of the war was emphasised in another and very significant way by her representation in the Imperial War Cabinet in London by His Highness the Maharaja of Bikaner and Sir S. P. (Lord) Sinha. On the Frontier, where there had been numerous though comparatively slight disturbances in 1914-15, a punitive expedition had to be undertaken against the Mahsuds.

In 1917 Mr. Montagu, who had succeeded Mr. Chamberlain as Secretary of State, carried out the latter's intention of visiting India. The result of the visit was shown in the following year when a report was issued containing what is known as the joint scheme of reform evolved by the Secretary of State and the Viceroy. Shortly after this report there was

issued a report by the Special Committee of Inquiry, over which Mr. Justice Rowlatt presided, into seditious crime in India. That report and the legislation which followed in consequence of it, together with the announcement of the proposed reform scheme, led to a renewal of political discussion and agitation which had to a great extent been in abeyance during the early years of the war.

Early in 1919 prolonged strikes in Bombay and elsewhere showed that India, though comparatively little affected by the economic results of the war, was confronted by industrial and economic problems which were none the less grave. The gravity of those problems was increased by the ravages of influenza which is supposed to have caused 6,000,000 deaths during the winter months of 1917-18. Disturbances broke out in April as a sequel to the passive resistance movement against the Rowlatt Act (the Satyagraha Movement) which produced a situation to which there has been no parallel since the Mutiny. It is sufficient here to state that in Ahmedabad, Viramgam, Delhi, Lahore, Amritsar, Gujranwalla and other places the crowd, by attacking life and property and by train wrecking and tearing up railway lines and telegraph wires, provoked a situation which could only be met by the proclamation of martial law and the enforcement of military measures for the protection of law abiding subjects and for the suppression of disorder.

Exaggerated reports of those riots and of the effect of the Rowlatt Act may be presumed to have had some influence on the Amir of Afghanistan when he declared war and invaded British territory. Amir Habibullah Khan, who had been loyal to his treaty obligations throughout the war, was murdered in February and, after a brief occupation of the throne by his brother Nasrulla Khan, his son Amanullah had been declared Amir. A sequel to this war was the renewal of trouble along a great part of the North Western frontier where the tribesmen, who had at first appeared to be impressed by the British successes, took the offensive against our advance posts especially in southern Waziristan. The operations which necessarily followed and the severity of the fighting were on a scale never previously reached in frontier war, and made the campaign of unusual length.

The Government of India Bill, embodying Mr. Montagu's proposals for the popularisation of the system of Government, was passed in December.

The next year, 1920, more than any which preceded it, was distinguished by political agitation. The cause of this was in part the indignation created by the facts disclosed in the report of the Hunter Commission on the outbreaks of 1919 in the Punjab and elsewhere, and the stimulus given to the Khilafat agitation by the terms of the Peace treaty with Turkey.

Lord Reading's Viceroyalty.

The fruits of agitation were reaped in plenty in 1921, the first year of Lord Reading's term of office. Murderous outbreaks at Malegaon, Dharwar and elsewhere were followed by a rebellion of the Moplahs in Malabar which assumed the most serious proportions and necessitated prolonged military operations.

It had been arranged that H. R. H. the Prince of Wales should visit India at the end of 1920 and should open the new Councils in 1921, but, for reasons of health, that visit had to be postponed; and H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught came to India early in 1921 in order to open the new Councils. The Prince's visit took place in 1921-22 and was essentially non-political.

The enthusiasm with which the Prince was greeted during his tour was very marked. But simultaneously with the loyal display riots broke out in more than one of the cities which he visited. But after the imprisonment of some of the leading agitators in the early part of 1922 the country enjoyed comparative quiet, except in the Punjab where the Akali movement among the Sikhs, which had started as a puritan religious movement, developed into a political movement attended by constant and widespread disorder. The enhanced position of India in the Empire and the position of India as a nation entering actively into the work of the League of Nations, were emphasised during the year by the tour of the Dominions undertaken by the Hon. S. Sastri.

The Salt Tax.

Early in 1923 a great deal of criticism was excited by Lord Reading's certification of the doubling of the salt tax, under the powers conferred by the Reformed constitution, in opposition to the clearly expressed will of the Legislative Assembly. Objection was taken to this step, not so much because an increase in the Salt Tax had always been looked upon as a measure to which resort should be made only in grave emergencies, as because the financial powers of the elected chambers, much emphasised in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report, were thus shown to be capable of restriction.

Break up of non-co-operation.

Two causes combined during the year to weaken the position of the extremists. The first was the split in the Congress, the second the rise of communal feeling between Hindus and Mahomedans. The Congress split was brought about by Mr. C. R. Das, who, realising no doubt that Mr. Gandhi had failed and it was unlikely that any other man would have greater success by a rigid adherence to his methods, declared in favour of standing for the Councils.

The other cause was the disappearance of the surface unity between Hindus and Mahomedans which Mr. Gandhi, helped by strong feeling among Mahomedans on the Turkish question, had temporarily contrived. The Lausanne Treaty almost completely satisfied the wishes of Indian Mahomedans on this point and in certain quarters there was a deep feeling of gratitude to the Viceroy for the part he was known to have taken in bringing about the popular settlement. Mahomedans ceased to need Congress help. This was itself enough to make them objects of suspicion to extremist Hindus, and the feeling of uneasiness was heightened by the rejoicings over the Treaty in which Mahomedans indulged throughout India. There was also among Hindus the memory of the atrocities committed by the Moplahs in Malabar, and a movement started by the Mahomedan Minister of

Education in the Punjab, with the object of ensuring that the Punjab Mahomedans, as the largest community in the Province, should have the greatest voice in its control, added to Hindu alarm and resentment. In the United Provinces Hindus were thunderstruck to find the census returns that in comparison with the Mahomedans they were declining in numbers. Consequently two pan-Hindu movements were started: the Shuddhi movement, announced by Swami Shradhanand, which aimed at the re-conversion to Hinduism of the Malkhana Rajputs and other low class occupants of the fringe of Islam, and the Sangathan movement, of which Pandit Malaviya was the sponsor, and which aimed at teaching Hindus physical exercises and sword play, so that they might be the better able to protect themselves. These two movements greatly irritated the Mahomedans, and during the year there were between fifteen and twenty serious Hindu-Mahomedan riots, occurring in all parts of India. In consequence, when the Ali brothers were released from jail they were unable to take any clear line: they did not wish to take the popular course and abuse the Hindus, and on the other hand they would have had few followers if they had begun another bitter campaign against the Government.

Kenya and the Imperial Conference.

Considerable feeling all over India was aroused by the terms of the Kenya settlement, which did not confer on Indians complete equality with the white settlers. The points particularly resented were the reservation of the highlands for Europeans, the restriction of the franchise and the rules concerning immigration, which it was thought might be used so as to operate unfairly against Indians. After the Imperial Conference, at which India was represented by H. H. the Maharaja of Alwar and Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, feeling on this point improved slightly; for though no very great gains were made at the Conference, the fullest possible statement of the Indian case was given to the entire world, and the general attitude of the various premiers at the Conference was friendly.

Violent Movements.

In the Punjab the Akali movement showed an increasing tendency to forget the teachings of Mr. Gandhi. The Babar Akalis murdered several of their co-religionists whose political views they did not approve, and the Akali Dal became a more definitely military organisation, acting directly under the orders of the Shrines Committee. After a career of misgovernment and intrigue against the neighbouring state of Patiala, the Maharaja of Nabha voluntarily abdicated. Somewhat ludicrously the Akalis turned him into a martyr, and the movement became sufficiently formidable for both the Akali Dal and the Shrines Committee to be declared illegal associations. Many arrests were made; but, owing to the lack of unity in the extremist camp, an attempt of the Congress to secure all India support for the Akalis had a meagre result.

During the year there were an unusual number of frontier outrages. Several officers were shot, and worldwide attention was attracted by the kidnapping of Molly Ellis, after the

murder of her mother, and by her heroic rescue by Mrs. Starr. Coupled with the slow rate of progress of the operations in Waziristan, these continued incidents provoked some comment.

There was also a sensational revival of the pre-war anarchical societies in Bengal, but the range of their achievements was small.

India in 1924.

Mr. Gandhi's premature release from Yerowda Jail in consequence of an operation for appendicitis temporarily revived the drooping hopes of the extremists, but any idea that he would organize another huge anti-Government movement was rapidly shattered. The breach between him and Mr. Das steadily widened and the belief of Hindu politicians in Mr. Gandhi's common sense diminished though their esteem for his character remained as high as ever. Moreover the feeling between Hindus and Mahomedans which had suddenly appeared the previous year darkened the whole face of the country. With the abolition of the Khilafat by Mustapha Kemal in March the *raison d'être* of the famous pact between Mr. Gandhi and the Alis was destroyed and animosity no longer felt the restraint of political expediency. The Hindu conversion and organization movements of *Shuddhi* and *Sangathan* were opposed by exactly parallel Mahomedan movements, *Tabligh* and *Tanzim*; rumours were frequent that some mysterious All-India Mahomedan clique was planning aggressive action against Hindus; and excitement was brought to fever heat by the riots in the Frontier Province, the Punjab, the United Provinces, Delhi, Calcutta, the Central Provinces and Hyderabad which broke out during the autumn season of religious festivals. In September Mr. Gandhi decided on a 21 days' fast, which he successfully accomplished, partly as an expiation for his share in the bad feeling, and partly to draw the attention of the country to the urgency of the problem. Simultaneously a conference of representatives of all communities, including the Metropolitan and other English visitors was called at Delhi to decide what steps could be taken to bring about a better state of affairs. The conference passed some excellent resolutions, but on the very day when Mr. Gandhi's fast ended riots again broke out, and what gave the matter a grave aspect was that the date of the riot had been predicted and it was commonly said that they had been carefully planned for that very day.

Reforms Imperilled.

The year saw the final collapse of non-co-operation. Though Mr. Gandhi and a dwindling band of followers clung to *Khaddar* and the triple boycott, lawyers returned to their practices, schoolboys and students finally despaired of national education, and the best brains of non-co-operation followed Mr. Das into the Councils. The programme announced by Mr. Das was to wreck the Reforms, and in this ambition he was reasonably near success. Obstructive tactics effected the resignation of the Ministers in the Central Provinces and Bengal and left these two provinces to be administered by Governors without

democratic help, but in other parts of India the Councils did well in the circumstances.

Underground the revolutionary movement continued. A series of assassinations took place in Bengal, and Mr. Das incurred bitter criticism by associating himself with a tribute to the murderer of an inoffensive Englishman in Calcutta.

Religious Agitations.

The rise of sectarianism in religion which had been noticed for some years was again to the fore. The Akali movement, now nominally centring round the abdication of the Maharajah of Nabha, seemed to have passed its most dangerous phase but still gave the Punjab Government much anxiety. A series of processions of Akalis into Nabha State finally led to the inevitable affray, in which some fifty casualties were recorded, but from this point there were signs of growing opposition to the Akalis among the Sikhs, and the announcement of Sir Malcolm Hailey on assuming control of the province that Government was determined to preserve peace and order was widely supported.

That the Sikhs were not alone in desiring more democratic control of religious institutions was shown by two agitations, one at the famous Saivite shrine of Tarakeswar in Bengal and the other at Vaikom in Travancore. At Tarakeswar the demand was that the income of the temple property should be administered by a trust and not regarded as the private concern of the *mahant*, while at Vaikom the trouble was caused by a demand of the untouchables that they should be allowed access to temples. Both incidents created great interest in various parts of the country.

Inquiries.

The Investigations of the Tariff Board appointed by Government to inquire which industries were suited for the application of the official policy of Protection were continued. It was decided to give protection to coal and steel, as two staple industries without which India could never become a great industrial country.

Another inquiry of great importance was that conducted by the Lee Commission under the chairmanship of Lord Lee of Fareham. The Commission, which was appointed to investigate the working of the Reforms, issued a report which had as favourable a reception as could be expected. The report made certain recommendations for increasing the speed of Indianisation and provincialisation and also proposed some slight increases in the pay of officials.

The third attempt to climb Everest came very near to success. A height 600 feet from the top was reached, but in an effort to accomplish the last stretch Mallory and Irvine were killed. It was not established whether they had or had not reached the top.

Despite the proclamation of a boycott by the non-co-operators, India participated successfully in the Empire Exhibition at Wembley. India was also represented for the first time in the Olympic Games.

The Government of India.

The impulse which drove the British to India was not conquest but trade. The Government of India represents the slow evolution from conditions established to meet trading requirements. On September 24, 1599, a few years before the deaths of Queen Elizabeth and Akbar, the merchants of London formed an association for the purpose of establishing direct trade with the East and were granted a charter of incorporation. The Government of this Company in England was vested in a Governor with a General Court of Proprietors and a Court of Directors. The factories and affairs of the Company on the East and West coast of India, and in Bengal, were administered at each of the principal settlements of Madras (Fort St. George), Bombay and Calcutta (Fort William), by a President or Governor and a Council consisting of the senior servants of the Company. The three "Presidencies" were independent of each other and subordinate only to the Directors in England.

Territorial Responsibility Assumed.

The collapse of government in India consequent on the decay of Moghul power and the intrigues of the French on the East Coast forced the officers of the Company to assume territorial responsibility in spite of their own desires and the insistent orders of the Directors. Step by step the Company became first the dominant, then the paramount power in India. In these changed circumstances the system of government by mutually independent and unwieldy councils of the merchants at the Presidency towns gave rise to grave abuses. Parliament intervened, and under the Regulating Act of 1773, a Governor-General and four councillors were appointed to administer the Presidency of Fort William (Bengal), and the supremacy of that Presidency over Madras and Bombay was for the first time established. The subordinate Presidencies were forbidden to wage war or make treaties without the previous consent of the Governor-General of Bengal in Council, except in cases of imminent necessity. Pitt's Act of 1784, which established the Board of Control in England, vested the administration of each of the three Presidencies in a Governor and three councillors, including the Commander-in-Chief of the Presidency Army. The control of the Governor-General-in-Council was somewhat extended, as it was again by the Charter Act of 1793. Under the Charter Act of 1833 the Company was compelled to close its commercial business,

and it became a political and administrative body holding its territories in trust for the Crown. The same Act vested the direction of the entire civil and military administration and sole power of legislation in the Governor-General-in-Council, and defined more clearly the nature and extent of the control to be extended over the subordinate governments. After the Mutiny, there was passed, in 1858, an Act transferring the Government of India from the Company to the Crown. This Act made no important change in the administration in India, but the Governor-General, as representing the Crown, became known as the Viceroy. The Governor-General is the sole representative of the Crown in India; he is assisted by a Council, composed of high officials, each of whom is responsible for a special department of the administration.

Functions of Government.

The functions of the Government in India are perhaps the most extensive of any great administration in the world. It claims a share in the produce of the land and in the Punjab and Bombay it has restricted the alienation of land from agriculturists to non-agriculturists. It undertakes the management of landed estates where the proprietor is disqualified. In times of famine it undertakes relief work and other remedial measures on a great scale. It manages a vast forest property and is the principal manufacturer of salt and opium. It owns the bulk of the railways of the country, and directly manages a considerable portion of them; it has constructed and maintains most of the important irrigation works; it owns and manages the post and telegraph systems; it has the monopoly of the Note issue, and it alone can set the mints in motion. It lends money to municipalities, rural boards, and agriculturists and occasionally to owners of historic estates. It controls the sale of liquor and intoxicating drugs and has direct responsibilities in respect to police, education, medical and sanitary operations and ordinary public works of the most intimate character. The Government has also close relations with the Indian States which collectively cover more than one-third of the whole area of India and comprise more than one-fifth of its population. The distribution of these great functions between the Government of India and the provincial administrations has fluctuated and was definitely regulated by the Reform Act of 1919.

THE REFORMS OF 1919.

Great changes were made in the system of government in British India by the Government of India Act, 1919, which, together with the rules framed under it—almost as important in their provisions as the Act itself—came into general operation in January 1921. The Act

was the outcome of an inquiry conducted in India in the winter of 1917-18 by the Secretary of State (Mr. Montagu) and the Viceroy (Lord Chelmsford), the results of which were embodied in their Report on Indian Constitutional Reform issued in the spring of 1918.

The recommendations in this report were supplemented by those of two Committees which toured India in the winter of 1918-19, and which issued their Reports in the spring of 1919. A third Committee was appointed during the latter year to make recommendations for the modification of the system of administration of Indian affairs in the United Kingdom, and issued their Report while the Government of India Bill was under examination by a Joint Select Committee of both Houses of Parliament. The Joint Select Committee in their turn issued an exhaustive Report on the Bill, which was passed in a form practically identical with that recommended by the Joint Committee, and received the Royal Assent on the 23rd December 1919.

The Divisions.—British India for administrative purposes is divided into 15 provinces, each with its separate Local Government or administration. In nine of the provinces—the three Presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bengal, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces, Burma, and Assam—the Local Government consists of a Governor, an Executive Council of not more than four members, and two or more Ministers. In 1922 Burma, which was excluded from the original scheme, was brought into line with it. An Act of Parliament was passed, constituting Burma a Governor's Province, with a Governor, an Executive Council and Ministers, and a Legislative Council elected on a very democratic franchise, which gave the vote to women. The remaining six provinces are directly administered by Chief Commissioners, who are technically mere agents of the Central Government of India. No change has been made by the Act of 1919 in the system of administration in these six minor provinces.

Dyarchy.—In these nine provinces the executive Government is a dual organism which owes its unity to the Governor. One half of the organism consists of the Governor and his executive Council, all of whom are appointed by the King. This body is responsible for the administration of those subjects which are "reserved." The other half of the executive organism is the Governor acting with the advice of Ministers who are appointed by him, hold office during his pleasure, and must be elected members of the Provincial Legislative Council. To the Governor acting with Ministers is entrusted the administration of "transferred" subjects.

The Object.—The framers of the Act of 1919 had a twofold object in view. Their primary object was to devise a plan which would render possible the introduction by successive stages of a system of responsible government in British India in modification of the previous system under which the Governments in India, both central and provincial, received their mandates from the British Parliament acting through the Secretary of State for India, the Cabinet Minister responsible to Parliament for the administration of Indian affairs.

The Provinces.—Starting from the premise that it was in the provinces that the first substantial steps must be taken towards the development of a system of responsible government, the framers of the Act of 1919 provided for a statutory demarcation of the functions to be exercised by the Government of India and the Provincial Governments respectively, in their administrative capacity. No attempt was made in this connection to limit the field open to the Indian Legislature, which still retains a concurrent (though not an overruling) power of legislation for the affairs of the provinces in general and of individual provinces; but the rules under the Act provide specifically for the exercise of this right in certain specified provincial matters, and the theory upon which the Act proceeds assumes that a convention will be established and rigorously observed which will confine intervention by the Indian Legislature in provincial affairs to matters so specified.

Finance.—The "revenues of India"—or, rather, their sources—are definitely divided between the Central and Provincial Governments; the Provincial Governments have now almost complete control over the administration of their "allocated" revenues, they have power to supplement them by raising loans on the security of these revenues, and their right, subject in certain cases to the Governor-General's sanction, to initiate new taxation measures is formally recognised.

It was found impossible to devise any scheme of allocation of revenues between the Central and Provincial Governments which did not leave the former with a deficit. This deficit is to be met in part by an annual contribution from seven of the eight Governors' provinces, the province of Bihar and Orissa, owing to the comparative exigency and inelasticity of its own revenues, having been exempted from this contribution. The aggregate sum thus due from the provinces to the Government of India at the outset is Rs. 983 lakhs, of which Madras contributes Rs. 343 lakhs, the United Provinces Rs. 240 lakhs, the Punjab Rs. 175 lakhs, and the other four provinces sums ranging from Rs. 15 lakhs to Rs. 64 lakhs. The annual contribution is in no case to be subject to increase in the future, and if reduction of the aggregate is found possible by the Government of India, reductions are to be made in fixed proportions from the quota of the several provinces.

Responsibility.—The first steps towards responsibility were to transform the Provincial Legislative Council into a body of sufficient size and with a sufficiently large elected majority (which the Act fixes at 70 per cent. as a minimum) to represent adequately public opinion in the province, and to create an electorate. The first franchise rules have given the vote to about 5,000,000 of the adult male population, and have enabled the Legislative Council of any "Governor's province" to extend the franchise to women. The

following table shows the strength and composition of each of the Provincial Councils:—

Province.	Elected.	Nominated and <i>ex-officio</i> .		Total.
		Officials.	Non-officials.	
Madras	98	23	6	127
Bombay	86	20	5	111
Bengal	113	20	6	139
United Provinces	100	18	5	123
Punjab	71	16	6	93
Bihar and Orissa	76	18	9	103
Central Provinces	53	10	5	68
Assam	39	9	5	53
Burma	78	15	8	101

The figures for officials in this table are maxima in every case, and where less than the maximum number of officials is nominated to any Council, the number of nominated non-officials must be increased in proportion; e.g., if there are only 18 officials (nominated and *ex-officio*) on the United Provinces Council, there must be seven nominated non-officials. The official members who have seats *ex-officio* are the members of the Executive Council, who are at present four in number, the statutory maximum in Madras, Bombay, and Bengal, three in Bihar and Orissa, and two in each of the remaining provinces. These Executive Councils contain an equal number of Indian and British members except

in Bihar and Orissa (which has an Indian Governor), where two of the three members are British officials.

Electorates.—The electorates in each province are arranged for the most part on a basis which is designed to give separate representation to the various races, communities, and special interests into which the diverse elements of the Indian population naturally range themselves. Although there are minor variations from province to province, a table showing their character in one province (Bengal) will give a sufficiently clear idea of the general position.

Class of Electorate.	No. of Electorates of this Class.	No. of Members returnable by Electorates of this Class.
Non-Muhammadian	42	46
Muhammadian	34	29
European	3	5
Anglo-Indian (in the technical sense of persons of mixed European and Asiatic descent).	1	2
Landholders	5	5
University	1	1
Commerce and Industry	8	15
Total	94	113

Of the 94 constituencies in Bengal, all but nine (those representing the University and Commerce and Industry) are arranged on a territorial basis, i.e., each constituency consists of a group of electors, having the prescribed qualifications which entitle them to a vote in a constituency of that class, who inhabit a particular area. The normal area for a "Muhammadan" or "non-Muhammadan" constituency is a district (or where districts are large and populous, half a district) in the case of rural constituencies, and, in the case of urban constituencies, a group of adjacent municipal towns. Some large towns form urban constituencies by themselves, and the City of Calcutta provides eight separate constituencies, six "non-Muhammadan" and two "Muhammadan" the latter of course, being coterminous with the former.

Throughout the electoral rules there runs a general classification of the various kinds of constituencies into two broad categories, those which are designed to represent special interests, such as Landholders, Universities, Planters or Commerce being described as "special" constituencies, and those which are based on a racial distinction—Muhammadan, European, Sikh, etc.—being known as "general" constituencies.

POWERS OF PROVINCIAL

In origin the legislative authority in British India was a meeting of the Governor-General (or, in the case of the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, of the Governor) with his Executive Council, "for the purpose of legislation." When met for this purpose there were added to the Executive Council certain "additional members," at first very few in number, and those few all nominated by the Governor-General or the Governor, as the case might be. A Council so constituted had originally no powers or duties beyond those immediately arising out of the discussion of the particular legislative measure which at the time was engaging its attention, and its functions were confined strictly to the discussion and enactment of legislative measures. In course of time the number of "additional" members, and the proportion of these who were non-official Indians, were steadily increased, the principle of election was gradually substituted for nomination as the means of selecting non-official members, and the functions of the Councils were extended so as to include the right of interpellation, of the discussion of matters of general public interest, and of criticising and discussing the budget proposals of the Executive Government. This extension of the powers of the Councils was in the main the result of the "Morley-Minto Act" of 1909. The Indian Councils Act of 1892 had given power to discuss the budget but not to divide the Council upon it. Lord Morley's Act went further and provided that, notwithstanding the terms of the Indian Councils Act of 1891, which had restricted the powers of all Councils to the discussion of legislative measures, the Local Government might make rules authorising the discussion of the annual financial statement, of any matter of general public interest, and the asking of questions under such conditions and restrictions as might be imposed by the rules, and these rules

Voters' Qualifications.—The qualifications for electors (and consequently for candidates) vary in detail from province to province, chiefly on account of variations in the laws and regulations which form the basis of assessment of income or property values. Generally speaking, both in rural and urban areas the franchise is based on a property qualification as measured by the payment of a prescribed minimum of land revenue or of its equivalent, or of income tax, or of municipal taxes, but in all provinces retired, pensioned or discharged officers and men of the regular army are entitled to the vote, irrespective of the amount of their income or property. The actual number of voters registered in each province on the rolls prepared under the new Act are shown in the following table:—

	1920.	1923.
Madras	1,258,156	1,284,923
Bombay	548,419	630,478
Bengal	1,021,418	1,044,166
United Provinces ..	1,347,278	1,509,127
Punjab	505,361	627,513
Bihar and Orissa ..	327,664	338,507
Central Provinces ..	144,737	152,568
Assam	203,191	224,063

LEGISLATIVE COUNCILS.

recognised the right of the Councils to vote on motions thus submitted for their discussion. The other results of the Act of 1909 were definitely to recognise the principle of election as the means of selecting non-official members of all Councils (although the method adopted was mainly that of indirect election), a considerable increase in the number of both non-official and official members, and the setting up in every province of a non-official (though not, save in one province, an elected) majority. A further important, though indirect, result of the Morley-Minto Act was the appointment of an Indian member to the Executive Council of the Governor-General, and to such Provincial Executive Councils as were then in existence and subsequently created.

Old System.—But although the Legislative Councils (which, originally created in two provinces only in addition to the Governor-General's Legislative Council, existed in 1919 in nine provinces) had steadily acquired a more and more representative character and a large share of the normal functions of a legislative assembly as generally understood, they still remained in theory up to the passing of the Act of 1919 mere accretions to the Executive Government of the provinces for the purpose of advising on, and enacting, legislation. It is true that the non-official element in the Provincial Councils as constituted by Lord Morley's Act of 1909 had acquired a considerable measure of control over legislation, in view of the fact that in most provinces that Act and the rules framed under it placed the non-official members in a slight majority over their official colleagues; but for various reasons this control, even in the sphere of legislation, can hardly be described as definite popular control, and over matters outside the legislative sphere the Councils had no controlling voice at all.

The Changes.—The most important changes made by the Act of 1919 in the powers of the Provincial Councils were—

- (i) the power to vote (and consequently to withhold) supplies;
- (ii) a greatly enhanced freedom of initiation in the matter of legislation; and
- (iii) power to frame their own rules of procedure in matters of detail, subject to the Governor's concurrence.

A further right which the Councils will acquire after four years from the time of their commencement is the right to elect their own President. At the outset the President is nominated by the Governor, but from the start every Council has an elected Deputy President. The Governor (who formerly was *ex officio* President of his Legislative Council) no longer has any direct connection with its proceedings. The first-named of these newly acquired powers is of sufficient importance to require a detailed explanation of its scope, which can best be given in the terms of the Act itself (section 72D).

72D.—(1) The provisions contained in this section shall have effect with respect to business and procedure in governors' legislative councils.

(2) The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the province shall be laid in the form of a statement before the council in each year, and the proposals of the local government for the appropriation of provincial revenues and other moneys in any year shall be submitted to the vote of the council in the form of demand for grants. The council may assent, or refuse its assent, to a demand, or may reduce the amount therein referred to either by a reduction of the whole grant or by the omission or reduction of any of the items of expenditure of which the grant is composed:—

Provided that—

(a) the local government shall have power, in relation to any such demand, to act as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the reduction of the amount therein referred to, if the demand relates to a reserved subject, and the governor certifies that the expenditure provided for by the demand is essential to the discharge of his responsibility for the subject; and

(b) the governor shall have power in cases of emergency to authorise such expenditure as may be in his opinion necessary for the safety or tranquillity of the province, or for the carrying on of any department; and

(c) no proposal for the appropriation of any such revenues or other moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the governor, communicated to the council.

(3) Nothing in the foregoing sub-section shall require proposals to be submitted to the council relating to the following heads of expenditure:—

(i) Contributions payable by the local government to the Governor-General in Council; and

(ii) Interest and sinking fund charges on loans; and

(iii) Expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law; and

(iv) Salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty or by the Secretary of State in Council; and

(v) Salaries of judges of the high court of the province and of the advocate-general.

If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of moneys does or does not relate to the above heads of expenditure, the decision of the governor shall be final.

Executive and Legislature.—In the light of these facts it is now possible to explain more exactly the relationship between the provincial executive and the provincial legislature. The dual character of the former has already been mentioned, and the corresponding bifurcation of provincial subjects into "reserved" and "transferred" categories. The rules under the act prescribe a list of 20 subjects which are transferred to the administration of the Governor acting with Ministers, the more important of which are Local Self-Government, Medical Administration, Public Health, Education (with certain reservations), Public Works, Agriculture, Excise, and Development of Industries. The "reserved" subjects comprise all those in the list of "provincial" (as distinct from "central") subjects which are not transferred.

Machinery.—No change has been made by the Act of 1919 in the machinery and methods of administration by the Governor in Council; decisions are taken at the Council Board, as before, by a majority vote, and the Governor is entitled, as before, to overrule such a vote in certain specified circumstances if he disagrees with it. For such decisions the Governor in Council remains, as before, responsible to the Secretary of State and Parliament, and on questions of legislation and supply he has the power of enforcing them despite opposition by a majority of the Legislative Council. But, the whole spirit of the Act and the existence of a large non-official elected majority in every Provincial Legislative Council is an important factor in determining the policy to be pursued by the official half of the Government in its administration of reserved subjects. A further and not less important factor is the existence in the Government, side by side with the Executive Council, of two or more Ministers appointed from the elected members of the legislature, who, though they are not charged by law with, and in fact are legally absolved from, any responsibility for decisions on matters outside the transferred sphere, will necessarily be able, and in fact are expected, to make their opinions felt by their colleagues in the Executive Council. But these factors, while they will doubtless lead to constant endeavour on the part of the official half of the Government to accommodate its policy to the wishes of its ministerial colleagues and of the majority of the legislature, and to avoid situations which involve resort to the enforcement of its decisions in the face of popular opposition, are not intended to obscure the responsibility to Parliament in the last resort of the Governor in Council for the administration of reserved subjects and the right of His Majesty's Government, and of the Secretary of State as a member thereof, to lay down and require the observance of any principles which they regard as having the support of Parliament and, in the last resort of the British electorate,

Transfer of Control.—With regard to transferred subjects the position is very different. Here there has been an actual transfer of control from the British elector and the British Parliament to the elector and the Legislative Council in the Indian province. The provincial subjects of administration are grouped into portfolios, and just as each member of the Executive Council has charge of a portfolio consisting of a specified list of "reserved" subjects or "departments," so each Minister is directly responsible for the administration of those particular transferred "departments" which are included in his portfolio. But his responsibility lies, not, as in the case of a member of the Executive Council, to the Government of India, the Secretary of State and Parliament, but to the Provincial Legislative Council of which he is an elected member and from which he is selected by the Governor as commanding or likely to command the support of the majority of that body. He holds office during the Governor's pleasure, but his retention of office is contingent on his ability to retain the confidence not only of the Governor, but also of the Legislative Council, upon whose vote he is directly dependent for his salary. Further, the control of the Legislative Council over transferred subjects, both as regards supplies and legislation, is almost entirely free from the restrictions just noticed which necessarily qualify its control over the "reserved" subjects. It is thus within the power of the Provincial Council to insist on the pursuit of a policy of its own choice in the administration of transferred subjects by withdrawing its confidence from a Minister who departs from that policy and bestowing it only on a successor who will follow its mandate; and this power is dependent on the provincial elector in virtue of his freedom to control the composition of the Legislative Council by the use which he makes of his vote. No doubt this statement requires some qualification before it can be accepted as literally accurate, for, technically, the authority charged with the administration of transferred subjects is "the Governor acting with Ministers appointed under this Act," not the Ministers acting on their own initiative, and, further, the Governor, who is not, of course, subject to removal from office by the Legislative Council, is charged personally with responsibility for the peace and tranquillity of his province, and would be entitled, and indeed bound, to recommend the removal of a department from the transferred list if he found the legislature bent on pursuing a policy in its administration which, in his judgment, was incompatible with the maintenance of peace and tranquillity; yet the powers of control vested in the Legislative Council over the transferred sphere are undoubtedly great, and it was the opinion at all events of the Joint Select Committee that legislature and Ministers should be allowed to exercise them with the greatest possible freedom. "If after hearing all the arguments," observed the Committee, "Ministers should decide not to adopt his advice, then in the opinion of the Committee the Governor should ordinarily allow Ministers to have their way," "fixing the responsibility upon them, even if it may subsequently be necessary for him to vote any particular piece of legislation. It

"is not possible but that in India, as in all other countries, mistakes will be made by Ministers acting with the approval of a majority of the Legislative Council, but there is no way of learning except through experience and the realisation of responsibility."

Provision of Funds.—The terms of the Act leave the apportionment of the provincial revenues between the two halves of the executive for the financing of reserved and transferred subjects respectively to be settled by rules, merely providing that rules may be made "for the allocation of revenues or moneys for the purpose of such administration," i.e., the "administration of transferred subjects by the Governor acting with Ministers". Probably the best description available of the method adopted by the rules for the settlement of this matter is the recommendation of the Joint Select Committee whose proposals have been followed with one modification only to enable the Governor to revoke at any time, at the desire of his Council and Ministers an "order of allocation" or to modify it in accordance with their joint wishes. The passage is as follows:—

"The Committee have given much attention to the difficult question of the principle on which the provincial revenues and balances should be distributed between the two sides of the provincial governments. They are confident that the problem can readily be solved by the simple process of common sense and reasonable give-and-take, but they are aware that this question might, in certain circumstances, become the cause of much friction in the provincial government, and they are of opinion that the rules governing the allocation of these revenues and balances should be framed so as to make the existence of such friction impossible. They advise that, if the Governor, in the course of preparing either his first or any subsequent budget, finds that there is likely to be a serious or protracted difference of opinion between the Executive Council and his Ministers on this subject he should be empowered at once to make an allocation of revenue and balances between the reserved and transferred subjects which should continue for at least the whole life of the existing Legislative Council. The Committee do not endorse the suggestion that certain sources of revenue should be allocated to reserved and certain sources to transferred subjects, but they recommend that the Governor should allocate a definite proportion of the revenue, say, by way of illustration, two-thirds to reserved and one-third to transferred subjects, and similarly a proportion, though not necessarily the same fraction of the balances. If the Governor desires assistance in making the allocation, he should be allowed at his discretion to refer the question to be decided to such authority as the Governor-General shall appoint. Further, the Committee are of opinion that it should be laid down from the first that, until an agreement which both sides of the Government will equally support has been reached, or until an allocation has been made by the Governor, the total provisions of the different expenditure heads in the budget of the province for the preceding financial year shall hold good.

The Committee desire that the relation of the two sides of the Government in this matter as in all others, should be of such mutual sympathy that each will be able to assist and influence for the common good the work of the other, but not to exercise control over it. The budget should not be capable of being used as a means for enabling Ministers or a majority

of the Legislative Council to direct the policy of reserved subjects; but on the other hand the Executive Council should be helpful to Ministers in their desire to develop the departments entrusted to their care. On the Governor personally will devolve the task of holding the balance between the legitimate needs of both sets of his advisers."

THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT.

The structural changes made by the Act of 1919 in the system of government outside the nine "Governors' provinces" are of comparatively minor scope, though the spirit of the Act requires, as has already been shown, considerable modification of the relationship hitherto subsisting between the Provincial Governments on the one hand and the Government of India and the Secretary of State in Council on the other. The only concrete changes made in the constitution of the Central Government are the removal of the statutory bar to the appointment of more than six members of the Governor-General's Executive Council (which, however, has had the far-reaching consequence that three of the eight members of the Council are now Indians), and the reconstitution in a much more enlarged, representative and independent form of the central legislature. It has already been observed that this body was, in origin, like all other legislative bodies in India, the Governor-General's Executive Council with the addition of certain "additional members" appointed to assist the Executive Council in the formulation of legislation. Despite its steady growth in size and influence, and despite the introduction of the elective system, the existence of "additional members," who of course under Lord Morley's Act greatly preponderated in numbers over the members proper, i.e., the Executive Councilors, still persisted up to the passing of the Act of 1919. That Act, however, has entirely remodelled the "Indian Legislature," as it is now called, which has become, like the Legislative Council in a Governor's province a legislature with all the inherent powers ordinarily attributed to such a body save such as are specifically withheld by the terms of the Act. It consists of two Chambers. The "Council of State" contains 60 members, of whom 34 are elected (including one member to represent Berar, who, though technically nominated, is nominated as the result of elections held in Berar) and 26 nominated, of whom not more than 20 may be officials. The "Legislative Assembly" consists of 144 members, of whom 104 are elected (including in the case of the Council of State, one Berar member, who, though actually elected, is technically a nominee). Of the 40 nominated members, 26 are required to be officials. The members of the Governor-General's Executive Council are not *ex-officio* members of either Chamber, but each of them has to be appointed a member of one or other Chamber, and can vote only in the Chamber of which he is a member. Any member of the Executive Council may, however, speak in either Chamber. The President of the Upper Chamber is a nominee of the Governor-General, as also, for the first four years after the constitution of the

Chamber, is the President of the Legislative Assembly. But after that period the Lower Chamber is to elect its own President, and it elects its own Deputy-President from the outset. The normal lifetime of each Council of State is five years, and of each Legislative Assembly three years; but either Chamber, or both simultaneously, may be dissolved at any time by the Governor-General.

Election.—The method of election for both Chambers is direct, and although the number of electors is considerably smaller than for the Provincial Councils, it is a great advance on the very restricted and for the most part indirect franchise established under the Act of 1909 for the unicameral central legislature which no longer exists. Generally speaking, the electoral scheme for the Lower Chamber is on the same model as that for the Provincial Councils already described, except that, *firstly*, the property qualification for voters (and consequently for candidates) is higher in order to obtain manageable constituencies, and past service with the colours is not *per se* a qualification for the franchise, and *secondly*, that the constituencies necessarily cover a considerably larger area than constituencies for the Provincial Council. The distribution of seats in both Chambers, and the arrangement of constituencies, are on a provincial basis; that is a fixed number of the elective seats in each Chamber is assigned to representatives of each province, and these representatives are elected by constituencies covering an assigned area of the province.

The following table shows the allotment of the elective seats:—

		Legislative Council of	State.
Madras		16	5
Bombay		16	6
Bengal		17	6
United Provinces		16	6
Punjab		12	4
Bihar and Orissa		12	3
Central Provinces		6	2
Assam		4	1
Burma		4	2
Delhi		1	..
		104	34

Since the area which returns perhaps 80 members to a Provincial Council is the same as the area which returns perhaps 12 members to the Legislative Assembly—namely, the entire province in each case—it follows that on the direct election system this area must be split into constituencies which are much

arger than the constituencies for the local Councils, and just as it is generally correct to say that the normal area unit for those rural constituencies for the latter which are arranged on a territorial basis is the district, it may be said that the normal area unit in the case of the Legislative Assembly is the Division (the technical term for the administrative group of districts controlled by a Divisional Commissioner).

The Franchise :—The general result of the first franchise arrangements under the Act is that there is in each province a body of electors qualified to vote for, and stand for election to, the Provincial Council, and that a selected number of these voters are qualified to vote for and stand for election to those seats in the Legislative Assembly which are assigned to the province. The qualifications for candidature for the Legislative Assembly are the same in each province, *mutatis mutandis*, as for candidature for the Provincial Council, except that in all provinces, so long as the candidate can show that he resides somewhere within the province, no closer connection with his particular constituency is insisted upon.

The franchise for the Council of State differs in character from that for the Provincial Council and the Legislative Assembly. The concern of the framers of the Act and rules was to secure for the membership of this body a character as closely as possible approximating to a "Senate of Elder Statesmen" and thus to constitute a body capable of performing the function of a "true revising Chamber." With this object, in addition and as an alternative to a high

property qualification—adopted as a rough and ready method of enfranchising only persons with a stake in the country—the rules admit as qualifications certain personal attributes which are likely to connote the possession of some past administrative experience or a high standard of intellectual attainment. Examples of these qualifications are past membership of either Chamber of the Legislature as now constituted, or of its predecessor, or of the Provincial Council, the holding of high office in local bodies (district boards, municipalities and corporations), membership of the governing bodies of Universities, and the holding of titles conferred in recognition of Indian classical learning and literature.

Powers :—The powers and duties of the Indian legislature differ but little in character within the "central" sphere from those of the provincial Councils within their provincial sphere, and it has acquired the same right of voting supplies for the Central Government. But as no direct attempt has yet been made to introduce responsible government at the centre, the step in that direction having been avowedly confined to the provinces, and as consequently the Executive Government of India remains legally responsible as a whole for the proper fulfilment of its charge to the Secretary of State and Parliament, it follows that the powers conferred on provincial Governors to disregard an adverse vote of the Legislative Council on legislation or supplies are, as conferred on the Governor-General in his relationship with the Indian Legislature, less restricted in their operation than in the provinces; that is to say, they cover the whole field and are not confined in their application to categories of subjects.

THE INDIA OFFICE.

The Act makes no structural changes in the part played by the India Office in the administration of Indian affairs. Slight alterations have been effected in the number and tenure of office of the members of the Secretary of State's Council, and some relaxations have been made in the statutory rigidity which formerly bound their procedure and that of the Office in general. But provisions now exist which will undoubtedly as time goes on have a material effect on the activities of the Office as it is now constituted. A High Commissioner for India has been appointed for the purpose of taking over, as the direct agent of the Government of India, that portion of India Office functions which is of the nature of agency, as distinct from administrative supervision and control. The process of separation of staff and functions for the purpose of this transfer will necessarily be somewhat slow, but a substantial beginning has been made by handing over to the direct control of the High Commissioner the large departments which are concerned with the ordering and supply of stores and stationery in England for Government use in India, with the payment of pensions to retired members of Indian services resident in the United Kingdom, and with the assistance of

Indian students in England. Concurrently with this change, it is now possible to defray from British revenues the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, and that portion of the cost of salaries of India Office staff and general maintenance which is attributable to the exercise of its administrative as distinct from purely agency functions.

In due course the apportionment to British estimates will be the cost of the India Office as it exists after the transfer of functions to the High Commissioner has been completely effected; then the salaries of the High Commissioner and his staff will be the only expenses in the United Kingdom chargeable to Indian revenues. Until that time arrives, however, an estimate was the only basis for settlement, and for five years from 1920-21, the cost of the India Office payable from British revenues has been fixed at 136,500*l.*, which includes the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, and a contribution of 40,000*l.*, which has for some years been made by the Treasury towards Indian expenditure, as the result of the recommendations of the Welby Commission.

THE FUTURE.

The Act of 1919 and its provisions are essentially transitional. It is intended, not to set up a new and permanent constitution, but to make such changes in the law as will enable "the progressive realisation of responsible Government in British India, an integral part of the Empire." This feature of the Act was clearly expressed in its Preamble

but although the Preamble finds no place in the law as amended by the Act of 1919, that law now contains provision for the appointment, after a period of 10 years' trial of the law in its amended form, of a Parliamentary Commission "for the purpose of inquiring into the working of the system of government, the growth of education, and the development of representative institutions in British India, and matters connected therewith," and such a Commission, when appointed, is directed to "report as to whether it is desirable to establish the principle of responsible government, or to extend, modify, or restrict the degree of responsible government then existing" in British India. Had it been possible to legislate more exactly for a process of evolution, the Act would doubtless have provided for a series of such Commissions, as the

means of affording to Parliament criteria for determining "the time and manner of each advance" in "progress by successive stages" towards attainment of the "declared policy," of which the Preamble speaks. But it will be the task of a future Parliament to decide what changes, by further legislation or by amendment of the existing statutory rules, it is expedient to adopt in the light of the first Statutory Commission's enquiry; and in taking its decisions that Parliament will, in the main, be "guided" (as its predecessor of 1919 forecasted) "by the co-operation received from those on whom new opportunities for service" have been "conferred, and by the extent to which it is found that confidence can be reposed in their sense of responsibility."

PERSONNEL AND PROCEDURE.

The Governor-General and the "Executive" members of his Council are appointed by the Crown. No limit of time is specified for their tenure of office, but custom has fixed it at five years. There are seven Executive Members of Council. These Members hold respectively the portfolios of Education, Health and Lands; Home; Finance; Commerce; Industries and Labour; Law. The Viceroy acts as his own member in charge of Foreign affairs. Railways are administered by a Chief Commissioner, with the assistance of a Railway Board; and are for administrative purposes grouped under the aegis of the Commerce Department. The Commander-in-Chief may also be and in practice always is, an "extraordinary" member of the Council. He holds charge of the Army Department. The Governors of Madras, Bombay and Bengal become "extraordinary" members if the Council meets within their Presidencies. The Council may assemble at any place in India which the Governor-General appoints; in practice it meets only in Delhi and Simla.

In regard to his own Department each Member of Council is largely in the position of a Minister of State, and has the final voice in ordinary departmental matters. But any question of special importance, and any matter in which it is proposed to over-rule the views of a Local Government, must ordinarily be referred to the Viceroy. Any matter originating in one department which also affects another must be referred to the latter, and in the event of the Departments not being able to agree, the case is referred to the Viceroy. The Members of Council meet periodically as a Cabinet—ordinarily

once or twice a week—to discuss questions which the Viceroy desires to put before them, or which a member who has been over-ruled by the Viceroy has asked to be referred to Council. If there is a difference of opinion in the Council the decision of the majority ordinarily prevails, but the Viceroy can over-rule a majority if he considers that the matter is of such grave importance as to justify such a step. Each departmental office is in the subordinate charge of a Secretary, whose position corresponds very much to that of a permanent Under-Secretary of State in the United Kingdom, but with these differences—that the Secretary is present though does not speak, at Council meetings at which cases under his cognisance are discussed; that he attends on the Viceroy, usually once a week, and discusses with him all matters of importance arising in his Department; that he has the right of bringing to the Viceroy's special notice any case in which he considers that the Viceroy's concurrence should be obtained to action proposed by the Departmental Member of Council; and that his tenure of office is usually limited to three years. The Secretaries have under them Deputy, Under and Assistant Secretaries, together with the ordinary clerical establishments. The Secretaries and Under-Secretaries are often, though by no means exclusively, members of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of India has no Civil Service of its own as distinct from that of the Provincial Governments, and officers serving under the Government of India are borrowed from the Provinces, or, in the case of Specialists, recruited direct by contract.

THE DIVISION OF FUNCTIONS:

The keynote of the scheme is effective provincial autonomy and the establishment of an immediate measure of responsibility in the Province—all of which are raised to the status of Governors in Council. This demanded a sharp division between Imperial and Provincial functions. The following subjects are reserved to the Government of India, with the corollary that all others vest in the Provincial Governments:—

1. (a) Defence of India, and all matters connected with His Majesty's Naval, Military, and Air Forces in India, or with His Majesty's Indian Marine Service or with any other force

raised in India, other than military and armed police wholly maintained by local Governments.

(b) Naval and military works cantonments.

2. External relations, including naturalisation and aliens, and pilgrimages beyond India.

3. Relations with States in India.

4. Political charges.

5. Communications to the extent described under the following heads, namely:—

(a) railway and extra-municipal (ramways in so far as they are not classified as provincial subjects under entry 6 (d) of Part II of the Schedule;

(b) aircraft and all matters connected therewith; and

(c) inland waterways, to an extent to be declared by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature.

6. Shipping and navigation, including shipping and navigation on inland waterways in so far as declared to be a central subject in accordance with entry 5 (c).

7. Light-houses (including their approaches) beacons, lightships and buoys.

8. Port quarantine and marine hospitals.

9. Ports declared to be major ports by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature.

10. Posts, telegraph and telephones, including wireless installations.

11. Customs, cotton excise duties, income-tax, salt, and other sources of all-India revenues.

12. Currency and coinage.

13. Public debt of India.

14. Savings Banks.

15. The Indian Audit Department and excluded Audit Departments, as defined in rules framed under section 96-D (1) of the Act.

16. Civil law, including laws regarding status, property, civil rights and liabilities, and civil procedure.

17. Commerce, including banking and insurance.

18. Trading companies and other associations.

19. Control of production, supply and distribution of any articles in respect of which control by a central authority is declared by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature to be essential in the public interest.

20. Development of industries, in cases where such development by a central authority is declared by order of the Governor-General in Council, made after consultation with the local Government or local Governments concerned expedient in the public interest.

21. Control of cultivation and manufacture of opium, and sale of opium for export.

22. Stores and stationery, both imported and indigenous, required for Imperial Departments.

23. Control of petroleum and explosives.

24. Geological survey.

25. Control of mineral development, in so far as such control is reserved to the Governor-General in Council under rules made or sanctioned by the Secretary of State, and regulation of mines.

26. Botanical Survey.

27. Inventions and designs.

28. Copyright.

29. Emigration from, and immigration into, British India, and inter-provincial migration.

30. Criminal law, including criminal procedure.

31. Central police organisation.

32. Control of arms and ammunition.

33. Central agencies and institutions for research (including observatories), and for professional or technical training or promotion of special studies.

34. Ecclesiastical administration, including European cemeteries.

35. Survey of India.

36. Archaeology.

37. Zoological Survey.

38. Meteorology.

39. Census and statistics.

40. All-India services.

41. Legislation in regard to any provincial subject in so far as such subject is in Part II of this Schedule stated to be subject to legislation by the Indian legislature, and any powers relating to such subject reserved by legislation to the Governor-General in Council.

42. Territorial changes, other than inter-provincial, and declaration of law in connection therewith.

43. Regulation of ceremonial, titles, orders, precedence, and civil uniform.

44. Immovable property acquired by, and maintained at the cost, of the Governor-General in Council.

45. The Public Service Commission.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

VICEROY AND GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA:

His Excellency the Right Hon. RUFUS DANIEL ISAACS, Earl of Reading, P.C., G.C.B., G.M.S.I., G.M.I.E., G.C.V.O., K.C.V.O., assumed charge of office, 3rd April, 1921.

PERSONAL STAFF OF THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

Private Secretary.—Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency, K.C.V.O., C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S.

Asst. Private Secretary.—Capt. C. P. Hancock, M.C.

Military Secretary.—Col. B. D. Worgan, C.S.I., C.V.O., D.S.O.

Comptroller of the Household.—Maj. W. W. Muir, M.V.O., O.B.E., 15th Sikhs.

Aides-de-Camp.—Capt. R. Burton, G.O.'s (Res. of Offr.); Capt. H. L. Mostyn-Owen, 19th K.G.O. Lrs. (Extr.); Capt. J. F. B. Combe, (11th Hussars) (Prince Alberts); Capt. D. B. Daly, (Royal Horse Guards, The Blues); Subadar-Major (Hon. Lt.) Dalpat Singh, Sardar Bahadur, I.O.M., 9th Jat R.; Subadar-Major (Hony. Lt.) Gulab Shah, Bahadur, 10th Baluch Regt.

Honorary Aides-de-Camp.—Lt.-Col. G. E. Llewellyn, V.D., Bihar L.H.; Lt.-Col. T. F. Gavin-Jones, late 7th U. P. Horse; Lt.-Col. P. R. Cadell, C.S.I., C.I.E., V.D., late 15th Bo. Bn.; Lt.-Col. R. St. J. Hickman, C.I.E., V.D., Surma V. L. H.; Capt. E. J. Headlam, C.M.G., D.S.O., R. I. M.; Lt.-Col. S. S. G. Tulloch, V.D., B. N. Ry. R.; Col. A. H. Morin, D.S.O., V.D., S. Prov. M. Rif.; Lt.-Col. R. R. Will, D.S.O., V.D., IV Bde, R. A. (A. F. I.); Col. (Hon. Brig.-Genl.) G. L. Colvin, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., E. I. Ry. R. (A. F. I.); Lt.-Col. F. H. T. Buchanan, V.D., Tenn'm Bn. (A. F. I.); Col. F. A. Hadow, C.V.O., N. W. Ry. R. (A. F. I.); Risaldar-Major Jafar Husain, H. E. the Govr.-Genl.'s Body Guard; Nawab Osman Yar-ud-Dowla, Bahadur, Major and Commander of H. F. H. the Nizam's Regular Forces; Sardar Bahadur Lt.-Col. B. Chamaraj Urs, Chief Commandant, Mysore State Forces; Sardar Bahadur Sardar Pooran Singh, C.I.E.,

Major-General, Kapurthala State Forces; Lt. Mehr Mahomed Khan, C.I.E., O.B.E., Bahadur, Major-General, in the Maler Kotla State Forces; Lt.-Col. Nawabzada Haji Muhammad Hamidulla Khan, C.S.I., C.V.O., Bhopal State Forces; Risaldar-Maj. (Hony. Capt.) Abdul Aziz, Sardar Bahadur, late 5th Cav.; Subadar-Major (Hony. Capt.) Madho Singh Rana, Sardar Bahadur, late 4th G. R.; Risaldar-Major (Hony. Capt.) Abdul Karim Khan, Sardar Bahadur, late Govr.-Genl.'s Body-Guard; Subdr.-Maj. (Hony. Capt.) Mit Singh, I.O.M., Sardar Bahadur, late 53rd Sikhs; Risaldar Maj. Karm Singh, I.D.S.M., Bahadur, late 13th Lrs.; Risaldar-Maj. (Hony. Capt.) Muhiud-din Khan, C.I.E., I.D.S.M., Sardar Bahadur, late 31st Lancers.

Surgeon.—Lt.-Col. J. Norman Walker, I.M.S.

Commandant of Body Guard.—Major E. G. Atkinson.

Ordinary Members—

COUNCIL.

H. E. Lord Rawlinson, G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.V.O., K.C.M.G., Commander-in-Chief in India (Army), (on leave).

General Sir William R. Birdwood, K.C.B., K.C.S.I., K.C.M.G. (*Officialing*).

Khan Bahadur Sir Mahomed Habibullah Sahab Bahadur, K.C.I.E. (Education Health and Lands).

Sir Bayya Narasimheswara Sarma, K.C.S.I., (Law).

Sir Charles Innes, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S. (Railways, Commerce and Ecclesiastical).

Sir Basil Blackett, K.C.B. (Finance).

Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, M.A., K.C.I.E., C.B.E. (Industries and Labour).

Sir Alexander Muddiman, Kt., C.S.I., C.I.E.

SECRETARIAT.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, HEALTH AND LANDS.

Secretary, J. W. Blore, C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S.

Deputy Secretary, R. B. Ewbank, C.I.E., I.C.S., (*on deputation*).

Deputy Secretary (offg.), G. S. Bajpai, C.B.E., I.C.S.

Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, J. A. Richey, C.I.E., M.A.

Inspector-General of Forests, Sir Peter Cluttbuck, Kt., C.I.E.

Under Secretary, (*offg.*), M. S. A. Hydari.

Registrar, Rai Bahadur M. N. Chakrabarti.

Superintendents, T. McDonnell, G. E. Jackson,

Rai Sahib L.M. Roy, L.H.C. Walker (*offg.*),

M. H. Lincoln (*on leave*), J. H. Green (*on leave*),

E. B. Hughes (*offg.*), G. B. Dass (*offg.*).

FINANCE DEPARTMENT.

Secretary, A. C. McWatters, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Deputy Secretary, A. Macleod, I.C.S.

Under Secretary, P. R. Rau, M.A.

Assistant Secretaries, S. V. Aiyer, Sital Singh, M.A.

Superintendents, G. J. Piper, V. K. Menon, Rai

Sahib C. N. Chakraborty, Shah Mohammad, M.A., H. Shankar Rau.

Controller of the Currency, H. Denning, I.C.S. (*on leave*).

Controller of the Currency (offg.), A. V. V. Aiyer, C.I.E.

Accountant General, Central Revenues (offg.), N. V. Raghavan, B.A.

Auditor General, Sir Frederic Gauntlett, K.B.E., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Officers on Special Duty, J. E. C. Jukes, C.I.E., M. K. Mitra, T. K. Rajagopalan.

CENTRAL BOARD OF REVENUE.

Members, The Honble Mr. A. R. L. Tottenham, I.C.S. and A. H. Lloyd, I.C.S.

Secretary, V. S. Sundaram.

MILITARY FINANCE BRANCH.

Financial Adviser, A. F. L. Brayne, C.I.E., I.C.S., (*offg.*).

Deputy Financial Advisers, Mr. M. R. Coburn, O.B.E., (*on leave*), Lt.-Col. A. G. Murray, I.A.

Lt.-Col. W. V. Richards, I.A., Lt.-Col. S. G. V. Ellis, D.S.O., I.A., Lt.-Col. R. Prince, O.B.E.

I.A.

Assistant Financial Advisers, F. J. Woolmer, H. T. Macdonald, M.B.E., R. T. Waugh, Rai Sahib K. C. Maulik, B.A., H. D. Banerjee, Rai Sahib H. S. Kaisth.

Superintendents, A. K. Ghosh, B.A. (on leave), Gauri Shankar, B.A., (on leave), A. J. Mendes, F. W. Reed, J. L. Hope, A. T. Banerjee.

FOREIGN AND POLITICAL DEPARTMENT.

Secretary, Political, The Hon'ble Mr. J. P. Thompson, C.S.I.

Secretary, Foreign, Denys de S. Bray, C.S.I., C.I.E., C.B.E.

Deputy Secretary, Political, Major G. D. Ogilvy.

Deputy Secretary, Foreign, C. Latimer, C.I.E.

Under Secretary, Major G.V.B. Gillan.

Assistant Secretary, E. Bertram Higgs, M.B.E.

Registrar, C. W. Kirkpatrick, M.B.E.

Attache, Khan Sahib Inam-ul-Huk.

Military Adviser-in-Chief, Indian State Forces, Major General B. A. Fagan, C.B., C.S.I., C.M.G., D.S.O.

Technical Adviser for Signalling, Major L. Griffith, D.S.O.

Superintendents, J.W.S. Inglis, F.S. Hosley, C.H. Harcourt, J.W. Edmondson, M. Smith, G.M. Coates, J.R. Rodgers, G.G. Bladen-Taylor, R.S. Budd, A.C. Seally.

HOME DEPARTMENT.

Secretary, The Hon'ble Mr. J. Crear, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Joint Secretary, H. Tonkinson, C.I.E.

Deputy Secretary, T. Sloan, I.C.S.

Additional Deputy Secretary, C. W. Jacob, I.C.S.

Officer on Special Duty, H. G. Baig, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Under Secretary, T.C.S. Jayaratnam, I.C.S.

Assistant Secretaries, E.H. Brandon, U.C. Stuart, Rao Sahib K.P. Anantan.

Superintendents, T.P. Roy, J.C. McDermott, W.D. Almeida, Narendra Nath Banerjee, B.H.T. Ward.

DIRECTOR, PUBLIC INFORMATION.

Director, Prof. L.F. Kustbrook Williams, C.B.E.

Assistant Director, R. S. Bajpai, O.B.E., Barrister-at-Law.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIES AND LABOUR.

Secretary, The Hon'ble Mr. A. H. Ley, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Deputy Secretary, J. C. B. Drake, O.B.E., I.C.S.

Under Secretary, A. G. Clow, I.C.S.

Assistant Secretary, Rai Bahadur J. P. Ganguli.

Deputy Secretaries, (Public Works Branch), D. G. Harris and W. G. Dollman.

Consulting Engineer to the Government of India, F. St. J. Cobble, C.I.E., M.I.E. (Ind).

Superintendents, L. Bloemink, W. R. Chambers, Rai Sahib Atanu Mohan Banerjee, Rai Sahib Nihalchand, B.A., (Temporary).

Superintendents, R. S. D'Arcy (on Deputation), Rai Sahib S. K. Banerjee, Rai Sahib H. I. Chibber, Gauri Shankar, Dipchand, C. A. B. Watts.

Superintending Engineer, Simla, Imp. Civil and ex-officio Under Secretary, A. Brenner, C.I.E.

POST AND TELEGRAPH DEPARTMENT.

Director-General, G. R. Clarke, C.S.I., O.B.E., I.C.S.

(RAILWAY BOARD.) RAILWAY DEPARTMENT.

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Members, P. C. Sheridan, C.M.G. and F. A. Hadow, C.V.O.

Financial Commissioner, G. G. Sim, C.I.E., I.C.S. (on leave).

Financial Commissioner, (offg.), A. A. L. Parsons, I.C.S.

Director, Civil Engineer, F. W. Allum, C.B.E.

Director, Mechanical Engineer, A. S. Chase, O.B.E.

Secretary, S. C. Tomkins.

Deputy Director, Establishment, B. Stanley.

Deputy Director, Projects, P. H. Maffin, O.B.E.

Deputy Director, Statistics, Major F. H. Buddon, M.C., R.E.

Deputy Director, Stores, A. F. Harvey.

Deputy Director, Traffic, S. D. Manson.

Deputy Director, Way and Works, Muzaffer Husain.

Assistant Director, Technical, K. C. De.

Assistant Secretary, R. Thomas.

Special Officer, A. M. Hayman.

Superintendents, H. Colin Campbell, A. G. Saldanha, V. G. Gadgil, Rai Sahib A. I. Misra, W. S. Wood, Khan Sahib Barkat Ali, C. H. L. Harvey.

LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT.

Secretary, K. Graham, C.I.E., I.C.S. (acting).

Joint Secretary and Draftsman, W. T. M. Wright, I.C.S.

Additional Joint Secretary L. Graham, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Additional Joint Secretary, (offg.), S. C. Gupta, Barrister-at-law.

Deputy Secretary (offg.), G. H. Spence, I.C.S.

Secretary to the Government of India, (on leave) Lt.-Col. R. W. L. Dunlop, C.I.E., D.S.O.

Offg. Solicitor to the Government of India, S. W. B. Johnson.

Offg. Assistant Solicitor, S. N. Mushran, M.A., Barrister-at-law.

Attaches, F. L. Grille, I.C.S., and A. de E. Williams, I.C.S.

Registrar, C. H. F. Pereira.

Superintendents, D. D. Baird, D. Dutt, F. A. Thorpe and A. W. Chick, (Officialing).

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

Secretary, The Hon. Mr. D. T. Chadwick, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Joint Secretary, G. L. Corbett, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Assistant Secretary, E. F. Rogers (on leave).

Assistant Secretary, Rai Bahadur S. N. Banerjee.

Offg. Asst. Secretary, Rai Sahib L. Sen, B.A.

Superintendents, K. D. Banerji, S. T. Sealy, (Offg.) Lathi Prasad, B.A., (Offg.).

NORTHERN INDIA SALT REVENUE.

Commissioner, J. C. Ferguson.

SURVEY DEPARTMENT.

Surveyor-General of India, Col. C. H. D. Ryder, C.B., C.I.E., D.S.O., R.E., (on leave). Col. E. A. Taudy, R.E., (Offg.).

GEOLOGICAL SURVEY.

Director, E. H. Pascoe, M.A., F.G.S.

Superintendents, E. Vredenburg, B.Sc., F.G.S.; G. H. Tipper, M.A.; G. de P. Cotter, B.A.; J. C. Brown, O.B.E., D.Sc., H. Walker, A.R.C.S., F.G.S., and G. E. Pilgrim, D.Sc.

Chemist, W. A. K. Christie, B.Sc.; Ph.D.

BOTANICAL SURVEY.

Director, Lt.-Col. A. T. Gage, M.B., I.M.S. (on leave); C. C. Calder, B.Sc. (Agr.), F.G.S., (Offg.); Economic Botanist, Madras, F. R. Parnell; Economic Botanist, Bombay, W. Burns, B.Sc.; Economic Botanist, United Provinces, H. M. Leake, M.A., F.L.S.; Systematic Assistant, V. Narayanasawami, B.A.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY.

Director-General of Archaeology, Sir J. H. Marshall, M.A., C.I.E.; Deputy Director-General; D. E. Spooner, Superintendent, Western Circle, Rakhal Das Banerjee, M.A.; Superintendent, Southern Circle, A. H. Longhurst; Superintendent, Northern Circle, Daya Ram Sahni; Superintendent, Central Circle, J. A. Page; Superintendent, Burma, C. Durosselle, I.S.O.; Superintendent, Frontier Circle, H. Hargreaves.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director-General, Indian Medical Service, The Hon. Major-General R. C. MacWatt, C.I.E., M.B., F.R.C.S., K.H.S.

Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India, Lieut.-Col. F. H. G. Hutchinson, L.M. & S. (on leave), Lt.-Col. T. D. Graham, C.I.E., I.M.S., (Offg.).

Deputy Director-General, Indian Medical Service, Lt.-Col. R. A. Needham, C.I.E., I.M.S.

Asst. Director-General, Indian Medical Service (Sany.), Capt. J. N. Shah, M.B.E., I.M.S. (Stores), Major G. G. Hirst, I.M.S.

Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli, Lt.-Col. W. F. Harvey, M.A., M.B., D.P.H., I.M.S.

Assistants to Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli, Lt.-Colonel S. R. Christophers, C.I.E., I.M.S., Major F. W. Cragg and Major H. H. King, I.M.S.

Director-General of Indian Observatories, Dr. G. T. Walker, C.S.I., M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S.

Imperial Meteorologist, C. W. B. Normand.

Director, Kodaikanal and Madras Observatories, T. Royds, D.Sc.

Director, Bombay Observatory, S. K. Banerji, D.Sc.

Meteorologist, Atrological Observatory, Agra, G. Clatterjee, M.Sc.

Secretary, Board of Examiners, Lieut.-Colonel C. L. Peart, I.A.

Librarian, Imperial Library, Calcutta, Chapman (on leave); A. F. M. Abdul Ali, M.A., (Offg.).

Agricultural Adviser and Director of the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, S. Milligan, M.A., B.Sc.

Director, Zoological Survey of India, Indian Museum,—Vacant.

Controller of Printing, Stationery and Stamps, M. J. Cogswell (on leave); F. D. Ascott, I.C.S., (Offg.).

Superintendent of Government Printing, J. J. Melkie, O.B.E., V.D.

Director, Central Intelligence, D. Petrie, C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E.

Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, C. G. Freke, I.C.S.

Director of Statistics, Rai Bahadur D. N. Ghosh, F.R.S., F.R.G.S.

Controller of Patents and Designs, H. G. Graves.

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF FORT WILLIAM IN BENGAL.

Name	Assumed charge of office,
Warren Hastings ..	20 Oct. 1774
Sir John Macpherson, Bart. ..	8 Feb. 1785
Earl Cornwallis, K. G. (a) ..	12 Sep. 1786
Sir John Shore, Bart. (b) ..	23 Oct. 1793
a) Created Marquess Cornwallis, 15 Aug. 1792	

Lieut.-General the Hon. Sir Alured Clarke, K.C.B. (offg.) ..	17 March 1798
The Earl of Mornington, P.C. (c) ..	18 May 1798
The Marquis Cornwallis, K. G. (2nd time) ..	30 July 1805
Captain L. A. P. Anderson, Sir George H. Barlow, Bart. ..	10 Oct. 1805
Lord Minto, P.C. (d) ..	31 July 1807
The Earl of Minto, K.G., P.C. (e) ..	4 Oct. 1813
John Adam (offg.) ..	13 Jan. 1823
Lord Amherst, P.C. (f) ..	1 Aug. 1823
William Butterworth Bayley (offg.) ..	13 Mar. 1828
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck, G.C.B., G.C.H., P.C. ..	4 July 1828
(c) Created Marquess Wellesley, 2 Dec. 1799	
(d) Created Earl of Minto, 24 Feb. 1813.	
(e) Created Marquess of Hastings, 2 Dec. 1816.	
(f) Created Earl Amherst, 2 Dec. 1826.	

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA.

Name.	Assumed charge of office.
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck, G.C.B., G.C.H., P.C. ..	14 Nov. 1834
Sir Charles Metcalfe, Bart. (a) (offg.) ..	20 March 1835
Lord Auckland, G.C.B., P.C. (b) ..	4 March 1836
Lord Ellenborough, P.C. (c) ..	28 Feb. 1842
William Wilberforce Bird (offg.) ..	15 June 1844
The Right Hon. Sir Henry Hardinge, G.C.B. (d) ..	23 July 1844
The Earl of Dalhousie, P.C. (e) ..	12 Jan. 1848
Viscount Canning, P.C. (f) ..	29 Feb. 1856
(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Metcalfe.	
(b) Created Earl of Auckland, 21 Dec., 1839	
(c) Afterwards (by creation) Earl of Ellenborough.	
(d) Created Viscount Hardinge, 2 May 1846.	
(e) Created Marquess of Dalhousie, 25 Aug. 1849	
(f) Afterwards (by creation) Earl Canning.	

NOTE.—The Governor-General ceased to be the direct Head of the Bengal Government from the 1st May, 1854, when the first Lieutenant-Governor assumed office. On 1st April, 1912, Bengal was placed under a separate Governor and the appointment of Lieutenant-Governor was abolished.

VICEROYS AND GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA.

Name.	Assumed charge of office.
Viscount Canning, P.C. (a) ..	1 Nov. 1858
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, K.T., G.C.B., P.C. ..	12 March 1862
Major-General Sir Robert Napier, K.C.B. (b) (offg.) ..	21 Nov. 1863
Colonel Sir William T. Denison, K.C.B. (offg.) ..	2 Dec. 1863
The Right Hon. Sir John Lawrence, Bart., G.C.B., K.C.S.I. (c) ..	12 Jan. 1864
The Earl of Mayo, K.P. ..	12 Jan. 1869
John Strachey (d) (offg.) ..	9 Feb. 1872
Lord Napier of Merchistoun, K. T. (e) (offg.) ..	23 Feb. 1872
Lord Northbrook, P.C. (f) ..	3 May 1872
Lord Lytton, G.C.B. (g) ..	12 Apl. 1876
The Marquess of Ripon, K.G., P.C. ..	8 June 1880
The Earl of Dufferin, K.P., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., P.C. (h) ..	13 Dec. 1884
The Marquess of Lansdowne, G. C. M. G. ..	10 Dec. 1888
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, P.C. ..	27 Jan. 1894
Baron Curzon of Kedleston, P.C. ..	6 Jan. 1899
Baron Ampthill (offg.) ..	30 Apl. 1904
Baron Curzon of Kedleston P.C. (i) ..	13 Dec. 1904
The Earl of Minto, K. G., P. C., G. C. M. G. ..	18 Nov. 1905
Baron Hardinge of Penshurst, P.C., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., I.S.O. (j) ..	23 Nov. 1910
Lord Chelmsford ..	.. Apl. 1916
Lord Reading ..	.. Apl. 1921
(a) Created Earl Canning, 21 May 1859.	
(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Magdala.	
(c) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Lawrence.	
(d) Afterwards Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I., C.I.E.	
(e) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Ettrick.	
(f) Afterwards (by creation) Earl of Northbrook.	
(g) Created Earl of Lytton, 28 April 1880.	
(h) Created Marquis of Dufferin and Ava 12 Nov. 1888.	
(i) Created an Earl ..	June 1911
(j) During tenure of office, the Viceroy is Grand Master and First and Principal Knight of the two Indian Orders (G.M.S.I. and G.M.I.E.). On quitting office, he becomes G.C.S.I. and G.O.I.E., with the date of his assumption of the Viceroyalty.	

The Imperial Legislatures.

The gradual evolution of the Indian constitution is fully traced in the article on "The Government of India," which precedes this; so also are the great changes made by the Reform Act of 1919. For the purposes of easy reference the powers of the Legislatures, as well as the special powers reserved to the Governor-General for the discharge of his responsibilities, which are fully set out in the Act, are reproduced below:—

21. (1) Every Council of States shall continue for five years, and every Legislative Assembly for three years, from its first meeting:

Provided that—

(a) either chamber of the legislature may be sooner dissolved by the Governor-General and

(b) any such period may be extended by the Governor-General if in special circumstances, he so thinks fit; and

(c) after the dissolution of either chamber the Governor-General shall appoint a date not more than six months, or with the sanction of the Secretary of State, not more than nine months after the date of dissolution for the next session of that chamber.

22. (1) An official shall not be qualified for election as a member of either chamber of the Indian legislature, and, if any non-official member of either chamber accepts office in the service of the Crown in India his seat in that chamber shall become vacant.

(4) Every member of the Governor-General's Executive Council shall be nominated as a member of one chamber of the Indian legislature, and shall have the right of attending in and addressing the other chamber, but shall not be a member of both chambers.

24. (3) If any Bill which has been passed by one chamber is not, within six months after the passage of the Bill by that chamber, passed by the other chamber either without amendments or with such amendments as may be agreed to by the two chambers, the Governor-General may in his discretion refer the matter for decision to a joint sitting of both chambers. Provided that standing orders made under this section may provide for meetings of members of both chambers appointed for the purpose, in order to discuss any difference of opinion which has arisen between the two chambers.

(4) Without prejudice to the powers of the Governor-General under section sixty-eight of the principal Act, the Governor-General may where a Bill has been passed by both chambers of the Indian legislature, return the Bill for reconsideration by either chambers.

(7) Subject to the rules and standing orders affecting the chamber, there shall be freedom of speech in both chambers of the Indian legislature. No person shall be liable to any proceeding in any court by reason of his speech or vote in either chamber, or by reason of anything contained in any official report of the proceedings of either chamber.

25. INDIAN BUDGET:—(1) The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the Governor-General in Council shall be laid in the form of a statement before both chambers of the

(2) No proposal for the appropriation of any revenue or moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the Governor-General.

(3) The proposals of the Governor-General in Council for the appropriation of revenue or moneys relating to the following heads of expenditure shall not be submitted to the vote of the legislative assembly, nor shall they be open to discussion by either chamber at the time when the annual statement is under consideration, unless the Governor-General otherwise directs—

(i) interest and sinking fund charges on loans; and

(ii) expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law; and

(iii) salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty or by the Secretary of State in Council; and

(iv) salaries of chief commissioners and judicial commissioners; and

(e) expenditure classified by the order of the Governor-General in Council as—

(a) ecclesiastical;

(b) political;

(c) defence.

(4) If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of revenue or moneys, does or does not relate to the above heads the decision of the Governor-General on the question shall be final.

(5) The proposals of the Governor-General in Council for the appropriation of revenue or moneys relating to heads or expenditure not specified in the above heads shall be submitted to the vote of the legislative assembly in the form of demands for grants.

(6) The legislative assembly may assent or refuse its assent to any demand or may reduce the amount referred to in any demand by a reduction of the whole grant.

(7) The demands as voted by the legislative assembly shall be submitted to the Governor-General in Council, who shall, if he declares that he is satisfied that any demand which has been refused by the legislative assembly is essential to the discharge of his responsibilities, act as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the reduction of the amount therein referred to, by the legislative assembly.

(8) Notwithstanding anything in this section the Governor-General shall have power, in cases of emergency, to authorise such expenditure as may, in his opinion, be necessary for the safety or tranquillity of British India or any part thereof.

26. EMERGENCY POWERS:—(1) Where either chamber of the Indian legislature refuses leave to introduce or fails to pass in a form recommended by the Governor-General any Bill, the Governor-General may certify that the passage of the Bill is essential for the safety, tranquillity or interests of British India or any part thereof, and thereupon—

(a) if the Bill has already been passed by the other chamber, the Bill shall, on signature by the Governor-General, notwithstanding that it has not been consented to by both chambers, forthwith become an Act of the Indian legislature in the form of the Bill as originally introduced or proposed to be introduced.

may be) in the form recommended by the Governor-General; and

(b) if the Bill has not already been so passed, the Bill shall be laid before the other chamber, and, if consented to by that chamber in the form recommended by the Governor-General, shall become an Act as aforesaid on the signification of the Governor-General's assent, or, if not so consented to, shall, on signature by the Governor-General, become an Act as aforesaid.

(2) Every such Act shall be expressed to be made by the Governor-General and shall, as soon as practicable after being made, be laid before both Houses of Parliament, and shall not have effect until it has received His Majesty's assent, and shall not be presented for His Majesty's assent until copies thereof have been laid before each House of Parliament for not less than eight days on which that House has sat; and upon the signification of such assent by His Majesty in Council and the notification thereof by the Governor-General, the Act shall have the same force and effect as an Act passed by the Indian legislature and duly assented to:

Provided that, where in the opinion of the Governor-General a state of emergency exists which justifies such action, the Governor-General may direct that any such Act shall come into operation forthwith, and thereupon the Act shall have such force and effect as

aforesaid, subject, however, to disallowance by His Majesty in Council.

27. SUPPLEMENTAL PROVISIONS:—(1) In addition to the measures referred to in sub-section (2) of section sixty-seven of the principal Act, as requiring the previous sanction of the Governor-General it shall not be lawful without such previous sanction to introduce at any meeting of either chamber of the Indian legislature any measure—

(a) regulating any provincial subject, or any part of a provincial subject, which has not been declared by rules under the principal Act to be subject to legislation by the Indian legislature;

(b) repealing or amending any Act of a local legislature;

(c) repealing or amending any Act or ordinance made by the Governor-General.

(2) Where in either chamber of the Indian legislature any Bill has been introduced or is proposed to be introduced, or any amendment to a Bill is moved, or proposed to be moved, the Governor-General may certify that the Bill or any clause of it, or the amendment affects the safety or tranquillity of British India, or any part thereof, and may direct that no proceedings, or that no further proceedings, shall be taken by the chamber in relation to the Bill, cause, or amendment and effect shall be given to such direction.

THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.

President:—The Honourable Sir Alexander Frederick Whyte, Kt.
A.—ELECTED MEMBERS (104).

Constituency.	Name.
Madras City (Non-Muhammadan Urban).	Diwan Bahadur Tiruvankata Rangachariar.
Ganjam cum Vizagapatam (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Bhupatiraju Venkatapitiraju.
Godavari cum Kistna (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Diwan Bahadur Mocherla Ramachandra Rao Pantulu Garu.
Guntur cum Nellore (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Kakutur Venkataramanareddi Garu.
Madras ceded districts and Chittoor (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Chetluru Doraiswamy Ayyangar.
Salem and Colibatore cum North Arcot (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. R. K. Shanmukham Chetty.
South Arcot cum Chingleput (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. M. K. Acharya.
Tanjore cum Trichinopoly (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. A. Rangaswami Iyengar.
Madura and Ramnad cum Tinnevely (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Krishna Aiyangar Rama Aiyangar.
West Coast and Nilgiris (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. K. Sadasiva Bhat, Ayl.
North Madras (Muhammadan).	Haji Syed Abdul Khader Saheb Jeelani.

Constituency.	Name.
South Madras (Muhammadan)	Moulvi Sayyid Murtuza Saheb Bahadur.
West Coast and Nilgiris (Muhammadan).	Mr. Mahmood Schamnad Saheb Bahadur.
Madras (European)	Sir Gordon Fraser, Kt.
Madras Landholders	Mr. Kunhi Kammaran Nambiyar Chandroti Koodali Thazheteveetli.
Madras Indian Commerce	Sir M. C. T. M. Chettiyar, Kt.
Bombay City (Non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Mr. Vithalbhai Javerbhai Patil.
Ditto.	Mr. Nowroji Maneckji Dumasia.
Sind (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr. Harchandrai Vishindas, C.I.E.
Bombay Northern Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Jamnadas M. Mehta.
Bombay Southern Division (Muhammadan Rural).	Sardar Mahboob Ali Khan Mohammad Akba Khan.
Bombay Central Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Narsinha Chintaman Kelkar.
Ditto.	Mr. Krishnaji Govind Lohokare.
Bombay Southern Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Dattatraya Venkatesh Belvi.
Bombay City (Muhammadan Urban)	Mr. Mahomed Ali Jinnah.
Sind (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr. Ghulam Mahomed Khan Wallimohamed Khan Bhurgri.
Bombay Northern Division (Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Mahomed Ebrahim Makan.
Bombay (European)	Mr. E. F. Sykes, M.I.C.E.
Ditto.	Mr. Hugh Golding Cocks.
The Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau (Indian Commerce).	Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E., M.B.
Gujarat and Deccan Sardars and Inamdars (Landholders).	Sardar Vishnu Narayan Mutalik.
The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association (Indian Commerce).	Sheth Kasturbhai Lalbhai.
Calcutta (Non-Muhammadan Urban)	Mr. Bepin Chandra Pal.
Calcutta Suburbs (Non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Mr. Tulsi Chandra Goswami.
Burdwan Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Amarnath Dutt.
Presidency Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Bhabendra Chandra Roy.
Dacca Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Kshitish Chandra Neogy.
Chittagong and Rajshahi Divisions (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Kumar Sankar Ray.
Calcutta and Suburbs (Muhammadan Urban) ..	Mr. Yacoub C. Arif.
Burdwan and Presidency Divisions (Muhammadan Rural).	Khan Bahadur Mohammad Shams-uz-Zoha.
Dacca Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr. Alimuzzaman Chaudhuri.
Do. do.	Khawaja Abdul Karim.
Chittagong Division (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Muhammad Kazim Ali.
Rajshahi Division (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Kabeerud-Din Ahmed.

Constituency.	Name.
Bengal (European)	Sir Campbell Ward Rhodes, Kt., C.B.E.
Do.	Mr. Darcy Lindsay, O.B.E.
Do.	Mr. G. Pilcher.
Bengal Landholders	Mr. Surendra Chandra Ghose.
Marwari Association (Indian Commerce) ..	Mr. Rang Lal Jajodia.
Cities of the United Provinces (Non-Muhammadian Urban).	Pandit Motilal Nehru.
Meerut Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Pandit Sham Lal Nehru.
Agra Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Mr. Narayan Das.
Rohilkund and Kumaon Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural).	Mr. C. S. Ranga Iyer.
Allahabad and Jansi Divisions (Non-Muhammadian Rural).	Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya.
Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions (Non-Muhammadian Rural).	Pandit Krishna Kant Malaviya.
Lucknow Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural) ..	Pandit Harkaran Nath Misrah.
Fyzabad Division (Non-Muhammadian Rural).	Dr. Kishan Lal Nehru.
Cities of the United Provinces (Muhammadian Urban).	Haji Wajihuddin.
Meerut Division (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Nawab Ismail Khan.
Agra Division (Muhammadian Rural)	Dr. Lodhi Karim Hyder.
Rohilkund and Kumaon Divisions (Muhammadian Rural).	Maulvi Muhammad Yaqub.
United Provinces Southern Divisions (Muhammadian Rural).	Mr. Yusuf Imam.
Lucknow and Fyzabad Divisions (Muhammadian Rural).	Shaikh Mushir Hosain Kidwai.
United Provinces (European)	Colonel Sir Henry John Ludlam Stanyon, Kt., C.I.E., V.D.
United Provinces Landholders	Raja Amarpal Singh, M.B.E.
Ambala Division (Non-Muhammadian)	Lala Dunichand.
Jullundur Division (Non-Muhammadian) ..	Lala Hans Raj.
West Punjab (Non-Muhammadian)	Mr. Chaman Lal.
East Punjab (Muhammadian)	Mr. Abdul Haye.
East Central Punjab (Muhammadian)	Shelkh Sadib Hasan.
West Central Punjab (Muhammadian)	Khan Sahib Ghulam Bari.
North Punjab (Muhammadian)	Chaudhri Baawal Baksh.
North-West Punjab (Muhammadian)	Sayyad Ghulam Abbas.
South-West Punjab (Muhammadian)	Makludum Syed Rajan Bakhsh Shah.
East Punjab (Sikh)	Sardar Kartar Singh.
West Punjab (Sikh)	Sardar Gulab Singh.
Punjab Landholders	Baba Ujagar Singh Bedi.
Tirhut Division (Non-Muhammadian)	Mr. Shayama Charan.
Do. do.	Mr. Gaya Prasad Singh.

Province or body represented.	Name.
Orissa Division (Non-Muhammadian)	Mr. Nilkantha Das.
Do. do.	Mr. Bhubanananda Das.
Patna cum Shahabad (Non-Muhammadian) ..	Mr. Ambika Prasad Sinha.
Gaya cum Monghyr (Non-Muhammadian) ..	Rai Hari Prasad Lal.
Bhagalpur, Purnea and the Santhal Parganas (Non-Muhammadian).	Mr. Ganganand Sinha.
Chota Nagpur Division (Non-Muhammadian) ..	Mr. Devaki Prasad Sinha.
Patna and Chota Nagpur cum Orissa (Muhammadian).	Khan Bahadur Sarfaraz Husain Khan.
Bhagalpur Division (Muhammadian)	Moulvi Main Asjad-ul-lah.
Tirhut Division (Muhammadian)	Maulvi Muhammad Shafae.
Bihar and Orissa Landholders	Raja Raghunandan Prasad Singh.
Nagpur Division (Non-Muhammadian)	Mr. M. V. Abhyankar.
Central Provinces Hindi Divisions (Non-Muhammadian).	Dr. H. S. Gour.
Do. do.	Mr. Sambhu Dayal Misra.
Central Provinces (Muhammadian)	Mr. M. Samiullah Khan.
Central Provinces Landholders	Seth Govind Das.
Assam Valley (Non-Muhammadian)	Sriji Tarun Ram Phookun.
Surma Valley cum Shillong (Non-Muhammadian)	Mr. Kamini Kumar Chanda.
Assam (Muhammadian)	Mr. Ahmad Ali Khan.
Assam (European)	Mr. Eustace Joseph.
Burma (Non-European)	Maung Tok Kyi.
Do. do.	Maung Kun.
Do. do.	Maung Ba Si.
Burma (European)	Mr. Edward Gibson Fleming.
Delhi (General)	Mr. Piyare Lal.
Ajmer-Merwara (General)	Rai Sahib M. Harbilas Sarda.
Marshall	Capt. Suraj Singh Bahadur, I.O.M.
B.—NOMINATED MEMBERS (EXCLUDING THE PRESIDENT) (40).	
OFFICIAL MEMBERS (25)	
Government of India	The Honourable Sir Alexander Muddiman, Kt., C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do.	The Honourable Sir Charles Innes, K.C.S.I.; C.I.E.
Do.	The Honourable Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, K.C.I.E., C.D.E.
Do.	The Honourable Sir Basil Phillott Blackett, K.C.B.
Do.	Mr. Ernest Burdon, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. Evelyn Berkeley Howell, C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. Alfred Alan Lethbridge Parsons.
Do.	Mr. Geoffrey Rothe Clarke, C.S.I., O.B.E.
Do.	Mr. Alexander Robert Loftus Tottenham.
Do.	Mr. James Alexander Richey, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. Laurence Frederic Rushbrook Williams, C.B.E.
Madras	Mr. Thomas Eyebrow Moir, C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. Julius Matheson Turing.

Province or body represented.	Name.
Bombay	Mr. Phillip Edward Percival.
Do.	Mr. R. D. Bell, C.I.E., I.C.S.
Bengal	Mr. Lewis Sydney Steward O'Maley, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. Girish Chandra Nag.
United Provinces	Mr. Henry Edward Holme.
The Punjab	Mr. Hubert Calvert.
Bihar and Orissa	Rai Bahadur Shyam Narayan Singh, M.B.E.
The Central Provinces	Mr. Rustomji Pardeonji.
Assam	Mr. Basil Copleston Allen, C.S.I.
Burma	Lieutenant-Colonel Francis Charles Owens.
Berar representative	Mr. Madhao Srihari Aney.
NON-OFFICIAL MEMBERS (14.)	
Madras	Sir Palamaneri Sundaram Aiyer Sivaswamy Aiyer, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.
Bombay	Sir Chimanlal Harilal Setalvad, Kt.
Do.	Sardar Eomanji Ardeshir Dalal.
Bengal	Prince Afsar-ul-Mulk Mirza Muhammad Akram Hussain Bahadur.
Do.	Mr. Keshav Chandra Roy, C.I.E.
The United Provinces	Moulvie Abdul Kaseem.
The Punjab	Hon. Captain Hira Singh, Sardar Bahadur.
Bihar and Orissa	Khan Bahadur Sayid Muhammad Ismail.
The Central Provinces	
Assam	
North-West Frontier Province	Nawab Sir Sahibzada Abdul Qayyum, K.C.I.E.
Indian Christian	Dr. Surendra Kumar Datta.
Anglo-Indian Community	Lieutenant-Colonel H. A. J. Gidney.
Labour interests	Mr. Narayan Malhar Joshi.

THE COUNCIL OF STATE.

President—The Hon'ble Sir Henry Moncrieff Smith, Kt., C.I.E., I.C.S.

A.—ELECTED MEMBERS (33).

Constituency.	Name.
Madras (Non-Muhammadan)	Sir S. M. Annamalai Chettiyar, Kt.
Do.	Mr. K. V. Rangaswamy Ayyangar.
Do.	The Rt. Hon'ble V. S. Srinivasa Shastri, F.C.
Do.	Diwan Bahadur V. Ramabhadra Naidu.
Madras (Muhammadan)	Syed Muhammad Padsah Sabab.
Bombay (Non-Muhammadan)	Mr. Lalubhai Samaldas.
Do.	Mr. Phiroze C. Sethna.
Do.	Mr. Raghunath Pandurang Karandikar.
Bombay Presidency (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur Ebrahim Haroon Jaffer.
Sind (Muhammadan)	Mr. Ali Baksh Muhammad Hussain.
Bombay Chamber of Commerce	Sir Arthur Henry Froom, Kt.
East Bengal (Non-Muhammadan)	Raja Pramada Nath Ray of Dighapatia.
West Bengal (Non-Muhammadan)	Sir Deva Prasad Sarvadikary, Kt., C.I.E.
Do.	Dr. Dwarkanath Mitter.

Constituency.	Name.
East Bengal (Muhammadan)	Manvi Abdul Karim.
West Bengal (Muhammadan)	Haji Chowdhuri Mohammad Ismail Khan.
Bengal Chamber of Commerce	Mr. J. W. A. Bell.
Bengal Provinces Central (Non-Muhammadan)	Raja Sir Rampal Singh, K.C.I.E.
United Provinces Northern (Non-Muhammadan)	Lala Sukhbir Sinha.
United Provinces Southern (Non-Muhammadan)	Raja Moti Chand, C.I.E.
United Provinces West (Muhammadan)	Muhammad Yamin Khan.
United Provinces East (Muhammadan)	Satyid Raza Ali.
Punjab (Non-Muhammadan)	Rai Bahadur Lala Ram Saran Das, C.I.E.
Punjab (Sikh)	Sardar Jogendra Singh.
East Punjab (Muhammadan)	Sir Zulfiqar Ali Khan, Kt., C.S.I.
West Punjab (Muhammadan)	Colonel Nawab Sir Umar Hayat Khan, K.C.I.
Bihar and Orissa (Non-Muhammadan)	C.B.E., M.V.O.
Do.	Maharajadhiraja Sir Rameshwar Sir G.C.I.E., K.B.E., of Darbhanga.
Do.	Maharaja Bahadur Keshav Prasad Singh C.B. of Dumraon.
Bihar and Orissa (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur Satyid Zahir-ud-din.
Central Provinces (General)	Sir Manekjee Byramjee Dadabhoi, Kt., C.I.E.
Assam (Non-Muhammadan)	Srijut Chandradhar Barua.
Burma (General)	Mr. Sevasila Vedamurti.
Burma Chamber of Commerce	W. A. W. Dawn.
B.—NOMINATED MEMBERS (26 excluding the President).	
(a) Official Members (not more than 19 excluding President).	
Government of India	His Excellency General Lord Rawlinson, G.C.
Do.	G.O.V.O., K.C.M.G.
Do.	Mian Sir Muhammad Shafi, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do.	Sir B. Narasimha Sarma, K.C.S.I.
Do.	Mr. D. T. Chadwick, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. James Crerar, C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do.	Major-General Robert Charles MacWatt, C.I.
Do.	M.B., F.R.C.S., R.H.S.
Do.	Mr. Arthur Cecil McWatters, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. Arthur Herbert Ley, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. J. F. Thompson, C.S.I.
Do.	Mr. E. R. Abbot, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. J. R. Martin, C.I.E.
Bombay	Mr. Khagendra Nath Mitra.
Bengal	Mr. W. G. McFarland.
Madras	Pandit Sham Bihari Misra.
The United Provinces	Mr. C. A. Bevan, C.S.I., C.I.E., G.V.O.
Punjab	Mr. E. H. Berthoud, O.B.E.
Bihar and Orissa	

(b) Berar Representative.

Berar Representative	Mr. Ganesh Srikrishna Khaparde.
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(c) Non-Officials.

Madras	Mr. R. Ry. Ganpati Agharam Annadhu.
Do.	Ayyar Natesam Ayyal.
Bombay	Sir Dinshaw Edulji Wacha, Kt.
Bengal	Maharaja Soshi Kanta Acharyya, Chaudhri of Muktagacha, Myensinghi.
United Provinces	Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Mohamed Muzam ullah Khan, O.B.E., K.C.S.I., of Bhikampur.
Punjab	Nawab Sir Amiruddeen Ahmed Khan, K.C.I. of Loharu.
Do.	Sirdar Charanjit Singh.
Punjab (Indian Christian)	Raja Sir Harnam Singh, K.C.I.E., of Loharu.
Delhi	Sir Mahammad Rafique, Kt.
North-West Frontier Provinces	Major Nawab Mahomed Akbar Khan, C.I.I. Khan of Hoti.

Administrative Divisions.

Provinces.	No. of Districts.	Area in Square miles.	Population (1921).
Ajmer Merwara	2	2,711	495,899
Andamans and Nicobars		3,143	26,833
Assam	12	52,959	7,598,861
Baluchistan	6	45,804	421,679
Bengal	23	78,412	46,653,177
Bihar and Orissa	21	83,205	33,998,778
Bombay (Presidency)	26	123,064	19,338,586
Bombay	26	75,918	16,005,170
Sind	6	47,066	3,278,493
Aden		80	54,923
Burma	41	236,738	13,205,564
Central Provinces and Berar	22	100,345	13,908,514
Coorg	1	1,582	164,459
Delhi			486,741
Madras	24	141,720	42,322,270
North-West Frontier Province (Districts and administered Territories)	5	16,466	2,247,696
Punjab	29	97,209	20,678,393
United Provinces of Agra & Oudh	48	107,164	45,500,946
Agra	36	83,198	33,420,638
Oudh	12	23,966	12,170,308
Total, British Territory	267	1,097,901	247,138,396

States and Agencies	No. of Districts.	Area in Square miles.	Population (1921).
Baluchistan States		86,511	378,999
Baroda State		8,099	2,121,875
Bengal States		32,773	896,173
Bihar and Orissa			5,965,431
Bombay States		65,761	7,412,341
Central India Agency		78,772	9,180,493
Central Provinces States		31,188	2,068,482
Assam States			393,672
Hyderabad State		82,698	12,453,627
Kashmir State		80,900	3,322,080
Madras States		9,969	5,460,029
Cochin State			979,019
Travancore State			4,005,849
Mysore State		29,444	5,976,660
North-West Frontier Province (Agencies and Tribal areas)			2,823,055
Punjab States		36,592	4,415,401
Rajputana Agency		127,541	9,357,012
Sikkim			81,722
United Provinces States		5,079	1,134,824
Total, Native States		675,267	71,936,796
Grand Total, India		1,773,168	319,075,182

The Bombay Presidency.

The Bombay Presidency stretches along the west coast of India, from Sind in the North to Kanara in the South. It embraces, with its feudatories and Aden, an area of 187,074 square miles and a population of 28,757,648. Of this total 68,453 square miles are in Native States, with a population of 7,412,341. Geographically included in the Presidency but under the Government of India is the first class Native state of Baroda, with an area of 8,182 square miles and a population of 2,032,798.

The Presidency embraces a wide diversity of soil, climate and people. In the Presidency Proper are the rich plains of Gujarat, watered by the Nerbudda and the Tapti, whose fertility is so marked that it has long been known as the Garden of India. South of Bombay City the province is divided into two sections by the Western Ghats, a range of hills running parallel to the coast. Above Ghats are the Deccan Districts, south of these come the Karnatic districts. On the sea side of the Ghats is the Konkan, a rice-growing tract, intercepted by creeks which make communication difficult. Then in the far north is Sind, totally different from the Presidency Proper, a land of wide and monotonous desert except where irrigation from the Indus has brought abounding fertility.

The People.

The population varies as markedly as soil and climate. In Sind Mahomedans predominate. Gujarat has remained true to Hinduism although long under the dominion of powerful Mahomedan kings. Here there is an amplitude of caste divisions, and a people, who although softened by prosperity, are amongst the keenest trading races in the world. The Deccan peasant has been seasoned by adversity; the saying goes that the Deccan expects a famine one year in every three, and gets it; the population is much more homogeneous than in Gujarat, and thirty per cent. are Marhattas. The Karnatic is the land of the Lingayets, a Hindu reforming sect of the twelfth century, and in the Konkan there is a large proportion of Christians. Four main languages are spoken, Sindhi, Gujarati, Marathi and Kanarese, with Urdu a rough *lingua franca* where English has not penetrated. The main castes and tribes number five hundred.

Industries.

The principal industry is agriculture, which supports sixty-four per cent. of the population. In Sind the soils are wholly alluvial, and under the influence of irrigation produce yearly increasing crops of wheat and cotton. In Gujarat they are of two classes, the black cotton soil, which yields the famous Broach cottons, the finest in India, and alluvial, which under careful cultivation in Ahmedabad and Kaira makes splendid garden land. The dominant soil characteristic of the Deccan is black soil, which produces cotton, wheat gram and millet, and in certain tracts rich crops of sugarcane. The Konkan is a rice land, grown under the abundant rains of the submontane regions, and in the south the Dharwar cotton vies with Broach as the best in India. There are no great perennial rivers suitable for irri-

gation, and the harvest is largely dependent upon the seasonal rainfall, supplemented by well-irrigation. A chain of irrigation works, consisting of canals fed from great reservoirs in the region of unfailling rainfall in the Ghats, is gradually being completed, and this will ultimately make the Deccan immune to serious drought. More than any other part of India the Presidency has been scourged by famine and plague during the past twenty years. The evils have not been unmixed, for tribulation has made the people more self-reliant, and the rise in the values of all produce, synchronising with a certain development of industry, has induced a considerable rise in the standard of living. The land is held on what is known as the ryotwari tenure, that is to say, each cultivator holds his land direct from Government under a moderate assessment, and as long as he pays this assessment he cannot be dispossessed.

Manufactures.

Whilst agriculture is the principal industry; others have no inconsiderable place. The mineral wealth of the Presidency is small, and is confined to building stone, salt extracted from the sea, and a little manganese. But the handicrafts are widely distributed. The handloom weavers produce bright-coloured saris, and to a diminishing extent the exquisite kincobs of Ahmedabad and Surat. Bombay silver ware has a place of its own, as well as the brass work of Poona and Nasik. But the tendency is to submerge the indigenous handicrafts beneath industry organised on modern lines. Bombay is the great centre in India of the textile trade. This is chiefly found in the headquarter city, Bombay.

Number of Looms in Bombay Island. 68,946
Number of Spindles in Bombay Island. 3,349,082
Number of hands employed in the Textile Industry in Bombay Island. 148,771
Consumption of Cotton by the Mills in Bombay Island (bales) 1,059,630
Candies of 784 lbs. each
Number of Spindles in Ahmedabad. 1,345,741
Number of Looms in Ahmedabad 28,839
Number of Spindles in Sholapore 257,096
Number of Looms in Sholapore 4,687
Number of Spindles in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island) 2,146,316
Number of Looms in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island) 43,936

Great impetus has been given to Bombay industries by the provision of electric power generated fifty miles away on the Ghats, and the year 1919 witnessed a phenomenal flotation of new industrial companies of almost every description.

The situation of Bombay on the western sea-board in touch at once with the principal markets of India and the markets of the West has given Bombay an immense sea-borne trade. The older ports, Surat, Broach, Cambay and Mandvi, were famous in the ancient days, and their bold and hardy mariners carried Indian commerce to the Persian Gulf and the coasts of Africa. But the opening

of the Suez Canal and the increasing size of ocean steamers have tended to concentrate it in modern ports with deep water anchorages, and the sea-borne trade of the Presidency is now concentrated at Bombay and Karachi, although attempts are being made to develop Mormugao, in Portuguese territory, into an outlet for the trade of the Southern Mahratta Country.

Administration.

The Presidency is administered by a Governor and an Executive Council of four members, with the assistance of three Ministers. The exact change made in the functions of the Provincial Governments is indicated in the section on the Provincial Governments (*q. v.*) where a description is given of the division of the administration into two branches, the Reserved Subjects, administered by the Governor and his Council and the Transferred Subjects, administered by the Governor and his Ministers, the whole Government commonly meeting and acting as one. In another part of that section the division between Reserved and Transferred subjects is shown. This new form of administration under the Reform Act of 1919 came into operation in January 1921. All papers relating to public service business reach Government through the Secretariat, divided into seven main departments each under a Secretary (a) Finance; (b) Revenue; (c) Home; (d) Political; (e) General, Educational, Marine and Ecclesiastical; (f) Legal; (g) Public Works. The senior of the Civilian Secretaries is entitled the Chief Secretary. The Government frequently moves. It is in Bombay from November to the end of March; at Mahabeshwar from April to June; in Poona from June to November; but the Secretariat is always in Bombay. Under the Governor-in-Council the Presidency is administered by four Commissioners. The Commissioner in Sind has considerable independent powers. In the Presidency Proper there are Commissioners for the Northern Division, with headquarters at Ahmedabad; the Central Division at Poona; and the Southern Division at Belgaum. Each district is under a Collector, usually a Covenanted Civilian, who has under him one or more Civilian as Assistant Collectors, and one or more Deputy Collectors. A collectorate contains on an average from eight to ten talukas, each consisting of from one to two hundred villages whose whole revenues belong to the State. The village officers are the patel, who is the head of the village both for revenue and police purpose; the talati or kulkarni, clerk and accountant; the messenger and the watchman. Over each Taluka or group of village is the mamladar, who is also a subordinate magistrate. The charge of the Assistant or Deputy Collector contains three or four talukas. The Collector and Magistrate is over the whole District. The Commissioners exercise general control over the Districts in their Divisions. The control of the Government over the Native States of the Presidency is exercised through Political Agents.

Justice.

The administration of justice is entrusted to the High Court sitting in Bombay, and

comprising a Chief Justice, who is a barrister, and seven puisne judges, either Civilian, Barristers, or Indian lawyers. In Sind the Court of the Judicial Commissioner (The Judicial Commissioner and three Additional Judges) is the highest court of civil and criminal appeal. Of the lower civil courts the court of the first instance is that of the Subordinate Judge recruited from the ranks of the local lawyers. The Court of first appeal is that of the District or Assistant Judge, or of a first class subordinate judge with special powers. District and Assistant Judges are Indian Civilian, or members of the Provincial Service. In cases exceeding Rs. 5,000 in value an appeal from the decision of the Subordinate or Assistant Judge and from the decision of the District Judge in all original suits lies to the High Court. District and Assistant Judges exercise criminal jurisdiction throughout the Presidency, but original criminal work is chiefly disposed of by the Executive District Officers. Capital sentences are subject to confirmation by the High Court. In some of the principal cities Special Magistrates exercise summary jurisdiction (Bombay has four Presidency Magistrates, as well as Honorary Magistrates exercising the functions of English Justices of the Peace) and a Court of Small Causes, corresponding to the English Country Courts.

Local Government.

Local control over certain branches of the administration is secured by the constitution of local boards and municipalities, the former exercising authority over a District or a Taluka, and the latter over a city or town. These bodies are composed of members either nominated by Government or elected by the people, who are empowered to expend the funds at their disposal on education, sanitation, the construction of roads and tanks, and general improvements. Their funds are derived from cesses on the land revenue, the toll and ferry funds. The tendency of recent years has been to increase the elective and reduce the nominated element, to allow these bodies to elect their own chairmen, whilst large grants have been made from the general revenues for water supply and drainage.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is under the control of two Chief Engineers who act as Secretaries to the Government: one for General Works and the other for irrigation. Under them are Superintending Engineers in charge of divisions and Executive Engineers in charge of districts, with the Consulting Architect. The chief irrigation works are in Sind and consist of a chain of canals fed by the annual inundations from the Indus and one perennial canal the Jamrao. In the Presidency proper the principal protective works are the Nera Canal, Gokak Canal, Mutha Canal and the Godavari Canal Scheme. In addition there is under construction a chain of protective irrigation works, originating in reservoirs in the Ghat regions. The Godavari canals were completed during the year 1917-18, the Pravara canals are approaching completion and the works in connection with the Nira Right Bank Canal are making good progress

Police.

The Police Force is divided into three categories: District Police, Railway Police and the Bombay City Police. The District Police are under the Inspector-General who is either a member of the Gazetted Force or a Covenanted Civilian. Under him are the Deputy Inspector-Generals for Sind and the Northern and Southern Ranges of the Presidency proper, for Railways and for Criminal Investigation. District Superintendents of Police have charge of each District with a regular cadre comprising Assistant Superintendents, Sub-Inspectors, Chief Constables and Constables. The Bombay City Police is a separate force maintained by Government under a Commissioner who is responsible direct to Government.

Education.

Education is imparted partly through direct Government agency, partly through the medium of grants-in-aid. Government maintain Arts Colleges at Bombay, Poona, Gujarat and Dharwar; the Grant Medical College, the Poona College of Engineering, the Agricultural College, Veterinary College, School of Art, Law School and a College of Commerce. The Royal Institute of Science is now open in Bombay. Most of the secondary schools are in private hands; the majority of the primary schools are maintained by District and Local Boards with a grant-in-aid. The Bombay Municipality is responsible for primary education in Bombay City. (*q. v.* Education).

The Compulsory Education Act passed in 1922 enables local bodies to enforce compulsory primary education, the cost of the scheme being defrayed partly by Government and partly by the local authority.

The Educational Department is administered by a Director, with an Inspector in each Division and a Deputy Inspector with Assistants in each district. Higher education is controlled by the Bombay University (established in 1857) consisting of the Chancellor (the Governor of the Presidency), the Vice-Chancellor appointed by Government for two years, and 100 Fellows of whom 10 are *ex-officio*; 10 elected by the Graduates, 10 by the Faculties, and 80 are nominated by the Chancellor.

The principal educational institutions are:—

Government Arts Colleges—

Elphinstone College, Bombay, Principal, Mr. A. L. Covertton.
Deccan College, Poona, Principal, Mr. H. G. Rawlinson, M.A.
Gujarat College, Ahmedabad, Principal, Mr. H. Hamill.
Karnatak College, Dharwar, Principal Mr. H. G. Rawlinson.

Private Arts Colleges—

St. Xaviers, Bombay (Society of Jesus). Principal, Rev. Father Duhr.
Wilson College, Bombay (Scottish Mission). Principal, Rev. J. Mackenzie.
Terguson College, Poona (Deccan Educational Society), Principal, K. B. Kanitkar.

Baroda College, Baroda (Baroda State), Principal, Mr. A. B. Clarke.

Samaldas College, Bhavnagar (Bhavnagar State), Principal, Mr. T. K. Shabani.

Bahauddinbhai College, Junagadh State, Principal, Mr. S. H. Hodivala.

Special Colleges—

Grant Medical College, Bombay (Government), Dean, Major B. Higham.

College of Engineering, Poona (Government), Principal, Mr. W. L. C. Treach.

Agricultural College, Poona (Government), Principal, Dr. William Burns.

Chiefs' College, Rajkot, Principal, Mr. C. Mayne.

College of Science, Ahmedabad.

Law School, Bombay, Principal, Mr. B. J. Wadia.

College of Commerce, Bombay, Principal, Mr. M. L. Tannan.

Veterinary College, Bombay, Mr. K. Hewlett.

Bombay Bacteriological Laboratory, Director Lt.-Col. F. P. Mackie, O.B.E., F.R.S.

Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay (Government), Principal, Mr. W. E. G. Solomon.

Victoria Technical Institute, Bombay, Principal, Mr. A. J. Turner.

Medical.

The Medical Department is in the charge of the Surgeon-General and Sanitation in that of the Director of Public Health, both members of the Indian Medical Service. Civil Surgeons stationed at each district headquarters are responsible for the medical work of the district; whilst sanitation is entrusted to one of the Assistant Directors of Public Health. Three large hospitals are maintained by the Government in Bombay, and well-equipped hospitals exist in all important up-country stations. Over three million persons including 75,000 in-patients are treated annually. The Presidency contains 6 Lunatic Asylums and 18 institutions for the treatment of Lepers. Vaccination is carried out by a staff under the direction of the Director of Public Health. Sanitary work has received an immense stimulus from the large grants made by the Government of India out of the opium surpluses.

Finance.

Under the Reform Scheme of 1919 Provincial Finance entered on a new phase. Before the passing of this Act Provincial finance was incorporated in Imperial Finance. The Provinces had certain heads of revenue of their own and other heads which they divided with the Government of India. By the new constitution a comparatively clean cut was made between the finances of the Government of India and those of the Provinces. Such revenues as they enjoy the Provinces enjoy in full, and in return they make cash contributions to the Government of India, fixed for a term of years. The general principle underlying this settlement is that those contributions shall gradually disappear. The present contribution of the Government of Bombay is Rs. 56 lakhs.

Estimated Revenue for 1924-25.

PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE.		Rs.
II Taxes on Income		3,40,000
V Land Revenue		5,75,78,000
VI Excise		4,39,90,000
VII Stamps		1,68,50,000
VIII Forests		81,08,000
IX Registration		13,25,000
IXA Scheduled Taxes		10,48,000
Total		12,92,39,000
<i>Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment, &c.</i>		
XIII Works for which Capital Accounts are kept		40,20,000
XIV Work for which no Capital Accounts are kept		90,000
Total		50,10,000
<i>Debt Service.</i>		
XVI Interest		1,34,41,000
<i>Civil Administration.</i>		
XVII Administration of Justice		18,00,000
XVIII Jails and Convict Settlements		4,71,000
XIX Police		4,46,000
XX Ports and Pilotage		6,00,000
XXI Education		9,88,000
XXII Medical		6,15,000
XXIII Public Health		3,24,000
XXIV Agriculture		3,24,000
XXV Industries		72,000
XXVI Miscellaneous Departments		1,66,000
Total		52,06,000
<i>Civil Works</i>		
XXX Civil Works		14,00,000
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>		
XXIII Receipts in aid of Superannuation		14,35,000
XXIV Stationery and Printing		2,75,000
XXV Miscellaneous		3,60,000
Total		20,70,000
XL Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments		2,07,000
Total Revenue		15,65,73,000
<i>Capital Account not charged to Revenue.</i>		
XLII Bombay Development Scheme		63,39,000
Debts, Deposits and Advances		12,25,28,000
Opening Balance		4,75,73,000
Grand Total		33,30,13,000
Estimated Expenditure for 1924-25.		
DIRECT DEMANDS OF THE REVENUE.		
Taxes on Income		66,77,000
Land Revenue		30,90,000
Excise		4,38,000
Stamps		48,25,000
Forest		7,35,000
Registration		24,000
IXA Scheduled Taxes		24,000
Total		1,57,89,000

Estimated Expenditure for 1924-25—contd.

<i>Irrigation, Embankment, &c., Revenue Account.</i>		Rs.
14. Interest on works for which Capital Accounts are kept		63,12,000
15. Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue		30,76,000
Total		93,88,000
16. Construction of Irrigation, Embankment, &c., Works		30,00,000
<i>Debt Service.</i>		
19. Interest on Ordinary Debt		2,03,40,000
21. Sinking Funds		17,07,000
Total		2,20,56,000
<i>Civil Administration.</i>		
22. General Administration		2,29,16,000
24. Administration of Justice		73,25,000
25. Jails and Convict Settlements		27,95,000
26. Police		1,82,61,000
27. Ports and Pilotage		21,000
30. Scientific Departments		67,000
31. Education		1,89,73,000
32. Medical		47,28,000
33. Public Health		24,51,000
34. Agriculture		26,45,000
35. Industries		1,37,000
37. Miscellaneous Departments		5,41,000
Total		8,07,58,000
<i>Currency, Mint and Exchange.</i>		
40. Exchange		...
<i>Civil Works.</i>		
41. Civil Works		1,02,07,000
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>		
43. Famine Relief and Insurance		53,60,000
45. Superannuation Allowances and Pensions		53,05,000
46. Stationery and Printing		17,72,000
47. Miscellaneous		44,07,000
Total		1,69,04,000
51. Contribution and Assignments to Central Government by Provincial Government		56,00,000
52. Miscellaneous Adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments		
Total		56,00,000
Total Expenditure		16,36,03,000
<i>Capital Account not charged to Revenue.</i>		
55. Construction of Irrigation Works		3,88,83,000
59. Bombay Development Scheme		2,77,99,000
Other Expenditure not charged to Revenue		1,01,12,000
Debts, Deposits and Advances		4,55,58,000
Closing Balance		4,70,52,000
Grand Total		33,30,13,000

Governor and President in Council.

His Excellency Lt.-Colonel The Right Hon'ble
Sir Leslie Orme Wilson, P.C., G.C.I.E.,
C.M.G., D.S.O.

Personal Staff.

Private Secy.—C. G. Adam, C.S.I., I.C.S.

Mily. Secretary—Major H. G. Vaux, C.I.E.,
M. V. O.

Surgeon.—Lt.-Col. G. J. Grafton-Young, I.M.S.
(on leave); Major A. G. Tressider, M. D., I. M.
S. (Offg.).

Aides-de-Camp.—Capt. G. S. Rawstorne, 2nd
Bn., Seaforth Highlanders, Captain C. B.
Lyon, Reserve of Officers; Captain K. E.
Frevite, Royal Marine; Captain E. R. Sword,
4th Queen's Own Hussars.

Honorary Aides-de-Camp.—Major D. W. Wilson,
C. I. E., V. D., Bombay Light Horse, A. F. I.
Meherban Abdul Majid Khan Diller Jang
Bahadur, Nawab of Savanur; Hon. Lt.
Kumar Shri Naharsinghji of Baria.

Commandant H. E. the Governor's Bodyguard.—
Major H. de N. Lucas, 7th Light Cavalry.

Indian Aide-de-Camp—Captain Balkrishna Rao,
Sardar Bahadur, 35th Mahratta Light
Infantry.

Members of Council and Ministers.

The Hon. Sir M. H. W. Hayward, Kt., I.C.S.,
The Hon. Mr. H. S. Lawrence, C.S.I., I.C.S.,
The Hon. Mr. C. V. Mehta, and The Hon.
Mr. Cowasji Jehangir (Jr.), C.I.E., O.B.E.,
The Hon. Khan Bahadur Shaikh Ghulam
Ruslan Hidayatallah, The Hon. Mr. A. M. K.
Dehlavi and The Hon. Mr. B. V. Jadhav, M.A.,
L.L.B.

The Educational portfolio includes, among
other subjects, Medical Administration, Pub-
lic Health, Sanitation and Industrial De-
velopment. The Minister of Local Self-Govern-
ment also deals with Public Works (roads
and buildings) and the Civil Veterinary De-
partment; while Agriculture, Co-operative
Societies, Registration and some other matters
are in charge of the Minister of Forests and
Excise.

SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT.

Chief Secretary, Revenue Department.—G. E.
Chatfield, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Home Department.—Alexander Montgomerie,
C.I.E., I.C.S.—(on deputation).

Secretary, Political Department.—J. E. B. Hotson,
O.B.E., I.C.S.

Secretary, General, Educational, Marine and Eccle-
siastical Departments.—G. A. Thomas, B.A.,
I.C.S.

Chief Secretary, Finance Department.—Gilbert
Wiles, B. A., I.C.S.

Legal Department and Remembrancer of Legal
Affairs.—Stephen James Murphy, I.C.S.

Public Works Department.—R. T. Harrison
(on leave), Kalkhosru Sorabji Framji, B. A.
L.C.E., F.U.B., M.L.C.S., (Offg.).

Public Works Department, Joint Secretary—
Vincent Major Griffiths.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Advocate-General, Jamshedji Behramji Kanga,
M.A., L.L.B.

Inspector-General of Police, F. C. Griffith,
O.B.E.

Director of Public Instruction, F. B. P. Lory,
M. A.

Surgeon-General, The Hon. Major-General W.
E. Jennings, M.D., I.M.S. (on leave); Lt.-Col.
A. Hooton, C.I.E., I.M.S., (Offg.).

Oriental Translator, Shaikh Yakub Vazir Mu-
hammad, M.B.E.

Chief Conservator of Forests, W. E. Copleston,
C.S.I.

Talukdari Settlement Officer, J. H. Garrett.

Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land
Records, F. G. H. Anderson.

Director of Agriculture, Dr. Harold H. Mann
D. Sc.

Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Otto
Rothfeld, B.A., I.C.S. (on leave); J. A. Madan,
B. A., I.C.S. (Ag.).

Municipal Commissioner, Bombay, H. B. Clayton,
C.I.E., I.C.S.

Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University, Sir Chiman-
lal H. Setalvad.

Registrar, Bombay University, Fardunji Dastur.

Commissioner of Police, Bombay, P. A. Kelly.

Director of Public Health, Lieut.-Col. William
O'Sullivan Murphy, M.B., I.M.S.

Accountant-General, John Stuart Milne.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. F. O. N.
Mell, C.I.E., I.M.S.

Postmaster-General, P. G. Rogers, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Commissioner of Customs, Salt, Opium and
Excise, Jyotsnanath Ghosal, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Collector of Customs, Bombay, A. M. Green,
M.A., I.C.S.

Consulting Architect to Government, Samuel
Woods Hill, A.R.L., B.A.

Consulting Surveyor to Government, Arthur
Edward Mirams, F.S.I., F.S.A., F.R.S.I. (on
leave), T. H. G. Stamper, F.S.I., M.C. (Ag.).

Registrar of Companies, Capt. H. C. B.
Mitchell.

Director of Development, Sir Lawless Hepper,
Kt., R.E.

Director, Labour Office, G. Findlay Shirras,
M.A.

Director, Bureau of Information, G. F. Gennings.

Sheriff, Sir Henry Macnaghten, Kt.,
GOVERNORS OF BOMBAY.

Sir Abraham Shipman 1862

Died on the island of Anjediva in Oct. 1864

Humfrey Cooke 1865

Sir Gervase Lucas 1866

Died, 21st May, 1867.

Captain Henry Garey (Officiating) .. 1867

Sir George Oxenden 1868

Died in Surat, 14th July, 1869.

Gerald Aungler 1869

Died in Surat, 30th June, 1877.

Thomas Rolt 1877

Sir John Child, Bart. 1881

Bartholomew Harris 1890

Died in Surat, 10th May, 1894.

Daniel Annesley (Officiating) 1894

Sir John Gayer 1894

Sir Nicholas Waite 1704

William Atsible 1708

Stephen Strutt (Officiating) 1715

Charles Boone 1715

William Phipps 1722

Robert Cowan 1729

Dismissed.

John Horne 1734

Stephen Law 1739

John Geckie (Officiating) 1742

William Wake 1742

Richard Bouchier 1750

Charles Crommelin 1760

Thomas Hodges 1767

Died, 23rd February, 1771.

William Hornby 1771

Rawson Hart Boddam 1784

Rawson Hart Boddam 1785

Andrew Ramsay (Officiating) 1788

Major-General William Medows 1788

Major-General Sir Robert Abercromby,
K.C.B. (a).

George Dick (Officiating) 1792

John Griffith (Officiating) 1795

Jonathan Duncan 1795

Died, 11th August, 1811.

George Brown (Officiating) 1811

Sir Evan Nepean, Bart. 1812

The Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone .. 1819

Major-General Sir John Malcolm, G.C.B. 1827

Lieut.-General Sir Thomas Sidney Beck-
with, K.C.B.

Died, 15th January, 1831.

John Romer (Officiating) 1831

The Earl of Clare 1831

Sir Robert Grant, G.C.H. 1835

Died, 9th July, 1838.

James Farish (Officiating) 1838

Sir J. Rivett-Carnac, Bart. 1839

Sir William Hay Macnaghten, Bart. (b) ..

George William Anderson (Officiating) .. 1841

Sir George Arthur, Bart., K.C.H. 1842

Lestock Robert Reid (Officiating) 1846

George Russell Clerk 1847

Viscount Falkland 1848

Lord Elphinstone, G.C.H., P.C. 1853

Sir George Russell Clerk, K.C.B. (2nd time) 1860

Sir Henry Bartle Edward Frere, K.C.B. 1862

The Right Hon. William Robert Seymou 1867

Vesey FitzGerald.

Sir Philip Edmond Wodehouse, K.C.B. .. 1872

Sir Richard Temple, Bart., K.C.S.I. .. 1877

Lionel Robert Ashburner, C.S.I. (Acting) .. 1880

The Right Hon. Sir James Fergusson, 1880

Bart., K.C.M.G.

James Braithwaite Pelle, C.S.I. (Acting) .. 1885

Baron Reay 1885

Baron Harris 1890

Herbert Mills Birdwood, C.S.I. (Acting) .. 1890

Baron Sandhurst 1890

Baron Northcote, C.B. 1900

Sir James Montearth, K.C.S.I. (Acting) .. 1903

Baron Lamington, G.C.M.G., G.C.I.E. .. 1903

J. W. P. Muir-Mackenzie, C.S.I. (Acting) 1907

Sir George Sydenham Clarke, G.C.M.G., 1907

G.C.I.E. (c).

Baron Willingdon, G.C.I.E. 1913

Sir George Ambrose Lloyd, G.C.I.E., D.S.O. 1918

Sir Leslie Orme Wilson, P.C., G.C.I.E., 1923

C.M.G., D.S.O.

(a) Proceeded to Madras on duty in Aug., 1793,
and then joined the Council of the Gov-
ernor-General as Commander-in-Chief in
India on the 28th Oct., 1793.

(b) Was appointed Governor of Bombay by
the Honourable the Court of Directors on
the 4th Aug., 1841, but, before he could take
charge of his appointment, he was assassi-
nated in Cabul on the 23rd Dec., 1841.

(c) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Sydenham

BOMBAY LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Name and class of Constituency.	Name of Member.
Bombay City (Non-Muhammadan North) Urban Constituency.	Mr. Joseph Baptista. Mr. Poonjabhai Thackersey. Mr. A. N. Surve
Bombay City (Non-Muhammadan South) Urban Constituency.	Mr. K. F. Nariman. Mr. M. B. Velkar. Dr. K. E. Dadachanji.
Karachi City (Non-Muhammadan) Urban Constituency.	Mr. Durgadas Bhojraj Advani.
Ahmedabad City (Non-Muhammadan) Urban Constituency.	Mr. Gajanan Krishnarao Mavlankar.
Surat City (Non-Muhammadan) Urban Constituency.	Mr. Maganlal Motiram Mehta.
Sholapur City (Non-Muhammadan) Urban Constituency.	Mr. Nagappa Aralappa Abdulpurkar
Poona City (Non-Muhammadan) Urban Constituency.	Mr. Laxman Balwant Bhopatkar, M.A., LL.B.
Ahmedabad District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Jethalal Chimanlal Swaminarayan; Mr. Harilal Dalsukhram Saheba.
Broach District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Harilal Harjivandas Narielwalla.
Kaira District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Rao Saheb Dadubhai Purshotamdas Desai. Mr. Dhanabhai Narsinhbhai Patel.
Panch Mahals District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Wamanrao Sitaram Mukadam.
Surat District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Hassamal B. Shivdasani. Dr. M. K. Dixit.
Thana and Bombay Suburban Districts (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Govind Balwant Pradhan. Mr. Shankarrao Jayaramrao (already notified reserved seat).
Ahmednagar District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Chintaman Mohaniraj Sapturishi. Mr. Namdeo Eknath Navale (Reserved seat.)
East Khandesh District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Luxman Shivram Chaudari. Dongarsing Ramji Patil. Mr. Purshotam Gopal Joshi.
Nasik District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. R. G. Pradhan. Mr. Ramchandra Dharmaji Shinde, P.A., LL.B. (Reserved seat.)
Poona District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Narayan Ramji Gunjal. Mr. Gangajirao Mukundrao Kalbhor.
Satara District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. R. G. Soman. Mr. B. V. Jadhav (Minister). K. B. D. B. Cooper.
Belgaum District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. B. K. Dalvi. Mr. S. N. Augadi.

Name and class of Constituency.	Name of Member.
Bijapur District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. S. A. Sardesai of Rakasgi.
Dharwar District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Vishwanath Narayan Jog. Mr. Shiddappa Tatappa Kambli.
Kanara District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Manjunath Devarbhatt Karki.
Ratnagiri District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Bhaskar Ramchandra Nanal, B.A., LL.B. Mr. Venkatrao Anandrao Survey (Reserved seat.)
Eastern Sind (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mukhi Jethanand Pritamdas.
Western Sind (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Bhojising Gurdinomal Pahalajani.
Sholapur District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Valchand Ramchand Kothari.
Kolaba District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Madhavrao Baburao Powar.
Western Khandesh District (Non-Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Shankar Shrikrishna Deo.
Bombay City (Muhammadan) Urban Constituency.	Mr. Hooseinbhoy A. Lalji. Mr. Husseinbhoy M. Rahimtoola.
Karachi City (Muhammadan) Urban Constituency.	Haji Abdullah Haroon.
Ahmedabad and Surat Cities (Muhammadan) Urban Constituency.	Khan Saheb A. M. Mansuri.
Poona and Sholapur Cities (Muhammadan) Urban Constituency.	Mr. Abdul Latif Haji Hajrat Khan of Sholapur
The Northern Division (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Alibhai Esabhai Patel. Mr. Ali Mahomedkhan Dehlavi (Minister) Sardar Narharsinghji Iswarshinghji.
The Central Division (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Maulvi Rafuiddin Ahmed. Mr. Ghyasuddin Ziauddin Khatib. Kaji Inayatulla.
The Southern Division (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Abdulkadar alias Fakirmahomed Ibrahim. Khan Pathan of Dharwar. Khan Bahadur Ismailsaheb Madarsaheb Bedrekar of Bijapur. Mr. Sayad Sahajadesaheb Haidarsaheb Inamdar of Belgaum.
Hyderabad District (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	The Hon. K. B. Ghulam Husain Hidayatallah (Minister).
Karachi District (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Noor Mahomed Mahomed Sijawal. Haji Fazul Muhammad. Haji Khamiso Gul Mahomed.
Larkana District (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	K. B. Shah Nawazkhan Ghulam Murtaza Bhutto. K. S. Karimbaksh Ali Mardankhan Jatol. Mr. Mahomed Ayub Shah Mahomed Khubro.
Sukkur District (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Rasulbux Shah. K. B. Jan Mahomed Khan. Wahad Khan Bahadur Shah Pasand Khan Pathan.

Name and class of Constituency.	Name of Member.
Thar and Parkar (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Ghulam Nabi Shah Moujali Shah Syed.
Nawabshah District (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Mr. Jan Mahomed Wall Mahomed Bhurgri.
Upper Sind Frontier District (Muhammadan) Rural Constituency.	Khan Saheb Haji Seral Imambaksh Ghulam Rasul Jatol.
Bombay City (European) Constituency ..	Khan Saheb Sher Mahomed Khan Karamkhan Bijarani.
Presidency (European) Constituency ..	Mr. Joe Addyman.
Deccan Sardars and Inamdars Constituency.	Mr. Albert Clifford Owen.
Gujarat Sardars and Inamdars Constituency.	Sardar Gangadharrao Narayanrao Mujumdar.
Jagirdars and Zamindars Constituency ..	Sardar Bhasaheb alias Dulabawa Raisingji.
Bombay University Constituency ..	Mr. Muhammad Kamil Shah Kabul Muhammad Shah Sayed.
Bombay Chamber of Commerce Constituency..	Mr. M. R. Jayakar.
Karachi Chamber of Commerce Constituency..	Mr. L. S. Hudson.
Bombay Trades Association Constituency...	Mr. Vincent Alpe Grantham.
Bombay Millowners' Association Constituency.	Mr. F. Clayton.
Ahmedabad Millowners' Association Constituency.	Mr. A. Greville Bullocke.
Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau ..	Mr. C. N. Wadia, C.I.E.
	Mr. Gordhandas I. Pate.
	Mr. Lalji Naranji.

NOMINATED.
Officials.

Mr. F. G. Pratt, I.C.S.
" V. M. Griffiths.
" A. Montgomerie, C.I.E., I.C.S.
" S. J. Murphy, I.C.S.
" G. E. Chatfield, C.I.E., I.C.S.
" G. W. Hatch, I.C.S.
" H. L. Painter, I.C.S.
" G. Wiles, I.C.S.
" J. R. Martin, C.I.E., I.C.S.
" G. A. Thomas, I.C.S.
" R. E. Gibson, C.I.E., I.C.S.
" J. Ghosal, I.C.S.
" K. S. Franji.
" G. Findlay Shirras.
" J. A. Madan, I.C.S.

Non-Officials.

Mr. J. B. Kanga.
" Vasantao Anandrao Dabholkar, O.E.T.
" E. E. Woods.
" J. A. Kay.
" James Padmakar Bunter, LL.B.
" Sitaram Keshav Bole.
" R. S. Nekaljay.
Dr. Cosmas Fernandez, M.D.
Rao Bahadur A. W. Malji.

The Madras Presidency.

The Madras Presidency occupies the whole southern portion of the Peninsula, and, excluding the Native States, most of which have now come under the direct control of the Government of India, has an area of 141,075 square miles. It has on the east, on the Bay of Bengal, a coastline of about 1,200 miles; on the west, on the India Ocean, a coast line of about 450 miles. In all this extent of the coast, however, there is not a single natural harbour of any importance; the ports, with the exception of Madras, and perhaps of Cochin, are merely open roadsteads. A plateau, varying in height above sea-level from about 100 to about 300 feet and stretching northwards from the Nilgiri Hills, occupies the central area of the Presidency on either side are the Eastern and the Western Ghats, which meet in the Nilgiris. The height of the western mountain-chain has an important effect on the rainfall. Where the chain is high, the intercepted rain-clouds give a heavy fall, which may amount to 150 inches on the seaward side, but comparatively little rain falls on the landward side of the range. Where the chain is low, rain-clouds are not checked in their westward course. In the central table land and on the east coast the rainfall is small and the heat in summer excessive. The rivers, which flow from west to east, in their earlier course drain rather than irrigate the country; but the deltas of the Godavari, Krishna and Cauvery are productive of fair crops even in time of drought and are the only portions of the east coast where agriculture is not dependent on a rainfall rarely exceeding 40 inches and apt to be untimely.

Population.

The population of the Presidency was returned at the census of 1921 as 42,794,155, an increase over the figure of 1911 of 2·2 per cent. The tendency has been for the more densely populated portions of the province to increase their numbers while the sparsely inhabited tracts have still further declined in density. Hindus account for 89 per cent. of the population, Mahomedans for 7, Christians for 3, Animists for 1. The vast majority of the population is of the Dravidian race and the principal Dravidian languages, Tamil and Telugu, are spoken by 18 and 16 million persons respectively. Of every thousand people, 410 speak Tamil, 377 speak Telugu, 75 Malayalam, 37 Oriya, 35 Canarese and 23 Hindustani.

Government.

The Madras Presidency is governed on the system generally similar to that obtaining in Bombay and Bengal. There are associated with the Governor four members of the Executive Council in charge of the Reserved Subjects and three Ministers in charge of the Transferred Subjects. Madras administration differs, however, in some important respects from that of other major provinces. There is no intermediate local authority between the Collector of the District and the authorities at headquarters, Commissioners of Divisions being unknown in Madras.

Finance.

Like other provincial administrations, the development of the Madras Presidency has been largely impeded in recent years by financial difficulties. After five successive years of deficits, the Madras Government succeeded last March in presenting a balanced budget. This achievement was only possible as a result of drastic economies recommended by a special committee and the holding up of many urgent schemes of development. Madras labours under an acute grievance with regard to the amount of her contribution to the Central Revenues under the Meston Award and Sir Charles Toddhunter, the then Finance Member, was constrained to explain last March that the history of finance in the Province under the Reforms has been "one of excursions and alarms, and one of alternative hope and black despair." For the year 1924-25, the provincial Government have budgeted for a revenue of Rs. 1,674·77 lakhs and an expenditure of the whole of the revenue and in addition of a sum of 43 lakhs of loan money on capital expenditure. The actual revenue is, however, likely to fall far short of the estimates as a result of the disastrous floods in the Presidency during the monsoon.

The Floods.

It has not been possible as this section of the Year Book goes to press to estimate correctly the extent of the damage wrought by the floods in South India in June 1924. Estimates vary from 75 lakhs to a crore. Fortunately there was no serious loss of life, although hundreds of villages, notably in Malabar, Tanjore and Trichinopoly were swept out of existence and thousands rendered homeless. Apart from Government measures, funds for relieving the distress of the villagers rendered homeless were started in various parts of India with a central committee at Madras. Bombay responded in a generous measure to the appeal for help, but the response from the other provinces was not quite encouraging. The floods in June 1924 were preceded by similar disasters in 1923. First of all South Canara suffered from floods which wrecked 12,360 homes, covered with earth a large area of paddy land and carried away many bridges. The next disaster was at the other extreme of the Presidency, in Ganjam and Vizagapatam, where a cyclone on a scale unknown since 1878, broke up the railway in many places, breached tanks in all parts of the districts and did widespread damage to buildings, roads, trees and crops. Government had scarcely begun to take account of this when another disaster was reported from Tinnevely where the river Tampraparni had overflowed its banks, destroyed 11,595 buildings and damaged about 480 irrigation works. The effects of these successive calamities continue to be felt on the public finances of the Presidency.

Local Government.

While the Madras Government has been straightening out its own finances by economics, they have been setting right those of the local

bodies by giving grants on a scale which has not been previously equalled. The sub-tilies to local bodies have been raised to a sum of about one and a half crores and Government have been engaged throughout the year in a succession of efforts in restoring these bodies to solvency.

Industries.

The principal industry of the province is agriculture in which 68 per cent. of the population is engaged. The principal food crops are rice, cholam, ragi and kambu. The industrial crops are cotton, sugar-cane and ground-nuts. A special feature of the agricultural activities in the Presidency is the large industry which the planting community have built up, contributing substantially to the economic development of the province. They have organised themselves as a registered body under the title of "The United Planters' Association of South India," on which are represented the coffee, tea, rubber and a few other minor planting products. There are some 22 cotton mills in the Presidency which employ 35,000 operatives. Minor industrial concerns number over 120 and consist of oil mills, rope, rubber and tile works. The aggregate value of the sea-borne trade of the Presidency has been showing a steady increase and is now in the neighbourhood of Rs. 75 crores per annum. As in other provinces, the forest resources are exploited by Government. There are close upon 19,000 square miles of reserved forests.

Education.

The Presidency's record in the sphere of education has been one of continuous progress. There are at present about 40,000 public institutions, ranging from village primary schools to arts and professional colleges, their total strength being 2,000,000. Special efforts are being made to provide education for boys belonging to the Depressed Classes. The total expenditure of the province in Education is in the neighbourhood of Rs. 340 lakhs. The principal educational institutions in the province are the Presidency College, the Christian College and Pachaiyappa's College, Madras;

the St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly; the Government College, Kumbakonam; the Government College, Rajamundry; the Maharaja's College, Trivandrum; the Agricultural College, Coimbatore and the Medical and the Engineering Colleges at Madras.

Law and Order.

The Superior Court or Civil and Criminal judicial work in the Presidency is the High Court at Madras, which consists of a Chief Justice and eleven puisne Judges. The existing law provides for a maximum of 20 High Court Judges. For the administration of criminal justice there are 25 Session Judges in the mofussil, Additional and Assistant Sessions Judges being provided to assist Courts in which the work is heavy. Then there are the District Magistrates, the Subordinate Magistrates and Honorary Magistrates. The administration of civil justice is carried on by 24 District Judges, 29 Subordinate Judges and District Munsiffs. In the Presidency Town there are a City Civil Court consisting of one Judge and Small Causes Court consisting of a Chief Judge and two other Judges. Madras is a litigious province and the records show one suit for every 85 persons. The Police department is under an Inspector General who has four deputies in four ranges of the Presidency, a Superintendent being stationed at each District. The sanctioned strength of the permanent police force is about 30,000.

Nation-Building.

Since the advent of the Reforms, there has been an increase of one per cent. every year in the allotment of funds to the Transferred Departments and a decrease of one per cent. every year in the allotment to the Reserved Departments. The comparison by itself may be misleading, but there is only one other province, namely the Central Provinces, in which a similar transfer has taken place. The steady transference of funds for nation-building continues in Madras, the percentages on the Budget estimates for the current official year being 65 and 35 as against 68 and 32 at the commencement of the Reforms.

Estimated Revenue for 1924-25.

Principal Heads of Revenue.

	Rs.	Rs.
V.—Land Revenue	7,02,01,000	
VI.—Excise	5,13,68,000	
VII.—Stamps	2,40,19,000	
VIII.—Forest	54,34,500	
IX.—Registration	37,32,000	
TOTAL		16,05,55,100

Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment, etc.

XIII.—Works for which capital accounts are kept	—29,54,400	
XIV.—Works for which no capital accounts are kept	1,38,000	
TOTAL		—28,16,400

Estimated Expenditure for 1924-25.

	Rs.	Amount of Rs.
Debt Services.		
XVI.—Interest		13,33,090
Civil Administration.		
XVII.—Administration of Justice	14,68,800	
XVIII.—Jails and Convict Settlements	7,37,500	
XIX.—Police	9,04,000	
XX.—Ports and Pilotage	1,000	
XXI.—Education	6,48,000	
XXII.—Medical	3,17,000	
XXIII.—Public Health	19,700	
XXIV.—Agriculture	4,01,500	
XXV.—Industries	15,54,000	
XXVI.—Miscellaneous Departments	3,66,000	
TOTAL		65,21,700

Civil Works.

XXX.—Civil Works	7,00,000
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Miscellaneous.

XXXIII.—Receipts in aid of Superannuation	4,99,600
XXXIV.—Stationery and Printing	2,35,000
XXXV.—Miscellaneous	4,48,000
TOTAL	11,82,600

Contributions and Assignments from the Central Government.

XL.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	2,46,000
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TOTAL REVENUE. 16,77,22,000

Capital Accounts not charged to Revenue.

Debts, Deposits and Advances	87,47,000
Opening Balance	11,49,000
GRAND TOTAL	17,76,18,000

Direct Demands on the Revenue.

5.—Land Revenue	43,46,800
6.—Excise	26,21,800
7.—Stamps	9,08,400
8.—Forests	49,70,000
9.—Registration	24,55,900
TOTAL	1,53,02,900

Irrigation, Embankment, etc., Revenue Account.

15.—Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue	41,20,800
16.—Construction of Irrigation, Embankment, etc., works.	15,400
TOTAL	41,36,000

Estimated Expenditure for 1924-25.

	Amount of
	Rs.
Debt Services.	
19.—Interest on ordinary debt	47,37,000
20.—Interest on other obligations	
TOTAL ..	47,37,000
Civil Administration.	
22.—General Administration	2,25,16,800
24.—Administration of Justice	97,02,200
25.—Jails and Convict Settlements	32,20,900
26.—Police	1,98,16,000
27.—Ports and Pilotage	56,000
30.—Scientific Departments	94,100
31.—Education	1,73,65,000
32.—Medical	62,91,100
33.—Public Health	12,11,200
34.—Agriculture	28,59,000
35.—Industries	26,89,500
37.—Miscellaneous departments	16,04,500
TOTAL ..	8,74,26,400
Civil Works.	
41.—Civil Works	1,03,91,500
Miscellaneous.	
43.—Famine Relief and Insurance	6,61,000
45.—Superannuation allowances and pensions	53,70,700
46.—Stationery and Printing	22,00,900
47.—Miscellaneous	11,78,300
TOTAL ..	94,10,900
Contribution and Assignments to the Central Govt. by Provincial Governments.	
51.—Contributions and Assignments to the Central Government by Provincial Government	3,48,00,000
52.—Miscellaneous Adjustment between the Central and Provincial Government	
TOTAL ..	3,48,00,000
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ..	16,62,04,400
Capital Account not charged to Revenue.	
52A.—Forest Capital outlay	1,75,000
55.—Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, etc., works	12,16,000
60.—Civil Works	11,54,000
60A.—Other Provincial Works not charged to Revenue	17,87,000
Debts, Deposits and Advances	1,00,50,000
Closing Balance	13,64,000
GRAND TOTAL ..	17,76,18,000

Governor.
His Excellency Lt.-Col. Viscount Goschen, C.B.E.

Personal Staff.
Private Secy., E. C. Smith, I.C.S.
Military Secy., Major T. N. Watson, M.C.
Surgeon, Major D. P. Johnstone, R.A.M.C.
Aide-de-Camp, Major O. V. Littleton Symons.
Extra Aide-de-Camp, Captain John Pratt.
Commandant, H. E. the Governor's Body Guard,
Major Mansel Hallett Jackson, D.S.O., M.C.
Indian Aide-de-Camp, Risaldar Yakub Khan.

Members of Council.
Arthur Rowland Knapp, C.S.I., C.B.E., I.C.S. (on leave).
C. P. Ramaswami Ayyar, C.I.E.
R. A. Graham, C.S.I.
N. E. Marjoribank, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S. (Temp.)

Ministers.
The Raja of Panagal.
Dewan Bahadur Sivagnanam Pillay.
Rao Bahadur Sir A. P. Patro.

SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT.
Chief Secretary, N. E. Marjoribank, C.S.I., I.C.E.
Revenue Secretary, L. T. Harris, C.S.I., I.C.S. (on leave); E. W. Legh, I.C.S. (Acting).
Local and Municipal Secretary, P. L. Moore, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Public Works Secretary, M. R. Kharegat.
MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.
Director of Public Instruction, Richard Littlehales, M.A.
Inspector-General of Police, Frank Armitage.
Surgeon-General, Major-General Thomas Henry Simons, I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Major A. J. H. Russell, M.A., M.D., I.M.S.
Accountant-General, A. Newmarch.
Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Colonel John Phillip Cameron, I.M.S.
Postmaster-General, R. W. Hanson.
Collector of Customs, C. R. Watkins, C.I.E.
Commissioner of Salt, Abkari, etc., A. Y. G. Campbell, M.A., C.I.E., C.B.E.
Inspector-General of Registration, J. Venkatarayana Naidu.
Meteorologist and Deputy Director, Madras Observatory, S. R. U. Savur.
Acting Director, Kodaikanal Observatory, Thomas Royds.
Supdt., Govt. Central Museum, and Principal Librarian, Connemara Public Library, F. H. Gravely.
Director of Agriculture, R. D. Anstead, M.A.
Chief Conservator of Forests, S. Cox, C.I.E.

Presidents and Governors of Fort St. George in Madras.

William Gyfford	1684
Ellhu Yale	1687
Nathaniel Higginson	1692
Thomas Pitt	1698
Gulston Addison	1709

Died at Madras, 17 Oct., 1709.

Edmund Montague (Acting)	1709
William Fraser (Acting)	1709
Edward Harrison	1710
Joseph Collet	1711
Francis Hastings (Acting)	1727
Nathaniel Elwick	1727
James Macrae	1725
George Morton Pitt	1730
Richard Benyon	1735
Nicholas Morse	1744
John Hinde	..

Charles Floyer	1747
Thomas Saunders	1750
George Pigot	1755
Robert Falk	1763
Charles Bouchier	1767
Josias DuPre	1770
Alexander Wynch	1773
Lord Pigot (Suspended)	1775
George Stratton	1776
John Whitehill (Acting)	1777
Sir Thomas Rumbold, Bart.	1778
John Whitehill (Acting)	1780
Charles Smith (Acting)	1780
Lord Macartney, K.B.	1781

Governors of Madras.

Lord Macartney, K.B.	1785
Alexander Davidson (Acting)	1785
Major-General Sir Archibald Campbell, K.B.	1786
John Holland (Acting)	1789
Edward J. Holland (Acting)	1790
Major-General William Medows	1790
Sir Charles Oakeley, Bart.	1792
Lord Hobart	1794
Major-General George Harris (Acting)	1798
Lord Clive	1799
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck	1803
William Petrie (Acting)	1807
Sir George Hilary Barlow, Bart., K.B.	1807
Lieut.-General the Hon. John Abercromby	1813
The Right Hon. Hugh Elliot	1814
Major-General Sir Thomas Munro, Bart., K.C.H. Died, 6 July, 1827.	1820

Henry Sullivan Græme (<i>Acting</i>) 1827	The Right Hon. W. P. Adam 1880
Stephen Rumbold Lushington 1827	Died at Ootacamund, 24 May, 1881.
Lieut.-General Sir Frederick Adam, K.C.B. 1832	William Hudleston (<i>Acting</i>) 1881
George Edward Russell (<i>Acting</i>) 1837	The Right Hon. M. E. Grant Duff 1881
Lord Elphinstone, G.C.H., P.C. 1837	The Right Hon. Robert Bourke, P.C. 1884
Lieut.-General the Marquess of Tweeddale, K.T., G.B. 1842	Lord Connemara, 12 May, 1887 (by creation).
Henry Dickinson (<i>Acting</i>) 1848	John Henry Garstin, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>) .. 1890
Major-General the Right Hon. Sir Henry Pottinger, Bart., G.C.B. 1848	Baron Wenlock 1891
Daniel Elliott (<i>Acting</i>) 1854	Sir Arthur Ellbank Havelock, G.C.M.G. .. 1896
Lord Harris 1854	Baron Amptill 1900
Sir Charles Edward Trevelyan, K.C.B. 1859	Acting Viceroy and Governor-General, 1904.
William Ambrose Morehead (<i>Acting</i>) .. 1860	James Thomson, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>) 1904
Sir Henry George Ward, G.C.M.G. 1860	Gabriel Stokes, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>) 1908
Died at Madras, 2 August, 1860.	Hon. Sir Arthur Lawley, K.C.M.G., G.C.I.E. 1906
William Ambrose Morehead (<i>Acting</i>) .. 1860	Sir Thomas David Gibson-Carmichael, Bart., K.C.M.G., G.C.I.E. (b) 1911
Sir William Thomas Denison, K.C.B. 1861	Became Governor of Bengal, 1 April, 1912
Acting Viceroy, 1863 to 1864.	Sir Murray Hammick, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1912
Edward Maltby (<i>Acting</i>) 1863	(<i>Acting</i>).
Lord Napier of Merchistoun, K.T. (a) 1866	Right Hon. Baron Pentland, P.C., G.C.I.E. 1912
Acting Viceroy.	Baron Willingdon 1918
Alexander John Arbuthnot, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>) 1872	Lord Goschen 1924
Lord Hobart 1872	(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Ettrick.
Died at Madras, 27 April, 1875.	(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Carmichael of Skirling.
William Rose Robinson, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>) .. 1875	
The Duke of Buckingham and Chandos .. 1875	

MADRAS LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRESIDENT.

The Hon. Diwan Bahadur L. D. Swamikannu Pillai Avargal, C.I.E., I.S.O.

I.—MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Ex-officio.

The Hon. Sir Arthur Rowland Knapp, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., G.B.E.

The Hon. Mr. C. P. Ramaswami Ayyar, C.I.E.

The Hon. Mr. R. A. Graham, C.S.I.

The Hon. Mr. N. E. Marjoribank, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S. (*Temp.*)

II.—ELECTED MEMBERS.

(a) *Ministers*

The Hon. the Raja of Panagal.

The Hon. Diwan Bahadur T. N. Sivagnanam Pillai Avargal.

The Hon. Sir A. P. Patro, Kt.

(b) *Other Members.*

M. R. Ry. Rao Bahadur C. Natesa Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.C.

" " O. Tanikachala Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.C.

Diwan Bahadur Sir P. Tyagaraya Chetti, Kt., M.L.C.

M. R. Ry. Semi Venkatachalam Chetti Garu, M.L.C.

Rao Sahib R. V. Ramachari Avargal, M.L.C.

" " T. C. Tangavelu Pillai Avargal, M.L.C.

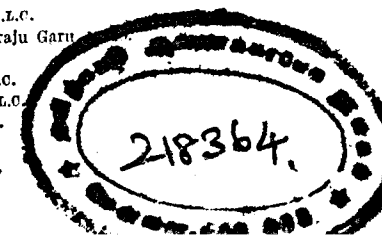
Diwan Bahadur K. Suryanarayanamurti Nayudu Garu, M.L.C.

A. V. Dhanoji Rao Garu, M.L.C.

" " K. Subrahmanya Pillai Avargal, M.L.C.

Diwan Bahadur B. Kesava Pillai Avargal, M.L.C.

M. R. Ry. G. Rameswara Rao Garu, M.L.C.
" " T. Adinarayana Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " W. Vijayaraghava Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " Rao Bahadur K. Krishnaswami Nayudu Garu, M.L.C.
" " K. Sitarama Reddiyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " R. Srinivasa Ayyangar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " K. Venkatachala Padayachi Avargal, M.L.C.
" " A. Ranganatha Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " P. Siva Rao Garu, M.L.C.
" " A. Ramaswami Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " C. Muttayya Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " C. Ramalinga Reddi Garu, M.L.C.
" " B. Muniswami Nayudu Garu, M.L.C.
" " C. V. Venkataramana Ayyangar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " Rao Bahadur T. A. Ramalinga Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " V. C. Vellingiri Goundar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " K. Koti Reddi Garu, M.L.C.
" " Rai Bahadur T. M. Narasimhachari Garu, M.L.C.
Sriman Biswanath Das Mahasayo, M.L.C.
M. R. Ry. J. Kuppuswami Garu, M.L.C.
" " P. Anjaneyulu Pantulu Garu, M.L.C.
" " Rao Bahadur P. C. Ethirajulu Nayudu Garu, M.L.C.
" " B. Mahabala Hegde Avargal, M.L.C.
" " Rao Sahib U. Rama Rao Avargal, M.L.C.
" " M. Gangaraju Garu, M.L.C.
" " M. Sithayya Garu, M.L.C.
" " P. Peddiraju Garu, M.L.C.
" " K. Sarvarayudu Garu, M.L.C.
" " Rao Bahadur C. Venkataranga Reddi Garu, M.L.C.
" " Bikkina Venkataratnaman Garu Avargal, M.L.C.
" " K. Sarabha Reddi Garu, M.L.C.
" " Diwan Bahadur M. Krishnan Nayar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " V. Madhava Raja Avargal, M.L.C.
" " Rao Bahadur A. S. Krishna Rao Pantulu Garu, M.L.C.
" " B. Ramachandra Reddi Garu, M.L.C.
" " P. C. Muthu Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " Rao Bahadur P. K. A. C. Virappa Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " C. D. Appavu Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " Rao Sahib S. Ellappa Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " C. Maruthavanam Pillai Avargal, M.L.C.
" " V. Venkatarama Ayyar <i>alias</i> Pantulu Ayyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " S. Muthiah Mudaliyar Avargal, M.L.C.
Sir K. Venkatarreddi Nayudu Garu, Kt., M.L.C.
M. R. Ry. P. N. Marthandam Pillai Avargal, M.L.C.
" " Diwan Bahadur S. Rm. M. C. Pethachi Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " M. R. Seturatnam Ayyar Avargal, M.L.C.
" " H. B. Ari Gowder Avargal, M.L.C.
" " P. C. Venkatapati Raju Garu, M.L.C.
" " Rao Bahadur C. V. S. Narasimharaju Garu
" " P. T. Rajan Avargal, M.L.C.
" " C. Ponnuswami Nayudu Garu, M.L.C.
" " A. Chidambara Nadar Avargal, M.L.C.
Muhammad Moosa Saib Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C.
Abbas Ali Khan Bahadur, M.L.C.
Muhammad Yahya Ali Sahib Bahadur, M.L.C.



M. Abdulla Ghattala Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.
 V. Hamid Sultan Marakkayar Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.
 Munshi Abdul Wahab Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.
 Khan Sahib Saiyid Diwan Abdul Razzaq Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.
 Khan Bahadur P. Khalif-la-lah Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.
 T. M. Moldu Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.
 Kottal Uppl Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.
 Khan Bahadur Haji Abd-ul-lah Haji Qasim Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.
 Abdul Hye Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.
 T. N. Bava Ravuthar Muhammad Sahib Bahadur, M.L.O.
 Mr. M. Ratnaswami, M.L.C.
 Mr. J. A. Saldanha, M.L.C.
 Mr. S. Arpudaswami Udayar, M.L.C.
 Rao Bahadur Cruz Fernandez, M.L.C.
 Mr. J. D. Samuel, M.L.C.
 Mr. P. W. Partridge, M.L.C.
 Mr. A. E. Rencontre, M.L.C.
 Mr. R. Ry. S. Satyamurti Avargal, M.L.C.
 Mr. C. R. T. Congreve, M.L.C.
 M. R. Ry. V. N. Suryanarayana Raju Garu, M.L.O.
 " S. R. Y. Ankinedu Prasad Bahadur Garu, M.L.C.
 Dr. P. Subbarayan, M.L.C.
 The Raja of Ramnad, M.L.C.
 M. B. Ry. K. Prabhakaran Tampan Avargal, M.L.C.
 Mr. C. B. Wood, M.L.C.
 Mr. A. J. Leech, M.L.C.
 Mr. L. C. Nicholson, M.L.C.
 M. B. Ry. C. Gopala Menon Avarga, M.L.C.
 " Rao Bahadur A. M. Murugappa Chettiyar Avargal, M.L.C.

III.—NOMINATED MEMBERS.

(a) Officials.

Mr. G. F. Paddison, C.S.I., I.O.S., M.L.C.
 Mr. W. E. Legh, C.I.E., I.O.S., M.L.C.
 Vacant.
 Mr. P. L. Moore, C.I.F., I.O.S., M.L.C.
 Mr. H. Tireman, M.L.C.
 Dr. John Mathai, M.L.C.
 Mr. R. W. Davies, I.O.S., M.L.C.

(b) Non-officials.

Mr. J. A. Davis, M.L.C.
 M. B. Ry. Rao Bahadur P. Raman Avargal, M.L.C.
 Rao Sahib P. V. Gopalan Avargal, M.L.C.
 " L. C. Guruswami, Avargal, M.L.C.
 " G. Premayya Garu, M.L.C.
 " P. V. S. Sundaramurti Avargal, M.L.C.
 " R. Srinivasan Avargal, M.L.C.
 " R. Veerian Avargal, M.L.C.
 " B. Obalesappa Garu, M.L.C.
 " P. K. S. A. Arumuga Nadar Avargal, M.L.C.
 " P. Sagaram Garu, M.L.C.
 " Raghuchandra Bellai Avargal, M.L.C.
 " T. Mallesappa Garu, M.L.C.
 " Q. M. Narayanan Nambudiripad Avargal, M.L.C.
 " N. Desandirudu Garu, M.L.C.

Hony. Secy. Madras, M.L.C.

M. B. Ry. P. S. Rajappa Tevar Avargal, M.L.C.
 K. B. Ponnaswami Pillai Avargal, M.L.C.

(c) Special Members.

Mr. Bradford-Leslie, M.L.C.
 " J. L. P. Roche Victoria, M.L.C.

SECRETARY TO THE COUNCIL.

M. B. Ry. R. V. Krishna Ayyar Avargal, B.A., M.L.

The Bengal Presidency.

Manufacture and Trade.

The Presidency of Bengal, as constituted on the 1st April 1912, comprises the Burdwan and Presidency divisions and the district of Darjeeling, which were formerly administered by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal; and the Rajshahi, Dacca and Chittagong divisions which by the partition of the old Province had been placed under the administration of the Lieutenant-Governor of Eastern Bengal and Assam. The area of the Presidency is 82,277 square miles, and it possesses a population of 47,569,145 persons; included within this area are the two Indian States of Cooch Behar and Tripura, which are under the general supervision of the Governor of Bengal. The area of the British territory is 76,843 square miles. Bengal comprises the lower valleys and deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, and in the main consists of a great alluvial plain intersected in its southern portion by innumerable waterways. In the north are the Himalayan mountains and sub-montane tracts of Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri, and on the south-east the hills in Tripura and Chittagong, while on the west the Chota Nagpur plateau is continued by an undulating tract running through the western portions of Midnapur, Bankura, Burdwan and Bishnupur. The general range of the country however is very low, and a great fertile plain extends southward from Jalpaiguri to the forests and swamps known as the Sunderbans, which lie between the area of cultivation and the Bay of Bengal.

The People.

Of the inhabitants of the Presidency 25,488,124 or 53·55 per cent. are Mahomedans and 20,809,148 Hindus. These two major religions embrace all, but 2·73 per cent. of the population, Christians, Buddhists and Animists combined, number 1,273,873.

Bengali is spoken by ninety-two per cent. of the population of the Presidency and Hindi and Urdu by 3·8 per cent. The Oriya-speaking people number 298,372 and Nepali is the tongue of 93,060 persons principally residents in the Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri districts. The great majority of the speakers of the Munda languages are Santals in West and North Bengal.

Industries.

According to the returns of the Census of 1921 nearly 37 millions or over 77 per cent. of the population derive their support from pasture and agriculture, and of these more than 30½ millions are cultivators, and more than 4½ millions farm servants and field labourers. The area under jute in 1923 is estimated at 2,444,408 acres against 1,550,000 in 1922. Bengal is the most important rice-producing area in Northern India, and it is computed that about 85 per cent. of the cultivated area of the Presidency is devoted to its production. Other crops include barley, wheat, pulses and oil-seeds, the area devoted to the last named in 1923 being 1,483,700 acres. Sugar is produced both from the sugar-cane and from the date-palm, and tobacco is grown for local consumption in nearly every district of Bengal. The area under tea in 1923 was 180,258 acres. There were 325 plantations employing a daily average of 138,671 permanent and 7,659 temporary hands.

The main industries in this part of India in addition to the agricultural industry are the jute mill industry, the tea industry (largely an Assam industry) and coal mining. The jute mills in and around Calcutta constitute the principal manufacturing industry of the Presidency. From 1st April to 31st December 1921 all jute mills worked four days per week. From 1st January to 31st March 1923, multiple shift mills worked four days of 13½ hours each per week, single shift mills five days per week, namely four days of 11 hours each and one day of 10 hours. There were 83 mills at work during the year 1923-24 with 48,004 looms and 1,025,343 spindles. The average number of persons employed daily was 3,23,354. The labour supply of mills during the year has been fair, but there have been many days lost through strikes at different mills. The value of the exports of Raw Jute by sea from Calcutta during 1922-23 increased from Rs. 13,71,09 lakhs to Rs. 21,46,79 lakhs. The quantity exported was more than in the preceding year by nearly 100,000 tons and amounted to 553,000 tons. The Jute cess benefited the Calcutta Improvement Trust to the extent of Rs. 9·72 lakhs, while Rs. 8·24 lakhs were collected in the preceding year. The exports of raw and manufactured jute represented more than half of Calcutta's exports during 1922-23 and those with the exception of cotton were India's premier exports in that year. Other principal industries were cotton twist and yarn, silk yarn and cloth, hand-made cloth, sugar, molasses and paper. Eleven cotton mills were at work during 1923-24 employing daily on an average 11,943 persons. The silk weaving industry continues to decline. There was only one silk mill working during 1922-24 which employed 153 hands. The manufacture of tea is carried on an extensive scale in Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri. The capital employed by joint stock companies in the industry in India amounted to nearly Rs. 43 crores and the daily average labour force to 781,565 during 1923. In 1922 the number of coal mines under the scope of the Indian Mines Act worked in Bengal was 283. The total output for Bengal was 4,328,986 tons against 4,259,642 tons raised in 1921, while the output of all the mines in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam amounted to 17,385,161 tons. The paid up capital of joint stock coal companies only in the industry employed in these provinces is approximately Rs. 11·37 lakhs. The daily average of persons employed in the coal mines in Bengal in 1922 was 44,893 and in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam 138,150. Three paper mills produced 21,618 tons of paper valued at Rs. 1,22,24,040 in 1923.

In 1922-23 the foreign sea-borne trade of Bengal (excluding treasure but including Government stores) amounted to Rs. 205 crores of which 85 crores represented imports and Rs. 120 crores exports. Of the total foreign and coasting trade of Bengal, more than 95 per cent. was the share of Calcutta. The six chief exports from Bengal are in order of importance; jute (raw and manufactured), tea,

lac, grain (pulse and flour), seeds, hides and skins (raw), and the six leading imports are cotton goods, metals and ores, machinery and mill-work, sugar, railway plant and rolling stock, and oils.

Administration.

The present form of administration in Bengal dates from January 1921. In 1912 the Government of the Province underwent an important change, when, in accordance with the Proclamation of His Majesty the King-Emperor at Delhi, the Province was raised from the status of a Lieutenant-Governor to that of a Governor-in-Council, thus bringing it into line with the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay. In 1921, under the Reform Scheme, the Local Government was reconstituted, certain of the departments being placed under the control of Ministers appointed from among elected members of the Legislative Council. There are normally four members of the Executive Council, who are in charge of the "reserved subjects," and three Ministers, who are in charge of the "transferred subjects," but in 1924, owing to political reasons, there were only two ministers, and these had to resign owing to the refusal of the Legislative Council to vote their salaries. On their resignation, the transferred subjects were carried on by the members of the Executive Council. The working of this system and the division of the administration into these two classes of subjects is fully described in the sections to which reference is made.

Bengal is administered by five Commissioners, the divisions being those of the Presidency, Burdwan, Rajshahi, Dacca and Chittagong. The unit of administration is the District Magistrate and Collector. As Collector he supervises the ingathering of the revenue and is the head of all the Departments connected with it, while as District Magistrate he is responsible for the administration of criminal justice in the district. The immediate superior of the District Magistrate is the Divisional Commissioner. Commissioners are the channels of communication between the local officers and the Government. In certain revenue matters they are, in their turn, subject to the Board of Revenue in Calcutta; in other matters they are under the direct control of Government.

Justice.

The administration of Justice is entrusted to the High Court of Calcutta which consists of the Chief Justice who is a Barrister and 15 Puisne Judges including one additional Judge who are Barristers, Civilians or Vakils. Below the High Court are the District and Additional Judges, the Small Causes Court and Subordinate Judges and the Munsiffs. Of these officers the District and Additional Judges and a certain number of subordinate Judges are also endowed with the powers of a Criminal Court while the remainder have jurisdiction in Civil matters only. Criminal Justice is administered by the High Court, the Courts of Session and the Courts of the various classes of Magistrates. On its appellate side the High Court disposes of appeals from the order of a Court of Session, and it also confirms, modifies, or annuls sentences of death passed by Sessions Courts. Calcutta has five Presidency Magistrates, including a Temporary Magistrate, two Municipal Magis-

trates and also a number of Honorary Magistrates and it possesses a Court of Small Causes with Judges who dispose of cases of the class that are usually heard in County Courts in England.

Local Self-Government.

By Bengal Act III of 1884 which regulates municipal bodies in the interior and its subsequent amendments the powers of Commissioners of municipalities have been increased and the elective franchise has been extended. Municipal expenditure now comprises a large number of objects, including veterinary institutions and the training and employment of Health Officers and Sanitary Inspectors and female medical practitioners. The Commissioners also have large powers in regard to the water-supply and the regulation of buildings. The municipal Government of Calcutta is governed by Act III of 1923. This Act, which replaced Act III of 1889, makes the Corporation paramount in matters relating to municipal administration. The Act provides for the appointment of a Mayor, who replaces the Chairman of the old Act, a Deputy Mayor, an Executive Officer, and Deputy Executive Officers, all elected by the Corporation. The appointment of the Chief Executive Officer is subject to the approval of Government. The total number of councillors is 85, with 6 aldermen, elected by the councillors. Ten of the councillors are nominated by Government, and by the general or special constituencies. There are separate constituencies for Mahomedans. In order to improve the insanitary and congested areas of the city, the Calcutta Improvement Trust has been created with extensive powers. In the mofussil, District and Local Boards exercise considerable powers, with regard to Public Works, Education and Medical relief and Union Committees have been formed which deal for the most part with the control of village roads, sanitation and water-supply.

Bengal Act V of 1919 introduced a new system of self-government by the creation of village authorities vested with the power and duties necessary for the management of communal village affairs and entrusted with powers of self-taxation. The new village authority, to be called the Union Board, will replace the existing Chaukidari *panchayats* and the Union Committee and will deal with the village police, village roads, water supply, sanitation, primary schools and dispensaries. The Act also empowers Government to create out of the members of the Union Boards Village Benches and Courts for the trial of petty criminal and civil cases arising within the union. The Act has been extended to all Districts in the Presidency except Darjeeling, Chittagong, and Malda and in 1923 over 2,000 Union Boards were sanctioned, of which nearly 1,400 were actually constituted.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is under the charge of a Chief Engineer who is also the Secretary to Government in the P. W. and Railway Departments.

The P. W. D. deals with questions regarding the construction of public buildings and roads

The Railway Department deals with questions regarding acquisition of lands required by the several Railways and alignment of main lines of Railways and Tramway projects.

Irrigation.

The Irrigation Department deals with matters connected with the numerous embankments and drainage works as well as the waterways that intersect the Presidency.

Marine.

The Marine Department deals with all questions connected with the Bengal Pilot Service, merchant shipping, and inland navigation.

Police.

The Bengal Police force comprises the Military Police, the District Police, the Railway Police, and the River Police. The Bengal Police are under the control of the Inspector-General of Police, the present Inspector-General being a member of the Imperial Police Service. Under him are Deputy Inspectors-General, for the Dacca Range, the Rajshahi range, the Presidency range, the Burdwan range and the Bakarganj range and also one Deputy Inspector-General in charge of the C. I. D. and the Intelligence Branch. Each district is in charge of a Superintendent, and some of the more important districts have an Additional Superintendent. The Railway Police is divided into three distinct charges each under a Superintendent. The River Police is also under a Superintendent. The cadre comprises Assistant Superintendents, Deputy Superintendents, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, head constables and constables. There is also a Village Police, composed of daffadars and chowkidars, who receive a monthly salary which is collected from the villages or unions by the Panchayat or Union Board. There is a training college and school at Sardah. In the district of Rajshahi where newly appointed gazetted officers, and constables of the Bengal Police learn their duties. The Calcutta City Police is a separate force maintained by Government under a Commissioner who is responsible direct to Government. The Commissioner has under him Deputy Commissioners, Assistant Commissioners, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, head constables and constables. A school for the training of recruits for the Calcutta Police force has been established at Calcutta. The annual cost of the Police is over 183 lakhs.

Medical.

The head of the Medical Department is the Surgeon-General with the Government of Bengal, and Sanitation is in charge of the Director of Public Health, the former appointment is always held by a member of the Indian Medical Service, while the latter post is not reserved. There is also a Chief Engineer, Public Health Department, Bengal. In the districts the Civil Surgeons are responsible for medical work. There are 26 hospitals in Calcutta, 10 of which are supported by the Government and 416,019 persons were treated at these institutions of whom 40,775 were in-patients. In the mofussil districts there are 914 hospitals and dispensaries; the number of patients treated in them was 7,082,603 including 4,975 in-patients.

Education.

In the Presidency of Bengal education is imparted partly through Government agency and partly through private bodies, assisted to some extent by Government grants-in-aid. Government maintains three Arts Colleges in Calcutta (of which one is a college for women and one the Sanskrit College), one at Hughli, one at Krishnagar, two at Dacca, one at Rajshahi and one at Chittagong. It also maintains three training colleges, one at Calcutta, one at Dacca, and one at Kurseong for teachers who teach in secondary schools through the medium of English, and 5 normal schools, one in each division, for the training of teachers in secondary schools through the medium of the vernacular; also an engineering college at Sibpur and an engineering school at Dacca, two medical colleges, a veterinary college, a school of art and a commercial school in Calcutta, and a weaving school at Serampore. It also provides at the headquarters of all districts, except Burdwan and Midnapore, and also at certain other mofussil centres, English High schools for the education of boys, while to some Government Arts Colleges high schools are attached. In Calcutta there are four Government high schools for boys, two of which are attached to Presidency College and one to the Sanskrit College. Government high schools for girls exist only in the headquarters stations of Calcutta, Dacca, Mymensingh, Barisal and Chittagong. The other secondary schools, with the exception of a few middle schools managed either by Government or by municipal and district boards, are under private control. The administration of primary education in all areas, which are not under municipalities, rests with the district boards, grants being given from provincial revenues to the boards, which contribute only slightly from their own funds. Only in backward localities are such schools either entirely managed, or directly aided, by Government. Apart from the institutions referred to above, 85 institutions called Gurm Training Schools are maintained by the Department for the training of primary school teachers. For the education of Mahomedans, there are senior madrasas at Calcutta, Dacca, Chittagong and Hughli, and one junior madrasa at Rajshahi which are managed by Government. There are also certain Government institutions for technical and industrial education. All institutions for technical and industrial education (except B. E. College, the Alsanullah School of Engineering, Dacca, the Government Commercial Institute and the Government School of Art, Calcutta) are now under the control of the Director of Industries. A large proportion of educational work of every grade is under the control of various missionary bodies, which are assisted by Government grants-in-aid.

The municipalities are required to expend a certain proportion of their ordinary income on education. They are mainly responsible for primary education within their jurisdiction, but schools in these areas are eligible also for grants from Government. These bodies maintain a first grade Arts College and a high school at Burdwan, a high school at Santipur and a high school at Chittagong.

In 1923-24 there were in the Presidency:—

Arts Colleges	42	Secondary Schools	2,619
Law	3	Primary Schools	49,425
Medical Colleges	3	Special	2,546
Engrg. College	1	Private Institutions	1,352
Training Colleges	5		
Veterinary College	1		
with 2,037,138 pupils in all.			

The Department is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, assisted by an Assistant Director and an Assistant Director for Muhammadan Education. Each division is in charge of a Divisional Inspector assisted by a certain number of Additional or second Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors for Mahomedan Education according to the requirements of the several divisions. Similarly the administrative charge of the primary education of each district is in the hands of a District Inspector assisted by Sub-Divisional Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of Schools, the latter class officers being in some instances helped by officers of humbler status called Assistant Sub-Inspectors and Inspecting

Pandits and Maulvis. Higher education is controlled by the Universities of Calcutta and Dacca established in 1857 and 1921, respectively, administered by the Chancellor (the Governor of Bengal), the Vice-Chancellor (appointed by Government) and a number of ex-officio elected and nominated fellows. The University of Calcutta maintains a Law College, called the University Law College, Calcutta. The Dacca University also has Law Department attached to it. The Calcutta University is mainly an examining body, but it has now made itself responsible for the actual teaching of students, for which purpose it employs an agency which is quite distinct from the staffs of the affiliated colleges.

The University at Dacca is of the residential type. There is a Board for Secondary and Intermediate Education at Dacca. It conducts the Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations for the students of institutions at Dacca and also the Islamic Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations.

THE FINANCES OF BENGAL.

As under the reformed constitution the Provinces enjoy substantial financial autonomy, the finances of Bengal are set out in some detail.

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1924-25.

Heads of Revenue.

	Thousands of Rs.
Land Revenue	3,08,11
Excise	2,16,00
Stamps	3,30,00
Forest	22,50
Registration	24,50
Scheduled Taxes	25,00
Subsidised Companies	1,00
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept (Net)	2,16
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	3,01
Interest	3,44
Administration of Justice	14,00
Jails and Convict Settlements	12,55
Police	4,47
Ports and Pilotage	36
Education	11,23
Medical	9,21
Public Health	22
Agriculture	3,58
Industries	5,59
Miscellaneous Departments	93
Civil Works	8,96
Receipts in aid of Superannuation	4,37
Stationery and Printing	3,75
Miscellaneous	14,16
Miscellaneous Adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	..
Loans and Advances by the Bengal Government	10,39
Loans between the Central and the Bengal Government	..
Famine Insurance Fund	1,90
Total	10,41,39
Opening balance	1,14,73
Grand Total	11,56,12

Thousands of Rs.

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1924-25.

Heads of Expenditure.

Land Revenue	36,52
Excise	13,71
Stamps	9,64
Forests	15,52
Registration	18,53
Scheduled Taxes	15
Interest on Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	17,45
Other Revenue Expenditure financed from ordinary Revenue	14,64
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation and Drainage Works.—	
Finance from Ordinary Revenue	7,12
Interest on Ordinary Debt	—6,93
Sinking Funds	..
General Administration	1,18,95
Administration of Justice	1,14,06
Jails and Convict Settlements	38,86
Police	1,85,04
Ports and Pilotage	6,77
Scientific Departments	25
Education	1,16,35
Medical	54,29
Public Health	28,92
Agriculture	19,48
Industries	11,44
Miscellaneous Departments	5,52
Exchange on Transactions with London	..
Civil Works	1,00,17
Famine Relief and Insurance	2,00
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	49,02
Stationery and Printing	22,42
Miscellaneous	3,98
Miscellaneous Adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	12
Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue—	
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	—2,37
Loans and Advances by the Bengal Government	9,59
Loans between the Central and the Bengal Government	4,64
Total	10,15,85
Closing balance	1,40,27
Grand Total	11,56,12

Administration.

GOVERNOR AND PRESIDENT IN COUNCIL.

His Excellency The Rt. Hon. Victor Alexander George Robert Bulwer-Lytton, Earl of Lytton, P.C., G.C.I.E., took his seat, 28th March 1922.

PERSONAL STAFF.

Private Secretary, H. R. Wilkinson, I.C.S.

Military Secretary, Lieut.-Colonel J. Mackenzie, C.I.E.

Surgeon, Major E. H. V. Hodge, I.M.S.

Aide-de-Camp, Captain S. B. Horn, M.C.

Honorary Aides-de-Camp, Lt.-Col. F. E. Wood, Lt.-Col. W. M. Craddock and Capt. O. Goldsmith.

Indian Aide-de-Camp, Risaldar Mai Singh.

MEMBERS OF COUNCIL.

The Hon. Mr. Hugh Lansdown Stephenson, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.E.S.

" " Maharajadhiraja Bahadur of Burdwan, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.

" " Mr. James Donald, C.I.E., I.C.S., (Temporary).

" " Sir Abdur Rahim.

SECRETARIAT.

Chief Secretary to Government, L. Birley, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Secretary, Revenue Department, M. C. McAlpin.

Secretary, Finance and Commerce Departments, A. Marr, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Secretary to the Council and Secretary, Legislative Department, C. Tindall, C.I.E.

Secretary to Government, Public Works Department, and Chief Engineer, G. G. Day (Roads, Buildings and Railway); and C. Addams-Williams, C.I.E. (Irrigation.)

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction; W. W. Hornell.
Principal, School of Arts, P. Brown.

Inspector-General of Police, Robert Boyle Hyde (on leave); T. C. Simpson (Offg.)

Commissioner, Calcutta Police, Sir Reginald Clarke (on leave); C. A. Tegar, C.I.E. (Offg.)

Conservator of Forests, R. C. Milward.

Surgeon-General, Major General Benjamin Hobbs Deare, C.I.E., I.M.S. (on leave); Col. Richard Heard, M.D. (Offg.)

Collector of Customs, Calcutta, W. W. Nind, B.A.

Commissioner of Excise and Salt, G. P. Hogg, M.A., I.C.S.

Accountant-General, J. C. Mitra, M.A., B.L.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. F. S. C. Thompson, I.M.S.

Postmaster-General, H. N. Hutchison, O.B.E., I.C.S.

Inspector-General of Registration, Khan Bahadur Amin-ul-Islam.

Director of Agriculture, G. Evans, M.A., C.I.E.

Protector of Emigrants, Major Charles Alkman Gourlay, I.M.S.

Superintendent, Royal Botanic Gardens, Lieut.-Colonel A. T. Gage.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF BENGAL.

Frederick J. Halliday 1854

John P. Grant 1859

Cecil Beadon 1862

William Grey 1867

George Campbell 1871

Sir Richard Temple, Bart., K.C.S.I. .. 1874

The Hon. Ashley Eden, C.S.I. 1877

Sir Stuart C. Bayley, K.C.S.I. (Offg.) .. 1879

A. Rivers Thompson, C.S.I., C.I.E. .. 1882

H. A. Cookerell, C.S.I. (Officiating) .. 1885

Sir Stuart C. Bayley, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. .. 1887

Sir Charles Alfred Elliott, K.C.S.I. .. 1890

Sir A. P. MacDonnell, K.C.S.I. (Offg.) .. 1893

Sir Alexander Mackenzie, K.C.S.I. .. 1895

Retired 6th April 1898.

Charles Cecil Stevens, C.S.I. (Officiating) .. 1897

Sir John Woodburn, K.C.S.I. 1898

Died, 21st Nov. 1902.

J. A. Bourdillon, C.S.I. (Officiating) .. 1902

Sir A. H. Leith Fraser, K.C.S.I. 1903

Lancelot Hare, C.S.I., C.I.E. (Offg.) .. 1906

F. A. Slack (Officiating) 1906

Sir E. N. Baker, K.C.S.I. 1908

Retired 21st Sept. 1911.

F. W. Duke, C.S.I. (Officiating) 1911

The office of Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal was abolished on April 1st, 1912, when Bengal was raised to a Governorship.

GOVERNORS OF THE PRESIDENCY OF BENGAL

WILLIAM IN BENGAL.

The Rt. Hon. Baron Carmichael of Skirling, G.C.I.E., K.C.M.G. 1912

The Rt. Hon. Earl of Ronaldshay, G.C.I.E. 1917

The Rt. Hon. Lord Lytton 1922

BENGAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Mr. H. E. A. Cotton, C.I.E., President.

Major Hassan Suhrawardy, M.D., F.R.C.S.; Deputy President.

Ex-officio—

The Hon'ble Sir Bijay Chand Mahtab, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., I.O.M., Maharajadhiraja Bahadur of Burdwan.

The Hon'ble Sir Abd-ur-Rahim, Kt.

The Hon'ble Sir Hugh Stephenson, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. Donald, C.S.I., C.I.E.

Elected—

The Hon'ble Maulvi A. K. Fazl-ul-Huq.

The Hon'ble Hadji Mr. A. K. Abu Ahmed Khan Ghuznavi.

Official Nominated Members—

Mr. A. N. Moberly.

" E. F. Oaten.

" M. C. McAlpin, C.I.E.

" H. C. Liddell.

" A. Marr, C.I.E.

" J. A. L. Swan.

" G. S. Dutt.

" S. N. Roy.

" G. G. Dey.

" J. T. Donovan.

" C. Addams-Williams, C.I.E.

" T. Emerson, C.I.E.

" S. C. Stuart-Williams.

Nominated Non-Officials—

Mr. S. C. Mukerji.

Babu Charu Chandra Das.

Mr. K. C. Roy Chaudhury.

" M. Daud.

Babu Debi Prosad Khaitan.

Rai Abinash Ch. Banerjee Bahadur, M.A.

Mr. D. J. Cohen.

" P. N. Guha.

" K. G. M. Farouki.

Elected Members

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency.
Babu Jatindra Nath Basu	Calcutta North (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. Satcowripati Roy	Calcutta North-West (Non-Muhammadan).
Dr. Pramathanath Banerjee	Calcutta East (Non-Muhammadan.)
Mr. Nirmal Chandra Chunder.	Calcutta North Central (Non-Muhammadan.
Mr. Ashiny Coomar Banerjee	Calcutta South Central (Non-Muhammadan).
S. N. Halder	Calcutta South (Non-Muhammadan.)
Babu Barada Prosad Dey, B.L.	Hooghly Municipal (Non-Muhammadan.)
Babu Khagendra Nath Ganguly, Vakil. ..	Howrah Municipal (Non-Muhammadan.)
Dr. Bidhan Chandra Roy	24-Parganas Municipal North (Non-Muhammadan.)

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency.
Babu Surendra Nath Ray	24-Parganas Municipal South (Non-Muhamm-
Rai Pyari Lal Doss Bahadur, M.B.E.	dan.) Dacca City (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Sarat Ch. Basu	Burdwan (Non-Muhammadian.)
Raja Maniloli Singh Roy, C.I.E.	Do.
Babu Abanish Chandra Ray	Birbhum (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Anilbaran Roy	Bankura West (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Umes Chandra Chatterjee, B.L.	Bankura East (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Debendra Lal Khan	Midnapore North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. C. E. Das	Midnapore South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Mahendra Nath Maity	Do.
Babu Taraknath Mukerjee	Hooghly Rural (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Manmatha Nath Roy	Howrah Rural (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Hem Chandra Nasker	24-Parganas Rural Central (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. Birendra Nath Sasmal	24-Parganas Rural South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Rai Harendranath Chaudhuri, M.A., B.L.	24-Parganas Rural North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Hemanta Kumar Sarker.	Nadia (Non-Muhammadian.)
Maharaj Kumar Sris Chandra Nandy	Murshidabad (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Jogendra Nath Mitra	Jessore South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. D. N. Roy, Bar-at-Law	Jessore North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Sailaja Nath Roy Chaudhuri	Khulna (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. Kiran Sankar Roy	Dacca Rural (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Manmohon Neogi	Mymensingh West (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Naliniranjan Sarker	Mymensingh East (Non-Muhammadian.)
Dr. Kumud Sankar Ray	Faridpur North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Dr. Mohini Mohon Das	Faridpur South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. Nisith Chandra Sen	Bakarganj North (Non-Muhammadian.)
Rai Satyendra Nath Roy Choudhuri Bahadur. ..	Bakarganj South (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. J. M. Sen Gupta, Bar-at-Law	Chittagong (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Akhil Chandra Datta	Tippera (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Satyendra Chandra Mitra	Noakhali (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Sudarsan Chakravorty	Rajshahi (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Jogindra Chandra Chakravorti, M.A., B.L. ..	Dinajpur (Non-Muhammadian.)
Rai Sahib Panchanan Barma, M.B.E.	Rangpur (Non-Muhammadian.)
Babu Nagendra Narayan Ray, B.L.	Do.
D. J. M. Das Gupta	Bogra cum Pabna (Non-Muhammadian.)

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency.
Babu Rames Chandra Bagchi, B.L.	Malda (Non-Muhammadian.)
Mr. Prasanna Deb Raikut	Jalpaiguri (Non-Muhammadian.)
„ S. Mahboob Aley	Calcutta North (Muhammadian.)
„ H. S. Suhrawardy	Calcutta South (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Wahed Hossain	Barrackpore Municipal (Muhammadian.)
Khan Bahadur Mirza Shujaat Ali Beg	24-Parganas Municipal (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Allabaksh Sarker	Dacca City (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Muhammad Yasin	Burdwan Division North (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Zannoor Ahmed	Burdwan Division South (Muhammadian.)
Dr. A. Suhrawardy	24-Parganas Rural (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Aftab Hossain Joardar	Nadia (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Ekramul Huq, B.L.	Murshidabad (Muhammadian.)
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Abdus Salam	Jessore North (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Abdul Quader	Jessore South (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Sayyed Sultan Ali	Khulna (Muhammadian.)
Nawab Saliyd Nawab Ali Chandhuri, Khan Bahadur, C.I.E.	Dacca West Rural (Muhammadian.)
Khan Bahadur Kazi Zahirul Huq	Dacca East Rural (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Md. Abdul Jubbar Pahlowan	Mymensingh West (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Tayebuddin Ahmed, B.L.	Mymensingh East (Muhammadian.)
Mr. Akaf Ali	Do.
„ Syed M. Masih, Bar-at-Law	Faridpur North (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Saliyd Abdur Rob Chaudhuri	Faridpur South (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Fazlal Karim Chowdhury	Bakarganj North (Muhammadian.)
Khaje Nazimuddin, M.A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-law. ..	Bakarganj South (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Md. Nurul Huq Chaudhury	Chittagong (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Amanat Khan, B.A.	Do.
Shah Syed Emdadul Haq	Tippera (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Asimuddin Ahamad	Do.
Maulvi Abdur Rashid Khan	Noakhali (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Sayedal Hoque, B.A.	Do.
Haji Lal Mahammed	Rajshahi South (Muhammadian.)
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Md. Cholnuddin	Rajshahi North (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Kader Baksh, B.L.	Dinajpur (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Basar Mahammad	Rangpur West (Muhammadian.)
Maulvi Mahi Uddin Khan	Rangpur East (Muhammadian.)

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency.
Maulvi Rajib Uddin Tarafdar	Bogra (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Abdul Gafur, B.L.	Pabna (Muhammadan.)
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Musharruf Hossain ..	Malda cum Jalpaiguri (Muhammadan.)
Mr. J. A. Jones, C.I.E.	Presidency and Burdwan (European.)
„ Edward Villiers	Do.
„ J. Campbell Forrester	Do.
„ B. J. Corcoran	Dacca and Chittagong (European.)
„ W. L. Travers, O.B.E.	Rajshahi (European.)
„ H. Barton	Anglo-Indian.
Dr. H. W. B. Moreno	Do.
Babu Satya Kishore Banerjee	Burdwan Landholders.
Mr. Provash Chunder Mitter, C.I.E. ..	Presidency Landholders.
Babu Brajendra Kishore Roy Chaudhury ..	Dacca Landholders.
Mr. Arun Chandra Singha	Chittagong Landholders.
Kumar Shib Shekhareswar Ray	Rajshahi Landholders.
Babu Bejoy Krishna Bose	Calcutta University.
Mr. A. F. Rahman, B.A.	Dacca University.
„ Arthur d'Anyers Willis	Bengal Chamber of Commerce.
„ A. Cochran, O.B.E.	Do.
„ J. Y. Philip	Do.
„ R. B. Wilson, C.I.E.	Do.
Sir George Godfrey, Kt.	Do.
Mr. G. Morgan	Do.
„ G. F. Rose	Indian Jute Mills Association.
„ C. G. Cooper	Do.
„ A. D. Gordon	Indian Tea Association.
Sir Willoughby Carey, Kt.	Indian Mining Association.
Mr. J. Cottle	Calcutta Trades Association.
[Vacant]	Bengal National Chamber of Commerce.
Raja Reshee Case Law, C.I.E.	Do.
Babu Badridas Goenka	Bengal Marwari Association.
Mr. Tarit Bhusan Roy	Bengal Mahajan Sabha.

Secretary to the Council—C. TINDALL, C.I.E., I.C.S.

The United Provinces.

The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh lie in practically the centre of Upper India. They are bounded on the north by Tibet, on the north-east by Nepal, on the east and south-east by Behar, on the south by two of the Chota Nagpur States of the Central India Agency and the Saugor District of the Central Provinces, and on the west by the States of Gwalior, Dholpur, Bharatpur, Sirmor, and Jubbah, and by the Punjab. Their total area amounts to 106,285 square miles, to which may be added the area of the two Native States of Tehri and Rampur, both of which lie within the United Provinces, 5,079 square miles and the newly-created independent State of Benares with an area of 870 square miles, giving a total of 112,244 square miles. The total population is 46,510,668.

The Provinces, originally termed the North-Western Provinces and so amalgamated in 1877, receiving their present designation in 1902, include four distinct tracts of country: portions of the Himalayas, including the Kumaon Division which consists of three hill districts, two of which are entirely in the hills and one is half in the submontane belt, the sub-Himalayan tract. The great Gangetic plain, and portions of the hill systems of Central India including Bundelkhand. The Gangetic plain is protected by an extensive Canal system, which though somewhat liable to run short of water in extremely dry years, is of great benefit in all ordinary years and years of limited drought. The first two of these tracts are infertile and support a very sparse population and the Central Indian plateau is almost equally infertile, though better populated. The soil of the Gangetic plain, however, possesses an extreme fertility and here the density of population rises from 512 persons per square mile in the west, to 549 in the centre and 718 in the east, which gives the Provinces as a whole a greater population pressure on the soil than any other Provinces in India. In the south there are low rocky hills, broken spurs of the Vindhyan mountains, covered with stunted trees and jungle, and in the North the lower slopes of the Himalayas, clothed with dense forest, affording excellent big and small game shooting, and rising beyond in a tangled mass of ridges, ever higher and higher, until is reached the line of the eternal snows, but the greater part of the provinces consists of level plain, teeming with highly-cultivated fields and watered by three rivers—the Ganges, Jumna, and Gogra.

The People.

The population is mainly Hindu, 85 per cent. ranking as such whilst Mahomedans number 14 per cent., the total of all other religions being a little over 1 per cent. composed of Christians (Europeans and Indians) Jains, Aryas and Sikhs. The Aryas are the followers of the Arya Samaj sect, which obtains widely in the Punjab and has extended its influence to the United Provinces. The three main physical types are Dravidian, Aryan and Mongoloid, the latter being confined to the Himalayan and sub-Himalayan districts and the former to South Mirzapur and Bundelkhand, whilst the high-caste Aryans frequent the Western Districts of the

Provinces. Most of the people, however, show a mixed Arya-Dravidian origin. Three languages are spoken by the great majority of the people in the plains—Western Hindi, Eastern Hindi and Behari; Urdu, or Hindustani is a dialect of Western Hindi, though it contains a large admixture of Persian and Arabic words, which makes it a *lingua franca*.

Industries.

The principal industry is agriculture, which supports no less than 75% of the population. The soils of the Provinces fall into three groups; the valley soils of the Himalayas, the main alluvium and the Central Indian alluvium; the chief characteristic soil of the Central Indian alluvium is the black soil, with a lighter variant, though here also there are light loams and gravel. The Himalayan soils are of local origin and vary with the nature of the rock from which they have been formed, whilst the main alluvium soils are sand, clay and loam, the loam being, naturally, the most productive. The soil generally yields excellent crops of rice, millet, maize, linseed, cotton, wheat; sugarcane, pulses, barley and poppy, rice being grown mostly in low-lying, heavy clays. The greater part of the Provinces is highly cultivated, the rainfall varies from 50 to 60 inches in the Hills, to 40 inches in the Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions, whilst the Agra Division receives about 25 to 30 inches annually only. Drought seriously affected Bundelkhand and the Agra Division, in the past, but improved drainage, and irrigation (a protective system of irrigation works exists and is being extended) have enabled a complete recovery to be made and the agricultural prosperity of the Provinces is now high, though it varies with the rainfall. Land is held mostly on the ryotwari tenure in Bundelkhand and Kumaon, on zemindari tenure in Agra and taluqdari tenure in Oudh. The principal land owners in Oudh are the Taluqdars, some of whom own very large estates. The area held in taluqdari tenure amounts to 51 per cent. of the total area in Oudh.

Manufactures.

The Provinces are not rich in minerals, Coal exists in Southern Mirzapur, iron and copper are found in the Himalayan Districts, and there were mines of importance there formerly, but increased difficulty of working them as veins became exhausted resulted in the closure of most of them. Gold is found in minute quantities by washing in some of the rivers in the Hills. Limestone is found in the Himalayas and stone is largely quarried in the Mirzapur District. Cotton is ginned and spun throughout the provinces, as a home industry; and weaving, by means of hand-looms, is carried on in most districts. In 1901 nearly a million persons were dependent on weaving, 140,000 on spinning and 136,000 on cleaning, pressing, and ginning, but during the last decade these industries have been on the decrease. The largest industry is in Azamgarh district, where there are 130,300 looms. Silk spinning is confined almost entirely to the district of Benares, where the famous *kinkob* brocade is made. Em-

broidery is manufactured in Lucknow, where the noted *chikan* work of silk on cotton or muslin is produced, and in Benares, where gold and silver work on velvet, silk, crepe and saraset obtains. The glass industry is important in some districts, Benares and Moradabad are noted for their lacquered brass work, porcelain is manufactured at Ghazipur, and other industries are those of paper-making (Lucknow) dyeing, leather-work and fireworks. The chief centre of European and Indian industry is Cawnpore, which, situated in most advantageous position on the Ganges, possesses tanneries, cotton, woollen and other mills, which have a large and ever increasing output (the woollen mill is the largest in India). There are cotton factories at Aligarh (famous for its locks), Meerut and Bareilly; Mirzapur (which produces also excellent carpets); Haridol and Hathras have cotton mills. Excellent furniture is made at Bareilly, at Allahabad there are stone works, at Ross there is a large English distillery, with patent still.

The largest trade centres are Cawnpore, Allahabad, Mirzapur, Benares, Lucknow, Meerut, Aligarh, Hathras, Muttra, Agra, Farukhabad, Moradabad, Chandausi, Bareilly, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Ghazilabad, Khurja, Gorakhpur, Ghazipur, Pilibhit and Shahjahanpur.

Administration.

The Province was until the close of 1920 administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, chosen from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under the Reform Scheme the Province was raised to the status of a Governor-in-Council, the Governor being assisted by two members of the Executive Council in charge of the Reserved Subjects and two Ministers in charge of the Transferred Subjects. The medium for the transaction of public business is the Secretariat, the Staff of which consists of 7 Secretaries and 5 Deputy Secretaries. The Chief Secretary is in charge of Revenue, Appointment, General Administration, Political and Police Departments; the Finance Secretary deals mainly with the Finance Department; the Revenue Secretary is in charge of the Revenue, Judicial, and Forest Departments; the Education Secretary looks to the Education and Industries Departments; and the L. S. G. Secretary to the Local Self-Government, Municipal, Medical and Public Health Departments. The other two Secretaries belong to the Public Works Department, and are also Chief Engineers, one of whom deals with Irrigation, and the other with Roads and Buildings. Government spends the cold weather, October to April, in Lucknow and Allahabad, mostly in Lucknow, though the Secretariat remains throughout the year at Allahabad. The Governor and the Secretaries spend the hot weather in Naini Tal, but during the monsoon the Governor tours the plains, as he does also in the cold weather. The Board of Revenue is the highest court of appeal in revenue and rent cases, and it has important executive duties, being the chief revenue authority in the Provinces. There are forty-eight British districts, thirty-six in Agra and twelve in Oudh, average area 2,000 square miles and average population a million.

Each District is in charge of a District Officer, termed a Collector and Magistrate in Agra and a Deputy Commissioner in Oudh and Kumaon. The Districts are grouped together in Divisions under a Commissioner. There are ten Divisions, having an average area of nearly 12,000 square miles and a population of from 5 to 6 millions. The Districts are sub-divided into *tahsils*, with an average area of 500 square miles and a population of 220,000. Each *Tahsil* is in charge of a *Tahsildar*, who is responsible for the collection of revenue, and also exercises judicial powers. *Tahsils* are divided into *parganas* which are units of importance in the settlement of land revenue. Subordinate to the *Tahsildars* are *kanungos*, of whom there are, on an average, three to a *tahsil*. These officials supervise the work of the *patwaris*, or village accountants, check their papers and form a link direct between the villagers and Government. For judicial purposes (revenue and criminal), the District Officer assigns a sub-division, consisting of one or more *tahsils*, as the case may be to each of his subordinates, who may be covenanted civilians (Joint and Assistant Magistrates and Collectors), or members of the Provincial Service (Deputy Collectors and Magistrates). The Commissioners of the Bareilly and Kumaon Divisions are Political Agents for the Native States of Rampur and Tehri respectively and the Commissioner of Benares is the Political Agent for Benares State.

Justice.

Justice is administered by the High Court in the Province of Agra, and the Court of the Judicial Commissioner, in Oudh, which are the final appellate authorities in both criminal and civil cases. The former, which consists of a Chief Justice and six permanent and two temporary puisne Judges, three of whom are Indians, sits at Allahabad, and the latter, represented by a Judicial Commissioner and two Additional Commissioners, one of whom is an Indian, sits always in Lucknow. This Court is about to be raised to the Status of a Chief Court. There are 31 posts (24 in Agra and 7 in Oudh) of District and Sessions Judges of which 8 are held by Indians not belonging to the I.C.S. as they have been listed to the provincial service and the bar. They have both original and appellate jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases, and occasional appellate jurisdiction in rent cases. District Officers and their assistants, including *Tahsildars*, preside in criminal Courts as Magistrates, and, as Collectors and Assistant Collectors, in Rent and Revenue Courts and dispose of a good deal of the work. In Kumaon, the Commissioner is a High Court Judge in Civil cases. There are also Subordinate Judges, Judges of Small Cause Courts and Munsifs, who dispose of a large number of small civil suits, being specially empowered in some cases, to decide suits up to Rs. 2,000, but generally they take cases up to Rs. 1,000, whilst Subordinate Judges hear cases up to Rs. 5,000. Appeals from Munsifs and Subordinate Judges go to the District Judges. Small Cause Court Judges try suits to the value of Rs. 500. There are also Honorary Munsifs, limited to Rs. 200 suits, and village Munsifs, whose jurisdiction is fixed at Rs. 20.

Local Self-Government.

Local Self-Government is exercised by means of District and Municipal Boards, the former levying local rates on land-owners; the latter deriving their revenue from octroi and other forms of taxation. The aim was to abolish octroi, but Indian opinion is reacting on this decision, because it interferes with through trade. All the principal Boards now have non-official Chairman, with an Executive Officer who is directly responsible to the Board in all matters.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is divided into the Roads and Buildings branch and the Irrigation branch, each of which is administered by a Chief Engineer, who is also a Secretary to Government. The Provinces are divided into circles and divisions both for roads and buildings, and for irrigation purposes. Each circle is in charge of a Superintending Engineer, and each division is in charge of an Executive Engineer. The whole of the Irrigation works constructed or maintained by Government are in charge of the Irrigation Department, nearly all metalled roads, and also bridges on second-class roads, and generally, all works costing more than Rs. 1,000, except in Municipalities, are in charge of the Buildings and Roads Department. Under Public Works there is now a separate Sarda canal branch of the Irrigation Department under a separate Chief Engineer with a full staff distinct from that of the running canals. The Sarda canal is a project of first rate importance and is under construction. It will introduce irrigation into most of the districts of Oudh.

Police.

The Police Force is divided into District and Railway Police and is administered by an Inspector-General, with four Deputies, and two Assistants, forty-six District Superintendents, two Railway Superintendents, and fifty-one Assistant Superintendents. There is a Police Training School at Moradabad. There is a local C. I. D. forming a separate detective department, under a Deputy Inspector-General, with three assistants. There is an armed police, specially recruited, and armed with the Martini Rifle. The administration of the Jail Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Prisons, who is a member of the Indian Medical Service.

Education.

Education is maintained in part by the State and partly by means of grants-in-aid. Great advance has been made by the institution of no less than four Universities three of which are new. These are the Benares Hindu University, the Lucknow University, the Aligarh Muslim University in addition to the old university of Allahabad. The Muir Central College has been merged in the Allahabad University and the Canning College, Lucknow, has been similarly merged in the Lucknow University. The Queen's College, Benares, has been reduced to the status of an Intermediate College. There is a Government Engineering College at Roorkee (Thomason College). There are aided Colleges in Lucknow (Reid Christian College),

and (Isabella Thoburn College), Agra (St. John's), Gorakhpur, Cawnpore and Meerut. In Lucknow there is the Martiniere school, an entirely independent institution, for European and Anglo-Indian children, and there is a Girls' Martiniere connected with it, whilst in the Hill-Station, Naini-Tal and Mussoorie, there are many excellent private scholastic institutions for European boys and girls, which are attended by students from all over India. Government maintain Training Colleges, for teachers in Lucknow and Allahabad, an Art Crafts and an Industrial School in Lucknow, and an Agricultural College at Cawnpore. Public Schools are almost entirely maintained by the District and Municipal Boards and primary education is almost entirely in their hands. The position of the Province in regard to Education is fully described under the head Education and in the tables attached thereto (q.v.).

The principal educational institutions are:—

- The Mahomedan University, Aligarh.
- The Hindu (Benares) University, Benares.
- St. John's College, Agra.
- Queen's College, Benares.
- Agra College.
- Reid Christian College, Lucknow.
- Meerut College.
- Woodstock College, Mussoorie.
- Bareilly College.
- Christian College, Allahabad.
- Christ Church College, Cawnpore.
- Isabella Thoburn College, Lucknow.
- Thomason College, Roorkee.
- King George's Medical College, Lucknow.

Medical.

The Medical Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals. A Civil Surgeon is in charge and is responsible for the medical work of each district, and in a few of the larger stations he has an assistant. In two stations (Ranikhet and Almora) Medical Officers in military employ hold collateral civil charge. There are eighty-three Assistant Surgeons in charge of important dispensaries and a large number of Indian hospital assistants. Lady doctors and female hospital assistants visit *purdā nashin* women in their own homes and much good work is done in this manner.

The best equipped hospitals for Indian patients are the Thomason Hospital at Agra, King George's Hospital and the Balmampur Hospital at Lucknow. The Ramsay Hospital for Europeans at Naini Tal is a first class institution and there are also the Lady Dufferin Hospitals. King George's Medical College is one of the best equipped in the country, with a staff of highly efficient professors and the hospital is the first in the Provinces. There is an X-Ray Institute at Dehra Dun, where valuable research work has been carried out and there are sanatoria for British soldiers in the Hills.

THE FINANCES OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

As explained in the chapters on the new constitution of India, under the Reform Act of 1919, the financial position of the Provinces underwent a remarkable change. The Provinces are for all practical purposes financially independent of the Government of India, subject to a fixed annual contribution, which it is intended shall be gradually reduced to vanishing point when the position of the Central Government permits. As the finances of the Provinces thus become of greater importance, the position is set out in some detail in the following pages:—

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1924-25.

Principal Heads of Revenue.

	Rs.
Taxes on Income	6,92,13,000
Land Revenue	1,45,06,000
Excise	1,79,17,000
Stamps	63,82,000
Forests	13,25,000
Registration	1,00,000
Scheduled Taxes	
Total	10,94,43,000

Railways.

Subsidised Companies	1,60,000
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Irrigation.

Works for which capital accounts are kept—	
(1) Productive Works—	
Net receipts	81,11,626
(2) Un-productive Works—	
Net receipts	5,58,000
Total, net receipts	86,69,626
Works for which no capital accounts are kept	22,000
Total Irrigation	86,91,626

Debt Services.

Interest	15,49,000
Total	15,49,000

Civil Administration.

Administration of Justice	12,00,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	4,71,300
Police	3,65,000
Education	9,68,000
Medical	66,000
Public Health	89,500
Agriculture	5,06,000
Industries	42,000
Miscellaneous Departments	88,700
Total	37,86,500

Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements—	
Civil Works	5,30,000
	5,30,000

Miscellaneous.

	Rs.
Transfers from Famine Insurance Fund	Nil.
Receipts in aid of superannuation	9,22,000
Stationery and Printing	3,10,000
Miscellaneous	8,79,000
Total	21,21,000

Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments .. Nil.

Debt, deposits and advances:—	Total Revenue ..	12,62,31,123
(a) Loans between the Central and Provincial Governments ..		1,36,57,000
(b) Loans and advances by Provincial Governments ..		25,61,300
(c) Famine Insurance Funds		43,89,955
(d) Deposits of Sinking Funds for Provincial Loans		3,37,300
Total		2,09,45,555

Total receipts ..	14,72,26,681
Opening Balance ..	1,46,68,822
Grand Total ..	16,18,95,503

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1924-25.

Direct demands on the Revenues.

Taxes on Income	Nil.
Land Revenue	79,69,150
Excise	6,09,300
Stamps	4,05,900
Forests	37,20,150
Registration	4,64,000
Total	1,31,68,500

Railway Revenue Account.

Subsidised companies	5,000
Miscellaneous railway expenditure	
Total	5,000

Irrigation Revenue Account.

Works for which capital accounts are kept—	
Interest on debt	10,81,000
Miscellaneous irrigation expenditure	3,05,000
Total	13,86,000

Irrigation Capital Account (charged to revenue).

Construction of Irrigation Works—	
A. Financed from Famine Insurance Grants	12,27,000
B. Financed from ordinary revenues	Nil.
Total	12,27,000

Debt Services.

Interest on ordinary debt	16,86,200
Sinking Fund	3,00,000
Total	19,86,200

Civil Administration.										Rs.
General Administration	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,32,07,278
Administration of Justice	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	66,58,700
Jails and Convicts Settlements	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	23,35,519
Police	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,60,46,800
Scientific Departments	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20,100
Education	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,72,06,100
Medical	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	25,63,799
Public Health	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13,31,120
Agriculture	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	24,51,892
Industries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10,35,000
Miscellaneous Departments	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,62,600
Exchange	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	Nil.
Total ..										6,41,16,508
<i>Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements.</i>										
Civil Works	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	73,76,126
Total ..										73,76,126
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>										
Famine Relief and Insurance—										
A—Famine Relief	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29,545
B—Transfers to Famine Insurance Fund	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	27,03,455
Superannuation allowances and pensions	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	53,14,600
Stationery and Printing	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9,36,100
Miscellaneous	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4,65,392
Total ..										94,49,092
<i>Expenditure in England—</i>										
Secretary of State	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13,000
High Commissioner	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	27,18,925
<i>Contributions and assignments.</i>										
Contribution to the Central Government	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,40,00,000
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	22,500
Total ..										2,40,22,500
<i>Irrigation and other capital not charged to revenue.</i>										
(a) Construction of irrigation works	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,29,56,500
(b) Forest outlay	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,50,000
(c) Outlay on Agricultural improvement	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	98,000
Total ..										1,34,04,500
<i>Debt, Deposits and advances—</i>										
(a) Loans and advances by Provincial Governments	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10,55,000
(b) Loans between the Central and Provincial Governments	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	25,00,000
(c) Civil Contingencies Fund	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,00,000
(d) Famine Insurance Fund	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	70,43,000
60 Civil Works	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4,76,120
60 A. Other Provincial Works not charged to revenue	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9,12,000
Sinking Fund Investment Account	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,37,800
Total ..										1,24,53,920
Total, disbursements ..										15,18,27,271
Closing balance ..										1,05,68,232
Grand Total ..										16,18,95,503

Administration.		LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE NORTH- WESTERN PROVINCES.	
Governor.—His Excellency Sir William Marris, K.C.I.E. (1921).		Sir C. T. Metcalfe, Bart., G.C.B. 1836	
Private Secretary.—Capt. R. O. Chamler.		The Right Hon. the Governor-General in the North-Western Provinces (Lord Auckland).	
Aides-de-Camp.—Captain F. B. Pickering and Captain T. K. Jones.		T. C. Robertson 1840	
EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.		The Right Hon. the Governor-General in the North-Western Provinces (Lord Ellenborough).	
The Hon'ble Raja Sir Muhammad Ali Muhammad Khan, KHAN BAHADUR, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.		Sir G. R. Clerk, K.C.B. 1843	
The Hon'ble Mr. S. P. O'Donnell, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.		James Thomson. Died at Bareilly. .. 1843	
MINISTERS.		A. W. Begbie, <i>In charge</i> 1853	
The Hon'ble Rai Rajeshwar Ball, B.A., O.B.E.		J. B. Colvin. Died at Agra 1853	
The Hon'ble Lieut. Nawab Muhammad Ahmad Sa'id Khan, C.I.E., M.B.E.		E. A. Reade, <i>In charge</i> 1857	
SECRETARIAT.		Colonel H. Fraser, C.B., Chief Commis- sioner, N.-W. Provinces. 1857	
Chief Secretary to Government, G. B. Lambert, I.C.S.		The Right Hon. the Governor-General administering the N.-W. Provinces (Viscount Canning).	
Financial Secretary to Government, E. A. H. Blunt, O.B.E., I.C.S.		Sir G. F. Edmonstone 1859	
Revenue and Judicial Secretary, C. E. D. Peters, I.C.S.		R. Money, <i>In charge</i> 1863	
Secretary to Government, Public Works Dept. (Buildings & Roads, & Railways), A. C. Verrieres, C.I.E.		The Hon. Edmund Drummond 1863	
MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.		Sir William Muir, K.C.S.I. 1868	
Opium Agent, Ghazipur, C. E. Wild.		Sir John Strachey, K.C.S.I. 1874	
Chief Conservator of Forests, H. G. Billson, F.C.H.		Sir George Couper, Bart., C.B. 1876	
Director of Public Instruction, A. H. Mackenzie, M.A.		LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE NORTH- WESTERN PROVINCES AND CHIEF COMMIS- SIONERS OF OUDH.	
Inspector-General of Police, L. M. Kaye.		Sir George Couper, Bart., C.B., K.C.S.I. 1877	
Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Lt.-Col. A. W. R. Cochrane, M.B., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.		Sir Alfred Comyns Lyall, K.C.B. 1882	
Director of Public Health, Lieut-Colonel Cuth- bert Lindsay Dunn.		Sir Auckland Colvin, K.C.M.G., C.I.E. .. 1887	
Inspector-General of Registration, Rai Sahib Brij Lal.		Sir Chas. H. T. Crosthwaite, K.C.S.I. .. 1892	
Commissioner of Excise, T. Gibb.		Alan Cadell (<i>Officiating</i>) 1895	
Accountant-General, Hanumanta Bhamasena Rau, B.A.		Sir Antony P. MacDonnell, K.C.S.I. (a) .. 1895	
Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. J. M. Woolley.		Sir J. J. D. LaTouche, K.C.S.I. 1901	
Postmaster-General, H. S. R. Pilkington, C.I.E., M.V.O.		(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron MacDonnell.	
Director of Agriculture, H. M. Leake, M.A.		LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES OF AGRA AND OUDH.	
		Sir J. J. D. LaTouche, K.C.S.I. 1902	
		Sir J. P. Hewitt, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1907	
		L. A. S. Porter, C.S.I. (<i>Officiating</i>) 1912	
		Sir J. S. Meston, K.C.S.I. 1912	
		Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. .. 1918	
		GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.	
		Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. .. 1920	
		Sir William Marris, K.C.I.E. 1921	

UNITED PROVINCES LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRESIDENT :

The Hon'ble Mr. Michael Keane, C.I.E., I.C.S.

DEPUTY PRESIDENT

Rai Bahadur Pandit Kharagjit Misra, M.A., LL.B.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Agra City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Pandit Govind Sahai Sharma, <i>Bar-at-Law</i> .
Cawnpore City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Babu Narayan Prasad Arora, B.A.
Allahabad City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Babu Sangam Lal, M.A., LL.D., <i>Vakil</i> .
Lucknow City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Babu Mohan Lal Sakseena, B.Sc., LL.B.
Benares City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Babu Damodar Das, B.A.
Bareilly City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Thakur Moti Singh B.A., LL.B.
Meerut-cum-Aligarh (non-Muhammadan Urban)	Rai Bahadur Lala Sita Ram, M.A., LL.B.
Moradabad-cum-Shahjahanpur (non-Muhammadan Urban)	Babu Bhagwati Sahai Bedar.
Dehra Dun district (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Manjit Singh Rathor, B.A.
Saharanpur district (non-Muhammadan Rural)	2nd-Lt. Chaudhri Balwant Singh.
Muzafarnagar district (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Jagdish Prasad Sahib.
Meerut district (North) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Chaudhri Jaswant Singh.
Meerut district (South) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Chaudhri Sheoraj Singh.
Bulandshahr district (East) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Nanak Chand, M.A., LL.B.
Bulandshahr district (West) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Lala Babu Lal, B.Sc., LL.B.
Aligarh district (East) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Raj Kumar Singh.
Aligarh district (West) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Kumar Lakshmi Raj Singh.
Muttra district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Bahadur Babu Ram Nath Bhargava.
Agra district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Sahib Munshi Amba Prasad.
Mainpuri district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Bahadur Pandit Kharagjit Misra, M.A., LL.B.
Etah district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Raja Surya Pal Singh.
Bareilly district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Lala Dhakan Lal.
Bijnor district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Nemi Saran, B.Sc., LL.B.
Budaun district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Chaudhri Badan Singh.
Moradabad district (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Chaudhri Sardar Singh.
Shahjahanpur district (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Sadho Singh, B.A.
Pilibhit district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Brijnandan Prasad Misra.
Jhansi district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Bhagwat Narayan Bhargava, B.A.
Jalaun district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Jhanni Lal Pande, B.A., LL.B.
Hamirpur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Har Prasad Singh.
Banda district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Keshava Chandra Singh, Chaudhri M.Sc., LL.B.
Farrukhabad district (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Lieut. Raja Durga Narayan Singh.
Etawah district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Lieut. Raja Hukm Tej Pratap Singh.
Cawnpore district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Bahadur Pandit Bal-Bhadra Prasad Tiwari.

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Patchpur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Sri Krishna Dutt Paliwal.
Allahabad district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Parsidh Narayan Anand.
Benares district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Yajna Narayanupadhyaya, M.A., LL.B., I.T.
Mirzapur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Raja Ramji.
Jaunpur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Raja Sri Krishna Dutt Dube.
Ghazipur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Deep Narayan Roy, B.A., LL.B.
Ballia district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Hanuman Singh.
Gorakhpur district (West) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	2nd-Lt. Sahibzada Ravi Pratap Narayan Singh, Rai Bahadur.
Gorakhpur district (East) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Indrajit Tratab Bahadur Sahi.
Basti district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Bhaya Hanumat Prasad Singh.
Azamgarh district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Baijnath Misra, B.A., LL.B.
Naini Tal district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Govind Ballabh Pant, B.A., LL.B.
Almora district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Har Govind Pant, B.A. LL.B.
Garhwal district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Mukandi Lal, B.A. (OXON.)
Lucknow district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Ram Chandra Sinha, B.Sc.
Unao district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Raja Shankar Sahai.
Rae Bareilly district (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Dr. Jai Karan Nath Misra, M.A., LL.D.
Sitapur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Kunwar Rajendra Singh.
Hardoi district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Bahadur Thakur Mashal Singh.
Kheri district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Sita Ram, B.A., LL.B.
Fyzabad district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Kunwar Krishna Pratap Singh.
Gonda district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Bindeshri Prasad.
Bahraich district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Hukm Singh, B.A.; LL.B.
Sultanpur district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Kunwar Surendra Pratap Sahi.
Partabgarh district (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Babu Shankar Dayal, B.A., LL.B.
Allahabad-cum-Benares (Muhammadan Urban)	Mr. Muhammad Zahur Ahmad.
Lucknow-cum-Cawnpore (Muhammadan Urban)	Dr. Muhammad Naim Ansari, I.M.S.
Agra and Meerut-cum-Aligarh (Muhammadan Urban)	Mr. Muhammad Aslam Saifi.
Bareilly and Shahjahanpur-cum-Moradabad (Muhammadan Urban)	Maulvi Zahur-ud-Din, B.A., LL.B.
Dehra Dun district (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rao Abdul Hameed Khan.
Saharanpur district (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Maulvi Shahab-ud-Din, B.A., LL.B.
Meerut district (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Lieut. Nawab Jamshed Ali Khan.
Muzafarnagar district (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Kunwar Inayat Ali Khan.
Bijnor district (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Chaudhri Amir Hasan Khan.
Aligarh, Muttra and Agra districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Maulvi Obaidul Rahman Khan.
Mainpuri, Etah and Farrukhabad districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Dr. Zia-ud-Din Ahmad, C.I.E., M.A. (Cantab.), Ph. D. (Göttingen), D.Sc.
Etawah, Cawnpore and Fatehpur districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Hafiz Hidayat Husain, B.A.
Jhansi division (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Masud-uz-Zaman.
Allahabad, Jaunpur and Mirzapur districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Nawabzada Muhammad Yusuf.
Benares, Ghazipur, Ballia and Azamgarh districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Shah Badre Alam.
Gorakhpur district (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Muhammad Ismail.
Basti district (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Maulvi Abdul Hakim, M.A., B.Sc., LL.B.

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Moradabad (North) (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Dr. Shafaat Ahmad Khan.
Moradabad (South) (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Salyed Muhammad Ashiq Husain.
Dudaun district (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Fasseih-ud-Din.
Shahjahanpur district (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Muhammad Fazl-ur-Rahman Khan, B.A., LL.B.
Bareilly district (Muhammadian Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Hakim Mahbub Ali Khan.
Kumaun division-cum-Pilibhit (Muhammadian Rural).	Mr. Ashiq Husain Mirza.
Gonda and Bahraich districts (Muhammadian Rural).	Khan Sahib Munshi Siddiq Ahmad.
Kheri and Sitapur districts (Muhammadian Rural).	Qazi Habib Ashraf.
Hardoi, Lucknow and Unao districts (Muhammadian Rural).	Lieut. Shaikh Sahhid Husain, M.A., LL.B., O.B.E.
Fyzabad and Bara Banki districts (Muhammadian Rural).	Khan Bahadur Chaudhri Muhammad Rashid-ud-Din Ashraf.
Sultanpur, Partabgarh and Rae Bareilly districts (Muhammadian Rural).	Shaikh Abdus Samad Ansari.
European	Mr. St. George H. S. Jackson.
Agra Landholders (North)	Raja Mahendra Man Singh.
Agra Landholders (South)	Raja Ragho Prasad Narayan Singh, Rai Bahadur.
Taluqdars	Lala Mathura Prasad-Mehrotra, B.A.
	Raja Shambhu Dayal.
	Lieut. Shaikh Imtiaz Rasul Khan.
	Thakur Jagannath Bakhsh Singh.
	Sir Thomas Smith, Kt., V.D.
Upper India Chamber of Commerce	Mr. Tracy Gavin Jones.
United Provinces Chamber of Commerce ..	Rai Bahadur Babu Vikramajit Singh, B.A., LL.B.
Allahabad University	Dr. Ganesh Prasad, D.Sc.

NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Mr. G. B. Lambert, O.S.I., I.C.S.
 Mr. E. A. H. Blunt, O.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.
 Kunwar Jagdish Prasad, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.
 Mr. G. B. F. Muir, I.C.S.
 Mr. A. C. Verrieres, C.I.E.
 Mr. C. E. D. Peters, I.C.S.
 Mr. J. R. W. Bennett, I.C.S.
 Mr. S. H. Fremantle, O.S.I., C.I.E., V.D., I.C.S.
 Mr. R. Burn, C.S.I., I.C.S.
 Mr. W. S. Cassels, O.B.E., I.C.S.
 Mr. A. G. P. Pullan, I.C.S.
 Mr. H. G. Billson.
 Mr. A. D. Ashdown, I.P.S.
 Lieut.-Col. R. F. Baird, I.M.S.
 Mr. A. H. Mackenzie, M.A., B.Sc.
 Mr. H. M. Leake.
 Raja Muhammad E'Jaz Rasul Khan, C.S.I.
 Raja Brij Narayan Bahadur, Rai.
 Mr. H. C. Desanges, *Barriester-at-Law*.
 Mr. H. David.
 Babu Khem Chand.

The Punjab.

The Punjab or land of the five rivers, is so called from the five rivers by which it is enclosed, namely, the Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas and Sutlej. Together with the North-West Frontier Province and the Native State of Jammu and Kashmir which lie to the north, the Punjab occupies the extreme north-western corner of the Indian Empire, and with the exception of the above-mentioned province comprises all of British India north of Sind and Rajputana and west of the river Jumna. Previous to October 1912, the Punjab with its feudatories embraced an area of 136,330 square miles and a population at the Census of 1911 of 24,187,750 (inclusive of 23,587 trans-frontier Baluchis) that is to say, about one-thirteenth of the area and population of the Indian Empire. But the formation of a separate province of Delhi reduced the area and population of the Punjab by about 450 square miles and 380,000 souls respectively. The total population of the Province in 1921, including the Baloch tribes on the border of the Dehra Ghazi Khan District was 25,101,060 of whom 4,416,036 were in the Indian States.

Physical Features.

The greater part of the Punjab consists of one vast alluvial plain, stretching from the Jumna in the east to the Suleman Range in the west. The north-east is occupied by a section of the Himalayas and the Salt Range forms its north-western angle. A few small spurs of the Aravalli mountain system traverse the extreme south-east and terminate in the Ridge at Delhi. The Punjab may be divided into five natural divisions. The Himalayan tract includes an area of 22,000 square miles, with a scanty population living scattered in tiny mountain hamlets. The Salt Range tract includes the districts of Attock, Rawalpindi and Jhelum and part of Shahpur district. Its physical configuration is broken and confused and the mountainous tracts of Murree and Kahuta approximate closely in characteristics to the Himalayan tract. Except in the hills, the rainfall leaves little margin for protection against distress in unfavourable seasons and irrigation is almost unknown. Skirting the base of the hills and including the low range of the Siwaliks, runs the narrow sub-montane tract. This tract, secure in an ample rainfall, and traversed by streams from the hills, comprises some of the most fertile and thickly populated portions of the province. Its population of over four millions is almost wholly agricultural and pastoral but it includes one large town in Sialkot. Of the plains of the Punjab, the eastern portion covers an area of some 36,000 square miles with a population of 10½ millions. East of Lahore, the rainfall is everywhere so far sufficient that cultivation is possible without irrigation in fairly favourable seasons, but over the greater part of the area the margin is so slight that, except where irrigation is employed, any material reduction in the rainfall involves distress, if not actual famine. Within the eastern plains lie the large cities of Lahore and Amritsar, and the population in comparison with the western Punjab is largely urban. The western plains cover an area of 59,000 square miles, with a population of a little over six millions. The rain-

fall in this area, heaviest in the north and east and decreasing towards the west and south, is everywhere so scanty that cultivation is only possible with the aid of artificial irrigation or upon the low-lying river-banks left moist by the retreating floods. In this very circumstance, these tracts find their security against famine, for there cultivation is almost independent of rain, a failure of which means nothing worse than a scarcity of grass. So little rain is sufficient, and absolute drought occurs so seldom that the crops may be said never to fail from this cause. The western plains embrace the great colony areas on the Chenab and Jhelum Canals which now challenge the title of the eastern plains as the most fertile, wealthy and populous portions of the province. Multan and Lyallpur are the largest towns in the western area. Owing to its geographical position, its scanty rainfall and cloudless skies, and perhaps to its wide expanse of untitled plains, the climate of the Punjab presents greater extremes of both heat and cold than any other portion of India. The summer, from April to September, is scorchingly hot, and in the winter, sharp frosts are common. But the bright sun and invigorating air make the climate of the Punjab in the cold weather almost ideal.

States.

The Indian States of the Punjab were formerly in the Political charge of the Punjab Government. In 1921, however, the thirteen most important States, including Patiala, Bahawalpur, Jind and Nabha, were formed into a separate "Punjab States Agency" under the control of the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States. The only States remaining in the charge of the Punjab Government, are the Simla Hill States, for which the Deputy Commissioner of Simla is Political Officer, and three small States in the Ambala Division, Kalsia, Patauli and Dujana, which are supervised by the Commissioner of Ambala.

The People.

Of the population roughly one half is Mahomedan, three-eighths Hindu and one-eighth Sikh. Socially the landed classes stand high and of these the Jats, numbering nearly five millions, are the most important. Roughly speaking, one half the Jats are Mahomedan, one-third Sikh and one-sixth Hindu. In distribution they are ubiquitous and are equally divided over the five divisions of the province. Next in importance come the Rajputs, who number over a million and a half. The majority of them are Mahomedans by religion, about a fourth are Hindus and a very few Sikhs. They are widely distributed over the province. Both Jats and Rajputs of the Punjab provide many of the best recruits for the Indian Army. In fact all the agricultural classes of the Punjab, except in the south-western districts, made a magnificent response to the appeal for recruits in the great war, and the province's contribution of upwards of 400,000 men to the man power of the Empire speaks for itself. The Gujars are an important agricultural and pastoral tribe, chiefly found in the eastern half of the province and in the extreme north-west. In organisation they closely resemble the Jats and are often absorbed

into that tribe. There are many minor agricultural tribes, priestly and religious castes (Brahmans, Sayads and Kureshis), most of whom are landholders, the trading castes of the Hindus (Khatris, Aroras and Banias) and trading castes of the Mahomedans (Khojas, Parachas and Khakhas), and the numerous artisan and menial castes. There are also vagrant and criminal tribes, and foreign elements in the population are represented by the Baluchis of Dera Ghazi Khan and neighbouring districts in the west, who number about half a million and maintain their tribal system, and the Pathans of the Attock and Mianwali districts. Pathans are also found scattered all over the province engaged in horse-dealing, labour and trade. A small Tibetan element is found in the Himalayan districts.

Languages.

The main language of the province is Punjabi, which is spoken by more than half the population. Western Punjabi may be classed as a separate language, sometimes called Lahndi, and is spoken in the north and west. The next most important languages are Western Hindi, which includes Hindustani, Urdu (the polished language of the towns) and other Hindi; Western Pahari, which is spoken in the hill tracts; and Rajasthani, the language of Rajputana. Baluchi, Pushto, Sindhi and Tibeto-Burman languages are used by small proportions of the population.

Agriculture.

Agriculture is the staple industry of the province, affording the main means of subsistence to 56 per cent. of the population. It is essentially a country of peasant proprietors. About one-sixth of the total area in British districts is Government property, the remaining five-sixths belonging to private owners. But a large part of the Government land is so situated that it cannot be brought under cultivation without extensive irrigation. Thus the Lower Chenab Canal irrigates nearly 2,000,000 acres of what was formerly waste land and the Lower Jhelum Canal, 400,000 acres, and the Lower Bari Doab Canal, when the colonisation scheme is completed, will add 1,580,000 acres to this total. Large areas in the hills and elsewhere which are unsuited to cultivation are preserved as forest lands, the total extent of which is about 8,700 square miles. Of the crops grown, wheat is the most important and the development of irrigation has led to a great expansion of the wheat area. Next in importance to wheat is gram. Other important staples are barley, rice, millets, maize, oilseeds (rape, toria and sesamum), cotton and sugarcane. Cotton is grown generally throughout the province. On the Canal irrigated areas the Cotton grown is chiefly American but elsewhere it is the short stapled variety, known as "Bengals." The country being preponderantly agricultural, a considerable proportion of the wealth of the people lies in its live-stock. Large profits are derived from the cattle and dairy trades and wool is a staple product in the south-west in Kulu and Kangra and throughout the plains generally. The production of hides and skins is also an important industry.

Industries.

The mineral wealth of the Punjab is small, rock salt, saltpetre and limestone for road building being the most important products. There are some small coal mines in the Jhelum, Shahpur and Mianwali districts with an output of about 75,000 tons a year, and gold washing is carried on in most of the rivers not without remunerative results. Iron and copper ores are plentiful but difficulties of carriage and the absence of fuel have hitherto prevented smelting on a large scale. The Punjab is not a large manufacturing country, the total number of factories being only 434 the majority of which are cotton ginning and pressing factories. Cotton weaving as a domestic industry is carried on by means of hand looms in nearly every village. The Salvation Army and the Five Government Weaving Schools have shown considerable enterprise in improving the hand-weaving industry. Blankets and woollen rugs are also produced in considerable quantities and the carpets of Amritsar are famous. Silk weaving is also carried on and the workers in gold, silver, brass, copper and earthenware are fairly numerous and ivory carving is carried on at Amritsar and in the Patiala State and Muzaffargarh District. Mineral Oil is being extracted and refined in the Attock District and a cement industry has been started.

Administration.

Prior to the passing of the Indian Reform Act of 1919 the system of administration was that of a Lieutenant-Governor, drawn from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under that Act the Province was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers, the Governor in Council being in charge of the Reserved Subjects and the Governor with his Ministers of the Transferred Subjects. The general system of provincial administration under this scheme is sketched in the section Provincial Governments (q. v.) where is also given a list of the Reserved and Transferred Subjects. Associated with the Governor and the Council and Ministers is an enlarged Legislative Council, with wide powers, whose scope and authority are given under the Legislative Councils (q. v.), the system being common to all the major Provinces. The business of Government is carried on through the usual Secretariat which consists of four Secretaries, designated (1) Chief, (2) Home, (3) Financial Secretaries and Secretary, Transferred Departments, one Deputy Secretary and two Under-Secretaries. The post of Revenue Secretary has been held in abeyance temporarily and the work hitherto done by that officer has been transferred to the Financial Commissioners who have been designated Secretaries to Government in the Revenue and Development Departments. In the Public Works Department, there are also three Secretaries (Chief Engineers), one in the Buildings and Roads Branch and two in the Irrigation Branch. The heads of the Police and Educational Departments are also Under-Secretaries to Government. The Government spends the winter in Lahore and the summer (from the middle of May to the middle of October) in Simla. Under the Governor, the province is administered by five Commissioners (for Am-

bala, Jullunder, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Multan) who exercise general control over the Deputy Commissioners—29 in number—each of whom is in charge of a district.

The principal heads of Department in the province are the two Financial Commissioners (who are the highest Court of Revenue jurisdiction, and heads of the departments of Land and Separate Revenue and of Agriculture and the Court of Wards), the three Chief Engineers, the Inspector-General of Police, the Director of Public Instruction, the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health, the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Directors of Agriculture and Industries, the Inspector-General of Registration, the Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies and Joint Stock Companies and the Legal Remembrancer.

Justice.

The administration of justice is entrusted to a High Court, which is the final appellate authority in civil and criminal cases, and has powers of original criminal jurisdiction in cases where European British subjects are charged with serious offences and original civil jurisdiction in special cases. The Court sits at Lahore and is composed of a Chief Justice and six puisne judges (either Civilians or barristers), and four additional judges. Subordinate to the High Court are the District and Sessions Judges (22 in number) each of whom exercises civil and criminal jurisdiction in a civil and sessions division comprising one or more districts. In districts in which the Frontier Crimes Regulation is in force the Deputy Commissioner on the finding of a Council of Elder Jirga may pass sentence up to four years' imprisonment.

Local Self-Government.

Local Self-Government is secured in certain branches of the administration by the constitution of District Boards, each exercising authority over a district; of Municipal, Small Town, and Notified Area Committees each exercising authority over an Urban area, and of Panchayats, each exercising authority over a revenue estate or a compact group of revenue estates. The funds of District Boards are derived from a cess on the land revenue of the district supplemented by Government grants, profession taxes and miscellaneous fees, and those of Municipal, Small Town, and Notified Area Committees from octroi and in some cases other forms of taxation and Government grants. The Panchayat is an attempt to revive the traditional village community, the elected committee or Panchayat possessing certain powers in respect of taxation, local option, civil and criminal justice and other matters. The elective principle is now practically universal in all classes of local self-governing bodies. Under the reformed system of Government the public has begun to show considerable interest in elections.

Police.

The Police force is divided into District and Railway Police. The combined force is under the control of the Inspector-General, who is a member of the Gazetted force and has under him three Deputy Inspector-Generals and a fourth Deputy Inspector-General in charge of Criminal Investigation Department and Finger Print Bureau at Phillaur. There is a Police Training School at Phillaur controlled by a Principal of the rank of Superintendent of Police. The Railway Police are under an Assistant Inspector-General. The District Police are controlled by Superintendents, each of whom is in charge of a district and has under him one or more Assistant Superintendents or Deputy Superintendents.

Education.

The strides which have been made in the past ten years especially in the concluding years of the period have brought the Punjab in line with the older and more forward provinces. What is still more noteworthy is that the advance is not confined to any one form of education but is spread over all grades and varieties. In addition to institutions scattered over the entire province through private liberality, Government maintains three arts colleges, one central training college, one arts college for women, and the Government Training Class for Europeans at Ghoragali, 28 normal schools for teachers of both sexes, 55 secondary schools for boys and girls, a reformatory school and 13 centres for vocational training. Apart from these institutions for general education, Government maintains seven higher grade professional institutions, viz., the Lyallpur Agricultural College, the medical and veterinary colleges at Lahore, the school of engineering at Rasul, the Mayo school of arts and the Railway technical school, Lahore, and the MacLagan Engineering College, Moghalpura.

The Department of Education is in charge of the Minister for Education who is assisted in the work of administration by the Director of Public Instruction. The Punjab University controls higher education.

Forests.

Large areas in the hills and elsewhere which are unsuited to cultivation are preserved as forest lands, the total extent of which is about 8,700 square miles.

Medical.

The Medical Department is controlled by the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals (a member of the Indian Medical Service). The Department of Public Health is controlled by the Director of Public Health (also a member of the Indian Medical Service) who for the present has under him three Assistant Directors of Public Health and is advised by the Sanitary Board, with the Sanitary Engineer as Technical Adviser.

HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Budget Estimate, 1924-25.	HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Budget Estimate, 1924-25.
REVENUE RECEIPTS.	(In thousands of Rupees.)	Buildings and Roads.	(In thousands of Rupees.)
<i>Principal Heads of Revenue.</i>		XXX—Civil Works	3,79
II—Taxes on Income	3,78	<i>Miscellaneous.</i>	
V—Land Revenue	3,19,85	XXXII—Transfers from Insurance Fund.	
Deduct—Sale of waste lands and Government estates.	—33,95	XXXIII—Receipts in aid of Superannuation.	14,48
VI—Excise	1,01,31	XXXIV—Stationery and Printing	63
VII—Stamps	96,00	XXXV—Miscellaneous	32,05
VIII—Forest	42,68	Deduct—Sale of town sites	—5,50
IX—Registration	8,50	Total	41,66
Total	5,38,17	<i>Contributions and Assignments to Central and Provincial Governments.</i>	
<i>Irrigation.</i>		XL—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments.	
XIII—Irrigation—Works for which capital accounts are kept.	5,71,07	Total Revenue Receipts	10,38,22
Deduct—Working Expenses.	—1,62,82	CAPITAL RECEIPTS.	
XIV—Irrigation—Works for which no capital accounts are kept.	4,10	Sale of waste lands and Government estates.	33,95
Total	4,12,35	Sale of town sites	5,50
<i>Debt Services.</i>		Permanent debt incurred	1,50,00
XVI—Interest	4,23	Famine Insurance Fund	
<i>Civil Administration.</i>		Loans and Advances	12,88
XVII—Administration of Justice	9,48	Total Capital Receipts	2,02,33
XVIII—Jails and Convict Settlements.	4,28	Balance	1,17,56
XIX—Police	1,20	Deposits to Sinking Fund	25,00
XXVI—Miscellaneous Departments	1,54	Temporary Debt Revenue	4,87
Total	16,50	Temporary Debt Capital	
<i>Beneficent Departments.</i>		Total Receipts	13,87,98
XXI—Education	10,87	Revenue deficit met from Balance.	
XXII—Medical	2,18	Revenue deficit met from Advance from Government of India.	20,87
XXIII—Public Health	1,15		
XXIV—Agriculture	7,15		
XXV—Industries	17		
Total	21,52		

HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Budget Estimate, 1924-25.	HEADS OF ACCOUNT.	Budget Estimate, 1924-25.
EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE.	(In thousands of Rupees.)	Buildings and Roads.	(In thousands of Rupees.)
<i>Direct demands on the Revenue.</i>		41—Civil Works { Reserved	1,15
5—Land Revenue	44,40	{ Transferred	87,30
6—Excise	4,37	Total	88,45
7—Stamps	2,27	<i>Miscellaneous.</i>	
8—Forests	29,45	43—Famine Relief and Insurance	3,81
9—Registration	1,12	45—Superannuation and Pensions	40,68
Total	81,61	46—Stationery and Printing	9,51
<i>Irrigation Revenue Accounts.</i>		47—Miscellaneous (Reserved)	3,96
14—Irrigation Works for which capital accounts are kept (Interest on debt.)	92,04	47—Miscellaneous (Transferred)	12,80
15—Miscellaneous Irrigation Expenditure.	17,14	Total	79,86
Total	1,09,18	<i>Contributions and Assignments to Central and Provincial Governments.</i>	
<i>Irrigation Capital Account charged to Revenue.</i>		51—Contribution and Assignment to Central Government.	1,75,00
16—Irrigation Works		52—Miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments.	71
<i>Debt Services.</i>		Total	1,75,71
19—Interest on Ordinary Debt	11,76	Civil Contingencies Fund	1,50
21—Sinking Funds	25,00	Total Expenditure charged to Revenue.	10,68,09
Total	36,76	CAPITAL EXPENDITURE NOT CHARGED TO REVENUE.	
<i>Civil Administration.</i>		52-A.—Forest Capital Expenditure	13
22—General Administration (Reserved).	1,04,49	55—Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works.	1,91,30
22—General Administration (Transferred.)	1,33	56-C.—Industrial Development—Capital Expenditure.	2,00
24—Administration of Justice	53,07	56-D.—Hydro-Electric Scheme—Capital Expenditure.	35,47
25—Jails and Convict Settlements	31,63	60—Civil Works—Capital Expenditure.	61,41
26—Police	1,12,17	60-A.—Other Provincial Works—Capital Expenditure.	
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Reserved.)	59	Permanent debt discharged	
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Transferred.)	3,29	Temporary debt discharged	
Total	3,06,57	Loans and Advances (Reserved)	7,64
<i>Beneficent Departments.</i>		Loans and Advances Transferred	17,00
30—Scientific Departments	32	Payment made to Central Government on account of balance of Provincial Loan Account.	
31—Education (Reserved)	6,79	Loans between Central and Provincial Governments.	
31—Education (Transferred)	1,05,28	Deposits, Advances, Suspense	
32—Medical	32,08	Total Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue.	3,14,95
33—Public Health	10,76	Balance	4,94
34—Agriculture	33,69	Total Disbursements	13,87,98
35—Industries	8,53		
Total	1,97,45		

Administration.

Governor, Sir Malcolm Hailey, K.O.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

PERSONAL STAFF.

Private Secretary, Major G. C. S. Black, O.B.E.
Aide-de-Camp, Capt. K. O'Brien Harding, O.B.E.
 and Capt. R. St. B. Emmolt.
Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Hon. Lieut. Subedar-Major Sheo Lal Bahadur and Hon. Captain Risaldar Major Gul Nawaz Khan Haji Sardar Bahadur.

MEMBERS OF COUNCIL.

The Hon. Sir John Maynard.
 The Hon. Sardar Bahadur Sardar Sunder Singh Majithia.

MINISTERS.

The Hon. Khan Bahadur Mian Fazl-i-Husain, Minister for Edn.
 The Hon. Rao Bahadur Honorary Lieut. Chaudhri Lalchand, O.B.E., Minister of Agriculture.

SECRETARIAT.

Chief Secretary, H. D. Craik, I.C.S.
 Home Secretary, E. G. F. Abraham, B. A., I.C.S.
 Financial Secretary, Miles Irving, B.A., O.B.E., I.C.S.

PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT**Irrigation Branch.**

Secretary, W. P. Sangster, C.I.E., M.I.C.E.
Buildings and Roads Branch.
 Secretary, A. S. Montgomery.

REVENUE DEPARTMENT.

Financial Commissioner, O. M. King, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.
 Director of Industries, E. A. Scott, O.B.E.
 Director of Agriculture, D. Milne, B. Sc.
 Inspector-Genl. of Registration, H. K. Trevaskis, O. B. E., I.C.S.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction, G. Anderson, M.A., C.I.E.

Inspector-General of Police, L. L. Tomkins, C.I.E.

Conservator of Forests, J. W. A. Grieve.

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Lt.-Col. E. L. Ward, O.B.E., I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Lt.-Col. W. H. C. Forster, M.B., D.P.H., I.M.S.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Major A. W. Greig, I.M.S.

Accountant-General, C. W. Carson, O.B.E.

Postmaster-General, J. R. T. Booth.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB.

Sir John Lawrence, Bart., G.C.B. 1859
 Sir Robert Montgomery, K.C.B. 1859
 Donald Friell McLeod, C.B. 1865
 Major-General Sir Henry Durand, 1870
 K.O.S.I., C.B., died at Tonk, January 1871.
 R. H. Davies, C.S.I. 1871
 R. E. Egerton, C.S.I. 1877
 Sir Charles U. Aitchison, K.C.S.I., 1882
 C.I.E.

James Broadwood Lyall 1887
 Sir Dennis Fitzpatrick, K.C.S.I. 1892
 William Mackworth Young, C.S.I. 1897
 Sir C. M. Rivaz, K.C.S.I. 1902
 Sir D. C. J. Ibbetson, K.C.S.I., resigned 1907
 22nd January 1908.

T. G. Walker, C.S.I. (offg.) 1907
 Sir Louis W. Dane, K.C.I.E., C.S.I. 1908
 James McCrone Douie (offg.) 1911
 Sir M. F. O'Dwyer, K.C.S.I. 1913
 Sir Edward MacLagan, K.C.I.E., C.S.I. 1918

GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB.

Sir Edward MacLagan, K.C.I.E., C.S.I. 1920
 Sir Malcolm Hailey, K.O.S.I., C.I.E. 1924

PUNJAB LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon. Mr. H. A. Casson, C.S.I., President.

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS AND MINISTERS.

The Hon. Sir John Maynard, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., Finance Member.
 The Hon. Sardar Bahadur Sardar Sunder Singh, Majithia, C.I.E., Revenue Member.
 The Hon. Khan Bahadur Mian Fazl-i-Husain, Minister for Education (Muhammadan Landholders).
 The Hon. Rao Bahadur Honorary Lieutenant Chaudhri Lal Chand, O.B.E., Minister for Agriculture, North-West Rohtak (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.

OFFICIALS NOMINATED.

Anderson, Sir G., Kt., C.I.E., Director of Public Instruction, Punjab.
 Boyd, Mr. D. J., Home Secretary to Government, Punjab.
 Coldstream, Mr. J., Legal Remembrancer and Secretary to Government, Punjab Legislative Department.
 Craik, Mr. H. D., C.S.I., Chief Secretary to Government, Punjab.
 Forster, Lt.-Col. W. C. H., I.M.S., Director of Public Health, Punjab.

Blascheck, Mr. A. D., F.C.E., F.L.S., I.F.S., Chief Conservator of Forests, Punjab.

Heard, Colonel R., I.M.S., Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Punjab.

Irving, Mr. Miles, Secretary to Government, Punjab, Finance Department.

King, Mr. C. M., C.I.E., C.S.I., Financial Commissioner and Secretary to Government, Punjab, Revenue Department.

Latiff, Mr. A., O.B.E., Secretary to Government, Punjab, Transferred Departments.

Sangster, Mr. W. P., C.I.E., M.I.C.E., Chief Engineer, Irrigation.

Scott, Mr. R. A., Director of Industries.

Stalton, Mr. V., Chief Engineer, P. W. D. Buildings and Roads Branch.

Ward, Lt.-Col. E. L., I.M.S., Inspector General of Civil Hospitals.

NON-OFFICIALS NOMINATED.

Muzaffar Khan, Lt., Malik of Wan Bachran.

Davidson, Lieut.-Col. D. M., C.I.E., I.M.S., (Retired), Representative of European and Anglo-Indian Communities.

Gopal Das, Bhandari, Rai Bahadur, Sir Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E.

Jawahir Singh, Sardar Bahadur Sardar.

Maya Das, Mr. Ernest, Representative of Indian Christians.

Mehdi Shah, Khan Bahadur Sayad, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Owen, Dr. C. A., Representative of Anglo-Indian Community.

ELECTED.

Name of member.	Constituency.
Abdul Aziz, Mian	Lahore City (Muhammadan), Urban.
Abdul Qadir, Khan Bahadur Shaikh	West Punjab Towns (Muhammadan), Urban.
Afzal Haq, Chaudhri	Hoshiarpur-cum-Ludhiana, Rural.
Ali Akbar, Chaudhri	Kangra-cum-Gurdaspur (Muhammadan), Rural.
Bakhtawar Singh, Sardar	Hoshiarpur and Kangra (Sikh), Rural.
Banke Rai, Lala, B.A., LL.B.	South-East Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Bhagat Ram, Rajzada	Jullundur-cum-Ludhiana (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Bodh Raj, Lala, M.A., LL.B.	West Punjab Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Buta Singh, Sardar, B.A., LL.B.	Multan Division and Sheikhupura (Sikh), Rural.
Chhotu Ram, Rai Sahib Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B.	South-East Rohtak (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.
Dan Singh, Sardar	Amritsar (Sikh), Rural.
Dhanpat Rai, Rai Bahadur, Lala	Chairman, Punjab National Bank, Ltd. (Punjab Industries.)
Dhan Raj, Bhasin, Captain, M.B., B.S.	East and West Central Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Diwan Chand, Lala	Amritsar City (Non-Muhammadan).
Dull Chand, Chaudhri	Karnal (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Faiz Muhammad, Shaikh, B.A., LL.B.	Dera Ghazi Khan (Muhammadan), Rural.
Farman Ali Khan, Subedar-Major	Rawalpindi (Muhammadan), Rural.
Fazl Ali, Khan Bahadur Chaudhri, M.B.E.	Gujrat East (Muhammadan), Urban.
Firoz Khan, Naon, Malik	Shahpur East (Muhammadan), Rural.
Firoz-ud-din Khan, Rana, B.A., LL.B.	South-East Towns (Muhammadan), Urban.
Ganga Ram, Rai Sahib Lala, B.A., LL.B.	Ambala-cum-Simla (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Ghulam Muhammad, Chaudhri	Gujrat West (Muhammadan), Rural.
Gokul Chand Narang, Dr., M.A., Ph. D.	North-West Towns (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.
Gray, Mr. V. F.	Punjab Chamber of Commerce and Trades Association, Commerce.

Name of member.	Constituency.
Gurbaksh Singh, Sardar	Ambala Division (Sikh), Rural.
Haibat Khan, Daba, M.	Multan East (Muhammadan), Rural.
Har Chand Singh, Sardar	Lyallpur (Sikh), Rural.
Husain Shah, Sayad	Jhang (Muhammadan), Rural.
Jodh Singh, Sardar	(Sikh), Urban.
Karam Ilahi, Khan Bahadur Chaudhri, M.B.E. ..	Gujranwala (Muhammadan), Rural.
Kesar Singh, Chaudhri	Amritsar-cum-Gurdaspur, Rural.
Khan Muhammad, Khan, Wagha, Malik ..	Sheikhupura (Muhammadan), Rural.
Mangal Singh, Sardar	Sikh Landholders.
Maqbool Mahmood, Mir	Amritsar (Muhammadan), Rural.
Mazhar Ali Azhar, M., B.A., LL.B.	East and West Central Town (Muhammadan) Urban.
Mohan Lal, Lala, B.A., LL.B.	North-East Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Mohan Lal Bhatnagar, Lala, B.A., LL.B. ..	Lahore and Ferozepore-cum-Sheikhupura (Non-Muhammadan).
Mohinder Singh, Sardar	Ludhiana (Sikh), Rural.
Muhammad Abdullah Khan, Khan	Muzaffargarh, (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Husain, Sayad	Montgomery (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Jamal Khan, Khan Bahadur, Sardar	Baloch Tumandar (Landholders).
Muhammad Mehr Shab, Nawab Sayad ..	Jhelum (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Raza Shah, Gilani, Makhdumzada,	Multan West (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Saif Ullah Khan, Khan	Mianwali (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Shah Ali Khan, Chaudhri ..	Ambala Division North-East (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Shah Nawaz, Mian	Lahore (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Sharif, Mian	Amritsar City (Muhammadan), Urban.
Mumtaz Muhammad, Khan, Tiwana, Captain ..	Shahpur West (Muhammadan), Rural.
Najib-ud-Din Khan, Chaudhri	Ferozepore (Muhammadan), Rural.
Nanak Chand, Pandit, M.A.	Hoshiarpur (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Narain Singh, Sardar, B.A., LL.B.	Rawalpindi Division and Gujranwala (Sikh), Rural.
Narendra Nath, Diwan Bahadur Raja	Punjab Landholders (General).
Niranjan Das, Diwan	Rawalpindi Division and Lahore Division North (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Nihal Chand, Sikri, Lala, L.M. & S.	Lahore City (Non-Muhammadan).
Nur Din, Chaudhri	Lyallpur South (Muhammadan), Rural.
Partap Singh, Jamadar	Jullundur (Sikh), Rural.
Pohap Singh, Rao, M.A., LL.B.	Gurgaon (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Ram Singh, Chaudhri	Kangra (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Randhir Singh, Sardar, Kalaswala	Slalkot-cum-Gurdaspur (Sikh), Rural.
Ruchi Ram Sahni, Lala, M.A.	Punjab University.
Saadullah Khan, Chaudhri, B.A.	Jullundur (Muhammadan), Rural.
Sahib Dad Khan, Chaudhri	Gurgaon-cum-Hissar (Muhammadan), Rural.
Sangat Singh, Sardar, Kulla	Lahore (Sikh), Rural.
Sewak Ram, Rai Bahadur Lala	Multan Division (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Shahab-ud-din, Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B. ..	Slalkot (Muhammadan), Rural.
Shahadat Khan Rai	Lyallpur North (Muhammadan), Rural.
Sham Lal, Lala	Hissar (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Sikander Hayat Khan, Lieut. Sardar, M.B.E. ..	Artock (Muhammadan), Rural.
Tara Singh, Sardar, B.A., LL.B.	Ferozepore (Sikh), Rural.

Sardar Abnasha Singh, Secretary, Legislative Council.

Bakim Ahmed Shuja, Assistant Secretary, Legislative Council.

Burma.

The Province of Burma lies between Assam on the North-West and China on the North-East, and between the Bay of Bengal on the West and South-West and Slam on the South-East. Its area, including the district of Putao constituted in February 1914, is approximately 283,000 square miles, of which 184,000 are under direct British Administration, 16,000 are unadministered and 83,000 belong to semi-independent Native States. The main geographical feature of the country is the series of rivers and hills running fan-like from North to South with fertile valleys in between, widening and flattening out as they approach the Delta. Differences of elevation and rainfall produce great variations in climate. The coastal tracts of Arakan and Tenasserim have a rainfall of about 200 inches, the Delta less than half that amount. The hot season is short and the monsoon breaks early. The maximum shade temperature is about 96°, the minimum about 60°. North of the Delta the rainfall decreases rapidly to 30 inches in the central dry zone which lies in a "rain shadow" and has a climate resembling that of Bihar. The maximum temperature is twenty degrees higher than in the wet zone, but this is compensated by a bracing cold season. To the north and east of the dry zone lie the Kachin hills and the Shan plateau. The average elevation of this tableland is 3,000 feet with peaks rising to 9,000. Consequently it enjoys a temperate climate with a rainfall of about 70 inches on the average. Its area is over 50,000 square miles. There is no other region of similar area in the Indian Empire so well adapted for European colonization. The magnificent rivers, the number of hilly ranges (Yomas) and the abundance of forests, all combine to make the scenery of Burma exceedingly varied and picturesque.

The People.

The total population of Burma at the census of 1921 was 13,189,099. There were 8,382,335 Burmans, 1,017,987 Shans, 1,220,356 Karens, 146,845 Kachins, 288,847 Chins, 300,700 Arakanese and 323,509 Talangs. There is also a large alien population of 149,060 Chinese and 887,077 Indians, while the European and Anglo-Indian population numbered 25,005.

The Burmans, who form the bulk of the population, belong to the Tibetan group and their language to the Tibeto-Chinese family. They are essentially an agricultural people, 80 per cent. of the agriculture of the country being in their hands. The Burmese, and most of the hill tribes also, profess Buddhism, but Animism, or the worship of nature spirits, is almost universal. The interest taken by the Burmese in the course of the war, their response to the call for recruits and their generous contributions to war loans and charitable funds seem to show that their apathy towards the government of the country is giving way to an intelligent loyalty to British rule.

In appearance the Burman is usually somewhat short and thick set with Mongolian features. His dress is most distinctive and exceedingly comfortable. It consists of a silk

handkerchief bound round his forehead, a loose jacket on his body and a long skirt or loongi tied round his waist, reaching to his ankles. The Burmese women, perhaps the most pleasing type of womanhood in the East, lead a free and open life, playing a large part in the household economy and in petty trading. Their dress is somewhat similar to the men's minus the silk kerchief on the head, and the loongi is tucked in at the side instead of being tied in front. A well dressed and well groomed Burmese lady would, for grace and neatness, challenge comparison with any woman in the world.

Communications.

The Irrawaddy, and to a less extent the Chindwin, afford great natural thoroughfares to the country. At all seasons of the year these rivers, especially the Irrawaddy, are full of sailing and steam craft. In the Delta the net-work of waterways is indeed practically the only means of communication. The Irrawaddy Flotilla Company, with a fine fleet of mail, cargo and ferry boats, gives the Irrawaddy and the Delta rivers and creeks a splendid river service.

The Burma Railways Company has a length of 1,668 miles open line. The principal lines are from Rangoon to Mandalay; from Sagalung to Myitkyina, the most northern point in the system; the Rangoon-Prome line; and the Pegu-Martaban line, which serves Moulmein on the further bank of the Salween River.

Industry.

Agriculture is the chief industry of the province and supports nearly three-fourths of the population. The net total cropped area is 15½ million acres of which more than half a million acres are cropped more than once. Irrigation works supply water to nearly 1½ million acres. India is very largely dependent on Burma for her supplies of kerosene, benzine and petrol which rank second to rice in order of importance. Teak wood is exported in large quantities from Burma to India.

Forests play an important part in the industrial life of the Province. The forest reserves cover 30,000 square miles, while unclassified forests are estimated at about 115,000 square miles. Government extracts some 107,000 tons of teak annually, private firms, of whom the Bombay Burma Trading Corporation and Steel Brothers are the chief, extract over 344,000 tons. Other timber extracted by licensees amounts to over 431,000 tons and firewood over 824,000 tons.

The war gave a great impetus to the extraction of tin and wolfram in the Tavoy and Mergui Districts. Since the War, there has been a very poor market for wolfram and the price of tin has been subject to considerable fluctuations. Wolfram and tin are found together in most mining areas in Tavoy, the proportion varying from almost pure tin to almost pure wolfram. In order to help the tin and wolfram industries to tide over the period of depression, the Local Government in 1921 sanc-

tioned a scheme by which Government guaranteed advances made by the Bank against stocks of these metals. The scheme came to an end early in 1923.

In addition further help was given to these industries by the remission from the 1st January 1921 to the 14th February 1923 of fees, rents and royalties due from tin and wolfram concessions. Notwithstanding these concessions, many mines have been closed down. Silver, lead and zinc ore are extracted by the Burma Corporation at Bawdwin in the Northern Shan States. Copper in small quantities is also found there. There are small deposits of Molybdenite in Tavoy and Mergui and of platinum in Myitkyina. The output of precious stones from the ruby mines has declined. Gold dredging in the Myitkyina District has proved unprofitable and the company has been wound up. From the mines in the Hukong valley jade and amber are won. The oldest and largest oil field in the province is at Yenangaung in Magwe district where the Burma Oil Company has its chief wells. But borings in other districts have shown that the oil-bearing strata extend over a large part of the dry zone, and the output from the smaller fields in Pakokku and Minbu districts is now considerable, while the wells sunk in Thayetmyo district are also showing satisfactory returns. Two-thirds of the total production comes from the Yenangaung field. The Burma Oil Company take their oil to the refineries at Rangoon by pipe line from Singu and Yenangaung. Other companies take it down by river flats. The area under rubber is 79,000 acres.

Manufactures

There are 882 factories, over three-fifths of which are engaged in milling rice and over one-sixth are sawmills. The remainder are chiefly cotton ginning mills, oil mills for the extraction of oil from groundnuts, and oil refineries connected with the petroleum industry. The average daily number of operatives is nearly 89,000. At the Census of 1921, 1,935,729 or 28.48 per cent. of the total population were engaged outside agriculture and production.

As is the case in other parts of the Indian Empire, the imported and factory made article is rapidly ousting the home-made and indigenous. But at Amarapura in the Mandalay District a revival of the old place of hand silk-weaving. Burmese wood-carving is still famous and many artists in silver still remain, the finish of whose work is sometimes very fine. Bassein and Mandalay parasols are well known and much admired in Burma. But perhaps the most famous of all hand-made and indigenous industries is the lacquer work of Pagan with its delicate patterns in black, green and yellow traced on a ground-work of red lacquer over bamboo. A new art is the making of bronze figures. The artists have gone back to nature for their models, breaking away from the conventionalized forms into which their silver work had crystallized, and the new figures display a vigour and life that make them by far the finest examples of art the province can produce.

Administration.

Burma, which was at that time administered as a Lieutenant-Governorship, was deliberately excluded from the operation of the Reform Act of 1919. It was felt that the Province differed markedly from the other Provinces in the Indian Empire and its requirements should be separately considered. The repeated discussions the question was referred to a special Burma Reform Committee, which in 1922 recommended that all the essential provisions of the Reform Act should be applied to the Province. This recommendation was accepted and its proposals became law. Under this Act Burma became a Governor's Province, with an executive council and ministers, and conforms to the provinces recreated under the Act of 1919 (q.v.). The main difference is in the size of the electorate. Under the franchise accepted, the rural electorate is estimated at 1,500,000 and the urban electorate has been put as high as a million, though that is probably an exaggeration. The Legislative Council consists of 104 members, of which 79 are elected and the balance nominated. Owing to the special status of women in Burma, female franchise was adopted from the beginning.

Burma is divided administratively into Upper Burma (including the Shan States and Chin Hills) and Lower Burma. The Shan States are administered by the Chiefs of the States, subject to the supervision of the Commissioner, N. E. F. Division, and the Superintendents in the case of the Northern and Southern Shan States, which were formed into a Federation on the 1st October 1922, and are designated the F. S. States; and to the supervision of the Commissioners of the adjoining Divisions in the case of the other States. The Civil, Criminal and Revenue administration is vested in the Chief of the State, subject to the restrictions contained in the sanad. The law administered is the customary law of the State.

Under the Governor are eight Commissioners of divisions, three in Upper and five in Lower Burma.

Justice.

The administration of Civil and Criminal Justice is under the control of the High Court of Judicature at Rangoon, which consists of a Chief Justice and seven other Judges. The Superior Judicial Service consists of District and Sessions Judges; there are also separate Provincial and Subordinate Judicial Services.

All village headmen have limited magisterial powers and a considerable number are also invested with civil jurisdiction to a limited extent.

In pursuance of the policy of decentralization steps were taken in 1917 to restore to the village headmen the power and influence which they possessed in Burmese times before the centralizing tendencies of British rule made them practically subordinate officers of the administration.

Public Works.

This Department is administered by two Chief Engineers who are also Secretaries to Government in the Public Works Department. There are nine permanent Superintending

Education.

At the head is the Director of Public Instruction with an Assistant Director, both belonging to the Indian Educational Service. There are nine Inspectors of Schools drawn from the Indian Educational Service, while the Burma Educational Service provides eight Assistant Inspectors. A University for Burma has been established in Rangoon.

A remarkable feature of education in Burma is the system of elementary education evolved, generations ago, by the genius of the people. Nearly every village has a monastery (thpongyi-kyauing); every monastery is a village school and every Burman boy must, in accordance with his religion, attend that school, shaving his head and for the time wearing the yellow robe. At the thpongyi-kyauings the boys are taught reading and writing and an elementary native system of arithmetic. The result is that there are very few boys in Burma who are not able to read and write.

Medical.

The control of the Medical Department is vested in an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals. Under him are 41 Civil Surgeons. There is also a Director of Public Health, two Assistant Directors of Public Health, an Inspector-General of Prisons, three whole time Superintendents of Prisons, a Chemical Examiner and Bacteriologist and a Superintendent of the Lunatic Asylum.

The Pasteur Institute was opened in Rangoon in July 1915. The Director is a senior member of the Indian Medical Service.

THE FINANCES OF BURMA.

In common with the other Provinces of India, the financial arrangements between the Government of India and the Government of Burma underwent a remodelling in consequence of the reconstitution of the Province on the lines of the other Indian Provinces. The Provinces obtained substantial financial independence. The present position is set out in the following statement:—

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1924-25.										Rs.
Principal Heads of Revenue.										
Taxes on Income	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,46,000
Land Revenue	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5,27,00,000
Excise	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,20,00,000
Stamps	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	56,50,000
Forest	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,88,00,000
Registration	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6,00,000
Total									..	9,00,96,000
<i>Irrigation, Navigation, Embankments, etc.</i>										
Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20,00,000
Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	19,00,000
Total									..	39,00,000
Interest									..	11,00,000

Civil Administration.										Rs.
Administration of Justice ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9,50,000
Jails and Convict Settlements ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4,70,000
Police ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5,00,000
Ports and Pilotage ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,00,000
Education ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4,50,000
Medical ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,70,000
Public Health ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	40,000
Agriculture ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	50,000
Industries ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,000
Miscellaneous Departments ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,51,000
Total ..										28,84,000
Civil Works ..										7,30,000
Receipts in aid of Superannuation ..										90,000
Stationery and Printing ..										95,000
Miscellaneous ..										1,50,000
Total ..										3,35,000
XL. Miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Government ..										3,00,000
Total Revenue ..										9,93,45,000
Famine Insurance Fund ..										73,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments ..										33,34,000
Total Deposit and Advances ..										34,07,000
Opening Balance ..										3,09,49,000
Grand Total ..										13,37,01,000
ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1924-25.										
Direct Demands on the Revenue.										
Taxes on Income ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	59,25,000
Land Revenue ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18,55,000
Excise ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,70,000
Stamps ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,00,81,000
Forest ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,53,000
Registration ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..										1,81,64,000
State Railways ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11,71,000
Miscellaneous Railway Expenditure ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	38,000
Construction of Railways ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	55,59,000
Interest on work for which Capital Accounts are left ..										13,51,000
Irrigation, Embankment, etc., Revenue Accounts.										..
Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	30,90,000
Irrigation, Embankment, etc., Capital Account (Charged to Revenue).										..
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	14,99,000
Interest on ordinary debt ..										-25,22,000
Civil Administration.										
General Administration ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	95,49,600
Administration of Justice ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	55,40,000
Jail and Convict Settlements ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	27,29,000
Police ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,44,36,000
Ports and Pilotage ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	30,79,000
Scientific Departments ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	70,000
Education ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	80,13,000
Medical ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39,67,000
Public Health ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11,14,000
Agriculture ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	21,50,000
Industries ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6,75,000
Miscellaneous Departments ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,27,000
Total ..										5,15,49,600

Currency, Mint and Exchange.										Rs.
Exchange on Transactions with London ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Civil Works.										
Civil Works ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,26,91,000
Miscellaneous.										
Famine Relief and Insurance ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	67,000
Superannuation allowance and Pensions ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	32,43,000
Stationery and Printing ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10,45,000
Miscellaneous ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	25,40,000
Contributions and assignments to the Central Government by Provincial Governments ..										68,95,000
Miscellaneous adjustment between the Central and Provincial Governments ..										64,00,000
Debt Heads.										
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	54,10,000
Total ..										12,21,08,000
Deduct probable savings ..										-55,97,000
Closing balance ..										11,65,11,000
Grand Total ..										1,71,90,000
Grand Total ..										13,37,01,000

Administration.

Governor, Sir Harcourt Butler, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.
 Private Secretary, Capt. Victor F. Gamble.

Aides-de-Camp, Capt. A.D.G.S. Batty, M.V.O.
 Honorary Aides-de-Camp, Capt. A. St. Clair Bowden, B.I.M. Lt.-Col. B. H. Heald, V.D., and Major H. H. McGaun.

Indian Aides-de-Camp, Subadar-Major and Hon. Lt. Bhagbir Yakha, Bahadur, Naib Commandant Sarra Singh, Sardar Bahadur, and Naib Commandant Jalal Din, Khan Bahadur.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Mr. William John Keith, M.A., C.I.E., I.C.S.

The Hon'ble Sir Maung Kln, K.C.I.E. Barrister-at Law.

The Hon'ble Mr. Joseph Augustus Maung Gyl, Barrister-at Law.

The Hon'ble Mr. Maung Gyee, M.A., Barrister-at Law.

SECRETARIAT.

Chief Secretary, F. Lewisohn, C.B.E.
 Revenue Secretary, (Offg.) W. Booth-Gravely, M.A., I.C.S.

Secretary, P. W. D. (Irrigation Branch), J. D. Stuart, A.M.I.C.E.

Secretary, P.W.D. (Buildings and Roads Branch), H. L. Holman-Hunt, C.I.E.

Financial Commissioner, W. E. Laowry, B.A., I.C.S.

Registrar, K. M. Basu, B.A.

Miscellaneous Appointments.

Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, J. S. Furnivall, B.A., I.C.S. (on leave).

Director of Agriculture, Andrew McKerral, M.A. Consulting Architect, E. J. Pullar.

Superintendent and Political Officer, Southern Shan States, W. F. Graham, I.C.S.

Superintendent and Political Officer, Northern Shan States, Major H. H. Batten, I.A.

Director of Public Instruction, C. A. Snow, M.A.

Inspector-General of Police, Lt.-Col. R. W. Macdonald, D.S.O.

Chief Conservator of Forests, F. A. Leete, F.O.H.

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Col. Peter Dee, M.B., I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Major G. G. Jolly, M.B., C.H.D., C.I.E.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. H. H. G. Knapp.

Commissioner of Excise, J. Maung Shive Zan Aung, B.A.

Accountant-General, P. G. Jacob, B.A.
 Postmaster-General, F. T. de Monte.

Chief Commissioners of Burma.		Alexander Mackenzie, C.S.I. 1890	
Lieut.-Colonel A. P. Phayre, C.B.	.. 1862	D. M. Smeaton	1892
Colonel A. Fytche, C.S.I.	1867	Sir F. W. R. Fryer, K.C.S.I.	1895
Lieut.-Colonel R. D. Ardagh	1870	(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron MacDonnell.	
The Hon. Ashley Eden, C.S.I.	1871	Lieutenant-Governors of Burma.	
A. R. Thompson, C.S.I.	1875	Sir F. W. R. Fryer, K.C.S.I.	1897
C. U. Aitchison, C.S.I.	1878	Sir H. S. Barnes, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O.	1903
C. E. Bernard, C.S.I.	1880	Sir H. T. White, K.C.I.E.	1905
C. H. T. Crosthwaite	1883	Sir Harvey Adamson, Kt., K.C.S.I., LL.D.	1910
Sir C. E. Bernard, K.C.S.I.	1886	Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.	1915
C. H. T. Crosthwaite, C.S.I.	1887	Sir Reginald Craddock, K.C.S.I.	1917
A. F. MacDonnell, C.S.I. (a)	1889	Sir Harcourt Butler, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.	1922

SECRETARIES, DEPUTY SECRETARIES, UNDER-SECRETARIES, ETC., TO
GOVERNMENT.

F. Lewisohn, C.B.E., M.A., I.C.S.	..	Chief Secretary, Home and Political Department.
J. D. Stuart, A.M.I.C.E.	..	Secretary, Irrigation Branch, Public Works Department (Officiating.) Also Officiating Chief Engineer.
H. L. Holman-Hunt, C.I.E.	..	Secretary, Buildings and Roads Branch, Public Works Department. Also Chief Engineer.
W. Booth-Gravelly, M.A., I.C.S.	..	Secretary, Finance and Revenue Department.
J. Clague, B.A., I.C.S.	..	Secretary, Education, Local Government and Public Health Department. (Officiating.)
H. O. Reynolds, B.A., I.C.S.	..	Secretary, Agricultural, Excise and Forest Department.
Maung Gale (S), B.A.	..	Deputy Secretary, Home and Political Department. (Officiating.)
A. E. H. Killick, I.C.S.	..	Secretary to the Financial Commissioner, Burma. <i>Ex-officio</i> Deputy Secretary to Government, Department of Finance and Revenue.
J. K. Stanford, M.A., M.C., I.C.S.	..	Under-Secretary, Home and Political Department.
C. F. B. Pearce, B.A., I.C.S.	..	Under-Secretary, Finance and Revenue Department. (Officiating.)
D. B. Petch, M.C., I.C.S.	..	Under-Secretary, Education, Local Government and Public Health Department (Officiating.)
W. Q. Taggart, M.C., I.C.S.	..	Under-Secretary, Agricultural, Excise and Forests Department.
W. M. Hayfield	..	Under-Secretary, Irrigation Branch, Public Works Department. (Officiating.)
F. Marshall, B.Sc.	..	Under-Secretary, Buildings and Roads Branch, P. W. D.
H. C. E. Cherry, B.Sc.	..	Additional Under-Secretary, Buildings and Roads Branch, P. W. D.
K. M. Basu, B.A.	..	Registrar, Chief Secretary's Office.
J. Sim	..	Registrar, Office of Secretary, Education, Local Government and Public Health Department. (Officiating.)
C. O. Eide	..	Registrar, Finance and Revenue Secretary's Office.
S. B. Ghosh, B.A., B.L. ..	..	Registrar, Office of Secretary, Agricultural, Excise and Forest Department.
W. J. Peters	..	Registrar, Public Works Department.

BURMA LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRESIDENT.

Sir Robert Sydney Gilles, Kt., M.A., Bar-at-Law.

DEPUTY PRESIDENT.

Maung Ba Pe, B.A.

Nominated Members.

OFFICIALS.

The Hon'ble Sir William John Keith, Kt., M.A., C.I.E., I.C.S. (ex-officio).
The Hon'ble Sir Maung Kin, Barrister-at-Law (ex-officio).
James MacKenna, M.A., C.I.E., I.C.S.
Charles Frederick Grant, M.A., I.C.S.
Henry Osborne Reynolds, B.A., I.C.S.
Colonel Peter Dee, M.B., I.M.S.
Charles Alfred Snow, M.A.
Lt.-Col. Roderick William Macdonald, D.S.O., I.A.
John Emeris Houldey, B.A., I.C.S.
James Douglas Stuart, A.M.I.E., M.I.E.
Frederick Levison, C.B.E., I.C.S.
John Clague, B.A., I.C.S.
Walter Booth-Graveley, M.A., I.C.S.
Charles Betram Smales, V.D.
William Browne Brander, C.B.E., I.C.S.
A. Eggar, M.A., Bar-at-Law.

NON-OFFICIALS.

Hosain Hamadane, Merchant.
Abdool Barea Chowdhury, Merchant.
Francis Foster Goodliffe, Merchant.
Dr. Nasarwanji Nawroji Parakh, L.F.P. & L.M.S. (Glass.) L.S.A. (Lon.), Medical Practitioner.
U. Shwe Llay, Merchant.
U. Ba Too, C.I.E., K.S.M.
Taw Sein Ko, C.I.E., I.S.O.M., D.A.S.
F. L. Eigg-wither, Agent, B.R.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Name of Member.	Name and class of constituency represented.
Maung Shwe Tha, Bar-at-Law	Akyab Town (General Urban).
Maung Po Hla, C.I.E., K.S.M., A.T.M., M.R.A.S. ..	Bassein Town (General Urban).
Maung Ba Sein	Henzada Town (General Urban).
Maung E. Maung	Mandalay Town (General Urban).
Maung Suleman	
Maung Ba U.	
Maung Chit Pe	Moulmein (General Urban).
Maung Chit Hla, Bar-at-Law	

Name of Member.	Name and class of constituency represented.
Maung Myint	Prome Town (General Urban).
The Hon'ble Mr. J. A. Maung Gyi, Bar.-at-Law	East Rangoon (General Urban).
Maung Ba Pe, B.A. (Deputy President) ..	
L. Ah Yain, Bar.-at-Law	West Rangoon (General Urban).
Maung Ba Dun, Bar.-at-Law	
Saw Ba La	Tavoy Town (General Urban.)
E. Nazumuddin	Akyab Indian Community (Indian Urban).
Promotha Nath Chowdhury	Bassein Indian Community (Indian Urban).
Mahomed Ayub Jan	Mandalay Indian Community (Indian Urban).
Mirza Mahomed Rafi, Bar.-at-Law	Moulmein Indian Community (Indian Urban).
Avatapalli Narayana Rao, M.A.	East Rangoon Indian Community (Indian Urban).
S. M. Koiandai, B.A.	
Mahomed Anzam, Bar.-at-Law	West Rangoon Indian Community (Indian Urban).
J. K. Munshi, Bar.-at-Law	
Saw Pah Dwai, A.T.M., Bar.-at-Law	Amherst Karen Community (Karen Rural).
Maung Nu	Bassein Karen Community (Karen Rural).
Maung Ba Kin, B.A.	Ma-ubin Karen Community (Karen Rural).
Maung Po San	Myaungmya Karen Community (Karen Rural).
Maung Pyu	Thaton Karen Community (Karen Rural).
Maung Po Yin Si, B.A.	Amherst (General Rural).
Maung Saw Hla Aung	Akyab District East (General Rural).
Maung Ah Doe, Bar.-at-Law	Akyab District West (General Rural).
Maung Tha Ban, K.S.M.	South Arakan (General Rural).
Maung Po Hka	Bassein District (General Rural).
Maung Ba Dun	Hanthawaddy East (General Rural).
Maung Thin Maung	Hanthawaddy West (General Rural).
Maung Tun Lin, T.F.S.	Henzada District North (General Rural).
Maung Ba Myin	Henzada District South (General Rural).
Maung Ba Gale	Insein (General Rural).
Maung Nyeln	Katha (General Rural).
Maung Po	Kyaukse (General Rural).
Maung Ko Gyi	Lower Chindwin East (General Rural).
Maung Po Pyu	Lower Chindwin West (General Rural).
Maung Htein	Magwe East (General Rural).
W. S. Lamb	Magwe West (General Rural).
Maung Hla	Mandalay District (General Rural).
Maung Sein	Ma-ubin (General Rural).
Maung Po Wun	Meiktila East (General Rural).
Maung Po Thaw	Meiktila West (General Rural).
Ebrahim Ahmed, M.B.E.	Mergui (General Rural).
Maung Ba Thi	Minbu (General Rural).

Name of Member.	Name and class of constituency represented.
Maung Po Lu	Mayungmya (General Rural).
Maung Than	Myingyan North (General Rural).
Maung Mya	Myingyan South (General Rural).
Maung Po Pe	Pakokku East (General Rural).
Maung Me	Pakokku West (General Rural).
Maung Lun Maung, A.T.M.	Pegu North (General Rural).
Maung Po Tha	Pegu South (General Rural).
Maung Thein Maung, B.A.	Prome District (General Rural).
Maung Sein	Pyapon (General Rural).
Maung Thi	Sagaing East (General Rural).
Maung Kyaw	Sagaing West (General Rural).
Maung Ba Pe	Shwebo East (General Rural).
Maung Paw Gywe	Shwebo West (General Rural).
Khoo Hock Chwan	Tavoy District (General Rural).
Maung Thaw	Tharrawaddy North (General Rural).
Maung San Baw	Tharrawaddy South (General Rural).
Maung Tun Pe, A.T.M.	Thaton (General Rural).
Maung Ba Thein, B.A., B.Sc., B.L.	Thayetmyo (General Rural).
Maung Ba Cho, B.A.	Toungoo North (General Rural).
The Hon'ble U. Maung Gyce, M.A., Bar.-at-Law	Toungoo South (General Rural).
Maung Gyi	Yamethin North (General Rural).
Maung Pu, B.A., Bar.-at-Law	Yamethin South (General Rural).
Charles Haswell Campagnac, M.B.E., Bar.-at-Law.	Anglo-Indian (Anglo-Indian).
Oscar de Glanville, O.B.E., Bar.-at-Law ..	European (European).
R. Sinclair	Burma Chamber of Commerce (Commerce).
Alexander James Anderson, C.S.I.	Do. do.
Maung Hla Pe	Burmese Chamber of Commerce (Commerce).
Chan Chor Khine	Chinese Chamber of Commerce (Commerce).
James Donald	Rangoon Trades Association (Chambers).
P. N. Chari, B.A., B.L.	Rangoon University.

Bihar and Orissa.

Bihar and Orissa lies between 19°-02' and 27°-30' N. latitude and between 82°-31' and 88°-28' E. longitude and includes the three provinces of Bihar, Orissa and Chota Nagpur, and is bounded on the north by Nepal and the Darjeeling district of Bengal; on the east by Bengal and the Bay of Bengal; on the south by the Bay of Bengal and Madras; and on the west by the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and the Central Provinces.

The area of the British territories which constitute the Governorship of Bihar and Orissa is 83,181 square miles inclusive of the area of large rivers. In addition to the districts which are directly under British rule, there are two groups of petty States which lie to the south and south-west of the Province and which under the names of the Feudatory States of Orissa and Chota Nagpur are governed each by its own Chief under the superintendence and with the advice of the Political Agent and Commissioner, Orissa Feudatory States. The area of these territories is 23,656 square miles and as it is usual to include them when speaking of Bihar and Orissa the area of the whole Province may be stated at 111,837 square miles. Two of the provinces of the Governorship of Bihar and Orissa, viz., Bihar and Orissa, consist of great river valleys; the third, Chota Nagpur, is a mountainous region which separates them from the Central Indian Plateau. Orissa embraces the rich deltas of the Mahanadi and the neighbouring rivers and is bounded by the Bay of Bengal on the south-east and walled in on the north-west by the hilly country of the Tributary States. Bihar lies on the north of the Province and comprises the valley of the Ganges from the spot where it issues from the territories of the Governor of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh till it enters Bengal near Rajmahal. Between Bihar and Orissa lies Chota Nagpur. Following the main geographical lines there are five Civil Divisions with head-quarters at Patna, Muzaffarpur (for Tirhut), Bhagalpur, Cuttack (for Orissa) and Ranchi (for Chota Nagpur).

The People.

The head-quarters of Government are at Patna. The new capital which lies between the Military Cantonment of Dinapore and the old civil station of Bankipore is known as "Patna," the old town being called "Patna City."

The Province has a population of 37,961,858 persons which is very little less than that of France and rather more than that of the Dombay Presidency. The province is almost entirely rural, no fewer than 963 per mille of the population living in villages. Even so with 340 persons per square mile, Bihar and Orissa is more thickly populated than Germany. There are only three towns which can be classed as cities, namely, Patna, Gaya and Bhagalpur. During the last thirty years the population of Patna, the capital designate, has been steadily diminishing. Hindus form an overwhelming majority of the population. Though the Muhamma-

dans form less than one-tenth of the total population they constitute more than one-fifth of urban population of the province. Animists account for 6.2 per cent. These are inhabitants of the Chota Nagpur plateau and the Santal Parganas, the latter district being a continuation of the plateau in a north-easterly direction.

Industries.*

The principal industry is agriculture, Bihar more especially North Bihar, being the "Garden of India." Rice is the staple crop but the spring crops, wheat, barley, and the like are of considerable importance. It is estimated that the normal area cultivated with rice is 15,320,700 acres or 48 per cent. of the cropped area of the Province. Wheat is grown on 1,265,900 acres, barley on 1,406,100 acres, maize or Indian-corn on 1,637,500 acres, the latter being an autumn crop. Oil-seeds are an important crop, the cultivation having been stimulated by the demand for them in Europe. It is estimated that 2,091,400 acres of land are annually cropped with oil-seeds in the Province. There is irrigation in Shahabad, Gaya Champaran and Muzaffarpur districts in Bihar and in Balasore and Cuttack in Orissa. The Indigo industry is steadily on the decline, the total area sown having decreased from 342,000 acres in 1896 to 25,000 acres in 1923. The principal cause of this was the discovery of the possibilities of manufacturing synthetic or chemically prepared indigo on a commercial scale. Its place as a crop manufactured for export has been largely taken by sugarcane, the cultivation of which has been considerably extended owing to the high prices given by sugar factories. In the district of Purnea and in Orissa, and parts of the Tirhut Division jute is grown, but the acreage varies according to the price of jute. The last serious famine was in 1895-96, but there was a serious shortage of foodstuffs in the south of the Province in 1919. In any year in which monsoon currents from either the Bay of Bengal or the Arabian Sea are unduly late in their arrival or cease abruptly before the middle of September the agricultural situation is very grave. It may be said that for Bihar the most important rainfall is that known as the *Natia*, due towards the end of September or up to middle of October. Rain at this time not only contributes materially to an increased outturn of the rice crop, but also provides the moisture necessary for starting the spring or *rabi* crops.

Manufactures.

Opium was formerly, with indigo, the chief manufactured product of Bihar, but in consequence of the agreement with the Chinese Government the Patna Factory has been closed. At Monghyr the Peninsular Tobacco Company have erected one of the largest cigarette factories in the world and as a result tobacco is being grown much more extensively. The Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur in Singhbhum district are also one of the largest

in the world and numerous subsidiary industries are springing up in their vicinity. The most important of these are the Timpale Company of India, Agricultural Implements, Ltd., Enfield Cable Company of India, Enamelled Ironware Limited and Indian Steel Wire Products. The population of Jamshedpur is rapidly approaching 100,000 and it consumes 1½ million tons of coal annually. This part of the province has also some of the richest and most extensive iron mines in the world and supplies the iron and steel works in both Bengal and Bihar and Orissa with raw materials, but the raising of coal is still the most important of the mineral industries in the province. The coalfields in the Manbhum District have undergone an extraordinary development in the past twenty years, while valuable new fields are being developed at Rangarh, Bokaro and Karanpura in Hazaribagh. This same district is the most important mica mining centre in the world both on account of the quality as well as the size of its output. Manbhum, Palaman, Ranchi, the Santal Parganas and Gaya are also the chief centres for the production of lac and the manufacture of shellac the latter of which is exported from India to the value of ten crores annually.

Administration.

The Province on first constitution was administered by a Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, thus being unique in India as the only Lieutenant Governorship with a Council. Under the Reform Act of 1919 it was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers. The principles of the provincial administration are fully explained in the section. The Provincial Governorships, where the division of the administration into Reserved Subjects, in charge of the Governor and his Executive Council, and Transferred Subjects, in charge of the Governor and Ministers chosen from the Legislative Council, is set out in detail. In all these respects Bihar and Orissa is on the same plane as the other Provinces in India.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department in the Province of Bihar and Orissa consists of two separate branches, viz.:- (1) the Buildings and Roads and (2) Irrigation which also deals with railways. Each has a Chief Engineer, who is also Secretary to the Local Government with an Engineer Officer as Under Secretary in the Buildings and Roads branch and a non-professional Assistant Secretary in the Irrigation branch under him. The Electrical work of the Province is carried out by an Electrical Engineer and a staff of subordinates.

Justice.

The administration of justice is controlled by the High Court of Judicature at Patna. In the administration of civil justice below the High Court are the District Judges as Courts of Appeal, the Subordinate Judges and the Munsiffs. The jurisdiction of a District Judge or Subordinate Judge extends to all original suits cognizable by the Civil Courts. It does not, however, include the powers of a Small Cause Court, unless these be specially conferred. The ordinary jurisdiction of a Munsif extends to all suits in which the amount or value of the subject

matter in dispute does not exceed Rs. 1,000 though the limit may be extended to Rs. 4,000. On the criminal side the Sessions Judge hears appeals from Magistrates exercising first class powers while the District Magistrate is the appellate authority for Magistrates exercising second and third class powers. The District Magistrate can also be, though in point of fact he very rarely is, a court of first instance. It is usual in most districts for a Joint Magistrate or a Deputy Magistrate to receive complaints and police reports, cases of difficulty or importance being referred to the District Magistrate who is responsible for the peace of the district. In the non-regulation districts the Deputy Commissioner and his subordinates exercise civil powers and hear rent suits.

Land Tenures.

Estates in the Province of Bihar and Orissa are of three kinds, namely, those permanently settled from 1793 which are to be found in the Patna, Tirhut and Bhagalpur divisions, those temporarily settled as in Chota Nagpur and parts of Orissa, and estates held direct by Government as proprietor or managed by the Court of Wards. The passing of the Bengal Tenancy Act (VIII of 1885) safeguarded the rights of the cultivators under the Permanent Settlement Act. Further, the Settlement Department under the supervision of the Director of Land Records makes periodical survey and settlement operations in the various districts, both permanently and temporarily settled. In the former, the rights of the under tenants are recorded and at rights of the under tenants are recorded and at rents are fixed not only for the landlords but also for all the tenants. A settlement can be ordered by Government on application made by raiyats.

The tenures of Orissa are somewhat different. Under the zamindars, that is, the proprietors who took settlement from Government and pay revenue to Government direct, is a class of subordinate proprietors or proprietary tenure holders, who were originally village headmen dealing more or less direct with the revenue authorities. They have a variety of names; such as *mukadam*, *padhan*, *maurasi*, *sarbarakar*, *purseht*, *kharidrar* and *shikmi* zamindar. These sub-proprietors or proprietary tenure holders pay their revenue through the zamindars of the estates within which their lands lie. In Chota Nagpur, Orissa and the Santal Parganas, the rights of village headmen have been recognised. The headman collects the rents and is responsible for them minus a deduction as remuneration for his trouble.

Both Orissa and Chota Nagpur have their own Tenancy Acts.

Police.

The Departments of Police, Prisons and Registration are each under the general direction of Government, supervised and inspected by an Inspector-General with a staff of assistants. The Commissioner of Excise and Salt is also Inspector-General of Registration.

Under the Inspector-General of Police are four Deputy Inspectors-General and 29 Superintendents. There are also 23 Assistant Superintendents of Police and 38 Deputy Superintendents. The force is divided into the District

* The figures given in this paragraph relate to British territory only.

Police, the Railway Police and the Military Police. A Criminal Investigation Department has also been formed for the collection and distribution of information relating to professional criminals and criminal tribes whose operations extend beyond a single district and to control, advise, and assist in investigations of crime of this class and other serious attacks in which its assistance may be invoked. There are three companies of Military Police which are maintained as reserves to deal with serious and organised disturbances and perform no ordinary civil duties.

Education.

The position of education in the Province, with the numbers attending schools, is set out in the section Education and the tables attached thereto (q. v.) showing in great detail the educational status of the administration.

There is a University at Patna, whose functions are described under the Indian Universities, (q. v.)

Medical.

The Medical Department is under the control of the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals who is a Member of the Indian Medical Service. Under him there are 21 Civil Surgeons who are responsible for the medical work of the districts at the head-quarters of which they are stationed. 56 Dispensaries are maintained by Government in addition to 400 Dispensaries maintained by Local bodies, Railways, private persons, etc. 4,656,328 patients including 64,371 in-patients were treated in all the dispensaries in 1923. The total income of the dispensaries maintained by Government and Local Bodies including that of the private aided institutions amounted to Rs. 22,87,411.

A large mental hospital for Europeans has been opened at Ranchi which receives patients from Northern India. A similar institution is under construction for the Indians. At present these are treated at Patna. An institute for radium treatment has also been established at Ranchi.

THE FINANCES OF BIHAR AND ORISSA.

As Bihar now enjoys practical financial autonomy, the finances are set out in greater detail.

Revenues and Receipts.		(In thousands of Rupees.)	
		Budget Estimate.	1924-25.
II.—Taxes on Income			3,45
V.—Land Revenue		1,65,59	
VI.—Excise		1,76,00	
VII.—Stamps		1,02,00	
VIII.—Forest		10,92	
IX.—Registration		14,51	
Irrigation—			
XIII.—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which capital accounts are kept			17,89
XIV.—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no capital accounts are kept			1,09
XVI.—Interest			5,17
XVII.—Administration of Justice			4,34
XVIII.—Jails and Convict Settlements			6,52
XIX.—Police			2,12
XX.—Ports and Pilotage			3
XXI.—Education			4,78
XXII.—Medical			4,23
XXIII.—Public Health			16
XXIV.—Agriculture			1,57
XXV.—Industries			64
XXVI.—Miscellaneous Department			6,00
XXX.—Civil Works			3,05
XXXIII.—Receipts in aid of Superannuation			55
XXXIV.—Stationery and Printing			3,84
XXXV.—Miscellaneous			8
XL.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments			5,34,42
TOTAL REVENUE			5,34,42
Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government			3,55
Loans between Central and Provincial Governments			5,00
Famine Insurance Fund			15,63
Suspense			4,00
TOTAL RECEIPTS			5,62,60
Opening Balance		(b)	1,69,68
GRAND TOTAL			7,32,28
(b) Ordinary balance			
Famine Insurance Fund			32,39
Total			1,69,68

(In thousands of Rupees.)
Budget Estimate, 1924-25.

Expenditure.		(In thousands of Rupees.)	
		Budget Estimate.	1924-25.
5.—Land Revenue			21,83
6.—Excise			10,51
7.—Stamps			3,39
8.—Forests			8,89
9.—Registration			5,85
Irrigation—			
14.—Interest on Irrigation Works for which capital accounts are kept			20,43
15.—Irrigation Revenue Account—Other Revenue Expenditure Financed from ordinary Revenue			3,57
15 (1)—Other Revenue expenditure financed from Famine Insurance Grants			
16.—Irrigation Capital Account—Construction of Irrigation, Embankment and Drainage Works			31
19.—Interest on Ordinary Debt			3,50
22.—General Administration			71,91
24.—Administration of Justice			36,05
25.—Jails and Convict Settlements			17,87
26.—Police			82,81
27.—Ports and Pilotage			1
30.—Scientific Departments			34
31.—Education			68,22
32.—Medical			20,89
33.—Public Health			9,99
34.—Agriculture			11,43
35.—Industries			7,55
37.—Miscellaneous Departments			50
41.—Civil Works			68,83
43.—Famine Relief and Insurance			11,42
45.—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions			18,00
46.—Stationery and Printing			11,67
47.—Miscellaneous			1,64
51.—Contribution to the Central Government by Provincial Government			
52.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments			6
Total expenditure charged to Revenue			5,18,37
Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government			10,20
Loans between Central and Provincial Governments			5,21
Famine Insurance Fund			5,02
Suspense			4,30
55.—Construction of Irrigation, Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works—Capital expenditure not charged to Revenue			
Total expenditure not charged to revenue			24,73
Total expenditure			5,43,10
		Closing balance	(b) 1,89,18
		GRAND TOTAL	7,32,28
Provincial Surplus			19,50
(b) Ordinary balance			
Famine Insurance Fund			1,46,18
			43,00
Total			1,89,18

Administration.

GOVERNOR.

His Excellency Sir Henry Wheeler, K.C.S.I., K.O.I.E., I.C.S.

PERSONAL STAFF.

Private Secretary, Capt. G. E. R. Edgecombe.
Aide-de-Camp, Capt. B. E. W. Edmondson.
Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Lieut. Muhammad Raza, Khan Bahadur Major D. Douglas and Major Cecil George Lees.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Sachchidanand Sinha.
Hugh McPherson, C.S.I., I.C.S.

Ministers.

The Hon. Sir Saiyid Mahmud Fakhr-ud-din, Kt., (Education).
The Hon. Babu Ganesh Datta Singh (Local Self-Government).
SECRETARIAT.
Chief Secretary to Government, Political and Appointment Departments, Sir G. Rainey, K.O.I.E., C.S.I., C.I.E. (on leave); E.L.L. Hammond (Offg.).

Secretary to Government, Finance Department
E. L. Tanner, I.C.S.
Secretary to Government, Revenue Department,
J. B. Dain.

Secretary to Government (P. W. D.), Irrigation Branch, W. S. Bremner.
Buildings and Roads Branch, C. B. Mellor.
BOARD OF REVENUE.

Member, L. F. Moorhead.
MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.
Director of Public Instruction, G. E. Fawcus.
Inspector-General of Police, Walter Swain, C.I.E.
Conservator of Forests, Albert Reginald Dick.
Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Col. Hugh Ainsworth, M.B., I.M.S.
Director of Public Health, Lt.-Col. William Charles Ross.
Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. W. Gullit, C.I.E., I.M.S.
Accountant-General, A. H. Gurney, I.C.S.
Director of Agriculture, A. C. Dobbs.

BIHAR AND ORISSA LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

NOMINATE).

Officials.

Mr. Egbert Laurie Lucas Hammond, C. S. I., C.B.E., I.C.S.
 Mr. Evelyn Lloyd Tanner, I.C.S.
 Mr. John Rutherford Dain, I.C.S.
 Mr. Arthur Loveday Inglis, I.C.S.
 Mr. Bernard Abdy Collins, I.C.S.
 Mr. Walter Sidney Bremner, C.I.E.
 Mr. Harry Llewelyn Lyons Allanson, I.C.S.
 Mr. John Alfred Saunders, I.C.S.
 Mr. Walter Swain, C.I.E.
 Mr. Birendra Chandra Sen, I.C.S.
 Colonel Hugh Ainsworth, I.M.S.
 Mr. Henry Lambert.
 Mr. William Bissill Heycock, I.C.S.

Non-Officials.

Raja Bahadur Harihar Prasad Narayan Singh, O.B.E.
 Khan Bahadur Nawabzada Salyid Ashraf-ud-din Ahmed.
 Babu Devkhandan Prashad Singh.
 The Rev. Edward Hamilton Whitley (Aborigines.)
 The Rev. Pritam Luther Singh (Aborigines.)
 Babu Bishwanath Kar (Depressed Classes.)
 The Rev. B. Sukh (Depressed Classes.)
 Mr. Dhanjishah Meherjibhai Madan (Industrial interests other than Planting and Mining.)
 Rai Bahadur Jyotish Chandra Bhattacharji.
 Mr. Baij Nath (Labouring Classes.)
 The Rev. S. K. Tarafdar (Indian Christian Community.)
 Mr. Francis Ernest Lopes Morrison (Anglo-Indian Community.)

ELECTED.

Name.	Constituencies.
<i>Patna Division.</i>	
Mr. Muhammad Yunus	Patna Division Muhammadan Urban.
Maulavi Salyid Muhammad Husein	East Patna Muhammadan Rural.
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Salyid Muhammad Fakar-ud-din.	West Patna Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Shyam Narayan Sinha Sharma	Patna Division Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Maharaja Guru Mahadevasram Prasad Sahi, ..	Patna Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Babu Gur Sahay Lal	East Patna Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Rajandhari Sinha	West Patna Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Chandipat Sahay	Landholders, Patna Division.
Khan Bahadur Ashfaq Husain	Gaya Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Gupteshvar Prashad Singh	West Gaya Non-Muhammadan Rural.

Name.

Constituencies.

Patna Division—contd.

Babu Bishun Prashad	Central Gaya Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Rameshvar Prashad Singh	East Gaya Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Vacant	Shahabad Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Sharada Prashad Singh	Central Shahabad Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Rajivaranjan Prashad Sinha	South Shahabad Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Dwarika Prashad Singh	Arrah Non-Muhammadan Rural.

Tirhut Division.

Maulavi Mati-ur-Rahman	Tirhut Division Muhammadan Urban.
Maulavi Salyid Mehdi Hasan	Muzaffarpur Muhammadan Rural.
Maulavi Said-ul Haqq	Darbhanga Muhammadan Rural.
Maulavi Salyid Mubarak Ali	Saran Muhammadan Rural.
Maulavi Muhammad Zahurul Haqq	Champaran Muhammadan Rural.
Rai Bahadur Dwarika Nath	Tirhut Division Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Mahanth Ishvar Gtr	North-West Darbhanga Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Shiva Shankar Jha	North-East Darbhanga Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Ram Nihora Singh	South-East Darbhanga Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Ramasray Prashad Chaudhuri	Samastipur Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Shivabachan Sinha	North Muzaffarpur Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mahanth Darshan Dasji	East Muzaffarpur Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Ganesh Datta Singh	West Muzaffarpur Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Radha Krishna	Hajipur Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Jaleshvar Prashad	North Saran Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Chandra Ketu Narayan Singh	South Saran Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Vacant	North Champaran Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Kedar Nath Prashad Sah	South Champaran Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Vacant	Landholders, Tirhut Division.

Bhagalpur Division.

Mr. Abdul Wahab Khan	Bhagalpur Division Muhammadan Urban.
Khan Bahadur Salyid Muhammad Naim	Bhagalpur Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Shah Muhammad Yahya	Monghyr Muhammadan Rural.
Maulavi Mir Faiyaz Ali	Purnea Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Salyid Moineddin Mirza	Kishanganj Muhammadan Rural.
Maulavi Muhammad Umid Ali	Santal Parganas Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Murlidhar Shraff	Bhagalpur Division Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Babu Rajendra Misra	North Bhagalpur Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Bhuvaneshwari Prashad Mandal	Central Bhagalpur Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Ananta Prashad	South Bhagalpur Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Maharaja Bahadur Chandra Mauleshvar Prasad Singh.	South-West Monghyr Non-Muhammadan Rural.

Name.	Constituencies.
<i>Bhagalpur Division—contd.</i>	
Rai Sahib Kharag Narayan	North-West Monghyr Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Rai Bahadur Lakshmi Prasad Sinha	East Monghyr Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Rai Bahadur Prithi Chand Lal Chaudhuri	Purnea Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Jogendra-Narayan Singh	Santal Parganas North Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Rameshvar Lal Marwari	Santal Parganas South Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Raja Bahadur Kirtyanand Singh	Landholders', Bhagalpur Division.

Orissa Division.

Maulavi Salyid Tajammul Ali	Orissa Division Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Madhusudan Das, C.I.E.	Orissa Division Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Babu Birabar Narayan Chandra Dhir Narendra	North Cuttack Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Lakshmidhar Mahanti	South Cuttack Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Radharanjan Das	North Balasore Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Chaudhuri, Bhagavat Samantarat Prasad Mahapatra	South Balasore Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Godaveri Misra	North Puri Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Jagabandhu Sinha	South Puri Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Ram Narayan Misra	Sambalpur Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Raja Rajendra Narayan Bhanja Deo, O.B.E.	Landholders', Orissa Division.

Chota Nagpur Division.

Maulavi Shaik Muhammad Husain	Chota Nagpur Division Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Jimut Bahan Sen	Chota Nagpur Division Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Rai Bahadur Sharat Chandra Ray	Ranchi Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Krishna Ballabh Sahay	Hazaribagh Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Thakuraj Rahmeshvar Dayal Singh	Palamau Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Nilkanta Chattarji	South Manbhum Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Dulu Manki	Singbhum Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Bakhsai Jagdam Prasad Lal	North Manbhum Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Babu Nageshvar Bakhsai Ray	Landholders', Chota Nagpur Division.

Others.

Mr. Sri Narayan Sahay	Patna University.
Mr. William Ord MacGregor	European Constituency.
Mr. Edward C. Danby	Planting Constituency.
Mr. Archibald Arthur Forbes Bray	Indian Mining Association.
Babu Narendra Nath Mukharji	Indian Mining Federation.

The Central Provinces and Berar compose a great triangle of country midway between Bombay and Bengal. Their area is 131,052 sq. miles, of which 82,000 are British territory proper, 18,000 (*viz.* Berar) held on perpetual lease from the Nizam and the remainder held by Feudatory Chiefs. The population (1921) is 13,912,760 under British administration, including 3,075,316 in Berar. Various parts of the Central Provinces passed under British control at different times in the wars and tumult in the first half of the 19th century and the several parts were amalgamated after the Mutiny, in 1861, into the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces. Berar was, in 1853, assigned to the East India Company as part of a financial arrangement with the Nizam for the maintenance of the Hyderabad contingent, and was leased in perpetuity to the Central provinces in 1903, as the result of a fresh agreement with the Nizam.

The Country.

The Central Provinces may roughly be divided into three tracts of upland, with two intervening ones of plain country. In the north-west, the Vindhyan plateau is broken country, covered with poor and stunted forest. Below its precipitous southern slopes stretches the rich wheat growing country of the Nerbudda valley. Then comes the high Satpura plateau, characterised by forest-covered hills and deep water-cut ravines. Its hills decline into the Nagpur plain, whose broad stretches of "deep" black cotton soil make it one of the more important cotton tracts of India and the wealthiest part of the C. P. proper. The Eastern half of the plain lies in the valley of the Wainganga and is mainly a rice growing country. Its numerous irrigation tanks have given it the name of the "lake country" of Nagpur. Further east is the far-reaching rice country of Chhattisgarh, in the Mahanadi basin. The south-east of the C. P. is again mountainous, containing 24,000 square miles of forest and precipitous ravines, and mostly inhabited by jungle tribes. The Feudatory States of Bastar and Kankar lie in this region. Berar lies to the south-west of the C. P. and its chief characteristic is its rich black cotton-soil plains.

The People.

The population of the province is a comparatively new community. Before the advent of the Aryans, the whole of it was peopled by fared better from the Aryans than their like in most parts of India because of the rugged nature of their home. But successive waves of immigration flowed into the province from all sides. The early inhabitants were driven into the inaccessible forests and hills, where they now outnumber all the other hill and forest tribes and form nearly a quarter of the whole population of the C. P. being found in large numbers in all parts of the province, particularly in the south-east. The main divisions of the new comers are indicated by the language divisions of the province. Hindi, brought in by the Hindustani-speaking peoples of the North, prevails in the North and East. Marathi in Berar and the west and centre of the C. P. Hindi is spoken by 56 per cent. of the population and is the *lingua franca*. Marathi by 31 per cent. and Gond by 7 per cent. The

effects of invasion are curiously illustrated in Berar, where numbers of Moslems have Hindu names, being descendants of former Hindu officials who on the Mahomedan invasion adopted Islam rather than lose their positions. The last census shows that a gradual Brahmanising of the aboriginal tribes is going on. The tribes are not regarded as impure by the Hindus and the process of absorption is more or less civilising.

Industries.

When Sir Richard Temple became first Chief Commissioner of the C. P. the province was landlocked. The only road was that leading in from Jubbulpore to Nagpur. The British administration has made roads in all directions, the two trunk railways between Bombay and Calcutta run across the province and in the last few years a great impetus has been given to the construction of subsidiary lines. These developments have caused a steady growth of trade and have aroused vigorous progress in every department of life. The prime industry is, of course, agriculture, which is assisted by one of the most admirable agricultural departments in India and is now receiving additional strength by a phenomenal growth of the co-operative credit movement. The land tenure is chiefly on the zemindari, or great landlord system, ranging, with numerous variations, from the great Feudatory chief-ships, which are on this basis, to holdings of small dimensions. A system of land legislation has gradually been built up to protect the individual cultivator. Berar is settled on the Bombay ryotwari system. About 16,400 square miles of the C. P. is Government Reserved forest; in Berar the forest area is about 3,300 square miles, the total forest area being one-fifth of the whole Province. The rugged nature of the greater part of the country makes forest conservation difficult and costly. Excluding forest and waste 55 per cent. of the total land is occupied for cultivation; in the most advanced districts the proportion is 80 per cent. and in Berar the figure is also high. The cultivated area is extending continuously except for the temporary checks caused by bad seasons. Rice is the most important crop of the C. P. Wheat comes next, with 29 per cent., then pulses and cereals used for food and oil seeds, with 45 per cent. and cotton with 14½ per cent. In Berar cotton occupies 47 per cent. of the cropped area, jowar covers 37 per cent. then wheat and oil seeds. In agriculture more than half the working population is female.

Commerce and Manufactures.

Industrial life is only in its earliest development except in one or two centres, where the introduction of modern enterprise along the railway routes has laid the foundations for great future developments of the natural wealth of the province. Nagpur is the chief centre of a busy cotton spinning industry. The Empress Mills, owned by Parsi manufacturers, were opened there in 1877 and the general prosperity of the cotton trade has led to the addition of many mills here and in other parts of the province. The total amount of spun yarn exported annually from the Province is about 200,000 maunds, valued at nearly 55 lakhs of rupees.

The largest numbers engaged in any of the modern industrial concerns are employed in manganese mining which in 1923 employed 12,098 persons and raised 508,116 tons. Then follow coal mining with an output of 547,682 tons and 8,575 persons employed, the Jabulpore marble quarries and allied works, the limestone quarries and the mines for pottery clay, soapstone, &c.

The total number of factories of all kinds legally so described was 574 in 1923, the latest period for which returns are available and the number of people employed in them 64,067. The same economic influences which are operative in every progressive country during its transition stage are at work in the C. P. and Berar, gradually sapping the strength of the old village industries, as communications improve, and concentrating industries in the towns. While the village industries are fading away, a large development of trade has taken place. The last pre-war reports showed an increase in volume by one third in eight years.

Administration.

The administration of the Central Provinces and Berar is conducted by a Governor-in-Council, who is appointed by the Crown. He is assisted by six Secretaries, five under-secretaries, and one financial assistant secretary. Under the Reform Scheme the administration is conducted, in relation to reserved subjects, by a Governor with an Executive Council of two members, one of whom is a non-official, and in relation to transferred subjects temporarily by a Governor under the Transferred Subjects (Temporary Administration) Rules.

The local legislature consists of 70 members at least 70 per cent. of whom are elected and not more than 20 per cent. are officials. The Governor (who is not a member of the Council) has the right of nominating two additional members with special knowledge on any subject regarding which legislation is before the Chamber. The C. P. are divided for administrative purposes into four divisions and Berar constitutes another division. Each of these is controlled by a Commissioner. The divisions are sub-divided into districts, each of which is controlled by a Deputy Commissioner, immediately subordinate to the Commissioner. The principal heads of Provincial departments are the Commissioner of Settlements and Director of Land Records, Registrar-General of Births, Deaths and Marriages and Inspector General of Registration, the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health, the Inspector General of Police, the Inspector General of Prisons, the Director of Public Instruction, the Excise Commissioner, the Director of Agriculture, the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, the Director of Industries, the Legal Remembrancer and the two Chief Engineers, Public Works Department, Buildings and Roads and Irrigation Branches. The Deputy Commissioners of districts are the chief revenue authorities and District Magistrates and they exercise the usual powers and functions of a district officer. The district forests are managed by a forest officer, over whom the Deputy Commissioner has certain powers of supervision, particularly in matters affecting the welfare of the people. Each

district has a Civil Surgeon, who is generally also Superintendent of the District Jail and whose work is also in various respects supervised by the Deputy Commissioner. The Deputy Commissioner is also Marriage Registrar and manages the estates of his district which are under the Court of Wards. In his revenue and criminal work the Deputy Commissioner is assisted by (a) one or more Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Indian Civil Service; (b) one or more Extra Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Provincial Civil Service, usually natives of India, but including a few Europeans and Anglo-Indians and (c) by Tahsildars and naib Tahsildars, or members of the Subordinate service, who are nearly always natives of India. The district is divided for administrative purposes into tahsils, the average area of which is 1,500 square miles. In each village a lambardar or representative of the proprietary body, is executive headman.

Justice.

The Court of the Judicial Commissioner is the highest court of appeal in civil cases, and also the highest court of criminal appeal and revision for the Central Provinces and Berar including proceedings against European British subjects and persons jointly charged with European British subjects.

The Court sits at Nagpur and consists of a Judicial Commissioner and 3 Additional Judicial Commissioners of whom one at least must be an advocate of the Court or a Barrister or pleader of not less than 10 years' standing. A fourth Additional Judicial Commissioner selected from the Bar is temporarily appointed.

Subordinate to the Judicial Commissioner's Court are the District and Sessions Judges (11 in number) each of whom exercises civil and criminal jurisdiction in a Civil and Sessions district comprising one or more Revenue districts. The civil staff below the District and Sessions Judge consists of Sub-Judges of the 1st and 2nd class.

Local Self-Government.

Municipal administration was first introduced under the Punjab Municipal Acts and the Municipality of Nagpur dates from 1864. Several revising Acts extend its scope and the C. P. Municipalities Act passed towards the end of the year 1922 has considerably increased the power of the Municipal Committees. The C. P. Municipalities Act has recently been extended to Berar. Viewed generally, municipal self-government is considered to have taken root successfully. The general basis of the scheme is the Local Board or each tahsil and the District Council for each district. The larger towns have municipalities, there being 61 such bodies in the Province.

Under the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act passed in 1920 the Local Boards consist of elected representatives of circles and nominated members other than Government officials not exceeding in number one-fourth of the Board, and the constitution of the District Council is a certain proportion of elected representatives of Local Boards, of members selected by those representatives and of members, other than Government servants, nominated by Government.

The District Councils in the Central Provinces have power of taxation within certain limits and Local Boards derive their funds in allotments from the District Councils. The new Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act has now been applied to Berar. The Office Bearers of the District Councils and Local Boards are with few exceptions non-officials.

Rural education and sanitation are among the primary objects to which these bodies direct their attention, while expenditure on famine relief is also a legitimate charge upon the District Council funds.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is controlled by two Chief Engineers, who are also Secretaries to the Government. There are two Superintending Engineers for Roads and Buildings and three for Irrigation. In 1892 a separate division of the Public Works Department was formed for the construction of roads and buildings in the Feudatory States, but it has since been abolished. The expansion of the department and its work has been one of the most remarkable features of the administration in the past decade and a half, largely owing to the demands of a progressive age in regard to communications and new buildings. The Irrigation Branch of the P. W. D. represents a completely new departure. It was formerly the accepted view that the irregular surface of the country would make irrigation canals impossible and that the S. W. monsoon was so regular that it would pay better to relieve famine than to prevent it. Both conclusions have been reversed. Picket officers investigated projects for irrigation when the Irrigation Commission was appointed (1901) and canal and storage works have since been advanced with vigour. The Tandula, Wainganga, Mahanadi, Kharang and Manlari projects are amongst the more important schemes, while an extensive network of minor protective works is being constructed throughout the Province.

Police.

The police force was constituted on its present basis on the formation of the Province, the whole of which including the Cantonments and the Municipalities, is under one force. The strength is equal to one man per 9 square miles of area. The superior officers comprise an Inspector-General, whose jurisdiction extends over Berar, three Deputy Inspectors-General, for assistance in the administrative control and supervision of the Police force, including the Criminal Investigation Department, and the usual cadre of District Superintendents of Police, Assistant and Deputy Superintendents and subordinate officers. On railways special Railway Police are employed under the control of two Superintendents of Railway Police with headquarters at Raipur and Hoshangabad. A Special Armed Force of 600 men is distributed over the headquarters of eight districts, for use in dealing with armed disturbers of the peace in whatever quarter they may appear. There is a small force of Mounted Police. The Central Provinces has no rural police as the term is understood in

other parts of India. The village watchman is the subordinate of the village headman and not a police official and it is considered very desirable to maintain his position in this respect.

Education.

The Education Department of the Central Provinces and Berar is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, a Deputy Director, four Inspectors and two Inspectresses who in their turn are assisted by seven Assistant Inspectors and four Assistant Inspectresses. An Agency Inspector supervises the schools in the Feudatory States. Schools are divided into schools for general education and schools for special education. The latter are schools in which instruction is given in a special branch of technical or professional education, or for special classes of the community such as Europeans, girls and Rajkumars. The main divisions of schools for general education is into Primary and Secondary. In the Primary Schools the teaching is conducted wholly in the vernacular and these schools are known as Vernacular Schools. The Secondary Schools are divided into Middle and High Schools. The former may be either Vernacular Middle Schools in which the instruction is given wholly in the Vernacular, or Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools in which the instruction is given both in English and the Vernacular. In the High School classes the instruction until recently was given in English but the vernacular was adopted as the medium of instruction at the beginning of the school year 1922-23. For administrative purposes schools are further divided according to their management into schools under public management and schools controlled by private bodies. The former consist of (a) schools controlled by Government and (b) schools controlled by Local Bodies or Boards. The latter consist of (a) Schools which are aided by grants from Government or from Local and Municipal Funds and (b) unaided schools. All schools under public management and all aided schools conform in their courses of study to the standards prescribed by the Education Department or by the High School Education Board. They are subject to inspection by the Department and to the general rules governing schools of this type. They are "recognised" by the Department and their pupils may appear as candidates for any prescribed examination for which he is otherwise eligible. Unaided schools do not follow the rules of the Department, nor are they subject to inspection by the Department. They are mostly indigenous schools or which have been too recently opened to have acquired "recognition." Their pupils may not appear as candidates at any of the prescribed examinations without the previous sanction of the Department.

As an experimental measure the inspection and administration of Board Vernacular schools have been transferred to the District Councils at Bhandara, Balaghat, Amraoti and Hoshangabad.

The Primary Education Bill which was passed by the Local Legislative Council in March 1920 marks an important stage by giving Local Bodies power to introduce compulsory education in the areas under their jurisdiction.

Higher education is at present given in five colleges. In Nagpur Morris College teaches up to the M.A. standard in Arts and up to the Final LL.B. standard in Law. Hislop College is affiliated up to the M.A. standard in Arts. The Victoria College of Science teaches up to the M.Sc. standard in Science. Up to the B.Sc. standard it works in conjunction with Morris College and Hislop College. In Jubbulpore Robertson College teaches up to the B.A. and B.Sc. standards. The King Edward College, capable of accommodating 350 students with spacious grounds and well-built hostels for two hundred boarders, is now established for the intermediate degree B.A. and B.Sc. in Arts and the intermediate degree in Science. The province contains also a Teacher's Training College at Jubbulpore, and Normal Schools at different centres, and an Engineering School at Nagpur. There is a Technical Institute at Amraoti, which is controlled by the Dept. of Industries. There is also an Agricultural College at Nagpur under the Department of Agriculture.

Collegiate Education is now under control of the University of Nagpur to which the colleges of the province are affiliated. The Nagpur University Act of 1923 provided for a University which "in the first instance, will be of an examining and affiliating type though it may subsequently and without further legislation undertake wider functions as necessity arises and funds permit." In this connection the speech with which the Hon'ble the Minister for Education introduced the Bill is interesting. He pointed out that from the outset the University will exercise a marked control over its colleges with regard to instruction, the qualifications of teachers, the residence and discipline of students. It will also act as adviser to the Local Government with regard to the financial needs of the colleges and institutions connected with it. "Finally, the Bill is so drafted that the University may, at any moment without further Legislation, supplement or replace collegiate instruction by instruction of its own. It may take over the management of existing colleges with the consent of their managing bodies, whether Government or private, or it may institute and maintain colleges of its own." The second important point of difference between the Nagpur Act and other University Acts subsequent to the publication of the Calcutta University Commission's Report is with regard to Intermediate Education. The Bill definitely follows the recommendations of the Central Provinces University Committee of 1914 and of the Sadler Commission in freeing the High schools from the control of the University. It differs from the Sadler Commission Report and subsequent University legislation in adopting the High School Certificate Examination as the standard of admission to the University and in placing Intermediate Education under the control of the University. The constitution of the University as provided in the Act is in accordance with other recent University legislation in India and is to consist of a Court, an Academic Council and an Executive Council with the Governor of the province as Ex-officio Chancellor.

As a corollary to the Central Provinces University Act the Central Provinces High School Education Bill was passed in 1923 on

the lines of the United Provinces Intermediate and High School Education Act. Its aim is to free the High Schools of the Province from the control of the University and from this point of view to substitute for the University a Board of Secondary Education for the regulation and control of Secondary Education. In order, however, that the connection between Secondary and University Education may still be maintained the Bill provides that one-third of the members of the Board will be drawn from men experienced in university affairs and that of this one-third not less than two-thirds shall be teachers in the University or in colleges affiliated thereto. At the same time teachers engaged in school work will be adequately represented on the Board.

Medical.

The medical and sanitary services of the province are respectively controlled by an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and a Director of Public Health. The medical department has made much progress since the year 1911. A striking advance has been made in recent years with urban sanitation and the opening of a Medical School at Nagpur. The principal medical institutions are the Mayo Hospital at Nagpur opened in 1874, with accommodation for 84 in-patients; the Victoria Hospital at Jabbulpore, opened in 1886 and accommodating 99 in-patients, the Lady Dufferin Hospital and the Mure Memorial Hospital at Nagpur and the Lady Elgin Hospital and the Crump Children's Hospital at Jabbulpore, these last four being for women and children and containing together accommodation for 126 in-patients. The Mayo Hospital, Nagpur was provincialised in 1923. In accordance with the recent policy 94 local fund dispensaries have been transferred to the administrative and executive control of local bodies. The Province has one Mental Hospital at Nagpur. Vaccination is compulsory in some Municipal towns to which the Vaccination Act has been extended. The Government in 1913 sanctioned the opening of peripatetic dispensaries in unhealthy areas. There is at the present time one such dispensary at each district in the Province. There are also 2 peripatetic dispensaries in the Wardha District and 1 in Hattia Zamindari of Balaghat district which are contributed by the District Council, Wardha and the Zamindar of Hattia respectively.

Finance.

The main source of Government income in the province has always been the land revenue, but under Mahratta rule many petty imposts were added in all branches of trade and industry and life in general. Thus there was a special tax on the marriage of Banias and a tax of a fourth of the proceeds of the sale of houses. The scheme of Provincial finance was introduced in 1871-72. Special settlements under this system have been necessitated in view of the special circumstances of the province and the recurrence of famine, which at the end of the 19th century caused a severe economic strain upon the province. The wave of prosperity which has spread over the country in the past 20 years has more than doubled the funds available for the administration, compared with what they were before the several years of scarcity, and the progress of the administration and of expenditure has increased correspondingly.

FINANCES OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES.

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1924-25.

Principal Heads of Revenue.										Rs.
Taxes on Income	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,32,000
Land Revenue ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,25,08,000
Excise ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,31,74,000
Stamps ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	71,50,000
Forest ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	53,00,000
Registration ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7,00,000
Total										4,89,64,000

Irrigation.

Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	2,19,000
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	1,36,000
Total	3,55,000

Debt Services.

Interest	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,60,000
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Civil Administration.

Administration of Justice	5,00,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	2,92,000
Police	1,84,000
Education	4,20,000
Medical	27,000
Public Health	85,000
Agriculture	3,17,000
Industries	42,000
Miscellaneous Departments	65,000
Total ..	19,12,000

Civil Works:

[illegible]

Miscellaneous.										Rs.
Receipts in aid of Superannuation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5,71,000
Stationery and Printing	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	45,000
Miscellaneous	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6,74,000
Total										12,90,000

Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments

....

Total Provincial Revenue

5,31,81,000

Debt Heads.

Deposits and Advances-Famine Insurance Fund	..	..	..	..	46,69,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments	..	..	..	..	22,14,000
Loans between Central and Provincial Governments	..	..	..	..	28,50,000
Total Revenue and Receipts	..	..	..	..	6,27,14,000
Opening balance {	Ordinary	..	..	..	75,95,000
	Famine Insurance Fund	..	..	..	68,91,000
Grand Total	..	..	..	..	7,72,00,000

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1924-25.

Direct Demands on the Revenue.

Land Revenue	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	25,28,000
Excise	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7,80,000
Stamps	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,45,000
Forest	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	33,36,000
Registration	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,68,000
Total										71,52,000

Irrigation.

Revenue Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works—

Interest on Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20,86,000
Other Revenue expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenues	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,69,000
(1) Other Revenue expenditure financed from Famine Insurance Grants	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,47,000
Total										25,92,000

Capital Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works charged to Revenue.—

Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works.—

A.—Financed from Famine Insurance Grants	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
B.—Financed from Ordinary Revenue	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Total										

Debt Services.

Interest on Ordinary Debt

88,000

Civil Administration.										Rs.
Administration Reserved	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	69,00,000
Transferred	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Station of Justice	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	30,70,000
and Convict Settlements	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9,69,000
ice	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	57,73,000
ntific Departments	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13,000
ication —	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,48,223
Reserved	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	49,71,897
Transferred	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13,13,897
dical	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,08,000
ublic Health	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	14,19,138
riculture	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29,000
ustries—	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,44,500
Reserved	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,20,000
Transferred	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
scellaneous Departments—	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Reserved	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Transferred	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Total										2,52,85,657

Civil Works.

Civil Works—	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	30,000
Reserved	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	62,95,600
Transferred	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Total										63,25,600

Miscellaneous.

Famine Relief and Insurance.—	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39,91,000
A.—Famine Relief	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18,20,000
B.—Transfers to Famine Insurance Fund	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5,70,000
Stationery and Printing—	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	15,000
Reserved	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Transferred	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,61,000
Miscellaneous—	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7,29,000
Reserved	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Transferred	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Total										73,86,000

Provincial Contributions and miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments.—

Contributions	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	22,00,000
Miscellaneous Adjustments	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	23,000
Total										22,23,000

Expenditure in England

10,57,000

Total Provincial Expenditure

5,21,09,257

Capital Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankments, Drainage and other Works not charged to Revenue—

Forest Capital outlay	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,25,000
Capital outlay on Stationery and Printing	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	31,90,000
Construction of Irrigation Works	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Total										33,15,000

Debt Heads.

Deposits and Advances—	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4,55,000
Famine Insurance Funds	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,13,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Government	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	28,43,000
Loans between Central and Provincial Governments	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Total Expenditure and Disbursements										5,90,40,257

For rounding

257

Closing balance { Ordinary

70,55,000

Famine Insurance Fund

1,11,05,000

Grand Total

7,72,00,000

Surplus

+10,71,743

GOVERNOR.
H. E. Sir Montagu Butler, Kt., C.B., C.I.E.,
C.V.O., C.B.E.

MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.
The Hon. Mr. B. P. Standen, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.
The Hon. Sir Moropant V. Joshi, Kt.

SECRETARIAT.
Chief Secretary, Mr. A. E. Nelson, O.B.E., I.C.S.,
J.P., M.L.C.
Financial Secretary, Mr. A. E. Mathias, I.C.S.
Revenue Secretary, Mr. Cyril James Irwin, C.I.E.
Legal Secretary, Mr. David George Mitchell,
I.C.S.

Under Secretaries, Messrs. Chintaman Dwarkanath Deshmukh, I.C.S., Ambalal Narottamdas Shah, Bar-at-Law, and Chhote Lal Varma.

Financial Asstt. Secretary, Mr. C. E. Higher-
Secretary, Public Works Department (Irrigation
Branch), Lieut.-Col. H. de L. Pollard-Lowsley,
C.I.E., D.S.O., R.E., C.M.G. (Roads and Build-
ings), Mr. J. M. M. Parker, A.C.H.

BERAR.

Commissioner, Mr. F. C. Turner, I.C.S., M.L.C.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction, Mr. C. E. W.
Jones, M.A., M.L.C.

Inspector-General of Police, Mr. Thomas Henry
Morony.

Chief Conservator of Forests, Sir Henry A.
Farrington.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Major W. J.
Powell, I.M.S.

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Col. J. A.
Black, I.M.S.

Director, Public Health, Lt.-Col. T. G. N. Stokes,
I.M.S.

Commissioner of Excise, G. P. Burton, I.C.S.

Income Tax Commissioner, Mr. K. S. Jatar.

Accountant-General, Mr. James Patch, O.B.E.

Postmaster-General, Mr. M. L. Pasricha.

Director of Agriculture, Mr. David Clouston,
C.I.E.

Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies
Mr. H. B. Crosthwaite, C.B.E., C.I.E.

CHIEF COMMISSIONERS.

Colonel E. K. Elliot 1860
Lieut.-Colonel J. K. Spence (Officiating) 1862
R. Temple (Officiating) 1862
Colonel E. K. Elliot 1863
J. S. Campbell (Officiating) 1864
R. Temple 1864

J. S. Campbell (Officiating) 1865
R. Temple 1865
J. H. Morris (Officiating) 1867
G. Campbell 1867
J. H. Morris (Officiating) 1868

Confirmed 27th May 1870.

Colonel R. H. Keatinge, V.C., C.S.I. (Offg.) 1870
J. H. Morris, C.S.I. 1872
C. Grant (Officiating) 1870
J. H. Morris, C.S.I. 1870
W. B. Jones, C.S.I. 1883
C. H. T. Crosthwaite (Officiating) 1884

Confirmed 27th January 1885.

D. Fitzpatrick (Officiating) 1885
J. W. Neill (Officiating) 1887
A. Mackenzie, C.S.I. 1887
R. J. Crosthwaite (Officiating) 1889
Until 7th October 1889.
J. W. Neill (Officiating) 1890
A. P. MacDonell, C.S.I. 1891
J. Woodburn, C.S.I. (Officiating) 1893

Confirmed 1st December 1893.

Sir C. J. Lyall, C.S.I., K.C.I.E. 1895
The Hon'ble Mr. D. C. J. Ibbetson, C.S.I. 1898
" Sir A. H. L. Fraser, K.C.S.I. 1899
(Officiating) Confirmed 6th March 1902.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. P. Hewett, C.S.I., C.I.E. 1902
(Officiating) Confirmed 2nd November 1903.

The Hon'ble Mr. F. S. P. Lely, C.S.I., K.C.I.E. 1904
(Officiating) Confirmed 23rd Dec. 1904.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. O. Miller, C.S.I. 1905
S. Ismay, C.S.I. (Officiating) 1906

Until 21st October 1906.

F. A. T. Phillips (Officiating) 1907
Until 24th March 1907. Also from 20th
May to 21st November 1909.

The Hon'ble Sir R. H. Craddock, K.C.S.I. 1907

" Mr. H. A. Crump, C.S.I. 1912

Sub. pro tem. from 26th January 1912 to 16th
February.

The Hon'ble Mr. W. Fox-Strangways, C.S.I. 1912
(Sub. pro tem.)

The Hon'ble Sir B. Robertson, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1912

" Mr. Crump, C.S.I. (Officiating) 1914

" Sir B. Robertson, K.C.S.I. 1914

" Sir Frank George Sly, K.C.S.I.,
I.C.S. 1919

GOVERNORS.

H. E. Sir Frank Sly, K.C.S.I. 1920
H. E. Sir Montagu Butler, Kt., C.B.,
C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E. 1925

CENTRAL PROVINCES LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

President:—The Hon. Sir Gangadhar Madho Chitnavis, K.C.I.E.

(i) Officials.

Mr. Arthur Edward Nelson, C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S., Chief Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces.
Mr. Alfred Ernest Mathias, I.C.S., Finance Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces.
Mr. David George Mitchell, C.I.E., I.C.S., Legal Remembrancer and Legal Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces.
Mr. Charles Evan William Jones, I.E.S., Director of Public Instruction and Secretary in the Education Department to the Government of the Central Provinces.
Mr. James Ferguson Dyer, M. A., Commissioner of Settlements and Director of Land Records.

(ii) Non-Officials.

Mr. V. B. Kekre (Mandla).
Raja Thakur Raghuraj Singh of Pandaria (Zamindari and Jagirdari Estates).
Mr. William Pasley (European and Anglo-Indian Communities).
Mr. Ganesh Akaji Gaval (Depressed Classes).
Mr. Sukhaji Urkuda Katangale (Depressed Classes).
Sardar Bahadur J. N. Rodrigues.
Mr. Ramkrishna Raoji Jayavant, M.B.E.
Mr. Ghulam Mohiddin.
Sita Charan Dube.

MEMBERS ELECTED.

Name.	Constituency.
Mr. Prabhat Chandra Bose	Jubbulpore City, Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Mr. Gyanchandra Verma	Jubbulpore Division, Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Mr. Raghvendra Rao	Chhattisgarh Division, Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Mr. Chandra Gopal Misra	Nagpur City-cum-Kamptee Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Dr. N. B. Khare	Do. do. do.
Dr. B. S. Munje	Nagpur Division, Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Mr. Balvant Baghav Deshmukh	Jubbulpore District (South), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Kanchhedilal	Jubbulpore District (North), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Kashi Prasad Pande	Damoh District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Gokulchand Singal	Saugor District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Gopal Rao Ramchandra Wakhare	Seoni District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Prabhakar Dhundiraj Jatar	Raipur District (North), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Sheodass Daga	Raipur District (South), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Ravishankar Shukla	Bilaspur District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Thakur Chhedilal	Drug District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Ghansham Singh Gupta	Hoshangabad District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Beni Madhava Awasthi	Nimar District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Gopal Rao Rambhau Joshi	Narsinghpur District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Chaudhry Daulat Singh	

Name.	Constituency.
Mr. Vishwanath Damodar Salpekar	Chhindwara District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Krishnarao Mahadeo Dharmadhikari ..	Betul District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Krishna Pandurang Vaidya	Nagpur District (East), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Laxman Rao Waman Rao Halde	Nagpur District (West), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Namdeo Yeshwant Dhopte	Wardha Tahsil, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. G. V. Deshmukh	Wardha District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Deorao Mukund Patil	Chanda District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Raghunath Ramchandra Pathak	Bhandara District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. K. R. Moharikar	Balaghat District, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mazulvi Saiyid Muhammad Amin Shams-ul- ulma.	Jubbulpore Division, Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Muhammad Masud Khan	Chhattisgarh Division, Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Syed Hifazat Ali	Nerbudda Division, Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. M. K. Sinddiqui	Nagpur Division, Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Shyam Sunder Bhargava	Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Landholders.
The Hon'ble Mr. S. M. Chitnavis, I.S.O.	Nagpur and Chhattisgarh Landholders.
Mr. M. K. Golwalkar	Nagpur University.
Rao Sahib Laxminarayan	Central Provinces and Berar Mining Association.
Raj Bahadur K. S. Nayudu	Central Provinces, Commerce and Industry.
<i>Members elected from Berar.</i>	
Mr. Shripad Balwant Tambe	East Berar, Municipal, Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Mr. Ramchandra Anant Kanitkar	West Berar, Municipal, Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Mr. W. G. Mohrir... ..	Amraoti (Central), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Panjabrao Bajirao Deshmukh	Amraoti (East), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Ramrao Madhavrao Deshmukh	Amraoti (West), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Tukaram Sheoram Korde	Akola (East), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Narayansinh Thakur	Akola (North-West), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Janardan Bhaisani	Akola (South), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Y. M. Kale	Buldana (Central), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Nathu Ragho Patil	Buldana (Malkapur-Jalgaon), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Mahadeo Paikaji Kolhe	Yeotmal (East), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Dattatraya Krishna Kane	Yeotmal (West), Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Khan Bahadur Saiyid Abdur Rahman	Berar, Municipal, Non-Muhammadan Urban.
Mr. Syed Muzaffar Husain	East Berar, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Mansur Ali Khan	West Berar, Non-Muhammadan Rural.
Mr. Balkrishna Ganesh Khaparde	Berar Landholders.
Mr. Shriram Surajmal	Berar, Commerce and Industry.

North-West Frontier Province.

The North-West Frontier Province, as its name denotes, is situated on the north-west frontier of the Indian Empire. It is in form an irregular strip of country lying north by east and south by west and may generally be described as the tract of country, north of Baluchistan, lying between the Indus and the Durand boundary line with Afghanistan. To the north it extends to the mountains of the Hindu Kush. From this range a long broken line of mountains runs almost due south, dividing the province from Afghanistan, until the Sulaiman Range eventually closes the south of the Province from Baluchistan. The greatest length of the province is 408 miles, its greatest breadth 279 miles and its total area about 39,000 square miles. The territory falls into three main geographical divisions: the Cis-Indus district of Hazara; the narrow strip between the Indus and the Hills, containing the Districts of Peshawar, Kohat, Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan, and the rugged mountainous regions on the north and west between those districts and the border line of Afghanistan. Hazara and the four districts in the second division contain 13,418 square miles. The mountain regions, north and west, are occupied by tribes subject only to the political control of the Chief Commissioner in his capacity as Agent to the Governor-General. The area of this tract is roughly 25,500 square miles and in it are situated, from north to south, the political agencies severally known as the Malakand, Khyber, Kurram, Tochi and Wana Agencies. Each of the Deputy Commissioners of the five administered districts is responsible for the management of political relations with certain tribes or sections of the tribes across the frontier. A few hundred miles of the trans-border Territory are internally administered by the Political Agents, but the bulk of the trans-border population is free from any internal interference, so long as offences are not committed and so long as the tribes observe the conditions on which allowances are paid to many of them.

The area of the Province is a little more than half that of Bombay (excluding Sind and Aden) and amounts to more than three-fifths of the size of England without Wales. The density of population throughout the Province equals 130 persons to a square mile, but in the more favoured portions the pressure of population is much greater. In the Hazara District there are 208 persons to a square mile and in the trans-Indus plains tract the number is 156. The key to the history of the people of the N.-W. F. P. lies in the recognition of the fact that the valley of Peshawar was always more closely connected politically with Eastern Iran than with India, though in pre-Mahomedan times its population was mainly Indian by race. Early history finds the Iranians dominating the whole Indus valley. Then came the Greek invasion under Alexander the Great, in B. C. 327, then the invasions of the Sakas, and of the White Huns and later the two great waves of Muhammadan invasion. Last came the Sikh invasion beginning in

1818. The Frontier Territory was annexed by the British in 1849 and placed under the control of the Punjab Government. Frequent warfare occurred with the border tribes. The most serious phases of these disturbances were the war provoked by the aggression of Afghanistan in 1919 and the protracted punitive operations against the Waziris in 1919-1920. These have resulted in the establishment at Razmak, a position dominating the Mahsud Waziri country, of a permanent garrison of 10,000 troops drawn mostly from stations lying in the Plains immediately below the hills. A circular road from Bannu, through Razmak to Sororogha, Jandola and back to the Derajat provides communications transport with this force and facilities its mobility. The effect of this measure has been a marked improvement in the internal peace of the Tribal area.

The division of the Frontier Province from the Punjab has frequently been discussed, with the double object, in the earlier stages of these debates, of securing closer and more immediate control and supervision of the Frontier by the Supreme Government and of making such alterations in the personnel and duties of frontier officials as would tend to the establishment of improved relations between the local British representatives and the independent tribesmen. The province was eventually removed from the control of the Punjab administration in 1901. To it was added the political charge of Dir, Swat and Chitral, the Political Agent of which had never been subordinate to the Punjab. The new Province was constituted under a Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General, with headquarters at Peshawar, in direct communication with the Government of India in the Foreign Department. In political questions there is no intermediary between the Chief Commissioner and the local officer; an arrangement designed to secure both prompt disposal of references and the utilisation of the expert knowledge of frontier conditions for which the head of the administration is selected. The advisability of re-uniting the Province with the Punjab has recently been much discussed in certain Indian political circles and as a result of the views expressed upon the matter in the Legislative Assembly the Government of India in 1922 appointed a Committee of officials and unofficals to investigate it. The Committee, presided over by Mr. D. de S. Bray, M.L.A., Joint Foreign Secretary, toured the Frontier Province and the Punjab and heard numerous witnesses. Its members were Messrs. Raza Ali, M.C.S., T. Rangachari, Chandhri Shahabuddin, N. M. Samarth and K. B. Abdur Rahim Khan, members of the Legislative Assembly, H. N. Polton, I.C.S., (Foreign Dept.) and A. H. Parker (I.C.S., Punjab) (members). The inquiry developed practically into a contest between Mahomedans and Hindus on communal lines. The Hindus, allied in sympathy with their co-religionists in the Punjab demanded the reunion of the administered districts of the Province with the Punjab or, if that were not attainable then the placing of the judicial

administration of the Province under the Punjab High Court, at Lahore. The Mahomedans on the other hand claimed the right of their Province to a status corresponding with that enjoyed by other Provinces of India and to immediate reforms initiating and providing for progress along that line. The Hindus argued that a separate Pathan Province on the Frontier would cause a dangerous sentimental division from the rest of India, with leanings towards the allied racial elements outside British India. The answer to that was that a contented Pathan Province would be a valuable buttress against hostile feeling across the Border. The Committee's deliberations ended in disagreement, the two Hindu members writing each a separate report favourable to the Hindu viewpoint already explained, and the majority of the Committee, comprised of all its other members, recommending advance on a Provincial basis. Their principal recommendations were for.

Retention of the Settled Districts and Tribal Tracts as a separate unit in charge of a minor administration under the Government of India;

Early creation of a Legislative Council for the Settled Districts and appointment of Member of Council and Minister;

Appointment of a second Judicial Commissioner and reform of the judicial administration in various directions, including interchange of officers with the Punjab, so that the members of the Service in the smaller Province should have the advantage of experience in the larger one.

"If (concluded the Majority) the Pathan nationality is allowed self-determination and given scope for that self-development within the Indian Empire under the Reforms Scheme after which it is now striving we are assured that with a contented Frontier population India can face with calm resolution the future that the Frontier has in store for her."

No action on the report has yet been taken and an important reason for the delay is understood to be the sharp accentuation of communal bitterness throughout the Frontier region as a result of political agitation at Kohat leading to a murderous and incendiary outbreak between the members of the two communities there last Spring.

The People.

The total population of the N.-W. F. P. (1921) is 5,076,476, made up as follows:—

Hazara	622,349
Trans-Indus Districts ..	1,628,991
Trans-Border Area ..	2,825,136

This last figure is estimated. There are only 561·3 females per 1,000 males in the towns, and 872·2 females per 1,000 males in rural areas.

This disproportion of the sexes cannot at present be explained in the N.-W. F. P. any more than in other parts of Northern India where it also appears. The discrepancy is greater here than in any other Province of India. There is no ground for believing that the neglect of girls in infancy has any effect in causing the

phenomenon. On the other hand, the female population has to face many trials which are unknown to men. The evils of unskilled midwifery and early marriage are among them. Both the birth and death-rates of the Province are abnormally low. The birth rate in the administered districts, according to the last available official reports, is 23·7 and the death-rate 21·7. The birth-rate was 17 per cent below the average for the preceding quinquennium—in Hazara 35 per cent below it—a figure indicating the unusually low vitality of the people after a preceding severe epidemic of malaria. The population is naturally increasing but emigration reduces the net result.

The dominant language of the Province is Pashtu and the population contains several lingual strata. The most important sections of the population, both numerically and by social position, are the Pathans. They own a very large proportion of the land in the administered districts and are the ruling race, of the tribal area to the west. There is a long list of Pathan, Baluch, Rajput and other tribal divisions. Gurkhas have recently settled in the Province. The Mahomedan tribes constitute almost the whole population, Hindus amounting to only 5 per cent. of the total and Sikhs to a few thousands. The occupational cleavage of the population confuses ethnical divisions.

Under the North-West Frontier Province Law and Justice Regulation of 1901, custom governs all questions regarding successions, betrothal, marriage, divorce, the separate property of women, dower, wills, gifts, partitions, family relations such as adoption and guardianship, and religious usages and institutions, provided that the custom be not contrary to justice, equity or good conscience. In these matters the Mahomedan or Hindu law is applied only in the absence of special custom.

Climate, Flora and Fauna.

The climatic conditions of the N.-W.F.P., which is mainly the mountainous region, but includes the Peshawar Valley and the riverine tracts of the Indus in Dera Ismail Khan District, are extremely diversified. The latter district is one of the hottest areas of the Indian continent, while on the mountain ranges the weather is temperate in summer and intensely cold in winter. The air is generally dry and hence the annual ranges of temperature are frequently very large. The Province has two wet seasons, one the S.-W. Monsoon season, when moisture is brought up from the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal: the other in winter, when storms from Mesopotamia, Persia and the Caspian Districts bring widespread rain and snowfall. Both sources of supply are precarious and not infrequently either the winter or the summer rainfall falls almost entirely. The following description of the Daman, the high ground above the Indus, stretching across Dera Ismail Khan to the mountains on the west, occurs in an account written some years ago by Captain Croswaite: "Men drink once a day and the cattle every second day. Washing is an impossible luxury. . . . It is possible in the hot weather to ride thirty miles and neither hear

a dog bark nor see the smoke of a single fire." With the exception of the Kunhar River, in Hazara, which flows into the Jhelum, the whole territory drains into the Indus. The flora of the Province varies from the shrubby jungle of the south-eastern plains to barren hills, pine forests and fertile mountain valleys. Tigers used to abound in the forests but are now quite extinct; leopards, hyenas, wolves, jackals and foxes are the chief carnivora. Bear, deer and monkeys are found; a great variety of fish is caught in the Indus.

The mountain scenery is often magnificent. The frontier ranges contain many notable peaks of which the following are the principal:

Takht-i-Sulaiman, Sulaiman Range, in Dera Ismail Khan, 11,292 feet.

Pir Ghal, Sulaiman Range, in Mahsud Waziristan, 11,583 feet.

Sika Ram, in the Safed Koh, in the Kurram Agency, 15,621 feet.

Kagan Peaks of the Himalayas, in the Hazara District, 10,000 to 16,700 feet.

Istragh Peak (18,900 ft.), Kachin Peak (22,641 ft.), Tirich Mir (25,426 ft.), all in the Hindu Kush, on the northern border of Chitral Agency.

Trade and Occupations.

The population derives its subsistence almost wholly from agriculture. The Province is practically without manufactures. There is no considerable surplus of commercial products for export. Any commercial importance which the province possesses it owes to the fact that it lies across the great trade routes which connect the trans-border tribal territories and the marts of Afghanistan and Central Asia with India, but the influence of railways is diminishing the importance of these trading interests. Special mention may be made of the railway comparatively recently opened linking Baluchistan, in the south-west of the N.-W.F.P., via Nushki with south-east Persia. The line connects with the north-west railway system of India and extends 343 miles to Duzdap, within the Persian border. Two weekly trains run each way and the freight carried largely consists of carpets, wool and dates, from Persia and of tea, sugar and piece-goods from the Indian side. Though the railway is primarily strategic in purpose its commercial and political effects will be considerable. The travelling traders (or Powindahs) from the trans-frontier area have always pursued their wanderings into India and now, instead of doing their trading in towns near the border, carry it by train to the large cities in India. The approaching completion of a railway through the Khyber Pass will similarly, in course of time, develop both the manner and amount of transport communications and trade. The new roads in Waziristan are already largely utilised by the Tribal inhabitants for motor traffic. Prices of agricultural produce have in recent years been high, but the agriculturists, owing to the poverty of the means of communication, have to some extent been deprived of access to Indian markets and have therefore been unable to profit by the rates prevailing. On the other hand, high prices are a hardship to the non-agricultural classes. The

effects of recent extensions of irrigation have been important. Land tenures are generally the same in the British administered districts as in the Punjab. The cultivated area of the land amounts to 32 per cent. and uncultivated to 68 per cent.

The work of civilisation is now making steady progress, both by the improvement of communications and otherwise. Relations with the tribes have improved, trade has advanced, free medical relief has been vastly extended, police administration has been reformed and the desire of people for education has been judiciously and sympathetically fostered, though in this respect there is complaint against the limitations imposed by financial arrangements. In the British administered districts 19 per cent. males and 7 per cent. females of the total population are returned as literates. The figures for males denote a very narrow diffusion of education even for India. Those for females are not notably low, but they are largely affected by the high literacy amongst Sikh women, of whom 13·3 per cent. are returned as literate. The inauguration of a system of light railways throughout the Province, apart from all considerations of strategy, must materially improve the condition of the people and also by that means strengthen the hold of the administration over them. The great engineering project of the Upper Swat River Canal, which was completed in 1914, and the lesser work of the Paharpur Canal, also completed a few years ago, will bring ease and prosperity to a number of peasant homes.

Administration.

The administration of the North-West Frontier Province is conducted by the Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General in Council. His staff consists of—

- (1) Officers of the Political Department or the Government of India.
- (2) Members of the Provincial Civil Service.
- (3) Members of the Subordinate Civil Service.
- (4) Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents of Police.
- (5) Officers recruited for the service of departments requiring special knowledge—Militia, Engineering, Education, Medicine and Forestry.

The cadre posts reserved for officers coming under the first head above are:—

Chief Commissioner & Agent to the Governor-General	5
Secretary	
Under-Secretary	
Personal Assistant	
Revenue Commissioner and Revenue Secretary	
Administration.	
Resident in Waziristan	1
Deputy Commissioners	5
Political Agents	5
District Judges	2
Assistant Commissioners and Assistant Political Agents	13

Judicial Commr. } One Judicial Commissioner.
Court & Divisional Judges. } Two Divisional and Sessions Judges.
One Additional ditto.

The districts under the Deputy Commissioners are divided into from two to five sub-collectorates, in charge of tahsildars, who are invested with criminal and civil and revenue powers, and are assisted by naib-tahsildars, who exercise only criminal and revenue powers. Some sub-divisions are in charge of Assistant or Extra Assistant Commissioners. The village community characteristic of some parts of India is not indigenous among the Pathans. Its place as a social unit is to some extent taken by the tribe, which is held together by the ties of kinship and ancient ancestry, real or imaginary. Modern municipal local government has been introduced in the towns. There are also district boards. The district is the unit for police, medical and educational administration and the ordinary staff includes a District Superintendent of Police, a Civil Surgeon, who is also the Superintendent of Jail and a District Inspector of Schools. The Province forms a single educational circle and only possesses one forest division, that of Hazara. There are four divisions of the Roads and Building Branch of the Public Works Department, each under an Executive Engineer. The Irrigation Department of the P. W. D. is in charge of a Chief Engineer. Irrigation, who is also *ex-officio* Secretary to the Chief Commissioner. The administration of the civil police force of the districts is vested in an Inspector-General. There is a special force of Frontier Constabulary. The revenue and expenditure of the Province are wholly Imperial. Of the Agencies only Kurram and Tochi Valley pay land revenue to the British Government. The revenue administration of all five administered districts is controlled by the Revenue Commissioner. For the administration of civil and criminal justice there are two Civil and Sessions divisions, each presided over by a Divisional and Sessions Judge. The Judicial Commissioner is the controlling authority in the Judicial branch of the administration, and his Court is the highest criminal and appellate tribunal in this Province. The improvements needed to bring the judicial administration up-to-date, in accord with the growth of the business of administration, are dealt with in the Inquiry Committee's report to which reference was made above. The principal officers in the present Administration are:—

Agent to the Governor General and Chief Commissioner, The Hon'ble Sir John Loader Maffey, K.C.V.O., C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., (Assumed Charge, 8th March 1921) (On leave.)

The Hon. Mr. H. N. Bolton, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., (Offg.)

Personal Assistant, Captain J. R. L. Bradshaw.

Resident, Waziristan, (Offg.) Major C. E. Bruce, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Judicial Commissioner, (Offg.) J. H. R. Fraser. Revenue Commissioner, Lt.-Col. W. J. Keen, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Secretary to Chief Commissioner, C. Latimer, C.I.E.

Under-Secretary to Chief Commissioner, T. B. Copeland, I.C.S.

Assistant Financial Secretary to Chief Commissioner, Lala Chuni Lal.

Indian Personal Assistant to Chief Commissioner, Khan Bahadur Rissaladar Moghal Baz Khan, I.O.M., I.D.S.M.

Secretary, Public Works Department, Buildings and Roads Branch, Col. H. A. D. Fraser, R.E.

Secretary, Public Works Department, Irrigation Branch, R. Cannell.

Deputy Conservator of Forests, R. Parnell.

Chief Medical Officer, Lieut.-Col. W. M. Anderson, C.I.E., I.M.S.

Inspector-General of Police, E. W. Tomkins, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Commandant, Frontier Constabulary, E. C. Handy Side, O.B.E.

Director of Public Instruction, J. H. Towle.

Superintendent, Archaeological Survey, H. Har- greaves.

Divisional and Sessions Judges, Major R. A. Yule (Derajat), Lt.-Col. R. Garratt, I.A., Officiating Sessions Judge (Peshawar).

Political Agents.

Lt.-Col. H. Stewart, C.I.E., Dir, Swat and Chitral.

Major J. A. Brett, Khyber.

G. Cunningham, I.C.S., Tochi.

Major R. J. W. Heal, O.B.E., I.A., Kurram.

Deputy Commissioners.

Lt.-Col. E. H. S. James, C.I.E., I.A., Hazara.

Major N. E. Reilly, D.S.O., I.A., Peshawar.

Major W. A. Garstin, Bannu.

H.A.F. Metcalfe, M.V.O., I.C.S., Dera Ismail Khan.

Major R. E. H. Griffith, C.I.E., I.A., Kohat.

Former Chief Commissioners.

Lieut.-Col. Sir Harold Deane, K.C.S.I. Died 7th July 1908.

Lieut.-Col. Sir George Roos-Keppel, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., to 8th September 1919.

The Hon. Sir Alfred Hamilton Grant, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., from September 1919 to 8th March 1921.

The Hon. Sir John Loader Maffey, K.C.V.O., C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., 1921.

The Province of Assam, omitting the partly administered and unadministered tracts on its northern and eastern borders comprises an area of some 63,510 square miles. It includes the Assam Valley Division, the Surma Valley and Hill Division and the State of Manipur. It owes its importance to its situation on the north-east frontier of India. It is surrounded by mountainous ranges on three sides while on the fourth (the west) lies the Province of Bengal on to the plains of which debouch the two valleys of the Brahmaputra and the Surma which form the plains of Assam. These two valleys are separated from each other by the Assam Range, which projects westward from the hills on the eastern border.

Population.

The total population of the Province in 1921 was 7,990,246, of whom only 384,016 were in Manipur. Of the population in 1921, 24 millions were Mahomedans, 4½ millions Hindus and 1½ millions Animists. 44 per cent. of the population speak Bengali, 22 per cent. speak Assamese: other languages spoken in the province are Hindi, Uriya and a great variety of languages classified under the general heading of the Tibeto-Chinese languages. Owing to the great areas of waste and rivers the density of the province is only 130, which compared with that of most other parts of India is low, but is more than double that of Burma.

Agricultural Products.

It has agricultural advantages for which it would be difficult to find a parallel in any part of India, climate, soil, rainfall and river systems all being alike favourable to cultivation. Rice is the staple food crop, nearly 5 million acres being devoted to this crop. Except in the Himalayan Terai irrigation is unnecessary. Tea and Jute are the most important crops grown for export. The area under tea consists of 411,807 acres. Wheat and tobacco are also grown and about 60 square miles are devoted to sugarcane.

Meteorological Conditions.

Rainfall is everywhere abundant, and ranges from 67 to 229 inches. The maximum is reached at Cherrapunji in the Khasi Hills, which is one of the wettest places in the world, having a rainfall of 45 inches. The temperature ranges from 59 at Sibsaigar in January to 84° in July. Earthquakes of considerable severity have taken place, by far the worst being that which occurred in 1897.

Mines and Minerals.

The only minerals in Assam worked on a commercial scale are coal, limestone and petroleum oil. The most extensive coal measures are in the Naga Hills and the Lakhimpur

district, where about 350,000 tons are raised annually. Limestone is quarried in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, in Sylhet, and in the Garo hills. Petroleum is worked only in Lakhimpur and Cachar.

An account of the petroleum occurrences in Assam was recently published in the memoirs of the Geological Survey of India. It states that the petroleum localities in this province are confined to a curved belt of country along the basins of the Brahmaputra and Surma. This belt is traceable over a distance of some 800 miles from N.E. Assam through Kachar and Chittagong to the Arakan coast, where it has a S.S.E. trend.

Manufactures and Trade.

Silk is manufactured in the Assam Valley, the weaving being done by the women. Cotton weaving is also largely practised by the women and almost every house contains a loom; the cloth is being gradually displaced by imported goods of finer texture and colour. Tea manufacture is the most important industry of the province. Boat building, brass and metal and earthenware, and limestone burning are the other industries apart from agriculture, which itself employs about 89 per cent. of the population. Assam carries on a considerable trade with the adjoining foreign tribes and countries.

Communications.

The trade of Assam is chiefly carried by river, but increasing use is being made of the Assam Bengal Railway which runs from the port of Chittagong through the North Cachar Hills to Tinsukia, a station on the Dibru-Sadiya Railway, and connects the Surma and Brahmaputra Valleys. A branch of the line runs from Badarpur to Silchar at the eastern end of the Surma Valley and another runs through the west of the Assam Valley from Lumding to Gauhati where it effects a junction with the Eastern Bengal Railway. The Eastern Bengal Railway connects Assam with the Bengal system via the valley of the Brahmaputra. The excellence of its water communication makes Assam less dependent upon roads than other parts of India; but in recent years the road system has been developed and there is an unmetalled trunk road through the whole length of the Brahmaputra Valley and an excellent road from Gauhati to Shillong. A large fleet of steamers maintained by the India General Steam Navigation Company and the Rivers Steam Navigation Company plies on the rivers of both valleys. An alternate day service of passenger boats runs between Goalundo and Dibrugarh.

THE FINANCES OF ASSAM.

In common with the other Provinces of India, Assam secured substantial financial autonomy under the Reform Act of 1919. The present financial position is set out in some detail in the following table:—

Estimated Revenue in 1924-25.

	(In Thousands of Rupees.)
Taxes on Income	2,60
Land Revenue	1,01,38
Cess	59,00
Stamps	20,99
Forest	21,12
Registration	2,01

TOTAL 2,07,10

Estimated Revenue in 1924-5.—(contd.)

(In Thousands of Rupees.)

State Railways (net)	5
Interest	69
Administration of Justice	1,58
Jails and Convict Settlements	1,28
Police	1,92
Education	2,30
Medical	21
Public Health	1,12
Agriculture	18
Industries	6
Miscellaneous Departments	1
TOTAL	8,66
Civil Works	4,73
TOTAL	4,73
In aid of Superannuation	1,00
Stationery and Printing	12
Miscellaneous	1,50
TOTAL	2,62
Provincial loan account (net)	1,75
Famine Insurance Fund	12
Total Receipts	2,25,72
Opening Balance	8,97
Grand Total	2,34,69

Estimated Expenditure on Reserved Subjects.

Land Revenue	17,52
Excise	1,83
Stamps	78
Forest	10,79
TOTAL	30,97
State Railways	48
Subsidised Companies	39
Miscellaneous Railway expenditure	1
TOTAL	88
Construction of Railways	10
TOTAL	16
Navigation, Embankments and Drainage Works	70
Interest on ordinary debt	21
Expenditure in England	3,99
Loans between the Central and Provincial Governments	3,00
Goalpara Tramway Scheme (Capital Account not charged to Revenue)	45
Government Account	
Total Disbursements	2,29,95
Closing balance	4,74
Grand Total	2,34,69
Surplus	
Deficit	4,23
General Administration	25,57
Administration of Justice	8,51
Jails and Convict Settlements	4,87
Police	21,68
Police (Assam Rifles)	2,51

Estimated Expenditure on Reserved Subjects—(contd.)

(In Thousands of Rupees.)

Ports and Pilotage	71
Scientific Departments	11
Education (European)	78
Miscellaneous Departments	19
TOTAL	64,83
Civil Works	34,34
Famine Relief and Insurance	10
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	6,71
Stationery and Printing	3,20
Miscellaneous	3,10
TOTAL	13,11
Contributions and assignments to the Central Government by the Provincial Government	15,00
TOTAL	166,20
Estimated Expenditure on Transferred Subjects.	
Registration	1,41
General Administration	62
Education (other than European)	23,12
Medical	9,77
Public Health	6,26
Agriculture	4,54
Industries	91
Miscellaneous Departments	3
TOTAL	45,25
Civil Works	5,88
Stationery and Printing	75
Miscellaneous	3,02
TOTAL	9,65

Administration.

The province of Assam was originally formed in 1874 in order to relieve the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal of part of the administration of the huge territory then under him. In 1905, as the result of further deliberations, it was decided to add to the small Province of Assam the eastern portion of its unwieldy neighbour and to consolidate those territories under a Lieutenant-Governor. The Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam as then constituted was again broken up on the 1st of April, 1912: the Eastern Bengal Districts were united with the Bengal Commissionerships of Burdwan and the Presidency to form the Presidency of Bengal under a Governor-in-Council, Bihar, Chota Nagpur and Orissa were formed into a separate province, while the old Province of Assam was re-constituted under a Chief Commissioner.

Under the Indian Reforms Act of 1919 the Province was raised in status to that of administration by a Governor-in-Council and was hereby ranked, with certain minor provisions to suit its undeveloped character with the older major provinces of India.

The capital is Shillong, a town laid out with great taste and judgment among the pine woods on the slopes of the Shillong Range which lies to a height of 6,450 feet above the sea. It was destroyed in the earthquake of 1897 and has been rebuilt in a way more likely to withstand the shocks of earthquake.

GOVERNOR.

Sir John Kerr, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Sir William James Reid, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.

Khan Bahadur Kutabuddin Ahmed.

MINISTER.

Rai Bahadur Pramod Chandra Datta, B.L.

Maulavi Sayid Muhammad Seadulla, M.A.B.L.

SECRETARIAT.

Private Secretary, Captain C. B. Lyon.

Chief Secretary, A. W. Botham.

Second Secretary, G. E. Soames.

Secretary, Public Works Department, O. H. Desanno.

Inspector General of Registration, W. L. Scott M.A., I.C.S.

Director of Public Instruction, J. R. Cunningham.

Inspector-General of Police, W. C. M. Dundas, C.I.E.

Director of Public Health, Lt.-Col. T. C. M. Young, M.D., I.M.S.

Comptroller, Financial Department, C. A. G. Rivas, B.A.

Director of Land Records and Agriculture, W. L. Scott, M.A., B.Sc., I.C.S.

Conservators of Forests, F. Trafford and F. H. Todd.

Senior Inspector of Factories, R. P. Adams.

GOVERNORS OF ASSAM.

Sir Nicholas Dodd Beatson Bell, 1920.

Sir William Morris, 1921.

Sir John Kerr, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., 1922.

ASSAM LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

Names.	Constituency.
ELECTED MEMBERS.	
Rev. James Joy Mohan Nicholas-Roy ..	Shillong (General Urban).
Rai Bahadur Bipin Chandra Deb Laskar ..	Silchar (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Rai Sahib Har Kishore Chakrabatti ..	Hailakandi Ditto.
Babu Basanta Kumar Das ..	Sylhet Sadr Ditto.
Babu Brajendra Narayan Chaudhuri ..	Sunamganj Ditto.
Babu Upendra Lal Das Chaudhuri ..	Habiganj North Ditto.
The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Pramod Chandra Datta.	Habiganj South Ditto.
Babu Krishna Sundar Dam ..	South Sylhet Ditto.
Babu Khirad Chandra Deb ..	Karimganj Ditto.
Babu Biraj Mohan Datta ..	Dhubri Ditto.
Srijut Bipin Chandra Ghosh ..	Goalpara Ditto.
Srijut Kamakhayaram Barua ..	Gauhati Ditto.
Srijut Kamala Kanta Das ..	Barpeta Ditto.
Srijut Mahadeva Sharma ..	Tezpur Ditto.
Srijut Padmanath Sharma ..	Mangaldai Ditto.
Srijut Bishnu Charan Borah ..	Nowgong Ditto.
Mr. Taraprasad Chaliha ..	Sibsagar Ditto.
Srijut Rohini Kanta Hati Barua ..	Jorhat Ditto.
Srijut Kuladhar Chaliha ..	Golaghat Ditto.
Srijut Sadananda Dowerah ..	Dibrugarh Ditto.
Srijut Sarveswar Barua ..	North Lakhimpur Ditto.
Maulavi Rashid Ali Laskar ..	Cachar (Muhammadan Rural).
Maulavi Abdul Hamid Main ..	Sylhet Sadr, North Ditto.
Maulavi Dewan Abdul Rahim Chaudhuri ..	Sylhet Sadr, South Ditto.
Maulavi Abdul Hannan Chaudhuri ..	Sunamganj Ditto.
Maulavi Muhammad Mudabbir Hussain Chaudhuri.	Habiganj North Ditto.
Maulavi Sayid Abdul Mannan ..	Habiganj South Ditto.
Khan Bahadur Alauddin Ahmad Chaudhuri ..	South Sylhet Ditto.
Maulavi Najmul Islam Chaudhuri ..	Karimganj Ditto.
Maulavi Abul Mazid Ziaossahama ..	Dhubri excluding South Salmara Thana (Mulhammadan Rural).
Maulavi Mafizuddin Ahmad ..	Goalpara cum South Salmara Thana (Muhammadan Rural).
Maulavi Sayid Muhammad Seadullah ..	Kamrup and Darrang cum Nowgong (Muhammadan Rural).
Maulavi Faiznur Ali ..	Sibsagar cum Lakhimpur (Muhammadan Rural).
Edgar Stuart Roffey ..	Assam Valley Planting.
Walter Dorling Smiles, D.S.O. ..	Ditto.
M. H. Clarke ..	Ditto.
E. W. Hobson ..	Surma Valley Planting.
J. C. Dawson ..	Ditto.
John Alexander Fraser ..	Commerce and Industry.

ASSAM REPRESENTATIVE TO THE COUNCIL OF STATE.

Elected.

The Hon'ble Srijut Chandra Dhar Barua .. | Assam (Non-Muhammadan).

ASSAM REPRESENTATIVE TO THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.

Elected.

Srijut Tarun Ram Phukan .. | Assam Valley (Non-Muhammadan).
 Mr. Kamini Kumar Chanda .. | Surma Valley cum Shillong (Non-Muhammadan).
 Maulavi Ahmad Ali Khan .. | Assam (Muhammadan).
 Mr. Eustace Joseph .. | Assam (European).

Baluchistan.

Baluchistan is an oblong stretch of country occupying the extreme western corner of the Indian Empire. It is divided into three main divisions: (1) British Baluchistan with an area of 9,476 square miles consisting of tracts assigned to the British Government by treaty in 1879; (2) Agency Territories with an area of 44,345 square miles composed of tracts which have, from time to time, been acquired by lease or otherwise brought under control and placed directly under British officers; and (3) the Native States of Kalat and Las Bela with an area of 78,434 square miles. The Province embraces an area of 134,638 square miles and according to the census of 1921 it contains 799,625 inhabitants.

The country, which is almost wholly mountainous, lies on a great belt of ranges connecting the Safed Koh with the hill system of Southern Persia. It thus forms a watershed the drainage of which enters the Indus on the east and the Arabian Sea on the south while on the north and west it makes its way to the inland lakes which form so large a feature of Central Asia. Rugged, barren, sun-burnt mountains, rent by high chasms and gorges, alternate with arid deserts and stony plains, the prevailing colour of which is a monotonous sight. But this is redeemed in places by level valleys of considerable size in which irrigation enables much cultivation to be carried on and rich crops of all kinds to be raised.

The political connection of the British Government with Baluchistan commenced from the outbreak of the First Afghan War in 1839; it was traversed by the Army of the Indus and was afterwards occupied until 1842 to protect the British lines of communication. The districts of Kachi, Quetta and Mastung were handed over to the Amir of Afghanistan and Political Officers were appointed to administer the country. At the close of the First Afghan War, the British withdrew and these districts were assigned to the Khan of Kalat. The founder of the Baluchistan Province as it now exists was Sir Robert Sandeman who broke down the close border system and welded the Baluch and Brahui Chiefs into a close confederacy. In the Afghan War of 1879 Pishin, Shorarud, Sibi, Zawara Valley and Thal-Chotiali were handed over by Yakub Khan to the British Government and retained at Sir Robert Sandeman's strenuous insistence.

Industries.

Baluchistan lies outside the monsoon area and its rainfall is exceedingly irregular and scanty. Shahrig, which has the heaviest rainfall, records no more than 11½ inches in a year. In the highlands few places receive more than 10 inches and in the plains the average rainfall is about 5 inches, decreasing in some cases to 3. The majority of the indigenous population are dependent for their livelihood on agriculture, provision and care of animals and transport. The majority of the Afghan and the Baluch, as a rule, cultivate their own lands.

The Brahuis dislike agriculture and prefer a pastoral life. Previous to the advent of the British life and property were so insecure that the cultivator was fortunate if he reaped his harvest. The establishment of peace and security has been accompanied by a marked extension of agriculture which accounts for the increase in the numbers of the purely cultivating classes. The Mekran Coast is famous for the quantity and quality of its fish and the industry is constantly developing. Fruit is extensively grown in the highlands and the export is increasing.

Education is imparted in 84 public schools of all kinds, with 4,615 scholars. There is a distinct desire for education amongst the more enlightened headmen round about Quetta-Pishin and other centres where the Local Government with its officers stays at certain seasons, such as Sibi and Ziarat; but on the whole education or the desire of it has made little or no advance in the outlying districts. The mineral wealth of the Province is believed to be considerable, but cannot be exploited until railways are developed. Coal is mined at Khost on the Sind-Pishin railway and in the Bolan Pass. The output of coal in 1922-23 was 9,815½ tons and of coal dust 50,685½ tons. Chromite is extracted in the Zhob District near Hindu-bagh. The Chrome output fell off owing to poorer demand. Lime-stone is quarried in small quantities.

Administration.

The head of the local administration is the officer styled Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner. Next in rank comes the Revenue Commissioner who advises the Agent to the Governor-General in financial matters and generally controls the revenue administration and exercises the functions of a High Court as Judicial Commissioner of the Province. The keynote of administration in Baluchistan is self-government by the tribesmen, as far as may be, by means of their Jirgas or Councils of Elders along the ancient customary lines of tribal law, the essence of which is the satisfaction of the aggrieved and the settlement of the feud, not retaliation on the aggressor or the vindictive punishment of a crime. The district levies which normally numbered 2,300 odd play an unobtrusive but invaluable part in the work of the Civil administration not only in watch and ward and the investigation of crime, but also in the carrying of the mails, the serving of processes and other miscellaneous work. In addition to these district levies there are ordinarily two irregular Corps in the Province; the Zhob Levy Corps and the Mekran Levy Corps. The Province does not pay for itself and receives large subsidies from the Imperial Government.

Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner, The Hon'ble Mr. S. B. Pears, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Revenue and Judicial Commissioner, Lt.-Col. A. D. G. Ramsay, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Secretary, Public Works Department, Major W. H. Roberts, D.S.O.

Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner, Major J. L. R. Weir I.A.

Political Agent, Zhob, Khan Bahadur Sharbat Khan, C.I.E.

Political Agent, Kalat and Bolan Pass, Lt.-Col. T. H. Keyes, C.M.G., C.I.E., I.A.

Political Agent and Deputy Commissioner, Quetta, Lt.-Col. F. McConighey, C.I.E.

Assistant Political Agent and Assistant Commissioner, Quetta, E. W. Hollands.

Political Agent, Chagai, Capt. G. T. Fisher.

Political Agent, Sibi, Major G. F. W. Ansout, O.B.E.

Assistant Political Agent, Sibi, Rai Sahib Hakim Rattan Chand

Political Agent, Loralai, Major C. T. Daukes.

Residency Surgeon and Chief Medical Officer, Lt.-Col. D. J. M. Deas, I.M.S.

Civil Surgeon, Sibi, Major J. Anderson.

Assistant Political Agent, Zhob, Khan Bahadur K. P. Kalkobad.

Civil Surgeon, Quetta, Lt.-Col. F. E. Wilson, I.M.S.

ANDAMAN AND NICOBAR ISLANDS.

This is a group of islands in the Bay of Bengal of which the headquarters are at Port Blair, by sea 780 miles from Calcutta, 740 miles from Madras and 360 miles from Rangoon, with which ports there is regular communication.

The land area of the islands under the administration is 3,143 square miles, namely, 2,508 square miles in the Andamans and 635 square miles in the Nicobars. The total population is 26,450. The Islands are administered by the Chief Commissioner of the Andaman and Nicobar Islands who is also the Superintendent of the Penal Settlement. The penal settlement, which was established in 1858, is the most important in India.

Chief Commissioner of Port Blair, Lieut.-Col. M. L. Ferrar, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.A.

Commandant and District Superintendent of Police, Major E. J. E. Poole, M.C.

Senior Medical Officer and Civil Surgeon, Major F. A. Barker, I.M.S.

COORG.

Coorg is a small petty Province in Southern India, west of the State of Mysore. Its area is 1,582 square miles and its population 174,976. Coorg came under the direct protection of the British Government during the war with Sultan Tipu of Seringapatam. In May 1834, owing to misgovernment, it was annexed. The Province is directly under the Government of India and administered by the Chief Commissioner of Coorg who is the Resident in Mysore with his headquarters at Bangalore. In him are combined all the functions of a local government and a High Court. The Secretariat is at Bangalore where the Assistant Resident is styled Secretary to the Chief Commissioner of Coorg. In Coorg his chief authority is the Commissioner whose headquarters are at Mercara and whose duties extend to every branch of the administration. A Legislative Council consisting of 15 elected members and five nominated members was created in 1923. The chief wealth of the country is agriculture and especially the growth of coffee. Although owing to over-production and insect pests coffee no longer commands the profits it once enjoyed, the Indian output still holds its own against the severe competition of Brazil. The bulk of the output is exported to France.

Resident and Chief Commissioner, Coorg—Vacant.

AJMER-MERWARA.

Ajmer-Merwara is an isolated British Province in Rajputana. The Agent to the Governor General in Rajputana administers it as Chief Commissioner. The Province consists of two small separate districts, Ajmer and Merwara, with a total area of 2,711 square miles and a population of 501,395. At the close of the Pindari war Daulat Rao Scindia, by a treaty, dated June 25, 1818, ceded the district to the British. Fifty-five per cent. of the population are supported by agriculture, the industrial population being principally employed in the cotton and other industries. The principal crops are maize, millet, barley, cotton, oil-seeds and wheat.

Aden.

Aden was the first new territory added to the Empire after the accession of Queen Victoria. Its acquisition in 1839 was the outcome of an outrage committed by the local Fadhli chief upon the passengers and crew of a British bugalow wrecked in the neighbourhood. Various acts of treachery supervened during the negotiations regarding the bugalow outrage and Aden was captured by a force sent by the Bombay Government under Major Baillie. The act has been described as one of those opportune political strokes which have given geographical continuity to British possessions scattered over the world.

Aden is an extinct volcano, five miles long and three broad, jutting out to sea much as Gibraltar does, having a circumference of about 15 miles and connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus of flat ground. This is nearly covered at one part at high spring tides, but the causeway and aqueduct are always above, though sometimes only just above, water. The highest peak on the wall of precipitous hills that surrounds the old crater which constitutes Aden is 1,775 feet above sea level. Rugged spurs, with valleys between, radiate from the centre to the circumference of the crater. A great gap has been rent by some volcanic disturbance on the sea surface of the circle of hills and this opens to the magnificent harbour. The peninsula of Little Aden, adjacent to Aden proper, was obtained by purchase in 1868 and the adjoining tract of Shaikh Othman, 39 square miles in extent, was subsequently purchased when, in 1882, it was found necessary to make provision for an over-flowing population.

Attached to the settlement of Aden are the Islands of Perim, an island of 5 square miles extent in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, in the entrance to the Arabian Sea; Sokotra island, at the entrance to the Gulf of Aden, in the Arabian Sea, acquired by treaty in 1886 and 1,382 miles in extent; and the five small Kuria Muria islands, ceded by the Imam of Maskat in 1854 for the purpose of landing the Red Sea cable, and otherwise valuable only for the guano deposits found upon them. They are off the Arabian coast about two-thirds of the way from Aden to Maskat. The whole extent of the Aden settlement, including Aden, Little Aden, Shaikh Othman and Perim, and subject to post-war adjustments, is approximately 80 miles. The 1921 census showed Aden, with Little Aden, Shaikh Othman, and Perim to have a population of 56,571. The population of Perim is 2,075 largely dependent on the Coal Depot maintained there by a commercial firm. That of Sokotra is 12,000, mostly pastoral and migratory inland, fishing on the coast.

Strategic Importance.

Aden's first importance is as a naval and military station of strategic importance. This aspect was ably discussed by Colonel A. M. Murray, in his "Imperial Outposts." He points out that Aden is not a naval base in the same sense that Gibraltar, Malta and Hong-Kong were made, but a *point d'appui*, a rendezvous and striking point for the fleet. It was seized

in 1839 because of its usefulness as a harbour of refuge for British ships and from a strategic point of view this is its primary purpose and the *raison d'être* of its forts and garrison. Aden under British rule has retained its ancient prestige as a fortress of impregnable strength, invulnerable by sea and by land, dominating the entrance to the Red Sea, and valuable to its owners as a commercial emporium, a port of call and a cable centre. The harbour extends 8 miles from east to west and 4 from north to south and is divided into two bays by a spit of land. The depth of water in the western bay is from 3 to 4 fathoms, across the entrance 4½ to 5 fathoms, with 10 to 12 fathoms 2 miles outside. The bottom is sand and mud. There are several islands in the Inner bay. Strategic control of the Red Sea was rendered complete by the annexation of Perim and Sokotra, which may both be regarded as outposts of Aden, and are under the political jurisdiction of the Resident.

The Arab chiefs of the hinterland of Arabia are nearly all stipendiaries of the British Government. Colonel Wahab and Mr. G. H. Fitzmaurice, of the Constantinople Embassy, were appointed in 1902, as Commissioners to delimitate the frontier between Turkish Arabia and the British protectorate around Aden. A convention was signed in 1905 settling details, the frontier line being drawn from Shaikh Murad, a point of the Red Sea coast opposite Perim, to the bank of the river Bana, the eastern limit of Turkish claims, at a point some 29 miles north-east of Dthala, and thence north-east to the great desert. The area left within the British Protectorate was about 9,000 square miles. The arrangement gave to Turkey Cape Bab-el-Mandeb, which forms the Arabian bank of the eastern channel past Perim into the Red Sea. England took this gatepost of the Red Sea from the Turks in November 1914. A sanatorium and small British garrison used to be maintained at Dthala, which is 7,700 feet high, but the garrison was withdrawn in 1906, Lord Morley explaining this step as being in accordance with the policy stated in the House of Lords in 1903,—that His Majesty's Government had never desired to interfere with the internal and domestic affairs of the tribes on the British side of the boundary, but had throughout made it plain that they would not assent to the interference of any other Power with those affairs. Affairs in this respect have been disarranged considerably by the war.

British Policy.

There has been much criticism of a policy under which Aden has failed to advance with the same progressive strides which have marked the development of other British dependencies. It is said that the former Persian possessors of Aden built its wonderful water tanks, and the Arabs made an aqueduct 20 miles long, while the British have done nothing except mount guns to protect their coal yards. Trade, it is argued, flourishes because this is a natural emporium of commerce, but not because of the attention its needs get from Government. Lord Roberts, writing on this point a few years ago, said: "It is not creditable to British rule to

make use of a dependency like Aden for selfish purposes of political necessity without attempting to extend the benefits of civilised Government to the neighbouring native tribes, especially when those tribes are living under the aegis of the British Crown. The Persians, the Turks and even the Arabs did more for Aden in their time than we have done during our seventy years' occupation.....Aden has always suffered under the disadvantage of being an appanage of the Bombay Presidency, with which it has neither geographical, racial nor political affinity. Probably the best solution of the matter would be to hand over the place to the Colonial Office, relieving the Government of Bombay of a charge which is only looked upon as an incubus." This question is still under discussion but some important steps have been taken in the past few years to satisfy the commercial needs of the port.

Trade.

The trade of Aden is mostly transhipment, the port serving as a centre of distribution. The total seaborne trade in the official year 1923-24 was Rs. 14,01,33,971 as compared with the preceding year's total of Rs. 13,90,42,158 showing an increase of Rs. 10,91,813. Merchandise decreased by Rs. 26,22,003 but Treasure increased by Rs. 37,13,816. The trade with the interior of Arabia amounted in imports and exports to Rs. 31,81,845 and Rs. 45,12,725 respectively, as compared with last year's total of Rs. 30,53,946 and Rs. 29,00,813.

Language.

The language of the settlement is Arabic, but several other Asiatic tongues are spoken. The population is chiefly returned as Arabs and Shalkhs. The Somalis from the African coast and Arabs do the hard labour of the port. So far as the settlement is concerned the chief industries are salt and cigarette manufacture. The crops of the triballow country adjoining are jowar, sesamum, a little cotton, madder, a bastard saffron and a little indigo. In the hills, wheat, madder, fruit, coffee and a considerable quantity of wax and honey are obtained. The water supply forms the most important problem. Water is drawn from four sources—wells, aqueducts, tanks or reservoirs and condensers.

Administration.

The administration of Aden has been continuously under the Government of Bombay. In 1920, the political control of Aden, which was exercised during the period of the war by the High Commissioner of Egypt, was transferred to the Political Resident, Aden, who was to be directly responsible to the Foreign Office. In 1921, this responsibility was taken over by the Colonial Office with whom it at present remains. The future of the Protectorate has been the subject of no little discussion and various proposals have been put forward. At one time the idea that it should be transferred to the Colonial Office was seriously entertained. The proposals met with warm disapproval, from the important Indian community in Aden whose views were supported in India. There is constant friction between India and the Colonial Office over the status of Indians in the Dominions and some of the Crown Colonies, and the lukewarm-

ness of the Colonial Office in protecting their rights is much resented. Therefore transfer to the Colonial Office was opposed as transfer to an unknowing and unsympathetic administration. On the 11th July 1922 the Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies stated in the House of Commons that there was no prospect of the Colonial Office taking over the control of Aden in the near future. The administration is conducted by a Resident, who is assisted by four Assistants. The Resident is also ordinarily military Commandant and has hitherto usually been an officer selected from the Indian army, as have his assistants. The Court of the Resident is the Colonial Court of Admiralty under Act XVI of 1891, and its procedure as such is regulated by the provisions of the Colonial Courts of the Admiralty Act 1890 (53 and 54 Vice, Chapter 27). The laws in force in the settlement are generally speaking those in force in the Bombay Presidency, supplemented on certain points by special regulations to suit local conditions. The management of the port is under the control of a Board of Trustees formed in 1888. The principal business of the Port Trust has been the deepening of the harbour, so as to allow vessels of all sizes to enter and leave at all states of the tide. The Aden police force consists of land and harbour police who number 320 and 54 respectively. There are hospitals and dispensaries in both Aden and Perim, in addition to the military institutions of this character. The garrison comprises a troop of engineers, three companies of garrison artillery, one battalion of British infantry, two companies of sappers and miners and one Indian regiment. Detachments from the last named are maintained at Perim and Shalkh Othman respectively.

Climate.

The average temperature of the station is 87 degrees in the shade, the mean range being from 75 in January to 98 in June, with variations up to 102. The lulls between the monsoons, in May and September, are very oppressive. Consequently, long residence impairs the facilities and undermines the constitution of Europeans and even Indians suffer from the effects of too long an abode in the settlement, and troops are not posted in the station for long periods, being usually sent there one year and relieved the next. But Aden is exceptionally free from infectious diseases and epidemics, and the absence of vegetation, the dryness of the soil and the purity of the drinking water constitute efficient safeguards against many maladies common to tropical countries. The annual rainfall varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches, with an irregular average of 3 inches.

Political Resident, Lieut.-General T. E. Scott, K.C.B., C.I.E., D.S.O.

Assistant Residents.

1. Major C. C. J. Barrett, C.S.I., C.I.E. Aden.
2. " B. R. Reilly, O.B.E. " "
3. " H. M. Wightwick (on leave) " "
4. " G. P. Murphy " "
5. Lieut. M. C. Sinclair " "
6. " J. L. M. Barlow " Perim.

The Home Government.

The Home Government of India represented for sixty years the gradual evolution of the governing board of the old East India Company. The affairs of the company were originally managed by the Court of Directors and the General Court of Proprietors. In 1784 Parliament established a Board of Control, with full power and authority to control and direct all operations and concerns relating to the civil and military government, and revenues of India. By degrees the number of the Board was reduced and its powers were exercised by the President, the lineal precursor of the Secretary of State for India. With modifications this system lasted until 1858, when the Mutiny, followed by the assumption of the Government of India by the Crown, demanded a complete change. Under the Act of 1858 (merged in the consolidating measure passed in 1915) the Secretary of State is the constitutional adviser of the Crown on all matters relating to India. He inherited generally all the powers and duties which were formerly vested either in the Board of Control, or in the Company, the Directors and the Secret Committee in respect of the Government and revenues of India.

The Secretary of State.

Until the Reform Act of 1919 came into force the Secretary of State had the unqualified power of giving orders to every officer in India, including the Governor-General, and to superintend, direct and control all acts, operations and concerns relating to the government or revenues of India. In the relations of the Secretary of State with the Governor-General in Council no express statutory change was made, but Parliament ordained through the Joint Select Committee that in practice the conventions governing these relations should be modified; only in exceptional circumstances should he be called upon to intervene in matters of purely Indian interest where the Government and the Legislature of India are in agreement.

Of the wide powers and duties still vested in the Secretary of State, many rest on his personal responsibility; others can be performed only in consultation with his Council, and for some of these the concurrence of a majority of the members of his Council voting at a meeting is required. The Act of 1919 greatly modified the rigidity of the law maintained for sixty years as to the relations of the Secretary of State with his Council, and he has fuller power than in the past to prescribe the manner in which business is to be transacted. Though in practice the Council meets weekly (save in vacation periods) this has ceased to be a statutory requirement, the law now providing that there shall be a meeting at least once in every month.

The India Council.

The number of members of the Council was reduced by the Act to not less than eight and not more than 12, the Secretary of State being free to appoint within those limits. The period of office was reduced from 7 to 5 years, though the Secretary of State may, for special reasons of public advantage to be communicated to

Parliament, re-appoint a member for another five years. Half the Council must be persons who have served or resided in India for at least ten years, and who have not left India more than five years before their appointment. The Act restored the old salary of £1,200, with an additional subsistence allowance of £600 for any member who was at the time of appointment domiciled in India. Lord Morley opened the door of the Council to Indians, and since 1917 the number of Indian members has been three.

Associated with the Secretary of State and the India Council is a Secretariat known as the India Office, housed at Whitehall. Appointments to the establishment are made by the Secretary of State in Council, and are subject to the ordinary Home Civil Service rules in all respects.

In the past the whole cost of the India Office has been borne by the revenues of India, except that the Home Government made certain grants and remissions in lieu of a direct contribution amounting to £50,000 a year. The total net cost including pensions has been about £250,000 per annum. In conformity with the spirit of the 1919 Act, an arrangement was made whereby the salary of the Secretary of State is placed on the Home estimates and the cost of the controlling and political functions exercised in Whitehall is also met from British revenues, while agency functions alone are chargeable to Indian revenues.

The High Commissionerhip.

The financial readjustment has been accompanied by a highly important administrative change provided for by the Act, in the creation of a High Commissioner for India in the United Kingdom with necessary establishments. From October 1st, 1920, the late Sir William Meyer became the first High Commissioner, and took over control of the purchase of Government Stores in England and the accounts section connected therewith, and the Indian Students Branch, together with the supervision of the work of the Indian Trade Commissioner. The further development of the functions and powers of the High Commissioner have included such agency work as the payment of Civil leave allowances and pensions, supervision of I. C. S. and Forest probationers after first appointment, the making of arrangements for officers on deputation or study leave, repatriation of destitute lascars, sale of Government of India publications, etc. The clerical staff of the Stores Department has been transferred to the Stores Depot off the Thames in Belvedere Road, Lambeth. The High Commissioner and the rest of the staff transferred, have separate office accommodation at 42, 44 and 46, Grosvenor Gardens, S.W. 1.

Another highly important change was the setting up by Parliament of a Joint Standing Committee on Indian affairs consisting of eleven members of each House. The purpose is to keep Parliament in closer touch with Indian affairs than has recently been possible, and to refer to the Committee draft rules and also Parliamentary Bills after they have received a second reading.

INDIA OFFICE.

Secretary of State.

The Right Hon. The Earl of Birkenhead.

Under-Secretaries of State.

Major Rt. Hon. Earl Winterton.

Sir Arthur Hirtzel, K.C.B.

Deputy Under-Secretary of State.

Sir Malcolm Seton, K.C.B.

Assistant Under-Secretaries of State.

Sir Louis Kershaw, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

S. K. Brown.

Council.

Frederick Craufurd Goodenough.

Sir Malcolm Hogg.

Sir Edward Albert Galt, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

Sir Benjamin Robertson, K.C.S.I., K.C.M.G., C.I.E.

Sir William H. H. Vincent, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.

Sir Rajagopal Chari, K.O.S.I., C.I.E.

Narayan M. Samarth.

General Sir Havelock Hudson, K.C.B., K.C.I.E.

Sir Reginald A. Mant, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.

Sir Robert Erskine Holland, K.C.I.E.

Clerk of the Council, Sir Malcolm Seton.

Deputy Clerk of the Council, F. W. H. Smith.

Private Secretary to the Secretary of State,

R. H. A. Cartar.

Assistant Private Secretary, Wilfrid Johnston,

M.C.

Political A.-D.-C. to the Secretary of State, Lieut.-

Col. A. D'Arcy. G. Bannerman, C.I.E., C.V.O.

Private Secretary to Sir A. Hirtzel, G. H. Baxter.

Private Secretary to Mr. Richards, W. D.

Tomkins.

Heads of Departments.

SECRETARIES.

Financial, W. Robinson, C.B.E.; C.H. Kisch, C.B.

Judicial and Public, J. E. Ferard, C.B.E.

Military, General Sir A. S. Coble, V.C. K.C.B.,

K.C.S.I., D.S.O.

Ditto (Joint), S. K. Brown.

Political and Secret, L. D. Wakely, C.B.

Public Works, W. Stanhall, C.I.E.

Economic and Overseas, E. J. Turner, C.B.E.

Services and General and Establishment Officer—

P. H. Dumlell.

Director-in-Chief of the Indo-European Tele-

graph, Public Works Department, M. G.

Simpson.

Accountant-General, Sidney Turner, F.I.A.

also Director of Funds and Official Agent to

Administrators-General in India.

RECORD DEPARTMENT.—Superintendent of Re-

cords, H. Mitchell.

Auditor, W. A. Sturdy.

Miscellaneous Appointments.

Government Director of Indian Railway Com-

panies, Sir A. E. S. Bell, C.I.E.

Librarian, Fredk. W. Thomas, M.A., Ph.D.

Historiographer—W. Foster, C.I.E.

President of Medical Board for the Examination

of Officers of the Indian Services and Adviser

to the Secretary of State on Medical matters,

Major-General J. B. Smith, C.B., C.I.E.

Member of the Medical Board, Lt.-Col. Sir L.

Rogers, C.I.E.

Legal Adviser and Solicitor to Secretary of State,

Sir Edward Chamier, K.C.I.E.

Inspector of Military Equipment and Clothing,

Col. H. E. Garstin, D.S.O., R.A. (retd.)

Ordinance Consulting Officer, Col. J. H. Lawrence-

Archer, C.I.E.

HIGH COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE.

(42, Grosvenor Gardens.)

The High Commissioner, A. C. Chatterjee, C.I.E.

Secretary, J. O. B. Drake, O.B.E.

Chief Accountancy Officer, G. H. Stoker, O.B.E.

Personal Assistant, W. Marlow.

General Department: Assistant Secretary, R. E.

Montgomery.

Indian Trade Commissioner, H. A. F. Lindsay,

C.B.E.

Joint Secretaries for Indian Students, N. C. Sen,

O.B.E., and T. Quayle, D. Litt. (Lond.).

Store Department Depot at Belvedere

Road, Lambeth, S. E. 1.

Director-General, Lieut.-Col. S. S. W. Paddon,

C.I.E., A.I.M.E.

Deputy Director, R. R. Howlett.

Superintendent of Depot, (Acting) F. E. Bneat,

M.I.E.R.

Secretaries of State for India.

	Assumed charge.
Lord Stanley (a)	1858
Sir Charles Wood, Bart. (b)	1859
Earl de Grey and Ripon (c)	1866
Viscount Cranborne (d)	1866
Sir Stafford Northcote, Bart. (e)	1867
The Duke of Argyll, K.T.	1868
The Marquis of Salisbury (2nd time)	1874
Gathorne Hardy, created Viscount Cranbrook, 14 May, 1878 (f)	1878
The Marquis of Hartington (g)	1880
The Earl of Kimberley	1882
Lord Randolph Churchill	1885
The Earl of Kimberley, K.G., (2nd time)	1886
Sir Richard Assheton Cross, G.C.B., created Viscount Cross, 19 Aug., 1886	1886
The Earl of Kimberley, K.G. (3rd time)	1892
H. H. Fowler (h)	1894
Lord George F. Hamilton	1895
St. John Brodrick (i)	1903
John Morley, O.M. (j)	1905
The Earl of Crewe, K.G.	1910
Viscount Morley of Blackburn, O.M.	1911
The Earl of Crewe, K.G. (k)	1911
Austen Chamberlain, M.P.	1915
E. S. Montagu, M.P.	1917
Viscount Peel	1922
Lord Oliver	1924
Lord Birkenhead	1924

(a) Afterwards (by succession) Earl of Derby.	
(b) " (by creation) Viscount Halifax.	
(c) " (by creation) Marquess of Ripon.	
(d) " (by succession) Marquess of Salisbury.	
(e) " (by creation) Earl of Iddesleigh.	
(f) " (by creation) Earl Cranbrook.	
(g) " (by succession) Duke of Devonshire.	
(h) " (by creation) Viscount Wolverhampton, G.C.S.I.	
(i) " (by succession) Viscount Middleton.	
(j) " (by creation) Viscount Morley of Blackburn, O.M.	
(k) " (by creation) Marquess of Crewe, K.G.	

The Indian States.

The area enclosed within the boundaries of India is 1,773,168 square miles, with a population of 315,132,537 of people—nearly one-fifth of the human race. But of this total a very large part is not under British Administration. The area covered in the Indian States is 675,267 square miles with a population of seventy millions. The Indian States embrace the widest variety of country and jurisdiction. They vary in size from petty states like Lawa, in Rajputana, with an area of 13 square miles, and the Simla Hill States, which are little more than small holdings, to States like Hyderabad, as large as Italy, with a population of thirteen millions. They include the inhospitable regions of Western Rajputana, Baroda, part of the Garden of India, Mysore, rich in agricultural wealth, and Kashmir, one of the most favoured spots on the face of the globe.

Relations with the Paramount Power.

So diverse are the conditions under which the Indian States were established and came into political relation with the Government of India, that it is impossible even to summarise them. But broadly it may be said that as the British boundaries expanded, the states came under the influence of the Government and the rulers were confirmed in their possessions. To this general policy however there was, for a brief period, an important departure. During the regime of Lord Dalhousie the Government introduced what was called annexation through lapse. That is to say, when there was no direct heir, the Government considered whether public interests would be secured by granting the right of adoption. Through the application of this policy, the states of Satara and of Nagpur fell in to the East India Company, and the kingdom of Oudh was annexed because of the gross misgovernment of its rulers. Then came the Mutiny. It was followed by the transference of the dominions of the East India Company to the Crown, and an irrevocable declaration of policy toward the Indian States. In the historic Proclamation of Queen Victoria it was set out that "We desire no extension of our present territorial possessions; and while we will permit no aggression on our dominions or our rights to be attempted with impunity, we shall allow no encroachments on those of others. We shall respect the rights, dignity and honour of the Native Princes as our own; and we desire that they, as well as our own subjects, should enjoy that prosperity and that social advancement which can only be secured by internal peace and good government." Since the issue of that proclamation there has been no encroachment on the area under Indian rule by the Government of India. On the contrary, the movement has been in the opposite direction. In 1881 the State of Mysore, which had been so long under British administration that the traditions of Native rule were almost forgotten, was restored to the old Hindu ruling house. In 1911 the Maharajah of Benares, the great taluqdar of Oudh, was granted ruling powers over his extensive pos-

sessions. On many occasions the Government of India has had to intervene, to prevent gross misgovernment, or to carry on the administration during a long minority; but always with the undeviating intention of restoring the territories as soon as the necessity for intervention passed. Almost all states possess the right of adoption in default of heirs.

Rights of Indian States.

The rights and obligations of the Indian States are thus described by the *Imperia Gazetteer*. The Chiefs have, without exception, gained protection against dangers from without and a guarantee that the protector will respect their rights as rulers. The Paramount Power acts for them in relation to foreign Powers and other Indian States. The inhabitants of the Indian States are the subjects of their rulers, and except in case of personal jurisdiction over British subjects, these rulers and their subjects are free from the control of the laws of British India. Criminals escaping to an Indian State must be handed over to it by its authorities; they cannot be arrested by the police of British India without the permission of the ruler of the State. The Indian Princes have therefore a suzerain power which acts for them in all external affairs, and at the same time scrupulously respects their internal authority. The suzerain also intervenes when the internal peace of their territories is seriously threatened. Finally they participate in all the benefits which the protecting power obtains by its diplomatic action, or by its administration of its own dominions, and thus secure a share in the commerce, the railways, the ports, and the markets of British India. Except in rare cases, applied to maritime states, they have freedom of trade with British India although they levy their own customs, and their subjects are admitted to most of the public offices of the British Government.

Obligations of Indian States.

On the other hand, the Indian States are under an obligation not to enter into relations with foreign nations or other states; the authority of their rulers has no existence outside their territories. Their subjects outside their dominions become for all intents and purposes British subjects. Where foreign interests are concerned, the Paramount Power must act so that no just cause of offence is given by its subordinate allies. All Indian States alike are under an obligation to refer to the British every question of dispute with other states. Inasmuch as the Indian States have no use for a military establishment other than for police, or display, or for co-operation with the Imperial Government, their military forces, their equipment and armament are prescribed by the Paramount Power. Although old and unaltered treaties declare that the British Government will have no manner of concern with any of a Maharajah's dependents or servants, with respect to whom the Maharajah is absolute, logic and public opinion have endorsed the principal which Lord Can-

ning set forth in his minute of 1860, that the "Government of India is not precluded from stepping in to set right such serious abuses in a Native Government as may threaten any part of the country with anarchy or disturbance, nor from assuming temporary charge of a Native State when there shall be sufficient reason to do so." Of this necessity the Governor-General in Council is the sole judge subject to the control of Parliament. Where the law of British India confers jurisdiction over British subjects or other specified persons in foreign territory, that power is exercised by the British courts which possess it. The subjects of European Powers and the United States are on the same footing. Where cantonments exist in an Indian State, jurisdiction both over the cantonment and the civil station is exercised by the suzerain power.

Political Officers.

The powers of the British Government are exercised through Political Officers who, as a rule, reside in the states themselves. In the larger states the Government is represented by a Resident, in groups of states by an Agent to the Governor-General, assisted by local Residents or Political Agents. These Officers form the sole channel of communication between the Indian States and the Government of India and its Foreign Department, with the officials of British India and with other Indian States. They are expected to advise and assist the Ruling Chiefs in any administrative or other matters on which they may be consulted. Political Agents are similarly employed in the larger States under the Provincial Governments but in the petty states scattered over British India the duties of the Agent are usually entrusted to the Collector or Commissioner in whose district they lie. All questions relating to the Indian States are under the special supervision of the Supreme Government, and in the personal charge of the Governor-General.

Closer Partnership.

Events have tended gradually to draw the Paramount Power and the Indian States into closer harmony. Special care has been devoted to the education of the sons of Ruling Chiefs, first by the employment of tutors, and afterwards by the establishment of special colleges for the purpose. These are now established at Ajmere, Rajkot, Indore and Lahore. The Imperial Cadet Corps, whose headquarters are at Dehra Dun, imparts military training to the sons of the ruling chiefs and noble families. The spread of higher education has played at the disposal of the Indian States the products of the Universities. In

these ways there has been a steady rise in the character of the administration of the Indian States, approximating more closely to the British ideal. Most of the Indian States have also come forward to bear their share in the burden of Imperial defence. Following on the spontaneous offer of military assistance when war with Russia appeared to be inevitable over the Penjdeh incident in 1885, the states have raised a portion of their forces up to the standard of the troops in the Indian Army. These were until recently termed Imperial Service Troops; but are now designated Indian State Forces: they belong to the States, they are officered by Indians; but they are inspected by a regular cadre of British officers under the general direction of an Inspector General. Their numbers are approximately 22,000 men; their armament is the same as that of the Indian Army and they have done good service often under their own Chiefs, on the Frontier and in China, in Somaliland and in the Great War. Secure in the knowledge that the Paramount Power will respect their rights and privileges, the Ruling Chiefs have lost the suspicion which was common when their position was less assured, and the visits of the Prince of Wales in 1875, of the Prince and Princess of Wales in 1905-06, and of the King and Queen in 1911-12 have tended to seal the devotion of the great feudatories to the Crown. The improvement in the standard of native rule has also permitted the Government of India largely to reduce the degree of interference in the internal affairs of the Indian States. The new policy was authoritatively laid down by Lord Minto, then Viceroy, in a speech at Udaipur in 1909, when he said:—

"Our policy is with rare exceptions, one of non-interference in the internal affairs of the Native States. But in guaranteeing their internal independence and in undertaking their protection against external aggression it naturally follows that the Imperial Government has assumed a certain degree of responsibility for the general soundness of their administration and could not consent to incur the reproach of being an indirect instrument of misrule. There are also certain matters in which it is necessary for the Government of India to safeguard the interests of the community as a whole as well as those of the paramount power, such as railways, telegraphs and other services of an Imperial character. But the relationship of the Supreme Government to the State is one of suzerainty. The foundation stone of the whole system is the recognition of identity of interests between the Imperial Government and Durbars and the minimum of interference with the latter in their own affairs."

HYDERABAD.

Hyderabad, the premier Indian State in India, is in the Deccan. Its area is 82,698 square miles and population 12,471,776. The general physical characteristics of the State are an elevated plateau, divided geographically and ethnologically by the Manjira and Godavari rivers. To the North-West is the Trappan region, peopled by Marathas, a country of black cotton soil

producing wheat and cotton. To the South-East is the granitic region of the Telugus producing rice.

HISTORY.—In pre-historic times Hyderabad came within the great Dravidian zone. The date of the Aryan conquest is obscure, but the dominions of Asoka 272 to 231 B.C. embraced the northern and western portions of the State.

Three great Hindu dynasties followed, those of the Pallavas, Chalukyas and Yadavas. In 1294 the irruption of the Mahomedans under Ala-ud-din Khilji commenced, and thence forward till the time of Aurungzebe, the history of the State is a confused story of struggles against the surviving Hindu kingdom of the South, and after the fall of Vijayanagar, with each other. Aurungzebe stamped out the remains of Mahomedan independence of the South, and set up his General, Asaf Jah, of Turcoman descent, as Viceroy, or Subedar of the Deccan in 1713. In the chaos which followed the death of Aurungzebe, Asaf Jah had no difficulty in establishing and maintaining his independence, and thus founded the present House. During the struggle between the British and the French for mastery in India, the Nizam finally threw in his lot with the British, and unshaken even by the excitement of the mutiny, has been so staunch to his engagements as to earn the title of "Our Faithful Ally". The present ruler is His Exalted Highness Sir Usman Ali Khan Bahadur Fateh Jung, G.C.S.I.

THE BERARS.—A most important event in the history of the State occurred in November 1902, when the Assigned Districts of Berar were leased in perpetuity to the British Government. These districts had been administered by the British Government on behalf of the Nizam since 1853; under the treaties of 1853 and 1860, they were "assigned" without limit of time to the British Government to provide for the maintenance of the Hyderabad contingent, a body of troops kept by the British Government for the Nizam's use, the surplus revenue, if any, being payable to the Nizam. In course of time it had become apparent that the maintenance of the Hyderabad contingent on its old footing as a separate force was inexpedient and unnecessary, and that similarly the administration of Berar as a separate unit was very costly, while from the point of view of the Nizam the precarious and fluctuating nature of the surplus was financially inconvenient. The agreement of 1902 re-affirmed His Highness' sovereignty over Berar, which instead of being indefinitely "assigned" to the Government of India, was leased in perpetuity to an annual rental of 25 lakhs (nearly £167,000); the rental is for the present charged with an annual debt towards the repayment of loans made by the Government of India. The Government of India were at the same time authorised to administer Berar in such manner as they might think desirable, and to redistribute, reduce, re-organise and control the Hyderabad Contingent, due provision being made as stipulated in the treaty of 1853, for the protection of His Highness' dominions. In accordance with this agreement the Contingent ceased in March 1903 to be a separate force and was re-organised and redistributed as an integral part of the Indian Army, and in October 1903 Berar was transferred to the administration of the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces.

ADMINISTRATION.—The Nizam is supreme in the State and exercises the power of life and death over his subjects. The form of government was changed in 1919, an Executive Council being established which consists of seven ordinary and

one extraordinary members under a president. Below the Secretariat the State is divided into Subhas or Divisions, Districts and Talukas. Fifteen District and 103 Taluka Boards are at work in the District. A Legislative Council, consisting of 23 members, of whom 15 are official and 8 non-official, is responsible for making laws. The State maintains its own currency. In 1904 an improved coin known as the Mahabla rupee after the name of the then Ruler of the State with a subordinate coinage was struck. The current coin known as the Osmanli Sica after the name of the present Ruler exchanges with the British rupee at the ratio of 116-10-8 to 100 (Government rate). It has its own postal system and stamps for internal purpose. It maintains its own Army, comprising 20,237 troops, of which 6,385 are classed as Regular Troops and 13,302 as Irregular. There are in addition Imperial Service Troops.

FINANCE.—After many vicissitudes, the financial position of the State is strong. For the year 1920-21 receipts amounted to Rs. 504 lakhs and expenditure to Rs. 438 lakhs.

PRODUCTION AND INDUSTRY.—The principal industry of the State is agriculture, which maintains 57.1 per cent. of the population. The common system of land tenure is ryotwari. As no reliable figures are available to show the gross produce it is impossible to say what proportion the land revenue bears to it, but it is collected without difficulty. The principal food crops are millet and rice; the staple money crops cotton, which is grown extensively on the black cotton soils, and oil-seeds. The State is rich in minerals. The great Warangal coal measures are worked at Singareni, but the efforts to revive the historic gold and diamond mines have met with very qualified success. The manufacturing industries are consequent on the growth of cotton, and comprise three spinning and weaving mills and ginning and pressing factories in the cotton tracts.

COMMUNICATIONS.—One hundred and thirty-seven miles of the broad gauge line from Bombay to Madras traverse the State. At Wadi, on this section, the broad gauge system of the Nizam's Guaranteed State Railway takes off, running East to Warangal and South-East toward Bezawada, a total length of 330 miles. From Hyderabad the metre gauge Godavari Railway runs North-West to Manmad on the Great Indian Peninsula Company's system 391 miles and the Secunderabad-Kurnool line as far as Gadwal, a distance of 109 miles. There are thus 471 miles of broad gauge and 500 miles of metre in the State. The Barsi Light Railway owns a short extension to Latur. The roads are generally inferior.

EDUCATION.—The Osman's University at Hyderabad imparts instruction in all the faculties through the medium of Urdu, English being taught as a compulsory language. The Nizam College at Hyderabad (first grade) is, however, affiliated to the Madras University. In 1921-22 the total number of Educational institutions rose from 3,556 (1918-19) to 4,365, the number of Primary schools in particular having been largely increased.

British Resident.—The Hon. Sir Lennox Russell, Kt. I.O.S.

MYSORE.

The State of Mysore is surrounded on all sides by the Madras Presidency except on the north and the north-west where it is bounded by the districts of Dharwar and North Canara respectively and towards the south-west by Coorg. It is naturally divided into two regions of distinct character; the hill country (the maldan) on the west and the wide spreading valleys and plains (the maldan) on the east. The State has an area of 29,469 square miles excluding that of the Civil and Military Station of Bangalore and a population of 5,978,892 of whom over 92 per cent. are Hindus. Kanadi is the distinctive language of the State.

HISTORY.—The ancient history of the country is varied and interesting. Tradition connects the table land of Mysore with many a legend enshrined in the great Indian epics, the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. Coming down to historical times, the north-eastern portion of the country formed part of Asoka's Empire in the third Century B.C. Mysore then came under the rule of the Andhra dynasty. From about the third to the eleventh century A.D. Mysore was ruled by three dynasties, the north-western portion by the Kadambas, the eastern and northern portions by the Pallavas and the central and the southern portions by the Gangas. In the eleventh century, Mysore formed part of Chola dominion, but the Cholas were driven out early in the twelfth century by the Hoysalas, and indigenous dynasty with its capital at Halebidu. The Hoysala power came to an end in the early part of the fourteenth century. Mysore was next connected with the Vijayanagar empire. At the end of the fourteenth century Mysore became associated with the present ruling dynasty. At first tributary to the dominant empire of Vijayanagar the dynasty attained its independence after the downfall of Vijayanagar in 1565. In the latter part of the eighteenth century the real sovereignty passed into the hands of Hyder Ali and then his son, Tippu Sultan. In 1799, on the fall of Seringapatnam, the British Government restored the State comprised within its present limits, to the ancient dynasty in the person of Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar Bahadur III. Owing to the insurrections that broke out in some parts of the country, the management was assumed by the British Government in 1831. In 1881 the State was restored to the dynasty in the person of Sri Chamarajendra Wodeyar Bahadur under conditions and stipulations laid down in the Instrument of Transfer. That ruler with the assistance of Mr. (afterwards Sir) K. Seshadri Iyer, K.C.S.I., as Dewan, brought Mysore to a State of great prosperity. He died in 1894, and was succeeded by the present Maharaja Colonel Sir Sri Krishnarajendra Wodeyar Bahadur, K.C.S.I., G.B.E., who was installed in 1902. In November 1913 the Instrument of Transfer was replaced by a Treaty which indicates more appropriately the relation subsisting between the British Government and the State of Mysore.

ADMINISTRATION.—The City of Mysore is the Capital of the State, but Bangalore City is the Administrative headquarters. His Highness the Maharaja is the ultimate authority in the State, and the administration is conducted under

his control, by the Dewan and Members of Council including the Extraordinary Member. The Chief Court consisting of three Judges is the highest Judicial tribunal in the State. There are two constitutional Assemblies in the State—the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council. The Representative Assembly was established in 1881 by an executive order of Government, and its powers and functions have been increased from time to time by similar orders of Government. Under the scheme of constitutional developments announced in October 1923 the Representative Assembly has been placed on a statutory basis and given a definite place in the constitution by the promulgation of the Representative Assembly Regulation XVIII of 1923. The franchise has been extended and the disqualification of women on the ground of sex, from exercising the right to vote has been removed. The privilege of moving resolutions on the general principles and policy underlying the budget and on matters of public administration has been granted in addition to those already enjoyed of making representations about wants and grievances and of interpellating Government. The Assembly is also to be consulted on all proposals for the levy of new taxes and on the general principles of all measures of legislation before their introduction into the Legislative Council. Besides the Budget Session (formerly Birthday Session) and the Dasara Session, provision has been made for one or more special sessions of the Assembly to be summoned by Government when the State or Public business demands it.

The strength of the Legislative Council has been raised from 30 to 50, of whom 20 are official and 30 are non-official members. The Council which exercised the privileges of interpellation, discussion of the State Budget and the moving of the resolutions on all matters of public administration is, under the reformed constitution, granted the powers of moving resolutions on the budget and voting on the demands for grants. The Dewan is the Ex-officio President of both the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council.

The Legislative Council has also a Public Accounts Committee which will examine all audit and appropriation reports and bring to the notice of Council all deviations from the wishes of the Council as expressed in its Budget grant.

STANDING COMMITTEES.—With a view to enlarge the opportunities of non-official representatives of the people to influence the every day administration of the State three Standing Committees consisting of Members of the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council, have been formed, one in connection with Railway, Electrical and P. W. Departments, one in connection with Local Self-Government and the Departments of Medicine, Sanitation and Public Health and the third in connection with Finance and Taxation.

All the important branches of the administration are controlled by separate Heads of Departments. The combatant strength of the Military Force at the end of 1922-23 was 2,797 of which 174 were in the Mysore Lancers, 394 in the Mysore

sore Horse, 239 in the Transport Corps, and the remaining 1,690 in the Infantry. The total annual cost is about 16 and a quarter lakhs. The cost of the Police Administration during the same period was about 15 lakhs.

FINANCES.—The actual total receipts and disbursements charged to Revenue for the past five years together with the revised budget estimate for 1923-24 and budget for 1924-25 were as below:—

Year.	Receipts.	Disbursements.	Surplus.	Deficit.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1920-21	3,13,12,665	3,27,85,460		— 14,72,795
1921-22	3,12,05,389	3,27,45,479		— 15,40,09
1922-23	3,30,70,534	3,30,47,897	+22,637	
1923-24	3,24,02,000	3,29,12,000		— 5,10,000
(revised)				
1924-25	3,35,89,000	3,35,42,000	+47,000	
(budget).				

AGRICULTURE.—Nearly three-fourths of the population are employed in agriculture, and the general system of land tenure is ryotwari. The principal food crops are ragi, rice, jola, millets, gram and sugar cane, and the chief fibres are cotton and san- hemp. Nearly fifty thousand acres are under mulberry, the silk industry being the most profitable in Mysore next to Gold Mining. A Superintendent of Sericulture has been appointed and the Sericulture Department affiliated to the Agricultural Department. Arrangements are being made for the supply of disease-free seed, and a central and five taluk popular schools have been doing good work. The department of Agriculture is popularising agriculture on scientific lines by means of demonstrations, investigations, and experiments. There is one central farm at Hebbal to deal with all classes of crops and two others, one at Hidyur in connection with cotton and crops suited to localities where the rainfall is light, and the other at Marathur in the region of heavy rainfall. A sugar cane farm has been opened under the new Krishnarajasagara Works, and Committees have been constituted in several districts for the development of the sugarcane cultivation. A live-stock expert has been appointed to consider measures regarding the encouragement of cattle breeding, and to improve the general live-stock.

INDUSTRIES AND COMMERCE.—A Department of Industries and Commerce was organised in 1913 with a view to the development of Industries and Commerce in the State. Its main functions are stimulating private enterprise by the offer of technical advice and other assistance for starting new industries, undertaking experimental work for pioneering industries and developing existing industries and serving as a general bureau of information in industrial and commercial matters. The sandal-wood oil factory started on an experimental basis is now working on a commercial scale. A factory is working at Bangalore, and another at Mysore. A large plant at a cost of more than 170 lakhs of rupees has been constructed at Bhadravathi for purposes of manufacturing charcoal, pig-iron, distilling wood-alcohol, and developing subsidiary industries. The works are on the borders of an

extensive forest area and practically at the foot of the hills containing rich deposits of iron manganese and bauxite, and are not far from the Gersoppa Water Falls estimated to be capable of producing 100,000 horsepower of electric energy.

EDUCATION.—A separate University for Mysore was established on the 1st July 1916. It is of the teaching and residential type composed of the central and Engineering Colleges at Bangalore and the Maharaja's College at Mysore, with headquarters at Mysore. An important feature is that the University course is one of three years, what corresponds to the first year in other Universities being in the Collegiate High School which specially trains students for one year to fit them for the University course. The Colleges are efficiently equipped and organised, and there is a training College for men located at Mysore. There is also a College for Women at Mysore, i.e., the Maharani's College.

With the introduction of compulsory Education in select towns and the increase in the number of village schools, primary education has during recent years made considerable advance. Schools have been started for imparting instruction in agricultural, commercial, engineering and other technical subjects. There were altogether in 1922-23 7,839 public and 953 private educational institutions in the State. This gives one school to every 3.35 square miles of the area and to every 666 of the population.

Resident in Mysore and Chief Commissioner of Coorg.—Vacant.

Dewan.—Rajamantradhurina Alblon Rajkumar Banerji, Esq., M.A., C.S.I., C.I.E.

Extraordinary Member of Council.—H. H. Sir Sri Kantirava Narasimharaja Wodeyar Bahadur, G.C.I.E.

Members of the Executive Council.—Munshir ul-mulk Mir Humza Hussain, Esq., B.A., B.L. and K. R. Srinivasa Iyengar, Esq., M.A.

BARODA.

The State of Baroda is situated partly in Gujarat and partly in Kathiawar. It is divided into four district blocks: (1) the southern district of Navsari near the mouth of the Tapi river, and mostly surrounded by British territory; (2) central district, North of the Narbada, in which lies Baroda, the capital city; (3) to the North of Ahmedabad, the district of Kadi; and (4) to the West, in the Peninsula of Kathiawar, the district of Amreli, formed of scattered tracts of land. The area of the State is 8,135 square miles; the population is 2,126,522 of whom over four-fifths are Hindus.

HISTORY.—The history of the Baroda State as such dates from the break-up of the Mughal Empire. The first Maratha invasion of Gujarat took place in 1705. In later expeditions Pilaji Gaikwar, who may be considered as the founder of the present ruling family, greatly distinguished himself. Songhad was the headquarters till 1766. After 1723 Pilaji regularly levied tribute in Gujarat. His son Damaji finally captured Baroda in 1734, since then it has always been in the hands of the Gaikwars; but Mughal authority in Gujarat did not end until the fall of Ahmedabad in 1753, after which the country was divided between the Gaikwar and the Peshwa. In spite of the fact that Damaji was one of the Maratha chiefs defeated at Panipat by Ahmed Shah, he continued to add to his territory. He died in 1768, leaving the succession in dispute between two rival sons. He was succeeded in turn by his sons Sayaji Rao I, Fattessing Rao, Manaji Rao and Govind Rao. The last died in 1800, and was succeeded by Anand Rao. A period of political instability ensued which was ended in 1802 by the help of the Bombay Government, who established the authority of Anand Rao at Baroda. By a treaty of 1805 between the British Government and Baroda, it was arranged *inter alia* that the foreign policy of the State should be conducted by the British, and that all differences with the Peshwa should be similarly arranged. Baroda was a staunch ally of the British during the wars with Bajji Rao Peshwa, the Pindari hordes and Holkar. But from 1820 to 1841, when Sayaji Rao II was Gaikwar, differences arose between the two Governments, which were settled by Sir James Carnac, Governor of Bombay in 1841. Ganpat Rao succeeded Sayaji Rao in 1847. During his rule, the political supervision of Baroda was transferred to the Supreme Government. His successor Khande Rao, who ascended the *Gadi* in 1856, introduced many reforms. He stood by the British in the Mutiny. He was succeeded by his brother Malhar Rao in 1870. Malhar Rao was deposed in 1875 for "notorious misconduct" and "gross misgovernment," but the suggestion that he had instigated the attempt to poison Col. Phayre, the Resident, was not proved. Sayaji Rao III, a boy of 13 years of age, who was descended from a distant branch of the family, was adopted as heir of Khande Rao in 1875 and is the present Gaikwar. He was invested with full powers in 1881.

ADMINISTRATION.—An executive council consisting of the principal officers of the State, carries on the administration, subject to the control of the Maharaja, who is assisted by a Dewan and other officers. A number of departments have been formed, which are presided over by officials corresponding to those in British India. The State is divided into four *prants* each of which is sub-divided into *Mahals* and *Peta Mahals* of which there are in all 42. Attempts have for some years been made to restore village autonomy, and village panchayats have been formed which form part of a scheme for local self-government. There is a Legislative Department, under a Legal Remembrancer, which is responsible for making laws. There is also a Legislative Council, consisting of nominated and elected members. A High Court at Baroda possesses jurisdiction over the whole of the State and hears all final appeals. From the decisions of the High Court, appeals lie in certain cases, to the Maharaja, who decides them on the advice of the Huzur Nyaya Sabha. The State Army consists of 5,086 Regular forces and 3,806 Irregular forces.

FINANCE.—In 1922-23, the total receipts of the State were Rs. 2,21,26,491 and the disbursements Rs. 2,11,38,866. The principal Revenue heads were:—Land Revenue, Rs. 1,13,63,559; Abkari, Rs. 29,39,953; Opium, Rs. 6,17,844; Railways, Rs. 12,91,353; Interest, Rs. 13,49,972; Tribute from other States, Rs. 6,66,389. British Currency was introduced in 1901.

PRODUCTION AND INDUSTRY.—Agriculture and pasture support 63 per cent. of the people. The principal crops are rice, wheat, gram, castor-oil, rapeseed, poppy, cotton, sun-hemp, tobacco, sugarcane, maize, and garden crops. The greater part of the State is held on *ryotwari* tenure. The State contains few minerals, except sandstone, which is quarried at Songar, and a variety of other stones which are little worked. There are 92 industrial or commercial concerns in the State registered under the State Companies' Act. There are four Agricultural Banks and 518 Co-operative Societies in the Baroda State.

COMMUNICATIONS.—The B. B. & C. I. Railway crosses part of the Navsari and Baroda *prants*, and the Rajputana-Malwa Railway passes through the Kadi *prant*. A system of branch lines has been built by the Baroda Durbar in all the four *prants*, in addition to which the Tapi Valley Railway and the Baroda-Godhra Chord line (B. B. & C. I.) pass through the State. The Railways constructed by the State are about 652 miles in length. Good roads are not numerous.

EDUCATION.—The Education Department controls 2,836 institutions of different kinds, in 68 of which English is taught. The Baroda College is affiliated to the Bombay University. There are a number of high schools, technical schools, and schools for special classes, such as the jungle tribes and unclean castes. The State is "in a way pledged to the policy of free and compulsory primary education." It maintains a system of rural and travelling

libraries. Ten per cent. of the population is returned in the census as literate. Total expense on Education is Rs. 30,10,005.

CAPITAL CITY.—Baroda City with the cantonment has a population of 94,712. It contains a public park, a number of fine public buildings, palaces and offices; and it is crowded with Hindu temples. The cantonment is to the north-west of the city and is garrisoned by an infantry battalion of the Indian Army. An

Improvement Trust has been formed to work in Baroda City and has set itself an ambitious programme.

RULER.—His Highness Farzand-i-Khas-i-Dowlat-i-Englishtia Maharaja Sir Sayaji Rao Gaekwar Sena Khas Khel, Samsher Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of Baroda.

Resident.—E. H. Kealy, I.C.S.

Dewan.—Sir Manubhai N. Mehta, Kt., C.S.I.

BALUCHISTAN AGENCY.

In this Agency are included the Indian States of Kalat, Khuran and Las Bela. The Khan of Kalat is head of the Baluchistan tribal chiefs whose territories are comprised under the following divisions:—Jhalawan, Sarawan Makran, and Kachi. These districts form what may be termed Kalati Baluchistan, and occupy an area of 5,713 square miles. The inhabitants of the country are either Brahuils or Baluchis, both being Mahomedans of the Suni sect. The country is sparsely populated, the total number being about 300,543. It derives its chief importance from its position with regard to Afghanistan on the north-western frontier of British India. The relations of Kalat with the British Government are governed by two treaties of 1854 and 1876, by the latter of which the Khan agreed to act in subordinate co-operation with the British Government. There are, however, agreements with Kalat in connection with the construction of the Indo-European telegraph, the cession of jurisdiction on the railways and in the Bolan Pass, and the permanent leases of Quetta, Nushki and Nasirabad. The Khan is assisted in the administration of the State by a Vazir-i-Azam at present a retired officer from the British service. The Governor-General's Agent in Baluchistan conducts the relations between the Government of India and the Khan, and exercises his general political supervision over the district. The revenue of the State is about Rs. 13,13,000. The present Khan

is His Highness Beglar Begi Mir Sir Mahmud Khan of Kalat, G.C.I.E. He was born in 1864.

Khuran extends in a westerly and south-westerly direction from near Nushki and Kalat to the Persian border. Its area is 18,565 square miles; it has a population of 27,738 and an annual average revenue of about Rs. 1,00,000.

The present Chief, Sardar Bahadur Sardar Nawab Habibullah Khan, was born about 1897 and succeeded his father Sardar Yakub Khan in 1911, when the latter was murdered by his uncle Amir Khan. The State is divided into 13 *Niabats* and the whole sources of income are chiefly agricultural.

Las Bela is a small State occupying the valley and delta of the Purull river, about 50 miles west of the Sind boundary. Area 7,132 square miles; population 50,696, chiefly Sunni Mahomedans, estimated average revenue about Rs. 3,41,000. The Chief of Las Bela, known as the Jam, is bound by agreement with the British Government to conduct the administration of his State in accordance with the advice of the Governor-General's Agent. This control is exercised through the Political Agent in Kalat. The Jam also employs an approved Vazir, to whose advice he is subject and who generally assists him in the transaction of State business.

Agent to the Governor-General for Baluchistan.—Hon. Mr. S. E. Pears, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

RAJPUTANA AGENCY.

Rajputana is the name of a great territorial circle with a total area of about 130,462 square miles, which includes 18 Indian States, two chiefships, and the small British province of Ajmer-Merwara. It is bounded on the west by Sind, on the north-west by the Punjab State of Bahawalpur, on the north and north-east by the Punjab, on the east by the United Provinces and Gwalior, while the southern boundary runs across the central region of India in an irregular zigzag line. Of the Indian States 17 are Rajput, 2 (Bharatpur and Dholpur) are Jat, and one (Tonk) is Mahomedan. The Chief administrative control of the British district is vested *ex-officio* in the political officer, who holds the post of Governor-General's Agent for the supervision of the relations between the several Native States of Rajputana and the Government of India. For administrative purposes they are divided into the following groups:—Bikaner, Strohi and Jhalawan in direct relation with the Agent to the Governor-General; Eastern Rajputana Agency, States (Bharatpur, Dholpur,

Karauli); Haraoti and Tonk Agency, 2 States (Bundi and Tonk) and Chiefship of Shahpura; Jaipur Residency, 2 States (principal State, Jaipur); Mewar Residency and Southern Rajputana States Agency, 3 States (principal State Banswara) and Kushalgarh Chiefship; Western Rajputana States Residency, 2 States (principal State, Marwar).

The Aravalli Hills intersect the country almost from end to end. The tract to the north-west of the hills is, as a whole, sandy, ill-watered and unproductive, but improves gradually from being a mere desert in the far west to comparatively fertile lands to the north-east. To the south-east on the Aravalli Hills lie higher and more fertile regions which contain extensive hill ranges and which are traversed by considerable rivers.

COMMUNICATIONS.—The total length of railways in Rajputana is 1,576 miles, of which 739 are the property of the British Government. The Rajputana-Malwa (Government) runs from

Ahmedabad to Bandikui and from there branches to Agra and Delhi. Of the Native State railways the most important is the Jodhpur-Bikaner line from Marwar Junction to Hyderabad (Sind) and to Bikaner.

INHABITANTS.—Over 50 per cent. of the population are engaged in some form of agriculture; about 20 per cent. of the total population are maintained by the preparation and supply of material substances; personal and domestic service provides employment for about 5 per cent. and commerce for 2½ per cent. of the population. The principal language is Rajasthani. Among castes and tribes, the most numerous are the Brahmans, Jats, Mahajans, Chamars, Rajputs, Minas, Gujars, Bhils, Malis and Balais. The Rajputs are, of course, the aristocracy of the country, and as such hold the land to a very large extent, either as receivers of rent or as cultivators. By reason of their position as integral families of pure descent, as a landed nobility, and as the kinsmen of ruling chiefs, they are also the aristocracy of India; and their social prestige may be measured by observing that there is hardly a tribe or clan (as distinguished from a caste) in India which does not claim descent from, or irregular connection with, one of these Rajput stocks.

The population and area of the States are as follows:—

Name of State.	Area in square miles.	Population in 1921.
In direct Political relation with A. G. G.—		
Bikaner	23,311	6,59,685
Sirohi	1,964	1,88,639
Jhalawar	810	96,182
Mewar Residency—		
Udaipur	12,953	13,80,003
Southern Rajputana States Agency—		
Banswara	1,946	1,90,362
Dungarpur	1,447	1,89,272
Partabgarh	886	67,114
Kushalgarh	340	29,162
Western State Residency—		
Jodhpur	34,963	18,41,642
Jaisalmer	16,062	67,652
Jaipur Residency—		
Jaipur	15,579	23,38,802
Kishangarh	558	77,734
Lawa	19	2,262
Haraoti-Tonk Agency—		
Bundi	2,220	1,87,068
Tonk	1,114	2,87,898
Shahpura	405	65,142
Eastern States Agency—		
Bharatpur	1,982	4,96,437
Dholpur	1,155	2,29,734
Karauli	1,242	1,83,730
Alwar	3,141	7,01,154
Kotah-Jhalawar Agency—		
Kotah	5,684	6,30,060

Udaipur State (also called Mewar) was founded in about 646 A.D. The capital city is Udaipur, which is beautifully situated on the slope of a low ridge, the summit of which is crowned by His Highness the Maharana's palaces, and to the north and west, houses extend to the banks of a beautiful piece of water known as the Pichola Lake in the middle of which stand two island palaces. It is situated near the terminus of the Udaipur-Chitor Railway, 697 miles north of Bombay. The present ruler is His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharana Sir Fateh Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., who was born in 1849 and succeeded in 1884. He is the head of the Sisodia Rajputs and is the Premier Chief. The administration is carried on by the Maharana, assisted by Shriman Maharaj Kumar Sir Bhopal Singhji Bahadur, K.C.I.E., to whom certain powers have been delegated. Udaipur is rich in minerals which are little worked. Its archaeological remains are numerous, and stone inscriptions dating from the third century have been found.

Banswara State is the southernmost State of Rajputana within the Political Agency of the Southern Rajputana States. The area of the State is 1,946 square miles, and population 1,91,824 souls, including Patta Kushalgarh. It is thus in regard to size eleventh among the States of Rajputana. Banswara with Dungarpur originally formed a country known as Bagar, which was, from the beginning of the 13th century until about the year 1529, held by certain Rajput Chiefs of the Ghetot or Sisodia clan, who claimed descent from an elder branch of the family now ruling in Udaipur. After the death of Udal Singh, the ruler of Bagar, his territory was divided between his two sons, Prithi Singh and Jagmal Singh, about 1529, and the descendants of the two families are the present Chiefs of Dungarpur and Banswara. Where the town of Banswara now stands there was a large Bhil pal or colony under a powerful Bhil Chieftain, named Wasna, who was defeated and slain by Jagmal about 1530. The name Banswara is by tradition said to be a corruption of Wasnawara or the country of Wasna. Others assert that the word means the country (*warra*) of bamboos (*bans*). Nearly three centuries after its foundation by Jagmal, Maharawal Bijai Singh, anxious to get rid of the supremacy of the Mahrattas, offered to become a tributary to the British Government. In 1818 a definite treaty was made with his successor, Maharawal Umed Singh. Banswara has been described as 'the most beautiful portion of Rajputana'; it looks at its best just after rains. The principal rivers are the Mahi, the Anas, the Eran, the Chap and the Haran.

The present Chief is His Highness Ral Rayan Maharawal Sahib Shree Prithi Singhji Bahadur who was born on July 15, 1888, and is the 21st in descent from Maharawal Jagmal Singhji. His Highness was educated in the Mayo College and succeeded his father in 1913. His Highness is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. The State is ruled by the Maharawal with the assistance of the Diwan and the Judicial and Legislative Council, of which the Diwan is the President. The Revenue of the State is about 9 lakhs and the normal expenditure is about the same.

Diwan:—Mr. N. Bhattacharya, M.A.

Dongarpur State, with Banswara, formerly comprised the country called the Bagar. It was invaded by the Mahrattas in 1818. As in other States inhabited by hill tribes, it became necessary at an early period of British supremacy to employ a military force to coerce the Bhils. The State represents the Gadi of the eldest branch of the Sisodiyas and dates its separate existence from about the close of the 12th Century. Samant Singh, King of Chitor, when driven away by Kartalpal of Jalor, fled to Bagad and killed Chowrasimal, Chief of Baroda, and founded the State of Dongarpur. The present Chief is His Highness Ral Rayan Maharawal Shri Lakshman Singhji born on 7th March 1908 and succeeded on 15th November 1918. His Highness being minor, the administration is carried on by the Executive Council of the State under the supervision of the Political Agent, Southern Rajputana States. No railway line crosses the territory, the nearest railway station, Udaipur, being 65 miles distant. Revenue a little above 6½ lakhs.

Partabgarh State, also called the Kanthal, was founded in the sixteenth century by a descendant of Rana Mokal of Mewar. The town of Partabgarh was founded in 1698 by Partab Singh. In the time of Jaswant Singh (1775-1844), the country was overrun by the Marathas, and the Maharawat only saved his State by agreeing to pay Holkar a tribute of *Salim Shahi* Rs. 72,700 (which then being coined in the State mint was legal tender throughout the surrounding Native States), in lieu of Rs. 15,000 formerly paid to Delhi. The first connexion of the State with the British Government was formed in 1804; but the treaty then entered into was subsequently cancelled by Lord Cornwallis, and a fresh treaty by which the State was taken under protection was made in 1818. The tribute to Holkar is paid through the British Government, and in 1904 was converted to Rs. 36,350 British currency. The present ruler is His Highness Maharawat Sir Raghunath Singh Bahadur, K.C.I.E., who was born in 1859 and succeeded in 1890. The State is governed by the Maharawat with the help of the Dewan, and, in judicial matters, of a Committee of eleven members styled the Raj Sabha or State Council. Revenue about 6 lakhs; expenditure nearly 5 lakhs. The financial administration is under the direct supervision of the State.

Jodhpur State, the largest in Rajputana also called Marwar, consists largely of sandy country. The Maharaja of Jodhpur is the head of the Rathor Clan of Rajputs and claims descent from Rama, the deified king of Ayodhya. The earliest known king of the clan lived in the sixth century from which time onwards their history is fairly clear. After the breaking up of their Kingdom at Kanauj they founded this State about 1212 and the foundations of Jodhpur City were laid in 1450 by Rao Jodha. The State entered into a treaty of alliance with the British Government in 1812. Jaswant Singh succeeded in 1873 and reformed the State. His son Sardar Singh was invested with powers in 1898, the minority rule having been carried on by his uncle, Maharaja Sir Pratap Singh. He died in 1911 and was suc-

ceeded by his eldest son Maharaja Sumer Singh Bahadur, who was then 14 years of age. The administration of the State was carried on by a Council of Regency, presided over by General Maharaja Sir Pratap Singh. On the outbreak of the European War both the Maharaja and the Regent offered their services and were allowed to proceed to the Front. The young Maharaja was, for his services at the Front, honoured with an Honorary Majority in the British Army and K.B.E. and was invested with full ruling powers in 1916 and died on 3rd October 1918. He was succeeded by his younger brother Major Maharaja Sir Umed Singhji Sahab Bahadur, K.C.V.O., who, on attaining majority, has taken over charge of the administration from the 27th January 1923. Revenue Rs. 1,20,31,738; expenditure Rs. 100 lakhs.

Jaisalmer State is one of the largest States in Rajputana and covers an area of 16,062 square miles. The Rulers of Jaisalmer belong to the Jadon clan and are the direct descendants of Krishna. Jaisalmer City was founded in 1156, and the State entered into an alliance of perpetual friendship with the British Government in 1818. In 1844 after the British conquest of Sind the forts of Shahgarh, Garsia and Chotaru, which had formerly belonged to Jaisalmer, were restored to the State. The present Ruling Prince is His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharawal Shri Sir Jawahar Singhji Bahadur, K.C.S.I. Revenue about four lakhs.

Sirohi State is much broken up by hills of which the main feature is Mount Abu, 5,650 feet. The Chiefs of Sirohi are Deora Rajputs, a branch of the famous Chauhan clan which furnished the last Hindu kings of Delhi. The present capital of Sirohi was built in 1425. The city suffered in the eighteenth century from the wars with Jodhpur and the depredations of wild Mina tribes. Jodhpur claimed suzerainty over Sirohi but this was disallowed and British protection was granted in 1823. The present ruler is His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharao Shri Sir Sarup Ram Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I. The State is ruled by the Maharao with the assistance of Ministers and other officials. Revenue about 9½ lakhs; expenditure 9 lakhs.

Jaipur is the fourth largest State in Rajputana. It consists for the most part of level and open country. It was known to the ancients as Matsya Desh, and was the kingdom of the King Virata mentioned in the Mahabharata, in whose court, the five Pandava brothers during their last period of exile resided. Bhairat in the Jaipur State has been identified.

The Maharaja of Jaipur is the head of the Kuchawa clan of Rajputs, which claims descent from Kush, son of Rama, King of Ayodhya, the famous hero of the famous epic poem, the Ramayana. This dynasty in Eastern Rajputana dates as far back as ninth century A.D. Dulha Rai, one of its most early rulers, made Amber the capital of the State in 1037 A.D. About the end of 12th century one of the rulers Pajun at the head of the army of Prithvi Raj, Emperor of Delhi, defeated Shahabuddin Ghor in the Khyber Pass and pursued him as far as Ghazni. Prithvi Raj had given his sister in marriage to him. History of India records several distinguished rulers of Jaipur from

amongst whom the following require particular mention. Man Singh 1590-1615. He was a victorious general, intrepid commander and tactful administrator, whose fame had spread throughout the country. During most troublous times, he maintained Imperial authority in Kabul and was the brilliant character of Akber's time. Maharaja Sawai Jai Singh (1700-44) was the first town planner in India. He removed the capital of the State to Jaipur, so named after him. During his time, the State acquired great power and fame. He was a great mathematician and scientist of his age, and is famous for his astronomical observations which he built at several important centres in India. His court was visited by foreign astronomers. Maharaja Sawai Ram Singh 1835-1880. He was one of the most enlightened princes in India at that time. He encouraged art and learning. He embellished the city in various ways and improved the administration and material condition of the people. Maharaja Sawai Madho Singh II, 1880-1922. He was a very wise and intelligent ruler who followed in the foot-steps of his father. He maintained and steadily improved all the useful measures initiated by the late Maharaja. His administration is characterized by great liberality, catholicity and a broad outlook on affairs. His deep religious devotion and piety and unrivalled generosity and genuine and active sympathy are well known. His staunch loyalty and maintenance of the traditions of his house raised him in the estimation of the paramount power. He passed away after a long reign of 41 years. His late Highness' donations and subscriptions to works of charity are enormous and too numerous to detail. His Highness the present Maharaja Sawai Man Singh II Bahadur was born on 21st August 1911. He was adopted by His late Highness on 24th March 1921. He is a scion of the Rajawat House of Isarda, and ascended the gadi on the 7th September 1922. He is studying at the Mayo College and promises to be an ideal ruler having given abundant evidence already of the keen and sympathetic interest he takes in all that concerns the welfare of his people and mankind in general.

The administration is carried on by Cabinet assisted by a Council, and there is a Chief Court of Judicature. The army consists of Cavalry, Infantry, Transport and the Artillery. The normal revenue is above one crore and the expenditure about 95 lakhs. The population of Jaipur at the last Census of 1921 was 2,333,802. In area it is 16,682 square miles.

Kishangarh State is in the centre of Rajputana and consists practically of two narrow strips of land separated from each other with an area of 358 square miles (population 77,734), the northern mostly sandy, the southern generally flat and fertile. The Ruling Princes of Kishangarh belong to the Rathor clan of Rajputs and are descended from Maharaja Kishan Singh (Second son of Maharaja Udal Singh of Jodhpur) who founded the town of Kishangarh in 1611. The present ruler is Lieut.-Col. His Highness Maharajadhiraj Sir Madan Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., Umdal Rajpal-Buland Makan, who was born in 1884 and was invested with powers in 1905. He administers the State with the help of a Council. His Highness served in France in

1914-15 and was mentioned in despatches by Field-Marshal Lord French. Revenue 6 lakhs. Expenditure 5 lakhs.

Lawa State, or Chief of Rajputana is a separate chieftship under the protection of the British Government and independent of any Native States. It formerly belonged to Jaipur and then became part of the State of Tonk. In 1867, the Nawab of Tonk murdered the Thakur's uncle and his followers, and Lawa was then raised to its present State. The Thakurs of Lawa belonged to the Naruka sept of the Kachwaha Rajputs. The present Thakur, Raghubir Singh, was born in 1899, and succeeded to the estate in January 1923. Revenue about Rs. 20,000.

Bundi State is a mountainous territory in the south-east of Rajputana. The Chief of Bundi is the head of the Hara sept of the great clan of Chauhan Rajputs and the country occupied by this sept has for the last five or six centuries been known as Harauti. The State was founded in the early part of the thirteenth century and constant feuds with Mewar and Malwa followed. It threw in its lot with the Mahomedan emperors in the sixteenth century. In later times it was constantly ravaged by the Marathas and Pindaries and came under British protection in 1815 at which time it was paying tribute to Holkar. The present ruler of the State—which is administered by the Maharao Raja and a Council of 8 in an old-fashioned but popular manner—is His Highness Maharao Raja Sir Raghubir Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.C.S.I. He was born in 1869 and succeeded in 1889. Revenue about 10 lakhs; Expenditure 9·6 lakhs.

Tonk State—Partly in Rajputana and partly in Central India, consists of six Parganas separated from one another. The ruling family belongs to the Salarzal Clan of the Bunerwa, Afghan tribe. The founder of the State was Nawab Mahomed Amir Khan Bahadur, General of Holkar's Army from 1798-1806. Holkar bestowed grants of land on him in Rajputana and Central India and the land so granted him was ratified by the peace made between the British and the Chiefs of Rajputana in 1817 and was consolidated into the present State. His grandson was deposed. The present ruler of the State is His Highness Amind-Doula Wazirul-Mulk Nawab Sir Hafiz Muhammad Ibrahim Ali Khan Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., ascended the masnad in 1866. The administration is conducted by the Nawab assisted by a Council of four members, viz:—(1) Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Mohammad Ishaque Khan (Home Member); (2) S. T. Hollins, Esq., I.P.S. (Judicial Member and Vice-President); (3) Sahibzada Mohammad Abdul Wahab Khan (Financial Member); (4) Captain W. F. Webb, I. A. (on leave), Revenue Member. Revenue Rs. 21,10,342; Expenditure Rs. 20,55,624.

Shahpura Chieftship is a small State. The ruling family belongs to the Seesodia clan of Rajputs. The Chieftship came into existence about 1629, being a grant from the Emperor Shah Jahan to one Sujan Singh. The present Chief is Sir Nahar Singh, K.C.I.E., who succeeded by adoption in 1870 and received full powers in 1876. In addition to holding Shahpura by grant from the British Government

the Raja Dhiraj possesses the estate of Kachhola in Udaipur for which he pays tribute and does formal service as a great noble of that State. Revenue 5 lakhs; Expenditure 4 lakhs.

Bharatpur State.—Consists largely of an immense alluvial plain, watered by the Banganga and other rivers.

The present ruling family of Bharatpur are Jats, of the Sinsinwar clan who trace their pedigree to the eleventh century. The family derives its name from its old village Sinsini. Bharatpur was the first State in Rajputana that made alliance with the British Government in 1803. It helped Lord Lake with 5,000 horse in his conquest of Agra and battle of Laswari wherein the Maratha power was entirely broken and received 5 districts as reward for the service. In 1804, however, Bharatpur sided with Jaswant Rao Holkar against the British Government which resulted in a war. Peace was re-established in 1805 under a treaty of alliance and it continues in force. The Gadi being usurped by Darian Sal in 1825, the British Government took up the cause of the rightful heir Maharaja Balwant Singh Shaib. Bharatpur was besieged by Lord Combermere, and as the faithful subjects of the State also made common cause with the British Army the usurper was quickly disposed of, and Maharaja Balwant Singh, the rightful heir to the Throne, came into his own. Bharatpur also rendered valuable service to the British Government during the Mutiny. During the great War the Bharatpur Durbur gave valuable help to the Imperial Government. The Bharatpur Imperial Service Infantry served in East Africa and the Mule Transport Corps served in all theatres of war except Africa. The following are among the most important contributions made by the State during the great war: (1) reinforcement sent to E. Africa for the Imperial Service Infantry, 714 rank and file, and 64 followers; (2) reinforcements for the Imperial Service Transport Corps, 430 rank and file and 64 followers; (3) State subscriptions to war loans 20 lakhs; (4) State subscriptions to Imperial Indian Relief Funds, Soldiers' Comfort Fund, Aeroplane Fleet Fund, Lord Kitchener's Memorial Fund, St. John's Ambulance, Serbian Relief Fund, and Red Cross 2 lakhs; (5) public subscriptions to various war funds Rs. 26,000 and (6) public subscriptions to war bonds Rs. 69,000. Immediately upon their return from Europe the Bharatpur Transport Corps sent to the North West Frontier, and remained on active service there during the Afghan War. The Corps returned to Bharatpur at the conclusion of peace in February 1920. The present Chief is His Highness Lieut.-Colonel Shri Maharaja Vrijendra Sawai Kishan Singh Bahadur, Bahadur Jung, who was born in 1899 and succeeded in the following year his father Maharaja Ram Singh, who was deposed. Revenue 32 lakhs; Expenditure 31 lakhs.

Dholpur State.—The family of the ruling Chiefs of Dholpur belongs to the Bamrolan Jats, the adopted home of one of their ancestors. The family takes the name of Bamrolia about the year 1367. They next migrated to Gwalior, where they took the part of the Rajputs in their struggles against the Emperor's Officers. Even-

tually the Bamrolia Jats settled near Johad, and 1505 Surjan Deo assumed the title of Rana of Gohad. After the overthrow of the Maharrats at Panipat, Rana Bhim Singh in 1761 possessed himself of the fortress of Gwalior but lost it six years later. In order to bar the encroachments of the Maharattas, a treaty was made with the Rana in 1779 by the British Government under Warren Hastings, and the joint forces of the contracting parties re-took Gwalior. In the treaty of the 13th October 1781 between the British Government and Scindia, it was stipulated that so long as the Maharaja Rana observes his treaty with the English, Scindia should not interfere with his territories. The possession of Gohad however led to disputes between the British and Scindia, and in 1805 the Governor-General transferred Gwalior and Gohad to Scindia, and that of Dholpur, Barli, Baseri, Sepau and Rajakhara to Maharaja Rana Kirat Singh. Maharaja Rana Kirat Singh died in 1836 and was succeeded by his son Maharaja Rana Bhagwant Singh on whose death in 1870 his grandson, the late Chief Maharaja Rana Nehal Singh, succeeded to the Gadi. Major His Highness Rals-ud-Daula Sipahdar-ul-Mulk Samarad Rajhal Hind Maharajadhiraj Sri Sawai Maharaja Rana Sir Udal Bhan Singh Lokindra Bahadur Diler Jang Jal Deo, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., the present ruler, is the second son of Maharaja Rana Nehal Singh and was born on the 12th February 1893. On the death of his brother Maharaja Rana Ram Singh His Highness succeeded to the gadi on March 1911. He was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he passed the Diploma Examination and won several prizes. After a short course of training in the Imperial Cadet Corps at Dehra Dun, His Highness went on a tour to Europe in 1912 and was invested with full ruling powers on the 6th October 1913.

By clan and family the Maharaja Rana is connected with the Jat Chiefs of Patiala, Jhind, Nabha and Bharatpur. His mother was the second sister of late Shahzada Basdeo Singh Sahib Bahadur of the family of Maharaj Ranjit Singh of Lahore. His Highness is married to the daughter of the Sardar of Badrukha in the Jhind State.

Karauli State.—A State in Rajputana under the Political control of the Political Agent, Eastern Rajputana States Agency, lying between 26° and 27° north latitude and 76° 30' and 77° 30' east longitude. Area, 1,242 square miles. The river Chambal forms the south-eastern boundary of the State, dividing it from Gwalior (Scindia's Territory) on the south-west it is bounded by Jaipur; and on the north-east by the States of Bharatpur, Jaipur and Dholpur. The State pays no tribute to Government. Languages spoken Hindi and Urdu.

Ruler—His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharaja Sir Bhanwar Pal, Deo Bahadur, Yadukul Chandra Dhal, J.C.I.E., Chief Member, State Council, Rao Saheb Pandit Shanker Nath Sharma.

Kotah State belongs to the Hara section the clan of Chauhan Rajputs, and the early history of their house is, up to the 17th century, identical with that of the Bundi family from which they are an offshoot. Its existence as a separate State dates from 1625. It came under

British protection in 1817. The present ruler is H. H. Lieut.-Colonel Maharao Sir Umed Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., who was born in 1873 and invested with full powers in 1898. In administration he is assisted by two members, Rai Bahadur Pandit Bishwambhar Nath, K.A., and Major-General Onkarsingh, C.I.E. The most important event of his rule has been the restoration, on the deposition of the late Chief of the Jhalawar State, of 15 out of the 17 districts which had been ceded in 1838 to form that principality. Revenue 53 lakhs : Expenditure 48 lakhs.

Jhalawar State consists of two separate tracts in the south-east of Rajputana. The ruling family belongs to the Jhala clan of Rajputs. The last ruler was deposed for misgovernment in 1896. part of the State was reassigned to Kotah, and Kunwar Bhawan Singh, son of Thakur Chhatarsalji of Fatehpur, was selected by Government to be the Ruler of the new State. He was born in 1874 and was created a K.C.S.I. in 1908. He is assisted in administration by a Council, has established many useful institutions, and has done much to extend education in the State. Revenue 7 lakhs.

The Bikaner State in point of area is the 7th largest of all the Indian States and the second largest in Rajputana. The population of the State is 659,685 of whom 84 per cent. are Hindus, 11 per cent. Mohammedans and 1.5 per cent. Jains. The Capital City of Bikaner, with its population including the suburbs of 69,410, is the 3rd City in Rajputana.

The northern portion of the State consists of level loam land, whilst the remainder is for the most part sandy and undulating. The average rain-fall is about 12 inches. The water level over most of the State is from 150 feet to 300 feet deep.

The Reigning Family of Bikaner is of the Rathore clan of Rajputs, and the State was founded in 1465 A.D. by Rao Bikaji, son of Rao Jodhaji, Ruler of Marwar (Jodhpur), and after him both the Capital and the State are named. Rai Singhji, the first to receive the title of Rajah, was "one of Akbar's most distinguished Generals" and it was during his reign that the present Fort of Bikaner was built in 1593. The title of Maharajah was conferred on Rajah Anup Singhji by the Mughal Emperor in 1687 in recognition of his distinguished services in the capture of Golconda. The conspicuous services of Maharajah Sardar Singhji who in the Indian Mutiny of 1857 personally led his troops to co-operate with the British forces in the field on the outbreak of the Mutiny was acknowledged by the Government of India by the transfer of the Sub-Tehsil of Tibi, consisting of 41 villages, from the adjoining Sirsa Tehsil in the Punjab to the Bikaner State.

The present Ruler, Major-General His Highness Maharajah Dhiraj Raj Rajeshwar Narendra Shiromani Sri Sir Ganga Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., K.C.B., A.D.C., LL.D., is the 21st of a long line of distinguished rulers renowned for their bravery and statesmanship. He was born on the 3rd October 1880, and assumed full ruling powers in December, 1898. He was awarded the first class Kaiser-Hind Medal for the active part he took in relieving the famine of 1899-1900, and soon after

he went on active service to China in connection with the China War of 1900-1901 in command of his famous Ganga Risala and was mentioned in despatches and received the China Medal and K.C.I.E. The State Forces consist of the Camel Corps, known as 'Ganga Risala,' whose sanctioned strength is 465 strong, an Infantry Regiment 443 strong, a Regiment of Cavalry 342 strong, including Body Guard, a Battery of Artillery (6 guns), and Camel Battery 60. At the outbreak of the Great War in 1914, His Highness immediately placed the services of himself and his State forces and all the resources of the State at the disposal of His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor, and the Ganga Risala reinforced by the Infantry Regiment, which became incorporated in the Camel Corps in the field, rendered very valuable services in Egypt and Palestine. An extra force was also raised for internal security. His Highness personally went on active service in August 1914 and enjoys the honour of having fought both in France and Egypt, and thus has the distinction of having fought for the British Crown on three Continents, viz. Asia, Europe and Africa. He was mentioned in despatches both in Egypt and France. His Highness also played a very conspicuous political part during the period of the War when he went twice to Europe as the Representative of the Princes of India, once in 1917 to attend the meetings of the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference, and again in 1918-19 to attend the Peace Conference where he was one of the signatories to the treaty of Versailles.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 19 guns (personal) whilst the permanent local salute of the State is also 19. His Highness has also the honour of having been elected the first Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes in 1921, a post which he still fills.

His Highness is assisted in the administration of the State by the State Council consisting of 6 Members under the *Heir-Apparent* as Chief Minister and the President of Council. A Legislative Assembly was inaugurated in 1913, and consists of 45 Members, 15 out of whom are elected Members, and which meets twice a year.

The revenues of the State are over ninety lacs of rupees and the State owns a large Railway system, the total mileage being 563.48. Several projects for its extension are under contemplation, including the new scheme of railway line connecting Delhi with Sindh and running through the Bikaner and Jaisalmer States. At present there is practically no irrigation in the State, the crops depending wholly on the scanty rainfall; but the Sutlej Canal Project which is now under construction will irrigate annually 620,000 acres in the north and help to protect the State against the serious famines from which it has suffered in the past. Even larger expectations are held out from the Bhakra Dam Project from which it is hoped that the remaining level lands in the north of the State will be irrigated. A coal mine is worked at Palana, 14 miles south from the Capital.

Alwar State is a hilly tract of land in the East of Rajputana. Its Rulers belong to the Lalawat Naruka branch of Kahatrias, Solar Dynasty. This ruling family is descended from Raja Udai Karamji, who was the common ancestor of both Alwar and Jaipur. The State

was founded by Pratab Singh, who before his death in 1791 had secured possession of large territories. His successor sent a force to co-operate with Lord Lake in the war of 1803 and an alliance was concluded with him in that year. Disputes about successions mark the history of the State during the earlier part of the nineteenth century. The present chief, H. H. Veerendra Shiromani Dev Col. Shri Sewai Maharaja Sir Jey Singhji Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., who was born in 1882, succeeded his father in 1892 and was invested with powers in 1903. He carries on the administration with the assistance of four Ministers, Members of His Highness' Council and various heads of departments. The normal revenue and expenditure are about Rs. 40 lakhs a year. The State besides maintaining other forces, maintains also the Imperial Service Troops which His Highness the late Maharaja was the first prince in Rajputana to offer (in 1888) in the defence of the Empire. Alwar stood first in recruiting in Rajputana at the time of the Great War and enjoys a salute of 17 guns. The capital is Alwar on the Rajputana-Malwa Railway, 98 miles west of Delhi.

RAJPUTANA.

Agent to Governor-General—Vacant

UDAIPUR.

Resident—W. H. J. Wilkinson, C.I.E.

JAIPUR.

Resident—Lieut.-Col. G. H. Anderson.

EASTERN RAJPUTANA STATES.

Political Agent—Major W. G. Neale.

WESTERN RAJPUTANA STATES.

Resident—Lt.-Col. A. D. Macpherson.

HARAOOTI AND TONK.

Political Agent—Major R. I. Macnabb.

SOUTHERN RAJPUTANA STATE.

Political Agent—Major H. V. Biscoe.

CENTRAL INDIA AGENCY.

Central India is the name given to the country occupied by the Indian States grouped together under the supervision of the Political officer in charge of the Central India Agency. These States lie between 21° 24' and 26° 32' N. lat. and between 74° 0' and 83° 0' E. long. The British districts of Jhansi and Lalitpur divide the agency into two main divisions—Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand lying to the east, and Central India proper to the west. The total area covered is 51,505 square miles, and the population (1921) amounts to 59,97,023. The great majority of the people are Hindus. The principal States are seven in number—Indore, Bhopal, Rewa, Dhar, Jaora, Datia and Orcha of which two, Bhopal and Jaora, are Mahomedan and the rest are Hindu. Besides these there are a multitude of petty States held by their rulers under the immediate guarantee of the British Government, but having feudal relations with one or other of the larger States. The total number of States amounts to 153. For administrative purposes they are divided into the following groups: Baghelkhand Agency, 12 States (principal State, Rewa); Bhopal Agency, 19 States (principal State, Bhopal); Southern States Agency, 21 States (principal State, Dhar); Bundelkhand Agency, 22 States (principal States, Datia and Orcha); Indore Residency, 9 States (principal State, Indore); Malwa Agency, 38 States (principal State, Jaora). The Agency may be divided into three natural divisions, the plateau, low-lying, and hilly. The plateau tract includes the Malwa plateau, the Highland tract stretching from the great wall of the Vindhya to Marwar, the land of open rolling plains. The low-lying tract embraces Northern Gwalior and stretches across

into Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand up to the Kaimur Range. The hilly tract lies along the ranges of the Vindhya and the Satpuras. There agriculture is little practised, the inhabitants being mostly members of the wild tribes. The territories of the different States are much intermingled, and their political relations with the Government of India and each other are very varied. Eleven Chiefs have direct treaty engagements with the British Government.

The following list gives the approximate size, population and revenue of the eight principal States above mentioned:—

Name.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Revenue.
			lakhs. Rs.
Indore ..	9,519	11,51,578	125
Bhopal ..	6,902	6,92,448	53
Rewa ..	13,000	14,01,524	37
Dhar ..	1,777	2,30,333	13
Jaora ..	601	85,778	10
Datia ..	911	1,48,659	11
Orcha ..	2,079	2,84,948	10

Gwalior.—The house of Scindia traces its descent to a family of which one branch held the hereditary post of *patel* in a village near Satara. The head of the family received a *patel* of rank from Aurangzeb. The founder of the Gwalior House was Ranoji Scindia who held a

military rank under the Peshwa Baji Rao. In 1726 the Peshwa granted deeds to Puar, Holkar and Scindia, empowering them to levy "Chauth" and "Sardesmukhi" and retain half the amount for payment to their troops. In 1736 Ranoji Scindia accompanied Baji Rao to Delhi where he and Mulhar Rao Holkar distinguished themselves in military exploits. Ranoji fixed his headquarters at the ancient city of Ujjain, which for the time became the Capital of the Scindia dominions. During the time of Mahadji Scindia and Dowlat Rao Scindia Gwalior played an important part in shaping the history of India. Despite the partial reverses which Mahadji Scindia's troops suffered at the hands of the British in 1780, reverses which led to the treaty of Salbai (1782), Scindia's power remained unbroken. For the first time he was now recognized by the British as an independent sovereign and not as a vassal of the Peshwa.

In 1790 his power was firmly established in Delhi. While he was indulging ambitious hopes he fell a prey to fever which ended his remarkable career on 12th February, 1794. Himself a military genius, Mahadji Scindia's armies reached the zenith of their glory under the disciplined training of the celebrated French adventurer—De Boigne. Mahadji was succeeded by his grand-nephew Daulat Rao in whose service Perron, a Military Commander of great renown played a leading part. The strength of Scindia's Army was, however, considerably weakened by the reverses, sustained at Ahmednagar, Assaye, Asirgarh and Laswari. Daulat Rao Scindia died in 1827. Till his death he remained in undisputed possession of almost all the territory which belonged to him in 1805.

Daulat Rao was succeeded by Jankoji Rao who passed away in the prime of life. On his demise in 1843 intrigue and party spirit were rampant and the Army was in a state of mutiny with the result that it came into collision with the British forces at Maharajpore and Pannihar.

Jankoji Rao was succeeded by Jaji Rao, whose adherence to the British cause during the dark days of Mutiny, when his own troops deserted him, was unshakable. In 1861 he was created a Knight Grand Commander of the Most Exalted Order of the Star of India and in 1877 was made a Councillor of the Empress. Subsequently he received other titles and entered into treaties of mutual exchange of territories with the British Government. He died on the 20th June 1886 and was succeeded by his son Maharaja Madho Rao Scindia.

The present ruler is Lieutenant-General H. H. Maharaja Sir Madho Rao Scindia, Alijha Bahadur, G.C.V.O., G.C.S.I., G.B.E., A.D.C. to the King. He succeeded in 1886 and obtained powers in 1894. In 1901 he went to China during the war; he holds the rank of honorary Lieutenant-General of the British Army and the honorary degrees of LL.D., Cambridge, and D.C.L., Oxon. He is also a Donat of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England. The ruler of the State enjoys a salute of 21 guns. The State is in direct relations with the Government of India. The State administration is controlled by the Maharaja assisted by nine members of the Majlis-i-khas with portfolios.

The northern part of the State is traversed by the G.I.P. Railway and two branches run from Bhopal to Ujjain and from Bina to Baran. The

Gwalior Light Railway runs for 250 miles from Gwalior to Bhind, from Gwalior to Sheopur and from Gwalior to Shivpuri. The main industries are cotton ginning, which is done all over the State; fine muslins made at Chanderi, leather work, etc. The State maintains three regiments of Imperial Service Cavalry, two battalions of Imperial Service Infantry and a transport corps. Lashkar, the Capital city, is two miles to the south of the ancient city and the fort of Gwalior. Annual income about 2 crores and expenditure about 175 lakhs.

Indore.—The founder of the House of the Holkars of Indore was Malhar Rao Holkar, born in 1693. His soldierly qualities brought him to the front under the Peshwa, who took him into his service and employed him for his conquests. When the Maratha power was weakened at the battle of Panipat in 1761, Malhar Rao had acquired territories stretching from the Deccan to the Ganges as a reward for his career as a military commander. He was succeeded by his grandson. On his death without issue his mother Ahilya Bai became the Ruler and her administration is still looked upon with admiration and reverence as that of a model ruler. She was succeeded by Tukoji Holkar who indeed had been associated with her to carry the military administration and had in the course of it, distinguished himself in various battles. Tukoji was succeeded by Kashi Rao, who was supplanted by Jeswant Rao, his step brother, a person of remarkable daring and strategy as exhibited in a number of engagements in which he had taken part. The brilliant success he obtained at the battle of Poona against the combined armies of Peshwa and Scindia made him a dictator of Poona for some time and he declared in consequence the independence of Holkar State. During 1804-5 he had a protracted war with the British, closed by a Treaty which recognised the independence of Holkar State with practically no diminution of its territories and rights. Jaswant Rao showed signs of insanity from 1808 onwards and succumbed to that malady in 1811, when he was succeeded by his minor son Malhar Rao II. During the Regency which followed, the power of the State was weakened by various causes, the most important of which was the refractory conduct of the Military Commanders. On the outbreak of the war between the English and the Peshwa in 1817, some of these commanders, with a part of the army, rebelled against the authority of the State and were disposed to befriend the Peshwa, while the Regent, mother and her Ministers were for friendship with the British. There was a battle between the British Army and this refractory portion of the Holkar Army which culminated in the latter's defeat. Holkar had to come to terms and to cede extensive territories and rights over the Rajput Princes to the British, but the internal sovereignty remained unaffected. The Treaty of 1818 which embodied these provisions still regulates the relations between the British Government and the State.

Malhar Rao was well served by his able Minister Tatya Jog. He died a premature death in 1833. Then followed the weak administration of Hari Rao and his son. In 1844 Tukoji Rao II ascended the throne; but as he was a minor, the administration was carried on by

a Regency which was fortunate in having Sir Robert Hamilton, the Resident as its Adviser. The prosperity of the State revived a great deal during this administration and the progress was maintained after the Maharaja assumed powers in 1852. It was interrupted by the outbreak of Mutiny in 1857 in British India. This wave of disaffection did not leave some of the State troops untouched. The Maharaja with his adherents and the remaining troops remained however staunch to the British and gave every possible assistance to the British authorities at Indore, Mhow and other places, which was recognised by the British Government. The Maharaja died in 1886 after having effected various reforms in the administration and raised the position of the State to a high degree of prosperity and honour. He was succeeded by Shivaji Rao who reigned for 16 years and will be specially remembered for his beneficent measures in matters of education, sanitation, medical relief and abolition of transit duties. The present Maharaja succeeded in 1903 while yet a minor. The Regency Administration continued till 1911 and it deserves credit for a number of reforms effected in all the branches of administration. The policy of the Regency has been maintained by the Maharaja and since his assumption of powers the State has advanced in education in general including female education, commerce and industrial developments, municipal franchise and other representative institutions. This prosperity is specially reflected in the Indore city the population of which has risen by 40 per cent. The city has a first grade College, 3 High Schools and 1 Sanskrit College, with a number of other Medical and Educational institutions. It has also 7 Spinning and Weaving Mills with two more nearing completion and a number of factories.

During the War of 1914 the Maharaja placed all his resources at the disposal of the British Government. His troops took part in the various theatres of war and the contribution of the State towards the War and Charitable Funds in money was 41 lakhs and its subscriptions to the War Loans amounted to Rs. 82 lakhs, while the contributions from the Indore people amounted to over one crore. This assistance received the recognition of the British Government. In the administration His Highness is assisted by his Prime Minister and a Council. The State Army consists of about 3,000 officers and men. The State is traversed by the Holkar State Railway the principal Station of which is Indore, R. M. Railway and B. B. & C. I. Railway and the U. B. Section of the G. I. P. Railway. Besides the trunk roads, there are 600 miles of roads constructed and maintained by the State.

The chief imports are:—Cloth, Machinery, Coal, Sugar, Salt, Metal and Kerosine Oil. The chief exports are:—Cotton, Cloth, Tobacco and Cereals.

The area of the State is 9,520 square miles with a revenue of about one crore and twenty-five lakhs.

His Highness is a keen sportsman and has travelled extensively in India and Europe. He has one son Prince Yeshwant Rao Holkar and two daughters.

Bhopal.—The principal Mussalman State in Central India ranks next in importance to

Hyderabad among the Muhammadan States of India. The ruling family was founded by Dost Mohammed Khan, a Tirah Afghan. He was granted a *Sanad* of Balraia and Nazirabad *Pargannahs* in recognition of his meritorious services to the Emperor of Delhi. With the disintegration of the Mogul Empire Bhopal State developed into an independent State. In the early part of the 19th century, the Nawab successfully withstood the inroads of Scindia and Bhonsla and by the agreement of 1817 Bhopal undertook to assist the British with a contingent force and to co-operate against the Pindari bands.

The present ruler of the State, Her Highness Nawab Sultan Jahan Begum, C.I., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., is the third in the successive line of lady-rulers, who have ruled the destinies of the State with marked ability. Having succeeded in 1901, she personally conducts, and has introduced a number of reforms in the administration of her State. The names of members of Her Highness' State Council are given below in order of precedence:—

1. Khan Bahadur Mulvi Mohammed Matinuzzaman Khan, B.A., F.S.S., Member, Revenue Department.

2. Dabirulmulk Khan Bahadur Sir Israr Hasan Khan, Kt., C.I.E., Member, Home Department.

3. Rai Bahadur Munshi Oudh Narain Biseriya, B.A., Member, Council Affairs and Education Department.

Her Highness has kept the Political Department under her direct control. The Secretary in charge of the Department is Kazi Ali Haider Abbasi. Along with other Troops, the State maintains one full strength Pioneer Battalion for Imperial Service. The Capital, Bhopal city, situated on the Northern bank of an extensive lake is the junction for the Bhopal Ujjain section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

Rewa.—This State lies in the Baghelkhand Agency, and falls into two natural divisions separated by the scarp of the Kaimur range. The area is 13,000 sq. miles with a population of 14 lakhs. Its Chiefs are Baghel Rajputs descended from the Solanki clan which ruled over Gujarat from the tenth to the thirteenth century. In 1812, a body of Pindaries raided Mirzapur from Rewa territory and the Prince, who had previously rejected overtures for an alliance, was called upon to accede to a treaty acknowledging the protection of the British Government. During the Mutiny, Rewa offered troops to the British, and for his services then, various parganas, which had been seized by the Marathas, were restored to the Rewa Chief. The present chief is H. H. Maharaja Gulab Singhji Bahadur who was born in 1903. He was married in 1919 to the sister of His Highness the Maharaja of Jodhpur. Upon the death of his father Col. H. H. Maharaja Sir Venkat Raman Singh Bahadur, on 30th October, 1918, H. H. Maharaja Gulab Singh Bahadur succeeded to the gaddi on 31st October, as a minor. During the period of minority the State was administered by a Council of Regency with H. H. Maharaja Sir Sajjan Singh Bahadur Colonel, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C., of Rutlam as

Regent. H. H. Maharaja Gulab Singh Bahadur attained majority in 1922 and was invested with full ruling power on 31st October, 1922, by H. E. the Viceroy and the administration of the State is now carried on by him with the aid of four Commissioners.

Dhar.—This State, under the Agency for Southern States in Central India, takes its name from the old city of Dhar, long famous as the capital of the Paramara Rajputs, who ruled over Malwa from ninth to the thirteenth century and from whom the present chiefs of Dhar—Powar Marathas—claim descent. In the middle of the 18th century the Chief of Dhar, Anand Rao, was one of the leading chiefs of Central India, sharing with Holkar and Scindia the rule of Malwa. But in 1819, when a treaty was made with the British, the State had become so reduced that it consisted of little more than the capital. The ruler is Major H. H. Maharaja Sir Udaji Rao Powar, Sahib Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., K.B.E., who was born in 1886, and has control of all civil, criminal, and all administrative matters. There are 22 feudatories, of whom 13 hold a guarantee from the British Government. The average expenditure is about 18 lakhs. Rao Bahadur K. Nadkar is Dewan of the State.

Jaora State.—This State is in the Malwa Agency covering an area of about 600 square miles with a total population of 85,817, and has its headquarters at Jaora town. The Chiefs of Jaora claim descent from Abdul Majid Khan, an Afghan of the Tajik Khel, from Swat, who came to India to acquire wealth. The first Nawab was Ghafur Khan who obtained the State about the year 1808. The present chief is Lt.-Colonel H. H. Fakhrud-dowlah, Nawab Sir Mahomed Itikhar Ali Khan Sahib Bahadur Saulat Jang, K.C.I.E., who was born in 1883 and is an Honorary Lt.-Colonel in the Indian Army. The administration is at present controlled by a Council of State of which His Highness the Nawab is the President. Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Mohammad Sarfraz Ali Khan is the Officiating Chief Secretary to His Highness and Vice-President of the State Council. The Council is constituted of a President, a Vice-President and six other members whose names are (1) Pandit Amar Nath Katju, B. Sc., LL.B. (Revenue Secretary); (2) Munshi Ram Dayal (Financial Secretary); (3) Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Mohammad Sher Ali Khan (Military Secretary); (4) Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Mohammad Sarfraz Ali Khan (Home Secretary); (5) Sahibzada Mohammad Mohbub Ali Khan (Private Secretary) and (6) Sahibzada Saifur Ali Khan (Council Secretary). The soil of the State is among the richest in Malwa, being mainly of the best black cotton variety bearing excellent crops of poppy. The average annual revenue is Rs. 10 lakhs.

Rutlam.—Is the premier Rajput State in the Malwa Agency. It covers an area of 871 square miles, including that of the Jagir of Khara in the Kushalgarh Chiefship, which pays an annual tribute to the Rutlam Darbar. The State was founded by Raja Ratan Singhji, a great grandson of Raja Udai Singh of Jodhpur, in 1652. The Ruler of Rutlam is the religious head of the Rajputs of Malwa, and important caste questions are referred to him for decision. The

State enjoys full and final civil and criminal powers. The present Ruler of Rutlam is Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Sajjan Singh, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C. to H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, who was born in 1880, educated at Daly College, Indore, received military training in Imperial Cadet Corps and invested with full powers in 1898. His Highness served in the war in France and Egypt from 1915 to 1918, was mentioned in despatches and received the Croix d'Officiers de legion d'Honneur. He is also Regent of Rewa State. Salute: 13 guns, local 15 guns.

Dewan.—Raj Bahadur B. N. Zutshi, O.B.E., B.A., LL.B.

Datia State.—The rulers of this State, in the Bundelkhand Agency, are Bundela Rajputs of the Orchha house. The territory was granted by the chief of Orchha to his son Bhagwan Rao in 1626, and this was extended by conquest and by grants from the Delhi emperors. The present ruler is H. H. Maharaja Lokendra Sir Govind Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I., who was born in 1886 and succeeded in 1907. H. H. enjoys a salute of 15 guns. The heir-apparent, Raja Bahadur Balbhadr Singh (b 1907), is being educated at the Mayo College, Ajmere, and has married a daughter of the Maharaja Bahadur of Balrampur.

Orchha State.—The rulers of this State are Bundela Rajputs claiming to be descendants of the Gaharwars of Benares. It was founded as an independent State in 1048 A.D. It entered into relations with the British by the treaty made in 1812. The present ruler is His Highness Sir Pratap Singh, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., who was born in 1854. He has the hereditary titles of His Highness Saramad-i-rajhal-Bundelkhand Maharaja Mahendra Sawai Bahadur. The present chief enjoys a salute of 17 guns. The State has a population of about 330,032 and an area of 2,080 square miles. The capital is Tikamgarh, 36 miles from Lalitpur Station, on the G.I.P. Railway. Orchha, the old capital, has fallen into decay but is a place of interest on account of its magnificent buildings of which the finest were erected by Maharaj Bir Singh Deo, the most famous ruler of the State (1605-1627).

GWALIOR.

Resident.—L. M. Crump, C.I.E.

BHOPAL.

Political Agent.—A. R. Jeff.

BUNDELKHAND.

Political Agent.—Major D. G. Wilson.

BAGHELKHAND.

Political Agent.—J. A. O. Fitzpatrick, C.I.E., C.B.E.

Sikkim.

Sikkim is bounded on the north and north-east by Tibet, on the south-east by Bhutan, on the south by the British district of Darjeeling, and on the west by Nepal. The population consists of Bhutias, Lepchas, and Nepalese. It forms the direct route to the Chumbi Valley in Tibet. The main axis of the Himalayas, which runs east and west, forms the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet. The Singalila and Chola ranges, which run southwards from the main chain, separate Sikkim from Nepal on the

west, and from Tibet and Bhutan on the east. On the Singalila range rise the great snow peaks of Kinchinjunga (23,146 feet), one of the highest mountains in the world. The Chola range which is much loftier than that of Singalila, leaves the main chain at the Dongkya La.

Tradition says that the ancestors of the Rajas of Sikkim originally came from eastern Tibet. The State was twice invaded by the Gurkhas at the end of the eighteenth century. On the outbreak of the Nepal War in 1814, the British formed an alliance with the Raja of Sikkim and at the close of the war the Raja was rewarded by a considerable cession of territory. In 1835 the Raja granted the site of Darjeeling to the British and received Rs. 12,000 annually in lieu of it. The State was previously under the Government of Bengal, but was brought under the direct supervision of the Government of India in 1906. The State is thinly populated, the area being 2,818 square miles, and the population 81,721, chiefly Buddhists and Hindus. The most important crops are maize and rice. There are several trade routes through Sikkim from Darjeeling District into Tibet. In the convention of 1890 provision was made for the opening of a trade mart but the results were disappointing, and the failure of the Tibetans to fulfil their obligations resulted in 1904 in the despatch of a mission to Lhasa, where a new convention was signed. Trade with the British has increased in recent years, and is now between 40 and 50 lakhs yearly. A number of good roads have been constructed in recent years. The present ruler, His Highness Maharajah Sir Tashi Namgyal, K.C.I.E., was born in 1893 and succeeded in 1914. His Highness was invested with full ruling powers on the 5th April 1918. The title of a C.I.E. was conferred upon the Maharaja on the 1st January 1918 and K.C.I.E. on 1st January 1923. The average revenue is Rs. 4,02,422.

Political Officer in Sikkim.—Major F. M. Bailey, C.I.E.

Bhutan.

Bhutan extends for a distance of approximately 190 miles east and west along the southern slopes of the central axis of the Himalayas, adjacent to the northern border of Eastern Bengal and Assam. Its area is 18,000 square miles and its population, consisting of Buddhists and Hindus, has been estimated at 300,000. The country formerly belonged to a tribe called Tok-pa, but was wrested from them by some Tibetan soldiers about the middle of the seventeenth century. British relations with Bhutan commenced in 1772 when the Bhutias invaded the principality of Cooch Behar and British aid was invoked by that State. After a number of raids by the Bhutanese into Assam, an envoy (the Hon. A. Eden) was sent to Bhutan, who was grossly insulted and compelled to sign a treaty surrendering the Duars to Bhutan. On his return the treaty was disallowed and the Duars annexed. This was followed by the treaty of 1865, by which the State's relations with the Government of India were satisfactorily regulated. The State formerly received an allowance of half a lakh a year from the British Government in consideration of the cession in 1865 of some areas on the southern borders. This

allowance was doubled by a new treaty concluded in January 1910, by which the Bhutanese Government bound itself to be guided by the advice of the British Government in regard to its external relations, while the British Government undertook to exercise no interference in the internal administration of Bhutan. On the occasion of the Tibet Mission of 1904, the Bhutias gave strong proof of their friendly attitude. Not only did they consent to the survey of a road through their country to Chumbi, but their ruler, the Tongsa Penlop accompanied the British troops to Lhasa, and assisted in the negotiations with the Tibetan authorities. For these services he was made a K.C.I.E., and he has since entertained the British Agent hospitably at his capital. The ruler is now known as H.H. the Maharaja of Bhutan, Sir Ugyen Wangchuk, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E. At the head of the Bhutan Government, there are nominally two supreme authorities; the Dharma Raja, known as Shapting Renpoiche, the spiritual head; and the Deb or Depa Raja, the temporal ruler. The Dharma Raja is regarded as a very high incarnation of Buddha, far higher than the ordinary incarnations in Tibet, of which there are several hundreds. On the death of a Dharma Raja a year or two is allowed to elapse, and his reincarnation then takes place, always in the Choje, or royal family of Bhutan.

Cultivation is backward and the chief crop is maize. The military force consists of local levies under the control of the different chiefs. They are of no military value.

Nepal.

The kingdom of Nepal is a narrow tract of country extending for about 520 miles along the southern slope of the central axis of the Himalayas. It has an area of about 54,000 square miles, with a population of about 5,000,000, chiefly Hindus. The greater part of the country is mountainous, the lower slopes being cultivated. Above these is a rugged broken wall of rock leading up to the chain of snow-clad peaks which culminate in Mount Everest (29,002 feet) and others of slightly less altitude. The country before the Gurkha occupation was split up into several small kingdoms under Newar kings. The Gurkhas under Prithvi Narayan Shah overran and conquered the different kingdoms of Patan, Kathmandu, and Bhaktgaon, and other places during the latter half of the 18th century and since then have been rulers of the whole of Nepal. In 1848 the head of the Rana family obtained from the sovereign the perpetual right to the office of Prime Minister of Nepal, and the right is still enjoyed by his descendant. In 1850 Jung Bahadur paid a visit to England and was thus the first Hindu Chief to leave India and to become acquainted with the power and resources of the British nation. The relations of Nepal with the Government of India are regulated by the treaty of 1816 and subsequent agreements by which a representative of the British Government is received at Kathmandu. By virtue of the same treaty Nepal maintains a Representative at Delhi and her treaty relations with Tibet allow her to keep a Resident at Lhasa of her own. Her relation with China is of a friendly nature. Ever since the conclusion of the treaty of 1816 the friendly relations with the

British Government have steadily been maintained and during the rule of the present Prime Minister it has been at its height as is evidenced by the valuable friendly help in men and money which has been given and which was appreciatively mentioned in both the Houses of Parliament and by Mr. Asquith in his Guildhall speech in 1915. The message from His Majesty the King Emperor to the Nepalese Prime Minister sent on the termination of hostilities and published at the time as also the Viceroy's valedictory address to the Nepalese contingent on the eve of their return home after having laudably fulfilled their mission in India eloquently and gratefully acknowledged the valuable help rendered by Nepal during the four and a half years of war. To further strengthen and cement the bonds of friendship that have subsisted so long between the two countries, the present Prime Minister and Marshal signed a new Treaty of friendship concluded between the Governments of Nepal and Great Britain on the 21st December 1923.

From the foregoing account of the history of Nepal it will be seen that the Government of the country has generally been in the hands of the Minister of the day. Since the time of Jung Bahadur this system of government has been clearly laid down and defined. The sovereign, or Maharajadhiraja, as he is called, is but a dignified figure-head, whose position can best be likened to that of the Emperor of Japan during the Shogunate. The present King, His

Majesty Maharajadhiraja Tribhubana Bir Bikram Jung Bahadur Shum Shere Jung, ascended the throne on the death of his father in 1911. The real ruler of the country is the Minister who, while enjoying complete monopoly of power, couples with his official rank the exalted title of Maharaja. Next to him comes the Commander-in-Chief, who ordinarily succeeds to the office of Minister.

The present Minister at the head of affairs of Nepal is Maharaja Sir Chandra Shum Shere Jung Bahadur Rana, G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., D.C.L. Thong-lin-pimma-Kokang-wang-Syan (Highest honour in the Chinese military order) and Honorary General in the British Army and Hon. Colonel of the 4th Gurkha Rifles. He has been Prime Minister and Marshal of Nepal since June, 1901.

Rice, wheat and maize form the chief crops in the low lands. Mineral wealth is supposed to be great, but, like other sources of revenue, has not been developed. Communications in the State are primitive. The revenue is about two crores of rupees per annum. The standing army is estimated at 45,000, the high posts in it being filled by relations of the Minister. The State is of considerable archaeological interest and many of the sites connected with scenes of Buddha's life have been identified in it by the remains of inscribed pillars.

British Envoy—(Offg.) W. H. J. Wilkinson, C.I.E., C.V.O.

NORTH-WEST FRONTIER STATES.

The Indian states of the North-West Frontier Provinces are Amb, Chitral, Dir and Phulera. The total area is about 7,704 square miles and the population, mainly Mahomedan, is 1,622,094. The average annual revenue of the first three is about Rs. 4,65,000, that of Phulera is unknown.

Amb.—Is only a village on the western Bank of the Indus in Independent Tanawala.

Chitral.—Runs from Dir to the south of the Hindu-Kush range in the north, and has an area of about 4,500 square miles. The ruling dynasty has maintained itself for more than three hundred years, during the greater part of which the State has constantly been at war with its neighbours. It was visited in 1885 by the Lockhart Mission, and in 1889, on the establishment of a political agency in Gilgit, the ruler of Chitral received an annual subsidy from the British Government. That subsidy was increased two years later on condition that the ruler, Anam-ul-Mulk, accepted the advice of the British Government in all matters connected with foreign policy and frontier defence. His sudden death in 1892 was followed by a dispute as to the succession. The eldest son Nizam-ul-Mulk was recognised by Government, but he was murdered in 1895.

A war was declared by Umra-khan of Jandul and Dir against the infidels and the Agent at Gilgit, who had been sent to Chitral to report on the situation, was besieged with his escort and a force had to be despatched (April 1895) to their relief.

The three valleys of which the State consists are extremely fertile and continuously cultivated. The internal administration of the country is conducted by His Highness Sir Shujaul-mulk, K.C.I.E., the Mehtar of Chitral, and the foreign policy is regulated by the Political Agent at Malakand.

Dir.—The territories of this State, about 5,000 square miles in area, include the country drained by the Panjkora and its affluents down to the junction of the former river with the Bajaur Kud. The Nawab of Dir is the overlord of the country, exacting allegiance from the petty chiefs of the clans. Dir is mainly held by Yusufzal Pathans, the old non-Pathan inhabitants being now confined to the upper portion of the Panjkora Valley known as the Bashkar.

Political Agent for Dir, Swat and Chitral: Lieut.-Colonel H. Stewart, C.I.E.

STATES IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

The Madras Presidency includes 5 Indian States covering an area of 10,087 square miles. Of these the States of Travancore and

Cochin represent ancient Hindu dynasties. Pudukkottai is the inheritance of the chieftain called the Tondimman. Banganapalle and Sandur,

two petty States, of which the first is ruled by a Nawab, lie in the centre of two British districts.

Name.	Area sq. miles.	Population.	Estimated Gross Revenue in lakhs of rupees.
Travancore ..	7,625	4,006,062	200.79
Cochin ..	1,417½	979,019	70.61
Pudukkottai ..	1,179	426,813	24.60
Banganapalle ..	255	36,692	3.70
Sandur ..	167	11,684	1.45

These States were brought into direct relation with the Government of India on October 1st, 1923.

Travancore.—This State occupies the south-west portion of the Indian Peninsula, forming an irregular triangle with its apex at Cape Comorin. The early history of Travancore is in great part traditional; but there is little doubt that H. H. the Maharaja is the representative of the Chera dynasty, one of the three great Hindu dynasties which exercised sovereignty at one time in Southern India. The petty chiefs, who had subsequently set up as independent rulers within the State, were all subdued, and the whole country, included within its present boundaries, was consolidated and brought under one rule, by the Maharaja Marthanda Varma (1729-58). The English first settled at Anjengo, a few miles to the north of Trivandrum, and built a factory there in 1684. In the wars in which the East India Company were engaged in Madras and Tinnevely, in the middle of the 18th century, the Travancore State gave assistance to the British authorities. Travancore was reckoned as one of the staunchest allies of the British Power and was accordingly included in the Treaty made in 1784 between the East India Company and the Sultan of Mysore. To protect the State from possible inroads by Tippu, an arrangement was come to in 1788 with the East India Company, and in 1795 a formal treaty was concluded, by which the Company agreed to protect Travancore from all foreign enemies. In 1805 the annual subsidy to be paid by Travancore was fixed at 8 lakhs of rupees.

Hon. Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Rama Varma, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., who was born in 1857 and ascended the masnad in 1885, died in August 1924. The Government is conducted by a Regent. The work of legislation is entrusted to a Council brought into existence in 1888 and now containing a majority of non-official elected members. The Council is invested with the powers of voting on the budget, moving resolutions and asking questions including supplementary questions. Women are placed on a footing of complete equality with men in the matter of both electorship and membership. This is the largest measure of constitutional reform introduced in any Indian State. A representative assembly known as the Sri Mulam Popular Assembly meets once a year. Its members who are the elected representatives of the people are given an opportunity to express direct to the Dewan their wants and wishes and their views regarding

the administrative measures adopted from time to time. The State supports a military force of 1,473 men. Education has advanced considerably in recent years and the State takes a leading place in that respect. The principal food-grain grown is rice, but the main source of agricultural wealth is the coconut. Other crops are pepper, areca-nut, jack-fruit and tapioca. Cotton weaving and the making of matting from the coir are among the chief industries. The State is well provided with roads, and with a natural system of back-waters, besides canals and rivers navigable for country crafts. One line of railway about one hundred miles in length cuts across the State from east to west and then runs along the Coast through Travancore territory. More railway lines are in contemplation. The capital is Trivandrum.

Political Agent: C. W. E. Cotton, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Dewan: Dewan Bahadur T. Raghaviah, C.S.I.

Cochin.—This State on the south-west coast of India is bounded by the Malabar District of the Madras Presidency and the State of Travancore. Very little is known of its early history. According to tradition, the Rajas of Cochin hold the territory in right of descent from Cheraman Perumal, who governed the whole country of Kerala, including Travancore and Malabar, as Viceroy of the Chola Kings about the beginning of the ninth century, and afterwards established himself as an independent Ruler. In 1502, the Portuguese were allowed to settle in what is now British Cochin and in the following year they built a fort and established commercial relations in the State. In the earlier wars with the Zamorin of Calicut, they assisted the Rajas of Cochin. The influence of the Portuguese on the west coast began to decline about the latter part of the seventeenth century, and in 1663 they were ousted from the town of Cochin by the Dutch with whom the Raja entered into friendly relations. About a century later, in 1759, when the Dutch power began to decline, the Raja was attacked by the Zamorin of Calicut, who was expelled with the assistance of the Raja of Travancore. In 1776, the State was conquered by Hyder Ali, to whom it remained tributary and subordinate, and subsequently to his son, Tippu Sultan. A treaty was concluded in 1791 between the Raja and the East India Company, by which His Highness agreed to become tributary to the British Government for his territories which were then in the possession of Tippu, and to pay a subsidy.

His Highness Raja Sri Sir Rama Varmah, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., who was born in 1852, and who ascended the Masnad in 1895, having abdicated in December, 1914, His Highness Sri Sir Rama Varmah, G.C.I.E., who was born on 6th October, 1858, succeeded to the throne and was duly installed as Raja on the 21st January 1915. The administration is conducted under the control of the Maharaja whose chief Minister and Executive Officer is the Dewan, Rao Bahadur P. Narayana Menon, I.S.O. The forests of Cochin form one of its most valuable assets. They abound in teak, ebony, blackwood, and other valuable trees. Rice forms the staple of cultivation. Coconuts are largely raised in the sandy tracts, and their products form the chief exports of the State.

Communications by road and back-waters are good, and the State owns a line of railway from Shoranore to Ernakulam, the capital of the State, and a Forest Steam Tramway used in developing the forests. The State supports a force of 25 officers and 250 men.

Political Agent: C. W. E. Cotton, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Pudukkottai.—This State is bounded on the north and west by Trichinopoly, on the south by Ramnad and on the east by Tanjore. In early times a part of the State belonged to the Chola Kings and the southern part to the Pandya Kings of Madura. Relations with the English began during the Carnatic wars. During the siege of Trichinopoly by the French in 1752, the Tondiman of the time did good service to the Company's cause by sending them provisions, although his own country was on at least one occasion ravaged as a consequence of his fidelity to the English. In 1756 he sent some of his troops to assist Muhammad Yusuf, the Company's sepoy commandant, in settling the Madura and Tinnevely countries. Subsequently he was of much service in the wars with Haidar Ali. His services were rewarded by a grant of territory subject to the conditions that the district should not be alienated (1806). Apart from that there is no treaty or arrangement with the Raja. The present ruler is His Highness Sri Brihadamba Das, Sir Marthanda Bhairava Tondiman Bahadur, G.C.I.E., who is eighth in descent from the founder of the family. He succeeded in 1886. The Collector of Trichinopoly is ex-officio Assistant Agent to the Governor-General for Pudukkottai. The administration of the State, under the Raja, is entrusted to a Regent. The various departments are constituted on the British India model. The principal food crop is rice. The forests, which cover about one-seventh of the State, contain only small timber. There are no large industries. The State is well provided with roads, but Pudukkottai is the only municipal town in the State.

Assistant Agent to the Governor-General: P. Macqueen, I.O.S.

Banganapalle.—This is a small State in two detached portions which in the eighteenth century passed from Hyderabad to Mysore and back again to Hyderabad. The control over it

was ceded to the Madras Government by the Nizam in 1800. The present ruler is Nawab Meer Faez Ali Khan Bahadur. The chief food-grain is cholam. The Nawab pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The revenue of the State is over 3 lakhs. The Nawab enjoys a salute of 3 guns.

Agent to the Governor-General: C.W.E. Cotton, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Sandur.—The State is almost surrounded by the District of Bellary, the Collector of which is the Assistant to the Governor-General Agent. After the destruction of the Empire of Vijayanagar in 1565 the State came to be held by semi-independent chiefs under the nominal sovereignty of the Sultan of Bijapur and in 1728 one of these chiefs, a Poligar of Bedar tribe, was turned out by an ancestor of the present Raja named Siddoji Rao of the Bhosle family of the famous Maharatta Chief Sivaji; they were Senapathies of Sivaji. In Siva Rao's time the State came under the Madras Government and his heirs in perpetuity with full powers, Civil and Criminal. In 1876 the title of Raja was conferred on the Chief as a hereditary distinction. The present Ruler is Raja Srimanth Venkata Rao Rao Saheb. He was born in 1892. He married Rani Srimanth Tara Rajee, sister of the late Raja of Alakot, in the Bombay Presidency. The State is administered by the Raja and the Dewan (Meharban T. Ramachandra Ayyar). The Raja pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The most important staple crop is cholam. Teak and sandalwood are found in small quantities in the forests.

The minerals of the State possess unusual interest. The hematites found in it are probably the richest ever in India. An outcrop near the southern boundary forms the crest of a ridge 150 feet in height, which apparently consists entirely of pure steel grey crystalline hematite (specular iron) of intense hardness. Some of the softer ores used to be smelted, but the industry has been killed by the cheaper English iron. Manganese deposits have also been found in three places, and during 1911 to 1914 over 223,000 tons of manganese ore were transported by one company.

Assistant Agent to the Governor-General: A. G. Duff, I.C.S.

STATES OF WESTERN INDIA.

Owing to the large number of States concerned and the interlacing of their territories with neighbouring British districts, the transfer of States under the Bombay Government to direct political relations with the Government of India (which was advocated in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report on the Constitutional Reform) had been delayed. The first stage of that process, however, was carried out in October, 1924, when a new Residency was created in direct relation with the Government of India comprising the whole of the compact area making up the Kathiawar, Cutch and Palanpur Agencies under the Government of Bombay.

Resident of the First Class and Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India:—C. C. Watson, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Judicial Commissioner in the States of Western India:—J. Murphy, I.C.S.

Kathiawar Agency.—Kathiawar is the peninsula or western portion of the Province of Gujarat, Bombay. Its extreme length is about 220 miles and its greatest breadth about 165 miles, the area being 23,445 square miles. Of this total about 20,882 square miles with a population of 2,542,535 is the territory forming the Agency formerly subordinate to the

Government of Bombay, established in 1822, having under its control nearly 200 separate States whose chiefs divided amongst themselves the greater portion of the peninsula. The Kathiawar Agency was divided for administrative purposes into two divisions, Western and Eastern Kathiawar States (four prants)—Jhalawar, Halar, Sorath and Gohliwar—and the States have since 1863 been arranged in seven classes.

Bhavnagar.—This State lies at the head and west side of the Gulf of Cambay. The Gohel Rajputs, to which tribe the Ruler of Bhavnagar belongs, are said to have settled in the country about the year 1260, under Sajakji from whose three sons—Ranoji, Saranji and Shahji—are descended respectively the chiefs of Bhavnagar, Lathi and Palitana. An intimate connexion was formed between the Bombay Government and Bhavnagar in the eighteenth century when the chief of that State took pains to destroy the pirates which infested the neighbouring seas. The State was split up when Gujarat and Kathiawar were divided between the Peshwa and the Gaekwar; but the various claims over Bhavnagar were consolidated in the hands of the British Government in 1807. The State pays an annual tribute of Rs. 1,28,060 to the British Government, Rs. 3,581-8-0 as Peshkashi to Baroda, and Rs. 22,838 as Zortalli to Junagadh. During the minority of His Highness the Minor Maharaja Krishna Kumarsinhji who succeeded to the *gadi* on the death of his father, Maharaja Sir Bhavsinhji, K.C.S.I., on 17th July 1919, the administration of the State has been entrusted to a Council of Administration. The Council consists of Sir Prabhashankar D. Pattani, K.C.I.E., as President, and Major R.C. Burke as Vice-President. The other members of the Council are Rao Bahadur T.K. Trivedi and Mr. S. A. Goghwala, M.A., LL.B., Bar-at-law. One noteworthy feature in the administration is the complete separation of judicial from executive functions and the decentralisation of authority is another. The authority and powers of all the Heads of Departments have been clearly defined, and each within his own sphere is independent of the others, being directly responsible to the Council.

The chief products of the State are grain, cotton, sugar-cane and salt. The chief manufactures are oil, copper and brass vessels and cloth. The Bhavnagar State Railway is 280 miles in length. The capital of the State is the town and port of Bhavnagar, which has a good and safe harbour for shipping and carries on an extensive trade as one of the principal markets and harbours of export for cotton in Kathiawar. Bhavnagar supports 268 State Lancers and 222 State Infantry.

Population (in 1921) was 426,404 of whom 86 per cent. were Hindus and 8 per cent. Mahomedans. The average income for the last five years was Rs. 68,43,008 and the average expenditure Rs. 58,18,790.

Dhrangadhra State is a State of the First Class in Kathiawar with a population of nearly one lakh and an area of 1,167 square miles exclusive of the Dhrangadhra portion of the Runn of Kutch. The ruler of Dhrangadhra is the head of the Jhala family of Rajputs.

originally called the Makvanas. This Rajput clan is of great antiquity having migrated to Kathiawar from the North, establishing itself first at Patri in the Ahmedabad District, thence moving to Halvad and finally settling in its present seat. Being the guardians of the North-Eastern marches of Kathiawar they had to suffer repeatedly from the successive inroads of the Mahomedans into that Peninsula, but after suffering the various vicissitudes of war they were confirmed in their possession of Halvad, its surrounding territories and the salt-pans attached thereto by an Imperial Firman issued by Emperor Aurangzeb. The States of Vankaner, Limbdi, Wadhwan, Chuda, Sayla and Than-Lakhtar are offshoots from Dhrangadhra. His Highness Maharana Shri Sir Ghanashyamsinhji, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja Raj Saheb, is the ruler of the State and the titular head of all the Jhalas. The administration is conducted under the Maharaja's directions by the Dewan Rana Shri Mansinhji S. Jhala, C.I.E. The soil being eminently fit for cotton cultivation, the principal crops are long stapled cotton and cereals of various kinds. Excellent building and ornamental stone is quarried from the hills situated within the State. Wadagra salt of an excellent quality with Magnesium chloride and other bye-products of salt are also manufactured at the State Salt works at Kuda which offer practically inexhaustible supplies for their manufacture. The capital town is Dhrangadhra, a fortified town, 75 miles west of Ahmedabad.

Dhrangadhra State owns the Railway from Wadhwan Junction to Halvad, a distance of 40 miles, which is worked by the B. B. & C. I. Railway. An extension of this line to Maliya is under construction.

Gondal State.—The Ruling Prince of Gondal is a Rajput of the Jadeja stock with the title of H. H. Thakore Sahib, the present Ruler being H. H. Shri Bhagvat Sinhji, G.C.I.E. The early founder of the State, Kumbhoji I., had a modest estate of 20 villages. Kumbhoji II., the most powerful Chief of the House, widened the territories to almost their present limits by conquest; but it was left to the present ruler to develop its resources to the utmost, and in the words of Lord Reay, Governor of Bombay, by its "importance and advanced administration" to get it recognised as a First Class State. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 1,10,721. The chief products are cotton and grain and the chief manufactures are cotton and woollen fabrics and gold embroidery. Gondal has always been pre-eminent amongst the States of its class for the vigour with which public works have been prosecuted, and was one of the earliest pioneers of railway enterprise in Kathiawar, having initiated the Dhasa-Dhoraji line, it owns the Dhasa-Jam Jodhpur section called the Gondal Railway and manages it along with the Jetalsar-Rajkot Railway and H. H. Gaekwad's Khijadiya-Dhari line; it subsequently built the Jetalsar-Rajkot Railway in partnership with other Native States in Kathiawar. There are no export and import dues, the people being free from taxes and dues. Comparatively speaking Gondal stands first in Kathiawar in respect of the spread of education. Compulsory female

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education in the State has been recently ordered by His Highness. Rs. 13 lakhs has been spent on irrigation tanks and canals and water supply to the town of Gondal. The Capital is Gondal, a fortified town on the line between Rajkot and Jetalsar.

Junagadh State.—This is a first class State under the Kathiawar Political Agency and lies in the south-western portion of the Kathiawar Peninsula between 24° 44' and 21° 53' North latitude and 70° and 72° east longitude with the Halar Division of the provinces as its northern boundary, and Gohelwad Prant to its east. It is bounded on the south and west by the Arabian Sea. The State is divided into 13 Mahals. It has 16 ports of which the principal are Veraval and Mangrol. The principal rivers in the State are the Bhadar, Uben, Ozat, Hiran, Saraswati, Machhundri, Singhaoda, Meghal, Vrajini, Raval and Sabli. The capital town of Junagadh, which is one of the most picturesque towns in India, is situated on the slope of the Girnar and Datar Hills; while in antiquity and historical interest it yields to none. The Upperkot or old citadel contains interesting Buddhist caves and the whole of the ditch and neighbourhood is honeycombed with caves or their remains. There are a number of fine modern buildings in the town. The famous Ashoka inscription of the Buddhist time carved out on a big bolster of black granite stone is housed at the foot of the Girnar Hill which is sacred to the Jains, the Shivalites, the Valshnavaites and other Hindus. To the south-west of the Girnar Hill lies the extensive forest of Gir comprising 494 sq. miles, 823 acres and 10 gunthas. It supplies timber and other natural products to the residents of the State and the neighbouring districts and is unique as the sole stronghold of the Indian lion. The area of the State is 3,336.9 square miles and the average revenue amounts to Rs. 54,60,945. The total population according to the census of 1921 was 465,493 of which 368,003 were Hindus, 80,091 Mahomedans, 7,216 Jains, 90 Christians, 53 Parsis, while 40 were of other castes. Until 1472 when it was conquered by Sultan Mahomed Bagra of Ahmedabad, Junagadh was a Rajput State ruled by Chiefs of the Chudasama tribe. During the reign of the Emperor Akbar it became a dependency of Delhi under the immediate authority of the Mughal Viceroy of Gujarat. About 1735 when the representative of the Mughals had lost his authority in Gujarat, Sherkhan Babi, the ancestor of the present Babi Rulers, expelled the Mughal Governor, and established his own rule. The ruler of Junagadh first entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The principal articles of production in the State are cotton, bajri, juwar, sesamum, wheat, rice, sugarcane, cereals, grass, timber, stone, castor-seed, fish, country tobacco, groundnuts, coconuts, bamboos, etc., while those of manufacture are ghee, molasses, sugarcandy, copper and brass-ware, dyed cloth, gold and silver embroidery, pottery, hardware, leather, bamboo furniture, etc. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 28,394 annually to the Paramount Power and a *Pakhsahi* of Rs. 37,210 to His Highness the Gaekwar; on the other hand, the State of Junagadh receives a tribute styled *Zorlati* amounting to Rs. 92,421 from 134 States, a relic of the days of

Mahomedan supremacy. The State maintains Junagadh State Forces the sanctioned strength of which is 173.

2. The Chief bears the title of Nawab; the present Nawab His Highness Mahabat Khan III is the ninth in succession and seventh in descent from His Highness Bahadurkhanji I, the founder of the Babi family of Junagadh in 1735 A. D. His Highness the Nawab Sahib is born on 2nd August 1900 and succeeded to the gadi in 1911, visited England in 1913-14, received his education at the Mayo College, Ajmer, and has been invested with full powers in March 1920. His Highness the Nawab Sahib is the Ruler of the Premier State in Kathiawar, ranks first amongst the Chiefs of Kathiawar, exercises plenary powers and enjoys a salute of 15 guns personal, 13 permanent and 15 local within the territorial limits of the Junagadh State.

Ruler:—His Highness Mahabat Khanji Rasulkhanji.

Heir Apparent:—Mahomed Dilawar Khanji.

A second prince named Prince Mahmud Hnat Khanji was born on 16th February 1924.

Navanagar State. on the southern shore of the Gulf of Cutch, has an area of 3,791 square miles. The Maharaja of Navanagar is a Jadeja Rajput by caste, and belongs to the same family as the Rao of Cutch. The Jadejas originally entered Kathiawar from Cutch, and dispossessed the ancient family of Jethwas then established at Ghumli. The town of Navanagar was founded in 1540. The present Jam Sahib is the well-known cricketer, H. H. Jam Sahib Shri Ranjitsinhji Vibhaji, who was born in 1872 and succeeded in 1907. The principal products are grain, cotton and oil-seeds, shipped from the ports of the State. A small pearl fishery lies off the coast. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 1,20,093 per annum jointly to the British Government, the Gaekwar of Baroda and the Nawab of Junagadh. The State maintains two squadrons of Imperial Service Lancers. The Capital is Jamnagar, a flourishing place, nearly 4 miles in circuit, situated 5 miles east of the port of Bedi. Population 345,353. Revenue nearly Rs. 60 lakhs.

Revenue Secretary: Gokulbhai B. Desai, Bar-at-law.

Political Secretary: Parshuram B. Junn, *kar, B.A., LL.B.

General Secretary: Hirabhai M. Mehta, B.A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-law.

Cutch.—The State is bounded on the north and north-west by Sind, on the east by the Palanpur Agency, on the south by the Peninsula of Kathiawar and the Gulf of Cutch and the south-west by the Indian Ocean. Its area, exclusive of the great salt marsh called the Rann of Cutch, is 7,616 square miles. The capital is Bhuj, where the ruling Chief (the Maharao) His Highness Maha Rao Sri Khenarji Savai Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., resides. From its isolated position, the special character of its people, their peculiar dialect, and their strong feeling of personal loyalty to their ruler, the peninsula of Cutch has more elements of a distinct national-

ity than any other of the dependencies of Bombay. The earliest historic notices of the State occur in the Greek writers. Its modern history dates from its conquest by the Sind tribe of Sammas Rajputs in the fourteenth century. The section of the Sammas forming the ruling family in Cutch were known as the Jadejas or children of Jada'. The British made a treaty with the State in 1815. There is a fair proportion of good arable soil in Cutch, and wheat, barley and cotton are cultivated. Both iron and coal are found but are not worked. Cutch is noted for its beautiful embroidery and silverwork and its manufactures of silk and cotton are of some importance. Trade is chiefly carried by sea. The ruling chief is the supreme authority. A few of the Bhayats are invested with jurisdictional powers in varying degrees in their own Estates and over their own ryots. A notable fact in connection with the administration of the Cutch State is the number and position of the Bhayat. These are Rajput nobles forming the brotherhood of the Rao. They were granted a share in the territories of the ruling chief as provision for their maintenance and are bound to furnish troops on an emergency. The number of these chiefs is 137, and the total number of the Jadeja tribe in Cutch is about 16,000. The British military force having been withdrawn from Bhuj, the State now pays Rs. 82,257 annually as an Anjar equivalent to the British Government. The military force consists of about 1,000 in addition to which, there are some irregular infantry, and the Bhayats could furnish on requisition a mixed force of four thousand.

Palanpur Agency.—This group of States in Gujarat comprises two first class States, Palanpur and Radhanpur, and a few minor States and petty talukas. Its total area is 6,393 square miles and the population is 518,566.

The gross revenue is about 27 lakhs. The territory included in the Agency has, like the more central parts of Gujarat, passed during historical times under the sway of the different Rajput dynasties of Anhilvada, the early Khilji and Tughlak Shahi dynasties of Delhi, the Ahmedabad Sultans, the Mughal Emperors, the Marhattas, and lastly the British. The State from which the Agency takes its name is under the rule of Captain His Highness Zubdatul-Mulk Dewan Mahakhan Talcy Muhammad Khan Bahadur, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., Nawab of Palanpur. His Highness is descended from the Usafzai Lohani Pathan, an Afghan tribe who appeared in Gujarat in the 14th century. The connection of the British Government with the State dates from 1819 in which year the Ruler was murdered by a body of nobles. Two high roads from Ahmedabad pass through the State and a considerable trade in cloth, grain, sugar and rice is carried on. The State pays tribute of Rs. 38,462 to the Gaekwar of Baroda. The capital is Palanpur situated on the B. B. & C. I. Railway, and is the junction station of the Palanpur-Deesa Branch of B. B. & C. I. Railway. It is a very old settlement of which mention was made in the 8th century.

Radhanpur is a State, with an area of 1,150 square miles, which is held by a branch of the Babi family, who since the reign of Humayun have always been prominent in the annals of Gujarat. The present chief is H. H. Jalaluddin Khanji, the Nawab of Radhanpur. He has powers to try his own subjects even for capital offences without permission from the Political Agent. The State maintains a Police force of 208. The principal products are cotton, wheat, and grain. The capital is Radhanpur town, a considerable trade centre for Northern Gujarat and Cutch.

INDIAN STATES UNDER LOCAL GOVERNMENTS.

More than a half of the total number of the very various units counted as Indian States in India are under the Government of Bombay. The characteristic feature of the Bombay States is the great number of petty principalities; the peninsula of Kathiawar alone contains nearly two hundred separate States. The recognition of these innumerable jurisdictions is due to the circumstance that the early Bombay administrators were induced to treat the *de facto* exercise of civil and criminal jurisdiction by a landholder as carrying with it a quasi-sovereign status. As the rule of succession by primogeniture applies only to the larger principalities, the minor States are continually suffering disintegration. In Bombay as in Central India, there are to be found everywhere the traces of disintegration and disorder left by the eighteenth century. In no part of India is there a greater variety of principalities. Some of the largest are of modern origin, having been founded by Marathas in the general scramble for power in the middle of the eighteenth century, but the Rajput houses date from earlier times. Interesting traces of ancient history are to be found at Sachin, Janjira and Jafarabad, where chiefs of foreign ancestry, descended from Abyss-

sinian admirals of the Deccan fleets, still remain. A few aboriginal chiefs, Bhils or Kolis, exercise an enfeebled authority in the Dangs and the hilly country that fringes the Mahi and the Narmada rivers.

The control of the Bombay Government is exercised through Political Agents, whose positions and duties vary greatly. In some of the more important States their functions are confined to the giving of advice and the exercise of a general surveillance; in other cases they are invested with an actual share in the administration, while States whose rulers are minors—are directly managed by Government officers. Some of the States are subordinate to other States, and not in direct relations with the British Government; in these cases the status of the feudatories is usually guaranteed by Government. The powers of the chiefs are regulated by treaty or custom, and range downwards to a mere right to collect revenue in a share of a village, without criminal or civil jurisdiction, as in the case of the petty chiefs of Kathiawar.

The number of Indian States in the Bombay Presidency before the creation of the Agency of Western India States was 377. Area

63,000 square miles. Population (1921) 7,409,429. They were divided for administrative purposes into the following agencies:—Belgaum Agency, 1 State (Savantvadi) Bijapur Agency, 1 State (Jath); Cutch Agency, 1 State; Dharwar Agency, 1 State (Savanur); Kaira Agency, 1 State (Cambay); Kathiawar Agency, 187 States (principal States); Junagadh, Nawanganar, Bhavnagar, Dhrangadhra, Porbandar, Morvi, Gondal; Kolaba Agency, 1 State (Janjira); Kolhapur Agency, 9 States (principal State, Kolhapur, with 9 feudatory States); Mahi Kantha Agency, 51 States (principal State, Idar); Nasik Agency, 1 State (Surgana); Palanpur Agency, 17 States (principal States, Palanpur and Radhanpur); Poona Agency, 1 State (Bhor); Rewa Kantha Agency, 62 States (principal State, Rajpipla); Satara Agency, 2 States (Aundh and Phaltan) Sholapur Agency, 1 State (Akalkot) Sukkur Agency, 1 State (Khairpur); Surat Agency, 3 States (Baneda, Dharanpur and Sachin); Thana Agency, 1 State (Jawhar). The table below gives details of the area, etc., of the more important States:—

State.	Area in sq. miles.	Population (in 1921).	Approx. Revenue in lakhs of rupees.
Bhavnagar ..	2,860	426,404	86
Cutch ..	7,616	484,526	38
Dhrangadhra ..	1,167	88,406	25
Gondal ..	1,024	167,071	47
Idar ..	1,669	226,355	10
Junagadh ..	3,336	465,493	50 (gross)
Khairpur ..	6,050	193,152	23
Kolhapur ..	8,217	833,726	105
Morvi ..	822	96,697	22
Navanagar ..	3,791	345,353	60
Palanpur ..	1,765	236,994	9
Porbandar ..	642	101,881	22
Radhanpur ..	1,150	67,789	6
Rajpipla ..	1,517	168,454	18

Bijapur Agency.—This comprises the Satara Jaghir of Jath (980·8 square miles in area). On the annexation of Satara, in 1849, Jath and Daphlapur like other Satara Jaghirs, became feudatories of the British Government. The latter has more than once interfered to adjust the pecuniary affairs of the Jath Jaghir and in consequence of numerous acts of oppression on the part of the then ruler was compelled to assume direct management from 1874 to 1885. The small estate of Daphlapur with an area of 96·8 square miles lapsed to the Jath Jaghir on the demise of its last ruler Ranibai Saheb Daphle in January 1917. The Chief of Jath who belongs to the Maratta caste, ranks as a first class Sardar. He holds a sanad of adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The gross revenue of the State is about 3 lakhs chiefly derived from land revenue. The Jath State pays to the British Government Rs. 8,400 per annum in lieu of horse contingent and Rs. 4,847 on account of Sardeshmukhi rights.

Political Agent.—R. G. Gordon, I.C.S., Collector of Bijapur.

Dharwar Agency.—This comprises only the small State of Savanur. The founder of the reigning family who are Mahomedans of Pathan origin was a Jagirdar of Emperor Aurangzeb. At the close of the last Maratha War the Nawab of Savanur, whose conduct had been exceptionally loyal, was confirmed in his possessions by the British Government. The State pays no tribute. The principal crops are jowari and cotton. The area is 70 square miles and population 16,830. The revenue is Rs. 1,54,169·3·2. The present chief is Captain Meherban Nawab Abdul Majid Khan Diler Jang Bahadur, Nawab of Savanur.

Political Agent: J. Monteath, I.C.S.

Kaira Agency.—This includes only the State of Cambay at the head of the Gulf of the same name. Cambay was formerly one of the chief ports of India and of the Anhilvada Kingdom. At the end of the thirteenth century it is said to have been one of the richest towns in India; at the beginning of the sixteenth century also it formed one of the chief centres of commerce in Western India. Factories were established there by the English and the Dutch. It was established a distinct State about 1730, the founder of the present family of Chiefs being the last but one of the Mahomedan Governors of Gujarat. The present Nawab is His Highness Mirza Hussein Yawar Khan who is a Shah Mogul of the Najumisani family of Persia, and was born on the 16th May 1911. His father, the late Nawab Jaffar Ali Khan, died on 21st January 1915, leaving him a minor. The State is therefore under British Administration. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 21,924 to the British Government. Wheat and cotton are the principal crops. There is a broad gauge line from Cambay *via* Petlad, connecting with the D. B. & C. I. Railway at Anand. Cambay is a first class State having full jurisdiction. Revenue is about eight lakhs. The area of the State is 350 square miles, population 71,715.

Political Agent: J. W. Smyth, I.C.S.

Administrator: V. K. Namjoshi.

Kolaba Agency.—This Agency includes the State of Janjira in the Konkan, a country covered with spurs and hill ranges and much intersected by creeks and backwaters. The ruling family is said to be descended from an Abyssinian in the service of one of the Nizam Shahi Kings of Ahmednagar at the end of the fifteenth century. The most noticeable point in its history is the successful resistance that it alone, of all the States of Western India, made against the determined attacks of the Marathas. The British, on succeeding the Marathas as masters of the Konkan, refrained from interfering in the internal administration of the State. The chief is a Sunni Mahomedan; by race a Sidi or Abyssinian, with a title of Nawab. He has a sanad guaranteeing succession according to Mahomedan law and pays no tribute. Till 1868 the State enjoyed singular independence, there being no Political Agent, and no interference whatever in its internal affairs. About that year the mal-administration of the chief, especially in matters of police and criminal justice, became flagrant; those branches of administration were in consequence taken out of his hands and vested in a

Political Agent. The last ruler, H. H. Nawab Sidi Sir Ahmed Khan, G.C.I.E., died on 2nd May 1922, and was succeeded by his son Sidi Muhammad Khan, born on the 7th March 1914. The area of the State is 377 square miles, and the population 98,530. The average revenue is 7 lakhs. The State maintains an irregular military force of 236. The capital is Murud on the main land, the name of Janjira being retained by the island fort oppo-ite. The Chief is entitled to a dynastic salute of 11 guns. In recognition of services rendered in connection with the war the last ruler's salute was raised on the 1st January 1918 to 13 guns personal and 13 permanent within the limits of his own State from the 1st January 1921.

Kolhapur Agency.—Kolhapur is a State with an area of 3,217 square miles and population of 833,726. Subordinate to Kolhapur are nine feudatories, of which the following five are important: Vishalgadh, Bavda, Kagal (senior), Kapsi and Ichalkaranji. The ruling house traces its descent from a younger son of Shivaji, founder of the Maratha power. The prevalence of piracy from the Kolhapur port of Malvan compelled the Bombay Government to send expeditions against Kolhapur in 1765, and again in 1792, when the Raja agreed to give compensation

for the losses which British merchants had sustained since 1785, and to permit the establishment of factories at Malvan and Kolhapur. Internal dissensions and wars with neighbouring States gradually weakened the power of Kolhapur. In 1812 a treaty was concluded with the British Government, by which, in return for the cession of certain ports, the Kolhapur Raja was guaranteed against the attacks of foreign powers; while on his part he engaged to abstain from hostilities with other States, and to refer all disputes to the arbitration of the British Government. The principal articles of production are rice, jawar and sugar-cane and the manufactures are coarse cotton and woollen cloths, pottery and hardware. The State pays no tribute, and supports a military force of 690. The nine feudatory estates are administered by their holders, except in the case of two whose holders are minors. Kolhapur proper is divided into five pethas or talukas and four mahals and is managed by the Maharaja, who has full powers of life and death. The Southern Mahratta Railway passes through the State and is connected with Kolhapur City by a line which is the property of the State.

Resident and Senior Political Agent for Kolhapur and the Southern Mahratta Country.—Lieut.-Col. R. S. Pottinger.

Southern Maratha Country States.—The Agency consists of the following eight States:—

Name of State.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Tribute to British Government.	Average revenue.
			Rs.	Rs.
Bangli	1,136	221,321	1,35,000	11,90,208
Miraj (Senior)	342	82,580	12,558	3,56,962
Miraj (Junior)	196½	34,626	7,389	3,27,403
Kurundwad (Senior)	182	40,168	9,619	1,82,425
Kurundwad (Junior)	114	34,288		1,81,314
Jamkhandi	524	101,195	20,516	7,32,562
Mudhol	368	60,140	2,672	3,95,849
Ramdurg	169	33,997		1,98,039
Total	3,032	608,255	1,87,754	35,94,792

Mahi Kantha.—This group of States has a total area of 3,124 square miles and a population of 450,478, including that of Idar, which is 226,351. The revenue is about 14 lakhs. The Agency consists of the first class State of Idar and 51 small States. The Native State of Idar covers more than half the territory. It has an area of 1,668 square miles and an average revenue of Rs. 12,24,732. The present Ruler of Idar, Lieutenant-Colonel H. H. Maha-

raja Dhira] Maharaja] Shri Sir Dowlat Singhji, K.C.S.I., is a Rajput of the Rathod clan. He was born in 1878 and ascended the Gadi in 1911. His Highness had been on active service in Egypt during the great war. The subordinate feudatory Jagirdars are divided into 3 classes. The Jagirdars comprised in the class of Bhayata are cadets of the Ruling House to whom grants have been made in maintenance or as a Jivarak. Those known as Sardar Pat-

tawats are descendants of the military leaders who accompanied Anand Singh and Rai Singh the founder of the present Marwar dynasty when they took possession of the State in the first quarter of the eighteenth century and to whom grants of land were made by Maharaja Anand Singh in 1741 A. D. on condition of military service. In the class of the Bhoomias are included all subordinate Feudatories who were in possession of their Pattas prior to the advent of the present Marwar dynasty. The Pattas which they hold were acquired by their ancestors by grant from the former Rao rulers of the State. The Maharaja receives Rs. 52,427 annually on account of Khichdi and other Raj-Haks from its subordinate Sardars, the tributary Talukas of the Mahi Kantha Agency and others and pays Rs. 30,340 as Ghasdana to Gaekwar of Baroda through the British Government. Of the smaller states Polo and Danta are important two second class States. The names of their Chiefs are Rao Shri Hamir Singhji, and Maharana Shri Hamir Singhji. Nine other States are of some importance and the remainders are estates belonging to Rajput or Koli Thakurs, once the lawless feudatories of Baroda and still requiring the anxious supervision of the Political Officer.

Political Agent—Lt.-Col. A. H. E. Mosse, I.A.

Nasik Agency.—This consists of one State Surgana, lying in the north-west corner of the Nasik District. Surgana has an area of 360 square miles and a population of 14,912. The ruling chief is Prataprao Shankarrao Deshmukh, who is descended from a Maratha Pawar family. He rules the State subject to the general control of the Collector and Political Agent, Nasik. The revenue of the State is about Rs. 59,776.

Rewa Kantha Agency.—This Agency, with an area of 4,956 square miles and a population of 665,099, comprises 61 States, of which Rajpipla is a first class State, 5 are second class, one is third class and the rest are either petty States or talukas. Among those petty States are Sanjeli in the north, Bhadarva and Umata in the west, Jambhughoda in the south-east, and two groups of Mehwas. The 26 Sankheda Mehwas petty estates lie on the right bank of the Narbada, while the 24 Pandu Mehwas petty estates including Dodka, Anghad and Raika, which together form the Dodka Mehwas are situated on the border of the Mahi.

Satara Jagirs.—Under this heading are grouped the following six States:—

State.	Area in sq. miles.	Population.	Revenue in lakhs.
Aundh	501	68,995	3
Phaltan	397	55,996	2
Bhor	925	144,601	5
Akalkot	498	80,082	4
Jath	884	69,810	2
Daphlapur	96	8,833	2

The following are the statistics of area and population for the principal States:—

State.	Area in square miles.	Population.
Balasinor	189	44,030
Bariya	813	137,291
Chhota Udaipur	873	125,702
Lunavada	388	83,136
Narukot (Jambhughoda)	143	9,540
Rajpipla	1,517	168,425
Sunth	394	70,957
Other Jurisdictional States, Civil Stations and Thana Circles	639	113,977

Under the first Anhilvada dynasty (746-961) almost all the Rewa Kantha lands except Champaner were under the government of the Baryas, that is, Koli and Bhil chiefs. In the eleventh, twelfth and thirteenth centuries chiefs of Rajput or part Rajput blood, driven south and east by the pressure of Muhammadan invasions, took the place of the Koli and Bhil leaders. The first of the present States to be established was the house of the Maharaja of Rajpipla, a Gohel Rajput.

Rajpipla.—This State lies to the south of the Narbada. It has an area of 1,517 square miles. The lands are rich and very fertile and except a few forest-clad hills are suitable and available for cultivation in large quantities in the south-east talukas. The family of the Maharaja of Rajpipla, H. H. Maharana Shri Vijayasinhji, K.C.S.I. is said to derive its origin from a Rajput of the Gohel clan. The State pays an annual sum of Rs. 50,000 on account of Ghasdana to the Gaekwar of Baroda. Cotton is the most important crop in the State. In the hills there are valuable teak forests. The capital is Nandod, which is connected with Anklesvar by railway built by the State.

These were formerly feudatory to the Raja of Satara. In 1849 five of them were placed under the Collector of Satara, and Akalkot under the Collector of Sholapur. Subsequently, the Jagir of Bhor was transferred to the Collector of Poona and Jath and Daphlapur to the Southern Mahratta country. The last two are now under the Collector of Bijapur. The ruling chiefs are as follows:—

State.	Ruling Chiefs.	Tribute to British Government.
Aundh	Bhavanrao Shrinivasrao alias Baba Saheb, Pant Pratinidhi	Rs.
Phaltan	Mudhojirav Janwar Nimbalkar	9,600
Bhor	H. H. Shankarrao Chinnaji, Pant Sachiv	4,684
Akalkot	Ramrav Amritrav alias Aba Saheb Daphle	14,592
Jath	Rant Bai Saheb Daphle, widow of Ramchandrarav Venkatrav	6,400
Daphlapur	Chavan Daphle.	

Savantwadi.—This State has an area of 925 square miles and population of 206,440. The average revenue is Rs. 6,81,030. It lies to the north of the Portuguese territory of Goa, the general aspect of the country being extremely picturesque. Early inscriptions tale the history of the State back to the sixth century. So late as the nineteenth century the ports on this coast swarmed with pirates and the country was very much disturbed. The present chief is Khem Savant V. alias Bapu Saheb Bhonsle. Rice is the principal crop of the State, and it is rich in valuable teak. The sturdy Marathas of the State are favourite troops for the Indian Army and supply much of the immigrant labour in the adjacent British districts. The Capital is Savantwadi, also called Sundar Vadi, or simply Vadi.

Sholapur Agency.—This contains the State of Akalkot which forms part of the tableland of the Deccan. It has an area of 498 square miles and a population of 81,250. In the beginning of the eighteenth century the Akalkot territory, which had formerly been part of the Mussulman kingdom of Ahmednagar, was granted by the Raja of Satara to a Maratha Sardar, the ancestor of the present chief, subject to the supply of a contingent of horse. In 1849 after the annexation of Satara, the Akalkot Chief became a feudatory of the British Government.

Baria.—The State has an area of 813 square miles with a population of 137,291 and is situated in the heart of the Panchmahals district. The Capital Deygad Baria is reached by road from Pipod station on the B. & C. I. Railway, at a distance of eight miles. The average revenue of the State is about 8 lakhs. The State enjoys plenary powers. The Ruler Captain His Highness Maharao Shree Sir Ranjitsinhji, K.C.S.I., is the direct descendant of the Great House of Kichhi Chowhan Rajputs who ruled over Gujrat for 244 years with their capital at Champaner, with the proud title of Pavapatis. His family has the noblest historical traditions. The state pays no tribute either to the British Government or any other Indian state.

Surat Agency.—This is a small group of three second class States under the Political Agent, Surat.

State.	Ruling Chiefs.	Area in sq. miles.	Population (1921).
Dharampur	Maharana Shri Vijayadevji Mohandevji	704	95,171
Banoda	Maharaval Shri Indrasinhji Pratapsinhji	215	40,125
Sachin	His Highness Nawab Sidi Ibrahim Muhammad Yakut Khan Mubazarat Daula Nasrat Jung Bahadur.	49	19,977

He enjoys a salute of eleven guns. He served in France and Flanders in the Great European War and in the Afghan War, 1919. The staple crop is maize. The forests are rich in teakwood and all sorts of jungle produce. There is a large scope for forest industries.

The Sukkur Agency.—This consists of the Khairpur State, a great alluvial plain in Sind. It has an area of 6,050 square miles and a population of 193,152, and revenue of over 24 lakhs. The present chief, H. H. Mir Ali Nawaz Khan, belongs to a Baloch family called Talpur. Previous to the accession of this family on the fall of the Kalohra dynasty of Sind in 1733, the history of Khairpur belongs to the general history of Sind. In that year Mir Fateh Ali Khan Talpur established himself as Rais or ruler of Sind; and subsequently his nephew, Mir Sohrab Khan Talpur, founded the Khairpur branch of the Talpur family. In 1832 the individuality of the Khairpur State, as separate from the other Talpur Mirs in Sind, was recognised by the British Government in a treaty, under which the use of the river Indus and the roads of Sind were secured to the British. The chief products of the State are oil-seeds, ghee, hides, tobacco, fuller's earth, carbonate of soda, cotton, wool and grain. The manufactures comprise cotton fabrics and various kinds of silverware and metal work. There is an industrial school at the capital where lacquer work, carpets, pottery, etc., are produced. The Railway from Hyderabad to Rohri runs through the whole length of the State. The rule of the Mir is patriarchal, but many changes have been made in recent years introducing greater regularity of procedure into the administration. The Wazir, an officer sent from British service, conducts the administration under the Mir. The State supports a military force of 354 rank and file composed of 216 Infantry, 72 Transport, 24 Cavalry and 42 Band and Bag-pipes including an Imperial Service Camel and Baggage Corps which is 139 strong and served at the Front.

Political Agent: The Collector of Sukkur.

The joint revenue of these States is 22 lakhs. Tribute is paid to the British Government of Rs. 9,154. There is also attached to this Agency a tract of country known as the Dangs, which has an area of 653 square miles and a population of 24,576 and a revenue of Rs. 14,283. The country is divided into 14 Dangs or States of very unequal area, each under the purely nominal rule of a Bhil Chief with the title of Raja, Nalk, Pradhan or Povar.

Thana Agency.—This includes the State of Jawhar, in the Thana District, on a plateau above the Kunkan plain. It has an area of

310 square miles and a population of 49,682 and revenue of 6 lakhs. Up to 1294, the period of the first Mahomedan invasion of the Deccan, Jawhar was held by a Varil, not a Koli chief. The first Koli chief obtained his footing in Jawhar by a device similar to that of Dido, when he asked for and received as much land as the hide of a bull would cover. The Koli chief cut a hide into strips, and thus enclosed the territory of the State. The present chief is Raja Vikramshah Patangshah, who administers the State, assisted by a Karbhari under the supervision of the Collector of Thana who is Political Agent of the State.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.

Cooch Behar.—This State, which at one time comprised almost the whole of the Northern Bengal, Assam and a part of Bhutan now known as the Duars, is a low-lying plain in North Bengal. It has an area of 1,307 square miles, a population of 592,472 and a revenue of nearly 36 lakhs. By the demise of the late Maharaja His Highness Maharaja Sir Jitendra Narayan Bhup Bahadur in December 1922 in England, his eldest son Yuvaraj Kumar Jagaddipendra Narayan (born on December 15, 1915) succeeded to the gadi at the age of 7, which necessitated a minority administration under the guidance of a Regent. His Highness the Maharaja belongs to the Kshatriya Varna of Kshatriya origin. The present Maharaja has three sisters Maharajkumaris Ila Devi (aetat 9), Aysha Devi (aetat 5) and Menaka Devi (aetat 4) and one brother Maharajkumar Indrajit Narayan (aetat 6). Her Highness the Maharani Sahiba of Cooch Behar was appointed Regent under the wishes of the late Maharaja and administers the State on behalf of her minor son with a Council of Regency, comprising four members at present, of which Her Highness is the President. Cooch Behar once formed part of the famous kingdom of Kamrup. British connection with it began in 1772 when owing to inroads of the Bhutias, the assistance of the East India Company was invoked. The chief products of the State are rice, jute, mustard seed and tobacco. The capital is Cooch Behar, which is reached by the Cooch Behar State Railway, a branch from the Eastern Bengal State Railway System.

Tripura.—This State lies to the east of the district of Tippera and consists largely of hills covered with dense jungles. It has an area of 4,116 square miles and a population of 304,437. The revenue from the State is about 14 lakhs and from the Zemindari in British territory a slightly smaller sum. The present ruler is Maharaja Bir Bikram Kishore Deb Barman Manikya Bahadur, who is a Kshatriya by caste and comes of the Lunar race and is entitled to a salute of 13

guns. He succeeded the late Maharaja Birendra Kishore Manikya Bahadur on 13th August 1923 and is only 15 years of age. The military prestige of Tripura dates back to the fifteenth century and a mythical account of the State takes the history to an even earlier date. Both as regards its constitution and its relations with the British Government, the State differs alike from the large Native States of India, and from those which are classed as tributary. Besides being the ruler of Tripura, the Maharaja also holds a large landed property situated in the plains of the Districts of Tippera, Noakhali and Sylhet. This estate covers an area of 600 square miles, and is held to form with the State an indivisible Raj. Disputes as to the right of succession have occurred on the occasion of almost every vacancy in the gadi producing in times gone by disturbances and domestic wars, and exposing the inhabitants to serious disorders and attacks from the Kukis, who were always called in as auxiliaries by one or other of the contending parties. The principles which govern succession to the State have recently, however, been embodied in a *sanad* which was drawn up in 1904. The chief products of the State are rice, cotton, *til*, tea and forest produce of various kinds, the traffic being carried chiefly by water. Owing to the fact that the Maharaja is too young to have full administrative powers the administration is conducted by a Council of Administration consisting of the following members:—

President.—Maharaj Kumar Navadwip Chandra Deb Barman. **Vice-President.**—Raj J. C. Sen Bahadur, (lent to the State by the British Government).

Maharajkumar Brojendra K. shore Deb Barman and Thakur Prolap Chandra Roy, *Members*.

The State Courts are authorised to inflict capital punishment.

Political Agent: Magistrate and Collector of Tippera (*ex-officio*).

chief of Kharsawan belongs to a junior branch of the Porahat Raja's family. The State first came under the notice of the British in 1793, when, in consequences of disturbances on the frontier of the old Jungle Mahals, the Thakur of Kharsawan and the Kunwar of Sarakela were compelled to enter into certain agreements relating to the treatment of fugitive rebels,

The chief is bound, when called upon, to render service to the British Government, but he has never had to pay tribute. His present *sanad* was granted in 1919. He exercises all administrative powers, executive and judicial, subject to the control of the Political Agent and Commissioner, Orissa Feudatory States. The Bengal Nagpur Railway runs through a part of the State. The adjoining State of Serakela is held by the elder branch of the Porahat Raja's family.

Orissa Feudatory States.—This group of 24 dependent territories is situated between the Mahanadi Delta and the Central Provinces, and forms the mountainous background of Orissa. The names of the individual States are Athgarh, Talcher, Mayurbhanj, Nilgiri, Keonjhar, Pal Lahara, Dhenkanal, Athmalik, Hindol, Narsinghpur, Baramba, Tigiria, Khanpara, Nayagarh, Ranpur, Daspalla and Baud. To these there were added in 1905 the following States: Bamra, Rairakhol, Sonpur, Patna and Kalahandi from the Central Provinces, and Gangpur and Bonai from the Chota Nagpur States. The total population is 3,808,857 with a revenue of Rs. 76,31,025. The Feudatory States have no connected or authentic history. Comprising the western and hilly portion of the province of Orissa they were never brought under the central government, but from the earliest times consisted of numerous petty principalities which were more or less independent of one another. They were first inhabited by aboriginal races, who were divided into innumerable communal or tribal groups each under its own chief or headman. These carried on incessant warfare with their neighbours on the one hand and with the wild beasts of the forests on the other. In course of time their hill retreats were penetrated by Aryan adventurers, who gradually overthrew the tribal chiefs and established themselves in their place. Tradition relates how these daring interlopers, most of whom were Rajputs from the north, came to Puri on a pilgrimage and remained behind to found kingdoms and dynasties. It was thus that Jai Singh became ruler of Mayurbhanj over 1,300 years ago, and was succeeded by his eldest son, while his second son seized Keonjhar. The chiefs of Baud and Daspalla are said to be descended from the same stock; and a Rajput origin is also claimed by the Rajas of Athmalik, Narsinghpur, Pal Lahara, Talcher and Tigiria. Nayagarh, it is alleged, was founded by a Rajput from Rewah, and a scion of the same family was the ancestor of the present house of Khandpara. On the other hand, the chiefs of a few

States, such as Athgarh, Baramba and Dhenkanal, owe their origin to favourites or distinguished servants of the ruling sovereigns of Orissa. The State of Ranpur is believed to be the most ancient, the list of its chiefs covering a period of over 3,600 years. It is noteworthy that this family is of Khond origin, and furnishes the only known instance in which, amid many vicissitudes, the supremacy of the original settlers has remained intact. The States acknowledged the suzerainty of the paramount power and were under an implied obligation to render assistance in resisting invaders; but in other respects neither the ancient kings of Orissa nor their successors, the Mughals and Marathas, ever interfered with their internal administration. All the States have annals of the dynasties that have ruled over them; but they are made up in most part of legend and fiction and long genealogical tables of doubtful accuracy, and contain very few features of general interest. The British conquest of Orissa from the Marathas, which took place in 1803, was immediately followed by the submission of ten of the Tributary States, the chiefs of which were the first to enter into treaty engagements.

The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character. They were taken over from the Marathas in 1803 with the rest of Orissa; but, as they had always been tributary states rather than regular districts of the native governments, they were exempted from the operation of the general regulation system. This was on the ground of expediency only and it was held that there was nothing in the nature of British relations with the proprietors that would preclude their being brought under the ordinary jurisdiction of the British courts, if that should ever be found advisable. In 1882 it was held that the States did not form part of British India and this was afterwards accepted by the Secretary of State.

The staple crop in these States is rice. The forests in them were at one time among the best timber producing tracts in India, but until lately forest conservancy was practically unknown. The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character. The relations with the British Government are governed mainly by the *sanads* granted in similar terms to all the chiefs in 1894. They contain ten clauses reciting the rights, privileges, duties and obligations of the chiefs, providing for the settlement of boundary disputes, and indicating the nature and extent of the control of the Political Agent and Commissioner.

Political Agent and Commissioner: C. L. Phillip.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Three States: Rampur, Tehri and Benares are included under this Government:—

State.	Area Sq. Miles.	Population.	Revenue in lakhs.
Rampur	892	453,607	60
Tehri (Garhwal)	4,500	300,725	11
Benares	875	359,574	22

Rampur is a fertile level tract of country. The ruler Colonel His Highness Alijah Farzandi Dilpizar-i-Daulat-Inglishia, Mukhlis-ud-Daulah, Nasir-ul-Mulk, Amir-ul-Umma, Nawab Sir Syed Mohammed Hamid Ali Khan Bahadur Mustaid Jung, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., A.D.C., to His Imperial Majesty the King Emperor. Born 31st August 1875, descended from the famous Sadats of Bahara. Succeeded in February 1899, His Highness is the sole surviving representative of the once great Rohilla power in India. He is the premier Ruler in the United Provinces, and rules over a territory of 892 square miles with

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BIHAR AND ORISSA.

Under this Government there are the Chota Nagpur Feudatory States of Kharsawan and Serakela, and the Orissa Feudatory States, 24 in number. The total area is 28,656 square miles, and the total population 3,961,805. The revenue is Rs. 79,37,471. The inhabitants are hill-men of Kolarian or Dravidian origin and their condition is still very primitive. The

a population of 453,607. His Highness is an enlightened Prince and is well educated in Arabic, Persian and English languages. He is a keen supporter of education for Mohammedans, and has travelled extensively in America and Europe. During the Mutiny of 1857 the then Nawab of Rampur displayed his unswerving loyalty to the British Government by affording pecuniary aid, protecting the lives of Europeans, and rendering other valuable services which were suitably recognised by the Paramount Power. Under the reorganisation scheme, the State forces consist of Rampur Pioneers (including one training company formerly known as Rampur Infantry) 591; Rampur Lancers 331; Rampur Infantry (formerly called 2nd Battalion) 652; Artillery 205; Goorkha Company 153; Palace Guards 625; Band 40; and Cyclists 20.

During the great War the Rampur Infantry was sent to East Africa where it rendered valuable services to the Imperial cause and returned to Rampur after a stay of about four years. A detachment of Rampur Lancers trained Government Horses at the Remount Depots of Bellary and Aurangabad while another escorted Government horses to Europe. During the Afghan War the two Regiments were sent on garrison duty in British India.

His Highness has three sons, the eldest Nawab Syed Raza Ali Khan Bahadur being the heir-apparent.

The State has an income of over fifty lakhs of rupees a year.

His Highness enjoys a permanent salute of 15 guns.

Tehri State (or Tehri-Garhwal).—This State lies entirely in the Himalayas and contains a tangled series of ridges and spurs radiating from a lofty series of peaks on the border of Tibet. The sources of the Ganges and the Jumna are in it. The early history of the State is that of Garhwal District, the two tracts having formerly been ruled by the same dynasty. Pradyumna Shah, the last Raja of the whole territory, was killed in battle, fighting against the Gurkhas; but at the close of the Nepalese War in 1815, his son received from the British the present State of Tehri. During the Mutiny the latter rendered valuable assistance to Government. He died in 1859 without issue, and was succeeded by his near relative Bhawani Shah; and he subsequently received a *sanad* giving him the right of adoption. The present Raja is Captain H. H. Narendra Shah, C.S.I. The principal product is rice, grown

on terraces on the hill sides. The State forests are very valuable and there is considerable export of timber. The Raja has full powers within the State. A unit of Imperial Service Sappers is maintained. The capital is Tehri, the summer capital being Pratapnagar, 8,000 feet above the sea-level.

Agent to the Governor-General: The Governor of the U. P. of Agra and Oudh.

Benares.—The founder of the ruling family of Benares was one Mansa Ram, who entered the service of the Governor of Benares under the Nawab of Oudh in the early eighteenth century. His son, Balwant Singh, conquered the neighbouring countries and created a big state out of them over which he ruled till 1770. Raja Chet Singh succeeded him, but was expelled by Warren Hastings in 1781. In 1794, owing to the mal-administration of the estates which had accumulated under the Raja of Benares, an agreement was concluded by which the lands held by the Raja in his own right were separated from the rest of the province of which he was simply administrator. The direct control of the latter was assumed by the Government, and an annual income of one lakh of rupees was assured to the Raja while the former constituted the Domains. Within the Domains the Raja had revenue powers similar to those of a Collector in a British District, which were delegated to certain of his own officials. There was thus constituted what for over a century was known as the Family Domains of the Maharaja of Benares. On the 1st of April 1911 these Domains became a State consisting of the parganas of Bhadohi (or Konrh) and Chakia (or Kera Mangraur) with the town of Ramnagar and its neighbouring villages. The Maharaja's powers are those of a ruling chief, subject to certain conditions, of which the most important are the maintenance of all rights acquired under laws in force prior to the transfer, the reservation to Government of the control of the postal and telegraph systems, of plenary criminal jurisdiction within the State over servants of the British Government and European British subjects, and of a right of control in certain matters connected with excise. The present ruler is Lieut.-Colonel H. H. Maharaja Sir Prabhu Narayan Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.O.I.E., who was born in 1855 and succeeded to the State in 1889. He is entitled to a salute of 15 guns and is a Hon. Lt.-Colonel in the Indian Army.

PUNJAB STATES.

The 13 Salute States of the Punjab were transferred to the Political charge of the Government of India with effect from the 1st November 1921. Area 30,746 square miles. Population (1921) 4,008,077. Revenue Rs. 3,02,95,684.

These States may be grouped under three main classes. The Hill States which lie in the Punjab

Himalayas are held by families of ancient Rajput descent. To the south-west lies the large Mohammadan State of Bahawalpur. The remaining Sikh States of Patiala, Jind, Nabha, Kapurthala and Faridkot and the Mohammadan Chiefships of Malerkotla and Loharu lie east of Lahore in the eastern plains of the Punjab.

The list below gives details of the area, population and revenue of the 13 States :—

Name.	Area in square miles.	Population (Census of 1921)	Revenue approximate in lakhs.
Bahawalpur	15,000	7,81,191	44,48,290
Bilaspur (Kahlur)	448	98,000	3,20,750
Chamba	3,216	1,41,867	4,75,279
Faridkot	642	1,50,661	17,92,227
Jind	1,259	3,08,183	25,00,000
Kapurthala	630	2,84,275	37,00,000
Loharu	222	20,621	1,06,676
Malerkotla	187	80,322	14,03,525
Mandi	1,200	1,85,048	8,00,000
Nabha	928	2,63,394	22,45,337
Patiala	5,412	14,99,739	1,15,18,000
Sirmur (Nahan)	1,198	1,40,448	6,00,000
Suket	420	54,328	3,85,600
Total	30,746	40,08,077	3,02,95,684

Bahawalpur.—This State, which is about 300 miles in length and about 40 miles wide, is divided lengthwise into three great strips. Of these, the first is a part of the Great Indian Desert; the central tract is chiefly desert, not capable of cultivation, identical with the Bar or Pat uplands of the Western Punjab; and the third, a fertile alluvial tract in the river valley, is called the Sind. The ruling family claims descent from the Abbaside Khalifas of Egypt. The tribe originally came from Sind, and assumed independence during the dismemberment of the Durrani empire. On the rise of Ranjit Singh, the Nawab made several applications to the British Government for an engagement of protection. These, however, were declined, although the Treaty of Lahore in 1809, whereby Ranjit Singh was confined to the right bank of the Sutlej, in reality effected his object. The first treaty with Bahawalpur was negotiated in 1833, the year after the treaty with Ranjit Singh for regulating traffic on the Indus. It secured the independence of the Nawab within his own territories, and opened up the traffic on the Indus and Sutlej. During the first Afghan War the Nawab rendered assistance to the British and was rewarded by a grant of territory and life pension. On his death the succession was disputed and for a time the State was in the hands of the British. The present Nawab is Capt. H. H. Eku-ud-Daula, Nasrat-i-Jang, Hafiz-ul-Mulk, Nawab Sir Sadiq Mohammad Khan Bahadur Abasi V., K.C.V.O., who was born in 1904 and succeeded in 1907. During his minority the State was managed by a Council of Regency which ceased to exist in March 1924, when H. H. the Nawab was invested with full power. His Highness is now assisted in the administration of his State by four Ministers and a Chief Minister, Major Nawab Malik Tallie Mehde Khan, O.B.E. The chief crops are wheat, rice and millet. The Lahore-Karachi branch of the North-Western State Railway passes through the State. The State supports an Imperial Service combined Mounted Rifles Infantry, in addition to other troops. The capital is Bahawalpur, a walled town built in 1748.

Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States.—Lieutenant-Colonel A. B. Minchin, C.I.E., I.A.

Chamba.—This State is enclosed on the west and north by Kashmir, on the east and south by the British districts of Kangra and Gurdaspur, and it is shut in on almost every side by lofty hill ranges. The whole country is mountainous and is a favourite resort of sportsmen. It possesses a remarkable series of copper plate inscriptions from which its chronicles have been completed.

Founded probably in the sixth century by Marut, a Surajbansi Rajput, who built Brahmapura, the modern Barmat, Chamba was extended by Meru Varma (680) and the town of Chamba built by Sahil Varma about 920. The State maintained its independence, until the Moghal conquest of India.

Under the Moghals it became tributary to the empire, but its internal administration was not interfered with, and it escaped almost unscathed from Sikh aggression. The State first came under British influence in 1846. The part, west of the Ravi, was as first handed over to Kashmir, but subsequently the boundaries of the State were fixed as they now stand, and it was declared independent of Kashmir. The present chief is H. H. Raja Ram Singh, who was born in 1891, and succeeded in 1919. The principal crops are rice, maize and millets. There are some valuable forests which were partly leased to Government in 1864 for a term of 99 years, but the management of them has now been retroceded to the Chamba Durbar. The mountain ranges are rich in minerals which are little worked. The principal road to Chamba town is from Pathankot, the terminus of the Amritsar Pathankot branch of the North-Western Railway. Chamba town, on the right bank of the Ravi, contains a number of interesting temples, of which that of Lakshmi Narayan, dating possibly from the tenth century, is the most famous.

Faridkot.—The ruling family of this sandy level tract of land belongs to the Sidhu-Barar clan of the Jats, and is descended from

The present Buling Prince, Farzand-i-Saadat Nishan Hazarat-i-Kaisar-i-Mind Brar Baus Raja Har Indar Singh Bahadur was born in 1915 and succeeded his father in 1919. Under the orders of the Government of India the administration of the State has been entrusted to a Council of Administration consisting of a President, Sardar Bahadur Sardar Indar Singh, B.A., and four members. The State has an area of 643 square miles with a population of 150,661 and has an annual income of 18 lakhs. The Ruler is entitled to a salute of 11 guns and a visit and return visit from the Viceroy. The State Forces consist of State Sappers and Household Troops (Cavalry and Infantry).

The history of Jind as a separate State began from 1769, when Raja Gajpat Singh, the maternal grand-father of Maharaja Ranjit Singh, and great grand-father of the famous Phul, established his grand-son of the famous Phul, established his principality. He was succeeded by Raja Bhag Singh, who greatly assisted Lord Lake in 1805. His grand-son Raja Sangat Singh was succeeded by the nearest male collateral Raja Sarup Singh in 1837. In the crisis of 1857 Raja Sarup Singh rendered valuable services to the British and was rewarded with a grant of nearly 600 square miles of land, known as Dadri territory. He was succeeded by his son Maharaja Raghubir Singh, who gave help to the British Government on the occasion of Kuka outbreak (1872) and the 2nd Afghan War (1878). The present ruler Maharaja Ranbir Singh was born in 1879, succeeded in 1887, and invested with full powers in 1899. The State rendered exemplary services in the Great European War. It supplied 8,673 men to the Indian Army and Imperial Service Troops and doubled the strength of its Imperial Service Infantry. The total contribution amounted to nearly 35 lakhs, in gifts of cash, materials, animals and loan.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 15 guns. The capital is Sangrur, which is connected by a State Railway with the North-Western Railway. The principal executive officer of the State is called Chief Minister.

Kapurthala.—This State consists of three detached pieces of territory in the great plain of the Jullundur Doab. The ancestors of the ruler of Kapurthala at one time held possessions in both the Cis and Trans-Sutlej and also in the Bari Doab. In the latter lies the village of Ahlu, whence the family springs, and from which it takes the name of Ahluwalla. When the Jullundur Doab came under the dominion of the British Government in 1846, the estates north of the Sutlej were maintained in the independent possession of the Ahluwalla Raja, conditional on his paying a commutation in cash for the service engagements by which he had previously

Political Officer : The Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, Lahore.

Col. in December 1919. The chief products are cotton, sugar, poppy, ani-seed, mustard, ajwain, methi, tobacco, garlic, onions and all sorts of grains. The State maintains a company of Sappers, Infantry, Cavalry and Artillery. The capital is Maier Kotla. The population of the town is 30,000 souls. Annual revenue of the State is about 16 lakhs.

Mandi is the premier hill-State of the Punjab lying in the upper reaches of river Beas which drains nearly all its area. It has an interesting history of considerable length which finally result-

The present minor Chief, His Highness Raja Jogender Sen Bahadur, who is expected to come into power before a year, was installed in 1913. His Highness was married to the only daughter of His Highness the Maharaja Sahib of Kapurthala in February, 1923, and Their Highnesses the Raja and Rani were blessed by the birth of an heir-apparent in December of the same year. The administration is carried on by Pandit Maharaj Kishan, M.B.E., the Superintendent. The principal crops are rice, maize, wheat and millet. About three-fifths of the State are occupied by forests and grazing lands. It is rich in minerals. The capital is Mandi, founded in 1527, which contains several temples and other buildings of interest and is one of the chief marts for commerce with Ladakh and Yarkand.

The State is covered by about 300 mch. branch lines of the N. W. Railway and the B. B. & C. I. crosses the *Nizam* of Bawal. A large portion of the State is irrigated by the Sirhind Canal. The crops of the State are gram, pulses, bajra, sugarcane, cotton, wheat and barley, to facilitate trade the Darbar has opened grain markets and Banks near the principal railway station within the State territory. The chief industries of the State consist of the manufacture of silver and gold ornaments, brass utensils, and cotton carpets, lace and *gota*, etc. There are some ginning factories and a cotton steam press in the State which are working successfully. In 1923 an inquiry was held into certain matters in dispute between the Patiala and the Nabha Durbars which showed that the Nabha Police had fabricated cases against persons connected with the Patiala State with the object of injuring them through the Patiala Durbar. The Maharaja of Nabha who was born in 1893 and succeeded his father in 1911 abdicated in favour of his son who is a minor as the result of this affair and the administration of the State has been handed over to the Government of India.

Patiala.—This is the largest of the Phulkian States, and the premier State in the Punjab. Its territory is scattered and interspersed with small states and even single villages belonging to other States and British districts. It also

Since the State has entered into alliance with the British Government in 1809, it has rendered help to the British Government on all critical occasions such as Gurkha War, Sikh War, Mutiny of 1857, Afghan War of 1878-79, Tirah and N. W. F. campaign of 1897.

On the outbreak of the European War His Highness placed the entire resources of his State at the disposal of His Majesty the King Emperor and offered his personal services. The entire Imperial Service Contingent was on active service throughout the period of the War and served on various fronts in Egypt, Gallipoli, Mesopotamia and Palestine, winning numerous distinctions. Two mule and one camel corps were stationed at the service of the British Government for the period of the War, and in addition to furnishing nearly 28,000 recruits for the British Indian Army and maintaining the State Imperial Service Contingent at full strength, contributed substantially in money and material.

His Highness was selected by His Excellency the Viceroy to represent the Ruling Princes of India at the Imperial War Conference and Imperial War Cabinet in June 1918 and during his stay in Europe His Highness paid visits to all the different and principal fronts in Belgium, France, Italy and Egypt (Palestine) and received the following decorations from the allied Sovereigns and Governments—(a) Grand Cordon of the Order de Leopold, (b) Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour, France, and (c) Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Italy and (d) Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, (e) Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Roumania.

Again in 1919 on the outbreak of hostilities with Afghanistan His Highness served personally on the frontier on the Staff of the General Officer Commanding, and the Imperial Service Contin-

gent was on active service towards Kohat and Quetta fronts. For his services on the N.-W. Frontier His Highness was mentioned in despatches.

Sirmur (Nahan).—This is a hilly State in the Himalayas under the Political control of the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, Lahore. Its history is said to date from the 11th century. In the eighteenth century the State was able to repulse the Gurkha invasion, but the Gurkhas were invited to aid in the suppression of an internal revolt in the State and they in turn had to be evicted by the British. In 1857 the Raja rendered valuable services to the British, and during the second Afghan War he sent a contingent to the North-West Frontier. The

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BURMA.

The States under this Government comprise the Shan States which are included in British India though they do not form part of Burma proper and are not comprised in the regularly administered area of the Province and the Karenli States which are not part of British India and are not subject to any of the laws in force in the Shan States or other parts of Burma.

The Shan States comprise the two isolated States of Hsawngshup and Singalang Hkamti in the Upper Chindwin District under the supervision of the Commissioner, North West Border Division, the eight petty village communities under separate hereditary Chiefs known as Hkamti Long in the Putao District and the two main divisions of the Shan States known as the Northern and Southern Shan States numbering six and thirty-five States respectively which with the Hkamti Long States have been included in the North East Frontier Division.

Hsawngshup with an area of 790 square miles and a population of 7,046 lies between the 24 and 25 parallels of latitude and on the 95 parallel of longitude between the Chindwin river and the State of Manipur.

Singalang Hkamti has an area of 2,000 square miles and a population of 2,287 and lies on the 26th and 90th parallels of latitude and longitude respectively.

The Hkamti Long States have an area of 200 square miles with a population of 6,520 and lie between the 27th and 28th parallels of latitude on the Upper Waters of the N'Mai branch of the Irrawaddy.

The Northern Shan States (area 20,156 square miles and population 592,813) and the Southern Shan States (area 36,157 square miles and population 847,618), form with the unadministered Wa States (area about 2,000 square miles) and the Karenli States, a huge triangle lying roughly between the 19th and 24th parallels of latitude and the 96th and 102nd parallels of longitude with its base on the plains of Burma and its apex on the Mekhong river.

The population consists chiefly of Shans who belong to the Shan group of the Tai Chinese family; the remainder belong chiefly to the Wa-palaung and Mon Khmer groups of races of the Austro-Asiatic branch of the Austro family, or to the Karen family which Sir George Grierson now proposes to separate from the Tai Chinese family. There are also a number of Kachins and others of the Tibeto-Burman

present Chief is Lieut.-Colonel H. H. Maharaja Sir Amar Prakash Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., who was born in 1887 and succeeded in 1911. The main agricultural feature of the State is the recent development of the Kiarda Dun, a fertile level plain which produces wheat, gram, rice, maize and other crops. The State forests are valuable and there is an iron foundry at Nahan which was started in 1867 but, being unable to compete with the imported iron, is now used for the manufacture of sugar-cane crushing mills. The State supports a Corps of Sappers and Miners which served in the Great War. It was captured by General Townshend's force at Kut-al-Amara but the Corps has since been reconstituted and has again gone on service.

The Shans themselves shade off imperceptibly into a markedly Chinese race on the frontier. Buddhism and Animism are the principal religions.

The climate over so large an area varies greatly. In the narrow lowlying valleys the heat in summer is excessive. Elsewhere the summer shade temperature is usually 80 to 95 Fahr. In winter frost is severe on the paddy plains and open downs but the temperature on the hills is more equable. The rainfall varies from 60 to 100 inches in different localities.

The agricultural products of the States are rice, pulses, maize, buckwheat, cotton, sesamum, groundnuts, oranges and pineapples.

Land is held chiefly on communal tenure but unoccupied land is easily obtainable on lease from the Chiefs in accordance with special rules for non-natives of the States. Great spaces of the States are suitable for cattle, pony and mule breeding and in the Northern States Chinese settlers appear to have found the latter a very paying proposition.

The mineral resources of the States are still unexplored. The Burma Corporation have a concession for silver and lead in the Northern States which they claim to be the richest in the world. The Mawson area in the Southern States is also rich in lead. Lignite and iron ore of a low grade are found in many places.

Lashio, the headquarters of the Northern Shan States District, is the terminus of the Mying-aung-Lashio Branch of the Burma Railways (178 miles) and is also connected with Mandalay by a cart road.

The Burma Corporation's narrow gauge private railway track 46 miles long connects their Bawdwin mine with the Burma Railways system at Yamyo.

The Southern Shan States are served by the Burma Railways branch line Thazi to Heho (87 miles) which it is proposed to extend shortly to Tayaw in the Yawnghwe plain.

Taunggyi, the headquarters of the Southern Shan States, is connected with Thazi by a well-graded motor road. The States vary much in size and importance. The largest State is Kengtung with an area of 12,400 square miles and population 208,755. The smallest State is Namtok with an area of 14 square miles and population 830.

Hsipaw with an area of 4,400 square miles and population 131,410 is the richest State with a gross revenue of Rs. 6,93,398.

The Sawbwag of Kengtung, Hsipaw and Yawnghwe and Mongnai have salutes of nine guns while the Tawngpeng Sawbwa has a personal salute of the same number.

Administration.

Under the Burma Laws Act, 1898, the Civil, Criminal and Revenue administration of every Shan State is vested in the Chief of the State subject to the restrictions specified in the sanad of appointment granted to him and under the same Act the law to be administered in each State is the customary law of the State so far as it is in accordance with justice, equity and good conscience and not opposed to the law in force in the rest of British India. The customary law may be modified by the Governor who has also power to appoint officers to take part in the administration of any State and to regulate the powers and proceedings of such officers. The Chiefs are bound by their sanads to follow the advice of the Superintendents appointed but subject to certain modifications which have been made in the customary law relating to criminal and civil justice have more or less maintained the semi-independent status which was found existing at the annexation of Upper Burma.

In 1920, Sir Reginald Craddock, Lieutenant-Governor of Burma, proposed a scheme for the sanction of the Secretary of State under which the Chiefs of the Northern and Southern Shan States have agreed to federalise the departments of Government in which they had been previously largely dependent on contributions from the Provincial Funds. Under this scheme no interference is contemplated in the internal management of the States and the Chiefs continue to collect their taxes and be responsible for law and order, maintain Courts for the disposal of criminal and civil cases, appoint their own officials and control their own subjects under the advice of the Superintendents. But the Federation is responsible for the centralised Departments of Public Works, Medical, Forests, Education, Agriculture and to a small extent Police. In place of the individual tribute formerly paid by them the Chiefs contribute to the Federation a proportion of their revenue which amounts roughly to the expenditure hitherto incurred by them on the heads of administration now centralised while the Provincial Government surrenders to the Federation all provincial revenue previously derived from the States and makes an annual contribution to enable it to maintain its

services at the same degree of efficiency formerly enjoyed. The Federation on the other hand pays a fixed proportion of its revenue to the Provincial Treasury as tribute in place of the individual contributions of the Chiefs. Under this scheme the Federation is a sub-entity of the Burma Government, is self-contained and responsible for its own progress. The Chiefs express their views on Federal and general matters through a Council of Chiefs consisting of all Chiefs of the rank of Sawbwa and four elected representatives of the lesser Chiefs. The Superintendents and the Commissioner of the North-East Frontier Division to whom the supervision of the Federation has been entrusted are *ex-officio* members of the Council. The scheme was sanctioned and brought into force with effect from October 1922. The first meeting of the Council of Chiefs was formally opened by His Excellency the Governor Sir Spencer Harcourt Butler, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., I.C.S., in March 1923.

Karenli.

This district which formerly consisted of five States now consists of three as two have been amalgamated with others. It has a total area of 4,280 square miles and a population of 63,860. It lies on the south of the Southern Shan States between Siam and the British district of Tonkin. The largest State is Kantarawadi with an area of 3,000 square miles and a population of 36,630 and a revenue of nearly 14 lakhs of rupees. More than half of the inhabitants are Red Karens. An Assistant Political Officer is posted at Lolkaw subject to the supervision of the Superintendent, Southern Shan States, who exercises in practice much the same control over the Chiefs as is exercised in the Shan States though nominally they are more independent than their Shan neighbours. Mineral and forest rights however in Karenli, belong to the Chiefs and not to the Government. In the past substantial contributions from Provincial revenues have been made to the Karenli Chiefs for education and medical service. The Chiefs are at present unwilling to surrender their special rights and join the Shan States Federation though very considerable advantages might accrue from their doing so.

The principal wealth of the country used to be in its teak timber and a large alien population was at one time supported by the timber trade. This has largely declined in the last few years and unless the Chiefs are prepared to deny themselves and close their forests they will soon disappear.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF ASSAM.

Manipur.—The only State of importance, under the Government of Assam is Manipur which has an area of 8,456 square miles and a population of 3,84,016 (1921 Census), of which about 60 per cent. are Hindus and 31 per cent. animistic hill tribes. Manipur consists of a great tract of mountainous country, and a valley about 50 miles long and 20 miles wide, which is shut in on every side. The State adopted Hinduism in the early eighteenth century, in the reign of Pamheiba or Garib Nawaz, who subsequently made several invasions into Burma. On the Burmese retaliating, Manipur negotiated a treaty of alliance with the British in 1762. The Burmese again invaded Manipur

during the first Burmese war, and on the conclusion of peace in 1826 Manipur was declared independent. The chief event in its subsequent history was the intervention of the British in 1891 to establish the claim of Kula Chandra Singh as Maharaja, followed by the treacherous murder of the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Quinton, and the officers with him, and the withdrawal of the escort which accompanied him. From 1891 to 1907 the State was administered by the Political Agent, during the minority of H. H. Chura Chandra Singh. The Raja was invested with ruling powers in 1907 and formally installed on the gadi in 1908. For his services during the War the hereditary title of Maharaja was

conferred on him. He is entitled to a salute of 11 guns.

The administration of the State is now conducted by H. H. the Maharaja, assisted by a Darbar, which consists of a President, who is a member of the Indian Civil Service, his services being lent to the State by the Assam Government, three ordinary and three additional members, who are all Manipuris. The staple crop of the country is rice. Forests of various kinds cover the great part of the mountain ranges.

Khasi and Jaintia Hills.—These petty chiefships, 25 in number, with a total area of about 3,900 square miles and a population of 138,000, are included under the Government of Assam. Most of the States have treaties or engagement with the British Government. The largest of them is Khyrim, the smallest

is Nongliwal, which has a population of 246. Most of them are ruled by a Chief or Siem. The Siemship usually remains in one family. The succession was originally controlled by a small electoral body constituted from the heads of certain clans but in recent years there has been a tendency to broaden the elective basis. The constitution of a Khasi State has always been of a very democratic character, a Siem exercising but little control over his people. Among many of the north-east frontier tribes there is little security of life and property, and the people are compelled to live in large villages on sites selected for their defensive capabilities. The Khasis seem, however, to have been less distracted by internal warfare, and the villages, as a rule, are small.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES.

The Central Provinces include fifteen feudatory States subordinate to the Government with an area of 31,176 square miles and a population of 2,066,900. One of the States, Makral, lies within Hoshangabad District; the remainder are situated in the Chhattisgarh Division, to the different districts of which they were formerly attached. Their relations with Government are controlled by a Political Agent. The States vary greatly in size and importance. Saktil, the smallest, having an area of 138 square miles and Bastar, the largest, an area of 13,062 square miles. They are administered by hereditary chiefs, who hold on conditions of loyalty and good government set forth in patents and acknowledgments of fealty, but are nominally free from direct interference save in the case of sentences of death, which require His Excellency the Governor's confirmation. But, as a fact, the Government has exercised a very large amount of control, owing mainly to the frequency with which the States have been taken under direct management, because of either the minority or the misconduct of the chief.

The States pay a tribute to Government which amounts in the aggregate to about 2½ lakhs.

Statistics relating to the chief States are contained in the following table:—

State.	Area.	Population.	Revenue
	Sq. Miles.	1921.	(approximate) in Lakhs.
Bastar ..	13,062	464,407	6
Jashpur ..	1,963	154,156	2
Kanker ..	1,431	124,928	3
Khalagarh ..	931	124,008	6
Nandgaon ..	871	147,906	10
Raigarh ..	1,486	241,634	5
Surguja ..	6,055	377,679	8
Eight other States ..	5,377	432,182	10
Total ..	31,176	2,066,900	44

Bastar.—This State, which lies to the south-east corner of the Provinces, is the most important of the group. It has an area of

13,062 square miles and a population of 433,310. The family of the Raja is very ancient, and is stated to belong to the Rajputs of the Lunar race. Up to the time of the Marathas, Bastar occupied an almost independent position, but a tribute was imposed on it by the Nagpur government in the eighteenth century. At this period the constant feuds between Bastar and the neighbouring State of Jeypore in Madras kept the country for many years in a state of anarchy. The chief object of contention was the Kotpad tract, which had originally belonged to Bastar, but had been ceded in return for assistance given by Jeypore to one of the Bastar chiefs during some family dissensions. The Central Provinces Administration finally made this over to Jeypore in 1863 on condition of payment of tribute of Rs. 3,000, two-thirds of which sum was remitted from the amount payable by Bastar. By virtue of this arrangement the tribute of Bastar was, until recently, reduced to a nominal amount. The cultivation of the State is extremely sparse. Rice is the most important crop. The State is under Government Management. The Superintendent of the State (Mr. W. A. Turner, J. P.) is an extra Assistant Commissioner of the Central Provinces on deputation who has two Assistants under him. After a recent period of disturbance the State has returned to complete tranquillity and precautions are being taken to remove all causes of unrest by better supervision over the minor State officials and a very considerate forest policy. The chief town is Jagdalpur on the Indravati River. The famous falls on the Indravati called the Chitrakote are 23 miles away from Jagdalpur.

Surguja.—Until 1905 this was included in Chota Nagpur State of Bengal. The most important feature is the Manpat, a magnificent tableland forming the southern barrier of the State. The early history of Surguja is obscure; but according to a local tradition in Palamau, the present ruling family is said to be descended from a Raksel Raja of Palamau. In 1758 a Maratha army overran the State, and compelled its chief to acknowledge himself a tributary of the Bhonsla Raja. At the end of the eighteenth century, in consequence of the Chief having aided a rebellion in Palamau against the British, an expedition entered Surguja; and, though order was temporarily restored, disputes again broke out

between the Chief and his relations, necessitating British interference. Until 1818 the State continued to be the scene of constant lawlessness; but in that year it was ceded to the British Government under the provisional agreement concluded with Mudhoji

KASHMIR.

Kashmir (known to Indians as Jammu) lies to the east of the Indus and to the west of the Ravi. It is a mountainous country with just a strip of level land along the Punjab frontier, and intersected by valleys of which many are of surpassing beauty and grandeur. It may be divided physically into two areas: the north-eastern comprising the area drained by the Indus with its tributaries, and the south-western, including the country drained by the Jhelum, the Kislianganga and the Chenab. The dividing line between those two areas is the great central mountain range. The area of the State is 84,432 square miles, and the population 3,158,126.

History.—Various poets have left more or less trustworthy records of the history of the valley down to 1586, when it was conquered by Akbar. Srinagar, the capital, had by then been long established, though many of the fine buildings erected by early Hindu rulers had been destroyed by the Mahomedan kings who first appeared in the 12th century. In the reign of Sikandar the population became almost entirely Mahomedan. Akbar visited the valley three times. Jehangir did much to beautify it; but after Aurangzeb there was a period of disorder and decay, and by the middle of the eighteenth century the *Subah* of Kashmir was practically independent of Delhi. Thereafter it experienced the oppression of Afghan rule until it was rescued, in 1819, by an army sent by Ranjit Singh. Sikh rule was less oppressive than that of the Afghans. The history of the State as at present constituted is practically that of one man, a Dogra Rajput, Gulab Singh of Jammu. For his services to the Sikhs this remarkable man had been made Raja of Jammu in 1820, and he added largely to his territory by conquest. He held aloof from the war between the British and the Sikhs, only appearing as mediator after the battle of Sobraon (1846) when the British made over to him for Rs. 75 lakhs the present territories of the State. He had to fight for the valley and subsequently lost part of his State, Gilgit, over which the successors had at a heavy cost to reassert their claims. His son Ranbir Singh, a model Hindu, ruled from 1857 to 1885, when he was succeeded by his eldest son Major-General H. H. Maharaja Sir Partab Singh, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., LL.D., &c.

Administration.—For some years the administration of the State was conducted by a Council over which the Maharaja presided. In 1905 enhanced ruling powers were granted to His Highness, the State Council being abolished. Recently His Highness has been invested with full powers of administration and authority enjoyed by his ancestors. Under the new constitution an Executive Council has been established to assist His Highness in the administration of the State. The Council is presided over by His Highness and consists of 4 members, the portfolio of the Senior and Foreign Member being held by General Raja Sir Harisingh, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., who is also in

Bhonsla of Berar, and order was soon established. The principal crops are rice and other cereals. The present Chief of the State is Maharaja Ramanuj Saran Singh Deo, C.B.E., who succeeded to the *gadi* in 1918 and enjoys full powers of a Ruling Chief.

charge of the Military affairs as Commander-in-Chief of the State Army. The British Resident has his headquarters at Srinagar; there is also a Political Agent at Gilgit responsible to the Government of India for the administration of the outlying petty States; and a British Officer is stationed at Leh to assist in the supervision of Central Asian trade. In the Dogras the State has splendid materials for an Army, which consists of 9,610 troops, of whom 6,298 are maintained as Imperial Service troops.

Finance.—The financial position of the State is strong, and it has more than 46 lakhs invested in Government of India securities. The total revenue last year was 93 lakhs, the chief items being land revenue, forests, customs and octroi.

Production and Industry.—The population is pre-eminently agricultural and pastoral. The system of land tenure has been described as "ryotwari in ruins," great complexity existing owing to the fact that there is no local law of rent and revenue. The principal food crop is rice, maize, cotton, saffron, tobacco, hops (autumn crops) and wheat, barley, poppy, beans (spring crops) are also grown. Sheep are largely kept. The State forests are extensive and valuable. A survey of the mineral resources of the State is being conducted under an expert. Vast fields of friable, dusty coal have been found. Gold has been found at Gulmarg, Sapphires in Padar, Aquamarine in Skardu and lead in Uri. The industries of manufacture are chiefly connected with sericulture (the silk flature at Srinagar, the largest in the world, was destroyed by fire in July 1912), and oil-pressing. The woollen cloth, shawls, and wood carving of the State are famous.

Communications.—Great efforts have been made and are being made towards the improvement of wheeled traffic in the Kashmir State. The Jhelum Valley Road (196 miles) which links the Kashmir Valley with the Punjab and the North Western Province is used by wheeled traffic of sorts, viz., Ekkas, Tongas, Carts, Motor Cars and Motor Lorries. The Banihal Cart Road (nearly as long as the Jhelum Valley Road) which is nearing completion, will soon join Kashmir with the Jammu Tawi Railway Station. Roads fit for pack-animals lead from Srinagar, the summer Capital of Kashmir, to the frontier districts of Gilgit and Leh. Internal village communications have also been much improved.

Public Works.—In 1904, a flood spill channel above Srinagar was constructed with a view to minimising the constant risk of floods; and it was hoped that the danger would be still further reduced by the carrying out of a scheme for lowering a part of the bed of the Jhelum, which has since been taken in hand. Good progress has been made with irrigation; but the most important schemes of recent years have been those for an electrical power station on the Jhelum River, and for a Railway into Kashmir. It was proposed to supply from this

power station electrical energy for various State schemes (including the Jhelum dredging scheme) and for private enterprise and possibly for working the proposed Kashmir Railway. The works were completed about 1907, and the scheme according to the latest reports is working very satisfactorily. The proposal for a railway to Kashmir had been held in abeyance for the present.

THE CHAMBER OF PRINCES.

The Report on Indian constitutional reforms by Mr. Montagu and Lord Chelmsford stated that it was desired to call into existence a permanent consultative body which would replace the conference of Princes which had periodically met at the invitation of the Viceroy. After pointing out the need for regular meetings of the Council, the Report said:—"We contemplate that the Viceroy should be **president**, and should as a rule preside, but that in his absence one of the Princes should be chairman. The rules of business would be framed by the Viceroy after consultation with the Princes, who might from time to time suggest modifications in the rules."

It was further suggested in the joint report that the Council of Princes should be invited annually to appoint a small **standing committee**, to which the Viceroy or the Political Department might refer decisions affecting the Native States, particularly questions dealing with custom or usage. The Joint Report also made recommendations for the appointment of commissions to inquire into disputes in which Native States might be concerned and into cases of misconduct, and for arranging for joint deliberation on matters of common interest between the Council of State and the Council of Princes.

At the end of January 1919 a Conference of the Ruling Princes was held at Delhi, to consider this scheme. The subject which gave rise to the longest discussion was the proposal in the Reform Scheme to divide the Native States into two categories, those possessing "full powers" of internal Government and those not having such powers. Some of the Princes held that membership of the Council of Princes should be limited to the rulers enjoying full powers, whilst others considered that some measure of representation ought to be given to the smaller States; and the Conference came to no agreement on the matter. The proposal to institute a Council of Princes received, however, general support, and it was suggested that the new House should be called the **Narendra Mandal** (House of Princes.)

The recommendations of the Conference were then placed before the Secretary of State, and in the next Conference held in November 1919, Lord Chelmsford propounded a general scheme for a Chamber of Princes approved by His Majesty's Government. The Conference after debating the question passed a resolution warmly accepting the scheme and expressing an earnest hope that the Chamber might be brought into existence during the ensuing year. On the occasion of the **formal inauguration of the Chamber of Princes** Lord Chelmsford, describing how he enlisted the advice and criticism of the Codification Committee of Princes which had been appointed by the Conference and how

Education.—In education Kashmir is still backward. In the State as a whole only 2 in every 100 persons can read and write. The number of educational institutions including two Colleges is 728.

Resident.—Sir J. B. Wood, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., O.S.I.

Political Agent at Gilgit.—Major D. L. R. Lorimer, C.I.E.

with their assistance the drafts of the Constitution of the Chamber with the first Regulations and Rules of Business, and the draft resolution concerning Courts of Arbitration and Commissions of Enquiry were moulded into practical shape, explained that difficulties had arisen in the selection of a suitable Indian designation for the Chamber which would for the present be known by the English title of the Chamber of Princes. He also said that another point on which the published constitution differed from the wording favoured by the Committee of Princes was the absolute prohibition of the discussion in the Chamber of the internal affairs of individual States and the actions of individual Rulers. The main function of the Chamber was to discuss matters affecting the States generally or of common concern to the States and to British India or the Empire at large. As regards the question of direct relations between the Government of India and the important States, a recommendation had been made to the Secretary of State for the transfer of the more important States in the Bombay Presidency, according to a scheme prepared by a special Committee, to be carried into effect at some future date, when the conditions appear to be favourable. A scheme would also shortly be placed before His Majesty's Government for the bringing of the important States of the Punjab into direct relations with the Government of India as soon as the necessary arrangements could be made. Gwalior State would soon be brought into direct touch with the Central Government through a Resident who would be independent of the Central India Agency and some of the Rajputana States, which were formerly in relations with a Local Resident, were now in direct relations with the Agent to the Governor-General in Rajputana.

The Chamber was formally inaugurated by the Duke of Connaught on February 8th, 1921, and has quickly developed a vigorous life. Its Presidential duties are entrusted to an elected Chancellor, now H. H. the Maharajah of Bikaner and its detailed business is attended to by an elected Standing Committee of six members. This meets twice or thrice a year, at the headquarters of the Government of India and one of its most important functions is to discuss with the various Departments of that Government matters in which the Administrations of both the States and British India are concerned. Important questions of this class which have recently received attention are the division of revenue from Customs and Posts and Telegraphs and the control of the Police on railway lines running for considerable distances through State territory. The Committee reports to the Chamber, which meets annually. The number of Princes who attended the last meeting was between forty and fifty. Its proceedings have hitherto always been conducted in private.

Indian States' Tribute.

Many of the States pay tribute, varying in amount according to the circumstances of each case, to the British Government. This tribute is frequently due to exchanges of territory or settlement of claims between the Governments, but is chiefly in lieu of former obligations to supply or maintain troops. The actual annual receipts in the form of tribute and contributions from Indian States are summarised in the following table. The relations of the States to one another in respect of tributes are complicated, and it would serve no useful purpose to enter upon the question. It may, however, be mentioned that a large number of the States of Kathiawar and Gujarat pay tribute of some kind to Baroda, and that Gwalior claims tribute from some of the smaller States of Central India:—

States paying tribute directly to the Government of India.

	£
Tribute from Jaipur	26,667
" " Kotah	15,648
" " Udaipur	13,333
" " Jodhpur	6,533
" " Bundi	8,000
" " Other States	15,170
Contribution of Jodhpur towards cost of Erinpura Irregular Force	7,667
" of Kotah towards cost of Deohi Irregular Force	13,333
" of Bhopal towards cost of Bhopal Levy	10,753
" of Jaora towards cost of United Malwa Contingent	9,142
Contributions towards cost of Malwa Bhil Corps	2,280
<i>Central Provinces and Berar.</i>	
Tribute from various States	15,696
<i>Burma.</i>	
Tributes from Shan States	28,524
" " other States	1,367
<i>Assam.</i>	
Tribute from Manipur	333
" " Rambrai	7
<i>Bengal.</i>	
Tribute from Cooch Behar	4,514
<i>United Provinces.</i>	
Tribute from Benares	14,600
" " Kapurthala (Bahraich)	8,733
<i>Punjab.</i>	
Tribute from Mandi	6,667
" " other States	3,086
<i>Madras.</i>	
Tribute from Travancore	53,333
Peshkash and subsidy from Mysore	233,333
" " " " Cochin	13,333
" " " " Travancore	888
<i>Bombay.</i>	
Tribute from Kathiawar	31,129
" " various petty States	2,825
Contribution from Baroda States	25,000
" " Jagirdars, Southern Maharatta Country	5,765
Tribute from Cutch	5,484

It was announced at the Coronation Durbar of 1911 that there would in future be no Nazarana payments on successions.

Foreign Possessions in India.

Portugal and France both hold small territorial possessions in the Indian Peninsula.

The Portuguese possessions in India consist of the province of Goa, situated within the limits of the Bombay Presidency, on the Arabian Sea Coast; the territory of Daman

with the small territory called Pargana-Nagar Avelo on the Gujarat Coast, at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay; and the little island of Diu, with two places called Gogla and Simbor, on the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula. All these three territories constitute what is called the State of India.

GOA.

Goa forms a compact block of territory surrounded by British districts. Savantwadi State lies to the north of it, the Arabian Sea on the west and North Kanara on the south, and the eastern boundary is the range of the Western Ghats, which separates it from the British districts of Belgaum and North Kanara. The extreme length from north to south is 62 miles and the greatest breadth from east to west 40 miles. The territory has a total area of 1,301 square miles and consists of the *Velhas Conquistas*, or Old Conquests, comprising the island of Goa, acquired by the Portuguese in 1510, and the neighbouring municipalities of Salsette, Bardez, and Mormugao acquired in 1543; and of the *Novas Conquistas*, or New Conquests, comprising the municipalities of Pernem, Sanquelim, Ponda, Quepem, Canacona, Satali and Sanguem acquired in the latter half of the 18th century. The small island of Angediva situated opposite the port of Karwar, in the British district of North Kanara, forms administratively a portion of the Canacona municipality. This was acquired in 1505. The whole country is hilly, especially the eastern portion, the predominating physical feature being the Western Ghats, which besides bounding the country along the north-east and south-east, jut off westward and spread across the country in a succession of spurs and ridges. There are several conspicuous isolated peaks, of which the highest, Sonsagar, is 3,827 feet high.

The country is intersected by numerous rivers running westward from the Ghats, and the principal eight, which are all navigable, are in size of some importance. Goa possesses a fine harbour, formed by the promontories of Bardez and Salsette. Half-way between these extremities lies the *cabo*, or cape, which forms the extremity of the island of Goa. This divides the whole bay into two anchorages, known as Aguada and Mormugao. Both are capable of accommodating the largest shipping from September to May, but Aguada is virtually closed during the south-west monsoon, owing to the high winds and sea and to the formation of sand bars across the estuary of the Mandovi river, which opens into Aguada. Mormugao is accessible at all times and is therefore the harbour of commercial importance. It is the terminus of the railway running to the coast from the inland British system of lines. A breakwater and port have been built there and the trade is considerable being chiefly transit trade from British territory. The international transit of Mormugao port, in 1923, was Rs. 2,98,95,280.

The People.

The total population in the whole Goa territory was 5,08,058 at the census of 1921 (subject to correction as the census works are in continua-

tion). This gives a density of 343 persons to the square mile and the population showed an increase of 6 per cent. since the census ten years previously. In the Velhas Conquistas the majority of the population is Christian. In the Novas Conquistas Hindus are more numerous than Christians. The Moslems in the territory are numbered in a few thousands. The Christians still very largely adhere to caste distinctions, claiming to be Brahmans, Charados and low castes, which do not intermarry. The Hindus are largely Maratha and do not differ from those of the adjacent Konkani districts of Bombay. All classes of the people, with the exception of Europeans, use the Konkani dialect of Marathi with some admixture of Portuguese words. The official language is Portuguese, which is commonly spoken in the capital and the principal towns as well as by all educated people. Nearly all the Christians profess the Roman Catholic religion and are spiritually subject to an archbishop who has the titles of Primate of the East and Patriarch of the East Indies and exercises ecclesiastical jurisdiction also over a great portion of British India, and the provinces of Macau (China) and Timor (Oceania), with missions in foreign countries and Mocambique (Portuguese East Africa). Properly in the territory of the Portuguese India, there are the Dioceses of Goa (Archdiocese) and Daman, besides those spread out of the territory. (The Christians of Daman and Diu are subject to a Bishop who bears the titles of Bishop of Daman and Archbishop of Cranganore.) There are numerous churches in Goa, mostly built by the Jesuits and Franciscans prior to the extinction of the religious orders in Portuguese territory. The churches are in charge of secular priests. Hindus and Mahomedans now enjoy perfect freedom in religious matters and have their own places of worship. In the early days of Portuguese rule the worship of Hindu gods in public and the observance of Hindu usages were strictly forbidden and rigorously suppressed.

The Country.

One-third of the entire territory of Goals is stated to be under cultivation. The fertility of the soil varies considerably according to quality, situation and water-supply. The Velhas Conquistas are as a rule better cultivated than the Novas Conquistas. In both these divisions a holding of fifteen or sixteen acres would be considered a good sized farm, and the majority of holdings are of smaller extent. The staple produce of the country is rice, of which there are two good harvests, but the quantity produced is barely sufficient to meet the needs of the population for two-thirds of the year. Next to rice, the culture of cocoanut palms is deemed most important, from the variety of uses to which the products are applied. Hilly places and inferior

soils are set apart for the cultivation of cereals and several kinds of fruits and vegetables are cultivated to an important extent. The condition of the agricultural classes in the Velhas Conquistas has improved during recent years, owing to the general rise in the prices of all classes of agricultural produce and partly to the current of emigration to British territory. Stately forests are found in the Novas Conquistas. They cover an area of 116 square miles and are under conservation and yield some profit to the administration. Iron is found in parts of the territory; but has not been seriously worked. Manganese also exists and was worked to an important extent a few years ago.

Commerce.

In the days of its glory, Goa was the chief entrepot of commerce between East and West and was specially famous for its trade in horses with the Persian Gulf. It lost its commercial importance with the downfall of the Portuguese Empire and its trade is now insignificant.

The commercial movement in 1923 has been as below:—

	Rs.
Imports	1,64,23,900
Exports	39,39,171
Re-exports	4,11,492
Transit	2,98,95,280
Total .. Rs.	5,06,69,843

Few manufacturing industries of any moment exist and most manufactured articles in use are imported. Exports chiefly consist of cocoanuts, betel nuts, mangoes and other fruits and raw produce. A line of railway connects Mormugao with the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway. Its length from Mormugao to Castle Rock, above the Ghats, where it joins the British system, is 51 miles, of which 49 are in Portuguese territory. The railway is under the management of the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway administration, and the bulk of the trade of Mormugao port is what it brings down from and takes to the interior. The telegraphs in Goa territory are worked as part of the system of British India, and are maintained jointly by the British and Portuguese Governments. The Goa territory was formerly subject to devastating famines and the people now suffer heavy losses in times of drought. They are then supplied, though at great cost, with rice from British territory.

The Capital.

Nova-Goa, the present capital of Portuguese India, comprehends, Panjim and Ribandar, as well as the old city of Goa, and is six miles in extent. Old Goa is some five miles distant from the new city. Panjim occupies a narrow strip of land leading up to the Cabo, the cape dividing the Aguada bay from that of Mormugao, and mainly slopes down to the edge of the Aguada. It was selected as the residence of the Portuguese Viceroy in 1759, and in 1843 it was raised to its present rank as the capital

of Portuguese India. The appearance of the city, with its row of public buildings and elegant private residences, as seen from the water is very picturesque and this impression is not belied by a closer inspection of its neat and spacious roads, bordered by decent, tidy houses. The most imposing public structures are the barracks, an immense quadrangular building the eastern wing of which accommodates the Lyceum, the Public Library and the Government Press. Other noticeable buildings are the Cathedral and various churches, the viceregal palace, the High Court and so on. The square in the lower part of the town is adorned with a life-sized statue of Albuquerque standing under a canopy.

History.

Goa was captured for the Portuguese by Alfonso de Albuquerque in 1510. Albuquerque promptly fortified the place and established Portuguese rule on a firm basis. From this time Goa rapidly rose in importance and became the metropolis of Portuguese power in the East. There was constant fighting with the armies of the Bijapur kingdom, but the Portuguese held their own and gained the surrounding territory now known as the Velhas Conquistas.

The subsequent history of the town is one of ostentation and decay. Goa reached its summit of prosperity at the end of the sixteenth century. The accounts of travellers show that the Goa of those days presented a scene of military, ecclesiastical and commercial magnificence which has had no parallel in the British capitals of India. But the Portuguese based their dominion in India on conquest by the sword and they laboured to consolidate it by a proselytizing organisation which throws the missionary efforts of every other European power in India into the shade. Old Goa, as the ruins of the old capital are called to-day, had a hundred churches, many of them of magnificent proportions, and the Inquisition which was a power in the land. The result showed how rotten was this basis and how feebly cemented the superstructure reared upon it.

Modern Times.

There was frequently recurring fighting and in 1741 the Marathas invaded the neighbourhood of Goa and threatened the city itself. An army of 12,000 men arrived from Portugal at the critical moment. The invaders were beaten off, and the Novas Conquistas were added to the Portuguese possessions. In 1844 the shelter given by Goa to fugitives from justice in British territory threatened to bring about a rupture with the British Government at Bombay. In 1852 the Ranes of Satali, in the Novas Conquistas, revolted. In 1871 the native army in Goa mutinied and the King's own brother came from Lisbon to deal with the trouble and having done so disbanded the native army, which has never been reconstituted. But another outbreak among the troops took place in 1895 and the Ranes joining them the trouble was again not quieted until the arrival of another special expedition

from Lisbon. The Ranes again broke out in 1901 and again in 1912, troops being again imported to deal with the last outbreak, which was only reported concluded in the summer of 1913.

Administration.

The Lisbon Government by Decree No. 3266, dated 27th July 1917, enacted new rules regarding the administration of Portuguese India under an Organic Charter (Carta Organica) in force since 1st July 1919. This Charter, regarding civil and financial administration of the colony, was modified by rules Nos. 1005 and 1022, dated 7th and 20th August 1920, and decrees Nos. 7008 and 7030, dated 9th and 16th October.

The territory of Portuguese India is ruled by one Governor-General, residing in the Capital of the State, at Panjim *aias* Nova-Goa, and is divided into three districts: Goa, Daman and Diu. The last two are each under a Lieutenant Governor. The district of Goa is under the direct superintendency of the Governor-General.

Subordinate to the Governor-General the following Secretariats are working: Home and Political, Finance, Customs, Education, Military, Naval, Agriculture, Health and Public Works. There are also three special and autonomous Departments, which do not constitute exclusive Secretariats, one of them being the Department of Posts and Telegraphs, the second that of Survey and the third that of the Fiscal of the W. I. P. Railway.

As the principal organ of administration next to the Governor-General, and in collaboration with him, are working two councils—Legislative and Executive. The Executive Council is composed by the Governor-General, His Excellency Jaime Alberto de Castro Morais, Attorney-General and four chiefs of Services and one non-official member appointed yearly by the Governor-General subject to the approval of the Executive Power. These chiefs in the present year are the Secretary General, the Director of Public Works, the Director of Agriculture and Forests and the Director of Finances.

The Legislative Council is constituted by the member of the Executive Council and by non-official members. These members are elected: one by the sub-district of Ilhas, one by that of Salsete and Mormugão, one by that of Bardez, one by the Novas Conquistas (comprising the sub-districts of Perum, Pondá, Sanguelim, Quepém, Canacona, Sanguem e Satari), one by the district of Daman and one by that of Diu; one citizen elected by the Commercial and Industrial Associations; one citizen elected by 90 highest tax payers; one citizen elected by the Associations of Agriculture and of Landowners; one citizen elected by the Attorneys of the Communities and one citizen elected by the Associations of Class.

Under the Presidency of the Governor of each district there is District Council, which in Goa is composed of—the Secretary General, President; the Attorney General's Delegate at the Civil Court of the Islands; the Deputy

Director of Public Works; the Deputy Director of Finances; the Chairman of the Municipal Corporation of the Islands; one member elected by the Commercial and Industrial Associations of the district; one member elected by the 60 highest tax payers of Goa; one member elected by the Associations of Landowners and Farmers of the District, and one member advocates elected by the Legislative Council among the legally qualified.

At Daman and Diu the corresponding body is composed of the local Governor as President, the Delegate of the Attorney General, the Chief of the Public Works Department, the Health Officer, the Financial Director of the district, the Chairman of the Municipal Corporation, two members elected by 40 highest tax payers of the District and one member elected by the Merchants, Industrialists and Farmers of the district.

Under the provisions of the above quoted Decree is also officiating in the capital of Portuguese India a special tribunal to take cognizance and decide all litigious administrative matters, fiscal questions and accounts. It is named *Tribunal Administrativo Fiscal e de Contas* and is composed of the Chief Justice as President, two High Court Judges, the Fiscal Auditor and the citizens who are not Government officers nor belong to the administration, bodies of corporations, whether they may be or may not be on actual duty, elected by the Legislative Council, two of whom are advocates and the third a merchant, industrialist or landowner or a highest tax payer. In the decision of matters of account the Director of Finances also sits on the special tribunal.

Under the presidency of the Governor-General the following bodies are also working:—

Technical Council of Public Works.—Its members are all engineers on permanent duty in the head office, a military officer of highest rank in the army or navy, the Director of Finances, the Attorney-General, the Chief Health Officer and a Secretary being a clerk of the Public Works Department appointed by the Director of Public Works.

Council of Public Instruction.—This is composed of six members appointed by Government and seven elected from among the professors, there being one elected by the Medical College of Nova-Goa, two by the Lyceum of Nova-Goa, one by the Municipal Lyceums of Mapuca and Margão, two by the Corporation of the Teachers of Portuguese Primary Instruction, and one by the Teachers of Marathi and Guzerathi Primary Instruction.

There is also Financial Council composed by the Fiscal Auditor and by the Judges of both Civil and Criminal Jurisdictions of the Judicial division of Ilhas.

There is one High Court in the State of India, with five Judges and one Attorney-General; and Courts of Justice at Panjim, Margao, Mapuca, Bicholim, Quepém e Damão; and Municipal Courts of Justice at Mormugão (Vasco da Gama),

PORT OF MORMUGAO.

Mormugão is situated towards the south of Aguada Bar, on the left Bar, on the left bank of Zuari River in Lat. 15° 25' N. and Long. 73° 47' E., about 225 miles south of Bombay and 6½ miles south of Panjim, the Capital of Portuguese India. The Port of Mormugão is the natural outlet to the sea for the whole area served by the M. & S. M. Ry. (metre-gauge), and offers the shortest route both passenger and goods traffic. The distance from Aden to Mormugão is about the same as from Aden to Bombay. The Port is provided with light-houses, buoys and all necessary marks and it is easily accessible all the year round and at any hour of the day or night even without the assistance of a Pilot. Pilotage is not compulsory, but when usual pilot flag is hoisted, a qualified officer will board the vessel and render such assistance.

Mormugão Harbour is the terminal station of the West of India Portuguese Railway which is controlled by the Madras and Southern Maharatta Railway Company, with headquarters at Madras. Goods are shipped direct from Mormugão to any Continental Ports every facility being afforded for such direct shipments. Cargo can be unloaded from or loaded direct into Railway wagons, which run alongside steamers, thus reducing handling. Warehouses are built on the quay and have railway sidings alongside. Steamers of over 5,000 tons net register, from any Continental Ports can be discharged or loaded rapidly and in complete safety, in a working day of 10 hours 650 tons iron work or 800 tons bale or bag cargo can easily be loaded or discharged. The port is provided with steam cranes and all other appliances for quick loading and discharging of vessels, one of the cranes being of 30 tons capacity for discharging heavy lifts. The tonnage, quay dues and all other charges are very low, special concessions being granted for steamers arriving from European or American Ports touching Lisbon. Fresh water can be obtained at a low cost.

The Bombay Steam Navigation Company's (Shepherd) steamers between Bombay and Mangalore call at Mormugão twice a week. The British India Steam Navigation Company's steamers between Bombay and Africa call at Mormugão at least once a month. The Ellerman Strick Line maintains a regular service from Liverpool to Mormugão calling occasionally at Lisbon. This service offers every facility for shipment from the United Kingdom to stations on the M. & S. M. Railway under the "Combined Sea and Rail Through Bills of Lading". There are several stevedoring firms, the maximum rate for discharging or loading coal and general cargo being fixed by Government at 6 annas per ton, deadweight. Goods for British India pass through Goa without any charge being collected by Portuguese Government. British Customs duty payable at Castle-Rock can be paid by the Railway Company and collected at destination. Goods from stations on the M. & S. M. Ry. System to Mormugão or vice-versa are railed without transshipment, thus avoiding a second handling. Steam tugs, barges, etc., for unloading in the stream can be had at a very low charge.

With view to promoting the economical, commercial and industrial development of Mormugão, a special Department under the designation of the "Mormugão Improvement Trust" with its head office at Vasco da Gama, 2 miles from Mormugão Harbour, has been created and the Local Government have introduced various regulations granting every facility to those intending to raise buildings for residential and industrial purposes in the whole area, comprising about 300 acres, near the Harbour. There are over 2,000 plots, each measuring between 1,000 and 2,000 square metres (each square yard—0.8361 square metre), available for residential quarters, granted on permanent lease on each payment of 2 annas to Rs. 1.8 per square metre, according to their situation, in addition to an annual payment of 4 pias per square metre as lease-hold rent. Within about 60 days from the date of application for a plot, the same is made over to the applicant or to the highest bidder, should there be more than one applicant for one and the same plot. The plan of buildings is in all cases subject to the approval of the Chairman of the Improvement Trust, such plan being required to be submitted within 60 days from the date the plot is made over to the lessee, and the period within which building is to be completed is 2 years. Importation of building materials is allowed free of Custom duties. In addition to the above, there is an extensive area available and reserved only for Industrial and Commercial Establishments, this area being known as "Free Zone". Within this "Free Zone", in addition to plots, which are leased at a very low rate for building factories, bonded warehouses or for establishment of any kind of industrial or commercial concerns, in accordance with rules and regulations lately issued by the local Government, special concessions and privileges are granted, such as:

(I) *For Establishment of Factories or Industrial Concerns.*—All machinery, building materials, tools, raw materials, etc., required for construction, maintenance and regular working of the factories are permitted free of import duty, likewise export of the goods manufactured within the "Free Zone".

(II) *For Establishment of Depots of Manufactured or Unmanufactured Goods, Bonded Warehouses, etc.,*—All goods imported by the Concessionaire for the purpose of such depot are allowed to be exported to any Foreign Territory, after being improved and repacked, if necessary, without payment of either import or export duty.

(III) *Exemption of Government Taxes.*—In addition to the above privileges, all Factories, Commercial Establishments, buildings, etc., within the "Free Zone" are exempt from all Government taxes for a period of 20 years from May 1923. Applications for any of the above concessions have to be addressed to H.E. the Governor-General of Goa and presented at the office of the Mormugão Improvement Trust at Vasco da Gama, giving therein full particulars of the area and plot, etc., required. Such applications are disposed of within as little time as possible. Full information can be obtained from the Mormugão Improvement Trust, Vasco da Gama.

DAMAN.

The settlement of Daman lies at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay, about 100 miles north of Bombay. It is composed of two portions, namely, Daman proper, lying on the coast, and the detached pargana of Nagar Avell, separated from it by a narrow strip of British territory and bisected by the B. B. & C. I. Railway. Daman proper contains an area of 22 square miles and 28 villages and has a population (1921) of 17,566. Nagar Avell has an area of 60 square miles and a population (1921) of 31,048. The town of Daman was sacked by the Portuguese in 1531, rebuilt by the natives and retaken by the Portuguese in 1558, when they made it one of their permanent establishments in India. They converted the mosque into a church and have since built eight other places of worship. Of the total population the number of Christians is 1,751. The number of houses is 10,164 according to the same census. The native Christians adopt the European costume, some of the women dressing themselves after the present European fashion, and others following the old style of petticoat and mantle once prevalent in Spain and Portugal.

The soil of the settlement is moist and fertile, especially in the Pargana of Nagar Avell, but despite the ease of cultivation only one-

twentieth part of the territory is under tillage. The principal crops are rice, wheat, the inferior cereals of Gujarat and tobacco. The settlement contains no minerals. There are stately forests in Nagar Avell, and about two-thirds of them consist of teak, but the forests are not conserved and the extent of land covered by each kind of timber has not been determined. Before the decline of Portuguese power in the East, Daman carried on an extensive Commerce especially with the east coast of Africa. In those days it was noted for its dyeing and weaving.

The territory forms for administrative purposes a single district and has a Municipal Chamber and Corporation. It is ruled by a Governor invested with both civil and military functions, subordinate to the Governor-General of Goa. The judicial department is administered by a judge, with an establishment composed of a delegate of the Attorney-General and two clerks. In Nagar Avell the greater part of the soil is the property of the Government, from whom the cultivators hold their tenures direct. A tax is levied on all lands, whether alienated or the property of the State. The chief sources of revenue are land-tax, forests, excise and customs duties.

DIU.

Diu is an island lying off the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula, from which it is separated by a narrow channel through a considerable swamp. It is composed of three portions, namely, Diu proper (island), the village of Gogla, on the Peninsula, separated by the channel, and the fortress of Simbor, about 5 miles west of the island. It has a small but excellent harbour, where vessels can safely ride at anchor in two fathoms of water and owing to the great advantages which its position offers for trade with Arabia and the Persian Gulf, the Portuguese were fired at an early period with a desire to obtain possession

of it. This they gained, first by treaty with the Sultan of Gujarat and then by force of arms. Diu became opulent and famous for its commerce. It has now dwindled into insignificance. The extreme length of the island is about seven miles and its breadth, from north to south, two miles. The area is 20 square miles. The population of the town of Diu, from which the island takes its name, is said to have been 50,000 in the days of its commercial prosperity. The total population of the island, according to the census of 1921, is 13,844, of whom 228 were Christians.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS.

The French possessions in India comprise five Settlements, with certain dependent lodges, or plots. They aggregate 203 square miles, and had a total population in 1923 of 272,427. The first French expedition into Indian waters, with a view to open up commercial relations, was attempted in 1603. It was undertaken by private merchants at Rouen, but it failed, as also did several similar attempts which followed. In 1642 Cardinal Richelieu founded the first Campagne d'Orient, but its efforts met with no success. Colbert reconstituted the Company on a larger basis in 1664, granting exemption from taxes and a monopoly of the Indian trade for fifty years. After having

twice attempted, without success, to establish itself in Madagascar, Colbert's Company again took up the idea of direct trade with India and its President, Caron, founded in 1668 the Compagnie, or agency, at Surat. But on finding that city unsuited for a head establishment he seized the harbour of Trincomalee in Ceylon from the Dutch. The Dutch, however, speedily retook Trincomalee; and Caron, passing over to the Coromandel coast, in 1672, seized St. Thome, a Portuguese town adjoining Madras, which had for twelve years been in the possession of Holland. He was, however, compelled to restore it to the Dutch in 1674.

The ruin of the Company seemed impending

when one of its agents, the celebrated Francois Martin, suddenly restored it. Rallying under him a handful of sixty Frenchmen, saved out of the wreck of the settlements at Trincomalee and St. Thome, he took up his abode at Pondicherry, then a small village, which he purchased in 1683 from the Raja of Gingee. He built fortifications, and a trade began to spring up; but he was unable to hold the town against the Dutch, who wrested it from him in 1693, and held it until it was restored to the French by the Peace of Ryswick, in 1697. Pondicherry became in this year and has ever since remained, the most important of the French Settlements in India. Its foundation was contemporaneous with that of Calcutta. Like Calcutta, its site was purchased by a European Company from a native prince, and what Job Charnock was to Calcutta, Francois Martin proved to Pondicherry. On its restitution to the French by the Peace of Ryswick in 1697, Martin was appointed Governor, and under his able management Pondicherry became an entrepot of trade.

Chandernagar, in Lower Bengal, had been acquired by the French Company in 1688, by grant from the Delhi Emperor; Mahé, on the Malabar Coast, was obtained in 1725-6, under the government of M. Lenor; Karikal, on the Coromandel Coast, under that of M. Dumas, in 1739. Yanam, on the coast of the Northern Circars, was taken possession of in 1750, and formally ceded to the French two years later.

Administration.

The military command and administration-in-chief of the French possessions in India are vested in a Governor, whose residence is at Pondicherry. The office is at present held by Monsieur L. Gerblin. He is assisted by a Chief Justice and by several "Chefs de Service" in the different administrative departments. In 1879 local councils and a council-general were established, the members being chosen by a sort of universal suffrage within the French territories. Seventeen Municipalities, or Communal Boards, were erected in 1907, namely, Pondicherry, Ariancoupan, Modeliarpeth, Oulgaret, Villenour, Tiroubouvane, Bahour and Nettarepam, for the establishment of Pondicherry; Karikal, Neravy, Nedouneadon, Tirunalar, Grande Aldée, Cothery, for the establishment of Karikal, and also Chandernagar, Mahé and Yanam. On municipal boards natives are entitled to a proportion of the seats. Civil and criminal courts, courts of first instance and a court of appeal compose the judicial machinery. The army and establishments, connected with the Governor and his staff at Pondicherry, and those of administrators at Chandernagar, Yanam, Mahé and Karikal,

together with other headquarters charges, necessarily engross a large proportion of the revenue. All the state and dignity of an independent Government, with four dependent ones, have to be maintained. This is effected by rigid economy, and the prestige of the French Government is worthily maintained in the East. Pondicherry is also the scene of considerable religious pomp and missionary activity. It forms the seat of an Archbishop, with a body of priests for all French India; and of the Missions Etrangères, the successors of the Mission du Carnatic founded by the Jesuits in 1776. But the chief field of this mission lies outside the French Settlements, a large proportion of its Christians are British subjects and many of the churches are in British territory. The British rupee is the ordinary tender within French territories. A line of railway running via Villenour, from Pondicherry to Villupuram on the South Indian Railway, maintains communication with Madras and the rest of British India, and Karikal is linked to the same railway by the branch from Peralam. A Chamber of Commerce consisting of fifteen members, nine of them Europeans or persons of European descent, was reorganised by a decree of 7th March, 1914. The capital, Pondicherry, is a very handsome town, and presents, especially from the sea, a striking appearance of French civilisation.

People and Trade.

The Settlements are represented in Parliament at Paris by one senator and one deputy. The Senator is Mons. P. Bluyssen. The Deputy is Mons. G. Angoulvant. There were in 1923, 54 primary schools and 3 colleges, all maintained by the Government, with 240 teachers and 8,009 pupils. Local revenue and expenditure (budget of 1924) Rs. 28,70,410. The principal crops are paddy, groundnut, and ragi. There are at Pondicherry 3 cotton mills, and at Chandernagar 1 jute mill; the cotton mills have, in all, 1,616 looms and 70,522 spindles, employing 7,885 persons. There are also at work one oil factory and a few oil presses for groundnuts, one ice factory, one iron works and a cocotene factory. The chief exports from Pondicherry are oil seeds. At the ports of Pondicherry, Karikal, and Mahé in 1923 the imports amounted to 32,549,061 francs and the exports to 45,249,890 francs. At these three ports in 1923, 277 vessels entered and cleared. Tonnage 95,089 T718. Pondicherry is visited by French steamers, sailing monthly between Colombo and Calcutta in connection with the Messageries Maritimes. The figures contained in this paragraph are the latest available and are corrected up to December 1923.

PONDICHERRY.

Pondicherry is the chief of the French Settlements in India and its capital is the headquarters of their Governor. It is situated on the Coromandel Coast, 105 miles from Madras by road and 122 by the Villupuram-Pondicherry branch of the South Indian Railway. The area of the Settlement is 115 square miles

and its population in 1923 was 272,427. It consists of the eight communes of Pondicherry. The Settlement was founded in 1674 under Francois Martin. In 1693, it was captured by the Dutch but was restored in 1699. It was besieged four times by the English. The first siege

under Admiral Boscawen in 1748 was unsuccessful. The second, under Eyre Coote in 1761, resulted in the capture of the place, which was restored in 1765. It was again besieged and captured in 1778 by Sir Hector Munro, and the fortifications were demolished in 1779. The place was again restored in 1785 under the Treaty of Versailles of 1783. It was captured a fourth time by Colonel Braithwaite in 1793, and finally restored in 1816.

The Settlement comprises a number of isolated pieces of territory which are cut off from the main part and surrounded by the British District of South Arcot, except where they border on the sea. The Collector of South Arcot is empowered to deal with ordinary correspondence with the French authorities on these and kindred matters, and in this capacity is styled the Special Agent. At Pondicherry itself is a British Consular Agent accredited to the French Government, who is usually an officer of the Indian Army.

The town is compact, neat and clean, and is divided by a canal into two parts, the *Ville blanche* and the *Ville noire*. The *Ville blanche* has a European appearance, the streets being laid at right angles to one another with trees along their margins reminding the visitor of continental boulevards, and the houses being constructed with courtyards and embellished with green venetians. All the cross streets lead down to the shore, where a wide promenade facing the sea is again different from anything of its kind in British India. In the middle is a screw-pile pier, which serves, when ships touch at the port, as a point for the landing of cargo, and on holidays as a general promenade for the population. There is no real harbour at Pondicherry; ships lie at a distance of about a mile from the shore, and communication with them is conducted by the usual *masula* boats of this coast. Facing the shore end of the pier is a statue of the great Dupleix, to whom the place and the French name owed so much.

CHANDERNAGAR.

Chandernagar is situated on the bank of the Hooghly, a short distance below Chinsura. Population (1923) 25,125. The town was permanently occupied by the French in 1688, though previously it had been temporarily occupied by them at a date given as 1672 or 1676. It did not, however, rise to any importance till the time of Dupleix. It changed hands between British and French various times during the Napoleonic wars and was finally restored to the French in 1816.

The former grandeur of Chandernagar has

disappeared, and at present it is little more than a quiet suburban town with little external trade. The railway station on the East Indian Railway is just outside French territory 22 miles from Calcutta (Howrah). The chief administrative officer is the Administrator who is subordinate to the Governor of the French Possessions. The chief public institution is the College Dupleix, formerly called St. Mary's Institution, founded in 1882 and under the direct control of the French Government.

KARIKAL.

Karikal lies on the Coromandel Coast between the Tanjore District of Madras and the Bay of Bengal. The settlement is divided into six communes, containing 110 villages in all, and covering an area of 53 square miles. It is governed by an Administrator subordinate to the Governor at Pondicherry. The population has in recent years rapidly decreased. In 1883 it was 93,055; in 1891, 70,526; in 1901, 56,595; in 1912, 56,579; in 1921, 64,356; and in 1922, 64,603; in 1923, 57,023; but the density is still very high, being 1,068 persons per square mile. Kumbakonam is the only taluk in Tanjore District which has a higher density. Each of the six communes—namely, Karikal, La Grande Alidee, Nedungadu, I Cothery, Neravy and Tir-noular—possesses a mayor and council. The members are all elected by universal suffrage, but

in the municipality of Karikal half the number of seats are reserved for Europeans or their descendants. The country is very fertile, being irrigated by seven branches of the Cauvery, besides many smaller channels.

The capital of the settlement is situated on the north bank of the river Arasalar, about 1½ miles from its mouth. It has a brisk trade in rice with Ceylon, and to a less extent with the Straits Settlements. It has no commerce with France, and very little with other French colonies. The port is merely an open roadstead, provided with a light-house 142 feet high, the light in which has a range of from 8 to 10 miles. In 1899 Karikal was connected with Paralem on the Tanjore District Board Railway. Karikal finally came into French possession on the settlement after 1815.

The Frontiers.

By those who take a long view of politics in the wide sense of the term, it will be seen that the Indian Frontier Problem, which has loomed so large in the discussion of Indian questions, has always borne a two-fold character—the local issue and the international issue. For almost a century the international issue was the greater of the two, and the most serious question which the Indian Government, both directly and as the executors of British Imperial policy, had to face. But the tendency of recent times has been for the international aspect to recede and for the local aspect to grow in importance, until now it may be said, with as much truth as characterises all generalisations, that the local issue dominates, if it does not absorb the situation.

The Local Problem.—The local problem, in its broadest outlines, may be briefly indicated before proceeding to discuss it in detail. From the Arabian Sea on the West to the confines of Nepal is a wild and troublous sea of the highest mountains in the world. The thin valleys in these immense ranges are poorly populated by hardy, brave, militant mountaineers, rendered the fiercer and the more difficult by professing the martial Moslem faith, accentuated by the most bitter fanaticism. But sparse as the population is, it is in excess of the supporting power of the country. Like mountaineers in all parts of the world, these brave and fearless men have sought to eke out their exiguous agriculture by raiding the rich plains of Hindustan. We may find a fairly close parallel to the situation in the position of the Highlands of Scotland. Until after the rebellion of 1745 the English Government of the day sought a permanent remedy by opening for the warlike Highlanders a military career in the famous Highland regiments, and in rendering military operations easier by the construction of Wade's road. The Highland problem has disappeared so long from English politics that its pregnant lessons are little realised, but if the curious student will read again that brilliant novel by Neil Munro, "The New Road," he will appreciate what Wade's work meant for the Highlands of Scotland, and what lessons it teaches those who are called upon to face, in its local aspect, the Indian frontier problem. So far as the area with which we are dealing was concerned, two policies were tried. In Baluchistan, the genius of Sir Robert Sandeman devised the method of entering into military occupation of the principal points, and thence controlling the country. At the same time close engagements were entered into with the principal chiefs, through whom the tribesmen were kept in order. That policy was so successful that whilst the administration was expensive the Baluchistan frontier did not seriously embarrass the Government of India from the time when Sandeman set his mark on the land. Not that the country was entirely peaceful. Occasional tribal raids or risings necessitated occasional military operations, and the Gomal Pass was involved in the general tribal disturbances which followed the wanton declaration of war by Afghanistan in 1919. But speaking broadly, Sandeman brought peace to Baluchistan, and to the large frontier area which is embraced in that generic term. So far as this section of the frontier is

concerned it may be said that no frontier problem exists, save the need for an economical and constructive policy.

Towards Afghanistan.—Far otherwise is it with the section of the frontier which stretches from Baluchistan to the confines of Nepal. That has, for three quarters of a century, been the scene of almost ceaseless military operations, which have constituted a devastating drain on the Indian exchequer. One seeks in vain for a clear and definite policy guiding the actions of the Government of India. One explanation of these inconsistencies is found in the existence of two schools of thought. Once the frontier with Afghanistan had been delimited, the soldiers naturally pressed for the armed occupation of the whole country right up to the confines of Afghanistan, or at any rate, for military posts, linked with good communications, which would dominate the country. But those who looked at policy not only from the military standpoint, were conscious of two considerations. They saw that occupation up to the Afghan frontier only meant the shifting of the frontier problem farther North. Instead of the differing tribes, we should have to meet the Afghan on our border line. If Afghanistan were a strong, homogeneous State, that would be a matter of little account. But even under the iron rule of Abdurhaman Khan, the Amir's writ ran but lightly on the southern confines of his kingdom. Under his successor, Habibullah Khan, whose policy was generally wise and successful, it ran still less firmly. The Amir was unable to control the organisation of the tribal gatherings which involved us in the Zakka Khel and Mohmand expeditions during the Indian secretaryship of that arch pacifist, Lord Morley. Nor did it enable Habibullah to deal effectively with a rising against his own Governor in Khost. The Afghan forces melted away under transport difficulties when they were moved against the rebellious Khostwails, and the Amir had to make peace with his troublesome vassals. Therefore the occupation of the frontier up to what is called the Durand Line, because it is the line demarcated by Sir Mortimer Durand as the British Plenipotentiary, would simply have meant that in time of trouble we should have to deal with Afghanistan instead of a tribe or two, and with the irreconcilable tribesmen along our difficult line of communications. There was the further consideration that financiers were of the sound belief that even if the Forward Policy was wise from the military standpoint, it would involve charges over an indefinite period greater than the Indian finances would bear. Moreover on this section of the Frontier, the position was complicated by the expansion of Russia in Central Asia. The easiest passes, and the passes down which for centuries from the time of Alexander the Great invaders had swept from Persia and Central Asia, to loot the fat plains of Hindustan, traverse this region. Therefore it was deemed essential to control, if not to occupy them, in the interests of the Imperial situation. In this zone therefore policy ebbed and flowed between the Forward School, which would have occupied, or dominated, the whole Frontier up to the Durand Line, that is to say up to the Afghan frontier; and the

Close Border School, which would have us remain out of the difficult mountainous zone and meet the tribesmen on the plains if they sallied forth. The extreme advocates of this school would even have had us return to the line of the Indus.

The Two Policies.—The result of this conflict of opinion was a series of wavering compromises, which like all compromises was profoundly unsatisfactory. We pushed forward posts here and there, which irritated the Tribesmen, and made them fearful of their prized independence, without controlling them. These advanced posts were in many cases inadequately held and rarely were they linked with their supporting posts by adequate means of communication. We preserved between our administrative frontier, and the Durand Line which demarcated our frontier with Afghanistan an irregular belt of land called The Independent Territory, in which neither we nor the Afghan Government exercised jurisdiction. This was left entirely under the control of the tribes who peopled it. Now it has often been asked why we did not follow the precedent of Baluchistan and "Sandemanise" the Independent Territory. That is one of the perennial topics of Frontier discussions. It is however important to bear in mind that there were essential differences between this zone and Baluchistan. Sir Robert Sandeman found a strong tribal system existing in Baluchistan, and he was able to enter into direct engagements with the tribal chiefs. There is no such tribal organisation in the Independent Territory. The tribal chiefs, or maliks, exercise a very precarious authority, and the instrument for the collective expression of the tribal will is not the chief, but the jirga, or tribal council, of the most democratic character, where the voice of the young men of the tribe often has the same influence, in time of excitement perhaps more influence, than the voice of the wiser greybeard. The bitter fruit of this policy of compromise was reaped in 1897, when following a minor outbreak in the Tochi Valley the general uneasiness flamed into a rising which involved the whole of the North-West Frontier, from the Gomal to the borders of Nepal. A force over thirty thousand strong had to be mobilised to deal with it. Even this large force, owing to the immense difficulties of transportation, was unable effectively to deal with the situation, though peace was made. The emergency thus created synchronised with the advent of Lord Curzon as Viceroy. He dealt with it in masterful fashion. In the first place, he separated the frontier zone from the Government of the Punjab, which had hitherto been responsible for its administration, and had organised for the purpose a special force of Frontier soldiers, known as the Punjab Irregular Frontier Force. This was the revival of a scheme as old as the viceroyalty of Lord Lytton, though no other Viceroy had been able to carry it through, in the face of the strong opposition of successive Punjab Governments. The area so separated was constituted into a separate administrative zone under the direct authority of the Government of India, exercised through a Chief Commissioner. Then Lord Curzon withdrew the advanced military posts and concentrated the Regular troops in bases better linked with the main military centres of India by roads and railways. The advanced posts, and especially important

passes like the Tochi, the Kurram and the Khyber, were entrusted to the defence of local militia, recruited from the tribesmen themselves, and officered by British officers drawn from the ranks of the Indian Army. Later it was supplemented by a fine development policy. The construction of the Upper Swat Canal, afterwards developed into the Swat Canal (q.v. Irrigation) led to such an increase in cultivation that the tribesmen were given a means of livelihood and were invested with the magic charm of valuable property. The irrigated part of the Frontier has since been one of the most peaceful in the whole border line.

Lord Curzon's Success.—Judged by every reasonable standard the Curzon policy was successful. It did not give us complete peace. There were occasional punitive expeditions demanded, such as for instance the Zakka Khel and Mohmand expeditions, and the Waziris, and in particular the truculent Mahsud Waziris, never ceased raiding. But in comparison with what had gone before, it gave us relative peace. It endured throughout the War, though the Waziris built up a heavy bill of offences, which whited settlement when Government were free from the immense preoccupations of the war. It broke down under the strain of the wanton invasion of India by the Afghans in the hot weather of 1919. On February 20th the Amir Habibullah Khan was assassinated in his sleep near Jelalabad. Although he does not figure so prominently in frontier history as his iron father Abdurrahman Khan, he nevertheless has high claims on the favourable verdict of history. None anticipated that any successor to Abdurrahman Khan could hold in the leash of a single State the fractious, fanatical tribes who make up the population of the Afghan kingdom. Yet this Habibullah did. On occasion his attitude seemed to be equivocal, as when armed gatherings of the tribes called lashkars were permitted to assemble in Afghan territory and to invade the Independent Territory, causing the Zakka Khel and Mohmand expeditions. But we must not judge a Statelike Afghanistan by European standards; the Amir had often to bow before the fanatical elements amongst his own people until they had burnt their fingers by contact with the British troops. At the outset of the War he warned the Government that he might often have to do things which seemed unfriendly, but they must trust him. In truth, the position of the Amir when Turkey entered on the war, and called Moslems everywhere to arms on the side of Germany was extraordinarily difficult; he received Turkish, German and Austrian missions in Kabul, from which British representatives were still excluded. But he kept Afghanistan out of the war, and with the complete defeat of the Central Powers and their satellites, his policy was justified up to the hilt. Indeed, his success was the cause of his assassination. The irreconcilable elements in the Kingdom saw that the day of reckoning had come and strove to avert the settlement of their account by the murder. When he was done to death, his brother, Nasrullah Khan, was proclaimed Amir by the assassins. But the conscience of Afghanistan revolted against the idea of Nasrullah, the arch-fanatic of the ruling House of Kabul, ascending the throne over the blood stained corpse of his brother. A military movement in Kabul itself

brushed him aside and installed the son of Habibullah, Amanullah Khan, on the throne. But Amanullah Khan soon found it was a thorny bed on which he lay, and encouraged by the disorders in India which followed the passing of stringent measures to deal with anarchical crime, set his troops in motion in April 25, 1919, and preaching a *jihad* promised his soldiery the traditional loot of Hindustan. The Indian Army was at once set in motion, and as has always been the case the regular Afghan Army was easily beaten. Dacca was seized, Jelalabad and Kabul were frequently bombed from the air, and there was nothing to prevent our occupation of Kabul, save the knowledge gleaned from the bitter heritage of the wars of 1833 and 1878, that it is one thing to overset a government in Afghanistan, but it is quite another to set up a stable government in its stead. The Government of India wisely held their hand, and the Afghans having sued for peace, a treaty was signed on the 8th August 1919.

But an untoward effect of this wanton war was to set the Frontier from the Gomal to the Khyber ablaze. With one or two exceptions, the Tribal Militia could not stand the strain of an appeal from their fellow tribesmen, and either melted away or joined the rising. This has often been described as the failure of the Curzon policy, which was based on the tribal militia. But there is another aspect to this issue, which was set out in a series of brilliant articles which Mr. Arthur Moore, its special correspondent, contributed to *The Times*. He pointed out that the militia was meant to be a military police force. The lapse of time, and forgetfulness of its real purpose, had converted the militia into an imitation of the regular army. The Militia was meant to be a police. When the War broke out its units were treated as a covering force behind which the Regular Army mobilised. This is a role which it was never intended they should serve; exposed to a strain which they should never have been called upon to bear, they crumpled under it. If this reasoning is correct—and a strong case can be marshalled in support of it—then what has been called the failure of the Curzon policy arose from the misconception and misdirection of that policy.

Russia and the Frontier.—On the other hand, if it be admitted that the Curzon policy was sound, and that its success was marked—a proposition with which we are in general agreement—it can also be claimed that the Curzon policy owed no small measure of its success to extraneous events. The greatest external force in moulding Indian frontier policy was the long struggle with Russia. For nearly three quarters of a century a vellel warfare for predominance in Asia was waged between Great Britain and Russia. There are few pages in British foreign policy less attractive to the student of Imperial affairs. Russia was confronted in Central Asia with precisely the same conditions as those which faced England in India when the course of events converted the old East India Company from a trading corporation into a governing body. The decaying khanates of Central Asia were impossible neighbours. Confronted with an inferior civilisation, and with neighbours who would not let her alone, Russia had to advance. True, the adventurous spirits in her armies, and some of the

great administrators in the Tsarist capital, were not adverse to paying off on the Indian Borderland the score against Great Britain for the Crimean War, and for what the Russians thought was depriving them of the fruits of their costly victory over Turkey in 1877-78. The result was a long and unsatisfactory guerrilla enterprise between the hardest spirits on both sides, accompanied by periodic panics in the British Press each time the Russians moved forward, which induced the ceding, after the Russian occupation of Merv, of the generic term "Mervousness." This external force involved the Government of India in the humiliations of the Afghan War of 1838, with the tragic destruction of the retiring Indian force between Kabul and Jelalabad, slightly relieved by the heroic defence of Jelalabad and the firmness of General Pollock in refusing to withdraw the punitive army until he had set his mark on Kabul by the razing of the famous Bala Hisar fortress. It involved us in the second Afghan War of 1878, which left the baffling problem of no stable government in Afghanistan. There was a gleam of light when Abdurrahman Khan, whom we set up at Kabul to relieve us of our perplexities, proved himself a strong and capable ruler, if one ruthless in his methods. But in the early eighties the two States were on the verge of war over a squabble for the possession of Pendjeh, and then men began to think a little more clearly. There began a series of boundary delimitations and agreements which clarified the situation, without however finally settling it. The old controversy broke out in another form when intrigues with a Buriat monk, Dorjjeff, during Lord Curzon's viceroyalty, gave rise to the grave suspicion that the scene had only shifted to Tibet. An expedition to Lhasa rent the veil which had so long concealed the mysterious city and dispersed the miasma of this intrigue. But it was not until the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907 that the two countries arrived at a stage long sought by those who looked beyond their noses. The actual authors of the Agreement were Lord Grey, the Foreign Secretary, and Lord Hardinge, formerly British Ambassador in Petrograd, but it had been desired by their predecessors, whose efforts were rendered nugatory by the intransigent attitude of the dominant forces in Petrograd. It was not until Russia was chastened on the battlefields of Manchuria by Japan, and disappeared as a sea power in the decisive battle of Tsushima, that an atmosphere was created favourable to the conclusion of an Agreement. This embraced the whole frontier zone. There were many unsatisfactory features in the Agreement, especially in regard to Persia, for which we had to pay a considerable price in the attitude of Persians in the War. But again taking long views, the Agreement fully justified itself in a broad definition of the interest of the two countries, which put an end to the period of excursions and alarms up to the outbreak of the War. Henceforward Russia ceased to be a material factor in the Indian Frontier Problem, with the exception of a brief period when the Red Army was trotted out as another bogey.

German Influence.—But as nature abhors a vacuum, so in the case of States bordered by higher civilisations, no sooner does one strong

influence recede than some other takes its place. Long before the signing of the Anglo-Russian Agreement the shadow of the German menace had begun to appear on the horizon. Imitative, not creative, in this, as in most other activities, the Germans adapted their methods from the penetration by railway which was so marked a feature of Russian expansion in Manchuria, brought to an end by the disastrous issue of the war with Japan. The seeds of the German effort were sown when the Kaiser, extending the hand of Christian fellowship to the Sultan of Turkey, Abdul-Hamed, at a time when that sovereign was ostracised by Europe for his direct complicity in the massacre of Armenians, or rather one of the massacres of Armenians, made German influence supreme at Constantinople. His theatrical tour through Palestine, which was generally treated in Europe as an exhibition of opera bouffe, soon bore fruit in the acquisition by German interests of the principal railways in Anatolia. Later it fructified more effectively in the Baghdad Railway concession, under which German interests secured the right of extending the Anatolian lines from the port of Haidar Pasha, opposite Constantinople, to a port in the Persian Gulf. Now successive British Statesmen of both parties had declared that the acquisition of a territorial foothold in the Persian Gulf by any power—Russia and the port of Bunder Abbas being then in view—would be regarded as an unfriendly act. There followed a replica of the period of alarms and excursions which had disfigured our relations with Russia. Undaunted, even when their endeavour to secure British co-operation in the enterprise failed, and when the Revolution in Turkey which set the Committee of Union and Progress in power entailed a temporary interruption of their influence at Constantinople, the Germans pressed forward with their enterprise. They pushed the Anatolian railways as far east as Bourghula, and constructed a line northwards from Baghdad to Samarra. They sent a mission to explore the potentialities of the port of Koweit in the Persian Gulf, and set the Turks in motion to subordinate the Sheikh of Koweit to direct Turkish sovereignty, with a nominal view to extending the Baghdad railway from Basra to Koweit, or the vicinity of Koweit at the deep water inlet behind Bublik Island. They commenced the most difficult part of the work in piercing the Amanus and Taurus ranges by a series of tunnels, and laid the rails on the other side of the mountains across the Euphrates to Bas al-Ain. Behind this railway activity stood a grandiose policy, which is indicated in what became known in Germany as "B.B.B."—Berlin, Byzantium, Baghdad. Throughout the progress of these schemes, which did not stop short of Baghdad, but were directed through a port in the Persian Gulf, at India, the Germans were anxious to secure the co-operation of Great Britain, if they could do so on their own terms, that is to say without affecting the enterprise as a dominant German adventure. Shortly before the commencement of the war the protracted negotiations with London which had this end in view ended in a definite agreement between the two Powers. Under this agreement the Gulf section of the line was to have been British, and the other portion German. But this agreement which

had not been signed became waste paper with the outbreak of the war, and the German plans vanished in thin air with the complete defeat of Turkey and Germany. Nevertheless the railway did not stand still during the war. Germany made immense efforts to complete the difficult tunnel sections and the work was substantially finished when the Armistice was signed.

The Significance of the Baghdad Railway.—The real significance of the Baghdad Railway was little appreciated in Great Britain. It was constantly pictured as a great trunk line, which would short-circuit the traditional British dominance by sea, and absorb the passenger and goods traffic from the East. This idea could only be nourished by those completely ignorant of the conditions of the Indian passenger service and the essentials of a competitive route for the carriage of merchandise. The rush of passenger traffic from India is from April to June, in order to escape the hot weather in India, and the return traffic is chiefly concentrated in October and November. From April to June the heat in Mesopotamia is appalling. To imagine that the passenger traffic from India would turn from the easy and comfortable, as well as fairly expeditious sea route from Bombay to Marseilles and thence by the easiest railway travelling outside the British Isles to Calais and London, for such a land route was an amazing chimera. The Baghdad route would have involved a sea voyage from Bombay or Karachi to Koweit or Basra, then a journey across the burning plains of Mesopotamia and Asia Minor to Haidar Pasha, then across the Straits to Constantinople, and finally right across Europe to a North Sea port. This would in any circumstances have been a costly freak journey in comparison with the sea route. Then as for the commercial aspect of the line, the natural port of the Middle East is Basra. The sea freight from England or Germany to Basra, is about one pound sterling a ton; before the war it was often down to fifteen shillings. The freight from Basra to Baghdad was from thirty shillings to two pounds a ton. To imagine again that merchandise would desert this route for a land and sea route, which would have involved a double break of bulk at Constantinople and Haidar Pasha, is again a chimera; the freight charges could not have been less than fifteen to twenty pounds a ton.

As a through route the primary purpose of the Baghdad Railway was strategic. It was designed to make the Power seated at Constantinople—and that Power the Teutons were resolved should be Germany—complete master of Asia Minor and the Middle East, and the route selected, often criticised, was the best for the rapid movement of troops to the strategic centres. As a commercial line, the Railway, if completed, would have served three zones. The western area of Turkey in Asia at Haidar Pasha. The rich lands of Anatolia at Alexandretta. The eastern zone at Basra. The Germans. It is understood, attached immense importance to the subsequent engagements with Turkey which placed them in maritime command at Alexandretta. They began to inaugurate a commercial position in the Persian Gulf through the establishment of a subsidised line of steamers run by the great Hamburg-America corporation. They strove to obtain an actual footing in the

Gulf through the German house of Wunkhaus. We doubt if the Germans were ever serious in their alleged designs on Koweit, which could never have borne a more definite relation to the commerce of the Gulf than Flushing to Antwerp or Cuxhaven to Hamburg; that was one of the red herrings they drew across their trail to divert attention from their real objective, Basra, which is destined by virtue of an unchallengeable geographical and natural position to be the great port of the Middle East. These considerations have no more than an academic value now. Germany has been defeated. The Turks, now they are emerging from an isolated military despotism based on Angora, are confronted with the immense problem of re-building their bankrupt State, deprived of the most intelligent section of the old population—the Greeks and the Armenians, by massacre and expulsion—are a very uncertain factor. The completion of the through line is indefinitely postponed. But as the advantages of the route, for the purposes we have indicated, are many and great, the ultimate construction of the through line is only a matter of time, so we have placed these authoritative characteristics on record for the guidance of opinion when the project of the through route is revived, as it must be.

Turkey and the Frontier.—The position of Turkey on the Indian frontier was never of any considerable importance in itself, and never assumed any significance, save as the *arab courier* of Germany, when she passed under the tutelage of that Power, and for a limited period during the war. Although so long established in Mesopotamia, Turkey was not very firmly seated in that country; the Arabs tolerated rather than accepted Turkish rule so long as they were substantially left alone, and the administration it is understood never paid its way. For a brief period Midhat Pasha raised the status of Mesopotamia, and after the Revolution that fine soldier Nazim Pasha became a power in the land. But speaking broadly Turkey remained in Mesopotamia because it was no-one's interest, even that of the Arab, to turn her out. When however Germany developed her "B.B.B." policy, Turkey was used as a stalking horse. She moved a small force to the Peninsula of Al-Katr in order to frighten the Sheikh of Bahrein, and tried to convert the nominal suzerainty exercised, or rather claimed, over the Sheikh of Koweit into a *de facto* suzerainty, exercised by military force. These efforts faded before the vigorous action of the British Government which concluded a binding arrangement with the Sheikh of Koweit, and the position of the Turks at Al Katr was always very precarious. On the outbreak of the war however the situation changed. When the sound and carefully-executed expedition to Basra and its strategic hinterland was developed into the insane enterprise to capture Baghdad by *coup de main*, with very inadequate forces, and still more inadequate transport, we found ourselves involved in military operations of the most extensive and unprofitable character. These were completely successful with General Maude's occupation of Baghdad. After the Russian *débacle* we found ourselves involved in a new front, which stretched from the Euphrates to the wildest part of Central

Asia, producing military exploits of an almost epic character, but exercising little influence on the war. They were brought to an end by pressure not on extensive wings, but at the heart of Turkish Power in Palestine, where Lord Allenby scattered the Turks like chaff. But the aftermath of the war left us in an indefinite position in Mesopotamia, with indefinite frontiers. This enabled the Turks, if they were so disposed, to be troublesome through guerilla warfare in the Mosul Zone, and by stirring up the Kurds, who are the Ishmaelites of Asia Minor. The signing of the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923, and its subsequent ratification by the Turkish National Assembly, promise to remove these difficulties. The Turks recognised that the Arab states were outside their zone of administration, and the boundaries between Turkey and the Arab administration set up in Mesopotamia under King Faisal were left to be determined by the League of Nations. Therefore from Turkey, we have reason to hope, will cease to be a factor in Indian frontier policy.

France and the Frontier.—If we touch for a few sentences on the position of France on the frontiers of India, it is not because they have any present day significance, but in order to complete this brief survey of the waxing and waning of external influences on Indian frontier policy. It is difficult to find any sound policy behind the efforts of France to obtain a coaling station at Maskat, in the Persian Gulf, and her long opposition to the steps necessary to extirpate the slave trade, and hold in check the immense traffic in arms which was equipping all the tribesmen on our North-West Frontier with rifles of precision and a large supply of ammunition. We can find no more definite purpose in it than a general pin-pricking policy, a desire to play the part of Russia, and perhaps a source of annoyance to Great Britain, which would form a useful lever for the exaction of considerable cessations in West Africa, particularly in the neighbourhood of Gambia, as the price of abstention. These embarrassments were slowly removed one by one after the conclusion of the Anglo-French Entente. Far otherwise was it in the East. The consolidation of French authority in French Indo-China was the prelude to designs for the expansion of this authority at the expense of Siam and to find compensation there for the veiled British protectorate of Egypt. There had earlier been mutterings in Burma. We were established in Lower Burma in the thirties, and in the eighties the foolish and tyrannical King Theebaw, in Upper Burma, became an impossible neighbour, and ambitious Frenchmen were not averse to fanning his opposition to the British. However, if any hopes were entertained of extending the Asiatic possessions of France in this direction, they were dissipated by the Second Burmese War and the firm establishment of British rule. Far otherwise was it on the confines of Siam. It was the fixed purpose of British policy to preserve Siam as a buffer state between Burma, then a regular Province of the Indian Empire, and French Indo-China. This policy was definitely challenged by French encroachments on Siam. Matters approached a crisis in 1894, and we were within measurable distance of a situation which might have ended in open war between the two States. But as in the case of Penjdeh,

and later when Major Marchand marched across Africa to Fashoda, the imminence of hostilities made statesmen on both sides ask themselves what they might be going to fight about. They found there was nothing essential and an agreement was negotiated between the two Powers, which secured the independence and integrity of Siam. That agreement has been consolidated by wise and progressive rule in Siam itself, under its own independent sovereign, who is imbued with a strong friendship for Great Britain, whilst at the same time maintaining good relations with French neighbours.

The New Frontier Problem.—The whole purpose of this brief sketch has been to show that for three generations—most assuredly since the events leading to the Afghan War of 1838—the Indian frontier problem has never been a local problem. It has been dominated by external influences—in the main the long struggle between Great Britain and Russia, for a brief period the German ambition to build up a dominant position in the East through the revival of the land route, and to a much lesser extent by the ambitions of France and Turkey. All these external influences have disappeared. There is no such prospect of their revival as justified us in taking them into consideration in the measures which are forced on the Governments responsible. The Indian frontier question has therefore developed from an Imperial into a local question—a condition on which we must lay fast hold, because people are tenacious of old ideas, especially when they are nearly a century old, and no proper understanding of the present position is possible, unless our consideration of it is governed by this essential fact, that the frontier question is purely local. But whilst these world changes were taking place, others were in progress which powerfully influence the difficulties of the situation. The tribesman was always an opponent to be respected. Brave, hardy, fanatical, he has always been a first-class fighting man. Knowing every inch of the inhospitable country in which punitive operations must of necessity take place he has hung on our rearwards and given them an infinity of trouble. Even when armed with a jezail, and when every cartridge had to be husbanded with jealous care, the tribesman was a respectable antagonist. Now the tribesmen are everywhere armed with magazine rifles, either imported through the Persian Gulf when gun-running was a thriving occupation, stolen from British magazines, or secured from Russian and Afghan sources. They have an abundant supply of ammunition. Considerable numbers of the fighting men have been trained in the ranks of the Indian Army, either as Regulars in the Pathan regiments, or else in the tribal militias. We found this to our cost in the events following the Afghan War of 1919. The Afghan regular army was of little account. The tribesmen who rose at the call of the jihad, especially in Waziristan, were of great account. They gave our troops the hardest fighting they have ever had on the Frontier; their marksmanship and fire discipline were described by ex-

perienced soldiers as admirable. The tribal militia, the keystone of the Curzon system, had for all practical purposes disappeared; what was to take its place?

Immediately following the Afghan War, the frontier positions were garrisoned by regular troops, but this was only a temporary measure. It may be said that the crux of the situation was in Waziristan. This sector of the Frontier has always been the most difficult of the whole, because of the intractable character of the people. Besides, possessing a bolt hole into Afghanistan they had in the past evaded effective punishment. In view of the complete disappearance of the external menace, and the consequent lapsing of any necessity to preserve open lines of communication which would enable us to go to the support of Afghanistan now formally recognised in the Treaty of 1921 as a completely independent state, there were many who urged the desirability of complete withdrawal, even to the line of the Indus. This extreme school gained little support. Our position in Quetta on the one side and Peshawar on the other is fully consolidated, and no good case can be made out for withdrawing from it. On the other hand, there was a strong case made out for leaving the tribesmen severely alone from the Gomal to the Kurram, and dealing with them if they emerged from their fastnesses. The military standpoint was that the Waziris are absolutely intractable; that it was unfair to impose on troops the frequent necessity of punitive operations in most arduous conditions; and that the only solution of the question was the occupation of dominant points in Waziristan, as far north as Laddha, and linking these posts with our military bases, and particular with the termini of the Indian frontier railways, by good motor roads.

This controversy has not ended yet; indeed one feels inclined to say that it never will end. It has resulted in a typically British compromise. The present policy has been aptly described as the "half-forward" policy. There has been no withdrawal in the ordinary sense of the term, but the limits of the Waziristan occupation have been fixed at Ramzak, not at Laddha. The network of consequential roads is being pushed forward. The Indian rail-head, which for so long terminated at Jamrud, at the southern entrance to the Khyber Pass, is now being extended to Landi Kotal and the frontier between India and Afghanistan. The regular troops are being withdrawn, and their place taken by khassadars. The difference between the khassadars and the old tribal militia is material. The militia were armed and equipped by the Indian military authorities; if they disappeared they took their arms and ammunition with them, and constituted a powerful reinforcement. The khassadars bring their own rifles with them, and therefore if they desert they do not constitute any reinforcement to those in arms against us. Many of these khassadars have already done good work in the punishment of tribal raids.

I.—THE PERSIAN GULF.

From what has gone before it will be seen that the keynote of this discussion of Indian frontier policy is that the external menace has disappeared, and that it is now a purely local question. No part of the frontier is more powerfully influenced by this consideration than the Persian Gulf. Our first appearance in the Gulf was in connection with the long struggle for supremacy with the Portuguese, the French and the Dutch, who had established trading stations there, with the capture and destruction of the great entrepot which the Portuguese had established at Ormuz, the supercession of the land by the sea route, and the appearance of anarchy in the interior the importance of the Gulf declined. The Indian Government remained there primarily to preserve the peace. This work it quietly and efficiently performed. Piracy was stamped out, the Trucial Chiefs, who occupy the Pirate Coast, were gradually brought into close relations with the Government, the vessels of the Royal Navy kept watch and ward, and our consuls regulated the external affairs of the Arab rulers on the Arab coast. In return for these services Great Britain claimed no selfish advantages. The waters of the Gulf were kept free to the navigation of the ships of all nations, and though Great Britain could have made any territorial acquisitions she pleased she retained possession of only the tiny station of Bassidu. Left to herself Great Britain desired no other policy, but for a quarter of a century the Gulf was involved in European affairs. France sought to acquire a coaling station at Jissa, near Maskat, and obstructed the efforts of the British Government to stamp out the slave trade and to check the immense traffic in arms which was equipping the tribes on our land frontier with weapons of precision and quantities of ammunition. All causes of difference were gradually removed by agreements following the Anglo-French Entente. Russia sent one of her finest cruisers to "show the flag" in the Gulf, and established consular posts where there were no interests of preserve. She was credited with the intention of occupying a warm water port, and in particular with casting covetous eyes on the most dreadful spot in the Gulf, Bander Abbas. This menace declined after the signing of the Anglo-Russian Agreement, and disappeared with the collapse of Russian power following the Revolution. Then Turkey, either acting for herself, or as the *avant courier* of Germany, under whose domination she had passed, began to stir. She threatened the Sheikh of Bahrain by the armed occupation of the peninsula of Al Katr, and moved troops to enforce her suzerainty over Koweit, the best port in the Persian Gulf, and a possible terminus of the Baghdad Railway. Further to consolidate her interests, or to stake out a claim, Germany sent the heavily-subsidized ships of the Hamburg-America line to the Gulf, where they comported themselves as the instruments of Imperial policy rather than as inoffensive merchantmen. She also strove, through the agency of the firm of Winkhaus, to acquire a territorial footing on the island of Shargah. These events stirred the British

Government to an unusual activity in the waters of the Gulf.

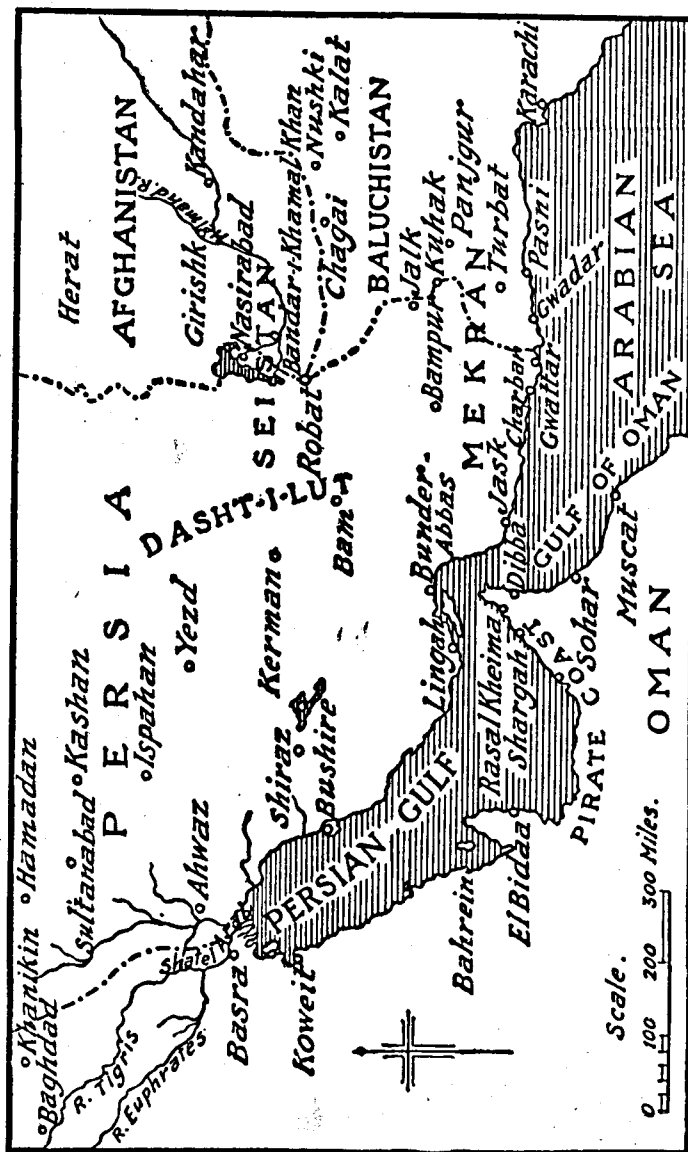
Counter Measures.

The first effective steps to counter these influences were taken during the vigorous viceroyalty of Lord Curzon, who visited the Gulf during his early travels and incorporated a masterly survey of its features in his monumental work on Persia. He appointed the ablest men he could find to the head of affairs, established several new consulates, and was instrumental in improving the sea communications with the Gulf ports. The British Government also took alarm. They were fortified in their stand against foreign intrigue by the opinion of a writer of unchallenged authority. The American Naval writer, the late Admiral Mahan, placed on record his view that "Concession in the Persian Gulf, whether by formal arrangement (with other Powers) or by neglect of the local commercial interests which now underlie political and military control will imperil Great Britain's naval position in the Farther East, her political position in India, her commercial interests in both, and the Imperial tie between herself and Australasia". The Imperial standpoint, endorsed by both Parties in the State, was set out by Lord Lansdowne in words of great import—"We (i.e., His Majesty's Government) should regard the establishment of a naval base or of a fortified port in the Persian Gulf by any other Power as a very grave menace to British interests, which we should certainly resist with all the means at our disposal." The negative measures following these declarations were followed by a constructive policy when the oil fields in the Bakhtiari country, with a great refinery, were developed by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, in which the British Government has a large financial stake. But with the disappearance of these external forces on Gulf policy, as set out in the introduction to this section, the politics of the Persian Gulf receded in importance, until they are now more than they were before these external influences developed—a local question, mainly a question of police. They are therefore set out more briefly than in earlier editions of the Indian Year Book, and those who desire a complete narrative are referred to The Indian Year Book for 1923, pp. 178-183.

Maskat.

Maskat, which is reached in about forty-eight hours from Karachi, is outside the Persian Gulf proper. It lies three hundred miles south of Cape Musandim, which is the real entrance to the Gulf, but its natural strength and historical prestige combine to make it inseparable from the politics of the Gulf, with which it has always been intimately associated.

Formerly Maskat was part of a domain which embraced Zanzibar, and the Islands of Kishm and Larak, with Bander Abbas on the Persian shore. Zanzibar was separated from it by agreement, and the Persians succeeded in establishing their authority over the possessions on the eastern shore.



The relations between Britain and Maskat have been intimate for a century and more. It was under British auspices that the separation between Zanzibar and Maskat was effected, the Sheikh accepted a British subsidy in return for the suppression of the slave trade and in 1892 sealed his dependence upon us by concluding a treaty pledging himself not to cede any part of his territory without our consent.

British Consul: Major R. G. Hinde.

The Pirate Coast.

Turning Cape Musandim and entering the Gulf Proper, we pass the Pirate Coast, controlled by the six Trucial Chiefs. The ill-name of this territory has now ceased to have any meaning, but in the early days it had a very real relation to the actual conditions. The pirates were the boldest of their kind, and they did not hesitate to attack on occasion, and not always without success, the Company's ships of war. Large expeditions were fitted out to break their power, with such success that since 1820 no considerable punitive measures have been necessary. The Trucial Chiefs are bound to Great Britain by a series of engagements, beginning with 1806 and ending with the perpetual treaty of 1853 by which they bound themselves to avoid all hostilities at sea, and the subsequent treaty of 1873 by which they undertook to prohibit altogether the traffic in slaves. The relations of the Trucial Chiefs are controlled by the British Resident at Bushire, who visits the Pirate Coast every year on a tour of inspection. The commercial importance of the Pirate Coast is increasing through the rise of Debal. Formerly Lingah was the entrepot for this trade, but the exactions of the Belgian Customs officials in the employ of Persia has driven the traffic from Lingah to Debal. The Trucial Chiefs are—Debal, Abu Thabee, Shargah, Anan, Um-al-Gawain and Ras-el-Kheyma.

Bahrein.

North of the Pirate Coast lies the little Archipelago which forms the chiefship of the Sheikh of Bahrein. Of this group of islands only those of Bahrein and Maharak are of any size, but their importance is out of all proportion to their extent. This is the great centre of the Gulf pearl fishery, which, in a good year, may be worth half a million pounds sterling. The anchorage is wretched, and at certain states of the tide ships have to lie four miles from the shore, which is not even approachable by boats, and passengers, mails and cargo have to be landed on the donkeys for which Bahrein is famous. But this notwithstanding the trade of the port is valued at over a million and a quarter sterling, and the customs revenue, which amounts to some eighty thousand pounds, makes the Sheikh the richest ruler in the Gulf. In the neighbourhood of Bahrein is the vast burning ground which has hitherto baffled archaeologists. The generally accepted theory is that it is a relic of the Phœnicians, who are known to have traded in these waters.

Political Agent, Major C. K. Daly.

Koweit.

At the north-west corner of the Gulf lies the port of Koweit, which has made more stir than any place

of similar size in the world. The importance of Koweit lies solely in the fact that it is the one possible Gulf terminus of the Baghdad Railway. This is no new discovery, for when the Euphrates Valley Railway was under discussion, General Chesney selected it under the alternative name of the Grane—so called from the resemblance of the formation of the Bay to a pair of horns—as the sea terminus of the line. Nowhere else would Koweit be called a good or a promising port. The Bay is 20 miles deep and 5 miles broad, but so shallow that heavy expense would have to be incurred to render it suitable for modern ocean-going steamers. It is sheltered from all but the westerly winds, and the clean thriving town is peopled by some 20,000 inhabitants, chiefly dependent on the sea, for the mariners of Koweit are noted for their boldness and hardihood.

Political Agent, Major J. C. More, D.S.O.

Muhammerah.

On the opposite side of the entrance to the Shatt-el-Arab lie the territories of a Sheikh who stands to the Persian Government in much the same relation as does the Sheikh of Koweit to the Government of Turkey—Sheikh Khazzal of Muhammerah. Nominally, he is subject to Teheran, on whose behalf he governs his territories as Governor; in practice he is more like a semi-independent vassal. The town, favourably situated near the mouth of the Karun River, has grown in importance since the opening of the Karun River route to trade through the enterprise of Messrs. Lynch Brothers. This route provides the shortest passage to Isfahan and the central tableland, and already competes with the older route by way of Bushire and Shiraz. This importance has grown since the Anglo-Persian Oil Company established refineries at Muhammerah for the oil which they win in the rich fields which they have tapped near Ahwaz. Its importance will be still further accentuated, if the scheme for a railway to Khorremabad by way of Dizful matures. A concession for a road by this route has long been held by a British Company.

Vice-Consul at Ahwaz, Captain C. G. L. Ryan.

Consul for Arabistan (Ahwaz), E. G. B. Peel.

Basra.

In a sense Basra and Turkish Arabistan can hardly be said to come within the scope of the frontiers of India, yet they are so indissolubly associated with the politics of the Gulf that they must be considered in relation thereto. Basra is the inevitable sea terminus of the Baghdad Railway. It stands on the Shatt-el-Arab, sixty miles from its mouth, favourably situated to receive the whole water-borne trade of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. The local traffic is valuable, for the richness of the date groves on either side of the Shatt-el-Arab is indescribable, there is a considerable entrepot traffic, whilst Basra is the port of entry for Baghdad and for the trade with Persia; which follows the caravan route via Kerman-shah and Hamadan.

The political destinies of Basra are at present wrapped up with the destinies of the new Arab State which we have set up in Mesopotamia under King Feisal. When the war

was over we found ourselves committed to immense, undefined and burdensome responsibilities in that land. The sound concepts which dictated the original expedition were dislocated in the foolish advance to Baghdad; then the great military enterprises necessitated by the fall of Kut-al-Amara carried our frontier north to Mosul and the mountains of Kurdistan, east to the Persian boundary, and west to the confines of Trans-Jordan. Amongst ardent Imperialists, there was undoubtedly the hope that this immense area would be in one way or another an integral part of the British Empire. The cold fit followed when the cost was measured, and the Arabs rose in a revolt which showed that any such domination could only be maintained by force of arms and that the cost would be prodigious. Under these circumstances King Feisal was imported from the Hedjaz and installed on the throne under the aegis of Great Britain. Still, we were committed to the support of the new kingdom, and that most dangerous condition arose—responsibility without any real power unless King Feisal was to be a mere puppet. Immense expenditure and indefinite military commitments. In these circumstances there was an insistent demand for withdrawal from the land. British policy moved slowly towards that end, but a definite step was taken in 1923. The Secretary of State for the Colonies announced this policy in a statement which is reproduced textually, for the purpose of reference. Addressing the House of Lords on May 3rd he said—

Your Lordships will remember that the Cabinet have been discussing this matter for some time, and decisions have now been taken. Sir Percy Cox has accordingly been authorised by His Majesty's Government to make an announcement at Baghdad, the terms of which I propose to read out to Your Lordships. This announcement was drawn up in consultation with King Feisal and his Government, and has their cordial assent. It is being published at Baghdad to-day.

The announcement is as follows:—

"It will be remembered that in the autumn of last year, after a lengthy exchange of views, it was decided between the Governments of His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty King Feisal that a Treaty of Alliance should be entered into between His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the King of Iraq. This Treaty, which was signed on the 10th October, 1922, and the term of which was to be twenty years (subject to periodical revision at the desire of either party) provided for the establishment of an independent Constitutional Government in Iraq, enjoying a certain measure of advice and assistance from Great Britain of the nature and extent indicated in the text of the Treaty itself and of subsidiary Agreements which were to be made thereunder.

"Since then the Iraq Government has made great strides along the path of independent and stable existence and has been able successfully to assume administrative responsibility, and both parties being equally anxious that the commitments and responsibilities of His Majesty's Government in respect of Iraq should be terminated as soon as possible, it is considered that the period of the Treaty in its present

form can conveniently be shortened. In order to obviate the inconvenience of introducing amendments into the body of a Treaty already signed, it has been decided to bring about the necessary modifications by means of a protocol which, like the Treaty itself, will be subject to ratification by the Constituent Assembly.

"Accordingly a protocol has now been signed by the parties in the following terms:—

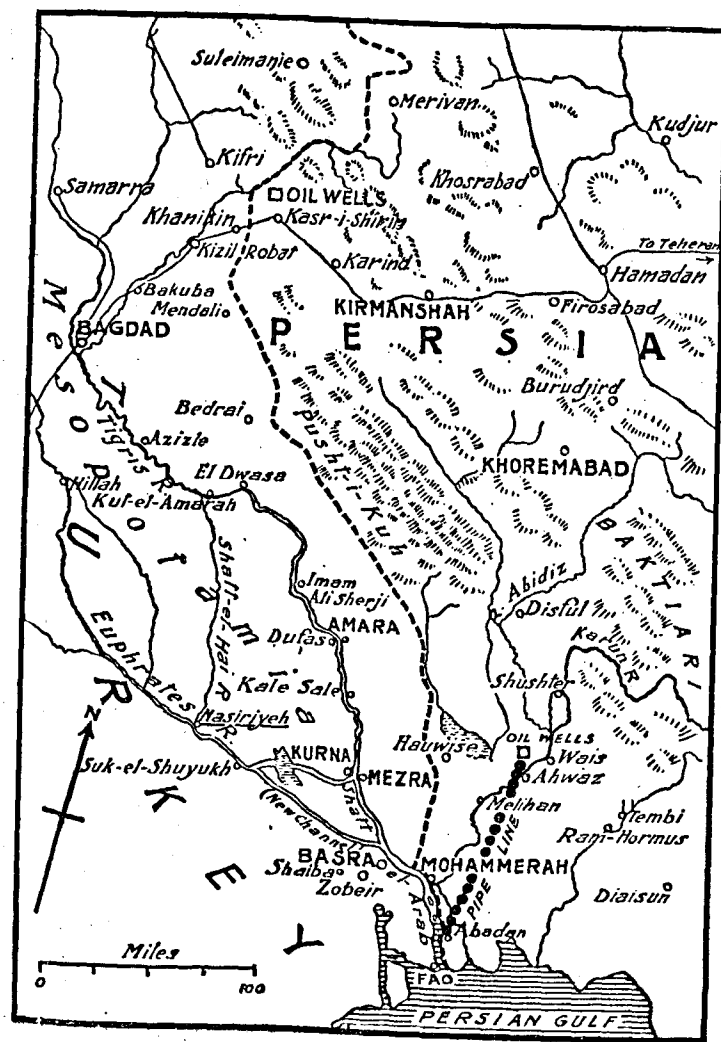
"It is understood between the High Contracting Parties that, notwithstanding the provisions of Article 18, the present Treaty shall terminate upon Iraq becoming a member of the League of Nations and in any case not later than four years from the ratification of peace with Turkey. Nothing in this protocol shall prevent a fresh agreement from being concluded with a view to regulate the subsequent relations between the High Contracting Parties; and negotiations for that object shall be entered into between them before the expiration of the above period."

It will be noticed that under this protocol the Treaty in its present form is to terminate on the entry of Iraq into the League of Nations or in four years, whichever may be earlier.

The position of Iraq as regards the League is that when the Treaty has been ratified His Britannic Majesty will be bound under Article 6 to use his good offices to secure the admission of Iraq to membership of the League of Nations as soon as possible. His Majesty's Government will be in a position to take this step on the fulfilment of the two following essential conditions, namely, the delimitation of the frontiers of Iraq, and the establishment of a stable government in accordance with the Organic Law. There is every reason to hope that both these conditions will be fulfilled at no distant date.

Under the Treaty of Lausanne between Turkey and the Powers, which was signed in 1923, it was agreed that the frontier between King Feisal's State and Turkey, the important frontier because the future of Mosul was in dispute, should be settled by the League of Nations, should Great Britain and Turkey be unable to come to agreement by direct negotiation. These direct negotiations were opened at Constantinople, but no agreement was reached, so the question was opened before the Council of the League in September 1924. Whilst the matter was under discussion complaint was made by Great Britain that Turkey had violated the provisional frontier drawn in The Treaty of Lausanne, and certain irregular hostilities were carried on in the disputed zone. This matter too was remitted to the League, and a further provisional boundary was drawn, which was accepted by both parties. As the matter remains at the close of the year the provisional boundary is being observed and the Council of the League is inquiring into the whole issue.

It is important to remember that there is a considerable difference between the vilayet of Basra and the other portions of King Feisal's State. Basra has for long been in the closest commercial contact with India, and is in many respects a commercial appanage of Bombay. Its people have not much in common with those of the North. They took no part in the Arab rising which followed the war, and they ask nothing better than to remain in close



touch with India and through India with the British Government. If we are correct in the supposition that Basra is destined to be the great port of The Middle East, then its future under an Arab State, with no experience of administration in such conditions, is one of the greatest interest, which can hardly be regarded as settled by the policy underlying the declaration which is set out above.

The Persian Shore.

The Persian shore presents fewer points of permanent interest. The importance of Bushire is administrative rather than commercial. It is the headquarters of Persian authority, the residence of the British Resident, and the centre of many foreign consuls. It is also the main entrepot for the trade of Shiraz, and competes for that of Isfahan. But the anchorage is wretched and dangerous, the road to Shiraz passes over the notorious kotals which preclude the idea of rail connection, and if ever a railway to the central tableland is opened, the commercial value of Bushire will dwindle to insignificance. Further south lies Lingah, reputed to be the prettiest port on the Persian coast, but its trade is being diverted to Debal on the Ferte Coast. In the narrow channel which forms the entrance to the Gulf from the Arabian Sea is Bunder Abbas. Here we are at the

key of the Gulf. Bunder Abbas is of some importance as the outlet for the trade of Kerman and Yezd. It is of still more importance as a possible naval base. To the west of the town between the Island of Kishm and the mainland, lie the Clarence Straits which narrow until they are less than three miles in width, and yet contain abundance of water. Here, according to sound naval opinion, there is the possibility of creating a naval base which would command the Gulf. The great obstacle is the climate, which is one of the worst in the world. On the opposite shore, under the shadow of Cape Musandim, lies another sheltered deep-water anchorage, Elphinstone's Inlet, where the climate conditions are equally vile. But between these two points there is the possibility of controlling the Gulf just as Gibraltar controls the Mediterranean. For many years Bunder Abbas loomed large in public discussions as the possible warm water port for which Russia was seeking. On the Mekran coast, there is the cable station of Jask, and the possible port of Chahbar.

Offg. Political Resident in the Persian Gulf—
Lt.-Col. F. B. Prideaux, C.S.I., C.I.E.

*Offg. Residency Surgeon at Bushire—*Capt.
J. J. Rooney, I.M.S.

*Consul at Bunder Abbas and Assistant to the Resident—*G. A. Richardson, O.B.E.

II.—SEISTAN.

The concentration of public attention on the Persian Gulf was allowed to obscure the frontier importance of Seistan. Yet it was for many years a serious preoccupation with the Government of India. Seistan lies midway north and south between the point where the frontiers of Russia, Persia and Afghanistan meet at Zulfikar and that where the frontiers of Persia and of our Indian Empire meet on the open sea at Gwattur. It marches on its eastern border with Afghanistan and with Baluchistan, it commands the valley of the Helmand, and with it the road from Herat to Kandahar, and its immense resources as a wheat-producing region have been only partly developed under Persian misrule. It offers to an aggressive rival, an admirable strategic base for future military operations; it is also midway athwart the track of the shortest line which could be built to connect the Trans-Caspian Railway with the Indian Ocean, and if and when the line from Askabad to Meshed were built, the temptation to extend it through Seistan would be strong. Whilst the gaze of the British was concentrated on the North-West Frontier, and to possible lines of advance through Kandahar to Quetta, and through Kabul to Peshawar, there can be little doubt that Russian attention was directed to a more leisurely movement through Seistan, if the day came when she moved her armies against India.

Whether with this purpose or not, Russian

intrigue was particularly active in Seistan in the early years of the century. Having Russianified Khorassan, her agents moved into Seistan and through the agency of the Belgian Customs officials, "scientific missions" and an irritating plague cordon, sought to establish influence, and to stifle the British trade which was gradually being built up by way of Nushki. These efforts died down before the presence of the McMahon mission, which, in pursuance of Treaty rights, was demarcating the boundary between Persia and Afghanistan, with special reference to the distribution of the waters of the Helmand. They finally ceased with the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement. Since then the international importance of Seistan has waned.

The natural conditions which give to Seistan this strategic importance persist. Meantime British influence is being consolidated through the Seistan trade route. The distance from Quetta to the Seistan border at Killa Robat is 465 miles, most of it dead level, and it has now been provided with fortified posts, dak bungalows, wells, and all facilities for caravan traffic. The railway was pushed out from Spezand, on the Bolan Railway to Nushki, so as to provide a better starting point for the caravans than Quetta. This line was extended to Duzdab, on the Persian Frontier, during the war as a military measure, but the traffic supports only two trains a week.

Railway Position in the Middle East.



III.—PERSIA.

From causes which only need to be very briefly set out, the Persian question as affecting Indian frontier policy has receded until it is of no account. Reference is made in the introduction to this section to the fact that the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement left us a bitter legacy in Persia. That Agreement divided Persia into two zones of influence, and the Persians bitterly resented this apparent division of their kingdom between the two Powers, though no such end was in view. German agents, working cleverly on this feeling, established an influence which was not suspected, and when the war broke out they were able to raise the tribes in opposition to Great Britain, in the South, and after the fall of Kut-al-Amara, when a Turkish Division penetrated Western Persia, they exercised a strong influence in Teheran. With the defeat of Turkey and the Central Powers this influence disappeared, but at that time there was no authority in Persia besides that of the British Government, which had strong forces in the North-West and controlled the southern provinces through a force organised under British officers and called The South Persian Rifles. It was one of the first tasks of the British Government to regularise this position, and for this purpose an agreement was reached with the then Persian Government, the main features of which were:—

To respect Persian integrity;

To supply experts for Persian administration;

To supply officers and equipment for a Persian force for the maintenance of order;

To provide a loan for these purposes;

To co-operate with the Persian Government in railway construction and other forms of transport.

Both Governments agreed to the appointment of a joint committee to examine and revise the Customs tariff.

The second agreement defined the terms and conditions on which the loan was to be made to Persia. The loan was for £2,000,000 at 7 per cent. redeemable in 20 years. It was secured on the revenues and Customs' receipts assigned for

the repayment of the 1911 loan and should these be insufficient the Persian Government was to make good the necessary sums from other sources.

The Present Position:—We have given the main points in the Anglo-Persian agreement, because few documents have been more misunderstood. Those who desire to study it in greater detail will find it set out in The Indian Year Book for 1921, page 138 *et seq.* It has been explained that most Persians construed it into a guarantee of protection against all external enemies. When the British troops in the north-west retired before the Bolsheviks, the Persians had no use for the Agreement and it soon became a dead instrument. It was finally rejected and the advisers who were to have assisted Persia under it withdrew.

The South Persian Rifles were also disbanded. Thenceforth Great Britain withdrew entirely from any active participation in Persian affairs. After a period of confusion order was established in Persia by the Sirdar Sipah, a rough but energetic soldier, who made the authority of his administration respected throughout the land. He has the assistance of a body of American financial experts, who are striving to rehabilitate the finances. Whilst subterranean forces are at work, and the murder of the American Consul, Major Imrie, made an unpleasant impression, on the whole a stable energetic Government has been maintained and the relations of Persia with her neighbours are good. But the form of Government is quite different from the constitution which established the Mejliss. The Shah spends most of his time in Europe, but a proposal to establish a republic in Persia was stillborn, owing to the opposition of the religious leaders.

Sir Percy Lorraine assumed office as British Minister at Teheran in December 1921.

H. B. M.'s Consul General and Agent of the Government of India in Khorasan:—Lieut.-Colonel H. B. Haworth.

H. B. M.'s Consul in Sistan and Kaim:—B. J. Gould, C.I.E.

Medical Officer and Vice-Consul:—Major R. F. D. MacGregor, I.M.S.

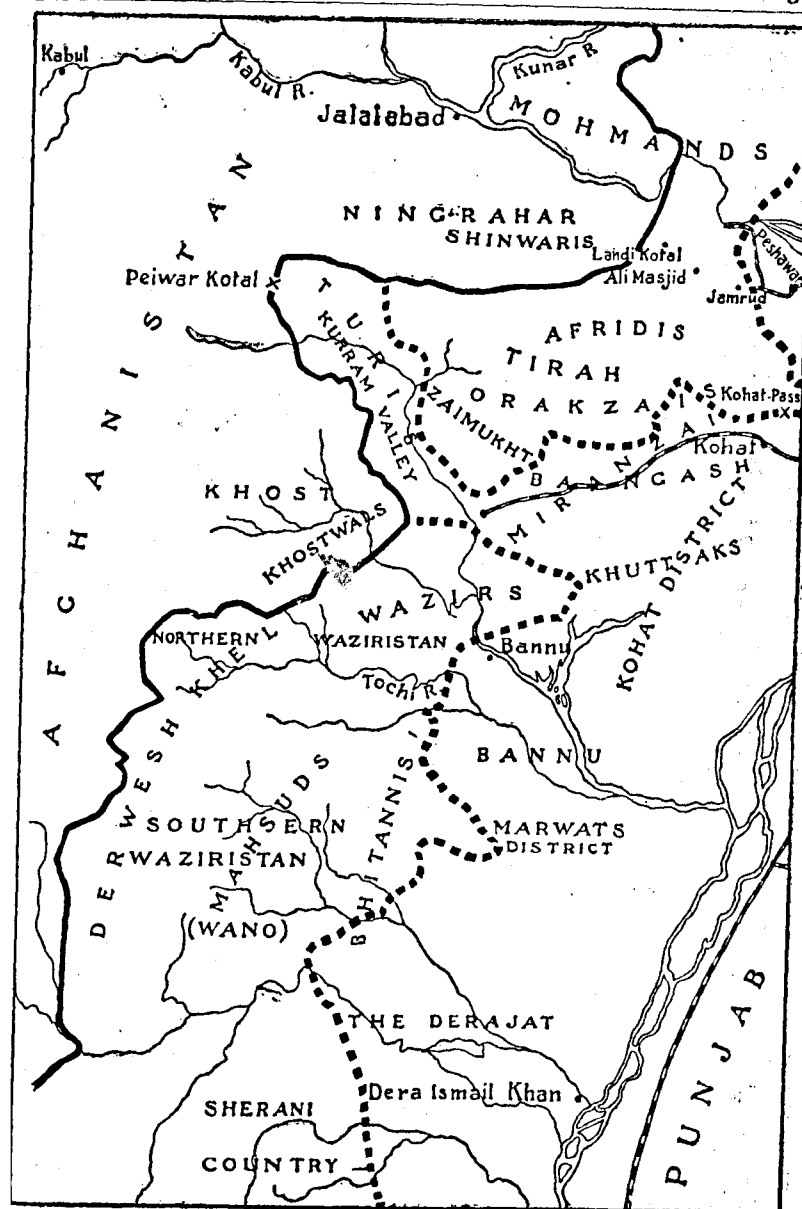
IV.—THE PRESENT FRONTIER PROBLEM.

There yet remains a small part of British India where the King's writ does not run. Under what is called the Durand Agreement with the Amir of Afghanistan, the boundary between India and Afghanistan was settled, and it was delimited in 1903 except for a small section which was delimited after the Afghan War in 1919. But the Government of India have never occupied up to the border. Between the administered territory and the Durand line there lies a belt of territory of varying width extending from the Gomal Pass in the south, to Kashmir in the north; this is generically known as the Independent Territory. Its future is the keynote of the interminable discussions of frontier policy for nearly half a century.

This is a country of deep valleys and secluded glens, which nature has fenced in with almost inaccessible mountains. It is peopled with wild tribes of mysterious origin, in whom

Afghan, Tartar, Turkoman, Persian, Indian, Arab and Jewish intermingle. They had lived their own lives for centuries, with little intercourse even amongst themselves, and as Sir Valentine Chirol truly said "the only bond that ever could unite them in common action was the bond of Islam." It is impossible to understand the Frontier problem unless two facts are steadily borne in mind. The strongest sentiment amongst these strange people is the desire to be left alone. They value their independence much more than their lives. The other factor is that the country does not suffice even in good years to maintain the population. They must find the means of subsistence outside, either in trade, by service in the Indian Army or in the Khassadars, or else in the outlet which hill-men all the world over have utilised from time immemorial, the raiding of the wealthier and more peaceful population of the Plain.

Map of the North-Western Frontiers.



Frontier Policy.

The policy of the Government of India toward the Independent Territory has ebbed and flowed in a remarkable degree. It has fluctuated between the Forward School, which would occupy the frontier up to the confines of Afghanistan, and the school of Masterly Inactivity, which would leave the tribesmen entirely to their own resources, punishing them only when they raided British territory. Behind both the policies lay the menace of a Russian invasion, and that coloured our frontier policy until the Anglo-Russian Agreement. This induced what was called Hit and Retire tactics; in the half century which ended in 1897 there were nearly a score of punitive expeditions, each one of which left behind a legacy of distrust, and which brought no permanent improvement in its train. The fruit of the suspicion thus engendered was seen in 1897. Then the whole Frontier, from the Malakand to the Gomal, was ablaze. The extent of this rising and the magnitude of the military measures which were taken to meet it compelled a consideration of the whole position. The broad outlines of the new policy were laid down in a despatch from the Secretary of State for India, which prescribed for the Government the "limitation of your interference with the tribes, so as to avoid the extension of administrative control over tribal territory." It fell to Lord Curzon to give effect to this policy. The main foundations of his action were to exercise over the tribes the political influence requisite to secure our imperial interests, to pay them subsidies for the performance of specific duties, but to respect their tribal independence and leave them, as far as possible, free to govern themselves according to their own traditions and to follow their own inherited habits of life without let or hindrance.

New Province.

As a first step Lord Curzon took the control of the tribes under the direct supervision of the Government of India. Up to this point they had been in charge of the Government of the Punjab, a province whose head is busied with many other concerns. Lord Curzon created in 1901, the North-West Frontier Province, and placed it in charge of a Chief Commissioner with an intimate frontier experience, directly subordinate to the Government of India. This was a revival of a scheme prepared by Lord Lytton in 1877, and often considered afterwards, but which had slipped for lack of driving power. Next Lord Curzon withdrew the regular troops so far as possible from the advanced posts, and placed these fortalices in charge of tribal levies, offered by a handful of British officers. The most successful of these was the Khyber Rifles, which steadfastly kept the peace of that historic Pass until 1919. At the same time the regular troops were cantoned in places whence they could quickly move to any danger point, and these bases were connected with the Indian Railway system. In pursuance of this policy frontier railways were run out to Dargai, and a narrow-gauge line, since converted to the broad-gauge, was constructed from Kushalgarh to Kohat at the entrance of the Kohat

Pass, and to Thal at the mouth of the Kurram Valley. These railways have been completed by lines to Tonk and Bannu. By this means the striking power of the regular forces was greatly increased. Nor was the policy of economic development neglected. The railways gave a powerful stimulus to trade, and the Lower Swat Canal converted fractious tribesmen into successful agriculturists. This policy of economic development is receiving a great development through the completion of the Upper Swat Canal (q. v. Irrigation). Now it is completed there are other works awaiting attention. For many years this policy was completely justified by results.

A New Policy.

It saved us from serious complications for nearly twenty years, although the position could never be said to be entirely satisfactory particularly in Waziristan, peopled by the most reckless raiders on the whole border-line with a bolt hole into Afghanistan when pressed from the British side. It endured throughout the war and did not break down until the Amir of Afghanistan sought refuge from his internal troubles in a Jihad against India. In this insane enterprise, the Afghans placed less reliance in their regular troops, which have never offered more than a contemptible resistance to the British forces, than in the armed tribesmen. In this they were justified, for the most serious fighting was with the tribesmen. The tribal levies collapsed with almost universal swiftness. The Southern Waziristan Militia broke and there was serious trouble throughout the Zhob district. The Afridis, our most serious enemies in 1897, and the most powerful of the tribes on the North-West Frontier, remained fairly quiet throughout the actual hostilities with Afghanistan, but the actual hostilities with Afghanistan later, it was necessary to take measures against a leading malcontent and destroy his fort at Chora. But the Mahsuds and the Waziris broke into open hostilities. Their country lies within the belt bounded by the Durand Line and the Afghan frontier on the west, and by the districts of Bannu and Dehra Ismail Khan on the east. Amongst them the Afghan emissaries were particularly active and as they could put in the field some 30,000 warriors, 75 per cent. armed with modern weapons of precision, they constituted formidable adversaries. They refused to make peace, even when the Afghans caved in. They rejected our terms and active measures were taken against them. The fighting was the most severe in the history of the Frontier. The Mahsuds fought with great tenacity. Their shooting was amazingly good; their tactics were admirable, for amongst their ranks were many men trained either in the Militia or in the Indian Army; and more than once they came within measurable distance of considerable success. They were aided by the fact that the best trained troops in the Indian Army were still overseas and younger soldiers were opposed to them. But their unvarying tenacity and bravery were their own undoing; their losses were the heaviest in the long history of the Borderland and when the Mahsuds made their complete submission in September 1921 they were more severely chastened than at any time during their career.

A New Chapter.—As the result of the Afghan War of 1919, Indian frontier policy was again thrown into the melting pot. There was much vague discussion of the position in the course of the months which followed the Afghan War and the troubles in Waziristan which succeeded it, but this discussion did not really come to a head until February-March 1922. The Budget then presented to the country revealed a serious financial position. It showed that despite serious increases in taxation, the country had suffered a series of deficits, which had been financed out of borrowings. Further heavy taxation was proposed in this Budget, but even then the equilibrium which the financial authorities regarded as of paramount importance was not attained. When the accounts were examined, it was seen that the heaviest charges on the exchequer were those under Military Expenses, and that there was an indefinitely large, and seemingly unending expenditure on Waziristan. This forced the Military, and allied with it the Frontier, expenditure to the front. In actual practice the discussion is really focussed on Waziristan. In essentials it is the aged controversy—shall we deal with this part of the Frontier on what is known as the Sandeman system, namely, by occupying commanding posts within the country itself, dominating the tribesmen but interfering little in their own affairs; or shall we revert to what was known as the close border system, as modified by Lord Curzon, of withdrawing our regular troops to strategic positions outside the tribal area, leaving the tribesmen, organised into militia, to keep the passes open, and punishing the tribesmen by expeditions when their raiding propensities become unbearable.

The Curzon Policy.—The Curzon policy, adopted in 1899, to clear up the aftermath of the serious and unsatisfactory Frontier rising in 1897, was a compromise between the "occupation" and the "close border" policies. It was based on the withdrawal of the regular troops so far as possible to cantonments in rear whilst the frontier posts, such as those in the Tochi at Wana and in the Khyber and Kurram were held by militia, recruited from amongst the tribesmen themselves. The cantonments for regular troops were linked so far as possible with the Indian railway system, so as to permit of rapid reinforcement. But it must be remembered that like all Frontier students, Lord Curzon did not regard this as the final policy. He wrote in the Memorandum formulating his ideas: "It is of course inevitable that in the passage of time the whole Waziri country up to the Durand line will come more and more under our control. No policy in the world can resist or

greatly retard that consummation. My desire is to bring it about by gradual degrees and above all without the constant aid and presence of British troops." The Curzon policy, though it was not pursued with the steadfastness he would have followed if he had remained in control, gave us moderate—or rather it should be said bearable—frontier conditions until the Afghan War. It then broke down, because the tribal militia, on which it was based, could not withstand the wave of fanaticism, and other conditions set up by the Afghan invasion of 1919. The Khyber militia faded away; the Waziri militia either mutinied, as at Wana, or deserted. The pillar of the Curzon system fell; in the military phrase of the hour, it could not stand the test of religious fanaticism or an Afghan War. The very word Militia became anathema.

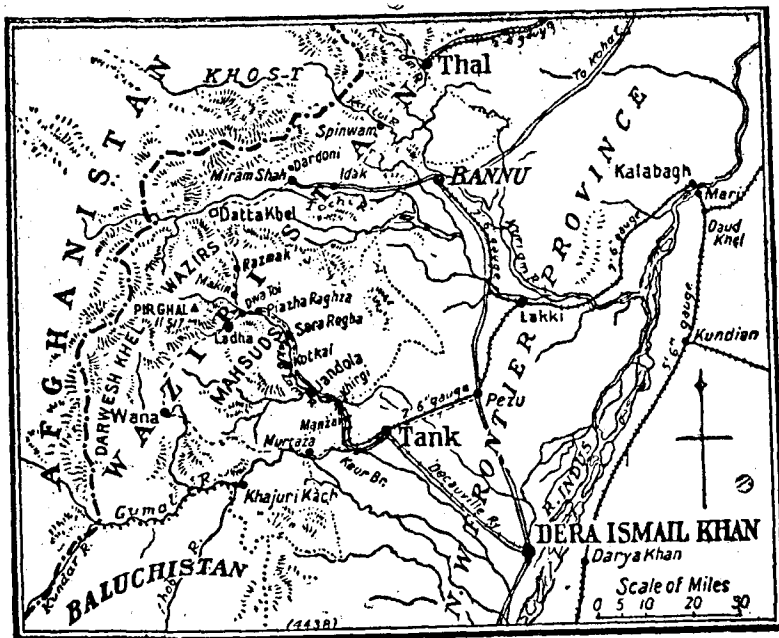
The Policy.—The new policy adumbrated to meet these changed conditions was outlined by Lord Chelmsford, the then Viceroy, in a speech which he addressed to the Indian Legislatures. He said it had been decided to retain commanding posts in Waziristan; to open up the country by roads; to extend the main Indian railway system from its then terminus, Jamrud, through the Khyber to the frontier of Afghanistan, and to take over the duties of the Militia by regular troops. That immediate policy was soon modified so far as the garrisoning of these frontier positions by regular troops was concerned. Such duties are immensely unpopular in the regular army, which is not organised and equipped for work of this character. Irregulars have always existed on the frontier, and as they had disappeared with the Militia, it was necessary to recreate them. The new form of irregular was what have been called Khasadars and Scouts. The Khasadar is an extremely irregular irregular. He has no British officers and no uniform, except a distinguishing kind of *pagri*. In contradistinction to the old Militia, he finds his own rifle. As one informed observer remarked, the beauty of the system is that so long as the Khasadars, under their own headmen, secure the immunity of the caravans and perform their other police duties, they draw their pay and no questions are asked. If they desert in the day of trouble, they lose their pay but the Government loses no rifles, nor does it risk mutiny or the loss of British and Indian officers. But the application of this policy produced an acute controversy. It was one thing to say that commanding posts in Waziristan should be retained; it was another to decide what these posts should be. We must therefore consider the special problem of Waziristan.

V.—WAZIRISTAN.

We can now approach the real frontier question of the day, the future of Waziristan. What follows is drawn from an admirable article contributed to the January number of "The Journal of the United Service Institution of India," written by Lt.-Col. G. M. Routh, D.S.O. Geographically Waziristan is a rough parallelogram averaging 60 miles from East to West and 160 from North to South. The western

half consists of the Suleiman Range gradually rising up to the ridge from five to ten thousand feet high, which forms the water-shed between the Indus and the Helmand Rivers and corresponds with the Durand Line separating India from Afghanistan. This is the western boundary. On the east is the Indus. North is the water-shed of the Kurram River running East and West about 30 miles north of Bannu separating

WAZIRISTAN.



Waziristan from the Kohat District. South is a zigzag political boundary from the Durand Line running between Wana and Fort Sandeman in Baluchistan with a turn southwards to the Indus.

The western half is a rugged and inhospitable medley of ridges and ravines straggled and confused in hopeless clarray. The more inhabited portions lie well up the slope at heights of four to six thousand feet. Here are our outposts of Wana and Ladha some 15 and 20 miles respectively from the Durand Line, in the centre of the grazing district, the latter within five miles of important villages of Kaniguram and Makin.

The submontane tracts from the hills to the Indus vary from the highly cultivated and irrigated land round Bannu to the sandy desert in the Marwat above Pezu.

Where irrigation or river water is obtainable cultivation is attempted under conditions which can hardly be encouraging. Other tracts like that between Pezu and Tank, usually pastoral, can only hope for an occasional crop after a lucky rainfall.

Inhabitants.—The inhabitants, unable to support existence on their meagre soil, make up the margin by armed robbery of their richer and more peaceful neighbours. The name originates according to tradition from one Wazir, two of whose grandsons were the actual founders of the race. Of the four main tribes Darweshkbel, Mahsuds, Dawars and Batanni, only the first two are true Wazirs. Their villages are separate though dotted about more or less indiscriminately, and inter-marriage is the exception—in fact all traditionally are in open strife, a circumstance which, until some bright political comet like the Afghan War of 1919 joined them together, as materially aided our dealings with them.

Unlike other parts of India, however, these wild people acknowledge little allegiance to maliks or headmen. No one except perhaps the Mulla Powindah till his death in 1913 could speak of any portion of them as his following.

Policy.—The policy of the British was at first one of non-interference with the tribes. Even now only part of the country is administered. Gradually it was found that more and more supervision became necessary to control raiding and this was attempted by expeditions to portions of the country with Regulars, followed by building posts and brick towers to be held by Militia. These posts were at first placed at the points where raiders usually debouched. The Political Officers, at first supported by Regulars, built up from 1904 onwards a force of some 3,000 Militia with British Officers at their disposal, who were backed up by the garrisons at Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan. In addition certain allowances were made to the tribes for good behaviour, prevention of raids and surrender of offenders when required; also for tribal escorts as necessary. Gradually, as occasion required, posts were occupied. Wana was occupied in 1895 at the request of the Wana Wazirs. Similarly the Tochi in 1896. In the comprehensive expedition of 1895-96 when this policy was put into effect, the British arms were shown in every remote valley in the vain hope of taming the Mahsuds.

It was hoped the various posts would prove a pacifying influence and a rallying ground for Government supporters. From 1904 to 1919, they were held by Militia. Roads and communications were improved and tribal allowances augmented by sales of produce to the troops on a liberal scale.

A Programme.—Lt.-Col. Routh then outlined a possible policy for Waziristan. We give it textually, because we believe it substantially reflects military opinion in India:—

To the unprejudiced mind it appears more practical to grasp the nettle firmly and dominate the inhabited tracts. Why should not the road now being made to Ladha be continued 36 mile north to the Tochi road at Datta Khel and 29 miles south to Wana? Why should we not occupy the healthier portions of Waziristan rather than the foothills or Cis-Indus zones? The Razmak district round Makin 8,000 feet up is both healthy and fertile. The same applies to the Shawal valley laying behind Pir Gul, the national peak near Ladha rising to a height of 11,556 feet above the sea. The Wana plain, 5,000 feet up, 30 miles by 15, could with railways support an army corps; there is no doubt that a forward railway policy will help to solve the problem. A line has been surveyed from Tank to Draban and thence up the valley to Fort Sandeman, so connecting with the Zhob and perhaps later to Wana. The Gumal Tangi from Murtaza to Khajuri Kach is the apparently obvious route, but would be prohibitively expensive in construction and require much tunnelling. Beyond Khajuri Kach via Tanal and Rogha Kot to Wana, some 23 miles, offers no difficulty. The old policy of the raiders working westwards and our retributive expeditions stretching their very temporary tentacles eastwards seems to suggest better lateral communications. The broad gauge at Kohat might without undue cost be extended to Thal and thence to Idak via Spinwar. From here till further extension proved desirable, a motor road through Razmak, Makin and Dwatol to link up with that now surveyed to Ladha sounds possible to the looker on. Eventually such communications, road, rail, or both, could continue to Wana, Fort Sandeman and Quetta via Hindu Bagh, a strategic line offering great defensive possibilities substituting Razmak, which resembles Ootacamund, and healthy uplands for the deadly fever spots now occupied. The very fact of employing the tribesmen on these works with good pay and good engineers tends to pacify the country as well as providing healthy accessible hill stations in place of the proverbially comfortless cantonments which now exist in this part of the Frontier.

The Compromise.—The new policy, which has been called "the half forward policy," was announced in 1923. It was a compromise between the two extreme schools of thought.

This involves the completion of various roads fit for mechanical transport within Waziristan and along the Derajat border; the holding of certain posts, Jandola and Razmak, by Regular troops until this road programme is completed; and thereafter the location of Scouts, who are *mutato nomine* militia, at certain points on the roads within Waziristan, assisted by *Khasadars*, or local levies, finding their own arms and led by their own leaders.

The Result.—With a definite decision on the question of policy the intense interest in the Frontier controversy waned, though mutterings are heard from time to time. The greater peace which ensued during the year is also a justification for the methods which actually were applied. An official exposition of the Government Policy announced that the Government were determined to bring the Mahsud country, the heart of Waziristan, under control. Military occupation was for financial reasons impracticable and its place would be taken by a system of internal control based on Scouts and Khassadars; and partly by external super-

vision from the two posts of Manzai and Razmak, which though outside Mahsud territory effectively overlook it. A mechanical transport road links the Tochi with Razmak and Jandola. The result of this policy, it was declared, would be to rob the Mahsuds of the inaccessibility which has been the root cause of that persistence in barbarism which made them a by-word amongst Pathans. At the same time the Khassadar system gives the tribe a stake in the administration of law and order; whilst the construction of a hundred and forty miles of road provides the channels through which civilisation may gradually penetrate.

VI.—AFGHANISTAN.

The relations of Afghanistan with the Indian Empire were for long dominated by one main consideration—the relation of Afghanistan to a Russian invasion of India. All other considerations were of secondary importance. For nearly three-quarters of a century the attitude of Great Britain toward successive Amirs has been dictated by this one factor. It was in order to prevent Afghanistan from coming under the influence of Russia that the first Afghan War of 1838 was fought—the most melancholy episode in Indian frontier history. It was because a Russian envoy was received at Kabul whilst the British representative was turned back at Ali Masjid that the Afghan War of 1878 was waged. After that the whole end of British policy toward Afghanistan was to build up a strong independent State, friendly to Britain, which would act as a buffer against Russia, and so to order our frontier policy that we should be in a position to move large forces up, if necessary, to support the Afghans in resisting aggression.

Gates to India.

A knowledge of the trans-frontier geography of India brought home to her administrators the conviction that there were only two main gates to India—through Afghanistan, the historic route to India, along which successive invasions have poured, and by way of Sistan. It was the purpose of British policy to close them, and of Russia to endeavour to keep them at any rate half open. To this end having pushed her trans-Persian railway to Samarkand, Russia thrust a military line from Merv to the Kushkinsky Post, where railway material is collected for its immediate prolongation to Herat. Later, she connected the trans-Siberian railway with the trans-Caucasian system, by the Orenburg-Tashkent line, thus bringing Central Asia into direct touch with her European magazines. Nor has Great Britain been idle. A great military station has been created at Quetta. This is connected with the Indian railway system by lines of railway which climb to the Quetta Plateau by the Bolan Pass and through the Chapper Kift, lines which rank amongst the most picturesque and daring in the world. From Quetta the line has been carried by the Khojak tunnel through the Khwaja Amran Range, until it leads out to the Afghan Border at New Chaman, where it opens on the route to Kandahar. The material is stocked at New Chaman which would enable the line to be carried to Kandahar in sixty days. In view

of the same menace the whole of Baluchistan has been brought under British control. Quetta is now one of the great strategic positions of the world, and nothing has been left undone which modern military science can achieve to add to its natural strength. In the opinion of many military authorities it firmly closes the western gate to India, either by way of Kandahar, or the direct route through Sistan.

Further east the Indian railway system has been carried to Jamrud and is being pushed up to the Khyber Pass. A first class military road sometimes double, sometimes treble, threads the Pass to our advanced post at Landi Kotal, and then descends until it meets the Afghan frontier at Landi Khana. Later, a commencement was made with the Loi Shilman Railway, which, starting from Peshawar, was designed to penetrate the Mullagori country and provide an alternative advance to the Khyber for the movement of British troops for the defence of Kabul. For unexplained reasons, this line was suddenly stopped and is now thrust in the air. In this wise the two Powers prepared for the great conflict which was to be fought on the Kandahar-Ghazni-Kabul line.

Relations with India.

Between the advanced posts on either side stands the Kingdom of Afghanistan. The end of British policy has been to make it strong and friendly. In the first particular it has largely succeeded. When the late Abdurrahman was invited to ascend the throne, as the only means of escape from the tangle of 1879, none realised his great qualities. Previously the Amir of Afghanistan had been the chief of a confederacy of clans. Abdurrahman made himself master in his own kingdom. By means into which it is not well closely to enter; he beat down opposition until none dared lift a hand against him. Aided by a British subsidy of twelve lakhs of rupees a year, increased to eighteen by the Durand Agreement of 1893, and subsequently to over 20 lakhs, he established a strong standing army and set up arsenals under foreign supervision to furnish it with arms and ammunition. Step by step his position was regularised. The Anglo-Russian Boundary Commission, which nearly precipitated war over the Pendjeh episode in 1885,—determined the northern boundaries. The Pamirs Agreement delimited the borders amid those snowy heights. The Durand Agreement settled the border on the British side, except for a small section to the west of the Khyber which remained a fruitful source

of trouble between Afghanistan and ourselves until 1919, when the Afghan claims and action upon the undemarcated section led to war. That section was finally surveyed and the frontier determined shortly after the conclusion of peace with Afghanistan. Finally the McMahon award closed the old feud with Persia over the distribution of the waters of the Helmand in Sistan. It was estimated by competent authorities that about the time of Abdurrahman's death, Afghanistan was in a position to place in the field, in the event of war, one hundred thousand well-armed regular and irregular troops, together with two hundred thousand tribal levies, and to leave fifty thousand regulars and irregulars and a hundred thousand levies to maintain order in Kabul and the provinces. But if Afghanistan were made strong, it was not made friendly. Abdurrahman Khan distrusted British policy up to the day of his death. All that can be said is that he distrusted it less than he distrusted Russia, and if the occasion had arisen for him to make a choice, he would have opposed a Russian advance with all the force at his disposal. He closed his country absolutely against all foreigners, except those who were necessary for the supervision of his arsenals and factories. He refused to accept a British Resident, on the ground that he could not protect him, and British affairs were entrusted to an Indian agent, who was in a most equivocal position. At the same time he repeatedly pressed for the right to pass by the Government of India and to establish his own representative at the Court of St. James.

Afghanistan and the War.—These relations were markedly improved during the reign of His Majesty the Amir Habibullah Khan. It used to be one of the trite sayings of the Frontier that the system which Abdurrahman Khan had built up would perish with him, for none was capable of maintaining it. Habibullah Khan more than maintained it. He visited India soon after his accession and acquired a vivid knowledge of the power and resources of the Empire. He strengthened and consolidated his authority in Afghanistan itself. At the outset of the war he made a declaration of his complete neutrality. It is believed—a considerable reticence is preserved over our relations with Afghanistan—that he warned the Government of India that he might be forced into many equivocal acts, but they must trust him; certainly his reception of Turkish, Austrian and German "missions" at Kabul, at a time when British representatives were severely excluded, was open to grave misconstruction. But a fuller knowledge induced the belief that the Amir was in a position of no little difficulty. He had to compromise with the fanatical and anti-British elements amongst his own people, inflamed by the Turkish preaching of a Jihad, or holy Islamic war. But he committed no act of hostility; as soon as it was safe to do so he turned the members of these missions out of the kingdom. At the end of the war his policy was completely justified; he had kept Afghanistan out of the war, he had adhered to the winning side; his authority in the kingdom and in Central Asia was at its zenith.

Murder of the Amir.—It is believed that if he had lived Habibullah Khan would have used this authority for a progressive policy in Afghanistan, by opening up communications and extending his engagements with India. He was courted by the representatives of Persia and the Central Asian States as the possible rallying centre of a Central Asian Islamic confederation. At this moment he was assassinated on the 20th February 1919. The circumstances surrounding his murder have never been fully explained; but there is strong ground for the belief that it was promoted by the reactionaries who had harassed him all his reign. These realised that with his vindication by the war their time of reckoning had come; they anticipated it by suborning one of his aides to murder him in his sleep. His brother, Nasrullah Khan, the nominee of the fanatical element, was proclaimed Amir at Jelalabad in his stead, but public opinion in Afghanistan revolted at the idea of the brother seizing power over the corpse of the murdered man. His sons, Hayat and Amanullah, were not disposed to waive their heritage. Amanullah was at Kabul, controlling the treasury and the arsenal and supported by the Army. Nasrullah found it impossible to make head against him and withdrew. The new Amir, Amanullah, at once communicated his accession to the Government of India and proclaimed his desire to adhere to the traditional policy of friendship. But his difficulties at once commenced; he had to deal with the war party in Afghanistan; he was confronted with the dissatisfaction arising from the manner in which the murderers of Habibullah had been dealt with; the fanatical element was exasperated by the imprisonment of Nasrullah; and the Army was so incensed that it had to be removed from Kabul and given occupation to divert its thoughts. A further element of complexity was introduced by the political situation in India. The agitation against the Rowlatt Act was at its height. The disturbances in the Punjab and Gujarat had taken place. Afghan agents in India, of whom the most prominent was Ghulam Hyder Khan, the Afghan postmaster at Peshawar, flooded Afghanistan with exaggerated accounts of the Indian unrest. The result of all this was to convince the Amir that the real solution of his difficulties was to unite all the disturbing elements in a war with India. On the 25th April his troops were set in motion and simultaneously a stream of anti-British propaganda commenced to flow from Kabul and open intrigue was started with the Frontier tribes, on whom the Afghans placed their chief reliance.

Speedy Defeat.—The war caught the Army in India in the throes of demobilisation and with a large proportion of the seasoned troops on service abroad. Nevertheless the regular Afghan Army was rapidly dealt with. Strong British forces moved up the Khyber and seized Dacca. Jelalabad was repeatedly bombed from the air and also Kabul. Nothing but a shortage of mechanical transport prevented the British forces from seizing Jelalabad. In ten days the Afghans were severely defeated. On the 14th May they asked for an Armistice. With the usual Afghan spirit of haggling, they tried to water down the conditions of the armistice, but as they were met with

an uncompromising emphasis of the situation they despatched representatives to a conference at Rawalpindi on the 26th July. On the 8th August a Treaty of Peace was signed which is set out in the Indian Year Book 1923, pp. 196-197.

Post War Relations.—It will be seen that under this Treaty the way was paved for a fresh engagement six months afterwards. During the hot weather of 1920 there were prolonged discussions at Mussoorie between Afghan Representatives and British officials under Sir Henry Dobbs. These were private, but it is believed that a complete agreement was reached. Certainly after an interchange of Notes which revealed no major point of difference it was agreed that a British Mission should proceed to Kabul to arrange a definite treaty of peace. This Mission crossed the Border in January 1921 and entered Kabul where a peace treaty was signed.

The main points of the Treaty are set out in the Indian Year Book, 1923, pp. 197, 198-199.

Since the signing of the Treaty the relations between the Government of India and Afghanistan have been good. A difficulty arose in December 1923 and January 1924 when a gang of desperadoes, whose object was the murder or kidnapping of British officials and Englishwomen found harbourage in Afghanistan, but when this was broken up the incident closed. A British Minister is established in Kabul, as well as the representatives of other European States. The representatives of Afghanistan are established in India and in London, and at some of the European capitals. The various subsidiary agreements under the Treaty have been carried into effect. *British Representative*: Major Humphreys.

VII.—TIBET.

Recent British policy in Tibet is really another phase in the long-drawn-out duel between Great Britain and Russia in Central Asia. The earliest efforts to establish communication with that country were not, of course, inspired by this apprehension. When in 1774 Warren Hastings despatched Bogle on a mission to the Tashi-Lama of Shigatse,—the spiritual equal, if not superior, of the Dalai Lama of Lhasa—his desire was to establish facilities for trade, to open up friendly relations with a Power which was giving us trouble on the frontier, and gradually to pave the way to a good understanding between the two countries. After Warren Hastings' departure from India the subject slept, and the last Englishman to visit Lhasa, until the Younghusband Expedition of 1904, was the unofficial Manning. In 1885, under the inspiration of Colman Macaulay, of the Bengal Civil Service, a further attempt was made to get into touch with the Tibetans, but it was abandoned in deference to the opposition of the Chinese, whose suzerainty over Tibet was recognised, and to whose views until the war with Japan, British statesmen were inclined to pay excessive deference. But the position on the Tibetan frontier continued to be most unsatisfactory. The Tibetans were aggressive and obstructive, and with a view to putting an end to an intolerable situation, a Convention was negotiated between Great Britain and China in 1890. This laid down the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet, it admitted a British protectorate over Sikkim, and paved the way for arrangements for the conduct of trade across the Sikkim-Tibet frontier. These supplementary arrangements provided for the opening of a trade mart at Yatung, on the Tibetan side of the frontier, to which British subjects should have the right of free access, and where there should be no restrictions on trade. The agreement proved useless in practice, because the Tibetans refused to recognise it, and despite their established suzerainty, the Chinese Government were unable to secure respect for it.

Russian Intervention.

This was the position when in 1899 Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, endeavoured to get into direct touch with the Tibetan authorities. Three letters which he addressed to the Dalai Lama were returned unopened, at a time when the Dalai Lama was in direct intercourse with the Tsar of Russia. His emissary was a Siberian Dorjief, who had established a remarkable ascendancy in the councils of the Dalai Lama. After a few years' residence at Lhasa Dorjief went to Russia on a confidential mission in 1899. At the end of 1900 he returned to Russia at the head of a Tibetan mission, of which the head was officially described in Russia as "the senior Tsanite Khomba attached to the Dalai Lama of Tibet." This mission arrived at Odessa in October 1900, and was received in audience by the Tsar at Livadia. Dorjief returned to Lhasa to report progress, and in 1901 was at St. Petersburg with a Tibetan mission, where as bearers of an autograph letter from the Dalai Lama they were received by the Tsar at Peterhoff. They were escorted home through Central Asia by a Russian force to which several Intelligence Officers were attached. At the time it was rumoured that Dorjief had, on behalf of the Dalai Lama, concluded a treaty with Russia; which virtually placed Tibet under the protectorate of Russia. This rumour was afterwards officially contradicted by the Russian Government.

The Expedition of 1904.

In view of these conditions the Government of India, treating the idea of Chinese suzerainty over Tibet as a constitutional fiction; proposed in 1903 to despatch a mission, with an armed escort; to Lhasa to discuss the outstanding questions with the Tibetan authorities on the spot. To this the Home Government could not assent, but agreed, in conjunction with the Chinese Government, to a joint meeting at Khamba Jong, on the Tibetan side of the frontier. Sir Francis Younghusband

was the British representative; but after months of delay it was ascertained that the Tibetans had no intention of committing themselves. It was therefore agreed that the mission, with a strong escort, should move to Gyantse. On the way the Tibetans developed marked hostility, and there was fighting at Tuna, and several sharp encounters in and around Gyantse. It was therefore decided that the mission should advance to Lhasa, and on August 3rd, 1904, Lhasa was reached. There Sir Francis Younghusband negotiated a convention by which the Tibetans agreed to respect the Chinese Convention of 1890; to open trade marts at Gyantse, Gartok and Yatung; to pay an indemnity of 2500,000 (seventy-five lakhs of rupees); the British to remain in occupation of the Chumbi Valley until this indemnity was paid off at the rate of a lakh of rupees a year. In a separate instrument the Tibetans agreed that the British Trade Agent at Gyantse should have the right to proceed to Lhasa to discuss commercial questions, if necessary.

Home Government intervenes.

For reasons which were not apparent at the time, but which have since been made clearer, the Home Government were unable to accept the full terms of this agreement. The indemnity was reduced from seventy-five lakhs of rupees to twenty-five lakhs, to be paid off in three years, and the occupation of the Chumbi Valley was reduced to that period. The right to despatch the British Trade Agent to Lhasa was withdrawn. Two years later (June 1906) a Convention was concluded between Great Britain and China regulating the position in Tibet. Under this Convention Great Britain agreed neither to annex Tibetan territory, nor to interfere in the internal administration of Tibet. China undertook not to permit any other foreign State to interfere with the territory or internal administration of Tibet. Great Britain was empowered to lay down telegraph lines to connect the trade stations with India, and it was provided that the provisions of the Convention of 1890, and the Trade Regulations of 1893, remained in force. The Chinese Government paid the indemnity in three years and the Chumbi Valley was evacuated. The only direct result of the Mission was the opening of the three trade marts and the establishment of a British Trade Agent at Gyantse.

Chinese Action.

The sequel to the Anglo-Russian Agreement was dramatic, although it ought not to have been unexpected. On the approach of the Younghusband Mission the Dalai Lama fled to Urga, the sacred city of the Buddhists in Mongolia. He left the internal government of Tibet in confusion, and one of Sir Francis Younghusband's great difficulties was to find Tibetan officials who would undertake the responsibility of signing the Treaty. Now the suzerainty of China over Tibet had been explicitly reaffirmed. It was asserted that she would be held responsible for the foreign relations of Tibet. In the past this suzerainty, having been a "constitutional fiction," it was inevitable that China should take steps to see that she had the power to make her will respected at Lhasa. To this end she proceeded to convert Tibet from a vassal state into a

province of China. In 1908 Chao Erh-feng, Acting Viceroy in the neighbouring province of Szechuen, was appointed Resident in Tibet. He proceeded gradually to establish his authority, marching through eastern Tibet and treating the people with great severity. Meantime the Dalai Lama, finding his presence at Urga, the seat of another Buddhist Pontiff, irksome, had taken refuge in Si-ning. Thence he proceeded to Peking, where he arrived in 1908 as received by the Court, and despatched, to resume his duties at Lhasa. Moving by leisurely stages, he arrived there at Christmas 1909. But it was soon apparent that the ideas of the Dalai Lama and of the Chinese Government had little in common. The Dalai Lama expected to resume the temporal and spiritual despotism which he had exercised prior to 1904. The Chinese intended to deprive him of all temporal power and preserve him as a spiritual pope. The Tibetans had already been exasperated by the pressure of the Chinese soldiery. The report that a strong Chinese force was moving on Lhasa so alarmed the Dalai Lama that he fled from Lhasa, and by the irony of fate sought a refuge in India. He was chased to the frontier by Chinese troops, and took up his abode in Darjeeling, whilst Chinese troops overran Tibet.

Later Stages.

The British Government, acting on the representations of the Government of India; made strong protests to China against this action. They pointed out that Great Britain, while disclaiming any desire to interfere with the internal administration of Tibet, could not be indifferent to disturbances in the peace of a country which was a neighbour, on intimate terms with other neighbouring States on our frontier, especially with Nepal, and pressed that an effective Tibetan Government be maintained. The attitude of the Chinese Government was that no more troops had been sent to Tibet than were necessary for the preservation of order, that China had no intention of converting Tibet into a province, but that being responsible for the good conduct of Tibet, she must be in a position to see that her wishes were respected by the Tibetans. Finally, the Chinese remarked that the Dalai Lama was such an impossible person that they had been compelled again to depose him. Here the matter might have rested, but for the revolution in China. That revolution broke out in Szechuen, and one of the first victims was Chao Erh-feng. Cut off from all support from China, surrounded by a hostile and infuriated populace, the Chinese troops in Tibet were in a hopeless case; they surrendered, and sought escape not through China, but through India, by way of Darjeeling and Calcutta. The Dalai Lama returned to Lhasa, and in 1913, in the House of Lords on July 28, Lord Morley stated the policy of the British Government in relation to these changes. He said the declaration of the President of the Chinese Republic saying that Tibet came within the sphere of Chinese internal administration; and that Tibet was to be regarded as on an equal footing with other provinces of China, was met by a very vigorous protest from the British Government. The Chinese Government subsequently accepted the principle that

China is to have no right of active intervention in the internal administration of Tibet, and agreed to the constitution of a conference to discuss the relation of the three countries. This Convention met at Simla when Sir Henry McMahon, Foreign Secretary to the Government of India; Mr. Ivan Chen, representing China; and Mr. Long Chen Shatra, Prime Minister to the Dalai Lama, thrashed out these issues. Whilst no official pronouncement has been made on the subject, it is understood that a Convention was initiated in June which recognised the complete autonomy of Tibet proper, with the right of China to maintain a Resident at Lhasa with a suitable guard. A semi-autonomous zone was to be constituted in Eastern Tibet, in which the Chinese position was to be relatively much stronger. But this Convention, it is understood, has not been ratified by the Chinese Government, owing to the difficulty of defining Outer and Inner Tibet, and in 1918 Tibet took the offensive and threw off the last vestiges of Chinese suzerainty. When the Chinese province of Szechuan went over to the South, the Central Government at Peking was unable to finance the frontier forces or to withstand the Tibetan advance, which was directed from Lhasa and appeared to be ably managed. After the

Tibetan army had occupied some towns on the confines of the Szechuan marshes, hostilities were suspended and an armistice was concluded.

From what has gone before, it will be seen that the importance which formerly attached to the political condition of Tibet was much less local than an external question, and was influenced by our relations with Russia and China rather than with our relations with Tibet. Russia having relapsed into a state of considerable confusion, and China having relapsed into a state of absolute confusion these external forces have disappeared, and Tibet no longer looms on the Indian political horizon. The veil has been drawn afresh over Lhasa, and affairs in that country pursue an isolated course, with this considerable difference. The Dalai Lama is now on terms of the greatest cordiality with the Government of India. In 1920 he requested that a British officer should be sent to discuss with him the position in Central Asia brought about by the Revolution in Russia and the collapse of Government in China, and Mr. Bell, C. M. G., I. C. S., Political Officer in Sikkim, was deputed for this purpose. In 1922 telephonic communication between Lhasa and India was established.

British Trade Agent, Gyantse.—F. Williamson
British Trade Agent, Yatung.—D. Macdonald.

VIII.—THE NORTH-EASTERN FRONTIER.

The position on the northern frontier has been considered as if the British line were contiguous with that of Tibet. This is not so. The real frontier States are Kashmir, Nepal, Sikkim and Bhutan. From Kachil to Gilgit, now the northernmost posts of the Indian Government, to Assam, with the exception of the small wedge between Kashmir and Nepal, where the British district of Kumaon is thrust right up to the confines of Tibet, for a distance of nearly fifteen hundred miles there is a narrow strip of native territory between British India and the true frontier. The first of these frontier States is Kashmir. The characteristics of this State are considered under Indian States (*q.v.*); it is almost the only important Native State in India with frontier responsibilities, and it worthily discharges them through the agency of its efficient Indian State troops—four regiments of Infantry and two Mountain Batteries, composed mainly of the Rajput Dogras, who make excellent fighting material. One of the most important trade routes with Tibet passes through Kashmir—that through Ladak. Then we come to the long narrow strip of Nepal. This Gurkha State stands in special relations with the British Government. It is for all practical purposes independent, and the British Resident at Khatmandu exercises no influence on the internal administration. The governing machine in Nepal is also peculiar. The Maharaja (Dhira), who comes from the Sesodia Rajput clan, the bluest blood in India, takes no part in the administration. All power vests in the Prime Minister, who occupies a place equivalent to that of the Mayors of the Palace, or the Shoguns of Japan. The present Prime Minister, Sir Chandra Shamsher, has visited England, and has given conspicuous evidence of his attachment to the British Government.

Nepal is the main Indian outpost against Tibet; or against Chinese aggression through Tibet. The friction between the Chinese and the Nepalese used to be frequent, and in the eighteenth century the Chinese marched an army to the confines of Khatmandu—one of the most remarkable military achievements in the history of Asia. Under the firm rule of the present Prime Minister Nepal has been largely free from internal disturbance, and has been raised to a strong bulwark of India. Nepal is the recruiting ground for the Gurkha Infantry, who form such a splendid part of the fighting arm of the Indian Empire. Beyond Nepal are the smaller States of Bhutan and Sikkim, whose rulers are Mongolian by extraction and Buddhists by religion. In view of Chinese aggressions in Tibet, the Government of India in 1910 strengthened their relations with Bhutan by increasing their subsidy from fifty thousand to a lakh of rupees a year, and taking a guarantee that Bhutan would be guided by them in its foreign relations. Afterwards China was officially notified that Great Britain would protect the rights and interests of these States.

Assam and Burma.

We then come to the Assam border tribes—the Dasias, the Miris, the Abors and the Mishmis. Excepting the Abors none of these tribes have recently given trouble. The murder of Mr. Williamson and Dr. Gregorson by the Minyong Abors in 1911 made necessary an expedition to the Dihang valley of the Abor country on the N. E. frontier. A force of 2,500 and about 400 military police was employed from October 1911 to April 1912 in subduing the tribe. After two or three small actions the murderers were delivered up. The cost of the expedition was

Rs. 21,60,000. At the same time friendly missions were sent to the Mishmi and Miri countries. Close contact with these forest-clad and leech-infested hills has not encouraged any desire to establish more intimate relations with them. The area occupied by the Nagas runs northwards from Manipur. The Nagas are a Tibeto-Burman people, devoted to the practice of head hunting, which is still vigorously prosecuted by the independent tribes. The Chin Hills is a tract of mountainous country to the south of Manipur. The corner of India from the Assam boundary to the northern boundary of the Shan States is for the most part included in the Myitkyina and Bhamo districts of Burma. Over the greater part of this area, a labyrinth of hills in the north, no direct administrative control is at present exercised. It is peopled by the Shans and the Kachins. Civilisation is said to be progressing and steps have been taken to prevent encroachments from the Chinese side. There

is a considerable trade with China through Bhamo. On the Eastern frontier of Burma are the Shan States, with an area of fifty thousand square miles and a population of 1,500,000. These States are still administered by the Sawbwas or hereditary chiefs, subject to the guidance of Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents. The Northern Shan Railway to Lashio, opened in 1903, was meant to be a stage in the construction of a direct railway link with China, but this idea has been put aside, for it is seen that there can never be a trade which would justify the heavy expenditure. The Southern Shan States are being developed by railway connection. The five Karen States lie on the frontier south of the Shan States. South of Karen the frontier runs between Siam and the Tenasserim Division of Burma. The relations between the Indian Government and the progressive kingdom of Siam are excellent.

PROVING OF WILLS.

In British India if a person has been appointed executor of the will of a deceased person, it is always advisable to prove the will as early as possible. If the will is in a vernacular it has to be officially translated into English. A petition is then prepared praying for the grant of probate of the will. All the property left by the deceased has to be disclosed in a schedule to be annexed to the petition. The values of immoveable properties are usually assessed at 16½ years purchase on the net Municipal assessment. For estate under Rs. 10,000 the probate duty payable is 2%; between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 50,000 the duty payable is 2½%. Over 50,000 rupees the duty payable is 3%. In determining the amount of the value of the estate for the purposes of probate duty the following items are allowed to be deducted:—

1. Debts left by the deceased including mortgage encumbrances.

2. The amount of funeral expenses.
3. Property held by the deceased in trust and not beneficially or with general power to confer a beneficial interest.

The particulars of all these items have to be stated in a separate schedule. It is the practice of the High Court to send a copy of these schedules to the Revenue authorities and if the properties particularly immoveable properties have not been properly valued, the Revenue department require the petition to be amended accordingly. In certain cases the Court then requires citations to be published and served on such persons as the Court thinks are interested in the question of the grant of probate. If no objection is lodged by any person so interested within 14 days after the publication or service of citation and if the will is shown to have been properly executed and the petitioner entitled to probate, probate is ordered to be granted.

Railways to India.

The prospect of linking Europe and Asia by a railway running eastwards through Asia Minor has fascinated men's minds for generations. The plans suggested have, owing to the British connection with India, always lain in the direction of lines approaching India. More than 40 years ago a Select Committee of the House of Commons sat for two years to consider the question of a Euphrates Valley railway. The Shah of Persia applied to the British Foreign Office for the investment of British capital in Persian railway construction many years before the end of the nineteenth century. A proposal was put forward in 1895 for a line of 1,000 miles from Cairo and Port Said to Koweit, at the head of the Persian Gulf. While these projects were in the air, German enterprise stepped in and made a small beginning by constructing the Anatolian railway system. Its lines start from Scutari, on the southern shore of the Bosphorus, opposite Constantinople, and serve the extreme western end of Asia Minor. And upon this foundation was based the Turkish concession to Germans to build the Baghdad Railway.

Meanwhile, Russia was pushing her railways from various directions into the Central Asian territory running along the northern frontiers of Persia and Afghanistan to the borders of Chinese Turkestan. The construction of a Trans-Persian railway, connecting India, across Persia, with the Russian lines between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea came to the forefront after the conclusion of the historic Anglo-Russian agreement regarding Persia.

The Germans pushed forward their Baghdad railway project with a calculating shrewdness arising from their estimate of the value it would possess in their grand aim to overthrow the British Empire. The outbreak of the great war and the success of the Germans in invading Turkey into it saw the final stages of the construction of the railway pressed forward with passionate energy. Thus, before the overthrow of the Turks and Germans in Asia Minor and of the Germans in France the railway was completed and in use from Scutari across Anatolia, over the Taurus Mountains to Aleppo and thence eastward across the Euphrates to a point between Nisibin and Mosul. The Germans had also by that time constructed a line to Baghdad at the eastern end of the route, northwards from Baghdad to a point a considerable distance beyond Samara.

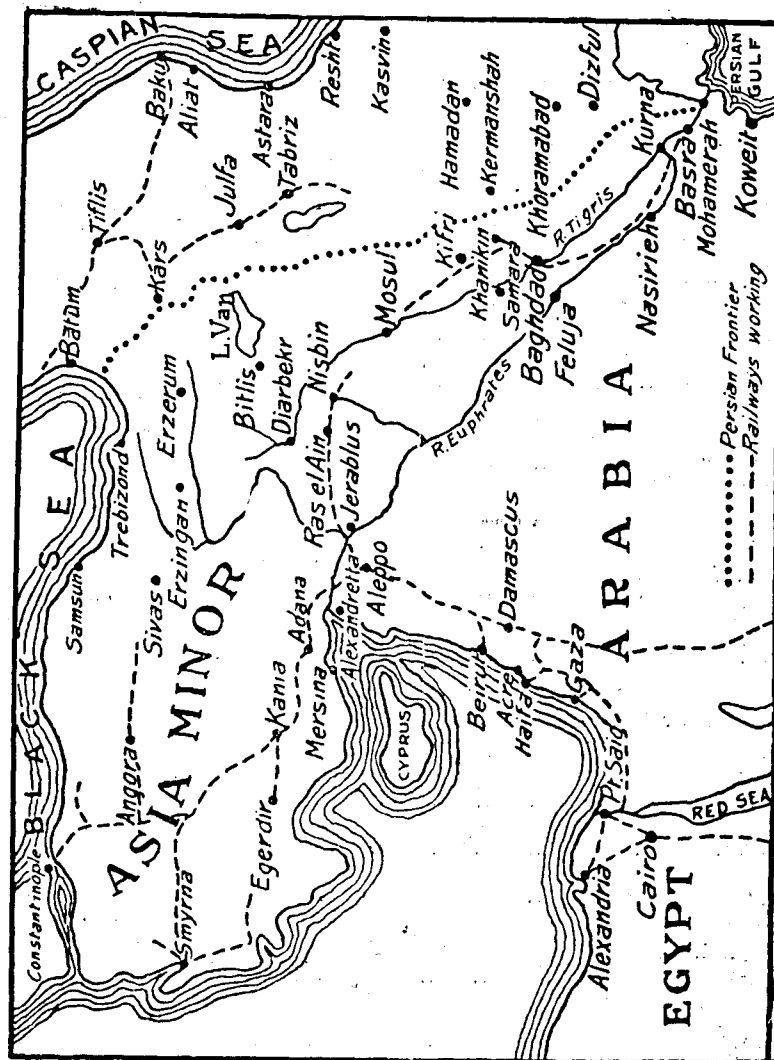
The war compelled the British to undertake considerable railway development northward from Basra, the port at the mouth of the Shat-el-Arab, the broad stream in which the Tigris and Euphrates, after their junction, flow into the head of the Persian Gulf. The system consists of a metre-gauge line from Basra to Nasirieh, on the Euphrates, thence northwards to Baghdad, the line passing a considerable distance westward to Kut-el-Amara, of historic fame. From Baghdad the line runs eastward approximately to the foot of the

pass through which the Persian road crosses the frontier of that country. A line branches off in the neighbourhood of Kifri in the direction of Mosul. A line also runs westward from Baghdad to Feluja, on the Euphrates. With the Turkish Nationalists in control of Anatolia any question of the completion of the through Baghdad Line is indefinitely delayed.

The Trans-Persian line to join the Russian Caucasian system and the Indian railways first assumed proportions of practical importance in the winter of 1911. Both the Russian and the Indian railway systems were by then well developed up to the point likely to be the termini of a Trans-Persian line. The Russian system reached Julfa, on the Russo-Persian frontier in the Caucasus. During the war this line has been carried thence southward into the region east and south-east of Lake Urumia. The Indian railway system, on the borderland of India and Persia, was similarly much extended and improved during the war. No details have been published of proposals for the continuation of the Russo-Indian link under the restored conditions of peace. A new agreement which was negotiated between England and Persia specially provided for British assistance in the development of Persian natural resources and particularly for the extension and improvement of Persian roads suitable for motor traffic but the agreement came to naught.

There remains the possibility of linking the Russian and Indian railway system by way of Afghanistan. The suggestion has often been made in recent years that the Russian line from Merv to Herat, on the northern frontier of Afghanistan, should be linked to the Indian line which proceeds from Quetta to the Afghan border on Chaman. The distance between the railway heads is about 250 miles. But there have always for strategic reasons been strong military objections to the railway across Afghanistan and after the death of the late Amir Habibullah the Afghan Government flatly opposed any suggestion for carrying the Indian or Russian railway system within their borders. What the present Afghan Government think about the matter was not shown up to the time this article was written, but the strange situation in Central Asia and beyond the Indian North-West Frontier does not suggest the early removal of the strategic difficulties.

Britain's special interests in regard to Persian communications have hitherto primarily been associated with lines running inland from the Persian Gulf, to supersede the old mule routes. Special importance has for many years been attached to schemes for a railway from Mohammerah (at the opening of the Karun Valley, where the Karun River runs into the Shat-el-Arab, just below Basra, northwards into the rich highland country of Western Persia where the valuable West Persian oil wells also lie. Britain has long established special relations with the Karun Valley and has a large trade there.



Foreign Consular Officers in India.

Name.	Appointment.	Port.
Afghanistan.		
Mr. Abdul Hussain	Consul-General	Delhi.
Mr. Haji Muhammad Akbar Khan	Consul	Bombay.
Mr. Abdul Ghafur Khan	Do.	Karachi.
Argentine Republic.		
Mr. T. F. Barton (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Mr. C. C. Miller (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Austria-Bombay.		
Mr. E. Stella	Consul	Bombay.
Belgium.		
Monsieur F. Janssens	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr. D. J. MacGillivray (Ag.)	Consul	Karachi.
Mr. F. E. L. Worke	Do.	Madras.
Mr. P. Dormans (on leave)	Do.	Rangoon.
Mr. R. L. Williamson (Ag.) (on leave)	Do.	Do.
Mr. C. G. Wodehouse (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Mr. J. Lowry	Do.	Akyab.
Mr. J. Lince	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Monsieur Paul Verstraten	Consul	Bombay.
Bolivia.		
Mr. A. M. Tagore	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr. G. B. Neilson	Consul	Rangoon.
Brazil.		
Dr. Amaden da Silva (Ag.)	Consul	Bombay.
Senhor H. H. de Vasconcellos	Do.	Calcutta.
Mr. H. V. Simmons	Vice-Consul	Do.
Vacant	Do.	Bombay.
Mr. D. Robertson	Do.	Rangoon.
Mr. C. H. Straker	Do.	Madras.
Mr. V. E. Nazareth	Do.	Karachi.
Mr. A. E. Donaldson (Ag.)	Commercial Agent	Do.
Chili.		
Senor Don P. A. Pacheco	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Vacant	Consul	Bombay.
Mr. J. G. Bendien (Ag.)	Vice-Consul	Do.
Mr. A. R. Leishman	Do.	Chittagong.
Mr. William Archibald (on leave)	Consul	Rangoon.
Mr. H. W. Child (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
China.		
Mr. T. T. Loh	Consul	Rangoon.
Costa Rica.		
Dr. Benode Behari Benerjee	Consul	Calcutta.
Cuba.		
Senor W. F. Pals	Consul	Bombay.
Senor Don B. Martinez Y. Montalvan	Do.	Calcutta.
Czechoslovak Republic.		
Dr. A. Lataf	Consul	Bombay.
Vacant	Vice-Consul	Do.

Name.	Appointment.	Port.
Denmark.		
Mr. E. P. J. de B. Oakley	Consul	Calcutta.
Mr. E. H. Danchell	Do.	Bombay.
Mr. W. M. Browning	Do.	Madras.
Mr. C. J. J. Britton	Do.	Rangoon.
Vacant	Vice-Consul	Karachi.
Mr. H. B. Whitby	Do.	Calcutta.
Vacant	Do.	Moulmein.
Finland.		
Mr. M. Joakim	Consul	Rangoon.
Mr. J. W. Macfarlane	Vice-Consul	Madras.
France.		
Monsieur L. E. R. Laronce	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Monsieur M. Garreau	Commercial Agent	Do.
Monsieur D. A. Levi	Consul	Bombay.
Mr. E. L. Price	Consular Agent	Karachi.
Mr. F. E. L. Worke	Do.	Madras.
Vacant	Do.	Chittagong.
Mr. J. K. Michle	Do.	Rangoon.
Vacant	Do.	Telicherry.
Vacant	Do.	Akyab.
Germany.		
Baron H. Rüdiger von Collenberg Boedighelm	Consul-General	Calcutta.
M. Von Pochhammer	Vice-Consul	Do.
Greece.		
Mr. Byron Cossentelli (on leave)	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr. O. Nicolaldi (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Guatemala.		
Mr. H. J. Sanders (on leave)	Consul	Calcutta.
Italy.		
Commendatore Dr. Antonio Cavicchioni	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Cav. E. Benasaglio	Vice-Consul	Do.
Signor Lodovico Manzini	Consul	Bombay.
Signor Cav. E. M. Mattoli (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Do.
Cav. J. Melke	Consular Agent	Rangoon.
Vacant	Do.	Madras.
Major A. Dugind (on leave)	Do.	Karachi.
Mr. G. H. Wexham (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Japan.		
Mr. Yoshio Iwate	Consul-General	Calcutta.
T. Watanabe	Consul	Bombay.
Mr. K. Naito	Do.	Rangoon.
Liberia.		
Dr. Benode Behari Benerjee	Consul	Calcutta.
Dr. E. Freeman Underwood	Do.	Bombay.
Mexico.		
Mr. R. L. B. Gall	Consul	Calcutta.

NOTE.—Please note that the Consular Agencies in Akyab Moulmein and Bassein have been discontinued.

Name.	Appointment.	Port.
Netherlands.		
Monsieur P. Staal	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Monsieur J. G. Bendien (on leave)	Consul	Bombay.
Mr. J. G. Groothoff (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Mr. D. van Wijngaarden (on leave)	Do.	Karachi.
Mr. C. van Amerongen (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Mr. W. Massink (on leave)	Do.	Rangoon.
Mr. A. Verhage (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Mr. W. J. U. Turnbull	Do.	Madras.
Mr. D. Allart (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Mr. W. P. J. Koper (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Nicaragua.		
Mr. C. H. Hardcastle	Consul	Bombay.
Norway.		
Mr. H. A. Falsen	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr. F. E. Hardcastle (on leave)	Consul	Bombay.
Mr. H. W. Child	Do.	Rangoon.
Mr. J. F. Simpson, Kt.	Do.	Madras.
Captain H. W. Fox (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Chittagong.
Mr. A. B. Slater (Ag.)	Do.	Akyab.
Mr. J. C. Clark	Do.	Bassels.
Mr. J. McCracken	Do.	Moulmein.
Mr. G. Howison (Ag.) (on leave)	Do.	Do.
Mr. K. O. Tomlinson (Ag.)	Do.	Karachi.
Mr. J. B. Baxter	Do.	Cocoonada.
Mr. C. Hodding	Do.	Bombay (Ag. Consul).
Mr. C. H. Hardcastle	Do.	Calcutta.
Mr. G. Locken	Do.	Do.
Panama.		
Senhor Don B. Martinez V. Monteleven	Consul	Calcutta.
Persia.		
Mirza Taghi Khan Moazz-e-d-Dowleh	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mirza Assadollah Khan, Moln-ul-Mulk, O.B.E.	Consul	Bombay.
Mirza Muhammad Ispahani	Do.	Calcutta.
Vacant	Do.	Madras.
Mir Ayub Khan	Vice-Consul	Karachi.
Khan Bahadur Mirza Ali Akbar Shirazi	Do.	Rangoon.
Vacant	Do.	Moulmein.
Peru.		
Mr. H. C. Sturgess	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Vacant	Consul	Rangoon.
Mr. J. A. Robin (temporarily in Charge)	Do.	Do.
Portugal.		
Dr. Amdin da-Silva	Consul-General	Bombay. (Ag.)
Senhor A. M. DeSouza	Consul	Rangoon.
Senhor A. A. Teixeira	Do.	Calcutta.
Senhor A. P. J. Fernandes	Vice-Consul	Bombay.
Senhor A. B. da Fonseca	Do.	Karachi.
Senhor A. M. Teixeira	Do.	Madras.

Name.	Appointment.	Port.
Siam.		
Phra Sarasasana Balakhanda	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Sir Henry P. W. Macnaghten	Consul	Bombay.
Mr. F. H. Wroughton	Do.	Rangoon.
Mr. C. Van-der-Gucht	Do.	Moulmein.
Spain.		
Senhor Don Albert de la Guardia Y. Ojea	Consul	Bombay.
Don D. O. Marco	Do.	Calcutta.
Mr. M. Crezoux	Vice-Consul	Do.
Mr. William Archbald (on leave)	Do.	Rangoon.
Mr. A. Semple (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Mr. L. Walker	Do.	Madras.
Mr. W. Young	Do.	Karachi.
Dr. D. S. Fraser	Do.	Bombay.
Sweden.		
Monsieur C. A. E. Sthwerbjelm	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr. K. P. Warlington	Consul	Madras.
Mr. J. Muller	Do.	Bombay.
Mr. W. Archbald (on leave)	Do.	Rangoon.
Mr. H. W. Child (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Mr. T. H. Wheeler (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Vacant	Do.	Moulmein.
Switzerland.		
Monsieur K. Ringger (on leave)	Consul-General	Bombay.
Mr. H. W. Hirs (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Monsieur M. M. Staub (on leave)	Consul	Calcutta.
Mr. J. Bleck (Ag.)	Do.	Do.
Mr. E. C. Flury	Do.	Madras.
Turkey.		
The Consular officers for Sweden are in charge of Turkish interests.		
United States of America.		
Alexander W. Weddell (on leave)	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr. W. L. Jenkins (in charge)	Consul	Do.
Mr. Ray Fox	Do.	Do.
H. Shantz (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Do.
Frederick L. Thomas (on leave)	Do.	Do.
Mr. R. D. Simonson	Do.	Do.
Wilbur Kellinger	Consul	Bombay.
Mr. T. E. Burke	Vice-Consul	Do.
Mr. W. H. Scott	Do.	Do.
Mr. A. R. Thomson	Consul	Madras.
F. P. Case	Vice-Consul	Do.
A. M. Warren (on leave)	Consul	Karachi.
Mr. W. B. Douglas (Junior) (in charge)	Vice-Consul	Do.
E. L. Rogers	Do.	Do.
C. J. Pissar	Consul	Rangoon.
Dr. H. B. Osborn	Vice-Consul	Do.
Venezuela.		
Mr. A. M. Tagore	Consul	Calcutta.

armies, viz; Bengal, Bombay and Madras, the total strength being 65,000 British and 140,000 Indian troops.

Several minor re-organizations took place during the following years, such as the linking of three Regiments together and the raising of Class Regiments and Companies. In 1895 the next large reorganization took place. This was the abolition of the three Armies and the introduction of the command system. Four Commands were formed viz: Punjab, Bengal, Madras and Bombay.

Lord Kitchener's Scheme.—This system lasted until 1904 when under Lord Kitchener's re-organization the Madras Command was abolished and the Army divided into three Commands—the Northern, Eastern and Western, corresponding to the Punjab, Bombay and Bengal Commands.

In 1907 Lord Kitchener considered that consequent on the delegation of administrative powers to Divisional Commanders, retention of such powers by Lieutenant Generals of Commands led to delay in the despatch of business. The Command system was therefore abolished and India was divided into two Armies—the Northern and Southern—each under a General Officer who was responsible for the command, inspection and training of the troops but was given no administrative responsibilities.

Early in the War both Army Commanders took the field and were not replaced until 1916 and 1917 when both had practically the same functions as their predecessors. It was now realised that administration was being unduly centralised at Army Headquarters and the machinery was becoming clogged with unnecessary details. To secure efficiency at A. H. Q., therefore, a certain measure of decentralisation was carried out in 1913. With the alteration of the designation "Army" to "Command" at this time, a considerable increase was made in the administrative staffs of the two Commands and the General Officers Commanding were given powers to deal with all administrative questions other than those dealing with matters of policy, new principles or war.

Present System of Administration of the Army in India.

The Secretary of State, as one of His Majesty's ministers, has a special responsibility and authority in regard to the military administration in India.

The Secretary of State's principal adviser on Indian military affairs is the Secretary in the Military Department of the India Office. The post is filled by an officer of the Indian Army of high rank; he is usually a Lieutenant-General—with recent Indian experience. The Military Secretary is assisted by one first grade staff officer, selected from the Indian Army. In order that he may keep in touch with the current Indian affairs, the Military Secretary is expected to visit India during the tenure of his office. In addition, by a practice which has obtained for many years, a retired Indian Army officer of high rank has a seat upon the Secretary of State's Council.

The superintendence, direction and control of the civil and military government of India are vested in the Governor-General in Council, who is required to pay due obedience to all such orders as he may receive from the Secretary of State. The Viceroy's Executive Council exercise in respect of Army administration the same authority and functions as they exercise in respect of other departments of the Government; in the first phase of the representative institutions conferred upon India by the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms Scheme, Army expenditure and the direction of military policy have been excluded from the control of the Legislature.

The Commander-in-Chief.—The next authority in the chain of administrative arrangements is His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief, who by custom is also the Army Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council. All the work connected with the administration of the Army, the formulation and execution of the military policy of the Government of India, the responsibility for maintaining every branch of the Army, combatant and non-combatant, in a state of efficiency, and the supreme direction of any military operations based upon India are centered in one authority,—the Commander-in-Chief and Army Member. In addition, he administers the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal Air Force in India.

Army Headquarters.—The organisation of the Army headquarters is founded upon the three principal Staff Officers, the Chief of the General Staff, the Adjutant-General in India, and the Quartermaster-General in India, whose primary duty is to assist the Commander-in-Chief in the executive side of his administration. There are other minor branches of the Army Headquarters Staff, namely, the Military Secretary, the Director-General of Ordnance and the Engineer-in-Chief.

The Director of Medical Services in India, who was Independent before the war, is now included in the Adjutant-General's Branch.

The Army Department.—The principal Staff Officers and the other independent heads of branches at Army Headquarters have two separate functions of a well-defined character. In one direction they are staff officers of the Commander-in-Chief, responsible for the administration of their departments of staff duties, for conveying to the subordinate commands the executive decisions of the Commander-in-Chief, and ensuring that these decisions are carried out. In their other aspect they are responsible to initiate and pursue, under the direction of the Commander-in-Chief, proposals relating to the better administration of the Army and the welfare of the troops, which require the decision of the Government of India or the Secretary of State.

The Staff of the Army Department consists of a Secretary who, like the Secretaries in the civil departments, is a Secretary to the Government of India as a whole, possessing the constitutional right of access to the Viceroy; a deputy Secretary, an Establishment Officer and two Assistant Secretaries.

The Army Department deals with all army services proper, and also the administration of the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal

Air Force in India, in so far as questions requiring the orders of the Government of India are concerned. The Army Department has no direct relations with commanders or troops or the staffs of formations subordinate to Army Headquarters; it has continuous and intimate relations with Army Headquarters in all administrative matters. The Army administration is represented in the Legislature by the Army Member in the Council of State, and by the Army Secretary in the Legislative Assembly.

The Military Council.—Is composed of the Commander-in-Chief as President, and the following members, namely: The Chief of the General Staff, the Adjutant-General, the Quartermaster-General, the Secretary to the Government of India in the Army Department and the Financial Adviser, Military Finance, representing the Finance Department of the Government of India. It is mainly an advisory body, constituted for the purpose of assisting the Commander-in-Chief in the performance of his administrative duties. It has no collective responsibility. It meets when convened by the Commander-in-Chief for the consideration of cases of sufficient importance and difficulty to require examination in conference. The heads of the minor independent branches of Army Headquarters and the directors of technical services attend when required.

Military Territorial Areas.

Indian Territory is divided in four commands, each under a General Officer Commanding-in-Chief. The details of the organisation are given in the table on p. 218 and it will be seen that the Commands comprise 14 districts: that of the Northern Command, with its headquarters at Murree, coincides roughly with the Punjab and North-West Frontier Province; the Southern Command, with headquarters at Poona, coincides roughly with the Bombay and Madras Presidencies and part of the Central Provinces; the Eastern Command, with headquarters at Naini Tal, coincides roughly with the Bengal Presidency and the United Provinces; while the Western Command, whose headquarters have for the moment been placed provisionally at Quetta, covers Sind, Rajputana and Baluchistan.

The General Officer Commanding-in-Chief of each Command is responsible for the command, administration, training and general efficiency of the troops stationed within his area, and also for all internal security arrangements.

Apart from the four Commands, the only formations directly controlled by Army Headquarters are the Waziristan and Burma districts and the Aden brigade. Waziristan will ultimately be merged in a Command, while Burma and Aden, mainly because of their geographical situation, cannot conveniently be included in any of the four Command areas.

The distribution of the troops allotted to the Commands and districts has been determined by the principle that the striking force must be ready to function in war, commanded and constituted as it is in peace. With this end in

view, the Army in India is now regarded as comprising three categories of troops:

- (1) Covering Troops,
- (2) The Field Army,
- (3) Internal Security Troops.

The role of the Covering Force is to deal with minor frontier outbreaks and, in the event of major operations, to form a screen behind which mobilisation can proceed undisturbed. The force normally consists of 12½ infantry brigades with a due proportion of other arms.

The Field Army consists of 4 Divisions and 5 Cavalry Brigades. The Field Army is India's striking force in a major war.

The Staff.

The staff is organised in three branches:

- (a) The General Staff Branch;
- (b) The Adjutant-General's Branch;
- (c) The Quartermaster-General's Branch.

The General Staff Branch deals with military policy, with plans of operations for the defence of India, with the organization and distribution of the army for internal security and external use.

The Adjutant-General's Branch deals with all matters appertaining to the raising, organising and maintenance of the military forces, the peace distribution of the army, discipline, etc.

The Quartermaster-General's Branch is concerned with the specification, provision, inspection, maintenance and issue of supplies, i.e., foodstuffs, forage, fuel, clothing, armaments, ammunition, equipment, etc.

There are other minor branches of the Army Headquarters staff, administered by officers who are not classified as Principal Staff Officers, but are not directly subordinate to any of the three Principal Staff Officers.

These are:

- (1) The Military Secretary, usually a Major-General, who deals with the appointment, promotion and retirement of officers holding the King's Commission, and the selection of officers for staff appointments.
- (2) The Director-General of Ordnance, also a Major-General, who controls the Ordnance factories.
- (3) The Engineer-in-Chief, also a Major-General and head of the Corps of Royal Engineers in India.

In addition to the above, the Army Headquarters staff includes certain technical advisers, of whom the most important are the Major-General, Cavalry, and the Major-General, Royal Artillery.

Regular British Forces in India.

The British cavalry and British infantry units of the army in India are units of the British service. No individual British service unit is located permanently in India. Units of the British Army are detailed for a tour of foreign

Plan Showing Chain of Command.

The Commander-in-Chief.

General Officer
Commanding
Burma Ind. District.
(2nd class.)

General Officer
Commanding-in-Chief,
Southern Command.

General Officer
Commanding-in-Chief,
Eastern Command.

General Officer
Commanding-in-Chief,
Western Command.

General Officer
Commanding-in-Chief,
Northern Command.

General Officer Commanding
Madras District.
(2nd class.)

General Officer Commanding
Bombay District.
(2nd class.)

General Officer Commanding
Poona District.
(1st class.)

General Officer Commanding
Central Provinces District.
(1st class.)

General Officer Commanding
Presidency and Assam
District.
(2nd class.)

Brigade Area (Allahabad)

Delhi Brigade Area.

General Officer Commanding
United Provinces District.
(1st class.)

General Officer Commanding
Sind-Rajputana District.
(2nd class.)

General Officer Commanding
Baluchistan District.
(1st class.)

General Officer Commanding
Waziristan District.
(2nd class.)

General Officer Commanding
Lahore District.
(1st class.)

General Officer Commanding
Rawalpindi District
(1st class.)

General Officer Commanding
Kohat District.
(2nd class.)

General Officer Commanding
Peshawar District.
(1st class.)

service, of which the major part is as a rule spent in India. In the case of British infantry battalions the system is that one battalion of a regiment serves in the United Kingdom and the other overseas. The tour of overseas service of a British battalion is usually 18 years. In the case of British cavalry the same arrangement cannot be applied, as one unit only comprises the regiment. The normal tour of overseas duty for a regiment of British cavalry is 14 years. In the United Kingdom, in peace-time, units are maintained at an establishment smaller than that required for war. In India, the peace establishments exceed the war establishments in view of the fact that reserves of British personnel do not exist, and reinforcements must be obtained from the United Kingdom.

British Cavalry.—There are 6 British cavalry regiments in India. The establishment of a British cavalry regiment is 27 officers and 571 other ranks. Thus the present total establishment of British cavalry in India is 162 officers and 3,426 other ranks.

British Infantry.—The present number of British infantry battalions in India is 45, each with an establishment of 28 officers and 882 other ranks, or a total of 1,260 officers and 39,690 other ranks.

In 1921 an important change was made in the composition of a British infantry battalion in India by the inclusion of a proportion of Indian combatant ranks. Battalions had always maintained a quota of Indian followers, but up to 1921 the combatant personnel was entirely British. In 1921, on the abolition of the Machine Gun Corps, eight machine guns were included in the equipment of a British infantry battalion. The peace establishment of Indian combatant personnel is fixed at one Indian officer and forty-one Indian other ranks. The Indian platoon, as it is called, is transferred en bloc to another British battalion when the battalion to which it was originally attached proceeds on relief out of India.

Royal Artillery.—Indians are employed as drivers and artificers in the Royal Horse and Field Artillery and in medium batteries, and as drivers, gunners and artificers in the Pack Artillery. In the Frontier Garrison Artillery they are employed as gunners and artificers and in the Indian Coast Artillery as gunners only.

The peace organisation of the artillery at the present day is as follows:

Royal Horse Artillery.—One brigade, consisting of headquarters, three batteries and three ammunition columns, and one unbrigaded battery and ammunition column. Each battery is armed with six 13-pounder guns.

Royal Field Artillery, Higher and Lower Establishment Brigades.—Seven brigades on the higher establishment, each consisting of headquarters and four batteries. Three brigades on the lower establishment, each consisting of headquarters and four batteries. Of the seven brigades on the higher establishment, four brigades consist of two batteries, each armed with six 18-pounder guns, and two batteries each with six 4.5" howitzers. Three brigades consist of three batteries, each armed with six 18-pounder guns, and one battery with six 4.5"

howitzers. Of the three brigades on the lower establishment two consist of three batteries, each armed with six 18-pounder guns, and one battery with six 4.5" howitzers, and one brigade of two batteries armed with six 18-pounder guns, and two batteries armed with 4.5" howitzers. Two guns in each battery are immobile.

Royal Field Artillery, Reinforcement Brigade.—The reinforcement brigade consists of three batteries, each armed with four 18-pounder guns, and one battery with four 4.5" howitzers. In war this brigade will be broken up to form the 3rd Divisional ammunition column.

Royal Field Artillery, Ammunition Columns.—Two Divisional ammunition columns are maintained for the artillery of the first and second divisions, and one brigade ammunition column for the covering force brigade on the frontier.

Pack Artillery.—Six brigades, each consisting of headquarters, one British and three Indian batteries, also one unbrigaded battery and one section. The British battery and two Indian batteries per brigade are armed, or in process of being armed, with four 5.7" howitzers; the remaining batteries are armed with four 2.75" guns.

Medium Artillery.—Two brigades, each consisting of one horsedrawn and two tractor-drawn batteries. In addition, there are the tractor-drawn batteries, two armed with 6" howitzers and one with 80-pounder guns on a lower establishment, each with only one section mobile. For administrative purposes one of these lower establishment batteries is brigaded with each of the two Medium Brigades: the third battery (armed with 60-pounder guns) is unbrigaded. In each brigade, therefore, there are three tractor-drawn and one horsedrawn batteries: in one brigade, the horsedrawn battery is armed with 80-pounder guns, in the other, with 6" howitzers.

Coast Artillery.—One headquarters and two companies at Bombay and Karachi, and one independent company at Calcutta.

Frontier Garrison Artillery.—One corps manning twelve posts. The posts are: Kohat; Samana; Thal; Chaman; Bannu; Dardoni; Peshawar; Hindubagh; Malakand; Shagai; Chakdara; Fort Sandeman.

The corps is responsible for manning the armament allotted for the defence of these posts.

Indian Coast Artillery.—One corps, with detachments at two coast defence stations, Bombay, and Karachi. The role of this corps is to assist the coast defence companies of the Royal Garrison Artillery stationed at Bombay and Karachi in the less technical duties connected with the manning of the defences. A special section at headquarters performs launch and boat duties for the outlying forts at Bombay.

Artillery Training Centres.—One centre for Indian ranks of Horse, Field and Medium Artillery and another centre for Indian ranks of Pack Artillery. These centres were created for the recruitment and training of Indian personnel required for batteries.

Engineer Services.

The Engineer-in-Chief.—The head of the Corps of Royal Engineers in India is directly responsible to His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief. The Engineer-in-Chief is not a Staff Officer, but the technical adviser of the Commander-in-Chief on all military engineering matters, responsible for:

- (1) Engineer operations and engineer services during war and peace.
- (2) The preparedness for war of the engineering services.
- (3) The supply of engineer stores during war and peace.
- (4) The execution and maintenance of all military works.
- (5) The constructional efficiency, accuracy and economy of all projects and designs submitted by him.

The Organisation.—The Engineer organisation of the Army consists of two main branches, viz., the "Sappers and Miners" and "Pioneers" and the Military Engineer Services.

The composition of the Corps of Sappers and Miners is as follows:

King George's Own Bengal Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Roorkee. Queen Victoria's Own Madras Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Bangalore. Royal Bombay Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Kirkee. Burma Sappers and Miners, Headquarters and one Depot Company.

The personnel of the Corps consists of Royal Engineer officers Indian officers holding the Viceroy's commission, a certain number of British non-commissioned officers, Indian non-commissioned officers and Indian other ranks. The first three Corps are commanded by a Lieut.-Colonel, who is assisted by two Majors, as Superintendents of Park and Instruction, an Adjutant, a Quartermaster, two Subadar-Majors, a Jemadar Adjutant and a Jemadar Quartermaster. The staff of the Burma Sappers and Miners is proportionately less.

Field Troops are mounted units, trained to accompany cavalry, and are equipped to carry out hasty bridging, demolition and watersupply work. Field companies are trained to accompany infantry. Divisional headquarters' companies are small units containing highly qualified "tradesmen" and are trained to carry out technical work in connection with field workshops. Army Troops companies are somewhat smaller units than field companies; they are required to carry out work behind divisions, under the orders of Chief Engineers, e.g., heavy bridging work, large water-supplies, electrical and mechanical installation. The Bridging Train comprises a sufficient number of pontoons to make a number of floating bridges.

The Military Engineer Services are divided into 3 branches, viz., "Buildings and Roads," "Electrical and Mechanical" and "Stores." The unit in the Buildings and Roads branch is the sub-division, which is in charge of a Sub-divisional officer (Military or Civilian upper subordinate), who is assisted by one or more

Sub-overseers (lower subordinates civilians). Two or more sub-divisions are grouped under a Garrison Engineer. The unit in the Electrical and Mechanical branch is the power station, ice factory, water-supply, group of road rollers or workshops, and one or more units are grouped under a Sub-divisional officer, who is supervised by a Garrison Engineer. The Stores branch deals with engineer stores and barrack furniture. For every sub-district store there is a storekeeper, and for every sub-district there is a Barrack Master (Commissary, Deputy or Assistant Commissary, ranking from Major to Lieutenant) or an Assistant Barrack Master (warrant officer), assisted by two or more Barrack Sergeants, who deal with the supply of barrack furniture to troops. At Lahore there is a Command Park for the supply of engineer stores, and at Roorkee there is a Command workshop for minor manufacture and repair work.

The Military Engineer Services control all military works in India, Burma, the Persian Gulf and Aden, except in the case of a few small outlying military stations, which are in charge of the Public Works Department. They control all works for the Royal Air Force and for the Royal Indian Marine; and they are charged with all civil works in the North-West Frontier Province and Baluchistan under the orders, in each of these two areas, of the Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General. They also control civil works in Bangalore, under the Mysore Government, and in Aden.

Royal Air Force in India.

The Royal Air Force in India is controlled by the Commander-in-Chief in India as part of the defence services of the Indian Empire. The Air Force budget is incorporated in the Army estimates. The Commander of the Air Force, the Air Officer Commanding in India is an Air Vice-Marshal, whose rank corresponds to that of a Major-General in the Army.

The headquarters of the Air Force is closely associated with Army Headquarters and is located with the latter at the seat of the Government of India. The Air Officer Commanding has a headquarters staff constituted in three branches, namely, air staff, personnel, and technical and stores. The system of staff organisation is similar to the staff system obtaining in the Army. Broadly speaking, the duties assigned to the three divisions mentioned are those which are performed by the General Staff Branch, the Adjutant-General's and Military Secretary's branches, and the Quartermaster-General's branch, respectively, of Army Headquarters. The formations subordinate to Royal Air Force Headquarters are: (1) The Wing Commands, which, in their turn, comprise the squadrons of aeroplanes. (2) The Aircraft Depot. (3) The Aircraft Park.

The Wing Commands.—There are three Wing Commands in India, namely, at Peshawar, Risalpur and Quetta. The Wing Commander is an officer with Air Force rank corresponding to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel in the Army. He is equipped with a staff organised on the same system as the headquarters staff of the Air Force. The Wing Headquarters establishment consists, approximately, of seven officers and forty other ranks.

The Squadrons.—Of the six squadrons, five are extended along the North-West Frontier from Quetta to Risalpur and one is stationed at Ambala. The squadron is the primary air force unit and it consists, normally, of a headquarters and three flights of aeroplanes. A flight can be detached temporarily but not permanently from its squadron, as repair facilities, workshops, and stores cannot economically be organised on anything lower than a squadron basis. The squadron headquarters comprises the officers and other ranks required for the command and administration of the squadron as a whole; it includes the workshop and repair units, the armouries and equipment stores of the squadron. The number of aeroplanes in a squadron varies with the type of aeroplane of which the squadron is composed; but, speaking generally, all squadrons on a peace basis have twelve aeroplanes, i.e., four in each of the three flights.

Of the six squadrons, two are equipped with De Havilland 9A aeroplanes and are allotted to distant reconnaissance and bombardment duties; the other four, which are allotted to army co-operation duties, have Bristol fighter aeroplanes. The establishment of officers in a squadron consists of six officers in the headquarters and fifteen officers allotted to flying duties. This allows a reserve of one officer for each of the operative flights.

The Aircraft Depot.—May conveniently be described as the wholesale store and provision department of the Royal Air Force. Technical stores from the United Kingdom are received and, in the first instance, held in the Aircraft Depot. It is also the main workshop and repair shop of the Force, where all engine repairs, mechanical transport repairs, and aircraft repairs of any magnitude are carried out. The Depot is located at Karachi, the chief reason for selecting this place being, first that the climate of Karachi permits of European artificers working efficiently for the greater part of the year, and, secondly, it is contemplated that the projected Cairo-Baghdad-India air-route will enter India at Karachi. If this anticipation is realised, it will obviously be convenient to have in existence there a large Air Force maintenance establishment.

The Aircraft Park.—Relatively to the Aircraft Depot, the Aircraft Park may be described as a central retail establishment, intermediate between the squadrons and the Aircraft Depot. It receives stores from the depot and distributes them to the squadron. The stocks held in the park are, however, usually limited to items necessary at short notice for operations, and the quantities held are kept as low as distance from the depot and local conditions will admit. In war, the Aircraft Park is intended to be a mobile formation. In peace, the Aircraft Park is located at Lahore. New aeroplanes, received from the United Kingdom, are erected there, but no major repairs are undertaken.

Composition of Establishments.—The personnel of the Royal Air Force in India consist of officers, non-commissioned officers and airmen of the Royal Air Force of the United Kingdom, and Indian artificers and mechanics belonging to the Indian technical section. The

officers are employed on administrative, flying and technical duties; but all are required to be capable of flying an aeroplane. A proposal is now under consideration to employ non-commissioned officers as pilots; but at present non-commissioned officers and airmen are employed solely on technical work. The only flying personnel who are not officers are aerial gunners and a certain number of wireless operators. The non-commissioned officers and airmen are employed both with squadrons and at the Aircraft Depot and Park. The personnel of the Indian technical section are employed entirely at the Depot and Park on technical trades, and consist of carpenters, fitters, fabric workers, instrument repairers, machinists, etc.

The total establishment consists of 218 officers, 1,757 British non-commissioned officers and airmen and 138 Indians.

In India, as in the United Kingdom, the Air Force has a medical service of its own.

Regular Indian Forces.

Indian Cavalry.—The present number of Indian cavalry regiments is 21, arranged in seven groups of three regiments each. In addition, there are seven stations which form suitable permanent locations for regiments allotted to internal security duties. One of these stations is allotted to each group, with the result that one of the three regiments of each group will always be located in a permanent regimental centre. A group depot will be formed in this station on mobilisation and will be made responsible for the training and provision of reinforcements for the whole group.

The peace establishment of an Indian cavalry regiment comprises:

- 14 British officers.
- 18 Indian officers.
- 504 Indian non-commissioned officers and men.

Indian Infantry and Pioneers.—The establishment of the Indian Infantry is constituted as follows:

	Battalions.
20 Infantry regiments consisting of	.. 107
3 Pioneer regiments consisting of	.. 12
1 Independent Pioneer battalion (4th Hazara Pioneers)	.. 1
10 Gurkha regiments consisting of	.. 20
—	140
34	

Reserves for these units have to be sufficient to provide for an actual shortage on mobilisation as well as for the maintenance of the mobilised unit at full strength for the first 8 months after mobilisation.

The conditions of the new reserve, which were introduced in August 1923, are as follows:

- (a) There are two classes in the reserve. Class A and Class B. A reservist is eligible to serve in Class A up to 8 years combined army and reserve service, and in Class B up to 15 years combined service.

(b) Service in the reserve is compulsory. On enrolment a man engages to serve at least 5 years in army service, and to serve up to 15 years in combined army and reserve service, if required to do so.

(c) Reservists will be trained for not more than 1 month annually in the cases of Class A, and biennially in the case of Class B. During training the reservist will receive the full pay of a serving soldier.

(d) While not under training, the reservist will receive pay as follows:

Class A, Rs. 7 per mensem.

Class B, Rs. 4 per mensem.

(e) A reservist will be discharged from the service after 15 years combined army and reserve service, when he will receive a pension of Rs. 3 per mensem, or, if he desires it, a gratuity of Rs. 300 in lieu. A reservist who is invalided from the reserve is granted a gratuity varying between 3 and 6 months pay and good conduct pay according to service.

The establishment of the Infantry reservists (including Gurkha battalions and the Independent Pioneer Battalion, 14th Hazara Pioneers) is fixed at present as follows:

Infantry	26,448
Gurkhas	2,000
Pioneers	1,395
Independent Pioneers	81

Total .. 29,924

The Signal Service.—The Corps is organised on the same lines as a Sapper and Miner Corps, with a headquarters and depot for recruiting and training personnel, and detached field units for the various army formations. The head of the corps is the Signal Officer-in-Chief, who is attached to the General Staff Branch at Army Headquarters as a technical adviser on questions connected with signals, and is also

responsible for the technical inspection of all signal units. A chief signal officer with similar functions is attached to the headquarters of each Army Command.

The headquarters and depot, termed the Signal Training Centre and Depot, are located at Jubbulpore, and are commanded by a Lieutenant-Colonel, assisted by a staff, British and Indian, organised on very much the same lines as the headquarters of a Corps of Sappers and Miners.

The various types of field units and the number maintained are:

Cavalry Brigade Signal Troops ..	4
Divisional Signals	7
Corps Signals	2
Signal Parks	2

In addition, there are an Army Signal School and a Wireless Training Section, which carry out the training of regimental signalling instructors, and of personnel for wireless units, respectively.

Royal Tank Corps.—Six Armoured Car companies arrived in India in 1921. Two more companies are due to arrive in 1924-1925. Eight Armoured Car companies is the total establishment at present in view. To complete the organisation, a Tank Corps Centre is maintained at Ahmednagar for the training of Tank Corps personnel, and for the administration of the Corps.

The smallest tactical unit is the sub-section of two cars. Two sub-sections constitute a section. The section is commanded by a captain or a subaltern, and is self-contained and capable of independent action. Three sections constitute a company. The company is commanded by a major. In addition to the twelve active cars in the three sections, four cars are held in company reserve to replace active cars temporarily out of action. Each car is armed with a Vickers machine gun.

The establishment of a Tank Corps Company and of the Tank Corps Centre are shown below:

	British Officers.	British other ranks.	Followers.	Motor cars.	Motor cycles.	Armoured cars.	Lorries.
Tank Corps Centre	9	45	15	1	4	9	12
Armoured Car Company	12	144	37	2	6	16	10

Medical Services.—The military medical services in India are composed of the following categories of personnel and subordinate organisations:

(a) Officers and other ranks of the Royal Army Medical Corps serving in India;

(b) Officers of the Indian Medical Service in military employment;

(c) The Indian Medical Department, consisting of two branches, viz., (i) assistant surgeons and (ii) sub-assistant surgeons.

(d) The Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India.

(e) The Indian Troops Nursing Service.

(f) The Indian Hospital Corps.

Of these categories, the officers and men of the Royal Army Medical Corps, the assistant surgeons of the Indian Medical Department and the Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India are primarily concerned with the medical care of British troops; while the officers of the Indian Medical Service, the sub-assistant surgeon of the Indian Medical Department and the Indian Troops Nursing Service are concerned, primarily, with the medical care of Indian troops. The Indian Hospital Corps serves both organisations.

Indian Army Service Corps and the Mechanical Transport Service.—The Indian Army Service Corps is the counterpart of the Royal Army Service Corps of the British Army. It has developed from the Commissariat Department of an earlier period, and its immediate predecessor was the Supply and Transport Corps, by which name the service was known up to a short time ago. The Indian Army Service Corps is administered by the Quartermaster-General, and is one of the principal services included in the Quartermaster-General's Department.

The Indian Army Service Corps is constituted in two main branches, namely: (a) Supply, (b) Animal transport, and is supplemented by the Mechanical Transport Service, which, in India, is constituted upon a special basis, but which is, generically, a sub-division of Army Service Corps organisation.

The strength of the supply establishment at the present day is shown by categories in the following table:

Officers with King's commission ..	141
Indian officers	20
British other ranks	331
Civilians	679
Followers	2,895
Total	4,066

The total number of mules maintained under this organisation, including the depots and the detachments in Aden, Kashmir and the Persian Gulf, is 18,443, while the camel units are calculated to produce on mobilisation 12,480 camels. There are also 750 pack and draught horses. Wheeled and pack transport are combined. The company on the lower establishment represents the pre-war "cadre," other companies being maintained in peace-time at full war establishment.

The strength of the personnel of animal transport units is shown by categories in the following table:

	1923.
Officers with King's commissions ..	75
British other ranks	70
Indian officers	106
Civilians	142
Silladar sarwans	2,560
Indian non-commissioned officers and drivers	13,524
Artificers and followers	2,162
Total	18,738

The mechanical transport establishment consists of the following:

Heavy Lorries: 4 service sections, that is to say, sections at strength sufficient to take the field on mobilisation, 6 cadre sections.

Light Lorries: 7 service sections, 7 cadre sections.

Apart from units and vehicles employed on the conveyance of military stores, the mechanical transport service also provides motor vehicles for armoured car companies, the tank corps centre, the sappers and miners, the signal corps, motor ambulance convoys for hospitals and field medical units, and vehicles for other minor miscellaneous purposes. Mechanical transport companies and sections are also attached to batteries of medium artillery for drawing the guns and for other purposes. The organisation as a whole is completed by a central training school, a central stores depot, mobile repair units and workshops, of which the most important is the large heavy repair workshop constructed after the war at Chakala. Like the Indian Army Service Corps, the mechanical transport service is administered by the Director of Supply and Transport under the control of the Quartermaster-General. Exclusive of motor bicycles the total establishment now provisionally contemplated consists of 1,858 vehicles, of which 1,088 will be actively employed in peace-time, while 770 vehicles will be spare and reserve.

The mechanical transport is at present not actually a part of the Indian Army Service Corps. The officers of the service are mainly drawn from the Royal Army Service Corps, since at present there are no facilities in India for training officers in every branch of mechanical transport duties. The establishment of officers includes, however, a certain number of King's commissioned officers belonging to the Indian Army. The British subordinates of the service are drawn entirely from the Royal Army Service Corps. The establishment is completed by Indian officers with the Viceroy's commission, and Indian other ranks employed as drivers. A large number of Indians with non-combatant status are employed as artificers and followers. The strength and categories of the present provisional establishments are shown in the following table:

Officers with King's commissions ..	145
British other ranks	533
Indian officers and other ranks	2,109
Civilians	325
Indian artificers	1,253
Followers	1,063
Total	5,428

The Ordnance Services may be broadly described as the agency whose duty it is to supply the army with munitions of war, such as small arms, guns, ammunition and other equipment of a technical military character, and also, under an arrangement introduced in recent years, with clothing and general stores other than engineering stores.

The Remount and Veterinary Services.—The following are among the most important duties imposed on the remount service: (1) The mounting of the whole of the Indian Cavalry. (2) The provision of camels and draught bullocks for all units and services. (3) The maintenance of 68,344 animals. (4) The animal mobilization throughout India of all animals available for transport in war. (5) The animal mobilization of all units and services and departments of the army. (6) A general responsibility for the efficiency of all the animals of the army both in peace and war. (7) The administration of the remount squadron formed in 1922 as a nucleus for expansion into three squadrons on mobilization. (8) Breeding operations of a direct character and a new horse-breeding area.

The department is organised on lines corresponding to the remount service in the United Kingdom. Its composition is as follows: The Remount Directorate at Army Headquarters consisting of one Director and a Deputy Director. 4 Remount Inspectors, one attached to each Command Headquarters. 4 Deputy Assistant Directors of Remounts of Circles. 7 Superintendents of Remount Depots. 6 District Remount officers of horse-breeding areas. 15 Assistant Remount officers. 9 Veterinary officers.

The Army Veterinary Corps, India—Is responsible for the veterinary care, in peace and war, of mounted British troops, Indian cavalry and artillery. I. A. S. C. units, the remount department (excluding horse-breeding operations), etc. The Corps now includes: The establishment of Royal Army Veterinary Corps officers, serving on a tour of duty in India. The establishment of warrant and non-commissioned officers, India Unattached List. All veterinary assistants. The clerical establishment of the Army Veterinary Service.

The Army Veterinary Corps, India, is organised in 12 sections, attached in peace-time to Class I Station veterinary hospitals at certain important stations.

Terms of service in the Indian army are as follows:—

Cavalry, 4 years' service in army.

Artillery, 4 years' service in army.

S. & M. Corps, 4 years' service in army.

Indian Signal Corps, 4 years' service in army.

Infantry and Pioneers (except Gurkha groups, the 4th Hazara Pioneers and trans-frontier personnel of the Infantry), 5 years in army service and 10 years in the reserve. (Note: This is the minimum period of service with the colours. 15 years in Colour and Reserve service must be done).

Gurkha groups, 4th Hazara Pioneers and the trans-frontier personnel of the Infantry, 4 years' service in army.

Animal transport personnel of the Indian Army Service Corps, drivers of mechanical transport and all combatants of the Army Veterinary Corps, 6 years' service in army and 4 in the reserve.

All combatants in the Works Corps, 2 years' service in army.

Bandsmen, musicians, trumpeters, drummers, buglers, fliers and pipers, 10 years' service in army.

Except in the case of those enrolled in the Works and of those who are non-combatants, all School-masters, clerks, artificers, armourers, engine drivers, farriers, carpenters, tailors and bootmakers, 10 years' service in army.

The period laid down for service in the army may be extended. Combatants may be enrolled direct into the Reserve, in which case there is no minimum period of service, but no one is allowed to serve in the reserve or in any class of the reserve for a longer period than is permitted by the regulations in force.

Frontier Militia and Levy Corps.—These forces are "Civil" troops, i.e., they are administered and paid by the Civil authorities and not by the Army. They are, however, officered by Officers of the Regular Indian Army. These forces were raised for duty on the North-West Frontier and at present consist of the following:—Kurram Militia, Tochi Scouts, South Waziristan Scouts, Chitral Scouts, Gilgit Scouts, Zhob Levy Corps and the Mekan Levy Corps. The various names show the localities in which each force is situated.

The Auxiliary Force.

After the war, the question of universal training for European British subjects came up for consideration, and it was decided that in India, as elsewhere in the Empire, the adoption of compulsory military service would be undesirable. It was recognised, however, that India needed some adequate auxiliary force, if only on a voluntary basis, that could be trained to a fairly definite standard of efficiency; and in the result, an Act to constitute an Auxiliary Force for service in India was passed in 1920. Under this Act membership is limited to European British subjects, and the liability of members for training and service is clearly defined. Military training is graduated according to age, the more extended training being carried out by the younger members, the older members being obliged to fire a musketry course only. It was laid down that military service should be purely local. As the form of service that would be most suitable varies largely according to localities, the local military authorities, acting in consultation with the advisory committee of the Auxiliary Force area, were given the power of adjusting the form of training to suit local conditions.

The Auxiliary Force comprises all branches of the service, cavalry, artillery, engineers, infantry—in which are included railway battalions, machine gun companies, and the R.A.S.C. sections. Units of the Auxiliary Force are under the command of the local military authority, and the latter has the power of calling them out for service locally in a case of emergency. Their role is to assist in home defence. Training is carried on throughout the year. Pay at a fixed rate is given for each day's training and, on completion of the scheduled period of annual training, every enrolled member of the force is entitled to a certain bonus. Men enrol in the Auxiliary Force for an indefinite period. An enrolled person is entitled to claim his discharge on the completion of four

years service or on attaining the age of 45 years. Till then he can only be discharged on the recommendation of the advisory committee of the area.

Indian Territorial Force.

The Territorial Force is one of the several aspects of the Indianisation of the military services. The force is intended to cater, amongst other things, for the military aspirations of those classes of the population to whom military service has not hitherto been a hereditary profession. It is intended, at the same time, to be a second line to and a source of reinforcement for the regular Indian army. Membership of the force for this latter reason carries with it a liability for something more than purely local service or home defence. It may, in certain circumstances, involve service overseas. The force is the direct successor of the Indian section of the Indian Defence Force created during the war. It has been modelled on the old militia in England. The essence of its scheme of organisation consists in training men by means of annual embodiment for a short period in successive years. By this means Indian Territorial Force units can be given sufficient preliminary training in peace to enable them, after a comparatively short period of intensive training, to take their place by the side of regular units in war.

The Indian Territorial Force consists at present of two main categories, provincial battalions, and the *university training corps battalions*. The latter are recruited from the staff and students of Indian universities. They are trained all the year round, and are equipped with a permanent staff of British instructors. On ceasing to belong to a university, a member of the corps is discharged. In the case of the university training corps battalions, it is not intended to enforce the liability to render actual military service. Their purpose is mainly educative, to inculcate discipline and form character. But, incidentally, they are expected to be a source of supply of both officers and men for the provincial battalions.

The members of the *provincial battalions* accept the full liability for service which has been mentioned. Seven such battalions were constituted in the first instance. The number has since been raised to twenty and, though the unit establishment has not been completely filled in all cases, the movement has already achieved a greater degree of success than might have been anticipated at so early a stage. It is in contemplation to diversify and extend the scope of the force by constituting some auxiliary units. Although for the present the infantry arm only has been created, the force by law may include every other army service.

Men enrol in the provincial battalions for a period of six years, the period being reduced to four years in certain cases. On the completion of the first period they can re-enrol voluntarily, for further specified periods. During his first year, every man does twenty-eight days preliminary training, and during every year he receives twenty-eight days periodical training.

The Indian State Forces.

The Indian State Forces, formerly designated "Imperial Service Troops," consist of the military forces raised and maintained by the Rulers of Indian States at their own expense and for State service. It has been the custom in emergency for State troops to be lent to the Government of India, and the Government of India have on many occasions received military assistance of great value from this source. But the rendering of such aid is entirely at the discretion of the Ruling Princes and Chiefs. Government, on the other hand, provide permanently a staff of British officers, termed "Military Advisers and Assistant Military Advisers," to assist and advise the Ruling Princes in organising and training the troops of their States.

After the war had ended, the Indian States, like the Government of India, undertook a military reorganisation, which in a number of cases, has already been carried out. The principal feature of the new arrangements, as adopted more or less generally, is that in future the Indian State Forces should be composed of three categories of troops, namely:

Class A.—Troops in this class are organised on the present-day Indian Army system and establishments, and, with some exceptions, are armed with the same weapons as corresponding units of the regular Indian Army.

Class B.—These troops consist of units which are, in most cases, little inferior in training and discipline to troops of Class A; but they are not organised on present-day Indian Army establishments. They have, as a rule, retained the system of the pre-war formations. Their standard of armament is pitched lower than that of Class A troops.

Class C.—These troops consist in the main of militia formations, which are not permanently embodied. The standard of training, discipline, and armament, prescribed for this class, is generally lower than the standard prescribed for Class B troops.

The actual strength of the Indian State Forces, on the 1st October 1923, amounted to

Cavalry	..	..	..	7,499
Infantry	..	..	..	15,484
Artillery	..	..	..	718
Sappers	..	..	..	831
Camel Corps	..	..	..	734
Transport Corps	..	..	..	1,784
Total	..	..	..	27,030

Officers.

There are two main categories of officers in the Indian Army; those holding the King's Commission and those holding the Viceroy's Commission. The latter are all Indians (apart from the Gurkha officers of Gurkha battalions and have a limited status and power of command, both of which are regulated by the Indian Army Act and the rules made thereunder. Until recent years Indians were not eligible for King's Commissions.

King's Commissioned Officers for the Indian Army are obtained from two sources: from among the cadets who pass through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, and by the transfer to the Indian Army of Officers belonging to British units. The former is the principal channel of recruitment; the latter being only resorted to when, owing to abnormal wastage or for some other special reason, requirements cannot be complete by means of cadets from Sandhurst. When a cadet has qualified at Sandhurst and has received his commission, he becomes, in the first instance, an officer of the Unattached List, and is posted for a period of one year to a British battalion or regiment in India, where he receives a preliminary training in his military duties. At the end of the year, he is posted as a squadron or company officer to a regiment or battalion of the Indian Army. Administrative services and departments of the army draw their officers from combatant units, as it has hitherto been regarded as essential that every officer should, in the first instance, receive a thorough grounding in combatant duties, and acquire at first hand an intimate knowledge of the requirements of the combatant arm.

The promotion in rank of King's commission officers of the Indian Army is regulated by a time-scale up to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel, but is subject also to certain professional examinations and tests being successfully passed. The rank of Lieutenant-Colonel is in normal course, attained at about 28 years service; promotion beyond this rank is determined by selection.

Indian Officers.—One of the most momentous decisions of the Great War, so far as the Indian Army is concerned, was that which rendered Indians eligible to hold a King's commission in the army. It was proposed that King's commissions should be obtainable by Indian gentlemen in the following three ways: (1) By qualifying as a cadet through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst; (2) By the selection of specially capable and deserving Indian officers or non-commissioned officers of Indian regiments who had either been promoted from the ranks or joined their regiments on direct appointment as leaders; (3) By the bestowal of honorary King's commissions on Indian officers who had rendered distinguished service, but whose age and lack of education precluded their being granted the full King's commission. A number of honorary King's commissions are still granted annually to a limited number of Viceroy's commissioned officers of the class described in the third category mentioned above. The second of the sources of selection mentioned has since been almost entirely abandoned for the reason that a Viceroy's commissioned officer of this class cannot, as a practical matter, hope to have a normal career as a King's commissioned officer. It is the first of the three avenues of selection mentioned which gives the fullest opportunity to the Indian of satisfying a military ambition and of enjoying a military career on terms of absolute equality with the British officer, who, as a general rule, also enters the army by qualifying at Sandhurst. It was decided that, in the first instance, ten vacancies at Sandhurst should be reserved annually for Indian cadets.

A further measure adopted by the Government was the establishment of the Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College at Dehra Dun, a Government institution for the preliminary education of Indians who desire to qualify for a King's commission in the army through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst.

The arrangements so far made enable a maximum of 70 boys to be in residence at the college at any one time, and the normal course of education is planned to occupy six years. These dispositions will render it possible to provide from Dehra Dun sufficient candidates to fill the ten vacancies at Sandhurst which are at present allotted annually to Indians. In February 1923, it was decided that eight units of the Indian Army should be completely Indianized. The units selected for Indianization were: 7th Light Cavalry; 16th Light Cavalry; 2/1st Madras Pioneers; 4/19th Hyderabad Regiment; 5th Royal Battalion, 5th Mahratta Light Infantry; 1/7th Rajput Regiment (Q. V. O. L. I.); 1/14th Punjab Regiment; 2/1st Punjab Regiment.

Training Institutions.

The following institutions exist in India for the higher training of military personnel and for the education of instructors for units:

Staff College, Quetta.

Senior Officers School, Belgaum.

School of Artillery, Kakul.

Equestrian School, Saugor.

Two Small Arms Schools, Pachmaria and Satara.

School of Physical Training, Ambala.

Machine Gun School, Ahmednagar.

Army Signal School, Poona.

Royal Tank Corps School, Ahmednagar.

British Army School of Education, Belgaum.

Indian Army School of Education, Wellington.

Army School of Cookery, Poona.

Two Army Veterinary Schools, Ambala and Poona.

Indian Army Service Corps Training Establishment, Rawalpindi.

Their object is to ensure to all formations and units throughout the army a constant supply of officers, warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and men, provided with a thorough up-to-date knowledge of various technical subjects, and with the ability to pass on this knowledge.

Army in India Reserve of Officers.—Previous to the Great War there had been what was called the Indian Army Reserve of Officers, a body of trained officers available to replace casualties in the Indian Army. The war proved that for many reasons this reserve did not meet the requirements and in September 1922 sanction was given to reconstitute the I. A. R. O.

The reconstitution proposed and sanctioned was as follows:—

(a) The following gentlemen could be granted commissions in the Reserve.

(1) Officers holding King's commissions who, having retired from H. M.'s forces, were not liable for further service.

(2) Officials, other than Military Officers, serving under the Government of India.

(3) Private gentlemen residing in India.

(b) Commissions would not usually be given to any one over the age of 28, unless he had previous commissioned service in the Regular Army, I.A.R.O. or I.D.F.

(c) The new Reserve would supply the Army in India and not only the Indian Army as before.

(d) The Reserve would be formed on a fixed establishment for each arm and branch of the Army.

(e) In the Indian Army the officers would be posted to definite groups and units.

(f) Officers would be divided into two groups (i) those immediately available for service in emergency and (ii) those who would not be available until the first group was exhausted.

(g) All officers would do periodical training of 30 days a year either with a regular unit or if that were impossible with the Auxiliary Force.

(h) All officers would receive Rs. 750 for each period of 30 days' training in lieu of pay and allowances.

The fighting races.—The fighting classes that contribute to the composition of the Indian Army have hitherto been drawn mainly from the north of India, but the experiences of the great war have caused some modifications in the opinions previously held as to the relative value of these and other fighting men. The numbers of the various castes and tribes enlisted in the Army have since the war undergone fluctuations, and it is not possible at present to give exact information as to their proportions. Previous to the war the Sikhs contributed very large numbers both to the cavalry and infantry, and the contribution of the Gurkhas was also large; it is probable that these classes preserve their preponderance. The Sikhs, who inhabit the Punjab originated in a sect founded near Lahore by a peasant in the early part of the sixteenth century and in the course of a hundred years grew into a formidable militant power. Muhammadans of various races contribute a still larger proportion to both the cavalry and infantry. These are drawn both from the north and the south of India, as well as from beyond the Frontier. They are all excellent fighting men, hardy and warlike, who have furnished soldiers to all the great powers of India for many hundreds of years. As cavalry the Muhammadans are perhaps unequalled by any other race in the East, being good horsemen and expert men-at-arms.

Next in point of numbers are the Gurkhas of Nepal, who were at the outbreak of war formed in twenty complete battalions, but

these have been considerably increased. As fighters in the hills they are unsurpassed even by the Pathans of the North-West Frontier, but the Garhwals are equally good mountaineers.

The professional military caste of India from time immemorial has been the Rajput, inhabiting not only Rajputana but the United Provinces and Oudh. Of fine physique and martial bearing, these warriors of Hindustan formed the backbone of the old Bengal Army, and have sustained the English flag in every campaign in the East. Their high caste and consequent prejudices in no respect interfere with their martial instincts and efficiency in war. They furnish many battalions. The Garhwals are Hill Rajputs, good and gallant soldiers, who have proved themselves equal to any other troops on the field of battle and have established an imperishable record in the war both in Europe and in the East. The two battalions which were all we had in 1914 have since been added to. The Jats are a fine and warlike race of Hindus found in the Delhi and Rohilkhand districts and adjoining territory. It was these people who held out so bravely at Bharatpur and repelled Lord Lake's army in 1805. They have proved themselves good soldiers on the battlefields of Europe. Dogras are good and steady soldiers found in the hilly districts of the Punjab. They fought well in Flanders and in Mesopotamia.

Among those who have rendered signal and gallant service in the war are the Mahrattas of the Deccan and the Konkan, who have revived the reputation held by their race in the days of Shivaji, the founder of the Mahratta Empire. It is probable that their proved efficiency in war will lead to their recruitment in larger numbers in future.

In addition to the castes that have been mentioned, low caste men from the south and other parts of India have filled the ranks of the Pioneer regiments and Sappers and Miners, and done their duty well in every campaign in which they have been engaged.

Summary of India's Effort in the War.—In a despatch by the Commander-in-Chief published in July, 1919, the whole operations of the Indian Army during the war are reviewed. His Excellency gives in it the following figures showing the extent of India's contribution in terms of men. On the outbreak of war, the combatant strength of the Indian Army, including reservists, was 194,000 Indian ranks; enlistments during the war for all branches of the service amounted to 791,000, making a total combatant contribution of 985,000. Of this number 552,000 were sent overseas. As regards non-combatants, the pre-war strength was 45,000; an additional 427,000 were enrolled during the war and 391,000 were sent overseas. The total contribution of Indian personnel has thus been 1,457,000 of whom 943,000 have served overseas. Casualties amounted to 108,594, which include 36,694 deaths from all causes. The number of animals sent overseas was 175,000.*

* For a record of the services of the Indian Army in the War, see *The Indian Year Book* for 1920, p. 152, et seq.

Effectives.

FIGHTING AND ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES, 1922-23.

	1922-23.				Total.
	British Officers.	British other Ranks.	Indian Officers and Indian other Ranks.	Others.	
(a) Fighting services (including Royal Air Force)	4,467	66,078	144,617	20,490	235,652
(b) Administrative Services	2,365	5,089	25,893	38,557	71,904
Ration (a) to (b)	..	..	..	..	3:1

Budget Expenditure on National Defence.

A part of the Defence expenditure on the Indian Budget is incurred in England, the nature of such expenditure being indicated in the detailed Tables of Army, Marine and Military Works expenditure. This expenditure is met by transfer of funds from India. Since April 1st, 1920, the accounts have been prepared on the basis of the rate of 2/- per rupee for the conversion of English sterling transactions into rupees. The sterling value of the rupee has, however, stood at a lower level in recent years—it is anticipated that the average rate for 1924-25 will work out at 1-4 d. In consequence of this variation from the 2/- rate, large sums have to be brought to account as credits or debits on account of exchange in respect of transactions involving remittances to or from India. All these exchange gains or losses are recorded in the first instance under a suspense heading; the portion attributable to the various headings

in respect of outlay incurred in England is calculated every month on the basis of the average of the daily telegraphic transfer rates from Calcutta to London, and transferred to these accounts; and it is considered, with reference to the circumstances of each year, whether the balance remaining under the suspense heading after these transfers are made should be written off to revenue or kept in suspense against the possibility of opposite results in succeeding years.

As a rule, the receipts collected by the various departments are not set off against expenditure as appropriations in aid, but are shown separately on the receipts side of the budget. This is especially the case with the receipts of the Military Departments, which amount to considerable sums.

The Provincial Governments incur no expenditure for Military purposes.

SUMMARY OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE (Gross.)

Table 1.

	1922-23.	1923-24.	1924-25.
	Closed Accounts.	Revised Estimates.	Budget estimates as passed.
Rupees (000's omitted.)			
Army	647,060	585,052	578,810
Marine	13,999	9,865	9,168
Military Works	49,000	44,455	42,038
Total	710,059	639,372	630,016
Defence expenditure Index	% 100	% 90	% 89
Index number of wholesale prices:			
1914=100	180	175	(a) 1,751
1922-23=100	100	97	97
Rupees (000's omitted)			
Defence Expenditure reduced to pre-war price level	394,000	365,000	360,000
Index of Defence Expenditure reduced to pre-war price level	% 100	% 93	% 91

(a) Average, April-June 1924.

NOTES.—(1) This summary includes the cost of the Royal Air Force, which is included in the Army Estimates, and also the expenditure on non-effective services, but does not include debt service.

(2) All Expenditure for Military purposes incurred in the United Kingdom by the Indian Government, as also all contributions to the Imperial Government for these purposes, are included in the above figures.

ANALYSIS OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE.

1. The following table gives the main items of Army Expenditure, shown for India and England separately:—

Table 2.

	1922-23.	1923-24.	1924-25.
	Closed Accounts.	Revised Estimates.	Budget Estimates.
INDIA.			
Rupees (000's omitted).			
A. Standing Army:			
(1) Effective Services:			
Maintenance of the Standing Army ..	302,954	291,148	284,046
Educational, etc., establishments and Working Expenses of Hospitals, Depots, etc.	94,069	92,452	82,720
Army Headquarters, Staff of Commands, etc.	21,440	20,403	20,519
Stock Account	—29,864	—35,490	—14,738
Special Services	54,582	21,641	5,795
Miscellaneous charges	19,478	13,375	18,386
Unadjusted expenditure	— 2,484	..	..
Total Effective Services ..	460,175	403,520	396,728
(2) Non-effective Services:			
Non-effective charges	59,275	56,497	53,886
B. Auxiliary and Territorial Forces:			
Effective	9,546	10,187	11,195
C. Royal Air Force:			
Effective	11,055	13,258	12,997
Non-effective	..	62	5
Total: India:			
Effective	480,778	426,965	420,920
Non-effective	59,275	56,559	53,891
Total ..	540,051	483,524	474,811

Table 2—contd.

	1922-23.	1923-24.	1924-25.
	Closed Accounts.	Revised Estimates.	Budget Estimates.
(Rupees 000's omitted)			
ENGLAND.			
A. Standing Army:			
(1) Effective Services:			
Maintenance of the Standing Army ..	31,968	29,735	26,945
Educational, etc., establishments and Working Expenses of Hospitals, depots, etc. ..	2,350	2,526	1,965
Army Headquarters, Staff of Commands, etc. ..	512	420	420
Stock Account ..	18,134	11,605	15,759
Special Services ..	4,536	8,000	10,500
Miscellaneous charges ..	7,401	7,288	6,380
Total Effective Services ..	64,901	59,574	61,969
(2) Non-effective Services ..	34,225	36,248	37,482
B. Royal Air Force:			
Effective ..	7,883	5,706	4,548
Total: England ..	107,009	101,528	103,999
Total Army Expenditure—			
Effective ..	553,560	492,245	487,437
Non-effective ..	93,500	92,807	91,373
Grand Total ..	647,060	585,052	578,810

The amounts expended in England on effective services consist of such charges as payments to the War Office in London in respect of British Forces serving in India, the transport to India of those forces, and payments on account of stores taken to India by British troops, educational establishments in England for Indian Services, etc. The expenditure on non-effective services consists of payments to the War Office in London for retired pay to British forces for services in India and to non-effective and retired officers of the Indian Service, and of various gratuities.

Of the sum of Rs. 602.5 million allotted in the Budget for 1924-25 to meet the net expenditure on Military Services (i.e., after deducting Defence Receipts), Rs. 554.9 million will be available for expenditure under the heading "Army," made up of Rs. 455.5

million for expenditure in India and Rs. 99.3 million in England. The former figure includes Rs. 43 million on account of exchange on net expenditure in England. The English expenditure includes £800,000 for the retirement of surplus officers of the Indian Army and £250,000 for payment of the balance of the War Office claim in regard to the exchange concession on war gratuities of British Officers and soldiers.

The gross working expenses of military establishments, such as bakeries, pasture and dairy farms, army clothing factories, and storage depots, army ordnance factories and base mechanical transport workshops are included in the Budget.

The division of expenditure on Military Works between India and England is shown below:

	1924-25.	1923-24.	1922-23.
	Budget Estimates.	Revised Estimates.	Closed Accounts.
(Rupees 000's omitted)			
India (including exchange) ..	47,471	43,595	41,580
England ..	1,529	860	478
Total ..	49,000	44,455	42,038

The estimate for 1924-25 includes about Rs. 300,000 for special expenditure in Waziristan.

The Strength of the Army.

The following table gives the average strength of European troops, Regulars and Territorials and the main facts as regards their health in 1921 with comparative figures for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1915 to 1922:—

Period.	Average strength.	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids sent home.	Average constantly sick.
1910-14 average ..	69,440	39,389	303	488	2,094.57
1915 ..	44,891	36,952	267	889	1,754.19
1916 ..	60,737	46,892	397	1,343	2,414.56
1917 ..	80,825	62,372	390	1,337	3,686.45
1918 ..	87,982	90,637	1,424	2,007	5,286.61
1919 ..	56,561	54,982	438	4,324	3,245.84
1915-19 average ..	66,199	58,367	583	1,980	3,277.53
1920 ..	57,332	61,429	583	2,314	3,488.08
1921 ..	58,681	60,515	408	749	3,070.04
1922 ..	60,166	37,836	284	714	1,902.32

THE INDIAN TROOPS.

The average strength of Indian troops including those on duty in China and Nepal and other stations outside India, but excluding those on Field Service, was 229,731 in 1919 as compared with 341,458 in 1918.

The following table gives below the actuals and ratios of sickness, deaths, and invaliding for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1915 to 1921-22 inclusive:—

Period.	Average strength.	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids.	Average constantly sick.	Ratio per 1,000 of strength.			
						Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids.	Average constantly sick.
1910-14 average ..	130,261	71,213	573	699	2,662	544.6	4.29	5.4	20.7
1915 ..	119,985	89,315	1,026	5,415	4,065	744.4	8.55	45.1	33.9
1916 ..	130,076	105,333	1,248	3,745	5,250	757.4	8.97	26.9	37.7
1917 ..	191,242	141,787	2,201	3,421	6,556	741.4	11.51	17.9	34.3
1918 ..	341,458	292,393	9,959	6,539	13,897	856.3	29.17	19.2	40.7
1919 ..	229,731	176,313	2,742	4,999	9,191	767.5	11.94	21.8	40.0
1915-19 average ..	204,298	161,028	3,435	4,824	7,792	788.2	16.81	23.6	38.1
1920 ..	216,445	164,987	2,124	4,564	9,265	762.3	9.81	21.1	2.8
1921 ..	175,384	119,215	1,782	3,638	6,031	670.7	10.16	20.7	34.4
1922 ..	147,810	77,468	1,014	2,659	3,639	524.0	6.86	18.0	24.6

THE EAST INDIES SQUADRON.

Since 1903 a squadron of the Royal Navy, known as the East Indies Squadron, has been maintained in Indian waters. It has naturally varied in strength from time to time, and of late years in particular there have been several changes in its composition, the most recent being in the direction of strengthening it, owing to the disappearance of strength in the other squadrons of the Eastern Fleet. In 1903 the squadron consisted of one second class and three smaller cruisers and four sloops or gunboats. In 1906, when the policy of withdrawal from Eastern waters was inaugurated, it consisted of two second class and two third class cruisers, and remained at this strength until 1910: when one second class cruiser was withdrawn and two smaller vessels

substituted, and three cruisers were lent from the Mediterranean to assist in the suppression of the arms traffic in the Gulf. By 1913 the position of the East Indies squadron had considerably improved. The battleship Swiftsure had taken the place of the second class cruiser which had been flagship, and a modern second class cruiser replaced the *Perseus*.

The Squadron in 1923.—The latest Navy List shows the composition of the Squadron (Fourth Light Cruiser Squadron) as follows:—Southampton (Flag) Light Cruiser: 5,400 tons. Colombo Light Cruiser: 4,190 tons. Cairo Light Cruiser: 4,190 tons. Sloops: *Crocus* and *Cyclamen*. Special Service vessel: *Triad* (S.N.O. Persian Gulf).

The proportion of contributions from the overseas Dominions towards naval expenditure is shown in the following table issued with the last Navy Estimates that gave details:—

Received from	Nature of Service.	Total.
India	Maintenance of His Majesty's Ships in Indian Waters..	100,000
	Indian Troop Service (on account of work performed by the Admiralty) ..	3,400
	Repayment on account of services rendered by His Majesty's Ships engaged in the suppression of the Arms Traffic in the Persian Gulf ..	64,000
	Contributions on account of liability for Retired Pay of Officers and Pensions of Men lent from the Royal Navy.	10,800
Australian Commonwealth Dominion of Canada.	Survey of the N. W. Coast of Australia ..	7,500
Australian Commonwealth Do.	Maintenance of an Australasian Squadron and of a branch of the Royal Navy Reserve..	41,600
Dominion of New Zealand.	Maintenance of an Australasian Squadron and of the Imperial Navy generally, also of a branch of the Royal Naval Reserve ..	100,000
Union of South Africa	General maintenance of the Navy ..	85,000
Newfoundland	Maintenance of a branch of the Royal Naval Reserve ..	3,000
	Total ..	415,300

India's Marine Expenditure.

Since 1869 India has paid a contribution of varying amounts to the Imperial Government in consideration of services performed by the Royal Navy. Under existing arrangements, which date from 1896-7, the subsidy of £100,000 a year is paid for the upkeep of certain ships of the East India Squadron, which may not be employed beyond prescribed limits, except with the consent of the Government of India. The expenditure amounts to nearly £400,000 annually.

ROYAL INDIAN MARINE.

The Royal Indian Marine (The Sea Service under the Government of India) traces its origin so far back as 1612 when the East India Company stationed at Surat found that it was necessary to provide themselves with armed vessels to protect their commerce and settlements from the Dutch or Portuguese and from the pirates which infested the Indian coasts. The first two ships, the Dragon and Hoseander (or Oslander), were despatched from England in 1612 under a Captain Best, and since those days under slightly varying titles and of various strengths the Government in India have always maintained a sea service.

The periods and titles have been as follows:—
Hon. E. I. Co.'s Marine .. 1612—1686
Bombay .. 1686—1830
Indian Navy .. 1830—1863
Bombay Marine .. 1863—1877
H. M. Indian Marine .. 1877—1892
Royal Indian Marine .. 1892, Present day.

The Marine has always been most closely connected with Bombay, and in 1668 when the E. India Co. took over Bombay, Captain Young of the Marine was appointed Deputy Governor. From then until 1877 the Marine was under the Government of Bombay, and although from that date all the Marine Establishments were amalgamated into an Imperial Marine under the Government of India, Bombay has continued to be the headquarters and the official residence of the Director.

War Service of the Marine.

1612—1717 Continuous wars against Dutch, Portuguese and Pirates for supremacy of West Coast of India. 1744 War with France, cap-

ture of Chandernagore, and French ship Indienne. In 1756 Capture of Castle of Oheria, 1774 Mahratta War, capture of Tannah. Latter part of the eighteenth century, war with French and Dutch, Capture of Pondicherry, Trincomalee, Jafnapatam, Colombo, etc. 1801 Egyptian campaign under Sir Ralph Abercrombie. 1803 War with France. 1810 Taking of Mauritius and capture of French ship in Port Louis. Early part of the nineteenth century suppression of Jowassmi Pirates in the Persian Gulf. 1811 Conquest of Tara. 1813 Expedition against Sultan of Sambar. 1817-18 Mahratta War, capture of Forts at Severndroog. 1819 Expedition to exterminate piracy in the Persian Gulf. 1820 Capture of Mocha. 1821 Expedition against the Beni-koo-Ali Arabs. 1824-26 First Burma War. 1827 Blockade of Berbera and Somali Coast. 1835 Defeat of Beni Yas Pirater. 1838 Expedition to Afghanistan and capture of Karachi. 1838 Capture of Aden. 1840-42 War in China. 1843 Scinde War Battle of Meanee, capture of Hyderabad. 1845-46 Maori war in New Zealand. 1848-49 War in Punjab, siege of Mooltan. 1852 Second Burma War, Capture of Rangoon, Martaban, Bassein, Prome and Pegu. 1855 Persian War, capture of Bushire, Muhammerah and Ahwaz. 1856-57 War in China. 1857-59 The Indian Mutiny. 1859 Capture of the Island of Beyt. 1860 China War. Canton, Taku Forts, Fatsan and Peking. 1871 Abyssinian War. 1882 Egyptian Campaign. 1885 Egyptian Campaign. 1885 Third Burma War. 1889 Chin-Lshai Expedition. 1896 Suakin Expedition. 1897 Expedition to Imtrilbe, Mombassa E. Africa, 1899-1902 S. African

War. 1900-01 Boxer Rebellion in China relief of Peking, 1902-04, Somaliland Expedition Suppression of Arms Traffic operations, Persian Gulf, 1912-14.

During the War 1914-1918 Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on many and various duties. Royal Indian Marine Ships "DUFFERIN," "HARDINGE," "NORTHBROOK," "LAWRENCE," "DALHOUSIE" and "MINTO" had their guns mounted and served as Auxiliary Cruisers. Officers also served in the Royal Navy in the Grand Fleet, Mediterranean and North Sea.

In addition to transport duties in Indian Ports, Officers were sent to Marseilles, East Africa and Egypt for such duties, and on the entry of Turkey into the War were employed on duties towing and manning River Craft and Barges to and in Mesopotamia, and it was necessary to enlist a number of Temporary Officers, Warrant Officers and men to the numbers of approximately 240, 60 and 2,000 respectively for these and other duties.

When the War Office assumed full control of Operations in Mesopotamia a large number of Regular and Temporary Officers and men were seconded to the Royal Engineers and General Service respectively for duties in the Inland Water Transport which controlled all River Transport work in that country, and these officers held many important executive appointments in that unit.

The movements of all sea transports between India and the various theatres of War were controlled by Marine Officers.

Trawlers were built in the Bombay and Calcutta Dockyards and Mine Sweeping Operations were carried out with these and Launches off Bombay and elsewhere, the Trawlers were also used for towing duties.

Retired Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on Naval Transport duties in England and France, and also in very responsible positions with the Inland Water Transport in France.

Service in the War 1914-18.—The Royal Indian Marine, though a small Service compared with the Army and Navy, played a very active and conspicuous part in the European War. These are set out in details in the Indian Year Book for 1922 and earlier editions (q. v. pp. 202 *et seq.*).

Personnel, 1924.

DIRECTOR.

Captain E. J. Headlam, C.S.I., C.M.G., D.S.O., R.I.M.

(The Director, R.I.M., advises the Government of India on all maritime matters. Is also Principal Naval Transport Officer, East Indies.)

DEPUTY DIRECTOR.

Capt. E. W. Huddleston, C.I.E., C.B.E., R.I.M.

FINANCIAL ADVISER.

J. C. Crawford, Esq.

CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT TO THE DIRECTOR, R. I. M.

E. O. Carey, Esq.

OFFICERS.

Captains ..	9
Commanders ..	24
Lieutenant-Commanders, Lieutenants, Sub-Lieutenants and Midshipmen ..	58
Engineer-Captain ..	1
Engineer-Commanders ..	9
Engineer-Lieutenant-Commanders, Engineer-Lieutenants and Engineer-Sub-Lieutenants ..	44

WARRANT OFFICERS.

Boatswains, European ..	13
Clerks ..	14
Boatswains, Indian ..	9
Engine Drivers, 1st class ..	1

PETTY OFFICERS AND MEN

Who are mostly recruited from the Ratnagiri District of the Bombay Presidency.

SHIPS.

	R. I. M. S. Dufferin	8,260 tons	10,191 Horse Power	
Station Ship ..	Clive	2,100	2,422	Burma.
" ..	Minto	1,152	2,025	Andaman Islands.
Sloop ..	Cornwallis	1,290	486	Aden.
" ..	Elphinstone	1,237	2,700	Relief Station Ship.
Despatch Vessel Light House Tender.	Lawrence	1,259	2,020	Persian Gulf.
Surveying Ship ..	Investigator	1,185	1,500	
" ..	Pallinurus	444	486	
Receiving Ship ..	Dalhousie	2,195	2,200	Bombay Depot Ship.
Patrol Ship ..	Patban	3,500	3,500	
" ..	Baluchi	3,500	3,500	

In addition to the above there are 38 vessels composed of steam trawlers, service launchers, target towing tugs, powder boats, military service launches, distributed at Bombay, Calcutta, Aden, Rangoon and Karachi.

Dockyards.

There were two Royal Indian Marine Dockyards at Bombay and at Calcutta, the former being the more important. The one at Calcutta has been closed. There are 5 graving docks and a wet basin at Bombay, together with factories.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS, BOMBAY DOCK YARD.

R. I. M. Officers.

Commander of the Yard, Comdr. A. G. Kinch, D.S.O., R.I.M.

Chief Engineer of the Yard, Engineer-Captain F. B. Phillips, O.B.E., R.I.M.

Marine Store Officer, Engineer-Commander, W. W. Collins, R.I.M.

1st Assistant to the Chief Engineer of the Yard, Engineer-Commander R. S. Baskett, R.I.M.

2nd Assistant to the Chief Engineer of the Yard, Engineer-Lieutenant-Commander W. G. Mansfield, R.I.M.

Maintenance Officer, Lieutenant-Commander, J. N. Metcalfe, O.B.E., D.S.O., R.I.M.

Civilian Officers.

Chief Constructor, Mr. E. P. Newnham, C.I.E.

Electrical Engineer, Mr. S. W. Redcliff.

Constructor, Mr. F. Williams.

Mr. W. J. Kenshett.

Assistant Constructor, Mr. W. G. J. Francis.

Medical Staff.

Marine Surgeon, Lieutenant-Colonel D. M. Houston, M.B., I.M.S.

Warrant Officer in sub-medical charge, Dockyard Dispensary, Assistant Surgeon J. B. D'Sousa, I.M.D.

R. I. M. Warrant Officers.

Boatswain of the Yard, Mr. C. Mahon, Boatswain, R.I.M.

Boatswain-in-Charge, Arsenal Stores, Mr. P. O'Hara, Boatswain, R.I.M.

Marine Transport Appointments, Bombay.

Divisional Marine Transport Officer, Commander R. W. V. Beatty, R.I.M.

Assistant Marine Transport Officer, 1st Grade, Lieutenant-Commander G. T. D. Wells, R.I.M.

Assistant Marine Transport Officer, 2nd Grade, Lieutenant E. D. L. Brown.

Appointments.

In addition to the regular appointments in the ships of the Royal Indian Marine, and in the R. I. M. Dockyards, the following appointments under local Governments are held by the officers of the Royal Indian Marine:—

BOMBAY.

Port Officer, Assistant Port Officer, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor and 2nd and 3rd Engineers and Ship Surveyors to the Government of Bombay also Assistant to the Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyors to the Government of Bombay (temporary).

CALCUTTA.

Port Officer, Deputy Port Officer and Deputy Shipping Master, Assistant Port Officer, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor, 2nd and 3rd Engineer and Ship Surveyors to the Government of Bengal.

NARAYANGANJ (Bengal).

Engineer Superintendent of the Police Vessels, Bengal Government.

BURMA.

Principal Port Officer, Burma, 1st and 2nd Assistant Port Officer, Rangoon, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor and Superintending Engineer to the Government of Burma, Assistant to the Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor and Superintending Engineer to the Government of Burma and Engineer Superintendent of Government Vessels in Lower Burma.

MANDALAY.

Marine Transport Officer and Superintending Engineer.

AKYAB.

Port Officer.

Port Officer.

Port Officer.

CHITTAGONG.

Port Officer and Engineer and Ship Surveyor.

MADRAS.

Presidency Port Officer and Deputy Conservator of the Port.

ADEN.

Port Officer.

KARACHI.

Port Officer, Assistant Marine Transport Officer and Engineer and Ship Surveyor.

PORT BLAIR.

Engineer and Harbour Master.

Indian finance has undergone such remarkable changes during the last few years that some general introduction of the present position is required. Originally there was one budget for the whole of India, the provinces receiving fixed allowances with which to meet their expenses. As the provinces grew in importance and in power, it was obvious that these conditions could not continue, and there developed a long struggle between the Provinces and the Government of India, the former claiming a larger share of the revenues raised within their borders and greater freedom in the spending of them, and the Government of India, perhaps not unnaturally, striving to retain its control. But by degrees the situation was improved into a working compromise. Contracts were made between the Government of India insuring to the provinces adequate and growing funds, an important element in these contracts being the division of certain heads of revenue between the Province and the Government of India, so as to give the Province as the tax collecting agency an incentive to develop revenues to a reasonable extent. Later, the provinces were given the product of certain fixed heads of revenue instead of the usufruct of divided heads, such fixed heads being decided by negotiation and agreement. A change of this character went deeper than appears at first sight. When the Government of India was entitled to half of any particular head of revenue it naturally kept a jealous eye on expenditure charged to that revenue, and changes of policy which might affect the yield of that revenue. This gave occasion to much interference with the provinces which was increasingly resented. But when there was a cleaner cut between the revenues of the Government of India and of the provinces occasions for interference and control were naturally fewer. It may be said that by the time of the passing of the Reform Act of 1919 a satisfactory adjustment between the financial roles of the Government of India and the Provinces had been reached and the real friction was small.

The Clean Cut.—Progress went very much farther in the Reform Act of 1919. By that instrument there was made what is for all practical purposes a clean cut between Imperial and Provincial finance. The Government of India took unto itself the whole product of those taxes which experience and usage have recognised as federal rather than State, which is a better description of the relations between the Government of India and the Provinces than Imperial and Provincial. Such taxes are customs, income tax, posts, and telegraphs, railways and the salt tax. It made over to the provinces, for their free and unfettered disposal, the yield of the other great taxes, such as land revenue, excise, forests, stamps, and miscellaneous heads. The full definition and dividing line drawn under this scheme will be found in the section The Government of India (q.v.) But when a balance sheet on these lines was drawn it was found that the Government of India was insufficiently provided with money to carry out its responsibilities. The deficiency was 983 lakhs of rupees. It was very difficult to adjust this contribution equitably amongst the provinces concerned, because under the various settlements effected there was a wide disparity between the conditions of the various provinces.

Ultimately the following decision was arrived at, with machinery for the gradual extinction of the provincial contributions, if ever the Government of India is in the happy position to be able to do without the funds. Meantime all that needs to be said is that whilst the disparity of the contributions from the various provinces is at first sight glaring, in practice there is no such disparity, and the financial authorities of Bombay can be found to argue that that Province is much worse off than Madras, though the Madras contribution is so much larger. The only other point is that this scheme has already broken down in part, the great and wealthy Province of Bengal having secured temporary evasion of its payment on the plea of poverty.

In the financial year 1921-22 contributions shall be paid to the Governor General in Council by the local Governments mentioned below according to the following scale:—

Name of Province.	Contributions (In lakhs of rupees).
Madras	348
Bombay	58
Bengal	63
United Provinces	240
Punjab	175
Burma	64
Central Provinces and Berar	22
Assam	15

From the financial year 1922-23 onwards a total contribution of 983 lakhs, or such smaller sum as may be determined by the Governor General in Council, shall be paid to the Governor General in Council by the local Governments mentioned in the preceding rule. When for any year the Governor General in Council determines as the amount of the contribution a smaller sum than that payable for the preceding year, a reduction shall be made in the contribution of those local Governments only whose last previous annual contribution exceeds the proportion specified below of the smaller sum so determined as the total contribution; and any reduction so made shall be proportionate to such excess:—

Madras	17—90ths.
Bombay	13—90ths.
Bengal	19—90ths.
United Provinces	18—90ths.
Punjab	9—90ths.
Burma	64—90ths.
Central Provinces and Berar	5—90ths.
Assam	21—90ths.

I. Recent Indian Finance.

The year 1924 marked a distinct and very important stage in the finances of India. Those who have studied the history of Indian finance will remember the general trend of the country's balance sheet. Up to the outbreak of the war it was a record of very careful finance, with a general surplus of revenue over expenditure, all such surpluses, save when they were in the nature of "windfalls" going to the avoidance of debt. Throughout the war

the finances were carefully handled and with certain moderate increases in taxation the accounts were made to balance. But commencing in 1919 a lamentable change came over the situation. The wanton invasion of India by Afghanistan meant a war which cost the exchequer directly some 34 crores of rupees. Nor was this all. Whilst the military resistance of Afghanistan to the Indian forces was contemptible, and Kabul lay open to easy seizure it had been thought worth while to occupy it, the effect of this attack was to set a large part of the North-West Frontier ablaze and to thrust on the Government of India a series of costly expeditions. When these were completed, there remained the necessity of establishing a new Frontier system to take the place of that which collapsed in 1919. This especially in the notoriously troublesome country of Waziristan, (q. v. Frontier) involved the occupation of certain dominating posts and of connecting them with each other and with the advanced military stations of India by a series of very expensive roads. This abnormal expenditure dislocated the financial equilibrium of the whole country. Nor is it possible to acquit the Finance Department of the Government of India in the difficult post-war period of a relaxation of that close control of expenditure which in previous years had balanced the accounts, even in the years of famine and plague. The result was that the accumulated deficits of the Government of India reached the very high figure of Rs. 100 crores. This led to two results.

Retrenchment and Taxation.—Dowing to the insistent demand for retrenchment the Government of India appointed in 1922 a retrenchment committee, on the model of the Geddes Committee which overhauled the extravagant post-war expenditure of the British Government. This committee is generally called after its chairman, the Inchaape Committee. It sat in 1921, and presented a report which recommended reductions in expenditure which amounted in the aggregate to Rs. 18 crores. Then in the Budget of 1923 it sought for further sources of revenue which would, according to the then estimates, produce funds which would permanently balance the accounts. The source of these additional funds was the Salt Tax, which it was proposed should be doubled from one rupee four annas to two rupees eight annas a maund of 82 pounds. The circumstances were unusual. The Salt Tax is always unpopular in India. The public was so alarmed at the growth of expenditure and the increase in taxation that its representatives in the Legislatures were not disposed to place further funds at the disposal of the Government until the possibilities of economy had been fully explored. Then the first Assembly elected under the Constitution of 1919 was approaching the end of its term of office. That Assembly had voted increased taxes, direct and indirect, amounting to approximately Rs. 59 crores per annum. The members felt that they had done their utmost and that they could not face their constituents after agreeing to a further increase in taxation and that in a most unpopular form. The rise in the Salt Tax was rejected by the Legislative Assembly. It was however accepted by the upper cham-

ber, the Council of State, and acting on the advice of his Financial Ministers, the Viceroy "certified" the higher Salt Duty under the exceptional powers reserved for him in the Government of India Act of 1919. The effect of this measure was seen when the next elections were held. It is not open to doubt that this "certification" of the higher Salt Tax had a powerful influence in returning to the Legislative Assembly towards the end of the year a majority of Swarajists and Independents who were on the whole hostile to the form of Government established in the Act of 1919.

Equilibrium Established.—Fortunately financial equilibrium was established and a surplus realised in the Budget of 1923-24. As the Indian Budgets are framed before the financial year has actually expired on the 31st March, there are always adjustments in the accounts. The estimated deficit for 1922-23 was over the actual figure; the deficit estimated was Rs. 17½ crores; the actual deficit, owing to reductions in military expenditure was Rs. 15.02 crores. The Budget for 1923-24 was framed in the expectation of a surplus of Rs. 81 lakhs. The commercial history of the year however did not realise expectations, for the recovery of trade was slow. The higher duty on salt did not yield the revenue anticipated, and although this is not the official view we maintain that the double duty actually decreased consumption. The revenue fell Rs. 5.38 crores below the estimate. On the other hand there was a considerable saving in expenditure, aggregating Rs. 4.19 crores, with the result that the estimated surplus in the Budget was converted into a deficit of Rs. 38 lakhs. The figures are set out in the following table:—

Statement comparing the actual Revenue and Expenditure of the Central Government (Imperial Revenue and Expenditure before the Reforms) with the Revised Estimates for each year from 1913-14 to 1922-23.

[In thousands of Rupees.]

	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Surplus(+) Deficit(-)
1913-14 ..	81,32,71	77,85,85	+3,46,86
1914-15 ..	76,15,35	78,83,14	-2,67,79
1915-16 ..	80,00,96	81,79,26	-1,78,30
1916-17 ..	98,53,10	87,31,37	+11,21,73
1917-18 ..	1,18,70,58	1,06,57,52	+12,13,06
1918-19 ..	1,30,40,66	1,33,13,72	-2,73,06
1919-20 ..	1,37,13,98	1,60,79,27	-23,65,29
1920-21 ..	1,35,83,32	1,61,64,17	-26,00,85
1921-22 ..	1,15,21,50	1,42,86,52	-27,65,02
1922-23 ..	1,21,41,29	1,36,43,05	-15,01,76

A Windfall.—Against this the Government benefited from a providential windfall. They had at their disposal a sum of Rs. 4.73 crores profits from the control of enemy ships belonging to India. After various adjustments, this windfall left the Government with a surplus estimated at Rs. 2.03 crores, which was applied to the reduction of debt.

The variations are summarised below:—

	(In lakhs of rupees)	(+better—worse)
Customs revenue, less	4,88	
Salt revenue, less	3,05	
Opium revenue, more	38	
Net receipts from Railways, more	58	
Net receipts from Posts and Telegraphs, less (62 lakhs of the deterioration is nominal, due to the debit to the Department for the first time of the cost of pensions and to payment made for the stock of postage and telegraph stamps which have now been taken over by the Department)	1,24	
Interest, Currency and Miscellaneous receipts, more	1,42	
Military receipts, more	1,17	
Loss by exchange on revenue realised in England as compared with 1s. 4d. rate assumed for Budget	13	
Minor variations	17	
Total ..	3,72	9,10
Net deterioration in revenue ..	-5,38	
Opium expenditure, more	70	
Saving under expenditure on stamps and superannuation allowances and pensions owing to transfers to the Posts and Telegraphs Department (see explanation above under Posts and Telegraphs receipts)	62	
Saving in interest chargeable to Posts and Telegraphs and in capital outlay of the Department charged to revenue	40	
Saving in gross interest payments	74	
Smaller interest recoveries from Provincial Governments	25	
Saving in provision for sinking funds	80	
Saving in gross Military expenditure	63	
Saving in Exchange	1,41	
Minor variations	54	
Total ..	5,14	95
Net saving in expenditure ..	+4,19	
Net deterioration in Budget anticipations	-1,19	
Surplus in Budget	81	
Deficit	38	

II. The Financial Position.

It was in these happier circumstances that the Finance Member was able to frame his budget for 1924-25. But before coming to the actual statement there are certain broad

issues affecting the financial stability of India which merit attention. They come most appropriately in a consideration of the Budget, and are therefore dealt with here rather than under the special heading of *debt*. In examining the basis of Indian credit, the Finance Member said:—

"Broadly speaking it may be said that both in the provinces and in the Central Government the era of unbalanced budgets has now been brought to an end. We have got rid of practically all our embarrassments in regard to floating debt and can face the necessity of meeting short-term bonds which mature in the next few years with confidence. There is no longer any fear of our being forced to undesirable expedients, such as currency inflation, in order to meet our outgoings. And if the time has not yet come at which we can replace the present statutory, but inoperative, ratio of 2s. gold to the Rupee by an effective ratio, this is due not to our inability to maintain our currency in a sound condition but to a continuance of economic instability in other parts of the world, which makes immediate stabilisation unattractive."

"The improvement in our position is happily reflected in the improved market price of all our rupee securities. On the 15th February 1923, the 5 per cent. tax-free loan 1945-55 was quoted at Rs. 88-10-0; on the 15th February 1924 it was quoted at Rs. 98. The quotation for the 5 per cent. loan 1929-47 has risen in the same period from Rs. 82-10-0 to Rs. 93-2-0. In 1923 we were able for the first time since 1919 to raise money by a long-term issue, and the improved quotations which I have mentioned give us good reason to hope that we may do even better in 1924-25."

"One striking feature of the year 1923-24 is the increased popularity of our Post Office Cash Certificates. Originally issued in 1917, these certificates, thanks to a strenuous campaign for saving, were taken by the small investor to a total of 8 crores net during the period ending 31st March 1919. From that time onwards, year by year, repayments considerably exceeded new purchases and on the 31st March 1923 the total outstanding had been reduced to 3 crores. There is nothing which will give a greater stimulus to economic progress in India than the extension of the saving habit. The year 1923-24 has seen a very hopeful development in this direction. From the 1st April 1923 the terms on which Post Office Cash Certificates were issued were improved, so that they now offer a net yield of 6 per cent. compound interest to those who hold them till maturity. At the same time as the issue of new certificates began, endeavours were made in various directions to popularise them, with the result that during the ten months ending the 31st January 1924 a total of 6 crores gross and 4½ crores net (after allowing for repayments) was invested in this way to the great advantage both of the small investor who lent us the money and of the Government of India who borrowed it, as well as of the Indian people as a whole who are richer individually by the amount of their savings and collectively by the productive capital assets in which these savings have been invested."

III. The Debt.

Next the Finance Member dealt with the debt, and the general statement of the position is given below:—

The total debt of the Government of India on the 31st March 1924 was constituted as follows:

In India—	(Rs. Lakhs.)
Loans	3,58.79
Treasury Bills in the hands of the public	2.13
Total in India	3,60.92
In England (at Rs. 15)—	
Loans	3,64.22
War Contribution	28.90
Total in England	3,93.12
Unfunded—	
Post Office Savings Banks	24.87
Cash Certificates	8.51
Provident Funds, etc. ..	39.97
Total unfunded	73.35
	8,27.39
Add—	
The Capital value of the liabilities undergoing redemption by way of Terminable Railway Annuities, amounting, on 31st March 1924, to £60,085,485 or at Rs. 15	90.14
Total debt	9,17.53

"I have excluded Treasury Bills, amounting to 49.65 crores, held in the Paper Currency Reserve, as these represent a liability not entirely comparable to ordinary public debt. If, however, they are included, the gross total of the debt amounts to 9,67.18 crores. The corresponding total on the 31st March 1923 was 9,29.55 crores including a similar total of 49.85 crores of Treasury Bills in the Currency Reserve and 8,79.90 crores excluding these Treasury Bills."

Of the total on the 31st March 1924, 11.88 crores are due to the discount at which some of the loans were issued. This liability is treated as an interest charge and is being extinguished by annual appropriations from revenue within the period of each loan. It should therefore be excluded from our total debt figure, of which is thus reduced to 9,05.65 crores. Of this, 5,78.39 crores are classed as productive debt and 2,28.45 crores as unproductive debt. The balance of 98.81 crores represents loans to Provincial Governments. These figures compare with 5,55.07 crores of productive debt and 2,29.11 crores of unproductive debt a year ago and 87.49 crores of loans to Provincial Governments. The rupee debt, which stood at 4,23.98 crores on the 31st March 1923, amounts to 4,34.27 crores on the 31st March 1924, while the sterling debt has risen from 304 million pounds on the 31st March 1923 to 322½ million pounds on the 31st March 1924."

The amount provided for reduction or avoidance of debt in the Estimates for 1923-24 was as follows:—

	(Rs. Lakhs.)	(Rs. Lakhs.)
In India—		
1½ per cent. Depreciation Fund against—		
5 per cent. Indian War Loan, 1920-47	41	
5 per cent. Tax-free Loan, 1945-55	33	
Lump sum addition to the above made in and since 1921-22	80	1.54
In England—		
War contribution—annual instalments in repayment of principal	442,900	£
Railway Annuities (capital portion) and sinking funds	1,544,300	
Total in England	1,987,200	2.98
Which at Rs. 15=		4.52
Total provision		4.52

Sinking Funds.—For some years the provision of an adequate sinking fund for the redemption of debt has been under consideration in India. The sum actually provided for the reduction or avoidance of debt in the 1923-24 Budget was Rs. 4.52 crores, but this was reached in rather haphazard manner. On a careful examination of the position, it was found that a satisfactory sinking fund would amount to Rs. 4 crores per annum, and this has now been set aside.

Railway Finance.—Another overdue reform effected in the Budget, and confirmed by subsequent legislation was the separation of Railway Finances from General Finances. The position arising from the confusion of these two financial arrangements was described as "an alternation between raids by the railways on the taxpayer and raids by the taxpayer on the Railways." The benefits expected to accrue from the separation of the two accounts are thus described:—

"The taxpayer, instead of paying the whole of the expenses and taking the whole of the incomes of the railways, will enter into a bargain with the Railways to receive from them (a) a sum sufficient to pay in full the interest on the capital he has invested in the commercial lines, (b) an additional dividend of five-sixths of one per cent. on that capital and (c) a share of one-fifth of any surplus earnings that may be secured in addition. In return, the railways will be left to carry on their business with the right to retain any surplus over and above what they pay to the Government and to apply it to railway purposes, first of all for creating reserves and then by using those reserves to improve the services they render to the public and reduce the price which they charge for those services. The Government of India and this Assembly will remain in complete control of the Railway Administration just as they now are. That control will be in no way impaired. But there will no longer be any need to consider

from the narrow standpoint of their effect upon the general revenues in a particular period of twelve months, that is in a particular Budget period, proposals by the Railway authorities which, though excellent and desirable in themselves, might, under the present system, upset the apparent equilibrium of the Budget for the year. The taxpayer will secure a regular and increasing contribution from his investment, largely independent of fluctuations in railway receipts and expenditure, and the railways will be able to spend money according to the real needs of the railway system, unimpeded by the necessity for conforming to the vagaries of Budget figures and the requirements of Budget accounting. The Railways will become a real commercial undertaking managed on commercial lines, and the taxpayer will get the benefit of commercial accounts and management.

"The main figures in the Railway Budget framed according to the proposed new plan are: traffic receipts 97.07 crores, working expenses 65.23 crores, interest and other charges 26.23 crores, leaving 1,33.48 lakhs as reserve and 4,27.30 lakhs as the net contribution to general revenues. Under the old system the net contribution is 4.16 lakhs."

IV. The Budget of 1924-25.

The financial position in the current year is improved by the rise in the Indian Exchange. Even in making his calculations the Finance Member was able to take a rate of one shilling and four pence three farthings, instead of the former rate of one shilling and four pence. In practice, although the actual figures will not be known until later, the rate has been much better than this. The Budget provides for an expenditure of Rs. 104.57 crores, with a revenue of Rs. 107.93 crores, giving a prospective surplus of Rs. 3.36 crores.

Budget Certified.—The disposal of this surplus gave rise to much discussion. As is apparent from what has gone before, the doubling of the Salt Tax by "certification" gave rise to acute controversy. It was felt on many hands that the reduction of this tax to the former figure should be the first charge on the surplus. On the other hand, the Provincial Contributions to the Imperial Exchequer, which are explained in the first section press, hardly on several Provinces, especially on Madras and the United Provinces, and it is recognised that the gradual extinction of these contributions is demanded as soon as the financial position allows. The Government of India chose a middle course, suggesting that the Salt Tax should be reduced to two rupees a maund, and the balance of the surplus, Rs. 1.50 crore, devoted to the reduction of provincial contributions.

These proposals were not discussed on their merits. It has been shown that the result of the elections to the Legislative Assembly was to establish a majority hostile to the Government as constituted. This majority decided, after a see-saw course, to refuse supplies, that is permission to introduce the necessary Finance Bills, as a protest against the refusal of the Government to progress beyond the constitution of 1919. The Viceroy therefore had to "certify" the Budget, and in so doing he fixed the Salt

Tax at one rupee four annas, or the sum at which it stood before the "certification" in the previous year.

V. Ways and Means.

The Government of India has large capital commitments every year. It finances the Railways and Irrigation Works and also the Provincial Governments. This it does in the Ways and Means Section of the Budget.

The following statement summarises the Ways and Means operations in India and England together during 1923-24 and 1924-25:

	[Crores of Rs.]	
	Revised.	Budget.
Liabilities.		
Railway capital outlay	23.6	30.0
Delhi, Irrigation and Telegraph outlay	2.8	3.2
Discharge of funded debts, etc. ..	5.2	1.0
Discharge of Treasury Bills with the public	19.5	2.1
Loans to Provincial Governments	11.3	12.7
Drawings of Provincial Governments from their balances		2.3
	62.4	51.3

Met as follows:

Central Government's revenue surplus	2.1	..
Surplus revenues of Provincial Governments	5.0	..
Rupee loan	23.1	20.0
Sterling loan	18.2	..
Net receipts from Post Office Cash Certificates	5.4	1.5
Net receipts from Savings Bank deposits	5.3	6.0
Miscellaneous items	2.3	7.9
Reduction of cash balances	1.0	15.9
	62.4	51.3

The Finance Member explained:—

"I have already referred to the satisfactory receipts from Post Office Cash Certificates in the current year and to the practical extinction of Treasury Bills issued to the public. I want to draw special attention to three further points in these figures, the amount of our proposed Rupee borrowings, the position in regard to our sterling remittances, and the absence of any provision for new sterling borrowing. The last is a very satisfactory feature in view of the onerous obligations for the future which the provision of interest and sinking fund on external debt involves. I must, however, remind the House that our Ways and Means Budget figures are necessarily illustrative rather than exact, and in particular I must not be taken as saying that in no cir-

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cumstances will the Government of India borrow abroad during 1924-25. Something must depend on the relative cost of borrowing inside and outside India. But all indications point to our being able to meet all our capital requirements and all our sterling requirements in 1924-25 without issuing any external loan.

"Moreover, we hope to achieve this while at the same time reducing our demands on the market in India, where, thanks to the reduction of our total requirements for new capital, we expect to be able to limit ourselves to a rupee loan of not more than 20 crores as against the total of 24 crores in 1923."

General Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure.

	For details, vide Statement	Accounts, 1922-23.	Revised Estimate, 1923-24.	Budget Estimate, 1924-25.
REVENUE.				
Principal Heads of Revenue—				
Customs	A	41,34,65,362	40,41,53,000	45,01,82,000
Taxes on Income	"	17,99,41,150	19,07,45,000	18,21,97,000
Salt	"	6,82,43,112	8,70,27,000	10,54,62,000
Opium	"	3,78,92,078	4,30,84,000	4,33,60,000
Other Heads	"	2,34,00,268	2,34,27,000	2,22,32,000
* TOTAL PRINCIPAL HEADS ..		72,29,44,960	74,84,18,000	80,34,33,000
Railways: Net Receipts	"	26,82,98,476	32,37,87,000	30,94,93,000
Irrigation: Net Receipts	"	10,90,752	11,20,000	12,47,000
Posts and Telegraphs: Net Receipts ..	"	1,22,29,448	84,94,000	1,06,12,000
Interest Receipts	"	1,15,70,393	3,24,25,000	3,17,25,000
Civil Administration	"	44,34,528	67,49,000	72,01,000
Currency, Mint and Exchange	"	3,62,03,131	3,07,38,000	3,63,83,000
Civil Works	"	14,38,067	13,19,000	12,36,000
Miscellaneous	"	62,46,325	3,23,44,000	67,48,000
Military Receipts	"	5,73,78,865	4,19,53,000	2,75,13,000
Provincial Contributions and miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments ..	"	9,22,93,608	9,22,29,000	7,72,11,000
TOTAL REVENUE ..		1,21,41,29,153	1,31,93,04,000	1,31,28,08,000
DEFICIT		15,01,76,392		
TOTAL ..		1,36,43,05,548	1,31,96,01,000	1,31,28,08,000

I.—General Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure—contd.

	For details, vide Statement	Accounts, 1922-23.	Revised Estimate, 1923-24.	Budget Estimate, 1924-25.
EXPENDITURE.				
Direct Demands on the Revenues ..	B	5,22,04,980	5,60,92,000	5,55,45,000
Railways: Interest and Miscellaneous Charges	"	25,70,99,247	26,09,87,000	26,67,63,000
Irrigation	"	13,75,391	16,51,000	22,85,000
Posts and Telegraphs	"	76,98,536	12,62,000	—12,29,000
Debt Services	"	13,15,89,540	15,74,88,000	18,15,15,000
Civil Administration	"	9,94,32,040	9,57,10,000	9,80,36,000
Currency, Mint and Exchange	"	1,03,09,731	1,05,32,000	77,31,000
Civil Works	"	1,34,81,040	1,31,11,000	2,03,50,000
Miscellaneous	"	5,20,56,088	4,80,13,000	4,88,73,000
Military Services	"	71,00,58,955	63,93,72,000	63,00,16,000
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	"		17,79,000	22,65,000
TOTAL EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE		1,36,43,05,548	1,29,89,97,000	1,31,24,50,000
SURPLUS			2,06,07,000	3,58,000
TOTAL ..		1,33,43,05,548	1,31,96,04,000	1,31,28,08,000

THE LAND REVENUE.

The principle underlying the Land Revenue system in India has operated from time immemorial. It may be roughly formulated thus—the Government is the supreme landlord and the revenue derived from the land is equivalent to rent. On strictly theoretical grounds, exception may be taken to this statement of the case. It serves, however, as a substantially correct description of the relation between the Government and the cultivator. The former gives protection and legal security. The latter pays for it according to the value of his holding. The official term for the method by which the Land Revenue is determined is "Settlement." There are two kinds of settlements in India—Permanent and Temporary. Under the former the amount of revenue has been fixed in perpetuity, and is payable by the landlord as distinguished from the actual cultivator. The Permanent Settlement was introduced into India by Lord Cornwallis at the close of the eighteenth century. It had the effect intended of converting a number of large revenue farmers in Bengal into landlords occupying a similar status to that of landowners in Europe. The actual cultivators became the tenants of the landlords. While the latter became solely responsible for the payment of the revenue, the former lost the advantage of holding from the State. This system has prevailed in Bengal since 1795 and in the greater part of Oudh since 1859. It also obtains in certain districts of Madras.

Temporary Settlements.

Elsewhere the system of Temporary Settlements is in operation. At intervals of thirty years, more or less, the land in a given district

is subjected to a thorough economic survey, on the basis of the trigonometrical and topographic surveys carried out by the Survey Department of the Government of India. Each village area, wherever the Temporary Settlement is in vogue, has been carefully mapped, property-boundaries accurately delineated, and records of rights made and preserved. Under the Permanent Settlement in Bengal the occupant does not enjoy these advantages. The duty of assessing the revenue of a district is entrusted to Settlement Officers, members of the Indian Civil Service specially delegated for this work. The duties of a Settlement Officer are thus described in Strachey's *India* (revised edition, 1911):—"He has to determine the amount of the Government demand, and to make a record of all existing rights and responsibilities in the land. He has a staff of experienced subordinates, almost all of whom are natives of the country, and the settlement of the district assigned to him is a work which formerly required several years of constant work. The establishment of agricultural departments and other reforms have however led to much simplification of the Settlement Officer's proceedings, and to much greater rapidity in the completion of the Settlements. All the work of the settlement officer is liable to the supervision of superior officers, the assessments proposed by him require the sanction of the Government before they become finally binding; and his judicial decisions may be reviewed by the Civil Courts. It is the duty of the settlement officer to make a record of every right which may form the subject of future dispute, whether affecting the interests of the State or of the people. The intention

is to alter nothing, but to maintain and place on record that which exists."

The Two Tenures.

Under the Temporary Settlement land tenures fall into two classes—peasant-holdings and landlord-holdings, or *Ryotwari* and *Zemindari* tenures. Broadly speaking, the difference between the two in a fiscal sense is that in *Ryotwari* tracts the *ryot* or cultivator pays the revenue direct; in *Zemindari* tracts the landlord pays on rental assessment. In the case of the former, however, there are two kinds of *Ryotwari* holdings—those in which each individual occupant holds directly from Government, and those in which the land is held by village communities, the heads of the village being responsible for the payment of revenue on the whole village area. This latter system prevails in the North. In Madras, Bombay, Burma and Assam, *ryotwari* tenure is on an individual basis, and the Government enters into a separate agreement with every single occupant. The basis of assessment on all classes of holdings is now more favourable to the cultivator than it used to be. Formerly what was believed to be a fair average sum was levied on the anticipated yield of the land during the ensuing period of settlement. Now the actual yield at the time of assessment alone is considered, so that the cultivator gets the whole of the benefit of improvements in his holding subsequently brought about either by his own enterprise or by "unearned increment." The Government, however, may at a new settlement re-classify a holding so as to secure for itself a fair share in an increment that may have resulted from public works in the vicinity, such as canals and railways, or from a general enhancement of values. But the principle that improvements effected by private enterprise shall be exempt from assessment is now accepted by the Government and provided for in definite rules.

Incidence of the Revenue.

The incidence of the revenue charges varies according to the nature of the settlement, the class of tenure, and the character and circumstances of the holding. Under the Permanent Settlement in Bengal Government derive rather less than £3,000,000 from a total rental estimated at £12,000,000. Under Temporary Settlements, 50 per cent. of the rental in the case of *Zemindari* land may be regarded as virtually a maximum demand. In some parts the impost falls as low as 35 and even 25 per cent. and only rarely is the proportion of one-half the rental exceeded. In regard to *Ryotwari* tracts it is impossible to give any figure that would be generally representative of the Government's share. But one-fifth of the gross produce is the extreme limit, below which the incidence of the revenue charge varies greatly. About sixteen years ago the Government of India were invited in an influential signed memorial to fix one-fifth of the gross produce as the maximum Government demand. In reply to this memorial and other representations the Government of India (Lord Curzon being Viceroy) issued a Resolution in defence of their Land Revenue Policy. In it was stated that "under the existing practice the Government is already taking

much less in revenue than it is now invited to exact" and "the average rate is everywhere on the down grade." This Resolution, together with the statements of Provincial Governments on which it was based, was published as a volume; it is still the authoritative exposition of the principles controlling the Land Revenue Policy of the Government of India. In a series of propositions claimed to be established by this Resolution the following points are noted:—(1) In *Zemindari* tracts progressive moderation is the key-note of the Government's policy, and the standard of 50 per cent. of the assets is more often departed from on the side of deficiency than excess; (2) in the same areas the State does not hesitate to interfere by legislation to protect the interests of the tenants against oppression at the hands of the landlords; (3) in *Ryotwari* tracts the policy of long-term settlements is being extended, and the proceedings in connection with new settlements simplified and cheapened; (4) local-taxation (of land) as a whole is neither immoderate nor burdensome; (5) over-assessment is not, as alleged, a general or widespread source of poverty, and it cannot fairly be regarded as a contributory cause of famine. At the same time the Government laid down as principles for future guidance—(a) large enhancements of revenue, when they occur, to be imposed progressively and gradually, and not *per saltum*; (b) greater elasticity in revenue collection, suspensions and remissions being allowed according to seasonal variations and the circumstances of the people; (c) a more general resort to reduction of assessments in cases of local deterioration.

Protection of the Tenants.

In regard to the second of the five propositions noted above, various Acts have been passed from time to time to protect the interests of tenants against landlords, and also to give greater security to the latter in possession of their holdings. The Oudh Tenancy Act of 1886 placed important checks on enhancement of rent and eviction, and in 1900 an Act was passed enabling a landowner to entail the whole or a portion of his estate, and to place it beyond the danger of alienation by his heirs. The Punjab Land Alienation Act, passed at the instance of Lord Curzon, embodied the principle that it is the duty of a Government which derives such considerable proportion of its revenue from the land, to interfere in the interests of the cultivating classes. This Act greatly restricted the credit of the cultivator by prohibiting the alienation of his land in payment of debt. It had the effect of arresting the process by which the Punjab peasantry were becoming the economic serfs of money-lenders. A good deal of legislation affecting land tenure has been passed from time to time in other provinces, and it has been called for more than once in Bengal, where under the Permanent Settlement (in the words of the Resolution quoted above), "so far from being generously treated by the *Zemindars*, the Bengal cultivator was rack-rented, impoverished, and oppressed."

Government and Cultivator.

While the Government thus interferes between landlord and tenant in the interests of the latter, its own attitude towards the cul-

tivator is one of generosity. Mention has already been made of the great advantage to the agricultural classes generally of the elaborate systems of Land Survey and Records of Rights carried out and maintained by Government. In the Administration Report of Bombay for 1911-12, it is stated:—"The Survey Department has cost the State from first to last many lakhs of rupees. But the outlay has been repaid over and over again. The extensions of cultivation which have occurred (by allowing cultivators to abandon unprofitable lands) have thus been profitable to the State no less than to the individual; whereas under a *Zemindari* or kindred system the State would have gained nothing, however much cultivation had extended throughout the whole of 30 years' leases." On the other hand, the system is of advantage to the *ryots* in reducing settlement operations to a minimum of time and procedure. In the collection of revenue the Government consistently

The Excise revenue in British India is derived from the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, hemp, drugs, toddy and opium. It is a commonplace amongst certain sections of temperance reformers to represent the traffic in intoxicating liquors as one result of British rule. There is, however, abundant evidence to show that in pre-British days the drinking of spirituous liquors was commonly practised and was a source of revenue.

The forms of intoxicating liquor chiefly consumed are country spirit; fermented palm juice; beer made from grain; country brands of rum, brandy, etc., locally manufactured malt beer and imported wine, beer and spirits. Country spirit is the main source of revenue, except in the Madras Presidency, and yields about two-thirds of the total receipts from liquors. It is usually prepared by distillation from the Mhowra flower, molasses and other forms of unrefined sugar, fermented palm juice and rice. In Madras a very large revenue is derived from fresh toddy. The British inherited from the Native Administration either an uncontrolled Out-Still System or in some cases a crude Farming System and the first steps to bring these systems under control were the limitation of the number of shops in the area farmed, and the establishment of an improved Out-Still System under which the combined right of manufacture and sale at a special shop was annually granted. This of course was a kind of control, but it only enabled Government to impose haphazard taxation on the liquor traffic as a whole by means of vend fees. It did not enable Government to graduate the taxation accurately on the still-head duty principle nor to insist upon a standard of purity or a fixed strength of liquor. Moreover for political and other reasons the extent of control could not at first be complete. There were tribes of aborigines who regarded the privilege of making their own liquor in their private homes as a long established right; and who believed that liquor poured as libations to their god should be such as had been made by their own hands. The introduction of any system amongst those peoples had to

pursues a generous policy. In times of distress, suspensions and remissions are freely granted after proper inquiry.

Land revenue is now a provincial head of revenue and is not shown in the All India accounts. It may be taken roughly at £28 million, as compared with £84 million said to have been raised annually by Aurangzeb from a much smaller Empire.

The literature of the subject is considerable. The following should be consulted by readers who require fuller information:—"Land Revenue Policy of the Indian Government," 1902 (Superintendent of Government Printing); Baden Powell's "Land Systems of British India"; Sir John Strachey's "India, its Administration and Progress, 1911," (Macmillan & Co.); M. Joseph Chailley's "Administrative Problems of British India" (Macmillan & Co., 1910), and the Annual Administration Reports of the respective Provincial Governments.

EXCISE.

be worked very cautiously. Gradually, as the Administration began to be consolidated, the numerous native pot-stills scattered all over the country under the crude arrangements then in force began to be collected into Central Government enclosures called Distilleries, thus enabling Government to perfect its control by narrowing the limits of supervision; and to regularize its taxation by imposing a direct still-head duty on every gallon issued from the Distillery. Under Distillery arrangements it has also been possible to regulate and supervise thoroughly the manufacture of its liquor and its disposal subsequent to leaving the Distillery by means of a system of transport passes, establishment supervision, improved distribution and vend arrangements.

Various Systems.

The Out-Still System may be taken to include all systems prior in order of development to the imposition of Still-head duty. Briefly stated the stages of development have been—First: farms of large tracts; Second: farms of smaller areas; Third: farms of the combined right to manufacture and sell at particular places without any exclusive privilege over a definite area; Fourth: farms of similar right subject to control of means and times for distilling and the like. The Provincial Governments have had to deal with the subject in different ways suited to local conditions, and so the order of development from the lower forms of systems to the higher has not been always everywhere identical in details. Yet in its essence and main features the Excise Administration in most provinces of British India has progressed on uniform lines the key note lying in attempts, where it has not been possible to work with the fixed duty system in its simplest forms, to combine the farming and fixed duty systems with the object of securing that every gallon of spirit should bear a certain amount of taxation. The Out-Still System has in its turn been superseded by either the Free-supply system or the District Monopoly system. The Free-supply system is one of free competition among the licensed distil-

iers in respect of manufacture. The right of vend is separately disposed of. The District monopoly system on the other hand is one in which the combined monopoly of manufacture and sale in a district is leased to a farmer subject to a certain amount of minimum still-head duty revenue in the monopoly area being guaranteed to the State during the term of the lease.

The recommendations of the Indian Excise Committee of 1905-06 resulted in numerous reforms in British India, one of them being that the various systems have been or are gradually being superseded by the Contract Distillery System under which the manufacture of spirit for supply to a district is disposed of by tender, the rate of still-head duty and the supply price to be charged are fixed in the contract and the right of vend is separately disposed of. This is the system that now prevails over the greater portion of British India. The other significant reforms have been the revision of the Provincial Excise Laws and regulations, and the conditions of manufacture, vend, storage and transport, an improvement in the quality of the spirit, an improved system of disposal of vend licenses, reductions and re-distributions of shops under the guidance and control of local Advisory Committees and gradual enhancement of taxation with a view to checking consumption.

Since the issue of the report of the Excise Committee 1905-06, no less than 213,000 square miles of territory were transferred from the out-still to the distilling system. In 1905-06 39 per cent. of the total excise area and 28 per cent. of the population of that area were served by out-stills, the proportions in 1912-13 were only 15 and 8 per cent. respectively.

Excise has now been made over entirely to the Provincial Governments, and the duties vary from province to province. The governing principle in fixing these rates is the highest duty compatible with the prevention of illicit distillation. In the Bombay Presidency the issue of spirit to all country spirit shops has been rationed on the basis of consumption for the year 1920-21. From that consumption reduced to proof gallons, 10 per cent. is deducted in the case of shops in Bombay City and 5 per cent. elsewhere and the ration is then fixed for each shop according to the issues in the corresponding month of 1920-21. This is the most important step taken by the new Government to reduce consumption. Two large distilleries in the Presidency have been placed entirely under Government management, thus partially superseding the Contract Distilling system.

Sap of the date, palmyra, and coconut palms called toddy, is used as a drink either fresh or after fermentation. In Madras and Bombay the revenue is obtained from a fixed fee on every tree from which it is intended to draw the liquor and from shop license fees. In Bengal and Burma the sale of shop licenses is the sole form of taxation. Country brands of rum, and so-called brandies and whiskies, are distilled from grape juice, etc. The manufacture is carried out in private distilleries in various parts of India. A number of breweries has been established, mostly in the hills, for the manufacture of a light beer for European and Eurasian consumption. The uniform fee of 8 annas per gallon is levied all over India at the time of issue.

Foreign liquor is subject to an import duty at the tariff rates, which are set out in the Customs Tariff (*g. v.*). It can only be sold under a license.

Since the war Brandy and Whisky have been manufactured in considerable quantities at Baroda.

The base used is the Mhowra flower. It is drunk in big towns as a substitute for German spirit, and is excised at tariff rates.

Drugs.—The narcotic products of the hemp plant consumed in India fall under three main categories, namely, ganja or the dry flowering tops of the cultivated female hemp plant charas, or the resinous matter which forms an active drug when collected separately; and bang, or the dried leaves of the hemp plant whether male or female cultivated or uncultivated. The main features of the existing system are restricted cultivation under supervision, storage in Bonded Warehouses, payment of a quantitative duty before issue, retail sale under licenses and restriction on private possession. Licenses to retail all forms of hemp drugs are usually sold by auction. The sale of charas has been prohibited in the Bombay Presidency except Sindh from the 1st April 1922.

Opium.—Opium is consumed in all provinces in India. The drug is commonly taken in the form of pills; but in some places, chiefly on social and ceremonial occasions, it is drunk dissolved in water. Opium smoking also prevails in the City of Bombay and other large towns. The general practice is to sell opium from the Government Treasury, or a Central Warehouse, to licensed vendors. The right of retail to the public is sold by annual auction to one or several sanctioned shops. Further legislation against opium smoking in clubs and dens is now under contemplation.

The estimated opium revenue in 1924-25 is Rs. 4,33,60,000.

SALT.

The salt revenue was inherited by the British Government from Native rule, together with a miscellaneous transit dues. These transit dues were abolished and the salt duty consolidated and raised. There are four great sources of supply; rock salt from the Salt Range and Kohat Mines in the Punjab; brine salt from the Sambhar Lake in Rajputana, salt brine condensed on the borders of the lesser Rann of Cutch; and sea salt factories in Bombay, Madras and at the mouth of the Indus.

The Salt Range mines contain an inexhaustible supply. They are worked in chambers excavated in salt strata, some of which are 250 feet long, 45 feet wide and 200 feet high. The Rajputana supply chiefly comes from the Sambhar Lake where brine is extracted and evaporated by solar heat. In the Rann of Cutch the brine is also evaporated by solar heat and the product is known as Baragars salt. Important works for the manufacture of that salt were opened in Dhrangadhra State in

1923. In Bombay and Madras sea water is let into shallow pans on the sea-coast and evaporated by solar heat and the product sold throughout India. In Bengal the damp climate together with the large volume of fresh water from the Ganges and the Brahmaputra into the Bay of Bengal render the manufacture of sea salt difficult and the bulk of the supply, both for Bengal and Burma, is imported from Liverpool, Germany, Aden, Bombay and Madras.

Broadly, one-half of the indigenous salt is manufactured by Government Agency, and the remainder under license and excise systems. In the Punjab and Rajputana the salt manufactories are under the control of the Northern India Salt Department, a branch of the Commerce and Industry Department. In Madras and

Bombay the manufactories are under the supervision of Local Governments. Special treaties with Native States permit of the free movement of salt throughout India, except from the Portuguese territories of Goa and Damaun, on the frontiers of which patrol lines are established to prevent the smuggling of salt into British India.

From 1888-1903 the duty on salt was Rs. 2-8 per maund of 82 lbs. In 1903, it was reduced to Rs. 2; in 1905 to Rs. 1-8-0; in 1907 to Re. 1 and in 1916 it was raised to Rs. 1-4-0. The successive reductions in duty have led to a largely increased consumption, the figures rising by 25 per cent. between 1903-1908. In 1923 the duty was doubled bringing it again to Rs. 2-8. In 1924 it was reduced to Re. 1-4-0. The estimated salt revenue in 1924-25 is Rs. 9,01,62,000.

CUSTOMS.

The import duties have varied from time to time according to the financial condition of the country. Before the Mutiny they were five per cent.; in the days of financial stringency which followed they were raised to 10 and in some cases 20 per cent. In 1875 they were reduced to five per cent.; but the opinions of Free Traders, and the agitation of Lancashire manufacturers who felt the competition of the Indian Mills, induced a movement which led to the abolition of all customs dues in 1882. The continued fall in exchange compelled the Government of India to look for fresh sources of revenue and in 1894 five per cent. duties were reimposed, yarns and cotton fabrics being excluded. Continued financial stringency brought piece-goods within the scope of the tariff, and after various expedients the demands of Lancashire were satisfied by a general duty of 3½ per cent. on all woven goods—an import duty on goods by sea, an excise duty on goods produced in the country. The products of the hand-looms are excluded. These excise duties are intensely unpopular in India, for reasons set out in the special article dealing with the subject. In 1910-11, in order to meet the deficit threatened by the loss of the revenue on opium exported to China, the silver duty was raised from 5 per cent. to 4d. an ounce, and higher duties levied on petroleum, tobacco, wines, spirits, and beer. These were estimated to produce £1 million annually.

The Customs Schedule was completely recast in the Budget of 1916-17 in order to provide additional revenue to meet the financial disturbance set up by the war. The general import tariff, which had been at the rate of 5 per cent. *ad valorem* since 1894 was raised to 7½ per cent. *ad valorem*, except in the case of sugar; as India is the largest producer of sugar in the world the import duty on this staple was fixed at 10 per cent. There was also a material curtailment of the free list. The principal article of trade which was not touched was cotton manufactures. For the past twenty years the position has been that cotton twists and yarns of all kinds are free of duty while a duty at the rate of 3½ per cent. is imposed on woven goods of all kinds whether imported or manufactured in Indian mills. The Budget left the position as it stood. The Government of India would have been glad to see the tariff raised to 5 per cent.

without any corresponding alteration of the excise, but were over-ruled by the Cabinet on the ground that this controversial matter must come up for discussion after the war. Finally the Budget imposed export duties on tea and jute. In the case of tea the duty was fixed at Re. 1-8-0 per 100 lbs.; in the case of jute the export duty on raw jute was fixed at Rs. 2-4-0 per bale of 400 lbs., approximately equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent.; manufactured jute was charged at the rate of Rs. 10 per ton on sacking and Rs. 16 per ton on Hessians.

The Customs Tariff was further materially modified in the Budget for 1917-18. In the previous year an export duty on jute was imposed at the rate of Rs. 2-4-0 per bale of 400 lbs. in the case of raw jute and Rs. 10 per ton on sackings, and Rs. 16 per ton on Hessians; these rates were doubled, with a view to obtaining an additional revenue of £500,000. The import duty on cotton goods was raised from 3½ per cent. to 7½ per cent. without any alteration in the Excise, which remained at 3½ per cent. This change was expected to produce an additional revenue of £1,000,000. The question of the Excise was left untouched, for the reason, amongst others, that the Government could not possibly forego the revenue of £320,000, which it was expected to produce. With these changes in operation the revenue from Customs in 1920-21 was Rs. 32,37,29,000.

The Customs Tariff was further raised in the Budget of 1921-22 in order to provide for the big deficit which had then to be faced. The general *ad valorem* duty was raised from 7½ to 11 per cent.; a special duty was levied on matches of 12 annas per gross boxes in place of the existing *ad valorem* duty of 7½ per cent.; the duties on imported liquors was raised to 3 annas per degree of proof per gallon; the *ad valorem* duty of 7½ per cent. was raised to 20 per cent. in the case of certain articles of luxury; the import duty on foreign sugar was increased from 10 to 15 per cent. and the duty on manufactured tobacco was raised by 50 per cent. The Customs duties were further increased in the Budget of 1922-23. The Government proposals in this direction have been described in an early passage. They were to raise the general Customs duty from 11 to 15 p.

cent., the cotton excise duty from 3½ per cent. to 7½ per cent., the duty on sugar from 15 to 25 per cent., a duty of 5 per cent. on imported yarn, a rising duty on machinery, iron, steel and railway material from 2½ per cent. to 10 per cent. together with the general duty on articles of luxury from 20 per cent. to 30 per cent. In the course of the passage of the Budget through the Legislatures the cotton excise duty was retained at 3½ per cent., the duty on machinery was retained at 2½ per cent. and the duty on cotton piecegoods at 11 per cent., the other increases being accepted. Full details with regard to the customs duty are set out in the section on Indian Customs Tariff (q. v.). The estimated revenue from the customs in 1924-25 is Rs. 45,01,82,000.

The Senior Collectors were Covenanted Civilians specially chosen for this duty, before the introduction of the Imperial Customs Service in 1906. Since that date, of the five Collectorships at the principal ports (Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Rangoon, and Karachi) three are ordinarily reserved for Members of the I. C. S. (i.e. "Covenanted Civilians"). The other two are reserved for members of the Imperial Customs Service.

Assistant Collectors in the Imperial Customs Service are recruited in two ways: (a) from members of the Indian Civil Service—3 vacancies, and (b) by the Secretary of State—19 vacancies. There are in addition a few Gazetted Officers in what is known as the Provincial Customs Service. These posts are in the gift of the Government of India, and are usually filled

by promotion from the subordinate (in the Government sense of the word) service. The "subordinate" staff is recruited entirely in India.

Income Tax.

The income tax was first imposed in India in 1860, in order to meet the financial dislocation caused by the Mutiny. It was levied at the rate of four per cent. or a little more than 9½ d. in the pound on all incomes of five hundred rupees and upwards. Many changes have from time to time been made in the system, and the present schedule was consolidated in the Act of 1886. This imposed a tax on all incomes derived from sources other than agriculture which were exempted. On incomes of 2,000 rupees and upwards it fell at the rate of five pies in the rupee, or about 6½ d. in the pound; on incomes between 500 and 2,000 rupees at the rate of four pies in the rupee or about 5 d. in the pound. In March 1903 the minimum taxable income was raised from 500 to 1,000 rupees. The income-tax schedule was completely revised, raised, and graduated in the Budget of 1916-17 in the general scale of increased taxation imposed to meet the deficit arising out of war conditions.

Since then the process has been almost continuous and in every financial difficulty the authorities turn to the Income Tax as a means of raising fresh revenue. The last revision was in the Budget of 1922-23, when the scale was fixed as follows:—

RATES OF INCOME-TAX.

A. In the case of every individual, every unregistered firm and every undivided Hindu family:—	Rate.
(1) When the total income is less than Rs. 2,000 ..	<i>Nil.</i>
(2) When the total income is Rs. 2,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 5,000 ..	Five pies in the rupee.
(3) When the total income is Rs. 5,000 or upwards but is less than Rs. 10,000 ..	Six pies in the rupee.
(4) When the total income is Rs. 10,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 20,000 ..	Nine pies in the rupee.
(5) When the total income is Rs. 20,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 30,000 ..	One anna in the rupee.
(6) When the total income is Rs. 30,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 40,000 ..	One anna and three pies in the rupee.
(7) When the total income is Rs. 40,000 or upwards ..	One anna and six pies in the rupee.
In the case of every company, and every registered firm whatever its total income ..	One anna and six pies in the rupee.

RATES OF SUPER-TAX.

In respect of the excess over fifty thousand rupees of total income	Rate.
(1) In the case of every company ..	One anna in the rupee.
(2) (a) In the case of every Hindu undivided family:—	
(i) In respect of the first twenty-five thousand rupees of the excess ..	<i>Nil.</i>
(ii) for every rupee of the next twenty-five thousand rupees of such excess ..	One anna in the rupee.
(b) In the case of every individual and every unregistered firm, for every rupee of the first fifty thousand rupees of such excess ..	One anna in the rupee.
(c) In the case of every individual, every unregistered firm and every Hindu undivided family:—	
(i) or every rupee of the second fifty thousand rupees of such excess ..	One and a half annas in the rupee

(ii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess ..	Two annas in the rupee.
(iii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess ..	Two and a half annas in the rupee.
(iv) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess ..	Three annas in the rupee.
(v) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess ..	Three and a half annas in the rupee.
(vi) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess ..	Four annas in the rupee.
(vii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess ..	Four and a half annas in the rupee.
(viii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess ..	Five annas in the rupee.
(ix) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess ..	Five and a half annas in the rupee.
(x) for every rupee of the remainder of the excess ..	Six annas in the rupee.

The head of the Income-Tax Department of a province is the Commissioner of Income-tax who is appointed by the Governor-General in Council. The rest of the income-tax staff in a province are subordinate to him and they are appointed and dismissed by him. His power of appointment and dismissal is, under section 5 (4) "subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council," but the Governor-General in Council exercises this control through the local Government.

The estimated yield of Income-tax in 1924-25 is Rs. 18,36,58,000.

THE INDIAN MINTS.

The silver coinage executed for the Government of India during 1923-24 consisted of Rs. 50 lakhs of whole rupees and half rupees coined from silver obtained from melting uncurrent coins. No other coinage of rupees was undertaken during the year.

Nickel and Bronze coinage.—The coinage during 1923-24 consisted of 12,781,667 nickel two-anna pieces and 8,876,090 nickel one anna pieces. Bronze coinage consisted of half pie and pie pieces of the aggregate value of Rs. 1,39,300.

HISTORY OF THE COINAGE.

The Indian mints were closed to the unrestricted coinage of silver for the public from the 26th June 1893, and Act VIII of 1893, passed on that date, repealed Sections 19 to 26 of the Indian Coinage Act of 1879, which provided for the coinage at the mints for the public of gold and silver coins of the Government of India. After 1893 no Government rupees were coined until 1897, when, under arrangements made with the Native States of Bhopal and Kashmir, the currency of those States was replaced by Government rupees. The re-coinage of these rupees proceeded through the two years 1897 and 1898. In 1899 there was no coinage of rupees; but in the following year it seemed that coinage was necessary, and it was begun in February 1900, the Government purchasing the silver required, and paying for it mainly with the gold accumulated in the Paper Currency Reserve. In that and the following month a crore of rupees was coined and over 17 crores of rupees in the year ending the 31st March 1910 including the rupees issued in connection with the conversion of the currencies of Native States. From the profit accruing to Government on the coinage it was decided to constitute a separate fund called the Gold Reserve Fund as the most effective guarantee against temporary fluctuations of exchange. The whole profit was invested in sterling securities, the interest from which was added to the fund. In 1906 exchange had been practically stable for eight years, and it was decided that of the coinage profits devoted to this fund, six crores should be kept in rupees in India, instead of being invested in gold securities. The Gold Reserve Fund was then named the Gold Standard Reserve. It was ordered to 1907 that only one-half of the coinage profits should be paid into the reserve, the remainder being used for capital expenditure on railways. The Gold Standard Reserve was called into action before the year 1907-08 was out. Exchange turned against India, and in March 1908, the Government of India offered bills on the Secretary of State up to half a million sterling, while the Secretary of State sold £1,000,000 Consols in order to meet such demands. During April to August, further sterling bills were sold for a total amount of £3,058,000. On a representation by the Government of India, the Secretary of State agreed to defer the application of coinage profits to railway construction until the sterling assets of the Gold Standard

Reserve amounted to £25,000,000. On the outbreak of the war in August 1914 the Reserve was drawn upon to meet the demands for sterling remittances, and Government offer to sell £1,000,000 of Bills weekly.

Gold.

Since 1870 there had been no coinage of double mohurs in India and the last coinage of single mohurs before 1918 in which year coinage was resumed, was in the year 1891-92.

A Royal proclamation was issued in 1918 establishing a branch of the Royal Mint at Bombay. It stated:—Subject to the provision of this proclamation the Bombay Branch Mint shall for the purpose of the coinage of gold coins be deemed to be part of the Mint, and accordingly, (a) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint shall comply with all directions he may receive from the Master of the Mint whether as regards the expenditure to be incurred or the returns to be made or the transmission of specimen coins to England or otherwise and (b) the said specimen coins shall be subject to the trial of the pyx under section 12 of the Coinage Act, 1870, so that they shall be examined separately from the coins coined in England or at any other branch of the Mint, and (c) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint and other officers and persons employed for the purpose of carrying on the business of the Branch Mint may be appointed, promoted, suspended and removed and their duties assigned and salaries awarded and in accordance with the provisions of section 15 of the Coinage Act, 1870. Pending the completion of the arrangements at the Branch Royal Mint, power was taken by legislation to coin in India gold mohurs of the same weight and fineness as the sovereign. Altogether 2,109,703 pieces of these new coins of the nominal value of Rs. 3,16,45,545, were struck at the Bombay Mint. The actual coinage of sovereigns was begun in August, 1918, and 1,285,372 sovereigns were coined during the year. This branch of the Royal Mint was closed in April, 1919, owing to difficulties in supplying the necessary staff.

Act XXII of 1899, passed on the 15th September 1899, provided that gold coin (sovereign and half-sovereigns) shall be a legal tender in payment or on account at the rate of fifteen rupees for one sovereign.

With the receipt of large consignments of gold, the Bombay Mint made special arrangements for the refining of gold by the chlorine process and at the end of the year 1919-20 the Refinery Department was capable of refining a daily amount of 6,000 ounces of raw gold. The Refinery turned out 16,62,466 fine tolas of refined gold in 1920-21.

Silver.
The weight and fineness of the silver coins are:—

	FINE SILVER grains.	ALLOY grains.	TOTAL grains.
Rupee	165	15	180
Half-rupee .. .	82½	7½	90
Quarter-rupee or 4-anna piece .. .	41¼	3¾	45
Eighth of a rupee or 2-anna piece .. .	20½	1¾	22½

One rupee = 165 grains of fine silver.
One shilling = 80½ grains of fine silver.
One rupee = shillings 2/439.

Copper and Bronze.

Copper coinage was introduced into the Bengal Presidency by Act XVII of 1835 and into the Madras and Bombay Presidencies by Act XXII of 1844.

The weight of the copper coins struck under Act XXIII of 1870 remained the same as it was in 1835. It was as follows:—

	Grains	troy.
Double pice or half-anna	200	
Pice or quarter-anna	100	
Half-pice or one-eighth of an anna .. .	50	
Pie being one-third of a pice or one-twelfth of an anna	33½	

The weight and dimensions of bronze coins are as follows:—

	Standard weight in grains troy.	Diameter in millimetres.
Pice	75	25.4
Half-pice	37½	21.15
Pie	25	17.45

Nickel.

The Act of 1906 also provides for the coinage of a nickel coin. It was directed that the nickel one-anna piece should thenceforth be coined at the Mint and issue. The notification also prescribed the design of the coin, which has a wavy edge with twelve scollops, the greatest diameter of the coin being 21 millimetres and its least diameter 19.8 millimetres. The desirability of issuing a half anna nickel coin was considered by the Government of India in 1909 but after consultation with Local Governments it was decided not to take action in this direction until the people had become thoroughly familiar with the present one-anna coin. The two-anna nickel coin was introduced in 1917-18; and the four-anna and eight-anna nickel coins in 1919. The eight-anna nickel is now being withdrawn from circulation.

The Currency System.

The working of the Indian currency system which has commanded a large amount of public attention since 1893, was forced to the front in 1920, as the result of measures taken to stabilise the exchange value of the rupee after the fluctuations caused by the war. These assumed so

much importance, and they continue to bulk so largely in all Indian economic questions, that we propose to give here a short summary of the Indian currency system in non-technical language.

I. THE SILVER STANDARD.

Prior to 1893 the Indian currency system was a mono-metallic system, with silver as the standard of value and a circulation of silver rupees and notes based thereon. But with the opening of new and very productive silver mines in the United States of America the supply of silver exceeded the demand and it steadily receded in value. The result was that the gold value of the rupee, which was nominally two shillings, fell continuously until it reached the neighbourhood of a shilling. These disturbances were prejudicial to trade, but they were still more prejudicial to the finances of the Government. The Government of India has to meet every year in London a substantial sum in the form of payment of interest on the debt, the salaries of officials on leave, the pensions of retired officials, as well as large payment for stores required for State enterprises. As the rupee fell in its gold value the number of rupees required to satisfy these payments rose. The total reached a pitch which seriously alarmed the Government, which felt that it might be called upon to raise a sum in rupees which would necessitate a considerable increase in taxation, which should be avoided if possible. It was therefore decided to take measures to raise and fix the gold value of the rupee for the purposes of exchange.

Closing the Mints.—The whole question was examined by a strong committee under the presidency of Lord Herschell, whose report is commonly called the Herschell Report. It was decided in 1893 to close the mints to the unrestricted coinage of silver. This step led, as was intended, to a gradual divergence between the exchange value of the rupee and the gold value of its silver content. Government ceased to add rupees to the circulation. Rupees remained unlimited legal tender and formed the standard of value for all internal transactions. Since Government refused, and no one else had the power to coin rupees, as soon as circumstances led to an increased demand for rupees, the exchange value of the rupee began to rise. By 1898 it had approached the figure of one shilling and fourpence. Meantime, in response to the undertaking of Government to give notes or rupees for gold at the rate of fifteen rupees to the pound sterling, gold began to accumulate in the Paper Currency Reserve. These purposes having been attained, a second committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Sir Henry Fowler to consider what further steps should be adopted in the light of these conditions. The report of the Fowler Committee as it was called marked the second stage in Indian currency policy.

II. THE NEW STANDARD.

The Fowler Committee rejected the proposal to re-open the Mints to the free coinage of silver. They proposed that the exchange value of the rupee should be fixed at one shilling and fourpence, or fifteen rupees to the sovereign. They further suggested that the British sovereign should be made a legal tender and a current coin in India; that the Indian mints should be thrown open to the unrestricted coinage of gold; so that the rupee and the sovereign should freely circulate side by side in India. The goal which the Committee had in view was a gold standard supported by a gold currency. Now under the condition which compelled the Government of India to give either rupees or rupee notes for gold tendered in India, at the rate of fifteen rupees to the sovereign, it was impossible for the rate of exchange to rise above one shilling and fourpence, save by the fraction which covered the cost of shipping gold to India. But if the balance of trade turned against India, it was still possible for the rate of exchange to fall. To meet this the Fowler Committee recommended that the profits on coining rupees should not be absorbed in the general revenues, but should be set aside in a special reserve, to be called the

Gold Standard Reserve. Inasmuch as the cost of coining rupees was approximately elevenpence halfpenny, and they were sold to the public at one and fourpence, the profits were considerable; they were to have been kept in gold, so as to be freely available when required for the support of exchange.

A 16 pence Rupee.—The Government of India professed to accept all the recommendations of the Fowler Committee: actually only a portion of them was put in practice. The official rate of exchange was fixed at one and fourpence. The sovereign and the half sovereign were declared unlimited legal tender in India. But after a first attempt, when sovereigns soon came back to the treasury, no effort was made to support the gold standard by an active gold currency. The gold mint was not set up. The Gold Standard Reserve was established, but instead of holding the Reserve in gold, it was invested in British securities. These practices gave rise to conditions which were never contemplated by the Fowler Committee. Reference has been made to the Home Charges of the Government of India, which at the time amounted to

about seventeen millions sterling a year. These are met by the sale of what are called Council Bills. That is to say, the Secretary of State, acting on behalf of the Government of India sold Bills against gold deposited in the Bank of England in London. These Bills when presented in India were cashed at the Government Treasuries. Now if the Secretary of State sold Council Bills only to meet his actual requirements, it follows that the balance of trade in favour of India over and above this figure would be liquidated, as it is in other countries, by the importation of bullion or by the creation of credits. It is a fact that owing to the failure of the policy of encouraging an active gold circulation to support the gold standard, gold tended to accumulate in India in embarrassing quantities. In 1904 therefore the Secretary of State declared his intention of selling Council Bills on India without limit at the price of one shilling fourpence one-eighth—that is to say gold import point. The effect of this policy was to limit the import of gold to India, for it was generally more convenient to deposit the gold in London and to obtain Council Bills against it, than to ship the gold to India. Nevertheless as the Egyptian cotton crop was very largely financed in sovereigns it was sometimes cheaper and more convenient to ship sovereigns from Egypt, or even from Australia, than to buy Council Bills. Considerable quantities of sovereigns found their way into India and circulated freely, particularly in the Bombay Presidency, the Punjab and parts of the Central Provinces.

Sterling Remittance.—This system worked until 1907-08. A partial failure of the rains in India in 1907, and the general financial stringency all over the world which followed the American financial crisis in the autumn, caused the Indian exchange to become weak in November. This was one of the occasions contemplated, in a different form, by the Fowler Committee when it proposed the formation of the Gold Standard Reserve. There had been very heavy

coining of rupees in India and the amount in the Reserve was ample. But the Reserve was in securities not in gold, and was therefore not in a liquid form, nor was the time an opportune one for the realisation of securities. Moreover the authorities did not realise that a reserve is for use in times of emergency. It had been assumed that in times of weakness it would be sufficient for the Secretary of State to stop selling Council Bills, and it would firm up; meantime he would finance himself by drawing on the funds in the Gold Standard Reserve. But it was apparent that the stoppage of the sales of Councils was not enough; there was an insistent demand for the export of gold, or the equivalent of gold. The Government of India refused and exchange fell to one and threepence twenty-three thirtyseconds. Ultimately the authorities had to give way. It was decided to sell in India a certain quantity of sterling bills on London at one and threepence twenty-nine thirtyseconds, representing gold export point, and the equivalent of the export of gold. These were met in London from the funds in the Gold Standard Reserve. Bills to the extent of between eight and nine millions sterling were sold, which regularised the position and the Indian export trade recovered. Thus were gradually evolved the main principles of the Indian currency system. It consisted of silver rupees and rupee notes in India, with the sovereign and half sovereign unlimited legal tender at the rate of fifteen rupees to the sovereign, or one and fourpence. The rate of exchange was prevented from rising above gold import point by the unlimited sale of Council Bills at gold point in London; it was prevented from falling below gold point by the sale of Sterling Bills (commonly called Reverse Councils) at gold export point in India. But it was not the system proposed by the Fowler Committee, for there was no gold mint and only limited gold circulation; some people invented for it the novel term of the gold exchange standard, a term unknown to the law of India. It was described by one of the most active workers in it as a "limping standard."

III. THE CHAMBERLAIN COMMITTEE.

This brings us to the year 1913. There were many critics of the system. Some hankered for a return to the open mints; others objected to the practice of unlimited sales of Council Bills as forcing rupees into circulation in excess of the requirements of the country. But the general advantages of a fixed exchange were so great as to smother the voices of the critics, and the trade and commerce of the country adjusted itself to the one and fourpenny rupee. But there gradually grew up a formidable body of criticism directed against the administrative measures taken by the India Office. These criticisms were chiefly directed at the investment of the Gold Standard Reserve in securities instead of keeping it in gold in India; at a raid on that reserve in order temporarily to relieve the Government of the difficulty of financing its railway expenditure; at the transfer of a solid block of the Paper Currency Reserve from India to London; at the holding of a portion of the Gold Standard Reserve

in silver in order to facilitate the coining of rupees; and at the unlimited sales of Council Bills at rates which prevented the free flow of gold to India, thus forcing token rupees into circulation in quantities in excess of the requirements of the country. The cumulative effect of this policy was to transfer from India to London an immense block of India's resources, aggregating over seventy millions, where they were lent out at low rates of interest to the London bankers, whilst India was starved of money until at one point money was not available for loans even against Government securities and the bank rate was artificially high. All these things were done, it was contended, on the *order* of a small Finance Committee of the India Office, from which all Indian influence was excluded, and on which London banking influence was supreme. The India Office for long ignored this criticism, until it was summarised in a series of articles in *The Times*, and public

opinion was focussed on the discussion through the action of the India Office in purchasing a big block of silver for coining purposes from Messrs. Montagu & Co., instead of through their recognised and constituted agents, the Bank of England. The Government could no longer afford to stand aloof and yet another Currency Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Mr. Austen Chamberlain. This is known as the Chamberlain Committee.

New Measures.—The conclusions of this Commission were that it was unnecessary to support the Gold Standard by a gold currency; that it was not to the advantage of India to encourage the internal use of gold as currency; that the internal currency should be supported by a thoroughly adequate reserve of gold and sterling; that no limit should be fixed to the amount of the Gold Standard Reserve, one half of which should be held in gold; that the silver

branch of the Gold Standard Reserve should be abolished; that Reverse Councils should be sold on demand; that the Paper Currency should be made more elastic; and that there should be two Indian representatives out of three on the Finance Committee of the India Office. The Committee dealt inconclusively with the accumulation of excessive balances in London, the general tenor of their recommendations being "not guilty, but do not do it again." They gave a passing commendation to the idea of a State Bank. Sir James Beggie, the only Indian banker on the Committee, appended a vigorous minute of dissent, in which he urged that the true line of advance was to discourage the extension of the token currency by providing further facilities for the distribution of gold when increases to the currency became necessary, including the issue of an Indian gold coin of a more convenient denomination than the sovereign or the half sovereign.

IV. CURRENCY AND THE WAR.

The report was in the hands of the Government of India shortly before the outbreak of the war. Some immediate steps were taken, like the abolition of the silver branch of the Gold Standard Reserve, but before the Government could deal entirely with the temporising recommendations of the Commission, the war broke out. The early effects of the war were precisely those anticipated. There was a demand for sterling remittance which was met by the sale of Reverse Councils, £3,707,000, being sold up to the end of January 1915. There were withdrawals from the Post Office Savings Banks, and a net sum of Rs. 8 crores was taken away. There was some lack of confidence in the Note issue, and a demand for gold; Notes to the extent of Rs. 10 crores were presented for encashment and the Government were obliged to suspend the issue of gold. But these were transient features and did not demand a moratorium; confidence was soon revived and Exchange and the Note issue continued strong. The difficulties which afterwards arose were from causes completely unanticipated by all students of the Indian currency. They arose from an immense balance of trade in favour of India, caused by the demand for Indian produce for the United Kingdom and the Allies and the decline in the export trade from these countries; a heavy expenditure in India on behalf of the British Government; and a phenomenal rise in the price of silver. If we take the three years 1916-17 to 1918-19 the balance of trade in favour of India was £6 millions a year above the corresponding years of the previous quinquennium. The disbursements in India on behalf of the Government of the United Kingdom and the Allies were by December 1919 £240,000,000. This balance of trade and expenditure for Imperial purposes could not be financed either by the import of the precious metals, owing to the universal embargo on the movement of gold and silver nor by credits in India. It could be financed only by the expansion of the Note issue, against sterling securities in the United Kingdom, chiefly Treasury Bills, and the issue of coined

rupees. But simultaneously there was a reduction in the output of the silver mines of the world coinciding with an increased demand for the metal. The price of silver in 1915 was 27½ pence per standard ounce. In May 1919 it was 58 pence, on the 17th December of that year it was 78 pence. The main difficulties in India were not therefore the prevention of the rupee from falling below the ratio of 15 to one, but to keep it within any limits and to provide a sufficiency to meet the demand.

Rise in Exchange.—The measures adopted by the Government of India in these emergencies were to bring exchange under rigid control, confining remittance to the finance of articles of national importance. The next step was to raise the rate for the sale of Council Bills, so that silver might be purchased at a price which would allow rupees to be coined without loss. The following table shows how rates were raised from one shilling fourpence to two shillings fourpence:—

Date of Introduction.	Minimum Rate for Immediate Telegraphic Transfers.
3rd January 1917	1 4½
28th August 1917	1 5
12th April 1918	1 6
13th May 1919	1 8
12th August 1919	1 10
15th September 1919	2 0
22nd November 1919	2 2
12th December 1919	2 4

Rise in Exchange.—Silver for coining was purchased in large quantities, the following table showing the amount acquired by the Government of India in the last five years :—

		In open Market (Standard Ounces).	From United States Dollar Reserve (equivalent in Standard Ounces).
1915-16		8,636,000	—
1916-17		124,535,000	—
1917-18		70,923,000	—
1918-19		106,410,000	152,518,000
1919-20 (to 30th November 1919)		14,108,000	60,875,000
Total	..	324,612,000	213,393,000

The total amount is thus 538,005,000 standard ounces.

Gold and silver were taken under control and measures taken to prevent export and melting. Gold went to a premium and ceased to function as currency. The Note issue was expanded, and small Notes of one and two and a half rupees were specially prepared to economise the use of silver rupees. The nature of this expansion is shown below :—

Date.	Gross Note Circula- tion.	Lakhs of Rupees.				Per- centage of Total Metallic Reserve to gross Note Circula- tion.
		Composition of Reserve.				
		Silver.	Gold.	Securities.	Total.	
31st March 1914 ..	66.12	20.53	31.59	14.00	66.12	78.9
" 1915 ..	61.63	32.34	15.29	14.00	61.63	77.3
" 1916 ..	67.73	23.57	24.16	20.00	67.73	70.5
" 1917 ..	86.38	19.22	18.67	48.49	86.38	43.9
" 1918 ..	99.79	10.79	27.52	61.48	99.79	38.4
" 1919 ..	153.46	37.39	17.49	98.58	153.46	35.8
30th November 1919 ..	179.67	47.44	32.70	99.53	179.67	44.6

The facilities for the encashment of Notes were reduced. In these ways the Government were able to maintain the broad convertibility of the Note issue and finance the essential trades and

expenditure for the Imperial Government. It often meant sailing very near to the wind, but these measures carried the country through the war.

V. THE 1919 COMMITTEE.

The effect of these measures however was to jettison the currency policy pursued from 1893 to 1915, the main object of which was to stabilise the rupee at one and fourpence. The war being over, a Committee was appointed to advise in regard to the future of Indian exchange and

currency. It sat in 1919 and reported towards the end of the year. Its main recommendations are summarised below :—
(i) It is desirable to restore stability to the rupee and to re-establish the automatic working of the Indian currency system.

(ii) The reduction of the fineness or weight of the rupee, the issue of 2 or 3-rupee coins of lower proportional silver content than the present rupee, or the issue of a nickel rupee, are expedients that cannot be recommended.

(iii) The maintenance of the convertibility of the note issue is essential, and proposals that do not adequately protect the Indian paper currency from the risk of becoming inconvertible cannot be entertained.

(iv) The rise in exchange, in so far as it has checked and mitigated the rise in Indian prices, has been to the advantage of the country as a whole, and it is desirable to secure the continuance of this benefit.

(v) Indian trade is not likely to suffer any permanent injury from the fixing of exchange at a high level.

If, contrary to expectation, a great and rapid fall in world prices were to take place, and if the costs of production in India fail to adjust themselves with equal rapidity to the lower level of prices, then it might be necessary to consider the problem afresh.

(vi) The development of Indian industry would not be seriously hampered by a high rate of exchange.

(vii) The gain to India of a high rate of exchange for meeting the Home charges is an incidental advantage that must be taken into consideration.

(viii) To postpone fixing a stable rate of exchange would be open to serious criticism and entail prolongation of Government control.

(ix) The balance of advantage is decidedly on the side of fixing the exchange value of the rupee in terms of gold rather than in terms of sterling.

(x) The stable relation to be established between the rupee and gold should be at the rate of Rs. 10 to one sovereign, or, in other words, at the rate of one rupee for 11.30,016 grains of fine gold, both for foreign exchange and for internal circulation.

(xi) If silver rises for more than a brief period above the parity of 2s. (gold), the situation should be met by all other available means rather than by impairing the convertibility of the note issue. Such measures might be (a) reduction of sale of Council Bills; (b) abstention from purchase of silver; (c) use of gold to meet demands for metallic currency. If it should be absolutely necessary to purchase silver, the Government should be prepared to purchase even at a price such that rupees would be coined at a loss.

(xii) Council Drafts are primarily sold not for the convenience of trade but to provide for the Home charges in the wider sense of the term. There is no obligation to sell drafts to meet all trade demands; but, if without inconvenience or with advantage the Secretary of State is in a position to sell drafts in excess of his immediate needs, when a trade demand for them exists, there is no objection to his doing so, subject to due regard being paid to the principles governing the location of the reserves.

Council Drafts should be sold as now by open tender at competitive rates, a minimum rate being fixed from time to time on the basis of the sterling cost of shipping gold to India. At present this rate will vary; but when sterling is again equivalent to gold, it will remain uniform.

The Government of India should be authorised to announce, without previous reference to the Secretary of State on each occasion, their readiness to sell weekly a stated amount of Reverse Councils (including telegraphic transfers) during periods of exchange weakness at a price based on the cost of shipping gold from India to the United Kingdom.

(xiii) The import and export of gold to and from India should be free from Government control.

(xiv) The statutory minimum for the metallic portion of the Paper Currency Reserve should be 40 per cent. of the gross circulation.

As regards the fiduciary portion of the reserve, the holding of securities issued by the Government of India should be limited to 20 crores. The balance should be held in securities of other Governments comprised within the British Empire, and of the amount so held not more than 10 crores should have more than one year's maturity and all should be redeemable at a fixed date. The balance of the invested portion above these 30 crores should be held in short-dated securities, with not more than one year's maturity, issued by Government within the British Empire.

The sterling investments and gold in the Paper Currency Reserve should be revalued at 2s. to the rupee. The depreciation which will result from this revaluation, cannot be made good at once, but any savings resulting from the rise in exchange will afford a suitable means of discharging this liability in a limited number of years.

(xv) With a view to meeting the seasonal demand for additional currency, provision should be made for the issue of notes up to five crores over and above the normal fiduciary issue as loans to the Presidency Banks on the security of export bills of exchange.

Minority Report.—The main object of the Committee, it will be seen, was to secure a stable rate of exchange, without impairing the convertibility of the Note issue, and without debasing the standard silver rupee in India, or substituting another coin of inferior metallic content, which would be debasement in another form. In order to attain these ends it was imperative to fix a ratio for the rupee in relation to gold which would ensure that the Government was able to purchase silver for coining purposes without more than temporary loss. For reasons given in the report they fixed this point at two shillings gold; all other recommendations are subsidiary thereto. But in this they were not unanimous; an important member of the Committee, Mr. Dadabhai Dalal, of Bombay, appended a minority report in which he urged the adoption of the following course :—

(a) The money standard in India should remain unaltered; that is, the standard of the sovereign and gold mohur with rupees related thereto at the ratio of 15 to 1.

(b) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of gold bullion and gold coins.

(c) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of silver bullion and silver coins.

(d) The existing silver rupees of 165 grains of fine silver at present in circulation to continue full legal tender.

(e) As long as the price of silver in New York is over 92 cents, Government should not manufacture silver rupees containing 165 grains fine silver.

(f) As long as the price of silver is over 92 cents Government should coin 2 rupee silver coins of reduced fineness compared with that of the present silver rupee and the same to be unlimited legal tender.

(g) Government to sell Council Bills by competitive tenders for the amount defined in the Budget as required to be remitted to the Secretary of State.

VI. THE TWO SHILLING RUPEE.

The fundamental recommendation of the Committee was that the rupee should be linked to gold and not to sterling, in view of the decline in the value of sterling; that it should be linked at the rate of two shillings instead of the standard value, one and fourpence; all other recommendations were ancillary to this. But it is very important to bear in mind the twofold problem which confronted the Committee. It would be quite easy to fix any low ratio provided the paper currency were made inconvertible, or the rupee debased to such a point that the Government in providing rupee currency, were independent of the price of silver. But if the convertibility of the rupee were to be maintained, and if the rupee were not to be debased, it was essential that the new ratio should be one at which the Government could reasonably rely on purchasing without loss the silver necessary to meet the heavy demands for rupees in India. For reasons set out in the Report, the Committee came to the conclusion that the Government could reckon on purchasing silver for coining at a little under two shillings gold, and that powerfully influenced them in fixing the new ratio at two shillings gold.

The Report Adopted.—The Currency Committee's Report was signed in December 1919; but it was not until February 1920 that action was taken thereon. In the first week of that month a Notification was issued in India accepting the principal recommendations in the Report and notifying that the necessary official action would be taken thereon. This action covered a wide field, but for the sake of clarity in this narrative we shall concentrate on the main issue, the changing of the official monetary standard from fifteen rupees to the sovereign to ten rupees to the sovereign and its effect on Indian currency and trade. That may be summarised in a sentence. A policy which was avowedly adopted to secure fixity of exchange produced the greatest fluctuations in the exchanges of any solvent country and widespread disturbance of trade, heavy losses to Government, and brought hundreds of big traders to the verge of bankruptcy.

Financial Confusion.—This result was produced by many causes. It has been explained above that the essential features of the Indian currency system are the free sales of Council Bills at gold export point in London to prevent exchange from rising above the official standard and the sale of Reverse Councils in India at gold export point to prevent exchange from falling below the official standard. Now when the

Secretary of State. The Budget estimate to show under separate headings the amount of Council Bills drawn for Home Charges, for Capital Outlay and Discharge of Debt. Council Bills to be sold for Government requirements only and not for trade purposes, except for the purpose mentioned in the next succeeding recommendation.

(h) "Reverse" drafts on London to be sold only at 1s. 3-20-32d. The proceeds of "Reverse" drafts to be kept apart from all other Government funds and not to be utilised for any purpose except to meet drafts drawn by the Secretary of State at a rate not below 1s. 4-3-32d. per rupee.

Currency Report was signed the Indian exchanges were practically at two shillings gold. But between the signing of the Report and the taking of official action, there was a sensational fall in the sterling exchanges, as measured in dollars, the dollar-sterling rate, inasmuch as America was the only free gold market, being the dominating factor in the situation. Consequently the Indian exchanges were considerably below the two shillings gold rate when the Notification accepting the Currency Committee's Report was issued. The Indian exchanges were two shillings and fourpence, and weak at that; the gold rate was about two shillings ninepence. There was an immediate and prodigious demand for Reverse Councils, to take advantage of this high rate of exchange; the market rate jumped up to two shillings eightpence.

Effect of the Rise.—The effect of a rise in exchange has been well described in the words of the Currency Committee's Report; it is that a rising exchange stimulates imports and impedes exports, the effect of a falling exchange is the reverse.

Now when the official notification of the two shilling rupee was made the Indian export trade was weak. The great consuming markets of Great Britain and America were glutted with Indian produce. The continent of Europe, which was starved of Indian produce and in urgent need of it, had not the wherewithal to pay for it nor the means of commanding credit. The only Indian staples which were in demand were foodstuffs, and as the rains of 1920 failed over a wide area, the Government were not able to lift the embargo on the export for foodstuffs, save to a limited extent in the case of wheat. On the other hand, the import trade was strong. Orders had been placed for machinery and other manufactured goods during the war and after the Armistice for delivery at the discretion of manufacturers. These began to come forward.

Difficulties Accentuated.—In accordance with the principles laid down by the Currency Committee these difficulties were accentuated by the action of Government in raising exchange by an administrative act. The weak export trade was almost killed. At the same time the temptation of a high exchange gave powerful stimulus to the import trade and orders were placed for immense quantities of manufactured goods, in which textiles filled an important place. Afterwards other forces intervened which accentuated the difficulties of the situation. There was a severe commercial crisis in Japan and this

checked the export of Indian cotton. Japan is the largest buyer of Indian cotton, and when her merchants not only stopped buying but began to re-sell in the Indian markets, the trade was severely shaken and stocks accumulated at a great rate. Even before the 1920 crop came into the market the stocks in Bombay were double those in the corresponding period of the previous year. The expectations of a revival in the buying power of the Continent which were held in many quarters were disappointed and throughout the year there was a heavy balance of trade against India, which made the stabilisation of exchange at the high ratio attempted a hopeless proposition.

Confession of Failure.—Government struggled long against these conditions in the desperate hope that a revival of the export trade would come to their assistance, but they were further handicapped by the variations of the sterling-dollar exchange, which at one time took the rate for Reverse Councils to two shillings tenpence half penny. They sold two millions of Reverse Councils a week, then five millions, then dropped down to a steady million. But their policy only aggravated the situation. In addition to arresting the export trade and stimulating the import trade at a time when the precise converse was demanded, their action created an artificial movement for the transfer of capital from India to England. Large war profits accumulated in India since 1914 were hurriedly liquidated and transferred to England. Then the difference between the Reverse Council rate and the market rate, which on some occasions was several pence, induced gigantic speculations. The Exchange Banks set aside all their available resources for the purpose of bidding for Bills, and at once sold their allotments at substantial profits. Considerable groups of speculators pooled their resources and followed the same course. In this way the weekly biddings for the million of Reverse Councils varied from a hundred and 20 millions to a hundred and thirty millions and the money market was completely disorganised. The biddings assumed such proportions that it was necessary to put up fifty lakhs of rupees to obtain the smallest allotment made, five thousand pounds, and Reverse Councils and the large profits thereon came under the entire control of the Banks and the wealthy speculators. Various expedients were tried to remedy the situation but without the slightest effect.

Sterling for Gold.—The first definite break from the recommendations of the Currency Committee came at the end of June, when the Government announced that instead of trying to stabilise the rupee at two shillings gold they would aim at stabilising it at two shillings sterling, leaving the gap between sterling and gold to be closed when the dollar-sterling rate became par. The effect of this was to alter the rate at which Reverse Councils were sold from the fluctuating rate involved in the fluctuations of dollar-sterling exchange to a fixed sterling rate, namely one shilling elevenpence nineteen thirty seconds. But this had little practical effect. The biddings for Reverse Councils continued on a very big scale, and the market rate for exchange was always twopence or threepence below the Reverse Council rate. This practice continued until the end of September, when it was officially declared

that Reverse Councils would be stopped altogether. Exchange immediately slumped to between one and sixpence and sevenpence, and it continued to range between these narrow points until the end of the year. The market made its own rate; it made a more stable rate than the efforts of Government to attain an administrative stability.

Other Measures.—Apart from the effort to stabilise exchange, which had such unfortunate results, the policy of Government had certain other effects. During the year all restrictions on the movement of the precious metals were removed, in accordance with the recommendations of the Currency Committee. This included the abandonment of the import duty on silver, always a sore point with Indian bullionists. Legislative action was taken to alter the official ratio of the sovereign from fifteen to one to ten to one; due notice of this intention was given to holders of sovereigns and of the gold mohurs which were coined as an emergency measure in 1918, and they were given the option of tendering them at fifteen rupees. As the gold value of these coins was above fifteen rupees only a limited number was tendered, although there was extensive smuggling of sovereigns into India to take advantage of the premium. Then measures were adopted to give greater elasticity to the Note issue. Under the old law the invested proportion of the Note issue was fixed by statute and it could be altered only by altering the law or by Ordinance. An Act was passed fixing the metallic portion of the Paper Currency Reserve at fifty per cent. of the Note issue, the invested portion being limited to Rs. 20 crores in Indian securities and the balance in British securities of not more than twelve months' currency. The invested portion of the Paper Currency Reserve was revalued at the new rate of exchange, and an undertaking was given that the profits on the Note issue would be devoted to writing off the depreciation, as also would be the interest on the Gold Standard Reserve when the total had reached £40 millions. Further, in order to give greater elasticity to the Note issue, power was taken to issue Rs. 5 crores of emergency currency in the busy season against commercial bills. These measures, save the alteration of the ratio, were generally approved by the commercial public.

Results.—It remains to sum up the results of these measures. In a pregnant sentence in their report the Currency Committee say that whilst a fixed rate of exchange exercises little influence on the course of trade, a rising exchange impedes exports and stimulates imports, a falling exchange exercises a reverse influence. Here we have the key to the failure of the currency policy attempted. At the moment when it was sought suddenly and violently to raise the rate of exchange by the introduction of the new ratio of two shillings gold, the export trade was weak and the import trade in obedience to the delivery of long deferred orders was strong. The very principle enunciated by the Currency Committee wrecked the policy which they recommended. The rising rate of exchange scotched the weak export trade and gave a great stimulus to imports. Unexpected forces, such as the financial crisis in Japan, the lack of buying power on the Continent, and the movement for the transfer of capital from India to England at the

artificially high rate of exchange stimulated these forces, but they had their origin in the attempt by administrative action artificially and violently to raise the rate of exchange. If let alone, the natural fall in exchange would have tended to correct the adverse balance of trade; the official policy exaggerated and intensified it. The effects on Indian business were severe. Exporters found themselves loaded with produce for which there was no foreign demand; importers found themselves loaded up with imported goods, bought in the expectation of the continuance of a high rate of exchange, delivered when it had fallen one and fourpence from the highest point reached. Immense losses were incurred by all importers. The Government sold £55 millions of Reverse Councils before abandoning

their effort to stabilise exchange at the new ratio; the loss on these—that is the difference between the cost of putting the funds down in London and in bringing them back to India—was Rs. 35 crores of rupees. Government sold £53 millions of gold, without breaking or seriously affecting the premium on gold. The Secretary of State, in the absence of any demand for Council Bills, was able to finance his expenditure in England only through the lucky chance of heavy expenditure on behalf of the Imperial Government for the forces in Mesopotamia—this expenditure being made in India and set off by payments in London. The only advantages were a considerable contraction of the Note issue and the silver token currency.

VII.—RECENT EXCHANGE AND CURRENCY HISTORY.

These unfortunate experiments induced a period of great caution in dealing with Indian currency. The currency quacks having had their way, and proved their ignorance, went out of the field, and the wholesome policy of leaving Exchange alone, to find its natural level, followed. Left alone Exchange established itself round about the old ratio of fifteen to one, that is one shilling and fourpence to the rupee. Meantime great improvements were made in the organisation of Indian credit. The three Presidency Banks were merged in The Imperial Bank of India, a State Bank in all but name, and the Bank entered into a contract with Government to open a hundred new branches in the first five years of its existence. The Bank has mobilised and strengthened and widened Indian credit. The metallic backing of the Paper Currency has been strengthened and the fiduciary portion of the Reserve brought within negligible proportions. Greater elasticity has been established in the currency by the power to issue emergency currency up to Rs. 12 crores against commercial paper endorsed by the Imperial Bank when there is a tightness of money, and the practice of also issuing emergency currency against sterling in England. The Government of India now purchases sterling in India to meet its Home Charges when the conditions are favourable, instead of relying entirely on the sales of Council Bills in London. A notable feature in Exchange history during the past eighteen months has been the rise of Exchange, of its own strength, above the one and fourpenny figure. Towards the close of 1924 it gradually rose to one shilling and sixpence and stayed there. The prevailing sentiment in India is for fixity of Exchange,

and for a Gold Standard, not the Gold Exchange Standard foisted on it by the India Office. This has revived in consequence of the rise of the rupee towards gold point. There is nowhere an inclination to regard the two shilling rupee as more than a fiction which survives the tragic history of 1919, but there is considerable doubt as to whether we have yet reached the stage when the rupee can be safely fixed in relation to gold. But if we have not reached it, we are moving toward it and we may almost say it is in sight.

Committee to be appointed.—Speaking at the opening of the Legislature in January 1925, the Viceroy said he was authorised to make the following announcement, which explains the conclusions of His Majesty's Government and the Government of India:—

"The Government of India have been in communication with the Secretary of State on the subject of the rupee exchange, and the intention of Government is to appoint an authoritative committee to consider the question as soon as world economic factors appear sufficiently stable to justify the formulation of a new policy. In their judgment there is much to be gained by postponing an enquiry till those factors on which any decision must rest are less full and obscure. But they anticipate that, if the movement towards more stable conditions which has lately manifested itself continues, the appointment of such a committee should be possible not later than 12 months hence."

The character of the Reserves which are the backbone of the Indian currency system are shown below:—

Composition of the Currency Reserve held against the note circulation at the end of each month. (In lakhs of rupees.)

MONTH.	COIN AND BULLION RESERVE.							Internal Bills of Exchange.
	Gross circulation of notes.	Silver coin in India.	Gold coin and bullion in India.	Silver bullion under coinage.	Gold coin and bullion in England.	Silver bullion in England.	Gold coin and bullion in transit between India and His Majesty's Dominions.	
1923.								
April	1,73.37	79.00	24.32	4.56	..	..	..	2.00
May	..	79.00	24.32	4.56	..	..	..	..
June	1,71.23	81.39	24.32	4.56	..	..	..	..
July	1,73.61	85.48	24.32	4.56	..	..	..	..
August	1,75.72	89.91	24.32	4.56	..	..	..	..
September	1,76.30	92.66	24.32	4.83	..	..	..	..
October	1,79.29	93.48	24.32	5.54	..	..	..	..
November	1,80.82	89.88	22.32	5.02	..	..	..	..
December	1,78.30	80.97	22.32	5.64	..	..	..	8.00
1924.								
January	1,83.41	76.40	22.32	5.69	..	..	..	8.00
February	1,84.02	71.64	22.32	5.70	..	..	..	12.00
March	1,86.19	74.18	22.32	5.82	..	..	..	12.00
	1,85.85	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

* For details of securities, see next page.

† Section 20 of the Indian Paper Currency Act, 1923.

• Made up of:—

				Nominal Value.	Cost Price.
				Rs.	Rs. a. p.
Rupee securities—					
3½ per cent. loan of 1842-43	..	..	..	8,15,95,000	8,00,00,000 0 0
3 per cent. loan of 1896-97	..	..	..	2,04,86,500	1,99,99,945 10 0
Indian Treasury Bills				10,20,81,500	9,99,99,945 10 0
				49,65,00,000	47,52,75,000 0 0
				59,85,81,500	57,52,74,945 10 0
Sterling securities—				£ s. d.	£ s. d.
British Treasury Bills	..	..	..	14,110,000 0 0	13,999,480 1 0

Details of the balance of the Gold Standard Reserve on the 31st March 1924.

In England—	£
Estimated value on the 31st March 1924 of the Sterling Securities of the nominal value of £ 39,606,321 (as per details below)	39,999,050
Cash at the Bank of England ..	941
Total ..	40,000,000

Details of investments:—

	Face value
	£
British Treasury Bills	23,605,000
Guaranteed 2½ per cent. Stock	438,720
National War Loan 5 per cent. Stock 1929—47	567,601
Var Loan 3½ per cent. 1925-28 Stock	150,000
Treasury 5½ per cent. Bonds, 1925	3,275,000
National 5 per cent. War Bonds, 1927	1,295,000
National 5 per cent. War Bonds, 1928	750,000
National 5 per cent. War Bonds, 1929	2,745,000
Treasury 5 per cent. 5-15 year Bonds, 1925	1,990,000
Treasury 5 per cent. Bonds, 1927	690,000
Treasury 5½ per cent. Bonds, 1929	3,450,000
Treasury 5½ per cent. Bonds, 1930	150,000
	500,000
Total ..	39,606,321

Agriculture.

As crops depend on the existence of plant food and moisture in the soil so the character of the agriculture of a country depends largely on its soil and climate. It is true that geographical situation, the character of the people and other considerations have their influence which is not inconsiderable, but the limitations imposed by the nature of the soil and above all by the climate tend to the production of a certain class of agriculture under a certain given set of conditions.

The climate of India, while varying to some extent in degree, in most respects is remarkably similar in character throughout the country. The main factors in common are the monsoon, the dry winter and early summer months, and the intense heat from March till October. These have the effect of dividing the year into two agricultural seasons, the *Kharif* or Monsoon and the *Rabi* or Winter Season each bearing its own distinctive crops. From early June till October abundant rains fall over the greater part of the continent while the winter months are generally dry although North-Western India benefits from showers in December and January. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year, which is of considerable importance to agriculture, is none too favourable, but is not quite so bad as is often represented. The rainfall is greatest at what would otherwise be the hottest time of the year, viz., mid-summer and when it is most needed. It should be remembered that in a hot country intermittent showers are practically valueless as evaporation is very rapid. The distribution of rainfall such as is common in England, for example, would be of little use to Indian soils.

Soil.—For the purpose of soil classification India may be conveniently divided into two main areas in (1) The Indo-Gangetic plains, (2) Central and Southern India. The physical features of these two divisions are essentially different. The Indo-Gangetic plains (including the Punjab, Sind, the United Provinces, Bengal, Bihar and Assam) form large level stretches of alluvium of great depth. The top soil varies in texture from sand to clay, the greater part being a light loam, porous in texture, easily worked, and naturally fertile. The great depth of the alluvium tends to keep down the soil temperature. Central and Southern India on the other hand consist of hills and valleys. The higher uplands are too hot and too near the rock to be suitable for agriculture which is mainly practised in the valleys where the soil is deeper and cooler and moisture more plentiful. The main difference between the soils of the two tracts is in texture and while the greater part of the land in Northern India is porous and easily cultivated, and moist near to the surface, large stretches in Southern and Central India consist of an intractable soil derived from the Deccan trap, sticky in the rains, hard and crumbly in the dry weather and holding its moisture at lower levels.

Agricultural Capital and Equipment.—India is a country of small holdings and the vast majority of the people cultivate patches varying in size from one to eight acres. Large holdings are practically unknown, and are mainly confined to the planting industries. Farming is

carried on with a minimum of capital, there being practically no outlay on fencing, buildings, or implements. The accumulation of capital is prevented by the occurrence of famine and the high rate of interest and extravagance of expenditure in marriage celebrations. The organization of co-operative credit which has been taken in hand by Government and which has already proved successful in many provinces will undoubtedly lead to an increase in Agricultural capital.

Equipment.—For power the ryot depends chiefly on cattle which, as a rule, are light and active but possess little hauling power. The necessary till for crops is brought about by frequency of ploughings, the result being that the soil is seldom tilled as it should be. This is not chiefly due to want of knowledge on the part of the people but through want of proper equipment. The Indian agriculturist, as a rule, possesses an intimate though limited knowledge of the essentials of his own business, and fails, not only through ignorance, but also through lack of ways and means.

Implements are made of wood although ploughs are usually tipped with iron points, and there is a great similarity in their shape and general design. The introduction of iron ploughs has made much progress in the last few years and many hundred thousand are now in use. The levelling beam is used throughout the greater part of the country in preference to the harrow and roller; and throughout Northern India the plough and the levelling beam are the only implements possessed by the ordinary cultivator.

In the heavier soils of the Deccan trap a cultivating implement consisting of a single blade, resembling in shape a Dutch hoe, is much used. Seed drills and drill hoes are in use in parts of Bombay and Madras but throughout the greater part of the country the seed is either broadcasted or ploughed in. Hand implements consist of various sizes of hoes, the best known of which are the *kodal* or spade with a blade set at an angle towards the labourer who does not use his feet in digging, and the *khurpi* or small hand hoe. Of harvesting machinery there is none, grain is separated either by treading out with oxen or beating out by hand, and winnowing by the agency of the wind.

Cultivation.—Cultivation at its best is distinctly good but in the greater part of the country it has plenty of room for improvement. As in any other country success in agriculture varies greatly with the character of the people, depending largely as it does on thrift and industry. In most places considering the large population cultivation is none too good. Agriculture suffers through lack of organization and equipment. Owing to the necessity of protection against thieves, in most parts the people live in villages; many of them at considerable distances from their land. Again, holdings, small though they are, have become sub-divided without any regard for convenience. Preparatory tillage generally consists of repeated ploughings, followed as seed time approaches by harrowings with the levelling beam. The *Rabi* crops generally receive a more thorough cultivation than the *Kharif*, a finer seed bed being necessary owing to the dryness of the growing season. Manure is

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE.

The following table shows the area under the principal crops, in British India, and their territorial distribution, for 1922-23. The sown area is always greater than the area of cultivated land, owing to double cropping. The figures represent acres:—

Province.	Rice.	Wheat.	Barley.	Other Food Grains and Pulses.	Total Food Grains and Pulses.	Oilseeds.	Sugar.	Cotton.	Jute.	Total Area sown.	Net sown Area after deducting Area sown more than once.
Madras	11,285,924	30,127	3,331	17,624,497	23,913,879	3,556,948	211,393	2,322,928	..	37,762,471	32,997,115
Bombay	3,038,388	2,028,426	42,369	18,044,061	23,173,244	1,270,886	67,733	3,977,158	..	32,095,387	30,679,434
Bengal	21,773,300	124,800	83,500	1,267,700	23,249,300	1,001,500	201,600	54,500	1,196,500	27,749,600	23,642,100
United Provinces	7,016,142	7,056,676	4,338,427	20,447,473	38,853,718	636,027	1,349,188	645,938	..	44,167,546	35,614,977
Punjab	923,736	9,620,201	1,172,880	12,015,945	23,737,552	1,477,667	493,595	1,273,051	..	31,788,851	26,960,655
Burma	11,287,873	84,632	..	1,574,605	12,947,130	1,241,343	53,064	283,631	..	16,818,049	16,314,635
Bihar and Orissa	15,350,100	1,265,900	1,406,100	9,343,600	27,365,700	2,116,200	305,700	79,900	160,000	31,914,200	25,639,100
Central Provinces and Berar.	5,143,582	3,007,323	17,514	10,795,675	18,954,091	2,040,654	19,278	4,856,871	..	26,648,671	24,236,304
Assam	4,624,064	..	..	183,033	4,807,097	349,364	42,472	40,211	89,927	6,362,998	5,837,793
N. W. Frontier Pro- vince.	23,785	1,122,913	270,195	944,490	2,361,383	149,177	39,242	15,108	..	2,720,243	2,340,325
Minor Areas	85,032	66,571	66,904	400,434	618,911	24,781	9,224	38,524	..	800,799	683,051
Total	80,576,936	24,407,679	7,401,220	92,611,513	205,027,338	13,913,557	2,855,491	13,557,820	1,446,127	533,823,821	254,945,489

Generally applied to the maximum extent available, both to *Kharif* and to *Rabi* crops. Seeding is either done broadcast or by drilling behind a wooden plough or drill. Thinning and spacing are not nearly so well done as they might be, and intercultivation is generally too superficial. Harvesting is done by sickle where the crops are cut whole, and there is little waste involved. On the whole the methods of the ryot if carried out thoroughly would be quite satisfactory, but it is doubtful if this could be done with the number of cattle at his disposal.

Irrigation is necessary in order to grow full crops on the land, over a large part of the country owing to insufficient rainfall and the vagaries of the monsoon. Canal irrigation has been greatly extended over the Punjab, Sind, United Provinces and Madras through Government canals which, in addition to securing the crops over existing cultivated land, have converted large desert tracts into fertile areas. The Punjab and parts of the United Provinces are naturally well suited to canal irrigation owing to the frequency of their rivers. The water is generally taken off at a point a little distance from where the rivers leave the hills and is conducted to the arid plains below. The main canal splits up into diverging branches, which again subdivide up into distributaries from which the village channels receive their supplies. Water rates are levied on the matured areas of crops, Government thus bearing a part of the loss in case of failure. Much of the land is supplied by what is termed flow irrigation, i.e., the land is directly commanded by the canal water, but a great deal has to be lifted from one to three feet the canal running in such cases below the level of the land. Rates for lift irrigation are, of course, lower than those for flow.

Irrigation canals are generally classed into (1) perennial and (2) inundation canals. Perennial canals, which give supplies in all seasons generally have their headworks near the hills, thus commanding a great range of country. Farther from the hills, owing to the very gradual slope of the land and the lowness of the rivers in the cold weather, perennial irrigation is difficult and inundation canals are resorted to. These canals only give irrigation when the rivers are high. As a rule, in Northern India they begin to flow when the rivers rise owing to the melting of the snow on the hills in May and dry up in September.

Irrigation from Wells.—About one-quarter of the total irrigation of the country is got from lifting water from wells ranging in depth from a few feet to over fifty feet. Their numbers have greatly increased in recent years largely through Government advances for their construction. The recurring cost of this form of irrigation has, however, greatly increased owing to the high price of draught cattle and the increasing cost of their maintenance.

Tank irrigation is common in Central and Southern India. Large quantities of rain water are stored in lakes (or tanks) and distributed during the drier seasons of the year. The system of distribution is the same as that by canal.

Manures.—Feeding of animals for slaughter being practically unknown in India, the amount of farm yard manure generally available in other countries from this source

thus does not exist. This is partially if not entirely made up for by the large numbers required for tillage and the amount of cows and buffaloes kept for milk. Unfortunately fuel is very scarce and a greater part of the dung of animals has to be used for burning. Most of the trash from crops is used up for the same purpose and the net return of organic matter to the soil is thus insignificant. In some parts cakes of oil seed are used as manures for valuable crops like tea and sugarcane but in the greater part of the country the only manure applied is the balance of farm yard manure available after fuel supplies have been satisfied. Farm yard manure is particularly effective and its value is thoroughly appreciated but the people have much to learn in the way of storage of bulky manures and the conservation of urine.

Rice.—A reference to the crop statistics shows that rice is the most extensively grown crop in India, although it preponderates in the wetter parts of the country, viz., in Bengal, Bihar and Burma and Madras. The crop requires for its proper maturing a moist climate with well assured rainfall. The cultivated varieties are numerous, differing greatly in quality and in suitability for various conditions of soil and climate, and the people possess an intimate acquaintance with those grown in their own localities. The better qualities are sown in good beds and transplanted in the monsoon. Broadcast rice is grown generally in lowlying areas and is sown before the monsoon as it must make a good start before the floods arrive. Deep water rice grows quickly and to a great height and are generally able to keep pace with the rise in water level.

For transplanted rice the soil is generally prepared after the arrival of the monsoon and is worked in a puddle before the seedlings are transplanted. The land is laid out into small areas with raised partitions to regulate the distribution of the water supply. The seedlings are planted in small bunches containing from 4 to 6 plants each and are simply dibbled into the mud at distances of 6 to 12 inches apart. Where available, irrigation water is given at frequent intervals and the fields are kept more or less under water until the crop begins to show signs of ripening.

Wheat.—Wheat is grown widely throughout Northern India as a winter crop, the United Provinces and the Punjab supplying about two-thirds of the total area, and probably three-quarters of the total output in India. The majority of the varieties grown belong to the Species *Triticum Vulgare*. Indian wheats are generally white, red and amber coloured and are mostly classed as soft from a commercial point of view. The grains are generally plump and well filled but the samples are spoiled through mixtures of various qualities. Indian wheat is generally adulterated to some extent with barley and largely with dirt from the threshing floor and although there is a good demand in England and the Continent for the surplus produce, prices compare unfavourably with those obtained for Canadian and Australian produce. The crop is generally grown after a summer fallow and, except in irrigated tracts, depends largely on the conservation of the soil moisture from the previous monsoon

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.

	1916-17.	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Net Area by professional survey ..	619,239,653	620,334,850	625,166,316	625,149,442	621,226,065	666,700,557	608,278,597
Area under forest ..	85,070,524	86,924,922	87,725,572	88,225,320	88,245,141	86,413,111	85,591,925
Not available for cultivation ..	143,441,598	142,732,768	146,798,628	145,769,909	141,504,618	153,178,439	152,653,901
Cultivable waste other than fallow ..	112,485,364	111,435,761	113,812,543	113,414,708	113,845,090	151,173,040	151,632,175
Fallow land ..	45,493,149	48,465,917	72,068,244	52,134,792	61,846,523	50,553,524	47,389,781
Net area sown with crops ..	229,620,075	227,347,771	201,384,395	222,325,432	212,259,306	223,183,648	224,945,489
Area irrigated ..	48,003,917	45,806,845	47,222,442	43,963,033	43,950,511	47,789,679	47,374,704
Area under Food-grains—							
Rice ..	80,988,124	80,667,619	77,613,377	78,706,103	78,120,270	79,699,870	80,576,926
Wheat ..	25,013,686	26,427,904	19,147,231	23,520,200	20,387,787	22,403,559	24,407,679
Barley ..	7,971,897	8,505,286	6,464,123	7,518,736	6,268,171	7,356,429	7,401,220
Jowar ..	21,891,980	21,117,771	20,537,466	22,488,249	22,690,318	24,214,263	23,834,938
Bajra ..	15,227,957	12,699,297	11,200,972	14,382,435	12,002,023	15,900,829	18,923,669
Ragi ..	4,072,166	4,265,211	4,004,356	4,222,366	4,238,957	4,211,067	4,262,040
Maize ..	6,544,212	6,435,508	6,063,510	6,536,116	6,205,920	6,334,705	5,954,653
Gram ..	15,999,021	16,724,034	7,647,075	12,940,439	9,463,432	15,034,835	16,776,936
Other grains and pulse ..	31,334,025	30,543,056	25,165,555	29,022,910	27,533,165	29,615,231	28,839,277
Total Food-grains ..	208,773,108	207,436,586	177,843,865	199,667,194	186,890,043	204,790,803	205,027,338
Area under other food-crops (including fruits, vegetables, spices, &c.).	8,410,432	8,330,477	8,095,364	8,434,656	7,610,459	8,194,791	8,220,433
Area under—							
Sugar ..	2,614,788	2,992,616	3,015,571	2,913,428	2,705,773	2,322,176	2,855,401
Coffee ..	90,602	95,311	98,222	95,315	95,501	96,611	97,006
Tea ..	603,510	618,922	638,034	701,443	660,751	713,379	710,244

The Chief Crops.

Rains in January and February are generally beneficial but an excess of rainfall in these months usually produces rust with a diminution of the yield. On irrigated land 2 to 4 waterings are generally given. The crop is generally harvested in March and April and the threshing and winnowing go on up till the end of May. In good years the surplus crop is bought up at once by exporters and no time is lost in putting it on the European market as other supplies are at that time of year scarce. In years of famine the local price is generally sufficiently high to restrict exports.

The Millets.—These constitute one of the most important group of crops in the country, supplying food for the poorer classes and fodder for the cattle. The varieties vary greatly in quality, height and suitability to various climatic and soil conditions. Perhaps the two best known varieties are Jowar (*Sorghum vulgare*) tall growing with a large open head, and Bajra with a close rat-tail head and thin stem. Generally speaking the Jowars require better land than the Bajras and the distribution of the two crops follows the quality of the soil. Neither for Jowar nor Bajra is manure usually applied and cultivation is not so thorough as for wheat, the main objective being to produce a fine seed bed. The crop is generally sown in the beginning of the monsoon and so it requires to be thoroughly weeded. In the case of Jowar, however, very large areas are sown as a *rabi* crop. It is often grown mixed with the summer pulses and other crops in which case thin seedlings are resorted to. The subsidiary crops are harvested as they ripen either before the millet is harvested or afterwards. The produce is consumed in the country.

Pulses are commonly grown throughout India and the grain forms one of the chief foods of the people. Most kinds do well but are subject to failure or shortage of yield owing to a variety of circumstances among which rain at the time of flowering appears to be one of the most important. They are therefore more suitable to grow as mixed crops especially with cereals, and are generally grown as such. Being deep rooted and practically independent of a Nitrogen supply in the soil they withstand drought and form a good alternation in a cereal rotation. The chief crops under this heading are gram, mash, mung and moth, gram forming the main winter pulse crop while the others are grown in the summer. The pulses grow best on land which has had a good deep cultivation. A fine seed bed is not necessary. For gram especially the soil should be loose and well aerated. Indian pulses are not largely exported although they are used to some extent in Europe as food for dairy cows.

Cotton is one of the chief exports from India and the crops is widely grown in the drier parts of the country. The lint from Indian cotton is generally speaking short and coarse in fibre and unsuited for English mills. Japan and the Continent have, in the past, been the chief buyers. The crop is grown during the summer months and requires a deep moist soil and light rainfall for its proper growth. Rain immediately after sowing or during the flowering period is injurious. In parts of Central Western and Southern India the seed is sown in lines

Northern India it is sown broadcast (often mixed with other crops) and from the date of sowing till the time of picking is practically left to itself. The average yield, which does not amount to more than 400 lbs. per acre of seed cotton, could doubtless be greatly increased by better cultivation.

Sugarcane.—Although India is not naturally as well suited for sugarcane growing as many other tropical countries, some 3½ millions of acres are annually sown. The crop is mostly grown in the submontane tracts of Northern India. The common varieties are thin and hard, yielding a low percentage of juice of fair quality, but cane of the highest quality and yield is grown in South India. In India white sugar is not made by the grower who simply boils down the juice and does not remove the molasses. The product called gur or gul is generally sold and consumed as such, although in some parts a certain amount of sugar-making is carried on. The profits, however, are small owing to the cheapness of imported sugar and there appears to be some danger to the crop if the present taste for gur were to die out. The question has been taken up by Government and a cane-breeding station has been recently opened near Coimbatore in Madras with the object of raising seedling canes and otherwise improving the supply of cane sets. A number of sugar factories of a modern type have been set up within recent years in Bihar and the United Provinces and more recently in Bombay. The chief difficulty seems to be the obtaining of a sufficiently large supply of canes to offset the heavy capital charges of the undertakings.

Oilseeds.—The crops classified under this heading are chiefly sesamum, linseed and the cruciferous oilseeds (rape, mustard, etc.). Although oilseeds are subject to great fluctuation in price and the crops themselves are more or less precarious by nature—they cover an immense area.

Linseed requires a deep and moist soil and is thus grown chiefly in Bengal, Bihar, the United Provinces and the Central Provinces. The crop is grown for seed and not for fibre and the common varieties are of a much shorter habit of growth than those of Europe. The yield varies greatly from practically nothing up to 500 or 600 lbs. of seed per acre. The seed is mainly exported whole but a certain amount of oil pressing is done in the country.

Sesamum (or Gingelly) is grown mostly in Peninsular India as an autumn or winter crop. The seed is largely exported.

The Cruciferous Oilseeds form an important group of crops in Northern India where they grow freely and attain a fair state of development. They are one of the most useful crops in the rotation. They occupy the land for a few months only, and owing to their dense growth leave the soil clean and in good condition after their removal. A number of varieties are grown differing from each other in habit of growth, time of ripening, and size and quality of seed. The best known are rape, toria, and sarson. The crop is generally sown in September or early October and harvested from December to February. The crop is subject to the attack of aphid (green fly) at the time of flowering and sometimes suffers considerable damage from this pest. The seed

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF BRITISH INDIA.

	1916-17.	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Area under Oilseeds—							
Linseed	2,588,074	2,781,280	1,447,618	2,245,305	1,496,159	2,053,838	2,372,619
Sesamum (tili) ..	4,014,078	3,374,432	3,234,616	3,470,864	3,591,019	3,707,067	3,155,442
Rape and Mustard ..	4,010,944	4,358,909	3,058,688	3,679,789	2,979,484	4,292,892	3,809,186
Other Oilseeds ..	4,052,492	3,562,756	2,731,753	3,155,546	4,302,850	4,202,854	4,576,250
Total Oilseeds ..	14,635,588	14,109,377	10,472,675	12,571,304	12,370,392	14,196,571	13,913,557
Area under—							
Cotton	13,836,607	15,403,088	14,440,560	15,318,089	14,114,976	11,665,395	13,587,820
Jute	2,671,302	2,700,324	2,475,634	2,730,037	2,472,638	1,403,567	1,440,427
Other fibres ..	880,523	787,676	576,331	749,140	728,616	983,551	657,645
Indigo	764,823	700,767	268,588	249,819	211,811	328,829	277,132
Opium	216,899	221,200	208,733	181,787	123,832	122,683	187,191
Tobacco	1,041,303	1,014,862	1,047,215	1,101,231	932,492	1,050,685	1,082,687
Fodder crops ..	8,173,058	3,163,925	7,227,546	8,206,236	8,108,016	8,608,219	8,711,632
Estimated yield* of—							
Rice (Cleaned) ..	35,054,000	35,999,000	24,312,000	32,024,000	27,656,000	33,143,000	38,702,000
Wheat	10,236,000	9,922,000	7,507,000	10,122,000	6,706,000	9,800,000	9,974,000
Coffee	..	..	..	27,325,000	22,454,000	20,423,000	23,350,000
Tea †	370,313,500	371,205,300	380,455,000	377,053,000	345,338,600	274,263,800	311,639,000
Cotton	4,492,000	4,055,000	3,977,000	3,700,000	3,600,000	4,435,000	5,073,000
Jute †	8,309,300	8,867,200	6,955,700	8,481,300	5,915,000	3,985,000	5,408,000
Linseed	526,000	515,000	285,000	419,000	270,000	436,000	533,000
Rape and Mustard ..	1,193,200	1,155,200	788,800	1,153,000	839,000	1,165,000	1,209,000
Sesamum (tili) ..	513,000	382,000	274,000	582,000	382,000	518,000	481,000
Groundnut	1,196,000	1,036,000	698,000	892,000	1,022,000	959,000	1,286,000
Indigo	95,700	127,000	48,600	43,300	48,700	67,300	52,100
Cane-sugar	2,762,000	3,434,000	2,466,000	3,039,000	2,522,000	2,614,000	3,046,000
Rubber †	..	..	..	13,615,000	13,789,000	9,056,000	11,913,000

* The acreage of crops given in this table is for British India only, but the estimated yield includes the crops in certain of the Indian States.
† The statistics of the production of tea, jute and rubber are for calendar years.
‡ Return of production discontinued up to 1918-19.

is very subject to injury from rain and great care has to be taken in the drying. The produce is largely exported whole, but there is a considerable amount of local oil-pressing—the cake being in demand for feeding purposes.

Jute.—Two varieties of the plant are cultivated as a crop, *Capularis* and *Qlitorius*. Jute growing is confined almost entirely to Eastern Bengal, in the Ganges-Brahmaputra Delta. The crop requires a rich moist soil. Owing to river inundation this part of India receives a considerable alluvial deposit every year and the land is thus able to sustain this exhausting crop without manure. The crop is rather delicate when young, but once established requires no attention, and grows to a great height (10 to 11 feet). Before ripening the crop is cut and retted in water. After about three weeks submersion the fibre is removed by washing and beating. At the recent high range of prices jute may be considered to have been, for the last few years, the best paying crop in India.

Tobacco is grown here and there all over the country chiefly, however, in Bengal, Bihar, Bombay, Madras and Burma. Of two varieties cultivated *Nicotiana Tabacum* is by far the most common. Maximum crops are obtained on deep and moist alluvium soils and a high standard of cultivation including liberal manuring is necessary. The crop is only suited to small holdings where labour is plentiful as the attention necessary for its proper cultivation is very great. The seed is germinated in seed beds and the young plants are transplanted when a few inches high, great care being taken to shield them from the sun. The crop is very carefully weeded and hoed. It is topped after attaining a height of, say, 2 ft., and all suckers are removed. The crop ripens from February onwards and is cut just before the leaves become brittle. By varying the degree of fermentation of the leaves different qualities

of tobacco are obtained. A black tobacco is required for *Hooka* smoking and this is the most common product but a certain amount of yellow leaf is grown for cigar making.

Live-stock consist mainly of cattle, buffaloes and goats, horses not being used for agricultural purposes. Sheep are of secondary importance.

For draught purposes cattle are in more general use than buffaloes especially in the drier parts of the country, but buffaloes are very largely used in the low lying rice tracts. For dairying buffaloes are perhaps more profitable than cows as they give richer milk and more of it: but they require more feeding. The poorer people depend largely on the milk of goats of which there are an enormous number throughout India. Cattle breeding is carried on mainly in the non-cultivated tracts in Central and Southern India, Southern Punjab and Rajputana, where distinct breeds with definite characters have been preserved. The best known draught breeds are Hansi, Nellore, Amritmahal, Gujrat, Malvi, and the finest milk cows are the Saniwal (Punjab) Gir (Kathiawar) and Sind. Owing, however, to the encroachment of cultivation on the grazing areas well-bred cattle are becoming scarce and some of the breeds are threatened with extinction. Efforts to improve the quality of the cattle in the non-breeding districts by the use of selected bulls have hitherto been frustrated by the promiscuous breeding which goes on in the villages.

Dairying.—Though little noticed, dairying forms a very large indigenous industry throughout India. The best known products are native butter (ghee) and cheese (dahi). During recent years a considerable trade in tinned butter has sprung up in Gujrat (Bombay Presidency). While pure ghee and milk can be procured in the villages, in the towns dairy products can scarcely be bought unadulterated.

AGRICULTURAL PROGRESS.

The Agricultural Departments in India as they now exist may be said to be a creation of the last twenty years. There have for a good many years past been experimental farms, under official control, in various parts of India, but they were in the past to a large extent in the hands of amateurs, and the work of the Agricultural Departments, with which all the major provinces were provided by about 1884, was in the main confined to the simplification of revenue settlement procedure and the improvement of the land records system. In 1901 the appointment of an Inspector-General of Agriculture gave the Imperial Agricultural Department for the first time an expert head, and placed the Government of India in a position to enlarge the scope of their own operations and to co-ordinate the work being done on independent lines in various provinces. At that time the staff attached to the Government of India consisted of an Agricultural Chemist and a Cryptogamic Botanist, while trained Deputy Directors of Agriculture were employed only in Madras, Bombay and the United Province and the Economic Botanist in Madras was the only provincial representative of the more specialised type of appointments. Within the next few years a number of new appointments

were made, so that by March 1905 there were altogether 20 sanctioned agricultural posts; of these seven were Imperial, including a number of specialist appointments attached to the Agricultural Research Institute and College, the establishment of which at Pusa in Bengal was sanctioned in 1903. A great impetus was given to the development of the Agricultural Departments by the decision of the Government of India in 1905 to set apart a sum of 20 lakhs (£133,000) a year for the development of agricultural experiment, research, demonstration and instruction. Their ultimate aim, as then expressed, was the establishment of an experimental farm in each large tract of country in which the agricultural conditions are approximately homogeneous, to be supplemented by numerous small demonstration farms; the creation of an agricultural college teaching up to a three years' course in each of the larger provinces; and the provision of an expert staff in connection with these colleges for purposes of research as well as education. The eventual cost, it was recognised, would largely exceed 20 lakhs a year. The Pusa Research Institute and College alone has cost nearly £150,000 including equipment. A part of the cost was met from a sum of £30,000 placed at Lord Curzon's dis-

AREA, CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED, in 1922-23: IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces.	Area according to Survey.	Deduct Indian States.	NET AREA.	
			According to Survey.	According to Village Papers.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Bengal.. ..	53,824,158	3,470,638	50,347,520	50,347,520
Madras	97,890,033	6,816,368	91,044,265	89,805,947
Bombay	119,753,325	40,891,260	78,862,125	78,862,125
United Provinces.	72,648,741	4,318,232	68,300,509	68,101,451
Bihar and Orissa ..	71,444,560	18,334,720	53,111,840	53,111,840
Punjab	65,174,908	3,215,022	62,259,886	60,293,304
Burma.. ..	155,652,667		155,652,667	155,652,667
Central Provinces and Berar.	83,926,901	19,960,727	63,966,174	64,192,841
Assam	41,229,440	8,061,440	23,168,000	33,168,000
North-West Frontier Province.	8,521,252	140,800	8,353,452	8,515,417
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana.	1,802,267		1,802,267	1,802,267
Coorg	1,012,260		1,012,260	1,012,260
Delhi	367,032		367,032	367,032
TOTAL ..	773,553,744	105,275,147	668,278,597	665,233,271

Provinces.	CULTIVATED.		UNCULTIVATED.		Forests.
	Net Area actually Sown.	Current Fallows.	Culturable Waste other than Fallow.	Not available for Cultivation.	
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Bengal.. ..	23,642,100	4,669,962	6,168,618	11,581,977	4,286,833
Madras.. ..	32,997,115	10,211,233	12,170,371	21,321,860	13,105,368
Bombay	30,679,434	12,069,262	7,071,034	19,753,788	9,288,607
United Provinces ..	35,614,977	2,810,480	10,374,447	9,971,754	9,329,793
Bihar and Orissa ..	25,639,100	5,078,999	6,896,381	8,394,768	7,102,589
Punjab	26,960,655	2,725,366	15,888,731	12,528,090	2,190,462
Burma	16,314,635	3,784,549	61,332,720	54,823,034	19,397,729
Central Provinces and Berar.	22,236,901	3,457,500	15,090,507	4,869,879	16,538,951
Assam	6,837,793	1,723,296	16,574,263	5,510,500	3,522,148
North-West Frontier Province.	2,340,325	473,271	2,709,196	2,641,487	360,138
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana.	318,538	208,037	311,323	851,912	112,422
Coorg	139,616	169,724	11,690	334,045	357,185
Delhi	224,897	8,102	63,856	70,777	
TOTAL ..	224,945,489	47,389,781	154,652,175	152,553,901	85,591,925

posal by Mr. Phipps, an American visitor to India. This example of munificence has recently been followed by Sir Sassoon J. David, who placed the sum of £53,300 at the disposal of the Government of Bombay for the establishment of vernacular agricultural schools and the improvement of agricultural methods, in commemoration of the visit of Their Imperial Majesties to India. The headquarters of the Imperial Department of Agriculture at Pusa are maintained at a cost of slightly over £65,000 and the total expenditure of all Provincial Departments is £594,000, or about one half penny per acre per annum.

Recent Progress.—A survey of the results of the activities of the Agricultural Department in relation to the chief crops of India shows valuable results. First in importance of all grain crops in India is Rice and the demand for improved seed now far outruns the supply. One of the departmental grains which has been planted in the Madras Presidency produced 37,717 lbs. per acre representing a net profit to the cultivator of nearly £23 sterling per acre for the crop. The improved varieties of wheat produced at Pusa have now been extended to all the wheat-growing provinces. Each acre cultivated under Pusa wheat gives the grower an increased return of £1 sterling. One of the main features of the sugar work of the Agricultural Department has been the promising results attending the cane produced in Coimbatore in the Madras Presidency. One variety of improved cane in the Central Provinces has given over a period of eight years an average outturn of 2,488 lbs. of rough sugar per acre more than the variety it displaced. The improvement of the Cotton crop is dealt with in detail in the report of the Cotton Committee (q. v.) and in the operations of the Indian Central Cotton Committee set up in accordance with its recommendations. The demand for seed for the new and improved varieties of jute recommended by the Department is greater than ever and cannot be satisfied. In the case of Tobacco the demand for Pusa type 28 which combines both yield and quality and is suitable both for cigarette-making and general cultivation has increased more than fourfold.

Experiment has shown that the fruit-growing industry has a great field before it. But the possibility of establishing a system of co-operative marketing has yet to be tested. The study of pests, animal and vegetable is making progress. Experiments seem to show that a rat consumes 6 lbs. of grain a year and as the total rat population is 8 hundred millions the loss caused to the population by this animal per year is about 15 millions sterling.

Amongst the most important measures is the improvement of the cattle population. At Pusa cattle breeding is directed mainly along two lines, the breeding of ordinary country milch-cattle and the experiment of breeding by crossing varieties of high milk-yielding pedigrees. The progress is slow largely on account of the magnitude of the task. In regard to implements, the scope of tractor cultivation appears to be limited since irrigated lands are not suitable for tractor cultivation and the fields are too small for the purpose. The co-operative credit societies are now greatly facilitating the distribution of the results of the experimental work done by the Agricultural Department.

Work of the Departments.

The work of the Agricultural Department has two main aspects. On the one hand, by experiment and research, improved methods or crops are developed, or the means of combating a pest are worked out; on the other hand, ascertained improvements must be demonstrated and introduced as far as possible into the practice of the Indian cultivator. There is an essential difference between agricultural departments in the East and in the West in that, whereas the latter have arisen to meet the spontaneous demands of the cultivators of the soil, the former are entirely the creation of a government anxious to give all the assistance it can to its agricultural subjects. The demand for improved agriculture has not in India, except in special cases, come from the cultivator, and it is necessary for the Department to put forth every effort, first to ascertain the needs of the cultivators and then to demonstrate how they can most effectively be met. It is only a few years since work on modern lines was commenced by the reorganised agricultural departments, and, in the first place, a great deal of spade work had to be performed. An important advance in the direction of bringing the provincial agricultural departments more closely into touch with one another was made in 1905 by the creation of the Board of Agriculture. The Board, which includes the Imperial and provincial experts, meets biennially to discuss the programme of agricultural work, and agricultural questions generally, and makes recommendations which are submitted to the Government of India for consideration.

Machinery.

The rapid extension in India in recent years of the use of machinery in connection with agriculture and irrigation has created a demand for expert assistance to meet which Agricultural Engineers have been appointed in Bombay and several other Provinces to advise cultivators as to engines, pumps, threshing machinery, etc. Experiments have at various times and in various parts of India been made with steam ploughing machinery and since the war trials have been made with the petroleum driven tractors that were specially developed in England during the war. But while there is everywhere immense scope for the employment of the most modern machinery, progress is greatly hampered by the laissez faire attitude of the manufacturers of it. The reports of the Agricultural Departments constantly bear witness of this. Makers have generally no direct representatives in India, being content with representation by agents in the large towns. There are no stocks of machinery in the country, spare parts are difficult to get and exorbitant prices are often charged for them.

Information and assistance in regard to the choice of implements suitable for various conditions has, under present circumstances, to be interpreted and brought home to Indian cultivators largely by the agricultural departments which have therefore to do a good deal of this work. Up to the present, the departments perform to a certain extent the functions of dealers in implements, but it is becoming difficult to control the work as the area covered by the introduction is gradually becoming large.

AREA UNDER IRRIGATION IN 1922-23: IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces.	Total Area Sown. ¹	AREA IRRIGATED.				
		By Canals.		By Tanks.	By Wells.	Other Sources.
		Government.	Private.			
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Bombay	37,762,471	3,537,128	234,984	3,564,443	1,776,674	306,010
Bombay	32,095,387	3,204,767	57,231	96,381	567,806	158,860
Bengal.. ..	27,749,600	187,865	113,707	755,104	11,335	702,459
United Provinces ..	(a) 44,167,546	2,260,272	38,236	64,791	4,888,920	2,631,595
Punjab	31,788,857	9,621,739	543,187	14,330	3,215,987	115,707
Burma	16,818,049	588,801	275,502	203,114	15,603	292,820
Bihar and Orissa ..	31,914,200	906,592	878,629	1,702,982	639,220	1,172,446
Central Provinces & Berar	26,648,671	336,896	2,347	571,933	106,307	41,373
Assam	6,362,998	120	180,663	650	..	100,967
North-West Frontier Province	2,720,243	381,176	462,873	..	131,692	47,104
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana ..	346,929	..	..	17,110	70,472	..
Coorg	141,532	2,565	..	1,447	..	..
Delhi	312,338	28,263	..	659	14,830	..
Total	268,828,821	21,056,175	2,727,369	6,992,944	11,438,866	5,659,850

(a) Includes 343, 266 acres in the Agra province for which details are not available

Provinces.	AREA IRRIGATED.	CROPS IRRIGATED. *				
		Rice.	Wheat.	Barley.	Jowar or cholam (great millet).	Bajra or cumbu (spiked millet).
	Total Area Irrigated.					
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	9,599,239	7,996,639	5,668	14	622,638	309,920
Bombay	4,085,054	1,322,643	556,567	26,872	643,342	588,599
Bengal	1,770,490	1,768,395	30,920	2,040	100	100
United Provinces ..	9,883,814	311,446	3,464,224	1,975,487	24,348	2,711
Punjab	13,510,951	735,855	5,049,410	327,526	207,402	387,213
Burma	1,375,810	1,338,069	1,343	..	..	..
Bihar and Orissa ..	5,299,869	3,616,306	298,892	117,937	11,900	806
Central Provinces and Berar	1,058,856	921,753	39,660	2,855	95	2
Assam	282,400	272,453	20	..	..	..
North-West Frontier Province	962,845	23,552	378,894	91,410	18,331	7,840
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana ..	87,582	72	9,140	30,368	929	305
Coorg	4,012	4,012	..	..	..	..
Delhi	43,752	36	18,755	3,052	154	48
TOTAL	47,874,704	18,311,231	9,853,483	2,577,561	1,529,244	1,297,544

* Includes the area irrigated at both harvests.

Provinces.	CROPS IRRIGATED.*						
	Maize.	Other cereals and pulses.	Sugar cane.	Other Food crops.	Cotton.	Other Non-food crops.	Total.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	4,197	1,390,389	123,505	291,686	170,882	483,680	11,407,218
Bombay	32,819	309,931	63,405	192,977	273,140	373,951	4,384,336
Bengal.. ..	4,818	97,505	61,641	159,865	700	115,100	2,241,184
United Provinces ..	89,017	2,554,527	997,324	273,213	193,323	338,545	10,310,360
Punjab	513,317	1,439,350	436,342	228,467	1,152,806	3,322,541	13,800,229
Burma	..	3,708	2,311	52,627	..	13,184	1,411,242
Bihar and Orissa ..	108,627	732,421	155,086	142,538	2,580	112,776	5,299,869
Central Provinces and Berar	80	2,763	18,005	68,390	334	6,283	1,060,220
Assam	..	1,825	..	6,824	..	1,208	282,400
North-West Frontier Province	244,557	30,818	39,184	29,179	11,018	91,686	966,459
Ajmer-Merwara and Manpur Pargana ..	21,704	4,135	232	6,261	18,240	875	92,267
Coorg	..	..	..	..	..	..	4,012
Delhi	268	1,298	7,787	4,370	561	7,463	43,752
TOTAL ..	1,019,494	6,563,970	1,904,862	1,459,467	1,823,590	4,922,292	51,303,548

* Includes the area irrigated at both harvests.

† Includes 35,900 acres for which details are not available.

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1922-23 IN EACH PROVINCE.					
Provinces.	FOOD GRAINS.				
	Rice.	Wheat.	Barley.	Jowar or Cholam (Great Millet).	Bajra or Cumbu (Spiked Millet).
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	11,285,924	30,127	3,331	5,255,463	3,077,568
Bombay	3,958,388	2,028,426	42,369	8,720,166	4,943,720
Bengal	21,773,300	124,800	83,500	4,400	2,700
United Provinces	7,016,142	7,056,676	4,338,427	2,270,313	2,346,585
Punjab	928,736	9,620,291	1,172,880	951,439	3,118,881
Burma	11,287,873	81,652	..	893,194	..
Bihar and Orissa	15,350,100	1,265,900	1,406,100	74,500	53,900
Central Provinces and Berar	5,143,582	3,007,323	17,514	4,526,507	146,071
Assam	4,624,964	..	..	..	..
North-West Frontier Province	23,785	1,122,913	270,195	60,345	142,548
Ajmer-Merwara and Manpur Pargana ..	386	17,263	48,677	53,001	28,691
Coorg	84,602	..	..	..	..
Delhi	44	49,308	18,227	25,610	68,005
TOTAL ..	80,576,926	24,407,619	7,401,220	22,824,638	13,923,669

Provinces.	FOOD GRAINS.				
	Ragi or Marua (Millet)	Maize.	Gram (pulses).	Other Food Grains and Pulses.	Total.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	2,582,618	127,147	126,804	6,454,897	28,943,879
Bombay	635,269	212,104	787,986	2,744,816	23,173,244
Bengal	5,600	78,400	140,600	1,006,000	23,249,300
United Provinces	168,642	1,876,019	7,121,417	6,665,097	38,858,718
Punjab	27,867	1,123,167	5,427,576	1,367,015	23,737,852
Burma	..	216,452	267,058	257,901	12,947,130
Bihar and Orissa	820,500	1,629,400	1,541,500	5,213,800	27,365,700
Central Provinces and Berar	18,085	160,014	1,103,725	4,841,273	18,964,094
Assam	..	..	..	183,033	4,807,097
North-West Frontier Province	..	449,908	220,678	71,011	2,361,383
Ajmer-Merwara and Manpur Pargana ..	78	69,812	14,526	40,341	272,775
Coorg	3,896	..	241	1,090	89,829
Delhi	85	2,230	84,825	13,003	256,337
TOTAL ..	4,262,040	5,954,653	16,776,936	28,989,277	205,027,338

* Included under "Other Food Grains and Pulses."

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1922-23 IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces.	OIL-SEEDS.							Total.
	Linseed.	Sesamum (til or jinjili).	Rape and Mustard.	Ground- nut.	Cocoa- nut.	Castor.	Other Oil- Seeds.	
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	6,505	732,631	40,992	1,754,334	543,263	327,131	152,092	3,556,984
Bombay	148,073	224,183	286,108	329,679	50,676	63,343	188,824	1,270,886
Bengal	126,700	156,100	752,700	500	600	..	24,900	11,061,500
United Provinces ..	281,711	197,960	121,294	6,729	..	3,567	14,766	626,027
Punjab	31,859	156,325	1,286,029	..	..	162	3,292	1,477,667
Burma	479	885,443	2,504	332,477	12,611	..	7,829	1,241,343
Bihar and Orissa ..	745,800	187,700	517,700	200	28,500	37,200	299,100	2,116,200
Central Provinces and Berar	1,010,496	576,861	55,388	18,024	..	45,081	325,814	2,040,664
Assam	11,438	17,774	315,002	..	..	5,100	..	349,364
North-West Frontier Province.	64	3,575	144,533	..	..	2	13	148,177
Ajmer-Merwara and Manpur Pargana ..	484	16,429	677	..	..	..	328	17,918
Coorg	..	410	12	..	..	..	15	437
Delhi	..	51	6,247	..	..	..	128	6,426
TOTAL	2,372,649	3,155,442	3,809,186	2,441,943	635,650	431,586	1,017,101	13,913,557

Provinces.	Condi- ments & Spices.	Sugar Cane.	Sugar Others. †	FIBRES.			
				Cotton.	Jute.	Other fibres.	Total.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	744,703	131,095	80,300	2,322,928	..	162,203	2,485,131
Bombay	198,934	63,893	3,837	3,977,158	..	107,813	4,084,977
Bengal	174,800	200,800	61,000	54,500	1,198,500	77,800	1,328,800
United Provinces ..	113,737	1,349,881	..	645,938	..	124,610	770,548
Punjab	29,958	436,595	..	1,273,051	..	48,911	1,321,962
Burma	112,718	31,542	21,522	283,631	..	1,963	285,594
Bihar and Orissa ..	64,000	805,500	200	79,900	160,000	33,200	273,100
Central Provinces and Berar	84,473	19,278	..	4,856,871	..	99,226	4,956,097
Assam	..	42,472	..	40,211	89,927	..	130,138
North-West Frontier Province.	1,478	39,242	..	15,108	..	595	15,703
Ajmer-Merwara and Manpur Pargana ..	3,489	237	..	36,436	..	207	36,643
Coorg	3,770	30	..	4	..	348	348
Delhi	1,116	8,948	..	2,084	..	767	2,851
TOTAL	1,533,779	2,688,632	166,859	13,587,820	1,446,427	657,645	15,691,892

† Area under sugar-yielding plants other than sugarcane.

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1922-23 IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces.	Dyes and Tanning materials.		Drugs and Narcotics.					Fodder Crops.
	Indigo.	Others.	Opium.	Tea.	Coffee.	Tobacco.	(c) Other Drugs and Narcotics.	
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	141,316	4,990	..	46,039	55,979	213,689	131,979	347,573
Bombay	2,790	578,812	..	21	48	102,433	28,504	1,989,096
Bengal	7,300	..	..	176,900	..	298,600	4,700	103,000
United Provinces ..	39,073	765	145,199	6,276	..	89,427	3,468	1,218,289
Punjab	50,492	4,418	1,992	9,801	..	55,520	1,613	4,230,591
Burma	709	..	..	53,433	75	111,339	67,265	228,461
Bihar and Orissa ..	35,400	7,100	..	2,100	..	119,300	..	48,500
Central Provinces & Berar	13	166	..	..	..	23,964	2,557	439,555
Assam	..	..	..	412,509	..	8,756	..	..
North-West Frontier Province.	20	..	..	..	..	8,532	..	72,488
Ajmer-Merwara and Manpur Pargana ..	16	..	..	..	..	58	..	4,624
Coorg	..	..	..	1,075	40,904	13	237	..
Delhi	3	..	..	..	..	1,056	..	29,465
TOTAL	277,132	596,251	147,191	710,244	97,006	1,032,687	210,323	9,711,642

Provinces.	Fruits and Vegetab- les, including Root Crops.	Miscellaneous Crops.		Total Area Sown.	Deduct Area Sown more than once.	Net Area Sown.
		Food.	Non- Food.			
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Madras	678,892	48,403	153,552	37,762,471	4,765,856	32,997,115
Bombay	554,308	3,456	40,145	32,095,387	1,415,953	30,679,434
Bengal	660,800	302,000	120,300	27,749,600	4,107,500	23,642,100
United Provinces ..	469,229	127,311	7,025	44,167,546	8,552,569	35,614,977
Punjab	296,781	69,488	4,127	31,788,857	4,828,202	26,960,65
Burma	1,496,517	23,814	194,557	16,818,049	503,414	16,314,635
Bihar and Orissa ..	724,900	549,100	302,500	31,914,200	6,275,100	25,639,100
Central Provinces & Berar ..	114,346	2,742	722	26,648,671	2,412,367	24,236,304
Assam	476,546	(a)	136,026	6,362,998	525,205	5,837,793
North-West Frontier Pro- vince.	38,224	33,765	1,231	2,720,243	379,918	2,340,325
Ajmer-Merwara and Manpur Pargana ..	1,024	6,522	3,623	346,929	28,391	318,538
Coorg	4,880	..	..	141,532	1,916	139,616
Delhi	5,232	344	560	312,338	87,441	224,897
TOTAL	5,510,679	1,166,975	964,368	258,828,821	33,883,332	224,945,489

(a) Included under non-food crops.

(b) Includes 343,256 acres in Naini-Tal and Almora for which details are not available.

(c) Include figures for Cinchona and Indian hemp.

The following is a summary of the various crop forecasts relating to the season 1923-24 issued by the Commercial Intelligence Department, India :—

Crop and Forecast.	Tracts comprised in the figures and percentage of total Indian crop represented by them.	Estimated Area.	Per cent. of preceding year (100=figure of same date preceding year.	Estimated outturn.	Per cent. of preceding year (100=figure of same date preceding year.
		Acres.		Acres.	
Jute* ..	Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam (100 per cent. of the total Jute area in India.)	2,733,000	98	8,045,000	95
Sugarcane ..	U. P., † Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, Madras, Bombay and Sind, † Assam, N.-W. F. Province, C. P. and Berar, Delhi, Mysore and Baroda (99 per cent. of total sugarcane area of British India.)	2,916,000 (a)	106	3,265,000 tons (a)	107
Cotton ..	All cotton growing tracts ..	23,088,000	106	5,075,000 bales.	100
Sesamum ..	Burma, U. Provinces, Madras, C. P. and Berar, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay and Sind†, Punjab, Ajmer-Merwara, Hyderabad, Kotah (Rajputana) and Baroda (99.6 per cent. of total sesamum area of British India.)	5,918,000	100	431,000 tons.	90
Indigo ..	Madras, United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Punjab, Bombay, and Sind† and Bengal, (containing practically the whole area under indigo in British India.)	185,400	65	36,100 cwts.	60
Rice ..	Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Madras, Burma, United Provinces, † C. P. and Berar, † Assam, Bombay, and Sind†, Coorg, Mysore, Hyderabad, and Baroda (99 per cent. of total rice area of British India.)	78,227,000	95	28,298,000 tons.	84
Groundnut ..	Madras, Burma and Bombay † (99 per cent. of total Groundnut area of British India)	2,731,000	104	1,078,000 tons.	87
Linseed ..	Central Provinces and Berar, † United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, Bombay, † Punjab, Kotah (Rajputana) and Hyderabad (90.1 per cent. of the total linseed area of British India.)	3,730,000	110	462,000 tons.	87
Rape and Mustard.	United Provinces, Bengal, Punjab, Bihar, and Orissa, Assam, Bombay† North-West Frontier Province, Delhi, Baroda, Alwar (Rajputana) and Hyderabad (98.7 per cent. of the total area under Rape and Mustard in British India.)	6,134,000	98	1,154,000 tons.	96
Wheat ..	Punjab, † United Provinces, † Central Provinces and Berar, † Bombay and Sind, † Bihar and Orissa, North-West Frontier Province, Bengal, Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara, Central India, Gwalior, Rajputana, Hyderabad, Baroda and Mysore over (98 per cent. of the total wheat acreage of India.)	31,178,000	101	9,754,000 tons.	98

* Issued by the Director of Agriculture, Bengal and refers to the season 1924-25.

(a) Subsequently revised.

† Including Indian States.

The chief characteristics of the Indian rainfall are its unequal distribution over the country, its irregular distribution throughout the seasons and its liability to failure or serious deficiency. The normal annual rainfall varies from 460 inches at Cherrapunji in the Assam hills to less than three inches in Upper Sind. The greatest rainfall actually measured at any station in any one year was 905 inches, recorded at Cherrapunji in 1861, while at stations in Upper Sind it has been nil. There are thus portions of the country which suffer as much from excessive rainfall as others do from drought.

The second important characteristic of the rainfall is its unequal distribution throughout the seasons. Except in the south-east of the peninsula, where the heaviest precipitation is received from October to December, by far the greater portion of the rain falls during the south-west monsoon, between June and October. During the winter months the rainfall is comparatively small the normal amount varying from half an inch to two inches, while the hot weather, from March to May or June, is practically rainless. Consequently it happens that in one season of the year the greater part of India is deluged with rain and is the scene of the most wonderful and rapid growth of vegetation; in another period the same tract becomes a dreary, sun-burnt waste. The transition from the latter to the former stage often occurs in a few days. From the agricultural point of view the most unsatisfactory feature of the Indian rainfall is its liability to failure or serious deficiency. The average annual rainfall over the whole country is about 45 inches and there is but little variation from this average from year to year, the greatest recorded being only about seven inches. But if separate tracts are considered, extraordinary variations are found. At many stations annual rainfalls of less than half the average are not uncommon, while at some less than a quarter of the normal amount has been recorded in a year of extreme drought.

Scarcity.—Classing a year in which the deficiency is 25 per cent. as a dry year and one in which it is 40 per cent. as a year of severe drought, the examination of past statistics shows that, over the precarious area, one year in five may be expected to be a dry year and one in ten a year of severe drought. It is largely in order to remove the menace of these years that the great irrigation systems of India have been constructed.

Government Works.—The Government irrigation works of India may be divided into two main classes, those provided with artificial storage, and those dependent throughout the year on the natural supplies of the rivers from which they have their origin. In actual fact, practically every irrigation work depends upon storage of one kind or another but, in many cases, this is provided by nature without man's assistance. In Northern India, upon the Himalayan rivers, and in Madras, where the cold weather rains are even heavier than those of the south-west monsoon, the principal non-storage systems are found.

The expedient of storing water in the monsoon for utilization during the subsequent dry weather has been practised in India from time im-

morial. In their simplest form, such storage works consist of an earthen embankment constructed across a valley or depression, behind which the water collects, and those under Government control range from small tanks irrigating only a few acres each to the huge reservoirs now under construction in the Deccan which will be capable of storing over 20,000 million cubic feet of water. By gradually escaping water from a work of the latter type, a supply can be maintained long after the river on which the reservoir is situated would otherwise be dry and useless.

The Three Classes.—For the purpose of determining the source from which the funds for the construction of Government works are provided, they are divided into three classes, productive, protective and minor works. The main criterion to be satisfied before a work can be classed as productive is that it shall, within ten years of the completion of construction, produce sufficient revenue to cover its working expenses and the interest charges on its capital cost. Most of the largest irrigation systems in India belong to the productive class.

Protective works are constructed primarily with a view to the protection of precarious tracts and to guard against the necessity for periodical expenditure on the relief of the population in times of famine. They are financed from the current revenues of India, generally from the annual grant for famine relief and insurance, and are not directly remunerative, the construction of each such work being separately justified by a comparison of the value of each acre protected (based upon such factors as the probable cost of famine relief, the population of the tract, the area already protected and the minimum area which must be protected in order to tide over a period of severe drought) with the cost of such protection. A sum of Rs. 1,173 lakhs has, up to date, been expended on works of this nature.

It is difficult to define the class of minor works otherwise than by saying that works not classified either as productive or protective are classified as minor works. Nearly a third of the whole area irrigated in India from Government works is effected by these minor works.

Growth of Irrigation.—There has, during the last forty years, been a steady growth in the area irrigated by Government irrigation works. From 10½ million acres in 1878-79 the area annually irrigated rose to 19½ million acres at the beginning of the century and to 28 million acres in 1919-20, the record year up to that date. This record was, however, again surpassed in the year 1922-23, when the total area irrigated by all classes of works in India, excluding the Indian States, amounted to 28½ million acres. The main increase has been in the class of productive works, which irrigated 4½ million acres in 1878-79, 10½ million acres in 1900-01 and over 18½ million acres in 1922-23. The area irrigated by protective works has increased, in the same period, from nil to over three-quarters of a million acres, that by minor works from 6 million to 8½ million acres.

Some idea of the probable future development of irrigation can be obtained from the forecasts appended to the project estimates of the works now under construction and awaiting sanction. The irrigated area in 1922-23 was over

28 million acres. Schemes completed but which have not yet reached their full development are expected to add about 100,000 acres to this total while works under construction will further enhance it by 24 million acres. Projects have also been submitted to the Secretary of State for sanction which, if constructed, will add another 4½ million acres; a total eventual area in British India of about 36 million acres is thus at present contemplated from works sanctioned or awaiting sanction, irrespective of the natural extension of existing areas and of new projects, of which several are under consideration, which may be put forward in future.

The figures given are exclusive of the areas irrigated from the Punjab canals by branches constructed for Indian States, which amounted in 1919-20 to 650,000 acres. The Sutlej Valley scheme will add nearly 3½ million acres to this area, so that a gross total of some 40 million acres from Government works is confidently looked to.

Capital and Revenue.—The total capital invested in the works has risen from Rs. 4,236 lakhs in 1900-01 to Rs. 8,457 lakhs in 1922-23, an average increase of Rs. 150 lakhs a year. As regards revenue, the Government Irrigation works of India, taken as a whole, yield a return of from 7 to 8 per cent. on the capital invested in them; this is a satisfactory result as Rs. 1,173 lakhs of the total have been spent on protective works, which return less than 1 per cent. and Rs. 7,03 lakh on minor works, the yield from which varies between 4 and 6 per cent. The capital outlay also includes expenditure on a number of large works under construction, which have not yet commenced to earn revenue.

Charges for Water.—The charges for water are levied in different ways in the various provinces. In some, notably in Sind, the ordinary land revenue assessment includes also the charge for water, 9/10ths of this assessment being regarded as due to the canals. In others, as in parts of Madras and Bombay, different rates of land revenue are assessed according to whether the land is irrigated or not, and the assessment upon irrigated land includes also the charge for water. These methods may however be regarded as exceptional. Over the greater part of India water is paid for separately, the area actually irrigated is measured, and a rate is charged per acre according to the crop grown. Lower rates are often levied in cases where irrigation is by "lift", that is to say where the land is too high for the water to

The results obtained in each province are given in

flow on to it by gravity and consequently the cultivator has to lift it on to his field.

Various other methods of assessment have been tried, such as by renting outlets for an annual sum, or by charging according to the volume of the water used, but these have never been successful. The cultivator fully understands the principle of "No crops, no charge" which is now followed as far as possible in canal administration, but has no confidence in a system under which his liability for water rate is independent of the area and quality of his crop.

The rates charged vary considerably with the crop grown, and are different in each province and often upon the several canals in a single province. Thus in the Punjab, they vary from Rs. 7-8-0 to Rs. 12 per acre for sugar-cane, from Rs. 4 to Rs. 7-8-0 per acre for rice, from Rs. 3-4-0 to Rs. 6-4-0 per acre for wheat, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4-4-0 per acre for cotton and from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3-4-0 per acre for millets and pulses. No extra charge is made for additional waterings. Practically speaking, Government guarantees sufficient water for the crop and gives it as available. If the crop fails to mature, or if its yield is much below normal, either the whole or part of the irrigation assessment is remitted.

A somewhat different system, the long lease system, is in force in parts of Bengal and the Central Provinces, under which the cultivators pay a small rate for a term of years whether they take water or not. In these provinces where the normal rainfall is fairly high, it is always a question whether irrigation will be necessary at all, and if the cultivators have to pay the full rate, they are apt to hold off until water becomes absolutely essential, and the sudden and universal demand then usually exceeds the supply. By paying a reduced rate every year for a term of years they become entitled to water when required; consequently there is no temptation to wait till the last possible moment, and the demand is much more evenly distributed throughout the season.

Taken as a whole, irrigation is offered on extremely easy terms, and the water rates represent only a very small proportion of the extra profit which the cultivator secures owing to the water he receives.

Irrigated Areas.—The average area irrigated in British India by Government works of all classes was 28½ million acres, in 1922-23 as compared with 27½ million acres, the average of the previous triennium. The area of 1922-23 is the record area irrigated in any one year up to date.

The table below:—

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1919-22.	Area irrigated in 1922-1923.
Madras	7,405,803	7,335,502
Bombay (Deccan)	418,139	416,308
Sind	3,246,503	3,631,089
Bengal	109,907	103,585
United Provinces	3,166,916	2,648,643
Punjab	9,954,877	10,727,973
Burma	1,187,746	1,628,168
Bihar and Orissa	991,689	924,018
Central Provinces	368,159	417,754
North-West Frontier Province	389,068	423,423
Rajputana	24,907	18,503
Baluchistan	19,644	24,008
Total	27,584,343	28,329,049

Province.	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1915-18.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1918-21.
Madras	3,733,100	3,591,394
Bombay Deccan	180,321	203,550
Sind	2,160,566	1,900,391
Bengal	26,878	21,449
United Provinces	152,480	158,223
Punjab	1,013,959	792,211
Burma	1,092,691	1,147,964
Bihar and Orissa	1,377	2,414
Central Provinces	16,444	28,942
Rajputana	22,992	20,947
Baluchistan	9,489	19,776
Total	8,410,297	7,887,261

The minor works represent a capital expenditure of Rs. 703 lakhs but, as already explained, no capital account is kept for many of them. Those for which such accounts are maintained returned 5·83 per cent. in 1918-19, 5·35 per cent. in 1919-20 and 4·77 per cent. in 1920-21. These figures include the returns of certain canals in Madras and Bengal which have been constructed solely for navigation purposes; if irrigation works only are considered the corresponding percentages are 8·29, 8·04 and 8·17.

Irrigated Acreage.—A comparison between the acreage of crops matured during 1922-23 by means of Government irrigation works with the total area under cultivation is given below:—

Province.	Net area cropped.	Area irrigated by Government irrigation works.	Percentage of area irrigated to total cropped area.	Capital cost of Government irrigation works to end of 1920-21 in lakhs of rupees.	Estimated value of crops raised on areas receiving State irrigation in lakhs of rupees.
Madras	37,762,000	7,338,000	19·4	1,196	3,802*
Bombay Deccan	24,032,000	416,000	1·9	831	465
Sind	4,498,000	3,631,000	80·7	391	1,202
Bengal	23,642,000	104,000	0·4	390	72
United Provinces	35,207,000	2,649,000	7·5	1,465	1,676
Punjab	31,789,000	10,728,000	33·7	2,369	4,931
Burma	14,392,000	1,628,000	11·3	356	710
Bihar and Orissa	25,058,000	924,000	3·6	627	884
Central Provinces	17,307,000	418,000	2·4	460	279
North-West Frontier Province	2,720,000	423,000	15·5	284	291
Rajputana	250,000	19,000	7·6	35	7
Baluchistan	210,000	24,000	10·0	44	8
Total	217,197,000	28,330,000	13·0	8,457	14,336

* Exclusive of the value of crops raised on some 3 million acres irrigated by non-capital works.

Projects.—At the close of the triennium three projects, for the Sukkur Barrage and Canals in Sind, for the Sutlej Valley Canals in the Punjab and for the Damodar Canal in Bengal, were open. The Sukkur Barrage, when completed, will be the greatest work of its kind in the world, measuring 4,725 feet between the faces of the regulators on either side. The total cost of the scheme is estimated at Rs. 1,835 lakhs, of which the barrage accounts for about Rs. 569 lakhs and the canals for Rs. 1,266 lakhs. A gross area of $7\frac{1}{2}$ million acres is commanded, of which $6\frac{1}{2}$ million acres is culturable and an annual area of irrigation of $5\frac{1}{2}$ million acres is anticipated, of which 2 million acres represents existing inundation irrigation which will be given an assured supply by the new canals. The ultimate annual net revenue forecasted as obtainable from the project, after paying working expenses, is Rs. 104 lakhs, which represents a return of 10½ per cent. on capital. This is the return from water rates alone, but a further large increase in general revenues may safely be reckoned upon from the area of 3 million acres of waste which will be brought under cultivation. There will be increases on this account under practically every head of revenue, such as railways, customs, stamps, excise and the like, not to mention the addition to the country's wealth owing to the production, on land at present barren, of crops to the value of Rs. 2,500 lakhs per annum.

WELLS AND TANKS.

So far we have dealt only with the great irrigation schemes. They are essentially exotic, the products of British rule; the real eastern instrument is the well. The most recent figures give thirty per cent. of the irrigated area in India as being under wells. Moreover the well is an extremely efficient instrument of irrigation. When the cultivator has to raise every drop of water which he uses from a varying depth, he is more careful in the use of it; well water exerts at least three times as much duty as canal water. Again, owing to the cost of lifting, it is generally used for high grade crops. It is estimated that well-irrigated lands produce at least one-third more than canal-watered lands. Although the huge areas brought under cultivation by a single canal scheme tend to reduce the disproportion between the two systems, it must be remembered that the spread of canals increases the possibilities of well irrigation by adding, through seepage, to the store of subsoil water and raising the level.

Varieties of Wells.—Wells in India are of every description. They may be just holes in the ground, sunk to subsoil level, used to a year or two and then allowed to fall into decay. These are temporary or kacha wells. Or they may be lined with timber, or with brick or stone. They vary from the kacha well costing a few rupees to the masonry well, which will run into thousands, or in the sandy wastes of Bikanir, where the water level is three hundred feet below the surface, to still more. The means of raising the water vary in equal degree. There is the *piottah*, or weighted lever, raising a bucket at the end of a pivoted pole, just as is done on the banks of the Nile. This is rarely

The Sutlej Valley Project consists of four weirs, three on the Sutlej and one on the Panjnad, as the Chenab is called below its junction with the Sutlej, with twelve canals taking off from above them. The total area to be irrigated from the project is 5,108,000 acres, or nearly 8,000 square miles. Of this, 2,075,000 acres will be perennial and 3,033,000 acres non-perennial irrigation. 1,942,000 acres will be in British territory, 2,825,000 acres in Bahawalpur and 341,000 acres in Bikaner.

The total cost of the project is estimated at Rs. 1,460 lakhs. Upon this a return of 12½ per cent. is anticipated from water-rates alone. But the scheme has another, and even more important source of revenue. On the introduction of irrigation, no less than 3½ million acres of desert waste, the property of the three parties concerned, at present valueless, will become available for colonisation and sale. It is customary, in the *pro-forma* accounts of irrigation projects, to credit a scheme with the interest on the sale proceeds of Crown waste lands rendered culturable by its construction; if this is included, the annual return on the project will amount to nearly 38 per cent. It bids fair, indeed, to rival the Lower Chenab Canal, the return from which during the past seven years has averaged over 41 per cent.

used for lifts beyond fifteen feet. For greater lifts bullock power is invariably used. This is generally harnessed to the *mot*, or leather bag, which is passed over a pulley overhanging the well, then raised by bullocks who walk down a ramp of a length approximating to the depth of the well. Sometimes the *mot* is just a leather bag, more often it is a self-acting arrangement, which discharges the water into a sump automatically on reaching the surface. By this means from thirty to forty gallons of water are raised at a time, and in its simplicity, and the ease with which the apparatus can be constructed and repaired by village labour, the *mot* is unsurpassed in efficiency. There is also the Persian wheel, an endless chain of earthenware pots running round a wheel. Recently attempts have been made, particularly in Madras, to substitute mechanical power, furnished by oil engines, for the bullock. This has been found economical where the water supply is sufficiently large, especially where two or three wells can be linked. Government have systematically encouraged well irrigation by advancing funds for the purpose and exempting well watered lands from extra assessment due to improvement. These advances, termed *takari*, are freely made to approved applicants, the general rate of interest being 6½ per cent. In Madras and Bombay ryots who construct wells, or other works of agricultural improvement, are exempt from enhanced assessment on that account. In other provinces the exemption lasts for specific periods, the term generally being long enough to recoup the owner the capital sunk.

Tanks.—Next to the well, the indigenous instrument of irrigation is the tank. The village

or the roadside tank is one of the most conspicuous features in the Indian scene. The Indian tank may be any size. It may vary from a great work like Lakes Fife and Whiting in the Bombay Presidency or the Periyar Lake in Travancore, holding up from four to seven billion cubic feet of water, and spreading their waters through great chains of canal, to the little village tank irrigating ten acres. They date back to a very early stage in Indian civilisation. Some of these works in Madras are of great size, holding from three to four billion cubic feet, with water spreads of nine miles. The inscriptions of two large tanks in the Chingleput district of Madras, which still irrigate from two to four thousand acres are said to be over 1,100 years old. Tank irrigation is practically unknown in the Punjab and in Sind, but it is found in some form or other in all other provinces, including Burma, and finds its highest development in Madras. In the ryotwari tracts of Bombay and Madras all but the smallest tanks are controlled by Government. In the zemiindari tracts only the large tanks are

State works. According to the latest figures the area irrigated from tanks is about eight million acres, but in many cases the supply is extremely precarious. So far from tanks being a refuge in famine they are often quite useless inasmuch as the rainfall does not suffice to fill them and they remain dry throughout the season.

Bibliography.—Triennial Review of Irrigation in India, 1918-1921. Calcutta, Superintendent of Government Printing, Price Five Rupees. The annual irrigation reports in India used to be as arid as the Sahara, consisting of a dull statistical record. They have been greatly improved of recent years and have now assumed a quite satisfactory form. The major review appears once every three years, and consists not only of an admirable summary of the work of the triennium, but a well-illustrated history of the progress of irrigation in India from the earliest times. The first of these triennial reviews was issued in 1922. Between the triennial reviews there is issued a briefer statement recording the progress of each particular year.

Meteorology.

The meteorology of India like that of other countries is largely a result of its geographical position. The great land area of Asia to the northward and the enormous sea expanse of the Indian Ocean to the southward are determining factors in settling its principal meteorological features. When the Northern Hemisphere is turned away from the sun, in the northern winter, Central Asia becomes an area of intense cold. The meteorological conditions of the temperate zone are pushed southward and we have over the northern provinces of India the westerly winds and eastward moving cyclonic storms of temperate regions, while, when the Northern Hemisphere is turned towards the sun, Southern Asia becomes a super-heated region drawing towards it an immense current of air which carries with it the enormous volume of water vapour which it has picked up in the course of its long passage over the wide expanse of the Indian Ocean, so that at one season of the year parts of India are deluged with rain and at another persistent dry weather prevails.

Monsoons.—The all-important fact in the meteorology of India is the alternation of the seasons known as the summer and winter monsoons. During the winter monsoon the winds are of continental origin and hence, dry, fine weather, clear skies, low humidity and little air movement are the characteristic features of this season. The summer rains cease in the provinces of the North-West Frontier Province and the Punjab about the middle of September, after which cool westerly and northerly winds set in over that area and the weather becomes fresh and pleasant. These fine weather conditions extend slowly eastward and southward so that by the middle of October, they embrace all parts of the country except the southern half of the Peninsula, and by the end of the year have extended to the whole of the Indian land and sea area, the rains withdrawing to the Equatorial Belt. Thus the characteristics of the cold weather from October to February

over India are:—Westerly winds of the temperate zone over the extreme north of India; to the south of these the north-east winds of the winter monsoon or perhaps more properly the north-east Trades and a gradually extending area of fine weather which, as the season progresses, finally embraces the whole Indian land and sea area. Two exceptions to these fine weather conditions exist during this period, viz.; the Madras coast and the north-west of India. In the former region the north-east winds which set in over the Bay of Bengal in October coalesce with the damp winds of the retreating summer monsoon, which current curves round over the Bay of Bengal, and, blowing directly on to the Madras coast gives to that region the wettest and most disturbed weather of the whole year, for while the total rainfall for the four months June to September, i.e., the summer monsoon, at the Madras Observatory amounts to 15·38 inches the total rainfall for the three months October to December amounts to 20·48 inches. The other region in which the weather is unsettled, during this period of generally settled conditions, is North-west India. This region during January, February and part of March is traversed by a succession of shallow storms from the westward. The number and character of these storms vary very largely from year to year and in some years no storms at all are recorded. In normal years, however, in Northern India periods of fine weather alternate with periods of disturbed weather (occurring during the passage of these storms) and light to moderate and even heavy rain occurs. In the case of Peshawar the total rainfall for the four months, December to March, amounts to 5·28 inches while the total fall for the four months, June to September, is 4·78 inches, showing that the rainfall of the winter is, absolutely, greater in this region than that of the summer monsoon. These two periods of subsidiary "rains" are of the greatest economic importance. The fall in Madras is, as shown above, of considerable

actual amount, while that of North-west India though small in absolute amount is of the greatest consequence as on it largely depend the grain and wheat crops of Northern India.

Spring Months.—March to May and part of June form a period of rapid continuous increase of temperature and decrease of barometric pressure throughout India. During this period there occurs a steady transference northward of the area of greatest heat. In March the maximum temperatures, slightly exceeding 100°, occur in the Deccan; in April the area of maximum temperature; between 100° and 105°, lies over the south of the Central Provinces and Gujarat; in May maximum temperatures, varying between 105° and 110°, prevail over the greater part of the interior of the country while in June the highest mean maximum temperatures exceeding 110° occur in the Indus Valley near Jacobabad. Temperatures exceeding 120° have been recorded over a wide area including Sind, Rajputana; the West and South Punjab and the west of the United Provinces, but the highest temperature hitherto recorded is 126° registered at Jacobabad on June 12th, 1897. During this period of rising temperature and diminishing barometric pressure, great alterations take place in the air movements over India, including the disappearance of the north-east winds of the winter monsoon, and the air circulation over India and its adjacent seas, becomes a local circulation, characterised by strong hot winds down the river valleys of Northern India and increasing land and sea winds in the coast regions. These land and sea winds, as they become stronger and more extensive, initiate large contrasts of temperature and humidity which result in the production of violent local storms. These take the forms of dust storms in the dry plains of Northern India and of thunder and hailstorms in regions where there is interaction between damp sea winds and dry winds from the interior. These storms are frequently accompanied with winds of excessive force, heavy hail and torrential rain and are on that account very destructive.

By the time the area of greatest heat has been established over North-west India, in the last week of May or first of June, India has become the seat of low barometric pressures relatively to the adjacent seas and the whole character of the weather changes. During the hot weather period, discussed above, the winds and weather are mainly determined by local conditions. Between the Equator and Lat. 30° or 35° south the wind circulation is that of the south-east trades, that is to say from about Lat. 30°-35° south a wind from south-east blows over the surface of the sea up to about the equator. Here the air rises into the upper strata to flow back again at a considerable elevation to the Southern Tropic or beyond. To the north of this circulation, i.e., between the Equator and Lat. 20° to 25° North, there exists a light unsteady circulation, the remains of the north-east trades, that is to say about Lat. 20° North there is a north-east wind which blows southward till it reaches the thermal equator where side by side with the south-east Trades mentioned above, the air rises into the upper strata of the atmosphere. Still further to the northward and in the im-

mediate neighbourhood of land there are the circulations due to the land and sea breezes which are attributable to the difference in the heating effect of the sun's rays over land and sea. It is now necessary to trace the changes which occur and lead up to the establishment of the south-west monsoon period. The sun at this time is progressing slowly northward towards the northern Tropic. Hence the thermal equator is also progressing northward and with it the area of ascent of the south-east trades circulation. Thus the south-east trade winds cross the equator and advance further and further northward, as the thermal equator and area of ascent follows the sun in its northern progress. At the same time the temperature over India increases rapidly and barometric pressure diminishes, owing to the air rising and being transferred to neighbouring cooler regions—more especially the sea areas. Thus we have the southern Trades circulation extending northward and the local land and sea circulation extending southward until about the beginning of June the light unsteady interfering circulation over the Arabian Sea finally breaks up, the immense circulation of the south-east Trades, with its cool, moisture laden winds rushes forward, becomes linked on to the local circulation proceeding between the Indian land area and the adjacent seas and India is invaded by oceanic conditions—the south-west monsoon proper. This is the most important season of the year as upon it depends the prosperity of at least five-sixths of the people of India.

When this current is fully established a continuous air movement extends over the Indian Ocean, the Indian seas and the Indian land area from Lat. 30° S. to Lat. 30° N., the southern half being the south-east trades and the northern half the south-west monsoon. The most important fact about it is that it is a continuous horizontal air movement passing over an extensive oceanic area where steady evaporation is constantly in progress so that where the current enters the Indian seas and flows over the Indian land it is highly charged with aqueous vapours.

The Current enters the Indian seas quite at the commencement of June and in the course of the succeeding two weeks spreads over the Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal up to their extreme northern limits. It advances over India from these two seas. The Arabian Sea current blows on to the west coast and sweeping over the Western Ghats prevails more or less exclusively over the Peninsula, Central India, Rajputana and north Bombay. The Bay of Bengal current blows directly up the Bay. One portion is directed towards Burma; East Bengal and Assam while another portion curves to south at the head of the Bay and over Bengal, and then meeting with the barrier of the Himalayas curves still further and blows as a south-easterly and easterly wind right up the Gangetic plain. The south-west monsoon continues for three and a half to four months, viz., from the beginning of June to the middle or end of September. During its prevalence more or less general though far from continuous rain prevails throughout India, the principal features of the rainfall distribution being as follows. The greater

portion of the Arabian Sea current; the total volume of which is probably three times as great as that of the Bengal current, blows directly on to the west coast districts. Here it meets an almost continuous hill range, is forced into ascent and gives heavy rain alike to the coast districts and to the hilly range, the total averaging about 100 inches most of which falls in four months. The current after parting with most of its moisture advances across the Peninsula giving occasional uncertain rain to the Deccan and passes out into the Bay where it coalesces with the local current. The northern portion of the current blowing across the Gujarat, Kathiawar and Sind coasts gives a certain amount of rain to the coast districts and frequent showers to the Aravalli Hill range but very little to Western Rajputana, and passing onward gives moderate to heavy rain in the Eastern Punjab, Eastern Rajputana and the North-west Himalayas. In this region the current meets and mixes with the monsoon current from the Bay.

The monsoon current over the southern half of the Bay of Bengal blows from south-west and is thus directed towards the Tenasserim hills and up the valley of the Irrawaddy to which it gives very heavy to heavy rain. That portion of this current which advances sufficiently far northward to blow over Bengal and Assam gives very heavy rain to the low-lying districts of East Bengal and immediately thereafter coming under the influence of the Assam Hills is forced upwards and gives excessive rain (perhaps the heaviest in the world) to the southern face of these hills. The remaining portion of the Bay current advances from the southward over Bengal, is then deflected westward by the barrier of the Himalayas and gives general rain over the Gangetic plain and almost daily rain over the lower ranges of the Himalayas from Sikhim to Kashmir.

To the south of this easterly wind of the Bay current and to the north of the westerly wind of the Arabian Sea current there exists a debatable area running roughly from Hissar in the Punjab through Agra, Allahabad and part of Chota Nagpur to Orissa, where neither current of the monsoon prevails. In this area the rainfall is uncertain and would probably be light, but that the storms from the Bay of Bengal exhibit a marked tendency to advance along this track and to give it heavy falls of occasional rain.

The Total Rainfall of the monsoon period (June to September) is 100 inches over part of the west coast, the amount diminishes eastward, is below 20 inches over a large part of the centre and east of the Peninsula and is only 5 inches in South Madras; it is over 100 inches on the Tenasserim and South Burma coast and decreases to 20 inches in Upper Burma; it is over 100 in the north Assam Valley and diminishes steadily westward and is only 5 inches in the Indus Valley.

(For monsoon of 1924, see page 320).

The month to month distribution for the whole of India is:—

May	2.6 inches.
June	8.3 "
July	11.9 "
August	10.5 "
September	7.2 "
October	3.2 "

Cyclonic storms and cyclones are an almost invariable feature of the monsoon period. In the Arabian Sea they ordinarily form at the commencement and end of the season, viz., May and November, but in the Bay they form a constantly recurring feature of the monsoon season. The following gives the total number of storms recorded during the period 1877 to 1901 and shows the monthly distribution:—

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June
Bay of Bengal	1	4	13	28		
	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Bay of Bengal 41	36	45	34	22	8	
	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June
Arabian Sea				2	15	
	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Arabian Sea 2		1	1	5		

The preceding paragraphs give an account of the normal procession of the seasons throughout India during the year, but it must be remembered, that every year produces variations from the normal, and that in some years these variations are very large. This is more particularly the case with the discontinuous element rainfall. The most important variations in this element which may occur are:—

- (1) Delay in the commencement of the rains over a large part of the country; this being most frequent in North Bombay and North-west India.
- (2) A prolonged break in July or August or both.
- (3) Early termination of the rains, which may occur in any part of the country.
- (4) The determination throughout the monsoon period of more rain than usual to one part and less than usual to another part of the country. Examples of this occur every year.

About the middle of September fine and fresh weather begins to appear in the extreme north-west of India. This area of fine weather and dry winds extends eastward and southward, the area of rainy weather at the same time contracting till by the end of October the rainy area has retreated to Madras and the south of the Peninsula and by the end of December has disappeared from the Indian region, fine clear weather prevailing throughout. This procession with the numerous variations and modifications which are inseparable from meteorological conditions repeats itself year after year.

Average Monthly and Annual Means of Air Temperature at Selected Stations in India.

Stations	Eleva- tion in feet.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Ann- al Mean.
HILL STATIONS.														
*Shillong	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Darjeeling	4,920	49.5	51.8	60.4	65.2	66.6	68.8	70.0	63.2	63.4	63.1	56.5	50.7	61.7
	7,376	40.1	41.6	49.7	56.2	58.3	59.9	61.5	60.9	59.4	55.2	47.8	41.8	52.7
Simla	7,924	38.8	40.6	51.5	59.3	66.0	66.9	64.3	62.8	60.9	56.7	50.1	43.4	55.1
Murree	6,353	40.3	41.1	51.1	61.2	68.3	72.3	69.4	67.2	65.9	61.3	52.8	45.0	58.0
Erinagar	5,904	30.7	33.0	45.1	55.7	63.9	69.9	73.0	70.8	64.0	53.2	44.0	36.3	53.3
Mount Abu	3,945	58.2	61.0	69.9	78.0	79.8	74.9	69.8	67.6	69.6	71.6	65.2	59.9	68.8
*Ootacamund	7,827	54.0	55.5	58.6	61.5	61.3	58.2	56.9	57.4	57.3	57.2	55.4	54.3	57.3
*Kodaikanal	7,688	53.0	56.7	59.6	61.5	61.9	59.4	57.6	57.8	57.6	56.9	54.9	55.0	57.8
COAST STATIONS.														
Karachi	49	65.3	68.4	75.0	80.6	84.7	86.8	84.3	82.4	82.0	80.0	74.0	67.4	77.6
Veraval	18	68.4	70.2	74.0	79.1	81.5	82.5	80.0	79.1	79.0	79.5	77.2	72.3	77.0
Bombay	37	74.5	74.8	78.0	82.1	84.6	82.4	79.5	79.4	79.4	80.7	79.3	76.4	79.3
Ratnagiri	110	76.2	76.0	78.5	82.8	84.3	80.7	78.3	78.4	78.2	79.8	79.5	77.6	79.2
Mangalore	65	78.2	79.3	81.1	83.9	83.5	78.8	77.1	77.3	77.6	78.9	79.8	79.3	79.6
Calicut	27	77.3	79.3	81.6	83.6	83.1	78.5	76.7	77.4	78.3	79.1	79.5	78.3	75.9
Negapatam	31	75.5	77.4	80.5	84.8	87.7	87.0	85.6	84.4	83.4	80.9	78.3	76.0	81.8
Madras	22	75.3	76.6	79.5	84.1	86.7	83.4	85.7	84.5	83.9	80.8	77.9	75.7	81.8
Masulipatam	15	73.6	76.7	80.3	85.2	89.8	87.8	83.9	83.4	83.0	81.2	77.4	74.0	81.4
Gopalpur	21	70.0	74.9	78.3	81.6	84.1	83.7	81.8	82.0	82.2	79.6	74.3	69.8	78.6
Rangoon	57	74.7	77.3	81.2	85.0	82.2	79.5	78.8	78.7	79.1	80.0	78.3	75.6	79.2

* As the average mean figures for Shillong, Ootacamund and Kodaikanal are not available, means of normal maximum and minimum temperatures uncorrected for diurnal variation are given.

Average Monthly and Annual Means of Air Temperature at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Eleva- tion in feet.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Ann- al Mean.
STATIONS ON THE PLAINS.														
Tungsoo	183	70.0	74.7	81.9	86.7	85.3	81.3	80.1	80.1	81.3	81.4	77.4	71.6	79.3
Mandalay	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Silchar	250	68.8	73.8	82.1	89.2	88.5	85.2	85.2	84.7	83.5	82.5	75.9	69.5	80.8
Calcutta	104	63.8	67.0	73.9	78.0	80.1	81.4	82.6	82.4	81.7	79.7	73.1	66.1	75.1
	21	65.2	70.3	79.3	85.0	85.7	84.5	83.0	82.4	82.6	80.0	72.4	65.3	77.9
Burdwan	99	65.7	70.0	80.4	86.7	86.5	84.9	83.6	82.8	83.1	80.7	73.0	66.3	78.6
Patna	183	60.8	65.3	76.9	86.2	88.0	86.4	83.5	83.1	83.3	79.5	70.1	62.2	77.1
Benares	267	60.0	65.3	76.6	86.8	91.3	89.4	84.1	83.1	83.0	77.9	67.8	60.2	77.2
Allahabad	303	59.5	64.9	76.8	87.6	92.5	90.8	84.5	83.2	83.0	77.6	67.5	59.8	77.3
Lucknow	368	58.7	63.7	75.2	85.4	90.6	90.2	85.3	83.4	83.2	77.1	66.3	58.9	76.6
Agra	555	60.1	64.8	76.7	88.1	94.0	93.4	88.0	84.2	84.2	79.4	68.7	61.2	78.4
Mecut	738	56.0	60.1	71.1	82.7	88.4	89.4	85.0	83.2	81.7	74.7	63.5	56.7	74.4
Delhi	718	57.9	62.2	74.1	86.2	91.7	92.2	86.4	84.5	83.9	78.5	67.6	58.6	77.1
Lahore	702	53.0	57.3	69.0	80.9	88.9	93.0	89.1	87.1	84.8	75.7	63.2	54.6	74.7
Multan	420	55.6	59.8	71.6	82.9	91.4	94.9	92.7	90.4	88.0	78.6	67.1	57.7	77.5
Jacobabad	186	57.3	62.4	74.5	85.5	94.5	95.0	87.7	86.0	83.8	73.2	63.5	53.9	79.3
Hyderabad (Sind)	96	63.6	67.1	77.6	86.2	91.6	91.7	88.6	86.0	86.0	82.7	73.4	66.0	73.9
Bikaner	771	59.2	63.6	76.6	88.4	94.1	94.7	90.4	87.3	87.4	82.4	70.5	61.4	79.6
Rajkote	429	66.8	70.0	77.4	85.1	89.2	87.5	81.7	80.6	80.8	80.4	74.1	63.4	78.5
Ahmedabad	163	70.3	74.0	82.7	91.2	92.9	89.4	83.7	83.0	83.5	84.3	78.3	72.9	82.1
PLATEAU STATIONS.														
Akola	930	63.5	73.7	81.9	90.1	93.3	86.2	80.6	78.9	79.7	77.9	71.7	66.8	79.2
Jubbulpore	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Nagpore	1,327	61.8	64.8	76.5	86.3	91.9	85.7	79.0	78.0	79.0	74.8	70.6	69.3	75.6
Elapur	1,025	68.8	74.3	82.4	90.6	94.5	86.6	80.4	79.4	80.4	78.4	72.6	67.1	79.6
	970	67.7	73.6	81.9	90.3	93.6	86.0	79.6	79.0	80.3	78.1	71.5	66.0	79.0
Ahmednagar	2,152	67.1	71.3	77.5	82.5	83.8	79.2	76.2	74.9	74.5	75.1	70.5	67.1	75.0
Poona	1,840	69.8	73.9	80.1	83.9	83.8	73.7	74.9	73.7	74.4	76.2	72.5	68.9	75.9
Sholapur	1,590	72.7	77.7	84.2	88.4	88.9	81.8	78.9	77.7	77.3	77.7	74.6	71.3	79.3
Belgaum	2,539	69.8	73.0	77.5	79.2	78.0	73.8	70.1	69.7	70.4	72.9	70.9	68.3	72.8
Hyderabad (Deccan)	1,690	70.4	77.1	83.1	88.0	90.1	82.6	77.9	77.1	77.8	76.8	72.3	69.1	78.5
Bangalore	3,021	67.5	72.0	76.7	79.9	78.5	74.0	72.0	71.8	71.8	71.8	69.6	67.5	72.8
Bellary	1,475	73.2	79.6	85.6	89.2	89.0	83.4	80.9	80.6	80.2	79.1	75.3	72.5	80.8

Average Monthly and Annual Rainfall at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Elevation in feet.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Total.
HILL STATIONS.														
Shillong	4,920	0.49	0.81	1.85	4.29	10.06	16.46	13.48	12.79	14.75	6.23	0.98	0.25	82.44
Darjeeling	7,376	0.76	1.08	2.01	4.08	7.83	24.19	31.74	25.98	18.34	5.35	0.24	0.20	121.80
Simla	7,224	3.21	3.07	2.48	2.32	3.71	7.84	18.42	17.87	6.17	1.19	0.41	1.28	67.87
Murree	6,333	3.73	4.14	3.96	3.62	2.99	3.41	12.51	13.40	5.64	1.86	1.27	1.37	57.90
Srinagar	5,204	3.36	4.24	3.10	3.30	2.72	1.77	2.78	1.95	1.18	1.14	0.41	1.08	27.03
Mount Abu	3,945	0.27	0.31	0.15	0.08	0.97	5.59	22.05	21.51	9.58	1.46	0.28	0.24	62.49
Ootacamund	7,327	0.35	0.38	1.00	3.46	5.93	6.18	5.94	4.70	4.44	8.57	4.00	1.65	48.80
Kodaikanal	7,688	1.17	1.48	3.59	5.29	6.47	4.01	3.89	5.99	6.70	12.49	8.17	5.57	64.82
COAST STATIONS.														
Kanachi	49	0.64	0.30	0.15	0.13	0.03	0.43	3.16	1.77	0.66	0.04	0.16	0.19	7.66
Veraval	18	0.01	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.02	5.31	8.92	7.27	2.40	0.81	0.66	0.10	25.53
Bombay	37	0.12	0.02	0.01	0.05	0.55	20.56	24.56	14.91	10.93	1.76	0.47	0.05	73.99
Ratnagiri	110	0.60	0.02	0.05	0.15	1.27	31.32	34.25	20.19	12.53	3.62	0.65	0.06	104.71
Mangalore	65	0.13	0.07	0.11	2.06	7.26	38.47	27.39	22.88	11.09	7.90	1.97	1.50	129.83
Calcut	27	0.17	0.16	0.79	3.70	9.04	36.46	39.36	14.89	7.39	9.12	3.80	1.32	116.20
Norapatam	31	1.15	0.72	0.32	1.02	1.81	1.30	1.74	2.29	3.55	10.08	15.02	11.23	51.23
Madras	22	0.83	0.28	0.37	0.65	1.96	2.06	3.80	4.66	4.84	10.93	13.30	5.25	48.93
Manuipatam	15	0.17	0.16	0.26	0.40	1.34	4.33	5.67	6.09	6.56	8.36	4.43	0.53	38.30
Gondalpur	21	0.23	0.43	0.56	0.73	2.01	5.76	6.11	7.20	6.86	9.84	3.50	0.72	43.95
Rangoon	57	6.11	0.23	0.16	1.74	11.73	18.30	21.37	19.65	15.89	7.12	2.52	0.07	98.89

Average Monthly and Annual Rainfall at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Elevation in feet.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Total.
STATIONS ON THE PLAINS.														
Tongoo	183	0.06	0.12	0.08	1.90	6.43	13.63	17.48	13.53	11.46	6.95	1.25	0.16	78.05
Madray	250	0.06	0.08	0.21	1.19	5.26	5.71	3.26	4.16	6.21	4.54	1.67	0.28	32.63
Sillar	104	0.64	2.32	7.93	13.56	15.72	20.39	19.98	18.69	13.95	6.40	1.31	0.54	121.43
Calcutta	21	0.29	1.02	1.14	1.54	5.60	11.04	12.31	12.69	10.40	3.87	0.62	0.31	60.83
Burdwan	94	0.38	0.89	1.24	2.20	5.56	10.17	12.32	11.49	8.59	3.93	0.64	0.13	57.54
Panna	183	0.72	0.53	0.35	0.30	1.70	7.76	11.41	10.72	7.82	2.89	0.20	0.14	44.54
Benares	267	0.74	0.51	0.33	0.15	0.56	5.45	12.54	11.19	6.54	2.24	0.17	0.17	40.59
Allahabad	309	0.82	0.48	0.38	0.14	0.29	5.09	12.24	10.88	6.32	2.40	0.25	0.23	39.52
Lucknow	268	0.90	0.45	0.32	0.11	0.91	5.34	11.39	11.32	6.61	1.33	0.08	0.44	39.20
Agra	555	0.53	0.33	0.25	0.16	0.64	2.84	9.97	7.11	4.41	0.39	0.06	0.29	26.70
Meerut	728	1.05	0.83	0.63	0.24	0.70	3.60	9.37	7.64	4.55	0.43	0.08	0.40	29.62
Delhi	718	1.02	0.61	0.67	0.35	0.71	3.18	8.38	7.44	4.42	0.39	0.10	0.43	27.70
Lahore	702	0.87	1.13	0.89	0.51	0.80	1.86	6.65	4.88	2.10	0.43	0.11	0.47	20.70
Multan	420	0.39	0.36	0.42	0.27	0.39	0.43	2.19	1.66	0.60	0.07	0.06	0.27	7.11
Rawalpindi	186	0.28	0.27	0.25	0.17	0.15	0.10	1.18	1.25	0.19	0.01	0.10	0.15	4.10
Hydrabad (Sind)	90	0.24	0.22	0.10	0.07	0.11	0.41	2.61	2.77	0.54	0.00	0.10	0.05	7.22
Bikaner	771	0.39	0.24	0.18	0.14	0.84	1.65	3.29	3.14	1.08	0.09	0.06	0.18	11.27
Rajkot	429	0.05	0.10	0.01	0.01	0.31	5.21	10.89	6.41	3.75	0.67	0.33	0.06	27.80
Ahmedabad	163	0.02	0.10	0.01	0.03	0.46	3.94	11.49	8.26	4.42	0.55	0.19	0.05	29.52
PLATEAU STATIONS.														
Akola	930	0.45	0.18	0.43	0.16	0.31	5.12	8.74	0.48	6.24	2.14	0.44	0.58	31.27
Jubbulpore	1,327	0.72	0.52	0.48	0.22	0.47	8.53	18.82	15.13	8.38	1.55	0.37	0.26	55.45
Nagpur	1,025	0.53	0.42	0.57	0.46	0.68	8.44	13.49	9.79	8.11	2.14	0.51	0.45	45.62
Balpur	970	0.30	0.33	0.59	0.59	0.76	9.38	14.94	12.72	7.75	2.09	0.62	0.20	50.27
Ahmednagar	2,152	0.27	0.12	0.15	0.40	1.16	4.73	3.03	3.60	6.75	3.12	0.89	0.44	24.66
Poona	1,840	0.18	0.03	0.13	0.38	1.45	5.35	6.90	4.03	4.43	4.11	0.85	0.20	28.26
Sholapur	1,590	0.06	0.08	0.29	0.63	1.09	4.41	4.19	5.42	7.77	3.63	0.87	0.30	28.74
Belgaum	2,539	0.06	0.03	0.49	2.05	2.73	9.32	15.37	9.15	4.05	5.09	1.33	0.34	49.91
Hydrabad (Deccan)	1,600	0.05	0.12	0.67	0.73	0.78	4.44	6.22	6.76	7.10	2.98	1.53	0.17	31.55
Bangalore	3,021	0.06	0.22	0.72	1.19	4.53	3.13	4.13	6.00	7.11	6.74	2.61	0.39	36.83
Bellary	1,473	0.10	0.03	0.42	0.83	1.93	1.84	1.41	2.18	4.12	4.04	1.20	0.20	18.30

MONSOON OF 1924.

The S. W. Monsoon as in the previous year not only arrived late in the season but its incidence was feeble on both sides of the current. Throughout the month of June most of the inland divisions continued to indicate drier and hotter conditions than usual. On the Arabian Sea side the monsoon appeared on the Malabar coast on the 2nd June, but the onset was feeble and the vigour of the unsustained pulses lasted only for a few days. The progress northwards was thus laboured, and weak monsoonish conditions were established on the Bombay coast on the 12th June, a week later than the normal date. Though the onset was feeble, during the next few days it gave fairly good rains in the Deccan, Gujrat, and the Central Provinces. The timely incidence of a small depression off the Kathiawar coast on the 16th was helpful and the failing pulse was enabled to carry the monsoon rains into Rajputana, S. E. Punjab, and Kathiawar. Thereafter a complete break supervened which practically lasted to the end of the month. The Bay monsoon which was initially restricted to Burma till the 6th June, strengthened later and extended into North East India reaching the United Provinces by the end of the month. In the field controlled by this branch also, with the exception of Burma and North-east India, pronounced deficiencies were returned from all divisions.

Conditions in July soon assumed a threatening aspect and not until those in several divisions had grown quite critical did the longed for rains at last reach them. Most of the divisions however late, were well served by the end of the month, while exceptionally heavy rains were gathered in Malabar and the adjacent Ghats which inundated vast expanses of the country, causing heavy loss of property and rendering thousands of people homeless. Averaged over the whole of India the rainfall was not only 23 per cent. in excess, but all divisions individually returned excesses, Hyderabad and Sind alone showing deficits of 33 and 53 per cent. respectively.

During August the monsoon, which had again relapsed into weakness, was in the main controlled by two depressions from the Bay with the result that the current on both sides became extremely erratic and irregular giving heavy precipitation for a few days interspersed with long dry breaks. The distribution over the various divisions was thus rendered patchy and uneven for, while large tracts suffered from marked deficiencies, certain parts of the country were inundated causing severe damage both to life and property by floods in the Indus, on the Malabar coast again, and on the upper Ganges Canal.

The rains gathered during September on the Arabian Sea side were again in the main controlled by two depressions from the Bay, securing abundant precipitation in the Peninsula and central parts of the country. The Bay monsoon also was similarly influenced, especially by the second of these storms causing heavy falls in the Simla Kumaun Hills and the adjacent plains. The mean for India for September was 27 per cent. in excess and all divisions showed marked excesses except Burma.

The monsoon conditions were sustained during the month of October longer than usual, chiefly under the influence of two Bay storms in the first half of the month. This delayed the recession, and incidentally affected also the establishment of N. E. monsoon on the Coromandel coast, causing a corresponding defect in the rainfall of Madras and Mysore for the month. The distribution was thus severely affected for while the average over India was normal, excesses of as much as 108 and 180 per cent. were returned by Central Provinces and Rajputana respectively, and heavy deficits of 67, 47, 53, 100, and 100 were showed by Mysore, Madras, Bombay, Sind, and N. W. Province respectively.

Seven disturbances in all—one in June, two in August, two in September, and two in October—were noted which in the main as explained above controlled the rains of the season.

The following table gives detailed information of the rainfall of the period June to September :—

DIVISION.	RAINFALL, JUNE TO SEPTEMBER 1924.			
	Actual.	Normal.	Departure from normal.	Percentage departure from normal.
	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	
Burma	85.8	83.8	+ 2.0	+ 2
Assam	71.1	61.1	+ 10.0	+ 16
Bengal	66.6	60.9	+ 5.7	+ 9
Bihar and Orissa	42.6	45.5	- 2.9	- 6
United Provinces	43.6	36.1	+ 7.5	+ 21
Punjab	16.4	15.7	+ 0.7	+ 4
North-West Frontier Province	7.6	5.0	+ 2.6	+ 52
Sind	4.8	4.7	+ 0.1	+ 2
Rajputana	30.1	18.1	+ 12.0	+ 66
Bombay	37.3	37.9	- 0.6	- 2
Central India	37.6	33.8	+ 3.8	+ 11
Central Provinces	36.7	40.5	- 3.8	- 9
Hyderabad	23.6	26.7	- 3.1	- 12
Mysore	15.0	15.5	+ 0.4	+ 3
Madras	35.0	26.3	+ 8.7	+ 33
Mean of India	42.7	39.7	+ 3.0	+ 8

Famine.

To the student of Indian administration nothing is more remarkable than the manner in which great problems arise, produce a corresponding outburst of official activity to meet them and then fall into the background. This general truth is illustrated by a study of the history of famine in India. For nearly forty years it was the bogey of the Indian administrator. The forecasts of the rains were studied with acute anxiety. The actual progress of the rains was followed with no less anxiety, and at the first signs of a bad or poor season the famine relief machinery was fished up and prepared for any emergency. The reason for this is clear if we examine for a brief space the economic condition of the Indian peasantry. Nearly three-quarters of the people are directly dependent on agriculture for their daily bread. Very much of this agriculture is dependent on the seasonal rains for its existence. Immense areas in the Bombay Presidency, Madras, the United Provinces and Central India are in a region of erratic and uncertain rainfall. The rainy season is short and if for any natural reason there is a weakness, or absence, of the rain-bearing currents, then there is either a poor harvest or no harvest at all. In Western lands everyone is acquainted with the difference between a good and a poor season, but western countries offer no parallel to India, where in an exceptionally bad year wide tracts of thickly populated land may not produce even a blade of grass. In the old days there were no railways to distribute the surplus of one part of India to the districts where the crop had failed. There were often no roads. The irrigation works were few and were themselves generally dependent on the rainfall for their reserves. The people lived from hand to mouth and had no store of food to fall back upon. Nor had they any credit. In the old days then they died. Commencing with the Orissa famine in 1865-67 the Government of India assumed responsibility for the saving of human life in such crises. After the famine of 1899-1900 this responsibility was also shouldered by the Indian States. Stage by stage this responsibility was expressed in the evolution of a remarkable system of famine relief covering the whole field. But now that machinery has reached a remarkable degree of perfection, it is rusting in the official armouries, because the conditions have changed. The whole of India is covered with a network of railways, which distributes the produce of the soil to the centres where food is required. The extension of irrigation has enormously increased the product of the soil and rendered large areas much less dependent on the monsoon rainfall. At the same time the scientific study of the problems of Indian agriculture has raised the capacity of even the "dry" zones. The peasantry has accumulated a certain reserve against the rainless days from the prosperity which accompanied the period of high prices. The rapid spread of the co-operative credit movement has mobilised and strengthened rural credit. The spread of manufacturing enterprise has lightened the pressure on the soil. The relation of famine to the question of Indian administration has therefore changed. In an exceptionally

bad year it may create administrative difficulties; it has ceased to be an administrative and social problem.

Famine under Native Rule.

Famines were frequent under Native rule, and frightful when they came. "In 1630," says Sir William Hunter, in the History of British India, "a calamity fell upon Gujarat" which enables us to realise the terrible meaning of the word famine in India under Native rule. Whole cities and districts were left bare of inhabitants. In 1631 a Dutch merchant reported that only eleven of the 280 families at 8 wally survived. He found the road thence to Surat covered with bodies decaying on the highway where they died, there being none to bury them. In Surat, that great and crowded city, he could hardly see any living persons; but "the corpses at the corner of the streets lie twenty together, nobody burying them. Thirty thousand had perished in the town alone. Pestilence followed famine." Further historical evidence was adduced by Sir Theodore Morrison in his volume on the Economic Transition of India. It has come to be seen that whilst railways have checked the old-fashioned practice of storing grain in the villages they have made the reserves, where they exist, available for the whole of India. In India there is now no such thing as a food famine; the country always produces enough food for the whole of the population; famine when it comes is a money famine, and the task of the State is confined to providing the means for those affected by drought to earn enough to buy food. The machinery whereby this is done will be examined after we have seen the experiences through which it was evolved.

History of Recent Famines.

The Orissa famine of 1865-67 may be taken as the starting point because that induced to first great and organised effort to combat distress through State agency. It affected 180,000 square miles and 47,500,000 people. The Bengal Government was a little slow in appreciating the need for action, but late food was poured into the district in prodigious quantities. Thirty-five million units were relieved (a unit is one person supported for one day) at a cost 95 lakhs. The mortality was very heavy, and it is estimated that a million people or one-third of the population, died in Orissa alone. This was followed by the Madras famine of 1866, and the famine in Western India of 1868-70. The latter famine introduced India to the great migration from Marwar which was such a distinguishing feature of the famine of 1899-1900; it is estimated that out of a total population of a million and a half in Marwar, one million emigrated. There was famine in Behar in 1873-74, then came the great South Indian Famine of 1876-78. This affected Madras, Mysore, Hyderabad and Bombay for two years and in the second year extended to parts of the Central and United Provinces and to a small tract in the Punjab. The total area affected was 257,000 square miles and the population 58,600,000. Warned by the excessive expenditure in Behar and actuated by the desire

to secure economy the Government relief programme was not entirely successful. The excess mortality in this famine is said to have been 5,250,000 in British territory alone. Throughout British India 700,000,000 units were relieved at a cost of Rs. 8½ crores. Charitable contributions from Great Britain and the Colonies aggregated Rs. 84 lakhs.

The Famine Codes.

The experiences of this famine showed the necessity of placing relief on an organised basis. The first great Famine Commission which sat under the presidency of Sir Richard Strachey, elaborated the Famine Codes, which amended to meet later experience, form the basis of the famine relief system to-day. They recommended (1) that employment should be given on the relief works to the able-bodied, at a wage sufficient for support, on the condition of performing a suitable task; and (2) that gratuitous relief should be given in their villages or in poor houses to those who are unable to work. They recommended that the food supply should be left to private agency, except where that was unequal to the demands upon it. They advised that the land-owning classes should be assisted by loans, and by general suspensions of revenue in proportion to the crop failure. In sending a Famine Code to the provincial governments, the Government of India laid down as the cardinal feature of their policy that the famine wage "is the lowest amount sufficient to maintain health under given circumstances. Whilst the duty of Government is to save life, it is not bound to maintain the labouring population at its normal level of comfort." Provincial codes were drawn up, and were tested by the famine of 1896-97. In that 307,000 square miles were affected, with a population of 69,500,000. The numbers relieved exceeded 4,000,000 at the time of greatest distress. The cost of famine relief was Rs. 7½ crores, revenue was remitted to the extent of Rs. 1½ crore, and loans given aggregating Rs. 1½ crore. The charitable relief fund amounted to about Rs. 1½ crore, of which Rs. 1½ crore was subscribed in the United Kingdom. The actual famine mortality in British India was estimated at 750,000. The experiences of this famine were examined by a Commission under Sir James Lyall, which reported that the success attained in saving life and the relief of distress was greater than had ever been recorded in famines, comparable with it in severity, and that the expense was moderate. But before the Local Governments had been given time to digest the proposals of this Commission or the people to recover from the shock, the great famine of 1899-1900 supervened.

The Famine of 1899-1900.

This famine affected 475,000 square miles with a population of 59,500,000. In the Central Provinces, Berar, Bombay, Ajmer, and the Hissar district of the Punjab famine was acute: it was intense in Rajputana, Baroda, Central India, Hyderabad and Kathiawar. It was marked by several distinctive features. The rainfall over the whole of India was in extreme defect, being eleven inches below the mean. In several localities there was practically no rain. There was in consequence a great fodder

famine, with a terrible mortality amongst the cattle. The water supply was deficient, and brought a crop of difficulties in its train. Then districts like Gujarat, where famine had been unknown for so many years that the locality was thought to be famine immune, were affected; the people here being softened by prosperity, clung to their villages, in the hope of saving their cattle, and came within the scope of the relief works when it was too late to save life. A very large area in the Indian States was affected, and the Marwaris swept from their impoverished land right through Central India like a horde of locusts, leaving desolation in their train. For these reasons relief had to be given on an unprecedented scale. At the end of July 4,500,000 persons were supported by the State, Rs. 10 crores were spent on relief, and the total cost was estimated at Rs. 15 crores. The famine was also marked by a widespread acceptance by Indian States of the duty hitherto shouldered by the Government of India alone—the supreme responsibility of saving human life. Aided by loans to the extent of Rs. 3½ crores, the Indian States did a great deal to bring their administration into line with that in British India. Although actual deaths from starvation were insignificant, the extensive outbreaks of cholera, and the devastating epidemic of malaria which followed the advent of the rains induced a famine mortality of approximately a million. The experiences of this famine were collated by the Commission presided over by Sir Antony MacDonnell. This Commission reported that taking the famine period as a whole the relief given was excessive, and laid down certain modified lines. The cardinal feature of their policy was moral strategy. Pointing out that if the people were assisted at the start they would help themselves, whilst if their condition were allowed to deteriorate it proceeded on a declining scale, they placed in the forefront of their programme the necessity of "putting heart into the people." The machinery suggested for this purpose was the prompt and liberal distribution of taccavi loans the early suspension of revenue, and a policy of prudent boldness, starting from the preparation of a large and expansive plan of relief and secured by liberal preparations, constant vigilance, and a full enlistment of non-official help. The wage scale was revised; the minimum wage was abolished in the case of able-bodied workers; payments by results were recommended; and proposals were made for saving cattle.

The Government of India is now in possession of complete machinery to combat the effects of drought. In ordinary times Government is kept informed of the meteorological conditions and the state of the crops; programmes of suitable relief works are kept up to date, the country is mapped into relief circles, reserves of tools and plant are stocked. If the rains fail, policy is at once declared, non-officials are enlisted, revenue suspended and loans for agricultural purposes made. Test works are then opened, and if labour in considerable quantities is attracted, they are converted into relief works on Code principles. Poor houses are opened and gratuitous relief given to the infirm. On the advent of the

rains the people are moved from the large works to small works near their villages, liberal advances are made to agriculturists for the purchase of plough, cattle and seed. When the principal autumn crop is ripe, the few remaining works are gradually closed and gratuitous relief ceases. All this time the medical staff is kept in readiness to deal with cholera, which so often accompanies famine, and malaria, which generally supervenes when the rains break.

Famine Protection.

Side by side with the perfection of the machinery for the relief of famine has gone the development of famine protection. The Famine Commission of 1880 stated that the best, and often the only means of securing protection from the extreme effects of famine and drought, are railways and irrigation. These are of two classes, productive and protective. Productive works, being estimated to yield profits which will pay interest and sinking fund charges are met from loans; protective works, which do not pay, directly from revenue. In order to guarantee that there should be continuous progress with protective works, the Famine Insurance Grant was instituted in 1876. It was decided to set apart from the general revenues Rs. 1½ crores annually or one million sterling. The first charge on this grant is famine relief, the second protective works, the third the avoidance of debt. The chain of protective railways is now practically complete. Great progress is being made with protective irrigation. Acting on the advice of the Irrigation Commission an elaborate programme of protective irrigation works has been constructed, particularly in the Bombay Decan—the most famine-susceptible district in India—and in the Central Provinces.

The Outlook.

Such in brief is the official programme and organisation which has been built up out of the experience and practice of the past. Yet everything goes to show that Government activity to save human life will never be wanted in the future on the colossal scale of former times, even so recently as 1899-1900. Each succeeding failure of the rains indicates that there has been in silent progress an economic revolution in India. In the year 1918 the rains failed more seriously and over a wider area than during any monsoon in the recent history of India. The deficiency in the rainfall was more marked than in the great famine of 1899. Yet such was the increased resisting power of the people that instead of a demand for State relief from over five millions, the maximum number at any time in receipt of public assistance was never so large as six hundred thousand. The shock to the social life of the community was insignificant; the effects of the drought completely disappeared with the good rains of the following year.

Increased Resisting Power.

The causes of this economic change in the conditions of India, whose influence is widespread are many. We can only briefly indicate them here. There is a much greater mobility in Indian labour. Formerly when the rains failed the ryot

clung to his village until State relief in one form or another was brought almost to his doors. Now at the first sign of the failure of the rains he girds up his loins and goes in search of employment in one of the industrial centres, where the supply of labour is rarely equal to the demand, or on the constructional works which are always in progress either through State or private agency in the country. Then the ryot generally commands some store of value, often misnamed a hoard. The balance of exports in favour of India in normal times is approximately £ 50 millions a year. The gold and silver bullion in which this is largely liquidated is distributed all over the country, in small sums or in ornaments, which can be drawn upon in an emergency. The prodigious coining of rupees during the last two years of the war, and the continuous absorption of gold by India, represent small diffused savings, which take this form owing to the absence of banking institutions and lack of confidence in the banking system. There has been a large extension of irrigation. More than one-third of the land in the Punjab is now under irrigation, and in other Provinces, particularly in the famine-susceptible tracts of the Bombay Decan, irrigation works have been constructed, which break the shock of a failure of the rains. Then the natural growth of the population has been reduced by plague and famine diseases, followed by the great influenza pandemic of 1918-19, which swept off five millions of people. This has not only prevented the increase of congestion, but has brought some areas particularly in the Indian States, below their former population-supporting capacity. The increase of railways distributes the resources of the country with ease; the spread of the co-operative credit movement has improved rural credit. Finally, there is the considerable development of manufacturing industry, which is generally short of labour and helps to absorb the surplus of a famine year. Whilst the Government is completely equipped with a famine code, there is no reason to suppose that there will ever recur such an emergency as that of 1899. Famine can now be efficiently met by the liberal distribution of taccavi, the suspension and remission of the land revenue demand, the relief of the aged and others who cannot work, the provision of cheap fodder for the cattle, with possibly some assistance in transporting the affected population of the famine-affected tract to the industrial centres.

The increased resisting power of the people was effectively demonstrated during the famine of 1920-21, which was due to the failure of the monsoon towards the end of the year 1920. The distress which appeared in the end of 1920 persisted during the early months of 1921 and regular famine was declared in parts of Madras, Bombay, Central Provinces and Baluchistan. Local distress prevailed also in Bengal, Punjab and Central India. The largest number of persons on relief of all kinds did not exceed 0·45 million which was considerably less than 3% of the total population of the area affected by the failure of the monsoon.

The Indian Famine Trust.

Outside the Government programme there is always scope for private philanthropy, especially in the provision of clothes, help for

the superior class poor who cannot accept Government aid, and in assisting in the rehabilitation of the cultivators when the rains break. At every great famine large sums have been subscribed, particularly in the United Kingdom, for this purpose, and in 1899-1900 the people of the United States gave generous help. With the idea of providing a permanent famine fund, the Maharaja of Jaipur gave in 1900 a

sum of Rs. 15 lakhs, in Government securities, to be held in trust for the relief of the needy in time of famine. This Trust has now swollen to over Rs. 35½ lakhs.

The report of the Board of Management states that during the year 1922 grants for relief of distress were made in the case of Madras amounting to Rs. 25,000.

BOY SCOUTS.

The Boy Scouts movement, initiated in England by Lt.-Gen. Sir Robert Baden Powell (the Chief Scout), has spread widely in India, both among Europeans and Indians. The Viceroy is Chief Scout of India and the heads of Provinces are Chief Scouts in their own areas. The aim of the Association is to develop good citizenship among boys by forming their character—training them in habits of observation, obedience and self-reliance—inculcating loyalty and thoughtfulness for others—and teaching them services useful to the public and handicrafts useful to themselves.

It is confidently anticipated that in the Boy Scout Movement will be found a natural mean of bridging the gulf between the different races existing in India. The movement is non-official, non-military, non-political and non-sectarian. Its attitude towards religion is to encourage every boy to follow the faith he professes. Every boy admitted as a Scout makes a threefold promise to do his best: (1) to be loyal to God and the King; (2) to help others at all times; and (3) to obey the Scout law. The law referred to lays down—

1. That a Scout's honour is to be trusted;
2. That he is loyal to God and the King, his parents, teachers, employers, his comrades, his country and those under him;
3. That he is to be useful and to help others;
4. That he is a friend to all and a brother to every other scout, no matter to what social class the other belongs;
5. That he is courteous;
6. That he is a friend to animals;
7. That he obeys orders;
8. That he smiles and whistles under all difficulties;
9. That he is thrifty;
10. That he is clean in thought, word, and deed.

INDIAN HEAD-QUARTERS.

Patron.—H. R. H. The Prince of Wales, K.G.

Chief Scout for India.—His Excellency the Earl of Reading.

Chief Commissioner.—(Vacant.)

General Secretary.—Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency, K.C.V.O., &c.

General Council for India—

Ex-officio.—The Chief Commissioner for India. The Provincial Commissioners.

The Presidents of Provincial Councils.

Elected.—(Not completed.)

Nominated.—(Not completed.)

Scout Strength.

PROVINCE.	SCOUTS.	CUBS.	TOTAL.
Assam	542	121	663
Baluchistan ..	80	31	111
Bangalore ..	184	21	205
Bengal	1,704	428	2,132
Behar and Orissa	1,232	137	1,369
Bombay	4,513	670	5,185
Central India ..	38	6	44
Central Provinces	2,662	169	2,831
Delhi	222	53	275
Madras	3,209	633	3,842
Punjab	2,107	114	2,221
Rajputana	179	71	250
United Provinces	1,949	158	2,107
Burma	2,063	366	2,429
Affiliated Associations—			
Cochin State Boy Scouts Association.	384	..	384
Marwar State Boy Scouts Association.	..	..	..
Total	21,068	2,978	24,046

Hydro-Electric Development.

India promises to be one of the leading countries of the world in regard to the development of hydro-electric power and great strides in this direction have already been made. India not only specially lends itself to projects of the kind, but pre-eminently demands them. Cheap motive power is one of the secrets of successful industrial development and the favourable initial conditions caused by the war, the enthusiasm for industrial development which has seized nearly all classes of educated Indians, and the special attention which the circumstances of the war have compelled Government to direct towards the scientific utilisation of Indian natural resources all point to a rapid growth of industrial enterprise in all parts of India within the next few years. Indeed, the process, for which sound foundations had been laid before the war, is now rapidly under way. India is severely handicapped compared with other lands as regards the generation of power by the consumption of fuel, coal or oil. These commodities are all difficult to obtain, and costly in India except in a few favoured areas. Coal supplies, for example, are chiefly centred in Bengal and Chota Nagpur and the cost of transport is heavy. Water power and its transmission by electricity offer, on the other hand, immense possibilities, both as regards the quantity available and the cheapness at which the power can be rendered, in all parts of India.

Water power schemes, pure and simple, are generally difficult in India, because the power needs to be continuous, while the rainfall is only during a small portion of the year. Perennial rivers with sufficient water throughout the year are practically non-existent in India. Water, therefore, must be stored for use during the dry season. Favourable sites for this exist in many parts in the mountainous and hilly regions where the heaviest rainfalls occur and the progress already made in utilising such opportunities by the electrical transmission of power affords high encouragement for the future. Further, hydro-electric schemes can frequently be associated with important irrigation projects, the water being first used to drive the turbines at the generating stations and then distributed over the fields. Water, as was pointed out in an interesting paper on the subject presented to the Indian Industrial Commission of 1916-18 by Mr. R. B. Joyner, C.I.E., M. Inst. C.E., lately in the Irrigation Branch of the Bombay Public Works Department and engaged in the Tata's Hydro-Electric Works in Western India up to the time of his death, "can be stored in this country at a third or a quarter of the cost which there would be in other countries. This is not merely on account of the cheaper labour, which would be the chief reason in an earthen dam, but in masonry or concrete dams. It is also because we do not use cement, which, for some reason not well-known to me, is generally deemed essential elsewhere, though it cannot really be so suitable."

The Industrial Commission emphasized the necessity for a Hydrographic Survey of India. On this recommendation the Government of India in 1918 appointed the late Mr. G. T. Barlow, C.I.E., then Chief Engineer, Irrigation Branch, United Provinces, to undertake the work, associating with him Mr. J. W. Meares, M.I.C.E., Electrical Adviser to the Government of India. Mr. Barlow died, but Mr. Meares issued a preliminary report in September, 1919, summarising the present state of knowledge of the problem in India and outlining a programme of investigation to be undertaken in the course of the inquiry. Mr. Meares showed that industries in India now absorb over a million horse power, of which only some 285,000 h.p. is supplied by electricity from steam, oil or water. The water power so far actually in sight amounts to 11 million horse-power, but this excludes practically all the great rivers, which are at present uninvestigated. Thus the minimum flow of the seven great rivers eastward from the Indus is stated to be capable of giving not less than three million horse-power for every thousand feet of fall from the Himalayas, while similar considerations apply to rivers in other parts. Some doubt is expressed as to the estimate of seven million horse-power in the Irrawaddy and Chindwin rivers, given in the report of the London Conjoint Board of Scientific Studies.

The Report points out that the Bombay Presidency holds a unique position owing to its great existing and projected schemes at Lonavla, the Andhra Valley, the Nila Mula and the Koyna Valley and has the still greater advantage of possessing a firm ready to develop its resources.

Bombay Hydro-Electric Works.

The greatest water-power undertakings in India—and in some respects the greatest in the world—are the Tata hydro-electric schemes recently brought to fruition, and constantly undergoing expansion, for the supply of power in the city of Bombay. Bombay is after London the most populous city in the British Empire and it is the largest manufacturing town in Asia. Its cotton mills and other factories use over 100,000 horse power of mechanical energy and until a year or two ago this was almost entirely provided by steam, generated by coal coming from a distance—mostly Bengal. The Tata Hydro-Electric Power Scheme, now an accomplished fact, marked one of the big steps forward made by India in the history of its industrial development. It was the product of the fertile brain of Mr. David Gostling, one of the well known characters of Bombay, a little over a decade ago. The exceptional position of the Western Ghats, which rise 2,000 feet from sea-level within a very short distance of the Arabian Sea, and force the monsoon as it sweeps to land, to break into torrential rain at the mountain passes was taken full advantage of, and the table lands behind the Ghats form a magnificent catchment area to conserve this

heavy rainfall in. Mr. Gostling pressed the scheme on the attention of Mr. Jamsetji Tata for years, and with perseverance collected data which he laid before that pioneer of the larger industries in India. He summoned the aid of experts from England to investigate the plan. The scheme was fully considered for six long years. Meanwhile both Mr. J. N. Tata and Mr. David Gostling passed away, but the sons of the former continued the work of their father and on Mr. Gostling's death, Mr. R. B. Joyner's aid was sought to work out the Hydraulic side of the undertaking.

The scheme completed, a syndicate secured the license from Government and an endeavour was made to enlist the support of financiers of England who tried to impose terms which were not acceptable. Meanwhile, the attention of Sir George Clark (now Lord Sydenham), then Governor of Bombay, and an engineer of distinction himself, was drawn to the scheme. The interest shown by him drew the attention of Indian Chiefs in the Presidency of Bombay and outside it to its possibilities, funds flowed in and a company with an initial capital of 1,75,00,000 Rupees was started.

The hydro-electric engineering works in connection with the project are situated at and about Lonavia above the Bhor Ghat. The rainfall is stored in three lakes at Lonavia, Walwan and Shirawta, whence it is conveyed in masonry canals to the forebay or receiving reservoir. The power-house is at Khopoli, at the foot of the Ghats, whither the stored water is conveyed through pipes, the fall being one of 1,725 feet. In falling from this height the water develops a pressure of 750 lbs. per square inch and with this force drives the turbines or water wheels. The scheme was originally restricted to 30,000 electrical horse power, but the Company, in view of the increasing demand for power from the Bombay mills, decided to extend the works by building the Shirawta Dam and issued further shares bringing the capital to Rs. 3,00,00,000, the capacity of the scheme being increased to more than 40,000 electrical horse power. Issued Capital 7 per cent. Preference 8,735 shares fully paid and Ordinary 18,000, out of which 10,000 are fully paid and 8,000 new shares, on which Rs. 400 have been called up. There is also a Debenture Loan of Rs. 85 lakhs. The works were formally opened by H. B. the Governor of Bombay on the 8th February 1915. At present there are altogether 44 mills with motors of the aggregate B. H. P. of 53,000 H. P. in service. In addition to the cotton and flour mills which have contracted to take supply from the Company for a period of ten years, an agreement has been completed whereby the Tata Hydro-Electric Company, the Andhra Valley Power Supply Company and the Tata Power Company will between them supply the whole of the electric power required by the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company, Limited, and also the power for the electrification of the Harbour Branch and Bombay-Kalyan section of the G. I. P. Railway. There remain many prospective buyers of electrical energy and the completion of the Company's full scheme will not suffice for all such demands. Besides the Bombay cotton mills, which alone would require about 100,000 horse power,

there are, for instance, tramways, with possibilities of suburban extensions. The probable future demand is roughly estimated at about 160,000 H. P. During the past year the Company has embarked upon a considerable scheme of extensions, these involving the impounding of a fourth lake at Lonavia, the duplication of the pipe line and the installation of additional machinery at the power house at Khopoli.

Investigations undertaken by Mr. H. P. Gibbs, with a view to further developing the electrical supply led to the discovery of a highly promising water storage site in the valley of the Andhra River, situated near the present lakes previously overlooked, as altogether different treatment and design were required. In this instance the draw off point is 11 miles upstream from the dam and at a level 112 ft. above the lowest river bed level at the dam. The water is taken through a tunnel 8,700 ft. long driven in solid trap rock through the scarp of the ghats of which the pressure pipes are an extension. Seventy feet of the upper water in the lake can be drawn off comprising 75 per cent. of the total amount of water stored, both above and below draw off level. A scheme was prepared to be carried out by a separate company and providing for holding up the Andhra River by a Dam, about a third of a mile long and 192 feet high, at Tokerwadi. This dam holds up a lake nearly twelve miles long, the further end of which approaches the brink of the Ghats at Khand. Here, a tunnel, a mile and a quarter long, carries the water to the surge chamber, whence it enters the pipes for a vertical drop of about 1,750 feet to the generating station at Bhivpuri, about 17 miles from the generating station at Khopoli. The scheme is designed to yield 100,000 horse power in its full development. A new company to operate the scheme was formed on the 31st August, 1916, with an initial capital of Rs. 2,10,00,000, divided into 160,000 Ordinary shares of Rs. 1,000 each and 5,000 Preference shares of Rs. 1,000 each, this being the Andhra Valley Power Supply Company, Limited. This Company will pay annually to the Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Company 15 per cent. upon the profits (after making certain deductions), or a sum of Rs. 50,000, whichever shall be the larger sum, the intention being that the new company shall pay annually to the Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Company a minimum sum of Rs. 50,000. The areas intended to be supplied by this Company are the town and island of Bombay and the Suburban Municipalities of Bandra and Kurla. The supply of power commenced in 1922 and the whole project was completed in the following year.

Just as the Andhra project has been developed as a northward extension of the original scheme, so a southward development also originated by Mr. Gibbs and developable on lines similar to those of the Andhra project, is now being carried out under the name of the Nila-Mula scheme, the name arising from the fact that the valleys of the Nila and Mula rivers are being dammed for the conservation of water for it. A company entitled The Tata Power Co., Ltd., was floated in the autumn of 1919 for the purpose, having a capital of Rs. 9 crores, divided into 30,000 7½% cumulative preference

shares of Rs. 1,000 each and 60,000 shares of Rs. 1,000 each, the first and present issue being of 10,000 preference shares and 35,000 ordinary shares. One lake will be formed and from it water will be conducted direct through a short tunnel to a pipe descent to a turbine power house 1,750 feet below the forebay. The head of water will suffice to generate 150,000 horse power and the length of the transmission line to Bombay will be 70 miles. Half of the scheme, i.e., for the supply of 75,000 h. p., will first be completed and is expected to come into operation in about three years. The construction works at present are in progress and lands have been acquired for the Dam and the lake sites.

Nearly 100 miles southward of this Messrs. Tata propose to erect two dams in the huge valley of the Koyna river, proposed by Mr. A. T. Arnall and developable on lines similar to the two projects by Mr. Gibbs above mentioned, partly to supply power to Bombay and partly to develop a great assembly of electro-chemical industries near the power installation. The preliminary investigations for this scheme are still proceeding. The catchment area for the lake will be 348 square miles and there will be a total storage after the rains of 112,600 million cubic feet, which will be sufficient to supply a normal load of 350,000 horse power for 8,000 hours per year. The preliminary estimates provided for a capital of Rs. 810 lakhs to carry out the scheme.

Mysore Installation.

The first hydro-electric scheme undertaken in India or, indeed, in the East, was that on the River Cauvery, in Mysore State, which was inaugurated, with generating works at Sivasa-mudram, in 1902. The Cauvery rises in the British district of Coorg, and flows right across Mysore. The first object with which the installation was undertaken was the supply of power to the goldfields at Kolar. These are 92 miles distant from Sivasa-mudram and for a long time this was the longest electrical power transmission line in the world. Current is also sent to Bangalore, 59 miles away, where it is used for both industrial and lighting purposes.

The initial undertaking has constantly been expanded since its inauguration, so that its total capacity, which was at first 6,000 horse power, is now approximately 25,000 h.p. This is the maximum obtainable with the water which the Cauvery affords and, therefore, with the number of consumers, large and small, rapidly increasing, the necessity of a completely new installation elsewhere, to be operated in parallel with or separately from that at Sivasa-mudram, has been recognised. Two projects offer themselves. The first would involve the use of the River Shimsha, a tributary of the Cauvery which has natural falls, and the second, known as the Mekadatu project, would have its power house on the Cauvery, 25 miles down-river from Sivasa-mudram and just within the borders of Mysore State, adjacent to the Madras Presidency. The head of water available at Sivasa-mudram is 400 feet, that on the Shimsha 618 feet net, which would generate 39,500 e. h. p. At Mekadatu the Cauvery runs in rapids and a dam and

a channel 20,000 feet long with a 22½ feet bed would be necessary. There would be three generating units, each giving an output of 4,000 e. h. p. Future extensions yielding an additional 8,000 h. p. could be made. The progressive spirit which has marked the management of the works since their inception now characterises the manner in which the problem of further extensions is being considered.

Works in Kashmir.

A scheme of much importance from its size, but more interesting because of the developments that may be expected from it than for the part which its current supply already plays in the life of the countryside, is one installed a few years ago by the Kashmir Durbar, utilising the River Jhelum, near Baramulla, which lies thirty-four miles north-west of Srinagar. The head works of the Jhelum power installation are situated six and a half miles from the power house and the main connection between the two is a great timber flume. These works and the forebay at the delivery end of the flume have a capacity for carrying water sufficient for the generation of 20,000 electrical horse power. Four pipes 600 feet long lead from the forebay to the power house, and from forebay to water-wheel there is an effective head of 395 feet. There are four vertical waterwheels, each coupled on the same shaft to a 1,000 k.w., 3-phase, 2,300 volt, 25-period generator running at 500 r.p.m., and each unit is capable of taking a 25 per cent. overload, which the generator end is guaranteed to maintain with safety for two hours. The power house is of sufficient capacity to allow of 15,000 k.w. generating plant being installed within it. Two transmission lines run side by side as far as Baramulla, 21 miles distant, at which point one terminates. The other continues to Srinagar, a further 34 miles. The installation at Baramulla was originally utilised for three floating dredgers and two floating derricks, for dredging the river and draining the swampy countryside and rendering it available for cultivation, but these operations have temporarily been curtailed, so that only one dredger is now in operation. The lighting of Baramulla has been taken in hand with satisfactory results and it is expected that the lighting demand will rapidly increase and that a small demand for power will soon spring up. At Srinagar, the line terminates at the State silk factory, where current is supplied not only for driving machinery and for lighting, but for heating. The greater part of Srinagar city is now electrically lighted and during the past year a motor load of over 100 k.w. has been connected with the mains, motors being hired out to consumers by the Electrical Department. This step was taken with a view to educating the people in the use of electric power and it has been entirely successful.

Recent Progress.

Apart from the development of the three projects in the Bombay Presidency the past two years have witnessed comparatively little progress in hydro-electric works. A small plant was completed and put into operation at Naini Tal during 1923, and the erection of another small plant was commenced at Shillong, but otherwise there is nothing to

record. It is interesting to note, however, that preliminary investigations are proceeding with a view to the erection of hydro-electric plants in various parts of India. In the tea districts of Kalimpong and Kurseong, for example, it is proposed to harness a promising water-power site and to supply current to an important area in which are situated more than two hundred tea factories, whilst the Mandi (Punjab) project has advanced a stage and may be commenced in due course. Another Punjab scheme, the Sutlej Hydro-Electric Project, at one time appeared to be one of the most promising propositions in the country, but owing to financial considerations it has now been indefinitely shelved. In Southern India a large number of sites have been investigated, and of these one on the Pykara river in the Nilgiris and another on the Kallar river on the borders of Travancore have been selected for development if and when the financial considerations can be satisfactorily settled. The Pykara river scheme is of some magnitude, and it is estimated that upwards of 50,000 horse-power will be available for electro-chemical industries which it is proposed to establish at Calicut on the West Coast. The Kallar river project is very much smaller, but it is interesting in being a scheme in which the Government of Madras and the Travancore Darbar will be jointly responsible, for the power house will be located on the British side of the river and the current transmitted to and distributed in Travancore

State. Finally, there is a big combined project of hydro-electricity and irrigation in Hyderabad State. This scheme is still very much in the air, but the fact that it is under consideration is worthy of being placed on record in view of the somewhat unusual circumstance in India, that the tail water from the turbines will be made available for agricultural purposes and not allowed to run to waste.

The fact that the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company has definitely decided to shut down its steam-driven generating plant and to take supply in bulk from the various Tata companies has been recorded above, and it is of more than passing interest to note that the Poona Electric Supply Company has put forward a similar proposition with effect from the time when power is available from the Tata Power Company's installation at Nila-Mula. This is a phase of hydro electric distribution which is quite in its infancy in India, but it is possible to foresee the time when every village within a couple of hundred miles of a hydro-electric power station will receive its supply of electric current in bulk, thus greatly reducing capital and administrative charges and minimising the price of current to the consumer. It is a system which has become something of a fine art in California, where current is transmitted by overhead wires for many hundreds of miles at a pressure of 200,000 volts, or double the pressure commonly employed in India for overhead long-distance transmission.

TIDAL CONSTANTS.

The approximate standard time of High Water may be found by adding to, or subtracting from, the time of High Water at London Bridge, given in the calendar, the correction given as below:—

	R. M.		R. M.
Gibraltar	sub. 0 32	Rangoon River Entrance	add 1 35
Malta	add 1 34	Penang	sub. 1 39
Karachi	sub. 2 33	Singapore	" 3 25
Bombay	" 1 44	Hongkong	" 4 27
Goa	" 2 44	Shanghai	" 0 34
Point de Galle	add 0 12	Yokohama	add 3 6
Madras	sub. 5 6	Valparaiso	sub. 4 40
Calcutta	" 0 19	Buenos Ayres	add 4 9
Rangoon Town	add 2 41	Monte Video	" 0 32

Local Self-Government.

No field of the administration of India is likely to be more profoundly affected by the Reforms of 1919 than local government. This is one of the subjects transferred to Indian ministers, and there are many signs that the power will be freely used for the purpose of experiments in the direction of building up stronger and more vigorous local bodies. On the whole, the progress of local government in India for the past quarter of a century has been disappointing. The greatest successes have been won in the Presidency towns, and particularly by the Municipality of Bombay. The difficulties in the way of progress were manifold. Local government had to be a creation—the devolution of authority from the Government to the local body, and that to a people who for centuries had been accustomed to autocratic administration. Again, the powers entrusted to local bodies were insignificant and the financial support was small. There are however many indications that the dry bones of the mofussil are stirring; inasmuch as this being a transferred subject it is entirely provincial there will be the widest variation between province and province according to the special needs of each. We can indicate here only the broad tendencies, with the expression of opinion that this field will be one of the most important in the growth of nation-building forces in British India.

Throughout the greater part of India, the village constitutes the primary territorial unit of Government organisation, and from the villages are built up the larger administrative entities—tahsils, sub-divisions, and districts.

"The typical Indian village has its central residential site, with an open space for a pond and a cattle stand. Stretching around this nucleus lie the village lands, consisting of a cultivated area and (very often) grounds for grazing and wood-cutting. The inhabitants of such a village pass their life in the midst of these simple surroundings, welded together in a little community with its own organisation and government, which differ in character in the various types of villages, its body of detailed customary rules and its little staff of functionaries, artisans and traders. It should be noted, however, that in certain portions of India, e.g., in the greater part of Assam, in Eastern Bengal, and on the west coast of the Madras Presidency, the village as here described does not exist, the people living in small collections of houses or in separate homesteads."—(*Gazetteer of India*.)

The villages above described fall under two main classes, viz.—

Types of Villages.—(1) The 'severalty' or raiyatwari village, which is the prevalent form outside Northern India. Here the revenue is assessed on individual cultivators. There is no joint responsibility among the villagers, though some of the non-cultivated lands may be set apart for a common purpose, such as grazing, and waste land may be brought under the plough only with the permission of the Revenue authorities, and on payment of assessment. The village government vests in a hereditary headman, known by an old vernacular name, such as *patel* or *reddi*, who is responsible for law and order, and for the collection of the Government revenue. He represents the primitive headship of the tribe or clan by which the village was originally settled.

"(2) The joint or landlord village, the type prevalent in the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Frontier Province. Here the revenue was formerly assessed on the village as a whole, its incidence being distributed by the body of superior proprietors, and a certain amount of collective responsibility still, as a rule, remains. The village sites owned by the proprietary body who allow residences to the tenantry, artisans, traders and others. The waste land is allotted to the village, and, if wanted for cultivation, is partitioned among the shareholders. The village government was originally by the *punchayet* or group of heads of superior families. In later times one or more headmen have been added to the organisation to represent the village in its dealings with the local authorities; but the artificial character of this appointment, as compared with that which obtains in a raiyatwari village is evidenced by the title of its holder, which is generally *landward*, a vernacular derivative from the English word 'number.' It is this type of village to which the well-known description in Sir H. Maine's *Village Communities* is alone applicable, and here the co-proprietors are in general a local oligarchy with the bulk of the village population as tenants or labourers under them."

Village Autonomy.—The Indian villages formerly possessed a large degree of local autonomy, since the native dynasties and their local representatives did not, as a rule, concern themselves with the individual cultivators, but regarded the village as a whole, or some large landholder as responsible for the payment of the Government revenues, and the maintenance of local order. This autonomy has now disappeared owing to the establishment of local, civil and criminal courts, the present revenue and police organisation, the increase of communications, the growth of individualism, and the operation of the individual *raiayatwari* system, which is extending even in the north of India. Nevertheless, the village remains the first unit of administration; the principal village functionaries—the headman, the accountant, and the village watchman—are largely utilised and paid by Government, and there is still a certain amount of common village feeling and interests.

Punchayets.—For some years there was an active propaganda in favour of reviving the village council-tribunal, or *Punchayet*, and the Decentralisation Commission of 1908 made the following special recommendations:—

"While, therefore, we desire the development of a *punchayet* system, and consider that the objections urged thereto are far from insurmountable, we recognise that such a system can only be gradually and tentatively applied, and that it is impossible to suggest any uniform and definite method of procedure. We think that a commencement should be made by giving certain limited powers to *Punchayats* in those villages in which circumstances are most favourable by reason of homogeneity, natural intelligence, and freedom from internal feuds. These powers might be increased gradually as results warrant, and with success here, it will become easier to apply the system in other villages. Such a policy, which must be the work of many years, will require great care and discretion;

much patience, and judicious discrimination between the circumstances of different villages; and there is a considerable consensus of opinion that this new departure should be made under the special guidance of sympathetic officers."

This is, however, still mainly a question of future possibilities, and for present purposes it is unnecessary to refer at greater length to the subject of village self-government. Various measures have been passed, but it is too early to say what life they have. The Punjab Government has passed a Village Panchayat Act, which enables Government to establish in a village, a system of councillors to whom certain local matters, including judicial power, both civil and criminal of a minor character may be assigned. In Bihar a Village Administration Act has been passed for the administration of village affairs by villagers themselves, including minor civil and criminal cases. Other Governments are taking steps in the same direction.

Municipalities.—The Presidency towns had some form of Municipal administration, first under Royal Charters and later under statute, from comparatively early times, but outside of them there was practically no attempt at municipal legislation before 1842. An Act passed in that year for Bengal, which was practically inoperative, was followed in 1850 by an Act applying to the whole of India. Under this Act and subsequent Provincial Acts a large number of municipalities was formed in all provinces. The Acts provided for the appointment of commissioners to manage municipal affairs, and authorised the levy of various taxes, but in most Provinces the commissioners were all nominated, and from the point of view of self-government, these Acts did not proceed far. It was not until after 1870 that much progress was made. Lord Mayo's Government, in their Resolution of that year introducing the system of provincial finance, referred to the necessity of taking further steps to bring local interest and supervision to bear on the management of funds devoted to education, sanitation, medical charity, and local public works. New Municipal Acts were passed for the various Provinces between 1871 and 1874, which, among other things, extended the elective principle, but only in the Central Provinces was popular representation generally and successfully introduced. In 1881-2 Lord Ripon's Government issued orders which had the effect of greatly extending the principle of local self-government. Acts were passed in 1883-4 that greatly altered the constitution, powers, and functions of municipal bodies, a wide extension being given to the elective system, while independence and responsibility were conferred on the committees of many towns by permitting them to elect a private citizen as chairman. Arrangements were made also to increase municipal resources and financial responsibility, some items of provincial revenue suited to and capable of development under local management being transferred, with a proportionate amount of provincial expenditure, for local objects. The general principles thus laid down have continued to govern the administration of municipalities down to the present day.

The Present Position.—There are some 751 Municipalities in British India, with something

over 18 million people resident within their limits. Of these municipalities roughly 683 have a population of less than 50,000 persons and the remainder a population of 50,000 and over. As compared with the total population of particular provinces, the proportion resident within municipal limits is largest in Bombay, where it amounts to 20 per cent., and is smallest in Assam where it amounts to only 2 per cent. In other provinces it varies from 4 to 9 per cent. of the total population. Turning to the composition of the Municipalities, considerably more than half of the total members are elected and there is a steady tendency to increase this proportion. Ex-officio members are roughly 8 per cent., and nominated 27 per cent. Elected members are almost everywhere in a majority. Taking all municipalities together, the non-officials outnumber the officials by nearly six to one. The functions of municipalities are classed under the heads of Public Safety, Health, Convenience and Instruction. For the discharge of these responsibilities, there is a municipal income of Rs. 12·96 crores derived principally from taxation, just over one-third coming from municipal property, contributions from provincial revenues and miscellaneous sources. Generally speaking, the income of municipalities is small, the four cities of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Rangoon together providing nearly 40 per cent. of the total. The heaviest items of this expenditure come under the heads of "Conservancy" and "Public Works" which amount to 16 per cent. and 14 per cent. respectively, "Water-supply" comes to 13 per cent., "Drainage" to 7 per cent. and "Education" to no more than 8·1 per cent. In some localities the expenditure on education is considerably in excess of the average. In the Bombay Presidency, excluding Bombay City, for example, the expenditure on education amounts to more than 21 per cent. of the total funds, while in the Central Provinces and Berar it is over 15 per cent.

District Boards.—The duties and functions assigned to the municipalities in urban areas are in rural areas entrusted to district and local Boards. In almost every district of British India save in the province of Assam, there is a board subordinate to which are two or more sub-district boards; while in Bengal, Madras and Bihar and Orissa, there are also Union Committees. Throughout India at large there are some 219 district boards with 543 sub-district boards and more than 800 Union Committees. This machinery has jurisdiction over a population which was some 213 millions in 1919-20. Leaving aside the Union Committees the members of the Boards numbered a little over 13,000 in 1921-22, of whom 59 per cent. were elected. As in the case of municipalities the tendency has been throughout India to increase the elected members at the expense of the nominated and the official members. The Boards are practically manned by Indians, who constitute 96 per cent. of the whole membership. Only 13 per cent. of the total members of all boards are officials of any kind. The total income of the Boards in 1921 amounted to Rs. 10·93 crores, the average income of each district board being Rs. 5,00,000. The most important item of revenue is provincial rates, which represent a proportion of the total

income varying from 18 per cent. in the N. W. F. Province to 61 per cent. in Bihar and Orissa. The principal objects of expenditure are education which has come remarkably to the front within the last three years and civil works such as roads and bridges. Medical relief is also sharing with education though in a less degree the lion's share of the available revenue.

Improvement Trusts.—A notable feature in the recent sanitary history of India is the activity played by the great cities in the direction of social improvements. In Bombay and Calcutta the Improvement Trusts are continuing their activities which are described in a separate chapter (q.v.). In Bombay the work of the Improvement Trust is being developed by the Bombay Development Directorate. Other cities are beginning to follow the examples of these great cities and Improvement Trusts have been constituted in Cawnpore, Lucknow and Allahabad in the United Provinces and in several of the larger cities of the Provinces of India. Their activities have, however, been severely curtailed by the financial stress.

Provincial Progress.—There was passed in Bengal in 1919 a Village Self-Government Act embodying the policy of constituting Union Boards at the earliest possible date for groups of villages throughout the province. The number of these boards continues to increase, rising from 1,500 to more than 2,000. Though they are in their infancy as yet, many of them show a remarkable aptitude for managing their own affairs.

In Bombay the development of village self-government is also proceeding, as the result of an Act for constituting, or increasing the power of village committees, which was passed in 1920 by the Legislative Council. In this presidency, some 75 out of 157 municipalities had a two-thirds elected majority of councillors in the year 1920; and a distinct step forward has been projected by the administration in the direction of liberalizing the constitution of all municipal bodies. The policy of appointing a non-official president has been extended both to district and sub-district boards, and a large number of non-officials have also been appointed presidents of sub-districts (taluka) boards. In Madras also the institutions of local self-government continued to progress in an encouraging manner. The number of district boards in the Presidency was 24, with 882 members. The number of sub-district boards rose from 119 to 121. The total number of Municipal Councils rose from 73 to 80 and the proportion of Indian to European and Anglo-Indian members further increased. In 1920-21 there were 54 municipal councils, consisting entirely of Indian members, as against 41 in the previous year. The average imposition of taxation per head of population is still very low, being only about Rs. 2. None the less, 28 towns in the presidency possess a protected water-supply and water works schemes are either under execution or in contemplation in a number of others. The number of educational institutions maintained by municipal councils rose to 1,016 which was 99 more than in the previous year; while the net educational charges amounted to Rs. 12·61 lakhs.

In the United Provinces, there has been a considerable, if unostentatious, progress during the

year. Unfortunately, not much progress has been made towards solving the main difficulties which confront municipalities in improving their system of taxation. Efforts have been made to introduce terminal taxes, and with certain boards this source of incomes is working well. It has also been proposed in some towns to extend the pilgrim tax by a surcharge on the tickets of railway passengers. As in the past the expenditure and income in connection with water-supply are far from balancing. In fact, finance is still a greater obstacle which lies in the path of nearly all the boards. So far as district boards are concerned, little improvement can be expected while they are financially dependent on Government. It is recognised that their emancipation from official leading strings is the central item in the programme of reforms. The U. P. District Boards Act of 1922 aims at making them as independent as is possible and desirable.

In the Punjab municipal administration continued to show improvement, the general attitude of the members in regard to their responsibilities being promising for progress in the future. But the financial position is not quite satisfactory. The total Municipal expenditure exceeded the total income by Rs. 7,77,944. The receipts under the head of Octroi have fallen off considerably. The prevailing tendency towards the substitution of terminal taxes for octroi continued, and several important towns, including Lahore, are preparing for the change. The expenditure of District Boards also exceeded their revenue during 1921-22 by Rs. 14,39,183. The position is grave, but considering the results achieved it is not without hope.

Three Acts of considerable importance, providing for the creation of improvement trusts, for the more effective administration of smaller towns and for the establishment of village panchayats have been passed. Further, Municipalities and District Boards have been reconstituted in a more democratic form.

In the Central Provinces, the year 1920 witnessed the passing of a Local Self-Government Act which will guide into proper channels the undoubtedly growing interest in public matters. The continued reduction of official members and chairman, and the wider powers of control given to local bodies will be an incentive to the development of local self-government, leading to an increased sense of public duty and responsibility. Another very important measure regulating municipalities was passed into law in 1922. Its chief features are the extension of the Municipal franchise, the reduction of official and nominated members, the extension of the powers of Municipal Committees and the relaxation of official control.

In the North-West Frontier Province, the institution of local self-government is somewhat of a foreign growth. Certain of the municipal committees are still lax in the discharge of the responsibilities, and meetings are reported to be infrequent, but the attendance of non-official members is gradually increasing. Except where factional and personal considerations were involved, the members of the municipalities still remained apathetic. The same statement is unfortunately true of district boards, whose members, it is said, evince little real interest in their work.

Local Government Statistics.

Municipalities.—With this general introduction we can now turn to the statistical results of the working of Local Self-Government. The following table gives information as to the constitution of municipal committees, taxation, &c., in the chief provinces in 1920-21:—

	Population within Municipal Limits.	Number of Municipalities.	Total Number of Members	By Qualification.			By Employment.		By Race.		Incidence of Municipal Taxation per head.
				Ex-Officio.	Nomi-nated.	Elected.	Officials.	Non-Officials.	Euro-peans.	Indians.	
Rs. a. p.											
<i>Presidency Towns.</i>											
Calcutta	903,173	1	50	..	25	25	3	47	10	34	12 7 6
Bombay	979,445	1	72	..	16	56	6	66	15	57	14 8 6
Madras	518,060	1	47	..	0	38	2	45	8	39	6 10 4
Rangoon	284,935	1	25	1	6	18	2	23	12	13	13 7 6
<i>District Municipalities.</i>											
Bengal	2,041,511	115	1,596	76	511	1,009	160	1,436	126	1,470	2 11 7
Bihar and Orissa	1,204,698	58	817	134	204	479	130	687	88	729	1 9 4
Assam	1,67,877	25	252	40	82	130	48	204	27	225	2 5 0
Bombay and Sind	2,590,854	157	2,330	297	739	1,294	356	1,974	135	2,195	3 13 4
Madras	2,482,077	81	1,217	45	411	761	95	1,122	52	1,165	2 0 3
United Provinces	2,984,773	84	1,054	51	105	898	76	978	72	982	2 5 9
Punjab	1,626,506	101	1,197	211	354	632	228	971	75	1,122	4 2 8
N. W. Frontier Province	141,928	6	117	34	83	..	34	83	16	101	6 2 0
Central Provinces and Berar..	927,104	60	(a) 841	23	242	576	143	699	47	795	2 15 1
Burma	740,972	47	597	172	306	119	187	410	105	492	2 13 7

(a) One seat vacant.

Calcutta Improvement Trust.

The Calcutta Improvement Trust was instituted by Government in January, 1912, with a view to making provision for the improvement and expansion of Calcutta by opening up congested areas, laying out or altering streets, providing open spaces for purposes of ventilation or recreation, demolishing or constructing buildings and re-housing the poorer and working classes displaced by the execution of improvement schemes.

The origin of the Calcutta Improvement Trust must, as in the case of the corresponding Bombay body, upon which the Calcutta Trust was to a large extent modelled, be looked for in a medical enquiry which was instituted into the sanitary condition of the town in 1896, owing to the outbreak of plague. It was estimated that the Trust might in the ensuing 30 years have to provide for the housing of 225,000 persons. The population of Calcutta proper, which includes all the most crowded areas, was 649,995 in 1891, and increased to 801,251, or by 25 per cent., by 1901. The corresponding figure according to the 1911 Census was 896,067 and this had increased by 1921 to 993,508.

The problem of expansion was difficult, because of the peculiar situation of Calcutta, which is shut in on one side by the Hooghly and on the other by the Salt Lakes.

Preliminary investigations continued for several years, so that it was only in 1910 that legislation was eventually introduced in the provincial legislature and the Trust instituted by it. The Bill provided for a scheme involving the expenditure of Rs. 8,22,00,000, and for special local taxation to this end. It also provided for the appointment of a whole time chairman of the board of trustees and the membership of the Trust was fixed at eleven.

The following formed the Board of Trustees in 1923-24: Mr. T. Emerson, C.I.E., I.C.S., M.L.C., Chairman; Rai Bahadur Dr. Haridhan Dutt, Chairman of the Corporation of Calcutta (*ex-officio*); Raja Reshee Case Law, C.I.E., M.L.C., elected by the Corporation of Calcutta; Rai Nalin Nath Sett Bahadur, elected by the Ward Commissioners; Mr. W. H. Phelps, elected by the Commissioners appointed under Section 8 (2) of the Calcutta Municipal Act, 1899; Mr. A. H. Johnstone, B.A., B.E., A.M.L.C.E., elected by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce; Babu Woomesh Chandra Banerjee, elected by the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce; and Mr. H. Sudlow, F.R.I.B.A., Rai Annoda Prosad Sarkar Bahadur, Rai Sahib Ram Deo Chokhany, and Mr. J. H. Lindsay, I.C.S., appointed by the Local Government.

During the 12 years that it has now been at work, the Trust have decided, and partly or entirely carried through, several improvement schemes for opening up congested areas, laying out or widening streets and providing open spaces. It has spent over 6·8 crores of rupees on Capital Account, of which 1·24 crores has gone in Engineering Works and 5·56 crores on Land Acquisition: it has sold land to the value of 2·23 crores.

In Central Calcutta many highly insanitary *bustees* have been done away with and several roads of an improved type laid out, the most important of which is the Central Avenue, 100 ft. wide, which at present extends from Beadon Street to Bow Bazar Street, a distance of 1½

miles and which will shortly be extended towards the south to link up with Chowringhee, and to Shambazar on the north.

In the north of the City, a park and play ground have been completed and several wide roads driven through that highly congested area. The approaches to the City have also been adequately widened.

The Suburban Areas to the South and South-East of Calcutta required greater attention and extensive development schemes were under taken. Several open spaces and squares have been made in various parts. Insanitary tanks requiring approximately 2 crores C.ft. of earth have been filled up. Russa Road which forms the southern approach to the town has been widened to 150 ft. for a length of one mile and 100 ft. for a length of another mile. It now gives a most pleasant drive from Chowringhee to Tollygunge. To improve the drainage of this area a 100 ft. wide East to West road, from Ballygunge Railway Station to Chetla Bridge, and for recreation an artificial lake of 167 bighas with adequate grounds are being made.

Lastly, for the housing of the displaced population the Trust has undertaken on a large scale the following schemes:—

In the early stages three blocks of chawls were built in Wards Institution Street for persons of the poorer classes. It was found, however, that the persons displaced preferred to take their compensation and migrate to some place where they could erect *busties* of their own, the class of structures they were accustomed to live in. These chawls were then filled with persons of limited means, *e.g.*, School Masters, poor Students, Clerks and persons of the artisan class. As many as 1,200 people are housed in these chawls, these buildings, including land, cost Rs. 2,44,388 and are let at at very low rents—ground floor rooms at Rs. 5 per mensem and top floor rooms at Rs. 6 per mensem each room measuring 12'×12' with a 4 ft. verandah in front opening on to a central passage 7 ft. wide.

As these chawls failed to attract the people for whom they were meant, the Board next tried an experiment in providing sites for *bustees*. Two sites with a lettable area of 16 bighas were acquired within the area of Maniktola Municipality, but they failed to attract because they were out of the way and were expensive. A scheme is now being carried out at Paikpara, in Cossipore-Chittpore Municipality. Here 36 bighas of land have been acquired and are being laid out in building sites for sale to middle class people who will build their own houses. A large park is also under construction in this area.

The Trust has also built a cluster of houses in Kerbala Tank Lane, off Beadon Street, to house temporarily persons whose residences have been acquired, while they are building new houses.

Finally, the Trust has under construction in Bow Street a number of blocks of one, two and three roomed tenements capable of accommodating 500 people. These are intended for Anglo-Indians, who have been displaced in the area to the East of Bentinck Street.

The single roomed tenements are just ready and have been greatly in demand by the people for whom they are intended.

BOMBAY IMPROVEMENT TRUST.

Bombay is an island twelve miles long, but very narrow and containing only 22 square miles altogether, but in the city, occupying little more than half the island, there lives a population enumerated at 11,75,914 at the Census in 1921 and actually totalling at the present time, according to conservative estimates, over a million and a quarter. Bombay is, in point of population, the second city of the British Empire. Seventy-six per cent. of its people live in one-roomed tenements. A terrible visitation of plague in 1896 harshly directed attention to the insanitary conditions arising from overcrowding and as it was recognised that the task of effecting the required improvements was too great for the Municipality, a special body, termed the Trustees for the Improvement of the City of Bombay, was appointed. It consists of 14 members, of whom four are elected by the Municipality and one each by the Chamber of Commerce, the Millowners' Association and the Port Trust, and the balance nominated by Government, or sit *ex-officio* as officers of Government. The Board is presided over by a whole-time chairman appointed by Government and he is also head of the executive. The present chairman and members of the Trust are as follows:—

Chairman—

Mr. B. H. A. De'ves, F.S.I.

Ex-officio Trustees—

Major-Genl. H.A.V. Cummins, C.B., C.M.G.,
Officer Commanding Bombay District.

Mr. J. P. Brander, I.C.S., Collector of Bombay.

Mr. H. B. Clayton, M.A., J.P., Municipal Commissioner for the City of Bombay.

Elected by the Corporation—

Dr. K. E. Dadachanji, J.P.

Mr. V. A. Dabholkar, C.B.E., J.P.

Mr. Naoroji M. Dumasla, J.P.

The Hon. Mr. P. C. Sethna, O.B.E., J.P.

Elected by the Chamber of Commerce—

Mr. Harry T. Gorrie, J.P.

Elected by the Port Trustees—

Mr. P. R. Cadell, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Elected by the Millowners' Association—

Mr. S. D. Saklatvala.

Nominated by Government—

Sir Lawless Hepper, Kt., J.P.

Mr. Mirza Ali Mahomedkhan, M.A., LL.B., J.P.

Dr. S. S. Bhatliwala.

The specific duties of the Trust are to construct new and widen old streets, open out crowded localities, reclaim lands from the sea to provide room for expansion, and construct sanitary dwellings for the poor (including the Presidency Police) and also at the cost of employers of labour for the labourers employed.

Bombay city grew on haphazard lines houses being added as population poured in with the growth of trade and without any regard to town planning or the sanitary requirements of a great town. The price of land was always comparatively high, owing to the small area of the island, and while the builder had only one object in view, namely, to collect as many rent paying tenants as possible on the smallest possible piece of land, there were no proper restraints to compel him to observe the most ordinary rules of hygiene. The result was the erection of great houses; sometimes five and six storeys high, constituting mere nests of rooms. There was no adequate restriction as to the height of these chawls, or the provision of surrounding open space, so that the elementary rules as to the admission of light and air went unobserved and the house builder invariably erected a building extending right up to the margins of his site. Consequently, great houses accommodating from a few hundred to as many as four thousand tenants were built with no more than two or three feet between any two of them and with hundreds of rooms having no opening at all into the outer air.

The Trust has practically reconstructed large areas on modern sanitary lines, but the old municipal by-laws having until within the past year remained quite inadequate for the due control of private building operations by the Municipality, the Trust have spent millions sterling of public money in sweeping away abuses, while unscrupulous landlords, still unchecked, added in the same old manner to the insanitary conditions of the place. It is hoped that the amendment of the by-laws, as recently settled, will overcome this evil of bad building.

Certain Government and Municipal lands were vested in the Trust, the usufruct of which it enjoys, and the Trust receives a contribution from municipal revenues amounting to a definite share in the general tax receipts, approximating to 2 per cent. on assessments and subject to no maximum. Works were financed out of 4 per cent. loans, until the war stopped borrowing by the Trust, the loans being guaranteed by the Municipality and Government, and the revenue of the Trust being used to meet interest and sinking fund charges. Short term loans were raised in 1919 and 1920 at 6 per cent. interest and for the last three years loans are borrowed from Government (at rates of interest varying between 6 per cent. and 7 per cent.).

The salient features of the Trust's programme of 60 schemes as completed or sanctioned up to 1923-24 may be summarised as follows:

The total capital expenditure up to 31st March 1924 was Rs.1,526 lakhs. The margin for expansion is about Rs.161 lakhs. The total borrowings stand at Rs.1,354 lakhs, involving interest and sinking fund charges of Rs.81 lakhs per annum.

Plan of Operations.

The work of the Trust, as epitomised by these figures, can be divided into two parts. The first concerned the immediate alleviation of

the worst burdens of insanitation and the second consisted of opening up new residential areas. The Trust began by attacking the most insanitary areas, cutting broad roads through them. Meanwhile, large areas of good building land, lying idle for want of development works, were developed and brought on the market, sold at remunerative rates and largely built upon. Instances of this development are the Chaupati and Gamdevi estates, the land overhung by Malabar Hill, between it and the native city. These were cut up with fine new roads and are now nearly covered with modern suburban dwellings. Two of the most insanitary quarters in the midst of the city have been levelled to the ground and rebuilt in accordance with hygienic principles. Sanitary chawls have been built for over 21,000 persons.

The death-rate in the Trust's permanent chawls has always been considerably below the general death-rate in the vicinity. The smallest one room tenement on the Trust Estate is large enough for a family of five.

The second phase of the Trust's work, arising gradually out of the first and advancing along with its later stages, consists of the development of a new suburban area in the north of the island, beyond the present city, and the construction of great arterial thoroughfares traversing the island from north to south.

During the past few years there has been an important movement towards the establishment of co-partnership housing societies on the Board's Estate. The Board regard the new departure as one deserving every encouragement at their hands especially in connection with the disposal of land in their suburbs in the north of the island and sites have been given to societies on specially favourable terms, and have granted valuable concessions to the Society which approached them for plots on the latter agreeing to limit their dividends.

The Board have prevented, as far as possible, profiteering on their estates, by preventing the transfer of plots before completion of buildings.

Enormous schemes for the expansion of housing in the city are now passing through the final stages before being put into execution. Government, the Improvement Trust and the great employers of labour will all be concerned in the work and the Improvement Trust have floated a huge new programme, their new schemes sanctioned representing a greater undertaking than all their former schemes put together.

The new schemes of the Trust concern the northern part of Bombay Island, where large opportunities for suburban development offer themselves. At Worli on the north-west of the island, at Dharavi on the north, and at Sewri and Wadala on the north-east, the Trust have undertaken development schemes involving the acquisition and development of 1,558 acres, or 2.43 square miles, that is, between 1/9th and 1/10th of the whole area of the Bombay Island. A considerable amount of filling of lowlying land is involved and for this purpose material from the hills on the north-east and north-west of the island will be utilised, the hills being lowered in such a manner as to level them into desirable building sites. Room will be provided for more than a quarter of a million new population, equal to nearly 1/10th of the present total population of the city, in the three new estates when they are fully developed and the recoupment which the Trust will derive from the disposal of building sites upon them will repay almost the whole of the enormous capital outlay.

Government have decided to transfer the functions of the Trust to the Municipality and the necessary formalities and legislation to effect the transfer are receiving attention at their hands.

Bombay Development Scheme.

The Bombay Development Scheme in its widest sense represents concerted attempts by the three local bodies, the Municipality, the City Improvement Trust and the Port Trust, each working in its own sphere, and by the Government, to secure the rapid and adequate development of the city.

The Municipality is developing various areas in the city which will result in providing increased residential and business accommodation. The Mahim scheme will provide two main avenues running north to south, in addition to the 60 feet road from Worli to Mahim Bazar, now practically completed, and a large number of cross roads. It aims at the development of an area in which it may be possible to house, approximately, a population of 250,000. Provision has been made for a central park with a frontage on the bay and for a smaller park near the southern end of the area. The main contribution of the Municipality, however, towards the general development scheme lies in the great water and drainage projects which it is undertaking and which are essential for the health and well-being of the city.

Improvement Trust.—The Improvement Trust are developing the north of the island on a large scale and at a rapid pace, completing their old schemes, Dadar-Matunga and Slon-Matunga, and pressing on with the new schemes, adopted in 1919, the total area of which amounts to about one-ninth of the area of the whole island. Of the latter, the Worli scheme will provide for three classes of people; the richer class on the sea face, the middle class on the main road, and very large areas for the working classes on the land which is now being reclaimed in the neighbourhood of the mills. At Dharavi the land now occupied by the tanneries and the swamps to the south will be converted into a salubrious garden suburb, including a large amount of accommodation for the working classes. The Sewri-Wadala scheme is intended almost entirely for the working and lower middle classes, and the area included in it will, when the contemplated railway connections are made, be within easy access by rail from Victoria Terminus.

Port Trust.—The Port Trust is completing the preparation of a scheme for a great expansion of

the docks, the new docks to be located on the south-west corner of Trombay. The construction of the new cotton depot on the Mazgaon-Sewri reclamation has been completed and has released for other purposes the ground now occupied by the Cotton Green.

Programme.—The works which Government propose to carry out themselves are as follows:—

(a) The provision of one-room tenements for the working classes, to meet an actual existing shortage of accommodation as reported by the Municipal Commissioner in 1919.

(b) The Back Bay and East Colaba Reclamation, to reduce congestion in the business area and provide residential accommodation and open spaces in the south of the City.

(c) The development of South Salsette, including Trombay, partly for residential and partly for industrial purposes.

(d) The provision of other industrial area at greater distances.

(e) The improvement of communications to the suburban areas.

(f) The improvement of the supply and transport of building materials.

The question of special measures for the development of Bombay was under the consideration of Government for many years. The results of the last general survey of the subject are contained in the report of the Bombay Development Committee submitted in May 1914. The war made it impossible then to carry out any large schemes as to formulate a definite policy. And when the war had come to an end, it was found that owing to the large increase in the City's population during the war, and the high prices of materials, conditions were much worse than before, and that more rapid and more drastic action was necessary.

Scope of Work.—In a speech to the Legislative Council in August 1920, His Excellency the Governor explained that the industrial housing scheme, which Government considered essential, would be carried out by them direct, instead of being entrusted to the Municipality or the Improvement Trust, because of the very heavy liabilities which already rested on those bodies. He introduced a Bill for the levy of a cess of one rupee per bale on cotton imported into Bombay, the proceeds of which would be used partly to provide additional revenue for the Municipality in view of its large programme of expenditure, partly to meet the loss anticipated on the housing scheme, and partly to assist development schemes in Salsette.

He announced Government's decision to establish a new Development Department, and Directorate, which would be at once a department of Government, detached as far as possible from the ordinary Secretariat, and an executive organisation, and defined its duties as under:—

(a) To carry out the Back Bay Reclamation Scheme and any other reclamation schemes which may be found necessary in or near Bombay City.

(b) To undertake the industrial housing scheme of 50,000 one-roomed tenements for the working classes in Bombay.

(c) To organise systematically the supply of building materials for its own work and for the works with which it is connected.

(d) To take over all questions relating to the acquisition of land in Bombay City and all questions regarding the utilisation of Government land.

(e) To carry out large schemes for the systematic development of Salsette.—

(i) by town planning schemes to be carried out by local authorities, and

(ii) by the purchase of areas outright with a view to resale after development.

(f) To secure an adequate water supply for the whole of Salsette when it is developed as an urban area.

(g) To deal with the supply and distribution of electrical energy, both for domestic and industrial purposes in the area outside Bombay.

(h) To take up the question of the improvement of communications to link up Bombay City with the areas to be developed in Salsette and Trombay.

He stated also that, in view of the magnitude of the schemes to be undertaken simultaneously by Government and the local bodies, Government had decided that the finance of the whole scheme should be pooled, that they should lend their credit to the local bodies, and appeal to the public for the money required by them as well as by Government themselves. The result of this decision was the Bombay Development Loan of Rs. 930 lakhs in round figures. Of this amount, Rs. 695 lakhs were lent to the local bodies, the balance being retained by Government. Further loans aggregating Rs. 115½ lakhs (including a temporary loan of Rs. 12 lakhs to the Municipality for the Mahim Scheme) have been made to the local bodies up to the end of 1923-24 from advances made by the Government of India for development purposes.

Personnel.—The whole Development Department, including the Directorate, is in charge of the Hon'ble Mr. Cowasjee Jahangir, I.C.E., O.B.E., as General Member of Council. The Director of Development is in charge of the executive organisation and staff, subject to the orders of Government. The Deputy Director, in addition to assisting the Director in executive matters, is Secretary to Government in the Development Department, and also Commissioner for the Bombay Suburban Division, which includes the areas in Salsette and the Ambarnath taluka, in which development schemes are being carried out.

The Back Bay Reclamation works and the East Colaba Reclamation Project are in charge of a Chief Engineer (under the Director), assisted by three Deputy Chief Engineers, one in combined charge of the Marine Lines Section and of the Quarry near Kandivle Station from which materials for the wall are being obtained, one at Colaba and one for the Dredging Section. This branch is detached from the remainder of the engineering staff.

For development works other than the reclamation, the Director is Chief Engineer and is assisted by two Superintending Engineers. One is in charge of industrial housing and the materials division and one of development works in Salsette.

The appointment of Salsette Development Officer, created many years ago, has been absorbed in the Directorate, and the holder of it is also Collector of the Suburban District, and in charge of the staff employed on the acquisition of land in the suburban area. There is a Land Manager, who is employed on valuations, the preparation of details of schemes, negotiations with land owners, management of chawls in Bombay City, etc. As the existing land revenue survey is not nearly accurate enough for land to be developed as an Urban area, a Superintendent of Suburban survey was appointed to make a survey on the general lines of the Bombay City survey. A detailed survey on a scale of 40 feet to an inch, of the whole area, extending from Bandra to just north of Andheri and comprising all the town planning and suburban schemes situated on both sides of the B. B. and C. I. Railway has been completed.

The Government of India have appointed a special Audit and Accounts Officer for the Bombay Development Scheme, and have authorised his appointment as Deputy Financial Adviser, and the appointment of the Deputy Controller of Currency as Financial Adviser to the Development Department.

SIR LAWLESS HEPHER, Kt., J.P., Director of Development.

R. D. BELL, C.I.E., I.C.S., Deputy Director of Development, Secretary to Government, Development Department, and Commissioner Bombay Suburban Division.

H. ST. C. SMITH, J.P., Deputy Secretary to Government, Development Department, Secretary to the Development Directorate and Assistant Commissioner, Bombay Suburban Division.

H. A. EIDGE, M.I.C.E., Chief Engineer, Reclamation Branch.

G. M. O'ROBKE, C.I.E., M.B.E., B.A.I., A.M. I.C.E., Deputy Chief Engineer, Reclamation Branch.

C. B. BRIMS, Deputy Chief Engineer, Reclamation Branch.

P. BILLINGTON, Deputy Chief Engineer, Reclamation Branch.

W. H. THOMAS, A.C.G.I., A.M.I.C.E., Executive Engineer, Projects.

W. F. ANDERSON, Executive Engineer, Reclamation Branch.

C. G. CROUDACE, Executive Engineer-in-charge, Quarry Section.

T. HARVEY, M.Sc., M.I.C.E., Superintending Engineer, No. 1, Housing and Materials Division.

J. R. COLABAWALLA, M.S.E. (Lond.), M.I.E. (India), Assoc. M. Am. Soc. I.E., Assoc. A.I.E.E., Executive Engineer, Bombay Housing District No. 1.

A. HAMID, F.Sc., Executive Engineer, Bombay Housing District No. II.

RAO SAHEB P. S. KRISHNASWAMI AYYAR, Executive Engineer, Bombay Housing Sanitary District.

W. K. CALDWELL, Executive Engineer, Mechanical District.

A. F. MACDONALD CLARK, M.A., B.Sc., M.I.C.E., J.P., Superintending Engineer, No. 2, Suburban Division.

T. S. SOORMA, B.E., Executive Engineer, Suburban Sanitary and Andheri Districts.

G. W. T. SQUIRES, Executive Engineer, Kurla-Trombay District.

A. LENNOX STANTON, M.I.E. (India), M.A.M.S., M.E., A.M.I.M.E., A.M.I.E.E., Electrical and Mechanical Engineer.

T. A. PERRERA, Executive Engineer, Central Salsette Railway.

W. J. NEWLAND, Superintendent, Bombay Suburban Survey.

CAPTAIN E. M. GILBERT LODGE, F.S.I., F.I.A., F.A.I., Land Manager, Development Directorate.

E. W. PERRY, I.C.S., J.P., Collector, Bombay Suburban District and Salsette Development Officer.

Audit and Finance.

J. C. NIXON, I.C.S., Financial Adviser to Government.

S. M. L. BEAN, Deputy Financial Adviser to Government and Audit and Accounts Officer, Bombay Development Scheme.

Military Lands Scheme.

Colonel R. ST. J. GILLESPIE, C.I.E., O.B.E., Secretary, Board of Control and Chief Engineer.

Major A. H. C. TRENCH, C.I.E., R.E., M.I.E.E., Deputy Chief Engineer.

Industrial Housing.—In Bombay City, apart from some minor schemes affecting Government properties, the work of the Directorate consists of Industrial Housing and the Back Bay Reclamation. There are four housing schemes in progress and Government have decided that till these are complete additional land is not to be taken up for industrial housing and further new schemes are not to be embarked on without Government approval. The progress in each scheme in September 1924 was as under:—

1. *Naigaum*.—42 chawls, of which 19 have been completed.
2. *DeLisle Road*.—32 chawls, of which 27 have been completed and the rest are near completion.
3. *Worli*.—121 chawls, of which 20 chawls have been completed and 60 require only drainage and water supply connections.
4. *Sewri*.—16 chawls for the workmen at the Cotton Depot, of which 2 have been completed.

Out of the 5,120 tenements completely ready for occupation, about 3,900 are already occupied. Provision has been made for shops in the chawls at Worli, Naigaum and Sewri.

The average economic rent of the chawls works out at Rs. 14-8-0 per month per tenement without a *nahani* and at Rs. 15-8-0 per month per tenement with a *nahani*.

The average minimum rent fixed for the present per month for each tenement with and without a *nahani* is Rs. 11 and Rs. 10 respectively. On this basis there is a loss of Rs. 54 per tenement which is being met from the cotton cess.

All the four housing schemes referred to are expected to be complete before the end of 1925.

Reclamation.—As regards **Back Bay** the quarry has been equipped for a continuous output of 2,000 tons a day, the product varying from crushed stone and ordinary rubble to blocks weighing up to 10 tons. There is through railway communication to the Marine Lines section, and this has been extended to the Colaba section. At Marine Lines 6,480 feet of the wall, mass concrete on a rubble bank, have been completed, and the first section of the wall at Colaba, 2,000 feet of mass concrete built directly on the reef is completed. The remainder of the wall at the Colaba end will consist of mass concrete built on a rubble mound, as at Marine Lines. 6,710 feet of this rubble mound has been completed and the extension of the concrete wall has been completed up to 3,738 feet. A cross wall to form the first compartment for filling has been completed at Colaba and the filling was commenced at Colaba and about 5,28,000 cubic yards of material has been deposited.

Salsette.—In Salsette, the widening and tar macadamizing of the surface has been completed in the greater portion of the Bandra-Andheri Road. The Malad-Marve Road, including the construction of a bridge, has been completed, while the first section of the Kolwada-Borla Road, which will afford direct road communication between Bombay and Trombay, has also been finished. Quarrying and reclamation works have been carried out at Gilbert Hill, Andheri, and progress has been made in town planning schemes. The development scheme at Khar, between the Khar Station and the sea known as Khar Model Suburb, and a small scheme at Chapel Road, Bandra, have been worked out. These provide for about 863 and 140 building plots, respectively. The Khar railway station has now been opened to traffic and most of the roads in the developed portion of the Khar scheme have been constructed. A considerable area in the Chapel Road Scheme, in which all roads have been constructed, has been sold, while at Khar also a large area has been disposed of. A small development scheme for an area of about 20 acres in Danda village has also been worked out and the construction of roads in the scheme is in progress. Five roads have been completed in the residential scheme in Kiroli-North. An industrial area at Kurla-Kiroli for smaller industries, has been provided. One plot was

sold therein for a small match factory which has been erected and brought into use. Considerable progress has been made in the provision of water-supply, especially in Santa Cruz and Juhu, while arrangements for additions to the Andheri water-supply are nearing completion.

In Trombay there are three large schemes; Trombay North-East is intended to provide for (a) a new municipal slaughter-house, tanneries, dye-works and other noxious trades which ought to be removed from the City; (b) a separate area for milch cattle stables; (c) residential areas for the people employed in the tanneries, etc. Trombay North-West is intended to provide a residential area for the lower middle class on good land surrounding on three sides, the existing Chembur village and extending to the south and east. The development of Trombay West will depend on the detailed proposals of the Port Trust as regards the new docks.

In Trombay North-West, which is intended to be a residential area, the development of a gross area of 570 acres, to provide over 3,100 building plots, has been worked out in detail. The Chembur sector of this scheme, which has been designated "Chembur Garden Suburb", has now a road system completed and has been provided with a pipe water-supply. A passenger service between Kurla and Chembur has been started by the G.I.P. Railway and it is well patronised especially in the mornings and evenings. The earth work for the extension of the line from Chembur to Trombay was taken in hand and completed as far as Mandala Station which will serve the new tannery area. The filling in of the tannery area has been completed and pending settlement of the question of the removal of this trade from the Island of Bombay, the work of constructing roads, drainage, water-supply, etc., in the area has been postponed.

The Salsette-Trombay Railway runs from Anik to Kurla and then through the Shahar area, lying between the G.I.P. and B.E. & C.I. Railways, to Andheri. This railway is now practically complete as a single line, except for the bridge over the G.I.P. Ry. at Kurla, the construction of which is in progress through the agency of the G.I.P. Railway Company. The main objects of the railway are to bring stone for road-making in Salsette from the quarries in Trombay and to provide a tramway service to open up the areas, through which it passes, which are at present without any means of communication. As road-making in Salsette is in abeyance owing to the prevailing stagnation in the land market, the line is not required for stone traffic at present, but proposals are under consideration for running a tramway service between Andheri and Kurla and eventually to Anik when the bridge at Kurla is completed.

With the view to help people of moderate means to become owners of their homes, Government have sanctioned a scheme of financial assistance to intending purchasers of plots in the residential schemes of the Development Directorate. The essential feature of this scheme is that Government will advance, at

6 per cent. interest, a sum equal to $\frac{1}{4}$ th is of the cost of land and $\frac{1}{4}$ th the cost of the building which it is intended to erect, the advance being repayable in instalments spread over a period not exceeding fifteen years.

Industrial Town.—The Ambernath Development Scheme aims at creating a new township to establish industries with all modern facilities. During the year, a site was sold at Ambernath to the Western India Match Company and an up-to-date factory established on it. Owing to the increase in the population and industries of the area, the temporary water-supply became inadequate but the permanent supply is now almost ready for distribution. The approach roads to all existing factories were completed, together with a road connecting Ambernath Station with the Kalyan-Badlapur Road. Roads for staff bungalows and workmen's quarters have practically been finished. The existing sewage arrangements are by means of septic tanks, but a small activated sludge plant is being installed as an experiment and, if successful, will probably be extended to deal with the sewage of the area. A market to serve the residents of the area has also been provided. The G.I.P. Railway are running a shuttle service between Kalyan and Badlapur with a good number of passengers and are considering the question of remodelling Ambernath station to deal with the traffic of the factories. An arterial siding for the factories is also being arranged by the Railway Company.

The main water scheme is located at Badlapur, 5 miles from Ambernath Station. The works comprise—(a) A barrage across the Ulhas River about 14 miles from the railway station, which has been completed; (b) A set of Paterson rapid filters to filter three million gallons of water daily; (c) Protection wall for the Ulhas left bank; (d) Filtration plant, with the exception of a few minor items, is finished and will be in working order shortly. Owing to delay in arrival of the permanent motor driven pumping plant from England, a temporary engine and pump were erected to fill the reservoir during the hot weather.

The provision of a small power station has also been undertaken. It will supply electric energy for running the permanent pumping plant at Badlapur and will meet the demands of the present factories in the area. The plant has been so laid out that it can easily be supplemented, should further demands arise in the future. The power house has been practically completed and the plant is under erection.

Supplies.—As regards materials, arrangements have been made with a group of Indian Companies for the supply of all the cement likely to be required by the Development Directorate for 10 years, the local bodies in Bombay having an option of participating, if they wish to do so. Additional sidings have been constructed at Mumbai, the principal source of supply of sand and shingle. A suitable dredging plant for getting shingle and sand from the river bed has been obtained and is now working at Mumbai. A contract has been made for the handling of the material ex-

dredger into wagons on the siding at Mumbai. Owing to the successful working of the dredger, the source of supply of sand will now be confined to Mumbai and no further sidings will be laid down at other points. Railway sidings from Mahalaxmi to the Worli Housing site and from Lower Parel to the DeLisle Road site, for the transport of materials, have been constructed. A depot has been established and sidings are completed at Matunga. These sidings will be used for materials required on development schemes in Bombay not accessible by rail, and facilities can be given to the public engaged in building in the north of the Island. A small fleet of steam wagons and trailers has been provided for the transport of materials, and in connection with the proposed development of Salsette and Trombay, small workshops capable of expansion as required have been erected near Kolkalyan and Wadavli near Chembur.

Military Lands.—Arrangements have been made with the Government of India involving the relinquishment by the military authorities of practically all the land they hold in the Fort area. The services displaced are to be reinstated partly at Deolali and partly at Colaba, where the military area is to be increased by about 265 acres at the southern end of the Back Bay Reclamation. The Government of India have to pay the Government of Bombay for this land, and this payment and the cost of new buildings, etc., due to the removal of the military from the Fort are to be covered by the sale of the land to be vacated. A large area of land on the Talton Road Estate (formerly the old Talton Road Lines) has been sold to the Bombay Municipality. A few plots on the estate and another in Carnac Road have also been sold. The plots available for sale in the Mazagon Defence Yard site have all been sold, while the small site, known as the Old Saluting Battery site, situated at Strand Street on the Harbour Face, south of the Apollo Bunder, was sold to the Port Trust for road widening. The old town barracks in the Fort have been sold to the Bombay Municipality in connection with its Hornby Road-Ballard Pier Scheme. New Indian Infantry Lines at Carney Lines near Marine Lines and New Indian Infantry Lines at Deolali have been completed, while the temporary Mechanical Transport Depot at Colaba and the officers' quarters at Colaba are nearing completion. The Pilot Bunder flats at Colaba have also been completed and the quarters for the General Officer Commanding, Bombay District, at Colaba, are under construction. The Bombay Military Lands Scheme is in charge of a Board of Control, consisting of the Director of Development and the General Officer Commanding, Bombay District. The Audit and Accounts Officer, Bombay Development Scheme, is also Financial Adviser and Audit Officer for the Military Scheme. The Staff employed on this scheme do not form part of the Development Directorate, but work in the same building, and in conjunction with the Directorate. As military land becomes ready for disposal, it is handed over by the military authorities to the Bombay Government, and action in regard to its disposal is taken by the Development Directorate under the orders of Government.

The Indian Ports.

The administration of the affairs of the larger ports (*Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi, Rangoon and Chittagong*) is vested by law in bodies specially constituted for the purpose. They have wide powers, but their proceedings are subject in a greater degree than those of municipal bodies to the control of Government. Except in Calcutta, the elected members are fewer in number than the nominated members. At all the ports the European members constitute the majority and the Board for Rangoon consists mainly of European members.

The income, expenditure and capital debt, according to the latest figures obtainable from the Department of Statistics (India) of the five principal ports managed by Trusts (Aden is excluded from the tables) are shown in the following table:—

—	Income.	Expenditure.	Capital Debt.
	£	£	£
Calcutta ..	1,270,568	1,227,628	6,852,030
Bombay ..	1,311,202	1,242,194	10,317,716
Karachi ..	371,412	331,348	1,717,408
Madras ..	131,463	134,529	907,510
Rangoon ..	348,481	283,727	1,990,800

In the Department of Statistics, India, the following returns have been compiled, showing the ratios borne by the income and the expenditure of each port to the total income and the

total expenditure, respectively, of all the chief Indian ports during the year 1918-19, the latest period for which the compilation is obtainable:—

—	Income per cent.	Expenditure per cent.
Calcutta ..	36·7	37·8
Bombay ..	37·8	38·2
Madras ..	3·8	4·1
Karachi ..	10·7	10·2
Rangoon ..	10·0	8·7
Chittagong ..	1·0	1·0

The latest return of the Department of Statistics shows that in the ten years ending 1918-19, the income and expenditure of each port have increased as shown in the following table. The total income of all the ports has increased in the decade by 91·0 per cent. and the total expenditure by 79·9 per cent. :—

—	Increase per cent.	
	Income.	Expenditure.
Calcutta ..	61·0	53·5
Bombay ..	158·7	158·7
Madras ..	45·7	40·3
Karachi ..	65·7	70·3
Rangoon ..	78·3	27·2
Chittagong ..	280·3	133·2

The war has affected the trade of all the ports in a manner which makes it useless to continue comparisons up to date on the lines of the foregoing figures.

CALCUTTA.

The Commissioners for the Port of Calcutta are as follows:—

Appointed by Government.—

Mr. S. C. Stuart-Williams, M.L.C., Chairman.
Mr. T. H. Elderton, Deputy Chairman.

Elected by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce.—
Mr. P. B. G. Edlin, M.L.C. (Messrs. Gillanders Arbuthnot & Co.), Mr. W. F. Reynolds (Messrs. Macneil & Co.), Mr. W. L. W. Carey, M.L.C. (Messrs. Bird & Co.), Mr. H. C. Edmondson (Messrs. Turner Morrison & Co.), Mr. William C. Currie, M.L.C. (Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co.), Mr. J. A. Tassie (Messrs. James, Finlay & Co.).

Elected by the Calcutta Trades Association.—
Mr. W. H. Phelps (William, Heath & Co.).

Elected by the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce.—Mr. J. O. Banerjee.

Elected by the Municipal Corporation of Calcutta.—Baja Reshee Case Law, C.L.E., M.L.C.

Nominated by Government.—Sir George Godfrey (Agent, Bengal-Nagpur Railway), Mr. G. L. Colvin, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O. (Agent, East Indian Rly.), Col. G. R. Hearn, C.I.E. (Agent, Eastern Bengal Rly.), Mr. W. W. Nind (Collector of Customs) and Captain O. Goldsmith, B.I.M.

The principal officers of the Trust are—

Secretary.—Mr. N. G. Park, C.A. (Offg.).

Traffic Manager.—W. A. Burns.

Chief Accountant.—Mr. E. J. Robertson.

Chief Engineer.—Mr. J. McGlashan, M. INST. C.E.

Deputy Conservator.—Commander E. A. Constable, R.N.

Medical Officer.—Lt.-Col. R. P. Wilson, F.R.C.S., I.M.S.

Consulting Engineer and London Agent.—Mr. J. Angus, M. INST. C.E.

The Indian Ports.

The traffic figures and the income of the Trust for the last eleven years are as follows:—

Year.	Docks.			Jetties.	Nett tonnage of shipping entering the Port.	Income.
	General Export.	Coal Export.	Imports.	Imports.		
	Tons.	Tons.				Rs.
1913-14 ..	1,231,589	3,017,180	613,876	1,186,797	4,256,987	1,51,28,435
1914-15 ..	920,659	2,633,805	700,133	917,978	3,714,344	1,44,50,349
1915-16 ..	1,054,985	1,610,645	570,997	788,481	2,967,798	1,59,35,456
1916-17 ..	1,185,159	1,994,528	444,210	686,010	2,804,680	1,57,23,432
1917-18 ..	995,112	1,014,993	363,383	633,693	2,094,011	1,58,59,175
1918-19 ..	1,097,562	1,333,285	482,403	575,833	2,292,462	1,90,53,513
1919-20 ..	1,146,479	2,264,976	653,066	713,746	2,941,840	2,23,55,614
1920-21 ..	1,133,719	3,046,400	413,357	685,080	4,017,514	2,66,08,032
1921-22 ..	974,783	1,687,222	697,361	622,411	3,446,021	2,19,17,042
1922-23 ..	1,414,166	1,174,041	804,109	680,053	3,336,722	2,64,75,522
1923-24 ..	1,722,305	1,325,801	221,035	761,920	3,621,243	2,60,89,027

BOMBAY.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES.—Appointed by Government.—P. R. Cadell, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S. (Chairman), Sir Lawless Hepper, Kt., H. B. Clayton, C.I.E., I.C.S., Major-General Sir Henry Freeland, K.C.I.E., C.B., D.S.O., M.V.O., Captain E. J. Headlam, C.S.I., C.M.G., D.S.O., R.I.M., The General Officer Commanding Bombay District, Major-General H.A.V. Cummins, C.B., C.M.G., R. McLean and A. M. Green, I.C.S.

Elected by the Chamber of Commerce.—H. T. Gorrie, F. C. Annesley, A. K. Graham, L. S. Hudson, and T. E. Cunningham.

Elected by the Indian Merchants' Chamber.—Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E., Devidas Madhowji Thakersey, Lalji Naranji, Chotalal Kilachand, Ishwardas Lakhlmdas.

Elected by the Municipality.—Hon'ble Phiroze C. Sethna, O.B.E., and Fazul Ibrahim Rahimulla.

Elected by the Millowners' Association.—N. B. Saklatvala, C.I.E.

The following are the principal officers of the Trust:—

SECRETARY'S DEPARTMENT.

Ballard Road, Fort.

Secretary. W. R. S. Sharpe, *Deputy Secretaries.* N. M. Morris and C. M. Henson, B.A.,

Probnsr. A. S. Bakre, B.A. (Hon.), (Cantab) *Head Clerks.* Sokerjee Bapuji and J. D. Mhatre

CHIEF ACCOUNTANT'S DEPARTMENT.

Ag. Chief Acctt. C. P. Gay, *Deputy Acctt.* J. F. Pereira, B.A., *Asst. Acctts.* W. E. McDonnell, and B. S. Tukhshud, J.P. (junr.), *Jr. Asstt. Acctts.* R. O. Collier and Ramrao Nanabhoy Vagal, *Expenditure Auditor.* H. W. Scott, *Cashier.* N. R. Gidh, *Audit Land Inspector.* Trimbak Shivram, *Ry. Audit Inspectors.* A. N. Moos, W. Casling and R. C. Palais, *Supdts.* Stores Accounts Branch, O. Hyde, *Supdt., Establishment Branch.* V. D. Jog.

CHIEF ENGINEER'S DEPARTMENT.

Chief Engineer. W. H. Neilson, O.B.E., M.A., M.A.I., M. INST. C.E., M.I. Mech. E., *Deputy Chief Engineer.* J. McClure, M.I.C.E., *Executive Engineers.* C. W. Wales, M.I.C.E., B. C. Rowlandson, A. Hale-White, M.A., A.M.I.C.E., and F. G. Carron, M.I.C.E., *Senior Assistant Engineers.* G. E. Terry, F. J. Green, B.Sc. (Hon.), A.M.I.C.E., and A. G. Milne, *Engineering Assistants.* E. L. Everett & J. A. Rolle, *Architect.* J. A. Macdonald, M.S.A., *Personal Assistant to the Chief Engineer.* T. B. Hawkins, *Costing Supdt.* W. D. Read, *Mechanical Supdt.* R. McMurray, M.I.M.E., *Asst. Mechanical Supdts.* E. F. Elton, A.M.I.M.E., A.M.I.E., R. B. McGregor, E. G. Bowers, A.M.I.E.E., B. C. Sharpe and S. J. Watt, *Chief Foreman.* A. C. Stokley, M.I.M.A.R.E.

DOCKS MANAGER'S DEPARTMENT.

Docks Manager, C. N. RICH, B.A., Deputy Docks Managers, F. A. Borrisow and W. G. H. Templeton, Deputy Managers (Office), P. A. Davies, Asst. Docks Managers, 1st and 2nd grade, E. C. Jolley, E. H. P. Row, A. Mathos, L. E. Walsh, Nussurwanjee Jejeebhoy, F. J. Warder, Rustomjee Shapurjee, D. L. Lynn and C. W. Bond, Probationer, F. Seymour Williams, Cash Supervisor, Frank Cordelero, Office Assistant, P. B. Fenner, Cashier, Ramchandra Raghoba.

RAILWAY MANAGER'S DEPARTMENT.

Railway Manager, J. R. Reynolds, C.I.E., V.D., Deputy Ry. Managers, D. G. Mearns, E. G. Lilley, B.A., and A. F. Watts, Assistant Railway Managers, S. G. N. Shaw, H. A. Gaydon, and M. S. Ratnagar, B.A. (Hon.), LL.B., Probationer, E. W. Patrick Nadir, Asst. Traffic Supdt., C. F. Chand, Office Supdt., W. H. Brady.

PORT DEPARTMENT.

Port Officer, Capt. H. Morland, R.I.M., J.P., Asst. Port Officer, Comdr. E. V. Whish, O.B.E., R.I.M., Harbour Master, C. S. I. Mackenzie, Alexander Dock, Senior Dock Master, H. E. Johnson, Dock Master, G. J. Chambers, Senior Asst. Dock Master, C. Halle, Asst. Dock Master, H. Birch, Berthing Masters, W. J. Barter, H. F. Eddows, Douglas Broadway, Logsdail and J. Morton, Prince's and Victoria Docks Masters, W. S. Hoseney (Victoria Dock), and S. G. Butchart (Prince's Dock), Asst. Dock Masters, J. A. Puddington and W. E. Rivers, Berthing Masters, W. P. K. Bigg, G. J. Kedge and W. D. Gordon.

LAND AND BUNDERS DEPARTMENT.

Manager, F. H. Taylor, P.A.S.I., M.R.S.I., Deputy Manager, B. C. Durant, Office Supdt., W. O. Brien, Asst. Managers, S. J. Plunkett, W. H. Cummings and C. P. Watson, Chief Inspector, G. C. Battenberg, Head Clerk, D. A. Pereira.

CONTROLLER OF STORES DEPARTMENT.

Controller of Stores, H. E. Lees, 1st Assistant, W. J. Wilson, 2nd Assistant, G. P. Dooley, Office Supdt., B. F. Davidson.

MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

Administrative Medical Officer, Dr. W. Nunan, B.A., M.D., B.Ch., Medical Officers, Dr. F. D. Bana, M.B., M.R.C.S., Port Trust Dispensary, Prince's Dock, Dr. A. D. Karkhanawalla, M.B.B.S., Wadala Dispensary.

The revenue of the Trust in 1923-24 amounted to Rs. 2,56,42,273. The expenditure amounted to Rs. 2,57,70,093. The net deficit on the year's working was Rs. 1,27,820, which has been met from the Revenue Reserve Fund, the balance of which at the close of the year amounted to Rs. 57,89,141. The aggregate capital expenditure during the year was Rs. 1,28,07,107. The total debt of the Trust at the end of the year amounted to Rs. 22,24,53,004.

The trade of the Port of Bombay during the last official year aggregated 329 crores in value.

The following statement shows the number of steam and square-rigged vessels which during recent years have entered the docks or been berthed at the harbour walls and paid dues, excluding those which have remained for unloading and loading in the harbour stream:

Year.	Number.	Tonnage.
1907-08	 1,477	2,678,345
1908-09	 1,474	2,533,303
1909-10	 1,611	2,747,779
1910-11	 1,589	2,860,623
1911-12	 1,519	2,767,913
1912-13	 1,566	2,926,506
1913-14	 1,579	3,135,597
1914-15	 1,880	4,417,035
1915-16	 1,794	3,939,721
1916-17	 2,112	5,031,572
1917-18	 2,069	4,746,578
1918-19	 2,053	4,526,846
1919-20	 2,164	4,874,820
1920-21	 2,029	4,589,627
1921-22	 2,123	4,895,968
1922-23	 1,907	4,429,263
1923-24	 2,014	4,661,904

The two dry docks were occupied during the year 1923-24 by 189 vessels, the total tonnage amounting to 625,287 tons which was less than the previous year by 113,301 tons.

KARACHI.

The members of the Board of Trustees of the Port of Karachi are as follows:—

Chairman.—J. B. S. Thubron, C.I.E.

Appointed by Government.—H. H. Hood (Collector of Customs, Karachi); F. R. Hawkes, O.B.E. (District Traffic Superintendent, North-Western Railway, Karachi Port); Major G. N. Buckland, D.S.O. (D. A. Q. M. G., Sind-Rajputana District); E. A. Pearson (Forbes Forbes Campbell & Co., Ltd.); Gidumal Lekhras (Representative Indian Merchant) and Khan Bahadur K. H. Katrak (Katrak & Co.) (on leave), Rao Saheb Shewaram Dewanmal (acting).

Elected by the Karachi Chamber of Commerce.—C. C. Demetriadi (Ralli Brothers) (Vice-Chairman elected by the Board); J. R. Baxter (Mackinnon, Mackenzie & Co.); F. Clayton, C.I.E., M.L.C. (Fleming Shaw & Co.)

Elected by the Municipality.—Goolam Hussein Kassim.

The Principal Officers of the Trust are:—

Port Officer.—Captain H. M. Salmond, C.I.E., R.I.M. (on leave), Captain N. Woodsmith, R.I.M. (acting).

Secretary and Traffic Manager.—T. S. Downie, O.B.E.

Chief Accountant.—B. A. Inglet, B.A., C.A.

Chief Engineer.—T. H. E. Coad, M. INST. C.E.

Deputy Chief Engineer.—H. A. L. French.

Chief Storekeeper.—T. S. Thadani.

The Revenue receipts and expenditure of the Port of Karachi for the year 1923-24 were as under:—

Revenue receipts (excluding the Port Fund Account) Rs. 64,15,927. Expenditure, Rs. 56,70,963. Surplus Rs. 7,44,964. Reserve Fund Rs. 27,17,633.

The number of vessels which entered the Port during the year 1923-24, exclusive of vessels put back and fishing boats, was 3,647 with a tonnage of 2,486,175, against 2,869 with a tonnage of 2,212,229 in 1922-23. 945 steamers of all kinds entered the Port with a tonnage of 2,337,536 against 865 and 2,097,518 respectively in the previous year. Of the above 806 were of British nationality.

Imports including coal landed at the ship wharves during the year totalled 362,243 tons against 692,140 in the previous year. Total shipments from the ship wharves were 1,412,934 tons in 1923-24 against 800,665 tons in 1922-23.

MADRAS.

The following gentlemen are the Trustees of the Port of Madras:—

Officials.—Bradford Leslie, O.B.E., M. INST. C.E., M.I.E.E., Chairman, C. R. Watkins, B.A., C.I.M., (Collector of Customs), and Capt. C. R. Campbell, D.S.O., M.V.O., R.I.M. (Presidency Port Officer).

Non-Officials.—(1) Nominated by Government.—A. A. Biggs, M. INST. C.E., M.I.E. (Ind.), B. C. Scott, (2) Representing Chamber of Commerce, Madras.—T. M. Ross, Sir James Simpson, H. F. P. Hearson, G. W. Chambers, (3) Representing Southern India Chamber of Commerce, Madras.—M. E. Ry. Divan Bahadur Govindas Chaturbhoojadas Garu, M.L.C., Sir M. Ct. Muthia Chettiar, Kt., M.L.A., (4) Representing Madras Trades Association.—A. M. MacDougall, M.L.C., and L. C. Nicholson, (5) Representing Southern India Skin and Hide Merchants' Association.—M. R. Ry. M. Balasundaram Nayadu Garu, Representing Madras Piece-goods Merchants' Association.—M. R. Ry. Rao Sahib Batchu Papaliya Chettiar Garu.

The receipts during the year of the Port Trust on Revenue account from all sources were Rs. 29,84,235 as against 28,04,251 in 1922-23 and the gross expenditure out of revenue was Rs. 25,63,815. During the year 606 vessels with an aggregate tonnage of 1,983,734 tons, called at the port against last year's figure of 632 vessels of 1,989,179 tons.

RANGOON.

The personnel of the Commissioners for the Port of Rangoon is comprised of the following thirteen members:—

Appointed by Government.—J. A. Cherry, C.I.E. (Chairman), G. Scott, C.I.E., I.C.S. (Commissioner, Rangoon Corporation), G. S. Hardy, I.C.S. (Collector of Customs, Rangoon), J. E. Houlday, M.L.C., I.C.S. (Chairman, Rangoon Development Trust), Captain J. F. Vibart, O.B.E., R.I.M. (Principal Port Officer), J. R. D. Glascott, M.L.C., G. R. Campbell and Maung Thwin.

Elected by the Burma Chamber of Commerce.—Sir Alexander J. Anderson, Kt., C.S.I., M.L.C. (Vice-Chairman), R. Sinclair, M.L.C., A. McKean and J. K. Michie.

Elected by the Rangoon Trades Association.—M. Oppenheimer.

Principal Officers are:—

Secretary.—H. Leonard.

Chief Accountant.—D. H. James, A.C.A.

Chief Engineer.—E. C. Niven, M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Conservator.—H. G. G. Ashton, D.S.O.

Traffic Manager.—H. Cooper. Superintendent of Stores.—Mr. A. L. Stewart.

Administrative Medical Officer.—Dr. C. G. Crow, K.I.H., I.M.D.

The receipts and expenditure on revenue account of the Port of Rangoon in 1923-24 were as follows:—

	Rs.
Receipts	73,35,295
Expenditure	69,33,439

The capital debt of the Port at the end of the year was Rs. 3,46,73,081. Against this should be set the total of the balance (including investments at cost) at the credit of the different sinking funds, namely, Rs. 1,15,52,997.

The total sea-borne trade of Rangoon during the year was 4,413,305 tons of which 1,305,839 tons were imports, 3,097,465 tons exports and 10,001 tons transshipment. The tonnage of goods dealt with at the jetties and foreshore for inland vessels during the year amounted to 783,531 tons. The total number of steamers (excluding Government vessels) entering the Port was 1,385, with a total nett registered tonnage of 3,510,598, being a decrease of 8 steamers and an increase of 202,511 tons over the previous year.

CHITTAGONG.

Chittagong in Eastern Bengal, lying on the right bank of the river Karnafull at a distance of 12 miles from the sea was already an important port in the sixteenth century, when the Portuguese gave it the name of Porto Grande. The construction of the Assam-Bengal Railway has facilitated the transport of trade with Assam and Eastern Bengal for which the Port of Chittagong is the natural outlet.

The chief exports are tea and jute and imports, piece-goods, salt, oil and machinery.

FOREIGN TRADE 1923-24. Rs. (in lakhs.)

Imports	94.32
Exports	796.82

COASTING TRADE 1923-24. Rs. (in lakhs.)

Imports	124.37
Exports	167.05

Port Commissioners.—A. W. Cook, C.I.E., I.C.S., Chairman; F. A. Sachse, I.C.S., Vice-Chairman; Mr. T. R. Nolan; S. C. Satyawadi, M.A.; A. R. Leishman, V.D.; B. J. Corcoran, M.L.C.; A. B. Slater; Rai Upendralal Roy Bahadur, B.L.

Port Officer and Secretary to the Port Commissioners.—Commander H. W. B. Livesay, O.B.E., R.I.M.

Port Engineer.—W. P. Shepherd-Barron, A.M. Inst. C.E. (on leave); C. P. M. Harrison, M.I.C.E. (acting).

Vessels of 25 feet draught can be accommodated during the greater part of the year at four jetties which are fitted with modern equipment and capable of quick despatch.

VIZAGAPATAM HARBOUR PROJECT.

The question of the creation of a harbour at Vizagapatam, to supply an outlet for a large area of fertile country hitherto undeveloped and without suitable access to the outside world, was lately brought to the fore through a report to the Bengal-Nagpur Railway Company by their consulting engineers, Sir John Wolfe Barry, Lyster and Partners. This report, which was based on personal inspection, upholds the practicability of creating, at no very extravagant cost, an inland harbour to which access would be maintained by two breakwaters projecting into the sea, and by dredging a channel to the depth (in the first instance) of 24 feet. A deep-water quay would be provided, 1,500 feet in length, with a possibility of supplying further accommodation in the future. The proposals made in this report were carefully gone into at site by representatives both of the Consulting Engineer and of the Bengal Nagpur Railway and working plans have been prepared so that there might be no delay in starting work when funds became available for the purpose.

"The Government of India have now under their consideration the scheme for the construction of the harbour and the method of financing and controlling the work. That the creation of such a port would have a beneficial influence on the development of a large area in East Central India seems un-

questioned. It is pointed out that Vizagapatam, lying as it does in front of the only practicable gap in the barrier of the Eastern Ghats, is formed by nature to be the outlet of the Central Provinces, from which a considerable amount of trade has taken this route in the past, even with the imperfect communications hitherto available. A necessary complement of the scheme would be the construction of the proposed railway by Parvatipuram to Raipur, which with the existing coast line of the Bengal Nagpur Railway, would make a large and rich area tributary to the proposed port, and obviate the long and expensive circuit by Calcutta. A link would also be supplied in the most direct route to Rangoon from Europe by way of Bombay, while from an imperial point of view the possible provision of a fortified port on the long and almost unprotected stretch of coast between Colombo and Calcutta is held to be a consideration of great importance. The lofty projecting headland of the Dolphin's Nose would, it is pointed out, offer facilities for this purpose as well as for protecting the entrance to the Port from the effects of south and south-westerly gales.

The Government of India have under their consideration the Parvatipuram Raipur Railway project and a decision in regard to the project and the Harbour project may be expected shortly.

Education.

Indian education is unintelligible except through its history. Seen thus, it affords the spectacle of a growth which, while to one it will appear as a blunder based on an initial error easily avoided, to another it stands out as a symbol of sincerity and honest endeavour on the part of a far-sighted race of rulers whose aim has been to guide a people alien in sentiments and prejudices into the channels of thought and attitude best calculated to fit them for the needs of modern life and western ideals. There is to-day no subject in the whole area of administrative activity in India which presents greater complexities and differences of opinion than education. Government, local bodies and private persons of learning have in the past devoted their limited funds to meeting the demands of those who perceived the benefits of education, rather than to cultivating a desire for education where it did not exist. The result is that the structure has become top-heavy. The lower classes are largely illiterate, while the middle classes who constitute the bulk of the *intelligentsia* are in point of numbers at least educated to a pitch equal to that of countries whose economic conditions are more highly developed. As might be expected from this abnormal distribution of education, the form which it has eventually assumed contains corresponding defects. There have, however, in recent years been strong movements, leading to the passing of primary Education Acts in several Provinces, in favour of the expansion of primary education among the masses.

The Introduction of Western Learning
In the early days of its dominion in India, the East India Company had little inclination for the doubtful experiment of introducing western learning into India. Warren Hastings, the dominating figure of the time, was a genuine admirer of the laws and literature of the East. His policy was to enable the ancient learning to revive and flourish under the protection of a stable government, and to interfere as little as possible with the habits and customs of the people. Even the Act of 1813 which set apart a lakh of rupees for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences was interpreted as a scheme for the encouragement of Sanskrit and Arabic. In the following year the Court of Directors instructed the Governor-General to leave the Hindus "to the practice of usage, long established among them, of giving instruction in their own homes, and to encourage them in the exercise and cultivation of their talents by the stimulus of honorary marks of distinction and in some cases by grants of pecuniary assistance."

It was from sources other than Government that the desire for western knowledge arose in India. In 1816, David Hare, an English watchmaker in Calcutta, joined hands with the enlightened Brahmin, Mohan Roy, to institute the Hindu College for the promotion of western secular learning. The new institution was distrusted both by Christian missionaries and by orthodox Hindus, but its influence grew apace. Fifteen years later, the Committee of Public Instruction in Bengal reported

that a taste for English had been widely disseminated and that independent schools, conducted by young men reared in the Hindu College, were springing up in every direction. In Bombay, the Elphinstone Institution was founded in memory of the great ruler who left India in 1827. A still more remarkable innovation was made in 1835 by the establishment of the Calcutta Medical College, whose object was to teach "the principles and practice of medical science in strict accordance with the mode adopted in Europe." Many pronounced the failure of the undertaking to be inevitable; for, under the Hindu custom the higher castes were forbidden to touch the dead. This obstacle was surmounted by Madhusudan Gupta who, with a few courageous pupils, began the dissection of a human body. From that time onward Indians of the highest castes have devoted themselves with enthusiasm and with success to the study of medicine in all its branches.

Another impetus to the introduction of western learning was the devotion of **Christian missionaries**. The humanitarian spirit, which had been kindled in England by Wesley, Burke and Wilberforce, influenced action also in India. Carey, Marshman and Ward opened the first missionary College at Serampore in 1818; and twelve years later, Alexander Duff reversed the whole trend of missionary policy in India by his insistence on teaching rather than on preaching, and by the foundation of his school and College in Calcutta. In Madras, the missionaries had been still earlier in the field; for as early as in 1787 a small group of missionary schools were being directed by Mr. Schwarz. The Madras Christian College was opened in 1837. In Bombay, the Wilson School (afterwards College) was founded in 1834.

Lord W. Bentinck's minute of 1835 (based upon Macaulay's famous minute) marks the somewhat tardy acceptance by Government of the new policy. Government then determined, while observing a neutrality in religious matters to devote its available funds to the maintenance of secondary schools and colleges of western learning to be taught through the medium of English. But this decision did not entail that Oriental learning should be neglected; still less that the development of the vernaculars should be discouraged. Other changes powerfully contributed to the success of the new system. The freedom of the press was established in 1835; English was substituted for Persian as the language of the Courts in 1837 and in 1844 Sir Henry Hardinge ordained that preference in Government appointments should be given to those who had received a western education. In the following decade the new learning took firm root in India; and, though the Muhammadans still held aloof, the demand for English schools outstripped the means of Government for providing them. Fortunately there has been of late a marked appreciation among Muslim leaders of the need of improving the instructional level of their co-religionists; and in many of the provinces of India a great impulse towards educational advance among the Muhammadan community is now noticeable.

Statement of Educational Progress in India.														
Area in square miles Population	{ Male Female	Total Population	1917-18.		1918-19.		1919-20.		1920-21.		1921-22.		1922-23.	
			1,083,807 124,747,811 119,273,295 244,021,106	126 1,659 128,480	1,083,807 124,747,805 119,272,295 244,021,100	134 1,603 129,803	1,088,807 124,747,805 119,272,295 244,020,100	138 1,610 133,855	1,078,861 125,493,811 119,340,805 244,834,616	148 1,586 136,884	1,091,229 126,902,120 120,195,631 247,097,651	152 2,040 137,435	1,092,61 126,917,953 120,185,934 247,103,887	160 2,082 138,095
Public Institutions for Males.														
Number of arts colleges	..	..	49,527	..	49,815	..	51,458	..	47,017	..	44,670	..	51,673	..
Number of high schools*	..	..	563,731	..	534,270	..	597,969	..	566,678	..	558,212	..	590,097	..
Number of primary schools	..	..	5,855,571	..	4,821,611	..	4,956,988	..	5,117,219	..	5,111,850	..	5,379,621	..
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	..	..	4.9	..	4.9	..	5.1	..	5.1	..	5.04	..	5.36	..
Public Institutions for Females.														
Number of arts colleges	..	..	12	..	12	..	12	..	12	..	15	..	14	..
Number of high schools*	..	..	177	..	183	..	203	..	198	..	208	..	230	..
Number of primary schools	..	..	19,395	..	20,468	..	21,759	..	22,461	..	22,635	..	22,920	..
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.														
In arts colleges	..	..	914	..	915	..	1,024	..	1,153	..	1,263	..	1,487	..
In high schools	..	..	27,222	..	29,980	..	34,063	..	33,915	..	36,698	..	40,662	..
In primary schools	..	..	1,077,170	..	1,119,871	..	1,176,533	..	1,210,754	..	1,198,550	..	1,220,495	..
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	..	..	99	..	110	..	111	..	111	..	112	..	114	..
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions { Male .. Female .. Total ..														
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions ..														
Percentage of total scholars to population.	..	..	7,948,068	..	7,936,577	..	8,206,225	..	8,377,927	..	8,381,350	..	8,791,090	..
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).														
From provincial revenues	..	..	536	..	531	..	547	..	555	..	549	..	580	..
From local funds	..	..	1,06	..	110	..	115	..	118	..	118	..	121	..
From municipal funds	..	..	326	..	325	..	336	..	342	..	339	..	348	..
Total Expenditure from public funds	..	..	1,464.92	..	1,432.26	..	1,538.96	..	1,661.12	..	1,652.26	..	1,699.92	..
From fees	..	..	40.61	..	46.78	..	59.05	..	67.78	..	79.05	..	81.62	..
From other sources	..	..	648.02	..	717.26	..	844.63	..	10,06.78	..	11,49.61	..	11,88.21	..
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE ..	..	..	2,800.57	..	2,826.71	..	2,753.53	..	2,927.14	..	3,077.83	..	3,083.51	..
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE ..														
* High schools include vernacular high schools also, in some provinces. † N. B.—Owing to the reclassification adopted in the Revised Educational Tables, the figure for 1922-23 are not strictly comparable with those of the preceding years. ‡ This excludes expenditure on European education in the United Provinces, Assam and the North-West Frontier Province. The total expenditure actually amounted to Rs. 19,04,01,036.														

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GROWTH AND ORGANISATION OF ENGLISH EDUCATION.

An epoch in Indian educational history is marked by Sir Charles Wood's despatch, in 1854. Perhaps its most notable feature was the emphasis which it laid on the importance of primary education. The old idea that the education imparted to the higher classes of society would filter down to the lower classes was discarded. The new policy was boldly "to combat the ignorance of the people which may be considered the greatest curse of the country." For this purpose Departments of Public Instructions were created on lines which do not differ very materially from the Departments of the present day. The despatch also broke away from the practice followed since 1835 whereby most of the available public funds had been expended upon a few Government schools and colleges, and instituted a policy of grants-in-aid to private institutions. Such a system as this, placed in all its degrees under efficient inspection, beginning from the humblest elementary institution and ending with the university test of a liberal education would impart life and energy to education in India, and lead to a gradual but steady extension of its benefits to all classes of people. Another feature of the despatch was an outline of a university system which resulted in the foundation of the Universities of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay three years later. The affiliating type of university then became the pivot of the Indian education system. It has undoubtedly been of value in several ways. It enabled Government to select recruits for its service on an impartial basis; it did much, through the agency of its Colleges to develop backward places; it accelerated the conversion of Indians to a zeal for western education; and it cost little at a time when money was scarce. On the other hand, the new universities were not corporations of scholars, but corporations of administrators; they did not deal directly with the training of men, but with the examination of candidates; they were not concerned with learning, except in so far as learning can be tested by examination. The colleges were fettered by examination requirements and by uniform courses; their teachers were denied that freedom which teachers should enjoy; and their students were encouraged not to value training for its own sake but as a means for obtaining marketable qualifications. In certain important respects the recommendations in the despatch were not followed. The Directors did not intend that university tests, as such, should become the sole tests qualifying for public posts; they also recommended the institution of civil service examinations. They did not desire the universities to be deprived of all teaching functions; they recommended the establishment of university chairs for advanced study. They were aware of the dangers of a too literary course of instruction; they hoped that the system of education would rouse the people of India to develop "the vast resources of their country . . . and gradually, but certainly, confer upon them all the advantages which accompany the healthy increase of wealth and commerce. The encouragement of the grant-in-aid system was

advocated to an even greater extent by the Education Commission of 1882, which favoured the policy of withdrawing higher education from the control of Government within certain limits and of stimulating private effort. In theory the decision was correct, but in practice it was irretrievably wrong. In its fatal desire to save money, Government deliberately accepted the mistaken belief that schools and colleges could be maintained on the low fees which the Indian parent could be expected to pay. And, in the course of time, an unworkable system of dual control grew up, whereby the Universities with no funds at their disposal were entrusted with the duty of granting recognition to schools and the Departments of Public Instruction were encouraged to cast a blind eye on the private institutions and to be content with the development of a few favoured Government institutions. There can be little wonder that, under such a system of neglect and short-sightedness, evils crept in which are now being removed gradually by the establishment of independent Boards of Intermediate Education charged with the administration of the high school and intermediate stages of education.

The Reforms of 1902-4.

In 1902, the Universities Commission was appointed by Lord Curzon's Government, and its investigation was followed by the Universities Act of 1904. The main object of the Act was to tighten up control, on the part of Government over the universities, and on the part of the universities over the schools and colleges. The Chancellors of the Universities were empowered to nominate 80 per cent. of the ordinary members of the Senates and to approve the election of the remainder; the Government retained the power of cancelling any appointment, and all university resolutions and proposals for the affiliation or disaffiliation of colleges were to be subject to Government sanction. The universities were given the responsibility of granting recognition to schools and of inspecting all schools and colleges, the inspection of schools being ordinarily conducted by the officers of the Department of Public Instruction. Permission was also given to the universities to undertake direct teaching functions and to make appointments, subject to Government sanction, for these objects; but their scope was in practice limited to post-graduate work and research. The territorial limits of each university were defined, so that universities were precluded from any connexion with institutions lying outside those boundaries. Neither the Commission nor the Government discussed the fundamental problems of university organisation, but dealt only with the immediate difficulties of the Indian system. They did not inquire whether the affiliating system could be replaced by any other mode of organisation, nor whether all schools might be placed under some public authority which would be representative of the universities and of the departments. They assumed the permanent validity of the existing system, in its main features, and set themselves only to improve and to strengthen it.

Recent Developments.

Since the passing of the Universities Act of 1904, there has been a considerable expansion of the educational system. The two tables given below afford useful comparisons with previous years and serve to illustrate the growth and expansion of education in India.

(a) STUDENTS.

Year.	In Recognised Institutions.			In All Institutions (Recognised and Unrecognised).		
	Males.	Girls.	Total.	Males.	Girls.	Total.
1891-92	3,041,510	307,400	3,348,910	3,517,778	339,043	3,856,821
1896-97	3,428,376	360,006	3,788,382	3,954,712	402,158	4,356,870
1901-02	3,493,325	393,168	3,886,493	4,077,430	444,470	4,521,900
1906-07	4,164,832	579,648	4,744,480	4,743,604	645,028	5,388,632
1911-12	5,253,065	875,660	6,128,725	5,828,182	952,539	6,780,721
1915-16	5,871,184	1,112,024	6,983,208	6,431,215	1,186,281	7,617,496
1916-17	6,050,840	1,156,468	7,207,308	6,621,527	1,230,419	7,851,946
1917-18	6,119,423	1,192,309	7,311,742	6,683,879	1,264,189	7,948,068
1918-19	6,098,129	1,240,534	7,338,663	6,623,149	1,313,428	7,936,577
1919-20	6,306,128	1,306,711	7,612,839	6,829,204	1,377,021	8,206,225
1920-21	6,427,966	1,347,027	7,774,993	6,964,048	1,412,979	8,377,027
1921-22	6,401,434	1,340,842	7,742,275	6,962,979	1,418,422	8,381,401
1922-23	6,807,708	1,371,267	8,178,975	7,341,285	1,449,805	8,791,090

(b) EXPENDITURE.

Year.	Direct Expenditure.		Direct and Indirect.	
	Public Funds.	Total.	Public Funds.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1891-92	1,07,55,368	2,40,93,149	1,56,18,184	3,05,19,632
1896-97	1,19,35,647	2,77,38,737	1,67,65,650	3,52,44,900
1901-02	1,26,28,586	3,06,37,633	1,77,03,968	4,01,21,462
1906-07	1,88,31,204	3,88,67,352	2,96,34,574	5,59,03,673
1911-12	2,57,57,212	5,39,41,277	4,05,23,072	7,85,92,605
1915-16	3,96,61,135	7,47,43,004	6,21,68,904	11,08,29,249
1916-17	4,18,12,109	7,92,86,819	6,14,80,471	11,28,83,068
1917-18	4,41,73,343	8,36,68,551	6,46,01,690	11,82,09,137
1918-19	5,02,71,231	9,18,49,130	7,17,26,292	12,98,63,073
1919-20	5,91,69,207	10,34,29,768	8,44,63,472	14,88,97,960
1920-21	7,01,58,985	11,69,15,680	10,06,76,871	16,77,23,113
1921-22	8,19,60,603	13,03,56,458	11,49,61,178	18,37,52,969
1922-23	8,77,94,637	14,12,32,503	11,88,21,638	18,84,77,181

In 1922-23 the total expenditure on education amounted to Rs. 18,84,77,181, of which Rs. 11,88,21,638 came from public funds. In spite of this marked advance, there is much to be made up, as in the last census report the literate population of India was only 72 per thousand (males 122 and females 18 per thousand).

The following table provides an interesting and valuable comment on the state of education

in India. Although the statistical returns show more than 8 millions of pupils at school it will be seen that over 76 per cent. of these are in the lower primary stage; and it may be safely deducted that over 50 per cent. of those at school never become literate. Of course, the total number of pupils at school is not a safe criterion of the state of education, and a rounder standard of comparison would be that number multiplied by the average period spent at school:

CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS BY AGES AND STAGES OF INSTRUCTION IN 1921-22.

Ages.		SCHOOLS FOR GENERAL EDUCATION.									
		Infants.		I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.
		A.	B.								
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	1
Below 5	5 to 6	128,385	20,498	32,226	61	11	..	..	..	..	Below 5
6 to 7	7 to 8	354,263	269,377	124,716	4,443	306	..	..	..	..	5 to 6
8 to 9	9 to 10	431,209	380,025	221,890	33,690	4,442	217	..	..	..	6 to 7
10 to 11	11 to 12	312,055	377,747	274,991	97,137	25,029	2,647	..	..	..	7 to 8
12 to 13	13 to 14	179,104	282,840	294,759	158,555	62,940	16,216	1,280	129	4	8 to 9
14 to 15	15 to 16	99,068	164,760	231,128	18,458	101,859	40,831	8,838	639	70	9 to 10
16 to 17	17 to 18	53,423	100,607	159,260	118,716	111,018	75,065	25,510	4,593	786	10 to 11
18 to 19	19 to 20	26,920	54,508	97,066	118,716	111,018	75,065	42,614	17,100	3,735	11 to 12
Over 20	All Ages	12,115	28,463	55,898	75,532	87,414	67,476	50,140	27,379	13,814	3,227
		5,879	14,314	28,366	42,612	56,843	50,555	44,658	31,354	21,264	10,531
		3,042	8,351	13,806	32,362	30,219	92,536	28,339	23,228	18,801	16,221
		2,121	5,332	6,978	9,600	16,971	20,832	21,378	20,296	16,221	15 to 16
		1,631	4,233	3,890	4,832	7,995	7,727	10,509	13,736	14,807	16 to 17
		1,596	3,288	2,671	2,336	3,369	3,222	5,207	7,582	8,543	17 to 18
		1,256	3,058	2,202	1,494	1,562	1,287	2,013	3,566	4,361	18 to 19
		1,176	2,598	2,108	1,233	742	559	785	1,577	1,834	19 to 20
		2,822	6,163	3,883	2,500	1,025	502	449	773	1,107	Over 20
		1,616,065	1,726,665	1,655,915	923,693	635,604	376,675	245,612	158,129	113,799	All Ages

CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS BY AGES AND STAGES OF INSTRUCTION IN 1921-22.

Ages.	SCHOOLS FOR GENERAL EDUCATION.					ARTS COLLEGES.					
	IX.		X.		Total.	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.	4th year.	5th year.	6th year or Post-Graduate Class.
	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Below 5	..	..	181,181	..	181,181	..	..	..	..	..	181,181
5 to 6	..	..	753,186	..	753,186	..	..	..	..	..	753,186
6 to 7	..	..	1,071,500	..	1,071,500	..	..	..	..	..	1,071,500
7 to 8	..	..	1,089,826	..	1,089,826	..	..	..	..	..	1,089,826
8 to 9	..	..	995,857	..	995,857	..	..	..	..	..	995,857
9 to 10	..	..	838,675	..	838,675	..	..	..	..	..	838,675
10 to 11	..	..	688,343	..	688,343	..	..	..	..	..	688,343
11 to 12	..	..	547,121	..	547,121	..	..	..	..	..	547,121
12 to 13	..	..	421,671	..	421,671	..	..	..	..	..	421,671
13 to 14	..	..	308,960	..	308,960	..	..	..	..	..	308,960
14 to 15	..	..	219,602	..	219,602	..	..	..	..	..	219,602
15 to 16	..	..	157,719	..	157,719	..	..	..	..	..	157,719
16 to 17	..	..	109,830	..	109,830	..	..	..	..	..	109,830
17 to 18	..	..	89,603	..	89,603	..	..	..	..	..	89,603
18 to 19	..	..	42,667	..	42,667	..	..	..	..	..	42,667
19 to 20	..	..	25,313	..	25,313	..	..	..	..	..	25,313
Over 20	..	..	28,656	..	28,656	..	..	..	..	..	28,656
All Ages	..	..	60,075	..	60,075	..	..	..	..	..	60,075

The following figures give the percentage to the population of scholars in British India as a whole and in the Governor's Provinces:—

	1922
British India	3.39
Madras	4.30
Bombay	5.00
Bengal	4.05
United Provinces	2.26
Punjab	3.03
Burma	4.26
Bihar and Orissa	2.38

Central Provinces	2.39	2.44
Assam	2.84	3.02

Non-Co-operation.—It is impossible to say how many students were actually withdrawn from schools and colleges in consequence of the attack launched on the educational system of the country as an integral part of the non-co-operation campaign, since a variety of other factors, chief among which was the high cost of living, also affected attendance in the years following the war. The following statement gives some indication of the losses:—

Province.	National Schools and Colleges in 1921-22.		Approximate effect of "Non-Co-operation" on certain recognised institutions up to March 1921.			Remarks.
	Institutions.	Scholars.	Scholars.	Withdrawn from institutions.	Returned.	
Madras	92*	5,072*	171,111	820	†	
Bombay	189	17,100	42,416	2,350	239	
Bengal	190	14,819	108,107	11,157	No information.	
United Provinces	137*	8,476*	49,171	2,626	789	
Punjab	69	8,046	111,078	1,309	481	
Burma	92	16,218	36,875	13,031	747	
Bihar and Orissa	442	17,330	23,190	1,826	†	
Central Provinces	86*	6,338*	71,759	1,824	454	
Assam	38	1,908	12,186†	1,139	356	
North-West Frontier Province	4*	120*	41,342	NH.	..	
Minor Administrations	10	1,255	45,508	571	70	

*Opened till 31st July 1921.

†There was a general tendency to return.

‡Till January 1921.

During the year 1922-23 there was a marked recovery from the effects of the Non-Co-operation movement on the attendance at schools and colleges in British India as shown by the statement below:—

	Institutions.		Scholars.	
	1922.	1923.	1922.	1923.
Arts colleges	170	174	47,632	52,639
Professional colleges	64	59	13,662	13,497
High schools	2,246	2,312	595,402	632,943
Middle schools	6,731	6,732	643,839	698,462
Primary schools	159,889	162,015	6,304,457	6,600,116
Special schools	4,189	5,720	138,169	181,318
Unrecognised schools	34,820	33,660	639,931	612,115
Total	208,109	210,872	8,883,092	8,791,090

Statement of Educational Progress in MADRAS.

Statement of Institutions		1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	..	142,330	142,330	142,330	142,330	142,260	142,260
Population	{ Male	20,382,955	20,382,955	20,382,955	20,382,955	20,870,749	20,870,749
	{ Female ..	21,022,449	21,022,449	21,022,449	21,022,449	21,448,236	21,448,236
Total Population	..	41,405,404	41,405,404	41,405,404	41,405,404	42,318,985	42,318,985
<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>							
Number of arts colleges	..	38	42	44	47	47	51*
Number of high schools	..	2108	2108	2927	2925	2922	303
Number of primary schools	..	29,862	29,952	31,002	32,486	33,635	35,113
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>							
In arts colleges	..	8,009	8,021	8,208	7,538	8,081	8,821
In high schools	..	107,548	111,053	115,956	122,245	124,382	127,423
In primary schools	..	1,092,611	1,031,861	1,101,186	1,153,946	1,189,500	1,277,484
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	..	6.1	6.1	6.3	6.5	6.6	6.9
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>							
Number of arts colleges	..	3	3	3	3	4	4*
Number of high schools	..	37	41	47	48	51	53
Number of primary schools	..	1,860	2,057	2,376	2,411	2,840	2,785
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>							
In arts colleges	..	210	293	270	502	384	429
In high schools	..	6,769	7,224	8,687	9,101	10,320	10,981
In primary schools	..	309,155	319,133	332,940	340,175	347,285	366,183
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	..	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions	{ Male ..	1,256,364	1,249,312	1,276,528	1,338,878	1,378,159	1,460,333
	{ Female ..	323,380	333,775	349,241	358,402	367,359	387,500
Total ..		1,579,744	1,583,087	1,625,769	1,697,280	1,745,518	1,847,833
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.		1,696,539	1,692,951	1,730,040	1,799,850	1,837,022	1,915,117
Percentage of total scholars to { Males	..	6.6	6.6	6.7	6.9	7.0	7.2
.. { Females	..	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9
Total ..		4.1	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.5
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).</i>							
From provincial revenues	..						
From local funds	..	(a) 96.11	1,111.13	19.26	1,41.71	1,58.26	1,55.10
From municipal funds	..	16.44	16.43	22.30	29.60	27.81	27.81
Total expenditure from public funds	..	4.06	4.69	4.25	7.22	7.18	8.26
Total expenditure from public funds	..			(c) 1,45.81	1,78.53	1,68.94	1,91.17
From fees	..	1,16.61	1,32.25	(d) 77.10	77.10	78.15	78.15
From other sources	..	59.57	61.13	64.43	71.10	72.89	78.16
From other sources	..	50.27	54.62	58.45	69.46	72.89	78.16
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	..	2,26.45	2,44.02	2,66.69	3,19.09	3,39.98	3,45.77

(c) Includes Rs. 22,00,149 and Rs. 5,48,383 contributed to District Boards and Municipalities, respectively.

	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
(a) Provincial subsidies to District Boards and Municipalities were Rs.	20,63,553	and	6,32,200
(b) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(c) "	34,61,324	"	4,31,880
(d) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(e) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(f) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(g) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(h) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(i) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(j) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(k) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(l) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(m) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(n) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(o) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(p) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(q) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(r) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(s) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(t) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(u) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(v) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(w) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(x) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(y) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466
(z) "	33,39,703	"	6,53,466

(d) "Includes Intermediate and 2nd grade colleges of the new type."

On the 31st March 1913, there were 612,015 primary schools in British India containing 6,600,116 scholars. (The latter figure does

Primary Education.—The primary schools are mainly under the direction of the local boards and municipalities. In 1911, the late Mr. G. K. Gokhale pleaded in the Imperial Legislative Council for a modified system of compulsory primary education, but Government was unable to accept the proposal mainly for financial reasons. In recent years, seven provincial legislatures have passed Primary Education Acts authorising the introduction of compulsory education by local option. Bombay led the way in this matter by a private Bill which was passed into law in February 1918. The other private Bills which followed were those of Bihar and Orissa passed in February 1919, of Bengal passed in May 1919 and of the

United Provinces, passed in June 1919. On the Government measures, the Punjab Act was passed in April 1919, the Central Provinces Act in May 1920 and the Madras Act in December 1920. The City of Bombay Primary Education Act of 1920 extends generally the provisions of the 1918 Act to the Bombay Corporation, also enabling it to introduce free compulsory education ward by ward. Not content with this, the Bombay Legislature passed a new Act in 1923 to provide for compulsory elementary education and to make better provision for the management and control of primary education in the Bombay Presidency. The Bombay and the United Provinces Acts apply only to municipalities, the Bengal Primary Education Act applies, in the first instance, to municipalities, but is capable of extension to rural areas. Boys only are included within the scope of the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa and Bengal Acts, while the Central Provinces Act is capable of extension to girls, and the remaining Acts are applicable to both sexes. All the Acts are drafted on very similar lines. If a local body at a special meeting convened for the purpose decides by a two-thirds majority in favour of the introduction of compulsion in any part of the area under its control, it may then submit to Government, for approval, a scheme to give effect to its decision. The scheme must be within the means of the local body to carry out with reasonable financial assistance from Government. Ordinarily the age limits of compulsion are from six to ten years though provision is made for prolonging the period. Provision is also made in all the Acts for the exemption of particular classes and communities and for special exemption from attendance in cases of bodily infirmity. Walking distance to a school is generally defined as one mile from the child's home. The employment of children, who should be at school, is strictly forbidden and a small fine is imposed for non-compliance with an attendance order. The Acts generally provide that, subject to the sanction of the local Government, education where compulsory shall be free. Such in brief are the ordinary provisions of the various provincial Education Acts. Local bodies have not however shewn as yet any great alacrity in availing themselves of the opportunity afforded them by these Acts. The poverty of local bodies is usually the cause assigned to their diffidence to introduce compulsory education to any appreciable extent.

not include scholars reading in the primary classes of secondary schools). The total direct expenditure on primary schools, during the year 1922-23, amounted to Rs. 5,36,92,725.

Secondary and High School Education.—The policy of Government is to maintain a small number of high schools (roughly one for each revenue district) which are to be regarded as models for private enterprise, and to aid private institutions. In 1911-12 there were 1,219 high schools for boys in India and in 1922-23 the number had risen to 2,312, the number of scholars in the former year being 390,881, and in the latter year 632,943. Some attempts have been made to give a greater bias towards a more practical form of instruction in these schools. The Commission of 1882 suggested that there should be two sides in secondary schools, "one leading to the entrance examination of the universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial and other non-literary pursuits." Some years later, what were called B and C classes were started in some schools in Bengal, but, as they did not lead to a university course, they have not been successful. In more recent years, the Government of India have advocated the institution of a school *final* examination in which the more practical subjects may be included. Efforts have also been made to improve the conduct of the matriculation and to emphasise the importance of oral tests and of school records. In Madras, this examination, which was placed under the direction of a Board representative of the University and of Government, proved somewhat cumbersome and certain modifications were made. In the United Provinces, only the better schools were privileged to prepare for the School Final Examination so that better results were achieved. In the Punjab and in Bombay, the school leaving examination is conducted by Boards. But the main difficulty has not yet been touched. The University which recognises the schools has no money wherewith to improve them: and the Department of Public Instruction, which allots the Government grants, has no responsibility for the recognition of schools, and no connexion whatever with the private unaided schools. This dual authority and this division of responsibility have had unhappy effects. The standard of the schools also is very low so that the matriculates are often unable to benefit by the college courses. In some provinces the standard of the schools has been raised by withdrawing from the University the Intermediate classes and by placing them in a number of the better schools in the State.

There are schools for Europeans and Anglo-Indians which are placed under the control of special inspectors for European Schools. The education of the domiciled community has proved to be a perplexing problem, and in 1912 a conference was summoned at Simla to consider the matter. The difficulty is that European Schools are very remote from the general system of education in India.

Medium of instruction in public schools
—The position of English as a foreign language and as a medium of instruction in public schools was discussed by a representative con-

Statement of Educational Progress in BOMBAY.

Area in square miles	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Population	123,065 10,252,255 9,430,994 10,653,216	123,065 10,252,255 9,430,994 10,653,216	123,065 10,252,255 9,430,994 10,653,216	123,065 10,170,985 9,177,753 19,348,736	123,065 10,170,985 9,177,753 19,348,736	123,065 10,170,985 9,177,753 19,348,736
Public Institutions for Males.						
Number of arts colleges	..	..	..	..	..	..
Number of high schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
Number of primary schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
Male Scholars in Public Institutions.	..	..	..	..	..	..
In arts colleges	..	..	..	..	..	..
In high schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
In primary schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Public Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges	..	..	..	..	..	..
Number of high schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
Number of primary schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.	..	..	..	..	..	..
In arts colleges	..	..	..	..	..	..
In high schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
In primary schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	..	..	..	..	..	..
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions	..	..	..	..	..	..
Male ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Female ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Percentage of total scholars to ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Population.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).	..	..	..	..	..	..
From provincial revenues	..	..	..	..	..	..
From local funds	..	..	..	..	..	..
From municipal funds	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total Expenditure from public funds	..	..	..	..	..	..
From fees	..	..	..	..	..	..
From other sources	..	..	..	..	..	..
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	..	..	..	..	..	..
* Includes Rs. 12,971 from Imperial Funds.	..	..	..	..	..	..
† Includes Rs. 10,471 from Imperial Funds.	..	..	..	..	..	..
‡ Includes Rs. 16,847 from Imperial Funds.	..	..	..	..	..	..

ference which met at Simla in 1917 under the Chairmanship of Sir Sankaran Nair, the then Education Member. Although it was generally conceded that the teaching of school subjects through a medium which was imperfectly understood led to cramming and memorising of text-books, the use of English medium was defended by some on the ground that it improved the knowledge of English. The result of the conference was therefore inconclusive. Some local authorities have since then approved of schemes providing for the recognition of local vernaculars as media of instruction and examination in certain subjects.

Boy Scout Movement.—A happy development in recent years has been the spread of the boy scout movement in public schools.

Medical Inspection.—In most provinces, arrangements have been made for medical inspection of scholars.

Intermediate Colleges.—One important part of the Calcutta University Commission's recommendations has been accepted by the Government of the United Provinces and the Government of India and incorporated in the Acts establishing the Lucknow, Dacca and Aligarh Muslim Universities, and reconstituting that of Allahabad, namely, the separation of the intermediate classes from the sphere of university work and of the two top classes of high schools from the rest of the school classes. The separated classes have been combined together and the control over them has been transferred from the University to a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education. Such a Board was constituted for the Dacca University area by a notification of the Government of Bengal in 1921. It contains twenty-two members of whom seven are elected by the University. The United Provinces Board was constituted by an Act passed in the same year. It consists of some forty members of whom approximately one-quarter represent the Universities in the Province. The Intermediate Examination Board of the Aligarh Muslim University was brought into existence by an Ordinance framed in 1922. It is composed of eight members.

Professional and Technical Education.—There are eight Medical Colleges (in addition to a number of medical schools) with 4,224 stu-

dents; eleven Law Colleges with 5,587 students; and five Agriculture Colleges containing 612 scholars. A research institute in agriculture was started by Lord Curzon at Pusa in Bihar, which has done valuable work. Conferences have been held at Pusa, Simla and Poona, with the object of providing a suitable training in agriculture. There are twenty training colleges for secondary teachers in various parts of India with 1,083 scholars and normal schools for the training of vernacular teachers. There are five colleges for commercial instruction with 784 students. The most important among them is the Sydenham College of Commerce in Bombay. Industrial institutions are dotted about India, some maintained by Government, others by municipalities or local boards, and others by private bodies. One of the most important is the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute in Bombay. The tendency in recent years has been to place these institutions under the control of the Departments of Industries. In this connexion should be mentioned the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore, the product of generous donations by the Tata family. A committee has recently enquired into its working and the Committee's recommendations are under consideration. In addition to a number of engineering schools, there are Engineering Colleges at Roorkee, Sibpur, Poona, Madras, and Benares each of which except that at Roorkee, is affiliated to a university. They had 1,432 scholars on their rolls on the 31st March 1923. The Government of Bihar and Orissa have decided to open a new Engineering College, while arrangements are also being made to provide for engineering instruction at the Rangoon University. There are schools of art in the larger towns, where not only architecture and the fine arts are studied, but also practical crafts like pottery and iron work. There is also a school of forestry at Dehra Dun. Many inquiries have been made in the matter of technical education, by Colonel (now Major-General Sir E. H. Dev.) Atkinson, and Mr. Dawson, by the Public Works Committee and by the Industrial Commission, but as yet little progress has been made. A Technical Institute has been started at Cawnpore and a Mining School at Dhanbad is projected. There are three colleges for veterinary training containing 328 students.

Universities.

There are fifteen universities in India, namely:—

No.	University.	Dates of Acts.	Territorial jurisdiction.
1	CALCUTTA ..	1857, 1904, 1905 & 1921.	Bengal and Assam and certain adjacent Indian States.
2	MADRAS ..	1857, 1904, 1905 and 1923.	The Presidency of Madras and Coorg and certain Indian States.
3	BOMBAY ..	1857, 1904 & 1905 ..	The Presidency of Bombay and certain Indian States (Baroda, &c.).
4	PUNJAB ..	1882, 1904 & 1905 ..	The Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan and adjacent Indian States (Kashmir, Patiala, &c.).

UNIVERSITIES—*contd.*

No.	University	Dates of Acts.	Territorial jurisdiction.
5	ALLAHABAD ..	1887, 1904, 1905 and 1921.	The United Provinces, Ajmere, Merwara and adjacent States.
6	BENARÉS HINDU ..	Oct. 1915 ..	Benares District.
7	MYSORE ..	July 1916 ..	Mysore State.
8	PATNA ..	Sept. 1917 and 1923..	Bihar & Orissa and adjacent Indian States.
9	OSMANIA ..	1918 ..	Hyderabad.
10	DACCA ..	April 1920 ..	Radius of 5 miles.
11	ALIGARH MUSLIM ..	Sept. 1920 ..	Radius of 10 miles.
12	RANGOON ..	Oct. 1920 and 1921 ..	Burma.
13	LUCKNOW ..	Nov. 1920 ..	Local.
14	DELHI ..	March 1922 ..	Delhi
15	NAGPUR ..	June 1923 ..	The Central Provinces and Berar.

The foregoing statement mentions the universities incorporated by law for the time being in force. The first University in India, that of Calcutta, was founded in 1857. Between 1857 and 1887 four new Universities, at Bombay, Madras, Lahore and Allahabad were added. These five universities were all of the affiliating type. They consisted of groups of colleges, situated sometimes several hundred miles apart, and bound together by a legally constituted central organisation, which determined the qualifications for admission, prescribed the courses of study, conducted the examinations and exercised a mild form of control over the affiliated colleges. There was nothing under the system to limit the number of institutions affiliated to a University; and for thirty years, i.e., from 1887 to 1917, the growing demand for university education was met, not by the creation of new universities, but by enlarging the size of the constituent colleges and by increasing their number. By 1917 this inflation had been carried on so far that the composition of the original five universities stood as follows:—

University.	Colleges.	Scholars.
Calcutta	58	28,618
Bombay	17	8,001
Madras	53	10,216
Punjab	24	6,558
Allahabad	33	7,807

It had become obvious that further expansion on the same lines was no longer possible without a serious loss of efficiency and the Govt. of India had recognised in their resolution of 1913 the necessity of creating new local teaching and residential universities in addition to the existing affiliating universities. The development of this policy was accelerated by the strength of communal feeling and the growth of local and provincial patriotism, leading to the establishment of a number of teaching universities. The new type of universities has since been strongly advocated by the Calcutta University Commission which has offered constructive

proposal as to the lines to be followed in university reform. A detailed account of the old and new Universities is given below.

The Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and the Punjab.—These three Universities alone still retain their old form, as measures for their reorganisation are still under consideration. On the 27th March 1921 an amending Act was passed by which the Governor-General ceased to be the Chancellor of the Calcutta University and now the head of the provincial government is the Chancellor of each of the older universities. The Vice-Chancellor is nominated by the Government concerned. The executive body is the Syndicate which is now organised so as to include a larger educational element. Over this body the Vice-Chancellor presides, all other members being elected by the Faculties, except the Director of Public Instruction who is a member *ex-officio*. The secretarial work is under the direction of the Registrar. The legislative body is the Senate which consists of from 75 to 100 members, 80 per cent. of whom are nominated by the Chancellor, the rest being elected by the Senate, or by its Faculties, or by the body of registered graduates. The Senate is divided into Faculties, which are in most cases those of arts, science, law, medicine, and engineering. There is an oriental faculty in the Punjab University alone. There are also Boards of Studies, whose duties are to recommend textbooks or books which represent the standard of knowledge required in the various examinations. The newer universities differ considerably from the older universities in constitution.

Apart from the general tightening up of university control over its colleges, the chief feature of university development since the passing of the Act of 1904, has been participation by the universities in post-graduate teaching and research. In Madras a small number of university professors have been appointed; in the Punjab the services of a certain number of temporary professors from overseas have been engaged. In Bombay a certain number of college professors and others have delivered lectures to post-graduate students under the auspices of the University. But the most

notable advance has been made in Calcutta, owing to the energy of the late Sir Asutosh Mukherjee, and to the liberality of Sir Tarak Nath Palit and of Sir Rash Behari Ghosh. In 1916, a committee was appointed to investigate the matter. In accordance with its report, new regulations have been passed by the Senate, whereby all post-graduate teaching and research in arts and science in Calcutta is now conducted directly by the University, though many of the college teachers have been invited to take part in the work. Post-graduate councils in arts and science have also been constituted, which comprise all the teachers engaged in the work and a very small number of additional numbers appointed by the Senate.

The University of Madras.—This is one of the older universities. It has recently been reconstituted. The reconstituted University while functioning as teaching and residential University in so far as the city of Madras is concerned, continues to exercise its jurisdiction over its mofussil colleges which remain affiliated to it. The administration of the University is in the hands of a Senate which has been so constituted as to include both those who are educationists and those who are connected with the actual business and commercial life. A large elective element has been introduced in its composition. Government control over the details of administration has been decentralised. The affairs of the University are managed by the Senate through a body called the Syndicate, while the Academic Council, another new body, has charge of the academic matters. The affiliated colleges have been entrusted to the care of a new organisation called the Council of Affiliated Colleges. In accordance with the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission, the Intermediate Examination Certificate has been made the admission test to the courses of the University. The Governor-General of India has been associated with the University as its Visitor with certain emergency powers. The Governor of Madras continues as Chancellor. The Vice-Chancellor is an elected whole-time officer.

The University of Allahabad.—This is another old University which has undergone reorganisation. In 1921 an Act was passed with a view to establishing a unitary, teaching and residential University at Allahabad while enabling the University to continue to exercise due control over the quality and character of the teaching given in its name by colleges affiliated to the University at Allahabad. The Governor-General is Visitor, and the Governor of the United Provinces Chancellor. The Vice-Chancellor is a whole-time officer. There is a Court, an Executive Council, an Academic Council, a Committee of Reference dealing with expenditure only, a Council of Associated Colleges, &c.

The Mysore University was constituted under Regulation V of 1916, for the better encouragement and organisation of education in the State. His Highness the Maharaja is the Chancellor. The University is very similar in its constitution to the older Indian universities, having a Senate of not less than fifty and not more than sixty members; but, unlike the older universities, it gives seats on the Senate to the university professors *ex-officio*.

It departs from existing practice by centralising university instruction in Mysore and Bangalore, and by conducting the work of the first year of the old college course in a few specially selected high schools. This University has been recognised by the Government of India as a University incorporated by law for the time being in force, that is to say, its examinations and degrees have been accorded the status of the corresponding examinations and degrees of a University incorporated by law in British India.

The Patna University.—Much thought has also been given to the evolution of a new type of university which will run abreast of the old. Patna university, which was constituted in 1917, is in most of its features a university of the old type, but certain innovations have been made. The Chancellor, who is the Governor of the province, may annul any proceeding of the University which is not in conformity with the Act and the Regulations. In the Senate the application of the elective principle has been extended, by increasing both the proportion of the elected Fellows and the categories of electing bodies; and the Senate includes representatives of the teaching staff and of the graduate teachers of recognised schools. Further, all colleges are given statutory representation on the Senate in the persons of their principals. The Syndicate is the ultimate authority in academic matters, subject to the proviso that any six of its members have the power to refer such matters to the Senate for review. The Vice-Chancellor is a paid officer and is appointed by the local Government. In addition to other duties, he has the power to inspect all colleges of the University. The colleges affiliated to the University are of two kinds; colleges of the University whose buildings are situated within a specified area, and external colleges, whose buildings are situated in one of the four following towns: Muzaffarpur, Bhagalpur, Cuttack and Hazaribagh.

The Osmania University, Hyderabad.—The Osmania University was established under a Charter promulgated with a *Firman* of His Exalted Highness the Nizam, dated the 22nd September 1918. The fundamental principle underlying the working of the University is that Urdu forms the medium of education, although a knowledge of English as a language is compulsory in the case of all students. There is a Bureau of Translation attached to the University which produces text books required for college classes. The constitution of the University consists of a Council, a Senate, a Syndicate, Faculties and Boards of Studies. There is a Chancellor and a Vice-Chancellor, both *ex-officio* officers. The executive government of the University including general supervision and control over colleges is vested in the Council which is the highest authority and which performs the function assigned to Government in the case of British Indian Universities. The University possesses at present only one constituent college, viz., the Osmania University College, which was opened in 1919. The Osmania University has been recognised by the Government of India as a University incorporated by law for the time being in force, that is to say its examination and degrees have been accorded the status of the corresponding examinations

Statement of Educational Progress in BENGAL.

	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	78,600	78,600	78,600	78,600	78,643	78,643
Population	23,365,225	23,365,225	23,365,225	23,365,225	24,151,222	24,151,222
.. .. . { Male	22,117,852	22,117,852	22,117,852	22,117,852	22,544,314	22,544,314
.. .. . { Female	45,483,077	45,483,077	45,483,077	45,483,077	46,095,536	46,095,536
Total Population	68,600	68,600	68,600	68,600	78,843	78,843
Public Institutions for Males.						
Number of arts colleges	31	33	33	33	33	30*
Number of high schools	741	822	888	888	887	896
Number of primary schools	34,079	34,278	34,804	35,703	35,621	35,375
Male Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	20,313	20,614	21,379	19,572	16,738	21,106
In high schools	227,057	235,693	236,479	210,179	193,751	203,925
In primary schools	1,120,582	1,086,897	1,097,609	1,127,111	1,112,812	1,139,900
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	3.8	6.6	6.7	6.6	6.19	6.47
Public Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges	3	3	3	3	3	4*
Number of high schools	26	25	23	23	25	27
Number of primary schools	1,032	10,647	11,370	12,069	12,162	12,313
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	166	166	178	216	204	243
In high schools	4,070	4,161	4,372	4,376	4,382	6,872
In primary schools	288,754	297,304	312,205	326,754	325,094	325,207
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.51	1.52
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions { Male	1,588,956	1,550,109	1,535,086	1,543,466	1,490,439	1,564,612
.. .. . { Female	303,995	312,217	328,513	315,014	333,578	341,613
Total	1,892,951	1,862,326	1,863,599	1,858,510	1,824,017	1,906,225
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	1,895,273	1,931,535	1,953,909	1,945,145	1,960,454	1,950,929
Percentage of total scholars to population.	7.1	6.9	6.9	6.8	6.38	6.63
.. .. . { Male	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.54	1.54
.. .. . { Female	4.3	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.05	4.18
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).						
From provincial revenues	82.47	86.27	1,00.05	1,08.79	1,31.63	Rs.
From local funds	12.50	13.36	13.39	14.09	14.13	13.05
From municipal funds	1.87	1.95	2.06	2.26	2.43	3.33
Total Expenditure from public funds	96.84	1,01.58	1,15.50	1,25.14	1,51.99	150.01
From fees	1,13.96	1,26.65	1,31.59	1,34.85	1,28.34	1,28.42
From other sources	44.14	49.35	54.84	49.23	53.51	52.9
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	254.94	277.57	3,01.93	3,09.22	333.87	331.42

* Includes Intermediate and 2nd grade Colleges of the new type.

and degrees of a University established by law in British India.

The Hindu University, Benares.—The creation of the Hindu University, Benares, forms a landmark in the history of the Indian university system. The university is not designed to meet the needs of one province alone, but to draw students from all parts of India.

It has no monopoly, no privilege. Its energies are not diffused by the necessity of supervising distant colleges nor its vitality impaired by the embarrassment of administrative duties other than those of organising its own teaching. It is therefore the first Indian university which is primarily a seat of learning and not an administrative organisation. Its constitution is therefore very different from those of the other Indian universities. A dividing line is made between administrative matters, entrusted to a large body called the Court, with an executive committee called the Council, and academic matters, entrusted primarily to a Senate, with an executive body called the Syndicate. The Court which is the supreme governing body besides its administrative powers, has the right to review the acts of the Senate, except where the Senate has acted in accordance with the Act, statutes and regulations. With a solitary exception it is composed entirely of Hindus. The Senate has the entire charge of the organisation of instruction in the University and the colleges, the courses of study, and the examination and discipline of students, and the conferment of ordinary and honorary degrees. This university can recognise schools all over India.

The University of Dacca.—With the modification of the Partition of Bengal in 1911, Dacca ceased to be the capital of the separate province of Eastern Bengal and Assam. Shortly afterwards, the Government of India decided to establish a university of Dacca and the Government of Bengal appointed a committee to frame a scheme for the new University. The committee was instructed that the University should be of the teaching and residential and not of the federal type, and that it should be a self-contained organism unconnected with any colleges outside the limits of the city of Dacca. The committee which was presided over by the late Mr. R. (afterwards Sir Robert) Nathan presented its report later in the year. The report is of great value and in it certain new principles are enunciated. Great emphasis was attached to physical training and education and also to the tutorial guidance of the students. The University was to be very largely a State Institution, and practically all its teachers and those of its colleges were to be Government servants. Though the colleges were to be separate units, each with its separate staff and buildings, they were to be linked together and with the University by a close form of co-operation. The executive body, to be called the Council, was to have very considerable powers, subject to the sanction of Government. The Council, which was to be a large and representative body, was to be the legislative authority, subject to the control of Government, and in other respects an advisory authority. The total cost of the full scheme was estimated at 63 lakhs, but deducting certain

sums which were available from other sources the net cost was put down at nearly 40 lakhs, exclusive of recurring charges. These were expected to involve a net total of about 64 lakhs annually. Before the scheme thus elaborated (which had received the Secretary of State's sanction) could be taken in hand, the war broke out. The Act constituting the University was passed in April 1920 and Mr. P. J. Hartog, C.I.E., was appointed the first Vice-Chancellor.

The Aligarh Muslim University.—It was the aim of Sir Syed Ahmed Khan years ago to place the benefits of a liberal education within the reach of the Muhammadan community; and in 1875 a school was opened which three years later was converted into the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College, Aligarh. The movement in favour of transforming this college into a teaching and residential university started, as early as the end of the last century. In 1911, during the visit of His Majesty the King-Emperor to India, His Highness the Aga Khan made an appeal which resulted in the collection of large subscriptions. A draft constitution was drawn up and a consultative committee was formed. But the draft constitution was not approved by the Secretary of State, and on the question of the right of affiliating colleges outside Aligarh in particular, there was a sharp difference of opinion. Government laid down, as in the case of the Hindu University, that the university should not have the power of affiliating Moslem institutions in other parts of India.

On October 15th, 1915, a meeting of the Moslem University Association was held at Aligarh, under the presidency of the Raja of Mahmudabad, when it was proposed that the meeting recommends the Moslem University Foundation Committee the acceptance of the Moslem University on the lines of the Hindu University. It was evident at the meeting that a large number of Indian Moslems were not prepared to accept a constitution for their university similar to that of the Hindu University.

In April, 1917, at a meeting of the Foundation Committee the following resolution was passed:—

“That this meeting of the Moslem University Foundation Committee hereby resolves with reference to the letter of the Government of India, Education Department, dated Delhi, 17th February 1917, D. O. No. 66, that the Committee is prepared to accept the best University on the lines of the Hindu University. It further authorises the Regulation Committee appointed at its Lucknow meeting, with the President and Honorary Secretary of the Moslem University Association as its *ex-officio* members, to take necessary steps in consultation with the Hon. the Education Member for the introduction of the Moslem University Bill in the Imperial Legislative Council.”

The bill referred to above was ultimately introduced into the Council and was passed in September 1920. The Act came into force on December 1st, 1920, and the Hon'ble Raja Sir Muhammad Ali Muhammad Khan, K.O.S.I., K.C.I.E., Khan Bahadur, of Mahmudabad, was appointed the first Vice-Chancellor of the University.

Statement of Educational Progress in UNITED PROVINCES.

	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	106,402	106,402	106,402	106,497	106,497	106,497
Population	24,469,373	24,469,373	24,469,373	23,787,745	23,787,745	23,787,745
.. .. . Male	22,365,735	22,365,735	22,365,735	21,589,042	21,589,042	21,589,042
.. .. . Female	46,835,108	46,835,108	46,835,108	45,375,787	45,375,787	45,375,787
TOTAL POPULATION	71,270,843	71,270,843	71,270,843	68,964,829	68,964,829	68,964,829
Public Institutions for Males.						
Number of arts colleges	15	15	16	17	21	33*
Number of high schools	151	155	164	178	184	154†
Number of primary schools	10,862	11,507	13,002	15,090	15,496	15,903
Male Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	5,399	4,993	5,798	5,440	5,440	5,925
In high schools	46,374	45,190	45,336	45,850	40,359	48,307
In primary schools	630,829	661,904	730,049	772,841	754,851	798,683
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	3.1	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.6	3.9
Public Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges	4	4	4	3	5	5*
Number of high schools	25	24	27	26	12†	13†
Number of primary schools	1,120	1,146	1,228	1,269	1,344	1,348
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	55	53	59	52	73	73
In high schools	2,716	2,794	2,993	2,998	8,879	3,398
In primary schools	55,720	63,558	71,310	75,315	78,089	80,114
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	3.0	3.4	3.8	4.2	4.3	4.5
TOTAL SCHOLARS in (Males & Females)	764,391	772,228	845,938	800,785	871,750	920,274
.. .. . in (Males)	67,512	73,951	85,611	90,930	93,309	96,568
.. .. . in (Females)	83,133	848,049	931,309	981,744	965,050	1,016,842
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male & female) in all institutions	918,238	924,679	1,075,600	1,047,761	1,029,565	1,080,951
Percentage of total scholars to	3.5	3.4	3.7	4.0	3.96	4.1
.. .. . population	33	37	41	44	45	47
TOTAL	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.27	2.38
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).						
From provincial revenues	Rs. 76,52	Rs. 56,70	Rs. 75,85	Rs. 1,04,71	Rs. 1,36,15	Rs. 1,53,28
From local funds	32,08	33,38	34,15	36,98	38,57	39,57
From municipalities	5,24	5,72	6,46	7,23	8,32	9,10
TOTAL Expenditure from public funds	113,84	95,80	1,16,46	1,48,92	1,83,04	2,01,95
From fees	34,80	36,34	38,36	34,71	35,59	29,82
From other sources	21,65	39,33	63,78	57,96	62,82	43,59
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	1,52,89	1,72,37	2,18,60	2,41,59	2,51,45	2,75,37

* Includes Intermediate and 2nd Grade Colleges of the new type.
† Excludes "Intermediate" Colleges of the new type.

The University of Rangoon.—Plans for a university in Burma had been under consideration for some years. After his arrival in Burma the then Lieutenant-Governor Sir Harcourt Butler thought that, on general grounds and with some reference to the needs of the province, the Rangoon University might usefully be of a more practical type than any yet attempted in India with courses in arts and science, pure and applied, technology, medicine, engineering, agriculture, law, forestry, veterinary, science and training, commerce and architecture. It might perhaps combine with university instruction practical studies at the Chief Court, the Pasteur Institute and the hospitals; and also at the Museum which the local Government was committed to build as soon as funds were available. It is possible in Burma to a greater extent than in any of the older and more advanced provinces in India to concentrate the intellectual energies of the province in one immediate neighbourhood and to develop a really many-sided university. An Act to establish a teaching and residential college at Rangoon was passed on the 24th October 1920. This Act however did not find favour with a section of Burmese and was consequently amended in 1923. The amending Act introduced greater popular and representative elements in the composition of the Council and invested the reformed Council with greater discretionary powers in matters affecting public interest, such as the question of admitting affiliation of *mofussil* colleges or of admitting more colleges to the status of constituent colleges. In short, it rendered the University more suited to the needs and aspirations of the province. The University authorities are the Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, the Council (with an executive committee) and the Senate. The Council is the supreme administrative body while the Senate is an academic body with entire control of studies, examination and discipline. The Governor-General, as Visitor, has the right to cause inspection to be made.

The Lucknow University.—The foundation of this University may primarily be ascribed to the patriotism of the people of Oudh. It is a unitary teaching and residential University incorporated by an Act passed in 1920. The University authorities are (1) the Court, with powers of making statutes, (2) the Executive Council, which administers the property of the University and appoints examiners, (3) the Academic Council, which controls the teaching and advises the Executive Council on all academic matters, (4) a Committee of Reference (a Sub-Committee of the Court) deals with items of new expenditure only. The Governor-General, as Visitor, has the same power as in the case of the Rangoon University and other new, or reorganised, universities.

The following statement mentions the normal admission tests to the various Indian Universities:—

Name of University.	Tests.	Remarks.
1. CALCUTTA	The Matriculation Examination of the Calcutta University.	
2. MADRAS	The School-leaving Certificate Examination of Madras at present ultimately an Intermediate Examination.	

The Delhi University.—The Delhi University was created by an Act passed in 1922. The University depends for its existence mainly on the generosity of the Government of India who occupy the position of a local Government in relation to it. It is a unitary teaching and residential University, designed on the model recommended by the Calcutta University Commission for the Dacca University, possessing at present three constituent colleges. The Act provides for two schemes—a provincial and a permanent one. Under the provisional scheme, which is in force at present, the constituent colleges remain with their hostels, etc., in their existing buildings. They also retain intermediate classes. But there have been instituted, so far as possible and desirable, common classes for graduate teaching. The matriculation examination of an Indian University, or an equivalent examination, is the admission test to the University courses. The permanent scheme contemplates that the existing colleges in Delhi City would become intermediate institutions and that degree classes would be conducted in new buildings to be built in Imperial Delhi. There would be halls and hostels where students would receive tutorial instruction. The Intermediate Examination of an Indian University or an equivalent examination, would become the admission test to the University. The Governor-General is the *ex-officio* Chancellor. There is a Pro-Chancellor, a Vice-Chancellor and a Rector. The principal governing bodies of the University are a Court, an Executive Council and an Academic Council.

The Nagpur University.—This University was created by an Act passed in 1923. Its constitution follows the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission and the provisions in other University Acts in so far as they are applicable to local conditions. In particular the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission have been adopted in the matter of the appointment of the Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor, and of their powers and duties, the composition and functions of the Court, the Executive and Academic Councils, and the relations of the University with Government. The University Act provides in the first instance for a University of an examining and affiliating type in which the existence of the colleges is preserved as the unit of instruction both in the University centre of Nagpur and in other places which contain colleges admitted to the privileges of the University. The Act is so framed as to permit of a gradual development of the University into a managing and teaching body which may supplement, or entirely replace collegiate by University instruction either by taking over the management of existing colleges or by instituting and maintaining its own colleges.

Name of University.	Tests.	Remarks.
3. BOMBAY	The School-leaving Examination of the Bombay Joint Examination Board or the Matriculation Examination of the Bombay University.	
4. PUNJAB	The Matriculation Examination of the Punjab University.	
5. ALLAHABAD	The Intermediate Examination of the United Provinces Board of High School and Intermediate Education.	
6. BENARES HINDU	The Admission Examination of the Benares Hindu University.	This is equivalent to the Matriculation Examination of an Indian University.
7. MYSORE	The Entrance Examination of the Mysore University.	This is equivalent to the first year examination of an Indian University. Three years are spent for a degree.
8. PATNA	The Matriculation Examination of the Patna University.	
9. OSMANIA	The Matriculation Examination of the Osmania University.	
10. ALIGARH MUSLIM	An Intermediate Examination	
11. RANGOON	The Anglo-Vernacular or English or European High School Examination.	This is approximately equivalent to the Matriculation Examination of an Indian University.
12. LUCKNOW	The Intermediate Examination of an Indian University.	
13. DACCA	Do.	
14. DELHI	The Matriculation Examination of an Indian University at present; ultimately an Intermediate Examination.	
15. NAGPUR	The Final Examination held under the Central Provinces High School Education Act, 1922.	Do.

Education of Indian Women and Girls.—The statement below shows the progress of women's education during the quinquennium ending the 31st March 1922:—

	Year	Arts Colleges.	High Schools.	Middle Schools.	Primary Schools.	Special Schools and Colleges.	Total.
Institutions for Girls.	1916-17	8	81	446	18,077	512	19,124
	1921-22	12	120	548	22,579	258	23,517
	Increase or decrease.	+4	+ 39	+102	+4,502	—254	+4,393
Female Scholars in Girls' and Boys' Schools.	1916-17	493	15,571	69,837	1,033,574	16,535	1,136,010
	1921-22	881	26,239	85,247	1,195,967	10,880	1,319,214
	Increase or decrease	+388	+10,668	+15,410	+162,393	—5,655	+183,204

N. B.—The statistics of European schools and scholars are not included in this table.

Statement of Educational Progress in the PUNJAB.

	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles						
Population						
Total Population						
Public Institutions for Males.						
Number of arts colleges	99,251	99,251	99,251	89,210	99,846	99,806
Number of high schools	10,769,704	10,769,704	10,769,704	11,306,265	11,306,265	11,306,265
Number of primary schools	8,806,943	8,806,943	8,806,943	9,378,759	9,378,759	9,378,759
In arts colleges	19,576,647	19,576,647	19,576,647	20,685,024	20,685,024	20,685,024
In high schools	11	12	12	16	15	16
In primary schools	143	157	172	187	203	215
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	5,084	5,172	5,162	5,369	5,627	5,738
Public Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges	4,593	5,540	4,566	4,266	4,472	4,855
Number of high schools	56,379	59,261	65,502	71,908	75,872	81,554
Number of primary schools	242,335	245,786	228,404	233,674	270,143	349,063
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	3.4	3.5	3.7	3.9	4.33	5.54
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions.						
Male	384,516	373,848	403,600	438,503	489,755	625,916
Female	55,528	58,280	60,672	62,944	62,867	66,355
Total	420,044	432,128	464,272	500,887	552,622	692,271
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.						
Male	468,839	477,200	517,969	556,959	626,690	777,978
Female	3.7	3.8	4.1	4.2	4.77	6.04
Percentage of total scholars to population.	77	78	82	80	92	1.0
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).						
From provincial revenues	Rs. 50,137	Rs. 56,697	Rs. 64,138	Rs. 83,020	Rs. 86,78	Rs. 113,36
From local funds	12,554	18,51	14,728	23,63	23,47	23,17
From municipal funds	4,08	5,40	6,94	9,31	9,76	9,57
Total Expenditure from public funds	66,75	73,60	85,35	117,96	121,94	146,10
From fees	20,51	23,06	31,19	34,88	39,12	44,13
From other sources	18,47	19,36	22,40	31,22	28,56	30,16
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	1,14,73	12,402	1,41,94	1,84,06	1,90,62	2,20,38

* Includes 37 pupils in high classes.
 † Includes Rs. 14,90,389 from Imperial Funds.
 ‡ Includes Rs. 19,96,66 from Imperial Funds.
 § Includes Rs. 29,19,966 from Imperial Funds.

There is still a leeway to be made good. All the influences which operate against the spread of education amongst the boys are reinforced in the case of women by the *pardah* system and the custom of early marriage.

Arts colleges, medical colleges, and the like admit students of both sexes, and a few girls attend them. The Lady Harding Medical College for Women at Delhi gives a full medical course for medical students. The Shreevani Nathibai Damodhar Thackersey Indian Women's University was started some nine years ago by Professor Karve. It is a private institution and is doing good pioneer work. So far it has granted only 15 degrees, and there are only 30 ladies prosecuting higher studies at the affiliated institutions; but the number of girls attending its recognised high schools is said to be about 700.

Education in the Army.—The Army in India undertakes the responsibility of the education of certain sections of the community. Its activities are directed into various channels with certain definite objects, which may be summarised as follows:—

(i) The education of the soldier, British and Indian, in order to:—

- (a) develop his training faculties;
- (b) improve him as a subject for military training and as a citizen of the Empire;
- (c) enhance the prospects of remunerative employment on his return to civil life.

(ii) The fulfilment of the obligations of the State to the children of soldiers, serving and ex-service (British and Indian).

(iii) The provision, as far as possible, of training for the children of soldiers, who have died in the service of their country.

(iv) The creation of a body of Indian gentlemen educated according to English public school traditions, which should provide suitable candidates for admission to the Royal Military College, Sandhurst.

Administration.—The educational services are divided into (a) the Indian Educational Service, (b) the Provincial Educational Service, (c) the Subordinate Educational Service.

(a) **The Indian Educational Service** which comprises officers performing inspection and tutorial work, is subdivided into two branches—one for men and the other for women. Appointments to both branches are made by the Secretary of State for India in Council. All officers belonging to this service come under the special leave and pension rules. The future of this service is under consideration as a result of the recommendation made by a Royal Commission on the superior Civil services in India.

(i) **Indian Educational Service (Men's Branch).**—There is a time-scale of pay rising from Rs. 400 by annual increments of Rs. 50 to Rs. 1,250 a month. There are two selection grades—one for 15 per cent. of the cadre on Rs. 1,250-50-1,500 a month and the other for 5 per cent. on Rs. 1,550-100-1,750 a month. Officers of non-Indian domicile receive overseas pay in addition ranging from Rs. 150 to Rs. 250 a month. The principals of first grade colleges receive duty allowances of Rs. 150 or Rs. 550 a month. Allowances of Rs. 150 a month are

also granted to the Assistant Directors of Public Instruction and to other officers holding similar administrative appointments. There is one Director of Public Instruction in each province. The posts of Director are treated as prize posts for the members of the I.E.S. Their pay varies from Rs. 1,500-50-1,750 a month in the North-West Frontier Province to Rs. 2,500-100-3,000 in the Presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bengal. In some provinces the Directors have been made *ex-officio* Secretary, Deputy Secretary or Under-Secretary, in the local Education Departments.

In selecting candidates for appointment to the I.E.S. (Men's Branch), experience in teaching is regarded as indispensable, and weight is given to the possession of (a) a university degree in honours, or equivalent distinction, and (b) qualifications in special subjects depending on the nature of the vacancies to be filled.

(ii) **Indian Educational Service (Women's Branch).**—The organisation and conditions of service are similar to those in the Men's Branch. The pay is Rs. 400-25-850 a month, with a selection grade of Rs. 900-25-950-50-1,050 a month for 20 per cent. of the cadre. In cases where the provincial cadre is very small, one member of the service is eligible for a selection grade post, irrespective of the percentage maximum. Officers of non-Indian domicile are in addition granted a uniform overseas pay of Rs. 50 a month. The principals of first grade colleges for women and ladies holding such administrative posts as the Deputy Directresses of Public Instruction are eligible for a duty allowance of Rs. 100 a month.

In selecting candidates for appointment to the I.E.S. (Women's Branch), experience in teaching is regarded as indispensable, and weight is given to the possession of (a) high academic qualifications, and (b) qualifications in special subjects depending on the nature of the vacancies to be filled.

(i) **The Provincial Educational Service.**—This service also consists of two branches, one intended for men and the other for women. The service comprises posts more or less similar to those borne on the cadre of the Indian Educational Service, but of secondary importance. Candidates are recruited in India by local Governments. They are invariably graduates of Indian universities and natives of the province concerned.

(i) **Provincial Educational Service (Men's Branch).**—The minimum and maximum pay has been fixed at Rs. 250 and Rs. 800 a month respectively, and local Governments have been empowered to settle grading within these limits.

(ii) **Provincial Educational Service (Women's Branch).**—The minimum pay is Rs. 200 a month and the maximum pay Rs. 500 a month. As in the case of the Men's Branch local Governments are competent to fix grading within these figures.

(c) **The Subordinate Educational Service.**—This service is meant for posts of minor importance. Each province has its own rate of pay. For example, in the Punjab the maximum pay of S.E.S. officers is Rs. 250 a month,

Department of Education, Health and lands of the Government of India.—In 1910 a Department of Education was established in the Government of India with an office of its own and a Member to represent it in the Executive Council. The first Member was Sir Harcourt Butler. In 1923, the activities of the Department were widened, in the interests of economy, by absorption in it of the Department of Revenue and Agriculture. The enlarged Department has been designated the Department of Education, Health and Lands. Sir B. N. Sarma and Mr. J. W. Bhowe are the present Member and Secretary, respectively. The Department possesses an educational adviser styled Educational Commissioner. The present Educational Commissioner is Mr. J. A. Riekey.

Calcutta University Commission.—The Report of the Calcutta University Commission was published in August 1919 and in the following January the Government of India issued a Resolution summarising the main features of the Report and the recommendations of the Commissioners.

The Government of India drew special attention to the following points in the Report:—

- (i) High schools fail to give that breadth of training which the developments of the country and new avenues of employment demand.
- (ii) The intermediate section of University education should be recognized as part of school education and should be separated from the University organisation.
- (iii) The defects of the present system of affiliated colleges may be mitigated by the establishment of a strong central teaching body, the incorporation of unitary universities (as occasion arises), a modification of the administrative machinery which will admit of fuller representation of local interests, and supervision of different classes of institutions by several appropriately constituted bodies.

The Commission gave detailed suggestions for the reorganisation of the Calcutta University, for the control of secondary and intermediate education in Bengal and for the establishment of a unitary teaching University in Dacca. These measures concerned only Bengal: but it was generally recognised that some of the criticisms made by the Commissioners admit of a wider application. Committees were consequently appointed by the Universities of Madras, Bombay, Patna and the Punjab to consider the findings of the Commission. In the United Provinces two committees were appointed, one to prepare a scheme for a unitary teaching University at Lucknow, the second to consider measures for the reorganisation of the Allahabad University and the creation of a Board to control secondary and intermediate education.

In Bengal the first outcome of the Commission's Report was the passing of the Dacca University Act in the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1920 mentioned in detail else-

where. A scheme for the reorganisation of the Calcutta University is under consideration.

The Reforms Act.—The Reforms Act of 1919 has altered the conditions of educational administration in India. Education is now a 'transferred' subject in the Governors' provinces and is, in each such Province, under the charge of a Minister. There are, however, some exceptions to this new order of things. The education of Europeans is a 'Provincial reserved' subject, i.e., it is not within the charge of the Minister of Education; and to the Government of India are still reserved matters relating to Universities like Aligarh, Benares and Delhi and all such new universities as may be declared by the Governor-General in Council to be central subjects. The Government of India are also in charge of the Chiefs' Colleges and of all institutions maintained by the Governor-General in Council for the benefit of members of His Majesty's Forces or of other public servants or of the children of such members or servants.

Chiefs' Colleges.—For the education of the sons and relatives of the Chiefs and Princes of India, whose families rule over one-third of the Indian continent, five Chiefs' Colleges are maintained, viz:—

- (i) Mayo College, Ajmer, for Rajputana Chiefs;
- (ii) Daly College, Indore, for Central India Chiefs;
- (iii) Alitchson College, Lahore, for Punjab Chiefs;
- (iv) Rajkumar College, Rajkote, for Kathiwar Chiefs; and
- (v) Rajkumar College, Raipur, for Central Provinces and Bihar and Orissa Chiefs.

In point of buildings, staffs and organisation these institutions approach English Public Schools. Students are prepared for a diploma examination conducted by the Government of India. The diploma is regarded as equivalent to the matriculation certificate of an Indian University. A further course of University standard called the Higher Diploma is conducted at the Mayo College. The examination for this Diploma is also held by the Government of India. Its standard is roughly equivalent to that of the B.A. diploma of an Indian University.

Indigenous Education.—Of the 8,791,090 scholars being educated in India 612,115 are classed as attending 'private' or 'unrecognised' institutions. Some of these institutions are of importance. The Gurukul near Hardwar and Sir Rabindra Nath Tagore's school at Bolpur have attained some fame. Mr. Gandhi's school at Ahmedabad has attracted attention, and the numerous monastery schools of Burma are well-known. Connected with every big Mosque in northern India there is some educational organisation and the schools attached to the Fathpur and Golden Mosques at Delhi and the Dar-ul-Ulm, Deoband are noted.

These institutions generally have a religious or 'national' atmosphere and are possibly destined to play an important part in the future of India.

Statement of Educational Progress in BURMA.

Statement of Educational Progress in BURMA.							
		1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	..	230,839	230,839	230,839	230,839	233,707	233,707
	Population	6,183,491	6,183,494	6,183,494	6,750,781	6,756,969	6,756,969
.. { Male	..	5,931,723	5,931,723	5,931,723	6,454,783	6,455,223	6,455,223
	.. { Female	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total Population		12,115,217	12,116,217	12,116,217	13,205,564	13,212,192	13,212,192
Public Institutions for males		2	2	2	2	2	2
N	Number of arts colleges	76	85	86	84	80	90
N	Number of high schools (vernacular included)	6,681	6,353	5,602	5,014	4,374	3,977
N	Number of primary schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
Male Scholars in Public Institutions.		..	..	..	..	..	..
In	arts colleges	658	708	733	283	459	654
In	high schools	18,988	20,401	21,638	15,302	16,774	20,220
In	primary schools	166,819	159,994	150,203	139,776	127,193	117,199
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.5	3.9	3.82	3.82
Public Institutions for Females.		..	..	..	..	..	..
N	Number of arts colleges	18	16	17	16	18	20
N	Number of high schools	933	963	824	738	679	634
N	Number of primary schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.		..	..	..	..	..	..
In	arts colleges	27	39	48	48	56	87
In	high schools	4,238	4,538	5,079	5,062	5,114	6,260
In	primary schools	81,050	79,773	76,107	75,461	73,455	72,949
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.81	1.81	1.87
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions { Male ..		266,899	260,677	256,879	239,751	238,951	223,296
.. { Female ..		116,613	116,514	116,632	116,329	116,714	120,394
Total		383,312	377,191	372,561	356,080	345,665	344,690
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.		584,298	572,908	575,206	551,281	539,625	558,852
Percentage of total scholars to population.		7.4	7.3	7.3	6.5	6.50	6.37
.. { Males ..		2.0	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.91	1.99
.. { Females ..		4.8	4.7	4.7	4.3	4.26	4.23
Total		..	..	..	..	..	..
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).		..	..	..	..	..	..
From	provincial revenues	39,60	32,08	32,87	41,22	54,29	64,62
From	provincial funds	(a) 7,00	10,43	10,82	11,25	(c) 15,09	16,11
From	Municipal Funds	(b) 2,65	3,58	3,72	4,19	(d) 5,23	5,52
Total	Expenditure from public funds	49,25	46,12	47,41	56,66	66,61	76,25
From	fees	21,23	23,56	22,37	22,52	21,44	25,12
From	other sources	7,02	7,42	11,59	17,13	13,60	17,13
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE ..		77,50	77,10	81,37	93,50	1,01,65	1,16,50

(a) Includes Rs. 2,376 from Provincial Funds.

(c) Includes Rs. 6,08,423 from Provincial Funds.

(b) Includes Rs. 34,758 from Provincial Funds.

(d) Includes Rs. 1,20,823 from Provincial Funds.

Statement of Educational Progress in BIHAR and ORISSA

Statement of Educational Progress in Bihar and Orissa													
		1917-18.		1918-19.		1919-20.		1920-21.		1921-22.		1922-23.	
Area in square miles	Male	83,282	83,282	83,282	83,282	83,282	83,282	83,282	83,282	83,282	83,282	83,282	83,282
Population	Female	16,859,929	16,859,929	16,859,929	16,859,929	16,859,929	16,859,929	16,859,929	16,859,929	16,859,929	16,859,929	16,859,929	16,859,929
		17,630,155	17,630,155	17,630,155	17,630,155	17,630,155	17,630,155	17,630,155	17,630,155	17,630,155	17,630,155	17,630,155	17,630,155
		34,940,084	34,940,084	34,940,084	34,940,084	34,940,084	34,940,084	34,940,084	34,940,084	34,940,084	34,940,084	34,940,084	34,940,084
Total Population		7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
Public Institutions for Males.		23,268	23,052	23,052	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,084
Number of arts colleges		106	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	122
Number of high schools		106	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	122
Number of primary schools		23,268	23,052	23,052	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,120	23,084
Males Scholars in Public Institutions.		2,811	2,914	2,914	2,591	2,591	2,591	2,591	2,591	2,591	2,591	2,591	2,591
In arts colleges		35,200	35,917	35,917	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081
In high schools		35,200	35,917	35,917	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081	33,081
In primary schools		606,421	589,419	589,419	608,339	608,339	608,339	608,339	608,339	608,339	608,339	608,339	608,339
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.		4.1	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.1
Public Institutions for Females.													
Number of arts colleges													
Number of high schools													
Number of primary schools													
Females Scholars in Public Institutions.													
In arts colleges													
In high schools													
In primary schools													
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.													
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. { Male		696,510	679,614	679,614	697,276	697,276	697,276	697,276	697,276	697,276	697,276	697,276	697,276
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. { Female		108,702	109,452	109,452	113,745	113,745	113,745	113,745	113,745	113,745	113,745	113,745	113,745
Total		805,212	789,066	789,066	811,031	811,031	811,031	811,031	811,031	811,031	811,031	811,031	811,031
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.		862,324	827,140	827,140	846,502	846,502	846,502	846,502	846,502	846,502	846,502	846,502	846,502
Percentage of total scholars to { Male		4.4	4.2	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.4
.. .. .	{ Female												
.. .. .		2.5	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.48
Total													
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).													
From provincial revenues		28.91	31.19	31.19	38.16	38.16	38.16	38.16	38.16	38.16	38.16	38.16	38.16
From local funds		15.49	17.97	17.97	19.38	19.38	19.38	19.38	19.38	19.38	19.38	19.38	19.38
From municipal funds			1.67	1.67	1.63	1.63	1.63	1.63	1.63	1.63	1.63	1.63	1.63
Total Expenditure from public funds		45.76	50.76	50.76	59.76	59.76	59.76	59.76	59.76	59.76	59.76	59.76	59.76
From fees		23.04	24.33	24.33	25.28	25.28	25.28	25.28	25.28	25.28	25.28	25.28	25.28
From other sources		12.10	13.92	13.92	15.11	15.11	15.11	15.11	15.11	15.11	15.11	15.11	15.11
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE		20.90	20.90	20.90	20.90	20.90	20.90	20.90	20.90	20.90	20.90	20.90	20.90

(a) Includes Rs. 1,01,000 and Rs. 6,000 paid by the Govts. of Bengal and Assam.

(b) Includes Rs. 12,85,496 from Provincial Funds.
(c) Includes Rs. 73,406 and Rs. 4,963 and by the Govts. of Bengal and Assam respectively.
(d) Includes Rs. 1,01,000 and Rs. 8,000 paid by the Govts. of Bengal and Assam.
(e) Includes Rs. 1,03,811 from Provincial Funds.
(f) Includes Rs. 73,406 and Rs. 4,963 and by the Govts. of Bengal and Assam respectively.
(g) Includes Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(h) Includes Rs. 86,897 from Govt. Funds.
(i) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(j) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(k) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(l) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(m) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(n) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(o) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(p) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(q) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(r) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(s) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(t) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(u) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(v) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(w) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(x) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(y) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.
(z) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal.

d) Includes Rs. 12,72,472 from Govt. Funds and Rs. 1,128 paid by the District Board of Bengal. (f) Includes Rs. 96,897 from Govt. Funds.

Statement of Educational Progress in the CENTRAL PROVINCES and BERAR.

	1917-18.	1918-19	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	99,623	99,623	99,623	99,623	99,623	99,623
Population	6,930,392	6,930,392	6,930,392	6,930,392	6,930,392	6,930,392
Male	3,465,196	3,465,196	3,465,196	3,465,196	3,465,196	3,465,196
Female	3,465,196	3,465,196	3,465,196	3,465,196	3,465,196	3,465,196
Total Population	6,930,392	6,930,392	6,930,392	6,930,392	6,930,392	6,930,392
Public Institutions for Males.						
Number of arts colleges	198	198	198	198	198	198
Number of high schools	3,799	3,799	3,799	3,799	3,799	3,799
Number of primary schools	1,198	1,198	1,198	1,198	1,198	1,198
Male Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	3,799	3,799	3,799	3,799	3,799	3,799
In high schools	1,198	1,198	1,198	1,198	1,198	1,198
In primary schools	3,799	3,799	3,799	3,799	3,799	3,799
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5
Public Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges	310	310	310	310	310	310
Number of high schools	310	310	310	310	310	310
Number of primary schools	310	310	310	310	310	310
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	310	310	310	310	310	310
In high schools	310	310	310	310	310	310
In primary schools	310	310	310	310	310	310
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions (both male and female)	310	310	310	310	310	310
Percentage of total scholars to population	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).						
From provincial revenues	30,24	30,24	30,24	30,24	30,24	30,24
From local funds	6,46	6,46	6,46	6,46	6,46	6,46
From municipal funds	4,59	4,59	4,59	4,59	4,59	4,59
Total Expenditure from public funds	41,29	41,29	41,29	41,29	41,29	41,29
From fees	6,31	6,31	6,31	6,31	6,31	6,31
From other sources	5,24	5,24	5,24	5,24	5,24	5,24
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	52,84	52,84	52,84	52,84	52,84	52,84

Statement of Educational Progress in ASSAM.

	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	53,015	53,015	53,015	53,015	53,015	53,015
Population						
Male	3,467,621	3,467,621	3,467,621	3,467,621	3,467,621	3,467,621
Female	3,246,014	3,246,014	3,246,014	3,246,014	3,246,014	3,246,014
TOTAL POPULATION	6,713,635	6,713,635	6,713,635	6,713,635	6,713,635	6,713,635
Public Institutions for Males.						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	2	2	2	2
Number of high schools	36	37	38	39	41	40
Number of primary schools	3,881	3,924	4,030	4,049	3,955	4,019
Male Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	810	884	940	846	767	943
In high schools	13,559	13,273	13,499	12,578	11,153	11,997
In primary schools	153,853	149,546	154,597	155,466	145,967	156,290
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population	5.6	5.5	5.6	4.9	4.57	4.9
Public Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	3	3	3	3
Number of high schools	331	347	374	358	343	352
Number of primary schools	331	347	374	358	343	352
Female Scholars in Public Institutions.						
In arts colleges	1	1	2	2	2	2
In high schools	386	459	620	594	576	514
In primary schools	23,868	23,032	25,082	24,283	23,184	24,050
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population	82	81	88	76	73	75
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions (both male and female)	194,548	180,181	195,756	195,514	181,206	194,260
Percentage of total scholars to population	2.8	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.9
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).						
From provincial revenues	13,82	14,23	16,49	19,19	21,85	23,74
From local funds	3,96	3,99	4,14	4,08	3,86	4,45
From municipal funds	24	24	26	39	38	38
Total Expenditure from public funds	18,02	18,46	20,89	23,66	26,09	28,57
From fees	5,24	5,76	6,20	5,95	5,48	4,16
From other sources	2,56	2,61	3,25	3,10	3,27	3,10
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	25,82	26,83	30,34	32,71	34,84	35,83

Statement of Educational Progress in COORG.

	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	1,582	1,582	1,582	1,582	1,582	1,582
Population .. { Male	97,279	97,279	97,279	97,279	97,279	97,279
.. { Female	77,697	77,697	77,697	77,697	77,697	77,697
TOTAL POPULATION	174,976	174,976	174,976	174,976	174,976	174,976
<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	2	2	2	2
Number of high schools	93	93	93	93	93	93
Number of primary schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges	605	684	683	654	682	670
In high schools	4,950	4,963	5,047	5,265	5,449	5,124
In primary schools	5-7	5-8	5-9	6-1	6-86	6-48
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	..	..	..	..	..	..
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>						
Number of arts colleges	1	..	..	..	..	..
Number of high schools	8	9	10	10	10	9
Number of primary schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges	..	..	..	..	..	..
In high schools	2,164	2,932	2,204	2,226	2,280	178
In primary schools	2-9	3-0	3-0	3-0	3-26	3-17
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	..	..	..	..	..	..
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. { Male	5,583	5,687	5,773	5,962	6,138	5,798
.. { Female	2,258	2,941	2,857	2,385	2,426	2,357
Total	7,841	8,628	8,130	8,347	8,564	8,155
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	7,998	8,194	8,241	8,425	8,715	8,454
Percentage of total scholars to { Male	5-87	5-99	6-02	6-2	6-99	6-75
.. { Female	2-95	3-05	3-06	3-08	3-31	3-24
Total	4-57	4-68	4-71	4-81	5-32	5-16
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).</i>						
From provincial revenues	65	71	73	78	94	106
From local funds	13	15	17	18	18	32
From municipal funds	1	1	2	2	3	4
Total Expenditure from public funds	79	87	92	98	115	141
From fees	10	20	19	19	19	44
From other sources	10	9	10	9	9	8
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	1,08	1,16	1,21	1,28	1,43	1,93

	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	13,193	13,193	13,193	13,193	13,193	13,193
Population .. { Male	1,182,102	1,182,102	1,182,102	1,182,102	1,182,102	1,182,102
.. { Female	1,014,831	1,014,831	1,014,831	1,014,831	1,014,831	1,014,831
TOTAL POPULATION	2,196,933	2,196,933	2,196,933	2,196,933	2,196,933	2,196,933
<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	2	2	3	3
Number of high schools	17	17	18	18	20	20
Number of primary schools	582	618	615	636	625	505
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges	188	179	200	132	193	269
In high schools	5,522	5,672	5,957	6,242	7,439	7,439
In primary schools	24,848	25,392	23,578	25,336	25,989	24,909
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population.	3-2	3-3	3-2	3-5	3-6	3-7
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>						
Number of arts colleges	..	..	..	..	..	..
Number of high schools	44	47	49	56	63	60
Number of primary schools	..	..	..	..	..	..
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges	..	..	..	..	..	..
In primary schools	2,654	3,051	3,185	3,516	3,821	3,647
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population.	3-2	3-6	3-4	3-4	3-4	3-5
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. { Male	37,862	38,988	37,439	41,414	44,748	45,051
.. { Female	3,363	3,649	3,878	4,356	4,647	5,107
Total	41,225	42,637	41,317	45,770	49,395	50,158
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	40,134	46,360	44,615	49,717	53,914	56,403
Percentage of total scholars to popul- { Male	3-5	3-7	3-4	3-7	3-9	4-1
.. { Female	2-1	2-2	2-0	2-2	2-3	2-5
Total	5-6	5-9	5-4	5-9	6-2	6-6
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).</i>						
From provincial revenues	84	83	84	84	84	84
From local funds	63	63	63	63	63	63
From municipal funds	70	77	83	124	140	124
Total Expenditure from public funds	724	758	976	1,163	1,429	1,349
From fees	1,21	1,12	1,11	1,09	1,17	1,30
From other sources	1,10	1,03	1,55	1,88	1,93	3,22
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	9,55	9,73	12,42	14,60	17,39	18,01

(a) Includes an expenditure of Rs. 50,000 from Imperial Funds.

Statement of Educational Progress in DELHI.

	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	573	573	573	575	575
Population .. { Male	230,345	230,345	230,345	281,047	281,047
.. { Female	182,476	182,476	182,476	206,044	206,044
TOTAL POPULATION ..	412,821	412,821	412,821	487,091	487,091
<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>					
Number of arts colleges	3	3	3	3	3
Number of high schools	7	7	10	10	10
Number of primary schools ..	120	124	124	132	117
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>					
In arts colleges	485	548	559	581	705
In high schools	2,056	1,925	2,564	2,811	3,042
In primary schools	5,796	4,616	4,434	5,439	5,434
Percentage of male scholars in public institutions to male population ..	4.5	4.6	4.9	4.5	4.8
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>					
Number of arts colleges	2	2	2	3	3
Number of high schools	19	22	22	21	20
Number of primary schools ..					
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>					
In arts colleges	243	246	253	473	33
In high schools	798	897	1,012	1,012	488
In primary schools					760
Percentage of female scholars in public institutions to female population ..	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions .. { Male ..	10,282	10,638	11,276	12,551	13,420
.. { Female ..	2,082	2,007	2,185	2,435	2,523
TOTAL ..	12,364	12,645	13,461	14,986	15,943
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female in all institutions)	15,358	16,774	17,716	10,525	20,563
Percentage of total scholars to population. { Male ..	5.5	5.5	6.5	5.9	6.2
.. { Female ..	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.5
Total ..	3.7	4.1	4.3	4.0	4.2
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).</i>	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
From provincial revenues	4.04	4.83	5.21	5.79	6.45
From local funds	15	8	33	40	20
From Municipal funds	23	40	1.02	1.12	1.14
TOTAL EXPENDITURE from public funds.	4.42	5.31	6.56	7.31	7.79
From fees	1.39	1.41	1.43	1.62	1.77
From other sources	2.79	3.64	2.82	3.86	6.24
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE ..	8.60	10.36	10.81	12.78	15.80

Statement of Educational Progress in AJMER-MERWARA.

	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles	2,711	2,711	2,711	2,711	2,711	2,711
Population .. { Male	286,198	286,198	286,198	286,198	286,198	286,198
.. { Female	235,197	235,197	235,197	235,197	235,197	235,197
TOTAL POPULATION ..	501,395	501,395	501,395	501,395	501,395	501,395
<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>						
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	8	8	8	8	8	8
Number of primary schools ..	113	127	131	133	134	131
<i>Male Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges	130	113	104	87	69	95
In high schools	1,386	1,873	2,006	1,944	2,026	2,147
In primary schools	4,669	3,663	5,344	5,351	5,778	5,980
PERCENTAGE OF MALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to male population.	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.46
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>						
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	8	10	12	11	15	12
Number of primary schools ..						
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges	2	2	2	2	2	2
In high schools	109	119	124	149	153	165
In primary schools	282	469	555	532	707	630
PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to female population.	3	3	4	4	5	5.6
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions. { Male ..	7,272	7,964	8,702	8,952	8,901	9,342
.. { Female ..	724	953	1,128	1,111	1,346	1,277
TOTAL ..	8,096	8,857	9,831	10,063	10,247	10,620
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	11,137	12,391	13,421	14,841	15,126	15,652
Percentage of total scholars to population. { Male ..	3.6	4.0	4.2	4.7	4.7	4.9
.. { Female ..	2.2	2.5	2.6	3.0	3.05	3.18
TOTAL ..	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).</i>						
From provincial revenues	1.65*	1.93	2.78	3.69	3.95	3.11
From local funds	12	17	20	17	20	16
From Municipal funds	32	23	29	30	42	35
TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM PUBLIC FUNDS	2,09	2,33	3,30	4,16	4,57	3,59
From fees	57	55	47	55	66	79
From other sources	78	68	67	73	1.18	99
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE ..	3.44	3.56	4.44	5.44	6.11	5.37

* Imperial Revenues.

Statement of Educational Progress in BALUCHISTAN.

	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles ..	54,228	54,228	54,228	54,228	54,228	54,228
Population ..	239,187 178,231 415,418	239,181 175,231 414,412	239,181 175,231 414,412	239,181 175,231 414,412	239,181 175,231 414,412	239,181 175,231 414,412
<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>						
Number of arts colleges ..	3	3	3	3	3	3
Number of high schools ..	58	57	61	67	66	66
Number of primary schools ..	1,063	1,039	1,032	1,167	1,165	1,206
In arts colleges ..	1,409	1,457	1,643	2,643	3,404	1,751
In primary schools ..	1-2	1-2	1-3	1-4	1-4	1-5
PERCENTAGE OF MALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to male population ..						
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>						
Number of arts colleges ..	6	6	6	4	4	5
Number of high schools ..						
Number of primary schools ..						
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges ..	25	26	17			
In primary schools ..	458	453	343	575	676	291
PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to female population ..	36	37	35	34	39	40
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions ..	2,392 648 3,540	2,965 661 3,626	3,001 605 3,606	3,348 590 3,938	3,473 676 4,149	3,881 675 4,559
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions ..	5,163	6,125	6,432	7,102	7,112	7,180
Percentage of total scholars to population ..	1-9 41 1-2	2-1 51 1-5	4-4 35 1-5	2-6 50 1-7	2-5 52 1-7	2-46 54 1-71
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees.)</i>						
From provincial revenues ..	93	1,01	1,31	1,97	2,23	2,10
From local funds ..	14	14	18	18	18	18
From municipal funds ..	15	16	18	19	22	22
TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM PUBLIC FUNDS ..	1,22	1,31	1,64	2,30	2,59	2,50
From fees ..	16	16	18	17	19	25
From other sources ..	23	19	34	36	29	39
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE ..	1,61	1,66	2,16	2,83	3,07	3,14

Statement of Educational Progress in BANGALORE.

	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
Area in square miles ..	13	13	13	13	13	13
Population ..	51,752 49,082 100,834	51,752 49,082 100,834	51,752 49,082 100,834	51,752 49,082 100,834	51,752 49,082 100,834	51,752 49,082 100,834
<i>Public Institutions for Males.</i>						
Number of arts colleges ..	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools ..	4	4	4	4	4	4
Number of primary schools ..	61	62	69	63	66	50
In arts colleges ..	453	442	449	439	473	452
In primary schools ..	1,729	1,560	1,605	1,413	1,468	1,480
PERCENTAGE OF MALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to male population ..	14-7	14-1	14-4	12-3	12-7	11-4
<i>Public Institutions for Females.</i>						
Number of arts colleges ..	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools ..	3	4	4	4	4	4
Number of primary schools ..	23	21	21	20	20	21
<i>Female Scholars in Public Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges ..	296	261	289	328	317	317
In primary schools ..	453	520	595	721	751	734
PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE SCHOLARS in public institutions to female population ..	2-370	2,259	2,310	2,186	2,412	2,493
TOTAL SCHOLARS in public institutions ..	7,593 4,034 11,627	7,295 1,560 11,173	7,478 4,065 11,543	7,552 4,135 11,687	7,717 4,437 12,154	7,972 4,502 11,479
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions ..	11,882	11,275	11,744	12,078	12,307	12,398
Percentage of total scholars to population ..	15-0 8-4 11-3	14-2 8-0 11-2	14-6 8-5 11-6	19-7 7-5 10-2	9-7 7-9 10-4	12-7 8-1 10-5
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees.)</i>						
From provincial revenues ..	2,15	2,10	2,09	2,38	2,504	3,22
From local funds ..						
From municipal funds ..	17	17	17	32	304	40
TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM PUBLIC FUNDS ..	2,32	2,27	2,26	2,70	3,62	3,62
From fees ..	95	97	96	1,35	1,07	1,50
From other sources ..	1,07	1,84	1,95	2,68	2,00	2,45
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE ..	4,34	5,10	5,17	6,73	85	7,57

The Need.—More than sixty per cent. of the vast population of India subsist on agriculture and the majority of these millions generally live, under present conditions, from hand to mouth. The ryot's occupation is healthy and productive, and he is proverbially honest and straightforward in his dealings, except when years of famine and hardship make him at times crafty and recalcitrant. Owing to his poverty, combined with want of education and consequent lack of foresight, he has to incur heavy debts to meet occasional expenses for current seasonal purposes, the improvement of his land, or for ceremonial objects, and he has therefore to seek the assistance of the local money-lender, known as the Sowkar or the Mahajan. The rate of interest on such advances, though varying from province to province and even in different parts of a province, is generally very high. In addition to charging excessive rates the Sowkar extorts money under various pretexts and takes from the needy borrower bonds on which stamp duties are payable. One of the chief causes of the ryot's poverty is, that owing to the absence of security and his short-sightedness due to want of education, he does not as a rule collect and lay by his savings, but fritters away his small earnings in extravagant and unproductive expenditure, on the purchase of trinkets and ornaments, and on marriage and other ceremonies. Tradition says that he hoards coins under the ground with the likelihood that on his death the money is lost to his family for good. This absence of thrift and the habit of dependence, in case of difficulty, on the Government or on the Sowkar are the bane of his life. There is besides a general absence of ideals or desire for progress. A co-operative society changes all this, inasmuch as it provides him with a suitable institution in which to lay by his savings and teaches him the valuable lesson of self-help through the sense of responsibility he feels in being its member. Thus the chronic poverty and indebtedness of the Indian agriculturist afford a very good field for the introduction of co-operative methods, especially as his work is of a productive character likely to enable him to earn a better living under circumstances more favourable than they are at present.

Genesis of the Movement.—The question of improving rural credit by the establishment of agricultural banks was first taken up in the early nineties when Sir W. Wedderburn, with the assistance of the late Mr. Kanade, prepared a scheme of agricultural banks which was approved of by Lord Ripon's Government but was not sanctioned by the Secretary of State. The matter was not again taken up until about fifteen years later when Lord Venlock's Government in Madras deputed Mr. F. A. (now Sir Frederick) Nicholson, to report on the advisability of starting agricultural or land banks in the Presidency for the financing of the agricultural industry. There was in existence in Madras an indigenous system of banking available for the person of small means. This institution, called the Nidhi, corresponded in some respects to the provident funds and friendly societies in European countries. Though these Nidhis provided cheap capital to agriculturists the spirit of co-operation was lacking in them. Sir Frederick submitted an exhaustive report to

Government suggesting that the formation of co-operative societies afforded an excellent means for relieving rural indebtedness. Unfortunately, the report was not received favourably either by the non-official public or by the Government of Madras, and no action was taken on its suggestions. The next few years saw two of the worst famines from which India had ever suffered, and in 1901 Lord Curzon appointed a Commission to report on the measures to be adopted in future to prevent famines and to protect the ryot from their ravages. The Commission laid stress on the proper working of the Agriculturists' Loans and the Land Improvement Loans Acts under which *takari* advances are made by Government to cultivators. This system was given a long trial in the years previous to the great famines as well as during the years succeeding the 1899-1900 famines. But it is acknowledged on all hands that the system has not been successful in solving the problem of rural stagnation, as it is clear that it is not facility for obtaining cheap capital alone which will raise the agriculturist and relieve him from his debts, but the provision of capital combined with the inculcation of habits of thrift and self-help. This Commission also recommended that the principal means of resisting famines was by strengthening the moral backbone of the agriculturist and it expressed its view that the introduction of co-operation in rural areas might be useful in securing this end.

Co-operative Credit Societies' Act.—These recommendations induced Lord Curzon to appoint a Committee with Sir Edward Law at its head to investigate the question and a report was submitted to Government recommending that co-operative societies were worthy of every encouragement and of a prolonged trial. Sir Anthony (now Lord) Macdonell and others were at the same time making experiments on similar lines in the United Provinces and the Punjab with satisfactory results. All these activities, however, took an organized shape only when Lord Curzon's Government introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council a Bill to provide for the constitution and control of co-operative credit societies. The main provisions of the Bill which became the Co-operative Credit Societies' Act (Act X of 1904) were:—

(1) That any ten persons living in the same village or town or belonging to the same class or caste might be registered as a co-operative society for the encouragement of thrift and self-help among the members.

(2) The main business of a society was to raise funds by deposits from members and loans from non-members, Government and other co-operative societies, and to distribute the money thus obtained in loans to members, or with the special permission of the Registrar, to other co-operative credit societies.

(3) The organization and control of co-operative credit societies in every Presidency were put under the charge of a special Government officer called the Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies.

(4) The accounts of every society were to be audited by the Registrar or by a member of his staff free of charge.

(5) The liability of a member of a rural society was to be unlimited.

(6) No dividends were to be paid on the profits of a rural society, but the profits were to be carried at the end of the year to the reserve fund, although when this fund had grown beyond certain limits fixed under the bye-laws, a bonus might be distributed to the members.

(7) In urban societies no dividend was payable until one-fourth of the profits in a year were carried to the reserve fund.

Soon after the passing of the Act, the local Governments in all the Presidencies and major provinces appointed Registrars with full powers to organise, register, and supervise societies. In the early stages of the working of this Act, Government loans were freely given, and the response to the organising work of the Registrars was gradual and steady throughout most parts of the country.

Co-operative Societies' Act.—As co-operation progressed in the country defects were noticed in the Co-operative Credit Societies' Act and these were brought to the notice of Government by the Conferences of the Registrars which were for some years held annually. In two directions the need for improved legislation was especially felt. In the first place, the success of credit societies had led to the introduction of co-operative societies for distribution and for purposes other than credit for which no legislative protection could be secured under the then existing law. And, secondly, the need for a freer supply of capital and for an improved system of supervision had led to the formation of various central agencies to finance and supervise primary credit societies and these central agencies ran all the risks attendant on a status unprotected by legislation. The Government of India recognising the desirability for removing these defects, decided to amend the old Act, and a Bill embodying the essential alterations proposed was introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council, and after a few amendments it emerged from the Council as the Co-operative Societies' Act (11 of 1912) replacing Act X of 1904. The outstanding features of the new Act were as under:—

(a) It authorised the formation of societies for purposes other than credit, which was possible under the old Act only with the special permission of the Local Government. (This extension of co-operation to purposes other than credit marks an important stage in its development in India.)

(b) It defined, in precise terms, the objects for which co-operative societies could be organised.

(c) It removed the arbitrary division of societies into rural and urban and substituted a more scientific division in accordance with the form of liability adopted.

(d) It facilitated the growth of central agencies by insisting on limited liability, by means of a special clause about the registration of a society one of whose members is a registered society.

(e) It empowered Local Governments to frame rules and alter bye-laws so as to put restrictions on the dividends to be declared by societies and allowed them the discretion to sanction distribution of profits to their members by unlimited liability societies.

(f) It allowed societies with the permission of the Registrar to contribute from their net profits, after the reserve fund was provided for, amounts up to 10 per cent. of their remaining profits to any charitable purpose as defined in the Charitable Endowments' Act. (This kept the movement in touch with local life by permitting societies to lend assistance to local educational and charitable institutions.)

(g) It prohibited the use of the word "co-operative" as part of the title of any business concern except a registered society.

Composition of the Capital of Agricultural Societies.—On the organization of agricultural credit was necessarily concentrated the attention of the promoters, for it presented a far more important and far more difficult problem than urban credit. There was a great variety of types among the agricultural societies started in different provinces, and some Registrars adopted the "Raiffeisen," and some the "Luzzatti" methods in their entirety. The commonest type, as prevailing in the Punjab, Burma, and the United Provinces, and now extended practically all over India—is the unlimited liability society with a fee for membership and a small share capital, the share payments to be made in instalments. In some places, the bye-laws insist on compulsory deposits from members before entitling them to enjoy the full privileges of membership. The system in Bombay and the Central Provinces is different, there being no share-capital but only an admission fee. Part of the working capital is raised by deposits from members and other local sympathisers, but the bulk of it in all provinces is obtained by loans from central and other co-operative societies. In all the Presidencies, the Government set apart in the initial stages every year a certain sum to be advanced as loans to newly started co-operative societies, usually up to an amount equal to the deposits from members, raised by a society. State aid in the form of direct money does to agricultural credit societies has now become an exception rather than the rule, and this withdrawal in no way hampers the development of the movement on account of the rapid increase of co-operative financing agencies and the growth of public confidence in the primary societies. Out of a total working capital of 1½ crores, 1½ crore were shares, 2 crores reserves, ½ crore deposits of members, ½ crore deposits from non-members and societies and 9 crores loans from central societies. The advances taken from Government amounted to a little over 1 crore, 16 lakhs being held in Burma by colonization societies and three lakhs in the Central Provinces and Bihar out of a special famine grant. In Bombay, since 1923, Government place at the disposal of the Provincial Bank an allotment for distribution as advances to agriculturists under the Land Improvement Loans Act, such advances to be made through primary societies and central banks to which these are affiliated.

Constitution of Agricultural Credit Societies.—The typical agricultural credit society in India corresponds to the "Raiffeisen society," the management being gratuitous, the profits indivisible, and the area of work limited.

In the Punjab, the United Provinces and Burma where shares form an integral part of the system, the distribution as dividend of a portion of the profits after ten years, working is permitted under certain restrictions, although in the Punjab the tendency now is to make the profits wholly indivisible and the shares non-withdrawable. In parts of the country there are villages where a few literate men may be found but many of these are hardly fit enough to undertake the responsible work of a secretary, being practically ignorant of account keeping. In such villages either the village school-master or the village accountant is appointed secretary. In some places, where a suitable person is not available on the low pay a single society can afford, neighbouring societies are grouped together with a whole-time, well paid secretary. As the work of societies develops, the need for trained secretaries is being felt more keenly, for it is now realized that the function of a secretary does not consist merely in writing the accounts correctly. With a view to meet the demand for trained secretaries, training classes have been organized in Bombay, in the Punjab and elsewhere during the last few years, and efforts have been made to provide education in co-operation through the new educational and propagandist associations which have been started in some of the major provinces. Arrangements have also been devised in some provinces to educate the members of managing committees in the principles of the movement through peripatetic instructors and courses of simple lectures delivered at central villages. In Burma, the system of guaranteeing unions has been very successful in promoting co-operative education among rural workers.

Internal Management of Societies.—The managing committee of a society consists of 5 to 9 members, the chairman being usually the leading person in the village. The daily work is carried on by the secretary, but the managing committee supervises this and has alone the power to admit new members, to receive deposits, to arrange for outside loans, to grant loans to members and to take notice of defaulters. The practice is now growing of fixing the normal credit of every member once or twice in the year at a general meeting and the committee can sanction loans only within the limits so fixed. The accounts of the society are kept by the secretary and the necessary forms, papers, and books are usually supplied from the Registrar's office to simplify the work of the secretary. The books are kept according to the rules framed by the Local Governments and are open to inspection by important local officials and the Registrar and his staff. The accounts are audited, at least once a year, by the auditors working under the Registrars of Co-operative Societies, and the societies are inspected from time to time by honorary or paid inspectors. In Burma and Madras, the inspection is carried out by unions, while in the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Ajmere-Merwara and Bengal the responsibility for supervision rests with the central banks. In the Central Provinces, the inspection is controlled by the Provincial Federation working through the central bank. In Bombay, supervision is exercised partly by unions, partly

by central banks and partly by honorary organizers. In the Punjab, while paid for by societies, the inspecting staff works under the direct orders of the Registrar.

The supreme seat of authority in co-operative societies is the entire body of members assembled in general meetings. At the annual general meeting held at the close of the co-operative year the accounts are submitted, the balance-sheet passed, and the managing committees with the chairmen and secretaries are elected. The general meeting fixes in some provinces the borrowing limit of individual members, lays down the maximum amount up to which the managing committee may borrow during the ensuing year, dismisses members for misconduct or serious default, and settles the rates of interest for loans and deposits. All the net profits of society are annually carried to the reserve fund, which is indivisible, that is, incapable of distribution as dividend or bonus, which cannot be drawn upon without the sanction of the Registrar, and which must be invested in such a manner as the rules framed under the Act may prescribe. It is intended to meet unforeseen losses and to serve as an asset or security in borrowings. Except in the Central Provinces and Madras, and to some extent in a few other provinces, the reserve funds of primary societies are generally utilised as an addition to their working capital, except when they have considerable outside deposits and have to make special arrangements in respect of fluid resource to cover such borrowings.

Main defects.—The main defects of primary societies may be summarized. The most prominent is the evil of unpunctuality. This is due more to easy going ways of life and the narrowness of margin between income and expenditure than to recalcitrancy. Next is the frequent apathy of the members in the work of the societies owing to their lack of education and an absence of higher ideals. The general body leaves affairs wholly to the discretion of the committee and the committee transfers its powers to the chairman, secretary or some other member. Then there is the objectionable practice of making book-adjustments and taking *benami* loans. A grave defect is the inability of the societies to act as real banks, accepting for deposit money when presented, meeting withdrawals of such saving deposits or temporary surplus funds without delay, and granting loans on demand according to actual requirements. In many a society, activity is displayed only twice in the year, once during the cultivation season when loans are advanced and again after harvest time when recoveries are collected. In several provinces, members have to wait for weeks before they can get funds for agricultural operations, and as such operations must be proceeded with resort to the money-lender is not uncommon. With the approval of normal credits in advance and the provision of banking facility through the opening of branches of district banks or central banks for smaller areas this defect is now being gradually remedied. To provide for members who want large loans on the security of land for clearance of debt or agricultural improvement, a separate land mortgage society has

been started in the Punjab, and may be found necessary in other Provinces where large amounts are required by agriculturists on the security of their landed property. A similar proposal has already been mooted in Madras where the Local Government have agreed to subscribe to half the capital required if the other half is raised locally. In Bombay, the assistance asked for from the State for a similar scheme is the recognition of the land mortgage banks debentures as trustee securities, and Government guarantee for payment of interest, and the subscription of half the capital in the initial stages. As the bye-laws, in many provinces, place a limitation on the amount of loan that can be advanced to an individual and financing agencies are often unable to make long-term advances, societies cannot be said everywhere to have supplanted the money-lender.

Non-agricultural Societies.—Non-agricultural credit societies have grown up in towns and cities as part of a movement for improving the economic and moral condition of persons engaged in handicrafts and cottage industries, of artisans and small traders, members of particular castes and employees of big firms and Government departments. These societies have usually a limited liability. This is due partly to the absence of any assets in real property among their members, but mainly to the field of their work not being compact as is the case with agricultural societies, where every member may be expected to know every other member. Their constitution is based on the 'Schulze-Deitersch' model. In most societies the management is honorary, though sometimes, when the sphere of a society's work is extended, a paid staff is employed. There is in all societies a substantial share capital, payments being made in monthly instalments, and the rest of the working capital is obtained by local deposits from members and others. Loans from co-operative banks and societies usually form only a meagre proportion of the capital. At the end of the year 1922-23, out of 5 crores, only 40 lakhs were held from central banks.

At the end of every year, one-fourth of the net profits must be carried to the reserve fund and the balance may be distributed as dividend or bonus. There are a few drawbacks in the working of these societies. The most serious of these complaints are that the spirit of co-operation is lacking in many non-agricultural societies, that there is too great a desire to go in for profit-making and dividends, and a growing tendency to make the societies close preserves once they have started running on profitable lines. The rates of interest on loans are at times higher than they ought to be, and the men at the head of the societies are loth to admit new members who are in need of loans for fear of the latter cutting down the profits.

Included in this group are communal societies, and societies of employees of firms, railway companies and Government offices. There are again, in Bombay and Burma, a few societies organized on the lines of the People's Banks of Italy to assist small traders and artisans in towns and there are also some societies comprising members of particular communities. The larger banks in Bombay and

Burma, open current accounts, grant cash credits and overdrafts and issue or discount local bills of exchange. These give promise of developing a truly non-capitalist system of banking run for the people and by the people, providing for the person of small means those modern banking facilities which have so largely assisted in developing trade and industries in other countries. Some of the larger non-agricultural societies, after meeting the needs of their members, have large balances on hand, which they are allowed, with the previous sanction of the Registrar, to advance to smaller primary societies. This practice is, however, being gradually eliminated and the surpluses of all primary societies are being concentrated in their central banks.

With the growth of industries and the development of cities, an important labouring class has grown up in big industrial towns and this class is as deeply indebted and as badly remunerated as the agriculturists ultimately are. Co-operation, if introduced, among people of this class, provides opportunities of organization for common ends, besides being the means of their economic regeneration. Systematic efforts have been made, however, only in a few centres; elsewhere urban co-operation has so far been confined more or less to middle class people. The first experiment was initiated in Bombay under the auspices of an organization known as the Debt Redemption Committee. Considerable work in this direction has also been done in Madras, through social workers and the Labour Department, particularly among the depressed classes and among the low-paid employees of municipal bodies. The Social Service League of Bombay has lately started a large number of credit societies among factory workers, and the formation of co-operative credit societies for workers in factories has come to be recognized as an essential feature of every well-considered scheme of welfare work.

Loans advanced.—The total amounts of loans advanced to members by agricultural and non-agricultural societies during the year 1922-23 were Rs. 6,42,68,630 and Rs. 4,42,45,751, respectively. Loans are mostly given on the security of two co-members. Under the Act, societies are allowed, subject to certain conditions, to advance loans on the hypothecation of moveable or immovable property, and there is nothing unco-operative in this so long as personal security, which is the central principle of co-operation, is given and the borrower's property is recognized as only a secondary or collateral protection. Mortgages are taken occasionally, especially as security for long-term loans or loans for large amounts.

It is impossible to insist on the restriction of loans to productive objects and there are circumstances under which unproductive loans are permissible and even advisable. What should be and generally is borne in mind is that precautions are taken by societies that the expenditure is inevitable and that it is not excessive in amount. The chief objects of the loans advanced are cultivation expenses, purchase of live-stock, fodder, seed, manure and agricultural implements, payment of rent, revenue or irrigation dues, land improvement and sinking of wells, purchase

of new lands, repayment of debt or redemption of mortgaged land and personal maintenance in times of scarcity in agricultural societies; and for purchase of raw materials for industries, for trade, for house-building and for food and other necessities of life in non-agricultural societies. The period of repayment is one year or less for loans for current needs, whether for agriculture or petty trade, and up to five years or so on loans for liquidation of old debts or for land improvement. An unsatisfactory feature of the co-operative system in some of the Provinces is the laxity and unpunctuality in the matter of repayment of loans by members and a general apathy in the matter on the part of societies. As co-operation is both financially and educationally a failure unless punctuality in repayment is ensured, no efforts are spared by organizers to educate societies in this respect. The Co-operative Societies' Act grants to societies priority of claim over other creditors (except the State or the landlord) to enforce any outstanding demand due to the societies from members or past members upon the crops or other agricultural produce, and upon the cattle, fodder or agricultural implements, in cases where loans have been advanced for the purposes specified. Law Courts have ruled that the claim is not valid unless a decree is obtained by a society in its favour in advance. To carry out the intention of the framers of the legislation it is proposed to convert this claim into a lien and thus get over the legal difficulty. But not content with this, some co-operators have pleaded for special powers under which overdue loans may be recovered as arrears of land revenue. Most local Governments have framed rules under the Act enabling the Registrar to refer disputed claims to arbitration and to enforce the award of the arbitrator in the same manner as a decree of the Civil Court. It has been suggested, and is made the practice in some provinces, that sums due under awards of arbitrators should be made recoverable according to the procedure allowed for the recovery of arrears of land revenue. The existence of a special privilege of this character may, however, lead to laxity in the selection of members and carelessness in the granting of loans and in securing regular repayments on them. The demand for a special procedure for the recovery of the dues of a cancelled society stands on a somewhat different footing and the Local Governments of Bengal, and Bihar and Orissa were the first to adopt enactments enabling the contributions levied by the liquidator of a cancelled society to be collected in the same manner as arrears of land revenue on an application being made in that behalf by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies. Legislation on similar lines has since then been adopted in almost all other provinces.

The Financing of Agricultural Societies.—As soon as the initial stage of the movement passed, a very urgent problem had to be faced. This was to finance agricultural societies the number of which was growing rapidly. And the problem was solved in different provinces according to the special conditions and the stages of development the movement had attained. In Madras, a central bank, which lent to co-operative societies all

over the Presidency, was started without Government aid as early as in 1907. This was followed by the starting of banks at district head-quarters. In other Presidencies, district and taluka banks were established making good the deficiency in the local capital of the societies within their districts, and in some places joint stock banks were persuaded to make advances direct to agricultural societies or through the medium of local central banks. A large number of prosperous non-agricultural societies, as stated above, could afford to make temporary advances to agricultural societies out of their surplus funds. Government aid was also freely given in a few Provinces, although with the progress of the movement, this aid was discontinued. In Bombay, there was no movement to start local financing agencies and the slow increase in the number of societies made it difficult for central banks with a restricted area of operations to work successfully. Accordingly, the Bombay Central Co-operative Bank was founded in 1911, with the object of financing co-operative societies throughout the Presidency. Later on, local central banks came to be started, and have taken over from the central bank at Bombay the work of financing societies in the various districts. The bank at Bombay has therefore assumed the functions and even the name of a Provincial Bank. It confines its dealings with primary societies to those areas where central banks are not likely to be established in the near future or where special local circumstances favour direct relations with a strong financial organization. For areas served by it the Provincial Bank has opened ten branches, and six branches have been started by three of the district central banks.

The Madras Central Bank referred to above has also been converted into a Provincial Bank working in harmony with district banks. A Provincial Bank with central banks and societies affiliated to it is in existence in Upper Burma, and this Bank finances primary societies either through the affiliated local banks or through the guaranteeing unions composed of societies. An Apex Bank was started in the Central Provinces in 1913 to form a link between the district banks in the Province and the joint stock banks with branches in the province. It led to the establishment of a Provincial Bank with a similar constitution in Bihar and Orissa. A Provincial Bank composed of central banks as shareholders has been started in Bengal, where, as also in Bihar and Orissa, primary societies are at present financed by central banks at district or taluka head quarters. In the United Provinces, primary societies are financed on the same system, and there, too, the starting of a Provincial Apex Bank under which central banks will be federated has long since been under contemplation. The Punjab has a local central banking system and a proposal for the starting of an Apex Bank, issuing debentures, as in Bombay, with interest guaranteed by Government is under consideration. A provincial union has already been started which works as a financial federation for the local banks in the province and facilitates mutual aid between them till an Apex Bank comes into being. In addition

to the Provincial Banks mentioned above, Mysore has a Provincial Bank and Assam started one during the close of the year for which statistics are given.

The constitution of central banks is not uniform, but the existing banks may be classified under three general heads:—(1) banks of which the membership is confined to individuals or where societies are admitted as members on exactly the same footing as individuals, (2) banks of which the membership is confined to societies, and (3) banks which include societies and individuals as their members and secure to societies separate representation on the board of directors. The majority of the central banks are of the mixed type and there are hardly any of them which now adhere to the old capitalist constitution. The federal type is theoretically the best, but the paucity of the resources of the constituent primary societies, the lack of personnel and the need for enlisting the support of the urban middle classes have all combined to make the mixed type the most popular in almost all provinces. In Bengal and the Punjab, as also to a smaller degree in the United Provinces, and Bihar and Orissa, there has recently been an increase in the number of federal central banks, which are found to work well, provided their area of operations is much smaller than a revenue district and they serve a compact group of well-established societies.

Functions of Central Banks.—The functions of central banks are to balance the funds of societies and to supply capital. But their duties are not limited to the provision of banking facilities only, but often include the organisation and supervision of societies. Hence in all the major provinces with the exception of the Punjab, Madras and Burma, central banks perform the functions of supervision and guidance of the societies affiliated to them, and in some they also organise new societies and even take up the work of training and propaganda. Usually, the unit of area for a central bank is fixed as co-terminous with the whole of a revenue district, as the personnel necessary for its successful working may be difficult to secure in a smaller area. However, in most of the provinces of Upper India and Bengal there are in existence central societies for talukas and occasionally for smaller tracts. An important class of institutions included under the statistics of central societies are unions. These may be described as federations of societies which are maintained for supervision, either combined or not with the assessment or guarantee of loans to primary societies. They do not, however, undertake banking business except in the Punjab, the unions in which, save for the smallness of the area they cover, in no way differ from the pure type of central bank referred to above. These unions have a very restricted area of operations, within a radius of five to eight miles from a central village. They are accepted as integral parts of the provincial organization in Burma and the Central Provinces, in one province serving as a link between primary societies and the provincial bank and in the other between primary societies and local banks. The system has also been extended to Madras,

though in this province no guarantee is undertaken by the unions. In Bombay, guaranteeing unions were introduced as local agencies for supervision and assessment of credit, but the tendency now seems to transfer these functions wholly to central banks. The unions in Bombay are, like those in Madras, to eschew guarantee and work as supervising and local controlling bodies with a fairly wide area of operations and engaging competent well-trained supervisors. In Burma and Madras, some progress has been made in federating the unions into district councils intended to co-ordinate local activities and represent local cooperative interests.

Organization and Propaganda.—It may be mentioned that in most of the provinces the work of organising and looking after the societies is done by the Registrar with the help of a staff of assistant registrars, auditors and other officers and a few honorary non-official workers. Where the central bank system has developed properly, the directors of the central banks, either themselves or through a paid agency, organise societies and, as stated above, supervise their working. The number of honorary workers is steadily increasing and in some Presidencies there is a staff of specially appointed honorary organisers who regularly assist the Registrars. The activities of the honorary workers are often, however, spasmodic and unorganized, and in most of the major provinces the need has been felt for some co-operative institution which will co-ordinate and systematize the efforts of non-official workers, and place them on a responsible basis. The objective is to have the movement directed and controlled through self-governing representative bodies like organisation societies or federations existing in Germany, England, Ireland and elsewhere. Such institutions carry on active educational propaganda, and through the agency of local committees and groups of workers, assist in the organization of new societies and attend to their supervision. Arrangements will also be possible for the carrying on the audit of societies—for which Government cannot continue to increase the official staff to an unlimited extent—on payment of some fixed contributions. Finally, such federations should have the ultimate voice in the determination of policy, and subject to the statutory powers of the Registrar gradually take over the entire control of the co-operative organization in a province. In the Central Provinces, there has been for some years a Federation of Co-operative Banks and Societies which provides a regular and efficient system of supervision, audit and control, arranges for the training of the federation staff, attempts to secure uniformity of practice among co-operative institutions and to promote their interest and foster the spread of co-operation by active propaganda. The working of this Federation was adversely criticized in the report of a Committee of Inquiry appointed by the Local Government in 1922, and it was proposed that this body should be dissolved and replaced by separate educational institutes for the Central Provinces and Berar. An institute for education and propaganda has already been started in Berar. A Provincial Union has also

been started in Madras, but its objects are mainly educational and propagandist. Its activities are at present confined to the issuing of co-operative journals and the holding of conferences. Its constitution and its lines of work have now been revised so as to make it the central self-governing organization in the movement. A Central Institute to focus the efforts of co-operative workers and to carry on propagandist work was established in Bombay in 1918. The objects of this institution are to develop the co-operative movement in the Presidency, by promoting the study of co-operation and by co-ordinating the activities of several existing propagandist and organization agencies. The Institute has no powers of control, though it is expected to ascertain and represent the views of co-operators on questions affecting the movement. The activities of the Institute in the mofussil are carried on through its divisional branches formed on a linguistic basis and local branches in taluka or district towns. This is the most active among non-official central organizations in India, and has established international relations by sending a delegation to the International Co-operative Conference and participating in the International Co-operative Exhibition held at Ghent in 1923. In Bengal, a similar propagandist organisation has been started with identical aims. The Society has taken over some of the educational and propagandist work hitherto performed by the Co-operative Department, and has assisted in the organization of co-operative stores among students in colleges. It has opened branch centres and projected a scheme for the training of members of village societies and their secretaries. A federation with a constitution more or less similar to that of the Central Provinces Federation but having divisional boards to decentralize control is also in existence in Bihar and Orissa, and has appointed a special officer for propaganda and development. In the Punjab a provincial union has been organized for conducting the audit and inspection of primary societies and undertaking general propagandist work. In Burma, the audit of primary societies is conducted by a central council consisting of important departmental officials and representatives of co-operative institutions. This also assists in the organization of the provincial conference and acts as an advisory body to the Registrar. Organization, supervision and propaganda are furthered by district federations of unions of primary societies. The starting of educational and propagandist bodies like the Institute in Bombay is contemplated in the States of Hyderabad, Mysore, Travancore and Mysore and at Ajmere for the Rajputana States and the district of Ajmere-Merwara. These are all recent developments and it is still too early to forecast on what lines the transfer of control to representative co-operative agencies will be carried out.

Other forms of Co-operation.—After the passing of the amended Co-operative Societies' Act, the application of co-operation to purposes other than credit was greatly extended, but it is only during the last few years that a general demand for producers' and consumers' societies and agricultural purchase and sale societies has

arisen. Before the year 1918-19, there were only a few store societies all over the country. In all provinces, particularly in Madras, a beginning had been made in the direction of distributive co-operation among the middle classes, while in Bengal and the United Provinces some attention had been devoted to the starting of stores for students living in hostels attached to colleges. The movement obtained popular favour in view of the increasing prices of the daily necessities of life, and the profiteering which assumed serious proportions at the close of the War. Supply unions, store societies, and distributive departments attached to credit societies have been organized in some provinces, while arrangements are contemplated for obtaining cheap, wholesale supplies for the various distributive organizations. The work of organizing co-operative distribution in rural areas was pushed ahead with considerable success under official auspices in the Punjab and Madras, but in both provinces a setback is now evident. Neither the supply unions nor the primary purchase and sale societies are in a flourishing condition. The consumer's movement in Bombay, Madras, Bengal and a few other provinces, but with the disappearance of the special conditions which generated enthusiasm in the years immediately succeeding the close of the War, stagnation has set in and only a few among the numerous store societies started in these provinces have firmly established their position and continue to enjoy the loyal support of their members.

In some Provinces efforts have been made to revive the ancient handicrafts of the country and cottage industries by organizing co-operative societies for the workers. Many of these societies merely provide cheap credit, but in some places they undertake the supply of raw materials and the sale of manufactured goods. An important industry which flourished in India before the introduction of machinery was handloom weaving and efforts have been made to revive it by the formation of co-operative societies of handloom weavers. Most of the weavers' societies are merely credit societies, but some undertake the purchase of good yarn for members, and others have store branches to sell the cloth produced by members. They have also been instrumental in introducing improved looms and methods among the conservative weaving classes. In Bengal and the Punjab much success has attended the organization of central unions among weavers' societies, and similar intensive work in Bihar and Orissa and Bombay has met with good results. Other industrial societies, to be found in very small numbers here and there are those for "gaolces" or milkmen, dyers, basket and brass workers in the Central Provinces, "Chammars" and "Dhars" in Bombay and the Punjab, lacquerware workers, carpenters, woodcarvers, blacksmiths and potters in Mysore, where the State provides special facilities in the shape of loans and technical assistance for the development of artisans' societies. In Bombay, the producers movement has extended to communities of workers like coppersmiths and goldsmiths, carpenters, dyers, and others, and drawing its inspiration

from the ancient guild spirit animating the communities, it aims at creating a strong economic organization among these various industrial workers and craftsmen, based on self-help and self-government. Another offshoot of this movement is the starting of co-operative societies among skilled or unskilled labourers on the lines of the labour societies of Italy. The initiative came from Kashmir, while experimental societies were also started in Madras, and in Bombay. The object of these is to organize labourers to tender for contracts for public or private works, to eliminate the middle-man contractor, and to utilize the profits he made for the economic and social betterment of the labouring community. The Indian Industrial Commission in the course of their inquiries devoted some attention to the development of small and cottage industries and the possibility of reviving them by the introduction of co-operation. Their recommendations on this subject are not very definite. State loans for purchase of costly plant or machinery are, however, recommended, and emphasis is laid on the necessity of arranging facilities for the marketing of products of home industries. The first step to industrial co-operation is to be taken by familiarizing workers with the principles of co-operative credit, though later on separate non-credit institutions would become necessary. Suggestions are made for technical guidance to workers, and the local departments of industries are advised to keep workers constantly informed about the demands of the markets. Organization of industrial societies is to be a function of local departments of industries, but as these will be engaged with problems of big industries, it is doubtful if the cottage and small industries will have much scope for development under their guidance and direction.

An interesting development of recent years in the provision of housing through co-operative societies. A good number of housing societies have been started in Bombay City and suburbs and also in a few other centres. They are generally organized on the co-partnership system, under which the society owns the houses and lets them to members at fixed rents. The scheme is feasible for such sections of the middle classes as can provide a certain proportion of the initial capital. Tenant-ownership societies have also been started. There are some building societies in Madras and a few more in Mysore, but their activities are confined mainly to the provision of capital for building schemes and only occasionally extend to the joint purchase of land or of building materials. The Local Governments of Bombay and Madras as also the State of Mysore set apart annually about five lakhs of Rupees for advances to housing societies at fair rates of interest and with repayments spread over a number of years.

The province of Burma is a pioneer in the matter of cattle insurance, and to support the village insurance societies which have been started in the province, there has been organized a central re-insurance society, which receives some financial backing from Government. In the other provinces where it has been introduced co-operative insurance for cattle has

made only slight progress, with the exception of the Punjab where the movement has advanced so far as to necessitate the starting of a re-insurance society.

Agricultural Co-operation.—Co-operative societies have until recently been organized only to supply cheap credit to their members, but there are various other fields of work to which they may extend their activities. Grain banks have, in some provinces, been started with advantage, receiving deposits in kind and allowing these to accumulate to be sold at profitable rates or distributed to the members in times of scarcity. Such banks have been started in Behar and Orissa, Bengal, Mysore and Coorg. Societies on a similar basis for the storage of fodder have been started in Baroda and may assist in solving what has become an important problem in rural economy in some provinces. Another direction in which the co-operative principle is being adopted is the starting of societies for purchase of and distribution among members of pure and selected seed. A number of small seed societies have been organized in the Bombay Presidency, and in the Central Provinces and Berar the work appears to have been particularly well organized. Societies for the co-operative purchase and sale of manure will also prove a great boon, and a few such stores have been established in Madras, Bengal and Bombay. In the Punjab and in Madras the supply of agricultural requisites has been undertaken either by the credit societies on the commission-indent system or special supply unions are organized for bulk orders, making contracts, distributing goods, and collecting payments.

Joint sale of produce gets popular as co-operative credit thrives and agriculturists become less dependent on local traders. While Burma led the way by starting societies for the joint sale of paddy, the most interesting developments in the direction have taken place in Bombay. Societies for the sale of agricultural commodities chiefly cotton and jaggery have been started, in several districts in the Deccan and the Karnatak. This aspect of co-operation has lately attracted considerable attention and attempts similar to those made in Bombay have been made in Madras and the Punjab, in the latter province with considerable success. It will indeed be a great achievement if these efforts are successful and the cultivator obtains adequate returns for his produce. At present he buys in the dearest market and sells in the cheapest. But if co-operative purchase and sale show good progress, his economic position will be much improved. Apart from separate societies for the purpose, credit societies and central banks, in many parts of the country, arrange for the joint sale of produce. In some places, credit societies undertake the joint purchase of agricultural implements for members, while in other separate registered societies are started for the purpose of selling implements or supplying these on hire. In some provinces in Upper India, this work is performed by central banks for the societies affiliated to them. Apart from separately registered societies in Bombay, the branches of the Provincial Bank have helped consider-

ably in the supply of seeds, manures and fertilizers, the sale of agricultural implements and the sale of produce, particularly jaggery.

Efforts have been made in various parts of the country to solve the problem of milk-supply—to reduce the price and increase the purity—by starting co-operative dairies, composed either wholly of gaois or milkmen or the producers and the consumers together. Co-operative creameries and ghee producing societies have also been started in one or two provinces. Another interesting development is the starting of cattle-breeding societies in the Central Provinces and elsewhere. It is anticipated that these societies will assist in supplying the keen demand that exists for bulls of good stock. In a few provinces there are societies for rice-hulling, the manufacture of jaggery and for lift irrigation. The latter is an interesting development of co-operation which appears to have established itself in popular favour in the Burdwan Division of Bengal. This tract, once very flourishing, has been ravaged in recent years by frequent floods and famines, and the population had lost all initiative and sank into poverty, while their lands deteriorated and malaria claimed a heavy toll. The starting of irrigation societies has opened a new chapter in the history of the tract and has revived the energy of the people and brought them together for common economic endeavour. Ginning on co-operative lines has also been attempted. An interesting experiment in agricultural co-operation is the starting in the Punjab of societies for the consolidation of small and scattered holdings. These propose to re-group and re-allot the holdings of members, and if this voluntary action proves sufficient for the purpose, one of the gravest evils of modern Indian agriculture will be solved without the aid of State help or legislation. In Bombay, action has been taken on somewhat different lines to deal with the problem of the uneconomic cultivator. A beginning has been made in the direction of starting co-operative societies for joint farming, and the movement may lead to the evolution of a system of co-operative cultivation of land such as has been extremely successful in Italy.

Co-operation has already been successful to some extent in redeeming the chronic indebtedness of the agriculturist, but if the improvement in his economic condition is to be permanent it is essential that he should be prevailed upon to adopt improved methods of production. The Agricultural Departments in various provinces do undertake propagandist work with this object, but their efforts have not proved as successful as they ought to be. A co-operative society provides an effective agency for reaching the agriculturist, and in many places societies have been the means of bringing home to him the need for improved methods and have been made the centres for conducting the propagandist activities of the Agricultural Department and district Agricultural Associations. As a result, a few societies have been enterprising enough to purchase modern agricultural implements, and the machinery recommended by the Department and to use the proper manures and the certified

varieties of seeds. "Wherever agriculture and co-operation have experienced the assistance which each can derive from association with the other they are fast developing a truly organic connection." To this end, joint efforts are being promoted in almost all provinces where the Departments are in charge of one Minister. This co-ordination is secured by joint conferences, and joint boards of co-operation and agriculture and the starting of local agricultural associations under the Co-operative Societies Act.

Committee on Co-operation in India.—

In July 1914, the Government of India issued a lengthy Resolution on Co-operation in India, surveying its progress in the country during the previous ten years. In October Government appointed a Committee under Sir Edward Macleagan to examine whether the movement especially in its higher stages and in its financial aspect was progressing on sound lines and to suggest any measures of improvement which seemed to be required. The enquiry was to be directed primarily to an examination of such matters as the constitution and working of central and provincial banks, the financial connection between the various parts of the co-operative organization, the audit, inspection, and management of all classes of societies, and the utilization of the reserve funds. In its Report, which was issued in September 1915, the Committee stated that it had not confined its enquiries to the subjects referred to it, for it had to recognise that the financial welfare of the higher stages of the co-operative system was largely based on the soundness of the foundation.

Government Action on Committee's Report.—The Government of India have passed orders on the recommendations in the light of the opinions of the Local Governments. With a view further to elicit opinion on the recommendations, a special conference of the Registrars was convened in August 1918, to which all the Registrars and a few selected non-official co-operators were invited. The Conference was also asked to consider the suggestion made by the Committee on Co-operation that as the financing of the movement involved grave difficulties which baffled solution unless the discounting of promissory notes was arranged through an Imperial State Bank or the several Presidency Banks, a careful examination of the question was immediately called for. A proposal was made for the appointment of an expert committee, but the Government of India have practically shelved it by stating that they would assemble the committee at some date convenient to them. Under the Reforms, co-operation has been made a provincial subject and also a transferred subject. The control of Co-operative Departments has been entrusted to Ministers and in Bombay, the United Provinces, and the Central Provinces, Bills have been drawn up for enactment by the local Legislative Councils to take the place of the Co-operative Societies Act. The Bombay Co-operative Societies Bill was introduced in July 1924 in the Bombay Legislative Council and has been referred to a Select Committee. It reproduces, in the main, the framework of

the Act of 1912 but proposes to introduce the following important modifications:—

- (i) The adoption of a scientific system of classifying societies.
- (ii) The improvement of the procedure for liquidation of cancelled societies.
- (iii) The extension of summary powers of recovering to the awards of arbitrators.
- (iv) The provision of penalties against specified offences.

The Bill has been subjected to severe criticism by non-official co-operators and has been referred back to the Select Committee for further consideration.

Effect of Crisis on Co-operation.—It is hardly possible without any close and scientific inquiry, such as has not yet been carried out, to appreciate accurately the effects of the co-operative movement in enabling agriculturists to resist the rigours of a famine as also to judge the reaction of the latter on the co-operative organisation as there is an interplay of various economic forces affecting the life and industry of agriculturists, the proportionate value of which cannot be estimated easily. The agricultural season of 1918-19, however, put the co-operative organisation in most provinces to a very severe test and the reports for the succeeding years afford some indication of the resisting power of the co-operative organization. In the Central Provinces, owing to the drying up of recoveries and the issue of large advances to agriculturists to tide over a bad season, the fluid resources of the movement were seriously depleted and the Apex Bank was able to meet its liabilities only with the financial assistance of Government. The fluid resources of the Provincial Bank were replenished and the Local Government, with the concurrence of the Government of India, placed credits at the disposal of the Provincial Bank and made advances direct to primary societies in the form of Treasury loans. A Committee of Inquiry was appointed which made sweeping recommendations, the most important of which was the liquidation of the Provincial Bank and the placing of central banks in direct touch with commercial banks. This recommendation was, however, subsequently turned down by the Local Government although some other recommendations such as the division of agricultural finance into short-term crop loans and long term non-crop loans met with a considerable amount of public support. In Bengal and the Punjab, the return of favourable seasons has averted any breakdown of the system, which threatened to overtake the local co-operative organizations when agricultural scarcity on a wide scale caused serious difficulties some time ago. The same may now be asserted of the United Provinces, where there appeared to be some danger of the strain not being quite successfully withstood. Committees of Inquiry were also appointed in Bihar and Orissa and Mysore. In the former to advise about financial organization and official control, and in the latter to lay down a policy of development particularly in relation to higher finance, non-credit co-operation, agricultural improvement

and the relief of indebtedness. With a better appreciation of the dependence of the agriculturist on seasons, and a more systematic management of the funds of central societies it is anticipated that in future the situation arising out of a failure of rains will be satisfactorily met. In 1913 and the following months, practically the whole of the country was subjected to a banking crisis of considerable magnitude, but a marked feature of this crisis was a tendency to withdraw deposits from commercial institutions and place them in co-operative banks. The outbreak of the War brought another set of influences into play and there was a temporary tendency to withdraw deposits and a temporary cessation of new deposits. The disturbance was not serious except in two or three provinces and by the end of the year 1914-15, the situation became practically normal. In two of the provinces where the situation caused some anxiety owing to the cessation of fresh deposits in central banks, the Government sanctioned advances to the extent of Rs. 5,00,000 to central societies to be utilized in the grant of urgent loans to agricultural societies or to meet withdrawals of deposits. On the whole, therefore, the movement appears to have stood the test of the War much better than might have been expected.

Social Reform.—Co-operation has, in some places, stimulated the desire for education and members of rural societies have been known even at advanced ages to receive the elements of education to enable them to put their signatures on their society's papers, and to take a lively interest in the internal work of their institutions. In Bombay, night schools for adults have been started with the aid of a splendid donation made by the late Sir Vithaldas D. Thackersey, while in the Punjab, Bihar, Bengal and elsewhere much expenditure on education is incurred by co-operative institutions themselves. In the Punjab separate rural societies have been registered to conduct night schools. There are not few cases where a society has set its face against drunkenness, expelled members notorious for their intemperate habits and has insisted on a high standard of morality and attempted to improve the standard of life. Societies have occasionally condemned excessive expenditure on marriages, and have thus indirectly trained members to habits of thrift. The liquidation of old debts again has been rendered possible to a great extent and many an agriculturist who was formerly in a state of chronic indebtedness has been relieved of all his debts and freed from the necessity of incurring new ones. Credit has been much cheapened and it is now possible for the agriculturist to borrow at 9 to 18 per cent. what he could not borrow at less than 20 to 75 per cent. formerly. It has been calculated that in interest alone the agriculturists of India, by taking loans from co-operative credit societies instead of from the village money-lenders, are even now saving themselves from an unnecessary burden of over a crore of rupees. The village rates of interest have naturally gone down considerably and the Sowkar is, in most places, not the terror and the force that he was. Business habits have been inculcated with the

beneficial result that the agriculturist has learnt to conduct his own work more efficiently. Thrift has been encouraged and the value of savings better appreciated. Association in a body for common good has brought home to the people the blessings of unity, and litigation has often decreased in villages with society. In the Punjab, a number of societies were started in rural areas whose members agreed to refer all disputes to arbitration by their elected committees and to abide by the awards of arbitrators. Participation in the management of societies has instilled among members

the important lessons of self-help and self-reliance; but the most important achievement of co-operation has been the development of a sense of communal life—a feeling of “all for each and each for all”—among members of village societies and the gradual revival of the corporate instincts which made Indian rural organization famous in the world's history.

The following statements show the progress of the Co-operative movement in different provinces, and contain some information about their detailed working till the end of the official year 1922-23:—

Number of Societies for all India, showing the increase since 1906-07.

	Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10.	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15.	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20.
1	2	3	4
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions).	17	231	304
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies).			638
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies).			25,873
Non-Agricultural	196	664	1,662
Total ..	1,926	11,786	28,477

	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
5	6	7	8	
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions).	400	449	480	514
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Reinsurance Societies).	994	1,150	1,246	1,379
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies).	36,716	42,582	46,788	50,286
Non-Agricultural	2,662	3,322	3,674	3,957
Total ..	40,772	47,503	52,182	56,136

Number of Societies by Provinces for 1922-23 only.

Province.	Population in millions.	Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions).	Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies).	Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies).	Non-Agricultural.	Total number of Societies.	Number of Societies per 100,000 inhabitants.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras	42.3	33	249	7,195	980	8,443	19.9
Bombay	19.3	20	66	2,878	569	3,533	18.3
Bengal..	46.7	90	6	7,213	513	7,822	16.8
Bihar and Orissa	34.0	49	119	4,661	301	5,180	15.1
United Provinces	45.4	70	9	5,209	217	5,505	12.1
Punjab	20.7	110	1	8,892	444	9,447	45.6
Burma..	11.7	15	607	4,650	196	5,483	46.7
Central Provinces and Berar	13.9	35	306	4,444	73	4,858	34.9
Assam	7.6	19	1	583	53	636	8.6
Coorg	0.2	1	151	151	12	166	83.0
Ajmer-Merwara	0.5	7	449	449	42	500	100.0
Hyderabad Administered Area	0.1	..	..	..	9	9	9.0
Delhi ..	0.5	1	..	..	38	150	30.0
Total (British India) ..	242.9	450	1,368	46,436	3,433	51,687	21.2
Mysore	6.0	17	..	1,249	272	1,538	25.6
Baroda	2.1	5	..	494	49	548	26.1
Hyderabad	12.5	18	..	1,324	203	1,545	12.4
Bhopal	0.7	24	..	783	..	818	116.9
Total (Indian States)	21.3	64	11	3,850	524	4,449	20.8
Grand Total ..	264.2	514	1,379	50,286	3,957	56,136	21.2

Number of Members for all India showing the increase since 1906-07.

	Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10.	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15.	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions).	1,987	23,677	89,925	127,145	143,488	154,978	163,075
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re Insurance Societies).			10,971	17,274	19,322	21,554	24,730
Agricultural (including Cattle In- surance Societies).	107,643	459,096	902,930*	1,181,718	1,362,391	1,523,614	1,613,368
Non-Agricultural	54,267	89,157	226,031	339,420	390,513	450,676	489,078
Total Number of members of primary Societies.	161,910	548,253	1,128,961	1,521,138	1,752,904	1,974,290	2,102,446

*Excluding members of Cattle Insurance Societies at the end of 1915-16 and 1916-17, and those in Bombay and the United Provinces at the end of 1917-18.

Number of Members by Provinces for 1922-23 only.

Province.	Population in millions.	Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions).	Supervising and Guar- anteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies).	Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies).	Non- Agricultural.	Total number of Members of primary Societies.	Number of Members of primary Societies per 1,000 inhabitants.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras	42.3	9,961	6,514	386,264	141,057	7,321	12.4
Bombay	19.3	8,288	457	7,775	120,150	327,864	17.0
Bengal	46.7	11,811	213	201,238	70,721	280,957	6.0
Bihar and Orissa	34.0	10,541	5,414	184,821	17,662	132,483	4.5
United Provinces	45.4	10,209	102	124,864	11,583	136,447	3.0
Punjab	20.7	11,548	10	223,732	17,428	243,160	11.7
Burma	11.7	5,717	5,758	112,116	27,511	139,627	11.9
Central Provinces and Berar	13.9	84,237	5,879	71,717	4,939	70,656	6.6
Assam	7.6	1,719	7	25,435	6,541	31,976	4.2
Coorg	0.2	122	10	6,847	1,934	8,101	40.5
Almer-Nerwara	0.5	1,530	141	9,830	3,651	13,701	27.4
Hyderabad	0.1	..	..	..	..	288	2.9
Delhi	0.5	..	..	1,848	444	2,292	4.6
Total (British India)	242.9	155,912	21,505	1,506,485	43,458	1,940,943	8.0
Mysore	6.0	2,403	..	49,659	43,253	92,912	15.5
Baroda	2.1	866	..	13,583	3,700	17,285	8.2
Hyderabad	12.5	2,653	..	13,896	7,667	38,563	3.1
Bhopal	0.7	1,841	225	12,743	..	12,743	18.2
Total (Indian States)	21.3	7,763	225	106,883	54,620	161,503	7.6
Grand Total	264.2	163,675	24,730	1,613,368	489,078	2,102,446	8.0

Working Capital for all India showing the increase since 1906-07.

	Average for 1 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10.	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15.	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)
Share capital paid up	13.10	88.87	2,51.97	3,40.09	4,05.25	4,63.69	5,12.45
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Members	14.12	88.28	96.35	1,37.02	1,63.60	2,24.74	2,69.77
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Societies	13.59	1,92.42*	47.81	73.94	99.41	1,23.76	1,48.22.
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Provincial or Central Banks	..	..	5,03.19	7,26.62	9,17.99	10,74.24	11,87.71
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Government	5.86	10.87	23.58	37.38	49.50	52.46	55.38
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Non-Members and other sources	19.69	1,41.96	4,70.25	6,45.84	7,92.52	9,19.94	10,77.39
Reserve and other Funds	1.67	25.00	1,23.32	1,79.82	2,14.66	2,53.41	3,02.96
Total	68.12	5,48.42	15,18.47	21,40.71	26,42.93	31,12.24	35,53.90

* Includes loans from Provincial or Central Banks.

Working Capital by Provinces for 1922-23 only.

Province.	Popu-lation in mil-lions.	Share Capital paid up.					Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from					Number of annas per head of popu-lation.				
		Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Members.	Societies.	Provincial or Central Banks.	Non-Members and other sources.	Reserve and other Funds.	Total.	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Mafias	42.3	95.42	33.43	24.19	3,09.33	2.90	2,20.28	27.50	7,13.05	27	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bombay	19.3	68.71	1,31.13	59.98	87.88	17.51	1,41.21	26.71	5,33.06	27	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bengal	46.7	50.97	33.38	5.44	1,44.57	24	1,32.38	37.66	4,33.14	44	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bihar and Orissa	34.0	17.0	3.87	3.50	37.45	57	7,9.02	15.98	2,16.18	15	..	..	..	..	..	..
United Provinces	45.4	33.35	3.48	1.74	49.36	..	47.50	22.06	1,61.10	10	..	..	..	..	..	..
Punjab	20.7	63.86	23.82	19.79	1,60.89	3.37	1,26.06	69.96	4,89.72	3	..	..	..	..	..	..
Burma	11.7	73.33	10.94	8.41	1,14.47	17.16	1,20.26	41.19	3,86.76	36	..	..	..	..	..	..
Central Provinces and Berar	13.9	27.33	2.85	17.35	1,52.05	3.21	1,07.91	29.06	3,58.76	52	..	..	..	..	..	..
Assam	7.6	3.31	2.87	1.22	4.41	26	7.97	3.24	23.18	39	..	..	..	..	..	..
Coorg	0.2	1.40	23	5	..	2	..	61	3.7	25	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ajmer-Merwara	0.5	6.37	37	19	12.89	2	15.92	5.33	4,13.91	131	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hyderabad Administered Area	0.1	1.40	35	8	..	..	..	3	6.37	20	..	..	..	..	..	..
Delhi	0.5	31	1	1	2.04	..	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total (British India)	242.9	4,53.43	2,53.73	1,41.93	11,35.67	45.26	10,22.27	2,70.80	33,32.11	22	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mysore	6.0	34.91	10.75	4.10	7.31	15	16.71	10.16	84.09	22	..	..	..	..	..	..
Baroda	2.1	21.5	4.54	1.04	5.41	1.76	8.31	3.48	23.67	21	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hyderabad	12.5	21.3	4.54	1.04	5.41	1.76	8.31	3.48	23.67	21	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bhopal	0.7	66	..	29	5.51	41	5.03	1.24	13.19	30	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total (Indian States)	21.3	59.92	16.04	6.27	52.04	10.12	55.12	23.18	2,21.79	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
Grand Total	264.2	5,12.45	2,69.77	1,48.22	11,87.71	55.38	10,77.39	3,02.98	35,53.90	22	..	..	..	..	..	..

Indians Overseas.

NUMBERS.—The total Indian population resident in the countries to which Indians mainly emigrate for purposes of settlement, according to the latest available returns, is as follows:—

Name of Country.	Indian population.	Date of Census.
<i>British Empire.</i>		
1. Ceylon	750,000 (according to the census of 1921 the Indian population on estates in Ceylon consisted of— Males.....257,808 Females239,300.)	1921
2. Straits Settlements	104,628	1921
3. Federated Malay States	305,219	1921
4. British Malaya	61,819	1911
5. Hong Kong	2,555	1921
6. Mauritius	264,527	1911
7. Seychelles	332	1920
8. Gibraltar	50 (approximately)	1920
9. Nigeria	100 (")	1920
10. Kenya	22,822	1921
11. Uganda	3,500	1920
12. Nyasaland	407	1918
13. Zanzibar	12,841	1921
14. Tanganyika Territory	9,411	1922
15. Jamaica	18,401	1921
16. Trinidad	121,420	1921
17. British Guiana	124,938	1921
18. Fiji Islands	60,634	1911
19. Basutoland	179	1911
20. Swaziland	7	1921
21. Northern Rhodesia	56 (Asiatics)	1921
22. Southern Rhodesia	1,250 (")	1920
23. Canada	1,200	1920
24. Australia— Western Australia .. 300 Southern Australia .. 200 Victoria .. 400 New South Wales .. 700 Queensland .. 300 Tasmania .. 100	2,000 (approximately)	1922
25. New Zealand	606	1921
26. Natal	141,336	1921
27. Transvaal	13,405	1921
28. Cape Colony	6,498	1921
29. Orange Free State	100	1921
30. Newfoundland	2,030,241	1921
Total for British Empire		
<i>Foreign Countries.</i>		
31. United States of America	3,175 (Asiatics)	1910
32. Madagascar	5,272 (Indians)	1917
33. Reunion	2,194	1921
34. Dutch East Indies	832,667 (Orientals, chiefly Chinese & Arabs) (say) 50,000 Indians.	1920
35. Surinam	34,957	1920
36. Mozambique	1,100 (Asiatics and half-castes)	Not known.
37. Persia	3,827	1922
Total for Foreign Countries	100,525	
Grand Total of Indians Overseas	2,130,766	

Origin of Indian Emigration.—Emigration is prohibited by the Hindu Shastras, and there is little evidence of any settlement of Indians overseas in early times except in Sumatra, Java and Ceylon. Emigration for purposes of labour dates from the beginning of the 19th century. From 1800 A. D. onwards Indians crossed the Bay to the Straits Settlements to work on the sugar, spice, tapioca, and coconut plantations of Penang, and this intercourse was allowed to continue for long without regulation. The first officially recorded instance of genuine recruitment for labour emigration occurred in 1830, when a French merchant, named Joseph Argand, carried some 150 artisans to Bourbon. The abolition of slavery in British colonies in 1834 gave the first great impetus to the movement. The sugar planters of Mauritius at once turned to India as their best recruiting ground, and between 1834 and 1837 obtained at least 7,000 recruits from Calcutta. The Government of India at a very early stage realised the necessity of bringing such emigration under regulation. The Law Commission was asked to investigate the case and to make recommendations for securing the well-being of emigrants. They advised that no legislation was required except in order to prevent undue advantage being taken of the simplicity and ignorance of emigrants by providing that a magistrate should satisfy himself that all contracts were entered into freely and understood by them and in order to secure that sufficient provision was made for their accommodation and sustenance during the voyage. A copy of every engagement was also to be transmitted to the Government under which the emigrants were to live. These recommendations were embodied in the first Emigration Act (V of 1837), which also provided that contracts should be determinable after 5 years.

History of Emigration.—Under the above Act emigration during 1837 was permitted to Mauritius, British Guiana and Australia (89 men, the first and last direct emigrants to Australia). In 1838 emigration was suspended owing to agitation in England regarding the abuses to which the system was liable, and a committee of enquiry reported in 1840 that emigrants were being entrapped by force or fraud, robbed of their wages and treated with brutality. In consequence, emigration was prohibited (Act XV of 1842) except to Mauritius, and there control was tightened. In Act XXI of 1844 emigration under still stricter regulation was allowed to Jamaica, British Guiana and Trinidad. Act XIII of 1847 removed the restrictions on emigration to Ceylon. The emancipation of slaves in the French colonies in 1849 gave rise to a system of emigration from French Indian ports to Réunion and Bourbon, which was largely based on crimping in British territory. This practice was checked by Act XXIV of 1852. In 1858 emigration was opened to St. Lucia, and in 1860 to St. Vincent, Natal and St. Kitts. In the latter year a more elaborate Act, based on a convention with the French Government was passed legalising and regulating emigration to Réunion, Martinique, Guadeloupe, and French Guiana. Act XIII of 1864 marks an important stage in the history of emigration, since it elaborated

and consolidated the whole system of control. It was itself amended in 1869 and 1870 in important respects with the object of preventing epidemics on emigrant vessels and improving sanitary conditions in settlements. In 1869 emigration was permitted to Grenada, and in 1872 to Surinam. Owing to the removal of the Straits Settlements from the control of the Government of India in 1867, emigration to that colony came under all the restrictions imposed by the Emigration Act and was only permitted from the port of Negapatam. Owing to the injury caused to the agricultural industries of the colony, these restrictions were removed in 1872, subject only to magisterial control of recruitment in India. In 1870 complaints reached the Government of India of gross abuses in the treatment of emigrants in British Guiana. A commission of enquiry was appointed, and their report led to important legislation in the colony for the protection of Indian immigrants, which was subsequently extended to Trinidad. Owing to similar complaints from Natal and Mauritius, commissions of enquiry were also instituted in both these colonies, and their reports in 1872 brought to light a number of points requiring amendment.

Recent Legislation.—In 1871 a fresh consolidating Act was passed (Act VII of 1871) by which the Acts regulating emigration to the French Colonies and two amending Acts to Act XIII of 1864 were incorporated in the general law. The question of revision of the law again came up for consideration in 1882, when several cases of kidnapping and other objectionable practices were reported to the Government of India. The opportunity was taken to depute two officials (Major Pitcher and Mr. Grierson) to ascertain, in the N. W. P. and in Bengal respectively, the way in which the system of recruitment actually worked, the respects in which it was open to improvement, and the attitude of the people towards emigration. Their reports were reviewed by the Government of India, and finally in 1883 the law was again recast and consolidated by Act XXI of that year. This Act specifies the countries to which emigration is lawful, but empowers the Governor General in Council to add to the list by notification, and also to prohibit emigration to any of the countries in the list on the ground of epidemic disease and or excessive mortality among emigrants in such country or on the ground that proper measures have not been taken for the protection of emigrants, or that the agreements made with them in India are not duly enforced. This Act with certain amendments of no importance to the system of indentured emigration remained in force until 1908, when a fresh revision of the law was undertaken.

Under the Act of 1908 (XVII of 1908) the countries to which emigration was lawful were the British Colonies of Mauritius, Jamaica, British Guiana, Trinidad, St. Lucia, Grenada, St. Vincent, Natal, St. Kitts, Nevis, Fiji, the Seychelles, the Netherlands Colony of Dutch Guiana and the Danish Colony of St. Croix. Emigration to St. Lucia, Grenada, St. Vincent, St. Kitts, Nevis, the Seychelles and St. Croix ceased soon after the passing of the Act, the demand for fresh labour having died out.

Emigration to Natal was discontinued from the 1st July 1911 as the Government of India were satisfied that it was undesirable to continue to send Indian labour to that country. Emigration to the French Colonies of Réunion, Martinique and Guadeloupe had been suspended prior to the passing of the Act of 1908 on account of repeated complaints of the inadequate precautions taken for the proper treatment and repatriation of the immigrants.

The labour laws of the several Colonies provide for the protection and welfare of resident Indian labourers. The Government of India also occasionally depute to the colonies their officers to report on the conditions of Indian labourers. Deputations from India visited Fiji and Br. Guiana in 1921. In spite of all precautions certain social and moral evils had grown up in connection with the indentured system of emigration, and Indian public opinion has during the last decade been strongly opposed to it. The whole system was exhaustively examined by the Government of India in 1915 in the light of the report received from Messrs. McNeill and Chimanlal, and they arrived at the conclusion that the time and energy when contract labour should be abolished. The Secretary of State for India accepted this policy and authorised the Government of India to announce the abolition of the indentured system and the announcement to this effect was made in 1916.

In 1922 a further step forward was taken in Act VII of 1922 which prohibited indentured emigration and all unskilled emigration, except to countries specially approved by the Legislature. Emigration to Ceylon and Malaya was brought under control, and the definition of "Emigrant" was extended to cover all persons "assisted" to depart from India.

References.—The following is a list of the most important reports on questions connected with Indian Emigration that have been published during recent years:—

1. Report of the International Commission appointed to enquire into the condition and treatment of British India immigrants in Réunion 1879.
2. Report on the system of recruiting coolies in the North Western Provinces and Oudh for the Colonies, 1883.
3. Major Pitcher and Mr. Grierson's report on the system of recruiting labourers in the North Western Provinces and Bengal for the Colonies, 1883.
4. Report of the Natal Indian Immigrants Commission, 1885-87.
5. Dr. Comin's report on the proposed resumption of Emigration to Réunion, Martinique and Guadeloupe, 1892.
6. Dr. Comin's report on Emigration from the East Indies to Surinam, 1893.
7. Mr. Muir-Mackenzie's report on Emigration to Réunion, 1894.
8. Mr. Muir-Mackenzie's report on the condition of Indian immigrants in Mauritius, 1895.
9. Report of the Commissioners appointed to enquire into the question of Indian immigration, 1896.
10. Lord Sanderson's Commission's Report on Emigration from India to the Crown Colonies and Protectorates, 1910.
11. Report of the Indian Enquiry Commission South Africa, 1914.

12. Messrs. McNeill and Chimanlal's report on the condition of Indian Emigrants in the four British Colonies: Trinidad, British Guiana or Demerara, Jamaica and Fiji, and in the Dutch Colony of Surinam, 1911-15.

13. Marjoribanks' and Marakkayar's report on Indian labour emigrating to Ceylon and Malaya, 1917.

14. South Africa Asiatic Enquiry Commission report, 1921.

15. Report by Right Hon. V. S. Shastri regarding his Dominion tour, 1923.

16. India and the Imperial Conference of 1923 compiled by Director of Public Information, Government of India.

17. Reports on the scheme for Indian emigration to British Guiana.

Present Position.—Indian emigration questions have recently taken on a wider aspect. The status of Indians in the Empire generally is one in which the Indian public now take keen interest. It is no longer possible to deal with the treatment of Indian labour apart from other classes of Indian emigrants and travellers. In several colonies and dominions considerable Indian communities have sprung up, which although composed largely of the descendants of indentured labourers, are themselves free and lawfully domiciled citizens of the countries in which they are settled, but have not yet been placed on a footing of legal, social, political and economic equality with the rest of the population. The issues round which public interest at present centres are three:

- (a) Control of emigration.
- (b) Rights of Indians to admission to other parts of the Empire.
- (c) Rights and disabilities of Indians domiciled overseas.

These questions may be considered separately.

Control of Emigration.—So far as unskilled labour is concerned, the Government of India have assumed absolute powers of control. The terms of section 10 of the Emigration Act of 1922 are as follows:—

"10. (1) Emigration, for the purpose of unskilled work, shall not be lawful except to such countries and on such terms and conditions as the Governor General in Council, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, may specify in this behalf.

"(2) No notification shall be made under sub-section (1) unless it has been laid in draft before both Chambers of the Indian Legislature and has been approved by a resolution of each Chamber, either without modification or addition, or with modifications and additions to which both Chambers agree, but, upon such approval being given, the notification may be issued in the form in which it has been so approved."

Under this law emigration has been legalised to Ceylon on the following conditions:

- (1) The emigrant shall—
 - (a) have been recruited by a person licensed for that purpose by and responsible to an officer (hereinafter called the Emigration Commissioner) appointed by the Government of Ceylon, or
 - (b) have applied direct to the Emigration Commissioner for an assisted passage and have been accepted by him.

(2) The emigrant shall not, before leaving British India, have entered into a contract of service for a period exceeding one month.

(3) Within six months from the issue of this Notification, or within such further period as the Governor General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall have enacted that any contract of service for a period exceeding one month entered into by an emigrant shall be void.

(4) No part of the cost of his recruitment, subsistence during transport, or transport shall be recoverable from any emigrant and all expenses in this connection shall be defrayed from a common fund to be raised in such manner and managed by such agency as may appear suitable to the Colonial Government.

(5) The Government of Ceylon shall at any time when so desired by the Governor General in Council admit and give all facilities to an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act.

(6) Within one year of his arrival in Ceylon any emigrant who has been assisted to emigrate at the cost of the common fund referred to in clause (4) shall, on satisfying the Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act that his return to his home is desirable either on the ground of the state of his health or on the ground that the work which he is required to do is unsuitable to his capacity, or that he has been unjustly treated by his employer, or for any other sufficient reason, be repatriated free of cost to the place of recruitment, and the costs of such repatriation shall be defrayed by the Government of Ceylon or the Ceylon Planters' Association.

(7) If at any time there is no Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act, the Government of Ceylon shall appoint a person to perform the duties of the Agent as set forth in clause (6).

(8) Within six months from the issue of this Notification, or within such further period as the Governor General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall have enacted that no payment made in India by a recruiter to an emigrant to enable him to pay off debts before emigrating shall be recoverable.

(9) The Government of Ceylon shall furnish such periodical reports and returns as may be required from time to time by the Government of India in respect of the welfare of persons emigrating to Ceylon in accordance with this Notification.

Similar conditions have been imposed in the case of Malaya. Emigration has also been permitted to Mauritius for a period of 1 year only with effect from May 1st 1923, and limited to a number not exceeding 1,500 labourers. The terms are more onerous than in the case of the nearer Colonies and the most important additional clauses are the following:—

Any emigrant shall, if he desires to return to India at any time after two years from the date of his introduction to the Colony, be repatriated at the cost of the Government of Mauritius to the place of his recruitment.

Any emigrant shall at any time within the period of two years from the date of his introduction to the Colony, be entitled to be repatriated at the cost of the Government of Mauritius to the place of his recruitment if he satisfies the Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act that

his return to his home is desirable either on the ground of the state of his health or on the ground that the work which he is required to do is unsuitable to his capacity or that he has been unjustly treated by his employer or for any other sufficient reason.

If any emigrant at any time within the period of two years from the date of his introduction to the Colony satisfies the Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act that he is unable to obtain a wage which will provide the cost of living for a man with a wife and three children and also a reasonable margin for savings, sickness and old age, he shall be entitled to be repatriated at the cost of the Government of Mauritius to the place of his recruitment. The position now is that the Government of India has vested the Chambers of the Legislature with complete power to decide to what countries emigration shall be permitted and to regulate its conditions, and has bound itself to be guided in its policy by Indian public opinion. Skilled labour is of course more able to take care of itself and, subject to certain necessary safeguards, is at liberty to emigrate to any country in the world.

Admission of Indians to Other Parts of the Empire.—On the motion of the Government of India this question was discussed at the Imperial War Conferences, 1917 and 1918, and the policy accepted by the self-governing dominions and the British Government was embodied in the following resolutions:—

"(1) It is an inherent function of the Governments of the several communities of the British Commonwealth including India, that each should enjoy complete control of the composition of its own population by means of restriction on immigration from any of the other communities.

"(2) British citizens domiciled in any British country, including India, should be admitted into any other British country for visits, for the purpose of pleasure or commerce, including temporary residence for the purpose of education; such right shall not extend to a visit or temporary residence for labour purposes or to permanent settlement.

"(3) Indians already permanently domiciled in the other British countries should be allowed to bring in their wives and minor children on condition: (a) That not more than one wife and her children shall be admitted for each such Indian; and (b) that each individual so admitted shall be certified by the Government of India as being the lawful wife or child of such Indian."

The first paragraph of this resolution has regularised the various restrictions on immigration which the self-governing dominions have, from time to time, adopted and which, without expressly differentiating against Indians are in practice used in order to check Indian immigration, the objections to which are stated to be not racial or political but economic. Australia prohibits the entry of any person who fails to pass a dictation test of not less than 50 words in any prescribed language. New Zealand prohibits the entry of any person who has not received in advance a permit from the Dominion Government which is refused to any person regarded as unsuitable to settle in the country. South Africa pro-

hibits the entry of any person deemed by the Minister of the Interior on economic grounds or on account of his standard or habits of life to be unsuited to the requirements of the Union. Canada prohibits the landing of any person who has come to the Dominion otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which he is a native and unless he possesses in his own right 250 dollars. Newfoundland and the Irish Free State impose no restrictions. All the self-governing Dominions have adopted special exemptions in favour of students, tourists and merchants visiting the countries for the temporary purposes of commerce, pleasure, or education. India on its side has assumed power to regulate the admission of immigrants from any other part of the Empire or foreign countries, by means of passports. A bill has also been passed by the Indian Legislature empowering the Government of India to make rules "for the purpose of securing that persons not being of Indian origin, domiciled in any British possession, shall have no greater rights and privileges as regards entry into and residence in British India, than are accorded by the law and administration of such possession to persons of Indian domicile." With regard to the Crown colonies and protectorates, the attitude of the Indian Government is that there is no justification for placing any restrictions on the immigration of British Indians, which are not placed on other classes of British subjects, and this principle has in practice been observed by the Colonial Office except in the case of Kenya colony where, as stated hereafter, the British Government has reserved to itself the right to impose restrictions on the immigration of classes of people whose entry into the colony may have an adverse effect on the economic evolution of the indigenous population. A statistical inquiry is now on foot to determine whether the introduction of such restrictions is necessary.

Rights and Disabilities of Indians Lawfully Domiciled Overseas.—The policy of the Empire is summed up in the resolution of the Imperial Conference, 1921, which was recorded in the following terms:—

"This Conference reaffirms that each Community of the British Commonwealth should enjoy complete control over the composition of its own population by restricting immigration from any of the other communities, but recognises that there is incongruity between the position of India, as an equal member of the Empire, and the existence of disabilities upon British Indians lawfully domiciled in some parts of the Empire, and this Conference, therefore, is of opinion that in the interests of the solidarity of the Commonwealth it is desirable that the rights of such Indians to citizenship should be recognised."

"The representatives of South Africa regret their inability to accept this resolution in view of the exceptional circumstances of the greater part of the Union. The representatives of India while appreciating the acceptance of this resolution, nevertheless feel bound to record their profound concern at the position of Indians in South Africa and hope that by negotiations between India and South Africa a way can be found as soon as may be to reach a more satisfactory position."

The Right Hon'ble Srinivasa Shastri visited the Dominions of Australia, Canada, and New Zealand in the course of 1922 as the emissary of the Government of India to assist them in giving effect to this resolution. The main object of his mission was to appeal to the Governments and public of Canada and Australia fully to enfranchise qualified domiciled Indians. In Australia, Indians resident in Queensland and Western Australia have neither the provincial nor the federal franchise. In Canada, Indians resident in British Columbia are excluded from the dominion as well as the provincial franchise. While successful in securing a more sympathetic atmosphere towards Indians, he failed to bring about any modification in the existing electoral laws.

The question of giving effect to this resolution of 1921 was raised by the Indian representatives at the Imperial Conference, 1923. Their proposal was as follows:—

"Let the Dominion Governments who have an Indian population, let His Majesty's Government in the areas under their direct control, such as Kenya, Uganda, Fiji and other places where there are Indians resident, appoint Committees to confer with a Committee which the Government of India will send from India and explore the avenues of how best and how soonest the principle of equality implicit in the 1921 Resolution may be implemented."

This proposal was favourably received by the Dominion Premiers, excluding General Smuts; and by the Secretary of State for the Colonies who cordially agreed that there should be full consultation and discussions between him and a committee appointed by the Government of India upon all questions affecting British Indians domiciled in British Colonies and protectorates and mandated territories. In pursuance of the proposal, the Government of India appointed a Committee in March 1924 composed of Mr. J. Hope Simpson, M.P., *Chairman*, H. H. the Aga Khan, Sir B. Robertson, Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachariar, M.L.A., and Mr. K. C. Roy to make representations to the Colonial Office on certain outstanding questions affecting Indians in Kenya and Fiji.

Summary of Present Position.—Outside Australia, N. Zealand and Canada the position stands as follows:—

(1) **South Africa.**—The main grievances of Indians, which led to a passive resistance movement headed by Mr. Gandhi, were settled by the compromise embodied in the Indians Relief Act, 1914, and by the guarantee known as the Smuts-Gandhi agreement. The substance of this agreement is embodied in the following extracts from letters:

(i) Mr. Gorges, Secretary for the Interior, to Mr. Gandhi, June 30th, 1914: "With regard to the administration of existing laws, the Minister desires me to say that it always has been, and will continue to be, the desire of the Government to see that they are administered in a just manner and with due regard to vested rights."

(ii) Mr. Gandhi to Mr. Gorges, July 7th, 1914: "By vested rights I understand the right of an Indian and his successors to live and trade in the township in which he was living and trading, no matter how often he shifts his residence or business from place to place in the same township."

This has been officially interpreted to mean "that the vested rights of those Indians who were then living and trading in townships, whether in contravention of the law or not, should be respected."

In 1920 an Asiatic Enquiry Commission was appointed to investigate the grievances of Indians regarding their rights to trade and hold land in the Union. Their main recommendations were as follows:—

(1) Law 3 of 1885 (Transvaal), the Gold Law of the Transvaal (Act No. 35 of 1908) and Act No. 37 of 1919 should not be repealed.

(2) There should be no compulsory repatriation of Asiatics; but

(3) Voluntary repatriation should be encouraged.

(4) There should be no compulsory segregation of Asiatics; but

(5) A system of voluntary separation should be introduced under which municipalities should have the right, subject to certain conditions—

(a) to lay out residential areas for Asiatics; (b) to set aside certain streets or portions of the town for Asiatic traders to which existing license holders should gradually be attracted.

(6) These areas should be selected and allocated by a board of independent persons, in consultation with the Municipal Council and Asiatic community.

(7) In Natal the right of Asiatics to acquire and own land for farming or agricultural purposes, outside townships, should be confined to the coast belt, say, 20 to 30 miles inland.

(8) A uniform "License Law" applicable to all the Provinces of the Union should, if possible, be enacted. If that is impracticable, the law relating to the issue of Trade Licenses in the Cape Province, the Transvaal and Natal should be assimilated in a comprehensive consolidating Act of Parliament providing, *inter alia*:—

(a) That the granting of all licenses to trade (not being liquor licenses) shall be entrusted to municipal bodies within the area of their jurisdiction; outside those areas, to divisional Councils in the Cape Province, and in the other Provinces to special Licensing Officers appointed by the Administrator.

(b) The grounds upon which an application for the grant of a new license may be refused.

(c) That the reasons for the refusal to grant any license shall be recorded, together with any evidence tendered for or against the application.

(d) That, in the case of the refusal of a license on the ground that the applicant is not a fit and proper person to hold the same or to carry on the proposed business, there shall be a final appeal to a Special Appeal Board, appointed by the Administrator.

(e) That municipal bodies shall have the right to prohibit the license holder, or any other person, from residing in any shop, store or other place of business.

(9) There should be no relaxation in the enforcement of the Immigration Laws, and more active steps should be taken to deal with prohibited immigrants who have evaded the provisions of those laws.

(10) The administration of the Asiatic policy of the Government should be placed in the

hands of one official, under whose charge would come all administrative functions, together with the official records relating to Asiatics. This officer should also be entrusted with the duty of securing full statistics regarding Asiatics in the Union and of the arrivals in and departures from South Africa. Details of all applications for trade licenses, and transactions in connection with the purchase of land and property made by Asiatics throughout the Union, should be sent to him in order to ensure the enforcement of the provisions of Section 8 of Act 22 of 1913.

On the other hand, he should keep in close touch with the various sections of the Indian community, see that the laws are applied in a just manner, give a ready ear to any complaints or grievances and generally safe-guard their interests.

No action has been taken by the Union Government to give effect to these proposals except with regard to voluntary repatriation. 7,430 Indians have returned to India from South Africa during the last 4 years of whom probably a large proportion have abandoned their South African domicile and accepted free repatriation under the official scheme. It is understood that the remaining recommendations still form the subject of negotiation with the Government of India.

Present Position.—Indians enjoy both the political and municipal franchise only in the Cape Province and the municipal franchise only in Natal. In the remaining two provinces they are not enfranchised. They are subjected to differential treatment in the matter of trading licenses, specially in the Transvaal. Their immigration into the Union is barred and severe restrictions exist on inter-provincial migration. In the Transvaal they are not allowed to acquire immovable property outside locations and on the Witwatersrand they are subject to the restrictions of the Gold Law.

The anti-Asiatic party have made several efforts, especially in Natal, further to curtail the rights of Indians. Some of these are merely irritating social disabilities, such as railway regulations debarring Indians from travelling in any other carriages except those reserved for them, and similar rules restricting their use of tramways at Durban, and excluding them from race courses and betting club rooms. Examples of recent anti-Asiatic legislation of major importance are:

(a) The Natal Rural Dealers Licensing Ordinance, transferring the power of granting trading licenses from the Licensing Officer to an elected Licensing Board, on which Indians may not sit.

(b) The Durban Land Alienation Ordinance. This Ordinance, which enables Municipalities in selling land to assign it for particular communities, and to that extent to secure segregation, has been allowed on condition that Asiatics are given reasonable opportunity for acquiring adequate residential sites.

Anti-Asiatic feeling in South Africa does not appear to be diminishing, and a bill for the segregation of Asiatics known as the Class Areas Bill was introduced in the Union Assembly in March 1924, which though not specifically directed against Indians, contained provisions which could be used for the compulsory segregation of all Asiatics in certain

areas. Indian opinion was deeply agitated over the prospect of this legislation which it was apprehended might in the existing state of public opinion in South Africa result in the economic ruin of a large number of Indian traders in the Union. In response to the vigorous protests made by the Government of India the Union Government gave an assurance that it was their desire and intention to apply the measure if it became law in a spirit of fairness to the interests and reasonable requirements of resident Indians. The Government of India whilst welcoming the assurance were unable to rest satisfied with this position and made every effort to persuade the Union Government to abandon the project. For the moment they have succeeded, as in consequence of the unexpected dissolution of the South African Parliament the bill has lapsed.

In November 1923 the Natal Township law, (Hulett's Ordinance) which seeks to eliminate Indians completely from the Township Council but has not been assented to by the Governor-General. The Natal Boroughs Ordinance however which deprives all fresh additions to the Indian population of the municipal franchise has been passed into law.

(2) **Kenya Colony.**—The grievances of Indians domiciled in this Colony are fully set forth in the published despatch of the Government of India, dated October 21st, 1920. The controversy centred round the following points:—

(a) **FRANCHISE.**—Indians have not the elective franchise. The Government of India proposed that there should be a common electoral roll and a common franchise on a reasonable property basis *plus* an educational test, without racial discrimination, for all British subjects.

(b) **SEGREGATION.**—Professor Simpson who was sent to East Africa to report on Sanitary matters, recommended segregation on sanitary grounds. The Government of India objected, firstly, that it was impracticable; secondly, that it was commercially inconvenient; and thirdly, that Indians are in practice unfairly treated in the allocation of sites.

(c) **THE HIGHLANDS.**—Lord Elgin decided in 1903 that as a matter of administrative convenience grants of land in the upland area should not be made to Indians. The whole area has now been given out, and the Government of India claim that there is no land left to which Lord Elgin's decision applies. This decision has now, however, been extended so as to prohibit the transfer of land in the uplands to non-Europeans.

(d) **IMMIGRATION.**—Suggestions have been put forward for restricting Asiatic immigration into Kenya. The Government of India claim that there is no case for restricting Indian immigration and that such restrictions would be in principle indefensible.

THE SETTLEMENT.—The decisions of the British Government were contained in a White Paper presented to Parliament in July 1923. It was held that the guiding principle should be that "the interests of the African native must be paramount," and in light of this it was decided:—

(a) **FRANCHISE.**—A communal franchise was adopted with 11 seats for elected Europeans, 5 elected Indians, one nominated Arab, one missionary representing the Africans, and a nominated official majority. One Indian is also appointed on the Governor's Executive Council.

(b) **SEGREGATION.**—The policy of segregation as between Europeans and Asiatics is abandoned.

(c) **THE HIGHLANDS.**—The existing practice is maintained both as regards initial grants of land and transfers. A similar reservation in the low lands is offered to Indians.

(d) **IMMIGRATION.**—Racial discrimination in immigration regulations is rejected. But in the economic interests of the Africans, further control over immigration is necessary. Some arrangement is required for securing a strictly impartial examination of applications for entry into Kenya. The Governors of Kenya and Uganda have been instructed to submit joint proposals for legislation.

The Government of India reviewed these decisions in a resolution published on August 18th, 1923, and recorded "their deep regret that His Majesty's Government did not feel justified in giving greater effect to the recommendations made by them" and reserved liberty to reopen the case on a suitable opportunity. They stated their intention of making representations regarding the action to be taken to implement these decisions, particularly in the matter of the Immigration regulations.

Following upon the Kenya award statutory action was taken by the local administration on the franchise question. Adult suffrage on communal lines was conferred upon Indians. As regards immigration, the Government of India took the opportunity to urge the postponement of the bill giving effect to the decision of His Majesty's Government until such time as the Committee proposed by their representatives at the Imperial conference in 1923 had an opportunity of examining the question of the restrictions therein embodied. Accordingly the introduction of the bill was postponed at the instance of the Colonial Secretary. The Government of Kenya was also asked by His Majesty's Government for an explanatory statement regarding the method proposed for the administration of immigration measures. The Government of India received an assurance from the Colonial Secretary that ample opportunities would be afforded for the expression of their views; and that earnest attention would be given to any representation which their Committee desired to make. As has already been stated such a Committee was appointed in March 1924. The following statement made by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in the House of Commons on 7th August 1924 shows the result of the representation made by the Colonies Committee:—

"(1) **IMMIGRATION.**—My position is that if danger ever arises of such an influx of immigrants, of whatever class, race, nationality or character, as may likely be prejudicial to the economic interest of the natives, I hold myself entirely free to take any action which may be necessary. Conflicting statistics which have

been laid before me have not enabled me to reach a definite conclusion as regards the extent of net Indian immigration. Accordingly steps will be taken to create a statistical department to obtain accurate information with regard to persons of all races arriving in or departing from Kenya. Meanwhile the Kenya Immigration Ordinance will not be enacted.

(2) **FRANCHISE.**—I have given careful consideration to representations in favour of a common poll, but I am not prepared to resist the conclusion already arrived at that in the special circumstances of Kenya, with four diverse communities, each of which will ultimately require electoral representation, the communal system is the best way to secure the fair representation of each and all of these communities.

(3) **HIGHLANDS.**—I consider that the Secretary of State for the Colonies has no alternative but to continue pledges, expressed or implied, which had been given in the past, and I can hold out no hope of the policy in regard to agricultural land in the Highlands being reconsidered.

(4) **LOWLANDS.**—It was proposed to reserve an area in the lowlands for agricultural immigrants from India. The Committee made it plain that it is averse from any reservation of land for any immigrant race, subject to the suggestion that before applications for land in lowland areas are invited an opportunity should be taken of sending an officer experienced in Indian settlement and agricultural methods to report on the areas. At present any consideration of the matter is in suspense pending receipt from the colony of reports from the native and agricultural points of view on the areas in question."

(3) **Fiji and British Guiana.**—In certain respects Indians in these colonies are under disabilities. In Fiji, for instance, they are practically excluded from both the political and the municipal franchise. But the Indian population in these colonies belong almost entirely to the labouring classes and their grievances are mainly economic. The wages in Fiji are said to be unduly low, and the recent poll tax of £1 on every adult is regarded as a heavy burden. Wages in both Fiji and British Guiana are to a large extent dependent on the sugar market, which is at present buoyant. It will be possible to form a more accurate opinion of the position in Fiji when the report of the deputation sent to that colony by the Government of India in 1922 is published. The reports of the British Guiana deputation were published on the 21st of January 1924. Towards the end of the month a deputation from the Colony of British Guiana, consisting of Sir Joseph Nunan, Kt., and the Honourable Mr. J. C. Luckhoo, K.C., arrived in India to re-affirm the scheme of colonisation which these gentlemen had submitted to a committee of the Imperial Legislative Council in February 1920 and which that committee had generally approved. They brought proper credentials from the Government of the Colony and were authorised to place this scheme before the Government of India and the Indian Legislature for consideration. The Government of India agreed to give the deputation facilities to meet the Standing Committee on Emigration of the two Houses

of the Indian Legislature, and this Committee met the deputation, which had, in the meantime, been joined by Messrs. M. Panday and C. A. McDunn who respectively represented the Hindu and Muhammadan sections of the resident Indian community, on the 18th and 19th of March. The Committee fully discussed the scheme with the deputation, but decided to defer making any recommendations to the Government of India until their next meeting, which took place on the 26th May 1924. On this occasion the Committee had also the advantage of examining Mr. Tewary, who was one of the members of the Committee appointed by the Government of India which visited British Guiana in 1922. After full consideration the Standing Emigration Committee reported that while they would be inclined to view with favour the colonization scheme put forward by the deputation, they would, before making any definite recommendation, like the Government of India to depute an officer to British Guiana to report on:—

(a) the progress made in providing suitable land for prospective settlers, the steps taken to provide such settlers with materials and skilled assistance to put up residential accommodation and with loans for agricultural development, and the measures instituted to improve the sanitary conditions of the Colony, especially in respect of drainage and water supply;

(b) the steps, if any, taken by the Government of British Guiana to provide facilities for the repatriation of the Indians already settled in the Colony; and

(c) such other matters affecting the political or economic status of the resident Indian community as the Government of India may direct.

The Government of India have this recommendation under consideration, but are not likely to reach any decision regarding the deputation of an officer until the results of the enquiry into the causes of the recent riots in British Guiana are known.

(4) **Other Parts of the Empire.**—In the course of the year trouble occurred in Tanganyika territory in connection with a trade licensing and other measures imposed for revenue purposes. Indians were compelled to maintain their accounts in Swahili or English, and were subjected to somewhat heavy licensing fees. Agitation, accompanied by passive resistance occurred, but was not successful in its object. The Government of India took up the matter with the Colonial Office, with the result that certain amendments have been made in the Ordinances which are calculated to protect the smaller Indian-trader on whom they were most likely to press hard. In Ceylon, Mauritius, and Malaya, the position of Indians has on the whole been satisfactory, and matters have gone smoothly. The Government of India have now appointed their own Agents in Ceylon and Malaya. In Ceylon the Colonial Government have published the results of a careful enquiry into the rates of wages of Indians on estates in relation to the cost of living.

Indians in Great Britain.

More than sixty years have gone by since the Parsi community, in the persons of the late Dadabhai Naoroji and other members of the firm of Cama & Co., led the way in the sojourn of Indians in England for business purposes. This lead it has since maintained, though there are both Hindu and Mahomedan business men firmly established there. Nor are the professions unrepresented, for there are in London and elsewhere practising barristers, solicitors and medical men of Indian birth. Three Indians (all belonging to the Parsee Community) have sat in the House of Commons. An Indian has served since 1910 on the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, and others are to be appointed. Three Indians serve on the Secretary of State's Council. In 1919 Lord Sinha led the way as the first Indian to be raised to the peerage and to be appointed a member of the Home Government. In the spring of 1923 Mr. (now Sir) Dadiba Dalal was appointed High Commissioner for India being the first Indian to hold the office. The early years of the present century saw the gathering of a new Indian element in permanent residence—that of retired officials and business men, or people of independent means who from preference or in order to have their children educated in England, leave the land of their birth and seldom if ever visit it again. Further, the stream of Indian summer visitors includes wealthy people who come regularly. There is an Indian Social Club, founded in 1912, with Sir M. M. Dhowaggee as president, which arranges for dinners and other functions to celebrate Indian festivals or to honour Indian visitors of special distinction. Sectionally, however, the only Indian community to be fully organised is that of the Parsis. They have an incorporated and well-endowed Parsi Association of Europe, and have established "Zoroastrian House" (168, Cromwell-road, S.W. 5) as a communal centre.

The Indian Pavilion at the British Empire Exhibition in 1924, with its gleaming towers and minarets and its cool, fountain-filled forecourt was one of the most conspicuous and admired architectural features of Wembley; and the great popularity of the section was shown by the crowded state of the more attractive courts day after day. The continuous education of English, Colonial and foreign visitors in regard to the products and art wares of India was of great value and did much to spread a vogue for Indian artistic workmanship. It is estimated that the value of the sales at the stalls reached a total of some £350,000. This success led to proposals for a permanent India House in London to replace the small, though choice exhibition of Indian artistic wares at the office of the High Commissioner for India.

The Students.

Under normal conditions it is the student community which constitutes the greatly preponderating element and creates an Indian problem. Its numbers multiplied ten or twelve-fold in the quarter of a century before the war.

After a very considerable temporary check caused by the Great War the number rapidly expanded from 1919 in spite of pressure on college accommodation. In addition to the ordinary graduate or under-graduate student, there are some youths of good family, including heirs of Native States, admitted into our public schools, such as Eton and Harrow. There are over 300 Indians at the Inns of Court. Since the war there has been a welcome increase in the number of technical and industrial students. Altogether including technical and medical students, there are some 1,500 young Indians in London, Edinburgh, Cambridge, Oxford, Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Liverpool and a few other centres.

The Advisers.

It is well known that until a few years ago the young Indians, apart from inadequately supported unofficial effort and the chance of coming under the influence of English friends of their families, were practically left to their own devices. But in April 1909 Lord Morley, created for their benefit a Bureau of Information and appointed Dr. (now Sir) T. W. Arnold to the charge of it under the title of Educational Adviser. The Bureau was located at 21, Cromwell Road, together with the National Indian Association and the Northbrook Society, which were thus given spacious quarters for their social work among the young men. (For Burmese students distinct club accommodation is provided, partly by subventions from Indian revenues, in the commodious Albion House, St. Peter's Square, Hammersmith, W. 6.) In India provincial advisory committees exist to help and advise intending students. The work of the Bureau rapidly expanded, and in consequence Lord Crewe in 1912 re-organised the arrangements under the general charge of a Secretary for Indian students, Mr. (now Sir) C. E. Mallet who resigned at the close of 1916. He was succeeded by Dr. Arnold under the designation of Educational Adviser for Indian Students to the Secretary of State. Mr. N. C. Sen followed Dr. Arnold as Local Adviser in London. At Oxford the Oriental Delegacy, and at Cambridge, the Inter. Collegiate Committee for Indian students have been instituted to deal with Oriental students generally; whilst Local Advisers for Indian students have been appointed at Manchester, Edinburgh and Glasgow.

These arrangements underwent far reaching revision in the autumn of 1920 in connection with the setting up, under the Act of the previous year of a High Commissionership for India in the United Kingdom. The "agency work" Sir William Meyer, took over from the Secretary of State included that connected with Indian students. Sir T. W. Arnold accepted an appointment long pressed upon him as Professor of Arabic at the School of Oriental Studies, and the High Commissioner appointed Mr. N. C. Sen and Dr. Thomas Quayle as Joint Secretaries for the Indian Students' Department. The administrative work hitherto divided between the India Office and 21, Cromwell Road, was consolidated at the offices of the

High Commissioner in Grosvenor Gardens, S. W. 1, thereby obviating a good deal of duplication of files and papers.

The whole situation was investigated by a committee of inquiry which sat in 1921 under the chairmanship of Lord Lytton. Arrangements had been made for the Committee to continue their investigations in India in the cold weather of 1921-22, but were abandoned in consequence of the refusal of the Legislative Assembly to vote the necessary grant. This largely accounts for the somewhat tentative form of the recommendations of the unanimous report published in October 1922. The opinion was expressed that the only permanent solution of the problem is to be found in the development of education in India. Attention was invited to the diminution of the number of Indian students proceeding abroad that would result from giving effect to recommendations made for such development by previous commissions, and by the establishment of an Indian Bar held that it should be possible to secure admission both to British universities and, subject to certain reservations, to the works of manufacturing firms in Great Britain for all Indian students competent to profit by the facilities afforded, provided that some machinery exists to ensure their distribution to the places best suited to their requirements. Subsequently a committee presided over by Sir Edward Chamber recommended the creation of Indian Bars, which will have the effect of much reducing the number of Indians going to the Inns of Court.

The students have hosts of non-official friends and helpers and the report suggested that there should be a conference of representatives of all organisation interested in the

social and intellectual welfare of young Indians in Great Britain to discuss the best means for co-ordinating their efforts. Under the presidency of Lord Hawke and the chairmanship of Lord Carmichael, an Indian Gymkhana Club in 1921 acquired its own sports ground at Osterley, the total cost of purchase and equipment being estimated at £15,000. Generous gifts were made by some Ruling Princes and others, particularly the Maharaja of Patiala, but further help is required. The cricket eleven of the Club has an excellent record in matches at Lords and the Oval and with suburban clubs.

A notable development of 1920 was the opening of the "Red Triangle" Shakespeare Hut in Bloomsbury, off Gower Street, as a union and hostel for Indian and Ceylonese students up to the number of 500. The hostel was removed to permanent premises 106-112, Gower Street, close to University College in the autumn of 1923. It is Indian both in conception and control, the warden Mr. P. A. Rungnathan, and committee being responsible not to the National Council of Y. M. C. A.'s in London but to the Indian National Council in Calcutta. While the organization has a definitely moral and spiritual, as well as a social purpose, it is not a proselytising agency. There is a steady average of 600 members, and the hostel is exceptionally fortunate in securing the voluntary services of men and women of great distinction in many fields for the regular Sunday afternoon and other lectures.

Lately there has been considerable growth of the number of Indian girls and women studying in Great Britain, and at least one is reading at the Inns of Court. But it is chiefly for medical or teaching training that Indian ladies go to England.

INTEREST TABLE.

From 5 to 12 per cent. on Rupees 100

Calculated for 1 Year, 1 Month (Calendar), 1 Week, and 1 Day (365 Days to a Year)
the Decimal Fraction of a Pie for the Day being shown for the Day.

Per cent.	1 Day.	1 Week.	1 Month.	1 Year.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
5	0 0 2'630	0 1 6	0 6 8	5 0 0
6	0 0 3'156	0 1 10	0 8 0	6 0 0
7	0 0 3'682	0 2 1	0 9 4	7 0 0
8	0 0 4'208	0 2 5	0 10 8	8 0 0
9	0 0 4'734	0 2 9	0 12 0	9 0 0
10	0 0 5'260	0 3 0	0 13 4	10 0 0
11	0 0 5'786	0 3 4	0 14 8	11 0 0
12	0 0 6'312	0 3 8	1 0 0	12 0 0

Societies : Literary, Scientific and Social.

AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF INDIA (Calcutta).—Founded 1820. A Class Annual subscription Rs. 32. Entrance fee Rs. 8. B Class Annual subscription Rs. 12. *Secretary*, S. Percy-Lancaster, F.R.S., F.R.E.S., 1, Alipore Road, Alipore.

AGRI-HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF BURMA.—*Superintendent*, E. E. Cooper, Esq., F.R.H.S.; *Secretary*, Maung Pon, Esq., Agri-Horticultural Gardens, Kandawglay, Rangoon.

AGRI-HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF MADRAS.—Established 1835. Quarterly subscription for members in Class A Rs. 7, in Class B Rs. 3. *President*, H. E. The Rt. Hon. Viscount Goschen; *Chairman* The Hon. Mr. W. W. Phillips, I.C.S.; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. B. S. Nirody, B.A., M.Sc., F.R.M.S.; *Hon. Treasurer*, Dewan Bahadur G. Narainaswamy Chetty Garu, Teynampett, S.W., Madras.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF BOMBAY.—Founded 1886, to promote the prosecution of Anthropological research in India; to correspond with Anthropological Societies throughout the world; to hold monthly meetings for reading and discussing papers; and to publish a journal containing the transactions of the Society. Annual subscription Rs. 10. *Secretary*, Shams-ul-Ulma Dr. Jivanji Jamshedji Modi, B.A., Ph.D., C.I.E., Town Hall, Bombay.

ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL (Calcutta).—*President*, Dr. N. Annandale, C.I.E., D.Sc., C.M.S., F.L.S., F.A.S.E., F.R.S.E.; *General Secretary*, Johan Van Manen. *Address*: 1, Part Street, Calcutta.

BENARES MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY.—Founded in 1918 for the encouragement and promotion of research in the various branches of Pure and Applied Mathematics, and in the History of Mathematics. It conducts a journal "The Proceedings of the Benares Mathematical Society" in which original papers on Mathematics are published and maintains a library. There are about 60 members from all parts of India. Admission fee Rs. 10. Annual subscription Rs. 12 (resident members) and Rs. 5 (non-resident members). *Patron*: Sir William Marris, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.; *Life President*, Dr. Ganesh Prasad, M.A. (Cantab), D. Sc.; *Secretary*, Prof. Gorakh Prasad, M. Sc.; *Treasurer*, Prof. Syamacharan De, M.A.

BHANDARKAR ORIENTAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE, POONA.—The Institute was inaugurated on the 6th of July 1917, the 80th birthday of Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, at the hands of H. E. Lord Willingdon, who became its first President. Its objects are to provide an up-to-date Oriental Library, to train students in the methods of research and to act as an information bureau on all points connected with Oriental Studies. Sir R. G. Bhandarkar has already bequeathed to the Institute his valuable private library of Oriental books. Since the 1st of April 1918 the Government of Bombay have transferred to the Institute the unique collection of manuscripts at the Deccan College together with

a maintenance grant of Rs. 3,000 a year. Government have likewise entrusted to the Institute the administration of the Budget grant of Rs. 12,000 a year on account of publication. The Institute has undertaken to edit the *Mahabharata* critically at the request of the Chief of Aundh who has promised a grant of Rs. 6,000 annually for that purpose. Grants have also been promised by the University of Bombay and the Governments of Burma and Mysore. The Institute has started a journal called "Annals of the Bhandarkar Institute" published twice a year. The Institute also held under its auspices the First Oriental Conference on the 5th, 6th and 7th of November 1919, under the patronage of H. E. Sir George Lloyd and the presidency of Sir R. G. Bhandarkar. Owing to the liberal donation of Rs. 25,000 from the Tatas for the building of a Hall for the accommodation of Persian Mss. and books the Persian Manuscript Department has been opened. Two big side halls, costing about Rs. 95,000 for the use of the libraries of the Institute, have been completed. Minimum membership dues Rs. 10 a year or Rs. 100 compounded for life. *Secretary*, Dr. V. G. Paranjpe, M.A., LL.B., D. Litt. (Paris).

BOMBAY ART SOCIETY.—Founded 1888; to promote and encourage Art by exhibitions of Pictures and Applied Arts, and to assist in the establishment and maintenance of a permanent gallery for pictures and other works of Art. Annual exhibition usually held every January. Annual subscription Rs. 10; Life member Rs. 100. *Secretary*, S. V. Bhandarkar, Bandra, Bombay.

BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.—Founded 1804, to investigate and encourage Oriental Arts, Sciences and Literature. Annual subscription Rs. 60. *Secretary*, Dr. E. A. Parker, M.A., Ph.D., Town Hall, Bombay.

BOMBAY NATURAL HISTORY SOCIETY.—Founded 1883, to promote the study of Natural History in all its branches. The Society has a membership of about 1,700 and a museum with a representative collection of the different vertebrates and invertebrates found in the Indian Empire and Ceylon. In 1921 the Society was entrusted with the management of the Natural History Section of the Prince of Wales Museum, and a great part of the Society's collections have been transferred to that Museum. Under the auspices of the Government of India, Burma and Ceylon, the British Museum, the Zoological Society of London, the Royal Society and numerous private subscriptions, the society undertook, on a vast scale, a survey of the Mammals of India. A Journal is published quarterly which contains articles on different natural history subjects as well as descriptions of new species and local lists of different orders. In the more recent numbers, serial articles on game birds, common snakes, and common butterflies

have been appearing. Annual subscription Rs. 25. Entrance fee Rs. 20. *Patron*, H. R. H. the Prince of Wales; *Vice-Patron*, H. H. The Maharao of Cutch, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.; *President*, H. E. The Rt. Hon. Sir Leslie Wilson, P.C., G.C.I.E., C.M.G., D.S.O.; *Vice-Presidents*, The Hon. Sir Norman Macleod and H. H. the Maharao of Cutch, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.; *Honorary Secretary*, R. A. Spence M.I.A., F.Z.S.; *Acting Curator*, S. H. Prater, C.M.Z.S.; *Head Clerk*, Mr. A. F. Fernandes; *Offices*: 6, Apollo Street, Bombay.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN BIBLE SOCIETY.—Since 1811 the British and Foreign Bible Society has been at work in this country. It has 6 Auxiliaries in India and an Agency in Burma. The first Auxiliary was established in Calcutta, in 1811, then followed the Bombay Auxiliary in 1813, the Madras Auxiliary in 1820, the North India Auxiliary in 1845, the Punjab Auxiliary in 1863, the Bangalore Auxiliary in 1875, while the Burma Agency was founded in 1899. The Bible or some portion of it is now to be had in nearly 100 different Indian languages and dialects and the circulation throughout India

The following table shows the growth in the British & Foreign Bible Society's work during the past few years in India and Burma:—

CIRCULATION OF THE B.F.B.S. IN INDIA.

Auxiliaries.	1923.	1922.	1921.	1920.	1919.
Calcutta	148,024	111,579	196,991	177,963	207,634
Bombay	133,608	181,388	286,134	416,061	313,272
Madras	231,681	249,679	336,028	312,484	322,630
Bangalore	45,099	35,866	45,097	67,482	66,114
North India	191,692	160,941	290,873	458,204	297,809
Punjab	65,578	71,369	61,149	104,595	109,774
Burma	65,832	68,306	99,903	117,968	124,170
Total copies of Scriptures ..	881,516	8,79,128	1,316,181	1,654,757	1,441,403

These returns do not include the copies which any Auxiliary has supplied to London or to other Auxiliaries and agencies during the year

BRITISH MEDICAL ASSOCIATION (Bombay Branch).—Founded 1886, to promote Medical and the Allied Sciences and the maintenance of the honour and interests of the Medical Profession. *Secretary*, Dr. D. R. Bardl, Bombay.

BOMBAY MEDICAL UNION.—Founded 1883 to promote friendly intercourse and exchange of views and experiences between its members and to maintain the interest and status of the medical profession in Bombay. The entrance fee for Resident members Rs. 5, monthly subscription Rs. 2. Absent members Re. 1, and non-resident members yearly subscription Rs. 5. *President*, Dr. M. D. Gilder; *Vice-Presidents*, Dr. R. D. Mody and Dr. F. N. Bismi; *Hon. Librarians*, Dr. Popat and Dr. Naidu; *Hon. Treasurer*, Dr. P. T. Patel; and *Hon. Secretaries*, Dr. S. P. Kapadia and J. E. Spencer, 123, Esplanade Road, Bombay.

BOMBAY SANITARY ASSOCIATION.—Founded to create an educated public opinion with regard to sanitary matters in general; (b) to diffuse the knowledge of sanitation and hygiene generally, and of the prevention of the spread of disease amongst all classes of

and Burma reached nearly 900,000 copies in 1923. The Bibles, Testaments, and Portions in the various vernaculars are sold at rates which the very poorest can pay, and at considerable loss to the Society. Grants of English Scriptures are made to Students who pass University examinations, as under:—

The New Testament and Psalms to Matriculates.

The Bible to Graduates.

Last year nearly 7,000 volumes were so distributed. Portions of Scriptures in the important vernaculars have been prepared in raised type for the use of the Blind and large grants of money are annually given to the different Missions, to enable them to carry on Colportage and Bible Woman's work. Besides the British and Foreign Bible Society, there is Bible work carried on in India, and Burma in a much smaller way by the Bible Translation Society—which is connected with the Baptist Missionary Society—the National Bible Society of Scotland the American Bible Society and the Tranquebar Tamil Bible Society.

people by means of lectures, leaflets and practical demonstrations and, if possible, by holding classes and examinations; (c) to promote sanitary science by giving prizes, rewards or medals to those who may by diligent application add to our knowledge in sanitary science by original research or otherwise; (d) to arrange for homely talk or simple practical lectures for mothers and girls in the various localities and different chawls, provided the people in such localities or chawls give facilities. The Sanitary Institute Building in Princess Street, which has lately been built by the Association, at a cost of nearly Rs. 1,00,000 the foundation stone of which was laid by Lady Willingdon in March, 1914, and opened in March, 1915, is a large and handsome structure with a large Lecture Hall, Library, Museum, etc., and also provides accommodation for King George V. Anti-Tuberculosis League Dispensary transferred to the Municipality in 1924 and Museum and the office of the Assistant Health Officer, C and D Wards, and the Vaccination Station. *Hon. Secretary*, Dr. J. E. Sandilands, M.C., M.A., M.D., Executive Health Officer, Bombay.

EUROPEAN ASSOCIATION.—The European Association was established in 1883 under the title of the European and Anglo-Indian Defence Association and was re-established in 1912 under the title of the European Defence Association, but the present title was adopted in 1913. The Association has for its major object the organisation of European influence in the political life of India. The Head Offices (Central Administration) are at 17, Stephen Court, Park Street, Calcutta; *President*, Mr. H. W. Carr; *Vice-Presidents*, Mr. J. Langford James and Mr. E. Villier, M.L.C.; *General Secretary*, Colonel J. D. Crawford, D.S.O., M.C., M.L.A.; *Asst. General Secretary*, Miss L. I. Lloyd; *Additional Organising Secretary*, Major I. A. S. Cooke, O.B.E.; *Hon. General Treasurer*, Mr. E. G. Dixon, O.B.E.; *London Correspondent*, Mr. Dudley B. Myers; *Publication*, The European Association "Quarterly Review", obtainable from any Branch or from the General Secretary.

BRANCHES OF THE EUROPEAN ASSOCIATION.—**ASSAM, CINNAMARA P. O.**—*Honorary Secretary*, Mr. P. H. Carpenter.

BENGAL (EASTERN), NARAYANGANJ.—*Chairman*, Mr. J. E. Ordish; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. J. W. R. Steven.

BENGAL (WESTERN), ASANSOL.—*Chairman*, Dr. W. P. O'Connor; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. C. W. Alliston.

BIHAR (NORTH), MOZUFFERPORE.—*Chairman*, Mr. P. Kennedy, C.I.E.; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. K. L. Mackenzie, M.L.C.

BOMBAY.—*Chairman*, Mr. J. Addyman, J.P., M.L.C.; *Secretary*, Miss M. M. Brown.

BURMA, RANGOON.—*Chairman and Hon. Secretary*, Mr. G. S. Clark.

CACHAR, CHANDRANATHPUR.—*Chairman and Hon. Secretary*, Mr. E. B. Baker.

CALCUTTA.—*Vice-Chairman*, Mr. H. E. Watson; *Secretary*, Col. J. D. Crawford, D.S.O., M.C., M.L.A.

CHITTAGONG.—*Chairman*, Mr. W. B. Venters; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. W. H. Prendergast.

DARJEELING.—*Chairman*, Mr. E. Scarth; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. W. A. Roussac.

DELHI. At present administered by the Central Administration.—All communications should be addressed to the General Secretary, 17 Stephen Court, Park Street, Calcutta.

DOOARS, MATELLI P. O.—*Chairman*, Mr. W. L. Travers, O.B.E., M.L.C.; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. G. L. Shaw.

JAMSHEDPUR.—*Chairman*, Mr. E. C. J. Cunningham; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. C. H. Dracott.

KANKANARA, NAIHATI.—*Chairman*, Mr. J. Mc Ewan; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. C. D. Leith.

MADRAS.—*Chairman*, Mr. A. M. MacDougall; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. J. K. Metherell.

MANBHUM, SIJUA, P. O.—*Chairman*, Mr. A. B. Hughes; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. P. B. Davis.

MOULMEIN.—*Chairman*, Mr. W. A. W. Dawn; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. S. C. Jones.

PUNJAB, LAHORE.—*Chairman*, Mr. Owen Roberts; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. W. J. Campbell.

RAJPUTANA, AJMER.—*Chairman*, Mr. F. Sievwright; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. B. S. E. Gow.

SIND, KARACHI.—*Chairman*, Mr. J. Humphrey, O.B.E.; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. G. Jacob.

SYLHET, LUNGLA P. O.—*Chairman*, Mr. A. Brown; *Hon. Secretary*, Dr. Rice.

UNITED PROVINCES, CAWNPORE.—*Chairman*, Mr. S. H. Taylor; *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. J. G. Ryan.

INDIAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE CULTIVATION OF SCIENCE (Calcutta).—*Honorary Secretary*, Prof. C. V. Raman, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S., 210, Bow Bazaar Street, Calcutta.

INDIAN CHEMICAL SOCIETY.—Was founded in 1924 with Sir P. C. Ray as *President*, and Professor J. N. Mukherjee, 92, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta, as *Secretary*. *Bombay Members of the Council*, Dr. A. K. Normand (Wilson College) and Dr. A. N. Meldrum (Royal Institute of Science).

INDIAN LIBERAL CLUB.—Started on 30th March 1917, to promote a systematic study of politics in general and Indian politics in particular, to organise free and well informed discussions on current political topics as well as on abstract questions to provide facility for collecting information on questions arising, or necessary to be raised, in the Imperial and Provincial Legislative Councils and to form and maintain a library. *Office*: Servants of India Society, Sandhurst Road. *President*, K. Natarajan, Esq., B.A., *Secretaries*, Mr. J. R. Bhargure, B.A., LL.B., and Mr. C. S. Deole, B.A.

INDIAN MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY.—Founded in 1907 for the advancement of Mathematical studies in India. It conducts a bi-monthly journal in which papers on mathematical subjects are published and maintains a library with current mathematical periodicals in all languages and new books on the subject. The library is located in the Fergusson College, Poona, whence the journals and books are circulated to members by post. The journal of the Society is published in Madras. There are about 200 members from all parts of India. *President*, Balakram, I.C.S., District Judge, Bijapur; *Secretaries*, Prof. P. V. Seshu Aiyer, Madras, and Prof. M. T. Naraningnar, Bangalore; *Librarian*, Prof. V. B. Naik, Poona.

INDIAN SOCIETY OF ORIENTAL ART (Calcutta).—*President*, Maharajahdiraj Bijay Chand Mahtab Bahadur of Burdwan; *Vice-President*, Mr. O. C. Ganguly; *Joint Hon. Secretaries*, C. W. E. Cotton, and G. N. Tagore; *Assistant Secretary*, P. Chatterjee. *Office*.—Suite, 12, Samavaya Mansions, Calcutta.

INDIA SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION.—The India Sunday School Union is a large interdenominational Society having as its object the further establishment and strengthening of Sunday Schools throughout the Indian Empire. The union embraces a considerable number of auxiliaries, which are generally associated with particular language areas. Both in the local Unions and in the Central organisation, help is given by missionaries and Indian workers of almost all denominations. Approximately 750,000 Sunday Schools scholars and teachers and 13,944 Sunday schools are connected with the Union, speaking 45 vernaculars.

The I. S. S. U. was founded in Allahabad in 1876, and in its most recent developments is coalescing with the work that has been hitherto

to be carried on under the direct auspices of the World's Sunday School Association. Yearly examinations are held for both teachers and scholars in thousands of centres, for which medals, prizes, scripture awards, and certificates are granted to successful candidates. Upwards of 276,000 candidates have been examined in six months' Bible study since 1896, successful candidates being awarded Certificates, Bibles and Testaments and Silver medals. Notes on the daily portions of the International Bible Reading Association are published by the I. S. S. U. in English and 14 vernacular editions of the S.S. Lesson Expositions are published in various vernaculars. In addition there is a large publication of literature dealing with all phases of chief study and moral and religious training. The monthly publication of the Union is the *India Sunday School Journal*, edited by Rev. T. H. Sherif, Jubbulpore. The Teachers' Training Department is under the care of Mr. E. A. Annett, Keswick Cottage, Coonoor.

General Secretary of the Union, the Rev. A. G. Atkins, Coonoor.

President: Bishop J. W. Robinson, D.D., Delhi.

Treasurer: The Rev. W. B. Alexander, Jubbulpore.

INSTITUTION OF ENGINEERS (INDIA).—The organisation of the Institution commenced in 1919 and it was inaugurated by H. E. Lord Chelmsford early in 1921. Its object is to promote and advance the science, practice and business of engineering in India on the same lines as are adopted by the Institutions of Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineers in the United Kingdom. The standard of qualification is the same. Membership is divided into three classes, *viz.*, Members, Associate Members and Associates, and there is an additional class for students. *President*, C. D. M. Hindley; *Secretary*, F. Powell Williams. *Offices*.—26, Chowringhee, P. O. Box 669, Calcutta.

IADRAS FINE ARTS SOCIETY.—*Patron*.—H. E. the Rt. Hon. Viscount Goschen; *President*.—The Hon. Mr. Justice C. E. Odgers. *Secretary*.—F. G. Butler, I.C.S., High Court, Madras.

IADRAS LITERARY SOCIETY AND AUXILIARY OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.—*Secretary*, G. W. Bromhead, Esq., High Road, Nungambakam, Madras.

INTERNATIONAL HORSE BREEDING AND SHOW SOCIETY OF INDIA.—Formed in 1923. Objects: To form a national body of public opinion on horse-breeding matters; to encourage and promote horse breeding in India; to protect and promote the interests of horse breeders and to give them every encouragement; to improve and standardise the various types of horses bred in India; to prepare an Indian stud book; and to promote uniformity in all matters connected with horse shows in India. *President*.—Major-General W. B. James. *Secretary*: Major D. Vanrenen, Renala Estate, Dist. Montgomery (Punjab).

NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION.—Founded in 1870. Its objects are:—(a) To extend in England, knowledge of India, and interest in

the people of that country. (b) To co-operate with all efforts made for advancing Education and Social Reform in India. (c) To promote friendly intercourse between English people and the people of India. In all the proceedings of the Association the principle of non-interference in religion and avoidance of political controversy is strictly maintained. It has branches in Bombay, Madras, Ahmedabad, Nagpur, Calcutta, Rangpur, Poona & Lahore. *Hon. Secretary*, Miss Beck, 21, Cromwell Road, London. Publication, *The Indian Magazine and Review*, a monthly Journal which chronicles the doings of the Association in England and in India, and takes note of movements for educational and social progress. It publishes articles about the East to interest Western readers, and articles about the West to interest readers in the East.

LIFE MEMBERS.—Ten Guineas. Annual Subscriptions: Members one Guinea; County Members, Ten shillings; Associates Students, Seven shillings and Six pence.

PASSENGERS' AND TRAFFIC RELIEF ASSOCIATION. (Established in 1915); *Head Office*.—139, Meadows Street, Fort, Bombay. *Objects*:—(a) To inquire into and ascertain grievances with respect to passengers in India generally. (b) To petition Government, Local bodies, Railway, Steamers and other companies carrying passengers and traffic: to take all proper and necessary steps to obtain redress with regard to the said grievances. (c) To hold periodical meetings and discuss questions relating to grievances. (d) To start branch offices throughout India, and to affiliate societies and bodies having objects similar to this Association. (e) To start a fund to meet expenses for carrying out the objects of the Association. *Branches*.—(1) Karachi; (2) Ahmedabad; (3) Anand; (4) Dakore; (5) Petlad; (6) Umreth; (7) Adas; (8) Harda; (9) Mahuva; (10) Soljira; (11) Ranoli. *President*, Hon. Mr. Lalooobhai Samaldas, C.I.Z.; *Vice-Presidents*, Messrs. Laxmidas Raoji Talsey and Fazul Ibrahim Rahimtoolla; *Hon. Secretaries*, Mr. Jivraj Goudaldas Nensay and Khan Bahadur P. E. Ghamat.

PHILATELIC SOCIETY OF INDIA.—Formed March 1897; Annual subscription Rs. 15. *Secretary*, Jno. Godinho, 15, Burrow's Street, Bombay.

PHOTOGRAPHIC SOCIETY OF INDIA (Calcutta).—Annual subscription Rs. 24 (Town Members) and Rs. 12 (Mofussil members). Entrance fee Rs. 20 and Rs. 10. The Society distributes a monthly journal to members, and undertakes developing, printing and enlarging work from its members only. There are excellent work-rooms apparatus and reading rooms at the Society's Headquarters at 40, Chowringhee Road, Calcutta. *Hon. Secretary*, J. A. E. Evans, 40, Chowringhee Road, Calcutta.

POONA SEVA SADAN SOCIETY.—This Institution was started in 1909 by the late Mrs. Ramabai Ranade, Mr. G. K. Devadhar and a few other ladies and gentlemen in Poona and registered in 1917. It is now working independently, though for a part of the intervening period it was conducted as a branch of the Bom-

bay Seva Sadan. Its main object is to make women self-reliant and to train them for missionary work undertaking educational and medical activities for their sisters and brethren, especially the former in backward areas and working on a non-sectarian basis. The instruction is free except for the Music Classes and for Special Classes in English, etc. There are eight different departments sub-divided into 53 classes. Arrangements are made for training Nurses and Midwives and Sub-Assistant Surgeons at the Sassoon Hospital, Poona, and a hostel is maintained for the former and another for those attending the Sub-assistant Surgeon's Class. The number in these two hostels was 56 in August 1922. Besides there is a full-fledged Training College named after Bai Motilal Wadia with 135 students for being trained as Mistresses for Vernacular schools. This College is probably the only college in India maintained by a non-official, non-Christian missionary body teaching the full course. The results of the Certificate Examinations held last year under the authority of the local Government Training College for Women were as follows: I: 1 year 9, II year 11, and I year 21, thus working up the percentage to 60. The total number of certificates granted so far is 205. The Practising School for little girls attached to the Training College has now ten classes with 260 students reading up to the Marathi VI Standard, English being taught in the top three standards. Primary Classes for grown up women teaching up to the Marathi V Standard are attended by 175 women. It is here that poor women are recruited for the work of teacher, nurse, midwife, or doctor. Special classes for teaching English, First Aid, Home Nursing were attended by 72 students; the Music Classes by 152 students, and the Work-room Classes for teaching Sewing, Embroidery, Hosiery and Weaving by 180 students. Thus the total number of pupils is 1,031 to-day. There are two branches of the Society started at Satara and Baramati named after Lady Vitaldas Thakersey, the wife of the greatest helper of the Society so far, the late Sir Vitaldas D. Thakersey. Thus the total number of women and girls including 150 duplications on the rolls at these various Centres of the Society is nearly 1,095. There are four hostels, two of which are located at the headquarters and the other two in the Raste's Peth and the Somwar Peth for Nurses, etc., under training at the Sassoon Hospital. The number of resident students is above 190 in these four hostels. In connection with the medical branch a Committee has been formed in England, which will enable the Society to send fully qualified Nurses there to undergo further training. There is an active Infant Welfare centre and ante-natal clinics with the average daily attendance of 50 excluding expectant mothers. The Society is extending its medical activities by undertaking, with the help of two charitable Trusts in Bombay, to work out the scheme of Maternity, Infant Welfare, Child welfare and General nursing for the women and children of the Bhatia Community. Miss C. B. Pooviala, B.A., is Secretary of the Scheme, under Mr. G. K. Devadhar, the organiser of the scheme. Now Her

Excellency the Hon'ble Lady Lloyd is the Honorary Patroness along with Lady Willington, Lady Sydenham and Lady Chelmsford. The institution is largely dependent upon public contributions and Government assistance. The annual expenditure roughly comes up now to Rs. 85,000. *President:* Mrs. Ramabai Ranade; *Honorary Organiser and General Secretary:* Mr. Gopal Krishna Devadhar, M.A.; *Local Secretary and Treasurer:* Mrs. Yamunabai Bhat; *Lady Superintendent and Secretary for Development and Collections:* Mrs. Janakibai Bhat; *Hon. Secretary, Nursing Committee:* Rao Bahadur Dr. P. V. Shikhhare, L.M. & S. *Hon. Secretary, Infant Welfare Centre:* Dr. N. L. Ranade, B.A., M.B.B.S.

PRESS-OWNERS' ASSOCIATION, Bombay.—Started on 30th April 1919 to promote the interests of the printing and litho presses and allied trades, to bring about harmony and co-operation among press owners and proprietors and to take such steps as may be necessary in furtherance of the above objects.

Office:—Servants of India Society, Sandhurst Road, Bombay 4.

President:—Shet Pandurang Javjee.

Secretaries:—Mr. C. S. Deole, B.A. and Manilal C. Modi.

RANGOON LITERARY SOCIETY.—*President, H.E.* The Governor of Burma. *Hon. Secretary,* Mrs. C. Peacock, 17, York Road.

RECREATION CLUB INSTITUTE.—This Institution was started in 1912-13 by the members of the Ismaili Dharmic (religious) Library in Bombay. Its central office is in Bombay with branches at Ahmedabad, Ahmednagar, Karachi, Hyderabad (Sindh), Poona, Warangal, etc. The aims and objects of the society are to elevate and improve the social, economic and spiritual condition of the depressed and poor classes of people and with that intent to found primary schools, associations and such departments and to take all constructive means to achieve the above objects. The Institute has 2 orphanages with 150 inmates, industrial works, domestic industries, sales depots, Clubs, Libraries, etc. It also issues an Anglo-Vernacular paper "The Ismaili". The annual expenditure of the institute roughly comes to about Rs. 1 lac. *Hon. Secretary* Mr. Hasan Lalji Devraj.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS, INDIAN SECTION.—This Society was founded in London in 1754. Its recently published history by Sir Henry Trueman Wood, late Secretary of the Society, gives the following account of the Indian Section. In 1857, a proposition was made by Mr. Hyde Clarke, who wrote to the Council suggesting that "a special section be formed for India, another for Australia, one for English, America and so on." It was suggested that the Indian Section should meet once a fortnight for the reading of papers. Nothing came of the suggestion until ten years later when Mr. Hyde Clarke returned to England, and in 1868 he renewed his proposal, but only proposing the formation of a committee which should organise conferences on Indian subjects. This time the suggestion was

taken up more warmly. Mr. Hyde Clarke himself was placed on the Council, and the Indian Conferences, which soon developed into the Indian Section, were started. "The Indian Section thus established became a most important department of the Society. It has had great results in India by spreading information as to the directions which the development of Indian manufactures and Indian products could most usefully take, and in England by giving similar information as to the industrial resources and progress of India itself. The Section has received great help from the Indian press and it has in return been of service to the Indian press in supplying useful information to it. It has been of great value to the Society itself as the means by which many members have been added to its list, so that in fact, thanks to a very large extent to the work of the Indian Section and of the allied section for the Colonies, a large proportion of the present number of members come from the dependencies of the Empire abroad." *Secretary of the Society:* G. K. Menzies, M.A.; *Secretary of the Indian and Dominions and Colonies Sections:* S. Digby, C.I.E., 18, John Street, Adelphi, London, W. C. 2.

SERVANTS OF INDIA SOCIETY.—The Servants of India Society which was founded by the late Mr. Gopal Krishna Gokhale, C.I.E., in 1905, has its Head-quarters in Poona and its objects are "to train national missionaries for the service of India and to promote by all constitutional means the true interests of the Indian people." Its government is vested in the First member or President and a Council. On the death of Mr. Gokhale in February, 1915, the Right Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri was elected President. He has again been re-elected for a further term of three years. Besides the headquarters, it has at present four branches, viz., (1) in Bombay, (2) in Madras, (3) in the United Provinces, (4) in the Central Provinces. Moreover, it has several additional centres of its activities under the branches such as Calicut, Mangalore, Lucknow, Lahore and Cuttack in Orissa. Each Branch consists of ordinary members, members under training and permanent assistants who work under the direction of a Senior Member. The Rt. Hon. Sastri is an elected member of the Council of State and Mr. N. M. Joshi, a nominated member of the Legislative Assembly representing labour interests. The branches engage both in propagandist and active work of political, educational, social, agricultural and philanthropic character in which they secure the help of a large number of voluntary workers, both men and women. A fair idea of the work of a branch can be had from a brief description of the operations of the Bombay Branch whose members have so far undertaken activities in various fields. (1) Social purity like the Holika Sammelan of Bombay, (2) Social reform organization under the auspices of the National Social Conference, (3) rousing public opinion about elementary education, (4) promotion of the cause of elevation and education of Indian women by building up institutions like the Poona Seva Sadan, with 1,095 (including duplications

of about 150) women and girl pupils in nearly 53 classes of its 8 departments and four hostels in the city. Mr. G. K. Devadhar, M.A., is its Hon. Organiser and General Secretary. (5) Social Service as carried out by the Social Service League of Bombay of which Mr. N. M. Joshi, B.A., is the Honorary General Secretary, (6) spread of co-operative movement among the agriculturists, compositors in the city of Poona and mill-hands in Bombay. The co-operative societies, as at Hadapsar and other villages around Poona, started for the benefit of these poor people, number over 35 with a total membership of over 1,800, capital of nearly three lakhs and a total turn-over of five lakhs per year. Nineteen of these societies which are in Bombay for poor labouring classes are so conducted as to free their members entirely from their chronic indebtedness. Their membership consists of sweepers, scavengers, mill-hands numbering above 550 and debts amounting to nearly three lakhs of rupees have been cleared off. Moreover, educational work was organized by starting a Co-operative Quarterly and by starting a Co-operative Secretaries' Training Class in Bombay for 60 Secretaries from the various districts for three years. These are now transferred to the Central Co-operative Institute, Bombay, of which Mr. G. K. Devadhar is now the Vice-President. These three experiments on such a scale were the first of their kind in India, (7) relief work connected with wide-spread calamities by organizing the Plague Relief Committee of Poona, which succeeded in making inoculation popular in the Deccan, the Salunbra Fire Relief Committee which arranged for the Relief to sufferers for five years and by undertaking a scheme of non-official relief during the famines of 1907-08 and 1914 in the United Provinces, the famine in Gujarat and Kathiawar of 1911-12 and the famine of 1913 in the district of Ahmednagar, and that of 1918-1919 in Gujarat and the Deccan; and in 1920 in Orissa near Puri, (8) Influenza relief was well organized by members of these associations in Bombay and Poona. Since the outbreak of the Malabar Rebellion in August 1921 the members of the Society organised the work of relief which was administered with the help of outside organisations like the Poona Seva Sadan, the Y.M.C.A., etc., and in collecting funds from all over the country especially Bombay. Thus from all over the country substantial help to the extent of nearly Rs. 3,50,000 was collected. For the first six months about 19 camps with nearly 27,000 men, women and children of all castes and creeds were maintained very efficiently and during the later six months thousands of Hindu and Moplah families were supported in their villages in the disturbed and the destroyed parts of the district of Malabar. This work was closed in the beginning of October 1922. Mr. G. K. Devadhar as Vice-President of the Malabar Central Relief Committee directed the work on behalf of the Servants of India Society. In 1924 the Society organised the South Indian Flood Relief Central Fund in Bombay with a view to giving relief to the poor people, especially the Panchamas, who had suffered from

unprecedented floods in the districts of Malabar, Trichinopoly, Coimbatore, Tanjore, and the Indian States of Mysore, Travancore and Cochin. Mr. G. K. Devadhar is the Hon. General Secretary and Treasurer and Mr. C. S. Deole, one of the Hon. Secretaries of the Fund. The distribution of relief was carried on with the help of Y. M. C. A. workers in the different districts, (9) organizing public opinion on the question of Indians in South Africa, (10) its political work is conducted strictly on constitutional lines and thus it was able to start District Congress Committees in several wards of the city of Bombay. These conducted a political quarterly, (11) it started in Bombay an organisation called the Indian Economic Society with a view to promoting the study of Indian economics on right lines and also conducted a vernacular class. Mr. C. S. Deole, B.A., is one of the Hon. Secretaries. (12) A new association called the Indian Liberal Club has been started to carry on political propaganda. Besides, the society was engaged in conducting a scheme of welfare work to supply cheap grain, cheap cloth and cheap credit at Jamshedpur, which may be resumed again by the Branch getting it worked on behalf of one of its organisations. One of its Members has started a Gujarati ladies' organisation called the Bhagini Samaj for work among women in Gujarat and Kathiawar. Mr. A. V. Thakkar has started in the District of Panch Mahals in Gujarat a mission for the Bhils for the improvement of the Bhil population and it is called the *Bhil Seva Mandal*. The Society also takes active interest in the organisation of labour movement in India. Two of its Members, Messrs. N. N. Joshi and R. R. Bakhale are conducting a labour monthly, called the "All-India Trade Union Bulletin," which has been recognised as the official organ of the All-India Trade Union Congress. Quite recently the United Provinces Branch organised a band of volunteers who rendered assistance, in a manner that called forth general approbation, to the pilgrims at the Kumbha Mela in Hardwar and Allahabad, the ladies of the Poona Seva Sadan assisting in this work. The Society engages in journalistic work also, having in its control the *Hitavada*, an English weekly in Nagpur, and the *Dnyan Prakash*, a Marathi daily and weekly in Poona. The Society has been conducting, with Mr. Vaze as editor, an English weekly called *The Servant of India*. The U. P. Branch had in addition undertaken the publication of pamphlets on public questions and has sent out three such publications together with a large quantity of leaflets. This Branch has taken lead in organising the *Eoy Scout Movement* all over the province through the local Seva Samitis. The Madras Branch engages itself principally with co-operative organisation, publishing in three languages Co-operative Bulletin, Co-operative Industrial Societies and the Social Service League activities in the city of Madras. In 1924 it did the work of distributing relief to the refugees in the flooded areas of the Madras Presidency.

The expenses incurred by the Central Home of the Society in Poona and its four branches exceed Rs. 65,000 a year and this amount is made up by contributions from Indians, rich as well as poor. The present number of workers enlisted by the Society is about 30, most of whom are University men of considerable standing. Besides, there is a large number of devoted associates and other helpers—men as well as women—connected with the institutions started by the members of this Society.

President.—The Right Hon'ble Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, B.A., L.T., Royapetia, Madras, Senior Member, Madras Branch, Mr. Gopal Krishna Devdhar, M.A., Vice-President of the Society and the Senior Member, Bombay Branch, Mr. Natesh Appaji Dravid, M.A., Senior Member, Central Provinces Branch, Mr. Hirdayanath Kunzru, B.A., B.Sc., Senior Member, Upper India Branch, Mr. A. V. Patwardhan, B.A., Senior Member, Business Branch, Poona, Messrs. Joshi, Kunzru and Thakkar together with the senior members of Branches constitute the Council of the Society with the Hon'ble Mr. Sastri as its President. Mr. Anant Vinayak Patwardan is the Secretary of the Council and also of the Society. Six young men, nearly all graduates, who were admitted last year on probation, were this year enrolled as members under training. In 1923 and 1924, two members were admitted as members under training and one young man, an M.A., to probation.

SEVA SADAN.—The Seva Sadan Society was started on the 11th of July 1908, by the late Mr. B. M. Malabari. It is the pioneer Indian ladies' society for training Indian sisters ministrant and serving (through them) the poor, the sick and the distressed. The Society has a habitation in Gamdevi, Bombay. The Society maintains the following institutions for training its probationers and for doing its other work: 1. A home for the Homeless. 2. An Industrial Home with various departments. 3. A Dispensary for Women and Children. 4. Ashrams. 5. Free educational classes and a Library and Reading-room. 6. Home-Classes in the quarters of the poor, and normal classes for training Marathi women for the teacher's profession. All these are for the benefit of poor women. **Secretary**, Miss B. A. Engineer, M.B.E., M.A., LL.B., Hon. Gen. Secretary, The Hon. Mr. Lalubhai Samaldas, G.L.E. **Treasurers**, Sister Sushilabai and the Hon. Mr. Lalubhai Samaldas. **Trustees**, the Hon. Sir G. K. Parekh and the Hon. Mr. Lalubhai Samaldas, C.I.E.

CONSUMPTIVES' HOME SOCIETY.—This Society was started by the late Mr. B. M. Malabari and Mr. Dayaram Gidulmal on the 1st of June 1909. It was registered under Act XXI of 1860. Mr. Malabari secured a large grant of land in a Himalayan pine forest in Dharanpur (Simla Hills) from H. H. the Maharaja of Patiala, for a Sanatorium for Consumptives. His Highness also gave a donation of Rs. one lakh. In 1911 by special permission the Sanatorium was named "The King Edward VII Sanatorium."

The Sanatorium has its special water works known as the Lady Hardinge Water Works, presented by the late Sir Chinubhai Madhavai, Bart., of Ahmedabad. The Sanatorium has a Guest House: The Noshirwan Adul Guest House for visitors to Darampore. It has accommodation for 75 patients including the special Punjab Block built from a grant of the Punjab Government and reserved for European patients. Most of the blocks and cottages are built by Parsis. The Sanatorium has its own dairy and is called the Bai Pirojbai R. H. Patrick Dairy. The Recreation Hall is called "The Sir Bhupinder Singh Recreation Hall" after the name of the Maharaja of Patiala. Mr. Malabari collected an Endowment Fund of about Rs. 67,000 lodged with the Treasurer, Charitable Endowments, under Act VI of 1890. Nearly Rs. 2,15,000 have been spent on laying out the sites, buildings, etc., and the current annual expenditure is about Rs. 42,000. The Senior and Junior Medical Officers are in charge of the Sanatorium. The Office of this Society is situated at the Seva Sadan Buildings, Gamdevi, Bombay. Mr. S. P. Wadia is the Hon. Secretary and Sir G. K. Parekh is the Hon. Treasurer.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF NATIONAL EDUCATION.—This Society stands for an Indian education for Indian boys and girls, its general policy being embodied in "Principles of Education" by Dr. Annie Besant. **Treasurer and Registrar.**—D. K. Telang, Adyar, Madras.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDREN IN WESTERN INDIA.—Office and Homes at King's Circle, Matunga.

Founded.—To prevent the public and private wrongs of children and the corruption of their morals; to take action for the enforcement of the laws for their protection, and, if necessary, to suggest new laws or amendments of the existing laws; to provide and maintain an organisation for these objects; and to do all other lawful things incidental or conducive to the attainment of the foregoing objects. Subscription for annual membership, Rs. 10; for Life Membership, Rs. 100.

Honorary Secretaries: Dr. Mrs. D. A. De Monte, Mrs. D. N. Sirur, Mr. R. P. Masani, M.A., and Khan Sahib H. S. Katrak.

WESTERN INDIA NATIONAL LIBERAL ASSOCIATION.—(Founded in 1919).—The Association was formed, in pursuance of clause (b) of Resolution XI of the First Session of the All-India Conference of the Moderate Party, with a view—to do sustained work for the political progress and the moral and material welfare of the people; to give expression from time to time to the considered opinion of the Party on matters of public interest; and to inform and educate public opinion in this presidency in support of its views, policy and methods.

The Association accepts Article I of the Constitution of the Indian National Congress Organisation as it stood in 1919 and will work for the fulfilment of the declaration made by His Majesty's Government on the

20th August 1917, in accordance with the principles embodied therein. For the promotion of its aims and objects the Association shall pursue the following principles, policy and methods:—(a) Law-abiding and constitutional methods of agitation or work; (b) Co-operation with Government, whenever possible and Constitutional opposition to it, whenever necessary; and (c) Fostering a spirit of broadminded liberalism based on principles of liberty, equality and fraternity, among the different classes and communities of the people.

The affairs of the Association are conducted by a Council consisting of 46 Members who are elected every three years.

President.—The Hon'ble Sir D. E. Wacha, Kt., C.S. **Vice-President.**—Sir Chimanlal H. Setalvad, Kt., LL.D., M.L.A. **Hon. Secretaries.**—Mr. Kazi Kabiruddin, Bar-at-Law; Mr. J. R. B. Jeejeebhoy; Mr. J. R. Gharpure, B.A., LL.B. and Mr. N. M. Joshi, B.A., M.L.A. **Assistant Secretary.**—Mr. V. R. Bhende.

WOMEN'S INDIAN ASSOCIATION.—This Association was started in Adyar, Madras, in 1917, with aims of service to women similar to those of the Seva Sadan in Bombay. In seven years it has been able to start branches in 51 different towns and it has now 2,700 members. It establishes classes, meeting places, and regular lecture programmes for women in each of these branches. Each branch is autonomous and works according to the need of the locality. Classes are held to teach the vernaculars, English, needle-work—plain and fancy—first-aid, ratten-work and music. Weekly lectures are given on subjects of general interest relating to women, such as health, education, religion, civic responsibilities, woman suffrage, etc. Though started entirely as an educational institution, the movement for the Reform Bill proved that a most necessary part of work for the advancement of women was propaganda in support of woman suffrage. Accordingly the gaining of the vote for women was added to the objects of the Association and the Association specialises on woman suffrage and the removal of sex disqualification from all franchises and candidatures for local boards, municipal and legislative councils. Valuable work along these lines has been done by the Association as this is the only woman suffrage organisation in India. The Association publishes a monthly magazine, *Sri-Dharma* in English with Tamil and Telugu editions. (Rs. 4 to non-members, Rs. 2 to members). It is an all-India Association. Its largest branch is in Bombay, its greatest number of branches in South India, but yearly additional branches are being started in other provinces, and there are flourishing branches as far north as Gwalior and Lashkar. The prospects of rapid growth for the Association are very bright as it has been found that women everywhere welcome the self-development which the establishment of these branches brings.

Objects.—

To present to women their responsibility as daughters of India.

To help them to realise that the future of India lies largely in their hands, for as wives and mothers they have the task of training and guiding and forming the character of the future rulers of India.

To secure for women the vote for Municipal and Legislative Councils as it is or may be granted to men.

To secure for women the right to be elected as members on all Municipal and Legislative Councils.

To band women into groups for the purpose of self-development, education, and the definite service of others.

Headquarters: Adyar, Madras. **President**—Dr. Annie Besant. **Vice-President**—Mrs. Jinarajadasa. **Joint Hon. General Secretary**—Mrs. M. E. Cousins, B. Mus. J.P. **Hon. Treasurer**—Mrs. Mahadeva Shastri.

YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.—This Association, which was founded by the late Sir George Williams on June 6, 1844, seeks to unite those young men who, regarding Jesus Christ as their God and Saviour according to the Holy Scriptures, desire to be His disciples, in their doctrine and in their life, and to associate their efforts for the extension of His kingdom among young men. The above is known as the "Paris Basis" and it is world-wide. It was adopted at the first World's Convention in Paris in 1855 and re-affirmed at the Jubilee World's Convention in Paris in 1905. The Triennial National Convention of Y. M. C. A.'s of India, Burma and Ceylon adopted this in November 1920. The aim of the Association is through its religious, social, educational, and physical work to answer the fourfold—spiritual, social, mental and physical—needs of young men, and its policy is one of intense loyalty to the Church.

There are, as a rule, two classes of members. Any young man who subscribes personally to the "Paris Basis" may be an active or voting member and any young man of good character may be an associate.

The Young Men's Christian Association, though relatively new to India, is spreading rapidly. The local Associations are autonomous and governed by local Boards of Directors. These Associations in convention elect a National Council of European and Indian laymen, who are responsible for the supervision and expansion of all forms of the Association work. Both the National Council and the local Associations employ specially trained full-time Secretaries. Sixty-nine out of 130 Secretaries are Indians and are supported from funds raised in India, Burma and Ceylon. The remaining Secretaries are supported by the Associations of North America, Australasia, and Great Britain, but their work is directed by committees in India, to whom their services are loaned. The first paid Secretary came to India over thirty years ago, in response to an appeal from Madras. Soon afterwards the National Council was organised, and has become increasingly an indigenous institution.

There are now approximately 250 Associations with 12,000 members. Of these about one-eighth are Europeans and seven-eighths are Indians, of whom over two-thirds are non-Christians. The following Associations own one or more buildings which serve as the local headquarters:—Allahabad, 3; Bangalore, 3; Alleppey, 1; Bombay, 4; Calcutta, 6; Calicut, 2; Coimbatore, 1; Colombo, 1; Galle, 1; Hyderabad, 2; Jubbulpore, 2; Kandy, 1; Karachi, 2; Kunnankulam, 1; Kottayam, 1; Lahore, 2; Madras, 4; Maymyo, 1; Nagpur, 2; Naini Tal, 1; Palamcottah, 1; Poona, 2; Rangoon, 4; Secunderabad, 1; Simla, 1; Ootacamund, 1; Wellington, 1; Delhi, 1; Jaifna, 1; Madras, 1; Murree, 3; Midnapore, 1; Poona, 2; Risalpur, 1.

In addition to buildings owned by the Association, bungalows have been rented to serve as headquarters in the following stations:—Colombo, 4; Hyderabad, 1; Jubbulpore, 1; Madras, 1; Poona, 1; Rangoon, 1; Matala, 1; Maymyo, 1; Nowshera, 1.

The Association also has rent-free quarters in stations as follows:—

Bombay, 1; Delhi, 2; Karachi, 1; Lahore, 1; Madras, 1; Nowshera, 1; Secunderabad, 2; Trichinopoly, 2; Trivandrum, 1.

The departments of the National Council are Student, Rural, Literary, Architectural, Publication, Physical, British Army, Revenue Publicity, Lecture, Business, Religious Work. The Rural Department is organising village Y.M.C.A.'s and co-operative credit societies and promoting cottage industries in over 50 centres. The Literary Department of which Dr. J. N. Farquhar has been Senior Secretary, endeavours to promote a proper and sympathetic understanding of the non-Christian religions and show their relationship to Christianity. At the beginning of the war there were but three Army Associations and five Army Secretaries in the whole of India. In 1923 Association privileges were provided for British Troops in 37 cantonments under the direction of Secretaries. In addition to organising school boys' Y. M. C. A.'s the High School Department arranges for holiday camps for boys and High School teachers. The National Council employs its own architects who plan and construct its buildings, hostels, and playgrounds. The Physical Department specialises on physical education and is promoting the playground movement.

The "Association Press" is the Publication Department. A monthly magazine, the **YOUNG MEN OF INDIA**, is issued, and many books and pamphlets, both on Association subjects and on those of more general interest. Some of the latter, e.g., the *Heritage of India Series*, have been issued in conjunction with the Oxford Press.

The Headquarters of the National Council is 5, Russell Street, Calcutta. The officers are:—**Patron**—His Excellency Lord Reading, Viceroy and Governor-General of India. **Chairman of Executive**—The Hon'ble Sir Ewart Greaves, Bar-at-Law. **Treasurer**—Sir Willoughby Carey, M.L.C. **General Secretaries**—K. T. Paul and S. K. Datta.

The Bombay Association now possesses four well-equipped buildings:—Wodehouse Road, Lamington Road, Rebsch Street, and Reynolds Road. The President is the Hon'ble Sir Norman Macleod, and the General Secretary is Mr. H. W. Bryant, M.B.E. In connection with each building there is a well managed hostel, one for Anglo-Indian apprentices, one for Indian students, one primarily for European business men, and one for Indians. The Elton Hockey Tournament and the Condon Tennis Tournament are held annually under the auspices of the Bombay Association.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION OF INDIA, BURMA AND CEYLON.—This Association founded in the year 1875 was organised nationally in 1896. The aim of the Association is to promote the physical, intellectual, social and spiritual welfare of young women and girls in India, European, Anglo-Indian and Indian. This is done by the establishment of local branches in different centres. At present they number 154 including city student, and vernacular branches. The Associations in big cities have a large membership including all classes of the community. The needs of girls are met by physical drill, recreation, clubs and classes, lectures, commercial classes, Bible Study and devotional meetings, and meetings for social intercourse. Boarding Homes, some of them holding as many as 70 girls, are established where there is a demand for them and the Association, at present, owns 29 including 8 holiday homes in the hills. These hostels accommodate working girls, teachers, nurses, students and apprentices. Residents are charged according to their salaries, though all equally receive the benefits of a comfortable home, good food and wholesome surroundings. The holiday homes provide cheap holidays in healthy surroundings and also accommodate girls who work in the hills during the hot season.

Travellers' aid work is done in the large ports, especially Colombo, and a large number of transient guests and visitors are accommodated in the Homes in these centres. The Association also runs employment bureaux through the agency of which many girls find positions. The Commercial schools train girls for office and business life. These larger Associations are manned by a staff of trained secretaries, some of whom come from Great Britain, America, Australia, New Zealand and Canada. The others are found and trained in India. In many of the smaller branches where the work is of a simpler nature, it is carried on by voluntary workers who render faithful service year by year. The majority of the Indian branches are also carried on in this way. The Student Department is affiliated to the World's Student Christian Federation and has 43 branches in the various Schools and Colleges.

The Association, which is affiliated to the World's Committee of the Young Women's Christian Association, is international and inter-denominational. Full membership is confined to members of the Christian Church, but Associate membership is open to any girl or woman of good character, no matter what her religion may be. The National Headquarters are situated in Calcutta and business is conducted by the National Committee which has a representative membership in all parts of India, also in Burma and Ceylon.

The Patroness of the Association is H. E. Lady Reading.

Copies of the annual reports and other printed matter can be obtained from the National Office which is at 5, Russell Street, Calcutta. The Official Organ of the Association is the "Woman's Outlook in India," an illustrated monthly magazine, which supplies women living in India with a good review at the price of Rs. 2-0-0 post free per annum.

ASSOCIATION OF BRITISH UNIVERSITY WOMEN IN INDIA.

The Association of British University Women in India was established in 1913. Its objects are:—

(1) To facilitate intercommunication and co-operation between women belonging to the universities of the United Kingdom, resident in India.

(2) To provide a means of keeping in touch with the universities of the United Kingdom, by communication with the Federation of University Women, and otherwise as may seem expedient.

(3) To act as an organisation which shall afford opportunity for the expression of united opinion and for concerted action by university women on matters especially affecting them.

Membership is open only to those women who hold degrees in any university in the United Kingdom, or hold Oxford or Cambridge Honours Certificates; but Associate Membership is open to women who have studied at a British University for two years and each

Branch may admit as Honorary Members, women who have advanced the higher education and interests of women.

The Association of British University Women has four branches. The addresses of the Honorary Secretaries are as follows:—

Hon. General Secretary:—Miss M. W. Jesson, Lady Hardinge College, Delhi.

Hon. Local Secretaries.

Bombay .. Mrs. E. F. Hingeley, Pratt's Buildings, Hughes Road.

Calcutta .. Miss Alton c/o Messrs. Leslie and Hinds, Solicitors, 6, Hastings St., Calcutta.

Delhi and Punjab.. Miss Harrison, Queen Mary's College, Lahore.

United Provinces.. Mrs. Daniels, Tehri Kothi, Lucknow.

The Delhi Branch came into existence in 1918. The United Provinces Branch is somewhat scattered. The Calcutta and Bombay Branches are influential, and have repeatedly intervened with good effect to educate public opinion with regard to subjects affecting women. They have, for instance, made investigations on behalf of the Education Department, Government of India, the Calcutta University Commission, etc. They have been the means of introducing women on to University Senates and Municipalities. The Calcutta Branch carried through an important exhibition of Food Products with the double object of discovering:—

(1) What were the exact resources of the country.

(2) How firms and individuals could be induced to develop these resources, to find substitutes for imported goods and to improve existing methods of preparation of indigenous food products. The Bombay Branch has done good work in connection with the formation of the Social Purity Committee and has through a special sub-committee, organised public meeting for women on subjects affecting their interests about which legislation was being or had been recently enacted.

Valuable part of the work of the Association has been the establishment of **Women's Employment Bureaux** in Calcutta and Bombay. The work of mobilising women has been difficult in every country, not for want of goodwill on women's part but for want of machinery and organisation. The Association of University Women realised that, as the only body of educated Englishwomen in this country, it was called upon to provide the necessary organisation. Bureaux were formed and were the means of (1) helping many employers to get into touch with the available reserve of women labour; (2) showing trained women where their services were most needed and (3) training inexperienced workers who had nothing but their goodwill to offer. The Bureaux have been remarkably successful. The Bombay Bureaux was eventually merged into the employment Bureaux established by the Women's Council.

As a means of promoting friendships between women from various parts of the United Kingdom, with widely differing tastes and interests and spheres of life in India, and as an instrument for affording opportunities for usefulness to educated women, the Association of University Women has a useful function to perform.

Federation of Indian University Women.

The Federation of Indian University Women was founded in Calcutta in July 1920. The effort was an outcome of the discovery that to find a common factor and co-operate

upon that basis, was our best chance of achievement in a world which needed the work of women. The women of Great Britain made this discovery during the war when the British Universities Mission to America helped solve a large political problem, and the International Federation of University Women has embodied the memory of that discovery in a Federation which aimed at including all the Universities of the world. It is in fact a League of Nations, in which the University is the unit. Most of the countries of Europe, America, Canada, China and Japan belong to this International Body. The Federation of Indian University Women the Indian unit.

In the International Federation there are opportunities for better understanding and world-friendship, for admittance to the privileges of the International Federation, plans for the foundation of scholarships, for the care of students going to foreign countries, for the exchange of Lecturerships, and other privileges and in short the benefit of all attempts made to better the position of women.

The aims and object of the Indian Federation are (1) To act as an organisation which shall afford opportunity for the expression of united opinion and for concerted action by University Women. (2) To facilitate intercourse and co-operation between University Women and maintain their interest in, and connection with, academic life. (3) To encourage post-graduate study, and to stimulate the interest of women in public life. The annual subscription is Rs. 2.

Membership is open to graduates of Indian Universities only: but a limited number (five in Calcutta) of women of other Universities may be admitted as Associate Members. During the one year of its existence, the Indian Federation has collected over 200 members, and has Branches in Bombay, Calcutta and Orissa. Other Branches are in process of formation.

The aim of the Federation is to have Branches eventually in all Indian University Towns—Members in Districts belonging to the nearest branch.

OFFICE-BEARERS FOR 1921-22.

Bombay—President.. Miss J. E. Mistri, L.M. & S.

Secretary .. Mrs. G. B. Doctor,
Coover Mansions,
Harvey Road,
Grant Road P.O.

Calcutta—President .. Mrs. P. Chaudhuri.

Secretary .. Miss Chatterjee, 2, Wood
Street, Calcutta.

Orissa—Secretary .. Miss C. Roy, Ravenshaw
Girls' School, Cuttack.

PRINCIPAL CLUBS IN INDIA.

Name of Club.	Estd. lished	Club-house.	Subscription.			Secretary.
			Ent.	An- nual	Mon- thly.	
ABBOTTABAD	..	Abbottabad, N. W. F. Provinces.	18	..	10	Lt. A. G. Mayhew.
ADYAR	1890	Madras	75	12	6	E. B. Rose.
AGRA	1863	Agra Cantonment ..	75	..	12	Capt. A. Catling.
AHMEDNAGAR	1889		50	..	11	F. W. Allison, I.C.S.
AIJAL	1893	Lushal Hills, E. B. & Assam.	30	..	20	William H. Tilbury.
AJMERE	1883	Kaiser Bagh	100	..	15	Lt. P. W. Grant.
AKOLA	1870	Berar	100	..	13	Lt. G. H. Lee, M.C.
ALLAHABAD	1868	Allahabad	100	10	12	A. G. Phillips, I.P.S.
AMRAOTI	..	Amritsar	100	6	13	W. A. Forbes.
AMRITSAR	1894		20	..	7	A. C. Leale.
BANGALORE, UNITED SERVICE.	1868	38, Residency Road ..	100	12	13	St. John L. Oliver.
BAREILLY	1883	Municipal Gardens ..	50	..	9	Lt.-Col. J. S. M. Harcourt.
BARISAL	1864	Backergunj, Barisal ..	32	..	13	M. B. Horn.
BARRACKPUR	1850	Grand Trunk Road, S. Riverside.	100	..	15	H. P. Scott.
BASSEIN	1881	Fryche Street, Bassein, Burma.	50	..	11	Capt. A. J. Hemmons.
BELGAUM	1884	Close to Race Course ..	50	..	13	Lt.-Col. L. V. Bond.
BENARES	..		20	..	16	D. Pidditch.
BENGAL	1827	33, Chowringhee Road, Calcutta.	500	25	16	Col. W. Weallens.
BENGAL UNITED SERVICE.	1845	29, Chowringhee Road.	150	20	14	T. S. Sterling.
BOMBAY	1862	Esplanade Road ..	300	12	8	W. F. Murdoch.
BOMBAY GYMKHANA ..	..		75	12	9	P. E. Grant and J. Barclay.
BYCULLA	1833	Bellasis Road, Bombay	350	24	10	Major B. Higham, I.M.S.
CALCUTTA	1907	241, Lower Circular Road.	200	120	10	B. N. Sircar and C. F. Newman.
CAWNPORE	1844	Cawnpore	100	..	10	H. A. O'Connor.
CHAMBA	1891	Dalhousie, Punjab ..	15	..	7	W. L. Stevenson.
CHITTAGONG	1878	Pioneer Hill, Chittagong.	75	12	10	W. P. Shepherd-Barron.
CLUB OF CENTRAL INDIA.	1885	Mhow	60	..	20	Capt. R. G. Sanlez.
CLUB OF WESTERN INDIA.	1865	Elphinstone Road, Poona.	200	12	10	Capt. H. A. Bleach.
COCHIN	1876		100	18	10	O. Grob.
COCONADA	1856	Coconada	70	..	10	F. N. Ryalls.
COIMBATORE	1868	Coimbatore	50	9	10	W. G. Molesworth
COONOR	1894	Coonor, Nilgiris ..	100	12	8	G. W. Caine.
DACCA	1864	Dacca	50	..	18	J. A. Stein.
DARJEELING	1868	Auckland Road ..	100	12	7½	A. A. Price.
DELHI	1898	Ludlow Castle, Delhi.	120	15	15	F. C. A. Thompson.

Name of Club.	Estab-lished.	Club-house.	Subscription.			Secretary.
			Ent.	An-nual	Mon-thly.	
JHANSI	1887	Next to Public Gar-dens, Jhansi.	75	..	12	J. Mackinnon Gould-ing.
MADRAS	1831	Mount Road, Maïras..	250	20	10	Capt. W. B. F. David-son.
MADRAS COSMOPOLI-TAN.	1873	Mount Road	150	60	..	Dr. N. Venkataswami Chetty.
MALABAR	1864	Beach Road, Calicut..	100	6	10	P. J. L. Cole.
MAYMYO	1901		100	12	10	Lt.-Col. R. Money.
MOOLTAN	1892	Mooltan	50	..	14	Major H. V. Reynolds, I.A.
NAINITAL	1864		150	12	10	Lt.-Col. J. de Gray, O.B.E., F.R.G.S. (Grey.)
OOTACAMUND ..	1840	Ootacamund, Nilgiri Hills.	150	18	10	Lt.-Col. J. P. Benu.
ORIENT	..	Chowpaty, Bombay..	150	72	6	Vasantao Anandras Dabholkar, O. B. E. and F. E. Sharp.
PEGU	1871	Prome Road, Rangoon	300	20	12	J. Mackinnon Gould-ing.
PESHAWAR .. .	1883	Peshawar	50	..	10	Major E. E. Hills.
PUNJAB	1879	Upper Mall, Lahore ..	150	15	12	A. R. Ross-Redding.
QUETTA	1879	Quetta.. ..	120	..	18	Major B. Leicester.
RANGOON GYMKHANA.	1874	Halpin Rd., Rangoon.	75	6	7	Capt. C. L. Foreman.
RANGOON BOAT CLUB..	..	Royal Lakes, Rangoon	48	..	3	C. M. W. de Facleu.
RAJPUTANA .. .	1880	Mount Abu	50	..	8	R. E. Coupland.
ROYAL BOMBAY YACHT CLUB.	1880	Apollo Bunder	350	18	10	Capt. F. E. Henderson.
ROYAL CALCUTTA TURF CLUB.	1861	49, Theatre Road ..	500	25	..	Capt. A. Howard.
ROYAL WESTERN INDIA GOLF CLUB.	..	Nasik	75	15	12	F. J. Moss.
SATURDAY	..	7, Wood Street, Cal-cutta.	200	12	12	R. E. Bradley.
SECUNDERABAD ..	1883	Secunderabad (Deccan)	100	..	8	Lt.-Col. W. C. Clark, D.S.O.
SHILLONG	1878	Northbrook Road, Shillong.	100	..	20	Major A. L. M. Mol-worth.
SIALKOT	..	Sialkot, Punjab ..	32	..	19	Captain G. Rich, I. A.
SIND	1871	Karachi	300	12	13	E. G. H. Mewburn.
TRICHINOPOLY ..	1869	Cantonment	90	12	12	Capt. R. H. Wigfall.
TUTICORIN	1885	Tuticorin	50	6	13	W. J. Francis.
UNITED SERVICE CLUB.	1866	Simla	200	12	15	Major L. B. Grant.
UNITED SERVICE CLUB, LUCKNOW.	1861	Chutter Manzil Palace.	100	..	12	D. H. Keelan.
UPPER BURMA ..	1889	Fort Dufferin, Man-dalay.	50	12	10	Capt. I. B. Hughes Rowlands.
WESTERN INDIA TURF.	..	Bombay and Poona ..	50	15	..	Major J. E. Hughes.
WILLINGDON SPORTS	1917	Clerk Road, Bombay..	500	120	..	W. Botterill.
WHEELER	1863	The Mall, Meerut ..	75	..	10	Capt. Colin West.

The Church.

In the ordinary acceptance of the term there is no established Church in India. An Ecclesiastical Establishment is maintained for providing religious ministrations, primarily, to British troops, secondarily to the European civil officials of Government and their families. Seven out of the eleven **Anglican Bishops** in India are officers of the Establishment, though their episcopal jurisdiction far transcends the limits of the Ecclesiastical Establishment. The stipends of the three Presidency Bishops are paid entirely by Government, and they hold an official status which is clearly defined. The Bishops of Lahore, Lucknow, Nagpur and Rangoon draw from Government the stipends of Senior Chaplains only but their episcopal rank and territorial titles are officially recognised. The Bishops of Chota Nagpur, Tinnevely-Madura, Travancore-Cochin, Dornakal and Assam are not on the establish-ment. The new Bishopric of Assam was created in 1915. In its relations with Government it is subordinate to the see of Calcutta. But the maintenance of the Bishopric is met entirely from voluntary funds.

The ecclesiastical establishment includes four denominations—Anglican, Scottish, Roman and Wesleyan. Of these, the first two enjoy a distinctive position, in that the Chaplains of those denominations (and in the case of the first-named the Bishops) are individually appointed by the Secretary of State and rank as gazetted officers of Government. Throughout the Indian Empire there are 134 Anglican and 18 Church of Scotland chaplains whose appointments have been confirmed. The Roman Catholics and Wesleyans receive block-grants from Government for the provision of clergy to minister to troops and others belonging to their respective denominations. The Wesleyan Methodist Church has a staff of military chaplains in India who receive a fixed salary from Government and 25 chaplains working on a capitation basis of payment by Government. Churches of all four denominations may be built, furnished and repaired, wholly or partly at Government expense.

In the Anglican Communion a movement towards "disestablishment" has recently taken definite shape. The *Indian Church Measure* adopted by the Provincial Council of the Church of England in India and Ceylon in February 1922 aims at the severance of all legal ties between the Indian Church and the Church of England. The fate of this Measure is at present uncertain. The Government of India may not accept its proposals in their entirety. But assuming that the Government of India accept the principle of the Measure it will have to pass the National Assembly of the Church of England and be presented by that body to Parliament. The object of the Measure is thus stated by the Bishop of Nagpur:—

"It is simply to sever every legal connection which at present exists between the Church of England in India on the one hand and the Government of India, together with the Secretary of State for India, as well as the Church of England in England. If passed, it will make our Church in India as independent of the Home

Church and of the Governing body of this country as are our sister Churches in the Colonies. We shall then have power to select our own Bishops, to create new Dioceses, to frame new rules and regulations for the Church suitable for India, as well as to give it freedom to adopt its own expressions of faith, worship, rites and ceremonies. Our Synods and Councils will then be not merely Synods and Councils in name but actually ruling bodies whose resolutions would form laws of the Church which every loyal member of the Church would feel bound to obey."

In effect it will confer upon the Indian Church not only the privilege of appointing its own Bishops but the responsibility of paying their stipends. This aspect of the matter causes disquietude in certain quarters. On the other hand the fact that Government is already taking steps to reduce the personnel of the Ecclesiastical Establishment is regarded as a strong argument in favour of the Church claiming full freedom of self-government now.

So far as the European and Anglo-Indian communities are concerned the activities of the Church are not confined to public worship and pastoral functions. The education of the children of those communities is very largely in the hands of the Christian denominations. There are a few institutions such as the La Martiniere Schools, on a non-denominational basis; but they are exceptional. In all the large centres there exist schools of various grades as well as orphanages, for the education of Europeans and Anglo-Indians under the control of various Christian bodies. The Roman Catholic Church is honourably distinguished by much activity and financial generosity in this respect. Her schools are to be found throughout the length and breadth of the Indian Empire; and they maintain a high standard of efficiency. The Anglican Church comes next, and the American Methodists have established some excellent schools in the larger hill-stations. The Presbyterians are also well represented in this field, particularly by the admirable institution for destitute children at Kalimpong, near Darjeeling. Schools of all denominations receive liberal grants-in-aid from Government, and are regularly inspected by the Education Departments of the various provinces. Thanks to the free operation of the denominational principle and its frank recognition by Government, there is no "religious difficulty" in the schools of the European and Anglo-Indian communities.

Christian Missions.

The tradition that St. Thomas, the Apostle, was the first Christian missionary in India is by no means improbable. History, however, carries us no further back than the sixth century, when a community of Christians is known to have existed in Malabar. Since then the so-called **Syrian Church** in south-west India has had a continuous life. Except in its infancy this Church (or rather these Churches for the Syrian Christians are now divided into four communions) has displayed little of the missionary spirit until quite recent times.

Western Christianity was first introduced into India by the Portuguese, who established their hierarchy throughout their sphere of influence, Goa being the metropolitan see of the Indies. St. Francis Xavier, a Spaniard by race, took full advantage of the Portuguese power in Western India to carry on his Christian propaganda. His almost super-human zeal was rewarded with much success, but many of the fruits of his labour were lost with the shrinkage of the Portuguese Empire. It is really to the work of the missionaries of the Propaganda in the 17th century that the Papacy owes its large and powerful following in India to-day. The Roman Catholics in India number 1,823,000, of whom 332,000 were added during the decade 1911-1921. The total of "Syrian" Christians (exclusive of those who while using the Syrian liturgy, are of the Roman obedience) is 315,000, as against 367,000 in 1901. Protestant Christians (the term throughout this article includes Anglicans) number 2,930,000, an increase of 547,000 since 1911. Thus, the total number of Christians of all denominations in India is now close on five millions. In fact it probably exceeds that figure at the present moment, as these statistics are taken from the Census Report of 1911, and the rate of increase during the previous decade was nearly 100,000 per annum.

The Protestant Churches made no serious attempt to evangelise India till 1813. They have thus been at work in the Indian mission field for over 110 years, and the statistical results of their efforts are given above. It is now, however, generally recognised that Christian missions are producing indirect effects in India which lend themselves only incompletely to any sort of tabulation. The main agency of this more diffusive influence of Christianity is the missionary school and college. The Protestant missions fill a considerable part in the elementary education of the country. According to the 1923 Report of the National Christian Council for India they are teaching 420,255 children in 12,699 elementary schools, mostly situated in villages. The majority (243,895) of children in these schools are non-Christians. The same is true also of the secondary schools and in a still greater degree of the colleges. The former number 523 with 70,254 male and 25,303 female pupils. There are 40 colleges affiliated to Universities, containing 20,062 male and 1,309 female students. Of these as many as 14,148 are non-Christians. From the standpoint of missionary policy much importance is attached to these agencies for the indirect propagation of the Christian faith. The statesman and the publicist are chiefly interested in the excellent moral effect produced by these institutions amongst the educated classes, and the higher educational ideals maintained by their staffs. The principal University colleges under Protestant auspices are the Madras Christian College; the Duff College, Calcutta; the Wilson College, Bombay; the Forman College, Lahore and three women's colleges—the Women's Christian College at Madras, the Isabella Thoburn College at Lucknow, and the Women's Christian Medical College at Ludhiana. The Roman Catholics have a large number of educational institutions, ranging

from small village schools to great colleges preparing students for University degrees. But the proportion of Christian students in their institutions is very much larger than in those of the Protestant bodies. The proportion of literates amongst native Roman Catholics is probably lower than amongst the Protestant converts; but compared with Hindus and Mahomedans it is conspicuously higher. The Roman Catholics have some 3,000 elementary schools in which 98,000 boys and 41,000 girls are receiving instruction. In middle and high schools they have 143,000 boys and 73,000 girls and in University colleges about 5,000 students of both sexes. These figures, however, include a large proportion of Europeans and Eurasians, who are an almost negligible quantity in Protestant mission schools and colleges.

More recent, but producing even more widespread results, is the philanthropic work of Christian missions. Before the great famine of 1878, missionaries confined themselves almost exclusively to evangelistic and educational activity. The famine threw crowds of destitute people and orphan children upon their hands. Orphanages and industrial schools became an urgent necessity. But the philanthropic spirit is never satisfied with one kind of organisation or method. A great stimulus was also given to medical missions. Hospitals and dispensaries have sprung up in all parts of the mission field; and leper asylums are almost a monopoly of Christian missionary effort. In 1911 the total number of medical missionaries working under Protestant societies in India was 118 men and 217 women, the majority of the former being also ordained ministers of religion. There are 184 industrial institutions in which 59 different arts and crafts are taught, ranging from agriculture to type-writing. In this department the Salvation Army hold a prominent place; and the confidence of Government in their methods has been shown by their being officially entrusted with the difficult work of winning over certain criminal tribes to a life of industry. The indirect effect of all this philanthropic activity under missionary auspices has been most marked. It has awakened the social conscience of the non-Christian public, and such movements as "The Servants of India" and the mission to the Depressed Classes are merely the outward and visible sign of a great stirring of the philanthropic spirit far beyond the sphere of Christian missionary operations.

Reunion.—For very many years Indian Christians have shown that they felt much more acutely than Europeans the scandal and disadvantage of the divisions of Christendom. These divisions are due to a very much greater extent than is always recognised to political causes, and in the political conflicts of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when they became crystallised, India had no part. Even those differences amongst Christians which have a purely religious origin and foundation seem to be of very little account to Indian converts. For them the great dividing line is that between Christ and Mahomed or Shiva and Vishnu. Standing before a background of paganism they are conscious of a real

fundamental unity in Christ. Compared with the greatness of the gulf which separates Christian from non-Christian, the differences of "confession" and "order" which separate Christians from Christians seem to be wholly artificial and negligible. In consequence the reunion movement, which is noticeable all over the world, is nowhere so strong as in India. In South India it has already resulted in the formation of the South India United Church, which is a group of five of the principal Protestant communities, and as these bodies are in communion individually with all, or almost all, the other Protestant bodies at work in India the Union may be regarded as a Pan-Protestant Union. The S.I.U.C. is at present negotiating with the Anglican Church. If successful the result will amount to a union of all the Christian bodies in South India, except all the Roman Catholics. This will mean that a Lambeth encyclical in Church will come into a real National India will be tolerant of almost every expression of Evangelical opinion and will retain the freedom of development characteristic of Protestantism, by its acceptance of the Catholic Creed and the Historic Episcopate, it will be linked up with the Catholic tradition of the Anglican Church.

Anglican Missionary Societies.

The Church Missionary Society carries on work in India in seven different missions—the United Provinces, South India, Travancore and Cochin, Bengal, Western India, Punjab and Sind and the Central Provinces and Rajputana. The names are in order of seniority. Work was begun in what are now called the United Provinces in 1813, in Bombay in 1820, in the Punjab in 1851, and in the Central Provinces in 1854. The Society has always kept Evangelistic work well to the fore; but it also has important medical missions, especially on the N.-W. Frontier, and many schools of the Primary, Middle and High standards. The Church of England Zenana Missionary Society is an offshoot of the C. M. S. controlling the work of 162 missionary ladies. The number of ordained European missionaries of the C. M. S. in India and Ceylon is 160, European laymen 30 and European laywomen 258. The society claims a Christian community of 2,21,359 of whom 63,655 are adult communicants.

Bengal Ecclesiastical Department.

Westcott, The Right Reverend Foss, D.D.	..	..	Lord Bishop of Calcutta and Metropolitan of India.
SENIOR CHAPLAINS.			
Parker, Rev. William Almar Hedley	..	..	Chaplain, Darjeeling, and offg. Archdeacon of Calcutta.
Grosier, Rev. Philip Horsfall	..	..	(On leave.)
Penley, Rev. Horace Octavius, M.A.	..	..	(On leave.)
Riddale, Rev. Arthur Cyril	..	..	Services placed at the disposal of the Government of Bihar and Orissa.
Godber, Rev. John	..	..	(On leave.)
Dyer, Rev. Basil Saunders, B.A.	..	..	Services placed at the disposal of the Government of Bihar and Orissa, Chaplain Dinapur.

And 12 Junior Chaplains.

Society for the propagation of the Gospel. Statistics of the work of this Society are not easily ascertained, as much of it is done through Diocesan institutions, which, while financed and in many cases manned by the S. P. G., are entirely controlled by the Diocesan authorities. The best known of the S. P. G. missions is that at Delhi, commonly called the Cambridge Mission to Delhi, carrying on educational work at St. Stephen's College and School. At the College there are about 200 students under instruction, and at the High School 800. The College hostels accommodate 100 students. Missions to the depressed classes exist in Burma, in the Ahmednagar District and in several parts of South India, especially in the Diocese of Tinnevely-Madura. The S. P. G. also maintains an important Criminal Tribes Settlement at Hubli, in the Bombay Carnatic. There are 116,000 Indian Christians under the aegis of the S. P. G.; 90 ordained European missionaries and 98 European lady workers.

Other Anglican Societies.—The Oxford Mission to Calcutta was started in 1830. It works in the poorest parts of Calcutta and also at Barisal. There are 11 missionaries of this Society, and 16 Sisters. In addition to its work amongst the poor, the Oxford Mission addresses itself to the educated classes in Bengal and issues a periodical called *Epiphany*, which is known all over India.

The Society of St. John the Evangelist (commonly known as the Cowley Fathers) has houses at Bombay and Poona, and small stations in the Bombay Konkan. In Bombay its missionary work centres round the Church of Holy Cross, Umarnadi, where there is a school and a dispensary. The Christians are chiefly drawn from the very poorest classes of the Bombay population. At Poona the Society co-operates with the Wantage Sisters and in Bombay with the All-Saints' Sisters. Other Anglican sisterhoods represented in India are the Clewer Sisters at Calcutta and the Sisters of the Church (Kilburn) at Madras. The St. Hilda's Deaconesses' Association of Lahore carries on important educational work (chiefly amongst the domiciled community) in the Punjab. The mission of the Scottish Episcopal Church at Nagpur, the Dublin University Mission at Hazaribagh, and the Mission of the Church of England in Canada working at Kangra and Palampur (Punjab) should also be mentioned under the head of Anglican Missions.

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

Macfarlane, Rev. Andrew, D.S.O., B.D. Presidency Senior Chaplain, Bengal, and Senior Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Calcutta.

Ingram, Rev. James William, M.A., B.D. (On leave.)

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF ROME.

Meuleman, The Most Reverend Dr. Brice, S.J. Archbishop, Calcutta.

Carbery, Rev. Fr. Philip, S.J. Chaplain, Allpore Central Jail.

Bombay Ecclesiastical Department.

Palmer, Right Reverend Edwin James, M.A. Lord Bishop of Bombay.

Hatchell, Ven'ble C. F. W. Archdeacon of Bombay.

Smith, A. K. Registrar of the Diocese.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

D'Alessio, Rev. Edward Samuel John, P.A. Ghorpur.

Tibbs, Rev. Philip Gordon, B.A. Kirkee.

Arnould, Rev. Henry Lloyd M.H. St. Mary's, Poona.

Hill, Rev. Edward Eustace St. Paul's Church, Poona.

And 16 Junior Chaplains.

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

Nelson, Rev. A. M. (On leave.)

Jamieson, Rev. R. G. Presidency Senior Chaplain and Chaplain St. Andrew's Church, Bombay.

Mitchell, Rev. J. D., M.A. 2nd Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Bombay.

Lee, Rev. R. E., M.A., B.D. Serving in the Military Department.

Rennie, Rev. J. Y. (On leave.)

Bell, Rev. G. St. Andrew's Church, Karachi.

Robertson, Rev. A. Chaplain, Poona and Kirkee.

CHAPLAINS OF THE CHURCH OF ROME.

Goodier, The Most Rev. A. Presidency.

Madras Ecclesiastical Department.

Waller, Right Reverend Edward Harry Mansfield, D.D. Lord Bishop of Madras.

Nuttall, Venerable Frank, M.A. Archdeacon and Senior Joint Chaplain, St. George's Cathedral (on leave).

Loasby, Rev. Harry Clement Ag. do.

Rowlandson, Frederic, P.A., LL.B. Registrar of the Diocese and Secretary to the Lord Bishop.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Flynn, Rev. Hugh Hamilton (On leave.)

Heycock, Rev. Francis Wheaton, M.A. (On leave.)

Morton, Rev. Bertram Mitford On combined leave.

Stone, Rev. Henry Cecil Brough (On leave.)

Jervis, Rev. E. O. Holy Trinity Church, Bangalore.

Bridge, Rev. Henry Noel St. Thomas' Mount with Pallavaram.

Proctor, Rev. Francis Owen (On leave.)

Wright, Rev. G. A. Arthur Mercara and Mysore.

Sell, Rev. Charles Edward Coonoor.

Smith, Rev. George C. Augustus Trimulgherry, Deccan.

Brownrigg, Rev. Ernest Graham, M.A. St. Mark's Church, Bangalore.

Borlase, Rev. J. J. D., B.A., LL.B. Ootacamund.

Loasby, Rev. Harry Clement, M.A. (On combined leave.)

Hacking, Rev. Henry, M.A. Wellington.

Careless, Rev. William Edward, M.A. (On leave.)

Beeley, Rev. Ben Darcey (On leave.)

Bull, Rev. Francis Faulkner Calicut and Cannanore.

Jones, Rev. Hugh, M.A. (On leave.)

And 8 Junior Chaplains,
CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

Mackenzie, Rev. Donald Francis, M.A. St. Andrew's Church, Madras.

McNeill, Rev. J. H. H. (On combined leave.)

McLellan, Rev. Duncan Tait Hutchison Probationary, Secunderabad.

Pitcairn Hill, Rev. Colin Cecil, M.A. (On leave.)

Wright, Rev. J. Johnstone St. Andrew's Church, Madras and Acting Presidency Senior Chaplain.

Assam Ecclesiastical Department.

Thomson, Rev. T. A. Shillong.

Vacant Darrang.

Wylde, Rev. F. St. J. Quinton Lakhimpur.

Wood, Rev. W. S. A. Silchar.

Vacant Sibsagar.

Bihar and Orissa Ecclesiastical Department.

JUNIOR CHAPLAINS.

Ridsdale, Rev. A. C. Chaplain, Cuttack.

Birch, Rev. O. W. M. C. Bankipore.

Dyer, Rev. B. S., M.A. Dinapore.

Perfect, Rev. Henry Bhagalpur.

Reginald, Rev. A. J. C. Monghyr and Jamalpur.

Ethelred Juda, Rev. B. A. Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga.

Kennedy, Rev. K. W. S. Ranchi.

Burma Ecclesiastical Department.

Fyffe, The Right Reverend Rolleston Sterritt, M.A., Lord Bishop of Rangoon. (On leave.)

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Cowper-Johnson; Rev. Wilfrid Harry, M.A. Chaplain, Rangoon Cantonment, Off. Archdeacon of Rangoon and Bishop's Commissary.

And 8 Junior Chaplains.

Central Provinces Ecclesiastical Department.

Chatterton, Right Reverend E., D.D. Lord Bishop of Nagpur.

Martin, Ven'ble F. W. Archdeacon and Chaplain, Nagpur.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Molony, Rev. P. J. Sangor.

Clough, Rev. E. R. Mhow.

Wardell, Rev. A. F. G. (On leave.)

Carter, Rev. B. B., M.A. Kamptee.

And 10 Junior Chaplains.

North-West Frontier Ecclesiastical Department.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Henry, Rev. W. E. C., M.A. Abbottabad.

Carden, Rev. H. C. Peshawar.

And 2 Junior Chaplains.

Punjab Ecclesiastical Department.

Durrant, Right Reverend H. B., M.A., D.D. .. Lord Bishop of Punjab, Lahore.
 Wheeler, The Ven'ble Caufion High Trevor, M.A. .. Archdeacon, Murree.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Cole, Rev. Alexander Barnet Farquharson, M.A. .. (On leave.)
 Markby, Rev. Frederick Edward, M.A. .. (On leave.)
 Fagan, Rev. High William Farquharson, B.A. .. (On leave.)
 Buckwell, Rev. Frederick Charles (On leave.)
 Castle, Rev. Willie Wichello, B.A. Dalhousie.
 Stephenson, Rev. Canon Henry Stanley, M.A. .. Bishop's Chaplain, Lahore.
 Selwyn, Rev. Arthur Lewis Henry, B.A. Sialkot.
 Campbell, Rev. Rowland William, B.A. Ferozepur.
 Maunsell, Rev. Arthur Persse Gabbett, B.D. Lahore.
 Williams, Rev. James Ernest Harris, M.A. Jullunder.
 Proby, Rev. Randolph Simon Bennert, B.A. .. (On leave.)
 Henry, Rev. William Ernest Charles, M.A. Abbottabad.
 Dixon, Rev. Thos. Harold, M.A. Ralsina.
 Barne, Rev. George Dunsford, M.A. On Foreign Service.
 England, Rev. Herbert George, M.A. Rawalpindi.
 Strand-Jones, Rev. John, B.A. Multan.
 Hemming, Rev. Charles Henry Simla.

And 16 Junior Chaplains.

United Provinces Ecclesiastical Department.

Westcott, The Right Reverend George Herbert .. Lord Bishop of Lucknow.
 Irwin, The Ven'ble B.C.B., M.A. Archdeacon of Lucknow.
 James, J. W. Langford Registrar of the Diocese of Lucknow.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Smith, Rev. H. T. P. (On leave.)
 Bell, Rev. William Lachlan, M.A. (On leave.)
 Padfield, Rev. George Augustus Selwyn Roorkee.
 Meyler, Rev. Edward Mowbray, B.A. Lucknow.
 Cotton, Rev. Ben, M.A. Fyzabad.
 Harwood, Rev. Kenrick Cosens Ranikhet.

And 15 Junior Chaplains with 8 Additional Clergy.

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND;

McCauley, Rev. M. W., B.D. Allahabad.

Wesleyan Chaplains.

Rev. A. J. Revnell, O.B.E., Superintending Wesleyan
 Chaplain in India Simla.
 " J. M. Darlington Calcutta.
 " W. Horner Lucknow.
 " R. H. Spence, H.C.F. Meerut.
 " R. T. Kerr, H.C.F. Rawalpindi.
 " A. W. Buckley Lahore.
 " F. S. Briggs Peshawar.
 " W. S. Baker, H.C.F. Quetta.
 " F. E. Poole Jhansi.
 " F. A. Wenyon Mhow.
 " J. E. Davies Jubbulpore.
 " W. E. Cullwick, H.C.F. Bombay.
 " T. Harris, M.C., H.C.F. Kirkee.
 " A. Whitbread Secunderabad.
 " J. D. Percy, B.A. Bangalore.

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

With regard to numbers, the *Catholic Directory of India*, 1924, gives the following discrepant tables:—

	1901	1911	1921
1. British India and Indian States—			
(a) Latin Rite	1,312,224	1,614,620	1,851,408
(b) Syriac Rite	315,923	364,660	440,488
2. French India	25,859	25,918	25,480
3. Portuguese India	262,650	296,148	288,741
Total, India	1,916,656	2,301,346	2,606,117
4. Ceylon	285,018	322,163	363,986
Total, India and Ceylon ..	2,201,674	2,623,509	2,970,103

NOTE (1):—In 1860, the total for India and Ceylon was 1,170,854. In 1880 it had risen to 1,610,265. and in 1900 to 2,201,674.

NOTE (2):—The number of Catholics under the Royal Patronage of Portugal (the Padroado) in 1921 were reckoned at 604,802, of whom more than half are in British India.

NOTE (3):—In 1800 there were 1,504 priests. In 1921 there were 3,156.

The Catholic community as thus existing is composed of the following elements:—

- (1) The "Syrian" Christians of the Malabar Coast, traditionally said to have been converted by the Apostle St. Thomas. They were brought under allegiance to the Pope by the Portuguese in 1599, and placed first under Jesuit bishops and then under Carmelite Vicars Apostolic. They are at present ruled by four Vicars Apostolic of their own Syriac rite.
- (2) Converts of the Portuguese missionaries from 1500 and onwards, starting from Goa and working in the south of the peninsula and up the west coast, Ceylon, Bengal, etc.
- (3) European immigrants at all times, including British troops.
- (4) Modern converts from Hinduism and Animism in recent mission centres.

The Portuguese mission enterprise starting after 1500, continued for about 200 years, after which it began to decline. To meet this decline fresh missionaries were sent out by the Congregation *de propaganda fide*, till by the middle of the 19th century the whole country was divided out among them except such portions as were occupied by the Goa clergy. Hence arose a conflict of jurisdiction in many parts between the Portuguese clergy of the "padroado" or royal patronage, and the propaganda clergy. This conflict was set at rest by the Concordat of 1886. At the same time the whole country was placed under a regular hierarchy, which after subsequent adjustments now stands as follows:—

Of the Portuguese Jurisdiction:—

The archbishopric of Goa (having some extension into British territory) with suffragan bishoprics at Cochin, Mylapore and Damaun (all three covering British territory).

Of the Propaganda Jurisdiction:—

The archbishopric of Agra with suffragan bishoprics of Allahabad and Ajmere.

The archbishopric of Bombay, with suffragan bishoprics of Poona, Mangalore and Trichinopoly.

The archbishopric of Calcutta, with suffragan bishoprics of Dacca, Krishnagar and Patna, and the Prefecture Apostolic of Assam.

The archbishopric of Madras, with suffragan bishoprics of Hyderabad, Vizagapatam and Nagpur.

The archbishopric of Pondicherry (French) with suffragan bishoprics of Mysore, Coimbatore and Kumbakonam.

The archbishopric of Simla with suffragan bishopric of Lahore and the Prefecture Apostolic of Kashmir.

The archbishopric of Colombo (Ceylon) with suffragan bishoprics at Kandy, Galle, Jaffna and Trincomalee.

The archbishopric of Verapoly, with suffragan bishopric of Quilon.

Four Vicariates Apostolic of the Syriac rite for the Syrian Christians of Malabar.

Three Vicariates Apostolic of Burma.

During 1923 two new dioceses have been constituted; Tuticorin and Calicut.

The European clergy engaged in India almost all belong to religious orders, congregations or mission seminaries, and with a few exceptions are either French, Belgian, Dutch, Swiss, Spanish or Italian by nationality. They number about 1,000 besides which there is a body of secular clergy mostly native to the country, numbering about 2,000 and probably about 2,000 nuns. The first work of the clergy is parochial ministration to existing Christians, including railway people and British troops. Second comes education, which is not confined to their own people; their schools being frequented by large numbers of Hindus, Mahomedans, Parsis, etc. Among the most important institutions are St. Xavier's College, Calcutta, St. Peter's College, Agra, St. Xavier's College, Bombay, St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, St. Aloysius College, Mangalore, teaching university courses; besides a large number of high schools and elementary schools. The education of girls is supplied for by numerous convent schools worked by religious congregations of nuns to say nothing of orphanages and other charitable institutions. The total number under education amounted in 1904 to 143,051 boys and 73,164 girls, later figures being unavailable. As to missionary work proper, the country is

THE SCOTTISH CHURCHES.

The Church of Scotland.—The Chaplaincy work of the Church of Scotland dates from 1814, when the Rev. Dr. Bryce landed in Calcutta, and organised a congregation of his Scottish fellow countrymen. The centenary of the churches in the three Presidency towns was celebrated: Calcutta, 1914; Bombay, 1919; Madras, 1921. Since 1903 there have been eighteen chaplains on the staff, of whom nine belong to the Bengal Presidency, five to Bombay, and four to Madras. These minister both to the Scottish troops and to the civil population of the towns where they are stationed, but when there is a Scottish regiment the chaplain is attached to the regiment, instead of being posted to the station where the regiment happens to be placed and as a rule moves with the regiment. There are three Presidency senior Chaplains in charge of Bengal, Bombay, and Madras respectively. There are churches in the chief towns of the Presidencies, and churches have also been built in all considerable military stations, e.g., Chakrata, Lucknow, Peshawar, Ranikhet, Rawalpindi, Sialkot, Umballa and Jubulpore. In addition to the regular establishment there are a number of acting Chaplains sent out by the Colonial Committee of the Church of Scotland, and these are serving in such stations as Rawalpindi, Lahore, Cawnpore, Meerut, Mhow and Quetta. The Additional Clergy Societies in India contribute towards the cost of this additional establishment. In other places such as Sialkot, Murree, Dalhousie, and Darjeeling, regular services are provided by Scottish Missionaries. Simla has a minister of its own sent out from Scotland.

The Mission work of the Church of Scotland dates from 1829, when Alexander Duff, one of the greatest of modern missionaries; was

covered with numerous mission centres; among which those in Chota Nagpur, Gujarat, Orissa, the Nizam's Dominions, the Ahmednagar district and the Telugu coasts may be mentioned. (Full particulars on all points will be found in the Catholic Directory already quoted.) The mission work is limited solely by shortage of men and money, which if forthcoming would give the means to an indefinite extension. The resources of the clergy after the ordinary church collections and pay of a few military and railway chaplains are derived mainly from Europe, that is, from the collections of the *Society for the Propagation of the Faith* and of the *Holy Childhood*, helped out by private or other donations secured from home by the different local missionaries. In mission work the fathers count as enrolled only those who are baptised and persevering as Christians, and no baptism, except for infants or at point of death, is administered except after careful instruction and probation. This, while keeping down the record, has the advantage of guaranteeing solid results.

The Holy See is represented by a Delegate Apostolic of the East Indies who resides at Bangalore.

sent to Calcutta. He was the first to open schools where English was made the medium for instruction, and where religious teaching was given daily. Similar educational missions were soon afterwards started in Bombay and Madras. Educational work is still an important branch of the mission work of the Church, but the Bombay College was closed in 1891, and in 1907 the College in Calcutta was united with the College of the United Free Church of Scotland, to form the Scottish Churches College. In the Punjab Evangelistic work is being carried on from eight centres under seventeen missionaries. The baptised Christian community now numbers over 14,000. Work commenced in Darjeeling in 1870 is now carried on throughout the whole Eastern Himalayan district, and there is a Christian community there of over 8,000. In the five mission districts of Calcutta, the Eastern Himalayas, Madras, Poona, and the Punjab there were at the end of 1919 over 24,787 baptised Indian Christians. In connection with these missions the Women's Association of Foreign Missions does invaluable service in school, medical and zenana work, having in India 41 European missionaries, 163 teachers, over 60 schools, three hospitals and six dispensaries.

The Church of Scotland has also done much to provide education for European children in India. Together with the United Free Church St. Andrew's Church provides the governing body of the Bombay Scottish High Schools, which have always held a high place among such institutions, and exercises pastoral supervision over the Bombay Scottish Orphanage. In Bangalore there is the St. Andrew's High School, and both in Bangalore and in Madras the local congregation supports a school for poor children. The Ayrcliff

Missions.

Girls' Boarding and High School is under the care of the Kirk-Session of St. Andrew's Church, Simla. The now well-known St. Andrew's Colonial Homes at Kalimpong, Bengal, though not directly part of the work of the Church of Scotland, were initiated by and are being locally managed by missionaries of that Church. The homes exist for the benefit of the domiciled European Community, and are doing magnificent work. There are now twenty cottages, and about 600 children in residence. Further information may be found in "Reports of the Schemes of the Church of Scotland," Blackwood & Sons; "The Church of Scotland Year Book" and "The Handbook of the Church of Scotland in India and Ceylon" a new edition of which is being prepared.

The United Free Church of Scotland.—This branch of the Scottish Church has only three purely European congregations in India, two in Calcutta, Wellesley Square, and Howrah, and one in Bombay, Waudby Road. In Calcutta the Howrah Church is in the district of the mills, and every effort is made to minister to the Scottish Engineers and other workers in the mills. As noted above members of these congregations co-operate with the Established Church of Scotland in providing education for European children.

The Church carries on Mission work in seven different areas. They are Bengal (Calcutta, Kaina and Chinsura); the Santal Parganas, with five stations; Western India (Bombay, Poona and Alibag); Hyderabad State (Jaina,

Bethel and Parbhan); Madras (Madras City, Chingleput, Sriperumbudur and Conjeeveram); the Central Provinces (Nagpur, Bhandara, Wardha, and Amraoti); Rajputana, where the extensive work instituted by the United Presbyterian Church in 1860 is now carried on from eleven centres.

The work falls into three main divisions, evangelistic, medical, and educational. The Christian community has been organised in all the chief centres into congregations which form part of the Indian Presbyterian Church, and this Church is seeking to take an increasing share in the work of evangelism. There are nineteen Mission Hospitals, among which are four excellently equipped and staffed Women's Hospitals, in Madras, Nagpur, Ajmer, and Jaipur. From the days of Duff in Calcutta and Wilson in Bombay the Mission has given a prominent place to education. It has many schools in all parts of its field and it has also made a large contribution to the work of higher education through four Christian Colleges. The Scottish Churches College, Calcutta, is under the joint management of the Church of Scotland and the United Free Church. The Madras Christian College, which owes so much to the work of Dr. William Miller, is now under the direction of a Board representing several Missionary Societies. Wilson College, Bombay, with which the names of Wilson and Dr. MacKichan are specially associated and Hislop College, Nagpur, are under the direct management of the United Free Church.

BAPTIST SOCIETIES.

THE BAPTIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN.—Formed in 1792, largely through the efforts of Dr. Wm. Carey, operates mainly in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Punjab and Ceylon. The Baptist Zenana Mission has recently been united with this Society. The staff of the united Mission in India numbers 219 missionaries and about 877 Indian workers. Connected with the Society are 224 Indian Churches, 290 Primary Day Schools, 22 Middle and High Schools, and 3 Theological Training Colleges. The church membership at the close of 1922 stood at 17,979 and the Christian Community at 50,796. In the methods of the Society, a prominent place is given to Bazaar and Village preaching. Increase in membership during the past ten years, about 60 per cent. and in the community 50 per cent. for the same period. Amongst the non-caste people great progress has been made in recent years, and many of the Churches formed from amongst these peoples are self-supporting.

Special work amongst students is carried on in Calcutta, Dacca, Cuttack and Delhi, where hostels have been erected for the prosecution of this form of work.

EDUCATIONAL WORK.—Ranges from Primary School to Colleges. Serampore College, the only College in India able to bestow a theological degree granted under Royal Charter by His Danish Majesty in 1827, and confirmed by the British Government in the Treaty of purchase of the Settlement of Serampore in

1845, and placed in 1856 by the College Council at the disposal of the Baptist Missionary Society to become a part of its Missionary Educational operations, Arts and Theological. It was affiliated in 1857 to the newly-formed Calcutta University; reorganised in 1910 on the lines of its original foundation with the appointment of a qualified Theological Staff on an inter-denominational basis for the granting of Theological Degrees to qualified students of all Churches.

As the only College in India granting a Theological Degree a large number of students are now resident in the splendid College Buildings. In Arts, the College prepares for the Calcutta Arts Examinations. *Principal*: Rev. G. Howells, M.A., B.D., B.LITT., PH. D.

A Vernacular Theological Institute likewise attaches to Serampore. There is an Institute also at Cuttack, for the training of Indian preachers and Bible schools in several centres.

There are 9 or 10 purely English Baptist Churches connected with the Society, but English services are carried on in many of the stations. Medical work connected with the Society reported 6 Hospitals, 8 Dispensaries, and about 64,800 out-patients for the year 1922. Two large Printing Presses for both English and Vernacular work are conducted at Calcutta and Cuttack. The Secretaries of the Mission are the Rev. John Reid and W. Craig Eadie, Esq., 48, Ripon Street, Calcutta.

The Headquarters of the Mission are at 19, Fumival Street, Holborn, London. The total expenditure for 1923 of the Society amounted to £244,310.

THE CANADIAN BAPTIST MISSION.—Was commenced in 1873, and is located in the Telugu Country to the north of Madras, in the Kistna, Godavari, Vizagapatnam and Ganjam Districts. There are 22 stations and 337 out-stations with a staff of 96 missionaries, including 8 qualified physicians, and 1,023 Indian workers, with Gospel preaching in 1,400 villages. Organised Churches number 80, communicants 16,000 and adherents 20,409 for the past year. Nine Churches are entirely self-supporting. In the Educational department are 420 village day schools, with 14,000 children, 14 boarding schools, 1 High school, a Normal Training school, a Theological Seminary providing in all for 1,000 pupils, and an Industrial school. There are 6 Hospitals and two leper asylums. The Mission publishes a Telugu newspaper. Village Evangelisation is the central feature of the Mission, and stress is laid upon the work amongst women and children. During the last decade membership has increased by 52 per cent., the Christian community by 50 per cent., and scholars by 500 per cent. The Indian Secretary is the Rev. Gordon P. Barsz, Tekkali, Ganjam District.

THE AMERICAN BAPTIST TELUGU MISSION.—Was commenced in the year 1836, and covers large parts of Nellore, Guntur, Kistna, and Kurnool Districts, parts of the Deccan and an important work in Madras and the surrounding vicinity. Its main work is evangelism, but there are also Educational and Medical Institutions of importance. Industrial Settlement work for the Erukalas is carried on at Kavali and vicinity. Industrial departments are maintained also in connection with the Mission High School at Nellore, and the Mission High School at Kurnool. Organized Telugu Churches number 184, with 75,841 baptized communicants. There are 95 missionaries, and 1,836 Indian workers. The mission maintains in co-operation with the Canadian Baptist Mission a Union Theological Seminary at Ramapatnam for the training of Indian preachers. A bible Training School for the training of Telugu women is located in Nellore. A total of 27,794 receive instruction in 879 primary schools, 13 secondary schools and 4 High schools. In Medical work 7 Hospitals and 7 Dispensaries report 2,881 in-patients, 55,077 out-patients, and 122,482 treatments during the year.

Secretary: Rev. S. W. Stenger, Nandyal.

AMERICAN BAPTIST FOREIGN MISSION SOCIETY, organized in 1814, has Missions in Burma begun 1814; Assam 1836; Bengal and Orissa 1836; South India 1840. It owes its rise to the celebrated Adoniram Judson. Until 1910 the Society was known as the American Baptist Missionary Union. There are 33 main stations in Burma, 12 in Assam, 10 in Bengal and Orissa, 25 in South India, besides hundreds of out-stations. All forms of missionary enterprise come within the scope of the Society.

The missionary staff numbers 450 in all, with an Indian workers' staff of 5,713. Communicants number 176,820. Organized churches number 1,500 of which 880 are self-supporting. Educational work is conducted on

a large scale, the total number of schools of all grades being 2,147 with over 69,121 pupils. The Christian College has 125 students in college classes. There are twenty High Schools with 4,423 pupils.

Medical work embraces 15 Hospitals and 32 Dispensaries, in which 75,739 out-patients and 4,582 in-patients were treated last year.

Indian Christians contribute annually more than Rs. 5,47,861 for religious and benevolent work within the Mission.

The great work of the Mission continues to be evangelistic and the training of the native preachers and Bible-women, and extends to many races and languages, the most important of which, in Burma, has been the practical transformation of the Karens, whose language has been reduced to writing by the Mission. The work in Assam embraces 9 different languages, and large efforts are made amongst the employers on the tea plantations. There are 12 Theological Seminaries and training schools with 765 pupils. The Mission Press at Rangoon is the largest and finest in Burma.

Assam Secretary, Rev. R. B. Longwell, Gauhati, Assam.

Burma Secretary, Rev. Walter E. Wiatt, 15, Mission Road, Rangoon, Burma.

Bengal and Orissa Secretary, Rev. Harold I. Frost, Balasore, Orissa.

South India (or Telugu) Secretary, Rev. W. L. Ferguson, D. D., Madras.

THE AUSTRALIAN BAPTIST MISSION.—With 2 missionaries, established at Serajgunge E. Bengal.

Missionary-in-charge: Rev. T. C. Kelly, Mission House, Serajgunge.

THE AUSTRALIAN BAPTIST FOREIGN MISSION.—Embracing the societies representing the Baptist Churches of the States of the Australian Commonwealth. The field of operations is in East Bengal. The staff numbers 39 Australian workers. There are 1,988 communicants and a Christian community of 4,166.

Secretary, Field Council: Rev. H. J. Sutton, M.A., Mytensingh.

THE STRICT BAPTIST MISSION.—Has 13 European Missionaries, and 120 Indian Workers in Madras, and Salem District. Communicants number 230; organised Churches 5; elementary schools 32, with 1,600 pupils.

Secretary: Rev. E. A. Booth, Kilpauk, Madras, W.

AMERICAN BAPTIST, BENGAL-ORISSA MISSION commenced in 1836. Area of operation: Midnapore district of Lower Bengal, Balasore district of Orissa and Jamshepur Mission staff 32, Indian workers 321. Two English Churches and 21 Vernacular Churches, Christian Community 5,000. Two dispensaries. Educational: One Theological and one Boys' High School and one Girls' High School and 129 Elementary Schools, pupils 3,883. One Industrial School for carpentering, iron work and motor mechanics. The Vernacular Press of this mission printed the first literature in the Santali language.

Secretary: Rev. Harold I. Frost, Balasore, Orissa.

PRESBYTERIAN SOCIETIES.

THE IRISH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH MISSION.—Operates in Gujarat and Kathiawar with a staff of 39 Missionaries of whom 4 are qualified doctors and an Indian staff of 357 including school teachers. There are 11 Organised Churches, a communicant roll of 1,671, and a Christian community of 6,987. In Medical work there are 3 Hospitals, 5 Dispensaries, with 937 in-patients and 13,109 new cases and a total attendance of 44,521. The Mission conducts 2 High schools, 1 Anglo-Vernacular school, and 121 Vernacular schools affording tuition for 5,641 pupils, 4 Orphanages, a Divinity College at Ahmedabad, a Teachers' Training College for men, a Teachers' Training College for women, both at Ahmedabad, and a Mission Press at Surat. The Mission has made a speciality of farm colonies, of which there are about a score in connection with it, most of them thriving.

The Jungle Tribes Mission with 7 missionaries is a branch of the activities of the above, working in the Panch Mahals and Rewa Kantli districts, with farm colonies attached.

Secretary: Rev. Hamilton Martin, B.A., Mission House, Ahmedabad.

THE UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH OF NORTH AMERICA.—The Sialkot Mission of the above Church was opened at Sialkot, Punjab, in 1855. It is now carrying on work in ten districts of the province and one in the N. W. F. Provinces. Its missionaries number 145, and its Indian workers 838. Its educational work comprises one Theological Seminary, one College, six High Schools, one Industrial School, eight Middle Schools, and 196 Primary Schools. The total enrolment in all schools was 14,749 in 1922. The Mission is also carrying on Medical work through five hospitals and eight dispensaries. The total Christian Community in connection with the Mission is 73,245 and Church Membership 40,322.

Secretary: W. H. Merriam, M.A., Gujranwala, Punjab.

THE AMERICAN PRESBYTERIAN MISSION operates in 3 main sections known as the Punjab, North India and Western India Missions. The American Staff (including women) numbers 275 and the Indian Staff 1,211. There are 34 main stations and about 240 out-stations. Organized churches number 82, 25 of which are self-supporting. There are 11,985 communicants and a total baptized community of 82,000. Educational Work as follows: 2 Men's Colleges, and an interest in the Isabella Thoburn and the Kinnaird Colleges for women, students 1,276; Theological School 1, students 20; Training Schools for village workers 2, students about 180; High Schools 14, students about 1,500; Industrial Schools 6; Agricultural Demonstration Farms 4; Teachers' Training Departments 6; The Miraj Medical School and an interest in the Ludhiana Medical School for women, students 100; Elementary Schools 230; Schools of all grades 271, pupils 10,646; Medical work: Hospitals 6; Dispensaries 17. Sunday Schools 371, with 13,491 pupils. Contributions for Church and Evangelistic work on the part of the Indian Church, Rs. 26,949.

The Hospital at Miraj, under the care of Dr. W. J. Wanless and Dr. C. E. Vail, is well-known throughout the whole of S. W. India, and the Forman Christian College at Lahore under the principalship of Rev. E. D. Lucas, D.D., is equally well-known and valued in the Punjab. The Ewing Christian College (Dr. C. A. R. Janvier, Principal) has grown rapidly in numbers and influence.

Secretary of Council of A.P. Missions in India Rev. H. D. Griswold, D.D., Ph.D., Lahore.

Secretary, Punjab Mission: Rev. C. H. Rice M.A., Lahore.

Secretary, North India Mission: Rev. W. T. Mitchell, M.A., Mainpuri, U. P.

Secretary, Western India Mission: Rev. M. W. Strahler, M.A., Kolhapur.

THE NEW ZEALAND PRESBYTERIAN MISSION.—Commenced as recently as 1910 at Jagadhri, Punjab.

Secretary: Miss M. Salmond, M.A., Jagadhri.

THE CANADIAN PRESBYTERIAN MISSION.—Commenced in 1877; has 15 main stations in the Indore, Gwalior, Rutlam, Dhar, Alirajpur, Barwani, Jabat, Jaora, Sitamau, Banswara and other Native States. The Mission staff numbers 85; Indian workers 290; Organised Churches 14; Communicants, (Sept. 30, 1921) 1,248; Baptised non-communicants, 2,827; unbaptised and catechumens, 399. Total Christian Community 4,474.

Educational work comprises Elementary and Middle Schools, High Schools for boys and girls, College, Theological Seminary and Classes. Industrial teaching and work are done in the three Girls' Boarding Schools and in Rasulpura Boys' School. Technical and practical training is given in Printing, Weaving and Carpentry. The Medical work is large. There are two General Hospitals, where both men and women are treated, and five Women's Hospitals.

Secretary:—The Rev. J. S. Mackay, B.A., Neemuch, Central India.

THE WELSH CALVINISTIC METHODIST MISSION (OR WELSH PRESBYTERIAN MISSION) established in 1840 with a staff of 32 Missionaries, 600 Native workers occupies stations in Assam in the Khasia and Jaintia Hills, the Lushai Hills and at Sylhet and Cachar. The Khasia language has been reduced to writing, the Bible translated, and many books published in that language by the Mission. A large amount of literature has been produced in the Lushai language also. In 1921, Communicants numbered 21,457; the total Christian community 60,088; organised Churches 671; self-supporting Churches 35. Elementary schools number 556, scholars 17,673; Boarding schools 3, scholars 820, in addition to 1 Industrial school, 4 Training institutions and 1 Theological Seminary. Two Hospitals and 3 Dispensaries provided for 10,000 patients in 1920.

Secretary: Rev. T. W. Rees, Silchar.

THE ARCTIC MISSION of the Reformed Church in America (Dutch), organised in 1853 occupies the North and South Arctic and Chittor districts.

in S. India with a staff of 48 Missionaries, and 708 Indian ministers and workers. Churches number 17, Communicants 4,462; total Christian community 22,630; Boarding schools 11, scholars 842; Theological school 1, students 27; Voorhus College, Vellore, students 140. High schools 4, Scholars 2,070; Training schools 2, students 145; Industrial schools 2, pupils 95; Elementary schools 224, scholars 6,665. Three Hospitals, 7 Dispensaries with staff of 68 provided for 2,905 in-patients and 50,000 out-patients for the past year.

The Union Mission Medical College for South India and a Union Mission Training School are located at Vellore, the headquarters of the Mission. The Union Mission Tuberculosis Sanatorium for S. India is near Madanapalle, Arojavaram P. O., Chittoor Dist.

Secretary: Rev. H. J. Scudder, M.A. & B.D., Madanapalle, S. India.

CONGREGATIONAL SOCIETIES.

THE AMERICAN BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS FOR FOREIGN MISSIONS.—Has two large Missions, the American Marathi Mission, and the Madura Mission. The Marathi Mission covers a considerable part of the Bombay Presidency, with centres at Bombay, Ahmednagar, Satara and Sholapur. It was commenced in 1813, the first American Mission in India. Its activities are large and varied. The staff at the beginning of 1924 consisted of 50 missionaries and 639 Indian workers operating in 164 outstations exclusive of Bombay City. Organised Churches number 87 with 9,116 communicants, and 7,227 adherents. There is a Leper work at Sholapur. The Educational work embraces 13 training and secondary schools, with 1,026 pupils and 161 primary schools, with 7,302 pupils, three-fifths of whom are non-Christians. A Theological College at Ahmednagar trains for the Indian Ministry. Zenana work and Industrial work are vigorously carried on, the latter embracing carpentry, lace work and carpet weaving. A school for the blind is conducted on both Educational and Industrial lines 52,284 patients were treated in the Hospitals and Dispensaries of the Mission last year. This Mission was the first to translate the Christian scriptures into the Marathi tongue. At Sholapur, a settlement for Criminal Tribes is carried on under the supervision of Government. Secretary: Rev. Alden H. Clark, M.A., Ahmednagar.

THE MADURA MISSION.—In the South of the Madras Presidency, commenced in 1834, has a staff of 62 missionaries and 952 Indian workers, operates in the Madura and Ramanad districts and has a communicant roll of 9,502 and a total Christian community of 27,398 and 32 organised churches, most of which are entirely self-supporting and self-governing Schools number 311 with 16,305 pupils. There is a Christian College at Madura, high and training Schools for Girls as also Hospitals for men and women; at Pasmal are a High School, Theological Institution, Trade School, Teachers' Training School and Printing Press. Five Elementary Boarding Schools are found in as many out-stations. Industrial work is increasingly taught. The Secretary is the Rev. John J. Bannings, D. D., Pasmal.

THE ARBOT MISSION commenced under the American Board was transferred to the Reformed Church of America in 1851.

THE SCANDINAVIAN ALLIANCE MISSION OF NORTH AMERICA.—Embraces two Branches, one in Bengal and the other in Khandesh. The total mission staff represented by 12 missionaries and 20 Indian workers. There are 75 communicants and a Christian community of 158. Ten Elementary Schools provide for 200 pupils.

Secretaries: Rev. J. S. Otteson, Amalner, Khandesh, and Miss H. Abrahamson, Domar, Bengal.

THE SWEDISH ALLIANCE MISSION.—Working among the Bhils in West Khandesh has 26 missionaries and 58 Indian workers. There are 8 congregations with a total membership of 929 of whom 348 are communicants. There are 13 Elementary Schools, and 4 School Homes. The pupils in all schools are 353.

Secretary: Miss Emma Johansson, Dhanora via Nandurbar, West Khandesh.

THE FREE CHURCH MISSION OF FINLAND.—The total Mission Staff is represented by eight Missionaries, four native Catechists, seven teachers and four other helpers. There are about 140 communicants, five Churches and a Christian Community of about 219. There is one middle school and one day school, two dispensaries and industrial work is carried on.

Acting Secretary: Miss Krongvist, Lachung, via Gangtok, Sikkim.

THE LONDON MISSIONARY SOCIETY.—Commenced work in India in 1798 and occupies 10 centres in N. India, 12 in S. India and 7 in Travancore. The Mission engages in every form of Missionary activity. The European staff numbers 160, Indian workers 2,123; Organised Churches 520; Communicants 17,456 and Christian Community 115,068. There are 4 Christian Colleges, students 159; 5 Theological Institutions, students 70; 4 Training Institutions, pupils 114; 22 High schools, pupils 4,849; 25 Boarding schools, scholars 1,167; 9 Industrial schools, pupils 116 and 882 Elementary schools with 36,775 scholars. In Medical work Hospitals number 23, Dispensaries 14, qualified doctors 9 (European), 41 Assistants and 3,971 in-patients and 174,898 out-patients for the year.

The main centres of the Mission in N. India are at Calcutta, Benares and Almora. The Bhowanipour Institution at Calcutta is now a Teachers' Training College. Evangelistic work is carried on amongst the thousands of pilgrims visiting Benares and Almora is noted for its Hospital and Leper Asylum. Special efforts are made amongst the Nama Sudras and the aboriginal tribes known as the Majhwars, Cheros and Pankas. The S. India district is divided into the Kanarese, Telugu, Tamil and Malayalam with 12 stations and 472 outstations. At Nagercoil (Travancore) is the Scott Memorial College with 985 students, a Church and congregation said to be the largest in India, and a large Printing Press, the centre of the S. Travancore Tract Society.

N. India Secretary: Rev. J. H. Brown, B.A., B.D., Calcutta.

S. India Secretary: Rev. Geo. Wilkins, Bangalore City.

ALL-INDIA MISSIONS.

THE CHRISTIAN AND MISSIONARY ALLIANCE.

—Dates from the year 1893 under the name of the International Missionary Alliance, but a number of its missionaries were at work in Berar Province much earlier. Work is carried on in the Provinces of Berar, Khandesh, Gujarat, North West Frontier Province and Darjeeling District. There is a staff of 75 missionaries and 155 Indian workers. The number of mission stations is 20, with additional outstations. There is a Christian community of 2,189 adults. There are 4 Boarding Schools, 2 for boys and 2 for girls, 2 Training Schools for Indian workers, and 1 English congregation at Bhusawal.

Executive Secretary:—Rev. K. D. Garrison, Akola, Berar, C.P.

THE CHURCH OF THE BRETHREN (AMERICAN)

—Opened work in 1895, and operates in Broach, Surat and Thana Districts, also in Baroda and Rajpipla States. Its staff number 50 foreign workers including missionaries' wives, and 270 Indian workers. The Baptized (immersed) membership stands at 2,916. Education is carried on in 6 Girls' Boarding Schools, 7 Boarding Schools for Boys, and 81 Village Day Schools and 44 Village Night Schools. Females under instruction number 779, Males 2,633, under total instruction 3,418. Of this number 883 are supported in Boarding Schools and 96 in Training Schools and other institutions of learning. There are 200 teachers of which 58 are women. There are 91 Sunday Schools having 177 teachers and a total enrolment of 3,286. There were 28,422 calls at mission dispensaries in 1922. The foreign medical staff consists of three doctors and four nurses. At Umalla, Rajpipla State, there is a Home for Babies with 22 inmates. Industrial work is carried on in six of the Boarding Schools, and a vocational training school was opened at Anklesvar in June 1924. Evangelistic, Temperance and Publicity work receives due emphasis; the "Gujarati Sunday School Quarterly" 1,800 copies and the "Prakash Patra," a Christian monthly of 800 copies are published. Secretary: L. A. Blikenstaff, Bulsar, Surat District.

THE POONA AND INDIAN VILLAGE MISSION.—Founded in 1893 and for 28 years directed by Mr. Charles F. Reeve. On his retirement in January 1921, a Field Council took charge of operations and continue work in the Poona, Satara and Sholapur districts with 21 European and 38 Indian workers. Indian Christians associated with the work number 64. The main work is evangelistic in the villages, with women's zenana work and schools. Medical work is conducted at Pandharpur and Lonand and a hospital is in use in Pandharpur. The Headquarters are at Nasrapur, Poona Dist. Chairman of the Field Council: N. L. Gooden. Secretary: J. W. Stothard, Nasrapur.

THE AMERICAN CHURCHES OF GOD MISSION.—Has two missionaries at Bokra, Bengal.

THE INDIAN CHRISTIAN MISSION.—Founded in 1897, has 31 Organised Churches, 10 Missionaries, 24 stations, 41 out-stations, 1,392 Communicants, 30 Primary schools and two Industrial Schools in the Ellore district, also Bangalore, S. India, stations also in Be-

renag, Kumaon, N. India, and Nuwara Eliya, and Polgawalla, Ceylon. Total Christian Community 3,585. Director: Rev. A. S. Paynter, Nuwara Eliya, Ceylon.

THE CHURCH OF THE NAZARENE MISSION.—Has its headquarters for Western India at Buldana, Berar, where it has a boys' boarding school for training Native preachers and a girls' school for training Bible women. This mission has 3 stations in Thana District, namely, Khardi, Vasind and Murbad. There is a total force of 12 missionaries at present in this part of India, also 28 native preachers and Bible Women.

District Superintendent:—K. Hawley Jackson, Buldana, Berar.

The headquarters for Eastern India are at Kishorganj, Mymensingh District, with an orphanage and a force of 7 missionaries; also about 11 preachers and Bible women. This totals 19 missionaries and 39 native preachers and Bible women for the Church of the Nazarene in India.

District Superintendent: F. E. Blackman, Kishorganj, Mymensingh District.

THE TANAKPUR AND LOHAGHAT BIBLE AND MEDICAL MISSION.—Was established in 1910. It is now carried on in Tanakpur and District only, that neighbourhood having again been attached to the Naini Tal District in Kumaon. Address: Tanakpur, Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway, United Provinces.

THE HEPHIZIBAH FAITH MISSIONARY ASSOCIATION.—Has seven missionaries. Field Superintendent: D. W. Zook, Adra, B. N. Ry.

THE TIBETAN MISSION.—Has 4 Missionaries with headquarters at Darjeeling, and Tibet as its objective. Secretary: Miss J. Ferguson, Darjeeling.

THE INDIAN MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF TINNEVELLY (DORNAKAL MISSION).—Opened in 1904 operates in the Warangal District of the Nizam's Dominions. It is the missionary effort of the Tamil Christians of Tinnevely. There are now 3,250 Christians in 92 villages. Secretary: Rev. Samuel Pakianathan, Palamcottah.

THE MISSION TO LEPROUS.—Founded in 1874, is an inter-denominational and international Society for the establishment and maintenance of Asylums for Lepers and Homes for their untainted children, working in 12 countries but largely in India, China and Japan. Its work in India is carried on through co-operation with 33 Missionary Societies. In India alone the Mission now has 42 Asylums of its own with about 5,000 inmates and is aiding or has some connection with work for lepers at 21 other places in India. Altogether in India over 7,000 lepers are being helped. In the Mission's own and aided asylums in India there are nearly 4,000 Christians.

An important feature of the work of the Mission is the segregation of the untainted or healthy children of lepers from their diseased parents. Nearly 600 children are thus segregated and saved from becoming lepers.

Most of the Mission's income is received from voluntary contributions. Some funds are raised in India, but the bulk of the money expended by the Mission in India, was received from Britain, although the Provincial Governments give regular maintenance grants.

There is an Indian Auxiliary of the Mission to Lepers, of which H. E. Lady Wilson who represents the Bombay Presidency is a Vice-President.

The General Secretary of the Mission is Mr. W. H. P. Anderson, 33, Henrietta St., Covent Garden, London, W.C. The Acting Secretary for India is Mr. A. Donald Miller, Purulia, Behar.

THE REGIONS BEYOND MISSIONARY UNION.—An interdenominational Society commenced work at Motihari, Behar, in 1900, and now occupies 6 stations and 7 outstations in the Champaran and Saran Districts, with a staff of 15 Europeans, and 40 Indian workers. There are 21 Elementary schools, with 540 pupils, a Girls' and a Boys' Orphanage and Boarding school, communicants number 60.

THE NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF INDIA—Established 1905, it has a staff of 20 Indian Missionaries and 55 helpers and Volunteers operates in Montgomery District (the Punjab), Nukkar Thasil (U. P.), Haluaghat, Mymensingh District (Bengal), Rewah State (C. I.), Jarsaquadah (B. & O.) North Kanara (Bombay), Karjat—Karmala Talukas (Bombay), and Tirupattur Taluk (N. Arcot). Christian community over 5,000. Eighteen Elementary schools and one High School. Two Dispensaries and one Hospital. Annual expenditure Rs. 50,000. Supported by Indian Christians of all denominations and Provinces. Organ: *The National Missionary Intelligencer* (a monthly journal in English sold at Re. 1 per year post free).

Hon. General Secretary: Mr. J. D. Asirvadam, M.A., N.M.S., Office, Vepery, Madras.

THE SEVENTH DAY ADVENTISTS.—The Seventh-day Adventists commenced their mission work in India in 1893, and now have nearly forty main stations established in the different provinces, including Burma. At the central headquarters at Salisbury Park, Poona, an up-to-date publishing house has been established, continuing the work previously carried on at Lucknow; and this institution is entirely devoted to the printing of evangelical and associated literature. A total of 52 day and boarding schools are conducted; whilst dispensaries in the majority of the stations provide for the regular treatment of the sick, the staff including four physicians, besides a number of registered nurses. European education is provided at Vincent Hill School, a beautifully situated institution at Mussoorie. Being fitted with modern sanitation, it has been made possible for a considerable part of the domestic duties of the school to be performed by the students themselves. Church schools (for day scholars) are also conducted in different local centres. The baptised membership (adult) is 2,000, with a substantial community not yet admitted to full fellowship. 131 Sabbath schools are conducted, with a membership of 2,840.

President: A. W. Cormack; Secretary and Treasurer: A. H. Williams, Post Box 15, Poona.

THE AMERICAN MENNONITE MISSION.—Established 1899, works in the C. Provinces. Mission staff numbers 20, Indian workers 80, Church members 1,400, 1 Industrial Training Institution, 1 High School, 2 Vernacular Middle Schools, 1 Men's Home, 2 Homes for untainted children of lepers, 1 Bible School, 2 Orphanages, 1 Widows' Home, 1 Leper Asylum; Elementary Schools, 8; Dispensaries, 6.

Secretary: Rev. A. C. Brunk, Dhamtari, C. P.

THE GENERAL CONFERENCE—MENNONITE MISSION.—Started in 1901 in the C. Provinces. Workers number 17; Leper, Medical, Orphan, Zenana, Evangelistic and educational work carried on. Secretary: Rev. P. W. Pent, Janjgir, C. P.

THE KURKU AND CENTRAL INDIA HILL MISSION.—Established 1890 in the C. P. and Berar, has a mission staff of 14, Indian workers 24, Churches 6, Communicants 171; Christian community 237; 2 Boarding schools with 109 boarders and 5 Elementary schools. Secretary: Rev. Carl Wyder, Ellichpur, Berar, C. P.

THE CEYLON AND INDIA GENERAL MISSION.—Established 1892, occupies stations in India in the Coimbatore and Anantapur Districts and also stations in Panadura, Ceylon. Mission staff 37; Indian workers 138; Churches 11, with Communicants 624, and Christian community 2,933; Orphanages 5; Elementary schools 40; pupils 1,007.

Secretary: Mr. A. Scott, Kadiri, Anantapur District.

THE BOYS' CHRISTIAN HOME MISSION.—Owes its existence to a period of famine, was commenced in 1899. Mission staff 13, Indian workers 80. There are elementary schools with three orphanages, two boys and one girl, and a Widows' Home, where Industrial training is given. There are four main stations—At Dhond, in the Poona District and at Bahraich, Orai and Benares in United Provinces. There are also 30 out-stations. Director: Rev. John E. Norton, Dhond, Poona District. Secretary: W. K. Norton, Benares, U. P.

Ladies' Societies.

ZENANA BIBLE AND MEDICAL MISSION.—This is an interdenominational society, with headquarters, 33, Surrey Street, London, working among women and girls in seven stations in the Bombay Presidency, 10 in United Provinces, and 3 in the Punjab. There are 33 Assistant Missionary ladies on the staff and 33 Assistant Missionaries, 198 Indian teachers and nurses and 63 Bible women. During 1922 there were 2,367 in-patients in the five hospitals supported by the Society (Nasik, Benares, Jaunpur, Lucknow and Patna), but the Victoria Hospital, Benares, was closed. There were 28,950 out-patients, 98,914 attendances at the Dispensaries. In their 42 schools were 3,064 pupils, and there is a University Department at Lahore. The evangelistic side of the work is largely done by house to house visitations and teaching the women in Zenanas, 1,271 women were regularly taught and 1,600 houses were visited. The 63 Bible women visited 538 villages; the number of houses was 761.

Hon. Treasurer: The Lord Weston of Dunottar.

Secretaries: Miss M. G. Liesching, Rev. Dr. Carter and Rev. E. S. Carr, M.A. (Hon.)

WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN MEDICAL COLLEGE, WITH WHICH IS INCORPORATED THE PUNJAB MEDICAL SCHOOL FOR WOMEN.—In 1894 the North India School of Medicine, for Christian Women was opened in Ludhiana in order to give a Medical Education under Christian influences to Indian Women. Doctor Edith Brown, M.A., M.D. was its Founder and Principal. The School was interdenominational, and trained students for various Missionary Societies.

Clinical work was at first given at the Charlotte Hospital, which belonged to the Ludhiana Zenana and Medical Mission. The Memorial Hospital was opened in 1900, and has now 180 beds. In 1913 Non-Christian Students were also admitted for training, and the name was modified to its present title given above.

In 29 years 116 Medical Students have qualified as Doctors, over 50 as Compounders, over 120 as Nurses, and over 150 as Dais. Plans are now on hand to enlarge both Hospital and College considerably.

THE MISSIONARY SETTLEMENT FOR UNIVERSITY WOMEN was founded in Bombay in 1895 to reach the higher class of Indian ladies, its activities now include a hostel for women students, in addition to educational, social, and evangelistic work, and a Holiday House for students and other ladies at Jahabadi-Gholvad, B. B. & C. I. Ry. Warden: Miss Gedge, Rebsch Street, Jacob Circle, P. O., Bombay.

THE RAMABAI MUKTI MISSION, the well-known work of the late Pandit Ramabai, shelters about 700 deserted wives, widows and orphans, educating and fitting them to earn their living. The Mission is worked on Indian lines and carried on by Indian and European workers. Evangelistic work is carried on in the surrounding villages of Kedgaon, Poona District.

Disciple Societies.

The India Mission Disciples of Christ, under the United Christian Missionary Society, St. Louis, U.S.A., began work in India in 1882. It works in the Central Provinces and South United Provinces. There are 96 Missionaries including missionaries' wives and 351 Indian workers. There are 14 Organised Churches with the membership of 2,299. There is a Christian community of 4,117. There are 8 Hospitals and 13 Dispensaries in which 168,162 in-patients and out-patients were treated last year. Two Orphanages and Industrial Homes show 498 inmates. A Boarding School for girls and one for boys and 3 Hostels for boys show 686 inmates. 2 Lepers Asylums have 168 inmates. A Tuberculosis Sanitarium at Pandra Road has 44 inmates. An Industrial School is conducted at Damoh in connection with which a 400 acre farm is used for practical work. In the Home for women and children at Kulpahar needle work is taught in connection with which a large business is done each year. The Mission Press at Jubbulpore printed about 3,000,000 pages of Christian Literature. There is a High School; also 8 Middle Schools, 28 Primary Schools with about 3,000 pupils.

The Australian Branch has 3 Mission Stations in the Poona District. The Great Britain and Ireland Branch in Mirzapur District of U.P. and Palamau District in Orissa. These two have no organised connection with the India Mission Disciples of Christ.

Secretary and Treasurer: W. H. Scott, Jubbulpore, C.P.

Undenominational Missions.

THE CENTRAL ASIAN MISSION, with a Church Dispensary and School, is found on the N.-W. Frontier, conducted on the lines of the China Inland Mission, and has Kafiristan as its objective.

THE FRIENDS' FOREIGN MISSION ASSOCIATION works in five stations of the Hoshangabad Division of the Central Provinces, and in two of the adjacent Bhopal State, and has also some work going on in that of Gwalior. There are 7 Churches, 14 missionaries, 185 members in full communion, 1,076 Christian adherents, 1 boarding School for girls and 1 also for boys, 2 Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools and 12 Primary Schools; and two hospitals with dispensaries attached. In addition to a self-supporting weaving community at Itarsi and a Farm Colony at Makoriya, in Hoshangabad District. Secretary: Mr. A. Taylor, Sehore Cantonment, C. I.

THE AMERICAN FRIENDS' MISSION with 5 Missionaries is working at Nowgong. Secretary: Miss E. E. Baird, Nowgong, C. I.

THE OLD CHURCH HEBREW MISSION was established in 1858, in Calcutta, and is said to be the only Hebrew Christian Agency in India. Secretary: The Rev. Walter Plant, 11, Mission Row, Calcutta.

THE OPEN BRETHREN.—Occupy 46 stations in the U. Provinces, Bengal, S. Mahratra, Godavari Delta, Kanarese, Tinnevely, Malabar Coast, Coimbatore and Nilgiri Districts. They hold an annual Conference at Bangalore.

Lutheran Societies.

THE AMERICAN EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN MISSION. General Council, founded in 1844 for the Godavari and Kistna Districts, has its Headquarters at Rajahmundry. Its staff consists of 24, including Missionaries' wives and Lady Doctors, with 1,692 Indian workers. The membership is 34,901. There are Boys' and Girls' Central Schools, Mission Press, a well-equipped hospital and Book Depot at Rajahmundry, and a High School at Peddapur and another at Bhimavaram, since November 1918 the two American Lutheran Missions at Guntur and Rajahmundry have been amalgamated, existing as two Conferences now. Chairman: The Rev. E. Neudorfer, Bhimavaram.

The General Synod Section of the above has its headquarters in Guntur, founded in 1842. Its Christian Community numbers 63,301 with 21,969 communicants, 32 missionaries inclusive of wives and 1,132 Indian workers. The following institutions are connected with the Mission: a second grade College, High School for Girls, Hospital for women and children, School for the Blind Normal Training School, and Industrial School. Secretary: The Rev. J. R. Strock, Guntur.

THE EVANGELICAL NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF STOCKHOLM, SWEDEN, founded in 1856, occupies the districts of Sauror, Betul, and Chhindwara in the Central Provinces. There are about 2,000 Church members constituted into an indigenous Church with 12 local congregations. The European and Indian Staff numbers 34 and 165 respectively. One Theological Seminary for training catechists and pastors, and one training school for training Bible Women. 38 Day Schools with 1,442 children. 35 Sunday Schools with 1,121 children. 10 Dispensaries with 39,068 patients during 1922. 3 Workshops, one of them with an aided Carpentry School. One Female Industrial School, one Widows' Home, 5 Orphanages and one Boarding School for Christian Children. At the end of 1922 there were 165 boys and 218 girls in these institutions.

Secretary: Rev. G. A. Bjork, B. D., Chhindwara, C. P.

THE KANARESE EVANGELICAL MISSION with Headquarters at Mangalore, South Kanara, was organised on January 1st, 1919, to take over the Mission work done formerly by the Basel German Evangelical Mission in two of her fields, namely, the Districts of South Kanara and South Mahratta. The missionaries and the funds come from Switzerland. The Mission has 12 chief stations and 56 outstations with a total missionary staff of 35 and 314 Indian workers. There are 48 organised congregations with a total membership of 12,357, which gave last year Rs. 15,399 for church and mission work. Educational work embraces 65 schools, of which there are 3 High Schools. The students number 7,699.

Medical work is done at Betgeri with a full staff and a hospital and two branch hospitals and dispensaries. A women's and children's hospital has been opened in June 1923 at Udipi.

The Mission maintains a Home-Industrial department for women's work, and a large Publishing department at Mangalore with a bookshop and a printing press occupying some 150 hands and doing work in many languages.

Secretary: Dr. P. de Benoit, Mangalore.

THE CHURCH OF SWEDEN MISSION was founded in 1874. Operated till 1915 in the Madras, Tanjore, Trichinopoly and Ramnad Districts. Since 1915 the Mission having taken full charge of the former Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission field, works also in the Madras, Chingleput, Coimbatore, Salem and S. Arcot Districts with diaspora congregations in Rangoon, Penang and Colombo. European staff numbers 33, ordained Indian Ministers 42; Indian workers 88; organised churches 42; baptised membership 23,376; Schools 321; pupils 16,559 (12,855 boys and 3,704 girls); and teaching staff 755. *Ag. Secretary:* Rev. J. Sandegren, M.A., B.D., Trichinopoly.

THE INDIA MISSION OF THE EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN SYNOD OF MISSOURI, OHIO AND O.S. is located in North Arcot, Salem, and Tinnevely

Districts, in Travancore, and the Kolar Gold Fields, with 18 missionaries, 3 nurses (American), 1 doctor (Indian), 1 Zenana worker, 1 American teacher in charge of Missionary Home for children, and 1 Lady educationist. Besides the three Training Institutes there are one complete and one incomplete High Schools, and among the Elementary Schools three complete Higher Elementary. In addition to evangelistic and educational work, the Mission has now an up-to-date Dispensary and Lying-in Hospital with 18 beds in Ambur and a Dispensary in Krishnagiri (Salem). *Secretary:* Rev. T. Gutknecht, Nagercoil, S. Travancore.

THE DANISH EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN MISSION—Established 1863 in South Arcot, working there and in North Arcot, on the Shevaroy Hills and in Madras, has a total staff of 214 Indian and 45 European workers, Communicants 1,050, Christian community 3,000, 1 High School, 2 Boarding Schools, 4 Industrial Schools, Elementary Schools 58, total scholars 3,484.

Chairman: Rev. J. Bittmann, 38, Broadway, Madras.

THE SANTAL MISSION OF THE NORTHERN CHURCHES (formerly known as the India Home Mission to the Santals)—Founded in 1867, works in the Santal Parganas, Goalpara (Assam), Malda and Dinajpur. Work is principally among the Santals. The mission staff numbers 27; Indian workers 480; communicants 4,000; Christian community 23,000; organised churches 36; boarding schools 4; pupils 508; elementary schools 69; pupils 1,035; industrial schools 2; Orphanage 1; children 29. *Secretary:* Rev. P. O. Boddling, Dumka, Santal Parganas.

MISSIONS AND ENEMY TRADING ACT.—In May 1918, the following notice regarding Missions was published in the "Gazette of India":—"The following missions or religious associations are declared companies under Act 2 (the Enemy Trading Act) of 1916:—The Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Hermausberg Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Schleswig-Holstein Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Gosner Evangelical Lutheran Mission of the United Provinces and Behar and Orissa, the German Evangelical Lutheran Mission of Ranchi, Behar and Orissa. The Governor-General in Council notifies that the powers conferred under Section 7 of the said Act shall extend to the property, movable and immovable, of these missions or religious associations."

In June, 1919, the Government of India stated:—"Effect is already being given to the suggestion that enemy missions in India should be taken over by British societies. The properties and undertakings of hostile missions have been vested in the Provisional Custodian of Enemy Property with a view to their transfer to boards of trustees composed partly of non-official members nominated by the National Missionary Council of India with the approval of the Government of India and partly of Government officials, and those Boards of Trustees will in due course transfer the undertakings and properties to a missionary society to be selected by them with the approval of the Governor-General in Council."

Methodist Societies.

The Methodist Episcopal Church is the organization in the United States of America which grew out of the Wesleyan revival in England and her American colonies during the latter part of the eighteenth century. This Church began its work in India in 1856, at first confining its activities to what is now the United Provinces. From that centre it spread until the outposts of its work were found in Baluchistan, Burma, Malaysia, Netherlands Indies and the Philippine Islands. In 1920 a rearrangement of the mission field of the Church separated India, Burma and Baluchistan into what is now known as the Southern Asia division. Within this present field the Church now has a total baptized Christian community of 444,128, of whom 37,750 were added the year ending with 1924.

The avowed task of the Church has been the *split* of the depressed classes, and its work has been largely among that class. As a matter of fact, however, it has large numbers who came from the Mohammedans and the caste Hindus, and among such its influence is extending.

The educational work of the Church is extensive, it having in this area a total of 1,627 schools of all grades, including three colleges, twenty-two high schools, and numerous normal training and the logical institutions. The registered attendants in these schools number 46,750.

Special effort is made for the instruction and development of the young people of the Church, there now being 987 chapters of the Epworth League with 46,035 enrolled members, and 6,469 organized Sunday Schools with an enrolment of 205,963.

The publishing interests of the Church are represented in two presses at Madras and Lucknow, the former doing work in four vernaculars and the latter in six. The periodicals issued cover the interests of both the evangelistic and the educational field, the Indian Witness, the Junior Methodist and Methodist Education being in English, while the Kaukab-i-Hind, the Rafiq-i-Niswan, the Bal Hit Karak, and other periodicals for women and children are issued in several of the vernaculars, as are lesson helps of various grades for the Sunday Schools.

The governing body of the Church is the General Conferences held quadrennially, in which the ten conferences now existing in India are represented by twenty-six delegates. The polity of the Church in India looks forward to complete independence under the general governing body, there at present being but about three hundred and fifty American men and women as compared to 480 ordained and 3,162 unordained Indian and Burmese workers. At present the area is divided into seventy-three districts each in charge of a superintendent and among whom are many Indians. The work is supervised by four Bishops, elected by the General Conference, and resident as follows: Bishop Frank W. Warne, Bangalore; Bishop John W. Robinson, Delhi; Bishop Frederick B. Fisher, Calcutta; and Bishop Brenton T. Badley, Bangalore.

The American Wesleyan Methodist Mission, Sanjan, Thana District Headquarters. Stations with missionaries, Danda Marol, via Nargol, Thana District. Vapi (Daman Road Station), Surat District. Pardi 6, Surat District. Six missionaries on field. Two on furlough. One under appointment. Four main stations. Two boarding schools. One industrial school. One Bible school. Six village schools. *Superintendent*, C.B. Harvey, Sanjan, Thana District.

The Reformed Episcopal Church of America (Methodist) at Lalipur and Lucknow, U. P., has 2 Missionaries, 4 Outstations, 2 Orphanages, and a membership of nearly 100.

THE WESLEYAN METHODIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY commenced work in India in 1817 (Ceylon in 1814). The Mission in India, apart from Ceylon, is organised into 8 District Synods with 2 Provincial Synods. There is a large English work connected with the Society, 20 ministers giving their whole time to Military work and English churches.

The districts occupied include 64 main stations in Bengal, Madras, Mysore, Bombay, Punjab, Central Provinces, Hyderabad (Nizam's Dominions), United Provinces and Burma. The European staff numbers 98 with 61 Indian Ministers and 615 Indian workers; Communicants 15,688, and total Christian community 83,892. There are 8 large numbers of organised Churches many of which are self-supporting.

Educational work comprises 3 Christian Colleges, students, 1,993; 5 Theological Institutions, students, 238; 10 High Schools, pupils, 4,524; 14 Industrial schools, pupils, 400; 707 Elementary schools, with 23,034 scholars. In Medical work there are 3 hospitals, 6 dispensaries, 1,033 in-patients and 43,227 out-patients. The Society expended over £85,000 on its Indian Missions in 1922.

The Women's Auxiliary carry on an extensive work in the places occupied by the men's society. There are 71 women workers from Britain of whom 9 are qualified doctors. The Indian women workers number 274. There are 116 girls' day schools with 13,377 pupils and 31 boarding schools with 1,979 boarders. There are several philanthropic institutions for the rescue and training of women. The Women's Auxiliary manage 12 hospitals and 3 dispensaries, which had 5,788 in-patients and 70,529 out-patients. The cost of the work to the Women's Auxiliary in 1922 was over £20,000.

Vice-Chairman of General Synod: Rev. D. A. Rees, Mysore.

The Woman's Foreign Missionary Society of the M. E. Mission is divided into 9 Conferences and is co-extensive with the main work of the Mission. 245 Lady Missionaries are engaged in Educational, Zenana, Evangelistic and Medical work. The Secretary for the Bombay Conference is Miss A. A. Abbott, B.A., Basim, Berar.

THE FREE METHODIST MISSION OF NORTH AMERICA—Established at Yeotmal, 1893, operates in Berar with a staff of 19 Missionaries and 42 Indian workers. Organised churches 4, 1 Theological school and 5 Elementary schools, and 2 Anglo-Vernacular schools and Dispensaries 3. *Secretary:* Rev. Elizabeth Morland, Wun, Berar.

THE SALVATION ARMY.

For many years the operations of the Salvation Army in India were under the immediate direction of eight Territorial Commanders, in part responsible to Commissioner Booth-Tucker, as Special Commissioner for India and in part to International Headquarters. The General recently decided to divide the country into four distinct Commands, each under its own Territorial Commissioner and directly responsible to International Headquarters.

Northern India.—The area under this command is the S. A. work in the whole of the Punjab and the United Provinces with Headquarters at Lahore.

In addition to an extensive evangelistic work in the Punjab, and in several centres in the United Provinces, there are a number of Settlements for the Criminal Tribes in the United Provinces (where this important work was first introduced) and several also in the Punjab.

In the Punjab is also situated an agricultural settlement consisting of a large village of 1,800 inhabitants who cultivate some 2,000 acres of land, in which they will gradually acquire proprietary rights, the Government having given it to the Salvation Army on easy terms. This is proving to be very successful.

Other Industries include Weaving Schools, Agricultural, Dairy and Fruit Farms, Day and Boarding Schools, a Home for stranded Europeans, and for British Military Soldiers, a Hospital and Dispensaries.

Village Centres occupied, 1,738; Officers, 359; Employees, 260; Social Institutions, 23.

Territorial Headquarters: S. A., Ferozepore Road, Lahore, Punjab.

Territorial Commander: Lt. Commissioner Jai Kumar (Toft).

Chief Secretary: Brigadier Jeyadas (Hancock).

Western India.—The three Territories of Bombay, Guzerat, and Maratha now form the Territory of Western India.

Besides the distinctly evangelistic operations, there are established a large General Hospital—Thomas Emery Memorial—several Dispensaries, at which during the year about 20,000 patients are treated, over 240 Day and Boarding Schools, also a Boarding School and Hostel for Bhil Children, a Home for Juvenile Criminals, an Industrial Home for Women, a British Soldiers' and Sailors' Furlough Home, Weaving and Silk Schools; a Factory for Weaving, Warping, and Reeling Machines, and a Land Colony having a population of some hundreds of Salvationists.

Corps, 289; Outposts, 528; Officers, 634, of whom 589 are Indian; employees and teachers, 123; Social Institutions, 15.

Territorial Headquarters: S. A., Moreland Road, Byculla, Bombay.

Territorial Commander: Commissioner Horskins.

Chief Secretary: Lt.-Col. Jaya Prakas (Gore).

Madras and Telugu Territory.—This Territory comprises the city of Madras and work situated in the Nellore, Guntur and Kistna Districts of the Northern Circars of the Madras Presidency, also Bangalore.

There are the following agencies at work:—261 Corps and outposts, viz.,—places in which work is systematically done.

95 Village Primary schools. 4 Settlements for Criminal Tribes with a total population of 3,568. 2 Industrial Schools for children of Criminal Tribes. 1 Rescue Home. 1 Silk Farm, where some 75 boys are being instructed in the various branches of sericulture.

1 Trading Department, where cloth, leather goods, furniture, carpets, silk, lace, etc., the products of Industrial Institutions, are disposed off.

Territorial Headquarters.—The Salvation Army, Broadway, Madras.

Territorial Commander: Colonel N. Muthiah, **Chief Secretary:** Brigadier Charles F. A. Mackenzie (Anandham).

Southern India.—A new Territory comprising all that vast area south of Pondicherry and the State of Mysore came into being on 1st April 1924; prior to that date it was part of what was known as the Southern Territory with Headquarters at Madras. The real centre of operations is in Travancore, where whole communities have become Salvationists, though there is also a very promising work in Cochin, and in the British Territory adjoining South Travancore. Year by year the work has increased, till now the Salvation Army is working in upwards of 1,187 different villages.

In the villages around Nagercoil over a thousand women have been taught lace-making and needle-work, and thus the home income is considerably helped. A Home of Rest for Sick Officers is situated at Wellington in the Nilgiri Mountains. The Catherine Booth Hospital at Nagercoil, under the skilful direction of Staff Captain (Dr.) Noble, has been the centre of the Medical Work in that part of India, where students and nurses are trained, and where thousands of patients receive attention every year. There are five Branch Hospitals attached to this main Hospital.

There are 1,187 Corps and outposts, i.e., villages in which work is systematically carried on: 1,026 Officers and Teachers; 296 Day Schools; 6 Hospitals; 2 Boarding Schools; with a total constituency of 44,749.

Territorial Headquarters: The Salvation Army, Trivandrum, Travancore.

Territorial Commander: Lt.-Colonel Mrs. Trounce.

Laws and the Administration of Justice.

Statute Law Revision

In October, 1921, a committee was appointed under the presidency of the Hon. Mr. A. P. Muddiman, I.C.S., to deal with the question of statute law revision. The functions of the Committee are to prepare for the consideration of Government such measures of consolidation and clarification, as may be necessary to secure the highest attainable standard of formal perfection in the statute law of India. In several branches of the law consolidation has long been overdue, and it is suggested that the preparation of a Bill consolidating the existing law relating to merchant shipping, with such amendments therein as are necessitated or rendered desirable by the enactment of the English statutes since 1894 on the same subject should form the first duty undertaken by the Committee. Under the conditions resulting from the establishment of the reformed Constitution, increasing importance will attach hereafter to the periodical examination and revision of the Statute Book and the Government of India hope that the Committee will take its place as a permanent feature of the legislative machinery of the country.

European British Subjects.

Whilst the substantive criminal law is the same for all classes, certain distinctions of procedure have always been maintained in regard to criminal charges against European British subjects. Until 1872 European British subjects could only be tried or punished by one of the High Courts. It was then enacted that European British subjects should be liable to be tried for any offences by magistrates of the highest class, who were also justices of the peace, and by Judges of the Sessions Courts; but it was necessary in both cases that the magistrate or judge should himself be a European British subject. In 1883 the Government of India announced that they had decided "to settle the question of jurisdiction over European subjects in such a way as to remove from the code at once and completely every judicial disqualification which is based merely on race distinctions." This decision, embodied in the Ilbert Bill, aroused a storm of indignation which is still remembered. The controversy ended in a compromise which is thus summarised by Sir John Strachey ("India"). "The controversy ended with the virtual, though not avowed, abandonment of the measure proposed by the Government. Act III of 1884; by which the law previously in force was amended, cannot be said to have diminished the privileges of European British subjects charged with offences, and it left their position as exceptional as before. The general disqualification of native judges and magistrates remains; but if a native of India be appointed to the post of district magistrate or sessions judge, his powers in regard to jurisdiction over European British subjects are the same as those of an Englishman holding the same office. This provision however is subject to the condition that every European British subject brought for trial before the district magistrate or sessions judge has the right, however trivial be the charge, to claim to be tried by a jury of which

Codification.

Before the transfer of India to the Crown the law was in a state of great confusion. Sir Henry Cunningham described it as "hopelessly unwieldy, entangled and confusing." The first steps toward general codification were taken in 1833, when a Commission was appointed, of which Lord Macaulay was the moving spirit, to prepare a penal code. Twenty-two years elapsed before it became law, during which period it underwent revision from his successors in the Law Membership, and especially by Sir Barnes Peacock, the last Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Calcutta. The Penal Code, which became law in 1860, was followed in 1861 by a Code of Criminal Procedure. Substantially the whole criminal law of British India is contained in these two Codes. One of the most eminent lawyers who ever came to India, Sir James Stephen, said "The Indian penal code may be described as the criminal law of England freed from all technicalities and superfluities, systematically arranged and modified in some few particulars (they are surprisingly few) to suit the circumstances of British India. It is practically impossible to misunderstand the code." The rules of Civil Procedure have been embodied in the Code of Civil Procedure. The Indian Penal Code has from time to time been amended. The Code of Civil Procedure was remodelled in 1908 and the Code of Criminal Procedure in 1898. These Codes are now in force.

not less than half the number shall be Europeans or Americans.....Whilst this change was made in the powers of district magistrates, the law in regard to other magistrates remained unaltered." Since 1836 no distinctions of race have been recognised in the civil courts throughout India.

After a discussion on this subject in the Legislative Assembly in September 1921, the following motion was adopted:—"That in order to remove all racial distinctions between Indians and Europeans in the matter of their trial and punishment for offences, a committee be appointed to consider what amendments should be made in the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, which differentiate between Indians and European British subjects and American and Europeans who are not British subjects in criminal trials and proceedings and to report on the best methods of giving effect to their proposals."

High Courts.

The highest legal tribunals in India are the High Courts of Judicature. These were constituted by the Indian High Courts Act of 1861 for Bengal, Bombay and Madras, and later for the United Provinces and the Punjab superseding the old supreme and Sudder Courts. The Judges are appointed by the Crown; they hold office during the pleasure of the Sovereign; at least one-third of their number are barristers, one-third are recruited from the judicial branch of the Indian Civil Service, the remaining places being available for the appointment of Indian lawyers. Trial by jury is the rule in original criminal cases before the High Courts, but juries are never employed in civil suits in India.

For other parts of India High Courts have been formed under other names. The chief difference being that they derive their authority from the Government of India, not from Parliament. In Burma there is a Chief Court, with three or more judges; in the other provinces the chief appellate authority is an officer called the Judicial Commissioner. In Sind the Judicial Commissioner is termed Judge of the Sudder Court and has two colleagues.

The High Courts are the Courts of appeal from the superior courts in the districts, criminal and civil, and their decisions are final, except in cases in which an appeal lies to His Majesty in Council and is heard by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England. The High Courts exercise supervision over all the subordinate courts. Returns are regularly sent to them at short intervals and the High Courts are able, by examining the returns, by sending for proceedings, and by calling for explanations, as well as from the cases that come before them in appeal, to keep themselves to some extent acquainted with the manner in which the courts generally are discharging their duties.

Lower Courts.

The Code of Criminal Procedure provides for the constitution of inferior criminal courts styled courts of session and courts of magistrates. Every province, outside the Presidency towns, is divided into sessions divisions, consisting of one or more districts and every

sessions division has a court of session and a sessions judge, with assistance if need be. These stationary sessions courts take the place of the English Assizes, and are competent to try all accused persons duly committed, and to inflict any punishment authorised by law, but sentences of death are subject to confirmation by the highest court of criminal appeal in the province. Magistrates' courts are of three classes with descending powers. Provision is made and largely utilised in the towns, for the appointment of honorary magistrates; in the Presidency towns Presidency magistrates deal with magisterial cases and benches of Justices of the Peace or honorary magistrates dispose of the less important cases.

Trials before courts of session are either with assessors or juries. Assessors assist, but do not bind the judge by their opinions; on juries the opinion of the majority prevails if accepted by the presiding Judge. The Indian law allows considerable latitude of appeal. The prerogative of mercy is exercised by the Governor-General-in-Council and the Local Government concerned without prejudice to the superior power of the Crown.

The constitution and jurisdiction of the inferior civil courts varies. Broadly speaking one district and sessions judge is appointed for each district; as District Judge he presides in its principal civil court of original jurisdiction; his functions as Sessions Judge have been described. For these posts members of the Indian Civil Service are mainly selected though some appointments are made from the Provincial Service. Next come the Subordinate Judges and Munsiffs, the extent of whose original jurisdiction varies in different parts of India. The civil courts, below the grade of District Judge, are almost invariably presided over by Indians. There are in addition a number of Courts of Small Causes, with jurisdiction to try money suits up to Rs. 500. In the Presidency Towns, where the Chartered High Courts have original jurisdiction, Small Cause Courts dispose of money suits up to Rs. 2,000. As Insolvency Courts the chartered High Courts of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras have jurisdiction in the Presidency towns. In the mofussil similar powers were conferred on the District Courts by the Insolvency Act of 1906.

Coroners are appointed only for the Presidency Towns of Calcutta and Bombay. Elsewhere their duties are discharged by the ordinary staff of magistrates and police officers unaided by jurors.

Legal Practitioners.

Legal practitioners in India are divided into Barristers-at-Law, Advocates of the High Courts and Attorneys (Solicitors) of High Courts and Pleaders, Mukhtars and revenue agents. Barristers and Advocates are admitted by the High Court to practise in it and its subordinate courts; and they alone are admitted to practise on the original side of some of the chartered High Courts. Vakils are persons duly qualified who are admitted to practise on the appellate side of the chartered High Courts and in the Courts subordinate to the High Courts. Attorneys are required to qualify before admission to practise in much the same way as in England. The rule that a solicitor must instruct counsel

prevails only on the original side of certain of the High Courts. Pleaders practise in the subordinate courts in accordance with rules framed by the High Courts.

Organisation of the Bar.

At Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay there is a Bar Committee presided over, *ex-officio*, by the Advocate-General. This body is elected by the barristers practising in each High Court, and its functions are to watch the interests of the Bar and to regulate its etiquette. At Allahabad, Lahore, Nagpore, and Rangoon a similar Bar Committee exists, but the electorate is extended to include the vakils or native pleaders, and the president is either the senior practising member of the Bar or the Government Advocate. In the larger Districts and Sessions Courts, an organisation representing the Bar is usually to be found, and in the subordinate Courts, including the Revenue Courts, similar machinery is generally in use. Pending an opportunity of detailed inquiries in India, these general descriptions must suffice.

Composition of the Bar.

A considerable change is occurring in the composition of the Indian Bar. The following extract from an informing article in the *Times* (May 25, 1914) indicates the character and incidence of this development. "During the last forty years, a striking change has taken place in the professional class. The bulk of practice has largely passed from British to Indian hands, while, at the same time, the profession has grown to an enormous extent. One typical illustration may be quoted. Attached to the Bombay High Court in 1871 there were 38 solicitors, of whom 10 were Indian and 28 English, and 24 advocates, of whom 7 were Indian and 17 English. In 1911, attached to the same High Court, there were 150 solicitors, of whom more than 130 were Indian and the remainder English, and 250 advocates, of whom 16 only were English and the remainder Indian."

Law Officers.

The Government of India has its own law colleagues in the Legal Member of Council. All Government measures are drafted in this department. Outside the Council the principal law officer of the Government of India is the Advocate-General of Bengal, who is appointed by the Crown, is the leader of the local Bar, and is always nominated a member of the Provincial Legislative Council. In Calcutta he is assisted by the Standing Counsel and the Government Solicitor. There are Advocates-General and Government Solicitors for Bombay and Madras, and in Bombay there is attached to the Secretariat a Legal Remembrancer and an Assistant Legal Remembrancer, drawn from the Judicial Branch of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of Bengal

consults the Bengal Advocate-General, the Standing Counsel and the Government Solicitor, and has besides a Legal Remembrancer (a Civil Servant) and a Deputy Legal Remembrancer (a practising barrister); the United Provinces are equipped with a civilian Legal Remembrancer and professional lawyers as Government Advocate and Assistant Government Advocate; the Punjab has a Legal Remembrancer, Government Advocate and a Junior Government Advocate; and Burma a Government Advocate, besides a Secretary to the Local Legislative Council.

Sheriffs are attached to the High Courts of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. They are appointed by Government, selected from non-officials of standing, the detailed work being done by deputy sheriffs, who are officers of the Court.

Law Reports.

The Indian Law Reports are published in four series—Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and Allahabad, under the authority of the Governor-General in Council. They contain cases determined by the High Court and by the Judicial Committee on appeal from the particular High Court. These appeals raise questions of very great importance, and the Council of Law Reporting for England and Wales show their appreciation by printing the Indian Appeals in a separate volume, and have also compiled a digest of Indian Appeals covering the period 1874-1893. The other Provinces and States have series of reports issued under the authority either of the Judiciary or the State.

Legislative Power.

The supreme power of Parliament to legislate for the whole of India cannot be questioned. In practice, however, this power is little used, there being a majority of officials on the Imperial Legislative Council—a majority deliberately reserved in the India Councils Act of 1909—the Secretary of State is able to impose his will on the Government of India and to secure the passage of any measure he may frame, regardless of the opinion of the Indian authorities. Legislative Councils have been established both for the whole of India and for the principal provinces. Their constitution and functions are fully described in detailing the powers of the Imperial and Provincial Councils (q. v.). To meet emergencies the Governor-General is vested with the power of issuing ordinances, having the same force as Acts of the Legislature, but they can remain in force for only six months. The power is very little used. The Governor-General-in-Council is also empowered to make regulations, having all the cogency of Acts, for the more backward parts of the country, the object being to bar the operation of the general law and permit the application of certain enactments only.

Bengal Judicial Department.

Sanderson, The Hon'ble Sir Lancelot ..
Chatarji, The Hon'ble Sir Nalin Ranjan, Kt.,
M.A., B.L.
Richardson, The Hon'ble Sir Thomas William,
I.C.S., Bar-at-Law
Walmisley, The Hon'ble Mr. Hugh, I.C.S. ..

Chief Justice.
Puisne Judge.
Ditto.
Ditto.

Rankin, The Hon. Mr. George Claus, Bar-at-Law ..	Puisne Judge. (On deputation).
Greaves, The Hon'ble Mr. William Ewart ..	Ditto.
Newbould, The Hon'ble Mr. B. B. ..	Ditto.
Ghosh, The Hon. Mr. Charu Chander, Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Buckland, The Hon. Mr. Justice Phillip Lindsay, Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto. (On leave.)
Pearson, The Hon. Mr. Justice Herbert Grayhurst, Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Suhrawardy, The Hon. Mr. Justice Zahhadur Rahim Zahid, Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Cuming, The Hon. Mr. Justice Arthur Herbert, I.O.S. ..	Ditto. (On leave.)
Ghosh, The Hon. Mr. Justice Bepin Behari ..	Ditto.
Panton, The Hon. Mr. Justice Edward Brookes Henderson ..	Ditto. (On leave.)
Page, The Hon. Mr. Justice Arthur, Kt. ..	Ditto.
Mukharji, The Hon. Mr. Justice Manmatha Nath ..	Ditto. (Additional).
Chotzner, The Hon. Mr. Justice Alfred James, I.O.S. ..	Ditto. (Acting).
Thorndill, The Hon. Mr. Justice Thomas, Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto. { .. }
Duval, The Hon. Mr. Justice Herbert Phillip, C.I.E., I.O.S. ..	Ditto. { .. }
Graham, The Hon. Mr. Justice John Fuller, I.O.S. ..	Ditto. { .. }
Chakrabarti, The Hon. Mr. Justice Dwarka Nath ..	Ditto. { .. }
Das, S. R., Bar-at-Law ..	Advocate-General. (On deputation).
Mitter, B. L., Bar-at-Law ..	Officiating Advocate-General.
Gooding, G. C. ..	Government Solicitor.
James, Langford, Bar-at-Law ..	Officiating Standing Counsel.
Duval, The Hon. Mr. H. P., I.O.S. ..	Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.
Khundkar, N. A., Bar-at-Law ..	Deputy Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.
Dwarka Nath Chakrabarti, M.A., B.L. ..	Senior Government Pleader.
Sadhu, Rai Bahadur Tarak Nath ..	Public Prosecutor, Calcutta.
Remfrey, Maurice ..	Registrar, Keeper of Records, Taxing Officer, Accountant-General, and Sealer, etc., Original Jurisdiction. (On leave).
Satish Chandra Mitra ..	Ditto. (Offg.)
Ghatk, N., M.B.E. ..	Master and Official Referee.
Mitra, Jyotish Chandra ..	Officiating Registrar in Insolvency.
Moses, O., Bar-at-Law ..	Clerk of the Crown for Criminal Sessions.
Kirkham, Joseph Alfred ..	Secretary to the Chief Justice and Head Clerk, Decree Department.
Hodge, John, D., I.O.S. ..	Registrar and Taxing Officer, Appellate Jurisdiction.
Connell, Frank Bertram ..	Deputy Registrar.
Paulit, Peter Sydenham ..	Assistant Registrar.
Kinney, Alexander ..	Administrator-General and Official Trustee.
Bonnerjee, K. K. Shelly, Bar-at-Law ..	Official Receiver, sub pro tem.
Swinhoe, D., Bar-at-Law ..	Coroner of Calcutta.
Falkner, George McDonald ..	Official Assignee.
Bose, B.D., Bar-at-Law ..	Editor of Law Reports.

Bombay Judicial Department.

Macleod, The Hon. Sir Norman Cranstoun, Bar-at-Law ..	Chief Justice.
Shah, The Hon'ble Sir Lallubhai Asharam, M.A., LL.B. ..	Puisne Judge.
Marten, The Hon. Sir Amberson B. ..	Ditto.
Pratt, The Hon. Mr. Edward Millard, I.O.S. ..	Ditto.
Crump, The Hon'ble Mr. Louis Charles, I.O.S. ..	Ditto.
Fawcett, The Hon'ble Mr. Charles Gordon Hill, I.O.S. ..	Ditto.
Coyaji, The Hon. Mr. H. C. ..	Ditto.
Kincaid, The Hon. Mr. C.A., C.V.O. ..	Ditto.
Mirza Ali Akbar Khan, M.A., LL.B. The Hon. Mr. (Ag.) ..	Ditto.
Kemp, The Hon. Mr. Norman Wright, Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Taraporewalla, The Hon. Mr. V. F. ..	Ditto. (Additional).
Kanga, Jamsheji Behramji, M.A., LL.B. ..	Advocate-General.
Stephen, James Murphy, I.O.S. ..	Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.
Sen, Kahlitish Chandra, B.A., I.O.S. ..	Assistant Remembrancer of Legal Affairs and Secretary to the Legislative Council of the Governor.
Bowen, J. C. G. ..	Government Solicitor and Public Prosecutor. (On leave.)

Bombay Judicial Department—contd.

Campbell, Henry ..	Clerk of the Crown.
Kemp, K. Mac I., Bar-at-Law ..	Reporter to the High Court.
Mitchell, H. C. B. ..	Administrator-General and Official Trustee and Registrar of Companies.
Phirozshah Behramji Malbari, Bar-at-Law ..	Prothonotary, Testamentary and Admiralty Registrar.
Hirjibhai Hormasji Wadia, M.A. ..	Master and Registrar in Equity and Commissioner for taking Accounts and Local Investigations, and Taxing Officer.
Nassarwanji Dinshahji Gharda, B.A., LL.B. ..	Deputy Registrar and Sealer, Appellate Side, and Secretary to Rule Committee Acting Registrar, Appellate Side.

COURT OF THE JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER OF SIND.

Kincaid, The Hon. Mr. Charles Augustus, C.V.O., I.O.S. ..	Judicial Commissioner.
Calcraft-Kennedy, B.C.H., I.O.S. ..	Additional Judicial Commissioner.
Raymond, Edward ..	Ditto.
Aston, Arthur Henry Southcoate, M.A., Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Rupchand Bilaram ..	Ditto. (Temporary).
Lobo, C. M. ..	Ditto. (Acting).

Madras Judicial Department.

Trotter, The Hon'ble Mr. Victor Murray Coult ..	Chief Justice.
Oldfield, The Hon'ble Mr. Francis Du Pre, I.O.S. ..	Puisne Judge.
Spencer, The Hon'ble Mr. Charles Gordon, I.O.S. ..	Ditto.
Ayling, The Hon'ble Sir William Bock, I.O.S. ..	Ditto.
Bamesam Pantulu, The Hon. Mr. V. ..	Ditto.
Odgers, The Hon. Mr. Charles Edwin, M.A., B.C.L. ..	Ditto. (On leave.)
Phillips, The Hon. Mr. William Watkin, I.O.S. ..	Ditto.
Kumarswami Shastri, The Hon'ble Diwan Bahadur C. V. ..	Ditto.
Krishnan, The Hon. C. Dewan Bahadur, M.A., Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Devadas, The Hon. Mr. Justice, M. D., Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Venkata Suba Rao, The Hon. Mr. Justice, M., B.A., B.L. ..	Ditto.
Madhavan Nair, C., Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto. (Acting).
Waller, The Hon. Mr. D. G., I.O.S. ..	Ditto.
Wallace, The Hon. Mr. E. H., I.O.S. ..	Ditto.
Venkatarama Sastri, T. A. ..	Advocate-General.
Moresby, Charles ..	Government Solicitor.
C. V. Ananta Krishna Iyer ..	Government Pleader.
Adam, J. C., Bar-at-Law ..	Public Prosecutor.
Trunarayana Achariyar, M.A. ..	Editor, Indian Law Reports, Madras Series.
Cornish, H. D., Bar-at-Law ..	Administrator-General, Official Trustee and Custodian of Enemy Property. (On leave).
Butler, Frank Gregory, I.O.S. ..	Registrar.
Madhava Menon, K. P., Bar-at-Law ..	Crown Prosecutor.

Assam Judicial Department.

Mellor Arthur ..	Secretary to Government, Legislative Department, and Secretary to the Assam Legislative Council. Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs. Administrator-General and Official Trustee.
Jack, Robert Ernest ..	District and Sessions Judge, Assam Valley District.
Ran, B. N. ..	Officiating District and Sessions Judge, Sylhet and Cachar.
Neogi, Hem Kumar ..	Additional District and Sessions Judge, Sylhet and Cachar.

Bihar and Orissa Judicial Department.

Miller, The Hon. Sir Thomas Frederick Dawson ..	Chief Justice.
Jwala Prashad, The Hon'ble Sir, Kt., Rai Bahadur ..	Puisne Judge.
Adami, The Hon. Justice Leonard Christian, I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Pratima Ranjan Dass, The Hon. Mr., Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Mullick, The Hon'ble Sir Basanta Kumar, I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Bucknill, The Hon. Justice Sir John Alexander Strachey, Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Ross, The Hon. Mr. Justice Robert Lindsay, I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Foster, The Hon. Mr. Justice Frederick Edward Burton, LL.B. ..	Ditto, (Offg.)
Kulwant Sahay, The Hon. Mr. ..	Ditto. Ag. Additional Judge.
Allanson, Harry Llewelyn Lyons, I.C.S. ..	Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.
Seroop, A. E. ..	Registrar, (Offg.)

Burma Judicial Department.

Robinson, The Hon'ble Sir Sydney Maddock, Bar-at-Law ..	Chief Justice, High Court, Rangoon.
Young, The Hon. Mr. Charles Philip Radford, B.A. ..	Judge.
Pratt, The Hon. Mr. Justice Henry Sheldon ..	Do. Mandalay.
Heald, The Hon. Mr. Justice Benjamin Herbert ..	Do.
Rutledge, The Hon. Mr. Justice John Guy ..	Do.
MacColl, The Hon. Mr. Hugh Ernest, I.C.S. ..	Do. (On leave).
Oung, The Hon. Mr. Justice Maung May, M.A., LL.M., Bar-at-Law ..	Do.
Beasley, The Hon. Mr. Justice Horace Owen, Comptn., Bar-at-Law ..	Do.
Lentaigue, The Hon. Mr. Justice B. P., Bar-at-Law ..	Additional Judge, Rangoon.
Carr, The Hon. Mr. Justice William, I.C.S. ..	Do. Rangoon.
Godfrey, The Hon. Mr. Justice J. E., Bar-at-Law ..	Acting Judge, Mandalay.
Duckworth, The Hon. Mr. Justice, E. D., B.A., I.C.S. ..	Ditto. ditto.
Brown, The Hon. Mr. Justice H. A., B.A., I.C.S., Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto. Rangoon.
Maung Thin, Bar-at-Law ..	Administrator-General, Official Trustee.
Higginbotham, Edward, Bar-at-Law ..	Official Assignee and Receiver, Rangoon.
Barretto, Charles Lionel, Advocate ..	Government Advocate.
MacDougall, Raibeart MacIntyre, M.A., I.C.S. ..	Government Prosecutor, Moulmein.
	Registrar, High Court, Rangoon.

Central Provinces Judicial Department.

Baker, William Thomas Webb, B.A., I.C.S. ..	Judicial Commissioner.
Prideux, F. W. A., O.B.E. ..	Additional Judicial Commissioner.
Hallifax, H. F., I.C.S. ..	Do. do.
Kotwal, P. S., Bar-at-Law ..	Do. do.
Kinkhede, Rao Bahadur Madho Rao, B.A., B.L. ..	Temporary Additional Judicial Commissioner.
Mitchell, D. G., C.I.E., I.C.S. ..	Legal Remembrancer.
Dick, George Paris, C.I.E., Bar-at-Law ..	Government Advocate.
Alay Raza, Saliyd, Bar-at-Law ..	Registrar.
Abdul Latif Khan, B.A., LL.B. ..	Deputy Registrar.

N.W. Frontier Province Judicial Department.

Pipon, P. J. G., C. M. G., C.I.E., M.C., I.C.S. ..	Judicial Commissioner.
Umar Khatab ..	Registrar.

Punjab Judicial Department.

The Hon'ble Sir Rai Bahadur Shadi Lal, Bar-at-Law ..	Chief Judge.
Smith, The Hon'ble Mr. H. Scott, I.C.S. ..	Judge.
Abdur Rauf, The Hon. Khan Bahadur Sayyed Muhammad ..	Do.
Le Rossignol, The Hon. Mr. Walter Aubin, I.C.S. ..	Do.
Broadway, The Hon. Mr. Alan Brice, Bar-at-Law ..	Do.
Martineau, The Hon. Mr. Alfred Edward, I.C.S. ..	Do.
Harrison, The Hon. Mr. Michael Harman ..	Do.
Campbell, The Hon. Mr. Archibald, I.C.S. ..	Additional Judge.
Pforde, The Hon. Mr. Justice Cecil ..	Do.
Moti Sagar, The Hon. Mr. R. B., Barr-at-Law ..	Do.
Coldstream, John, B.A., I.C.S. ..	Legal Remembrancer.
Jail Lal, Rai Bahadur ..	Government Advocate.
Blacker, Harold Alfred Cecil, B.A. ..	Registrar.
Noad, Charles Humphrey Cardon, B.A., Bar-at-Law ..	Assistant Legal Remembrancer and Administrator-General and Official Trustee.

United Provinces Judicial Department.

Mears, The Hon. Sir Edward Grimwood, Bar-at-Law ..	Chief Justice.
Piggott, The Hon'ble Mr. Theodore Caro, I.C.S. ..	Puisne Judge. (On furlough.)
Walsh, The Hon. Mr. Cecil, Bar-at-Law, M.A. ..	Ditto.
Sulaiman, The Hon. Justice Dr. Shah Muhammad, Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Lindsay, The Hon. Mr. Benjamin, I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Stuart, The Hon. Mr. Louis, C.I.E., I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Kanhaiya Lal, The Hon. Justice Rai Bahadur, Pandit, M.A., LL.B. ..	Acting Puisne Judge.
Daniels, Hon. Mr. Justice S. R., I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Dalal, The Hon. Mr. Justice, B. L., I.C.S. ..	Ditto.
Ryves, The Hon. Mr. Justice Alfred Edward, B.A., Bar-at-Law ..	Additional Puisne Judge.
Mukharji, The Hon. Justice Rai Bahadur Lal Gopal ..	Ditto.
J. E. Pedley, I.C.S. ..	Registrar.
Porter, Wilfred King, Bar-at-Law ..	Law Reporter.
Banarji, Lalit Mohan, M.A., LL.B. ..	Government Advocate.
Shankar Saran, B.A., Bar-at-Law ..	Assistant Government Advocate (Offg.)

COURT OF JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER OF OUDH—LUCKNOW.

Kanhaiya Lal, The Hon. Rai Bahadur, Pandit, M.A., LL.B. ..	Acting Puisne Judge, High Court Allahabad.
Daniels, Hon. Mr. Sidney Reginald, J.P., I.C.S., Bar-at-Law ..	Ditto.
Lyle, D. R., J.P., I.C.S. ..	Second Additional Judicial Commissioner of Oudh. (On combined leave).
Wazir, Hasan Saliyd, B.A., LL.B. ..	Officiating Judicial Commissioner of Oudh.
Neave, H. R., J.P., I.C.S. ..	Officiating 1st Additional Judicial Commissioner of Oudh.
Kendell, C. H. B., C.M.B., J.P., I.C.S. ..	Officiating 2nd Additional Judicial Commissioner of Oudh.
Pandit Tika Ram Misra, M.A., LL.B. ..	Registrar.
Nagendra Nath Ghosal, Rai Bahadur, B.A., LL.B. ..	Government Pleader.

NUMBER AND VALUE OF CIVIL SUITS INSTITUTED.

Administrations.	Number of Suits Instituted.						Total Number of Suits of which cannot be estimated in money.	Total Value of Suits.
	Value not exceeding Rs. 10.	Value Rs. 10 to Rs. 50.	Value Rs. 50 to Rs. 100.	Value Rs. 100 to Rs. 500.	Value Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000.	Value above Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 5,000.		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1. Bengal	91,438	278,032	126,426	146,161	16,128	10,391	6,938	1,350
2. Bihar and Orissa	29,771	62,018	36,440	32,835	5,056	3,795	796	55
3. United Provinces	9,133	64,953	50,506	64,280	9,652	8,497	1,837	32
4. Punjab	10,832	46,258	40,677	56,986	12,974	7,927	1,826	394
5. Delhi	253	1,725	1,376	2,800	612	817	301	22
6. North-West Frontier Province	2,496	6,072	6,369	7,244	1,231	855	239	22
7. Burma	2,354	19,348	14,789	22,473	2,868	2,518	563	1,517
8. Central Provinces and Berar	4,885	33,983	26,047	39,183	5,177	3,558	547	110,180
9. Assam	3,743	17,217	8,915	10,115	934	455	63	41,654
10. Almer Merwara	760	3,253	1,901	1,915	161	201	21	8,945
11. Coorg	150	1,240	675	1,532	25	37	23	2,688
12. Madras	49,644	163,635	143,292	114,188	16,945	12,368	2,799	(a) 450,887
13. Bombay	7,798	46,427	34,910	53,310	10,813	8,701	1,470	(b) 167,109
14. British Baluchistan	342	1,837	1,177	1,218	167	151	21	2,480
TOTAL, 1921	212,499	752,504	424,410	532,240	82,843	60,271	12,621	7,096
1920	242,261	851,941	473,381	584,120	82,914	58,001	12,201	8,902
1919	252,766	864,173	460,938	569,434	73,974	52,773	11,569	7,055
1918	266,355	852,754	428,466	492,400	62,886	43,072	8,387	6,091
1917	296,225	919,308	466,612	517,131	61,140	40,850	7,828	6,449
1916	305,751	935,140	463,294	511,417	60,405	39,680	7,076	6,237
1915	309,505	900,766	431,983	476,916	56,453	37,934	6,753	6,138
1914	286,704	835,694	390,885	438,132	53,931	36,247	6,323	7,030
1913	289,745	851,323	395,540	433,932	50,300	34,666	6,324	7,500
1912	301,394	867,790	393,502	435,852	50,200	33,037	6,161	7,388
1911	299,642	858,388	387,657	406,480	47,408	31,563	5,956	6,336
1910	301,895	879,145	405,969	440,101	56,658	37,732	6,708	7,663
1909	294,927	845,946	378,742	390,373	48,454	30,502	5,680	7,356
1908	289,284	819,595	351,196	366,692	44,551	28,256	5,264	7,347
1907	300,857	808,368	335,736	344,351	40,707	26,166	4,869	6,822
TOTALS	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
TOTALS	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

* Details not given of 42 Bombay suits in 1906; 56 Madras suits in 1908; 96 in 1907; 74 in 1908; 92 in 1909; 376 in 1910; 71 in 1911; 64 in 1912; 22 in 1913; and 28 suits in 1914; 4 in 1918 and 4 in 1919; 370 Bengal suits in 1909; and 49 Delhi suits in 1913 and 84 in 1914.
(a) Excludes 21,206 Suits in "Revenue Courts."
(b) 6,437 "against "Superior Courts."

THE INDIAN POLICE.

The Indian Government employ (1921-22) about 203,000 Officers and men in the Indian Police. In addition to these there are about 30,000 Officers and men of the military police, of whom more than half belong to Burma. The total cost of maintaining the Force has greatly risen in recent years on account of increases of pay and allowances made on account of the increased cost of living. The Budget Estimate for 1922-23 is Rs. 90,78,000. In large cities the Force is concentrated and under direct European control; in the mofussil the men are scattered throughout each District and located at various Outposts and Police stations. The smallest unit for administrative

purposes is the Outpost which generally consists of 3 or 4 Constables under the control of a Head Constable. Outpost Police are maintained to patrol roads and villages and to report all matters of local interest to their superior, the Sub-Inspector. They have no powers to investigate offences and are a survival of the period when the country was in a disturbed state and small bodies of Police were required to keep open communications and afford protection against the raids of dacoits. It is an open question whether they are now of much use. Each Outpost is under a Police Station which is controlled by an officer known as a Sub-Inspector.

Distribution of Police.—The area of a Police Station varies according to local conditions. The latest figures available are:—

	Average area per Police Station.	Average number of Regular Civil Police per 10,000 of Population.
	Square miles.	
Bengal *	126	4.8
Assam	616	5.3
United Provinces	127	7.7
Punjab	203	10.3
North-West Frontier Province	179	19.8
Central Provinces and Berar	242	8.6
Burma *	487	13.4
Madras	144	8.0
Bombay *	252	15.0

* Excluding the towns of Calcutta, Bombay and Rangoon. The figures include the Railway police, but not Military police.

Organisation of Police.

The Police Station Officer (the Sub-Inspector) is responsible for the investigation of all cognisable crimes, that is to say, all offences in which the Police can arrest without a warrant from a Magistrate, which occur within his jurisdiction; he is also held responsible for the maintenance of the public peace and the prevention of crime. From the point of view of the Indian Ryot, he is the most important Police Officer in the District and may rightly be considered the backbone of the Force.

Superior to the Sub-Inspector is the Inspector who holds charge of a Circle containing 4 or 5 Police Stations. His duties are chiefly those of supervision and inspection. He does not ordinarily interfere in the investigation of crime unless the conduct of his subordinates renders this necessary.

The Inspector is usually a selected and experienced Sub-Inspector. Each District contains 3 or 4 Circles, and in the case of large

Districts, is divided into 2 Sub-divisions—one of which is given to an Assistant Superintendent of Police, a European gazetted Officer. The Police Force in each District is controlled by a District Superintendent of Police, who is responsible to the District Magistrate (Collector or Deputy Commissioner) for the detection and prevention of crime and for the maintenance of the public peace, and, to his Deputy Inspector-General and Inspector-General, for the internal administration of his Force. Eight or ten Districts form a Range administered by a Deputy Inspector-General, an officer selected from the ranks of the Superintendents. At the head of the Police of each Province is the Inspector-General who is responsible to the Local Government for the administration of the Provincial Police.

Separate but recruited from the District Force is the Criminal Investigation Department, which is under the control of a specially selected European Officer of the rank and

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The Police.

standing of a Deputy Inspector-General. The Criminal Investigation Department, usually called the C. I. D., is mainly concerned with political inquiries, seditious cases and crimes with ramifications over more than one District or which are considered too important to leave in the hands of the District Police. It is a small force of Sub-Inspectors and Inspectors who have shown their ability and intelligence when working in the mofussil and forms in each Province a local Scotland Yard.

The larger Cities of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras have their own Police Force, independent of the Inspector-General of Police, and under the control of a Commissioner and 2 or more Deputies. For Police purposes each city is divided into divisions; in Calcutta each division is in charge of a Deputy Commissioner of Police; in Bombay and Madras of a Superintendent, these officers being selected from the European ranks of the City Force. In Bombay, however, the Superintendents are Gazetted Officers, and two of them are Indians. Each division is sub-divided into a small number of Police Stations, the station being in charge of an Inspector assisted by Deputy Inspectors Indian Sub-Inspectors and European Sergeants.

The Supreme Government at Delhi and Simla keeps in touch with the Provincial Police by means of the Director of Criminal Intelligence and his Staff. The latter do not interfere in the Local Administration and are mainly concerned with the publication of information regarding international criminals, inter-provincial crime and Political enquiries in which the Supreme Government is interested.

Recruitment.—The constable is enlisted locally. Certain castes are excluded from service and the formation of cliques by filling up the Force from any particular caste or locality is forbidden. In some Provinces a fixed percentage of foreigners must be enlisted. Recruits must produce certificates of good character and pass a medical test. They must be above certain standards of physical development. The constable rises by merit to the rank of Head Constable and, prior to the Police Commission, could rise to the highest Indian subordinate appointments. Since 1906, his chances of promotion have been greatly curtailed; this has certainly lowered the standard coming forward for service in the Force in the lower ranks.

The Sub-Inspector, until 1906, was a selected Head Constable, but Lord Curzon's Commission laid down that Sub-Inspectors should be recruited direct from a socially better class of Indians. In most Provinces, eighty per cent. of the Sub-Inspectors are selected by nomination, trained for a year or 18 months at a Central Police

School, and, after examination, appointed direct to Police Stations to learn their work by actual experience. It is too early to judge this system by results, but it has no doubt great disadvantages and undetected crime in India is increasing rapidly.

An Inspector is generally a selected Sub-Inspector. Direct nomination is the exception, not the rule.

The Deputy Superintendent, a new class of officer, instituted on the recommendation of the Commission, is an Indian gazetted officer and is the native Assistant to the District Superintendent of Police. He is either selected by special promotion from the ranks of the Inspectors or is nominated direct, after a course at the Central Police School.

Prior to 1893, the gazetted ranks of the Force were filled either by nomination or by regimental officers seconded from the Army for certain periods. In 1893, this system was abandoned and Assistant Superintendents were recruited by examination in London. On arrival in India, they were placed on probation until they had passed their examinations in the vernacular, in law, and in riding and drill. The establishment of Police Training Schools in 1906 has done much to improve the training of the Police Probationer, and selection by examination has given Government a better educated officer, but open competition does not reveal the best administrators and should be tempered, as in the Navy, by selection.

Internal Administration.—The District Force is divided into 2 Branches—Armed and Unarmed. As the duties of the armed branch consist of guarding Treasuries, escorting treasure and prisoners and operating against dangerous gangs of dacoits, they are maintained and controlled on a military basis. They are armed and drilled and taught to shoot after military methods. The unarmed branch are called upon to collect fines, magisterially inflicted, serve summonses and warrants, control traffic, destroy stray dogs, extinguish fires, enquire into accidents and non-cognizable offences. The lower grades are clothed and housed by Government without expense to the individual. The leave rules are fairly liberal, but every officer, European or Native, must serve for 30 years before he is entitled to any pension, unless he can obtain a medical certificate invaliding him from the service. This period of service in an Eastern climate is generally admitted to be too long and the efficiency of the Force would be considerably improved if Government allowed both the officers and men to retire after a shorter period of service.

STATISTICS OF POLICE WORK.

The undesirability of attaching undue importance to statistical results as a test of the merits of police work was a point upon which considerable stress was laid by the Indian Police Commission, who referred to the evils likely to result from the prevalence among subordinate officers of an impression that the advancement of an officer would depend upon his being able to show a high

ratio of convictions, both to cases and to persons arrested, and a low ratio of crime. The objection applies more particularly to the use of statistics for small areas; but they cannot properly be used as a basis of comparison even for larger areas without taking into account the differences in the conditions under which the police work; and, it may be added, they can at the best indicate only very

imperfectly the degree of success with which the police carry out that important branch of their duties, which consists in the prevention of crime. These considerations have been emphasized in recent orders of the Government of India. Subject to these observations,

the figures below may be given as some indication of the volume of work falling upon the police, and of the wide differences between the conditions and the statistical results in different provinces:—

Administrations.	Number of Offences reported.	Number of Persons under Trial.	Persons whose cases were disposed of				Persons remaining under Trial at the end of the Year.
			Discharged or Acquitted.	Convicted.	Committed or Referred.	Died, Escaped or Transferred to another Province.	
Bengal	335,862	293,526	102,944	172,064	3,467	214	14,840
Bihar and Orissa	100,349	112,027	62,150	40,123	1,710	154	7,890
United Provinces	227,814	343,003	195,398	130,266	6,828	563	9,918
Punjab	202,979	278,618	192,062	61,032	2,162	312	23,047
North-West Frontier Province.	24,224	34,726	19,203	13,677	643	40	1,163
Purma	115,170	178,33	65,582	102,290	2,000	1,759	6,701
Central Provinces and Berar.	36,408	58,685	29,117	22,318	3,023	116	4,111
Assam	45,055	42,862	20,583	13,291	581	59	2,348
Ajmer-Merwara	6,846	11,553	5,126	5,546		93	788
Cooch	5,014	4,840	2,765	1,864		21	190
Madras	307,410	409,201	177,510	203,502	5,489	177	22,523
Bombay	182,266	256,520	98,338	139,094	2,689	1,424	14,965
British Baluchistan	8,771	13,168	5,697	4,621		622	2,328
Delhi	8,156	7,892	3,303	3,581		36	471
TOTAL, 1921 ..	1,605,524	2,044,956	986,178	913,270	28,628	5,555	111,313
1920 ..	1,707,359	2,115,885	1,001,259	973,250	27,343	5,453	108,576
1919 ..	1,720,347	2,134,582	973,645	1,024,447	33,185	5,632	97,649
1918 ..	1,530,081	1,929,669	892,131	918,881	25,517	6,239	86,889
1917 ..	1,638,577	2,038,170	944,905	987,148	22,820	4,810	79,572
1916 ..	1,669,070	2,098,379	980,525	1,014,891	23,186	6,139	73,619
1915 ..	1,603,076	2,085,622	982,589	997,210	25,185	4,769	75,851
1914 ..	1,634,224	2,120,472	1,031,374	992,922	23,554	4,949	67,632
1913 ..	1,658,405	2,141,362	1,051,888	987,592	22,459	4,735	74,652
1912 ..	1,659,254	2,132,812	1,053,657	977,267	21,650	4,313	75,765
1911 ..	1,502,995	1,960,679	966,783	897,786	21,173	3,906	70,832
1910 ..	1,447,732	1,884,951	922,379	872,298	21,029	4,439	64,677
1909 ..	1,421,350	1,856,219	914,500	854,667	22,174	3,349	61,502
1908 ..	1,412,817	1,814,207	897,462	860,065	24,535	3,625	58,196
1907 ..	1,411,653	1,816,827	880,706	851,097	21,296	3,505	60,223

- (a) Includes 1 person handed over to Military Authorities and 8 persons remanded for retrial in 1919.
- " 9 persons handed over to Military Authorities in each of the years 1917 & 1918 and 2 & 3 persons remanded for retrial in 1917 & 1918, respectively.
- " 8 " handed over to Military Authorities and 1 person remanded for retrial in 1916.
- " 10 " handed over to Military Authorities and 3 persons remanded for retrial in 1915.
- " 25 " (9 on dormant file, 16 handed over to Military Authorities) in 1914.
- " 30 " (13 " " " to Military Authorities) in 1913.
- " 149 " (139 " " " " " " and 1 sent to Naval Authorities) in 1912.
- " 204 " (171 " " " " to Military Authorities) in 1911.
- " 128 " (117 " " " " to Military Authorities) in 1910.
- " 26 " (10 " " " " " " and 2 referred under Section 307, Criminal Procedure Code) in 1909.

(b) Excludes the commitment of 5, 10, and 4 persons quashed by the High Court in 1915-1916 and 1917, respectively.

(c) Excludes 3 persons remanded for retrial by the High Court and 1 referred to the Local Government.

(d) Includes 10 persons sent to Military Authorities.

(e) Includes 2 persons discharged without trial.

PRINCIPAL POLICE OFFENCES
CASES.

Administrations.	Offences against State and Public Tranquility.		Murder.		Other serious Offences against the Person.		Dacoity.		Cattle Theft.		Ordinary Theft.		House-trespass and Housebreaking with intent to commit Offence.	
	Reported.	Conviction obtained.	Reported.	Conviction.	Reported.	Conviction.	Reported.	Conviction.	Reported.	Conviction.	Reported.	Conviction.	Reported.	Conviction.
Bengal	2,250	805	512	40	5,186	1,130	789	76	1,091	610	28,344	4,974	45,332	2,196
Calcutta	169	82	26	4	837	218	4	1	22	16	6,368	1,510	2,992	292
Suburbs	1,322	380	245	38	2,760	532	369	30	910	803	10,849	3,131	22,491	1,157
Bihar and Orissa	1,532	851	859	247	7,307	2,409	1,348	281	4,557	1,094	29,745	6,244	54,662	4,714
United Provinces	2,797	600	811	292	7,266	1,984	247	73	3,436	923	10,460	2,414	24,380	2,414
Punjab	1,597	600	811	292	7,266	1,984	247	73	3,436	923	10,460	2,414	24,380	2,414
Delhi	182	83	712	3	1,866	40	8	..	48	54	697	234	724	95
N. West Frontier Pro.	903	432	779	273	1,661	671	429	57	1,092	56	1,247	392	2,838	328
Burma	25	18	11	170	10,323	3,069	444	98	5,803	1,619	19,616	6,598	11,513	3,733
Rangoon	757	285	309	102	2,360	681	150	1	1,720	709	1,841	652	431	153
Central Provinces and Berar.	806	275	85	33	1,298	354	61	12	336	136	4,707	1,021	6,699	656
Assam	2,015	742	1,052	218	5,614	1,477	996	151	4,636	1,839	24,099	5,854	15,506	2,751
Coorg	1,298	380	574	185	4,426	1,223	574	120	3,654	1,104	14,825	4,899	12,336	2,179
Madras	263	102	54	21	814	347	12	7	..	..	6,313	2,899	1,889	416
Bombay	13,937	5,086	6,046	1,637	50,492	14,305	5,559	851	26,435	8,136	189,607	43,652	220,813	23,178
Bombay Town and Island	11,882	4,350	5,715	1,363	51,114	14,255	4,073	789	27,580	8,674	201,063	43,376	208,650	22,999
TOTAL, 1921	11,882	4,350	5,715	1,363	51,114	14,255	4,073	789	27,580	8,674	201,063	43,376	208,650	22,999
1920	10,563	4,541	5,271	1,456	49,375	14,322	5,807	1,234	31,638	10,428	230,780	58,380	256,232	28,807
1919	10,563	4,541	5,271	1,456	49,375	14,322	5,807	1,234	31,638	10,428	230,780	58,380	256,232	28,807
1918	11,234	4,575	4,856	1,428	47,772	13,805	5,206	847	29,294	9,422	194,105	43,070	220,123	21,188
1917	11,440	4,631	4,778	1,388	50,443	14,354	3,050	606	29,194	9,367	179,427	40,055	209,907	21,239
1916	11,698	4,753	1,907	1,398	51,459	15,277	3,266	563	28,357	9,316	179,549	41,502	217,295	21,655
1915	11,708	4,753	1,907	1,398	51,459	15,277	3,266	563	28,357	9,316	179,549	41,502	217,295	21,655
1914	11,698	4,753	1,907	1,398	51,459	15,277	3,266	563	28,357	9,316	179,549	41,502	217,295	21,655
1913	12,172	4,798	1,897	1,398	52,522	15,324	3,770	733	29,383	9,226	188,286	43,572	235,509	22,642
1912	12,172	4,798	1,897	1,398	52,522	15,324	3,770	733	29,383	9,226	188,286	43,572	235,509	22,642
1911	11,573	4,456	1,281	1,031	49,308	14,763	2,512	413	27,251	7,427	178,824	39,664	216,817	21,266
1910	11,573	4,456	1,281	1,031	49,308	14,763	2,512	413	27,251	7,427	178,824	39,664	216,817	21,266
1909	11,573	4,456	1,281	1,031	49,308	14,763	2,512	413	27,251	7,427	178,824	39,664	216,817	21,266
1908	12,411	4,797	1,203	1,014	43,838	12,678	2,984	659	20,456	8,927	194,246	48,448	236,280	24,972

* Including some cases of cattle theft.

JAILS.

Jail administration in India is regulated generally by the Prisons Act of 1894, and by rules issued under it by the Government of India and the local governments. The punishments authorised by the Indian Penal Code for convicted offenders include transportation, penal servitude, rigorous imprisonment (which may include short periods of solitary confinement), and simple imprisonment. Accommodation has also to be provided in the jails for civil and under-trial prisoners.

The origin of all jail improvements in India in recent years was the Jail Commission of 1889. The report of the Commission, which consisted of only two members, both officials serving under the Government of India, is extremely long, and reviews the whole question of jail organization and administration in the minutest detail. In most matters the Commission's recommendations have been accepted and adopted by Local Governments, but in various matters, mainly of a minor character, their proposals have either been rejected *ad initio* as unsuited to local conditions, abandoned as unworkable after careful experiment or accepted in principle but postponed for the present as impossible.

The most important of all the recommendations of the Commission, the one that might in fact be described as the corner stone of their report, is that there should be in each Presidency three classes of jails: in the first place, large central jails for convicts sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment; secondly, district jails at the head-quarters of districts; and, thirdly, subsidiary jails and "lock-ups" for under-trial prisoners and convicts sentenced to short terms of imprisonment. The jail department in each province is under the control of an Inspector-General; he is generally an officer of the Indian Medical Service with jail experience, and the Superintendents of certain jails are usually recruited from the same service. The district jail is under the charge of the civil surgeon, and is frequently inspected by the district magistrate. The staff under the Superintendent includes, in large central jails, a Deputy Superintendent to superintend the jail manufactures, and in all central and district jails one or more subordinate medical officers. The executive staff consists of jailors and warders, and convict petty officers are employed in all central and district jails, the prospect of promotion to one of these posts being a strong inducement to good behaviour. A Press Note issued by the Bombay Government in October, 1915, says:—"The cadre and emoluments of all ranks from Warder to Superintendent have been repeatedly revised and altered in recent years. But the Department is not at all attractive in its lower grades. The two weak spots in the jail administration at the moment are the insufficiency of Central Prisons and the difficulty of obtaining good and sufficient warders."

Employment of Prisoners.—The work on which convicts are employed is mostly carried on within the jail walls, but extra-mural employment on a large scale is sometimes allowed, as, for example, when a large

number of convicts were employed in excavating the Jhelum Canal in the Punjab. Within the walls prisoners are employed on jail service and repairs, and in workshops. The main principle laid down with regard to jail manufactures is that the work must be penal and industrial. The industries are on a large scale, multifarious employment being condemned, while care is taken that the jail shall not compete with local traders. As far as possible industries are adapted to the requirements of the consuming public departments, and printing, tent-making, and the manufacture of clothing are among the commonest employments. Schooling is confined to juveniles; the experiment of teaching adults has been tried, but literary instruction is unsuitable for the class of persons who fill an Indian jail.

The conduct of convicts in jail is generally good, and the number of desperate characters among them is small. Failure to perform the allotted task is by far the most common offence. In a large majority of cases the punishment inflicted is one of those classed as "minor." Among the "major" punishments feters take the first place. Corporal punishment is inflicted in relatively few cases, and the number is steadily falling. Punishments were revised as the result of the Commission of 1889. Two notable punishments then abolished were shaving the heads of female prisoners and the stocks. The latter, which was apparently much practised in Bombay, was described by the Commission as inflicting exquisite torture. Punishments are now scheduled and graded into major and minor. The most difficult of all jail problems is the internal maintenance of order among the prisoners, for which purpose paid warders and convict warders are employed. With this is bound up the question of a special class of well-behaved prisoners which was tried from 1905 onwards in the Thana Jail.

Juvenile Prisoners.—As regards "youthful offenders"—i.e., those below the age of 15—the law provides alternatives to imprisonment, and it is strictly enjoined that boys shall not be sent to jail when they can be dealt with otherwise. The alternatives are detention in a reformatory school for a period of from three to seven years, but not beyond the age of 18; discharge after admonition; delivery to the parent or guardian on the latter executing a bond to be responsible for the good behaviour of the culprit; and whipping by way of school discipline.

The question of the treatment of "young adult" prisoners has in recent years received much attention. Under the Prisons Act, prisoners below the age of 18 must be kept separate from older prisoners, but the recognition of the principle that an ordinary jail is not a fitting place for adolescents (other than youthful habituals) who are over 15, and therefore ineligible for admission to the reformatory school, has led Local Governments to consider schemes for going beyond this by treating young adults on the lines followed at Borstal, and considerable progress has been made in this direction. In 1905, a special class for selected juveniles and young adults was established at the Dharwar

jail in Bombay; in 1908 a special juvenile jail was opened at Alipore in Bengal; in 1909 the Meiktila jail in Burma and the Tanjore jail in Madras were set aside for adolescents, and a new jail for juvenile and "juvenile adult" convicts was opened at Bareilly in the United Provinces; and in 1910 it was decided to concentrate adolescents in the Punjab at the Lahore District jail, which is now worked on Borstal lines. Other measures had previously been taken in some cases; a special reformatory system for "juvenile adults" had, for example, been in force in two central jails in the Punjab since the early years of the decade, and "Borstal enclosures" had been established in some jails in Bengal. But the public is slow to appreciate that it has a duty towards prisoners, and but little progress has been made in the formation of Prisoners' Aid Societies except in Bombay and Calcutta, though even in those cities much remains to be done.

Reformatory Schools.—These schools have been administered since 1899 by the Education department, and the authorities are directed to improve the industrial education of the inmates, to help the boys to obtain employment on leaving school, and as far as possible to keep a watch on their careers.

Transportation.—Transportation is an old punishment of the British Indian criminal law, and a number of places were formerly appointed for the reception of Indian transported convicts. The only penal settlement at the present time is Port Blair in the Andaman Islands.

Commission of Enquiry, 1919.—A committee was appointed to investigate the whole system of prison administration in India with special reference to recent legislation and experience in Western countries. Its report, published in 1921, was summarised in the Indian Year Book, 1922 (pages 670-671). A number of reforms were advocated but, owing to financial stringency, it has not yet been possible to introduce some of the more important of them.

Fines and Short Sentences.—Those sections of the Indian Penal Code, under which imprisonment must be awarded when a conviction occurs, should be amended so as to give discretion to the court. Sentences of imprisonment for less than twenty-eight days should be prohibited.

The Indeterminate Sentences.—The sentence of every long-term prisoner should be brought under revision, as soon as the prisoner has served half the sentence in the case of the non-habitual, and two-thirds of the sentence in the case of the habitual, remission earned being counted in each case. The revision should be carried out by a Revising Board, composed of the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Ses-

sions Judge and a non-official. In all cases, the release of a prisoner on parole should be made subject to conditions, breach of which would render him liable to be remanded to undergo the full original sentence. The duty of seeing that a prisoner fulfils the conditions on which he was released should not be imposed upon the police or upon the village headman, but special officers, to be termed parole officers, should be appointed for the purpose. These parole officers should possess a good standard of education, though not necessarily a university degree, and should both protect and advise the released prisoner and report breaches of the conditions of release.

Transportation and the Andamans.—If any fresh attempt at colonisation is made, it should be in an entirely new locality. A fresh attempt at colonisation in the Middle Andaman is not recommended. The retention of the settlement at Port Blair on the present lines is not recommended. The entire abandonment of the Andamans as a place of deportation is not recommended. Deportation to the Andamans should cease, except in regard to specially dangerous prisoners and any others whose removal from Indian jails is considered by the Government to be in the public interests. The existing restrictions as to age and physical condition of prisoners sentenced to transportation to the Andamans should, unless special medical grounds exist in any particular case, cease to apply. The Indian Penal Code should be amended by the substitution of rigorous imprisonment for transportation. In provinces where the available prison accommodation will not permit of the immediate cessation of deportation of all but selected prisoners, the Star class should be the first, and the habitual the last, to be detained in Indian jails. No female should in future be deported to the Andamans, and those now there should be brought back to India and distributed among the Provinces to which they belong. In those Provinces where the jails are insufficient to detain prisoners now deported, additional accommodation should be provided as soon as possible.

Criminal Tribes.—The first essential of success in dealing with the criminal tribes is the provision of a reasonable degree of economic comfort for the people. It is therefore of paramount importance to locate settlements where sufficient work at remunerative rates is available. Large numbers of fresh settlers should never be sent to a settlement without first ascertaining whether there is work for them. Commitment to settlements should, as far as possible, be by gangs not by individuals. It is desirable to utilise both Government and private agency for the control of settlements.

The variations of the jail population in British India during the five years ending 1922 are shown in the following table:—

	1922.	1921.	1920.	1919	1918.
Jail population of all classes on 1st January	126,917	118,250	120,133	122,158	115,589
Admissions during the year	639,001	593,348	578,109	606,568	605,242
Aggregate	765,918	711,598	698,242	818,726	720,831
Discharged during the year from all causes	631,628	584,681	579,992	698,591	598,073
Jail population on 31st December	134,290	126,917	118,250	120,135	122,158
Convict population on 1st January	106,117	100,541	101,617	100,220	95,468
Admissions during the year	185,092	176,056	168,572	200,442	166,303
Aggregate	291,209	276,597	270,189	300,662	261,771
Released during the year	173,313	167,403	166,184	195,164	156,373
Transported beyond seas	1,514	537	1,556	1,208	1,471
Casualties, &c.	3,244	2,832	2,563	3,584	4,590
Convict population on 31st December.	114,817	106,117	100,541	101,617	100,220

More than one-half of the total number of convicts received in jails during 1922 came from the classes engaged in agriculture and cattle tending, about 150,000 out of 185,000 are returned as illiterate.

The percentage of previously convicted prisoners was 13·21 as against 13·37 in 1921 while the number of youthful offenders fell from 417 to 366. The following table shows the nature and length of sentences of convicts admitted to jails in 1920 to 1922:—

Nature and Length of Sentence.	1922.	1921	1920.
Not exceeding one month	38,028	38,661	38,706
Above one month and not exceeding six months.	72,141	73,362	70,745
" six months one year ..	37,177	32,356	31,916
" one year five years ..	25,147	25,257	21,550
" five years ten	4,422	3,240	2,796
Exceeding ten years	645	428	227
Transportation beyond seas—			
(a) for life	2,193	1,439	1,277
(b) for a term	4,219	437	628
Sentenced to death	1,111	876	750

The total daily average population for 1922 was 120,738 the total offences dealt with by criminal courts was 390, and by Superintendents 126,967. The corresponding figures for 1920 were 99,641,735 and 127,595, respectively.

The total number of corporal punishments showed an increase, viz., from 234 to 330. The total number of cases in which penal diet (with and without solitary confinement) was prescribed was 7,227 as compared with 6,037 in the preceding year.

Total expenditure increased from Rs. 1,67,54,616 to Rs. 1,94,20,232 and total cash earnings decreased from Rs. 28, 67,629 to Rs. 26,34,877 there was, consequently an increase of Rs. 23,98,937, in the net cost to Government.

The death rate increased from 20·36 per mille in 1921 to 22·13 in 1922. The admissions to hospital were higher, and the daily average number of sick rose from 28·32 to 29·42. The chief causes of death were tubercle of lungs, dysentery and pneumonia.

The Laws of 1924

BY

RATANLAL AND DHIRAJLAL THAKOR,

Editors, "Bombay Law Reporter".

The Indian Cotton Cess (Amendment) Act.—This Act amends the principal Act in two particulars. First, it provides for the levy of cess on cotton exported by land from British India to any foreign territory (sections 3 and 4). Secondly, the power to collect the cess throughout the Presidency, which was hitherto vested only in the Collector of Bombay has been decentralised, and now vests in any of the District Collectors within whose district the Mill may be situated (section 2).

The Cantonments Act.—The law governing Cantonments was to be found in two measures: (1) the Cantonment Act of 1910, and (2) the Cantonment Code of 1912. To find out the law on a particular point, one had to look into both the measures. This was not very convenient to the executive officers; it was simply puzzling to laymen. The legislature has, therefore, balled down the two enactments, and replaced them by the present consolidated Act of legislature. The main changes effected in the law are that the Government of the home affairs of every Cantonment is more municipalised than before. The old and familiar Cantonment Committee has disappeared and "Cantonment Board" has been constituted in its place. The members of the new board will, in some measure, be elected. Our friend, the Cantonment Magistrate, has gone for good: his place is taken by an "executive officer", but the new officer has been relieved of all judicial powers or functions. The Cantonment fund has now become the local fund vested in the Cantonment authority. The Military Authorities do still retain special powers as regards the health, welfare and discipline of troops. In short, new Cantonment Boards will be miniature municipalities or local fund boards. The Act starts off with definitions which are largely copied out from Municipal Acts (section 2). The Second Chapter aims at definition and delimitation of Cantonments. The Cantonment Authorities and Cantonment Boards are treated of in the next Chapter. There shall be a Cantonment authority for every Cantonment (section 12); and so also, an executive officer, appointed by Government (section 17). In some of the Cantonments, there shall be also Cantonment Boards, which shall consist of (a) Commanding Officer of the Cantonment; (b) a First Class Magistrate; (c) the Health Officer; (d) the Executive Engineer; (e) Military Officers not more than four in number; and (f) as many elected members as to equal the members under (b) and (c) (section 14). The duration of a Cantonment authority is three years (section 15). Every member of it has to take an oath of allegiance on first taking office (section 16). The Commanding Officer of the Cantonment is the President (section 20); though the Vice-President

is to be by election (section 21). The duties of the President, Vice-President and the Executive Officer are defined (sections 22—24). Detailed provisions are made for election of members (sections 26—31). The qualifications or otherwise of members and servants are next described (sections 32—38). The rest of the Chapter is taken up with provisions for procedure at meetings (sections 37—55). Detailed provisions have been made for sale and possession of spirituous liquors and intoxicating drugs (sections 56—69). Chapter V contains rules for imposition and collection of taxes. Savings from the taxes go to make up the Cantonment fund which is defined in S. 106, which in its administration and vesting is likened to a local fund. It is within the power of the Cantonment authorities to enter into and perform all contracts under the Act (sections 112—115). The duties and discretionary functions of the Cantonment authority are more than ever likened to municipal obligations and enumerated in sections 116 and 117. The work that the Cantonment authorities may be expected to do is then described. The suppression of nuisances (section 118), the elimination of stray dogs (section 119), the regulation of traffic (Section 120) and the prevention of fire, etc. (sections 121 to 127) are the main amongst their functions. They are also charged with sanitation and the prevention and treatment of diseases. These include Conservancy and Sanitation (sections 130—144), burial and burning grounds (sections 145—149), prevention of infectious and contagious diseases (sections 150—170), hospitals and dispensaries (sections 171—176), control of traffic for hygienic purposes (section 177). It is also the function of these bodies to regulate construction of buildings (sections 179—190), to look after streets (sections 191—193), and to attend to boundaries and trees (sections 191—197). The regulation of markets (sections 198—201), slaughter-houses (sections 202—208), trades and occupations (sections 209—211), and import of cattle and flesh (section 216) form the subjects of their attention. The questions of water-supply (sections 217—226) and drainage (sections 227—234) are next dealt with. The Cantonment authorities are also armed with powers to remove and exclude any person from Cantonments to suppress sexual immorality (sections 235—240). Provision is also made for defining their powers and procedure is faintly mapped out. A scale of penalties to be inflicted for breach of provisions is laid down; and a scheme of appeals is provided for (sections 241—279). The Cantonment authorities, like their prototypes of municipalities, are given very wide powers to frame bye-laws on numerous subjects (sections 280—285). Thus, this Act furnishes a comprehensive Code of rules for the municipal Government of Cantonments.

Immigration into India Act.—This is an Act of reciprocity aimed at these possessions of the Crown that do not give reciprocal advantages to Indian Immigrants. It enables the Governor-General in Council to make rules to secure that persons, not being of Indian origin domiciled in any British possession, shall have no greater rights and privileges, as regards entry into and residence in British India, than are accorded by the law and administration of such possession to persons of Indian domicile (section 3).

Central Board of Revenue Act.—As recommended by the Indian Retrenchment Committee, 1922-23, this Act provides for the creation of a Central Board of Revenue, which not only absorbs within itself the present Board of Inland Revenue, but also sweeps in Customs, Salt, Opium, Excise and Stamps so far as the Central Government is concerned.

Indian Penal Code Amendment Act.—For the offences of kidnapping from lawful guardianship, and buying and selling minors for purposes of prostitution, the age limit of the minor concerned was fixed at 16. It is now raised to 18 years. In other words, the protection as regards those offences is afforded to minors up to 18 years of age.

Criminal Tribes Act.—This is purely a consolidating measure. It repeals and replaces five Acts of legislature. The local Government is competent to declare any tribe, gang or class a criminal tribe (section 3). The members of the tribe so declared are liable to be registered by a District Magistrate (section 4), and the register is to remain in the custody of the District Superintendent of Police (section 4). A member of the declared tribe may be called upon (a) to report himself at fixed intervals; and (b) to notify his place of residence (section 10). The Local Government have not only the power to restrict movements of criminal tribes (section 11), but also to vary specified area or place of residence (section 12) or to restrict or settle criminal tribe in another province (section 13). It has also the power of placing the tribe in settlement (section 16) or to place their children in Schools and to apprentice them (section 17). Wide rule-making powers are given by section 20; and penalties for breach are amply provided for (sections 21-24). A registered person found beyond the prescribed limits is liable to be arrested without warrant (section 25). Every village headman and village watchman is under an obligation to give information to authorities concerned of the failure of any person to give information on the departure of any registered member (section 24). No Court has jurisdiction to question the validity of notifications issued under the Act (section 29).

The Repealing and Amending Act.—This is a measure of usual ventilation. It removes words and phrases that have become useless, or redundant in existing Acts of legislature either by efflux of time or by virtue of other repeals and amendments.

The Indian Finance Act.—Early this year, the Legislative Assembly of India threw out the draft of this enactment and declined to pass it into law. The Governor-General,

therefore, found it necessary to certify it under the powers reserved to him in that behalf. It keeps in tact the scale of certain taxes levied by the Finance Act of 1923. The Inland postal rates and the rates of Income-Tax remain as they were.

The Sea Customs (Amendment) Act.—This amendment carries out the recommendation made by the Indian Fiscal Commission that customs duty should be levied also on goods belonging to Government.

The Indian Tariff (Amendment) Act.—This Act remedies a leakage discovered in the Indian Tariff Act. It enables Government of India to levy customs duties on any articles imported or exported, as the case may be, by land from or to any territory outside British India which is declared to be foreign territory for the purposes of the Act (section 4).

The Indian Coinage (Amendment) Act.—Under the present Coinage Act, whenever Government found counterfeits of any coin issued by it, except the gold coin, it had the power to call in the coin. This meant that the coin ceased to be issued from Government treasuries and currency offices; but still the coin retained its capacity for circulation among the public. A new section (section 15A) is now added under which the Government can also deprive any coin of its legal tender. This means that the called-in coin loses its monetary value for internal circulation; though its possessor can get its money value from a Government Currency Office.

The Income Tax Amendment Act.—Experience discovered four loopholes of escape in the provisions of the Income Tax Act. Clubs or associations, which so far escaped taxation, are now brought under the Act. Similarly, private Provident Funds are now made amenable to the provisions of the Act. Section 25 of the Act has been so amended as to provide for the assessment of a business profession or vocation which was in existence at the commencement of the Act but on which no tax was charged under the Income Tax Act of 1918. A period of six months has been provided for an application by the assessee to the High Court for the issue of a mandamus under Section 66 (3) of the Act.

Indian Soldiers (Litigation) Act.—This Act amends Section 11 of the Act of 1918, by substituting "is or has been" for "is".

Stamps (Specified Instruments) Act.—In 1923 the Stamp Act was amended as regards Promissory Notes. Formerly, all such promissory notes were stamped with one anna stamp. Under the amendment, all promissory notes up to Rs. 250 in value must be stamped with one anna stamp; but those in value ranging from Rs. 250 to 1,000 were to be stamped with two-anna stamps (that is, the revenue stamps of 0-1-0 or 0-0-6 issued by Post Office); and all promissory notes above Rs. 1,000 in value became chargeable with four annas stamps (i.e., Revenue Stamps). The Act came into force on October 1, 1923. It would be too much to expect that the provisions became known to the man in the street whom it largely affected. A very large number of promissory notes continued to be passed on one anna

stamps irrespective of the value. They all became invalid and irremediable under the Amended Act. This Act is, therefore, passed to validate all such promissory notes passed between October 1, 1923 and December 31st, 1923.

The steel Industry (Protection) Act.—With a view to provide for the fostering and development of the Steel Industry in India, this Act has been passed. It enables the Governor-General of India in Council to levy protective duty of such articles of steel manufactured abroad and imported into British India as might render ineffective the protection granted to similar articles manufactured in this Country (section 2). It also provides for the grant of bounties on steel rails and fishplates, the following rates:—Rs. 32 per ton on manufactures completed up to April 1, 1925; Rs. 28 at the same rate on those completed in the next year; and Rs. 20 at the same rate on articles completed in the year following (section 3). It also provides for bounties of sums not exceeding seven lakhs of rupees in a year, for iron or steel wagons manufactured in this country (section 4).

Indian Motor Vehicles (Amendment) Act.—It has been held by the High Court of Bombay in *Emperor v. Sherston Baker* (BOMBAY LAW REPORTER, Vol. XXIV, page 60) that as the Act contained no provisions, the rule made by the Bombay Government regarding annual re-registration of motor vehicles was *ultra vires*. The Act is now so amended as to legalise the renewal of registration of motor vehicles on payment of requisite fees.

Indian Post Office (Amendment) Act.—Recently the Indian Postal Department has introduced into this Country the use of stamping machines. It enables the user of the machine to impress postal articles with a given number of impressions direct from a stamping machine, in lieu of affixing postage stamps. This facilitates the work of persons who have a large number of letters to post. The object of this Act is to invest the machine impressions with the sanctity of postage stamps and to protect them from counterfeiting.

Imperial Bank of India (Amendment) Act.—When the Alliance Bank of Simla failed some time ago, the Imperial Bank of India rushed to its rescue and proposed a scheme for the relief of its constituents. This, the Imperial Bank was unable to do, and sanction for the step was obtained from the Government of India. Even then the action of the Imperial Bank was called into question by a suit filed in the High Court of Bombay; but the suit failed in the Court of Appeal, and the action

was justified. A new Section (18A) has now been added to the Act, which empowers the Imperial Bank to intervene effectively, in a financial crisis, for the purpose of either averting the winding up of any banking concern or facilitating the winding up of any such concern not only against its securities, but also against its assets generally.

Indian Criminal Law (Amendment) Act.—The protection of minor girls against immoral surroundings has long been engaging the attention of the Legislature. The scope of Sections 372 and 373 of the Indian Penal Code, which refer to selling or buying minors for purposes of prostitution, is much enlarged. It is now penal to sell or buy a person for the aforesaid purposes though the purpose of prostitution may not be carried out till such person attains majority. Two explanations are added to Section 372. The first one lays down that when the selling is to the keeper of a brothel, it will be presumed, unless the accused proved the contrary, that the sale was with the intent that the minor would be used for the purpose of prostitution. A similar explanation is added to Section 373 also. The powers which Magistrates possess of restoring custody of abducted females, is now made to extend to minors of the age of sixteen (section 552 of the Criminal Procedure Code).

The Land Customs Act.—There was so far no All-India Act on land customs. Bombay had its local Act XXIX of 1857 and Madras had its own VI of 1844. Both these Acts were very old and experience had discovered a number of defects in them. The two local Acts are repealed and replaced by one all comprehensive India Act. Recently, a Central Board of Revenue has been constituted at Delhi. It will take charge of the land customs for the whole of India; and check effectively the extensive smuggling that has been going on for some time past over the land frontiers in India. The machinery provided by the Act is first, the appointment of Land Customs Officers (section 3); and secondly, establishment of land customs stations and determination of routes (section 4). It imposes the necessity on every person of taking out a permit who wishes to pass across frontier goods dutiable or not (section 5). Personal luggage of a person is entitled to pass free of duty (section 6). Any person who attempts to pass undutiable goods across a frontier is liable to pay a fine of Rs. 50; and one attempting to smuggle dutiable goods can be penalised with a fine extending to Rs. 1,000 (section 7). The goods, except personal luggage, cannot be allowed to cross a land frontier on public holidays or on days notified by the Chief Customs Authority (section 8).

Labour.

Various causes have combined to give added importance to the great group of human activities concentrated under the generic term of Labour. India is still a predominantly agricultural country and more than seventy per cent. of its people are dependent on the soil for their livelihood. Nevertheless a process of industrialisation has gone steadily forward. Calcutta and Bombay are great manufacturing cities. Whilst the jute mills dominate Calcutta and the cotton mills Bombay, there has grown up round these industries a substantial body of other manufactures. Another considerable manufacturing centre has developed at Cawnpore, with cotton, wool and leather factories. The textile industry of Bombay has overflowed into the mofussil, and Ahmedabad and Sholapore are considerable centres of manufacture, with a lesser one at Broach. In the Central Provinces the cotton mills of Nagpur are famous throughout India. The Province of Bihar and Orissa is the centre of the great coal mining trade, having absorbed the bulk of the coal mines formerly included in the Province of Bengal. It also embraces the most remarkable example of scientific industrialism in India in the works of the Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur, where in what was jungle fifteen years ago a considerable city is springing up, which will produce over a million tons of steel a year, and house subsidiary industries which combined with the iron and steel works will probably maintain a city of a quarter of a million in the near future. The railway works of the North-Western Railway form the core of the industrialism of the Punjab, where other manufactures, notably of cement, are developing. The industrial expansion in India may be judged from the number of factories coming under the operation of the Indian Factories Act of 1911 as amended by the Act of 1922, which amounted to 5,144 for the whole of British India. The number reported as working during the year was 5,026 or 98 per cent. The average daily number of persons employed amounted to over a million and a quarter and rose from 1,361,000 in 1921 to 1,264,000 in 1922. At the moment of writing no official figures are available in respect of the statistics for the whole of British India but it may safely be predicted that the number of factory workers at the beginning of this year must be very near a million and a half. The Governments of India are now each faced with a vivid and growing industrial question.

Social Consciousness.

Side by side with this industrialization there has grown an increased social consciousness of the responsibility of the community towards Labour. The Government of India passed its first Factory Act in 1881 and amended it in 1891. But experience showed that these Acts permitted considerable abuses and largely as the result of the agitation raised by *The Times of India* in Bombay in 1905 against the excessive hours worked in the Bombay textile mills inquiries were set afoot which

resulted in the passing of a new Act which limited the hours of labour in 1911. With the constitution of the League of Nations, India as a signatory thereto became a participant in the decisions of the League on Labour questions. India was represented at the International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919 and it became obligatory on her to enact legislation giving effect to the decisions of the Conference. Another International Labour Conference was held at Genoa in 1920 to consider a number of questions relating to seamen, such as the hours of labour, manning scales, accommodation, the provision for finding employment and other cognate questions and the Third and Fourth Sessions of the Conference were held at Geneva in 1921 and 1922. The Fifth Session of the Conference assembled on 22nd Oct. 1923 and dealt with only one item of importance—factory inspection. The Sixth Session of the International Labour Conference was held in Geneva from the 16th June to the 5th July 1924. Forty countries were represented at the Conference. The agenda of the Conference comprised (1) Development of facilities for utilisation of workers' leisure, (2) Equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards compensation for accidents, (3) Weekly suspension of work for twenty-four hours in glass manufacturing processes where tank furnaces are used, and (4) Night work in bakeries. India was represented at all of these Conferences. In 1922 India was admitted as one of the eight countries of industrial importance after protracted examination of the grounds of her claim by experts appointed by the League of Nations. India, therefore, assumes responsibility for giving effect to the decisions of these Conferences. There has been a considerable extension of what is known as **Welfare Work**, and although this so far depends on the individual activities of employers of labour, the work is progressing well. Further there is the nascent Trade Union movement in India. This movement lies rather more on the surface than in deep roots, but it flares up in times of labour unrest and is nominally at all events focussed in The All India Trade Union Congress. The frequency of strikes, and the lack of any means to hasten a solution have given rise to careful investigation of the possibility of establishing Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration. The increase of industrial unrest in the winter of 1920-21 led to the stimulation of public interest in labour questions. The fact that several of the more protracted strikes occurred in public utility services strengthened the demand that some efforts should be made towards a solution of the problem. In nearly every strike or lock-out of importance which has occurred in the last three years there has been a fairly strong demand from some section of the public for reference of the points at issue to arbitration. The last few years have therefore seen a remarkable change in the attitude of the State and the community towards Labour, which under the more democratic constitution which now obtains is assured of a hearing in the Legislatures.

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY AND INSPECTION.

The conditions of factory labour until 1913 were regulated by the Indian Factories Act of 1881, as amended in 1891. The chief provisions of the amended Act were Local Governments were empowered to appoint inspectors of factories, and certifying surgeons to certify as to the age of children. A mid-day stoppage of work was prescribed in all factories, except those worked on an approved system of shifts, and Sunday labour was prohibited, subject to certain exceptions. The hours of employment for women were limited to 11, with intervals of rest amounting to at least an hour and a half; their employment between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. was prohibited, as a general rule, except in factories worked by shifts. The hours of work for children (defined as persons below the age of 14) were limited to seven, and their employment at night time was forbidden; children below the age of nine were not to be employed. Provision was made for the fencing of machinery and for the promulgation of rules as to water supply, ventilation, the prevention of overcrowding, etc.

Hours Fixed.

The next Factory Act was finally passed into law as Act XII of 1911.

The new Act extended the definition of "factory" so as to include seasonal factories working for less than four months in the year; shortened the hours within which children, and, as a general rule, women, may be employed, and further restricted the employment of women by night by allowing it only in the case of cotton-spinning and pressing factories. It also contained a number of new provisions for securing the health and safety of the operatives, making inspection more effective, and securing generally the better administration of the Act. The most important feature of the Act, however, was the introduction of a number of special provisions applicable only to textile factories. The report of the Factory Commission showed that excessive hours were not worked except in textile factories. The Act for the first time applied a statutory restriction to the hours of employment of adult males by laying down that, subject to certain exceptions, "no person shall be employed in any textile factory for more than twelve hours in any one day." It is also provided in the case of textile factories that no child may be employed for more than six hours in any one day, and that (subject to certain exceptions, among which are factories worked in accordance with an approved system of shifts) no person may be employed before 5-30 a.m. or after 7 p.m. (the new limits laid down generally for the employment of women and children).

The Act of 1922.

The acceptance by India of her obligation under the International Labour Conference of Washington in 1919 necessitated the further amendment of the Factory Act in 1922.

In the following pages it is intended to give the present law on the subject by combining

the act of 1911 with that of 1922. The Amendment Act of 1922 came into force on 1st July 1922, and it extends to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Sonthal Parganas.

Hours of Employment.

Rest periods in factories.—In every factory there shall be fixed,—

(a) for each person employed on each working day—

(i) at intervals not exceeding six hours, periods of rest of not less than one hour, or

(ii) at the request of the employees concerned, periods of rest of not less than half an hour each so arranged that, for each period of six hours' work done, there shall be periods of rest of not less than one hour's duration in all, and that no person shall work for more than five hours continuously, and

(b) for each child working more than five and a half hours in any day, a period of rest of not less than half an hour.

(2) The period of rest under clause (b) shall be so fixed that no such child shall be required to work continuously for more than four hours.

Weekly Holiday.—No person shall be employed in any factory on a Sunday, unless—

(a) he has had, or will have, a holiday for a whole day on one of the three days immediately preceding or succeeding the Sunday, and

(b) the manager of the factory has previous to the Sunday or the substituted day, whichever is earlier, given notice to the Inspector of his intention so to employ the said person and of the day which is to be substituted and has at the same time affixed a notice to the same effect in the place mentioned in section 38.

Provided that no such substitution shall be made as will result in any person working for more than ten consecutive days without a holiday for a whole day.

Employment of Children.—With respect to the employment of children in factories the following provisions shall apply:—

(a) no child shall be employed in any factory unless he is in possession of a certificate granted under section 7 or section 8 showing that he is not less than twelve years of age and is fit for employment in a factory and while at work carries either the certificate itself or a token giving reference to such certificate;

(b) no child shall be employed in any factory before half-past five o'clock in the morning or after seven o'clock in the evening;

(c) no child shall be employed in any factory for more than six hours in any one day.

Employment of Women.—With respect to the employment of women in factories the following provisions shall apply:—

(a) no woman shall be employed in any factory before half-past five o'clock in the morning or after seven o'clock in the evening;

(b) no woman shall be employed in any factory for more than eleven hours in any one day.

Prohibition of Employment of Persons in two Factories on Same Day.—No person shall employ, or permit to be employed, in any factory any woman or child or, save in such circumstances as may be prescribed, any other person whom he knows, or has reason to believe, to have already been employed on the same day in any other factory.

Hours of Employment to be fixed.—The manager of a factory shall fix specified hours for the employment of each person employed in such factory, and no person shall be employed except during such hours.

Limitation of Working Hours per Week.—No person shall be employed in a factory for more than sixty hours in any one week.

Limitation of Working Hours per Day.—No person shall be employed in any factory for more than eleven hours in any one day.

Exceptions.

Where it is provided to the satisfaction of the Local Government—

(a) that any class of work in a factory is in the nature of preparatory or complementary work which must necessarily be carried on outside the limits laid down for the general working of the factory; or

INDUSTRIAL HOUSING.

In most industrial centres in India the question of proper and adequate housing is engaging the attention of all public bodies and governments to an increasing extent. Employers themselves are becoming increasingly alive to this burning question and whenever finances permit tenements are constructed for the housing of the workmen. In cases where housing is provided the amounts charged for rent are just sufficient to cover the interest charges on the capital outlay. In Bombay City, where the housing question was one of great difficulty a few years ago, the City Improvement Trust and the Development Directorate of the Government of Bombay have done much useful work in endeavouring to solve the problem. The scheme originally outlined by the Development Directorate for Industrial Housing aimed at a construction programme of 50,000 tenements providing accommodation for a quarter million people and to be completed within a period of eight years. This scheme was conceived in the boom period when labour conditions in Bombay were probably abnormal. By the end of September 1924 the Directorate had 5,120 tenements completely ready for occupation out

(b) that the work of any class of workers is essentially intermittent; or

(c) that there is in any class of factories any work which necessitates continuous production for technical reasons; or

(d) that any class of factories supplies the public with articles of prime necessity which must be made or supplied every day; or

(e) that in any class of factories the work performed by the exigencies of the trade or by its nature, cannot be carried on except at stated seasons or at times dependent on the irregular action of natural forces;

the Local Government may, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, by notification in the local official Gazette, exempt on such conditions, if any, as it may impose.

The system of inspection is being steadily improved by the appointment of more whole-time inspectors with good technical qualifications in the principal industrial centres.

Further legislation is contemplated dealing with other important issues. A Bill is in preparation for the registration and protection of Trades Unions and the Government of India hope to be able to introduce a Bill early in 1924.

The Government of India have also decided to repeal the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act of 1859 with effect from 1st April 1924.

The Indian Mines Act, 1923.—The Indian Mines Act, 1923, received the assent of the Governor-General on the 23rd February 1923. It extends to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Sonthal Parganas, and comes into force on the first day of July 1924. By this Act the definition of a mine was made clear, and the weekly hours of employment were limited to 60 hours for work above ground and 54 hours for work below ground.

of which about 3,900 were let. The total number of chawls completely ready at the time when this section was compiled was 68, but 60 additional chawls with a provision of 4,800 tenements were also completed except for drainage and water supply. The Directorate have four schemes in progress at present consisting of 211 chawls containing 16,880 tenements. These are expected to be completed by the end of the year 1925. Government have decided that until these are completed no additional land is to be taken up for Industrial Housing and that no new schemes are to be embarked upon without Government approval.

The average economic rent of the chawls works out at Rs. 14-8-0 per month per tenement without a *Nahani* and at Rs. 15-8-0 per month per tenement with a *Nahani*. The average maximum rent fixed for the present, per month, for each tenement, with and without a *Nahani* is Rs. 11 and Rs. 10 respectively. On this basis there is a loss of Rs. 54 per tenement and this is being met from the cotton cess.

The City Improvement Trust in Bombay have also made very good progress in the direction

of providing industrial housing. The Trust had a total number of 5,600 tenements ready at the end of March 1924 out of which 5,400 tenements were let for living purposes, 103 as shops, 51 as godowns and 15 as schools. 31 tenements were reserved for occupation by Muccadams, for offices and stores, and as Superintendents' Quarters. The floor area of each tenement inclusive of a small verandah varied from 125 square feet to 176 square feet but the majority of the tenements were provided with the maximum floor space allowed. Three additional chawls providing a total of 811 tenements with a further increase in the floor space to a maximum of 185 square feet per tenement are expected to be completed by the end of 1924. The average rent for a tenement in an

Improvement Trust Chawl works out at Rs. 5-10 but the actual rents vary from Rs. 3-12-0 to Rs. 11-5-0. The maximum permissible population in adults for a total of 5,511 tenements has been fixed at 23,404. The actual population living in these tenements in January 1923 was 18,322 or 16,362 when equalised to adults. The average population living in these chawls during the year ending 31st March 1924 amounted to 21,953.

When it is considered that the number of industrial workers living in these chawls by the end of the year 1925 will amount to nearly 100,000, the progress made in connexion with keeping down the death rate of these classes in Bombay must be regarded as considerable.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES.

Complete statistics in connexion with Industrial Disputes are not available for the whole of India. The increasing importance that is being attached to the weapon of strike by the workmen in this country may be gathered from the figures given below in respect of the industrial disputes in the Bombay Presidency for which statistics have been collected during the year ending 31st March 1924. This was the

Locality.	Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills.	Railway Workshops.	Railway Others.	Others.	Total.
Bombay	42	2	2	11	57
Ahmedabad	20	..	..	1	21
Sind	..	..	1	4	5
Gujarat	2	..	1	..	3
Total	64	2	4	16	86

Out of these 86 disputes, four were general strikes two of which call for special mention on account of their magnitude.

The general strike in Ahmedabad which affected 56 out of 61 cotton mills in that locality commenced on the 1st of April and continued till the 4th June. The reasons of the strike were (1) the announcement that the millowners in Ahmedabad would reduce wages by 20 per cent. with effect from 1st April 1923 and (2) the alleged non-payment by many mills of the bonus on the precise terms agreed on by arbitrators to whom a settlement of this question was referred. The number of workpeople affected was 43,113 and the total time loss amounted to 2,370,933 working days. This strike lasted for 64 days; the men were almost completely defeated and on the 4th June a compromise was arrived at by the terms of which (1) wages were to be reduced by 15½ per cent. instead of by 20 per cent. and (2) the question of the interpretation of the last bonus award was to be again referred to arbitration. The President of the Millowners' Association also gave an assurance that wages would not be reduced again for at least six months from the date of the compromise.

The other and perhaps the largest of all industrial disputes in the Presidency was the general strike in the cotton mills in Bombay City at the beginning of the year

worst year in the history of Industrial Relations in the Presidency. Although the number of disputes only amounted to 64 the number of factories and industrial establishments affected was 199, the approximate number of workpeople involved 261,923 and the number of working days lost 10,237,823. The following table shows the number of disputes by localities and classes of concerns :-

1924. It had its origin in the no-bonus decision of the Millowners in Bombay. The men had been paid a bonus regularly for five years and had come to regard its payment as an annual affair. In view of its regularity it also came to be considered as deferred pay. The bonus was usually paid in the middle of January in each year along with the pay due for the month of December. When the bonus was not paid at pay-time in January, the operatives of one mill demanded the payment of bonus on the 17th January and on its being refused went on strike. The strike-fever soon spread and in about a week almost all cotton mills in Bombay had to close down. On the 22nd February 1924, His Excellency the Governor of Bombay appointed a Committee of Enquiry with the Hon. Sir Norman Macleod, Kt., Chief Justice of the High Court in Bombay, as Chairman to enquire into the dispute. The terms of reference were (1) to consider the nature and basis of the bonus which was granted to the employees in the cotton mills of Bombay since 1919 and to declare whether the employees established any enforceable claim, customary, legal or equitable, and (2) to enquire into the profits made in each year since 1917 with a view to comparing these profits with the profits made in the year 1923 and to report on the contention of the millowners that the grant of a bonus such as was given in previous years was not justified by the profits

of the mill industry as a whole in 1923. The findings of the Committee on these points were submitted to Government on the 11th March, and were (1) that the mill workers had not established any enforceable claim, customary, legal or equitable to the payment annually of a bonus, and (2) that the results of the working of the mill industry as a whole for the year 1923 were such as to justify the contention of the mill-

owners that the profits did not admit of the payment of a bonus. The strike, however, did not terminate till the 25th March when work was resumed in almost all the mills although with considerably reduced staff due to the fact that there was an almost general exodus of all up-country workers to their homes before the strike ended.

The number of workmen affected and the number of working days lost classified by localities and classes of concerns are set out in the two tables below :-

Number of Workmen Affected.

Locality.	Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills.	Railway Workshops.	Railway Others.	Others.	Total.
Bombay	202,298	5,560	181	5,068	213,107
Ahmedabad	46,220			25	46,245
Sind			91	929	1,020
Gujarat	1,328		223		1,551
Total	249,846	5,560	495	6,022	261,923

Number of Working Days Lost.

Locality.	Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills.	Railway Workshops.	Railway Others.	Others.	Total.
Bombay	7,607,667	93,770	333	14,214	7,805,984
Ahmedabad	2,378,456			60	2,378,516
Sind			162	6,781	6,943
Gujarat	45,004		1,316		46,380
Total	10,121,187	93,770	1,811	21,055	10,237,823

The next table shows the cause of disputes by localities :-

Locality.	Number of disputes assignable to the following causes.			
	Pay.	Dismissal or reinstatement of individual.	Bonus.	Conditions of work, discipline, etc.
Bombay	33	16	3	5
Ahmedabad	5	7	1	8
Sind	4		..	1
Gujarat	3		..	
Total	45	23	4	14

Disputes regarding remuneration occupied the predominant position but disputes in respect of individuals which include both demands for dismissal of a particular individual and demands for the reinstatement of an individual by the employer account for a considerable number of disputes.

The following table summarises the results of disputes classified according to localities :—
Results by Causes of Disputes.

Locality.	Result.		
	Entirely favourable to the worker.	Mainly favourable to the worker.	Entirely unfavourable to the worker.
Bombay	4	6	47
Ahmedabad	4	1	16
Sind	1	1	3
Gujarat	..	2	1
Total	9	10	67

It will be seen that in the Bombay Presidency as in other countries the majority of disputes ended unfavourably to the strikers. Out of 86 disputes, only 19 were settled in favour of the employees while 67 or nearly 78 per cent. were settled in favour of the employers.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.

Of recent years much attention has been paid to the settlement of industrial disputes. The baffling character of such disputes is that they are so often sporadic, breaking out without warning, grievances being formulated after striking instead of before. When such strikes occur there is no organised body of workers with whom to negotiate. The Government of Bengal took the leading part and in March 1921 appointed a committee which laid stress on the value of Works Committees and favoured the institution of Conciliation Courts to deal with disputes in public utility services. It also

favoured the appointment of a panel on which the Local Government could draw when constituting a Board to enquire into any dispute. The Bombay Government, which had already explored the ground informally, appointed a similar committee in November 1921, which reported in February 1922. As this Committee surveyed the position in some detail, and its report constitutes the latest contribution to the discussion, its recommendations are summarised below because they reflect the existing situation and are applicable with modifications to suit local conditions, to most industrial centres in India.

SUMMARY OF THE REPORT OF THE INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES COMMITTEE.

The Industrial Situation.—Industry in the Bombay Presidency is mainly confined to the three centres of Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur with a factory population of some 200,000, 55,000 and 20,000, respectively.

Of the workers of Ahmedabad and Sholapur 44,000 and 20,000, respectively, are dependent on the textile trade. Those in Bombay may be divided into—

- (1) Textile operatives.
- (2) Transportation service workers (including Railways and Docks).
- (3) Gas and electric light workers, municipal employees, Mint and Government Press workers, customs, postal, telegraph and telephone employees and inferior Government employees generally.

The Operatives.—The general body of this working population was accurately described by Mr. C. N. Wadia, O.I.E., in 1919, as "agriculturists first and agriculturists last." They come to Bombay—as a rule without their families—and work till they have funds enough to

return to their villages. In the textile trade and amongst the general labourers almost all the operatives, except the "jobbers" and gangmen are of this migratory class. These remarks apply with almost equal force to the industrial population of Ahmedabad and Sholapur. In the workshop and in semi-clerical employment where skill or some education is required, there is however being formed a more permanent class of workmen who can almost speak of Bombay as their home. The standard of literacy is exceedingly low, not more than five per cent. of the operatives class being able to read and write their own vernaculars.

Characteristics of Strikes.—Certain characteristics are common to most of these strikes :—

- (a) The frequency of the strike without notice.
- (b) The absence of any clearly-defined grievance before striking.
- (c) The multiplicity and sometimes the extravagance of the claims put forward after the strike has begun.

- (d) The absence of any effective organisation (except perhaps at Ahmedabad) to formulate the claims of the operatives and to secure respect for any settlement which may be made.
- (e) The increasing solidarity of employers and employed and the capacity of the operatives to remain on strike for considerable periods despite the lack of any visible organisation.

The Prevention of Strikes.—Amongst the employers of labour there are strong organisations and the present tendency is for them to become more and more representative; but employers' associations have not yet evolved any standard scales of wages and individual employers are usually ignorant of how their rates compare with the wages given by others. The uncorrelated raising of wages in one factory is almost invariably seized upon as a grievance in other factories of the same class, and instances of strikes caused in this way are within the memory of all. The attempts made to standardise wages on a definite principle have hitherto been largely ineffective.

Trade Unions.—Amongst this heterogeneous labour force, there have in Bombay and Ahmedabad, gradually developed the beginnings of a Trade Union movement. In most cases the Unions are little more than strike committees consisting of a few officers and perhaps a few paying members around whom the rest rally in times of trouble. After work is resumed the union dwindles, and in most cases disappears. According to data published by the Labour office, Bombay, in the *Labour Gazette*, the number and membership of trade unions known to be actually in existence in the Bombay Presidency for the quarter ending September 1924 were as follows :—Bombay City and Island 8 unions with a membership of 21,659; Ahmedabad 7 unions with a membership of 17,200; and in other parts of the Presidency 6 unions with 8,383 members. The totals for the Presidency were, therefore, 21 unions with 47,242 members in September 1924 as compared with 19 unions and 41,646 members in September 1923.

The evolution of any means of preventing or adjusting strikes and trade disputes in such a floating and illiterate body, lacking any homogeneity, is exceedingly difficult and we put forward such recommendations as we make with full recognition of their indecisive character. In the forefront of these recommendations we place a wise and statesmanlike attitude towards the nascent Trade Union movement.

We are fully aware that the early days of a Trade Union movement are often full of difficulty. Strike committees arise calling themselves Trade Unions and demanding the privileges of Trade Unions without any means of discharging the responsibilities thereof. Sympathetic friends unconnected with the industry or any industry, and consequently knowing nothing of the special difficulties involved, spring into notoriety. Strike leaders appear claiming the right to bargain but with no power to make the bargain respected. But these are the growing pains of Trade Unionism; it is far better to treat than to inflame them. We therefore express the very sincere

hope that there will be, neither on the part of the state, nor of industry, any hostility to the free evolution of the Trade Union movement.

As soon as a genuine Trade Union organisation emerges it should be officially recognised as the channel of communication between employers and employed. We are strongly in favour of the compulsory registration of Trade Unions under a broad and generous Act. Such registration should ensure at least strict adherence to the elements essential to any substantial association of a definite code of rules, regular office bearers properly elected and an accurate register of subscribing members. But we are strongly opposed to conferring on Trade Unions any special privileges outside the ordinary law of the land or, on the other hand, any special responsibilities.

Most of our witnesses have agreed that Works Committees promise to discount that absence of personal relationship between operatives and employers, which is inevitable in large factories owing to the numbers of the men employed. We also agree that they may have an educative value among the operatives themselves.

Welfare Work.—Next to Works Committees we place the large group of humanistic activities known as Welfare Work. Here we wish to make an explanation. We were greatly impressed by the evidence which declined to accept the term "Welfare" as accurately defining these energies and classed them as "efficiency" work, because they had such a direct reaction on the physical contentment and efficiency of the operatives, that economically they justified the expenditure thereon.

The Settlement of Industrial Disputes.—So far we have devoted our attention to a consideration of the means which will contribute to the prevention of industrial disputes; it remains to suggest the methods of settlement, when such disputes either develop irreconcilable differences between capital and labour or else become a menace to the community.

There are some who hold that the State has no right to intervene in industrial disputes. To that position we cannot subscribe.

But we are agreed that no outside agency, and in particular the agency of the State, should be used until all other means have been employed and failed, or unless it is invited by one or other of the parties to the dispute, or unless the situation is such that peace, order and good government are prejudiced. If such conditions should arise, then there should be formed an Industrial Court of Inquiry, to be followed, if necessary, by an Industrial Court of Conciliation. We deliberately place the function of inquiry first and separate from the role of conciliation, for we desire to avoid the facile opportunism which seeks to patch up an industrial dispute by proposing a compromise between the views of the two parties without going down to the economic principles which are at stake.

Constitution of the Court.—The constitution of the Court should be as follows :—

- (a) A chairman selected by the members of the Court from a panel maintained in the Labour Office;

- (b) Three members representing the employers in the industry concerned;
- (c) Three members representing the operatives in the industry concerned.

A bare majority of our number is of opinion that the public should not be represented on a Court dealing with an industrial dispute, but should be represented when the Court is inquiring into a dispute affecting a Government Department or a public utility company or corporation. Whilst we are divided on this point, we are unanimous in the conclusion that when a Government Department, or public utility company, or corporation is concerned in an industrial dispute demanding the constitution of an Industrial Court the general public should be represented in equal proportion to the parties directly concerned. The constitution of such a Court would

TRADE DISPUTES LEGISLATION.

The valuable suggestions made by the Committee have been considered both by the Government of Bombay and by the Government of India. On the 14th March 1923, the Hon. Sir Maurice Hayward, Home Member of the Bombay Government, made a statement in the Bombay Legislative Council to the effect that details were being worked out by the Government of Bombay in connexion with the drafting of a Bill to give effect to the recommendations of the Committee, and that, as soon as Government were satisfied on these points, legislation would be introduced in the Local Council as early as possible after the sanction of the Government of India had been obtained. The big strike which occurred in the Bombay Cotton Mills on the question of the Bonus Dispute at the beginning of the year 1924, precipitated affairs and the Government of Bombay decided to introduce a Bill in the Local Council to provide legislation on this subject in the second session of the Council which met at Poona in July 1924. In accordance with this decision the Government of Bombay drafted a Bill for this purpose and this was published in the *Bombay Government Gazette* of the 30th May 1924. The Bill was a simple one and was meant in the first instance to cover manual and clerical employment. Persons working in the capacity of members of His Majesty's forces and Government servants were excluded. The main object of the Bill was the appointment of a Court of Enquiry to which any trade dispute that either existed or was apprehended could be referred to on the motion of the Governor in Council. The function of such courts was to enquire into the causes and circumstances of each such trade dispute and to make reports, interim or final, as the Court thought fit. The proceedings of these Courts of Enquiry were to be conducted either in public or in private as might be determined by a particular court. A second object of the Bill was to make provision for Voluntary Arbitration. Where a trade dispute existed or was apprehended the Governor in Council was to be empowered (1) to take such steps as might seem expedient for the purpose of enabling the parties to a dispute to meet together with a view to the amicable settlement of the dispute, or, if both parties consent, (2) to refer the matter

then be :—

- (i) A chairman chosen from the panel.
- (ii) Three representatives of the Government Department, or public utility company or corporation concerned.
- (iii) Three representatives of the operatives.
- (iv) Three representatives of the general public.

The special reasons which have induced us to recommend the representation of the general public in such cases, are that the whole cost of any increase in wages is at once passed on to the public either in increased charges for an essential public service or else in a diminished revenue to the State, which is taxation in another form. We recommend that the representatives of the general public should be selected from the panel of Chairmen.

for settlement to the arbitration of one or more persons appointed by him; or (3) refer the matter for settlement to a Board of Arbitration consisting of one or more persons nominated by or on behalf of the employers concerned, an equal number by or on behalf of the employees concerned, and an independent chairman to be nominated by the Governor-in-Council. Panels were to be constituted from which the members of such Boards could be nominated from time to time.

In July 1924, the Government of India informed the Government of Bombay that as they considered that this subject was one for All-India legislation, the Government of India were themselves preparing a Bill for early introduction in the Legislative Assembly and that the Local Government should not introduce the Bill which it contemplated doing in its own Council.

The Government of India, prepared a Bill to make Provision for Enabling the Investigation and Settlement of Trade Disputes and this was published in August 1924. This Bill may be considered as being very wide and comprehensive in scope and extent. It covers all workmen including employees of the Government of India and of any Local Government. An important distinction is made between the general body of workmen by dividing these into employees in Public Utility Services and other employees. In the case of public utility services and in those services specially notified as such by the Governor General in Council, it is provided that it shall not be lawful for any employer to declare or enforce a lockout or for any workman to take part in a strike on account of any dispute unless due notice of the proposed lockout or strike has been sent to the prescribed officer. Such strikes or lockouts are not permitted until the expiry of thirty days after notice has been served in cases where no order has been made for reference of the dispute to a Board and until the expiry of ninety days after notice has been served in cases where such an order has been made or until the expiry of seven days after the publication of a report by a board whichever of the two dates may be earlier.

There is no separate provision in the Bill for Courts of Enquiry, Board of Arbitration or for Conciliation. The functions of these two separate institutions in Industrial Disputes legislation are vested in the Government of India Bill with one body which is to be called the Board of Investigation and Conciliation. The members of these Boards are to be selected from permanent panels of (1) representatives of employees, (2) representative of employers,

and (3) persons to be appointed as Chairmen. The Government of India and each Local Government are to construct their own panels. The functions of these Boards are to endeavour to bring about a settlement of any dispute by a thorough investigation of the circumstances and causes of each dispute. This Bill is expected to be introduced in the Legislative Assembly in the first session to be held in Delhi in the year 1925.

TRADE UNION LEGISLATION.

On the 1st March 1921, Mr. N. M. Joshi moved the following resolution regarding the Registration of Trade Unions in the Legislative Assembly :—

"This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he should take steps to introduce, at an early date in the Indian Legislature such legislation as may be necessary for the registration of trade unions and for the protection of trade unionists and trade union officials from civil and criminal liability for *bonafide* trade union activities."

The Government of India accepted this Resolution after amending it in the following form :—

"This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that it should take steps to introduce as soon as practicable, in the Indian Legislature, such legislation as may be necessary for the registration of trade unions and for the protection of trade unions."

In September 1921, the Government of India asked all Local Governments to address all public bodies, employers' and workers' associations and prominent persons within their respective territories to furnish their views, firstly, on the principle of such legislation, and, secondly, on the objects aimed at in similar legislation with particular reference to (1) Compulsory or optional registration; (2) the extent to which objects should be specified; (3) recognition of strikes; (4) the extent to which the domestic affairs of trade unions should be brought under the law; (5) recognition of political objects; (6) recognition of picketing; (7) age qualification; (8) protection of Trade Unions from Civil and Criminal Liability; (9) management of Unions; and (10) Trustees and Trust Funds.

The Government of India after examining the views of the Local Governments and the replies received from various bodies and persons prepared a Bill to Provide for the Registration of Trade Unions and in certain respects to Define the Law Relating to Registered Trade Unions in British India. This Bill has been circulated to the Local Governments for the purpose of obtaining the views of public bodies and employers' and employees' associations before it is introduced in the Legislative Assembly.

With regard to the question of registration, the Government of India are of opinion that optional registration affords the only sound basis for legislative action. The main anxiety of many of the advocates of compulsory regis-

tration appeared to be to place restrictions on trade unions, whereas the objects which Government have in mind is to grant to trade unions a position in the eyes of the law which shall be at once definite and privileged. Compulsion would necessarily involve penalties for evasion and as the penalisation of the Unions that did not register would be both unjust and unequitable it has been decided to confine the privileges which such legislation will allow to registered unions only. These privileges include a considerable measure of immunity from civil suits and criminal prosecutions directed against trade unions and other members. Officers and members of trade unions who induce workmen to break their contracts with their employers will be saved from being sued in the Civil Courts and protection will be afforded from criminal liability by amending the law relating to conspiracy.

No direct restrictions have been placed in the draft bill on the objects which a trade union may pursue but it will be left to the Registrar to refuse registration to an organisation which chooses to claim the title of a Trade Union without including in the sphere of its activities *bonafide* trade union objects. The question of the inclusion of political objects among those upon which funds can be expended received careful consideration, and, following the great majority of the replies received, the Government of India decided to exclude such objects from the list of objects which Trade Unions would be able to draw up to define the scope of their activities. This, Government believe, will not prevent trade unions or their leaders from advocating political policies, but it will ensure that funds contributed primarily for trade union purposes are not expended on causes in which the bulk of the members have little interest.

The Bill makes adequate provision for safeguarding the rights and investments of members by ensuring (1) a regular audit of the funds of registered unions, and (2) a proper and effective control of their own affairs by the workers themselves by making compulsory a proper representation of the members of such trade unions on their executive committees. As regards picketing, the Government of India have not seen the necessity of imposing any general restriction on picketing and the Bill, therefore, does not make picketing, which may be confined to systematic persuasion, and which does not degenerate into intimidation, illegal.

This Bill introduced in the Delhi Session of the Legislative Assembly held early in 1925.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.

The Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 received the assent of the Governor-General on the 5th March 1923. The Act extends to the whole of British India including British Baluchistan and the Sonthal Parganas and came into force on the first day of July 1924. It contains two distinct parts Chapter II which lies outside the general scheme for compensation, contains provisions modifying the ordinary law in respect of employers' liability and making it easier for injured workmen to sue their employers for damages in the Civil Courts. These clauses apply only to workmen, who come under the workmen's compensation provisions, so that, although they omit the limit to damages which governs their counterpart in England, they are not likely to be much used. Ten classes of workmen are covered by the bill. Some of these, such as members of fire brigades, telegraph and telephone linesmen, sewage workers and tramwaymen, are small, and as the definition of seaman is limited to those employed on certain inland vessels, only a very small proportion of Indian seamen will benefit by the bill. The five important classes are the workers in factories, mines, docks and on railways, practically all of whom are included, and those engaged in certain types of building work, notably the construction of industrial and commercial buildings, and any other buildings which run to more than one storey. The most important classes excluded altogether are agricultural workers and domestic servants. Non-manual labourers getting more than Rs. 300 a month are excluded, except on the railways. Power is taken to include other hazardous occupations by notification from time to time. Compensation is to be given, as in the English Act, for personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of employment. It is also to be given for diseases in certain cases. The provisions for diseases have been so framed that if a certain class of workman contracts a scheduled disease, it will usually be extremely difficult for the employer to defeat a claim for compensation. On the other hand, other workmen will find it equally difficult to get compensation for disease, as they will have to prove that the disease arises "solely and directly" from the employment. The diseases scheduled at present are anthrax, lead poisoning and phosphorus poisoning, but the list is made capable of extension.

Scales.—The scales for compensation are more generous in every way than those originally suggested by Government; they are based on the unanimous recommendation of a Committee which met in June. Adults (i.e., persons over 15) and minors are distinguished throughout and compensation is subject to upper limits in every case. For death the relatives receive 30 months' wages of the deceased workman, subject to a maximum of Rs. 2,500 if he was an adult.

WAGES IN AGRICULTURE.

There is much discussion, with no very definite conclusions, as to whether wages have kept pace with the cost of living. Conditions vary so markedly between Province and Province that it is difficult to give exact figures. Different Provincial Governments publish, from time to time, the results of Quinquennial Cen-

uses into the wages of labourers mainly in agriculture. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay published a Report in 1924 of an Enquiry into the Wages in Agriculture which gave the average daily earnings of three classes of agricultural labour, viz., skilled labour, ordinary labour, and field labour, in each of the 26 districts of the Bombay Presidency, separately for urban areas and rural areas, and for each of 23 years from 1900 to 1922. The wages prevailing in other provinces for similar types of labour do not compare unfavourably with wages in the Bombay Presidency for any particular year for which a comparison is made. This statement requires an important qualification. It is not meant that the money amounts actually paid are similar. The rates of wages in different provinces vary according to the extent of their industrialisation and money wages in Provinces which are mainly agricultural are on a lower level than the money wages in Provinces which are highly industrialised, i.e., in Bombay and Bengal. But there is no doubt whatever that wages have risen markedly in all parts of India during the last ten years and that the general condition of the Indian labourer has improved. The construction of a real wage index number is not always indicative of the general material condition of any group of workers. The utility of such an index number is only confined to a particular comparison with any given date, and provided always that the two sets of figures showing money wages and the cost of living at two particular dates are accurately compiled, the real wage index number at the later date as compared

with the condition of the workman at the former date gives an accurate reading of the position of his purchasing power in comparison with that date. Indian publicists constantly aver that the condition of the Indian labourer to-day is worse than ever it was before. The true fact is that since wages and prices are both variables, "real wages" being a function of two variables, could only remain at the same level, if the two factors vary proportionately. But this does not happen and wage changes always lag behind price changes. When prices rise real wages rise only slowly to the original level, and when prices fall real wages fall slowly. Consequently the labourer is sometimes better off and sometimes worse off. Comparison of conditions in India to-day with the pre-war year show that during this particular period the condition of the Indian labourers has undoubtedly improved. This is amply proved by the figures given below showing the index numbers of daily average wages of skilled labourers, ordinary labourers and field labourers, for urban areas and for rural areas for the Bombay Presidency.

Agricultural Wages (Nominal).

Index Numbers for the Bombay Presidency (including Sind) 1913=100.

Year.	Urban Areas.			Rural Areas.		
	Field labour.	Ordinary labour.	Skilled labour.	Field labour.	Ordinary labour.	Skilled labour.
1921 ..	179	184	180	159	148	166
1922 ..	189	192	195	170	162	179
1923 ..	200	200	196	171	171	189

The construction of accurate real wage figures to correspond with the index numbers of nominal wages given above is not possible on account of the inapplicability of any general cost of living index number for a particular group of workers in a particular centre to the Presidency as a whole. But it is possible, however, to calculate the rise or fall in the purchasing power of agricultural labourers in terms of the six principal food grains—Rice, wheat, jowari, bajri, tur dal and gram. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay has compiled composite index numbers for annual averages by

taking the monthly prices of each of these six foodgrains in each of the 26 districts of the Presidency. If these index numbers are applied to the nominal wage index numbers given above, a set of real wage index numbers is arrived at showing the purchasing power of agricultural labourers for the whole Presidency. These figures are of considerable interest.

Agricultural Wages (Real).

Real Wage Index Numbers for Bombay Presidency in terms of purchasing power for foodgrains only 1913=100.

Year.	Urban Areas.			Rural Areas.		
	Field labour.	Ordinary labour.	Skilled labour.	Field labour.	Ordinary labour.	Skilled labour.
1921 ..	88	91	89	73	73	82
1922 ..	107	108	110	97	92	101
1923 ..	144	114	141	123	123	135

The above figures show that the condition of all agricultural labourers in India must have been bad with the high prices of 1921 three years ago. In 1923, prices fell considerably whereas wages showed a large increase. The result of this is apparent—a considerable improvement in real wages and a general improvement in the condition of the labouring classes. Some modification of the apparent rise in real wages would however be obtained if the prices of clothing and other non-food articles were taken into the calculation. But this modification would not reduce the 1923 Index Numbers to below 100.

In the Cotton Mill Industry.—An enquiry was held by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay into Wages and Hours of Labour in the Cotton Mill Industry for August 1923 which covered a total number of 251,219 workpeople in 186 mills in the Bombay Presidency and in the States within its territorial limits. The important results of this enquiry were (1) a decline in the number of children employed owing to more rigorous factory inspection under the new Factory Act; (2) an absenteeism figure as high as 10·4 per cent. for all work-people; 9·2 per cent. for men; 14·7 per cent. for women; 9·8 per cent. for time workers; and 11·2 per cent. for piece-workers;

(3) the average monthly earnings per head in August 1923 as compared with May 1921 were at the same level in Bombay, slightly over in Ahmedabad and lower in Sholapur, Baroda State and Other Centres in the Presidency; (4) the potential monthly earnings for all work-people in the Presidency would have amounted to Rs. 32-1-0 per head per month had all work-people worked for a full working month of 27 days at the rates of average daily earnings which prevailed in August 1923—the difference between this and the actual monthly earnings amounting to Rs. 3-8-0 or 12 per cent.; (5) the total Wages Bill in the cotton mill industry in August 1923 amounted to Rs. 72,22,000 for the number of workpeople covered in the enquiry; (6) the average hours of labour per day amounted to 10 hours and 5 minutes for men, 9 hours and 35 minutes for women and 5 hours for half timers or children; (7) the number of holidays recommended in the Bombay Mills by the Millowners' Association during the year 1923 amounted to 57; and (8) except in Sholapur no bonuses were paid for service in the year 1923.

The following table shows the daily average earnings, per capita, of workpeople in different occupations classified according to age and sex groups:—

		Bombay City.	Ahmedabad.	Sholapur.	Baroda State.	Other Centres.
		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Men—						
Jobbers	{ Time. 2 15 2	2 1 6	1 10 10	2 4 11	1 14 8	
	{ Piece. 4 1 0	4 2 10	2 12 4	2 8 10	2 13 10	
2 loom weavers		1 11 3	1 0 5	1 9 4	1 5 2	1 8 2
Mule Side Piecers	{ Time. 1 4 9	1 1 4	0 14 5	1 0 10	0 12 4	
	{ Piece. 1 7 2				1 0 7	
Ring Side Piecers		1 0 4	0 15 6	0 11 1	0 12 4	0 10 7
Ring Followers		0 14 4	0 11 10	0 8 2	0 7 3	0 9 3
Rulers		0 12 4	0 12 9		0 0 7	0 8 7
Winders		0 13 4	0 13 8	0 9 8	0 10 2	0 8 8
Drawing Frame Tenters		1 3 0	1 0 3	0 11 7		
Slubbing Frame Tenters		1 5 3	1 3 0	0 12 10	0 15 10	0 14 1
Intermediate Frame Tenters		1 3 11	0 15 11	0 12 3	0 14 10	0 13 6
Roving Frame Tenters		1 2 7	0 14 11	0 10 7	0 12 10	0 12 8
Women—						
Ring Spinning Side Piecers		0 15 2	0 14 11	0 9 10	0 13 2	0 12 8
Ring Spinning Followers		0 12 7	0 11 0	0 7 9	0 8 5	
Rulers		0 12 6	0 12 7	0 6 0	0 12 4	0 7 4
Winders		0 13 3	0 11 10	0 6 6	0 7 7	0 9 1

	Bombay City.	Ahmedabad.	Sholapur.	Baroda State.	Other Centres.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Big Lads*—					
Ring Spinning Side Boys	Time. 0 14 2	0 12 7	0 9 9	0 5 7	0 5 7
Spinning Boys	Time. 0 11 5	0 10 11	0 8 1	0 7 8	0 8 4
Roving Frame Tenters	Time. 0 11 4	0 10 11	0 7 11	0 7 4	0 6 7
Children—					
Spinning †	Time. 0 6 10	0 5 9	0 4 8	0 4 10	0 4 5
Roving	Time. 0 6 9	0 5 9	0 5 2	0 5 0	0 4 9

* By "Big Lads" is generally meant boys between the ages of 15 and 18 but the term also includes men who are not considered as sufficiently bodied to be employed as men.

† Children are workers, boys and girls, more than 12 years and under 15 years of age.

OFFICIAL ORGANISATION.

When the importance of the labour movement forced itself on the attention of the Government it was found necessary to establish an organisation to deal with it. There was created with the Government of India a Labour Bureau, which collects information on Labour conditions, keeps in touch with Labour organisations in other countries, and systematically gathers statistics regarding strikes, lock-outs, wages and cost of living. Several of the Local Governments have set up special machinery for dealing with Labour issues, and there are Labour officers with the Governments of Bengal and Madras whilst the Bombay Government, on the advice of the informal committee whose recommendations have been mentioned above, constituted a special Labour Office in the Secretariat.

In a resolution of Government in the Home Department, dated 29th April 1921, the functions of the Labour Office were set out as follows:—

(i) **LABOUR STATISTICS AND INTELLIGENCE.**—These relate to the conditions under which labour works and include information relating to the cost of living, wages, hours of labour, family budgets, strikes and lock-outs, and similar matters;

(ii) **INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES.**—As experience and knowledge are gained and the activities of the Labour Office develop, it will promote the settlement of industrial disputes when these arise; and

(iii) **LEGISLATION AND OTHER MATTERS RELATING TO LABOUR.**—The Labour Office will advise Government from time to time as regards necessary new legislation or the amendment of existing laws. The Labour office publishes a monthly journal entitled the *Labour*

Gazette which is a journal for the use of all interested in obtaining prompt and accurate information on matters specially affecting labour in India and abroad. The address of the Labour office is:—

The Old Custom House,

Mint Road, Bombay,

Director—Mr. G. Findlay Shirras, M.A., F.S.S. (Hony.), J.P., I.E.S., M.L.C.

Officiating Director—Mr. L. J. Sedgwick, F.S.S., I.C.S.

Investigators—Mr. S. R. Deshpande, B.A., B.Litt (Oxford); Mr. N. A. Meherban, B.A.; Mr. B. L. Umarvadia, B.A.

Lady Investigators—Mrs. K. Wagh; Miss G. Pimpalkharc.

LABOUR ASSOCIATIONS.

ALL-INDIA TRADE UNION CONGRESS.

Chairman—Mr. D. R. Thengdi, Engineer, Nagpur (C. P.)

Secretaries—Mr. F. J. Ginnwalla, C-o. Messrs. Ruston & Ginnwalla, 5 Ruthenfield Street, Fort, Bombay; Mr. N. C. Sen, 98 Beltoolla Road, Kalighat, Calcutta.

CENTRAL LABOUR BOARD FOR BOMBAY.

President—F. J. Ginnwalla, B.A.

123, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay.

Secretary—S. H. Jhabwalla, B.A.,

123, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay.

The names and addresses of the officials of other trade unions in the Bombay Presidency are published regularly every quarter by the Labour office in the *Labour Gazette*.

The relationship of master to servant in India is a subject to which attention is frequently directed in the Press by complaints about the alleged deterioration of domestic servants and the hardships to which employers are subjected by the boycotting action of discharged servants. The remedy most commonly propounded for misbehaviour on the part of servants is registration with a view to checking the use of false testimonials, or "chits" and to enabling masters to obtain certain information as to the character of the persons they employ. This mode of procedure is of German origin, for the old Prussian Servants' Ordinances (*Gesindeordnung*) were supplemented in 1854 by a law, applying only to agricultural labourers and domestic servants, which punishes breach of contract, and also gives the State a right of dealing with domestic servants who have been passed in Germany. The conditions are not, however, analogous for the servant keeping class in India is proportionately larger than in Europe, as also is the number of servants kept by each individual.

The number of servants kept by each individual, the first of the East India Act dealing with the problem of legislation was made in 1811 in London. The act dealing with the registration of domestic servants in that Colony is comprised in Ordinance No. 23 of 1871. It extends to all classes of domestic servants, hired by the month or receiving monthly wages, and the word 'servant' means and includes head and under-servants, female servants, cooks, coachman, horsekeepers and house and garden coolies. The Act came into operation in 1871 and empowered the Governor to appoint for the whole of the Island or for any town or district, to which the Ordinance is made applicable, a registrar of domestic servants, who is to be under the general supervision and control of the Inspector-General of Police. A registry is kept by the registrar of all domestic servants employed within his town or district, and he has to enter therein the names of all the servants, the capacities in which they are employed at the time of such registration, the dates of their several engagements and such memorandum of their previous antecedents as they may desire to have recorded in the register. But the registrar must be previous to entering all these details, satisfy himself as to the credibility of the statements made to him. Any person, who may not have been a domestic servant before, but who is desirous of entering domestic service, has to submit an application to the registrar, and if the registrar is satisfied that there are reasonable grounds to believe that the applicant is a fit and proper person to enter domestic service he shall enter his name in the register, recording what he has been able to learn respecting the person's antecedents together with the names of any persons who are willing to certify as to his respectability. If the applicant is unable to produce satisfactory or sufficient evidence as to his fitness for domestic service, the registrar may grant him "provisional" registration, to be thereafter converted into a confirmed registration according to the result of his subsequent service. If the registrar is satisfied that the applicant is not a fit and proper person, he should withhold registration altogether, but in such case he must report his refusal to register to the Inspector-General of Police.

Every person whose name has been registered in the general registry is given a pocket register containing the full particulars of the record made in the general registry. No person can engage a servant who fails to produce his pocket register or whose pocket register does not record the termination of his last previous service, if any. On engaging a servant the master has to enter forthwith in the pocket register the date and capacity in which such servant is engaged and cause the servant to attend personally at the registrar's office to have such entry inserted in the general registry. Similarly, in case the master discharges a servant he must insert in the pocket register the date and cause of his discharge and the character of the servant. Provided that if for any reason he be unwilling to give the servant a character or to state the cause of his discharge he may decline to do so. But in such a case he must furnish to the registrar in writing his reasons for so refusing. If the servant on dismissal fails to produce his pocket register the master must notify that fact to the registrar. Whenever any fresh entry is made in the pocket register the servant is bound to attend the registrar's office to have such an entry recorded in the general registry. Every servant whose name is registered shall, if he subsequently enters service in any place not under the operation of the Ordinance, attend personally at the nearest police station on his entering or leaving such service and produce his pocket register to the principal officer of police at such station in order to enable the police officer to record the commencement or termination of the service. The police officer has then to communicate it to the registrar of the town or district in which such servant was originally registered.

Various penalties of fine as well as of imprisonment are imposed for violation of any of the acts required to be done or duties imposed by the Act on the various persons mentioned below. As respects masters if they fail to fulfill any of the duties imposed on them by the Act they expose themselves to a liability of their being fined to the extent of Rs. 20. Similarly a servant, who fails to fulfill any of the duties imposed on him by the Act is liable to pay a fine not exceeding Rs. 20. But in case he gives any false information to the registrar or to any other person on matters in which he is required by this Ordinance to give information, he is liable to a fine not exceeding Rs. 50 or to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, not exceeding 3 months. A fee of 25 cents is charged to the master on engaging a new servant. A like fee of 25 cents is charged to the servant on his giving a conventional registration, or on registration being confirmed, or for registration of previous service or antecedents. But in case of loss or destruction of the pocket register the servant has to pay one rupee for the issue of a duplicate pocket register.

A similar Ordinance (No. 17 of 1914) has been introduced in the Straits Settlements, where its operation has been limited to such local areas as may be declared by the Governor in Council, and its application within such areas has been restricted to the class of householders who are expected to desire the benefit of the provisions.

Routes between India and Europe.

The Indian port for the direct journey to and from Europe is Bombay. There are ordinarily five lines of steamers by which the journey to and from the West *via* Bombay can be performed, either by sea all the way, or—and in some cases only—by sea part of the way and by rail across Europe. They are the P. & O., the Anchor Line, the City and Hall Line, the Lloyd Triestino and the British India line. The Natal line steamers are available for Western passages only, the steamers sailing round the Cape on their Eastward voyages. There are ordinarily other services between Calcutta and

the West, by steamers sailing round Ceylon, and several lines connect Colombo with Europe. Of the latter the Orient, the Messageries Maritimes, the Bibby Lines N.Y.K., Australian Commonwealth, & Royal Dutch Lines are the chief besides the P. & O. The Bibby and Henderson services extend to Rangoon. The new railway between India and Ceylon greatly increases the importance of the Colombo route for Southern India. The shortest time between London and Bombay is 15 days *via* Marseilles. The following are the fares which are convertible at approximately current rates of exchange:—

Peninsular and Oriental S. N. Co.

FARES FROM BOMBAY OR KARACHI.				1st Saloon.			2nd Saloon.	
				A Rate. £	B Rate. £	C Rate. £	A Rate. £	B Rate. £
Free passages (single and return) are granted between Karachi and Bombay by British India Steamer.								
To	Plymouth or London by sea, Single	..	..	90	80	70	60	54
	Return	..	..	157	140	122	105	95
To	Marseilles, Single..	..	..	82	72	62	56	50
	Return	..	..	143	126	108	98	80
To	Malta or Gibraltar, Single	..	..	86	76	66	58	52
	Return	..	..	150	133	115	101	91
	FROM CALCUTTA	..	..	70	..	..	56	..

By the **British India S. N. Co.**, fares to London by sea from Bombay or Madras are:—single 1st saloon £86; 2nd saloon £52. Return £116 and £91. Bombay to Marseilles £60, and 2nd saloon £48. Return: £105 and £84.

By the **Anchor Line** fares to Liverpool from Bombay or Karachi are:—1st saloon £60 single and £105 return. To Marseilles:—£56 and (return from Liverpool) £101.

By Ellerman's "City" and "Hall" Lines
fares from Bombay or Karachi to Liverpool,
1st saloon are:—
Single £84, return £112.
2nd saloon single £48, return £84.
From Bombay or Karachi to Marseilles,
1st saloon single £60, return £103.
2nd saloon single £45, return £79.
Calcutta to London.
1st saloon single £68, return £119.
2nd saloon single £52, return £91.

By Bibby Line fares from Rangoon to London.
1st saloon single £76.
1st saloon return £132.
Rangoon to Marseilles, 1st saloon single £68.

Rangoon to Marseilles, 1st saloon return £120.

The Bibby Line fares from Colombo are as follows:—

Colombo Marseilles single £58.
Colombo Marseilles return £101.
Colombo London single £66.
Colombo London return £115.
Colombo Marseilles returning from Liverpool,
or, London returning from Marseilles £109.
The Bibby Line steamers carry 1st class
passengers only.

By Henderson Line fares from Rangoon to Liverpool, 1st saloon are:—single £65, return (available for 4 months) £100, (available for 2 years) £117.

By **Lloyd Triestino Line** fares from Bombay or Karachi to Brindisi, Venice or Trieste are:— 1st class £92, 2nd class £52. Return rates available for 2 years at one and three-fourth fares.

The Lloyd Triestino in conjunction with the Marittima Italiana are now running in addition to the above a fortnightly service between Bombay, Naples and Genoa, fares as above.

INDIAN TRAIN SERVICE.

The distances and railway fares from Bombay to the principal centres of other parts of India are as follow :—

	Miles.	1st Class.	2nd Class.
		Rs. a.	Rs. a.
Delhi, B. B. & C. I. Railway, via new Nagda-Muttra direct route	805	105 8	52 12
Delhi, G. I. P. Railway, via Agra	957	105 8	52 12
Simla via Delhi	1,137	151 14	77 7
Calcutta, G. I. P. from Bombay, via Jubbulpore & Allahabad	1,349	150 14	75 8
Calcutta, G. I. P. from Bombay, via Nagpur.. .. .	1,223	142 14	71 8
Madras, G. I. P. from Bombay, via Raichur	794	112 0	55 15
Lahore, via Delhi	1,162	142 10	71 5

THE SUEZ CANAL.

At the General Meeting of the Suez Canal Company, held in June, 1924, the Chairman said that the progress of the shipping traffic which they had recorded since 1919 continued last year, and the net tonnage was nearly 10 per cent. more than that of 1922. This constant improvement occurring in spite of economic circumstances of all kinds which had affected the post-war years was a remarkable fact, a splendid testimony to the soundness of the undertaking.

Under the double influence of the growth of traffic and of the increased proceeds from the transmission of funds from Egypt and England to France, the profits for the year had proved to be considerably larger than those of the previous year, enabling the board to consider an important increase of the dividends. Accordingly they proposed to fix the net income on each share of the capital at 430f. This was a satisfactory result, but, as was stated last year, it should be borne in mind that the increased dividend, as compared with the figure reached ten years ago, was nothing but the equivalent, and, they might say, the expression of the depreciation of the franc. Now this depreciation, the manifest excessiveness of which all of them had deplored, very fortunately tended to be reduced. Thus it was important to provide against the effects that the stabilization of the franc might have on their nominal receipts. For this reason the board thought they should put to the extraordinary reserve created in 1920 a sum of 20 millions; the future, even if the rate of exchange of the pound sterling should become lower, would thus be rendered more secure.

Conforming to the liberal principles which had always been held, they, in view of the growth of traffic during the year, had lowered the transit due by 25 centimes as from January 1. They were, in fact, still convinced that by helping to reduce the charges which

still weighed heavily on the maritime transport industry, and consequently favouring thereby the development of navigation, they had served the shareholders' own interests not less than those of the shipowners.

Financial Position.—The total receipts for the year 1923 amounted to 419,250,418·65f., showing, as compared with those of the year 1922, an increase of 113,794,810·93f.

The excess of receipts over expenditure in 1923 after deductions for depreciation and other charges, was 285,690,398f., and with the balance from the previous year the total available for distribution was 287,797,319f. After the payment of the proposed dividends the sum remaining is 23,735,347f., of which 20,000,000f. is to be added to the Extraordinary Reserve Fund constituted in 1920. The balance to be carried forward is therefore 3,735,347f.

Transit and Navigation.—The number of vessels which passed through the canal in 1923 was 4,621, representing 22,730,162 tons gross. Vessels flying the British flag number 2,839, with a net tonnage of 14,264,214. Dutch vessels were the second largest users of the canal; their number was 451 and net tonnage 2,178,058. French vessels came third in the list with 259 and net tonnage 1,294,400. Fourth place in point of tonnage was taken by German vessels, of which there were 247, with net tonnage 1,213,691. Italian vessels numbered 256, with net tonnage 1,042,754.

Among British users, the P. and O. group of companies occupied the first place, with 2,421,000 tons, the Ellerman lines the second place with 1,726,000 tons. The British Tanker Company was third, with 1,559,000 tons, Messrs. Alfred Holt and Co. (Ocean Steamship Company) and China Mutual Steam Navigation Company fourth with 1,506,000 tons. The number of passengers who passed through the canal in 1923 was 246,331, as compared with 275,031 for the previous year.

Improvement Schemes.—It was announced in 1914 that from and after January 1st, 1915, the maximum draught of water allowed to ships going through the Suez Canal would be increased by 1ft., making it 30ft. English.

The maximum permissible draught of ships using the Canal was 24·4 feet in 1870; in 1890 ships drawing 25·4 feet could make the passage; and during the following 24 years the increase has been at the average rate of about 1 foot every six years, thus bringing the maximum draught authorized to 29 feet.

The scheme of improvement adopted by the Company on the recommendation of the International Consultative Committee of Works, the British representatives on which are Sir William Matthews and Mr. Anthony Lister, is a comprehensive one, and the details suggest that it will meet the needs of the big ship.

A 40 feet Channel.—The declared policy of the Canal Company in regard to the deepening of the Canal is to offer a slightly greater depth of water than that available in ports east of Suez. It is claimed that, with the exception of Sydney, there is no eastern port which at low tide has a greater depth of water than that now provided in the Canal throughout the full length of nearly 105 miles. In any case the work in hand should meet the needs of any ship likely to be built for the eastern trade during the next few years.

When the Canal was opened in 1869, the width was 72 feet and the depth about 26 feet 2 inches. In June, 1913, the width at a depth of 32 feet 8 inches had been increased to a minimum of

147 feet 6 inches over a length of about 85 miles, and to a width of 323 feet over a distance of about 20 miles. The latest scheme makes provision for a depth of 40 feet throughout and for a widening up to 196 feet 8 inches in the south section, and the cutting of an appropriate number of sidings in the north and central sections, where a minimum width of 147 feet 6 inches is believed to be sufficient for the requirements of the immediate future.

The work of enlarging the capacity of the Canal presents no special difficulty on the engineering side. A good deal of sand is occasionally driven into the channel at Port Said during storms, but a remedy for this will be found in extension of the west breakwater by about 2,700 yards at a cost of over £8,000,000. The construction of this extension, which has been in hand for the past two years, is making satisfactory progress. The Suez Roads are being adequately dredged in accordance with an agreement between the Egyptian Government and the Company.

Almost up to the end of 1915 the works for extending the jetty to the west of Port Said, works of capital importance for the protection of the entry to the Canal, were pushed on uninterruptedly. In November, however, for want of hydraulic lime, the manufacture of artificial rocks for this jetty was interrupted. The submarine foundations in stone and rubble of the new jetty were, as a matter of fact, completed to a length of 2,500 metres; the protective blocks were laid for 1,040 metres, and cemented for over 800 metres. The protection of the Channel is thus secured, and there is no need for any apprehension as to its future.

Travel in India.

Thirty years ago, a tour in India was possible only to the wealthy, the leisured and those who had friends in the country. The cost of the journey was very high, the methods of transportation were very slow; and the facilities for travel were so indifferent that he was a bold man who consigned himself to the mercies of the country without a sheet of letters of introduction. Now the mail which is posted in London on Thursday night, reaches Bombay in 14 days, and the passenger can travel by the same route and with the same speed as the mail. A dozen lines have covered the sea route between Europe and India and Ceylon with a plexus of regular services. The Indian Railways provide facilities on the trunk lines unsurpassed by the *trains-de-luxe* of Europe, and the Indian hotel has grown into a really comfortable caravan-serai.

In the touring season, which extends from November to March, there is the attraction of a perfect climate. It is never very hot; in the North indeed it is really cool, it is always fine and fresh and bracing. If there is one country in the world to which that elusive term applies, here we have at the season when the tourist arrives the real "Indian summer." Then there is its infinite variety. India is in no sense a nation and never will be. Its peoples are wide as the Poles asunder, each has its own art, its own architecture, its own customs and its own civilisation. A certain superficial resemblance runs through each, beneath lies a never-ending variety which age cannot wither nor custom stale.

The Grand Tour.—People coming to India for the first time so often ask:—"Where shall I go?" Well, wherever else the tourist may go whatever else he should leave out, he should

omit nothing on the Grand Tour. It is the foolish custom nowadays to sneer at those who follow the beaten tracks, but the visitor who shuns any part of the orthodox journey across India misses what nothing else can repay. Bombay is by far the most convenient point of departure, for here "the world end steamers wait," here is one of the finest cities in the British Empire, and here the traveller can best complete his outfit and arrangements. From Bombay stretch northwards the two great trunk lines of India. One, the **Bombay Baroda & Central India Railway**, leads through the pleasant garden of Gujarat to Ahmedabad, the ancient Moslem capital of the Province containing fine examples of Mahomedans and Jain architecture; thence to Abu for the famous Jain temples of Dilwara, and on to Ajmere, Jaipur and Agra. The other by the **Great Indian Peninsula Railway** carries the tourist over the Western Ghats by a superb mountain railway to Gwalior, whose rock fortress rises like a giant battleship from the plain, and so on to Agra. Of the glories of the Taj Mahal, Agra Fort, and the deserted city of Fatehpur Sikri it were supererogatory to speak. Another easy stage leads to Delhi that amazing collection of cities, dominated by the little Ridge where British valour kept the mutinous hordes at bay, and finally drove them from the city by a feat of arms unsurpassed in history. Then from Delhi the East Indian line leads comfortably to Benares, Lucknow and Calcutta with the opportunity of an excursion to Cawnpore, if the spirit moves.

The great charm of the Grand Tour is that it reveals the best that India can show. This route has the additional advantage that it fits in with any digressions which the time and purse of the traveller may permit. No one who can spare the time should fail to push northwards from Delhi to Peshawar, where the flower of the army keeps watch and ward over the Khyber, and up the dread Pass to the eyrie where the fort of Ali Masjid bars the way to all invaders. Calcutta is the best starting point for Darjeeling, though unfortunately the magnificent mountain panorama visible from there is often obscured at this season by mists. Then from Calcutta two alternatives open. A fine service of mail steamers leads to **Burma**, and one of the unforgettable memories of the East is a voyage down the Irrawaddy from Bhamo or Mandalay to Prome. Again, either direct from Calcutta, or via Burma, is an easy route to **Madras** and by way of Madras and Trichinopoly, with their peerless Hindu temples, back to Bombay, or on through Tuticorin to **Colombo**. But indeed the possibilities of expanding this tour are endless. Bombay is the best centre for the rock temples of Elephanta, Kenheri, Karli, Ellora and Ajanta. Calcutta is only a short distance from Puri the one Indian temple where there is no caste, and perhaps the most remarkable Hindu temple in the country. From Calcutta also start the river steamers which thread the steamy plains of Bengal and run to the tea gardens of Assam.

SPECIMEN TOURS.

A number of specimen tours in India are given below. They are taken from one of Messrs. Thos. Cook & Son's publications, from which firm further information may be obtained. The traveller will also find he can obtain assistance from the principal Shipping Agents and Railway Companies, or from Messrs. Cox & Co., Messrs. Grindlay & Co., and Lloyds Bank:

	1st Class.	2nd Class Rail, 1st Class Steamer.
FROM BOMBAY TO CALCUTTA.		
<i>Via the North-West Provinces to Calcutta (including side trip from Calcutta to Darjeeling).</i>		
TOUR I.—From Bombay per B. B. & C. I. Railway via Ahmedabad, Abu Road (for Mount Abu), Ajmer, Jaipur, Delhi, Agra, Cawnpore, Lucknow and Benares to Calcutta, thence to Darjeeling, and back to Calcutta	305 12	154 2
TOUR II.—From Bombay per G. I. P. Railway via Itarsi, Gwalior, Agra, Delhi, Tundla Junction, Cawnpore, Lucknow and Benares to Calcutta, thence to Darjeeling, and back to Calcutta	309 0	155 7

	1st Class.	2nd Class Rail, 1st Class Steamer.
FROM BOMBAY TO COLOMBO.		
<i>Via the North-West Provinces, Calcutta and Southern India to Colombo (including side trip from Calcutta to Darjeeling).</i>		
TOUR III.—From Bombay as in Tour No. I (via B. B. & C. I. Ry., Jaipur and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence via Khurda Road, for Puri (Jugganath), Madras, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madras, Danushkodi and Talaimannar to Colombo	513 2	259 0
TOUR IV.—From Bombay as in Tour No. II (via G. I. P. Ry., Itarsi, Agra and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence as in Tour No. III to Colombo (via Southern India)	515 15	259 6
<i>Via the North-West Provinces, Calcutta (including Darjeeling), Burma and Southern India.</i>		
TOUR V.—From Bombay as in Tour No. I (via B. B. & C. I. Ry., Jaipur and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence British India Steamer to Rangoon, Rail to Mandalay, Irrawaddy Steamer to Prome, Rail to Rangoon; British India Steamer to Madras, Rail via Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madras to Danushkodi; Steamer to Talaimannar and Rail to Colombo	719 0	463 0
TOUR VI.—From Bombay as in Tour No. II (via G. I. P. Ry., Itarsi, Agra and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, thence as in Tour No. V to Colombo	722 0	460 0
FROM BOMBAY TO RANGOON.		
<i>Via the North-West Provinces and Calcutta to Rangoon (including a tour in Burma, also including a side trip from Calcutta to Darjeeling).</i>		
TOUR VII.—From Bombay as in Tour No. I (via B. B. & C. I. Ry., Jaipur and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence British India Steamer to Rangoon, Rail to Mandalay, Irrawaddy Steamer to Prome, Rail to Rangoon	526 0	320 0
TOUR VIII.—From Bombay as in Tour II (via G. I. P. Ry., Itarsi, Agra and the North-West Provinces) to Calcutta, side trip to Darjeeling and back to Calcutta, thence British India Steamer to Rangoon. Rail to Mandalay, Irrawaddy, Steamer to Prome, Rail to Rangoon	529 0	322 0
FROM CALCUTTA TO BOMBAY.		
<i>Via the North-West Provinces.</i>		
TOUR IX.—From Calcutta via Benares, Lucknow, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Delhi, Rewari, Jaipur, Ajmer (for Udaipur), Abu Road (for Mt. Abu), Ahmedabad and Baroda to Bombay	205 0	103 0
TOUR X.—From Calcutta via Benares, Moghal Seral, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Delhi, Rewari, Jaipur, Ajmer (for Udaipur), Abu Road (for Mt. Abu) Ahmedabad and Baroda to Bombay	192 0	96 0
TOUR XI.—From Calcutta via Benares, Moghal Seral, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Gwalior and Itarsi to Bombay	169 0	84 8
TOUR XII.—From Calcutta via Benares, Moghal Seral, Cawnpore, Delhi, Muttra, Agra, Gwalior and Itarsi to Bombay	191 0	95 8

	1st Class.	2nd Class Steamer.
CIRCULAR TOUR FROM CALCUTTA.		
TOUR XIII.—From Calcutta via Benares, Lucknow, Cawnpore, Tundla, Agra, Bandikui, Jaipur, Delhi, and Allahabad to Calcutta	235 0	117 8
<i>Extensions, Via Southern India to Colombo.</i>		
TOUR XIV.—From Bombay via Poona, Hyderabad, Wadi, Raichur, Madras, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madura, Danushkodli, and Talaimannar to Colombo	206 0	104 0
TOUR XV.—From Bombay via Poona, Hyderabad, Wadi, Guntakal, Bangalore, Erode, Trichinopoly, Madura, Danushkodli, and Talaimannar to Colombo	205 0	103 0
<i>Extensions to above Tours.</i>		
From Ajmer to Udaipur and return	46 4	23 2
From Abu Road to Mount Abu and return, one seat in motor (This excursion is strongly recommended, the scenery being very beautiful)	22 0	
From Delhi to Lahore and return via Umballa and Amritsar	75 9	37 13
From Delhi via Bhatinda, Ferozepore to Lahore, returning via Amritsar Umballa to Delhi	75 9	37 13
From Calcutta to Darjeeling and return	104 4	52 4
From Colombo to Kandy and return	16 4	10 3
From Kurda Road to Puri (Jagannath) and return	7 12	3 14

(All fares subject to change without previous notice.)

HOTELS IN INDIA, BURMA, CEYLON AND MALAYA.

AGRA.—Cecil, Laurie's Great Northern, Metropolitan.	MURREE.—Viewforth.
AHMEDABAD.—Grand.	MUSSOORIE.—Cecil, Charleville, Hakman's Grand, Savoy.
ALLAHABAD.—Central, Grand.	NAINI TAL.—Grand, Metropolitan, Royal.
BANGALORE.—Cubbon, West End.	PESHAWAR.—Deans Hotel.
BENARES.—Clark's, de Paris.	POONA.—Connaught House, Napier, Poona.
BOMBAY.—Apollo, Carlton, Grand, Majestic, Taj Mahal, Watson's.	RAJPORE.—Carlton.
CALCUTTA.—Continental, Grand, Great Eastern, Spence's.	RAWALPINDI.—Flashman's.
CAWNPORE.—Civil and Military.	SECUNDERABAD.—Montgomery's.
COONOR.—Glenview.	SIMLA.—Cecil, Grand.
DARJEELING.—Grand (Rockville), Mount Everest Park.	SRINAGAR (Kashmir).—Nedou's.
DELHI.—Cecil, Elystun, Maldens.	SHIVAPURI.—Shivapuri.
GWALIOR.—Grand.	UDAIPUR.—Udaipur.
GULMARG (Kashmir).—Nedou's.	Burma.
JAIPUR.—Jaipur, Kaiser-i-Hind, New.	RANGOON.—Alhendale, Minto Mansions, Royal.
JUBBULPORE.—Jackson's.	MANDALAY.—Gambles Hotel.
KARACHI.—Carlton, Bristol, Killarney, North Western.	Ceylon.
KHANDALLA.—Khandalla.	ANURADHAPURA.—Anuradhapura.
KODAIKANAL.—Lakeview.	BANDARAWELA.—Bandarawela Grand.
KURSEONG.—Clarendon.	COLOMBO.—Bristol, Galle Face, Grand Oriental.
LAHORE.—Faletti's, Nedou's.	GALLE.—New Oriental.
LANOUKI.—Hamilton.	HATTON.—Adam's Peak.
LUCKNOW.—Carlton, Civil and Military, Hiltons, Royal.	KANDY.—Queen's, Suisse.
MADRAS.—Connemara, D'Angelis.	NUWARA ELIYA.—Carlton, Grand, Maryhill, St. Andrew's.
MAHABLESWAR.—Race View, Frederick's.	Malaya.
MATHERAN.—Granville, Rugby.	IPOH.—Station.
MOUNT ABU.—Rajputana, Skeltonia.	KUALA LUMPUR.—Empire, Station.
	PENANG.—Eastern and Oriental, Rummeyde.
	SINGAPORE.—Adelphi, Europe, Raffles, Sea-View.

The New Capital.

The transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi was announced at the Delhi Durbar on December 12, 1911. It had long been recognised as necessary, in the interests of the whole of India, to de-provincialise the Government of India, but this ideal was unattainable as long as the Government of India was located in one Province, and in the capital of that Province—the seat of the Bengal Government—for several months in every year. It was also desirable to free the Bengal Government from the close proximity of the Government of India which had been to the constant disadvantage of that Province. To achieve these two objects the removal of the capital from Calcutta was essential: its disadvantages had been recognised as long ago as 1868, when Sir Henry Maine advocated the change. Various places had been discussed as possible capitals, but Delhi was by common consent the best of them all. Its central position and situation as a railway junction, added to its historical associations, told in its favour; and as Lord Crewe said in his despatch on the subject, "to the races of India, for whom the legends and records of the past are charged with so intense a meaning, this resumption by the Paramount Power of the seat of venerable Empire should at once enforce the continuity and promise the permanency of British sovereign rule over the length and breadth of the country."

The foundation stone of the new capital were laid by the King Emperor on December 15, 1911, the finally selected site being on the eastern slopes of the hills to the south of Delhi, on the fringe of the tract occupied by the Delhis of the past. The land chosen is free from liability to flood, has a natural drainage, and is not man-made. It is not encumbered with monuments and tombs needing reverent treatment, and the site is near the present centre of the town of Delhi. A Committee consisting of Surg.-General Sir C. P. Lukis, Mr. H. T. Keeling, C.S.I., A.M.I.C.E., and Major J. C. Robertson, I.M.S., was appointed to consider the comparative healthiness of the site and of an alternative one to the North of the existing city. Their report, dated 4th March, 1913, states that "the Committee, after giving full consideration to the various points discussed in the above note, is bound to advise the Government of India that no doubt can exist as to the superior healthiness of the southern site, the medical and sanitary advantages of which are overwhelming when compared with those of the northern site."

The Town Plan and Architecture.—A report by a Town-Planning Committee, with a plan of the lay-out, was dated 20th March, 1913. Work was begun in accordance with it and its main lines have been followed throughout. The central point of interest in the lay-out, which gives the motif of the whole, is Government House, and two large blocks of Secretariats. This Government centre has been given a position at Raisina hill near the centre of the new city. Sir Edwin Lutyens is the architect for Government House and Mr. Edward Baker for the Secretariats. The former building will

cost approximately Rs. 140 lakhs and the latter groups some Rs. 124 lakhs. To the east of the forum, and below it, will be a spacious forecourt defined by trees and linked on to the great main avenue or parkway which leads to Indrapat. Across this main axis will run an avenue to the railway station. Other roads run in different directions from the entrance to the forum. The axis running north-east towards the Jama Masjid will form the principal business approach to the present city. At the railway station a place will be laid out around which will be grouped the administrative and municipal offices, the banks, the shops and the hotels. The main roads or avenues range from 70 feet to 150 feet in width with the exception of the main avenue east of the Secretariat buildings where a parkway width of 1,175 feet has been allowed. The principal avenues in addition to the main avenues are those running at right angles to the main east to west axis. For a temporary capital, for the use of the Government of India during the period of the building of the new capital an area was selected along the Alipur Road, between the existing civil station of Delhi and the Ridge. The architecture and method of construction are similar to those adopted in the exhibition buildings at Allahabad in 1910; but the buildings will outlast the transitional period for which they are intended. They will subsequently be an asset of some value.

In October, 1912, by proclamation, there was constituted an administrative enclave of Delhi under a Chief Commissioner. This enclave was entirely taken from the Delhi district of the Punjab and its total area is 573 square miles. On the basis of the Census of 1911, the population of the area originally included in the Province was 3,98,269 and of the new area 14,552, or a total of 4,12,821. The population of the Municipal town of Delhi was 2,29,144. The plans of the New Capital allow for a population within it of 70,000. Its present population is approximately 40,000. Sites have been allotted for forty Ruling Princes and Chiefs to build houses for their own occupation during their visits to the New City.

There was, as regards architecture, a prolonged "battle of the styles" over Delhi. Finally, to use the language of the architect, it has been their aim "to express, within the limit of the medium and of the powers of its users, the ideal and the fact of British rule in India, of which the New Delhi must ever be the monument." The inspiration of the designs is manifestly Western, as is that of British rule, but they combine with it distinctive Indian features without doing violence to the principles of structural fitness and artistic unity.

Cost of the Scheme.—It was at first tentatively estimated that the cost of the new capital would be four million sterling and that sum was given in the original despatch of the Government of India on the subject. Various factors have since then increased the cost, the chief of these being the immense rise in prices since the war, and the Legislative Assembly were informed by Government on 23rd March,

1921, that the revised estimates then amounted to 1,307 lakhs of rupees. This amount includes allowances for building new Legislative Chambers and Hostels for Members of the Indian Legislature, which were not allowed for in the earlier estimates. The New Capital Enquiry Committee, in its report published in January, 1923, estimated the total expenditure at Rs. 1,292 lakhs including Rs. 42 lakhs for loss by Exchange. This figure still stands.

The Project Estimate contains certain items such as land, residences, water supply, electric light and power, and irrigation on which recoveries in the form of rate or taxes will, in addition to meeting current expenditure, partially at any rate cover the interest on the capital outlay whilst there are other items on which some return on account of the sale of leases, general taxes and indirect receipts may be expected.

Progress of the work.—The construction of New Delhi has made satisfactory progress, having regard to the curtailment of the Budget allotment, in consequence of the war and the return of officers and other establishments to their civil work has made possible a considerable speeding up of constructional operations provided money can be provided to pay for them. The Secretariats are so far advanced that there were transferred to them from Calcutta in October 1924, the offices of the Accountant General, Central Revenues. The residential buildings for Government officers and staff of various grades have been completed and the Engineers hope to have the Secretariats and Parliament house ready for occupation in 1925 and Government House in 1926.

Opinion of the Legislature.—Considerable discussion regarding the new works took place in the Assembly in 1921. The following unofficial resolution has carried:—“This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that in the interests of economy and of general convenience alike the execution of the programme of New Delhi works may be expedited and the necessary funds provided or raised so that the Secretariat and Legislative buildings and connected works including residences may be completed as early as practicable.”

A non-official Member in the Legislative Assembly on 23rd September, 1921, at Simla, moved a recommendation to Government “to appoint a Committee to inquire into the possibility of establishing a permanent Capital of India in a place possessing salubrious and temperate climate throughout the year.” This proposal was ridiculed by several of his non-official colleagues and was eventually rejected without a division.

H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught, on 12th February, 1921, laid the foundation stone of a large group of parliamentary buildings on a site close to the south-east of the Secretariats. The buildings will be an imposing pile circular in shape, consisting in the main of three horse-shoe-shaped Chambers for the Chamber of Princes, Council of State and Legislative Assembly respectively and surmounted by a large dome over a Central Library connecting all three Chambers.

All-India War Memorial.—H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught on 10th February, 1921, laid the foundation-stone of an All-India War Memorial at the southern end of the Central Vista. The place chosen is a fine position in the centre of the circular Princes' Park.

The Memorial will take the form of a triumphal arch spanning Kingsway, the avenue running down the centre of the Vista. It will generally be similar to the Arc de Triomphe in Paris, but will be simpler in a way which will probably increase its grandeur and dignity. The monument will reach a height of 160 feet and the inner height of the arch will be 87 feet 6 inches and its breadth 70 feet. Over the arch on both fronts will appear in capital letters the single word INDIA and this will be flanked on each side by the initials MCM (i.e., 1900) whilst immediately below them on the left-hand will be the initials XIV (i.e., 14) and on the opposite side the figures XIX (i.e., 19). Above the Arch will be a circular stone bowl 11½ feet in diameter. This is intended to be filled with burning oil on great anniversaries and other occasions so that there will be a shining fire by night and a column of smoke by day. The memorial is solely Indian in purpose and will bear the names of Indian regiments only.

Educational Institutions.—It was proposed during 1914 that a higher college for Chiefs should be established at Delhi and in this connexion a conference of Chiefs and Political Officers was held at Delhi at which the Viceroy presided. The proposal is still under consideration. To implement it would require a capital outlay of Rs. 12½ lakhs.

The Government of India further in the Spring session of their Legislature in 1922 introduced and carried a Bill for the establishment of a unitary, teaching and residential university of Delhi, the buildings for which would be erected in the new capital. It is intended to provide a local university on the model recommended for Dacca University by the Calcutta University Commission.

The provision of funds for the complete realisation of the university must be a matter of time and it was, therefore, decided to commence work with the existing colleges in their present buildings and to permit them gradually to modify their organisation. Dr. H. S. Gour, M.L.A., was in 1922 appointed first Vice-Chancellor of the new university and the initial work of organisation was quickly effected by the Executive Council. Unfortunately the inability of the Government of India to allot considerable funds was a severe handicap. It was hoped that H. E. the Viceroy would be able to lay the foundation-stone of the university buildings in November, 1922, but this proved impracticable, and the site for the new buildings required has not yet been settled. Government and the University Authorities are examining this point in consultation, particularly with reference to question whether to build in the new capital or to utilise buildings that may become available elsewhere.

Freemasonry in India.

In 1728 a dispensation was granted by the Grand Lodge of England to Geo. Pomfret, Esq., authorising him to “open a new Lodge in Bengal.” Of this personage nothing further is known but under Capt. Farwinter, who in the following year succeeded him as Provincial Grand Master of India, Lodge was established in 1730, which in the Engraved Lists is distinguished by the arms of the East India Company, and is described as “No. 72 at Bengal in the East Indies.” The next Provincial Grand Masters were James Dawson and Zech. Gee, who held office in 1740; after whom came the Hon. Roger Drake, appointed 10th April 1755. The last named was Governor of Calcutta at the time of the attack made on the settlement by Surajah Dowlah in 1756. Drake missed the horrors of the Black Hole by escaping and was accused of deserting his post, but, though present at the retaking of Calcutta by Admiral Watson and Clive, it is improbable that he resumed the duties of his masonic office after the calamity that befell the settlement.

The minutes of the Grand Lodge inform us that William Mackett, Provincial Grand Master of Calcutta, was present at the meeting of that body, November 17th, 1760, and we learn on the same authority that at the request of the “Lodges in the East Indies” Mr. Cullin Smith was appointed P. G. M. in 1762. At this period it was the custom in Bengal “to elect the Provincial Grand Master annually by the majority of the votes of the members present, from amongst those who passed through the different offices of the (Prov.) Grand Lodge and who had served as Dep. Prov. Grand Master.” This annual election as soon as notified to the Grand Lodge of England was confirmed by the Grand Master without its being thought an infringement of his prerogative. In accordance with this practice, Samuel Middleton was elected (P. G. M. circa) in 1767; but in passing it may be briefly observed that a few years previously a kind of roving commission was granted by Earl Ferrars in 1762-64 to John Bluvitt, Commander of the “Admiral Watson,” Indianman “for East India where no other Provincial Lodge is to be found.” Middleton's election was confirmed October 31st, 1768, and, as the dispensation forwarded by the Grand Secretary was looked upon as abrogating the practice of annual elections, he accordingly held the office of D. G. M. Unfortunately the records of the P. G. L. date back only to 1774, and thus much valuable information is lost to us. This Grand Lodge continued working until 1792 when it ceased to meet. It seems that the officers were selected from only two Lodges much to the dissatisfaction of the other Lodges, and resulted in most of the dissatisfied bodies seceding and attaching themselves to the Athol of Ancient Grand Lodge. In 1813 at the Union both the Ancients and Moderns in Calcutta combined and gave their allegiance to the **United Grand Lodge of England** and have since been working peaceably under the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which was revived in that year and in 1840 created a District Grand Lodge.

Madras.—The earliest Lodge in Southern India (No. 222) was established in Madras in 1752. Three others were also established about 1760.

In the same year, Capt. Edmund Pascal was appointed P. G. M. for Madras and its Dependencies and in the following year another Lodge was established at Fort St. George. In 1768 the Athol (or Ancients) invaded this District and in 1782 established a Provincial Grand Lodge and both these Provincial Grand Bodies continued working peaceably side by side until the union. Indeed, though not generally known, these two Grand Bodies made an attempt at coalition long before any such movement was made by their parent bodies, the Grand Lodge of England, and the Ancient Grand Lodge, and Malden in his History of Freemasonry in Madras states that in a great measure they succeeded. At the Union in 1813 all the bodies in Madras gave their allegiance to the United Grand Lodge. One event worthy of note was the initiation in 1776 at Trichinopoly of the eldest son of the Nawab of Arcot, Undat-ul-Amari, who in his reply to the congratulations of the Grand Lodge of England stated “he considered the title of English Mason as one of the most honourable that he possessed.” This document is now stored in the archives of the United Grand Lodge.

Bombay.—Two Lodges were established in this Presidency during the 17th century, Nos. 234 at Bombay in 1758 and 569 in Surat in 1798, both of which were carried on the lists until the union when they disappeared. A Provincial Grand Master, James Todd, was appointed but there is no record that he exercised his functions and his name drops out of the Freemasons' Calendar in 1799. In 1801 an Athol Warrant was granted (No. 322) to the 78th foot which was engaged in the Maratha War under Sir Arthur Wellesley. In 1818 Lord Moria was asked to constitute a Lodge to be known by the name of St. Andrew by eight Masons residing there and also to grant a dispensation for holding a Provincial Grand Lodge for the purpose of making the Hon. Mountstuart a Mason, he having expressed a wish to that effect. The Petitioners further requested “that his name might be inserted in the body of the warrant, authorising them to instal him after being duly passed and raised a Deputy Grand Master of the Deccan. Of the reply to this application no copy has been preserved. Lodge Benevolence was established in Bombay in 1822.

In 1823 a Military Lodge “Orion-in-the-West” was formed in the Bombay Artillery and installed at Poona as No. 15 of the Coast of Coromandel. It seems from Lane's records that in 1830 it was discovered that this Lodge was not on the records of the United Grand Lodge of England. A Warrant was subsequently issued bearing date 19th July 1833. According to the early proceedings of this Lodge, members were examined in the Third Degree and passed to the chair in the Fourth Degree for which a fee of three gold mohurs was charged. In the following year a second Lodge was established at Poona by the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which however left no trace of its existence. In 1825 the civilian element of “Orion” seceded and formed the “Lodge of Hope” also at Poona No. 802.

Here “Orion” unrecognized at home, aided in the secession of some of its members, who

obtained a warrant, on the recommendation of the parent Lodge, from the Grand Lodge of England. Two years later it was discovered that no notification of the existence of "Orion-in-the-West" had reached England, nor had any fees been received, although these including quartermasters had been paid into the Provincial Grand Lodge, Coast of Coromandel. It was further ascertained that in granting a warrant for a Bombay Lodge the Provincial Grand Master of Coromandel had exceeded his powers. Ultimately a new warrant No. 598 was granted as already stated in 1833. Lodge "Perseverance" was started in Bombay No. 818 in 1828. Up to this time the jurisdiction of the Grand Lodge of England in India had not been invaded; but in 1836 Dr. James Burnes was appointed by the Grand Lodge of Scotland, P. G. M. of Western India and its Dependencies. No Provincial Grand Lodge however was formed until 1st January 1838. A second Scottish Province of Eastern India was started which on the retirement of the Marquis of Tweedale was absorbed within the jurisdiction of Dr. Burnes, who in 1846 became Provincial Grand Master for all India (including Aden) but with the proviso, that this appointment was not to act in restraint of any future sub-division of the Presidencies. Burnes may be best described as being in 1836, in ecclesiastical phrase as a Provincial Grand Master "in partibus infidelium" for whatever Lodges then existed throughout the length and breadth of India were strangers to Scottish Masonry. But the times were propitious. There was no English Provincial Grand Lodge in Bombay and the Chevallier Burnes, whose nature had endowed with all the qualities requisite for Masonic Administration, soon got to work and presented such attractions to Scottish Freemasonry that the strange sight was witnessed of English Masons deserting their mother Lodges, to such an extent that these fell into abeyance, in order to give support to Lodges newly constituted under the Grand Lodge of Scotland. In one case indeed, a Lodge "Perseverance" under England went over bodily to Scotland, with its name, jewels, furniture, and belongings, and the charge was accepted by Scotland. This Lodge still exists in Bombay and now bears No. 338 on the Register of Scotland. From this period, therefore, Scottish Masonry flourished, and English Masonry declined until the year 1848 when a Lodge St. George No. 807 on the Rolls of the Grand Lodge of England was again formed at Bombay, and for some years was the solitary representative of English Masonry in the Province. In 1844 Burns established a Lodge "Rising Star" at Bombay for the admission of Indian gentlemen the result of which is seen at the present day. Thus the seed planted at Trichinopoly in 1776 by the initiation of Andat-ul-Amari has borne fruit, resulting in the initiation of thousands of Indian gentlemen of all castes and creeds, and which has gone far to establishing that mutual trust between West and East, a distinguishing characteristic of Speculative Freemasonry. A Provincial Grand Lodge was re-established in Bombay in 1860, and converted into a District Grand Lodge in 1871.

The Grand Lodge of England.—All three Constitutions of the United Kingdom, the United Grand Lodge of England, the Grand Lodge of Ireland and the Grand Lodge of Scotland hold jurisdiction in India. By far the largest is the first; the next largest is the third and the number

of Lodges under Ireland is as yet small. The Grand Lodge of England divides its rule under Five District Grand Masters independent of each other and directly subordinate to the Grand Master of England by whom they are appointed.

Bengal.

81 Lodges. Rt. Wor. Bro. Hon'ble Mr. W. J. Reid, C.S.I., I.C.S.; Dy. D. G. M. C. D. Stewart; Asst. D. G. M. H. E. Holme.

Madras.

31 Lodges. A. Y. G. Campbell, C.I.E., C.B.E. V.D., I.C.S.

Bombay.

Rt. W. Bro. H. E. Sir L. O. Wilson, P. C., G.C.I.E., C.M.G., D.S.O., P.G.D. (Eng.).

Punjab.

31 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro. Major-Genl. Sir George Fletcher McMunn, K.C.B., K.C.S.I., D.S.O., District Grand Master.

Burma.

15 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro. James McKenna, C.I.E.; District Grand Master.

The Grand Lodge of Scotland exercises its rule through a Grand Master of all Scottish Freemasonry in India, who is elected by the Brethren subject to confirmation by the Grand Master Mason of Scotland. Maj. Gen. W. E. Jennings, C.I.E., the present incumbent of the office, controls 69 Lodges. Under him the several districts are in charge of the following Grand Superintendents:—

Genl. Sir Claud Jacob, G. Supdt., Northern India

Col. C. E. Luard Central . .

Col. C. H. Richards Southern . .

The Grand Secretary is R. W. Bro. Arthur W. S. Wise, J.P., 17, Murzban Road, Fort, Bombay.

The Grand Lodge of Ireland granted a warrant to establish a Lodge at Kurnal in 1837, but it was short lived. An attempt was made in 1869 to establish a Lodge in Bombay, but on the representation of the Grand Secretary of England, to the Deputy Grand Secretary of Ireland that it would be objectionable to create a third masonic jurisdiction in the Province, there being two already, viz., English and Scottish, the Grand Lodge of Ireland declined to grant the warrant. In 1911, however, a warrant was sanctioned for the establishment of Lodge "St. Patrick" and since that year two other Lodges have sprung into being.

The Grand Lodge of Ireland has no District Grand Master in India at present, the Lodges corresponding direct with the Grand Lodge in Dublin. There are ten Lodges, 4 in Calcutta, 3 in Ceylon and 3 in Bombay.

Royal Arch Masonry.—Under England, the District Grand Master in any District is nearly always created also Grand Superintendent, his Deputy as Second and another Companion as Third Principal.

Under Ireland there is no local jurisdiction and under Scotland the office is elective subject to confirmation.

The five English Districts are constituted as under:—

Bengal.

27 Chapters. Grand Supdt. Hon. Mr. W. J. Reid, C.S.I.

Madras.

15 Chapters. A. Y. G. Campbell, C.I.E., C.B.E., V.D., I.C.S.

Bombay.

23 Chapters. M. Ex. Comp. Major-General H. A. V. Cummins, C. B., C. M. G. Grand Superintendent.

Punjab.

18 Chapters. Lt.-Genl. Sir George Fletcher McMunn, K.C.B., K.C.S.I., D.S.O., P.A. G. Soj. (Eng.), Grand Superintendent.

Burma.

6 Chapters. James McKenna, C.I.E., Grand Superintendent.

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The present Grand Superintendent of R. A. Masonry under Scotland is the Hon. Maj.-Gen. W. E. Jennings, C.I.E., and there are 29 Chapters. There is one Irish Chapter in Calcutta.

Royal Arch Masonry under Scotland has a separate constitution to Craft Freemasonry. The District Grand Chapter of India is at present ruled by M. E. Camp. H. P. Gibbs under whom there are about 30 Chapters in India. The Grand Secretary of all Scottish Freemasonry in India is also District Grand Scribe E. of Scottish R. A. Masonry.

Mark Masonry.—Under England, Mark Masonry is worked under the Grand Mark Lodge of England and Wales, and divided into separate Districts; but in most cases the District Grand Master is also District Grand Mark Master.

Bengal.

26 Lodges. D. G. M. Landale Johnstone, I.C.S., D. D. G. M. C. D. Stewart.

Bombay.

15 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro. W. A. Haig-Brown, J.P., Hon. Mag., D. Grand Master.

Madras.

13 Lodges. A. Y. G. Campbell, C.I.E., C.B.E., V.D., I.C.S.

Punjab.

4 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro. Major Genl. Sir George Fletcher McMunn, K.C.B., K.C.S.I., D.S.O., D. Grand Master.

Burma.

6 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro. James McKenna, C.I.E., District Grand Master.

The Mark degree is incorporated with the Royal arch degree in Irish Chapters. Mark degree is worked in some S. O. Lodges, but mostly in R. A. Chapters, in which the Excellent R.A.M. and other degrees can be obtained. S. O. Chapters insist upon candidates being Mark Master Masons before exaltation. Mark degree in Craft Lodges is conferred by the Rt. Wor. Master in S. O. Craft does not recognise the ceremony of Rt. W. Mark Master. This is confined strictly to Chapters. Such Chapter has a Lodge of M. M. M. working under its charter. Separate charters for Mark Lodges are only issued by the G. Chapter of Scotland.

Other Degrees.—There are many side degrees worked in India, of the Ancient and Accepted Rite, no degree higher than the 18° is worked in India under England, but under Scotland the 30° is worked. The Knight Templar Degree is also worked in several places under both English and Scottish jurisdiction. There are fourteen 18th Degree Chapters working in India.

Roman Eagle Conclave No. 43, Bombay.
St. Mary's Commandery No. 43, Bombay.
R. A. Mariner, 72, 514 and 602, Bombay.
R. A. Mariner, 61, 81, 82 and 106, Madras.
Secret Monitor, 14, 21, 36, 37, 40 and 42, Madras.

Benevolent Associations.—Each District works its own benevolent arrangements which include the Relief of Distressed Masons, educational provision for the children of Masons and maintenance provision for widows in poor circumstances.

All information will be given to persons entitled by the District Grand Secretary in each District. The names and addresses of District Grand Secretaries are given below:—

D. G. S., Bengal.
C. J. Mackay, 19, Park Street, Calcutta.
D. G. S., Bombay.
Khan Bahadur Palanjil N. Davar, P.D.G.W., Kodak House, Fort, Bombay.
D. G. S., Burma.
J. Meyer, D.G.S., E.C., Rangoon.
D. G. S., Madras.
B. Mopurappah, Freemasons' Hall, Egmore, Madras.

D. G. S., Punjab.
Jas. J. Evans, P.D.G.W., Freemasons' Hall, Lahore.

Scottish Constitution.—For information regarding the Benevolent Funds application should be made to Arthur W. S. Wise, J.P., 17, Murzban Road, Bombay.

Scientific Surveys.

Botanical Survey.—The Botanical Survey Department of the Government of India is under the control of the Director who is assisted by three other officers. They are engaged in the examination and identification of plants and the study of floras. The Director is also in charge of the cinchona plantations in Burma.

In connection with the general question of post-war industrial policy, the Government of India decided in 1916 that every effort should be made to extend the area under cinchona in India, and deputed Colonel A. T. Gage, late Director of Botanical Survey of India, to explore land suitable for cinchona cultivation. As a result of his recommendations made in 1918 large areas in the Tavoy District of Burma were reserved for cinchona cultivation, and the first plantations were started there in 1920. A programme was adopted for planting 500 acres annually which would produce 90,000 lbs. per annum from 1928 onwards. Owing unfortunately to excessive rainfall in 1921-22 this plantation was entirely washed away, and the Tavoy scheme had to be abandoned. A fresh area was selected, however, in the Mergui District of Burma, and plantations were started there in 1922. The cultivation of cinchona is reported to be progressing satisfactorily in this area.

At the instance of the Retrenchment Committee the area to be planted during the first four years has been limited to 250 acres per annum, which will give an annual output of more than 45,000 lbs. from 1930. The Governments of Bengal and Madras are also at the instance of the Government of India extending their cinchona plantations, and it is proposed that Bengal should continue its sequence of planting 200 acres every year with cinchona, Madras 230 acres and the Government of India 250 acres annually. The total estimated output from this area is 1,20,000 lbs. as against a total Indian consumption of 1,60,000 lbs.

The actual demand for the drug in India is difficult to estimate. Eight million cases of malaria fever go to the hospitals and dispensaries every year. If each of these is treated with 110 grains of quinine, which may be taken as the minimum for the cure of a paroxysm, the demand for hospital and dispensary treatments alone would be 125,000 pounds a year. Patients do not get as much of the drug as they ought, because the cost of quinine is prohibitive. It is estimated that there are 100,000,000 sufferers from malaria who do not attend the hospitals. The potential demand is therefore somewhere between 125,000 pounds and 1,500,000 pounds. When the Italian Government, in 1903, made quinine a State industry and cheapened its retail price consumption in that country enormously increased and malaria mortality was reduced from 15,000 to 3,000 a year. The Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India says in his latest annual report that "it may be said that there is no question of the effective treatment of malaria in India until consumption of quinine approximates 500,000 pounds."

Geological Survey.—The ultimate aim of the Geological Survey of India is the preparation of a geological map of India upon the accuracy of which the solution of most geological problems ultimately depends. Maps accompany the reports on the various areas in the publications of the Department and a large amount of information is made available to the public. Such maps represent pioneer work which enables prospectors and mining engineers to cut short their preliminary investigations and to start where the Geological Survey has left off. During the preparation of the geological map and the general survey of the country mineral deposits of importance are frequently discovered. Such discoveries are published without delay and every endeavour is made to induce private firms to take up the exploitation of the mineral discovered. Collections of minerals, rocks and fossils are accumulated and exhibited in the public galleries of the Indian Museum. The Geological Survey also undertakes the examination and identification, without fee, of any minerals, rocks and fossils sent in by private observers. The publications of the Survey include the *Memoirs*, *Records* and *Paleontology* India.

Zoological Survey.—A scheme for the formation of a Zoological Survey on the basis of the Zoological and Anthropological Section of the Indian Museum, Calcutta, came into force in July, 1916. The proposals as sanctioned by the Secretary of State mainly are as follows:—The headquarters of the Survey will be the Indian Museum. The scheme regarding the Zoological Survey entails the breaking up of the organisation now known as the Zoological and Anthropological Section of the Indian Museum into two parts, one of which will become a Government department under the title of the Zoological Survey of India, and will be primarily concerned with zoological investigation and exercise such advisory functions as may be assigned to it by Government, while the other part will remain as the office of the Trustees of the Indian Museum and will be organised for the present on the lines laid down in the existing by-laws of the Museum. It will be the duty of the Zoological Survey to act as guardians of the standard zoological collection of the Indian Empire, and as such to give every assistance in their power both to officials and to others, in the identification of zoological specimens submitted to them, arranging, if requested to do so, to send collections to specialists abroad for identification in cases in which no specialist is available in India. The Director of the Survey was Dr. Anandale until last April when he died—within a month of receiving the honour of Fellowship of the Royal Society. Dr. Bains Prasad is acting President in his place.

Mammal Survey.—The Survey was instituted in the year 1912 with the object of making as complete a study as possible of the occurrence and distribution of Mammals in India, Burma and Ceylon, and with the further object of supplementing the collection of Indian Mammals at the Bombay Natural History Society's

Museum and at the British Museum as well as at the Natural History Museums in India, the primary object of the Survey being the furtherance of our knowledge of Indian Mammalian Fauna. Up to 1891 Naturalists in India had to rely for information on Dr. Jerdon's "Mammals of India" published in 1874. In 1884 R. A. Sterndale published his *Natural History of Indian Mammals* a purely popular work which did not add much to Jerdon's book. In 1881 a memorial prepared by Dr. Slater, Hon. Secretary to the Zoological Society and signed by Darwin, Hooker, Huxley, and other well known scientists, was presented to the Secretary of State for India. The memorial recommended that a series of Volumes dealing with the Fauna of India should be prepared and Dr. Blanford should be appointed its Editor. The memorial resulted in the publication in 1888-1890 of the Volume on Mammals in the "Fauna of British India" Series and since 1891 this volume has been the standard work on *Indian Mammals*. Blanford's book was however based on the information then available and the shortcomings of the book have been revealed in the light of more recent research. Further knowledge in regard to distribution and classification and the discoveries of new species have rendered Blanford practically obsolete.

To remedy this defect, at the instigation of the authorities of the British Museum, the Bombay Natural History Society decided to institute what is now known as the Mammal Survey. Mr. W. S. Millard, then Hon. Secretary of that Society, issued in an appeal to its members to enable the Society to engage the services of trained European collectors so as to make a systematic collection of the mammals of India, Burma and Ceylon. The response to the appeal resulted in over a lakh of rupees being raised between 1911 and 1920, partly by subscriptions from the Society's members, contributions from Indian Princes, and grants from the Indian Government, the Government of Burma, Ceylon, Malay States, and the Provincial Governments. Subscriptions were also received from a few Learned Societies and Institutions in England and America. By the outbreak of the war the Survey had been carried on over large areas of the country, the districts covered being—in Western India a portion of Sind, the whole of Gujarat, Kutch and Kathiawar; the Southern Maharatta country and Kanara in Southern India; in Coorg and Mysore; in the centre large tracts of the Central Provinces and some districts of Bengal and Behar; in Northern India the Society's collectors had worked over Kumaun, Darjeeling and Sikkim and the Bhutan Duars. In Burma, collections were made along the Chindwin river, in Central Burma and in the Shan States, Pegu and a portion of Tenasserim. The whole of Ceylon was also systematically surveyed.

The material, which up to the outbreak of War comprised some 17,000 specimens, was forwarded to the British Museum where the collections were scientifically worked out by the late Mr. R. C. Wroughton, formerly Inspector General of Forests, Mr. Oldfield Thomas, F.R.S., Curator of Mammals at the British Museum, Mr. Martin C. Hinton and others. The results of their researches were published in a series of scientific papers in the Journal of the

Bombay Natural History Society. The enormous mass of material then collected resulted in the discovery of large numbers of new forms and species and by increasing our knowledge of the distribution of Indian Mammalia has enabled the revision of Blanford's Mammalia to be undertaken and early in 1921 the Secretary of State for India commissioned Mr. R. C. Wroughton, since deceased, and Mr. M. C. Hinton to undertake the work. And it is hoped that the first volume of the new edition of the Mammalia will be issued in 1925.

When demobilization rendered it possible the work of the Survey which had been in abeyance during the war was resumed and a collector, Mr. C. Primrose, was sent to Assam and the Mergui Archipelago and Mr. Oldfield Thomas has written very appreciatively of his work among those islands. Mr. Primrose then began working inland but owing to the impracticability of continuing his work in Burma during the monsoon, he was transferred to Gwalior where H. H. the Maharaja kindly accorded permission to work in his territories.

After working a portion of the Eastern Ghats the next move was to the Kangra District in the North-West Himalayas and then on to the Punjab Salt Range. Two other collectors worked in Southern India. Permission was once more obtained from the Nepal Government for a collector to resume the Survey work in that country. The work in Nepal was brought to a successful close early this year with a representative collection of interesting mammals and birds.

The Survey now has only one collector who is collecting in the foot hills of Himalayas and the Pindari Valley.

The Board of Scientific Advice.—This Board in accordance with a recommendation of the Incheape Retrenchment Committee is in abeyance. It consisted of the heads of the Meteorological, Geological, Botanical, Forest and Survey Departments, representatives of the Agricultural and Civil Veterinary Departments, and other scientific authorities whose special attainments may be useful. It was established in 1902 to co-ordinate official scientific inquiry, to ensure that research work is distributed to the best advantage, and to advise the Government of India in prosecuting practical research into those questions of economic or applied science on the solution of which the agricultural and industrial development of the country so largely depends. The programmes of investigation of the various departments were annually submitted to the Board for discussion and arrangement, and an annual report was published on the work done.

The Secretary to the Government of India (Department of Revenue and Agriculture) was *ex-officio* President of the Board, which included the Director-General of Observatories, the Director of the Zoological Survey, the Surveyor-General of India, the Principal, Punjab Veterinary College, the Director of the Indian Institute of Science, the Inspector-General of Forests, the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India, the Director of the Geological Survey, the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Secretary to the Govern-

ment of India, Public Works Department, and the Director of the Botanical Survey of India who was Secretary to the Board of Scientific Advice.

The Universities Conference, representing all Indian Universities, which met in Simla last summer, recommended the revival of the Board.

The Indian Research Fund.—The progress of this Fund and its Association like the Board of Scientific Advice, has seriously been affected by the policy of retrenchment enforced in pursuance of the recommendations of the Incheape Committee. Scientific research work is rapidly developing in India. In 1911 the sum of 5 lakhs (£33,000) out of the surplus opium revenue was set aside as an endowment for research into epidemic diseases in connection with the Central Research Institute at Kasauli. It was hoped that this sum might be largely augmented by private subscriptions. An Indian Research Fund Association was constituted, and a good deal of work was undertaken. Its objects were defined as "the prosecution and assistance of research, the propagation of knowledge and experimental measures generally in connection with the causation mode of spread and prevention of communicable diseases." Fresh investigations into kala azar and cholera were inaugurated, and an officer was deputed at the expense of the Fund to study yellow fever in the regions where it is endemic, with a view to taking steps to prevent its introduction into India. A further grant of 6 lakhs (£40,000) was made to the Central Research Fund from the opium surplus of 1911-12. It was decided to devote to research and anti-malarial projects 5 lakhs (£33,000) a year from Imperial revenue commencing in 1913-14. A new periodical "The Indian Journal of Medical Research," was instituted in 1913 for publication four times annually, as the official organ of the Research Fund. The journal was designed to deal with every branch of research directly or indirectly connected with medical and sanitary science, and form a record of what was being done in India for the advance of this work. In 1922 it was decided to devote the capital funds at the disposal of the Association to the erection of an Imperial Medical Research Institute and to the formation of a fund for its endowments. In the same year valuable results were achieved by Dr. Nishi Kanta De, working in Calcutta on the chemistry of drugs used in treatment of leprosy and on the chemistry of the blood of lepers and resistant animals. The treatment of cancer, of influenza, of pneumonia, the histology and pathology of deficiency diseases and special problems concerning Indian caliculae, kalaazar, the action of quinine in malaria treatment were among the particular subjects of investigations specially dealt with by various research experts in 1922.

Survey of India.—The work of the Survey of India Department falls under various heads,

namely, the trigonometrical survey, topographical and forest surveys, special surveys and explorations, and map production. Cadastral surveys are now carried out by the Provincial Land Records and Settlement Departments.

In 1904 attention was drawn to the defective state of the **topographical survey maps**, and a Committee was appointed to report on the subject. To overtake the arrears of revisional survey and to secure that the map of India should be brought up to date and revised at proper intervals, they recommended a considerable increase of establishment and an increased expenditure of Rs. 2,10,000 a year for the next 25 years. They also made recommendations for altering the size and improving the quality of the maps. After further inquiry the Government of India decided that a scale of 1 inch to the mile would ordinarily be sufficient, reserved forests and special areas being surveyed on the scale of 2 inches to the mile, and the 4-inch scale employed for waste and barren tracts. The work of the Department has in recent years greatly been hampered by the general need for retrenchment in expenditure.

Indian Science Congress.—The Indian Science Congress was founded largely owing to the effects of Dr. J. L. Simonsen and Mr. P. S. Macmahon, the present Honorary General Secretaries of the Congress. The Asiatic Society of Bengal undertakes the management of the Congress finances and publishes annually the proceedings of the Congress. The objects are (1) to encourage research and to make the results generally known among science workers in India (2) to give opportunities for personal intercourse and scientific companionship and thus to overcome to some extent one of the chief drawbacks in the life of workers in science in India (3) to promote public interest in science; for this end the Congress is held at different centres annually, and evening lectures open to the public form an important part of the proceedings of each Congress.

The Congress, which is progressive and vigorous, meets in January each year, the proceedings last for six days. The Head of the Local Government is Patron of the Congress; the Congress session is opened by a Presidential Address delivered by the President for the year. The President is chosen annually, the different sections being represented in turn. The sections are (1) Agriculture, (2) Physics and Mathematics, (3) Chemistry and Applied Botany, (4) Zoology and Ethnography, (5) Botany, (6) Geology, (7) Medical Research; When the sections meet separately each section is presided over by its own President also chosen annually. The mornings are devoted to the reading and discussion of the papers, the afternoons to social functions and visits to places of interests, in the evenings public lectures are delivered.

Posts and Telegraphs

POST OFFICE.

The control of the Posts and Telegraphs of India is vested in an officer designated Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs who works in subordination to the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour. The superior staff of the Direction, in addition to the Director-General himself, consists on the postal side of two Deputy Directors-General (who are officers of the rank of Postmaster-General), and six Assistant Directors-General (whose status is similar to that of Deputy Postmasters-General).

For postal purposes, the Indian Empire is divided into nine circles as shown below, each of the first eight is in charge of a Postmaster-General and the Sind and Baluchistan Circle is controlled by a Deputy Postmaster-General:—Bengal and Assam, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, Burma, Central, Madras, Punjab and North-West Frontier, United Provinces and Sind and Baluchistan. The Central Circle comprises roughly the Central Provinces and the Central India and Rajputana Agencies.

The Postmasters-General are responsible to the Director-General for the whole of the postal arrangements in their respective circles, with the exception of those connected with the conveyance of mails by railways and inland steamers which are entrusted to the officers bearing the designation of Deputy Postmaster-General, Railway Mail Service. All the Postmasters-General are provided with Personal Assistants, while those in charge of the largest circles are also assisted by Deputy Postmasters-General. The nine Postal Circles and the jurisdictions of the three Deputy Postmasters-General, Railway Mail Service, are divided into Divisions, each in charge of a Superintendent of Post Offices or Railway Mail Service as the case may be and each Superintendent is assisted by a certain number of officials styled Inspectors.

Generally there is a head post office at the head-quarters of each revenue district and other post offices in the same district are usually subordinate to the head office for purposes of accounts. The Postmasters of the Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras General Post Offices

and of the larger of the other head post offices are directly under the Postmaster-General. The Presidency Postmasters, indeed, have one or more Superintendents subordinate to them. When the duties of the Postmaster of a head office become so onerous that he is unable to perform them fully himself, a Deputy Postmaster is appointed to relieve him of some of them, and if still further relief is required, one or more Assistant Postmasters are employed. The more important of the offices subordinate to the head office are designated sub-offices and are usually established only in towns of some importance. Sub-offices transact all classes of postal business with the public, submit accounts to the head offices to which they are subordinate, incorporating therein the accounts of their branch offices, and frequently have direct dealings with Government local sub-treasuries. The officer in charge of such an office works it either single-handed or with the assistance of one or more clerks according to the amount of business.

Branch offices are small offices with limited functions ordinarily intended for villages, and are placed in charge either of departmental officers on small pay or of extraneous agents, such as school-masters, shopkeepers, landholders or cultivators who perform their postal duties in return for a small remuneration.

The audit work of the Post Office is entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs, who is an officer of the Finance Department of the Government of India and is not subordinate to the Director-General. The Accountant-General is assisted by Deputy Accountants-General, all of whom, with the necessary staff of clerks, perform at separate headquarters the actual audit work of a certain number of post-offices.

In accordance with an arrangement which has been in force since 1883, a large number of sub-post offices and a few head offices perform telegraph work in addition to their postal work and are known by the name of combined offices. The policy is to increase telegraph facilities everywhere and especially in towns by opening a number of cheap telegraph offices working under the control of the Post Office.

The Inland Tariff (which is applicable to Ceylon and Portuguese India except as indicated below) is as follows:—

	When the postage is prepaid.	When the postage is wholly unpaid.	When the postage is insufficiently prepaid.
Letters.	Anna.		
Not exceeding two and a half tolas ..	1	Double the prepaid rate (chargeable on delivery).	Double the deficiency (chargeable on delivery).
Every additional two and a half tolas or part of that weight ..	1		
Book and pattern packets.			
Every 5 tolas or part of that weight ..	1		

Postcards.

Single	Rs. a.
Reply	1 anna.

(The postage on cards of private manufacture must be prepaid in full.)

Parcels (prepayment compulsory).

(a) Parcels not exceeding 440 tolas in weight:—

Not exceeding 20 tolas	Rs. a.
Exceeding 20 tolas but not exceeding 40 tolas	0 2
For every additional 40 tolas or part of that weight	0 3
	3 annas.

(b) Parcels exceeding 440 tolas in weight:—

Exceeding 440 tolas but not exceeding 480 tolas	Rs. 3 0
4 annas for every additional 40 tolas or fraction thereof up to 800 tolas.	

Registration is compulsory in the case of parcels weighing over 440 tolas. These rates are not applicable to parcels for Portuguese India.

In the case of parcels for Ceylon a registration fee of 2 annas is chargeable on each parcel in addition to the rates shown above.

Registration fee. Rs. a.

For each letter, postcard, book or pattern packet, or parcel to be registered 0 2

Ordinary Money Order fees.

On any sum not exceeding Rs. 10	0 2
On any sum exceeding Rs. 10 but not exceeding Rs. 25	0 4
On any sum exceeding Rs. 25 up to Rs. 600	0 4

for each complete sum of Rs. 25, and 4 annas for the remainder; provided that, if the remainder does not exceed Rs. 10, the charge for it shall be only 2 annas.

Telegraphic money order fees.—The same as the fees for ordinary money orders plus a telegraph charge calculated at the rates for inland telegrams for the actual number of words used in the telegram advising the remittance, according as the telegram is to be sent as an "Express" or as an "Ordinary" message.

In the case of Ceylon the telegraph charge is calculated at the rates shown below:—

Express.—Rs. 2 for the first 12 words and 3 annas for each additional word.

Ordinary.—Rs. 1 for the first 12 words and 2 annas for each additional word. Telegraphic money orders cannot be sent to Portuguese India.

Value-payable fees.—These are calculated on the amount specified for remittance to the sender and are the same as the fees for ordinary money orders.

Insurance fees.—For every Rs. 100 of insured value 2 annas.

As regards Ceylon and Portuguese India see Foreign Tariff.

Acknowledgment fee.—For each registered article 1 anna.

The Foreign Tariff (which is not applicable to Ceylon except in respect of insurance fees or

to Portuguese India except in respect of insurance fees and parcel postage) is as follows:—

Letters.

To the United Kingdom, other British Possessions and Egypt, including the Sudan.

To other countries, colonies or places.

Postcards Single 1½ annas.
" Reply 3 annas.

Printed Papers.—½ anna for every 2 ounces or part of that weight.

Business Papers.—For a packet not exceeding 10 ounces in weight .. 3 annas.
For every additional 2 ounces or part of that weight ½ anna.

Samples.—½ anna for every 2 ounces or part of that weight, subject to a minimum charge of 1 anna for each packet.

(The rates shown above are those chargeable when the postage is prepaid.)

Parcels.

(i) Parcel not exceeding 11 lbs. in weight are forwarded as mails to the British Post Office, the rates of postage applicable to such parcels being as follows:—

	Via	Gibraltar	Rs. a. p.
For a parcel—			
Not over 3 lbs.			1 8 0
Over 3 lbs., but not over 7 lbs.			2 12 0
" 7 " "		11 "	3 15 0

These parcels are delivered by the post office and the postage paid carries them to destination.

(ii) Parcels which exceed 11 lbs. but which do not exceed 50 lbs. (the maximum allowed) in weight are forwarded from India through the medium of the P. & O.S.N. Co., and are delivered at destination under arrangements made by that Company. The postage charge applicable to such parcels is twelve annas for each pound, or fraction of a pound. The parcels are delivered free of charge within a radius of one mile from the Company's Head Office in London; if addressed to any place beyond that radius, carrier's charges are levied from the addressees on delivery. Parcels thus forwarded through the P. & O.S.N. Co. cannot be insured during transit beyond India, but must, if they contain coin, etc., be insured during transit in India. No acknowledgment of delivery can be obtained in respect of these parcels, nor can such parcels be transmitted to the United Kingdom under the value-payable system.

Money Orders.—To countries on which money orders have to be drawn in rupee currency, the rates of commission are the same as in the case of inland money orders.

To countries on which money orders have to be drawn in sterling, the rates are as follows:—

On any sum not exceeding £1	Rs. a.
" " exceeding £1 but not exceeding £2	0 3
" " " £2 " "	0 5
" " " £3 " "	0 8
" " " £4 " "	0 10
" " " £5 " "	0 12
" " " £5 " "	0 12

for each complete sum of £5 and 12 annas for the remainder, provided that if the remainder does not exceed £1, the charge for it shall be 3 annas; if it does not exceed £2, the charge for it shall be 5 annas; if it does not exceed £3, the charge for it shall be 8 annas; and if it does not exceed £4, the charge for it shall be 10 annas.

Insurance fees (for registered letters and parcels only).—

For insurance of letters and parcels to Ceylon and of letters to Portuguese India.—Annas.

Where the value insured does not exceed Rs. 100 2
For every additional Rs. 100 or fraction thereof 2

For insurance of letters and parcels to Mauritius and British Somaliland and of parcels to Portuguese India, the Seychelles and Zanzibar.—Annas.

Where the value insured does not exceed Rs. 200 5
For every additional Rs. 200 or fraction thereof 5

For insurance of letters and parcels to the United Kingdom and to British Possessions and Foreign countries other than those mentioned above and for insurance of letters to the Seychelles and Zanzibar.—

Where the value insured does not exceed £12 5
For every additional £12 or fraction thereof 5

Acknowledgment fee.—3 annas for each registered article.

Growth of the Post Office.—At the end of 1897-98 the total number of post offices was 11,742 and the total length of mail lines 126,351 miles. For the 31st March 1921 the corresponding figures were 19,496 and 157,301. During the year 1897-98, the total number of letters, postcards, newspapers and packets given out for delivery was 460,899,344, while for the year 1920-21 the total number of unregistered articles of the same classes given out for delivery plus the number of registered letters and packets posted amounted to 1,375,266,446. The number of parcel mail articles given out for delivery in the former year was 4,119,781 as compared with 14,111,036 such articles posted during the latter year. The total number and value of money orders issued increased from 11,795,041 and Rs. 24,78,45,455 in 1897-98 to 38,504,814 and Rs. 88,36,48,317, respectively, in 1920-21. During the former year the total number of articles insured for transmission by post was 326,645 with an aggregate declared value of Rs. 10,00,62,590 and the corresponding figures for 1910-11 were 1,169,428 and Rs. 28,85,78,225. As the result, however, mainly of the introduction in 1911-12 of the rule under which inland articles containing currency notes or portions thereof must be insured, the figures for 1920-21 stand at 4,510,471 and Rs. 1,37,66,71,002. The number of accounts open on the books of the Post Office Savings Bank grew from 739,387 on the 31st March 1898 to 1,377,957 at the end of 1920-21, with an increase from Rs. 9,28,72,973 to Rs. 22,86,21,716 in the total amount standing at the credit of depositors. The total staff on the 31st March 1921 numbered 102,885. The net financial result of the working of the Post Office for the year 1920-21 was a deficit of Rs. 45,99,372.

This account of the activities of the Post Office would not be complete if it were not mentioned that on the 31st March 1921 there were 33,258 active Postal Life Insurance policies with an aggregate assurance of Rs. 4,88,87,682 and that during 1920-21 it disbursed a sum of Rs. 75,46,103 to Indian Military pensioners; sold over 5½ lakhs of cash certificates to the public; collected at its own expense a sum of Rs. 5½ lakhs on account of customs duty on parcels and letters from abroad; and sold 15,484 lbs. of quinine to the public.

TELEGRAPH DEPARTMENT.

Telegraphs.—Up to 1912 the telegraph system in India was administered as a separate department by an officer designated Director-General of Telegraphs who worked in subordination to the Government of India in the Department of Commerce and Industry. In that year it was decided to vest the control of Posts and Telegraphs in a single officer as an experimental measure with a view to the eventual amalgamation of the two Departments.

In pursuance of this policy an experimental amalgamation of the two services was introduced

in the Bombay and Central Circles from the 1st July 1912. The fundamental principles of this scheme which followed closely the system in force in the United Kingdom and several other European countries were that the traffic and engineering work of the Telegraph Department should be separated, the former branch of work in each Circle being transferred to the Postmaster-General assisted by a Deputy Postmaster-General and a suitable number of attached officers and the engineering branch being controlled by a Director of Telegraphs in

charge of the two Circles. Subordinate to this officer there were several Divisional Superintendents who were assisted by a number of attached officers.

In 1914 the complete amalgamation of the two Departments was sanctioned by the Secretary of State and introduced from 1st April. The superior staff of the Direction, in addition to the Director-General himself, consists on the engineering side of a Chief Engineer, Telegraphs, with two Dy. Chief Engineers. For traffic work there is a Deputy Director-General, with an Assistant and two Assistant Directors-General. On the 27th March 1920 a Controller of Telegraph Traffic was appointed to assist the Deputy Director-General in the inspection of offices and in controlling telegraph traffic. In the Circles the scheme which has been introduced follows closely on the lines of the experimental one referred to above. For telegraph engineering purposes India is divided up into five Circles, each in charge of a Director. For Burma special arrangements were considered necessary and the engineering work is in charge of the Postmaster-General who is a Telegraph officer specially selected for the purpose. These six Circles are divided into twenty-one Divisions each of which is in charge of a Divisional Engineer. On the 1st July 1922 Sind and Baluchistan circle was formed with its headquarters at Karachi. This circle is in charge of a Deputy Postmaster-General. On the 31st March 1924 there were 7 Circles and 20 Divisions.

The telegraph traffic work is under the control of the Postmasters-General, each of whom is assisted by a Deputy Postmaster-General and a suitable staff of attached officers.

The audit work of the Telegraph Department is, like that of the Post Office, entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs, assisted by a staff of Deputy and Assistant Accountants-General.

Inland Telegrams and Tariff.—Telegrams sent to or received from places in India or Ceylon are classed as inland telegrams. The tariff for inland telegrams is as follows:—

For delivery in India		For delivery in Ceylon.	
Private and State.		Private and State.	
Ex-press.	Ordinary.	Ex-press.	Ordinary.
Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
Minimum charge, 1	8	0	12
Each additional word over 12..	0	2	0
The address is charged for.	0	1	0

Additional charges.

Minimum for reply-paid telegram	Minimum charge for an ordinary telegram.
Acknowledgment of receipt	
Multiple telegrams, each 100 words or less	4 annas.

Collation	Rs. ..	One quarter of charge for telegram.
For acceptance of an Express telegram during the hours when an office is closed.	Rs. ..	If both the offices of origin and destination are closed .. 2
	Rs. ..	If only one of the offices is closed .. 1
Signalling by flag or semaphore to or from ships—per telegram	Rs. ..	If the telegram has to pass through any closed intermediate office an additional fee in respect of each such office .. 1
Boat hire	Rs. ..	Amount actually necessary.
Copies of telegrams, each 100 words or less	Rs. ..	4 annas.

For delivery in India.		For delivery in Ceylon.	
Ex-press.	Ordinary.	Ex-press.	Ordinary.
Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
Minimum charge ..	1	0	8
Each additional 6 words over 48 in respect of India, each additional four words over 32 in respect of Ceylon..	0	2	0
The address is free.	0	1	0

Foreign Tariff.—The charges for foreign telegrams vary with the countries to which they are addressed. The rates per word for private and state telegrams to countries in Europe are as follows:—

All countries in Europe (except Russia and Turkey) via Eastern ..		Do. via Indo ..	
Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
3	12	1	4
0	10	0	10

Radio-Telegrams.—For radio-telegrams addressed to ships at sea from offices in India or Burma and transmitted via the coast stations at Bombay, Calcutta, Diamond Island, Karachi, Madras, Port Blair, Rangoon or Victoria Point the charge is eleven annas per word in nearly all cases. Full particulars are given in Section XXIII of the Post and Telegraph Guide.

Growth of Telegraphs.—At the end of 1897-98 there were 50,305 miles of line and 155,088 miles of wire and cable, as compared with 461,592 wire including cable and 93,054 line including cable miles, respectively, on the 31st March 1924. The numbers of departmental telegraph offices were 257 and 172 respectively, while the number of telegraph offices worked by the Post Office rose from 1,634 to 3,507. The increase in the number of paid telegrams dealt with is shown by the following figures:—

	1897-98.	1921-22.
Inland ..	{ Private .. 4,107,270	14,835,276
	{ State .. 860,382	1,557,848
	{ Press .. 35,910	348,341
Foreign ..	{ Private .. 735,679	2,689,103
	{ State .. 8,996	49,731
	{ Press .. 5,278	25,695
	5,754,415	19,697,994

The outturn of the workshops during 1923-24 represented a total value of Rs. 16,60,258. At the end of the year the total staff num-

bered 13,770. The total capital expenditure up to the close of 1923-24 amounted to Rs. 20,86,50,004. The deficit for the year was Rs. 2,93,734.

Wireless.—The total number of Departmental wireless stations open at the end of 1923-24 was twenty-five viz., Allahabad, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Diamond Island, Jajmyn, Karachi, Lahore, Madras (3 stations), Maymyo, Mhow, Nagpur, Peshawar, Poona, Port Blair, Quetta, Rangoon (3 stations) Sandheads (two pilot vessels), Secunderabad and Victoria Point, of these only Port Blair and Victoria Point book telegrams direct from the public.

A high speed service was opened between Rangoon and Madras and two new stations erected at each of these places for working this service.

Telephones.—On the 31st March 1924 the number of telephone exchanges established by the Department was 231 with 12,007 straight line connections and 1624 extension telephones. Of these exchanges, 91 were worked departmentally. The number of telephone exchanges established by Telephone Companies was 14 with 25,222 connections.

Sanitation.

The history of the sanitary departments in India goes back for about fifty years. During that period great improvements have been effected in the sanitary condition of the towns, though much remains to be done; but the progress of rural sanitation which involves the health of the great bulk of the population has been slow, and incommensurate with the thought and labour bestowed on the subject. "The reason lies in the apathy of the people and the tenacity with which they cling to domestic customs injurious to health. While the inhabitants of the plains of India are on the whole distinguished for personal cleanliness, the sense of public cleanliness has ever been wanting. Great improvements have been effected in many places; but the village house is still often ill-ventilated and over-populated; the village site dirty, crowded with cattle, choked with rank vegetation, and poisoned by stagnant pools; and the village tanks polluted, and used indiscriminately for bathing, cooking and drinking. That the way to improvement lies through the education of the people has always been recognised."

Of recent years the pace has been speeded up as education progressed, education developed, and funds were available. In a resolution issued in May 23rd, 1914, the Government of India summarised the position at that time, and laid down the general lines of advance. This resolution (*Gazette of India*, May 25th, 1914) should be studied by all who wish to understand the attitude of the Government of India towards sanitation prior to the passing of the Reform Act of 1919. It will be found summarised in the Indian Year Book of 1922 (page 475 *et seq.*) and earlier editions. One of the

greatest changes effected by the Reform Act of 1919 was the transfer of sanitation to the provinces making it a subject directly responsible to local control through Ministers. It is too early yet to attempt to indicate the effects of this change. In the official report of sanitary work in India during the year 1921-22, the general position is indicated by the Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India, in the following terms: "There is unfortunately little reason to suppose that the transfer of Sanitation to popular control will usher in the millennium at an early date. When all allowances are made for financial stringency, it cannot be said that the Reformed Provincial Governments have thrown themselves enthusiastically into the struggle with disease. The daily press, however, shows that popular interest in the problems of sanitation is slowly increasing, which of itself is a good thing. One of the encouraging features of the period has been the increasing number of local associations who are taking part in sanitary work. Voluntary agencies have multiplied, and private generosity both in money and service increases." The next annual report by the same official note is made that the death rate for British India in 1922 was 24.02 against a quinquennial mean of 38.42. This mean was high because of the influenza epidemic in 1918, but in 1922 there were 1½ million fewer deaths than in 1921. The report continues, "It cannot be too strongly impressed on the Indian public that there is no reason why this economy in life should not continue and be improved on. Life, for which health is a prime necessity, is purchasable, and is the greatest asset any nation may acquire. . . . In order to open the

eyes of the public a campaign of enlightenment is essential. . . . Perhaps the most urgent requirement of India to-day, when Indian politicians desire to create a strong nation, is the appointment of a Commission to inquire into the actual health conditions of the people and to make definite recommendations on the measures necessary to secure a reasonable standard of health. . . . The saving of life in 1922 was in large measure accidental and due to conditions over which man has no control."

Province.	Birth Rates (per mille).		Death Rates (per mille).	
	19:2.	1917-21.	19:2.	1917-21.
Delhi	41.20	..	24.91	48.06
Bengal	27.40	30.20	25.20	32.00
Bihar and Orissa	35.00	35.40	24.10	39.60
Assam	28.43	28.60	26.83	32.18
United Provinces	32.17	37.06	25.01	47.75
Punjab	39.30	40.00	22.07	39.16
N. W. Frontier Province	23.70	28.60	21.68	35.41
Central Provinces and Berar	35.80	45.55	29.31	53.20
Madras	30.00	28.40	21.00	27.70
Coorg	26.07	27.55	34.60	36.26
Bombay	32.39	31.62	23.61	43.20
Burma, Lower	27.27	30.60	22.41	28.26
Burma, Upper	34.18	35.65	21.90	29.26
Ajmer-Merwara	30.28	30.72	22.19	60.76
Total	31.85	33.97	24.02	38.42

Chief Diseases.—There are three main classes of fatal disease: specific fevers, diseases affecting the abdominal organs, and lung diseases. Intestinal and skin parasites, ulcers and other indication of scurvy widely prevail. The table below shows the number of deaths from each of the principal diseases and from all other causes in British India and death-rates per 1,000:—

Province.	Cholera.	Small-pox	Plague.	Fevers.	Dysentery and Diarrhoea.	Respiratory Diseases.	All other causes.
Delhi ..	6	22	191	6,725	369	3,947	1,212
	.01	.04	.38	13.43	.73	7.88	2.48
Bengal ..	51,712	7,864	150	885,268	23,411	26,371	178,470
	1.1	.2	.003	19.0	.5	.6	3.8
Bihar & Orissa	26,805	2,560	15,066	578,656	18,037	5,629	173,821
	.7	.07	.4	17.0	.5	.1	5.0
Assam ..	16,219	2,610	..	112,094	10,237	8,405	34,492
	2.36	.38	..	16.35	1.49	1.22	5.02
U. Provinces	2,330	242	23,291	909,293	10,654	25,307	163,763
	.05	.01	.51	20.04	.23	.56	3.61
Punjab ..	128	1,608	7,780	306,654	7,013	40,004	89,620
	.01	.08	.38	14.95	.34	1.95	4.37
N. W. F. P.	92	104	124	39,984	206	1,321	4,476
	.04	.05	.05	18.72	.10	.62	2.10
C. P. & Berar	64	407	6,149	237,164	25,618	36,383	102,042
	.005	.03	.45	17.05	1.84	2.62	7.34
Madras ..	16,502	22,801	9,193	319,688	51,805	48,166	391,081
	.4	.5	.2	7.8	1.3	1.2	9.6
Coorg ..	..	1	8	4,604	188	181	682
	.02	.01	.05	28.10	1.15	1.10	4.17
Bombay ..	2,768	1,170	8,379	197,888	21,118	82,682	138,576
	.14	.06	.44	10.33	1.10	4.31	7.23
Lower Burma	4,080	1,239	4,455	56,958	7,378	8,863	74,066
	.58	.18	.64	8.13	1.05	1.27	10.57
Upper ..	987	210	2,827	25,926	1,562	3,080	47,842
	.26	.06	.75	6.89	.42	.82	12.71
Ajmer Merwara.	2	8	2	8,184	256	189	2,348
	.00	.02	.00	16.53	.52	.38	4.74
British India	450,608	40,440	69,682	4,761,237	229,576	334,103	1,499,460
1921-22 ..	1.87	.17	.29	19.27	.95	1.38	6.21
	121,679	40,836	77,615	3,689,086	177,852	290,533	1,402,491
	.50	.17	.32	15.28	.74	1.20	5.81

Taking India as a whole, the Public Health Commissioner reported, the ryot during 1922, experienced fairly normal seasonal climatic conditions for the second year in succession, which might well be reflected in morbidity and mortality statistics. Except in Madras and Bombay there was a reduction of deaths in all provinces compared with the quinquennial mean. Compared with 1921, there were slight increases of deaths in Delhi, Bihar and Orissa, Madras and Lower Burma.

Birth registration is notoriously defective and the registration of female births probably suffers more than that of males. Births exceeded deaths in all areas except Coorg.

The general figures are regarded as indicating that the population in the absence of conditions favourable to epidemicity responded steadily to the improvement in conditions consequent upon two successive good seasons.

Statistics from only a few Indian States are received by the Public Health Commissioner and it is evident from them that much requires to be done in the States to improve registration. Thus, Mysore returns a birth-rate of 17.91 and a death rate of 14.52 (despite epidemic prevalence of small-pox, plague, malaria and relapsing fever).

The Public Health Commissioner reports that deaths during the first year of life were 23.2 per cent. of the total deaths against 20.8 in the preceding year. "Infant mortality is a sensitive index of the health conditions, especially as regards sanitation, under which the people live: it is these conditions which require attention if any real influence on infant mortality and on the health of the nation is to be exercised. . . . In British India as a whole 48.8 per cent. of the infantile deaths occurred

during the first month of life. . . . Nearly one-third of the infantile deaths occur in the first week. Mortality at this period is associated more than at any other time with maternal conditions, which in their turn are inseparably connected with the nature of the environment and the liability to contagion."

As regards general mortality and particularly that from malaria, the Public Health Commissioner in his annual report quotes with approval the following opinion by Dr. Pais:—"Malaria impresses not only physical marks but above all physical degeneration on the race it smites. Distrust towards works of a social character, diminished will-power, diminished liking for work, restricted vision towards all the phenomena of life, are special characteristics of those with chronic malaria and of the peoples who have long suffered from the infection." Dr. Bentley, who has made an expert study of malaria in various parts of the world and has in recent years specially devoted himself to it in India, gives reason for considering that in Bengal alone there are every year 28,300,000 cases of malaria requiring treatment. If this estimate be applied to the whole of India the number of cases requiring treatment throughout the land would be about 100,000,000.

The known results of vaccination in the prevention of small-pox are an indication of the facility with which mortality can be prevented when the people accept with comparative readiness the scientific advice given them in health matters, as they do in regard to this measure. Had the average mortality from small-pox during the decade 1868-1877 pertained in the last quinquennium the average annual mortality during the latter period from this cause alone would have been 248,712 instead of the recorded figure of 82,338.

THE HEALTH OF THE ARMY.

British.—The average strength of European Troops, Regulars and Territorials, in India during 1922 was 60,166 as compared with 58,681 in 1921. The following table shows the main facts as regards the health:—

Period.	Average strength.	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids sent home.	Average constantly sick.
1910-14 average	69,440	39,389	303	488	2,094.57
1915-19 average	66,199	58,367	583	1,980	3,277.53
1920.. .. .	57,332	61,429	385	2,314	3,488.08
1921.. .. .	58,681	60,515	408	749	3,070.04
1922.. .. .	60,166	37,836	284	714	1,902.32

Period.	Ratio per 1,000 of strength.				Average period of illness of each soldier calculated on average strength.	Average duration of each case of sickness.
	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids sent home.	Average constantly sick.		
1910-14 average	567.2	4.51	7.03	30.13	*10.00	*19.39
1915-19 average	881.7	8.81	29.91	49.51	18.07	20.50
1920.. ..	1,071.5	0.72	40.36	60.84	22.27	20.78
1921.. ..	1,031.3	6.95	12.76	52.32	19.10	18.52
1922.. ..	628.9	4.72	11.87	31.62	11.54	18.35

* Worked out on quinquennium aggregates.

The main features of the tables are the progressive rise in the general sick-rate during and after the Great War and the sudden drop in 1922. The causes of deterioration in the first case have fully been discussed in previous annual comments. The improvement, though apparently sudden, was really gradual in its onset, making itself more and more felt as the year progressed, an unusually mild hot weather and low incidence of malaria specially helping. The statistics here dealt with do not contain figures concerning troops in Waziristan, because the conditions affecting them are special.

During the war sanitary supervision in cantonments unavoidably deteriorated, with the result that many ordinary measures for the preservation of health fell into abeyance. The post-war garrison consisted of young and untrained troops ignorant of the rules necessary for a healthy life in the tropics, with little or no

leavening of older hands to teach them and generally with officers as ignorant on these matters as themselves. The medical officers included many unfamiliar with the practical details of tropical sanitation and inexperienced in the peace administration of hospitals and troops in barracks. Consequently there had to be an educational period and a considerable weeding out of unfit. The improvement in the health returns marks its progress. Detailed tables show that the improvement in health among the troops was not confined to any one disease, but was spread over them all with the exception of malaria. This was as usual the chief cause of sickness in 1922, but this year was not far above the average for 1910-14. The general death-rate shows a decrease to 0.36 above pre-war average. An unexplainable post-war increase in deaths from respiratory diseases is the cause of the level now being higher than before the war.

Indian.—The average strength of Indian troops excluding those on field service and in stations outside India (but not excluding those at Aden and Bushire) was 147,840 in 1922, as compared with 175,384 in 1921.

The following table gives the actuals and ratios of sickness, deaths, and invaliding for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1920 to 1922 inclusive:—

Period.	Average strength.	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids.	Average constantly sick.	Ratio per 1,000 of strength.			
						Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids.	Average constantly sick.
1910-14 (average) ..	130,261	71,213	573	699	2,662	544.6*	4.39*	5.4*	20.7*
1915-19 (average) ..	204,298	101,028	3,435	4,824	7,792	788.2	16.81	23.6	38.1
1920.. ..	216,445	164,984	2,124	4,564	9,265	762.3	9.81	21.1	42.8
1921.. ..	175,384	119,215	1,782	3,638	6,031	679.7	10.16	20.7	34.4
1922.. ..	147,840	77,468	1,014	2,659	3,639	524.0	6.86	18.0	24.6

* Worked out on quinquennial aggregates.

The factors that exercised an adverse influence on the health of British troops during and after the war also affected Indian troops, but the bad effect was much less marked, probably because the men were not in the same need of acclimatisation and the recovery began earlier and has been carried further. The introduction of the station hospital system has probably tended to produce slightly increased ratios for admission to hospital and average constantly sick.

The ratios per thousand deaths and invaliding, though satisfactory when compared with those for 1921, are still much higher than the pre-war average. The high death-rate is almost entirely caused by respiratory diseases in the causation of which influenza has probably taken part, while the invaliding is regarded as the aftermath of the heavy malaria incidence of the past few years. There has been an increased incidence of venereal disease.

A factor expected to benefit the health of troops is the abolition of the old system of regimental rationing and its replacement by a central issue in kind, the scale of which has been drawn up on a scientific basis so far as caste requirements permit.

The improvement in health of troops was not confined to any particular group of diseases. The figures concerning venereal disease are more than double the pre-war rate and the commands situated wholly in India show a much higher rate than those which include many frontier stations within their boundaries. This is regarded as indicating an increase of venereal disease among the civil population.

Statistics analysing the distribution of disease among troops in different commands show great variation in the incidence of sickness and mortality with differences of locality and climate.

MORTALITY FROM WILD ANIMALS.

The total number of persons killed by wild animals in British India during 1923 amounted to 3,605, as against 3,263 in the previous year. Tigers were responsible for 1,693 deaths, leopards for 64, wolves for 835, bears for 79, elephants for 70 and hyenas for 18. Deaths were highest from tigers and leopards in Madras, from wolves in the United Provinces, from bears in Bihar and Orissa, and from elephants in Assam. Of the 446 deaths from "other animals" about 101 are assigned to wild boars and pigs and 213 to crocodiles and alligators. The highest number of deaths from all wild animals occurred in the United Provinces (909), Madras, and Central Provinces and Berar, and Bihar and Orissa coming next in order. There has been an abnormal increase of 418 deaths, chiefly from wolves, in the United Provinces over the previous years' figure, and this

more than accounts for the increase in the total number of deaths. The variations in other provinces do not call for special comment.

Snake Bite.—The mortality from snake bites among human beings fell from 20,090 to 19,990. Decreases occurred in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, the Central Provinces, and Berar and the Punjab, but the United Provinces, Madras and Burma have reported increases.

Animals Destroyed.—23,911 wild animals were destroyed in 1923 of which 1,688 were tigers, 5,247 leopards, 2,548 bears and 1,687 wolves. A sum of Rs. 1,65,367 was paid in rewards, against Rs. 1,85,785 in the previous year. The number of snakes destroyed increased from 58,370 to 59,545 and the rewards paid for their destruction were Rs. 817 as against Rs. 1,250 in the previous year.

MEDICAL INSTITUTIONS.

There were in 1922-23 in India 3,454 State-public, local fund and private aided civil hospitals and dispensaries and the number in 1922 was 3,535. The number of patients treated in them was 36,875,229 in 1922 against 37,137,200 in 1921.

Medical Colleges.—There are seven medical colleges (Bombay, Madras, Calcutta, Belgachia, Lahore, Delhi and Lucknow). There are also 18 medical schools. There is an X-ray institution at Dehra-Dun.

Pasteur Institutes.—There were Pasteur Institutes for anti-rabies treatment at Kasauli (Punjab), Coonoor (Madras), Shillong (Assam) and Rangoon (Burma).

Lunatic Asylums.—The treatment of lunatics at asylums prevails on a comparatively small scale; but the asylum population is steadily increasing. The number of asylums in 1922 was 22. The number of patients admitted was 2,106 in 1922 against 2,204 in 1921. The total asylum population of the year was 9,919.

Leprosy Asylums.—There are many leprosy asylums among which may be mentioned the Madras Government Leprosy Asylum, the Matunga Leprosy Home, Bombay, the Trivandrum State Leprosy Asylum and the Calcutta Leprosy Asylum. There are also many asylums or homes, frequently under some sort of Government supervision, including about 50 asylums of the Mission to Lepers.

LEPROSY IN INDIA.

It is exceedingly difficult to give anything approaching an accurate estimate of the total number of lepers in the Indian Empire to-day. The census figures of 1921 give the total as 102,513, as against 109,094 in 1911. But it is doubtful if this figure represents anything

more than the more advanced cases and possibly a majority of this number are the beggar and pauper lepers who are seen all over the country. Dr. E. Muir, the Leprosy Research Worker at the Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine, says that "we think that it would

not be an over estimate to put down the number of lepers in India somewhere between a half and one million."

Treatment.—In a recent article on this subject by the Secretary to the Mission to Lepers the position is summed up as follows:—

"Voluntary segregation is the right thing to encourage for those who will segregate themselves and receive treatment. Compulsory segregation is the course to follow in the case of those who persist in mixing with the healthy population and thus spreading the disease, as is the case with pauper and begging lepers.

The extension of the use of the latest treatments is most important. Special leper clinics should be established by Government in suitable centres and the treatment provided free. And, lastly, an educational campaign should be commenced as soon as possible, and information about the disease itself—how it is spread and how to diagnose it, also the benefits of segregation and the efficacy of the latest treatments—spread all over the country. The situation was never more hopeful, and a wisely directed campaign against the disease would be certain to end in the stamping out of the disease in the whole of India."

CHILD WELFARE MOVEMENT.

Amongst the most pressing problems of India's health is that presented by the appalling infant mortality. It has been calculated that every year no fewer than 2 million Indian babies die, while many others survive only to grow weak and feeble from unhygienic surroundings during infancy. A noteworthy feature has been the further progress of the infant welfare movement, which owes much to the All-India Maternity and Child Welfare League initiated by Lady Chelmsford and also to the Indian Red Cross Society, which aims at gradually establishing a network of child welfare centres in most of the larger towns in India. In all the great centres of population, work is now being done for the training of midwives, for the instruction of mothers and for the care of babies. Training centres for Indian and Anglo-Indian women have been opened in order to spread the elements of infantile hygiene to other parts of India. Most hopeful sign of all, Indian ladies are beginning to interest themselves in this work in large numbers. But such is the magnitude of the field, that consistent and wide-spread effort on a scale hitherto impossible must be undertaken, if any appreciable reduction is to be made in the appalling mortality of young children. The admirable work done year by year by the National Association for supplying Female Medical Aid to the Women of India has been facilitated by the decision of the Legislative Assembly to grant an increased Government subsidy to the figure of ₹25,000.

Centres of Activity.—The Child Welfare Directory gives the following list of places where the movement is already at work:

Bombay.—The centre of much active and enthusiastic welfare work; the Lady Willington Maternity Homes near the people's chawls being unique of their kind in India. The Bombay Infant Welfare Society founded by Lady Lloyd has already established 8 Infant Welfare Centres where prenatal, maternity and child welfare work is being carried on. The work carried out by the Seva Sadan Society of Poona deserves special mention in this connection. Child welfare centres have been established in several places throughout the Presidency and are in charge of Public Health Nurses trained

by the Seva Sadan Society. Certain of these Child Welfare centres are subsidized by the Bombay Branch of the Red Cross.

Surat.—The Henderson Ophthalmic Scheme for treating Ophthalmia Neonatorum and stemming "the enormous amount of preventable and curable blindness that is laying its shadow over the health, happiness and usefulness of this great portion of our Empire."

Bijapur.—Mr. Henderson, I.C.S., has now started the same beneficent work for blind babies as in Surat.

Dharwar.—

Delhi.—Work was started in 1914 by two lady health visitors brought out from England by the Government of India. Their salaries are now met by the Delhi Municipality, a substantial grant being paid towards them by Government; three infant welfare centres have been established and a comprehensive scheme for the training and supervision of indigenous *dais* is carried on. A training school for health visitors and midwife supervisors has been established in connection with this scheme and is financed by the Lady Chelmsford League. The Secretary of this school from whom all particulars may be obtained is Mrs. Young, M.B., 1, Ludlow Castle Road, Delhi.

Madras.—Under the Provincial Branch of the Lady Chelmsford League and of the Red Cross Society a number of Infant Welfare Centres have been opened in the City, also a school for training health visitors under Mrs. Chinappi, M.B., the Medical Superintendent of the Co-operative Midwives Scheme, by means of which trained midwives are provided for the City and much antenatal, maternity and infant welfare work is carried on. There are also local centres of both the Red Cross and the Lady Chelmsford League in the Madras mofussil.

Punjab.—The Punjab Branch of the Lady Chelmsford League was founded in 1921 and has established an Infant Welfare Centre and a school for training health visitors in Lahore under two health visitors brought from England. Its object is to establish child welfare centres with a trained health visitor in charge in each district.

United Provinces.—A Branch of the Lady Chelmsford League was established in 1923 and is at present mapping out its course of action.

Ahmedabad.—Three Maternity Homes, and five creches in mills.

Calcutta.—Six Midwife Supervisors and six Health Visitors with subordinate assistants and six Red Cross Child Welfare centres.

Dacca.—A scheme for the training of indigenous *dais* was opened in 1921 and is meeting with marked success.

Lahore.—Baby Welcome and 2 English Health Visitors.

Lyallpur.—1 Welfare Centre.

Simla.—1 Welfare Centre and Health Visitor, employed by the Simla Municipality.

Ludhiana.—Much good work under W. C. M. College.

Sialkot.—

Dehra Imaul Khan.—

Lucknow.—Municipal Scheme and Midwife Supervisor.

Agra.—Training of *dais* under Victoria Memorial Scholarship Fund.

Allahabad.—Three Red Cross Child Welfare centres.

Bareilly.—Maternity Scheme opened by Mrs. Stubbs in 1922.

Shahjahanpur.—

Gorakhpur, Hardwar, Almora.—

Jubbulpore, Nagpur, Bhopal, Kapurthala, Medak.—

Bangalore.—Creche, two English Health Visitors and 7 Midwives.

Quetta.—Two Red Cross Child Welfare centres.

Peshawar.—One Red Cross Child Welfare centre.

Indore.—One Red Cross Child Welfare centre.

Secunderabad.—One Red Cross Child Welfare centre and a Convalescent Home for Mothers; three Red Cross Child Welfare centres for British Children.

Coorg.—One Red Cross Child Welfare centre.

So far all the schemes have devoted their attention to combating the prejudices of the mothers in respect of new-born children. In a land of so many languages and superstitions progress will necessarily be slow and India has yet to decide whether she will work intensively and try to rear a few well developed children as far as adolescence or extensively attempt to bring a large number of infants through the first critical months, only to have them perish at a later stage from the many ills that childhood is heir to in a land of great poverty, under-nourishment, epidemics and famine. In Western lands the Child Welfare Movement has no more marked characteristic than its inability to stop expanding. Its ramifications know no bounds. Its inevitable corollaries are endless, and like the banyan tree it will no doubt in India also develop innumerable fresh roots, medical supervision, dental clinics, better housing, open air playgrounds, etc., etc. But these are not yet. Its preliminary task is to educate the mothers of India to the enormity of allowing two million babies to perish every year and to convince them of the equally important fact that a high death rate always spells also a high damage rate of sickly, under-developed, incompetent citizens.

INDIAN RED CROSS SOCIETY.

When the war first broke out, what is generally termed Red Cross work was undertaken in India and Mesopotamia by the St. John Ambulance Association and by a number of provincial organisations working on independent lines. From August 1916, the central work was taken over by the Indian Branch of the Joint War Committee of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem and the British Red Cross Society. The final report of that Committee shows that up to June 1920 its total receipts amounted to Rs. 1,77,85,716 of which some 17 lakhs had been contributed by the British Red Cross Society. It had spent about 67 lakhs in Mesopotamia, nine lakhs on the Afghan War and Waziristan Expedition; in Mesopotamia and India combined it had spent on Red Cross objects in all about 117 lakhs.

It closed its career in June 1920 under the following circumstances. In the summer of 1919, an invitation had been received to join the International League of Red Cross Societies, having for its object the extension of Red Cross work in the sphere of purely civil activity. Though there was then no formally constituted Red Cross Society in India, the invitation was accepted, thus giving India a distinct position

in a world wide League of humanitarian societies. A Bill to constitute an Indian Red Cross Society was introduced by Sir Claude Hill in the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1920, and duly passed into law as Act XV of 1920. This Act handed over the balance of the Joint War Committee to the new Society, and authorised it not only to direct the utilization for war purposes of the capital funds at its disposal but also to devote the interest, as far as possible, for civil purposes. The Act allows the constitution of autonomous provincial societies affiliated to the main Society, and it is with these branches that the task lies of organising and stimulating the new civil activities of the Red Cross throughout India. Provincial Societies have now been constituted in all provinces, Central India and Delhi; in Bengal the Society was constituted by a special Act of the Bengal Legislature.

The objects on which the funds of the Society may be spent are—

1. The care of the sick and wounded men of His Majesty's Forces, whether still on the active list or demobilised.

2. The care of those suffering from Tuberculosis, having regard in the first place to

soldiers and sailors, whether they have contracted the disease on active service or not.

3. Child welfare.

4. Work parties to provide the necessary garments, etc., for hospitals and health institutions in need of them.

5. Assistance required in all branches of nursing, health and welfare work, ancillary to any organisations which have or may come into being in India and which are recognised by the Society.

6. Home Service Ambulance Work.

7. Provision of comforts and assistance to members of His Majesty's Forces, whether on the active list or demobilised.

Constitution.—His Excellency the Viceroy is President of the Society. The Managing Body ordinarily consists of a Chairman to be nominated by the President and 25 members of the Society of whom 12 are the Vice-Presidents nominated by Provincial or State Branches; 8 elected by the Society at the Annual General Meeting from among the members of the Society and 5 nominated by the President.

The present Chairman of the Managing Body is the Hon'ble Sir Frederick Whyte, Kt., and the Organizing Secretary, Lieut.-Colonel H. Ross, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.M.S.

ST. JOHN AMBULANCE ASSOCIATION.

The St. John Ambulance Association was founded in 1877, by the Order of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem in England, and has for its objects:—

(a) The instruction of persons in rendering First Aid in cases of accident or sudden illness and in the transport of the sick and injured;

(b) The instruction of persons in the elementary principles and practice of nursing, and also of hygiene and sanitation, especially of a sick room;

(c) The manufacture, and distribution by sale or presentation, of ambulance material, and the formation of ambulance depots in mines, factories, and other centres of industry and traffic;

(d) The Organisation of Ambulance Corps, Invalid Transport Corps, and Nursing Corps;

(e) And generally the promotion of instruction and carrying out of works for the relief of suffering of the sick and injured in peace and war independently of class, nationality, or denomination.

An Indian Council of the Association was constituted in 1910. It has since issued 98,940 certificates of proficiency in First Aid, Home

Finances.—The operations of the Joint War Committee were brought to a close in June 1920 with a capital investment of the face value of Rs. 56,33,000 and Rs. 8,01,500-3-6 in floating and fixed deposit accounts. The Society has since invested further funds in various securities and its finances in July 1921 stood at a capital investment of the face value of Rs. 61,33,000 and about Rs. 65,000 in fixed and floating accounts. The income derived from the capital of the Society (which is 3½ lakhs at present after providing for certain liabilities of the Central Society, is distributable under the Act to the Provincial Branches in proportion to their contributions to the Central "Our Day" Fund. In the year 1920, partly owing to the Central Society's heavy commitments on the North-West Frontier, and partly due to the fact that the Provincial Branches had not been fully formed, only a sum of Rs. 32,000 was distributed. In the year 1921, however, Rs. 1½ lakh was set aside for distribution to Branch Societies; in 1922 Rs. 2 lakhs, and in 1923 Rs. 2½ lakhs. At the end of the year the Society possessed Government Securities of the face value of Rs. 66,33,000, the market value of which was quoted at Rs. 63,37,28-8-0; also a cash balance of Rs. 59,074.

Nursing, Home Hygiene and Sanitation and 4,536 tokens such as Vouchers, Medallions, Labels and Pendants for special proficiency in those subjects. The object of the Association is not to rival, but to aid, the medical man, and the subject matter of instruction given at the classes qualifies the pupil to adopt such measures as may be advantageous pending the doctor's arrival, or during the intervals between his visits.

In 1923 the Indian Council spent Rs. 39,465-11-0 in furthering its objects and closed the year with Govt. securities of the face value of Rs. 85,000 and a cash balance of Rs. 1,012-3-0. The Association has five grades of members, namely, Patrons, Honorary Councillors, Life Members, Annual Members and Annual Associates. Their respective subscriptions are Rs. 1,000, Rs. 500, Rs. 100, Rs. 5, and Rs. 2.

Their Excellencies Lord and Lady Reading and General Lord Rawlinson as President, Lady President and Chairman, respectively, with 17 members formed the Indian Council in 1923. The general business of the Indian Council is conducted by an Executive Committee with the Hon'ble Sir Frederick Whyte, Kt., as Chairman and Lt.-Colonel H. Ross, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.M.S., as organising Secretary.

LUNACY AND ASYLUMS IN INDIA.

The accommodation for mentally afflicted persons in British India is, like that for those afflicted bodily, very inadequate. In the Native States, the condition of affairs as regards the provision of institutions for the care and treatment of the insane, is still worse as no Asylums exist there at all, so that those whose malady is such as to render their freedom a public menace, are for the most part confined in the local jails.

According to the Census Reports of 1911 out of a total population of 315,156,396 (India and Burma), there are 81,006 persons insane making a proportion of insane to sane of 5 per every 10,000.

In the United Kingdom the proportion of insane to sane is roughly 40 per 10,000, while

in New Zealand it is as much as 45 per 10,000. In reviewing these figures it must be borne in mind that those of the United Kingdom and New Zealand include the "feeble-minded," an item that is not included in the figures for British India.

INDIA.

Provinces, States and Agencies.	General population.			Insane population.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Provinces under British Administration.	124,872,691	119,393,851	244,267,542	42,064	26,094	68,158
States and Agencies	36,465,244	34,423,610	70,888,854	7,979	4,869	12,848
Total for all India	161,338,935	153,817,461	315,156,396	50,043	30,963	81,006

For the care of the 81,006 insanes of India and Burma, there exists accommodation in Asylums for roughly 8,000, hence only one person in ten out of the total insane population of the country, can be afforded accommodation in the institutions that exist especially for their care and treatment.

The following table gives the number of Lunatic Asylums in each province during 1922,

the total population of such institutions in each province and the number discharged, cured and died.

The number of asylums has not changed.

There has been a decrease in the admissions and re-admissions during the year largely accounted for by the decrease in the admissions of military insanes.

Province.	Number of Asylums.	Admitted and readmitted during year.	Total Asylum Population.			Discharged cured.	Died.	Daily average strength.	Daily average sick.	Criminal Lunatic.	
			Males.	Fe- males.	Total.						
*Bengal	4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Assam	1	107	446	105	551	64	27	443.82	40.09	216	
Bihar and Orissa ..	2	104	384	138	522	67	29	417.61	49.42	151	
United Provinces ..	3	348	1,352	307	1,659	190	114	1,309.82	216.94	304	
Punjab	1	322	919	249	1,168	113	58	867.17	40.61	198	
Central Provinces ..	1	56	348	92	440	36	20	349.20	22.03	117	
Bombay	6	454	1,452	453	1,905	267	117	1,443.0	58.0	244	
Madras	3	344	997	289	1,286	157	82	967.46	123.27	206	
Burma	2	225	931	165	1,096	59	66	904.98	148.64	447	
Total .. {	1920..	23	2,509	8,081	2,012	10,093	1,019	809	7,601.94	863.32	2,406
	1921..	23	2,245	7,870	2,016	9,886	1,035	768	7,649.26	849.32	2,434

* Figures for 1922 are not available.

The administration of Asylums is under the direct control of the Provincial administrative Medical Officers. In the case of the so-called "Central" Asylums, that is to say, the Asylums at Madras, North Yeravda (Bombay Presidency), Lahore (Punjab), Agra (United Provinces of Agra and Oudh), Berhampore (Bengal), and Rangoon (Burma) as well as the Asylum at Ranchi the charge of the institution is in the hands of a whole-time medical officer who is termed the "Superintendent". He is usually, but by no means always, a trained alienist. The remaining Asylums are in the charge of the Civil Surgeon of the locality in which they happen to be situated. Not one of the existing Asylums in British India can be said to be up-to-date as regards construction, organisation, staffing or equipment. In every instance, even including the new Asylum for Burma which is now under construction in Rangoon, the custodial aspect of the Institution has received the greatest amount of consideration with the result that only a very little attention has been paid to all that goes towards the remedial requirements of the institution. It will probably take some years yet to obtain in India proper recognition of the fact that an Asylum for persons suffering

from mental diseases should be a "hospital" in every sense of the term, hence its main raison d'être is to treat and to cure, and that every other consideration must be made secondary to this fundamental concept. Indeed, in almost every country in the world which makes any pretension to be regarded as civilised, the term "Asylum" has now been abolished for all institutions dedicated to the care and treatment of the insane. Owing to the lack of interest in Psychiatry and all that this term generally connotes in Europe and America, the nomenclature that is still followed in the classification of mental diseases renders all official returns that are supposed to deal with the types of insanity occurring in the various Asylums in India, comparatively worthless. Even were a less obsolete classification of the varieties of mental diseases introduced it would not be possible in the existing absence of properly trained alienists to render information that would be of any great statistical value from a psychiatric standpoint. The following table shows the classification of the types of insanity recorded in the reports published by every Province in India in the year 1919:

The principal types of insanity treated during the year 1922 in the Lunatic Asylums, in the Provinces of—

	Bengal.	Assam.	Bihar & Orissa.	United Provinces.	Bombay.	Madras.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	Burma.	Total.
Idiocy	56	4	4	62	54	34	84	18	23	..
Mania	381	254	169	563	753	412	438	268	439	..
Melancholia	295	203	32	163	357	155	175	94	320	..
Mental Stupor	7	..	17	41	30	43	2	..	29	..
Delusional Insanity	75	9	21	50	148	82	40	13	73	..
Insanity caused by Cannabis indica or its preparations	173	71	4	225	131	106	139	2	4	..
Dementia	82	1	175	189	265	254	85	26	107	..

It will be seen from the foregoing that the largest number of cases in the Asylums are shown as "Mania" and "Melancholia." These terms "Mania" and "Melancholia" are nowadays regarded as obsolete. For purposes of comparison of the terms that are nowadays employed to distinguish psychopathic states with those that are still permitted to hold good in India the following extract has been made from a recent report published by the Union of South Africa:—

Infection Psychoses.
Exhaustion Psychoses.

Intoxication Psychoses.
Thyrogenous Psychoses.
Dementia Præcox.
Dementia Paralytica.
Organic Dementias.
Involution Psychoses.
Manic-depressive Psychoses.
Paranoia.
Epileptic Psychoses.
Psychogenic Neurosis.
Constitutional Psychopathic State.
Psychopathic Personalities.
Defective Mental Development.

As regards the incidence of insanity among the various races of India as well as the incidence of insanity in relation to occupation no really reliable information is obtainable in view of the comparative paucity of cases in proportion to the general population that come under observation. On the other the incidence by age is shown fairly well in the Census Report of 1911 to be as follows:

INDIA.

AGE.	Insane.		Distribution of the insane by age per 10,000 of each sex.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
YEARS				
0-5	508	427	102	139
5-10	2,715	1,750	547	568
10-15	4,131	2,696	833	876
15-20	4,663	3,165	940	1,028
20-25	5,543	3,392	1,118	1,095
25-30	6,298	3,120	1,270	1,013
30-35	6,528	3,466	1,316	1,126
35-40	4,839	2,431	976	790
40-45	4,760	3,067	960	996
45-50	2,849	1,759	574	571
50-55	2,765	2,174	558	706
55-60	1,187	915	239	297
60-65	1,478	1,325	567	795
65-70	480	371		
70 and over age unspecified	853	751		
	446	174		
Total for all India	50,043	30,963		

A further result of the general apathy, both official and non-official, towards matters pertaining to psychiatry, the subject of "feeble mindedness" has not yet come to be recognised as one that has any practical bearing on the welfare of the state as a whole with the result that there is no official institution for the care and education of feeble-minded children.

As regards the relation of insanity to crime, and more especially as regards the confinement of criminal insanes in jails, the report of the recent Commission of Enquiry into the subject of Indian Jails (published in 1920) contains some valuable suggestions. As things are the ideas both as regards the theory and the practice of dealing with insanity and crime in India, embodied in the existing legislation can only be described as archaic.

(See also "Insanity in India" by Colonel G. F. W. Ewens, I.M.S., and "Lunacy in India" by Major A. W. Overbeck-Wright, M.D., D.P.E., I.M.S.)

The Women's Medical Service for India.

This Service is included in the National Association for supplying medical aid by women to the women of India, generally known as the Countess of Dufferin's Fund and is administered by the Executive Committee and Council of that Fund. The Government of India has so far allotted the sum of £25,000 per annum towards its maintenance. The present sanctioned cadre is forty-four first class medical women, with a training reserve of 8 women graduates in medicine of Indian Universities. Recruitment of the service is made (a) in India by a medical sub-committee of the Council which includes the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Honorary Secretary to the Council and the Chief Medical Officer, Women's Medical Service; (b) in England, by a sub-committee, including a medical man and two medical women conversant with conditions in India. These sub-committees perform the duties of a medical board examining candidates for physical fitness, and for return to duty after invaliding.

The Council determines what proportions of the members of the Service is to be recruited in England and in India respectively. In the original constitution of the Service, duly qualified medical women who are in the service of, or who have rendered approved service to, the Countess of Dufferin's Fund, are to have the first claim to appointment, and thereafter special consideration is to be paid to the claims of candidates who have qualified in local institutions and of those who are natives of India.

Qualifications.—The qualifications are that the candidate must be (a) a British subject resident in the United Kingdom or in a British Colony or in British India, or a person resident in any territory of any Native Prince or Chief under the suzerainty of His Majesty exercised through the Governor-General of India or through any Governor or other officer subordinate to the Governor-General of India. (b) Must be between the ages of twenty-four and thirty at entry. (c) She must be a first-class medical woman, i.e., she must possess a medical qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under the Medical Act, or an Indian or Colonial qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under that Act; but this condition does not apply at the original constitution of the Service to medical women in charge of hospitals who, in the opinion of the Council, are of proved experience and ability. (d) The candidate must produce a certificate of health and character. But the Council reserves the power to promote to the service ladies not possessing the above qualifications, but who have shown marked capacity. Members of the Service are required to engage for duty anywhere in India. After one year of probation has been satisfactorily passed their appointments are confirmed. The services of officers may be lent to Local or Municipal bodies, or to special institutions, which may be responsible for whole or part of the pay.

Pay.—The rates of pay are as follows:—

1st to 4th year	3rd year	Rs. 450 per month.
1st to 4th year	4th to 6th	" 500 "
4th to 6th	6th to 9th	" 550 "
6th to 9th	9th to 12th	" 600 "
9th to 12th	12th to 15th	" 650 "
12th to 15th	15th to 18th	" 700 "
15th to 18th	18th to 21st	" 750 "
18th to 21st	21st to 24th	" 800 "
21st to 24th	24th and after	" 850 "

also an overseas allowance of Rs. 100 per month to those below 12 years' service and Rs. 150 per month to those of 12 years' service and over. But no member can be confirmed in the 500-rupee grade unless she has passed an examination in such vernacular as the Provincial Committee shall prescribe. In addition furnished quarters are provided free of rent; or a house rent allowance to be determined by the Provincial Committee may be granted in lieu of it.

Officers of the Service are permitted to engage in private practice provided it does not interfere with their official duties, and the Provincial Committee has the power to determine whether such duties are thus interfered with. Except in very special cases retirement is compulsory at the age of fifty-five. An officer whose appointment is not confirmed, or who is dismissed, is granted an allowance sufficient to pay her passage to England.

Leave Rules.—(a) Casual Leave, which is occasional leave on full pay for a few days, and is not supposed to interrupt duty. (b) Leave on average pay is granted up to 2-11 of an officer's period on duty, according to Fundamental Rules. More than eight months' leave on average pay is not granted at one time. (c) Study leave may also be granted up to twelve months during the whole service. An allowance of 12 sh. per day is granted in addition to ½ average pay during study leave. (d) Sick leave, up to a maximum of two years. (e) Extraordinary leave at any time at the discretion of the Executive Committee. When on sick leave the allowances are half the average monthly pay of the six months' presence on duty immediately preceding the taking of the leave. There are no allowances during extraordinary leave. A doctor appointed in England receives a sum of £100 to cover her passage and incidental expenses. There are also allowances to cover the cost of journeys by rail and road.

There is also a Provident Fund, each member contributing monthly thereto ten per cent. of her salary, the Association contributing an equal amount, and each subscriber's account being granted interest on the amount standing to credit at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum, "or at such rate as the Council can invest without risk to the funds of the Association."

The officer loses her contributions if she resigns (except on account of ill-health) before completing five years' service, or in the event of dismissal. On retirement after approved service the sum which has accumulated to the credit of the subscriber is handed over to her.

The Lady Hardinge Medical College.—The Lady Hardinge Medical College, Hospital, and Training School for Nurses and Compounders are intended to commemorate the visit of Her Imperial Majesty to India in 1911. The foundation stone was laid by Lady Hardinge on March 17th, 1914, and after her death three months later it was suggested by Her Imperial Majesty that the institution should serve as a memorial of its founder and be called by her name. The College was opened by Lord Hardinge in February 1916, and the Hospital by Lady Chelmsford in March 1917. The College is managed by a Governing Body, of which the President is the Director General of the I.M.S., and the members include the Chief Commissioner of Delhi, the Chief Engineer of Delhi, the Chief Medical Officer, Women's Medical Service, a representative elected by the All-India Association of Medical Women and a representative of the Educational Service; also co-opted members of the Indian Legislature. The Honorary Secretaries, who are also members of the Governing Body, are the Surgeon to His Excellency the Viceroy and the Deputy Secretary in the Department of Education and Health. The Deputy Accountant General, Central Revenues, acts as Honorary Treasurer.

The main object of the Institution is to provide complete courses of instruction to Indian women who wish to qualify for a University degree in medicine or to receive a full training as Nurses or Compounders.

An additional object is the provision of medical, surgical and obstetric treatment for women, having a due regard to *pardah* and caste customs. The patients are either treated in the Hospital Wards or are permitted to reside with their families in separate cottages built for the purpose.

THE COUNTESS OF DUFFERIN'S FUND.

The National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women in India was founded by the Countess of Dufferin in 1886, the object being to open women's hospitals and women's wards in existing hospitals; to train women doctors, nurses and midwives in India; and to bring these out when necessary from Europe. An endowment fund of about 6 lakhs was obtained by public subscription. In addition Branches were formed in each Province, each Branch having its own funds and each having a number of Local Committees and Zenana Hospitals affiliated to it.

The Central Fund gives grants-in-aid to several Provincial Branches; it gives Scholarships to a number of women students at the Medical schools of Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Delhi; it gives post-graduate scholarships for study in the United Kingdom. It has in the past brought from England a certain number of European medical women. It has assisted by grants-in-

LADY READING WOMEN OF INDIA FUND.

The Lady Reading Women of India Fund was opened by H.E. Lady Reading in 1922 with the object of assisting the most necessitous of the existing funds and establishing an Indian Nursing Association. Up to the present time the Fund has been used to send suitable Indian nurses to England for post-graduate training with the intention that they should return and take up administrative nursing posts in

SENIOR STAFF.

Principal and Professor of Gynecology and Midwifery.—Miss G. J. Campbell, M.D., Ch. B. (Glas.), Women's Medical Service for India.
Vice-Principal and Professor of Surgery.—Miss H. M. McMillan, M.B., Ch.B., F.R.C.S. (Edin.), W.M.S.
Professor of Medicine.—Miss R. Scutt, M.D., B.S. (Lond.), W.M.S.
Professor of Ophthalmology.—Miss J. H. McIlroy, M.A., D.Sc., M.B., Ch.B. (Glas.), D.P.H. (Edin.).
Professor of Pathology.—Miss M. A. B. Murphy, M.B., Ch.B., D.P.H. (Dublin).
Professor of Anatomy.—Miss M. C. Murphy, M.B. (Cal.), L.R.C.P. (Lond.), M.R.C.S. (Eng.), W.M.S.
Professor of Physiology.—Miss M. S. Macdonald, M.B., Ch.B.
Professor of Chemistry.—Miss Ram, Nat. Sci. Trip. (Cambridge).
Professor of Botany and Zoology.—Miss Burt, B.Sc.
Professor of Physics and Mathematics.—Miss Ross, B.Sc. (Lond.).
Lecturer in English.—Mrs. Sharp, Hon. Schools, Classics (Oxon).
Warden and Secretary.—Miss M. W. Jesson, Maths. Tripos (Cantab.).

The Training School for Nurses.—This is intended to give a thorough training in all branches of Nursing and in Midwifery. All particulars of courses of training and conditions of admission may be obtained from the Superintendent, Training School for Nurses, Lady Hardinge Medical College Hospital for Women and Children, Delhi. **Superintendent.**—Miss BONSOR.

The Training School for Compounders.—A limited number of candidates are taken for training. All particulars of training and conditions of admission may be obtained from Miss O. Crooke, M.P.S.

aid the building of a number of zenana hospitals in different parts of India. It has affiliated to it 13 Provincial Branches and a number of Local Committees.

The President is H.E. the Countess of Reading, C.I., G.B.E., The Hon. Secretary is Lt.-Colonel Norman Walker, I.M.S., and the Secretary Dr. A. C. Scott, C.M.O., V.V.M.S.

The Victoria Memorial Scholarships Fund was organised by Lady Curzon in 1903, in order to secure a certain amount of improvement in the practising dais of India. A sum of about 6 lakhs was obtained by public subscription, and centres were organised in each Province to carry out the objects of the Fund. Over 2,000 midwives have been trained in addition to large numbers who have been partially trained. Of late years the Fund has done much to pave the way for the registration and supervision of indigenous dais. It has also done much propaganda work.

India. It has also been used to build, equip and endow a first class hospital of 60 beds for Indian women and children in Simla (the Lady Reading Hospital), and to build a nursing hostel in Delhi for Indian nurses.

Amalgamation of Administration.—At a general meeting held in Simla in July 1923 it was decided that the administration of the Funds for the physical welfare of Indian women

under the Presidency of the Viceroy's wife should be administered by a single committee and with identical rules. These funds are the Countess of Dufferin's Fund, Women's Medical Service for India, Victoria Memorial Scholarship Fund, Lady Chelmsford All-India Maternity League and Lady Reading Women of India

NURSING.

Whilst India cannot show the complete chain of efficiently-nursed hospitals which exists in England, there has been a great development of skilled nursing of recent years. This activity is principally centered in the Bengal, Madras, and Bombay Presidencies, where the chief hospitals in the Presidency towns are well nursed, and where large private staffs are maintained, available to the general public on payment of a prescribed scale of fees. These hospitals also act as training institutions, and turn out a yearly supply of fully trained nurses, both to meet their own demands and those of outside institutions and private agencies. In this way the supply of trained nurses, English, Anglo-Indian and Indian, is being steadily increased. In Bombay the organisation has gone a step farther, through the establishment of the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, c/o St. George's Hospital, Bombay. This is composed of representatives of the various Nursing Associations in charge of individual hospitals, and works under the Government. The principle on which the relations of this Association with the Local Associations is governed is that there shall be central examination and control combined with complete individual autonomy in administration.

State Registration of Nurses for all India is much required. A meeting was held in Bombay in 1923 when Nurses from the Presidency met to discuss the question. It is desired that India should have its own State Register as in the United Kingdom, South Africa, New Zealand, Australia, Canada and Burma, and that the curricula and examinations should be brought into line with these countries. Government has proposed to establish a Provincial Register preparatory to an All-India Register.

Nursing Bodies.—The Honorary Secretary of the Calcutta Nursing Association is Mr. R. A. B. Reynolds, the Presidency General Hospital. The address of the Mayo Hospital Nursing Association is in Strand Road. In Madras there is the General Hospital, with a staff of 62 nurses, the Government Maternity Hospital, the Caste and Gosha Hospital at Kilpauk, the Royapetta Hospital and the Ophthalmic Hospital, also the Lady Amphil Nurses' Institute and the South Indian Nursing Association (now amalgamated). President, Her Excellency Lady Goschen. The Association has under its management—*The Lady Amphil Nurses' Institute*. Western Castlet, Mount Road, Madras. Fully trained and experienced nurses for all cases of illness both among Europeans and Indians, always available. *The Lady Willington Nursing Home*, Western Castlet, Mount Road, Madras, and *Nilgiri Nursing and Convalescent Home*, Ootacamund, for Medical, Surgical and Maternity cases. The Nilgiri Nursing Home affords admirable facilities for convalescents.

Fund. The President of the Amalgamated Committee is H.E. the Countess of Reading and the Hon. and Joint Secretaries are respectively Lt.-Col. Norman Walker, I.M.S., Surgeon to the Viceroy and Dr. A. C. Scott, W.M.S. The Hon. Treasurer is Sir Frederic Gauntlett.

Bombay Presidency.—The Bombay Presidency was amongst the first in India to realise the value of nursing in connection with hospital work. The first steps were taken on the initiative of Mr. L. R. W. Forrest at St. George's Hospital, Bombay, where a regular nursing cadre for the hospital was established together with a small staff of nurses for private cases. This was followed by a similar movement at the J. J. and Allied Hospitals and afterwards spread to other hospitals in the Presidency. Ultimately, the Government laid down a definite principle with regard to the financial aid which they would give to such institutions, agreeing to contribute a sum equal to that raised from private sources. Afterwards, as the work grew, it was decided by Government that each nursing association attached to a hospital should have a definite constitution and consequently these bodies have all been registered as Associations under Act 21 of 1860. By degrees substantial endowments have been built up, although the Associations are still largely dependent upon annual subscription towards the maintenance of their work. The Associations are as follows:—

St. George's Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary: F. B. Thornely, Esq., St. George's Hospital, Bombay.

J. J. Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary: Dr. M. V. Mehta, F. R. C. P., J. J. Hospital, Bombay.

Goculdas Tejpal Hospital Nursing Association. Secretary: J. P. Brander, Esq., I.C.S., Old Custom House, Bombay.

Cama Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary: H. C. B. Mitchell, Esq., Cama Hospital, Bombay.

Sassoon Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary: A. C. Wild, Esq., I.C.S., Poona.

Karachi Civil Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary: H. H. Hood, Esq., Karachi.

Nasik Civil Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Nasik Hospital, Nasik.

Ahmedabad and Lely Memorial Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Ahmedabad.

Bijapur Civil Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Bijapur.

Dharwar Civil Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Dharwar.

Prince of Wales Nursing Association, Aden. Hon. Secretary: E. Samerville Murray, Esq., Aden.

Karwar Civil Hospital, Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary: D. S. Dhawe, Esq., Karwar.

Victory Nursing Association, Sholapur. Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Sholapur.

Byramjee Jeebhoy Hospital Nursing Association, Matheran.

Hon. Secretary: Lt.-Col. B. B. Paymaster, I.M.S., Ahmednagar Civil Hospital Nursing Association. Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Ahmednagar.

After further experience it was felt that it is undesirable to have a considerable number of detached and independent nursing associations, training and certifying nurses, without any common standard of entrance examination, or certification. It was therefore decided to establish the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association which came into existence in the year 1910.

The principle on which the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association works is a central system of examination, certification, registration and control. It is now the only nursing, examining, registering and certifying body in the Bombay Presidency. At the same time, the local associations retain entire charge of their local funds excepting Provident funds which have been transferred to the Central fund, and also entire control of the nurses when they are in their employment. Proposals are now before Government for absorbing the personnel of the local associations into a Presidency Nursing Association. This will not however affect the individuality of local associations which will continue to control their own funds and to exercise control over local establishments, subject in the latter case to such limitations as a revision of the nature in question will require.

The Association commenced its operations on the 1st April 1911. The institutions recognized under the by-laws for the training of nurses at present are—St. George's Hospital, J. J. Hospital, Cama and Albless Hospital, Bal Motilal Hospital, Bombay; Huttesing and Premabai Civil Hospital, Ahmedabad; Civil Hospital, Belgaum; Morarbhaji Vrijbhukhandas Hospital, Surat; Karachi Civil Hospital, Karachi; Sassoon Hospital, Poona; State General Hospital, Baroda; King Edward Memorial Hospital, Sholapur and the following for the training of Midwives: M. V. Hospital, Civil Hospital, Surat; Victoria Jubilee and King Edward VII Hospital, Ahmedabad; Bal Motilal Hospital, J. J. Hospital, Cama and Albless Hospital, Bombay; Dufferin Hospital, Karachi; Sassoon Hospital, St. Margaret's Hospital, King Edward Memorial Hospital, Poona; Civil Hospital, Belgaum; Dufferin Hospital, Sholapur; Wadia Maternity Homes, Supari Bag, Parel, Bombay; Civil Hospital, Ahmedabad.

Provision for retiring allowances is made for all members on the basis of a Provident Fund, and a Nursing Reserve has been established for employment in emergencies such as war, pestilence or public danger or calamity.

Address—The Secretary, Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, Secretariat, Bombay.

Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association.—In 1906 this Association was inaugurated, replacing the Punjab and Up-country Nursing Association for Europeans in India, which Society, established in 1892, had accomplished much useful work in this country. Owing, however, to lack of funds it was found impossible to continue its administration and to carry out the expansion of the work so urgently called for. The name of the helpers identified with the premier Association to whom the public

must ever be indebted are the Hon. Lady Lytton, Lady Helen Munro Ferguson and Mrs. Cottrell, while Mrs. Sheppard, by her indefatigable efforts, is truly entitled to be regarded as the pioneer of a trained nursing system throughout the greater part of India. The late Lady Curzon worked energetically to provide an enlarged Nursing organisation, but mainly owing to financial reasons, she was unable before she left India to bring the scheme to fruition. The Home Committee of the existing Association, recognising the need for expansion, consented to take over the present Association and approached Lady Minto before she left England in 1905 for co-operation towards this project, and after much consideration and discussion with the Government of India, Lieut.-Governors and Commissioners of Provinces, the present Association was established. An appeal by Lady Minto, addressed to the public both in England and India, was responded to most generously, and sufficient funds were collected to form an endowment fund, which has in spite of fluctuations increased a little with time. The assistance of a Government grant is much valued, as it enables Homes for the Sisters to be kept up in six Provinces in India and in Burma. At the request of the Home Committee the enlarged Association was renamed the "Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association."

The duties of the Home Committee are, as before, largely concerned in dispatching—as required—suitably trained and carefully selected Nurses for service on the staff of the Association in India. Thus, Europeans who are members of this Association are enabled to obtain skilled nursing at moderate charges on a sliding scale of fees determined by the income of each patient. The boon of obtaining good nursing at moderate terms is much appreciated, the rates of subscriptions being really an insurance against illness.

Her Majesty the Queen is a Patron of the Association. Her Excellency the Countess of Reading is President of the Central Committee in India.

Hon. Secretary: Lt.-Colonel T. N. Walker, I.M.S.

Hon. Treasurer: W. J. Litster, Esq., O.B.E. Chief Lady Superintendent: Miss F. A. Hodgson. Address—Central Committee, L.M.I. N.A., Viceroy's Lodge, Simla, or Delhi.

Hon. Secretary, Home Committee: Lt.-Col. Sir Warren R. Crooke-Lawless, C.B., C.I.E., O.B.E., LL.D., House Governor, Osborne, Isle of Wight.

Secretary, Home Committee: Miss M. E. Ray, R.N.C., 54, Ashburnham Mansions, Chelsea.

Nurses' Organizations.—The Association of Nursing Superintendents of India is now amalgamated with the Trained Nurses' Association of India, and has the one set of officers. The Trained Nurses' Association of India and the Association of Nursing Superintendents of India are not Associations to employ or to supply nurses, but are organizations with a membership wholly of nurses with the avowed objects of improving and unifying nursing education, promoting esprit de corps among nurses, and upholding the dignity and honour of the nursing profession. The Associations have a membership of 454, including nurses trained in ten or more different

countries, Europeans, Americans, New Zealanders, Australians and Indians. The Association of Superintendents was started in 1905 as the Association of Nursing Superintendents of the United Provinces and the Punjab, but by the next year its membership had spread over the country to such an extent that the name was changed to include the whole of India. The Trained Nurses' Association was

started in 1908, and a monthly Journal of Nursing began to be published by the two Associations in February, 1910. The Associations are affiliated with the International Council of Nurses.

President: Miss Hodgson, Viceregal Lodge, Delhi.

Hon. Secretary and Treasurer: Miss Griffin, Fahat Manzil, Nicholson Road, Delhi.

THE WOMAN SUFFRAGE MOVEMENT.

Within the abnormally short period of seven years the Woman Suffrage movement has risen in India, swept through the country sympathetically and achieved the political enfranchisement of women in four of its most progressive Provinces and in four Indian States.

Three fundamental causes have led to this remarkable success: first, the deep veneration that is given by the Hindu and Muhammadan religions to the feminine aspect of life equally with the masculine as shown by the importance of goddesses, by the necessity for the presence of the wife at all ceremonies performed by a Brahman, by the idea of the sacred mystery of womanhood implied by the purdah, and by the general veneration of motherhood. Secondly, the time was psychological, for a new era was beginning for the Indian people by the introduction of a Scheme of Reforms in Indian government which was planned to give a basis of representative government on a much extended scale. The door was being opened to complete Self-government and only men were being invited to enter through it, although women compose half the people of the country and it had been by the joint efforts of men and women that the agitation for reform in the government had been made. The men and women of India were too awake and too just to allow this injustice to remain unredressed. Thirdly, the long and strenuous agitation for the vote by women in Britain and America and their recent victories had brought vividly to the consciousness of all educated Indian men and women the whole question of the inclusion of women in public life, and it was also a national and international necessity that Indian women should be given as high a status as women in other parts of the Empire.

Though the **Municipal franchise** had been granted to the women of the Bombay and Madras Presidencies over fifteen years ago it was so limited in numbers that it did not make a large impact on women's consciousness and indeed no protest was made when it was suddenly withdrawn from Madras women some years later. Over 1,700 women are qualified to vote for the Bombay Corporation and a fair percentage of these have polled at each election, and similarly in other Municipalities in that Presidency women have exercised their vote responsibly and intelligently. Since 1922 twenty-two women have become Municipal Councillors and members of Local Government Boards, four of whom were elected by Bombay City voters, the others having been nominated.

It was owing to the rise of the political agitation for Home Rule between 1914 and 1917 that women began to wake up to their

position of exclusion by British law from any share in representative government. The intervention of one of their own sex, Mrs. Besant, stimulated political activity and political self-consciousness amongst women to a very great extent. The moment for the ripe public expression of their feelings came when the Secretary of State for India came to India to investigate and study Indian affairs at first hand in 1917.

During the Hon. E. S. Montagu's visit only one Women's Deputation waited on him but it was representative of womanhood in all parts of India, and it brought to his notice the various reforms which women were specially desirous of recommending the Government to carry out.

The first claim for women suffrage for Indian women was made in the Address presented to Mr. Montagu at this historic **All-India Women's Deputation** which waited upon him in Madras on the 18th December 1917. The section referring to enfranchisement merits full quotation:

Our interests, as one half of the people, are directly affected by the demand in the united (Hindu-Muslim Reform) scheme (1. 3) that "the Members of the Council should be elected directly by the people on as broad a franchise as possible," and in the Memorandum (3) that "the franchise should be broadened and extended directly to the people." We pray that, when such a franchise is being drawn up, women may be recognized as "people," and that it may be worded in such terms as will not disqualify our sex, but allow our women the same opportunities of representation as our men. In agreeing with the demand of the abovementioned Memorandum that "a full measure of Local Self-Government should be immediately granted," we request that it shall include the representation of our women, a policy that has been admittedly successful for the past twenty years in Local Self-Government elsewhere in the British Empire. The precedent for including women in modern Indian political life has been a marked feature of the Indian National Congress, in which since its inception women have voted and been delegates and speakers, and which this year finds its climax in the election of a woman as its President. Thus the voice of India approves of its women being considered responsible and acknowledged citizens; and we urgently claim that, in the drawing up of all provisions regarding representation, our sex shall not be made a disqualification for the exercise of the franchise or for service in public life.

The year 1919 was devoted to converting the Government forces to the justice and expediency of Indian Woman Suffrage, but this proved a more difficult matter. It was a disappointment first that though the Secretary of

State had given a sympathetic reply to the All India Women's Deputation yet when the Scheme of Reforms, drawn up by him and Lord Chelmsford as the outcome of his visit to India, was published no mention of women was made, though the widening of the electorate was one of the reforms suggested. When the Southborough Franchise Committee was formed to investigate the suggestions regarding the franchise in this Scheme, the women suffragists took every means to bring to the notice of the Committee all the evidence which showed the need for, and the country's support of the inclusion of women in the new franchise.

After the introduction of the **Government of India Bill** into Parliament in July 1919, a number of Indian deputations proceeded to London to give evidence before the Joint Select Committee of Members of both Houses of Parliament which had been appointed to place the Reforms on a workable basis. Mrs. Annie Besant, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu and Mrs. and Miss Herabai Tata were the women who were heard by the Committee in support of the extension of the franchise to women in India.

The House of Commons decided that the question was one for Indians to answer for themselves and while retaining the sex disqualification in the Reform Bill they framed the Electoral Rules in such terms that if any Provincial Legislative Council should decide by a Resolution in favour of women's franchise, women should be put on the electoral register of that Province. This was the only provision regarding franchise matters which might be changed before a 10 years' time limit. Until after that period women are ineligible for election as Legislative Councillors.

Travancore, a very progressive Indian State, was the first to grant the Legislative vote to women at the close of 1920, and it was promptly followed by the Indian State of Jhalawar. In the first session of the Legislative Councils in 1921 it is gratifying to record that a motion was tabled by Dewan Bahadur Krishan Nair of Malabar that he would bring forward a Resolution in the **Madras Legislative Council** to remove the disqualification of sex existing in regard to the Legislative Council franchise. During the month that must legally intervene between the tabling of a Woman Suffrage motion and its introduction for Debate the Madras women under the leadership of the Women's Indian Association carried on all forms of public propaganda and canvassed the important members of the Council. The Debate took place on April 1st and after a short discussion, in which it was evident that opposition came only from the Muhammadan members, the debate itself became only an accumulation of appreciation of womanhood and an expression of faith in its future, when the division was taken, it resulted in the Resolution being carried by a majority of 34. Madras has thus the honour of being the first Province in British India to enfranchise its women, and it has done so ungrudgingly and unhesitatingly and in the broad spirit of the equality of the sexes, as it grants the vote to women on the same terms as it has been granted to men.

Mr. Trivedi brought forward a Woman Suffrage Resolution in the **Bombay Legislative**

Council during the same session, but some irregularity in its wording caused it to be pronounced out of order. In June that subject was tabled again and championed by Rao Saheb Harilal Desai of the Council. As in Madras the intervening month was filled with suffrage activity by the women of the Presidency and was remarkable for a large joint meeting of Bombay city women at which 19 Women's Societies took part, and for a suffrage meeting of Marathi and Gujarati women in Poona when over 800 women showed the greatest enthusiasm for the movement.

The **Bombay Council Debate** on Woman Suffrage took three days and the subject was very fully discussed most by over 40 members. The result was satisfactory to the suffragists, the voting being 52 in favour, 25 against and 12 neutral. Thus Madras and Bombay Presidencies gave the lead to the other Provinces. In September, 1922, Mr. S. M. Bose, in the Bengal Council, moved a Woman Suffrage Resolution, which was debated for three days but finally defeated by 56 to 37 votes, a *Vote of* 40 Muhammadan members voting solidly against it.

Mr. Devaki Prasad Sinha's similar Resolution in the Behar and Orissa Legislative Council was defeated by only a 10 votes' majority.

These Debates proved so educational to their respective Provinces that Bihar Province has since granted qualified women the Municipal vote, and women have also been included as voters in the new Calcutta Corporation Act.

In February 1923, a world suffrage record was made by the *unanimous* vote of the United Provinces Legislative Council in favour of Woman Suffrage.

The new Reform Bill for Burma has included the grant of woman suffrage to the qualified Burmese women, and further made provision for their election as Councillors if the Council passes a Resolution desiring their admission and if that Resolution is approved of by the Governor.

In April, 1922, the Mysore Legislative Council unanimously passed the Woman Suffrage Resolution. The vote for the Representative Assembly of Mysore was granted to women in October, 1922. The vote for Mysore Legislative Franchise was granted to the Mysore women by H. H. The Maharaja and His Privy Council in June 1923.

There is little doubt that it will be only a few years at most before all the provinces of India will have granted woman suffrage, and the right to vote will advance the interests of women immensely along the lines of education, health, housing, morality and social customs.

The Indian Native States of Cochin and Rajkot are the only places in India where the sex disqualification has been completely removed from the statute book. These have allowed women the right to stand for election for the Legislative Council as well as the right to vote for it, and two women have been elected to the newly-formed Representative Council of Rajkot. In British India by the terms of the Reform Bill the Councils have no power to alter the disqualification of sex which remains against the rights to stand as candidates for election to the Councils. This can only be changed by the vote of the British Parliament, and the gaining of this

right remains as a further objective of the women suffragists. Many large, influential meetings have been held claiming the right of women to entry of the Legislatures. A deputa-tion of women about this subject waited on the Madras Governor and their claims were supported by him and by his Government. The Imperial Legislative Assembly and the Council of State have been accorded the power to grant women the franchise for their assemblies also by resolution, but only for those provinces which already have granted women the Legislative franchise. The Legislative Assembly has passed by a large majority a Resolution granting the Assembly franchise to the women of such Provinces. Accordingly in November 1923, women in India voted for the first time for the elections of both Provincial Legislative Councillors and members of the Legislative Assembly. The number of women who voted in the large Cities was surprisingly large in Bombay and Madras Presidencies and comprised women of all castes and communities.

The number of women enfranchised by the grant of the vote throughout India will not be more than a million under the present qualifications. Property and not literacy is the basis of the franchise, though the grant of the vote to every graduate of seven

years' standing ensures that the best educated women of the country as well as those who have to shoulder the largest property responsibilities will be those who rightly will be the legislating influence on behalf of womanhood. As regards the custom of purdah prevailing in parts of India special provisions have been made in Municipal voting for purdah recording stations for purdah women in which a woman is returning officer and this has been found quite satisfactory and will be adopted also where desired in connection with Legislative Council elections.

Though the Women's Indian Association is the only defined Suffrage Society almost all other women's organisations have combined in special efforts for the gaining of municipal and legislative rights and the following ladies have identified themselves specially with the movement: Lady D. Tata, Lady A. Bose, Lady T. Sadashivaier, the Begum of Cambay, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, Mrs. Jajji Jehangir Petit, Mrs. Tata, Mrs. Wadia, Mrs. Jinarajadasa, Mrs. A. Besant, Mrs. M. E. Cousins, Mrs. Srirangamma, Mrs. Chandrasekhara Iyer, Miss Sorabji, Mrs. Khedkar, Dr. Mistry, Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammal, Mrs. Palmer, Mrs. Kumudini Basu, Mrs. K. N. Roy, Lady Shaafi, Mrs. Hassan Imam, Mrs. Rustomi Faridooni, Mrs. B. Rama Rao, Mrs. Deep Narain Singh, etc.

PUBLIC SERVICES COMMISSION.

On January 25, 1923, the Intention of Government to appoint a Royal Commission on the Services in India was announced in the Legislative Assembly. On the following day Mr. Seshgiri Aiyar moved the adjournment of the House to consider the announcement, and was strongly supported among others by Sir Deva Prasad Saravadhikary, Dr. Gour and Mr. Jannadas Dwarakadas. A remarkable feature of the debate was the unanimity between the Indian and the European elected members. Both Mr. Spence and Sir Montagu Webb condemned the Commission. The only non-official supporters of the Commission who spoke were Colonel Gidney and Khan Bahadur Zahruddin Ahmed. In justifying the appointment of the Commission Sir Malcolm claimed that it had the support not of an "ultra-conservative Government and a reactionary Secretary of State," but that of Mr. Montagu. He went carefully through the reasons which had led to the appointment of the Commission, and concluded that a very thorough investigation by a fair and independent body was essential to adjust the various questions, some of them conflicting, that had arisen with regard to the services. "The Indian public can safely banish any suspicion," concluded Sir Malcolm Hailey, "that this inquiry has been dictated by unworthy motives, that its sole object is to retard the Indianisation of the services—to me an unthinkable suggestion; or that its sole or main purpose is to satisfy the existing members of the Services." The motion for adjournment was nevertheless carried. Later on, in the course of the discussion on Demands for Grants the provision of Rs. 3 lakhs for the Royal Commission was cut out by the Assembly, but by a very narrow

majority in spite of Government opposition. The item has since been restored.

The terms of reference, announced in March, 1923, are as follows:—

Having regard to the necessity for maintaining a standard of administration in conformity with the responsibilities of the Crown for the Government of India, and to the declared policy of Parliament in respect of the increasing association of Indians in every branch of the administration and in view of the experience now gained of the operation of the system of government established by the Government of India Act in respect of the superior Civil Services in India, to inquire into:—

- (1) The organization and general conditions of service, financial and otherwise, of those Services.
- (2) The possibility of transferring immediately or gradually any of their present duties and functions to services constituted on a provincial basis.
- (3) The recruitment of Europeans and Indians respectively, for which provision should be made under the Constitution established by the said Act and the best methods of ensuring and maintaining such recruitment; and to make recommendations.

Considerable delay occurred in announcing the personnel, and it was not until June that it was declared to be:—Lord Lee (Chairman); Sir Reginald Craddock, Sir Cyril Jackson, Sir Chimanlal Setalvad, Sir Muhammad Habib-ullah, Mr. Hari Kishan Kaul, Mr. David Petrie, Mr. Bhupendranath Basu, and Professor Reginald Coupland.

The Commission went on tour in India taking evidence during the cold weather of 1923-24.

Warrant of Precedence.

A new Warrant of Precedence for India in supersession of the notification published on February 10, 1899, which has been approved by His Majesty the King Emperor of India, was published in 1922. Henceforth the following table will be observed with respect to the rank and precedence of persons named, as under:—

1. Governor-General and Viceroy of India.
2. Governors of Provinces within their respective charges.
3. Governors of Madras, Bombay and Bengal.
4. Commander-in-Chief in India.
5. Governors of the United Provinces, Punjab, Bihar and Burma.
6. Governors of the Central Provinces and Assam.
7. Chief Justice of Bengal.
8. Bishop of Calcutta, Metropolitan of India.
9. Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council.
10. Commander-in-Chief of His Majesty's Naval Forces in the East Indies.
11. President of the Council of State.
12. President of the Legislative Assembly.
13. Chief Justice of a High Court other than that of Bengal.
14. Bishops of Madras and Bombay.
15. Agents to the Governor-General in Rajputana, Central India and Baluchistan; Chief Commissioner of the North-West Frontier Province, Members of Executive Councils and Ministers of Governors and Lieutenant-Governors, Political Resident in the Persian Gulf, Residents at Hyderabad and in Mysore, and Commissioner in Sind,—within their respective charges.
16. Chief of the General Staff; General Officers Commanding, Northern, Southern, Eastern and Western Commands, and Officers of the rank of General.
17. Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers in Madras, Bombay and Bengal.
18. Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers, United Provinces, Punjab, Burma and Behar.
19. Agents to the Governor-General in Rajputana, Central India and Baluchistan; Chief Commissioner of the North-West Frontier Province; Political Resident in the Persian Gulf; and Residents at Hyderabad and in Mysore.
20. Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers, Central Provinces and Assam.
21. Presidents of Legislative Councils within their respective Provinces.
22. Chief Judges of Chief Courts; and Puisne Judges of High Courts.
23. Lieutenant-Generals.
24. Comptroller and Auditor-General; President of the Public Service Commission; and President of the Railway Board.
25. Bishops of Lahore, Bangoon, Lucknow and Nagpur.
26. Members of the Railway Board and Secretaries to the Government of India.
27. Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries to the Government of India; Commissioner in Sind; Financial Adviser, Military Finance; and Judges of Chief Courts.
28. Chief Commissioner of the Andamans, and Chief Commissioner of Delhi,—within their respective charges; Chief Secretaries to the Governments of Madras, Bombay and Bengal; Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, when within the Punjab.
29. Commissioner of Revenue and Customs, Bombay; Development Commissioner, Burma; Director of Development, Bombay; Director-General, Indian Medical Service; Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs; Financial Commissioners; Inspector-General of Irrigation; Judicial Commissioners of Oudh, Central Provinces, Sind and Upper Burma; Major-Generals; members of a Board of Revenue; Surgeon-Generals.
30. Vice-Chancellors of the Indian Universities.
31. Agents of State Railways; Controller of the Currency; Additional Judicial Commissioners; Agency Commissioner, Madras; Commissioners of Divisions, and Residents of the 2nd Class,—within their respective charges.
32. Members of the Indian Civil Service of 30 years' standing (not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant).
33. Advocate-General, Calcutta.
34. Advocates-General, Madras and Bombay.
35. Chief Secretaries to Governments other than those of Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Assam.
36. Bishops (not territorial) under license from the Crown.
37. Accountants-General, Class I; Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India; Archdeacons of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay; Census Commissioner for India; Colonels Commandant and Colonels on the Staff; Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue; Director, Intelligence Bureau; Director-General of Archaeology in India; Director of the Geological Survey; Director, Royal Indian Marine, when an officer of the Royal Navy of rank lower than Rear-Admiral or an officer of the Royal Indian Marine; Educational Commissioner with the Government of India; Financial Adviser to the Railway Board; His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner, Calcutta; Inspector General of Forests; Military Accountant-General; Opium Agent, Benares; Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India; and Surveyor General of India.
38. Additional Judicial Commissioners; Agency Commissioner, Madras; Chief Commissioner of the Andamans; Chief Commissioner of Delhi; Chief Secretary to the Government of Assam;

Commissioners of Divisions; and Residents of the 2nd Class.

39. Private Secretary to the Viceroy; Secretaries; Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries to Local Governments.

40. Accountants-General other than Class I; Chief Auditors, Eastern Bengal Railway and North-Western Railway; Chief Conservators of Forests; Chief Engineers; Chief Engineer, Telegraphs; Colonels; Command Controllers of Military Accounts; Deputy Controller of the Currency at Bombay; Director of the Botanical Survey of India; Director-General of Commercial Intelligence; Director-General of Observatories; Directors of Public Instruction under Local Governments; Director, Zoological Survey; His Majesty's Trade Commissioner, Bombay; Inspectors-General, Civil Hospitals; Inspectors-General of Police under Local Governments and in the North-West Frontier Province; Inspectors-General of Prisons under Local Governments; Members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Indian Political Department of 23 years' Civil service, if not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant; Mint Masters, Calcutta and Bombay; President of the Forest College and Research Institute; Provincial Sanitary Commissioners; Superintendents of the Imperial Survey of India; and Traffic Managers and Locomotive Superintendents of State Railways.

41. Military Secretary to the Viceroy.

42. Solicitor to the Government of India; and Standing Counsel to the Government of India.

43. Archdeacons of Lahore, Lucknow, Rangoon and Nagpur; and Presidency Senior Chaplains of the Church of Scotland.

44. Chairmen of Port Trusts and of Improvement Trusts of the Presidency towns, Rangoon and Karachi; Members of the Public Service Commission; Non-official Presidents of Municipal Corporations in Presidency towns and Rangoon within their respective municipal jurisdictions; Senior Controller of Military Supply Accounts; Settlement Commissioners; Chief Executive Officers of the Municipalities of the Presidency towns and Rangoon within their charges; and Chief Inspector of Mines.

45. Collectors of Customs; Collectors and Magistrates of Districts; Collector of Stamp Revenue and Deputy Collector of Land Revenue, Calcutta; Commissioner of Ajmer-Merwara; Deputy Commissioners of Districts, and Deputy Commissioner, Port Blair; Divisional and District and Sessions Judges (including the Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur); Political Agents and Superintendents, and Residents (other than those of the 1st and 2nd Class),—within their respective charges; Remembrancers of Legal Affairs and Government Advocates under Local Governments.

46. Deputy Financial Adviser, Military Finance; Deputy Secretaries to the Government of India; Inspector of Office Procedure in the Government of India; Director, Central Bureau of Information, Government of India; and Secretary and Joint Secretary to the Railway Board.

47. Director, Central Research Institute Kasauli; Director of the Indian Institute of Science; and Principal of the Thomason Civil Engineering College, Boorki.

48. Assistant to the Inspector-General of Forests; Assistant to the Inspector-General of Irrigation; Commandant, Frontier Constabulary, North-West Frontier Province; Commissioners of Police in the Presidency towns and Rangoon; Comptroller, Assam; Conservator of Forests; Controller of Marine Accounts; Deputy Chief Engineer, Telegraphs; Deputy Director General, Indian Medical Service; Deputy Director-General of Post Office; Deputy Director-General, Telegraph Traffic; Deputy Director, Intelligence Bureau; Deputy Military Accountant-General; Director, Medical Research; Directors of Commercial Intelligence; Directors of Telegraph Engineering; District Controllers of Military Accounts; Electrical Adviser to the Government of India; Lieutenant-Colonels; Members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Political Department of 18 years' Civil service, if not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant; Mining Engineer to the Railway Board; Postmasters-General; and Superintending Engineers.

49. Assay Masters, Calcutta and Bombay; Chief Auditor, Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway; Deputy Controllers of the Currency, Calcutta and Northern India; and Deputy Controller General.

50. Actuary to the Government of India; Chief Inspector of Explosives; Chief Judges of Small Cause Courts, Presidency towns and Rangoon; Controller of Printing, Stationery and Stamps; Director, Imperial Bacteriological Laboratory; Muktesar; Directors of major Laboratories; Director of Public Instruction, North-West Frontier Province; and Director of Statistics.

51. Private Secretaries to Governors, and Secretaries and First Assistants in 1st Class Residencies.

52. Administrators-General; Chief Presidency Magistrates; Deputy Agents, Deputy Traffic Managers and Officers of similar status of State Railways; Metallurgical Inspector, Jamshedpur; and Officers in Class I of the General or the Public Works List of the Indian Finance Department.

53. Commissioners of Income-tax in the United Provinces, Bombay and Sind; Commissioner of Labour, Madras; Controller of Patents; Deputy Inspector General of Police; Directors of Agriculture; Directors of Fisheries in Bengal and Madras; Directors of Industries; Directors of Land Records; Excise Commissioners; Inspector-General of Railway Police and Police Assistant to the Agent to the Governor-General, Rajputana; Inspectors-General of Registration; Principal, Research Institute, Cawnpore, and Registrars of Co-operative Societies.

54. District Judges not being Sessions Judges within their own districts.

55. Adviser to the Government of India for Far Eastern Questions; First Assistant to the Residents at Aden, Baroda and in Kashmir; and Judicial Assistant, Kathlawar.

56. Military Secretaries to Governors.

57. Senior Chaplains other than those already specified.

58. Sheriffs within their own charges.

59. Collectors of Customs; Collectors and Magistrates of Districts; Collector of Stamp Revenue and Deputy Collector of Land Revenue, Calcutta; Commissioner of Ajmer-Merwara; Deputy Commissioners of Districts; Deputy Commissioner, Port Blair; Divisional and District and Sessions Judges (including the Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur); Political Agents and Superintendents; Residents (other than those of the 1st and 2nd Class); and Settlement Officers.

60. Assistant Directors-General of the Post Office, 1st grade; Deputy Directors of Commercial Intelligence; Deputy Director-General of Archaeology; Deputy Director of Industries, United Provinces; Deputy Postmasters-General, 1st grade; Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, United Provinces; Deputy Superintendents of the Imperial Survey of India; Government Solicitors other than the Solicitor and Assistant Solicitor to the Government of India; Managing Director, Opium Factory, Ghazipur; Officers of the Indian Educational Service and of the Indian Institute of Science of 18 years' standing; Principals of major Government Colleges; Registrars to the High Court; Secretaries to Legislative Councils; Senior Inspectors of Mines; Assistant Collectors of Customs; Divisional Engineers and Assistant Engineers, Telegraphs; Executive Engineer of the Indian Service of Engineers holding a charge declared to be of not less importance than that of a division; Officers of the Archaeological and other Scientific Departments; Officers of the Civil Veterinary Department; Officers of Civil Veterinary Department; Officers of Class II of the General or the Public Works List of the Indian Finance Department; Officers of the Indian Agricultural Service; Officers of the Indian Forest Department; Officers on the Superior List of the Military Accounts Department; Officers of the Superior Revenue Establishment of State Railways who hold the rank of district officer or a position of a similar status and Superintendents and Deputy Commissioners of Police of 20 years' standing.

61. Assistant Solicitor to the Government of India; and Under-Secretaries to the Government of India.

62. Agent-General in India for the British Protectorate in Africa under the administration of the Colonial Office; Chief Constructor of the Royal Indian Marine Dockyard at Bombay; Consulting Surveyor to the Government Bombay; Directors of the Persian Gulf Section and of the Persian Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department; Directors of Survey, Madras and Bengal; Emigration Agents, Madras and Benares; Government Emigration Agents at Calcutta for British Guiana and Natal, and for Trinidad, Fiji, Jamaica and Mauritius; Keeper of the Records of the Government of India; and Librarian, Imperial Library.

63. District Judges not being Sessions Judges; Majors; and Members of the Indian Civil Service of 12 years' standing.

64. Chief Accountant of the office of Director of Ordnance Factories.

65. Assistant Directors-General of the Post Office, 2nd grade; Assistant Superintendents of the Imperial Survey of India; Chief Works Chemist, United Provinces; Civil Engineer Adviser to the Director of Ordnance Factories; Deputy Postmasters-General, 2nd grade; Officers of the Indian Educational Service and of the Indian Institute of Science of 10 years' standing; Officer in charge of the Mathematical Instrument Office; Presidency Postmasters; Superintendent, Bombay City Survey and Land Records; Superintendents and Deputy Commissioners of Police of less than 20 years' standing; Assistant Collectors of Customs; Divisional Engineers and Assistant Divisional Engineers, Telegraphs; Executive Engineers of the Indian Service of Engineers holding a charge declared to be of not less importance than that of a division; Officers of the Archaeological and other Scientific Departments; Officers of the Civil Veterinary Department; Officers of Class II of the General or Public Works List of the Indian Finance Department; Officers of the Indian Agricultural Service; Officers of the Indian Forest Department; Officers on the Superior List of the Military Accounts Department; and Officers of the Superior Revenue Establishment of State Railways who hold the rank of district officer or a position of similar status, of 12 years' standing.

66. Assistant Commissioners (Senior), Northern India Salt Revenue; Assistant Directors of Dairy Farms; Assistant Financial Adviser, Military Finance; Assistant Secretaries to the Government of India; Chemical Examiner for Customs and Excise, Calcutta; Chief Chemical Examiner, Central Chemical Laboratory, Naini Tal; Chief Inspectors of Factories and Boilers in Bengal and Bombay; Collector of Income-tax, Calcutta; Commander of the steamer employed in the Persian Gulf Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department; Curator of the Bureau of Education; Deputy Accountant, Office of the Director of Ordnance Factories; Deputy Commissioner-General, Bengal; Deputy Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue; Deputy Commissioners of Salt and Excise; Deputy Director of Land Records, Burma; Deputy Sanitary Commissioners; Superintendents of Central Jails and Civil Surgeons not belonging to the Indian Medical Service; Director, Vaccine Institute, Belgium; Engineer and Electrician of the Persian Gulf Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department; Examiner of Questioned Documents; Executive Engineers of less than 12 years' standing; First Assistant Commissioner, Port Blair; First and Second Collectors of Income-tax, Bombay, and Senior Collectors of Income-tax, Karachi; Honorary Presidency Magistrates; Judge of the City Civil Court, Madras; Judges of Presidency Courts of Small Causes; Lady Assistants to the Inspectors-General, Civil Hospitals; Legal Assistant in the Legislative Department of the Government of India; Manager of the Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu; Officers of the Provincial Civil Services drawing the maximum pay of the time-scale of upwards; Presidency Magistrates; Protector of Emigrants and Superintendents of Emigration, Calcutta; Public Prosecutors in Bengal and in Sind; Registrars to Chief Courts; Registrar of

Companies, Bombay; Registrar of Joint Stock Companies, Bengal; Secretary, Board of Examiners; Secretary to the Board of Revenue in the Department of Revenue and Agriculture, Madras, when a member of the Provincial Service; and Sub-Deputy Opium Agents.

1. The entries in the above table apply exclusively to the persons entered therein, and while regulating their relative precedence with each other, do not give them any precedence over members of the non-official community resident in India who shall take their place according to usage.

2. Officers in the above table will take precedence in order of the numbers of the entries. Those included in one number will take precedence *inter se* according to the date of entry into that number.

3. When an officer holds more than one position in the table he will be entitled to the highest position accorded to him.

4. Officers who are temporarily officiating in any number in the table will rank in that number below permanent incumbents.

5. All officers not mentioned in the above table, whose rank is regulated by comparison with rank in the army, to have the same rank with reference to civil servants as is enjoyed by military officers of equal grades.

6. All other persons who may not be mentioned in this table to take rank according to general usage, which is to be explained and determined by the Governor-General in Council in the case any question shall arise. When the position of any such person is so determined and notified, it shall be entered in the table in *italics*, provided he holds an appointment in India.

7. Nothing in the foregoing rules to disturb the existing practice relating to precedence at the Courts of Indian States or on occasions of intercourse with Indians, and the Governor-General in Council to be empowered to make rules for such occasions in case any dispute shall arise.

8. The following will take courtesy rank as shown:—

Consuls-General, immediately after article 37, which includes Colonels Commandant; Consuls,

immediately after article 40, which includes Colonels; Vice-Consuls, immediately after article 63, which includes Majors.

Consular officers de *carriere* will in their respective grades take precedence of consular officers who are not de *carriere*.

9. The following will take courtesy rank as shown, provided that they do not hold appointments in India:—

Peers according to their precedence in England; Knights of the Garter, the Thistle and St. Patrick; Privy Councillors; Members of the Council of the Secretary of State for India.—Immediately after Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council, article 9.

Baronets of England, Scotland, Ireland and the United Kingdom, according to date of Patents, Knights Grand Cross of the Bath; Knights Grand Commander of the Star of India; Knights Grand Cross of St. Michael and St. George; Knights Grand Commander of the Indian Empire; Knights Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order; Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the British Empire; Knights Commander of the Bath; Knights Commander of St. Michael and St. George; Knights Commander of the Indian Empire; Knights Commander of the Royal Victorian Order; Knights Commander of the Order of the British Empire; and Knights Bachelor.—Immediately after Puisne Judges of High Courts, article 22.

10. All ladies, unless by virtue of holding an appointment themselves they are entitled to a higher position in the table, to take place according to the rank herein assigned to their respective husbands, with the exception of wives of Peers and of ladies having precedence in England independently of their husbands, and who are not in rank below the daughters of Barons; such ladies to take place according to their several ranks, with reference to such precedence in England, immediately after the wives of Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council.

SALUTES.

Persons.	No. of guns.
Imperial salute	101
Royal salute	31

Members of the Royal Family	31
Foreign Sovereigns and members of their families	21
Maharajahdiraja of Nepal	21
Sultan of Maskat	21
Sultan of Zanzibar	21
Ambassadors	19
Governor of the French Settlements in India	17
Governor of Portuguese India	17
Governors of His Majesty's Colonies	17
Lieutenant-Governors of His Majesty's Colonies	15
Plenipotentiaries and Envoys	15
Governor of Damaun	9
Governor of Dlu	9

Occasions on which salute is fired.

When the Sovereign is present in person. On the anniversaries of the Birth, Accession and Coronation of the Reigning Sovereign; the Birthday of the Consort of the Reigning Sovereign; the Birthday of the Queen Mother; Proclamation Day.

On arrival at, or departure from a military station, or when attending a State ceremony.

Persons.	No. of Guns.	Occasions on which salute is fired.
Viceroy and Governor-General	31	On arrival at, or departure from, a military station within Indian territories or when attending a State ceremony.
Governors of Presidencies and Provinces in India	17	On assuming or relinquishing office whether temporarily or permanently. On occasions of a public arrival at, or departure from, a military station, and on formal ceremonial occasions such as arriving at or leaving a Durbar, or when paying a formal visit to a Ruling Chief. Also on occasions of private arrival at, or departure from, a military station, if desired.
Residents, 1st Class	13	Same as Governors.
Agents to the Governor-General	13	
Commissioner in Sind	13	
Agent to the Governor in Kathiawar	13	On assuming or relinquishing office, and on occasion of a public arrival at, or departure from a military station.
Residents, 2nd Class	13	
Political Agents (b)	11	On assuming or relinquishing office. On public arrival at, or departure from, a military station, and on formal ceremonial occasions. Also on occasions of private arrival or departure, if desired.
Commander-in-Chief in India (if a Field Marshal)	19	
Commander-in-Chief in India (if a General)	17	Same as for military officer of corresponding rank (<i>see</i> K.R.).
Naval Commander-in-Chief, East Indies Squadron (c)	15	
G.O.s.C. in C. Commands (d)	13	On assuming or relinquishing command, and on occasions of public arrival at, or departure from, a military station within their command. Also on occasions of private arrival or departure, if desired.
Major-Generals Commanding Districts (d)	11	
Major-Generals and Colonel-Commandants Commanding Brigades (d)	11	

Permanent Salutes to Chiefs.

Salutes of 21 guns.
Baroda. The Maharaja (Gaekwar) of.
Gwalior. The Maharaja (Scindia) of.
Hyderabad. The Nizam of.
Jammu and Kashmir. The Maharaja of.
Muscat. The Sultan of.
Mysore. The Maharaja of.

Salutes of 19 guns.
Bhopal. The Begam (or Nawab) of.
Indore. The Maharaja (Holkar) of.
Kalat. The Khan (Wali) of.
Kolhapur. The Maharaja of.
Travancore. The Maharaja of.
Udaipur (Mewar). The Maharana of.

Salutes of 17 guns.
Bahawalpur. The Nawab of.
Bharatpur. The Maharaja of.
Bikaner. The Maharaja of.
Bundl. The Maharaja Raja of.
Cochin. The Maharaja of.

Cutch. The Maharao of.
Jaipur. The Maharaja of.
Jodhpur (Marwar). The Maharaja of.
Karauli. The Maharaja of.
Kota. The Maharao of.
Patiala. The Maharaja of.
Rewa. The Maharaja of.
Tonk. The Nawab of.

Salutes of 15 guns.
Alwar. The Maharaja of.
Banswara. The Maharawal of.
Bhutan. The Maharaja of.
Datia. The Maharaja of.
Dewas (Senior Branch). The Maharaja of.
Dewas (Junior Branch). The Maharaja of.
Dhar. The Maharaja of.
Dholpur. The Maharaj Rana of.
Dungarpur. The Maharawal of.
Idar. The Maharaja of.
Jaisalmer. The Maharawal of.

(b) Within the territories of the State to which they are attached.

(c) According to naval rank, with two guns added.

(d) No military officer shall receive an artillery salute unless he is in actual military command and is the senior military officer in the spot. Attention is invited to the extra guns allowed for individuals.

Khalipur. The Mir of.
Kishangarh. The Maharaja of.
Orchha. The Maharaja of.
Partabgarh. The Maharawat of.
Rampur. The Nawab of.
Sikkim. The Maharaja of.
Sirohi. The Maharao of.

Salutes of 13 guns.

Benares. The Maharaja of.
Bhavnagar. The Maharaja of.
Cooch Behar. The Maharaja of.
Dhrangadhra. The Maharaja of.
Jaora. The Nawab of.
Jhalawar. The Maharaj-Rana of.
Jind. The Maharaja of.
Junagadh. The Nawab of.
Kapurthala. The Maharaja of.
Nabha. The Maharaja of.
Nawanagar. The Maharaja of.
Palanpur. The Nawab of.
Porbandar. The Maharaja of.
Rajpipla. The Maharaja of.
Ratlam. The Maharaja of.
Tripura. The Maharaja of.

Salutes of 11 guns

Ajalgarh. The Maharaja of.
Alirajpur. The Raja of.
Baoni. The Nawab of.
Barwani. The Rana of.
Bijawar. The Maharaja of.
Bilaspur. The Raja of.
Cambay. The Nawab of.
Chamba. The Raja of.
Charkhari. The Maharaja of.
Chhatrapur. The Maharaja of.
Faridkot. The Raja of.
Gondal. The Thakur Saheb of.
Janjira. The Nawab of.
Jhabua. The Raja of.
Maler Kotia. The Nawab of.
Mandi. The Raja of.
Manipur. The Maharaja of.
Morvi. The Thakor Saheb of.
Narsinggarh. The Raja of.
Panna. The Maharaja of.
Pudukkottai. The Raja of.
Radhanpur. The Nawab of.
Rajgarh. The Raja of.
Sailana. The Raja of.
Samthar. The Raja of.
Sirmur. The Maharaja of.
Sitaman. The Raja of.
Suket. The Raja of.
Tehri. The Raja of.

Salutes of 9 guns.

Balasinar. The Nawab (Bab) of.
Banganapalle. The Nawab of.
Bansda. The Raja of.
Baraundha. The Raja of.
Bariya. The Raja of.
Chhota Udepur. The Raja of.
Danta. The Maharana of.
Dharampur. The Raja of.
Dhrol. The Thakor Saheb of.
Fadthli (Shukra). The Sultan of.
Hslpaw. The Sawbwa of.
Jawhar. The Raja of.
Kalabandi. The Raja of.
Keengtung. The Sawbwa of.
Khilchipur. The Rao Bahadur of.
Kishn and Socotra. The Sultan of.
Lahej (or Al Hauta). The Sultan of.
Limbdli. The Thakor Saheb of.
Loharu. The Nawab of.
Lunawada. The Raja of.

Malhar. The Raja of.
Mayurbhanj. The Maharaja of.
Mong Nal. The Sawbwa of.
Mudhol. The Raja of.
Nagod. The Raja of.
Palitana. The Thakor Saheb of.
Patua. The Maharaja of.
Rajkot. The Thakor Saheb of.
Sachin. The Nawab of.
Sangli. The Chief of.
Savantvadi. The Sar Desai of.
Shehr and Mokalla. The Sultan of.
Sonpur. The Maharaja of.
Sunth. The Raja of.
Vankaner. The Raj Saheb of.
Wadhwan. The Thakor Saheb of.
Yawnghwe. The Sawbwa of.

Personal Salutes.*Salutes of 21 guns.*

Indore. His Highness Maharajadhiraja Raj
Rajeshwar Sawal Shri Tukoji Rao Holkar
Bahadur, G.C.I.E., Maharaja of.
Kalat. His Highness Mir Sir Mahmud Khan,
G.C.I.E., Wali of.
Travancore. Colonel His Highness Sri Maharaja
Raja Sir Pala Rama Varma Bahadur, G.C.S.I.,
G.C.I.E., Maharaja of.
Udaipur (Mewar). His Highness Maharaja-
dhiraja Maharana Sir Fateh Singh Bahadur,
G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., Maharana of.

Salutes of 19 guns.

Bikaner. Major-General His Highness Maharaja
Sir Ganga Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.,
G.C.V.O., G.B.E., K.C.B., A.D.C., Maharaja of.

Kotah. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness
Maharao Sir Umed Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I.,
G.O.I.E., G.B.E., Maharao of.

*Mysore. Her Highness Maharani Kempa
Nanjammanni Avaru Vanivilas Sannidhana,
C.I., Maharani of.

Nepal. General His Highness Maharaja Sir
Chandra Shumshere Jung Bahadur. Rana,
G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., D.C.L.,
Prime Minister, Marshal of.

Patiala. Major-General His Highness Maharaja-
dhiraja Sir Bhupindar Singh Mahindar
Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E.,
A.D.C., Maharaja of.

Tonk. H. H. Amin-ud-Daula Wazir-ul-Mulk
Nawab Sir Muhammad Ibrahim Ali Khan
Bahadur Saulat Jang, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.,
Nawab of.

Salutes of 17 guns.

Alwar. Colonel His Highness Sewal Maharaj
Shri Jey Singhji, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja of.
Dholpur. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness
Maharajadhiraja Sri Sawal Maharaj-Rana
Sir Udaibhan Singh Lokindar Bahadur Diler
Jang Jal Deo, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., Maharaja-
Rana of.

Kishangarh. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness
Umdae Rajahae Baland Makan Maharajadhi-
raja Sir Madan Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I.,
K.C.I.E., Maharaja of.

Orchha. His Highness Maharaja Mahindr
Sawal Sir Pratap Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I.,
G.C.I.E., Maharaja of.

Sirohi. His Highness Maharajadhiraja Maharao
Sir Kesri Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.,
Ex-Maharao of.

Salutes of 15 guns.

Benares. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness
Maharaja Sir Parbhu Narayan Singh
Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of.

Jind. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness
Maharaja Sir Ranbir Singh Rajendra Baha-
dur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja of.

Junagadh. His Highness Vall Ahad Mohabat
Khanji Rasulkhanji, Nawab of.

Kapurthala. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness
Maharaja Sir Jagatjit Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I.,
G.C.I.E., Maharaja of.

Nawanagar. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness
Maharaja Shri Sir Ranjitsinhji Vibhaji, G.C.S.I.,
G.B.E., Maharaja of.

Salutes of 11 guns.

Aga Khan, His Highness Aga Sir Sultan
Muhammad Shah, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., of
Bombay.

Bariya. Captain H. H. Maharawal Shri Sir
Ranjitsinhji Mansinhji, K.C.S.I., Raja of.

Chitral. His Highness Mehtar Sir Shuja-ul-
Mulk, K.C.I.E., Mehtar of.

Lahej (Al Hauta). His Highness Sultan
Sir Abdul Karim Fadthli bin Ali, K.C.I.E.,
Sultan of.

Lunawada. His Highness Maharana Shri Sir
Wakhatsinghji Dalsinghji, K.C.I.E., Raja of.
Sachin. Major His Highness Nawab Siddi
Ibrahim Mohamed Yakut Khan. Mubazarat
Daula Nasrat Jung Bahadur. Nawab of.

Shehr and Mokalla. H. H. Sultan Oomer bin
Awad Alkafy, Shamsier Jung Bahadur,
Sultan of.

Vankaner. Captain His Highness Raj Saheb
Sir Amarsinhji Baneshinhji, K.C.I.E., Raj
Saheb of.

Salutes of 9 guns.

Dashahr. Raja Padam Singh, Raja of.
Dthala. Amir Nasr bin Shaif bin Sef bin
Abdul Hadi, Amir of.

Jamkhandi. Captain Meherban Sir Parashramrav
Ramchandrarav, K.C.I.E., Chief of.

Kanker. Maharajadhiraja Kanai Deo, Chief of.
Loharu. Nawab Sir Amir-ud-din Ahmad Khan
Bahadur, K.C.I.E., ex-Nawab of.

Tawngpeng. Hkun Hsang Awn, K.S.M., Sawbwa
of.

Local Salutes.*Salutes of 21 guns.*

Bhopal. The Begam (or Nawab of). Within
the limits of her (or his) own territories
permanently.

Indore. The Maharaja (Holkar) of. Within
the limits of his own territories, permanently.

Udaipur. (Mewar). The Maharana of. With-
in the limits of his own territories, per-
manently.

Salute of 19 guns.

Bharatpur. The Maharaja of.
Bikaner. The Maharaja of.
Cutch. The Maharao of.

Jaipur. The Maharaja of.
Jodhpur (Marwar). The Maharaja of.
Patiala. The Maharaja of.

(Within the limits of their own territories,
permanently.)

Salute of 17 guns.

Alwar. The Maharaja of.
Khalipur. The Mir of.

(Within the limits of their own territories
permanently.)

Salutes of 15 guns.

Benares. The Maharaja of.
Bhavnagar. The Maharaja of.
Jind. The Maharaja of.

Junagadh. The Nawab of.
Kapurthala. The Maharaja of.
Nabha. The Maharaja of.
Nawanagar. The Maharaja of.

Ratlam. The Maharaja of.
(Within the limits of their own territories,
permanently.)

Salutes of 13 guns.

Bushire. His Excellency the Governor of. At
the termination of an official visit.

Janjira. The Nawab of. (Within the limits
of his own territory, permanently.)

* Conferred in the first instance during the minority of her son, the Maharaja of Mysore, and
in the capacity of Regent, and subsequently continued for her lifetime.

Salutes of 11 guns.

Savantvadi, The Sar Desal of.. .. Within the limits of his own territory, permanently.

Salutes of 5 guns.

Abu Dhabi, The Shaikh of Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

Bunder Abbas, The Governor of
Lingah, The Governor of
Muhammerah, The Governor of } At the termination of an official visit.

Muhammerah, Eldest son of the Shaikh of Fired on occasions when he visits one of His Majesty's ships as his father's representative.

Salutes of 3 guns.

Ajman, The Shaikh of
Dibal, The Shaikh of
Ras-al-Khelma, The Shaikh of
Shargah, The Shaikh of
Umm-ul-Qawain, The Shaikh of } Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of official visits by these Chiefs.

TABLE OF LOCAL PERSONAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 11 guns.

His Excellency Shaikh Sir Isa bin Ali al Khalifah, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., Shaikh of Bahrain. Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL LOCAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 17 guns.

Council of Ministers (as a whole) of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat.

Salutes of 13 guns.

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat, when a member of the ruling family.

Salutes of 9 guns.

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat when not a member of the ruling family.

Salutes of 7 guns.

Bahrain, The Shaikh of.
Kuwait, The Shaikh of.
Muhammerah, The Shaikh of.
Qatr, The Shaikh of.

Salutes of 5 guns.

Bahrain, Eldest son of the Shaikh of, or other member of the ruling family.
Kuwait, Eldest son of the Shaikh of, or other member of the ruling family. } Fired when acting as Deputy of these Chiefs.

Individual Members of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat.

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL PERSONAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 13 guns.

His Excellency Shaikh Sir Khaz'al Khan, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Shaikh of Muhammerah. Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

Indian Orders.

The Star of India.

The Order of the Star of India was instituted by Queen Victoria in 1861, and enlarged in 1866, 1876, 1897, 1902, and 1911, and the dignity of Knight Grand Commander may be conferred on Princes or Chiefs of India, or upon British subjects for important and loyal service rendered to the Indian Empire; the second and third classes for services in the Indian Empire of not less than thirty years in the department of the Secretary of State for India. It consists of the Sovereign, a Grand Master (the Viceroy of India), the first class of forty-four Knights Grand Commanders (22 British and 22 Indian), the second class of one hundred Knights Commanders, and the third class of two hundred Companions, exclusive of Extra and Honorary Members, as well as certain additional Knights and Companions.

The Insignia are (i) The Collar of gold, composed of the lotus of India, of palm branches tied together in satire, of the united red and white rose, and in the centre an Imperial Crown; all enamelled in their proper colours and linked together by gold chains. (ii) The Star of a Knight Grand Commander is composed of rays of gold issuing from a centre, having thereon a star of five points in diamonds resting upon a light blue enamelled circular riband, tied at the ends and inscribed with the motto of the Order, *Heaven's Light our Guide*, also in diamonds. That of a Knight Commander is somewhat different, and is described below. (iii) The Badge, an onyx cameo having Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy thereon, set in a perforated and ornamental oval, containing the motto of the Order surmounted by a star of five points, all in diamonds. (iv) The Mantle of light blue satin lined with white, and fastened with a cordon of white silk with blue and silver tassels. On the left side a representation of the Star of the Order.

The ribbon of the Order (four inches wide for Knights Grand Commanders) is sky-blue, having a narrow white stripe towards either edge, and is worn from the right shoulder to the left side. A Knight Commander wears (a) around his neck a ribbon two inches in width, of the same colours and pattern as a Knight Grand Commander, and pendant therefrom a badge of a smaller size, (b) on his left breast a Star composed of rays of silver issuing from a gold centre, having thereon a silver star of five points resting upon a light blue enamelled circular ribbon, tied at the ends, inscribed with the motto of the Order in diamonds. A Companion wears from his left breast a badge of the same form as appointed for a Knight Commander, but of a smaller size pendant to a like ribbon of the breadth of one and a half inches. All insignia are returnable at death to the Central Chancery, or if the recipient was resident in India, to the Secretary of the Order at Calcutta.

Sovereign of the Order:—H. I. M. The King.

Grand Master of the Order:—His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General of India, the Right Honourable Lord Reading, P.C., G.C.B., G.M.S.I., G.M.I.E., G.C.V.O.

Honorary Knights Grand Commanders
(G. C. S. I.)

Prince Louis Albrecht D'Arrenberg
Hon. General His Majesty Chowfa Somdetch Phra Paramendr Maha Vajiravudh Phra Mongkut Kiao, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., King of Siam.

Extra Knights Grand Commanders
(G. C. S. I.)

H. M. the Queen Empress
H. R. H. The Duke of Connaught
H. R. H. The Prince of Wales

Knights Grand Commanders (G. C. S. I.)

H. H. the Gaekwar of Baroda
H. H. the Maharana of Udaipur
The Marquis of Lansdowne
H. H. the Maharaja of Jammu and Kashmir
H. H. the Maharaja of Gwalior
Lord Harris
Baron Macdonnell
Earl Curzon of Kedleston
Lord George Hamilton
H. H. the Raja of Cochin
Baron Amphil
Maharaja Sir Chandrar Shumshere Jung Bahadur, Rana of Nepal.
H. H. the Maharaja of Orchha
H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore
Baron Hardinge of Penshurst
H. H. the Begum of Bhopal
Sir Stuart Bayley
Sir Dighton Probyn
Baron Sydenham
Sir Arthur Lawley
Sir John Hewett
H. H. the Maharaja of Bikaner
H. H. Maharao of Kotah
General Sir Edmund George Barrow
H. H. the Maharaja of Kapurthala
His Exalted Highness the Nizam of Hyderabad
H. H. the Aga Khan
H. H. the Nawab of Tonk
H. H. the Maharao of Cutch
Baron Carmichael of Skirling
Baron Pentland
Baron Willington
H. E. Sir Charles Monro
H. H. Maharao Raja of Bundi
H. H. The Maharaja of Benares
H. H. The Maharaja of Patiala
Sir Arthur Arnold Barrett
H. H. The Nawab of Rampur
Lord Chelmsford
The Earl of Ronaldshay
H. H. The Maharaja Jam Sahib of Navanagar
H. E. General Lord Rawlinson
The Maharaja of Alwar
Viscount Inchcape
Viscount Lee of Fareham.
Honorary Knights Commanders (K. C. S. I.)
His Excellency Shaikh Sir Khaz'al Khan, G.C.I.E., Sardar Arifa, Amir Nayan, Shaikh of Muhammarah and dependencies.
Prince Ismail Mirza, Motamad-ed-Dowleh Amir-i-Akram, son of His Royal Highness the late Sultan Sir Massoud Mirza, Yemin-ed-Dowleh, Zil-es-Sultan, of Persia.

Gen. ral Sir Bhim Shumshere Jung, Bahadur Rana, K.C.V.O., of Nepal.
General Sir Baber Shum Shere Jung, Bahadur Rana, G.B.E., K.C.I.E., of Nepal

Knights Commanders (K. C. S. I.)

Sir Joseph West Ridgeway
Sir David Millar Barbour
Sir Phillip Perceval Hutchins
Sir Henry Edward Stokes
Sir Henry Mortimer Durand
H. H. Maharao of Sirohi
Sir Courtenay Peregrine Ilbert
H. H. The Maharaja of Idar
Sir William Mackworth Young
Sir William John Cunningham
Sir John Frederick Price
Sir Charles Montgomery Rivaz
Sir Henry Martin Winterbotham
Sir James Monteath
Lieut.-Col. Sir Donald Robertson
Sir Hugh Shakespear Barnes
Sir Arundel Tagg Arundel
Sir Arthur Henry Temple Martindale
Sir James Thomson
Sir Joseph Bampfylde Fuller
Lieut.-Col. Arthur John, Baron Stamfordham
Sir Thomas William Holderness
Sir Charles Stuart Bayley
H. H. Maharaj Rana of Jhalawar
Sir James Wilson
H. H. Maharaja of Alwar
H. H. Raja of Jind
Sir George Stuart Forbes
H. H. Raja of Ratlam
Sir James Lyle Mackay, Baron Incheape
Sir Harvey Adamson
Nawab of Murshidabad
Sir John Ontario Miller
Sir Lionel Montague Jacob
Sir Murray Hammick
Sir Krishna Govinda Gupta
Sir Leslie Alexander Selim Porter
Sir Spencer Harcourt Butler
Sir Robert Warrand Carlyle
H. H. Maharaja of Kishangarh
Sir Reginald Henry Craddock
Sir James McCrone Douie
Lord Meston of Agra and Dunottar
Sir Benjamin Robertson
Maharajahdiraj of Burdwan
Sir Elliot Graham Colvin
Sir Trevredyn Rashleigh Wynne
Sir George Casson Walker
H. H. Maharaja of Dhar
H. H. Maharaja of Dewas State (Senior Branch)
H. H. Maharaja of Bhutan
Sir John Nathaniel Atkinson
Sir William Thomas Morison
General Sir James Willcocks
Sir M. F. O'Dwyer
Sir Salyid Ali Imam
Sir Michael William Fenton
Colonel Sir Sidney Gerald Burrard
Sir William Henry Solomon
Genl. Sir W. R. Birdwood
Sir P. Sundaram Aiyar Sivaswami Aiyar
Sir Frederick William Duke
Sir Edward Albert Galt
H. H. Nawab of Maler Kotla
H. H. Maharaja of Sirmur
Sir William Henry Clark
Major-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox

Sir Steyning William Edgeley
Sir Harrington Verney Lovett
Sir Robert Woodburn Gillan
Maharaj Sir Sir Bhafron Singh Bahadur
Sir Alexander Gordon Cardew
Lieut.-Col. Sir Hugh Daly
Sir C. H. A. Hill
H. H. Maharaja Malhar Rao Baba Saheb Puar.
Dewas (Junior Branch)
H. H. The Maharaja of Dhrangadhra
Lieut.-Col. Sir F. E. Younghusband
Sir T. Morison
Major-Gen. G. M. Kirkpatrick
Major-Gen. R. C. O. Stuart
Sir George Rivers Lowndes
H. H. Maharajahdiraja Maharawal Sir
Jowahir Singh Bahadur of Jaisalmer
Sir Archdale Earle
Sir Stuart Milford Fraser
Sir John Strathedan Campbell
Sir Frank George Sly
H. H. the Maharaja of Datia
H. H. the Maharaj Rana of Dholpur
Sir William Vincent
Sir Thomas Holland
Lieut.-General Sir William Raine Marshall
Sir James Bennett Brunyate
Sir Sydney Arthur Taylor Rowlatt
Sir Oswald Vivian Bosanquet
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Alexander Stanhope Cobbe
Sir G. Carmichael
Dr. Sir M. E. Sadler
The Right Hon'ble Lord Southborough
Lieut.-Colonel Maharaja Daolat Singhji of Idar
The Hon'ble Diwan Bahadur Sir P. Rajagopala
Acharyar
Major-Gen. Sir Harry Triscott Brooking
Lieut.-Gen. Sir George Fletcher MacMunn
Sir George Barnes
Colonel Nawab Muhammad Nasrulla Khan
of Bhopal
Sir Edward MacLagan
Lord Sinha of Raipur
Sir N. D. Beaton-Bell
Sir William Morris
Sir L. J. Kershaw
Sir G. S. Curtis
Sir L. Davidson
C. G. Todhunter
Sir Henry Wheeler
Captain His Highness Maharawal Shri Ran-
jitsinghji Mansinghji, Raja of Baria, Bombay
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Mian Sir Muham-
mad Shafi
Sir William Malcolm Hailey
Sir Hamilton Grant
Sir H. R. C. Dobbs
Sir Muhammad Ali Muhammad Khan, Raja of
Mahmudabad
Sir Jamsjee Jeejeebhoy, Bart.
Sir Sassoon Jacob David, Bart.
Sir William Acworth
Sir John Henry Kerr
Dr. Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru
Sir Ludovic Porter
Sir Havelock Charles
The Hon'ble Rao Bahadur Sir B. N. Sarma
The Hon'ble Sir Ibrahim Rahlmtulla
C. A. Innes
General Sir C. W. Jacob
The Maharaja of Sirohi
The Maharaja of Rajpipla
Sir Frederick Nicholson.

Companions (C. S. I.)

Major-Gen. Beresford Lovett
Lieut.-Gen. Michael Weekes Willoughby
Sir Frederick Russell Hogg
Col. Charles Edward Yate
William Rudolph Henry Merk
Sardar Jiwan Singh
Col. George Herbert Trevor
Lieut.-Col. Henry St. Patrick Maxwell
Sir Jervoise Athelstane Baines
Sir Arthur Upton Fanshawe
James Fairbairn Finlay
Joseph Parker
Horace Frederick D'Oyly Moulle
Henry Aiken Anderson
Lieut.-Col. Sir Arthur Henry McMahon
Sir Henry Evan Murchison James
Charles William Odling
Alexander Walmesley Cruickshank
David Norton
Thomas Stoker
Sir Edward Richard Henry
Lucas White King
Sir Mackenzie Dalzell Chalmers
Henry Farrington Evans
Sir Frederick Styles Philipin Lely
George Robert Irwin
Lieut.-Gen. Sir George Lloyd Reilly Richardson
Robert Burton Buckley
Arthur Frederick Cox
Charles Gerwien Bayne
Hartley Kennedy
Sir Edwin Grant-Burle
William Charles Macpherson
Lt.-Col. James Alexander Lawrence Montgomery
Lt.-Gen. Henry Deveton Hutchinson
Raja of Burdwan
Col. James White Thurburn
Alfred Brereton
William Thomas Hall
Richard Townsend Greer
Sir Louis William Dane
Raja Ram Pal
Hermann Michael Kisch
Sir Cecil Michael Wilford Brett
Herbert Bradley
Sir Frank Campbell Gates
John Mitchell Holms
Percy Seymour Vessey Fitzgerald
Lt.-Col. Willoughby Pitcairn Kennedy
Raja Narendra Chand
Arthur Delaval Younghusband
Oscar Theodore Barrow
Francis Alexander Slacke
Salyid Husain Bilgrami
Percy Comyn Lyon
Algernon Robert Sutherland
Sir George Watson Shaw
William Arbuthnot Inglis
Romer Edward Younghusband
Major-General Herbert Mullaly
John Alexander Brown
Col. Henry Finnis
Maj.-Gen. Sir Alfred William Lambert Bayly
Maurice Walter Fox-Strangways
William Lochiel Sapte Lovett Cameron
Raja Madho Lal of Benares
Sir Ashutosh Mukharji
Maj.-Gen. Sir Henry Montague Pakington
Hawkes
Francis Capel Harrison
Comdr. Sir Hamilton Pym Freer-Smith
Andrew Edmond Castle Stuart
Norman Goodford Cholmeley
Walter Francis Rice
Havilland Le Mesurier
Cecil Edward Francis Bunbury
Major-General Reginald Henry Mahon
Rear-Admiral Allen Thomas Hunt
Henry Walter Badock
James Mollison
Sir Pirajirao Bapu Sahib Ghatge
John Walter Hose
Charles Ernest Vear Goument
Herbert Lovely Eales
George Moss Harriott
Ernest Herbert Cooper Walsh
Sir Edward Vere Levinge
Lieut.-Col. Charles Archer
James Peter Orr
Herbert Alexander Casson
William Axel Hertz
Sir Mahadev Bhaskar Chaulab
Brevet-Lieut.-Colonel Clive Wigram
Herbert Thompson
Major-General William Burney Bannerman
Lieut.-Col. Sir John Ramsay
Stuart Lockwood Maddox
Gilbert Thomas Walker
Lieut.-Col. Phillip Richard Thornhagh Gordon
Khan Zulfikar Ali Khan
Surgeon-General George Francis Angelo Harris
Edmund Vivian Gabriel
John Stuart Donald
Henry Montague Segundo Mathews
Arthur Crommelin Hankin
Nawab Sir Faridoun Jang Bahadur
Maulvi Ahmad Hussain
Horace Charles Mules
H. H. Raja Sir Bijle Chand, Raja of Bilaspur
Lieut.-Col. Arthur Russell Aldridge
Lieut.-Col. Mathew Richard Henry Wilson
John Charles Burnham
Col. Thomas Francis Bruce Renny-Tallyour.
Michael Kennedy
Thakor Karansinghji Vajirajji of Lakhtar
Col. Alain Chartier de Lotbiniere Joly de
Lotbiniere
Col. Robert Smeiton MacLagan
Lieut.-Col. Charles Mowbray Dallas
Edward Henry Scamander Clarke
Sir Jagadish Chandra Bose
Mirza Sir Abbas Ali Baig
Oswald Campbell Lees
Paul Gregory Mellitus
Lieut.-Col. Albert Edward Woods
William Exall Tempest Bennett
William Ogilvie Horne
William Harrison Moreland, C.I.E.
Col. Lestock Hamilton Reid
Surg.-Gen. Henry Wickham Stevenson
Hon. Lieut.-Col. Raja of Lambagraon
Lieut.-Col. Donald John Campbell MacNabb
Lieut.-Col. Henry Walter George Cole
Henry Venn Cobb
Major-General Gerald Godfrey Giffard
Frederick William Johnston
William Henry Lucas
The Thakor Saheb of Sayla
Arthur Leslie Saunders
Sardar Sir Dajit Singh of Jullunder
Walter Maude
Henry Ashbrooke Crump
William James Reid

Walter Gunnell Wood
John Cornwallis Godley
A. Butterworth
S. M. Edwards
Lt.-Col. F. H. Elliott
Sir Herbert John Maynard
Lt.-Col. A. B. Dew
H. T. Keeling
H. Sharp
R. R. Scott
Col. Sir J. W. E. Douglas-Scott Montagu of Beaulieu
Rear-Admiral Arthur Hayes-Sadler
Laurence Robertson
John Chest Cumming
Lieut.-Col. Stephen Lushington Aplin
Sir James Houssemayne DuBoulay
Sir John Barry Wood
Major-General Sir Arthur Wigram Money
Col. L. A. C. Gordon
A. Chalmers
E. Burn
G. B. H. Fell
Major-General Sir W. C. Knight
Lt.-Col. C. Kaye
Patrick James Fagan
Col. Hormasji Edulji Banatwalla, I.M.S.
Lt.-Col. Lawrence Impey
Col. Benjamin William Marlow
Lt.-Col. Harold Fenton Jacob
Lt.-Col. Francis James Fridaux
Lt.-Col. Stuart George Knox
Col. Hugh Whitechurch Perry
Henry Cecil Ferard
Charles Evelyn Arbuthnot William Oldham
Evan Maconochie
Francis Coope French
Major-General C. W. G. Richardson
Lt.-Col. A. P. Trevor
Horatio Norman Bolton
Major-General J. C. Rimington
Colonel H. R. Hopwood
Brig.-General R. H. W. Hughes
H. S. Laurence
L. E. Buckley
C. H. Bompas
M. M. S. Gubbay
Lieut.-Gen. R. Wapshare
Major-Gen. J. M. Walter
Brig.-General W. G. Hamilton
Lieut.-Col. A. W. N. Taylor
Major A. J. Anderson
Major-General Theodore Fraser
Brig.-General W. N. Campbell
Col. Thomas A. Harrison
Major-General L. C. Dunsterville
Hugh McPherson
Henry Fraser Howard
Lieut.-Col. Herbert Des Voeux
Col. Charles Rattray
Temp. Lieut.-Col. Evelyn Berkeley Howell
Lieut.-Col. and Brevet-Col. Felix Fordat
Ready
Col. Herbert Evan Charles Bayley Nepean
Lieut.-Col. Patrick Robert Cadell
Lieut.-Col. Montagu William Douglas
Colonel Charles Mactaggart
John Perronet Thompson
Richard Meredith
Hugh Lansdown Stephenson
Manubhai Nandshankar Mehta
Lieut.-Col. Thomas Wolsley Haig

Herman Cameron Norman
Reginald Arthur Mant
Colonel Alexander John Henry Swiney
Brevet-Col. James Wilton O'Dowda
Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Arnold Talbot Wilson
Lieut.-Col. and Brevet-Col. Charles Ernest Graham Norton
Captain Wilfrid Nunn
Brevet-Colonel (temporary Brigadier-General) Hubert Isacke
Colonel Stewart Gordon Loch
Colonel (temporary Brigadier-Gen.) William Kelty McLeod
Col. Frederick James Moberly
Colonel (temporary Brigadier-Gen.) Robert Fox Sorsbie
Colonel Alan Edmondson Tate
Major-Gen. William Cross Barratt
Temporary Brigadier-General Sir Edward Hugh Bray
Col. (temporary Brigadier-Gen.) Arthur Howarth Pryce Harrison
Colonel (temporary Major-Gen.) Frank Ernest Johnson
Major-General Robert Archibald Cassels
Alexander Phillips Muddiman
Frederick Campbell Rose
Selwyn Howe Fremantle
Peter William Monte
Major-General Charles Astley Fowler
Major-General Harold Hendley
Colonel Michael Edward Willoughby
Colonel Edward Arthur Fagan
Colonel Herbert William Jackson
Lt.-Col. Arthur Leslie Jacob
William Pell Barton
C. F. Payne
J. L. Elen
W. J. J. Howley
B. P. Standen
J. L. Maffey
Lieut.-Col. J. L. W. F. French-Mullen
Lt.-Col. J. L. B. Gordon, C.B.
Colonel H. A. P. Lindsay
Colonel C. W. Proffit
Nawabzada Haji Muhammad Hamidulla Khan of Bhopal
George Rainy
The Raja of Muhammadabad, United Provinces
R. E. Holland
Lieutenant-Colonel F. G. Beville
C. A. Innes
C. J. Hallifax
Major-General H. F. Cooke
E. M. Proes
L. T. Harris
A. R. Banerji
R. I. R. Glancy
W. R. Gourlay
Colonel K. Wigram, I.A.
Rai Bahadur Dewan Bishan Das
C. A. Barron
H. M. R. Hopkins
R. A. Graham
G. R. Clarke
D. Donald
Khan Bahadur Sardar Mohamed Ali Khan Kazi
bashi of Lahore
Lieut.-Col. G. B. M. Sarel
Lieut. F. E. Coningham
Lieut.-Col. D. A. D. McVean
Col. H. G. Burrard
Col. J. H. Foster Lakin

Col. G. A. H. Beatty
Captain Raja Narendra Sah, of Tehri (Garhwal)
Arthur Rowland Knapp, I.C.S., Madras
Norman Edward Marjoribanks
Doms de Saumarez Bray
Charles Montagu King
Pondit Hari Kishan Kaul of the Punjab
S. R. Hignell
James Crerar
Colonel S. F. Muspratt
W. E. Copleston
Frederick B. Evans
Colonel Rivers Berney Worgan, C.V.O.
Major-General W. C. Black
I. H. Saunders
G. R. Lambert
B. C. Allen
J. E. Webster
T. E. Mohr
Diwan Bahadur Raghunath Rao Ramachandra Rao
Major C. C. J. Barrett
Nawab Mehrab Khan, Chief of Bugti Tribe.
Sir Godfrey John Vignoles Thomas, Bart.
Capt. Dudley Burton Napier North.
E. M. Cook, I.C.S.
S. P. O'Donnell, I.C.S.
F. G. Griffith
Maharaj Shri Fateh Singh
J. Hullah
S. E. Pears
J. F. Campbell
G. F. Paddison
J. Milne
J. Donald
Lt.-Col. W. F. T. O'Connor
E. S. Lloyd
L. F. Morshead
N. D. Craik
S. A. Smyth
Lt.-Col. W. H. Jefferey
C. G. Adam
Diwan Bahadur T. Raghavayya
Raja Ejaz Rasul Khan of Jehangirabad
D. H. Lees
H. P. Tointon
A. W. Macnair
F. Noyce
W. Southerland
Captain E. J. Headlam
S. F. Stewart
D. T. Chadwick
N. E. Couchman
F. G. Pratt
N. Oakden
F. L. H. Hammond

OFFICERS OF THE ORDER.

Secretary, The Hon'ble Major D. G. Ogilvie.
Registrar, Brigadier-General Sir Douglas F. R. Dawson, G.C.V.O., C.B., C.M.G.

The Most Eminent Order of the Indian Empire.

This Order, instituted by H. M. Queen Victoria, Empress of India, Jan. 1st, 1878, and extended and enlarged in 1886, 1887, 1892, 1897, and 1902 is conferred for services rendered to the Indian Empire, and consists of the Sovereign, a Grand Master, thirty-two Knights Grand Commanders (of whom the Grand Master is first and principal), ninety-two Knights Commanders, and an indefinite number of Companions (not

exceeding, without special statute, 20 nominations in any one year); also Extra and Honorary Members over and above the vacancies caused by promotion to a higher class of the Order, as well as certain Additional Knights and Companions appointed by special statute Jan. 1st, 1909, commemorative of the 50th Anniversary of the assumption of Crown Govt. in India.

The Insignia are: (i) The COLLAR of gold formed of elephants, lotus flowers, peacocks in their pride, and Indian roses, in the centre the Imperial Crown, the whole linked together with chains; (ii) The STAR of the Knight Grand Commander, comprised of five rays of silver; having a small ray of gold between each of them; the whole alternately plain and scaled, issuing from a gold centre, having thereon Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy, within a purple circle, edged and lettered gold, inscribed *Imperatrix Auspiciis*, and surmounted by an Imperial Crown gold; (iii) The BADGE, consisting of a rose, enamelled gules, barbed vert, and having in the centre Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy, within a purple circle, edged and lettered gold, inscribed *Imperatrix Auspiciis*, surmounted by an Imperial Crown, also gold; (iv) The MANTLE is of Imperial purple satin, lined with and fastened by a cordon of white silk, with purple silk and gold tassels attached. On the left side a representation of the Star of the Order.

A Knight Commander wears: (a) around his neck a ribbon two inches in width, of the same colour (purple) and pattern as a Knight Grand Commander, pendant therefrom a badge of smaller size; (b) on his left breast a star, similar to that of the first class, but the rays of which are all of silver.

The above mentioned Insignia are returned at death to the Central Chancery, or if the Knight was resident in India to the Secretary of the Order at Calcutta.

A Companion wears from the left breast a badge (not returnable at death) of the same form as appointed for a Knight Commander, but of smaller size, pendant to a like ribbon of the breadth of one and a half inches.

Sovereign of the Order:—The King-Emperor of India.

Grand Master of the Order:—Lord Reading.

Honorary Knights Grand Commanders (G. C. I. E.)

The ex-Emperor of Korea.
Shaikh Sir Khazal Khan, Shaikh of Moham-merah and Dependencies.
Shaikh Sir Abdul Aziz bin Abdur Rahman Ruler of Nejd and Dependencies.

Extra Knight Grand Commanders (G. C. I. E.)

The Duke of Connaught
H. R. H. The Prince of Wales.

Knights Grand Commanders (G.C.I.E.)

The Maharao of Cutch
Lord Lansdowne
Lord Harris
The Nawab of Tonk
The Wall of Kalat
Maharaja of Karauli
Thakur Sahib of Gondal

The Maharaja of Benares
 Lord Curzon of Kedleston
 The Maharaja of Orchha
 Lord Amphil
 Maharaja of Bundi
 The Maharaja of Sirohi
 The Aga Khan
 Lord Lamington
 The Begum of Bhopal
 Sir Edmund Elles
 Sir Walter Laurence
 Sir Arthur Lawley
 The Maharaja of Bikaner
 The Maharaja of Kotah
 Lord Sydenham
 The Nawab of Rampur
 Maharaja Sir Kishan Pershad
 Lord Hardinge
 Lord Carmichael
 Maharaja of Kashmir
 Sir Louis Dane
 Maharaja of Bobbili
 Lord Stamfordham
 Sir Guy Fleetwood Wilson
 Sir John Jordan
 The Maharana of Udaipur
 The Maharaja of Patiala
 The Raja of Cochin
 Lord Pentland
 The Raja of Pudukkottai
 Lord Willington
 The Yuvaraja of Mysore
 Sir Charles Stuart Bayley
 Maharaja of Darbhanga
 H. H. the Maharaja of Jind
 Lord Chelmsford
 The Earl of Ronaldshay
 Sir Michael Francis O'Dwyer
 Sir Gulam Muhammad Ali, Prince of Arcot
 Major-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox
 H. H. the Maharaja of Indore
 The Maharaja of Cochin
 Sir William Duke
 Sir George Ambrose Lloyd
 The Maharaja of Baroda
 The Maharaja of Alwar
 The Maharaja of Kapurthala
 H. H. Sir Ugyen Wangchuk, Maharaja of Bhutan
 Lord Lytton
 The Maharaja of Dhrangadhra.
 The Right Hon'ble Rowland Thomas Baring, Earl of Cromer, C.V.O.
 Sir William Henry Hoare Vincent, K.C.S.I., K.T., I.O.S.
 H. E. Sir Harcourt Butler
 Sir Reginald Craddock.
 Rt. Hon. Sir Leslie Orme Wilson
 The Hon'ble Maharajadhiraja Sir Bijay Chand Mehtab Bahadur of Burdwan
 The Maharaja of Kolhapur.

Honorary Knights Commanders (K. C. I. E.)

Sir Leon E. Clement-Thomas
 Dr. Sir Sven Von Hedin
 Cavaliere Filippo De'Filippi
 General Sir Baber Shumshere Jung Bahadur Rana of Nepal
 General Sir Judha Shumshere Jung Bahadur, Rana of Nepal
 Sultan Sir Abdul Karim Fadhli bin Ali of Lahej

Sir Alfred Martineau
 Commanding General Sir Padma Shum Shero Jung Bahadur, Rana of Nepal
 Genl. Sir Tez Shum Shere Jung Bahadur, Rana of Nepal
 H. E. The Shaikh of Bahrain and Dependencies
 Sir Yang-tseng-hsin, Chiang Chun and Governor of Hsin Kiang Province
 The Reverend Doctor Sir James Carruthers
 Rhea Ewing, M.A., D.D., L.L.D.

Knights Commanders (K. C. I. E.)

Sir Albert James Leppock Cappel
 Sir Alfred Woodley Croft
 Sir Bradford Leslie
 Sir Arthur Baron Carnock
 Sir Guildford Molesworth
 Sir Henry Mortimer Durand
 Raja of Lunawara
 Sir Edward Charles Kayll Ollivant
 Sir Henry Seymour King
 Baron Incheape
 Sir Wm. R. Brooke
 Nawab of Loharu
 Rear-Admiral Sir John Hext
 Sir Mancherjee Bhownagree
 Col. Sir Thomas Holdich
 Sir Andrew Wingate
 Raja Sir Harnam Singh, Ahluwalla
 Sir S. Subramaniam Aiyar
 Sir Alexander Cunningham
 Sir James George Scott
 Sir Lawrence Hugh Jenkins
 Sir Herbert Thirkell White
 Sir Frederick Augustus Nicholson
 Sir Arthur Upton Fanshawe
 Raja Dhira of Shahpura
 Sir Gangadhar Rao Ganesb, Chief of Miraj (Senior Branch)
 Brevet-Col. Sir Buchanan Scott
 Col. Sir John Walter Ottley
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Francis Edward Younghusband
 Major-General Sir James R. L. Macdonald
 Sir Fredric Styles Philip Lely
 Lt.-Col. Sir Arthur Henry McMahon
 Sir Francis Whitmore Smith
 Sir Thomas Henry Holland
 Nawab Sir Muhammad Ali Beg
 H. H. Maharajadhiraja of Kishangarh
 Raja of Mahmudabad
 Sir Trevellyn Rashleigh Wynne
 Sir Richard Morris Dane
 Sir Wilhelm Schlich
 Sir Theodore Morison
 Gen. Sir Robert Irvin Scallon
 Sir John David Rees
 Rear-Admiral Sir Edmond John Warre Slade
 Sir John Benton
 Sir Archdale Earle
 Sir Charles Stewart-Wilson
 Lieut.-Gen. Sir Malcolm Henry Stanley Grover
 Sir Charles Rait Cleveland
 Field Marshal Sir Douglas Haig
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Hugh Daly
 Sir Henry Parsall Burt
 Sir James Houssemayne DuBoulay
 Sir Rajendra Nath Mukharji
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Henry Beaufoy Thornhill
 Sir Gangadhar Madho Chitnavis
 H. H. Nawab of Jaora State
 H. H. Raja of Sitamau State
 Raj Sahib Sir Amarsinhji Banarsihi (Vankar)
 Sir Ramkrishna Gopal Bhandarkar

Sir Michael Filose
 Rear-Adm. Sir Colin Richard Keppel
 Sir John Stanley
 Sir Saint-Hill Eardley-Wilmot
 Sir Francis Edward Spring
 H. H. Maharawat of Partabgarh
 H. H. Maharaja of Bijawar State, Bundelkhand
 Sir John Twigg
 Sir George Abraham Grierson
 Sir Marc Aurel Stein
 Sir Henry Alexander Kirk
 Sir Alfred Gibbs Bourne
 Sir Frank Campbell Gates
 Sir George Macartney
 Sir Edward Douglas MacLagan
 Maj.-Gen. Sir George John Younghusband
 Sir Brian Egerton
 Sir Stephen George Sale
 Sir Prabhashankar D. Pattani
 Maharaja of Kasimbazaar
 Lieut.-Col. Sir John Ramsay
 Sir William Maxwell
 Sir Faridooji Jamshedji, C.S.I.
 Sir Mokshagundam Visvesvaraya
 His Highness the Maharaja of Samthar
 Sir John Stuart Donald
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Percy Molesworth Sykes
 Sir Edward Vere Levinge
 Raja Sir Rampal Singh
 Sir Alexander Henderson Diack
 Sir Sao Maung
 H. H. Raja Sir Arjun Singh of Narsingarh
 Captain Malik Sir Umar Hayat Khan
 Sir Robert Bailey Clegg
 Sir Henry Wheeler
 Sir Mahadeo B. Chaudal
 Sir James Walker
 Mirza Sir Abbas Ali Balg
 H. H. the Raja of Bilaspur
 Nawab Sir Sahibzada Abdul Qayyum
 Lieut.-Gen. Sir Raleigh Gilbert Egerton
 Lieut.-Gen. Sir Henry D'Urban Keary
 Sir George Cunningham Buchanan
 Major-General Sir William George Lawrence Beynon
 Raja of Rajgarh
 Rana of Barwani
 Maharaja of Sonpur
 Capt. Raja Sir Hari Singh
 Sir John Barry Wood
 Sir Alfred Hamilton Grant
 Colonel Sir Vere Bonamy Fane
 Thakur Sahab of Rajkot
 Lieut.-Col. W. J. Buchanan
 Lieut.-Col. Raja Jaichand of Lambagraon
 Rear-Admiral Sir D. St. A. Wake
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Mirza Ali Karam Khan Shuja-i-Nizam, Dy.
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Lieut. François Pierre Paul Razy—(Europe)
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Lieut.-Col. Jit Jung Sahi—(Nepal)
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Taoyin Chur. Chu-jui-Ch'ih, Tao-yin of Kashgar
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 Robert Charles Francis Volkens
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 Lieut.-Col. J. C. Lamont
 Capt. Charles James Cope Kendall
 Lieut.-Col. Muhammad Afzal Khan
 Ernest Albert Seymour Bell
 Lieut.-Col. Francis Richard Soutter Gervers
 Colin John Davidson
 Albert Harlow Silver
 Frederick William Hanson
 Nawab Maula Baksh
 Colonel Vindeshri Prasad Singh
 Sardar Lakhagouda Basava Prabhu Sir Desai
 Col. W. W. Clemesha, I.M.S.
 Brevet-Lt.-Col. Napier George Barrow Goodfellow
 Lieut.-Col. P. Francis Chapman
 Major H. J. Crossley
 Lieut.-Col. (temporary Col.) W. A. Gordon
 Lieut.-Col. J. D. Graham
 Lieut.-Col. C. E. Alexander
 Major and Brevet-Lieut.-Col. W. H. Hamilton
 Lieut.-Col. C. A. Sprawson
 Major H. C. Prescott
 Temporary Major (temporary Col.) J. C. Ward
 Temporary Major C. F. Macpherson
 Captain F. C. C. Balfour
 Captain P. L. Bowers
 H. A. Sans
 H. F. Forbes
 Major C. L. Peart
 Col. H. De C. O'Grady
 Lieut.-Col. A. de V. Willoughby-Osborne
 Lieut.-Col. F. McConaghey
 Hon. Brigadier-General J. R. Gaussen
 Major G. B. Murray
 Purushottamdas Thakurdas
 Khan Bahadur Khwaja Yusuf Shah
 N. E. Marjoribanks
 Atul Chandra Chatterji
 R. D. Bell
 Rai Bahadur Rala Ram
 Lieut.-Col. H. C. Beadon
 H. C. Barnes
 C. Clayton
 C. B. Petman
 F. A. M. H. Vincent
 R. Clarke
 M. J. Cogswell
 Lieut.-Col. J. J. Bourke
 Lieut.-Col. J. Stephenson
 H. H. Haines
 R. S. Hole
 Cursetji Nowroji Wadia
 B. Teichman
 D. Clouston
 Raja Bahadur Rao Jogendra Narayan Ray
 W. J. Bradshaw
 Lieut.-Col. R. A. Needham
 J. Crosby
 C. A. Innes
 P. P. J. Wodehouse
 Captain E. I. M. Barrett
 S. F. Stewart
 Lieut.-Col. P. L. O'Neill
 Major G. G. Jolly
 Major A. P. Manning
 H. H. F. M. Tyler
 Col. H. W. R. Senior
 Lieut.-Col. R. H. Maddox
 Col. H. W. Bowen
 Col. J. B. Keogh
 Brevet-Lieut.-Col. E. A. Porch
 Lieut.-Col. A. B. Fry
 Lieut.-Col. A. V. W. Hope
 Lieut.-Col. L. E. Gilbert
 Lieut.-Col. W. D. A. Keys
 Lieut.-Col. W. M. Anderson
 Major H. Murray
 Major C. de L. Christopher
 Captain and Brevet-Major F. M. Carpendale
 Major (temporary Lieut.-Col.) A. H. O. Trench
 Temporary Major L. F. Nalder
 Major C. G. Lloyd
 Temporary Captain R. Marra
 Lieut. (temporary Col.) G. Evans
 Lieut.-Col. S. H. Slater
 Agha Mirza Muhammad
 Sir E. Bonham-Carter
 Brevet-Lieut.-Col. J. H. Howell Jones
 Lieut.-Col. W. E. Wilson-Johnston
 Major W. S. R. May
 Temporary Captain (temporary Col.) W. R. Dockrill
 Temporary Lieut. (temporary Major) G. M. O'Rourke
 Capt. C. R. Watson
 Capt. C. Mackenzie
 Capt. J. B. Hanafi
 Major M. C. Raymond
 W. H. J. Wilkinson
 Lieut.-Col. J. B. Jameson
 Major-General A. G. Wauchope
 Col. (temporary Brigadier-Genl.) G. F. White
 R. W. Hildyard-Marris
 Hon. Lieut. Mehr Mohammad Khan Bahadur

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The Indian Orders.

Brigadier-General R. M. Betham
Major-General W. C. Black
Col. E. R. P. Bolleau
Col. W. L. J. Carey
Lieut.-Col. J. A. Cherry
Col. (temporary Brigadier-Genl.) G. Christian
Col. (temporary Brigadier-Genl.) H. R. Cook
Col. (temporary Brigadier-Genl.) F. W. H. Cox
Col. G. M. Duff
Major (temporary Lieut.-Col.) E. G. J. Hall
Major D. R. Hewitt
Lieut.-Col. L. Hirsch
Col. C. Hodgkinson
Major (temporary Lieut.-Col.) G. Howson
Lieut.-Col. K. M. Kirkhope
Lieut.-Col. F. C. Lane
Col. J. H. Lawrence-Archer
Col. B. S. Macdagan
Major G. G. C. Maclean
Lieut.-Col. C. N. Moberley
Col. (temporary Brigadier-Genl.) H. C. Nanton
E. P. Newnam
Lieut.-Col. S. J. Rennie
Lieut.-Col. J. R. Reynolds
Lieut.-Col. L. Stuart
Lieut.-Col. J. W. Watson
Lieut.-Col. R. B. Wilson
Major-Gen. N. G. Woodratt
Lieut.-Col. H. N. Young
Lieut.-Col. E. L. Mackenzie
Col. (temporary Brigadier-General) F. W. D. Quinton
Lieut.-Col. C. N. Watney
Ressalder Habbur Rahman Khan, Khan Sahib
Col. Charles Fairlie Dobbs
Major George Stuart Douglas
Major Charles Edward Edward-Collins
Col. Hugh Edward Herdon
Major Harold Berridge
Col. M. R. W. Nightingale
Sardar Bahadur Sardar Sundar Singh
H. Moncrieff Smith
F. St. J. Gebbie
Khan Bahadur Pir Baksh Walad Mian Muhammad
S. S. Ayyangar
J. A. Richey
F. W. Woods
A. T. Holme
G. G. Sim
Lieut.-Col. C. A. Smith
Lieut.-Col. F. R. Nethersole
E. S. Troup
K. B. W. Thomas
Lieut.-Col. J. A. Stevens
A. Brebner
V. Dawson
G. Anderson
Col. Rao Bahadur Thakur Sadul Singh
Saiyid Nur-ul-Huda
Col. John Anderson Dealy
Major-General Harry Christopher Tytler
Col. A. L. Tarver
Major-General Cyril Norman Macmullen
Col. Harry Beauchamp Douglas Baird
Col. Cecil Norris Baker
Lieut.-Col. Harry Dixon Packer
Temporary Lieut.-Col. John Francis Haswell
Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Henry Charles Swinburne Ward
Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Henry Francis Wickham
Lieut.-Col. Duncan Ogilvie

Major temporary (Lieut.-Col.) James Scott Pitkeathly
Major Charles Edward Bruce
Major Alexander Frederick Babonau
2nd-Lieut. (temporary Lieut.-Col.) Arthur Vernon Hawkins
Ernest William Tomkins
Colonel Campbell Coffin
P. Harrison
W. C. Renout
Abdul Majid (Assam)
Sorabji Bezoni Mehta
Lt.-Col. R. Verney
E. C. S. Shuttleworth
Lt.-Col. C. R. A. Bond
J. Reid
C. W. E. Cotton
C. M. Hutchinson
Major F. H. Humphrys
Major F. W. Gerrard
R. S. Pearson
Khan Bahadur Raja Sifat Bahadur
Khan Bahadur Muhammad Habibulla
C. T. Allen
C. B. La Touche
Cawasji Jehangir
A. K. Maitra
Col. Leslie Waterfield Shakespeare
Col. O. E. E. Francis Kirwan Macquoid
Capt. E. J. Calveley Hordern
John Comyn Higgins
John Henry Hutton
John Brown Marshall
Major Clendon Turberville Dawkes
Nawab Mahammad Khurshaid Ali Khan of Dujana
Khan Bahadur Sayid Mehdi Shah
Diwan Bahadur Diwan Daulat Rai
Col. (temporary Brigadier-General) G. P. Campbell
Lieut.-Col. H. L. Crosthwaite
C. Latimer
Lieut.-Col. E. H. Payne
Major (temporary Lieut.-Col.) C. E. B. Steel
Col. T. Stodart
Major (temporary Lieut.-Col.) E. C. W. Conway Gordon
Lieut.-Col. C. Hudson
Col. H. Ross
Col. D. M. Watt
Lieut.-Col. Ikbai Muhammad Khan
Machael Keane
James David Sifton
Lieut.-Colonel Philip Sykes Murphy Burlton
Charles Morgan Webb
David Thomas Chadwick
Harry William Maclean Ives
Charles Maurice Baker
William Alexander Marr
Geoffrey Letham Corbett
Lieut.-Col. Edmund Henry Salt James
John Tudor Gwynn
Lieut.-Col. David Macdonald Davidson
Lieut.-Col. Frederick O'Kinealy
Lieut.-Col. William Frederick Harvey
Honorary-Col. Lionel Augustus Grimston
Lieut.-Col. John Lawrence Van Geyzel
Colonel Sydney Frederick Muspratt
Major Henry George Vaux
Arthur Charles Rumbold
Hugh Charles Sampson
Doctor Edwin John Butler
Alexander Waddell Dods

Dadiba Merwanji Dalal
Rai Bahadur Gopal Das Bhandari
Rai Bahadur Jadu Nath Muzumdar
Jehangir Behramji Murzban
Narayan Malhar Joshi
Hamid Khan
Harry Evan Auguste Cotton
Frank Herbert Brown
Colonel Arthur Holroyd Bridges
Colonel Clement Arthur Milward
Colonel Arthur Hugh Morris
Lieut.-Col. Henry Warwick Illius
Major Frederick Lawrence Gore
Major Alexander Henderson Burn
Lieut.-Col. Alfred Eugene Berry
Lieut.-Colonel Maxwell McKelvie
Major and Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Charles Harold Ayrts Tuck
Colonel Henry George Young
Lieut.-Col. Sir Malcolm Donald Murray
Colonel Sir Edward Scott Worthington
John Edwin Clapham Jukes
Ernest Burdon
Nawab Muhammad Ahmad Said Khan
Herbert Edward West Martindell
Alexander Montgomerie
Evelyn Robins Abbott
James Cowlshaw Smith
John Richard Cunningham
Stephen Cox
Leslie Maurice Crump
Hugh Kynaston Briscoe
Major (temporary Col.-on-the-Staff) Henry Rivers Nevill
Major-General Benjamin Hobbs Deare
Henry Vernon Barstow Harcourt-Scott
Major Lewis Macclesfield Heath
Major Lionel Edward Lang
Rai Bahadur Milkhi Ram
Rao Bahadur Kesho Govind Damle
James Wallis Mackison
Arthur Lambert Playfair
Maganiai Thakorda Balmukundas Modi
Doctor Mohendra Nath Banarjee
Col. (Honorary Brigadier-General) Henry Arthur Lane
Basil John Gould
Major-General John Blackburn Smith
Lt.-Col. Francis Hope Grant Hutchinson
Francis Pepys Rennie
Lt.-Col. Stewart Blakely Agnew Patterson
Malcolm Caird McAlpin
Edward Arthur Henry Blunt
Lieut.-Col. James Enrican
Alexander Carmichael Stewart
Walter Frank Hudson
Adrian James Robert Hope
John Willoughby Mearns
Lieut.-Colonel Robert Fraser Standage
Major Kenneth Oswald Goldie
Edward Francis Thomas
Edward Luttrell Moysey
Thomas Stewart Macpherson
Maung Po Hla
Arthur Campbell Armstrong
Horace Williamson
Alexander Newmarch
Gerard Anstruther Wathen
Khan Bahadur Mir Sharbat Khan
Natha Singh Sardar Bahadur
Raja Maniloli Singh Roy
Khan Bahadur Nasarvanji Hormasji Choksy

Raja Chandra Chur Singh, of Atra Chandapur
William Scott Durrant
Archibald Gibson McLagan
Alexander Marr
Lawrence Morley Stubbs
Colonel Robert St. John Hickman
James Macdonald Dunnott
Lieut.-Col. Michael Lloyd Ferrar
Levett Mackenzie Kaye
Coryton Jonathan Webster Mayne
Walter Swain
Cyril James Irwin
Lancelot Colin Bradford Glascock
Richard Howard Hitchcock
Edwin Lessware Price
Rai Bahadur Chuni Lal Basu
Cecil Frank Beadel
Gavin Scott
Horace Mason Haywood
Major the Honourable Piers Walter Legh
Harry Tonkinson
Chetput Pattabhirama Ayyar Ramaswami Ayyar
Arthur Edward Nelson
Alexander Shirley Montgomery
Kunwal Jagdish Prasad
Doctor Nelson Annandale
Lieut.-Col. Andrew Thomas Gage
Lieut.-Col. John Phillip Cameron
Lieut.-Col. Charles Eckford Luard
Frederick Alexander Leete
Lieut.-Col. Henry Ross
Captain Victor Felix Gamble
Lieut.-Col. Alfred Hooton
Arnold Albert Musto
Abdoor Rahim
John Arthur Jones
The Reverend Canon Edward Guilford
Keshab Chandra Roy
Pringle Kennedy
Major Henry Benedict Fox
U. Po Tha
Captain Albert Gottlieb Puech
Naotoji Bapooji Saklatwala
William Stantial
Khan Bahadur Diwan Abdul Hamid
Rao Bahadur Thakur Hari Singh
W. Alder
J. R. Martin
D. J. Mitchell
E. G. B. Peel
F. F. Sladen
Lt.-Col. R. H. Chenevir Trench
A. F. L. Brayne
E. C. Handyside
C. G. Barnett
Lt.-Col. A. Leventon
Lt.-Col. T. Hunter
Lt.-Col. R. McCarrison
J. W. Bhoré
H. G. Haig
Khan Bahadur Muhammad Bazullah Sahib
R. M. Maxwell
J. H. Hechle
Major D. P. Johnstone
Khan Bahadur Mohammad Seer Bazi Khan
Khan Bahadur Muhammad Hayat Khan
Kureshi of Sobbowal
Rev. G. D. Barne
J. Evershed
Saw Hke Swaba
D. Graham

C. A. H. Townsend
E. W. Beg
H. P. Duval
J. C. Ker
F. F. Blon
W. S. Bremner
P. S. Keelan
C. Douchars
Colonel W. M. Coldstream
C. W. Gwynne
R. B. Ewbank
Dr. B. L. Dhingra
Srimant Jagdeo Rao Phar
Maulvi Nizam-ud-Din Ahmed
Sahibzada Sultan Ahmed Khan
P. G. Rogers
C. W. Dunn
R. E. Gibson
Major G. H. Russell
B. J. Glancy
Diwan Bahadur L. D. Pillai
H. B. Clayton
B. W. P. Sims
Khan Bahadur Muhammad Abdul Karim Khan
Maung Maung By A.
Sardar Bahadur Sheo Narayana Singh
W. T. M. Wright
A. N. Moberley
The Reverend E. M. Macphail
Lieut.-Col. G. R. Hearne
C. E. W. Jones
Colonel R. Head, I.M.S.
U. L. Majumdar
P. E. Percival
L. O. Clarke
K. N. Knox
E. Cornan Smith
Major G. C. S. Black
Mirza Mohamed Ismail
J. M. Ewart
Rai Bahadur T. W. Sadhu
W. J. Lister
B. Venkatapathiraju
F. Clayton
Diwan Bahadur Shrinivasa K. Rodda
F. Youngs
Rai Bahadur G. L. Sijar Gayawal
F. F. Goodliffe
Khan Bahadur Sardar Asghar Ali
A. W. Street
G. H. Rudkin
Thakur Mangal Singh of Pokaran
Diwan Bahadur P. Kesava-Pillai
A. R. L. Tottenham
A. A. L. Parsons
F. G. Turner
J. A. L. Swan
H. G. Billson
Colonel O. H. Bensley, I.M.S.
H. G. Turner
T. G. Rutherford
Major O. D. Ogilvie, I.A.
Lieut.-Colonel E. C. G. Maddock, I.M.S.
F. Anderson
G. Cunningham
Major C. K. Daly
Lieut.-Colonel J. C. B. Vaughan, I.M.S.
F. C. Crawford
H. Calvert
U. Me
Lieut.-Col. the Revd. W. T. Wright
Rai Bahadur Gyanendra Chandra Ghose
Rai Bahadur Sukhamaya Chaudhuri

Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachariyar
W. L. Travers
Sardar Bahadur Sardar Jawahir Singh
Lieut. (local Captain) Hissam-ud-Din
Bahadur
Khan Bahadur Shah Nawaz Khan Bhutto

OFFICERS OF THE ORDER.

Secretary, The Hon. Major D. G. Ogilvie
Registrar, Brigadier-General Sir Douglas F. R.
Dawson, G.C.V.O., C.B., C.M.G.

The Imperial Order of the Crown of India.

This Order was instituted Jan. 1, 1878, and for a like purpose with the simultaneously created Order of the Indian Empire. It consists of the Queen and Queen Mother with some Royal Princesses, and the female relatives of Indian Princes or of persons who have held conspicuous offices in connection with India. Badge, the Royal Cypher in jewels within an oval surmounted by an Heraldic Crown and attached to a bow of light blue watered ribbon, edged white. Designation, the letters C. I.

Sovereign of the Order.

THE KING-EMPEROR OF INDIA.

Ladies of the Order (C. I.)

Her Majesty The Queen
H. M. Queen Alexandra
H. M. the Queen of Norway
H. R. H. the Princess Royal
H. R. H. the Princess Victoria
H. M. The Queen of Roumania
H. R. H. Princess Beatrice
The Ex-Duchess of Cumberland
H. R. H. The Princess of Hohenlohe-Langenburg
H. R. H. the Princess Louise (Duchess of Argyll)
H. R. H. the Princess Frederica Baroness of von Pawel-Rammingen
H. I. & R. H. the Grand Duchess Cyril of Russia
H. H. the Princess Marie-Louise
Baroness Kinloss
Lady Jane Emma Crichton
Dowager Countess of Lytton
Dowager Baroness Napier of Magdala
Dowager Marchioness of Dufferin and Ava
H. H. Maharani of Cooch-Bihar
Marchioness of Lansdowne
Baroness Harris
Constance Mary Baroness Wellock
H. H. Maharani Sahib Chhima Bai Gaskwar
H. H. Ranj Sahib of Gondal
H. H. the Dowager Maharani of Mysore
Lady George Hamilton
H. H. the Maharani Sahiba of Udaipur
Alice, Baroness Northcote
Amelia Maria, Lady White
Mary Katherine, Lady Lockhart
Baroness Amptill
The Lady Willington
Countess of Minto
Marchioness of Crewe
H. H. Begum of Bhopal
Lady Victoria Patricia Helena Ramzay
Frances Charlotte, Lady Chelmsford
Countess of Reading
H. H. Maharani Sakhiya Raja Sahita Scindia
Alijah Bahadur of Gwalior

Distinctive Badges.—An announcement was made at the Coronation Durbar in 1911, that a distinctive badge should be granted to present holders and future recipients of the titles of 'Diwan Bahadur', 'Sardar Bahadur', 'Khan Bahadur', 'Rai Bahadur', 'Rao Bahadur', 'Khan Sahib', 'Rai Sahib' and 'Rao Sahib'. Subsequently the following regulations in respect of these decorations were issued:—(1) The decoration to be worn by the holders of the titles above mentioned shall be a badge or medallion bearing the King's effigy crowned and the name of the title, both to be executed on a plaque or shield surrounded by a five-pointed star surmounted by the Imperial Crown, the plaque or shield being of silver gilt for the titles of Diwan, Sardar, Khan, Rai and Rao Bahadur, and of silver for the titles of Khan, Rai, and Rao Sahib. (2) The badge shall be worn suspended round the neck by a ribbon of one inch and a half in width, which for the titles of Diwan and Sardar Bahadur shall be light blue with a dark blue border, for the titles of Khan, Rai and Rao Bahadur light red with a dark red border, and for the titles of Khan, Rai and Rao Sahib dark blue with light blue border.

A Press Note issued in November, 1914, states:—The Government of India have recently had under consideration the question of the position in which miniatures of Indian titles should be worn, and have decided that they should be worn on the left breast fastened by a brooch, and not suspended round the neck by a ribbon as prescribed in the case of the Badge itself. When the miniatures are worn in conjunction with other decorations, they should be placed immediately after the Kaiser-i-Hind Medal.

Indian Distinguished Service Medal.—This medal was instituted on June 28th, 1907, by an Army Order published in Simla as a reward for both commissioned and non-commissioned officers of the regular and other forces in India. It bears on the obverse the bust of King Edward VII. and on the reverse a laurel wreath encircling the words 'For Distinguished Service'. The medal, $\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, is ordered to be worn immediately to the right of all war medals suspended by a red ribbon $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide, with blue edges $\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide. This medal may be conferred by the Viceroy of India.

Indian Order of Merit.—This reward of valour was instituted by the H. E. I. Co. in 1837, to reward personal bravery without any reference to length of service or good conduct. It is divided into three classes and is awarded to native officers and men for distinguished conduct in the field. On the advancement from one class to another the star is surrendered to the Government, and the superior class substituted, but in the event of the death of the recipient his relatives retain the decoration. The order carries with it an increase of one-third

in the pay of the recipient, and in the event of his death the allowance is continued to his widow for three years. The First Class consists of a star of eight points, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. in diameter, having in the centre a ground of dark blue enamel bearing crossed swords in gold, within a gold circle, and the inscription 'Reward of Valour, the whole being surmounted by two wreaths of laurel in gold. The Second Class star is of silver, with the wreaths of laurel in gold; and the Third Class entirely of silver. The decoration is suspended from a simple loop and bar from a dark-blue ribbon $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. in width with red edges, bearing a gold or silver buckle according to class.

Order of British India.—This order was instituted at the same time as the Order of Merit, to reward native commissioned officers for long and faithful service in the Indian Army. Since 1878, however, any person European or native, holding a commission in a native regiment, became eligible for admission to the Order without reference to creed or colour. The First Class consists of a gold eight-pointed radiated star $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. in diameter. The centre is occupied by a lion statant garland upon a ground of light-blue enamel, within a dark-blue band inscribed Order of British India, and encircled by two laurel wreaths of gold. A gold loop and ring are attached to the crown for suspension from a broad ornamental band $\frac{3}{4}$ in. in diameter, through which the ribbon, once blue, now red, is passed for suspension from the neck. The Second Class is $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. in diameter with dark-blue enamelled centre: there is no crown on this class, and the suspender is formed of an ornamental gold loop. The reverse is plain in both classes. The First Class carries with it the title Sirdar Bahadur, and an additional allowance of two rupees a day; and the Second the title of Bahadur, and an extra allowance of one rupee per day.

Indian Meritorious Service Medal.—This was instituted on July 27th, 1888, and on receipt of the medal the order states "a non-commissioned officer must surrender his Long Service and Good Conduct medal": but on being promoted to a commission he may retain the M. S. medal, but the annuity attached to it will cease. On the obverse is the diademed bust of Queen Victoria facing left, with a veil falling over the crown behind, encircled by the legend Victoria Kaisar-i-Hind. On the reverse is a wreath of lotus leaves enclosing a wreath of palm tied at the base, having a star beneath; between the two wreaths is the inscription for meritorious service. Within the palm wreath is the word India. The medal, $\frac{1}{2}$ in. in diameter, is suspended from a scroll by means of a red ribbon $\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide. The medals issued during the reigns of Queen Victoria's successors bear on the obverse their bust in profile with the legend altered to EDWARDVS or GEORGIVS.

THE KAISAR-I-HIND MEDAL.

This decoration was instituted in 1900, the preamble to the Royal Warrant—which was amended in 1901 and 1912—being as follows:—"Whereas We, taking into Our Royal consideration that there do not exist

adequate means whereby We can reward important and useful services rendered to Us in Our Indian Empire in the advancement of the public interests of Our said Empire, and taking also into consideration the ex-

pediency of distinguishing such services by some mark of Our Royal favour: Now for the purpose of attaining an end so desirable as that of thus distinguishing such services aforesaid, We have instituted and created, and by these presents for Us, Our Heirs and Successors, do institute and create a new Decoration." The decoration is styled "The Kaisar-i-Hind Medal for Public Service in India" and consists of two classes. The Medal is an oval shaped Badge or Decoration—in gold for the First Class and in silver for the Second Class—with the Royal Cypher on one side and on the reverse the words "Kaisar-i-Hind for Public Service in India," it is suspended on the left breast by a dark blue ribbon.

Recipients of the 1st Class.

Abdus Samad Khan of Rampur
Achariyar, Diwan Bahadur Tirumalai Desik
Advani, M. S.
Ahmad, Khan Bahadur Qazi Khalil-ud-Din
Alexander, A. L.
Allnutt, The Rev. Samuel Scott
Amarchand, Rao Bahadur Ramnarayan
Amphill, Margaret, Baroness
Anderson, The Rev. H.
Annie, Sister Blanche
Ashton, Albert Frederick
Ayyar, Dr. P. S. A. Chandrasekhara
Baird-Smith, J. R.
Balfour, Dr. Ida
Banerji, Sir P. C.
Banks, Mrs. A. E.
Barber, Benjamin Russell
Barnes, Major Ernest
Basu, Sir Kallias Chandra, Rai Bahadur
Beals, Dr.; American Marathi Mission, Bombay
Bear, Mrs. Georgiana Mary
Beatty, Francis Montagu Algernon
Beck, Miss Emma Josephine
Bell, Lt.-Col. Charles Thornhill
Benson, Doctor (Miss) A. M.
Benson, Lady
Bentley, Dr. Charles Albert
Bertram, Rev. Father F.
Bestall, A. H.
Bhandari, Rai Bahadur Gopal Das
Bikanir, Maharaja of
Bingley, Major-General Alfred
Blowers, A. R.
Blwalker, Sardar Parashram Krishnarao
Bhola Nath Barooah
Bonig, Max Carl Christian
Booth-Tucker, Frederick St. George de Lautour
Bosanquet, Oswald Vivian
Bott, Captain R. H.
Brahmachari, Rao Bahadur U. N.
Bramley, Percy Brooke
Bray, Denys DeSaumarez
Broadway, Alexander
Brown, Rev. A. R.
Brown, Dr. Miss E.
Brown, Rev. W. E. W.
Brunton, James Forest
Buchanan, Rev. John
Buckley, Miss M. E.
Bull, Henry Martin
Burn, Richard
Burnett, General Sir Charles John
Caleb, Dr. O. C.
Calnan, Denis
Campbell, Colonel Sir Robert Nell
Campbell, Dr. Miss S.
Campion, John Montrieux
Carleton, Marcus Bradford
Carlyle, Lady
Carmichael, Lady
Carter, Edward Clark
Castor, Lieut.-Col. R. H.
Chand, Sakhi, Rai Bahadur
Chandra, Rai Bahadur Hari Mohan
Chapman, R. A. B.
Chatterton, Alfred
Chatterton, Mrs. L.
Chaudhuri, Raja Sarat Chandra Rai
Chetty, Dewan Bahadur K. P. Puttanna
Chinal, Ardeshir Dinshaji
Chitnavis, Shankar Madho
Coldstream, William
Comley, Mrs. Alice
Cooverji, Khan Bahadur
Copeland, Theodore Benfey
Cornelia Sorabji, Miss (Bar to Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal)
Cousens, Henry
Cowasji Jehangir, Mrs.
Cox, Arthur Frederick
Crawford, Francis Colomb
Crothwaite, the Rev. C. A.
Crouch, H. N.
Currimbhoy, Mahomedbhoy
Dane, Lady
Darbhanga, Maharaja of
Darbyshire, Miss Ruth
Das, Ram Saran
Davies, Arthur
Davies, Rev. Can. A. W.
Davies, Mrs. Edwin
Davis, Miss Gertrude
Dawson, Brevet-Colonel Charles Hutton
Dayal Seth Jay
Deane, Lieutenant-Colonel Herbert Edward
Debi, Ravi Murari Kumari
deLotbiniere, Lieutenant-Colonel Alain C. Joly
Der Schueren, Father T. V.
Devdhar, G. K.
Dewas (Junior Branch), Maharaja of
Dhar, Her Highness the Rani Sahiba Luxmibai,
Pavar of
Dhingra, Dr. Behati Lal
Dobson, Mrs. Margaret
DuBern, Amedee George
DuBern, Jules Emile
Dyson, Colonel Thomas Edward
Earle, The Hon'ble Sir Archdale
Evans, The Rev.
Ewing, The Rev. Dr. J. C. R.
Fatima Siddika, Begum Saheba
Ferard, Mrs. Ida Margaret
Fosbrooke, Mrs. M. E. A.
Francis, Edward Belcham
Garu, Diwan Bahadur Agaram Subbarayalu
Reddiyar
Garu, Diwan Bahadur M. Ramachandra Rao
Pantulu
Ghosal, Mr. Jyotismanath
Glazebrook, N. S.
Glenn, Henry James Heamey
Gillmore, The Rev.
Gonzaga, Rev. Mother
Graham, The Rev. John Anderson
Graham, Mrs. Kate
Grattan, Colonel Henry William

Katsar-i-Hind Medal.

Guilford, The Rev. E. (with Gold Bar)
Gwallor, Maharaja of
Gwyther, Lieut.-Colonel Arthur
Hahn, The Rev. Ferdinand
Haig, Lieutenant-Colonel Patrick Balfour
Hall, Harold Fielding Patrick
Hamilton, Major Robert Edward Archibald
Hankin, E. H.
Hanson, The Rev. O.
Harper, Dr. E.
Hart, Dr. Louisa Helena
Harvest, Lieut.-Colonel Herbert de Vere
Hatch, Miss Sarah Isabel
Hawker, Miss A. M.
Hildesley, The Rev. Alfred Herbert
Higginbotham, S.
Hoeck, Rev. Father L. V.
Hodgson, Edward Marsden
Hogan, W. J. Alexander
Holderness, Sir Thomas William
Holland, R. T.
Home, Walter
Hopkins, Mrs. Jessie
Hormusji, Dr. S. C.
Howard, Mrs. Gabrielle Louise Caroline
Hoyland, John Somerwell.
Hume, The Rev. R. A.
Husband, Major James
Hutchinson, Sir Sydney Hutton Cooper
Hutchinson, Major William Gordon
Hutwa, The Maharani Jhan Manjari Kuari of
Hydari, Mrs. Amina
Irvine, Lieutenant-Colonel Thomas Walter
Ismail, Muhammad Yusuf
Ives, Harry William Maclean
Iyer, Diwan Bahadur, C. S.
Jackson, Rev. James Chadwick
James, Lieutenant-Colonel Charles Henry
Jankibai
Josephine, Sister
Kapur, Raja Ban Bihari
Kaye, G. R.
Kelly, The Rev. E. W.
Kerr, Mrs. Isabel
King, Mrs. D.
Klopsch, Dr. Louis
Knex, Lady (Bar to Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal)
Ko, Taw Sein
Kothari, Sir Jehangir Hormusji
Lala Mathra Das, Rai Bahadur
Lamb, The Hon'ble Sir Richard Amphlett
Lela Tara Chand
Lindsay, D'Arcy
Ling, Miss Catharine Frances
Lombere, Rev. Father E. F. A.
Lovett, The Hon'ble Mr. Harrington Verney
Luck, Wilfred Henry
Lukis, Lady
Lyall, Frank Frederick
Lyons, Surgeon-General Robert William Steele
MacKenzie, Rev. G. R.
MacLean, Rev. J. H.
Marie, The Rev. Mother
Macwatt, Lieutenant-Colonel Robert Charles
Madhav Rao, Vishwanath Patankar
Mahant of Emar Math, Puri
Malegaon, Raja of
Malvi Tribhuvandas Narottamdas
Maneckchand, Seth Motilal
Mann, Dr. Harold
Manners-Smith, The Hon'ble Mr. Francis
St. George
Mary of St. Pauls, Rev. Mother
Mathews, Rev. Father.
Mayes, Herbert Frederick
McCarrison, Major Robert
McCloghry, Colonel James
McNeel, The Rev. John
McDougall, Miss E.
Mehta, Dr. D. H.
Meiklejohn, Miss W. J.
Meaton, Rev. W.
Millard, Walter Samuel
Miller, The Rev. William
Minto, Mary Caroline
Monahan, Mrs. Ida
Monahan, Mrs. Olive
Moolgaokar, Dr. S. R.
Morrison, F. E.
Morgan, George
Muhammad Yahia, Khan Bahadur A. N.
Muir, Rev. E.
Muir Mackenzie, Lady Therese
Mulye, V. Krishnarao
Nagpur, The Rt. Rev. Bishop of
Nariman, Dr. Temulji Bhikaji
Narsinghar, Her Highness the Rani Shiv Kun-
war Sahiba of
Nayudu, Diwan Bahadur R. Venkataratnam
Nepalia, Rani of Tehri
Neve, Dr. Arthur
Neve, Dr. Earnest
Nichols, the Rev. Dr. Charles Alvord
Nicholson, Sir Frederick Augustus
Nisbet, John
Noble, The Rev.
Noyce, William Florey
O'Dyne, Gerald John Evangelist
Oh, Maung and Ba (alias) Ahmedullah
Oldham, Charles Evelyn Arbuthnot William
O'Donnell, Dr. Thomas Joseph
O'Meara, Major Eugene John
Panna, Maharani of
Parakh, Dr. N. N.
Paranjpye, Dr. Baghunath Purshottam
Parbati Devi, Maharani of Sonpur
Pears, S. D. A. D.
Pedley, Dr. Thomas Franklin
Pennell, Mrs. A. M.
Pestonji Dhunjishaw
Pettigara, Khan Bahadur Kavasji Jamshedji
Phelps, Edwin Ashby
Pickford, Alfred Donald
Pir Pura Nath Mahant
Pitcher, Colonel Duncan George
Pittendrigh, Rev. G.
Piamonden, Rev. Mother S. C.
Plant, Captain William Charles Trew Gray
Gambler
Platt, Dr. Kate
Pollen, Dr. J.
Poynder, Lieut.-Colonel John Leopold
Prasad, Lt.-Col. Kanta
Price, John Dodds
Ramanuja Achariyar, Diwan Bahadur
Ray, Rao Jogendra Narayan, Raja Bahadur.
Reading, Countess of
Reed, Miss M.
Reid, Frederick David
Reid, R. N.
Reynolds, Leonard William
Richmond, Mr. Thomas
Rivington, The Rev. Canon, C. S.
Roberts, Dr. N. G.

Robson, Dr. Robert George
 Rost, Lt.-Col. Ernest Reinhold
 Row, Dr. Raghavendra
 Roy, Babu Harendra Lal
 Sailana, Raja of
 Samthar, Maharaja of
 Sanderson, Lady
 Sarabhai Ambalal
 Sawday, Rev. G. W.
 Scheffeld, Miss M. T.
 Scott, Mary H. Harriot
 Scott, Rev. Dr. H. R.
 Scott, Rev. W.
 Scudder, Rev. Dr. Lewis Rousseau
 Scudder, Miss Ida
 Sell, The Rev. Canon Edward
 Semple, Lieut.-Colonel Sir David
 Seshagiri Rao Pantulu Garu
 Sharp, Henry
 Sharpe, Walter Samuel
 Sheard, E.
 Shepherd, Rev. James
 Sheppard, Mrs. Adeline B.
 Sheppard, William Didsbury
 Shillidy, The Rev. John
 Shore, Lieut.-Colonel Robert
 Shoubridge, Major Charles Alban Grevis
 Shrimathi Panapilla Kartiyan Pilla Bhagvathi
 Pilla Kachamma Vadasseri Ammaivedu
 Simon, The Rev. Mother
 Singh, Munshi Ajit
 Singh, Raja Bhagwan Baksh
 Singh, Rai Hira
 Singh, Raja Kamaleshwari Pershad
 Sinha, Purnendu Narayan
 Skinner, The Rev. Dr. William
 Skrofsrud, The Rev. Larsensen
 Smith, Lieut.-Colonel Henry
 Smith, S.
 Solomon, Captain W. E.
 Sorabji, Miss Cornelia
 Southon, Major Charles Edward
 Souza, Dr. A.
 Spence, Christina Philippa Agnes
 St. Leger, William Douglas
 St. Lucie, Reverend Mother
 Stanes, Robert
 Starr, Mrs. L. A. (with bar)
 Stokes, Dr. William
 Sukhdeo Prasad, Pandit
 Surat Kuar, Raul Sahiba
 Sutherland, Rev. W. S.
 Tabard, The Rev. Antoine Marie
 Talati, Edalji Dorabji
 Taylor, The Rev. George Pritchard
 Taylor, Dr. Herbert F. Lechmere
 Thakral, Lala Mul Chund
 Thomas, The Rev. Stephen Sylvester
 Thomas, The Rev.
 Thompson, Miss E.
 Thurston, Edgar
 Tilly, Harry Lindsay
 Tindall, Christian
 Todhunter, Lady Ellis
 Tucker, Major William Hancock
 Tydeman, E.
 Tyndale-Biscoe, The Rev. Cecil Earle
 Tyrrell, Major Jasper Robert Joly
 Vadakko Kurupam Parukutti Netyaramma
 Vandyke, Frederick Reginald
 Van Hoek, Rev. Father Louis, S.J.
 Vas, J.
 Vaughan, Lieut.-Colonel Joseph Charles Stoelke

Venugopala, Raja Bahadur
 Vernon, Mrs. Margaret
 Victoria, Sister Mary
 Wadhwan, The Rani Sahib Sita Bai of
 Wadia, Sir Hormasji Ardeshir
 Wagner, Rev. Paul
 Wake, Lieut.-Colonel Edward St. Aubyn
 (with Gold Bar)
 Wakefield, George Edward Campbell
 Walker, Lady Fanny
 Walter, Major Albert Elijah
 Wanless, Mr. W. J.
 Ward, Major Eliacott Leamon
 Waterhouse, Miss Agnes May
 Webb, Miss M. V.
 Westcott, The Rt. Rev. Dr. Foss.
 Wheeler, The Rev. Edward Montague
 Whitehead, Mrs. J.
 Wilkinson, Lieut.-Colonel Edmund
 Willington, The Lady
 Wilson-Johnston, Joseph
 Winter, Edgar Francis Latimer
 Wood, Arthur Robert
 Yain, Lee Ah
 Young, The Rev. John Cameron
 Youngusband, Arthur Delaval
 Youngusband, Lieut.-Col. Sir Francis Edward

Recipients of the 2nd Class.

Abul Fath Moulvi Saiyed
 Abdul Ghani
 Abdul Hussain, Mian Bhai
 Abdul Hussein
 Abdul Kadir
 Abdul Majid Khan
 Abdur Razzak Khan, Subadar
 Abinash Chandra Banerjee, Rai Bahadur
 Achariyar, Mrs. Sita Tiruvankata
 Achariyar, M. A. P. Tirunarayana
 Adelaide, Doctor Miss
 Advani, Mrs. Motiram
 Agha Mohamed Khalil-Bin-Mohamed Farim
 Ahmad, Capt. Dabiruddin
 Ahmad, Mr. Mukhtar
 Alfred, Miss A.
 Allen, Miss Fannie
 Allen, Miss Maud
 Allen, Mrs. M. O.
 Ali Shabash, Shaikh, Khan Saheb
 Allen, Rev. Frank Van
 Ammal Rishlyr Suorahmanya Ayyar Subbu,
 Lakshmi
 Amar Nath, Lala
 Amar Singh
 Anandnath Chatterji.
 Anastasie, Sister
 Anderson, Andrew
 Andrew, The Rev. Adam
 Anson, Major Allen Mellers
 Antia, Jamshedji Merwanji
 Ardeshir Navroji, Khan Bahadur
 Arnelda, Rev. Mother
 Asdulla, Miss Isabella
 Ashton, Dr. Robert John
 Askwith, Miss Anne Jane
 Atkinson, John William
 Atkinson, Lady Constance
 Augustin, The Rev. Father
 Aung, Mrs. Hla
 Aziz Hussain, Khan Sahib Mir
 Badri Parshad
 Baker, Honorary Major Thomas
 Ball, Miss Marguerite Dorothy

Banerji, Professor Jamini Nath
 Banks, Dr. Charles
 Bapat, Rissaladar Sadashiva Krishna
 Barbara, Mother
 Barclay, Mrs. Edith Martha
 Bardsley, Miss Jane Blissett
 Bari, Mrs. Ghulam
 Barnabas, Mr., Burma
 Barnett, Miss Maude
 Barstow, Mrs. Melaine
 Barton, Mrs. Sybil
 Baw, Maung Kan
 Bawden, Rev. S. D.
 Bayley, Lieut.-Colonel Edward Charles
 Beaton-Bell, Sir Nicholas Dodd
 Beadon, Dr. M. O'Brien
 Beg, Mirza Kalich Beg Faridun
 Benjamin, Mrs.
 Best, James Theodore
 Beville, Lieut.-Colonel Francis Granville
 Bhagwandas, Bai Zaoerbai
 Bhajan Lal
 Bhan, Lala Udhai
 Bhatia, Mr. Biharilal
 Bhilde, Raoji Janardhan
 Bhutt, Chhotelal Goverdhan
 Bihari Lal
 Birla, Rai Bahadur Baldeo Das
 Bisheshwar Nath, Lala
 Blissett, Miss Mary Ronald
 Biswas, Babu Ananda Mohan
 Biyale Ram, Lala
 Blackham, Lieut.-Colonel Robert James
 Blackwood, John Ross
 Blake, The Rev. William Henry
 Blenkinsop, Edward Robert Kaye
 Booth, Miss Mary Warburton
 Bolster, Miss Anna
 Borah, Balinarayan
 Bose, Miss Kiroth
 Bose, Miss Mona
 Botting, W. E.
 Bowen, Griffith
 Brahmanand, Pandit
 Brander, Mrs. Isabel
 Bray, Lady
 Bremner, Lt.-Col. Arthur Grant
 Brentnall, Miss Nina Tillotson
 Brock, Miss Lillian Winifred
 Brough, The Rev. Anthony Watson
 Browne, Charles Edward
 Brown, Dr. Edith
 Bucknall, Mrs. Mary
 Burt, Bryce Chudleigh
 Butt, Miss L.
 Cain, Mrs. Sarah
 Caleb, Mrs. M.
 Callaghan, H. W.
 Campbell, The Rev. Andrew
 Campbell, Miss Gertrude Jane.
 Campbell, Miss Kate
 Campbell, Miss Susan
 Campbell, Miss Mary Jane
 Campbell, The Rev. Thomas Vincent
 Carmichael, Miss Amy Wilson
 Carr, Miss Emma
 Carr, Thomas
 Cassels, Mrs. Laura Mary Elizabeth
 Catherine, Sister
 Catell, Major Gilbert Landale
 Cedilla, Sister Fannie
 Chalmers, T.
 Chamberlain, The Rev. William Isaac
 Chandler, The Rev. John Scudder
 Chetty, Mr. Carnapaty Vankata Krishnaswami
 Chetti, Mrs. C. K.
 Chirag Din, Seth
 Chitale, Ganesh Krishna
 Chogmal, Karnidhan
 Churchward, P. A.
 Chye, Leong
 Clackmore, Mr.
 Clancey, John Charles
 Clark, Herbert George
 Clerke, Honorary Major Louis Arthur Henry
 Clutterbuck, Peter Henry
 Coelho, V. A.
 Commissariat, Miss S. H.
 Coombs, George Oswald
 Coombes, Josiah Waters
 Cooper, Dosabhai Pestonji, Khan Bahadur
 Cooper, Miss W. G.
 Correa, Miss Marie
 Corthorn, Miss Alice
 Corti, The Rev. Father Fanshi, S.J.
 Cottle, Mrs. Adela
 Coutts, J. E.
 Cox, Mrs. E.
 Coxon, Stanley William
 Crow, Charles George
 Crozier, Dr. J.
 Cumming, James William Nicol
 Cummings, The Rev. John Ernest
 Cutting, Rev. William
 D'Albuquerque, Mr. C. F.
 DaCosta, Miss Zilla Edith
 Dadabhoy, Mrs. Jerbanoo
 Dalal, Dr. Katanji Dinshah
 Dalrymple-Hay, Charles Vernon
 Daniel, J.
 Daniels, Miss
 Dann, Rev. George James
 Das, Ram, Lala
 Das, Mathura, Lala
 Das, Niranjan
 Dass, Balbhadra
 Dass, Mallik Narain
 Datta, Dr. Dina Nath Pritha
 Davidson, Captain B. J.
 Davies, Miss Harriet
 Davis, Miss B. E.
 Davys, Mrs. M. L.
 Dawe, Miss Ellen
 Dawson, Alexander Thomas
 Dawson, Mrs. Charles Hutton
 Deane, George Archibald
 Deoji, Hazi Ahmed, Khan Sahib
 DeKantow, Mrs. Mary
 DeLa Croix, Sister
 Desmond
 Desvi, Bibi Kashmiri
 Dow, Mrs. A. B.
 DeWachter, Father Francis Xavier
 Dewes, Lieut.-Colonel Frederick Joseph
 Dexter, T.
 Dharm Chand, Lala
 Dilshad Begum
 Dip Singh, Thakur
 Dodson, Dr. E. I.
 Drummond, Rev. C. C.
 Drysdale, Mrs. Christiana Mary
 Dube, Bhagwati Charan
 Dundas, Charles Lawrence
 Dunlop, Alexander Johnstone
 Dunn, Miss L. R.

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The Indian Orders.

Durjan Singh, Thakur
Dutta, Mehta Harnam
Duval, Mrs. Ethel Aldersey
Dwane, Mrs. Mary
Eagles, Thomas Cazaly
Eaglesome, George
Edgell, Lieut.-Colonel Edward Arnold
Edward, R.
Elliot, Mrs. I. B.
Ellis-Thompson, Mrs.
Elwes, Mrs. A.
Emanuel, Mrs.
Evans, The Rev. John Ceredig
Evans, Miss Josephine Annie
Fane, Lady Kathleen Emily
Faridoonji, Mrs. Hilla
Farrer, Miss Ellen Margaret
Farzand Ahmad, Khan Bahadur, Kazi Saiyid
Fazal Elahi, Mrs. R. S.
Fernandez, A. P.
French, Lieut.-Colonel Thomas
Fisher, Dr. R. W.
Fisk, Miss N. B.
Fitzgerald, Mr. E. H.
Flashman, Thomas Charles
Fleming, James Francis
Fletcher, Miss
Flint, Dr. E.
Foglietti, Rev. J. P.
Forman, The Rev. Henry
Forrester, G.
Foster, Lieut. P.
Foulkes, R.
Fox, Alfred Charles
Frances, Sister Jane
Francis, W.
Fraser, Robert Thomson
Fyson, Hugh
Gaffar, Mrs. Shivagauri
Gafibal, Bai
Gandhy, Mr. Pestonji Jamsetji
Garthwaite, Liston
Gass, Rev. J.
Gaskell, W.
Gateley, Thomas Joseph
George, Miss Jessie Eleanor
Ghose, Babu J. N.
Ghose, Mahatap Chandra
Giffard, Mrs. Alice
Gilman, Edward P. Benben
Gilmore, R. J.
Godfrey, Thomas Leonard
Goldsmith, The Rev. Canon Malcolm George
Gorman, Mrs. Thomas
Goswami, Sri Sri Narayan, Dakshinpat Adhikar
Gowardhandas, Chattrabhuji
Govind Lal, Lal
Grant, Lieut.-Colonel John Wemyss
Grant, Mrs., nee Miss Lillian Blong
Grant, Miss Jean
Grant, The Rev. John
Grant, Dr. Lillian Wemyss
Grant, Miss Maria Alice
Gray, Mrs. Hester
Gray, Commissary William David
Greany, Peter Maw
Greenfield, Miss R.
Greenwood, D. S.
Greg, L. H.
Griessen, Albert Edward Pierre
Gulliford, The Rev. Henry
Gumbley, Mr. Douglas

Gune, Trimbak Raghunath
Gyl, Maung Pet
Hadow, Rev. Frank Burness
Halyati Malik
Hanrahan, W. G.
Harding, Miss C.
Harris, Miss A. M.
Harris, Dr. B.
Harris, Miss S.
Harrison, Henry
Harrison, Mrs. M. F.
Harrison, Robert Tullis
Hart, Miss Louisa
Harvey, Miss Rose
Harvey, Miss S. E.
Haworth, Major Lionel Berkeley Holt
Hayes, Miss Mary Lavinia
Hayes, Captain P.
Henderson, Miss Agnes
Hibbard, Miss J. F.
Hickman, Mrs. Agnes
Hicks, Rev. G. E.
Higgins, Andrew Frank
Hill, Elliott
Hill, Henry Francis
Hodgson, Florence Amy
Hoff, Sister, W. J. K.
Hoffman, The Rev. Father John, S. J.
Holbrooke, Major Bernard Frederick Rope
Holden, Major Hyla Napier
Holland, Dr. Henry Tristram
Homer, Charles John
Holmes, E. J. R.
Hoogewerf, Edmund
Hope, Dr. Charles Henry Standish
Hopkins, Mrs. E.
Houghton, Henry Edward
Hughes, Frank John
Hughes, Miss Lizabeth Bell
Hunter, Honorary Captain James
Hutchins, Miss Emily
Hutchinson, Dr. John
Ibrahim, Maulvi Muhammad
Ihsan Ali
Ingils, Mrs. Ellen
Ishwari Prasad
Ismailji Abdul Husain Saherwala, Khan Sahib
Jackson, Mrs. Emma
Jackson, Mrs. K.
Jaljee Bai (Mrs. Pettit)
Jainath, Atal Pandit
Jambusarwala, A. Hargovandas
Jamshed Ali Khan, Lieut. Kunwar
Jervie, Mrs. Edith
Jerwood, Miss H.
Jivanandan
Joglekar, Rao Bahadur Ganesh Venkatesh
John, Rev. Brother
Johnson, Augustus Frederick
Johnstone, Mrs. Rosalie
Jones, The Rev. John Peter
Jones, The Rev. Robert
Jones, The Rev. John Pengwern
Jones, Mrs. A. V.
Jones, Mrs. V. R. B.
Joshi, Mr. Keshavlal Durgashankar
Joshi, Narayan Malhar
Joshi, Trimbak Waman
Joss, Miss F.
Joti Prasad, Lal
Joti Ram
Joyce, Mrs. E. L.
Judd, C. R.

Jugaldas, M.
Jung, Sher, Khan Bahadur
Jwala Prasad, Mrs.
Jwala Singh, Sirdar
Kalubava, Azam Kesarkhan
Kanow, Yusuf
Kapadia, M. K.
Kapadia, Miss Motibai
Karanjia, Mr. B. N.
Karve, Dhondo Keshav
Keene, Miss H.
Kelavkar, Miss Krishnabai
Kelly, Claude Cyril
Kelly, Miss Eleanor Sarah
Kemp, V. N. The Rev.
Ker, Thomas
Kharshedji, Miss S. K.
Khujoorina, Nadirshah Nowrojee
Kidar Nath, Lal
King, Rev. Dr. R. A.
King, Robert Stewart
Kirkoskar, Lakshman Kashinath
Kirkoskar, L. K.
Kitchin, Mrs. M.
Knight, H. W.
Knollys, Major Robert Walter Edmond
Knox, Major Robert Welland
Kothewala, Mulla Yusuf Ali
Kreyer, Lieut.-Colonel Frederick August
Christian
Krishnan, Rao Bahadur Kottayil
Kugler, Miss Anna Sarah
Kumaran, P. L.
Kyaw, Maung Htin
Lajja Ram
Lal, Bihari
Lal, Pandit Nand
Lamb, Dr. J.
Lambourn, G. E.
Lang, John
Langhorne, Frederick James
Lankester, Dr. Arthur Colborne
Latham, Miss J. L.
Laughlin, Miss L. H. M.
Lawrence, Captain Henry Rundle
Lawrence Henry Staveley
Laxmidas Pitambardas
Lcar, A. M.
Leslie-Jones, Leicester Hudson
Little, Mr. M.
Lloyd, Miss Elizabeth
Lloyd, Mrs. E. M.
Locke, Robert Henry
Longhurst, Miss H. G.
Low, Charles Ernest
Luce, Miss L. E.
Luck, Miss Florence Ada
Lund, George
MacAllister, The Rev. G.
Mackay, Rev. J. S.
Mackenzie, Alexander McGregor
Mackenzie, Howard
Mackenzie, Miss Mina
Mackinnon, Miss Grace
Macleod, Lieut.-Colonel John Norman
Mac Kellar, Dr. Margaret
McIlwrick, L.
Macnaghten, Hon. Florence Mary
Macphail, Miss Alexandrina Matilda
Macphail, The Rev. James Merry
Macrae, The Rev. Alexander
Madan, Mr. Rustamji Hormasji
Maddox, Lieut.-Colonel Ralph Henry

Madeley, Mrs. E. M.
Mahadevi, Srimali
Mahommed Allanur Khan
Mahommed Salamtullah, Captain, I.M.S.
Maider, J. W.
Maitha Babu Bhuban Mohan
Mailik, Sashi Bhusan
Maracan, Ramall Kadir
Margaret, Mary, Sister
Marler, The Rev. Frederick Lionel
Marshall, W. J.
Mary of St. Vincent, Sister
Mary, Sister Eleanor
Masani, Rustam Pestonji
Mathias, P. F.
Maung Maung
McCarthy, Lady
McCowan, Oliver Hill
McDonald, Joseph James
McGregor, Duncan
McIlwrick, Leslie
McKenzie, Miss Alice Learmouth
Mead, Rev. Cecil Silas
Mederlet, Rev. Father E.
Mehta, Khan Sahib M. N.
Mehta, Vankunral Lalubhai
MIB, Miss C. B.
Miller, Capt. L. G.
Mirra, Miss Sundri Singh
Mitcheson, Miss
Mittra, Mrs. Dora
Mitter, Mrs.
Moens, Mrs. Agnese Swettenham
Mohammed Khan
Mokce, Rev. W. J.
Moitra, Akhoy Kumar
Monica, The Rev. Mother
Moore, Mother T.
Moore, Nursing Sister Dora Louisa Trusclove
Moore, Miss Eleanor Louisa
Morgan, Miss Elizabeth Ellen
Morris, Major Robert Lee
Mottill, Seth of Piparia
Mount, Captain Alan Henry
Moxon, Miss Lala
Mozumdar, Jadu Nath
Mudallal, Bangalore Perumal Annaswami
Mudali, Valappakkam Dalvasigomoni Than-
davarayan
Mugaseth, Dr. K. D.
Muhammad Uman Sahib.
Muhammad Yusuf, Shams-ul-Ulama; Khan
Bahadur
Mukharji, Babu Jogendra Nath
Mukerji, Babu A. K.
Muller, Miss Jenny
Munshi Abdul Haqq, Khan Bahadur
Munsiff, Dr. J. D.
Murphy, Edwin Joseph
Nag, Mrs. Sasi Mukhi
Naimullah, Mohamed
Noemi, Rev. Mother
Naoum Abbo
Napier, Alan Bertram
Narain, Har
Narayanjee Laljee
Narayan Singh, Rai Sahib
Narayanrao Yeshwant Mirikar
Nariman, Khan Bahadur Manekji Kharsedji
Narpat Singh, Babu
Nasrulla Khan, Mirza
Naylor, Miss N. F.
Nicholson, Rev.

Newton, Miss Jeanie
Norris, Miss Margaret
Oakley, Mrs. Winfred Nelly Vale
O'Maung Po
O'Brien, Lieut.-Colonel Edward
O'Connor, Brian Edward
O'Hara, Miss Margaret
Old, Frank Shepherd
Oldreive, Rev. F.
Orman, Honorary Captain Charles Henry
Orr, Adolphe Ernest
Orr, James Peter
Orr, Mrs. Amy
Outram, The Rev. A.
Owen, Major Robert James
Owen, C. B.
Owens, Miss Bertha
Pal, Babu Barada Sundar
Palin, Major Randle Harry
Pandit, Vasudeo Ramkrishna
Parbati Bai
Park, The Rev. George W.
Parker, Miss Ada Emma
Parker, Dr. (Miss) H. E.
Parker, Mrs. R. J.
Parsons, Ronald
Patch, Miss K.
Patel, Barjorji Dorabji
Patel, Jeona
Pathak, Ram Sahai
Paterson, Miss Rachel
Patrick, Sister
Pearce, W. R.
Pearson, E. A.
Penn, The Rev. W. O.
Perroy, Rev. Father
Pershad, Pundit Thakur
Peters, Lieut.-Colonel Charles Thomas
Petigara, R. J.
Pettigrew, The Rev. William
Phadke, V. K.
Phalibus, Miss Rose Margaret (bar)
Phelps, Mrs. Maude Marlon
Phillip, Mrs. A. J.
Pidikar, S. V.
Pierce, Miss Ada Louise
Piggott, Miss R.
Pillay, Chinnappa Singaravatu
Pim, Mrs. Rance
Pinney, Major John Charles Digby
Pinto, Miss Preciosa
Plowden, Lt.-Col. Trevor Chichele
Po Nya U.
Popen, Mrs. L. V.
Ponselt, Miss E.
Powell, John
Prabhu, Anant Rao Raghunath
Prance, Miss G.
Prasad, Capt. Tulsi of Nepal
Pribhas Shevakram
Price, The Rev. Eustace Dickinson
Prideaux, Frank Winckworth Austice
Provost, Father F.
Purshotamdas Thakurdas
Pyo, Maung Tet
Rai, Babu Ram Kinkar
Raikes, Mrs. Alice
Rait, Miss Helen Anna Macdonald
Rajadnya, R. N.
Raj Bahadur, Pandit
Rajendra Pal, Tika Rani

Ram, Mr. Bhagat
Ramchandra, Daji
Ramgopal, Mallani, Seth
Ram Singh, M.V.O.
Ranjit Singh
Rao, Narayan Cawasji
Rattan Chand
Rattansi Mulji
Raushan Lal
Ray, Babu Sarat Chandra
Ray, Harendra Nath
Reed, Lady
Richards, Mrs. H. F.
Richardson, Mrs. Catherine Stuart
Rita, Stiffani Edward
Rivenburg, The Revd. Dr.
Robarts, Captain Charles Stuart Hamilton
Roberts, Miss Adelaide Pollette
Roberts, The Rev.
Robilliard, H.
Robinson, James
Robinson, Lieut.-Colonel William Henry Banner
Robson, J.
Rocke, Captain Cyril E. A. Spencer
Roe, Colonel Cyril Harcourt
Roe, Mrs. Edith Mary
Rokade, Mrs. Janabai
Rose, Miss Maude
Rukhmabai, Dr.
Rulach, Rev. George Bernard
Rustomji Faridoonji
Rutherford, Miss Mary Elizabeth
Sadiq, Shams-ud-din
Sadler, A. W. Woodward
Sahai, Ram
Sahan Ram Kali
Sahay, Lala Deonath
Sailo, K.
Saint Monica, The Rev. Mother
Salkeld, Tom
Samarth, Wasudeo Mahadeo
Samuels, Joseph
San Bow U.
Sankara Kandar Kandaswami Kandar
Savidge, Rev. Frederick William
Saw Ba La
Sawhney, Lala-Isher Das
Schultze, The Rev. Frederick Volkmar Paul
Scotland, Lieut.-Colonel David Wilson
Scott, Dr. D. M.
Shah, Babu Lal Behari
Shah, Mohamed Kamal
Shah, Mohammad Nawaz
Shah Nawaz Ghulam Murtaza Bhatta, Khan Bahadur
Shah, Reverend Ahmad
Sham Nath Rai Bahadur
Shankar, Mr. C. P. V.
Shaw, Mrs. Hawthorne
Sheard, Mr. E.
Shircore, William
Shroff, Dr. E. D.
Shyam Rikh, Raja Francis Xavier
Shyam Sunder Lal
Simcox, Arthur Henry Adishbrook
Simkins, Charles Wykins
Simon, Elster M.
Simonsen, J. L.
Simpson, Miss J. P.
Sinclair, Reginald Leaby

Singh, Ajji Dhul
Singh, Makkhan
Singh, Rev. P. L.
Singh, Babu Ramdhari
Singh, Bhai Ganga
Singh, Rai Bahadur Sundar
Singh, Rukhmina
Singh, Bhai Lehua
Singh, Bhai Takht
Singh, Risaldar Major, Hanwant
Singh, Sardar Gurdit
Singh, Sitta Baksh
Singh, G. Sher
Singh, Sohan
Singhe, Miss L. N. V.
Sisingi, J.
Small, Miss J. M.
Smith, Miss Katherine Mabel
Smith, Miss Ellen
Smith, E. G.
Smith, The Rev. Frederick William Ambery
Smith, Rev. G. A.
Smith, Mrs. Henry
Smith, Miss Annie Caroline
Sommerville, The Rev. Dr. James
Spencer, Mrs. E. M.
Sri Ram Kunwar
Starte, Oliver Harold Baptist
Steel, Alexander
Steele, The Rev. John Ferguson
Stephens, John Hewitt
Stephens, Mrs. Grace
Stevens, Miss L. K.
Stevens, Mrs. (Ethel)
Stevenson, Surgeon-General Henry Wickham
Stewart, Miss E. F.
Stewart, Major Hugh
Stewart, Mrs. Lillian Dorothea
Stewart, Thomas
St. Joseph, J. D.
Stockings, The Rev. H. M.
Strip, Samuel Algernon
Strong, Mr. W. A.
Strutton, Rev. H. H.
Stuart, Dr. (Miss) Gertrude
Sultan Ahmed Khan
Sunder Lal
Sundrabai, Bai
Swain, Mrs. Walker
Swainson, Miss Florence
Swinhoe, R. C. J.
Swiss, Miss Emily Constance
Talcherkar, Mr. H. C. A.
Talyarkhan, Mrs. M.
Taleyarkhan, Mr. Manckshah Cawashe
Talib Mehdi Khan, Malik
Tambe, Dr. Gopal Rao Ramchandra
Tarafdar, Mr. S. K.
Tara Dutt Gairola
Tarapurwalla, Fardunji Kuvarji
Taylor, Rev. Alfred Prideaux
Taylor, Mrs. Florence Prideaux
Taylor, John Norman
Tha, Maung Po
Tha, Maung Shwe
Thein, Maung Po
Theobald, Miss
Thomas, Miss F. E.
Thomas, Mrs. Mabel Fox
Thomas, Samuel Gilbert
Thompson, R. C.
Thomssen, The Rev. G. Nicholas
Thorn, Miss Bertha
Thoy, Herbert Dominick
Timothy, Samuel
Todd, Capt.
Tomkins, Lionel Linton
Tudball, Miss Emma
Turner, Mrs. Vera
Udipi Rama Rao
Umar Khan, Malik Zorawar Khan
Vajifdar, Mrs. Hormusji Maneckji
Vale, Mrs. K.
Valentine, Capt. C. R.
Valpy, Miss K.
Vaughan-Stevens, Dudley Lewis
Vergese, Diwan Bahadur G. T.
Vijayaraghava Acharyar
Vines, Thomas Humphrey
Visvesvaraya, Mokshagundam
Wait, Robert William Hamilton
Wakefield, George Edward Campbell
Walayatullah, Khan Bahadur Hafiz Muhammad
Walewalker, P. Baburao
Waller, Frederick Chighton
Waniess, Dr. William James
Ward, Mr. W. A. P.
Wares, Donald Horne
Webb-Ware, Mrs. Dorothy
Weighell, Miss Anna Jane
Welsh, The Rev. T. W. Reese
Western, Miss Mary Priscilla
Weth, Mrs. Rosa
White, Miss J.
Wildman, Miss Elizabeth Annie
Wilkinson, Mrs. A.
Wilson, Miss Anna Margaret
Wilson, Mrs. E. R. E.
Wince, Miss Jane
Wiseman, Capt. Charles Sheriff
Woerner, Miss Lydia
Wood, The Rev. A.
Wright, Mrs. B.
Wylie, Miss Iris Eleanor
Wyness, Mrs. Ada
Yaw, Maung
Yerbury, Miss J.
Young, Dr. M. Y.
Zahur-ul-Husain Muhammad

THE VICTORIA CROSS.

The announcement, made at the Delhi Durbar in 1911, that in future Indians would be eligible for the Victoria Cross gave satisfaction which was increased during the War and afterwards by the award of that decoration to the following:—

Subadar (then Sepoy) Khudadad Khan, 129th Baluchis.—On 31st October 1914, at Hollebeke, Belgium, the British Officer in charge of the detachment having been wounded, and the other gun put out of action by a shell, Sepoy Khudadad, though himself wounded, remained working his gun until all the other five men of the gun detachment had been killed.

Naick Darwan Sing Negi, 1-39th Garhwal Rifles.—For great gallantry on the night of the 23rd-24th November 1914 near Testubert, France, when the Regiment was engaged in retaking and clearing the enemy out of our trenches, and, although wounded in two places in the head, and also in the arm, being one of the first to push round each successive traverse, in the face of severe fire from bombs and rifles at the closest range.

Subadar (then Jamadar) Mir Dast, 55th Coke's Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery and great ability at Ypres on 26th April 1915, when he led his platoon with great gallantry during the attack, and afterwards collected various parties of the Regiment (when no British Officers were left) and kept them under his command until the retirement was ordered. Jamadar Mir Dast subsequently on this day displayed remarkable courage in helping to carry eight British and Indian Officers into safety, whilst exposed to very heavy fire.

Rifleman Kulbir Thapa, 2-3rd Gurkha Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery during operations against the German trenches south of Manguisart. When himself wounded, on the 25th September 1915, he found a badly wounded soldier of the 2nd Leicestershire Regiment behind the first line German trench, and though urged by the British soldier to save himself, he remained with him all day and night. In the early morning of the 26th September, in misty weather, he brought him out through the German wire, and, leaving him in a place of comparative safety, returned and brought in two wounded Gurkhas one after the other. He then went back in broad daylight for the British soldier and brought him in also, carrying him most of the way and being at most points under the enemy's fire.

Havildar (then Lance-Naick) Lala, 41st Dogras.—Finding a British Officer of another regiment lying close to the enemy he dragged him into a temporary shelter which he himself had made, and in which he had already bandaged four wounded men. After bandaging his wounds he heard calls from the Adjutant of his own Regiment who was lying in the open severely wounded. The enemy were not more than one hundred yards distant, and it seemed certain death to go out in that direction, but Lance-Naick Lala insisted on going out to his Adjutant, and offered to crawl back with him on his back at once. When this was not permitted, he stripped off his own clothing to keep the wounded officer warmer and stayed with him till just before dark when

he returned to the shelter. After dark he carried the first wounded officer back to the main trenches, and then, returning with a stretcher carried back his Adjutant. He set a magnificent example of courage and devotion to his officers.

Sepoy Chatta Singh, 9th Bhopal Infantry.—For most conspicuous bravery and devotion to duty in leaving cover to assist his Commanding Officer who was lying wounded and helpless in the open. Sepoy Chatta Singh bound up the officer's wound and then dug cover for him with his entrenching tool, being exposed all the time to very heavy rifle fire. For five hours until nightfall he remained beside the wounded officer shielding him with his own body on the exposed side. He then, under cover of darkness, went back for assistance and brought the officer into safety.

Naick Shahamad Khan, 89th Punjabis.—For most conspicuous bravery. He was in charge of a machine-gun section in an exposed position in front of and covering a gap in our new line within 150 yards of the enemy's entrenched position. He beat off three counter-attacks, and worked his gun single-handed after all his men, except two belt-fillers, had become casualties. For three hours he held the gap under very heavy fire while it was being made secure. When his gun was knocked out by hostile fire he and his two belt-fillers held their ground with rifles till ordered to withdraw. With three men sent to assist him he then brought back his gun, ammunition, and one severely wounded man unable to walk. Finally, he himself returned and removed all remaining arms and equipment except two shovels. But for his great gallantry and determination our line must have been penetrated by the enemy.

Lance-Dafedar Govind Singh, 28th Cavalry.—For most conspicuous bravery and devotion to duty in three volunteerings to carry messages between the regiment and brigade headquarters, a distance of 14 miles over open ground which was under the observation and heavy fire of the enemy. He succeeded each time in delivering his message although on each occasion his horse was shot, and he was compelled to finish the journey on foot.

Rifleman Karan Bahadur Rana, 23rd Gurkha Rifles.—For conspicuous bravery and resource in action under adverse conditions, and utter contempt of danger during an attack. He with a few other men succeeded, under intense fire, in creeping forward with a Lewis gun in order to engage an enemy machine gun which had caused severe casualties to officers and other ranks who had attempted to put it out of action. No. 1 of the Lewis gun party opened fire and was shot immediately. Without a moment's hesitation Karan Bahadur pushed the dead man off the gun, and in spite of bombs thrown at him and heavy fire from both flanks, he opened fire and knocked out the enemy machine gun crew. Then switching his fire on the enemy bombers and riflemen in front of him, he silenced their fire. He kept his gun in action, and showed the greatest coolness in removing defects which had twice prevented the gun from firing. He did magnificent work during the remainder of the day and when a withdrawal was ordered

Passport Regulations.

assisted with covering fire until the enemy was close to him. He displayed throughout a very high standard of valour and devotion to duty.

Ressaldar Badlu Singh, 14th Lancers attached 29th Lancers.—For most conspicuous bravery and self-sacrifice on the morning of the 23rd September 1918, when his squadron charged a strong enemy position on the west bank of the River Jordan, between the river and Kh. es Samarivah Village. On nearing the position Ressaldar Badlu Singh realised that the squadron was suffering casualties from a small hill on the left front occupied by machine guns and 200 infantry. Without the slightest hesitation he collected six other ranks and with the greatest dash and an entire disregard of danger charged and captured the position, thereby saving very heavy casualties to the squadron. He was mortally wounded on the very top of the hill when capturing one of the machine guns single-handed, but all the machine guns and infantry had surrendered to him before he died. His valour and initiative were of the highest order.

Rifleman Gobard Singh Negi, 2nd Battalion, 39th Garhwal Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery on 10th March 1915 at Neuve Chapelle. During an attack on the German position he was one of a bayonet party with bombs who entered their main trench, and was the first man to go round each traverse, driving back the enemy until they were eventually forced to surrender. He was killed during this engagement.

Sepoy Ishaw Singh, 23th Punjabis.—For devotion and bravery "quite beyond all praise" in Waziristan on 10th April, 1921. He received a severe gunshot wound in the chest while serving a Lewis gun, and when all the havildars had been killed or disabled he struggled to his feet, called to his assistance two men, and charged and recovered the gun, restoring it to action. He refused medical attention, insisting first on pointing out where the other wounded were and on carrying water to them. While the medical man was attending to these wounded he shielded him with his body and he submitted to medical attention himself only after he was exhausted through three hours' continual effort and by loss of blood.

PASSPORT REGULATIONS.

A.—British Subjects.

1. British Indian passports are only issued to British subjects and to British-protected persons.

2. The Indian Passport Regulations do not require persons to obtain passports before embarking from any port in British India, but as practically every other country requires travellers to be in possession of passports for landing, travellers are therefore advised to have passports before embarkation. Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military or Air Forces or of the Royal Indian Marine Service travelling on duty and members of the families of any such person when travelling to the United Kingdom on Military entitled passages need not have passports.

3. Passports are not required for journeys by sea from Bombay to British ports in India or to Burma or Ceylon; nor are passports required by British Indian subjects travelling to the Federated Malay States or the Straits Settlements, unless they propose to continue their journey onward.

4. As a passport is valid for two years, there is no objection to anyone applying for a passport weeks or even months in advance of the date of sailing, and much inconvenience will be avoided by early application. A notice of at least four days should be given for the preparation of a new passport and at least two days for an endorsement, renewal or visa.

5. In order to obtain a passport an application form showing, among other things, the reasons for the proposed journey, must be filled up by the applicant and certified by a Political Officer, Magistrate, Justice of the Peace, Police Officer not below the rank of Superintendent, or Notary Public resident in India. Copies of this form can be obtained from any District Magistrate, from the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, by post from the Passport Office to the Government of Bombay, by personal application at the Passport Office, or from any of the leading Banking and Shipping Agents in Bombay. Two unmounted copies of the photograph of the applicant and a fee of Rs. 3 should be submitted with the application form. Fees are not accepted in stamps or by cheque.

6. The application form when filled up should either be posted with the photographs and fee to the Passport Office to the Government of Bombay, or should be presented in person at the Passport Office, Bombay.

7. The Passport Office in Bombay is situated in the Civil Secretariat. The office is open from 11 a.m. to 4 p.m. daily, except on Saturdays when it closes at 1 p.m. and on Sundays and public holidays when it is not open at all.

8. The Passport Officer cannot issue passports outside the working hours shown above, and the preparation of a passport takes time. Applicants, therefore, who postpone application to the last moment do so at their own risk.

Iraq.

9. Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military or Air Forces or of the Indian Forces in uniform, and *bona fide*, Muhammadan pilgrims travelling in organised parties and holding a pilgrim pass do not require passports for the journey to Iraq. All other travellers must be in possession of passports, which, except in the case of *bona fide* representatives of firms, will not be granted without the previous permission of the local authorities in Iraq. The Passport Officer will, on request, ask for this permission by post, or, if the applicant, is prepared to defray the cost of a telegram by cable. Applicants must state clearly the nature of their business and give one or more references in Iraq to enable the local authorities to make inquiries regarding the *bona fides* of their visit.

10. Restrictions also exist on travel to various parts of the British Empire and to certain foreign countries. Amongst these may be mentioned Australia, Canada, Egypt, Gibraltar, Mexico, Mohammedrah and Abadan, New Zealand, Palestine, Southern Rhodesia, Union of South Africa, South West Africa and the United States of America. The restrictions apply particularly to Indians. Detailed particulars with respect to each country will be supplied on application.

11. Passports for journeys to or through foreign countries require, after issue, the visa of the Consul concerned. Visas are, however, not necessary for Belgium, Denmark, France, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Norway, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland.

12. Passports are valid only for two years, but can be renewed for four further periods of two years each. Application for renewal must be made in the prescribed form, copies of which may be obtained from any of the officers mentioned in paragraph 5 above. The fee for renewal is Rs. 1-8-0.

13. A passport is valid only for the country or countries endorsed on it and fresh endorsements from a British Passport authority are not needed during the validity of the passport for subsequent journeys to these countries. Fresh endorsements may, however, be obtained on the passport for additional countries. Passports endorsed as valid for the British Empire are also available for travelling to territories under British protection or mandate, not however including Palestine and Iraq for which countries the passport must be specifically endorsed. No fee is payable for an endorsement.

14. A lady on marriage or re-marriage requires a fresh passport.

15. In the case of a joint passport issued in favour of a husband and wife, the latter cannot travel alone, on it, but should take out a fresh passport, surrendering the joint passport for cancellation of her name from it.

B.—Foreigners.

16. No foreigner can hold a British passport.

17. Foreigners proceeding direct to their own country or to, or through, any other foreign country or countries do not require a British visa on their passports. The nationals of the following countries do not require a British visa for travelling to the United Kingdom. (This concession also applies to certain nationals proceeding to certain British Dominions and Colonies and information on this point can be obtained from the Passport Officer).—Belgium, Denmark, France, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Norway, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland.

18. Foreigners who are subjects of the countries shown in the appendix below and who are travelling to a British territory for which a British visa is necessary should first obtain passports from their consular representatives and should then present them to the Passport Officer for visa, together with a written statement of the reasons for the journey. If the passport of a foreigner bears a British visa which terminates in India and the holder desires to undertake another journey to a territory under British jurisdiction, he should first obtain an endorsement from his consular representative and then present it to the Passport Officer for visa. There are three kinds of visas granted, viz., the Non-transit, Transit and Transshipment. Fees for these vary according to rates charged to British subjects by the foreign countries concerned.

19. Other foreigners should apply for Identity Certificates through the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, or, where such foreigners, reside in the mofussil, through the District Magistrate of the district in which they are residing. Two copies of the applicant's photograph should accompany the application. The fee for a Certificate of Identity is Re. 1-8-0.

20. The holder of a foreign passport who has obtained a visa granted by a British Passport Authority outside India for a destination which involves landing in, or passing through, India does not need a further visa from the authorities in India.

21. Copies of this notice can be had free of charge on application.

This School was established by Royal Charter in June 1916. The purposes of the School (as set out in the Charter) are to be a School of Oriental Studies in the University of London to give instruction in the languages of Eastern and African peoples, Ancient and Modern, and in the Literature, History, Religion, and Customs of those peoples, especially with a view to the needs of persons about to proceed to the East or to Africa for the pursuit of study and research, commerce or a profession, and to do all or any of such other things as the Governing Body of the School consider conducive or incidental thereto, having regard to the provision for those purposes which already exists elsewhere and in particular to the co-ordination of the work of the School with that of similar institutions both in this country and in its Eastern and African Dominions and with the work of the University of London and its other Schools.

The School possesses noble and adequate buildings, in Finsbury Circus, provided for them by Government under the London Institution (Transfer) Act of 1912. The sum of £25,000 required for the alteration and extension of the buildings of the London Institution for the purposes of the School was voted by Parliament. The School buildings are quiet, although

they are in the heart of the City. The School provides teaching in more than forty languages. In a considerable proportion of the spoken languages instruction is given by teachers belonging to the countries where the languages in question are spoken, as it is the aim of the School to provide as far as possible both European and Oriental Lecturers in the principal languages included in the curriculum.

Courses on the History, Religions, and Customs of Oriental and African countries form a special feature in the teaching of the School. Inter-collegiate arrangements have been made with University College for instruction in Phonetics, modern phonetic methods being used to facilitate the acquirement of correct pronunciation. Inter-collegiate arrangements will also be made with the London School of Economics for instruction in the Sociology and Anthropology of the less civilised races.

Courses are also provided in Indian Law and the History of India, and arrangements are made from time to time for special courses of lectures to be given by distinguished orientalists not of the staff of the School.

Patron, H. M. the King, *Chairman of the Governing Body*, Sir John Hewitt, G.C.S.I., K.E.E., C.I.E. *Director*, Professor Sir E. Denison Ross, C.I.E., Ph.D.

Teaching Staff.

Name.	Subjects.	Title.
1. Sir T. W. Arnold, C.I.E., Litt.D., M.A. ..	.. Arabic (Classical) ..	.. Professor.
2. T. Grahame Bailey, M.A., B.D., D. Litt.	.. Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi) ..	.. Reader.
3. L. D. Barnett, Litt.D., M.A. ..	.. Ancient Indian History and Sanskrit ..	.. Lecturer.
2. C. O. Blagden, M.A. ..	.. Malay ..	.. Reader.
G. H. Darab Khan ..	.. Persian ..	.. Lecturer.
3. Caroline A. F. Rhys Davids, D.Litt., M.A.	.. Pali ..	.. "
3. W. Doderet, M.A., I.C.S. (retired)	.. Gujarati ..	.. "
6. H. H. Dodwell, M.A. ..	.. History ..	.. Professor.
Sheikh K. Dojally ..	.. Arabic (Mesopotamian) ..	.. Lecturer.
8. A. S. Doniach, B.Litt. ..	.. Modern Hebrew ..	.. "
E. Dora Edwards ..	.. Chinese (Mandarin) ..	.. "
H. A. R. Gibb, M.A. ..	.. Arabic (Classical) ..	.. "
J. Withers Gill, O.B.E. ..	.. Hausa ..	.. "
3. A. L. Hough ..	.. Burmese ..	.. "
Commander N. E. Isenmonger, R.N. (retired)	.. Japanese ..	.. "
Sheikh H. Abdel Kader ..	.. Arabic (Egyptian) ..	.. "
S. G. Kanhere ..	.. Marathi ..	.. "
G. E. Leeson ..	.. Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi) ..	.. "
3. W. Sutton Page, B.A., B.D., O.B.E.	.. Bengali ..	.. Reader.
2. T. G. F. Palmer ..	.. Hindustani ..	.. Lecturer.
2. Vacant ..	.. Chinese ..	.. Reader.
3. Ali Riza Bey ..	.. Turkish ..	.. Lecturer.
4. Sir E. Denison Ross, C.I.E., Ph.D.	.. Persian ..	.. Professor.
3. A. Sabonadiere, I.C.S. (retired) ..	.. Indian Law ..	.. Lecturer.
3. A. Seif ..	.. Arabic (Syrian and Classical) ..	.. "
C. C. Shu ..	.. Chinese (Mandarin) ..	.. "
S. Topalian ..	.. Turkish ..	.. "
7. R. L. Turner, M.A., M.C. ..	.. Sanskrit ..	.. Professor.
5. Alice Werner ..	.. Swahili & other Bantu languages ..	.. "
2. M. de Z. Wickremasinghe, M.A. ..	.. Tamil and Telugu ..	.. Reader.
3. C. E. Wilson, B.A. ..	.. Persian ..	.. Lecturer.
S. Yoshitake ..	.. Japanese ..	.. "

- University Professor of Arabic and Appointed Teacher.
- University Reader and Appointed Teacher.
- Recognised Teacher in the University of London.
- University Professor of Persian and Appointed Teacher.
- University Professor of Siwahli and other Bantu languages.
- University Professor of the History and Culture of British Possessions in Asia, with special reference to India.
- University Professor of Sanskrit.
- Ahad Ha'am Lectureship in Modern Hebrew.

The Public Trustee.

The Public Trustee of England is a Government Office created by Statute (Public Trustee Act, 1906), whereby the State acts as an executor or as a trustee under Wills, and as a trustee under Settlements, whether these instruments are new or old, and in other offices of an analogous character.

The office has been a great success; in the seven years that it has been open the value of the trusts in course of administration have amounted, in round figures, to £50,000,000, while the estimated value of Wills lodged in the Department which have yet to mature is put at some £59,000,000, showing a total value of business of all kinds negotiated at £110,000,000.

Fees chargeable.—The office is now, entirely self-supporting and is no charge upon the tax-payer. A provision of the Statute declares that the Office is to make no profit but to charge only such fees as may provide the working expenses and constitute a reserve fund against the liabilities assumed by the State for breach of trust. In accordance with this mutual principle the fees have already been reduced from their original scale, and the cash surplus of fees over expenses, regarded as the nucleus of a reserve fund for all contingencies, is now £14,585.

The main fees are of two kinds—a fee on capital and a fee on income. The fees on capital are taken in two instalments—an instalment of half taken at the beginning, and another instalment of half taken at the end of a trust—each instalment being calculated at the following rates:—

On the first £1,000, fifteen shillings per cent.

On the excess of £1,000 to £20,000, five shillings per cent.

On the excess of £20,000 to £50,000, two shillings and sixpence per cent.

On the excess of £50,000, one shilling and three pence per cent. The fee on income is one per cent. if, as is usual, the income be paid direct from its source to the person entitled, on any income in excess of £2,000 a year the fee is only $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Where the income is paid through the Department then the fee is two per cent. up to £500 a year, and one per cent. on any excess of £500 a year, and $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on income in excess of £2,000 a year. The fee on investment is $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; the Public Trustee, out of this fee paying the brokerage. There is power to vary these fees to meet the peculiar circumstances of special cases; but owing to the low range of the fees, and their mutual character the power of reduction is but seldom exercised, except perhaps in the case of large trusts.

The Department has been organised upon lines followed by commercial organisations. Forms are avoided wherever possible, the methods of the Office prescribing prompt attention to all matters within the day.

The particulars of any trust in which it is desired that the Public Trustee should act may be brought to his notice by letter or by personal interview, and upon his assent being obtained, his appointment should be effected in the ordinary way as in the case of private trustees. In the case of a Will about to be made, his appointment can be secured by the simple provision "I appoint the Public Trustee of England as the executor and trustee of this my Will."

One of the forms of trusteeship which would appeal to English people residing in India is a scheme known as a "Declaration of Trust." An official pamphlet explains that the Public Trustee's services have been requested by people who, either because of professional or business pre-occupation, or from want of experience in dealing with money matters, or from the disadvantages which might attach to Governmental, professional or business disabilities abroad, are not well placed to select and supervise their investments. It would appear that the services of the Department in this matter were first requisitioned by officers taking up appointments in India; and, following out their request for individual assistance, this scheme of trust came to be devised, and has been found to commend itself to the circumstances of a very large circle of persons similarly disadvantaged. A Declaration of Trust is an inexpensive form of trusteeship by virtue of which the owner practically retains full control over his capital. The property is made over to the Public Trustee either in the form of money to be invested or specific securities transferred into his name; and thereupon the Public Trustee executes a short "declaration" setting out that he holds the money invested or the securities in trust for the transferor. The result of this is that income, as it accrues, is paid to the owner or to any beneficiary as he may direct. A wide field of investment is permissible, as the trust provides that the funds may be invested as the owner may from time to time direct. As the pamphlet sets out interest at the rate of at least 4 per cent. is to be looked for under the scheme from investments of a non-speculative character. It should be understood that this form of trusteeship is not analogous to a bank deposit, where the return of the capital at par, given the solvency of the bank, is expected. Investments are selected with the greatest care in consultation with the owner, but it must be understood that the Public Trustee does not accept responsibility for any fluctuation of any of the investments chosen. The fees payable for this scheme of trusteeship, so far as the capital fees are concerned, are half those payable in the case of an ordinary settlement. The other fees are the same as the ordinary fees.

The appointment of the Public Trustee secures certain definite advantages inasmuch as he is by Act of Parliament a Corporation Sole; and thus it is said the Public Trustee never dies, so that the expense of appointment of other Trustees is permanently avoided. His

integrity is guaranteed by the State, while the measure of his success would indicate that he is necessarily experienced and skilled in his duties.

Close personal attention is given by the Public Trustee and his senior officers to the details of every trust; and as regards the work of investment, a large organisation has been set up to give the best consideration not only to the selection of investments but to the duty of keeping them under frequent observation.

An Advisory Committee of men of recognised authority has, in the past year, been appointed by the Lord Chancellor to assist the Public Trustee by a quarterly review of the investments made. In the last Annual Report the Public Trustee speaks of having secured a return of £3-19-4 per cent. upon his trustee investments and a return of £4-10-1 per cent. upon his non-trustee investments.

The success of the Department would seem to show that there is a widespread public need in England for such an Office, and the energy and efficiency with which the Department has been constituted and conducted has been a great factor in commending it to the public. The State Guarantee is also doubtless a factor of great importance. A statutory rule pro-

vides that strict secrecy shall be observed in respect of all trusts administered in the Department.

The administration is subject to an audit by the Controller and Auditor-General (the Government Auditor), while the internal organisation has been built up upon the principle of a check and counter-check upon the administration.

An important section of the Statute gives the Public Trustee power to direct an audit and investigation of the condition and accounts of any trust.

Officials in India will doubtless tend to make an increasing use of the Department. As a Government Office, its stability will commend itself to them as a medium to safeguard their interests under Wills or Settlements which can be entirely relied upon, and free from the risks and expense attendant upon any other forms of trusteeship.

Further information upon details and copies of the official pamphlet, reports and rules, etc., can be obtained of the official agents to the Department, viz.:—Messrs. King, Hamilton & Co., Calcutta and in Bombay, Messrs. King, King & Co., whose head office is Messrs. Henry S. King & Co., 65, Cornhill, London, E. C.

THE ADMINISTRATOR-GENERAL.

In India the functions of a Public Trustee are divided in each Province between two officials, the Administrator-General and the Official Trustee.

The office of Administrator-General was first constituted by Indian Act VII of 1849. There were several later enactments on the subject, all of which have ceased to be in force. The present law is to be found in Indian Act III of 1913, which contains the following provisions:—There are three Administrators-General in each of the Presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay. Their combined jurisdiction covers the whole of British India. The Administrator-General is entitled to letters of administration, when granted by a High Court, unless they are granted to the next of kin. In the other Courts he is entitled to letters in preference to a creditor, a legatee other than a universal legatee, or a friend of the deceased.

If any person who is not an Indian Christian, a Hindu, Mohammedan, Persian, Buddhist dies leaving within any Presidency assets exceeding the value of Rs. 1,000 and if no person to whom any Court would have jurisdiction to commit administration of such assets has, within one month from his death, applied in such Presidency for probate or letters of administration, the Administrator-General is required to apply for letters of administration. In case of apprehended danger of misappropriation, deterioration, or waste of assets left by the deceased in the towns of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, the High Courts may direct the Administrator-General to apply for letters of administration. He can also be required to collect and hold assets until a right of succession or administration is determined. Probate and letters of administration granted to an Administrator-General

have effect throughout the Presidency but the High Court can direct that they have effect throughout one or more of the other Presidencies. A private executor or administrator may with the assent of the Administrator-General transfer the assets of the estate to the Administrator-General. There are provisions in the Act with regard to the revocation of grants and the distribution of assets. When the assets do not exceed Rs. 1,000 in value, the Administrator-General may, when no probate or letters of administration have been granted, give a certificate to a person, claiming otherwise than as a creditor to be interested in such assets, entitling him to receive the assets. There is also power in certain events to give such certificate to a creditor. There is a further power to send the residue of the assets to the country of domicile of the deceased. The Government of India is required by the Act to make good all sums for which the Administrator-General would be personally liable if he had been a private administrator, except where the Administrator-General and his officers have in no way contributed to the liability.

Fees both on capital and on income are payable out of the estates taken charge of by the Administrator-General. The fees on capital vary from 3 per cent. on the gross value in the case of small estates to 2 per cent. in the case of large estates. The fees on income vary in the case of moveable property from 2 per cent. to 3 per cent., and in the case of immovable property from 3 per cent. to 5 per cent. When the Court has directed the Administrator-General to collect and hold the assets a fee of 1 per cent. on the value of the assets taken possession of, collected, realised, or sold is payable. A small fee is also payable in cases where the

Administrator-General grants a certificate; the Administrator has power to reduce the fees to one-half.

Official Trustee.—The office of Official Trustee dates from the year 1843. By Indian Act XVII of that year the Supreme Court had power to appoint the Registrar or other officer of the Court to be a trustee, where there was no trustee willing to act. Act XVII of 1843 was repealed by Act II of 1913, which contains the present law on the subject. There are three Official Trustees. The Official Trustee of Bengal has powers in the greater part of India. The powers of the Official Trustee of Bombay extend to the Bombay Presidency and the Province of British Baluchistan; those of the Official Trustee of Madras extend to the Madras Presidency and the Province of Coorg. The Government can appoint Deputy Official Trustees.

An Official Trustee can (a) act as an ordinary trustee, (b) be appointed trustee by a Court of competent jurisdiction. He has, except as otherwise provided the same powers, duties,

and liabilities as ordinary trustees. He may decline any trust. He may not accept any trust under any composition or scheme of arrangement for the benefit of creditors, nor of any estate known or believed by him to be insolvent. He cannot accept a trust for a religious purpose, or for the management or carrying on of any business. He cannot administer the estate of a deceased person unless he be sole executor and sole trustee under the will. He cannot be appointed trustee along with any other person. With his consent he may be appointed trustee in the instrument making the trust, and he may accept a trust contained in a will. When property is subject to a trust, and there is no trustee within the jurisdiction willing or capable to act, the High Court may appoint the Official Trustee as trustee. He may also be appointed a trustee by the surviving or continuing trustees of a trust, and all persons beneficially interested therein.

As in the case of an Administrator-General, the Government of India is responsible for the acts or defaults of an Official Trustee. Fees are payable at rates fixed by the Government.

The Fisheries of India.

The fisheries of India, potentially rich, as yet yield a mere fraction of what they could were they exploited in a fashion comparable with those of Europe, North America or Japan. The fishing industry, particularly the marine section, has certainly expanded considerably within the last 50 years concurrently with improvement in the methods of transport and increase in demand for fish, cured as well as fresh, from the growing populations of the great cities within reach of the seaboard. The caste system, however, exerts a blighting influence on progress; fishing and the fish trade are universally relegated to low caste men who alike from their want of education, the isolation caused by their work and caste, and their extreme conservatism, are among the most ignorant, suspicious and prejudiced of the population, extremely averse from amending the methods of their forefathers and almost universally without the financial resources requisite to the adoption of new methods, even when convinced of their value. Higher caste capitalists have hitherto fought shy of association with the low caste fishermen, and, except in the case of joint stock companies to engage in large operations on new lines, these capitalists cannot be counted upon to assist in the development of Indian fisheries. As in Japan, it appears that the general conditions of the industry are such that the initiative must necessarily be taken by Government in the uplift and education of the fishing community and in the introduction and testing of new and improved apparatus and methods.

The first local Government to lead the way was that of Madras, which in 1905 initiated an investigation of the industry, both marine and fresh-water, appointing Sir F. A. Nicholson to supervise operations. Bengal followed suit in 1906, and from these beginnings have sprung the local Fisheries Departments of Madras, Bengal, and Behar and Orissa. Bombay, the remaining seaboard province, has comparatively small fresh-water interests compared with Madras and Bengal, and as it happens that her marine fisheries are favoured with good harbours and the most enterprising race of sea-fishermen in India, there was less urgent need for State help in the industry. Fisheries there were a subject of Government solicitude for five years after the war but they finally ceased to receive any attention after the abolition in 1924 of the short-lived Department of Industries to which this subject was allotted.

Madras.

The Madras coast line of 1,750 miles is margined by a shallow-water area within the 100 fathom line of 40,000 square miles; outside of a mere fringe inshore, this vast expanse of fishable water lies idle and unproductive. The surf-swept East coast is singularly deficient in harbours whereon fishing fleets can be based, and so from Ganjam to Negapatam, the un-sinkable catamaran, composed of logs tied side by side, is the only possible sea-going fishing craft. Its limitations circumscribe the fishing power of its owners and consequently these men are poor, and the produce of their best efforts

meagre compared with what it would be if better and larger boats were available and possible. The West coast is more favoured. From September till April, weather conditions are good enough to permit even dugout canoes to fish daily. The people of this coast are fond of fish and, as no difficulty is found in beaching canoes and boats throughout this season, the fishing population is a large one. The 1921 Census gave 66,684 adults as subsisting on fishing industries in Malabar and S. Kanara, a small number after all, considering the immense wealth of these seas. The chief fishes are sardines, mackerel, catfishes and jewfishes (*kora* or *goli*); the two first overshadow all others. So greatly in excess of food requirements are the catches of sardines that every year large quantities are turned into oil and manure. Fishing outside the 5-fathom line is little in evidence, save by Bombay boats (*Ratnagiri*) which are engaged in drift netting for bonito, seer and other medium-sized fishes. These strangers are enterprising fishers and bring large catches into Malpe and Mangalore and other convenient centres; the material is largely cured for export.

Fish-curing is practised extensively everywhere on the Madras coasts; its present success is due primarily to Dr. Francis Day who, after an investigation during 1869-71 of the fisheries of the whole of India, pressed for the grant to fishermen of duty-free salt for curing purposes within fenced enclosures. He advocated much else, but the time was not ripe and the salt concession was the sole tangible result of his long and honourable efforts. His salt suggestions were accepted by the Madras Government, and from 1882 a gradually increasing number of yards or bonded enclosures were opened at which salt is issued free of duty and often at rates below the local cost of the salt to Government. At present about 106 of such yards are scattered along the coast and over 55,000 tons of wet fish are annually cured therein.

The pearl and chank fisheries in Palk Bay and the Gulf of Mannar are Government monopolies. The former promise to yield a good fishery during 1926-27 when the young pearl oysters found extensively are expected to mature for fishing; the latter have been brought to a high state of efficiency and bring in substantial returns; the net profit for 1923-24 was Rs. 35,368. Chanks or conches (*Turbinella pium*) are handsome porcelain—white shells of great thickness and considerable size, much in demand in Bengal, particularly Dacca, where the industry centres, for manufacture into bangles.

The inland fisheries of Madras compare unfavourably with those of Bengal. Many of the rivers dry up in the hot season and few of the many thousands of irrigation tanks throughout the province hold water for more than 6 to 9 months. As a consequence inland fisheries are badly organized and few men devote themselves to fishing as their sole, or even main, occupation. The custom is to neglect or ignore the fishery value of these streams and tanks so long as they are full of water: only when the streams shrink to pools and the tanks to puddles do the owners or lessees of the fishing rights turn out to catch fish. The result is a dearth of fish throughout the greater part of the year,

a glut for a few days, and often much waste in consequence. The chief fresh-water fishes of economic importance are the murrel, notable for its virtue of living for considerable period out of water, various carps, and catfishes, the hilsa (in East Coast rivers only), and the catla. In the Nilgiris the Rainbow trout has been acclimatised and thrives well. The Government working in conjunction with the Nilgiri Game Association maintain a hatchery at Avalanche, where quantities of fry are hatched and reared for the replenishment of the streams of the plateau.

The Madras Department of Fisheries.—As Government attention has been given in Madras over a longer period to the improvement of fisheries, and a larger staff concentrated upon the problems involved than elsewhere, this Presidency has now the proud position of knowing that her fisheries and collateral industries are better organized and more progressive than those in other provinces. The credit for the wonderful success which has been achieved and the still greater promise of the future, is due in large measure to the wise and cautious plans of Sir F. Nicholson, who from 1905 to 1918 had the guidance of affairs entrusted to him. In 1905 he was appointed on special duty to investigate existing conditions and future potentialities; in 1907, a permanent status was given by the creation of a Fisheries Bureau, and this in turn has developed into a separate Department of Government, which till August 1923 was being administered by Mr. James Hornell, F.L.S., as Director, and is now controlled by his successor Dr. B. Sundara Raj, M.A., Ph.D. The higher staff consists of a Superintendent of Pearl and Chank Fisheries, two Assistant Directors, a Master Fisherman and a Cannery Superintendent. These are respectively in charge of (a) the departmental fisheries (pearling, chanks, beche-de-mer, etc.); (b) the co-operative and socio-economic side of the Department's operations; (c) inland pisciculture, and (d) the experimental and demonstrational fish cannery at Challyam in South Malabar. Other officers have charge respectively of sections dealing with education and industrial work, which include a Training Institute for village teachers, fish-curing yards, and oil and guano factories. All the public fish-curing yards till now under the control of the Salt and Alkali Department have passed into the charge of the Fisheries Department. Till recently as a trial measure, only a few yards were operated directly under the latter Department, with a view to the introduction of better methods, and improved hygiene. Other newly opened yards are also being administered on model lines by the Department. Its activities are so varied and far reaching that it is difficult even to enumerate them in the space available, much less to give details. So far its most notable industrial successes have been the reform of manufacturing processes in the fish-oil trade, the creation of a fish-guano industry, the establishment of a fish cannery and the development of canned goods other than sardines, which alone had been canned previously in Malabar, and the opening of an oyster farm conducted under hygienic conditions. (For details see the Bulletins of the Department issued from the Government Press,

Madras; seventeen volumes have been issued to date). All this work has been carried on under serious handicap for want of suitable accommodation for the research staff; prior to the war, proposals were elaborated for headquarters buildings in Madras comprising laboratories, experimental hatcheries, and a large public aquarium; postponed owing to war conditions but subsequently abandoned. In Madras the Department controls a small public aquarium, deservedly popular as the first and only one on the Asiatic mainland.

Fishing rights in the large irrigation tanks were transferred from Government to local authorities many years ago; these tanks are now being reacquired by Government in order that they may be restocked periodically by the Department; the results so far have shown a profit on the operations. To breed the necessary fry, three fish farms are in operation, and the construction of three more is in progress. In these the chief fish bred are the Gourami, obtained from Java, the Murrel and *Etroplus suratensis*, which has the excellent attribute of thriving and breeding as well in brackish as in fresh water; all three protect their eggs while developing a useful habit; both the *Gourami* and *Etroplus* are largely vegetarian in diet. A further activity is represented by the breeding of small fishes specially addicted to feed upon the aquatic larvae of mosquitoes. These are supplied in thousands to municipalities and other local authorities at a nominal price, for introduction into mosquito-haunted sheets of water; these anti-malarial operations have proved most successful in those places where the local authorities have given proper attention to the directions given. The educational work of the Department is becoming one of its most important branches whether it be specially training teachers for schools in fishing villages, in training men in the technology of curing, canning, and oil manufacture; in co-operative propaganda and in the supply of zoological specimens for the use of college classes and museums. The last named has filled a long-felt want and is contributing materially to the advancement of the study of zoology throughout India; there is now no need to obtain specimens from Europe.

The development of deep-sea fishing is engaging the attention of Government; splendid trawl grounds are indicated off Cape Comorin extending over an area of some 4,000 square miles; other promising areas are known elsewhere, but so far the limiting factors are the lack of cold storage accommodation at any port in the Presidency, and the want of a deep-water harbour in the south, where steam-trawlers can discharge direct into store. An experiment in deep sea fishing made recently with the help of a motor launch and Danish Seln net failed due to the unsuitability of the launch employed. The purchase of a regular Danish cutter for this purpose and a trawler for other works besides is under the consideration of Government.

Welfare Work.—A remarkable feature in the work of the Madras Fisheries Department is the energy which it devotes to the improvement of the condition of the fisherfolk. On Sir Frederick Nicholson's initiative the department has

always recognized the duty of spreading among them education and the habits of thrift, temperance and co-operation. The work has been specially successful on the west coast. The number of fishermen's co-operative societies last year had risen to 57. These societies it is reported worked satisfactorily, allowance being made for the inexperience and illiteracy of the members. But the formation and working of co-operative societies are not the only social activity among these fishermen. There is a vigorous temperance society at Mangalore. The Collector of South Kanara has granted sites for the construction of village halls for the fishermen in two villages and the fishermen have themselves collected Rs. 3,000 for the building. In another village, Kizhur, the fishermen have already completed a building in which they hold meetings while an elementary school carries on its work in the same building. In Madras itself at Nadukuppam a temperance organisation has got to work with the assistance of the Fisheries Department. To promote the education of fishermen a training institution was opened in the middle of 1918 at Calicut to train teachers to work in elementary schools for the fisherfolk. The pupil teachers under training are familiarized with the work carried on in the fishery stations at Tanur and Chaliyam. They are given practical instructions in fishing, a boat having been purchased for the purpose. By the end of June 1924 27 schools for the fisherfolk were being maintained by the department on the west coast with a total of 4,761 pupils. In some places the villagers themselves started the schools and then handed them over to the department. In other places schools were opened by the department at the request of the fishermen. Local men are appointed as honorary managers of schools.

Bengal & Bihar & Orissa.

The fishing value of this extensive deltaic region lies primarily in the enormous area occupied by inland waters—rivers, creeks, shoals, and swamps, to say nothing of paddy fields and tanks. These swarm with fish and, as the Hindu population are free to a large extent from the aversion to a fish-diet which is widely prevalent among the better castes in the south, the demand for fish is enormous. Rice and fish are indeed the principal mainstays of the population and not less than 80 per cent. of the people consume fish as a regular item of diet. It is calculated that 1.6 per cent. of the population is engaged in fishing and its connected trades, a percentage that rises to 2.6 in the Presidency, Raj Shahi, and Dacca Divisions. 644,000 persons in Bengal subsist by fishing with 324,000 maintained by the sale of fish, and this in spite of the fact that fishing is not considered an honourable profession. As a fresh-water fisherman the Bengali is most ingenious, his traps and other devices exceedingly clever and effective—in many cases too effective—so eager is he for immediate profit, however meagre this may be. The greatest inland fishery is that of the hilsa (*Clupea ilisha*) which annually migrates from the sea in innumerable multitudes to seek spawning grounds far up the branches of the Ganges and the other great

rivers. Other valued and abundant fishes are the rohu (*Labeo rohita*) and the katla (*Catla catla*); prawns abound everywhere. Of important fishes taken in the lower reaches of the rivers and in the great network of creeks spread throughout the Sunderbans, the bekti (*Late calcarifer*) and the mullets are the most esteemed; apart from these estuarine fish the most valuable sea-fishes are the mango-fishes (*Poly-nemus*), pomfrets and soles. The Sea-fisheries are as yet little exploited, the fishermen of Orissa, where alone coastal fishing is of any local importance, having no sea craft save catamarans of inferior design and construction.

Following the inquiry begun in 1906 by Sir K. G. Gupta, an investigation of the steam trawl potentialities of the head of the Bay of Bengal was undertaken, the trawler *Golden Crown* being employed for the purpose. The results showed that there are extensive areas suitable for trawling and capable of yielding large quantities of high class fish. Much attention was devoted during these trawl cruises to the acquisition of increased knowledge of the marine fauna, the results being published in the Records and Memoirs of the Indian Museum. For various reasons, the chief perhaps being the hostility of vested interests, the lack of cold storage facilities and the loss of time involved by the trawler having to bring her catches to Calcutta instead of sending them by a swift tender, the experiment was financially a failure and was dropped. With ever-increasing demand for fish in Calcutta and the concurrent rise in prices, the prospects of remunerative steam-trawling are now much more promising and there seems a prospect of one or more steam trawling companies being floated in the immediate future. The trade is a difficult one to organize and without a rare combination of technical fishery knowledge and far sighted and comprehensive organization the danger run by the investing public will be considerable. Originally one Fisheries Department served the needs of the two provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa. Separation was effected in after which fisheries in Bengal were administered by the Director of Agriculture. The Bengal Fishery Department was abolished under retrenchment in 1923. In Bihar and Orissa, Fisheries form a section of the Department of Industries.

Government has ordered that the Bengal Fisheries Department be reconstituted on an improved basis as soon as funds permit. A Bengal Fisheries Department has of necessity a more limited scope for its activities than in the case of Madras. Practically no coastal minor industries exist, neither do the natural conditions lead us to suppose that any can be created without extreme difficulty, and in the absence of a great trawl industry which alone might be able to call into existence factories devoted to the utilization of fish by-products. Apart from this, much can be done by its officers for the uplift of the general fishing population with a view to free them from the yanny of the mahajans (fish contractors and middlemen) and enable them to put more capital into their business and to conduct it co-operatively. This is necessarily extremely slow work, but the old Department made a begin-

ning and once a few societies can be made successful, the news of the benefits conferred on the members will constitute the best possible form of propaganda. The temporary abolition of the Bengal Fisheries Department was regretted by many and it is hoped that it will soon be revived. The fishery wealth of Bengal is enormous and nothing but good can come of intensive investigation and propaganda.

Fresh-water mussels are used extensively at Dacca in the manufacture of cheap pearl buttons. The Dacca bangle factories carry on an important local industry of very ancient standing; their material is almost entirely obtained from the South Indian and Ceylon chank fisheries already alluded to.

Bombay.

Whereas Bengal's fisheries are at present confined principally to inland waters, those of Bombay are concerned, save in Sind, almost entirely with the exploitation of the wealth of the sea. Bombay is favoured with a coast line abounding with excellent harbours for fishing craft, a fair-weather season lasting for some seven months, and a fishing population more alive to their opportunities and more daring than those of the sister Presidencies. Bombay sea-fisheries are of very great importance financially as well as economically and, though there is less necessity for a special department to develop marine industries, there is ample scope for most useful work in improving curing methods, in introducing canning, and in the development of minor marine industries particularly those connected with the utilization of bye products. With this end in view the Director of Industries administered the subject of 'Fisheries' from 1918 and had for a time two officers in the Department engaged upon fishery investigation and development. A steam trawler was bought for work in Bombay waters in 1920 and began work in May 1921 off Bombay. The experiment continued until March, 1922, and the trawler was subsequently sold to the Government of Burma. At the outset the results seemed promising, but the experiment as a whole showed that the cost of maintaining a trawler of the type used could not be met by sales of fish at current market rates. Cold storage has since been installed at the principal fish market in Bombay, but for a trawler special facilities are needed also for rapid coaling, supplying ice and stores, and for unloading catches. More than this a change is needed in the medieval conditions under which the local fish market is conducted and there is much to be done in popularising little known species of edible fish, such as karel, palu, tambusa, and particularly the ray or skate which formed on the average 25 per cent. of the total catch but which is so little esteemed locally that it sold on the average at the rate of 100 lbs. for a rupee.

Owing to retrenchment the appointments of Fisheries officers have been abolished and subsequently the whole Department of Industries was closed down.

The more important sea-fish are pomfrets, soles and sea-perches among which are included the valuable Jew-fishes (*Sciæna* spp.) often attaining a very large size and notable as the

chief source of "fish-maws" or "sounds," largely exported from Bombay for eventual manufacture into isinglass. The finest of Bombay fishing boats hail from the coast between Bassin and Surat. These boats are beautifully constructed, attain a considerable size, and are capable of keeping the sea for weeks together. In the season they fish principally off the Kutch and Kathiawar coasts and in the mouth of the Gulf of Cambay. Their main method of fishing is by means of huge anchored stow nets, which are left down for several hours and hauled at the turn of the tide. The chief catches are bombil (Bombay ducks), pomfrets and jew-fishes. The first named are dried in the sun after being strung through the mouth upon lines stretched between upright posts. South of Bombay the fishermen of Ratnagiri and Rajpur make use of another and lighter class of fishing boat, specially designed for use in drift-net fishing. Fine hauls of bonito seer (a large form of mackerel) and allied fishes are often made during the season from September to January and later of shark and rayfish. For the latter specially large and powerful nets are employed. For part of the fair season, when fishing is not usually remunerative, many of the larger Bombay fishing boats are employed as small coasters, a fact which shows how large they run in size.

In Sind considerable sea-fishing is carried on in the neighbourhood of Karachi chiefly for large and coarse fish, as shark, rays and jew-fishes. The edible oyster trade of Karachi was once extensive, the creeks of the Indus producing a species of oyster superior to that found in Bombay and Madras backwaters and estuaries. Unrestricted exploitation of beds of limited extent inflicted great harm, and now, when various salutary restrictions are imposed, the beds are slow to respond. Occasionally large deposits of the window-pane oyster (*Placuna placenta*) are found in the Indus creeks and as these produce seed pearls in abundance, Government leased the beds to the highest bidder. The pearls are largely exported to China for use in medicine. Considerable fisheries exist in the River Indus, chiefly for the fish known as palla, which are annually leased out by Government for about Rs. 20,000.

In the Gulf of Kutch two pearl fisheries exist, one for the true pearl oyster, the other for the window-pane oyster. The former is carried on by His Highness the Maharaja of Jamnagar, the other partly by this Prince and partly by the administration of His Highness the Maharaja Gaekwar of Baroda. The latter industry owes its local existence to the enterprise of the Baroda Government which in 1905 obtained the services on deputation of Mr. J. Hornell, formerly Director of Fisheries in Madras, for the purpose of examining the Marine potentialities of the Baroda territory in Kathiawar. One of the consequences was the discovery of large deposits of pearl-bearing window-pane oysters, until then unknown; of late years these beds have produced annually from Rs. 15,000 to Rs. 25,000 in revenue, perhaps the best example we have in India of the profitable nature of well-directed scientific enquiry into fishery problems. The Baroda Government, continuing their enlightened interest in the fishery developments,

have had two officers trained in the Madras Fisheries Department and now employ them in development work on the Baroda coast.

Experiments in canning are now in progress at one of the chief fishing centres on the Southern Kathiawar coast and already promise considerable success particularly with regard to pomfrets.

Burma.

The exclusive right of fishing throughout the province of Burma belongs by custom of the country to Government, and the Burma Fisheries Act provides for the protection of this right and for conceding the enjoyment of it to the people subject to certain restrictions for the conservation of the fish. The work of the fisherfolk, involving as it does the taking of life, is generally viewed with disfavour by the Burman Buddhists. In certain tracts this attitude is intensified where the proportion of the fisherfolk is not only small but their economic conditions are more or less demoralised. Though fishing is generally denounced by Burman Buddhists, yet they consume the fish. The usual argument of the consumers is that they have not taken the life of the fish and therefore have committed no sin. Where fishing is the principal means of livelihood of the majority as in the Delta Districts, religious scruples tend to disappear.

REVENUE.—The economic value of any industry or tract of country can, to some extent, be gauged by the revenue it yields. The fisheries yield a substantial revenue (about one-eighth of the total land revenue), and therefore they are one of the most important sources of national wealth. There are two methods of catching fish, namely by nets in the rivers and seas and by traps in leased fisheries. The fishery revenue demand from net licensees amounts to over three lakhs while that from the leased fisheries amounts to more than 40 lakhs. Of the net licensees the greatest revenue comes from Mergui District where not only is the Pearl-ling industry carried on, but leases for collecting green snails and sea slugs are issued. Open lakes, pools of water and small rivers are classed as leased fisheries and are leased by Government to the highest and best bidders at public auction. Here the Irrawaddy Division equals in importance the rest of the province, and of the five districts in the Irrawaddy Division, Maubin District alone yields as much as half of the whole division. Maubin District therefore stands easily first in respect of fishery revenue, and out of the total collected in any year from the whole province, this district alone contributes at least a quarter.

The Delta consists of a series of saucer-shaped islands, many of which have embankments round the greater part of them along the north, east and west; in the hollows of these islands most of the fish come into spawn, and with the floods which overflow the embankment during October the young fry come down-country from Upper Burma.

The principal kinds of fish caught in nets on the sea-coast are (1) Kakkuyan, (2) Katha-baung, and (3) Kathahmyin. These are generally made into salt fish which fetch Rs. 2 to Rs. 3

per viss. The creek and fresh water fish from fisheries are generally ngakhu, ngayan and ngayri. Most of them are sold fresh, but some are converted into salt fish. The fish caught in the rivers are generally ngathalaik, ngayyin, and ngamyayin, the predeceous fish.

Fees for net licenses are charged according to the size of the nets. Fisheries which consist of lakes, pools, and streams are put up to auction, but as no Burman fisherman has ever been known to keep a proper system of accounts, he seldom or never can gauge the real worth of the fisheries; this coupled with his impulsive nature frequently results in his bids at auction exceeding the value of the fisheries; several fishermen have thus not only brought ruin on themselves but also on their sureties who have not infrequently been sold up. Until these fisheries are brought under some settlement system for revenue assessment, bona fide fishermen must suffer from time to time. Moreover, the local authorities demand more than adequate securities and the furnishing as well as the verifying of these securities invariably mean much unnecessary expenditure of time and money both to the fisherfolk and to the Government staff. With a view to ameliorate uneconomic conditions by rendering the provisions of security easier, as well as to facilitate collection, Government recently introduced what is known as the group system whereby the value of the fisheries is fixed at a reasonable rental, and, instead of an individual system of furnishing security, the groups hold themselves severally responsible. In order to enable the poorest of the actual workers to reap the benefit of their labours, nothing short of a co-operative system would be of any avail; this co-operative system has been tried in Tharrawaddy District with some success, by this system every fisherman employed in a fishery becomes a partner in the business and no non-fisherman can ever sweat the bona fide fisherman, poor though he be. The group system, though an improvement on the individual system of bidding and furnishing securities does not do away with the sweating system. With the gradual introduction of the co-operative system, which is an urgent necessity in the Delta District, the poorest fisherman of every fishing village and hamlet, after gradual and systematic training will, in course of time, be able not only to reap the full benefit of their labours, but also by mutual control and aid to develop into a more useful and contented peasantry. Fishery leases for three to five years are now being granted instead of leases for only one year and fishermen obtaining the long-term leases have begun to realise the need of improving the fisheries by clearing the

streams and pools of that Burma pest—the water hyacinth—and other weeds.

The principal articles of manufacture are ngapi (fish-paste) and salt-fish; the manufacturing methods are primitive and with more industrial education and capital, these could be considerably improved.

The Punjab.

A Punjab Fisheries Department came into being as an experimental measure in 1912 and received the official sanction of Government as a regular department of the Punjab in April 1916. It operates under a Warden of Fisheries, under control of the Financial Commissioner. During the first three years the Department was almost entirely concerned with preliminary work, consisting largely of investigations and experiments in the Beas and Ravi Rivers.

These rivers were examined with a view to ascertain the indigenous species which inhabited them, their habits, spawning grounds and other data which would enable Government to frame regulations for their protection. The various fishing communities were interviewed and their views and statements carefully considered as to their rights in Government waters. Rules based upon the evidence when collated were subsequently drafted and approved by Government for the regulation of fishing in various districts, and are said to be working smoothly and satisfactorily. Those for each district take account of special local conditions, with a view both to conserve the fish supply and to secure a reasonable revenue to Government.

Trout culture flourishes in the hill streams, good sport being enjoyed by anglers in the Kulu Valley where operations were first initiated. The Kangra streams are now receiving attention, various consignments of ova having been sent there, successfully hatched out, and turned into suitable waters.

Travancore.

This State has affiliated Fisheries to the Department of Agriculture and with the help of two officers trained in Madras, the Department has already accomplished a notable amount of development work. Special attention has been given to the regulation of fisheries in backwaters to the establishment of co-operative societies among the fishing community and to the introduction of improved methods of sardine oil and guano production. Useful work has been done by one of the officers in elucidating the life-histories of the more valuable food fishes and prawns.

The Forests.

Even in the earliest days of the British occupation the destruction of the forests in many parts of India indicated the necessity for a strong forest policy, but whether or not our earlier administrators realized the importance of the forests to the physical and economic welfare of the country, the fact remains that little or nothing was done. The year 1855 marked the commencement of a new era in the history of forestry in India, for it was then that Lord Dalhousie laid down a definite and far-sighted forest policy. Further progress was delayed for a time by the Mutiny, but from 1860 onwards forest organization was rapidly extended to the other provinces. The earlier years of forest administration were beset with difficulties, which is not surprising considering that the Department was charged with the unpopular duty of protecting the heritage of Nature from the rapacity of mankind, a duty which naturally roused the antagonism of the agricultural population of India. Exploration, demarcation and settlement, followed by efforts to introduce protection and some form of regular management, were the first duties of the Forest Department. Work on these lines, which is not yet completed in the more backward parts of the country, has been pursued steadily from the commencement, and in consequence large tracts of forest have been saved from ruin and are gradually being brought under efficient management. Whatever may have been the opinions held in some quarters half a century ago as to the need for a policy such as that expressed in Lord Dalhousie's memorable enunciation of 1855, there is no longer any doubt that results have amply justified the steps taken, and that in her forests India now possesses a property of constantly increasing value, the future importance of which it is hardly possible to overestimate.

Types of Forest.—More than one-fifth of the total area of British India (including the Shan States) is under the control of the Forest Department. These areas are classified as reserved, protected or unclassified State forests. In the reserved forests rights of user in favour of individuals and the public are carefully recorded and limited at settlement while the boundaries are defined and demarcated; in the protected forests the record of rights is not so complete, the accrual of rights after settlement not being prohibited, and the boundaries are not always demarcated; while in the unclassified forests no systematic management is attempted, and as a rule the control amounts to nothing more than the collection of revenue until the areas are taken up for cultivation or are converted into reserved or protected forests. The total forest area of British India (including the Shan States) in 1920-21 was 223,704 square miles, or 20·3 of the total area. This was classed as follows: Reserved 100,922, Protected 72·58, Unclassed State 115,544.

Throughout this vast forest area, scattered over the length and breadth of India from the Himalayan snows to Cape Comorin and from

the arid juniper tracts of Baluchistan to the eastern limits of the Shan States, there is, as may be imagined, an infinite variety in the types of forest vegetation, depending on variations of climate and soil and on other local factors. Broadly speaking, the following main types of forest may be distinguished:—

(1) Arid-country forests, extending over Sind, a considerable portion of Rajputana, part of Baluchistan and the south of the Punjab, in dry tracts where the rainfall is less than 20 inches. The number of species is few, the most important tree being the babul or kikar (*Acacia arabica*), which however in the driest regions exists only by the aid of river inundations.

(2) Deciduous forests, in which most of the trees are leafless for a portion of the year. These forests, which extend over large areas in the sub-Himalayan tract, the Peninsula of India and Burma, are among the most important, comprising as they do the greater part of the teak and sal forests.

(3) Evergreen forests.—These occur in regions of very heavy rainfall, such as the west coast of the Peninsula, the eastern sub-Himalayan tract, and the moister parts of Burma and are characterized by the great variety and luxuriance of their vegetation.

(4) Hill forests.—In these the vegetation varies considerably according to elevation and rainfall. In the Eastern Himalaya, Assam and Burma, the hill forests are characterized by various oaks, magnolias and laurels, while in Assam and Burma the Khasia pine (*Pinus khasya*) grows gregariously at elevations of 3,000 to 7,000 feet. In the North-Western Himalaya the chief timber tree is the deodar (*Cedrus deodara*), which occurs most commonly at elevations of 6,000 to 8,000 feet, and in association with oaks or blue pine (*Pinus roxburghii*). Above its upper limit the deodar merges into very large areas of spruce and silver fir, while below it are found extensive forests of the long-needed pine (*Pinus longifolia*) which is tapped for resin.

(5) Littoral forests.—These occur on the sea coast and along tidal creeks. The most characteristic trees belong to the mangrove family (*Rhizophoraceae*). Behind the mangrove belt is an important type of forest occasionally inundated by high tides, in which the most valuable species is the "sundri" (*Heritiera fomes*).

Forest Policy.—The general policy of the Government of India in relation to forests was definitely laid down in 1904 by the classification of the areas under the control of the Department into four broad classes, namely:—

(a) Forests the preservation of which is essential on climatic or physical grounds. These are usually situated in hilly country, where the retention of forest growth is of vital importance on account of its influence on the storage of the rainfall and on the prevention of erosion and sudden floods.

(b) Forests which afford a supply of valuable timbers for commercial purposes, such, for example, as the teak forests of Burma, the sal forests of Northern, Central, and North-Eastern India, and the deodar and pine forests of the North-Western Himalaya.

(c) Minor forests, containing somewhat inferior kinds of timber, and managed for the production of wood, fodder, grazing and other produce for local consumption; these forests are of great importance in agricultural districts.

(d) Pasture lands.—These are not "forests" in the generally understood sense of the term, but grazing grounds managed by the Forest Department merely as a matter of convenience.

These four classes of forest are not always sharply divided from each other, and one and the same tract may to a certain extent be managed with more than one object.

Administration.—The forest business of the Government of India is carried out in the Department of Education, Health and Lands. The Inspector-General of Forests is the head of the Forest Department and is the technical adviser to the Government of India in forest matters.

Territorial charges.—The various provinces are divided into one or more Forest Circles; each in charge of a Conservator of Forests; provinces containing three or more circles also have a Chief Conservator who is the head of the Department for his province. Circles are divided into a number of Forest Divisions, in charge of members of the Imperial or Provincial Forest Service; these Divisions in most cases correspond to civil districts. Each Division contains a number of Ranges in charge of junior members of the Provincial Service or of Forest Rangers or Deputy Rangers; heavy Divisions are also sometimes divided into Subdivisions. The Ranges are further subdivided into a number of beats or protective charges held by Forest Guards or in some cases by Foresters.

Non-territorial charges.—Apart from territorial charges there are various important posts of a non-territorial nature connected with Forest Research and Education, the preparation of Forest Working Plans, and other special duties.

The Forest Service.—The Forest Service comprises three branches:—

(1) The Indian (Imperial) Service with a total personnel of 339 officers consisting of the Inspector-General of Forests, Chief Conservators, Conservators, Deputy and Assistant Conservators. Of these 296 have been recruited direct to the service and 43 promoted from the Provincial Forest Service. The officers of this service are recruited as probationers:—

(a) by direct appointment in the United Kingdom and India; and
(b) by promotion from the Provincial Forest Service in India.

Recruitment in the United Kingdom and in India of candidates nominated for direct appointment is carried out under regulations laid down by the Secretary of State for India and the Government of India, respectively. Candidates for direct appointment in the United Kingdom are required to have obtained a degree

with honours in some branch of Natural Science in a University of England, Wales or Ireland, or have passed the final B.Sc. examination in Pure Science in one of the Universities of Scotland. A degree in Applied Science is not considered as fulfilling these conditions. Candidates are required to produce evidence that they have a fair knowledge of either German or French. Weight is attached to the possession of a diploma or degree in Forestry.

Candidates for direct appointment in India are required to possess an Honours or a first class degree in Science or an M.Sc. degree of any class of a University incorporated by law in India.

Probationers are at present trained at a University possessing a forest school approved by the Secretary of State (Oxford, Cambridge and Edinburgh at present), this training being supplemented by a practical course, partly on the continent of Europe.

(2) **The Indian Forest Engineering Service.**—This service was created in 1919 and at present consists of 17 Forest Engineers.

(3) **The Provincial Service.**—Formerly it consisted of Extra Deputy and Extra Assistant Conservators of Forests. All Extra Deputy Conservators who were considered to be fully qualified to hold a major charge were transferred to the Imperial Forest Service in 1920. Except for five unpromoted officers the class of Extra Deputy Conservators has been abolished and the service now consists of Extra Assistant Conservators only. The fixation of the strength of the personnel of the service rests with the local Governments.

Officers of this service are eligible for promotion to 12½ per cent. of the posts in the Indian Forest Service, such promotion being made by local Governments. These officers are recruited and trained in India, their recruitment being a matter for the local Governments. A certain number of posts in this service are filled by the promotion of specially promising Rangers. A two years' course of training for the Provincial Service is conducted by the Government of India at the Forest Research Institute and College, Dehra Dun, and it is open to local Governments on payment of prescribed fees to depute candidates to undergo that course provided they are qualified for admission under the rules governing the course.

(4) **The Subordinate Service, consisting of Forest Rangers (about 840), Deputy Rangers (about 900), Foresters (about 2,000) and Forest Guards (about 11,500).** The Rangers are at present trained at three different centres—the Forest College at Dehra Dun (for provinces other than Burma, the Central Provinces and Madras), the Burma Forest School at Pymmana (for Burma), and the Madras Forest College at Coimbatore (for Madras and the Central Provinces). These three institutions were established in 1878, 1898 and 1912 respectively. The training of subordinates below the rank of Ranger is carried out in various local forest schools and training classes.

Research.—For the first fifty years of the existence of the Forest Department in India no attempt was made to organize the conduct of forest research, and thus to co-ordinate and elaborate the scientific knowledge so necessary

to successful economic working. A commencement in organized forest research was at last made in 1906 by the establishment, at the instance of Sir Sainthill Eardley-Wilmot, then Inspector-General of Forests, of a Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun. The Forest Research Institute, which is under the administrative control of the Inspector-General of Forests, is in the charge of a President. There are five main branches of research, namely Sylviculture, Forest Botany, Forest Economic Products, Entomology and Chemistry, each branch being in charge of a research officer. In addition specialists are appointed temporarily when necessary and are attached to the Institute to carry out investigations in subjects of particular economic importance. Thus a paper pulp expert has been employed for some time to investigate possible new sources of paper-making materials of which the forests of India contain abundant supplies. Besides this, there are the Seasoning, the Timber Testing, and the Wood Preservation experts engaged temporarily on short term contracts. Indian Assistants have been lately appointed

The average annual volume of timber and fuel and the value of minor produce removed from State forests during the year 1922-23, is given in the following statement;

Forest produce removed from State forests during the year 1922-23.

Agency of exploitation.	MAJOR PRODUCE (VOLUME).		MINOR PRODUCE (VALUE).			
	Timber.	Fuel.	Bamboos.	Grazing and fodder grass.	Other minor produce.	TOTAL.
	c. ft.	c. ft.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
By Government ..	14,974,963	19,778,091	95,105	17,570	19,99,668	21,12,340
By purchasers ..	86,531,547	140,514,223	15,19,146	34,64,968	29,57,079	79,41,193
By free grantees ..	2,116,348	10,524,440	38,488	4,47,417	2,47,056	7,32,931
By right-holders ..	4,017,237	71,849,120	1,18,401	34,91,203	1,79,594	37,89,198
TOTAL ..	107,640,095	242,665,879	17,71,140	74,21,164	53,83,397	1,45,75,701

Forest Industries.—The important role which the forests of a country play in its general commercial welfare and in providing employment for its population is not always fully recognized. Fifteen years ago it was estimated that in Germany work in the forests provided employment for 1,000,000 persons while 3,000,000 persons, earning £30,000,000 a year, were employed in working up the raw material yielded by the forests. If accurate estimates were available for India, they would no doubt show that apart from the jungle population which is directly dependent on the forests and the large numbers of wood-cutters, sawyers, carters, carriers, raftsmen and others working in and near them, employment on an excessive scale is provided to persons engaged in working up the raw products. Among these latter may be mentioned carpenters, wheelwrights, coopers, boat-builders, tanners, rope-makers, lac-manufacturers, basket-makers,

under them to receive the necessary technical training and experience in these subjects, with the object of eventually taking the place of experts if and when properly qualified.

Since 1906 research work has been prosecuted energetically so much so that in 1920 a new scheme was sanctioned for the expansion of the staff and site of the Institute. Since then new land has been acquired, on which new buildings are being built for accommodating the various expanded branches and the new machinery obtained from the United Kingdom. As a result of this and the employment of specialists in Seasoning, Timber Testing and Wood Preservation steady progress is being made in the investigations which will ultimately lead to the fuller and better utilization of the raw products produced by Indian forests.

Forest Products.—Forest produce is divided into two main heads:—(1) Major produce, that is timber and firewood, and (2) Minor produce, comprising all other products such as bamboos, leaves, fruits, fibres, grass, gums, resins, barks, animal and mineral products, etc.

and many other classes of skilled labourers. The Indian census of 1911 gave 1,191,367 people and their dependents so employed in British India, and a further 394,097 in Native States, but these are probably below the actuals, as much forest labour is not whole-time labour, devoting seven or eight months in the year to forest work and the rest to agriculture. With the opening up of the forests, the extension of systematic working, the wider use of known products, and the possible discovery of new products, a steady and extensive development of industries dependent on the forests of India may be confidently anticipated in the future.

Financial Results.—The steady growth of forest revenue, expenditure and surplus during the past 50 years is shown in the following statement, which gives annual averages for quinquennial periods:—

Financial Results of Forest Administration in British India from 1864-65 to 1918-19 (in lakhs of rupees).

Quinquennial period.	Gross revenue (average per annum).		(Expenditure average per annum).		Surplus (average per annum).		Percentage of surplus to gross revenue.
	Lakhs.	Lakhs.	Lakhs.	Lakhs.	Lakhs.	Lakhs.	
1864-65 to 1868-69	27.4	23.8	13.6	36.4			
1869-70 to 1873-74	56.3	39.3	17.0	30.2			
1874-75 to 1878-79	66.6	45.8	20.8	31.2			
1879-80 to 1883-84	88.2	56.1	32.1	36.4			
1884-85 to 1888-89	116.7	74.3	42.4	36.2			
1889-90 to 1893-94	159.5	86.0	73.5	46.1			
1894-95 to 1898-99	177.2	98.0	79.2	42.7			
1899-1900 to 1903-04	196.6	112.7	83.9	42.7			
1904-05 to 1908-09	257.0	141.0	116.0	45.1			
1909-10 to 1913-14	296.0	163.7	132.3	44.7			
1914-15 to 1918-19	371.3	211.1	160.2	43.1			

The financial year 1922-23 showed a total revenue of Rs. 5,52,14,072, an expenditure of Rs. 3,95,72,601, and a surplus of Rs. 1,56,41,468. The proportion of surplus to gross revenue was about 28.

Prospects.—The past work of the Forest Department has already borne fruit, not only in a steady rise of revenue but also in the improved condition of the forests resulting from careful protection and tending. Much has been done in the way of opening up the forests to regular exploitation; but there is still room for enormous development in this respect, for there are extensive areas of valuable forest as yet almost untouched, and these represent a vast capital locked up and not only lying idle but even deteriorating. Perhaps the two most pressing needs at present are the introduction of improved sylvicultural systems and the extension of roads and other export works to facilitate and cheapen extraction. These two must proceed simultaneously, since they are inter-dependent, for it is obvious that timber and other produce can be extracted far more economically if it is available in large quantities within a limited radius than if it is scattered in small quantities over large tracts of country; indeed this question must often decide whether extraction is possible or not. Sylviculture teaches us how to effect this concentration and is therefore the bed-rock on which future results, financial and otherwise, must rest; it is of little avail to seek and develop new markets for timbers and other products if these cannot be produced in regular and sufficient quantities and extracted at a reasonable cost.

Forest Products: Exploitation.—The exploitation by the Forest Department, as a Commercial Department on business lines, of the great timber forests which are among the most valuable natural assets of the country, continues to attract the special attention of the various local Governments. In Madras, for instance, the working of the Forest panchayat system, whereby the increased knowledge of the difficulties of forest administration which the villager obtains when he has a voice in forest management is bringing home to him an understanding of the necessity for that administration. A further important step taken in regard to forest exploitation was the recruitment of a Chief Forest Engineer and a Logging Engineer from America. In Burma the work under way in the Government Timber Depot at Rangoon proves to be of great value to

Government from the point of view of revenue and of considerable importance to the public from the point of view of industrial development. Research work on the seasoning of timbers has been started and results which promise to be of great value have already been obtained. Experimental work on the manufacture of furniture and in other similar directions are expected to give a value to a number of different timbers which are at present more or less unknown. The Myitinka River Training Works started in 1905, and which have since then been continued for the sale of Government teak timber are of more than departmental interest. These works have also proved of great value to local people inasmuch as they have led to the reclamation of a very considerable amount of land which was previously too low lying and swampy to be fit for cultivation. In the United Provinces, the institution of the Government Sawmill and Turnery, the Government Central Wood Working Institute and the Resin Distillery have led to important results. These, and many other examples which could be quoted, go to show that local Governments are fully alive to the importance of exploiting their forest resources to the fullest possible extent for the benefit of the country.

Commercial Accounts.—The question of the institution of a commercial system of accounts for forest enterprises is engaging attention and the system has already been introduced in regard to certain forests in Madras. Proposals for its introduction in the Burma Forest Utilization Circle and in the Punjab Forest Department are in hand and its extension to the Andamans Forest Division is also likely to be made at an early date.

Agencies.—An agency has been established in India by the Government of India for the sale of Government timber and it is at present held by Messrs. Martin & Co., Calcutta. The Government of India have also appointed Messrs. W. W. Howard Bros., London, as their agents in England for the sale of Indian timbers. Local Governments, and the Andamans especially, make full use of these two agencies for the sale of their woods and the London agency has in addition been the direct means of bringing to the notice of outside countries the immense possibilities of India's wealth in this direction.

Bibliography.—A large number of bulletins and other publications has been issued by the Forest Research Institute, and of these a list can be obtained from the Superintendent, Government Printing, India, Calcutta.

AREA OF FOREST LANDS, OUTTURN OF PRODUCE, AND REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF FOREST DEPARTMENT.

AREA OF FOREST, JUNGLE, CULTIVATED OR RESERVES

Province.	Area of Province	Forest Area.			Proportion of Forests to whole Area of Province	Outturn of Produce.			Revenue.	Expenditure.	Surplus.
		Reserved Forests.	Protected Forests.	Unclassified State Forests, &c.†		Timber and Fuel.	Minor Produce.				
								Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Per cent.
Madras	142,257	18,563	..	441	19.30	23,800,000	18,95,706	48,69,171	51,15,356	2,46,185	
Bombay	123,225	12,094	..	538	12.632	54,744,000	16,79,772	74,93,563	50,23,446	21,69,617	
Bengal	78,668	4,892	1,702	4,030	10.624	21,221,000	4,88,059	18,98,959	12,88,132	6,10,837	
United Provinces	106,720	7,373	4	67	7.414	3,332,000	24,08,213	86,46,677	74,04,688	12,41,989	
Punjab	97,281	2,058	4,035	522	6.615	36,210,000	27,30,560	49,91,178	43,76,076	6,15,102	
Burma (including Shan States)	243,292	30,086	..	114,622	14.4708	119,251,000	13,85,072	2,21,16,797	90,83,094	1,90,33,693	
Bihar and Orissa..	82,987	1,751	1,271	10	3.032	20,229,000	2,55,189	9,00,378	9,94,465	-94,292	
Central Provinces & Berar	99,947	19,792	..	15,879	19.762	27,702,000	21,23,693	12,07,027	27,15,872	14,17,872	
Assam	49,247	5,384	..	..	21.463	15,670,000	7,03,864	12,07,027	9,91,511	3,06,516	
North-West Frontier Province	13,057	236	..	..	2.36	2,842,000	61,462	5,74,853	7,49,384	-1,74,531	
Baluchistan	54,228	313	..	472	7.85	27,174	50,951	17,229	53,275	-36,046	
Almer-Merwara	2,787	142	..	..	5.1	201,911	53,870	40,812	41,320	-608	
Coorg	1,532	520	..	2,122	5.20	400,989	19,779	7,33,731	6,30,645	-103,086	
Andamans and Nicobars..	3,143	85	..	..	2.207	1,496,000	2,770	5,50,098	12,87,027	-7,36,929	
Total 1921-22		1,093,341*	103,759	7,550	13.165	249,504	361,383,074	6,83,19,071†	4,08,51,878‡	1,74,64,193†	
1920-21		1,082,246*	103,191	7,516	13.946	250,473	298,653,099	6,86,00,927	3,64,19,907	1,77,23,688	
1919-20		1,080,814*	103,003	7,941	14.005	250,949	339,515,833	7,28,77,188	3,17,63,199	2,19,12,540	
1918-19		1,080,791*	101,839	8,557	14.272	251,468	343,850,918	7,42,04,584	2,88,75,505	1,79,42,726	
1917-18		1,080,650*	101,233	8,752	14.127	251,512	328,866,379	7,36,66,868	2,11,57,063	1,98,12,194	
1916-17		1,078,585*	100,308	9,140	13.713	246,579	306,869,208	7,24,56,596	1,87,43,863	1,83,18,047	
1915-16		1,079,481*	99,205	9,712	14.083	249,000	286,216,111	7,16,80,737	1,85,92,607	1,25,23,760	
1914-15		1,078,149	97,850	10,405	141,822	249,867	270,455,459	7,07,63,283	1,82,92,607	1,15,03,334	
1913-14		1,079,638	96,297	8,39	140,925	245,612	234,643,323	7,07,93,805	1,75,43,455	1,75,08,090	
1912-13		1,079,163	96,897	8,492	133,624	238,623	230,718,866	7,10,84,671	1,72,07,810	1,50,01,999	

* Excludes Delhi Province and the British Parganas of Manuvar (Central India).

† Unclassified state forests or "public lands," as they are often called, include in many provinces all unoccupied waste, often entirely devoid of trees. So the statistics do not necessarily represent the wooded area.

‡ Including receipts under the following heads of the sums stated against them—Imperial (Rs. 27,803), Imperial Forest College (Rs. 24,117),

§ Including expenditure under the following heads of the sums stated against them—Imperial (Rs. 2,57,011), Imperial Forest College (Rs. 7,32,424), Forest Survey (Rs. 1,07,113).

¶ Including deficits under the following heads of the sums stated against them—Imperial (Rs. 2,29,203), Imperial Forest College (Rs. 7,08,707), Forest Surveys (Rs. 1,07,113).

RUBBER CULTIVATION.

The most important rubber-yielding tree found growing naturally in the Forests of India is *Picus elastica*, a very large tree of the outer Himalayas from Nepal eastwards, in Assam, the Khasia Hills and Upper Burma. It has also been cultivated in Assam in the Charduar plantation in the Tezpur Sub-Division, as also in the Kulsi plantation of the Gauhati Sub-Division in the Kamrup Division. There are also a number of other rubber-yielding trees found in the Indian and Burman forests from which rubber can be collected on terms quoted by Government. Attempts have been made to cultivate Para, Ceara and Castilleja in various parts of India and Burma. In India proper the chief attempts were made on the west coast, about 180 acres being planted from 1908 onward at Gersoppa. Similar attempts have been made in Madras; but at present Para rubber is being grown as a commercial product rather in Burma than the rest of India.

The production of rubber in India is confined to Assam, Burma, and the Madras Presidency.

The number of rubber plantations in 1923 mainly in Southern India and Burma, was 972 covering an area of 198,758 acres, as against 1,080, with an area of 191,267 acres, in 1922. New lands planted with rubber in the estates during 1923 amounted to 4,244 acres, and the area of

old cultivation abandoned to 1,424 acres, showing a net increase of 2,820 acres; and raising the total under rubber to 128,787 acres. Of this area only 74,371 acres were tapped. Of the total area under cultivation 49 per cent. was in Burma, 32 per cent. in Travancore, 9 per cent. in Madras, and 7 per cent. in Cochin.

The total production during 1923 is reported as 14,469,423 lb. as against 11,912,950 lb. in 1922. The yield per acre of tapped area was 222 lb. as against 209 lb. in 1922 in Cochin; 202, as against 208 lb. in Travancore; 193, as against 194 lb. in Burma; and 162, as against 160 lb. in Madras.

There was a general increase in the total production, especially in Travancore, Burma, and Madras. The total stock of dry rubber held on Dec. 31, 1923, was estimated at 4,691,186 lb. as compared with 3,688,533 lb. at the end of 1922. The exports of rubber by sea from British India to foreign countries during 1923-24 amounted to 15,000,000 lb. showing an increase of 23 per cent. as compared with the preceding year.

Bibliography.—For fuller details see "Dictionary of the Economic Products of India" and the abridged edition of the same published in 1908 under the title "The Commercial products of India" by Sir George Watts; and the "Commercial Guide to the Forest Economic Products of India" by R. S. Pearson, published by the Government Press, Calcutta, 1912.

MATCH FACTORIES.

Imports of matches before the war averaged (for the two years 1912-13, 1913-14) 14½ million gross. This figure has been falling during the past three years and in 1923-24 was about 11½ million gross, valued at Rs. 1,45,92,000.

Indian timbers for matches.—In an article on the Indian match industry which appeared in the *Indian Agriculturist* the woods of the following species are said to be employed in Burma for match splints: *Bombax insignis*, *B. malabaricum* (stimul), *Anthecephalus Cadamba* (kadam), *Sarcoccephalus cordatus*, *Spondias mangifera* (amra), and *Engelhardtia spicata* (palash). These woods are not the best for the

purpose, but are those most easily procurable. There are other kinds of white wood, such as poplar, pine, willow, and alder, in abundant quantities, but they are difficult to extract and transport and are therefore costly.

The attempts to manufacture matches in India have not hitherto been attended with great success, but recently two well-equipped factories have been started in Burma which give promise of good results. One of these is in Rangoon and is owned by Chinese; the other is at Mandalay, and is under European management. Still more recently a Swedish match company has started operations at Amernath, outside Bombay.

PAPER MAKING.

There are five large paper mills in the country working on up-to-date Western lines, viz., at Titagarh, Kankinara and Raniganj in Bengal, the Upper India Couper Mills at Lucknow and the Reay Mill at Poona. There are also two smaller mills at Bombay and Surat which make only country paper, and there are one or two other mills which recently were not working. The five large mills have a large Government connection, as the greater part of Government orders for paper is placed in India.

During the past year an interesting experimental paper-making plant has been installed at the Government of India Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun. Specially designed to incorporate a new system patented by Mr. Taitt, Cellulose Expert to the Government of India, the object of this plant is to test the various paper-making fibres which are available over vast forest and hill areas in India and Burma, and thus encourage the establishment of pulp and paper mills on a commercial scale.

After many delays the Carnatic Paper Mills Company commenced operations at Rajahmundry, on the Godavari river, during the year, and it is estimated that the daily output will be ten tons of pulp and five tons of paper made from bamboos and paddy straw. In Southern India the Sri Minakshi Paper Mills, established many years ago as a small concern in Travancore State, appears to have taken a new lease of life and has ordered a new plant capable of turning out fifteen tons of paper per day, whilst in Assam a new company has been formed and is said to be waiting for the arrival of its plant. At Chittagong a new plant for manufacturing paper pulp from bamboos has commenced operations whilst another company has obtained a comprehensive concession for Bhabbar grass in the Punjab and is erecting a factory near the headworks of the Western Jumna Canal, about 200 miles from Lahore.

The possibility of utilising the dense growths of bamboo in the hinterland of Cuttack has again been under consideration during the year, and the project has been investigated afresh by Mr. Raitt on behalf of the Government of Bihar and Orissa. Mr. Raitt estimates that in this area alone there is sufficient raw material for an output of 10,000 tons of paper pulp per annum.

Raw Materials.—The existence of the local industry depends chiefly on the supply of Sabal grass which on account of unfavourable seasons sometimes yields short crops. It is of great importance, therefore, to look for materials according to a constant outturn, and various reports have been published on the available paper-making materials. Considerable attention has been devoted to Bamboo, since 1875 when it was found that this plant—of which there are four chief varieties in India—yielded a fibrous paper stock which made a quality of paper superior to esparto grass and at a considerably less cost. It was at that time estimated that one acre of bamboo would yield 10 tons of dried stems equivalent to 6 tons of merchantable cellulose. In 1905 Mr. R. W. Sindall was invited by Government to visit Burma with a view of enquiring into the possibility of manufacturing paper pulp. His report on the subject appeared in March 1906. He made numerous experiments with bamboo and woods of Burma and laid down lines along which further enquiry should be made. Subsequently Mr. W. Raitt, a pulp expert, was engaged at the Forest Research Institute in conducting tests on the treatment of bamboos by the soda and sulphate processes, the treatment of bamboo before boiling, with remarks on the utilisation of nodes and internodes. His results were embodied

in the "Report on the Investigation of Bamboo or Production of Paper-pulp," published in 1911. Mr. R. S. Pearson of the Forest Service, Dehra Dun, as the outcome of enquiries made throughout India published in 1912 a note on the Utilization of Bamboo for the manufacture of Paper-pulp. The yield per acre from bamboo is larger than that of grasses usually used for paper. The cost of working into pulp has been estimated to yield a product cheaper than imported unbleached spruce sulphite and unbleached sabal grass pulp. In 1915 Mr. Dhruva Sumanas published a pamphlet, *Dendrocalamus Strictus Bamboo of the Dangs*, as the result of investigations carried on in Bansda State.

In a paper read before the Royal Society of Arts in 1921 Mr. Raitt gave an answer to the question: "What India can do to fill the gap in the world's shortage of paper?" He said that he thought it was "a modest estimate to say that from bamboo, taking only that which is available under 'possible' manufacturing conditions, Burma, Bengal and South West India could produce ten million tons of pulp per annum, and Assam from Savannah grasses three million. India could therefore produce pulp for the whole world."

The leading Indian paper grass for the last thirty years has been the bhabbar, bhabbar, or sabal grass of Northern India. It is a perennial grass plentiful in drier tracts from Chota Nagpur and Rajmahal to Nepal and Garhwal. The Calcutta mills draw their supplies from Sahibganj, Chota Nagpur and the Nepal Terai. The quantity annually exported from Sahibganj is between three to four lakhs of maunds. The cutting in these districts is said to commence in October when the plants are six or seven feet high. Sabal grass yields from 38.6 to 45.5 per cent. of bleached cellulose. A report by Mr. R. S. Pearson, Forest Economist, Dehra Dun, on the use of elephant grasses in Assam was issued in 1919. The most important species of grass found in the areas in which investigation has been made are Khagra (*Saccharum spontaneum*) and Batta (*Saccharum narenaga*), with patches of Nal (*Phragmites karka*) on the more swampy ground. Hand samples of the above grasses were sent to England to be tested on a laboratory scale, while several tons were sent to an Indian paper mill to be made into paper. The results were satisfactory and proved that a very fair quality of paper can be produced from these grasses at a relatively low price. Small samples of such paper can be obtained by persons interested in these grasses from the Forest Economist, Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun, who can also supply further details.

Who's Who in India.

ABBOTT, EVELYN ROBINS, C.I.E. (1921), I.C.S. Chief Commissioner, Delhi. *b.* 9 May 1873, *Educ.*: Bath Coll. and Balliol Coll. *m.* Lillian, *d.* of Sir W. O. Clark, Kt. (I.C.S. ret'd.). *Address:* Delhi.

ABDUL HAMID, KHAN BAHADUR DIWAN, Bar-at-Law. Received Delhi Coronation Durbar Medal (1911), O.B.E. (1918), C.I.E. (1923); Chief Minister (1920), Kapurthala State. *b.* 15 October 1881, *m.* a daughter of Khan Sahib Sheikh Amir-ud-Din, retired Extra Asstt. Commissioner in the Punjab. *Educ.*: Government College, Lahore. A.D.C. to H. H. and Revenue Registrar, 1902; State Magistrate, 1908; Judge, 1909; Supdt. of Census Operations, 1911; Secretary, Tika Sahib's marriage committee; head of the Executive and Revenue Depts. as Mashir Mal.; Fellow of the Punjab University and Member, Punjab Legislative Council; Chief Secretary, March 1915. *Address:* Kapurthala.

ABDUL KARIM, MAULAVI B.A., Government pensioner and Member, Council of State. *b.* 20 Aug. 1863, *m.* Ayesha Khatun of Calcutta. *Educ.*: Sylhet and Calcutta. Started as a teacher in the Calcutta Madrasah; Assistant Inspector of Schools for Mahomedan education for about 15 years; Inspector of Schools, Chittagong Division. *Publications:* History of India for Beginners in English, Bengali, Hindi and Urdu; Students' History of India; The Mahomedan Empire in India in Bengali; Hints on Class Management and Method of Teaching in English; and Mahomedan Education in Bengal (English). *Address:* Peace Cottage, Morhabadi, Ranchi.

ACHARIYAR, P., SIR RAJAGOPALA, K.C.S.I. (1920), C.I.E., President, Madras Legislative Council, 1921. *Educ.*: Madras University. Entered I.C.S., 1888. Diwan of Cochin, 1896-1902; Diwan of Travancore, 1907-14; Secretary to Government of Madras, 1914; Member of Madras Executive Council, 1917. *Address:* Madras.

ACHARYA, M. K., B.A., L.T., Public Worker. *b.* 1876. *m.* Rukmani Ammal in 1894. *Educ.*: at Madras Christian College. Teacher (Asstt.) 1896-1902; Head-master, 1902-1917; independent political worker since 1917. *Publications:* Portraits from Indian Classics; A Handbook of Morals; The Basic Blunder in the Reconstruction of Indian Chronology by Orientalists; Cultural Swaraj. *Address:* 34, Thambu Chetti Street, Madras.

ADAM, COLIN GURDON, B.A. (Cantab.), C.S.I. (1924), I.C.S. *b.* 1889. *m.* Hon. Irene Lawley, only child of 3rd Baron Wenlock. *Educ.*: Eton. Joined Indian Civil Service, 1912, served in Great War, 1915-18 (Palestine and Mesopotamia). *Address:* The Secretariat, Bombay.

ADVANI, MOTILAL SHOWKIRAM, Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1919); President Hyderabad Educational Society. *b.* 12 October 1868. *m.* Margaret Annesley, *d.* of the late Rev. Charles Voysey. *Educ.*: The Albert School and Presidency College, Calcutta. Barrister

(Inner Temple), 1892; Practised in Karachi, 1892-1904; Assistant, Judge, Hyderabad 1904; Acted as District Judge, Hyderabad, 1905, Permanent District Judge, 1911. Served in Thana Surat. District Judge, Broach, 1917-1922 and District Judge, Nasik, until June 1924. *Address:* Nob Bungalow, Cantonment, Hyderabad, Sind.

AFSUR-UL-MULK, AFSUR-UD-DOWLA, AFSUR JUNG, MIRZA MAHOMED ALI BEG, NAWAR, Lieut.-Col., K.C.I.E. (1908); C.I.E., (1897); M. V. O. (1908); A.D.C. to Nizam of Hyderabad; Chief Commander, H.E.H. the Nizam's Regular Force, 1918; *b.* Aurangabad (Deccan); *o.s.* of late Mirza Vilayet Ali Beg. *Educ.*: Aurangabad, Rissalidar, Hyderabad Contingent; Commander, Golconda Brigade, since 1885; Hyderabad Imperial Service Troops, since 1893 (both of these he raised); Commander, Regular Troops, since 1897, Chief Commander since 1916, served in the Afghan War, 1879-1880; Black Mountain Expedition, 1888; China Expedition, 1900; received title of Afsur Jung, 1884; and of Afsur Dowla, 1895; raised to Afsur-ul-Mulk, 1903; Hon. Col., 20th Royal Deccan Horse; on Staff, Imperial Service Cavalry Brigade, Indian Expeditionary Force, Egypt, 1915; on Staff, Indian Cavalry Corps and A.D.C. to Sir John French, France, 1915-16. *Address:* Rahut Mundi, Hyderabad (Deccan).

AGA KHAN, AGA SULTAN MAHOMED SHAH, G.C.I.E. (1902); G.C.S.I. (1911); G.C.V.O. (1923); K.C.I.E. (1898); LL.D., Hon. Cumb. *b.* 1875; Brilliant Star of Zanzibar, 1900, 1st Class; has many religious followers in East Africa, Central Asia and India; head of Ismaili Mahomedans; granted rank and status of first class chief with salute of 11 guns in recognition of loyal services during European War. *Publication:* India in Transition. *Address:* Aga Hall, Bombay.

AGARWALA, LALA GIRDHARILAL, B.A., Vakil, High Court, Allahabad, and Member, Legis. Assembly. *b.* 1877. *Educ.*: Agra College. Was Director, Moradabad Spinning and Weaving Mills for 10 yrs. and of Barala Cotton Gin and Press Co., Ltd., for 8 years; original member, U.P. Chamber of Commerce; Secy., U.P. Hindu Sabha. Elected Member of the Royal Society for encouragement of Arts, Manufacture and Commerce, and of the Royal Society, London in 1909. *Address:* 33, George Town, Allahabad.

AGA SHAH ROOKH SHAH, NAWAB SHAH ROOKH YAR JUNG BAHADUR (1923), Hon. A. D. C. to the Nizam of Hyderabad and Private Secretary to H. H. the Aga Khan. *b.* 1874, *o.s.* of Aga Akbar Shah; *d.* of H. H. the First Aga Khan, *m.* *e.d.* of Aga Shahabuddin Shah 1897. *Educ.* in English and Persian. *Address:* 11, Connaught Road, Poona.

AHMAD, DR. ZIA UDDIN, C.I.E., M.A. Ph. D., D.Sc., M.L.C., Principal M.A.O. Coll., Aligarh. *b.* 1878. *Educ.*: Aligarh, Trin. Coll., Cambridge. (Sir Isaao

Newton Scholar) Gottingen (Ph. D.) and Allahabad (D.Sc.), Member of Calcutta University Comma. Pro-Vice-Chancellor. Address: Muslim University, Aligarh.

AHMED HUSSAIN AMIN JUNG BAHADUR, NAWAB SIR, Governor's Scholar; M.A., B.L., C.S.I. (1911); Nawab (1917) K.C.I.E. (1922); Minister-in-Waiting on H. E. H. the Nizam and Chief Secretary to H. E. H.'s Government. b. 11 Aug. 1863. m. Fatima Lady Amin Jung. Educ.: Christian College and Presidency College, Madras. High Court Vakill, 1890; Deputy Collr. and Magte. 1890-92; Asstt. Secretary to the Nizam 1893; Personal Secretary to Nizam 1895; Chief Secretary to Nizam's Government 1896; Minister-in-Waiting on Nizam since 1915. Publications: "Notes on Islam" articles in Periodicals. Address: Amin Munzil, Saldaabad, Hyderabad, Deccan.

AHMED, KAREERUD-DIN, M.L.A., Bar-at-Law and Advocate, Calcutta High Court and Landholder. b. 1888. Educ.: at the Malda Govt. High English School and at Magdalene College, Cambridge. Called to the Bar in 1910; Founder of Bengal Jotedars and Railyots' Association and its Hon. Secretary; takes great interest in agriculture; was elected Presdt., Bengal Agricultural Confee. in 1917; Director, Darjeeling Himalayan Tea Co., Ltd., Calcutta; Organiser, Founder and President, Indian Seamen's Union, Calcutta; elected member, Bengal Council in 1920; re-elected member, Legislative Assembly, 1921; re-elected again in 1924 for the Rajshahi Division; Member, Central, National Mahomedan Assocn., Calcutta; Member, Governing Body of Indian Rationalistic Society, Calcutta; Member, Democratic Party in Indian Legislature 1921-24. Vice-President Anjumani Wolzani Bengala. Publications: Handbook of Equity, Roman Law, etc. Address: 7, Old Post Office Street, Calcutta, Bishwanathpur, Kansant P.O. Malda (Bengal).

AHMED, KHAN BAHADUR KAZI AZIZUDDIN, O.B.E., I.S.O., Chief Minister, Datia State. b. 7 April 1861. Educ.: at Gonda High School. Served in the P. C. S., U. P. for 34 years during which time acted as Magte. and Collr. Bulandshahar and Asstt. Director of Agriculture and Commerce, U. P.; was on deputation with His Majesty the late Amir of Kabul during His Indian tour; services lent to Bharatpur State in 1910 for employment as Rev. Member of Council of Regency; transferred to Dholpur 1913 and retired from Govt. Service in 1920 but continued to serve His Highness the Maharaja of Dholpur as Judicial Minister; appointed Chief Minister Datia in 1922. Publications: Author of about 40 books in English and Urdu including life of H. M. King George V. and H. R. II. the Prince of Wales, Commentaries on Criminal Procedure Code and U. P. Land Revenue Act; translated into Urdu at the request of Government of India proceedings of the War Confee. 1919 and History of Coronation Durbar, 1911. Address: Datia.

AIKMAN, DAVID WANN, C.I.E. (1912), Consulting Engineer to the Cawnpore Improvement Trust. b. 8 December 1863. Educ.:

Cooper's hill. m. Marion Drummond Stewart. Joined P. W. D., 1885. Retd., 1918. Publication: Roorkee treatise on water supply. Address: The Shrubbery, Simla, and Civil Lines, Cawnpore.

AINSOUGH, THOMAS MARLAND, O.B.E. (1918), M. Com., F.R.G.S. His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India and Ceylon. b. 1886. m. Mabel, d. of W. Lincoln of Ely, Cambs. Educ.: Manchester Gr. School; Switzerland and Manchester University. In business in China, 1907-12; Spl. Commissioner to the Board of Trade in India, 1914; Sec. Board of Trade Textile Committee, 1916. Sec.; Empire Cotton Growing Committee, 1917, Expert Assist. to Persian Tariff Revision Commission, 1920. Publication: "Notes from a Frontier." Address: 11, Clive Street, Calcutta.

AIYANGAR, CHETLURU DRAISWAMI, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakill, Chittoor and Member, Legislative Assembly. b. 1873. Educ.: Madras Christian College, and Law Colleges. Schoolmaster for two years; then Vakill from July 1899; occupied offices of President, District Congress Committee, Dist. Conference, etc.; President, Taluk Board and Chairman, Municipal Council, Chittoor for some years. Publications: Estates Land Act in Telugu; Sri Venkatesa or the First Arch; Gandhi Unveiled. Address: Chittoor.

AIYAR, CHETPAT P. RAMASWAMI, B.A., B.L., C.I.E. (1923); Law Member, Madras Executive Council. b. 12 Nov., 1879. m. Sitalakshmi, d. of C. V. Sundram Shastri and sister of Justice Kumaraswami Sastri. Educ.: Wesley College, Presidency College and Law College, Madras, English and Sanskrit University Prizeman. Enrolled as Vakill, 1903 and as Advocate, 1923. For many years member of the Madras Corporation and Standing Committee, Fellow and Syndic of Madras University; Trustee of various educational institutions. Secretary to Congress, 1917-18; connected with the National Congress until 1918. Gave evidence before Joint Parliamentary Committee on Reforms, 1919, also before Meston and Southborough Committees. Member of Committee to draft Regulations for Madras under the Reform Act. Represented Madras Presidency at War Conference, Delhi. Returned to Legislative Council by University of Madras, 1918, and by City of Madras, 1920. Advocate-General, 1920-1923. Member, Executive Council, 1923. Publications: various pamphlets and articles on Financial and Literary topics. Address: The Grove, Cathedral, Madras and DeLisle, Ootacamund.

ALI, KHAN BAHADUR MIR ASAD, Merchant, Jagirdar and Member, Legis. Assembly. b. August 1879. m. to Leakut-Anisa Begum, d. of Nawab Ali Yaver Jung, Bahadur of Hyderabad (Deccan). Educ.: Nizam Coll., Hyderabad. Hon. Magte., Madras, 1912. Member, Imperial Legis. Council, 1913-20; President Elect., Dist. Political Confee. of Cuddapah, 1916; Presdt. Elect., Dist. Political Confee., Malabar, 1918; Presdt., Provincial Educational Confee., Poona, 1919; Presdt., Madras Presidency Muslim League, 1917-20; Presdt. elect of All-India Unani Confee., Delhi, 1917;

President, Unani-Ayurvedic Confee., Hyderabad, 1922. Publications: "Maasharat," Urdu translation of the *Use of Life* by Lord Avebury. Address: Cosmopolitan Club, Mount Road, Madras.

ALI, MOHAMED, b. December 1878. Educ.: Rampur State School; Bareilly High School. M. A. O. Coll., Aligarh; and Lincoln Coll., Oxford. Chief Educational Officer, Rampur (State), (1902-03); H. H. the Gackwar's Civil Service (1904-1910); Editor and Proprietor of the *Comrade*, weekly English newspaper (Calcutta 1911-12, Delhi 1912-1914) and of the *Hamdard*, Urdu daily newspaper (Delhi 1913-1915); interned under the Defence of India Act at Mehrauli, Lansdowne, and Chhindwara (1915-19); Confined in Betul (O. P.) Jail (June to December 1919) under Regulation III of 1818; Sentenced to two years' rigorous imprisonment, Nov. 1921; Head of the Indian Khilafat Delegation to Europe (Feb. to Oct. 1920); Founded the All-India Muslim League in 1906; Khuddam-i-Kaaba Society in 1913 and the National Muslim University, Aligarh, 1920. Publication: "Thoughts on the Present Discontent" (1908). Address: Sultan Mansion, Dongri, Bombay.

ALI MAHOMED RAHIMTULLA MECKLAI, merchant, b. 15 Dec. 1892. First All-India President of the Recreation Club Institute; Hon. Secretary of the General Department of H. H. the Aga Khan; Hon. Major of H. H. the Aga Khan's volunteers. Address: West View, Chowpatty, Bombay.

ALI, SHAUKAT, Educ.: M.A.O. Coll., Aligarh (Capt. Cricket XI). In Govt. Opium Dept. for 15 years. Sec. and Organiser, Aligarh Old Boys' Assoc. Trustee, M.A.O. Coll. Organised collection of funds for Aligarh University. Interned during the war. Prominent leader of the Khilafat movement, 1919-20, and of Non-co-operation movement. Sec., Central Khilafat Committee. Founder and Secretary of Khuddam-i-Kaaba Society; sentenced to two years' rigorous imprisonment, Nov. 1921. Address: Sultan Mansion, Dongri, Bombay.

ALLEN, BASIL COPELSTON, B.A. (Oxon.); I.C.S. C.S.I. (1922); Commissioner, Assam. b. 12 July 1870. m. Mabel, d. of Sir William Erskine Ward, K.C.S.I. Educ.: Halesbury Coll., and C.C.C. Oxford. Asst. Commr., Assam, 1893, Census Superintendent, 1900; Collr. of Dacca, 1905-1907. Secy. to E.B. and Assam Govt., 1909; Chief Secy., Assam, 1914; Commissioner, 1920. Publications: Report on the Census of Assam, 1901; Assam District Gazetteers. Address: Gauhati, Assam.

ALWAR, COLONEL H. H. RAJ RAMESHWAR SRI SEWAI MAHARAJ SRI JAY SINGHI VEREN-DRA DRY, SHRI MAHARAJ of G.C.S.I. (1924) G.C.I.E. (1919); K.C.I.E. (1911); K.C.S.I. (1909); Colonel in the British Army 1919; General-in-Chief of the Alwar State Forces, maintains State Forces which served in operations for relief of Peking 1900 and in Great War; represented India at the Imperial Conference, 1923. b. 1882, Son of H. H. Shri Sewai Maharaj Sir Mangal Singhji Dev., G.C.S.I. Address: The Palace, Alwar, Rajputana.

ANDERSON, SIR GEORGE, K.T. (1924), C.I.E. (1920), M.A. (Oxon.), Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, since 1920. b. 15 May 1876; m. to Gladys Alice Morony. Educ.: Winchester College, University College, Oxford. Transvaal Educational Department, 1902-1910; Indian Educational Service; Professor of History, Elphinstone College, Bombay; Assist. Secretary, Department of Education, Government of India; Secretary, Calcutta University Commission, 1918-19. Publications: The Expansion of British India; British Administration in India; Short History of the British Empire. Address: Grant Lodge, Simla.

ANDREWS, CHARLES FREER, Professor in the International University of Rabindranath Tagore at Santiniketan, Bengal. b. 12 February 1871. Educ.: King Edward's School, Birmingham and Pembroke College, Cambridge. Fellow and Lecturer of Pembroke College, Cambridge 1896. Professor in St. Stephen's College, Delhi, and member of Cambridge University Brotherhood. Fellow and some time member of Syndicate, Punjab University from 1904 to 1913; since that date at Santiniketan, Bengal. Publications: "The Renaissance in India"; "Christ and Labour"; "The Indian Problem"; "Indians in South Africa"; "To the Students"; "The Drink and Drug Evil." Address: Santiniketan, Bolpur, Bengal.

ANKLIKER, LT.-COL. AMIR-UL-UMRA SARDAR SIR APPAJIRAO SAHIB SITOLE DESHMUKH, SENA HARDOO, SAH-SHEH, K. B. E. (1919); C.I.E. (1913); Member of the Gwalior Government in Department of Revenue and Agriculture since 1918. b. 1874. Educ.: Belgaoon. Pte. Secretary to the Maharajah of Gwalior, 1897. m. the youngest daughter of the late Maharajah Jijajirao Sahib Scindia of Gwalior. Address: Gwalior.

ANNESLEY, FRANCIS CHARLES, Merchant, Partner, Killick Nixon & Co., Bombay. b. 3 March 1879. Educ.: at Birkenhead School, Cheshire. Joined firm of Killick Nixon of Bombay in 1906 after being engaged in various firms in Liverpool and London from 1895 to 1902 when came out to Bombay to the firm of James Mackintosh & Co. Address: Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

ARCOT, PRINCE OF, SIR GHULAM MAHOMED ALI KHAN BAHADUR, G.C.I.E. (1917); K.C.I.E. (1909). b. 22 Feb. 1882. s. father, 1903. Premier Mahomedan nobleman of Southern India, being descended from the former Mussulman dynasty of the Nawabs of the Karnatic. Educ.: Newington Court of Wards Institution, Madras. Member of Madras Legislative Council, 1904-6; Member of the Imperial Legislative Council (Mahomedan Electorate) of the Madras Presidency, 1910-13; Member of the Madras Legislative Council by nomination, 1916; President, All-India Muslim Association, Lahore; President, South India Islamlah League, Madras. Address: Amir Mahal, Madras.

ASH, HERBERT DUDLEY, A.M.I.E.E., Director, Turner Hoare & Co., Ltd., b. 1879, m. Madeline Edith Ash. Educ.: Halesbury College. Attached 29th Lancers 1915-17; Staff Captain

Indian Cav. Brigade, 1917-19. Twice mentioned in despatches. Address: C/o Turner Hoare and Co., Ltd., Bombay.

ASTON, ARTHUR HENRY SOUTHCOTE, M.A. (Oxon); Additional Judicial Commissioner in Sind. b. 4 July 1871. m. to Lilian, d. of the late Col. A. K. Savile. Educ.: Harrow School Balliol College, Oxford. Joined Lincoln's Inn; called to the Bar; read in Chambers with H. Tindal Atkinson, Esq., and G. H. Lowndes, Esq., practised as a Barrister, Bombay High Court, 1902; Public Prosecutor in Sind, 1900; Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay, 1906; Acting Additional Judicial Commissioner in Sind, 1920-23. Publications: Joint Editor Starling's Indian Criminal Law (8th Edition); Editor (9th Edition). Address: Judicial Commissioner's Bungalow, Karachi.

AYYAR, TIRUCHANDARAN VAIDYANATHA SESHAGIRI, B.A., B.L., Member, Legislative Assembly. b. September 1860. Educ.: at Trichinopoly and Madras. Vakil, High Court, Law Professor, Mem. of Senate for 20 years, Judge, High Court (retired 1920). President of numerous institutions in Madras connected with Social Service; represented Madras Univ. on the local Legislative Council for 5 years before 1913. Address: Goverdhan, Kilpauk, Madras.

BABER, SHUM SHER JANG BAHADOOR RANA, General of the Nepalese Army, G.B.E. (Hon. Mil.) cr. 1919; K.C.S.I. (Hon.) cr. 1919; K.C.I.E. (Hon.) cr. 1916; b. 27 January 1868; 2nd s. of Maharaja Sir Chandra of Nepal; m. 1903, Deva Vakti Lakhmi Devi; 2 s. 2 d. Director-General, Police Forces, Katmandu, since 1903; was present at the Delhi Coronation Durbar, 1903; visited Europe, 1908; was in charge of shooting arrangements during King George's shoot in Nepal Terai, 1911; attached to the Army Headquarters, India (March 1915 to February 1919) as Inspector-General of Nepalese Contingents in India during the Great War (Despatches, specially; thanks of Commanders-in-Chief in India; K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., for Meritorious Service; received the 1st class Order of the Star of Nepal with the title of Supradipita Manyabara, 1918; the thanks of the Nepalese Government and a Sword of Honour); Waziristan Field Force, 1917 (Despatches; special mention by Commander-in-Chief in India and Governor-General in Council; the Nepalese Military Decoration for bravery; the British War and Victory Medals); at Army Headquarters, India, as Inspector-General of Nepalese Contingent during Afghan War, 1919; (Despatches G.B.E.; India General Service Medal with Clasp). In memory of his son Bala Shum Shere supplied (1921) Pokhara, a hill-station in Nepal, with pipe drinking water at a cost of over Rs. 1,00,000. Address: Baber Mahal, Katmandu, Nepal, via India.

BAGCHI, SATISCHANDRA, B.A., LL.D., Bar-at-Law; Principal, University Law College, Calcutta; b. Jan. 1892; Educ.: Santipur Municipal School, Calcutta; St. John's College, Cambridge, B.A., Calcutta University, 1901; B.A., LL.B., Cambridge and Dublin; LL.D., Trinity College, Dublin, 1907; Fellow, Calcutta University, 1909;

Tagore Professor of Law, 1915; called to Bar, Gray's Inn, 1907. Address: Principal's Quarters, Darbhanga Buildings, University Law College, Calcutta.

BAIG, SIR ABBAS ALI, K.C.I.E. (1917) C.S.I., B.A., LL.D. m. 1st Ayesha, d. of Shaikh Mira of Wal (died); 2nd 1901, Alla, d. of Shaikh Ali Abdullah. Educ.: Wilson College, Joined Statutory C.S. 1882 as Dy. Educational Inspector, Hindustani Schools, Bombay Presidency; Dewan, Janjira State, March 1886 to March 1890; admitted to the Statutory Civil Service, 1890; Asst. Coll. and Magte., 1890-92; on special duty in the Junagadh State, January to April 1893; off. as 4th Presidency Magte., April 1893; appointed Oriental Translator to Government, June 1893; Reporter on the Native Press; Registrar of Indian Publications; Secretary, Civil and Mil. Examination Boards, 1894-1906; appointed Dewan of Junagadh State, July 1906 to 1910; Talukdar Settlement Officer, July 1906; Member of Council of State for India, June 1910-17; LL.D., Glasgow, 1912; Commissioner of Income-tax, 1915-17; Represented Bombay Univ. at the Congress of Universities of Empire, 1912; on Special Political duty in Egypt in connection with the war, 1914-15; Vice-President, Council of India, 1916-17. Address: The Paragon, Bristol, Eng. and.

BAJPAL, PANDIT SANKATA PRASADA, Rai Bahadur, B.A., Zemindar and Banker, b. Nov. 18, 1886. m. Shrimati Sumitra Devi. Educ. Canning College, Lucknow, Ewing Christian College, Allahabad and University School of Law, Allahabad. Elected Member, Benares Hindu University in 1917; Elected Hon. Secy., Kheri Dist. Board, 1918; Appointed Hon. Magistrate, 1918; Elected Chairman, Lakhimpur Municipality, 1919, and Member of the Imperial Legislative Assembly 1920. Address: Lakhimpore, Kheri (Oudh).

BAKER, CHARLES MAURICE, B.A. (Oxon.), I.C.S., Member, Council of State (1920); b. 3 March 1872. m. Mabel, d. of Maj. Genl. Edmeades of Newstead Court, Kent. Educ.: Tonbridge School, Trinity Coll., Oxford. Address: The Secretariat, Bombay.

BALRAMPUR, MAHARAJA PATESHWARI PRASAD SINGH SAHEB, minor under guardianship of the Court of Wards, United Provinces. Address: Balrampur.

BANATVALA, COL. SIR HORMASJEE EDUL'EE, C.S.I., 1917; I.M.S. (ret'd.) b. 20 Oct. 1859. First Commission, 1884; military duty until 1893; served Burma 1886-89; Medal with 2 clasps, Lushai Expedition, 1891-92. Address: Mount Villas, Bandra, Bombay.

BANERJEE, SIR SURENDRANATH, K.T. (1921). b. 10 November 1848; m. 1867. Educ.: Docton College, Calcutta; University College, London. Entered I.C.S. 1871; left the service 1874; Professor of English Literature, Metropolitan Institution of Calcutta, 1875; founded Indian Association, 1876; founded Ripon College, Calcutta, 1882; was twice President of the Indian National Congress. Presd. of the first Moderate Confce. held in Bombay, 1919; for eight successive years a Member of the Bengal Legislative Council;

again elected 1913; Member of the Imperial Legislative Council, 1913. For many years Editor of the "Bengalee" Minister (for Local Self-Government) in the Govt. of Bengal, 1921-23. Address: The Secretariat, Calcutta.

BANERJEE, MAHENDRANATH, C.I.E. (1921). (Cal.), M.R.C.S. (England), I.S.A. (London), Princ. Carmichael Medical Coll., Calcutta, since 1916, b. Sept. 1856. Educ.: Presy. Coll., St. Xavier's Coll. and Medical Coll., Calcutta Edinburgh Univ., and King's Coll. London Resident Medical Officer, R. Free Hospital, London, 1883-85; Lecturer of Medicine; Calcutta Med. Sch., 1890-1915; Additional member, Imp. Leg. Council, 1916; Senior Physician, Albert Victor Hospital, 1900-19; Consulting Physician since 1919. Member of the State Med., Faculty of Bengal; Fellow and Member of Senate of Calcutta Univ.; Member of Sanitary Conference, Simla, 1919; President, Ayurvedic Committee lately appointed by Government of Bengal. Address: 32, Theatre Road, Calcutta.

BANERJI, ABHON RAJKUMAR, I.C.S., C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E., 1912, Dewan of Mysore (1922). b. Bristol, 10 Oct. 1871. m. 1898, d. of Sir Krishna Gupta. Educ.: Calcutta University, Balliol College, Oxford; M.A. 1892. Entered I.C.S. 1895; served as district officer in the Madras Presidency; Diwan to H. H. the Maharaja of Cochin, 1907-14; reverted to British service, 1915; Collector and District Magistrate, Cuddapah; services placed at the disposal of Government of India, Foreign Department, for employment as Member of the Executive Council of H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore, March 1916. Officiated as Dewan of Mysore, 1919. Retired from the I.C.S. and appointed Dewan, May 1922. Awarded I class title "Rajamantradhurina" of Gandharvendra Order, with Khillats by H. H. the Maharaja in open Durbar, Oct. 1923. Address: "Ballabroole," High Ground, Bangalore.

BAPTISTA, JOSEPH, BAR-AT-LAW; b. 17 March 1864. Educ. St. Mary's School, Bombay; Coll. of Science, Poona; Cambridge University. L.C.E. (Bom.), B.A. and LL.B. (Cantab.); has taken a prominent part in the Indian labour movement. Delegate to the Labour Conference, Geneva, 1924. Publication: Lectures on Roman Law, Government Law School, Bombay. Address: Matharpacady, Bombay.

BARIA, CAPTAIN (HON.) HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI SIR RANGITSINHJI, RAJA OF K.C.S.I. (1922); b. 10 July 1886; two s. one d. Educ.: Rajkumar College, Rajkot; Imperial Cadet Corps, Dehra Dun, and in England. Served in European War, 1914-15 and in the Afghan War, 1919. Boy Scouts Commissioner for Northern Division, Bombay Presidency. Address: Devgad Baria, via Piprod (B. B. & C. I. Ry.), Bombay.

BARNARDO, LT.-COL. FREDERICK ADOLPHUS FLEMING, M.A., B.Sc., M.B., 1899; F.R.C.S., M.R.C.P. (Edin.); C.B.E. (1919); C.I.E., Civil Surgeon, Simla, b. June 4, 1874; m. to Violet Kathleen Ann, 2nd daughter of the late Henry Teylort-Kerr, seventh son of the late Rev. Lord Henry Frances Teylort-Kerr; Educ.: Edinburgh University. Served with the Rifle

and Forfar Light Horse Imperial Yeomanry in South Africa, 1899-1902; entered Indian Medical Service, 1902; Somaliland Campaign, 1903-04; Asst. Director of Medical Services, Embarkation Staff, Bombay, during the Great War. Publications: Many contributions to medical publications, and the following monographs:—Surgical Shock Intestinal Stasis. The causation of the Onset of Labour, etc. Address: Simla.

BARNE, REV. GEORGE DUNSFORD, M.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. (1923), O.B.E. (1919); V.D. (1923); Principal, Lawrence Royal Military School, Sanawar, and Chaplain, Bengal Ecclesiastical Establishment. b. May 6, 1879. m. Dorothy Kate Akerman. Educ.: Clifton College and Oriel Coll., Oxford. Asst. Master, Summerfields, Oxford, 1902-08; Curate of Christ Church, Simla, 1908-10; Chaplain of Sialkot 1910; Chaplain of Hyderabad, Sind, 1911; and Asst. Chaplain of Karachi 1911-12. Address: Sanawar, Simla Hills.

BARNES, HERBERT CHARLES, C.I.E. (1919) Indian Civil Service, b. 30 May 1870. Educ.: Westminster School, Christ Church, Oxford, M.A. Address: Gauhati, Assam.

BARODA, H.H. MAHARAJA GAEKWAR SIR SAYAJI RAO III., G.C.S.I. (1881); G.C.I.E. (1919); b. 10 March, 1863; m. 1st., 1881, Chinnabai Maharani; 2nd, 1885, Chinnabai Maharani II., C.I.; one s. one d. Educ.: Maharaja's School, Baroda. Succeeded, 1875. Invested with powers, 1881. Publications: "Famine Notes" and "From Caesar to Sultan." Address: Baroda.

BARRON, CLAUD ALEXANDER, C.S.I. (1921); C.I.E. (1911); C.V.O. (1922); F.R.G.S. Financial Commissioner, Punjab, since 1924; b. 22 December 1871; s. of Col. W. Barron, B.S.C.; m. 1912, Ida Mary, e. d. of Major-General Sir R. H. Ewart, K.C.M.G., C.B., one s. Educ.: Grammar School and University, Aberdeen; Clare College, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1890; Chief Secretary, Punjab Government, 1912-16; Chief Commissioner, Delhi, 1918-24. Address: Lahore.

BARROW, Lieut-General Sir George de Symons, K.C.B., cr. 1919; K.C.M.G., cr. 1918; C.B., 1915. A.G. in India (1922). b. 25 October 1864. m. 1902, Sybilla, d. of late Colonel G. Way, C.B. Entered Army, Connaught Rangers, 1884; Indian Staff Corps, 1886; D.A.Q.M.G., India, 1903; D.A.A.G., Staff College, 1908; General Staff Officer, 1914; served Waziristan, 1894-5; China, 1900 (medal with clasp); European War, 1914-18 (despatches C.B., promoted Maj.-General), including capture of Jerusalem (K.C. M.G., K.C.B.); Commander Legion of Honour, 1917. Order of the Nile, 1918. Afghan War, 1919. G.O.C., Peshawar Dist. until 1922. Address: Army Headquarters, Simla.

BARTHE, RT. REV. JEAN MARIE; Bishop of Paralals since 1914; b. Lesignan, Tarbes, 1849. Educ.: St. Pe. Seminary. Bishop of Trichinopoly, 1890-1914. Address: Shembaganur, Madras Presidency.

BARUA, RAI BAHADUR DEVICHARAN, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., Tea Planter. b. 1864. Educ. City College, Presidency College and the General

Assembly's Institution, Calcutta. Joined the Bar in 1888 and taking to tea plantation and having acquired 3 tea gardens at Jorhat retired from the Bar in 1917; Secretary, Jorhat Sarva Janik Sabha for nearly 17 years since 1890; Elected member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921; Hon. Magistrate, Jorhat Bench. Address: Jorhat, Assam.

BEACHCROFT, HON. MR. JUSTICE CHARLES PORTEN; Pulnoe Judge, High Court, Calcutta, since 1915; b. 13 March 1871; 4th son of late Francis Porten Beachcroft, Bengal Civil Service; m. Elizabeth, d. of late A. E. Ryles. Educ.: Rugby; Clare College, Cambridge. Passed Indian Civil Service, 1890; Assistant Magistrate and Collector, Bengal, 1892; Officiating District and Sessions Judge, 1900; District and Sessions Judge, 1906; Officiating Judge, High Court, Calcutta, 1912. Address: 4, Little Russell Street, Calcutta.

BEDI RAJA SIR BABA GURBUX SINGH, KT., cr. 1916; K.B.E. (1920); C.I.E., 1911; Hon. Extra Asst. Commissioner in the Punjab. b. 1861; A Fellow of the Punjab and Hindu Universities; was a delegate to the Indo-Afghan Peace Conference in 1919. Address: Kallar, Punjab.

BELL, ROBERT DUNCAN, C.I.E. (1919); on special duty in the P. W. D. b. 8 May 1878. Educ.: Heriot's School, Edinburgh, and Edinburgh University, m. Jessie, d. of D. Spence, Esq. Appointed I.C.S., Bombay, 1902. Secretary, Indian Industrial Commission, 1916-17; Contoller, Industrial Intelligence, 1917-18; Contoller, Oils and Paints, 1918-19; Director of Industries, Bombay, 1919-24. Address: C/o Grindlay & Co., Bombay.

BENARES, H. H. SIR PRADHU NARAYAN SINGH, MAHARAJA BAHADUR OF, LT.-COL.; G.C.I.E. (1898), G.C.S.I. (1921); b. 26 November 1855. S. uncle 1889. Address: Ramnagar, Benares State.

BENJAMIN, Ven. T. Kuruvilla, B.A., Archdeacon of Kottayam since July 1922. Formerly Incumbent of Pro-Cathedral, Kottayam, 1895-1922; Acting Principal, C.N.I., Kottayam, 1912-13, Surrogate, 1922. Bishop's Commissary 1923. Publications: (in Malayalam) Notes on the Epistles to the Hebrews; Notes on the Epistles to the Thessalonians; Devotional Study of the Bible. Editor of: Treasury of Knowledge Family Friend. Address: Kottayam.

BENZIGER, Rt. Rev. ALOYSIUS MARY, O.C.D., Bishop of Quilon since 1905; b. Einsiedeln, Switzerland, 1864. Educ.: Frankfurt; Brussels; Downside. Came to India, 1890; Bishop of Tabar, 1900; Address: Bishop's House, Quilon, Travancore.

BERTHOUD, EDWARD HENRY, B.A. (Oxon), 1898; Member, Council of State and Commissioner of Excise and Inspector General of Registration, Bihar and Orissa. b. 13 Sept. 1876. m. Phyllis Hamilton Cox. Educ. at Uppingham and New College, Oxford. Asstt. Magte., Joint Magte. and Magte. and Collector in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa since 1900. Address: Patna.

BESANT, ANNIE; President, Theosophical Society and of National Home Rule League, author and lecturer on religious, philosophical, political, and scientific subjects; General Secretary, Indian National Convention; b. 1 October 1847; d. of William Page Wood and Emily, d. of James Morris; m. 1867, Rev. Frank Besant (d. 1917), Vicar of Sibsey, Lincolnshire; legally separated from him, 1873; one s. one d. Educ.: privately in England, Germany, France; Joined the National Secular Society, 1874; worked in the Free Thought and Radical Movements led by Charles Bradlaugh, M.P.; was co-editor with him of the National Reformer, Member of the Fabian Society, Member of the London School Board, 1887-90; Joined the Theosophical Society in 1889; became a pupil of Mme. Blavatsky; elected its President in 1907, 1914 and 1921. Founded 1898 the Central Hindu College at Benares; 1904, the Central Hindu Girls' School, Benares; is on Court Council and Senate of Benares Hindu Univ. and on Council and Senate of the National University; given Hon. D. L., Benares Hindu University, 1921. In recognition of unique services; Elected President of the Indian National Congress, 1917-18; Editor of *The Theosophist*, monthly; *The Adyar Bulletin*, *The Young Citizen*, monthly and Editor of *New India*, daily and weekly. Address: Adyar, Madras.

BHABHA, HORMASJI JEHANGIR, M.A., J.P., and Hon. Pres. Magte., Director of Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Co.; Member of Council of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore. Member of Committee of David Sassoon Reformatory Institution, Fellow of the Bombay, Madras and Mysore Universities. b. 27 June 1852. Educ.: Elphinstone College and in England; Asstt. Professor, Elphinstone College, 1874-76; Vice-Principal and Professor of Logic and Ethics, Central College, Bangalore, 1876; Principal, Maharaja's College, Mysore, 1884; Education Secretary to Government, Mysore, 1890; Inspector-General, Education, Mysore, 1895-1909, Munir-ul-Talim (Mysore) 1909. Publications: Special Report on Manual Training in Schools of General Education; Report on the education of Parsi boys, 1920, and a visit to Australian Universities 1923. Address: 31, Pedder Road, Bombay.

BHAGWATI PRASAD SINGH, MAHARAJA SIR, OF BALARAMPUR, K.C.I.E., cr. 1906; S. 1896. Address: Gonda, Oudh, India.

BHANDARI, SIR GOPAL DAS, KT., RAI BAHADUR (1907); Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1915); M.B.E. (1919); C.I.E. (1921); M.L.C. (1924); Advocate, High Court; b. June 1859, Educ.: Government College, Lahore; Elected Member, Amritsar Municipal Committee, 1889-1902. Non-nominated member, 1902 to the present date. Chairman, Finance Committee for 30 years. First non-official President, Municipal Com., elected March 1921; elected second time June 1922; Member, Sanitary Board, Punjab, 11 years; Member, All-India Sanitary Conferences, Punjab, Madras, and Lucknow. Special Commr. twice; Lahore Conspiracy cases, 1916-17. Member, Imperial Police Selection Board, October 1922. President, Hindu Sabha,

Amritsar; His Majesty's Guest, Delhi Durbar 1911; Member, Executive Committee, D.A.V. College, Lahore; Chairman Board of Directors, Punjab National Bank; Member and Punjab representative, Imperial Malaria Conference, September 1908. President, Managing Council, Hindu College, Amritsar. Publications: Malaria, booklet, 1908; Town-planning; Milk; Sanitary Conditions in boys' and girls' schools in India, etc. Address: President, Municipal Committee, Amritsar.

BHANDARKAR, SIR RAMKRISHNA GOPAL, K.C.I.E. (1911); C.I.E. (1889); M.A., Hon. LL.D., Bombay and Edinburgh; Hon. Ph. D., Calcutta; Professor of Oriental Languages, Deccan College, Poona, 1882-93; b. 1837; m. two s. one d. Educ.: Ratnagiri Government English School; Elphinstone College, Bombay, 1847-58. Headmaster of High Schools, 1864-68; Professor of Sanskrit, Elphinstone College, Bombay, 1869-1881; Fellow, and for two years Vice-Chancellor of Bombay University; Fellow of Calcutta University. Nominated to membership of Viceroy's Legislative Council in connection with Lord Curzon's Educational Reforms, 1903; Member of Bombay Legislative Council, 1904-08; a leader of Hindu social and religious reform movements; Dakshina Fellow, 1859-64. Publications: First and Second Books of Sanskrit; Early History of the Deccan Sanskrit and the Derived Languages; article on Vaishnavism, Saivism and minor religious systems, in the Encyclopaedia of Indo-Aryan Research; edited Bhavabhatti's *Malati-Madhava* and has written six reports on Sanskrit MSS., philological and antiquarian articles and essays in the transactions of learned societies. Address: Poona.

BHARATPUR, MAHARAJA OF, Lt. Col. H. H. SRI MAHARAJA BRIJENDRA SAWAI KISHEN SINGH BAHADUR, BAHADUR JUNG, b. 4 October 1899. s. of Maharaja Ram Singh; m. sis. of H. H. the Raja of Faridkot. Educ.: Mayo College, Ajmer and Wellington. Address: Bharatpur, Rajputana.

BHARGAVA, RAI BAHADUR PANDIT JAWAHAR LAL, B.A., LL.B., Vakil, High Court, Lahore. b. 1st Oct. 1870. m. d. of L. Madan Lal Bhargava of Rewari. Educ.: Sirsa M.B. School. Rewari M. B. School, Lahore Mission Coll., Lahore. Government Coll. and Law School. Vice-President, Hissari Municipal Committee; got Durbar Medal and War Loan Sanad; acted as Secretary, India War Relief Fund, The Aeroplane Fleet Fund, King Edward Memorial Fund; was elected member, Punjab Legislative Council 1916-20; and Legislative Assembly 1921-23. Life member, St. John Ambulance Association and Chairman, District Centre at Hissar. Address: Hissar (Punjab).

BHAVNAGAR, H. H. MAHARAJA KRISHNA KUMAR SINGH, MAHARAJA OF; b. 19th May 1912, s. father Lt.-Col. H. H. Maharaja Sir Bhavsinhji Takhtasinhji, K.C.S.I., July 1919. Educ.: Rajkumar College, Rajkot. Address: Bhavnagar, Kathiawar.

BHOPAL, H. H. NAWAB SULTAN JEHAN BEGUM, BEGUM OF, C.I., cr. 1911; G.C.S.I., cr. 1910,

G.C.I.E., cr. 1904, G.B.E., cr. 1918, b. 9 Ju y 1858; s. mother, H. H. Nawab Shah Jehan Begum, G.C.S.I., C.I., 1901; m. 1874, Ahmed Ali Khan, two s. Eight in lineal descent from the famous Dost Mahomed Khan, founder of the dynasty. Address: Bhopal, Central India.

BIGGS, ALBERT ASHLEY, Member of Institution of Civil Engineers (Member of Council and Ag. Chairman of the Advisory Committee in India), Member of Institution of Engineers, India (Member of Council), Ag. Agent, Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway and Chairman, Madras Port Trust. b. 1872. m. Edith Helen Pollak Educ.: Blundells, Tiverton, Devon; University College, Bristol, Technical Training, Stothert and Pitt, Bath. Assistant to Chief Engineer, London and India Docks Joint Committee; Asstt. Engineer, S. M. Railway; Executive Engineer, Madras Famine Feeder Lines; Resident Engineer and H. B. M. Consul, Mormugao, Portuguese India; Ch. Engineer, M. & S. M. Railway. Address: "Blenheim," Nungamlaikuzum, Madras.

BIKANER, MAHARAJA OF, MAJOR-GENERAL H. R. MAHARAJA DEHRAJ RAJ RAJESWAR NARENDRA SHIROMANI SRI SRI GANGA SINGHJI BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., cr. 1911; G.C.I.E., cr. 1907; K.C.S.I., cr. 1904; K.C.I.E., cr. 1901; G.C.V.O. cr. 1919, G.B.E. (Military Division), 1921; K.C.B., cr. 1918; A.-D.-C. Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, cr. 1918; Hon. LL.D., Cambridge and Edinburgh; Donat of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England; son of Maharaj Sri Lal Singhji Bahadur and adopted son of his own elder brother His late Highness Maharajah Sri Dungar Singhji Bahadur; born 3 October 1880; educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, m. 1897; is one of the Ruling Princes of India (succeeded 31st August 1887) and is entitled to a salute of 19 guns. Two sons, one daughter, one grandson, one grand-daughter. Invested with full ruling powers, 1898, granted Hon. Commission of Major in the British Army, 1900, and attached to 2nd Bengal Lancers; promoted Lt.-Col., 1909; Col., 1910; Major-General, 1917; served with British Army in China in command of Bikaner Camel Corps, 1901, (medal, despatches, K.C.I.E.); served European War, 1914-15 in France and in Egypt (despatches France and Egypt, K.C.B.). Major-General, 1914 Bronze Star Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile G.B.E. (Military Division). Awarded gold medal (1st Class) of Kaiser-i-Hind for public service in India during Great Famine of 1899-1900; attended the Coronation of King Edward VII, 1902, and of King George V, 1911; Hon. A.-D.-C. to H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, 1902; A.-D.-C. to H. I. M. the King Emperor since 1910. Was selected as one of the three Representatives of India at the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference, 1917. Received the Freedom of the Cities of London, Edinburgh, Manchester and Bristol. Was selected again as one of the two Representatives of India at the Imperial War Cabinet and the Peace Conference, 1919. Elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes, 1921, and re-elected in 1922 and continued as such in 1923. Represent-

ed the Ruling Princes of India for the third time at the Assembly of the League of Nations, 1924. Is a Patron of the Benares Hindu University and Sri Bharat Dharm Mahamandal, Benares a Vice-President of the East India Association, London; the Royal Colonial Institute, London; the Indian Gymkhana Club, London; the Indian Army Temperance Association, Simla; a member of the General Council of the Mayo College, Ajmer, and of the Managing Committee, Mayo College; General Council, Daly Coll., Indore; the first Member of the Indian Red Cross Society; the Benares Hindu University Court. Is a Freemason, Past Master of Lodge "Rajputana," Abu; a past Dy. Dist. Grand Master of the Dist. Grand Lodge, Bombay; Founder and Scribe E of the Royal Arch Chapter "Sir Ganga Singh," Abu; holds the rank of the Past District Grand Scribe Nehemiah in the Dist. Grand Chapter of Bombay; Mem. of Royal Arch Chapter, Ajmer and the Phulkian Lodge, Patiala. *Heir-Apparent:* Captain Maharaj Kumar Sri Sadul Singhji Bahadur, C.V.O., b. 7 September 1902, second son Maharaj Sri Bijay Singhji Bahadur, b. 29 March 1909. Grandson Bhanwarji Sri Karni Singhji Bahadur, b. 21 April 1924. *Address:* Bikaner, Rajputana

BILGRAMI, SYED HOSSAIN, NAWAB, IMADUL MULK, BAHADUR, C.S.I., 1908, b. Gya, 18 October 1842; s. of Syed Zainuddin Hossain Khan Bahadur of the Uncovenanted Civil Service, Bengal; m. 1st, 1864, wife died 1897; m. 2nd, Edith Boardman, I.S.A. (London), M.D.; four s. one *educ.* Presidency College, Calcutta. Professor of Arabic, Canning College, Lucknow, 1866-73; Private Secretary to H. E. Sir Salar Jung till his death; Private Secretary to H. H. the Nizam; Director of Public Instruction of H. H. the Nizam's Dominions; Member of the Legislative Council, Member of the Universities Commission, 1901-2; retired 1907; Member of Council of Secretary of State for India, 1907-09; *Publications:* Life of Sir Salar Jung; Lectures and addresses; (in collaboration) Historical and Descriptive Sketch of His Highness the Nizam's Dominions, 2 vols. *Address:* "Rocklands," Salabad, Hyderabad, Deccan.

BILIMORIA, ARDASHIR JAMSETJI, B.A., J.P., b. 18 September 1864. *Educ.:* Chandanwady High School and Elphinstone College, Bombay. Joined Messrs. Tata, in 1884. *Address:* Tata, Ltd., London.

BINNING, SIR ARTHUR WILLIAM, KT. (1916); Merchant in Rangoon; b. 5 August 1861, s. of Robert Binning, Glasgow; unmarried, *Educ.:* Glasgow Academy. *Address:* Rangoon, Burma.

BIRDWOOD, GENERAL SIR WILLIAM RIDDELL, G.C.B., 1923; 1st Lt., cr. 1919; G.C.M.G., cr. 1919; K.C.B., cr. 1917; K.C.S.I., cr. 1915; K.C.M.G., cr. 1914; C.B., 1911; A.D.C. General; C.I.E., 1908; D.S.O., 1908; Acting Commander-in-Chief, India, 1924; General Officer Commanding in Chief, Northern Command, since November 1920, b. 13 Sept. 1865; s. surv. s. of late H. M. Birdwood, C.S.I., M.A., LL.D. (Cantab), late Judge of High Court and Member of Council, Bombay;

I.C.S.; m. 1894, Jeannette Hope Gonville, *ed.* of Col. Sir B. P. Bromhead, C.B., 1st Bart., of Thurlby Hall, Lincoln. *Educ.:* Clifton College; R.M.C. Sandhurst. Lieut., 4th Batt. Royal Scots Fusiliers, 1883; 12th Lancers, 1885; 11th Bengal Lancers, 1886; Gen., 1917; Adjutant, Viceroy's Bodyguard, 1898; Brig. Major, S. Africa, 1899; D.A.A.G., S. Africa, 1900; Military Secretary to Com.-in-Chief, S. Africa (Lord Kitchener), 1902; A.M.S. and Interpreter to Com.-in-Chief, India, 1902; A.A.G. Headquarters, India, 1904; Military Secretary to Com.-in-Chief, India, 1905; Brigade Commander, 1909; Quarter-Master-General in India, 1912; Secy. to Govt. of India, Army Deptt. and Member of Governor General's Legislative Council, 1912-14; G.O.C. Australian Imperial Force, 1915-20; A.D.C. to the King, 1906-11; A.D.C. General to the King, 1917; served Hazara, 1891 (medal with clasp); Isazal, 1892; N.W. Frontier, India, 1897-98 (medal, two clasps); Tirah, 1897-98 (despatches, clasp); S. Africa, 1899-1902 (severely wounded), despatches 5 times, brevets of Major and Lieut.-Col., Queen's Medal, 6 clasps, King's medal, two clasps; Chief Staff Officer, Mohmand Expedition, 1908 (despatches, medal and clasp, D.S.O.); served in command of detached landing of Australian and New Zealand Army Corps above Gaba, Tepe, European War, 1914-18 (wounded, despatches, Commander-in-Chief, Mediterranean Expeditionary Force and Commander, Dardanelles Army, 1915-16; Commandant, Australian and New Zealand Army Corps and Australian Forces, France, 1916-18; G.C.M.G.; Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour, Croix de Guerre; Grand Officer of the Crown, Belgium; Croix de Guerre, Belgium); commanded 5th Army, France, 1918-19; Colonel, 12th Lancers, 1920; General, Commonwealth of Australia Military Forces, 1920; LL.D., Cambridge, 1919; LL.D., Melbourne (Victoria) and Sydney (N.S.W.), 1920; Fellow, Royal Colonial Institute, *Heir:* Captain Christopher Bromhead Birdwood, 11th P. W. O. Lancers. *Address:* Rawalpindi.

BLACKETT, SIR BASIL PHILLOTT, K.C.B., cr. 1921; C.B., 1915; Finance Member, Government of India, Nov. 1922. b. 1882; s. of late Rev. William Russell Blackett, M.A., Vicar of Holy Trinity Church, Nottingham, 1885-91; m. 1920, Beatrice, d. of late Edward H. Bonner, New York. *Educ.:* Marlborough; University College, Oxford, M.A., 1st Class Litt. Hum., 1904; entered Treasury, 1904; Secretary to Indian Finance and Currency Commission, 1913-14, and to Capital Issues Committee, 1915; went on special mission to U.S.A. Government, October 1914, in connection with exchange problems arising out of the war; Member of Anglo-French Financial Mission to U.S.A. which raised the Anglo-French Loan of 500,000,000 dollars, October 1915; Member of National War Savings Committee, 1916; Representative of British Treasury, in U.S.A., 1917-19; Controller of Finance Treasury, 1919-1922. Commander of the Order of the Crown of Italy, Officer of the Legion of Honour. *Address:* Delhi and Simla.

BLAIR, ANDREW JAMES FRASER, "Statesman" Editorial staff, Calcutta; Founded the Eastern Bureau, Limited, Calcutta, 1912; late Editor and Managing Director, The Empire, Commerce, The Empire Gazette, (daily and weekly newspapers published in Calcutta); b. Dingwall, Ross-shire, 30 September, 1872; s. of late Andrew Blair, Rector, Diagonal Burgh School, and Mary Ann Campbell, d. of late Thomas Duff, Glasgow; m. 1900, Constance, *ed.* of Thomas Ibbotson; one s. one *ed.* *Educ.:* Glasgow High School. Engaged in journalism, since 1890. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

BLATTER, THE REV. ETHELBERT, S.J., Ph.D. (1923), Prof. of Botany, St. Xavier's College, Bombay, b. 15 Dec. 1877. *Educ.* in Switzerland, Austria, Holland, France, England. Joined the Society of Jesus in 1899; Professor of Botany, St. Xavier's College, Bombay, since 1903; Principal of the same College from 1919-1924; Fellow and Syndic of the Bombay University since 1919. *Publications:* Bibliography of Indian Botany; The Ferns of Bombay; Natural Orders in Botany; The Palms of British India and Ceylon; The Flora of Aden; The Flora of the Indian Desert; Flora Arabica; Flowering Season and Climate; Contributions to the Flora of Baluchistan, Bionomie der Palmen der Alten Welt; numerous botanical papers in English and German Scientific Journals. *Address:* St. Xavier's College, Bombay.

BLINKINSOP, EDWARD ROBERT KAYE, C.I.E. (1911); Settlement Commissioner Jaipur, 1923, b. 15 May 1871; s. of Col. Blinkinsop; m. Florence Edith, d. of late Sir Stanley Ismay, K.C.S.I., three s. *Educ.:* St. Paul's School; Christ's College, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1890; Settlement Officer, 1897; Deputy Commissioner, 1902; Kaiser-i-Hind Medal, 1903; Commissioner of Excise, 1906; Chief Secretary to Chief Commissioner, 1912-13. Commissioner, 1916. *Address:* Jaipur, Rajputana.

BLOWERS, ARTHUR R. (Holloway, London; 1886), Commissioner Territorial Commander in the Salvation Army, Southern India. Was a Field Officer in Great Britain, and in India has held Secretarial and Divisional appointments. Has also been Chief Secretary in two Territories and Territorial Commander of three others. His last appointment was that of Secretary for India and Ceylon. m. Staff Captain Tomlinson, 1896. *Address:* Broadway, George Town, Madras.

BOILEAU, COLONEL GUY HAMILTON, C.B. (1919), C.M.G. (1917); D.S.O. (1915) on the staff of Royal Engineers, Army Headquarters; b. 27 Sept. 1870. m. Violet Mary (Fergusson). *Educ.:* Christ's Hospital, R.M.A., Woolwich. Active service W. Africa, 1892; Chitral Relief, 1895; China, 1899; Great War France, 1914-19; Afghan War 1919. *Address:* Simla.

BOMBAY, BISHOP OF, since 1908; RT. REV. EDWIN JAMES PALMER; o. s. of late Archdeacon Palmer of Oxford, and nephew of 1st Lord Selborne; b. 10 Jan. 1869 m. 1912, Hazel, y. d. of Col. E. H. Manning-Lee, Bighton Manor, Alresford. *Educ.:* Winchester and Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ordained 1896; Fellow, Balliol College, 1891; Tutor, 1893; Chaplain, 1896; Examining Chaplain to Bishop of Southwell, 1899-1904; to Bishop of Rochester, 1904-05;

to Bishop of Southwark, 1905-08. *Publication:* The Great Church Awakes (Longmans, Green & Co.). *Address:* Bishop's Lodge, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

BOSE, SIR BIPIN KRISHNA, K.C.I.E. (1920). Kt. cr. 1907; C.I.E., 1898; M.A.; Advocate in the Central Provinces, Vice-Chancellor, Nagpur University. b. 1851. *Address:* Nagpur, C.P.

BOSE, SIR JAGADISH CHANDRA, Kt. cr. 1917; C.I.E., 1903; C.S.I., 1911; M.A. (Cantab), D. Sc. (London); LL.D., F.R.S., Professor Emeritus of the Presidency College, Calcutta; Founder Director of Bose Research Institute; b. 30 Nov. 1858; *Educ.:* Calcutta; Christ's College, Cambridge; Delegate to International Scientific Congress, Paris, 1900; scientific member of deputation to Europe and America, 1907, 1914 and 1919. Published series of papers on Electric waves and other electric phenomena. (Proc. Roy. Society.) *Publications:* Response in the Living and Non-living; Plant Response, Electro-physiology of Plants, Irritability of Plants; Life Movements of Plants, Vols. I and II. *Address:* Bose Institute, Calcutta.

BOSE, SIR KAILAS CHUNDER, RAI BAHADUR, KT., cr. 1916, C.I.E., 1910; Kaiser-i-Hind, 1909; O.B.E. b. Decr. 26, 1850. *Educ.* Calcutta Training Academy, Calcutta University and Medical College, Fellow, Calcutta University; Vice-President, Indian Medical Congress; Fellow, R. Institute of Public Health; Member, British Medical Association; ex-Member of the Corporation of Calcutta and Hon. Presidency Magistrate; connected with many literary and scientific Societies of India and England and most of his contributions to the Medical Journals have been reproduced in the English and American Press. 2nd s. of late Babu Madhusan Basu. *Address:* 1, Sukra Street, Calcutta.

BOWEN, SIR JOHN CUTHBERT GRENSIDE, KT. (1925), Solicitor to the Govt. of Bombay, b. 15 Aug. 1860. m. Winifred Mary, d. of Colonel C. E. Hussey. *Educ.:* privately. Partner in the firm of Little & Co., Solicitors, Bombay. *Address:* Byculla Club, Bombay.

BRADLEY-BIRT, FRANCIS BRADLEY, B.A. (Oxon), I.C.S., Collector of Calcutta; and Member, Legislative Assembly, b. 25 June 1874. m. to Lady Nora Spencer Churchill, d. of 8th Duke of Marlborough. *Educ.:* Brasenose Coll., Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1898; Inner Temple, 1895; Magte. and Collr., Hooghly, Midnapore, Khulna and Calcutta, Asst. Director, Local Resources, Mesopotamia with rank of Lt.-Col., 1918; attached to British Legation, Teheran, 1918-19; mentioned in Despatches 1919. *Publications:* "Chota Nagpore," "The Story of an Indian Upland," "The Romance of an Eastern Capital," "Syihet Thackeray," "Through Persia," "Twelve Men of Bengal," "Bengal Fairy Tales." *Address:* United Service Club, Calcutta.

BRAY, DENYS DE SAUMAREZ, C.S.I. (1922); C.B.E., 1919; C.I.E., 1917; I.C.S., B.A.; Gold Kaiser-i-Hind Medal, 1912; Foreign Secretary (1920), b. 28 Nov. 1875, m. Celestina d. of Lt.-Col. H. E. P. Tigh, C.I.E. *Educ.:* Real Gymnasium, Stuttgart, Blundell's School, Tiverton; Balliol College, Tylorlan

Scholar, Oxford, 1898. Entered I.C.S., 1898; served in the Punjab, N.-W. F. Province, Baluchistan, and with the Govt. of India; Census Superintendent, Baluchistan, 1910; Dy. Secy., Foreign and Political Dept., 1910; offg. Private Secretary to the Viceroy 1918. Joint Foreign Secy., 1919. *Publications*: Brahui Language, 1909, Life History of a Brahui, 1918, etc. *Address*: The Secretariat, Simla or Delhi.

BRAY, SIR EDWARD HUGH, Kt., cr. 1917; Senior Partner, Gillanders, Arbuthnot & Co.; President, Bengal Chamber of Commerce; Member of Imperial Legislative Council; Controller of Contracts, Army Headquarters, b. 15 Apr. 1874; m. 1912, Constance, d. of Sir John Graham, 1st Bt. *Educ.*: Charterhouse; Trinity College, Cambridge. *Address*: Gillander House, Calcutta.

BRAYNE, ALBERT FREDERICK LUCAS, M.A. (Glas.), B.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. 1923, Indian Civil Service, Financial Adviser, Posts and Telegraphs; offg. Financial Adviser, Military Finance, b. 1 April 1884, m. 1909 Mary e. d. of James Thomson, M.D. Irvine, Ayrshire. *Educ.*: Irvine, Royal Academy, Glasgow University, Oxford (Trinity College). Appointed I.C.S., Bombay, 1908; Assistant Collector, Satara, 1908-1913; Superintendent, Land Records, 1913-1916; Under Secretary and Deputy Secretary to Bombay Government, Revenue and Financial Departments 1916-20. Subsequently Deputy Secretary, Finance Department, Government of India and in 1922-23 attached to the Incheape Committee on Retrenchment. *Address*: Finance Department, Government of India.

BROWN, PERCY, A.R.C.A. 1898; Indian Educational Service, 1899; Principal, Government School of Art, Calcutta, since 1909; b. Birmingham, 1872; m. 1908, d. of Lt.-Col. Sir Adelbert Talbot, K.C.I.E.; *Educ.*: Edward VI Grammar School and School of Art, Birmingham; Principal, Mayo School of Art and Curator, Museum, Lahore, 1899-1909; on Blundell's School, Tiverton; Balliol College, deputation, Assistant Director, Art Exhibition, Delhi Durbar, 1902-03; Officer-in-charge Art Section and Trustee, Indian Museum, 1910. *Publications*: Picturesque Nepal, 1912; Indian Painting, 1917; Tours in Sikkim 1917 (2nd Edition, 1922); Indian Painting under the Mughals, 1924. *Address*: 28, Chowringhee, Calcutta.

BUCHANAN, SIR GEORGE CUNNINGHAM, K.C.I.E. (1917); Kt. Bachelor (1914); C.I.E. (1911); Consulting Engineer to the Bombay Development Department. Partner in firm of C. B. Meik and Buchanan, 16, Victoria St., Westminster; b. 20 April 1865; m. Elizabeth Isabella Mead. Trained for the profession of a Civil Engineer on the works of the River Tyne Improvement Commissioners and other Port and River Works as a pupil of the Chief Engineers. Subsequently employed on Public Works in England, Venezuela, Spain, Canada, Argentine, West Indies; Chief Engineer, Dundee Harbour Trust (1896-1901); Chairman, Rangoon Port Trust (1901-1915); Director, Port and River Works, Mesopotamia Expeditionary Force (1915-17); Member, Indian Munitions

Board, 1917-1918. *Publications*: Professional papers read before the Institution of Civil Engineers and the Royal Society of Arts. *Address*: The Secretariat, Bombay.

BUCK, EDWARD JOHN, O.B.E. (1918); C.B.E. (1918); Reuter's Agent with Government of India and Director, Associated Press of India; late Vice-Chairman, Alliance Bank of Simla; Director, Associated Hotels of India and Boroohoo Timber Co. b. 1862; m. Annie Margaret, d. of late General Sir R. M. Jennings, K. C. B. *Educ.*: St. John's College, Hurstpierpoint. Was in business in Australia, Assistant and Joint Secretary, Countess of Dufferin's Executive Committee, "Our day" in India, 1917-18. *Publication*: "Simla, past and present." *Address*: Northbank, Simla.

BUCKLAND, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE PHILIP LINDSAY, Judge, High Court, Calcutta, since 1919. *Educ.*: Eton and New College, Oxford. m. Mary, d. of Livingstone Barday. Called to the Bar Inner Temple, 1896. Practised in High Court, Calcutta. *Publication*: Text Book on the Indian Companies Act, 1913. *Address*: Bengal Club, Calcutta.

BUNBURY, EVELYN JAMES' B.A. (Oxon.) M.C., J.P., Joint General Manager, Messrs. Forbes, Forbes, Campbell & Co., Ltd., Bombay, b. 31 Oct. 1888. *Educ.*: The Oratory School, Queen's College, Oxford and Caen Univ., France. Joined Forbes, Forbes, Campbell & Co., Ltd. and came to Bombay in 1912; served with Grenadier Guards in 1917 and 1918 in France ending up as Captain. *Address*: Mount Ida, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

BUNDI, H. H. MAHARAO RAJA, SIR RAGHUBIR SINGHJI BAHADUR, G.O.S.I. 1918; K.C.S.I., cr. 1897, G.C.I.E. cr. 1900, G.O.V.O. cr. 1911; b. 26 Sept. 1869, s. 1889. *Address*: Bundi, Rajputana.

BURDON, ERNEST, B.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. (1921); Secretary to Government of India, Army Dept, 1922; Member, Legislative Assembly, m. 1, ones. 2, Mary, d. of the Rev. W. Fairweather, D. D., Kirkcaldy. b. 27 Jan. 1881. *Educ.*: Edinburgh Academy, Univ. Coll., Oxford, Entered I.C.S. 1905, Financial Under Sec., Punjab Govt., 1911; Financial Under Sec. to Govt. of India, 1914; Deputy Financial Adviser, Military Finance, 1918; Financial Adviser to G. O. C. in Chief, Mesopotamia Expedition Force, 1918; Financial Adviser, Military Finance, 1919. *Address*: "Alderton" Simla.

BURDWAN, HON. SIR BIJAY CHAND MARTAB MAHARAJADHIRAJA BAHADUR OF, G.C.I.E. (1924); K.C.S.I., cr. 1911; I.O.M., cr. 1909, F.R.G.S., F.R.S.A., F.R.C.I., F.N.B.A., M.R.A.S.; b. 19 Oct. 1881; a Member of 3rd class in Civil Division of Indian Order of Merit for conspicuous courage displayed by him in the Overton Hall, Calcutta, 7 Nov. 1908; adopted by late Maharajadhiraja and succeeded, 1887, being installed in independent charge of zamindari, 1903; m. 1897, Radharani (Lady Mahtab) of Lahore; a Member of Imperial Legislative Council, 1909-12; Bengal Legislative Council 1907-1918; Member, Beng. Executive Council, from Jan. 1919 to

April 1924; Trustee of The Indian Museum, 1908; President, Agri-Horticultural Society of India, Calcutta, 1911-12; President of the British Indian Association, Calcutta, 1911-18; Trustee of the Victoria Memorial, Calcutta, since 1914. *Heir*: Maharajadhiraja Kumar Uday Chand Mahtab, b. 14 July 1905. *Address*: The Palace, Burdwan; Bijay Manzil, Alipore, Calcutta, Tejvilash Palace, Kalka; The Retreat, Kurseong; Rose Bank, Darjeeling; Mosapher Manzil, Agra, U. P.

BURFOOT, HENRY FRANCOIS, (Dayasagar) b. March 1st, 1867 (Hastings). Became a Salvation Army Officer in 1885. Secretary for the Salvation Army's Publicity and Literary work in the Western India Territory. Arrived in Bombay from England in January 1887. Has held various appointments in N. India, Punjab, Rajputana, Gujarat and Telegu country. Has edited the Gujarathi Salvation Army periodicals for the past 15 years. *Address*: The Salvation Army Hq. qrs., Morland Rd., Byculla, Bombay.

BUTLER, His Excellency Sir Montagu, Kt., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., M.A., I.C.S. Governor of Central Provinces (1925). *Educ.*: at Haileybury and Pembroke Coll., Cambridge. Served in the Punjab as Asst. Commr. 1896; junr. sec. to Fin. Commr. Nov. 1900; Asst. Settl. Officer, 1902; Registrar, Co-operative Credit Societies, 1904; Settl. Officer, Kotah State, 1904; special duty under For. Dept., 1908; ditto under Financial Dept., 1909; Deputy Commr., 1909; Dy. Sec. to Govt. of India (Home Dept.), 1911; special duty as Jt. Sec. to Royal Commn. on the Public Services in India, 1912-15; President, Punjab Legis. Council, 1921; Sec. to Govt. of India Department of Education, Health and Lands, 1922. President, Council of State, 1924. *Address*: Government House, Nagpur, C. P.

BUTLER, SIR (SPENCER) HARCOURT G.C.I.E. (1923) K.C.S.I., cr. 1911; C.S.I., 1909; C.I.E., 1901; I.C.S., D. Litt., LL.D., F.R.G.S., F.Z.S., Hon. Life Member of the American Museum of Natural History, New York. Governor of Burma, 1923. b. 1 Aug. 1869; m. 1894, Florence, d. of F. Nelson Wright; *Educ.*: Harrow; Balliol College, Oxford; Served as Secretary to Famine Commissioner; Financial Secretary to Government; Director of Agriculture; Judicial Secretary to Government; Deputy Commissioner, Lucknow; Foreign Secretary to the Government of India; Member of the Executive Council of the Governor-General; Lieut-Governor of Burma, 1915-17; Lieut-Governor and Governor of the U.P., 1918-1922; Governor of Burma, 1922. *Address*: Rangoon.

CADELL, PATRICK ROBERT, C.S.I. 1919; C.I.E., 1913; V.D., Indian Civil Service; Chairman, Bombay Port Trust (1922) b. 6 May 1871; m. in 1920, Agnes, d. of John Kemp, Bar-at-Law, London. *Educ.*: Edinburgh Academy; Haileybury; Balliol College, Oxford. Member of Oxford University Football XV., 1890-91; selected to play for South of England; service in India since 1891; served in Bombay Presidency and in Calcutta; Lieut.-Col. commanding 15th Bombay Battalion, Indian Defence Force; Chief Secretary, Govt. of Bombay. Commissioner in

Sind, 1919-20. Commissioner, Southern Division, Bombay, 1920-1922. Temp. Member of Council, 1924. Hon. Colonel; Hon. A.D.C. to Viceroy. *Address*: North End, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

CALCUTTA, BISHOP OF, RT. REV. FOSS WESTCOTT, D. D. b. 23 October 1863, s. of the Rt. Rev. B. F. Westcott (late Bishop of Durham). *Educ.*: Cheltenham and Peterhouse, Cambridge. Joined the S. P. G. Mission, Cawnpore, 1889. Bishop of Chota Nagpore, 1905. Bishop of Calcutta and Metropolitan in India, 1919. *Address*: Calcutta.

CALVERT, HUBERT, B.Sc. (Lond.), M.L.A., I.C.S. Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Punjab, b. 30 Nov. 1875. m. Oclanis, d. of late Edward O'Brien, I.C.S. *Educ.*: Univ. Coll. and St. Thomas' Hospital, London and King's Coll., Cambridge. Entered I.C.S. 1897; arrived India 1898; Asst. Commr. and Deputy Commr. Special Duty in Western Tibet 1906, Registrar, Co-operative Societies, 1916 to date; President, All-India Association of European Govt. Servants (1924), Member Punjab Legislative Council 1923-24. *Publications*: Laws and Principles of Co-operation (2nd Ed. 1921); The Wealth and Welfare of the Punjab (1922); Co-operative Consolidation of Holdings in the Punjab (Agric. Jour. of India); Progress in the Consolidation of Holdings in the Punjab (Progs. Indian Economic Assn); Agricultural Co-operation in India, and The Higher Finance of Agricultural Co-operation in India (International Review of Agricultural Economics); Agricultural Co-operation in the Punjab; The Reconstruction of the Punjab; pamphlets and various articles on economic subjects in the Bengal Economic Journal, Indian Journal of Economics, Bombay Co-operative Quarterly, etc., *Address*: Civil Secretariat, Lahore, Punjab.

CAMPBELL, HENRY, Bar-at-Law (King's Inn, Dublin), b. 29 March 1879. m. Miss Katherine Kippen. Honour man at the John Brooke Scholarship Examination; Ex-Chief Presidency Magistrate (Ag.) Bombay; Ex-Clerk of the Crown, Bombay; late Prof. Govt. Law School, Bombay. *Publication*: The Law of Land Acquisition in British India (Tripathi and Co.); Trading with the Enemy (Butterworth); The Law of War and Contract (Oxford University Press). *Address*: Datoobhoy Mansions, Mayo Road, Bombay.

CAREY, SIR WILLOUGHBY LANGER, Kt. (1924); Senior Resident Partner, Bird & Co. and F. W. Neillgers & Co. b. 12 Oct. 1875. m. Elizabeth Georgina Cott (nee Blackie). *Educ.*: Wellington College. Came to India 1901; Vice-President, Bengal Chamber of Commerce 1922; President, 1923; Bengal Legis. Council 1920-24; Panel of Dy. Presidents 1923-24; Sheriff of Calcutta 1924; Director, Imperial Bank of India 1922-24, President, 1924; Member, G. I. P. Railway Board; Commissioner of Port of Calcutta; Trustee of Victoria Memorial; and Member of Racial Distinctions Committee 1922. *Address*: 17, Alipore Park, Calcutta.

CASSELS, MAJ.-GENERAL ROBERT ARCHIBALD, C.B., 1918, C.S.I., D.S.C. Commanding Peshawar District. b. 15 March 1876. Served in the European war, including Egypt and Mesopotamia. *Address*: Peshawar N. W. F. P.

CASSON, THE HON. HERBERT ALEXANDER, B.A. (Oxon.), C.S.I., I.C.S., President, Punjab Legislative Council. *b.* 1887; *m.* Gertrude Russell, *d.* of late Capt. A. Hamilton Russell, of Heath House, Petersfield. *Educ.*: Marlborough and Hertford College, Oxford. *Address*: 4, Egerton Road, Lahore.

CAUMONT, RT. REV. MGR. FORTUNATUS HENRY, D.D., O.S.F.C.; 1st R.C. Bishop of Ajmer, since 1913; *b.* Tours, 10 Dec. 1871. *Educ.*: Tours. Took his vows, 1890; priest, 1896; joined Mission of Rajputana, 1897, Military Chaplain of Neemuch, 1900, and of Mhow, 1901; Prefect Apostolic of the same Mission, 1903. *Address*: Bishop's House, Ajmer.

CHAMAN LALL, DIWAN, M.L.A., Member, Legislative Assembly, *b.* 1892. *Educ.*: at Convent of the Sacred Heart, Murree; Gordon Mission College, Rawalpindi; Private Tutors at Polkstone, London and Paris. Joined the Middle Temple in 1910; finished his Bar Final in 1914; took Honours Degree in Jurisprudence from Jesus College, Oxford, 1917; spent 1918-1919 touring England in connection with the Home Rule Deputation headed by Mr. Tilak; was appointed General Editor of *Coterie*, a London quarterly of Art and Literature; returned to India in 1920; joined the staff of the *Bombay Chronicle* as Asst. Editor; founded the All-India Trade Union Congress in 1920. *Address*: Lahore (Punjab).

CHAMNEY, LT.-COL. HENRY, C.M.G. 1900; Principal, Police Training College, Surdah; *b.* Shillelagh, co. Wicklow; *m.* 1st, 1907, Hon. Cecilia Mary Barnewall (*d.* 1908); *sister* of 18th Lord Trimlestone; 2nd, 1913, Alice, *d.* of Col. W. E. Bellingham of Castle Bellingham, co. London. *Educ.*: Monaghan Diocesan School. Served South Africa, 1900, first as Major Commanding Lumsden's Horse, and later with South African Constabulary; joined Indian Police, 1909; accompanied the relief column to Manipur in 1891. *Address*: Police Training College, Surdah, Rajshahi, Bengal.

CHANDA KAMINI KUMAR, M.A. (1886), B.L., M.L.A., Vakili, High Court, Calcutta. *b.* Sept. 1864. *m.* Chandraprabha Chaudhuri. *Educ.*: Presidency Coll., Calcutta. *Address*: Silihar, Assam.

CHARANJIT SINGH, SIRDAR; Chief of the Punjab; Fellow R. G. S.; Member, Royal Society of Arts, member of Kapurthala ruling family; *b.* 1883; *s.* of Kanawa Sochet Singh; *Educ.*: Jullunder, Chief College, Government College, Lahore. *Address*: Charanjit Castle, Jullunder City; Chadwick, Simla W.

CHARKHARI STATE, H. H. MAHARAJA-DHRAJ SIPHARDAR-UL-MULK ARMARAO SINGH JU DEO BAHADUR; *b.* Jan 1903, S. 1920, *m.* 1923, *d.* of T. S. of Virpur, Kathiawar. *Educ.*: Mayo Coll. and privately. *Mnpr.* *Address*: Charkhari State, Bundelkhand.

CHATFIELD, GEORGE ERNLE, B.A. (Ox.) 1898; Chief Secretary, Government of Bombay, *b.* March 26, 1875. *Educ.*: Winchester Coll. Oxford (New College). Entered I.C.S., 1899. *Address*: Secretariat, Bombay.

CHATTERJEE, SIR ATUL CHANDRA; K.C.I.E. (1925), C.B.E., High Commissioner for India (1924) *b.* 24 Nov. 1874. *Educ.*: Hare School and Presidency Coll., Calcutta, and King's Coll., Cambridge; *m.* Vina Mookerjee (deceased). Entered I.C.S. S., 1897. Served in U. P. Special Inquiry into Industries in U. P. 1907-08, Registrar, Co-operative Societies, U.P. 1912-16; Revenue Sec., U. P. Govt., 1917-18; Ch. Sec., U. P. Govt., 1919; Govt. of India delegate to International Labour Conf., Washington, 1919 and Geneva, 1921; Member, Munitions and Industries Board, 1920; Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Industries, 1921; Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council in Charge of Industries and Labour; Member of the Legislative Assembly. *Publication*: Note on the Industries of the United Provinces (1909). *Address*: Grosvenor Square, London.

CHATTERTON, SIR ALFRED, K.J.H. (1900) C.I.E., 1912; Kt. 1919, B. Sc., F.C.G.I., A.M. I.C.E., M.I.M.E., etc.; Industrial Adviser and Director of Sandal Oil Factories, Govt. of Mysore, since 1918; *b.* 10 Oct. 1866; *m.* 2nd 1901, Alice Gertrude, *d.* of W. H. Wilson; two *s.* one *d.* *Educ.*: Finsbury Technical College; Central Institution, South Kensington. Indian Educational Service, 1888. Director of Industries, Madras, 1908; Director of Industries, Mysore, 1912; Mem. of Indian Industrial Commission, 1916-18. *Publications*: Industrial and Agricultural Problems in India, Lift Irrigation, and Industrial Evolution in India. *Address*: Bangalore and The Coppice, Beckenham Kent.

CHAUBAL, SIR MAHADEV BHASKAR, K.C.I.E., *cr.* 1917; C.S.I., 1911; B. A., LL.B.; *b.* 1. Sept. 1857; *m.* Anandibai, only *d.* of Parashram S. Gupta, 1870. *Educ.*: Government High School, Poona; Deccan College, Poona, Assistant Master, Elphinstone High School, Bombay, 1879-83; Vakili, High Court, Bombay, 1883; Acting Puisne Judge, High Court, Bombay, 1908; Member of the Executive Council of the Governor of Bombay, 1910-12; Council of the Governor of Bombay, 1915-17; Member of the Public Services and 1915-17; Member of the Indian Commn., 1913-15. Chancellor, Indian Women's University, 1920. *Address*: 6, Finance Office Road, Poona.

CHAUDHARI JOGESH CHANDRA, B.A. (Oxon) M.A. (Cal.), Bar-at-Law, *b.* 28 June 1863, *m.* Sarasibala Devi, 3rd *d.* of Sir Surendranath Banerjee. *Educ.*: Krishnagar Collegiate School, Presidency College, Calcutta, St. Xavier's College, Calcutta and New College, Oxford. For some time Lecturer of Physics and Chemistry at Vidyasagar College, Calcutta; Editor, Calcutta Weekly Notes since 1896, Organising Secy., Indian Industrial Exhibitions in Calcutta in 1901-1902 and 1906-7; Member, Bengal Council, 1904-7. Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-1923. *Publications*: Calcutta Weekly Notes. *Address*: 3, Hastings Street, and "Devadwar," 34, Ballygunge, Circular Road, Calcutta.

CHAUDHRI LAL CHAND, HON. LIEUTENANT THE HON. RAO BAHADUR, B.A., LL.B., O.B.E., Minister, Punjab Government, Lahore. *b.* 1882. *m.* Shrimati Sushila Devi, belonging to a Sikh Jat Family of Ferozepur Dist. *Educ.*: St. Stephen's College, Delhi, Joined

Revenue Department, 1904; practised as lawyer at Rohtak; elected Vice-Chairman, District Board, 1914-1923; elected Punjab Council, 1916, nominated Council of State, 1922; Presdt., All India Jat Maha Sabha, 1918 (elected); Manager of High School for Sons of Soldiers; hon. recruiting officer during war. *Address*: Punjab Secretariat, Lahore.

CHETTIAR, THE HON. DEWAN BAHADUR, S. R. M., SIR ANXAMALAI CHETTY, Banker and Member of the Council of State, *b.* 1881. Has been a member of Madras Legislative Council, Governor of the Imperial Bank of India; Manager and founder of the Sri Meenakshi Coll., Chidambaram; is a life member of the Senate of the University of Madras; is a member of the Nattukkottai Chetty Community. *Address*: Natana Vilas, 38, Police Commr.'s Rd., Vepery, Madras.

CHETTY, R. K. SHANMUKHAM, B.A., B.L., Lawyer and Member, Legislative Assembly, *b.* 17 Oct. 1892. *Educ.*: The Madras Christian College. Elected as a member of the Madras Legis. Council in 1920; was appointed Council Secretary to the Development Minister in 1922; in Oct. 1922 was deputed by the Madras Govt. to report about measures of Temperance Reform in Bombay, Bengal and the United Provinces. Elected in 1923 as member, Legislative Assembly. Visited England in May 1924 as one of the members of the Deputation sent by the National Convention of India. *Address*: "Hawarden," Race Course, Coimbatore.

CHINTAMANI, CHIRRAVOORI YAJNESWARA, Chief Editor of *The Leader* of Allahabad, *b.* 10 April 1880, *m.* Srimati Krishnavenema, *Educ.*: Maharaja's College, Vizianagaram, Editor of *The Leader*, Allahabad, 1899-20, Member, U. P. Legislative Council, 1916-1923; Delegate of the Liberal Party to England, 1919; General Secretary, National Liberal Federation of India, 1918-20; President, Ibid, 1920; Minister of Education and Industries, U. P., 1921-23; *Publications*: Indian Social Reform, 1901; Speeches and Writings of Sir Pherozeshah Mehta, 1905. *Address*: Gauri Nivas, 18 George Town, Allahabad.

CHITNAVIS, SIR GANGADHAR MADHAV, K.C.I.E., C.I.E.; *b.* 1893; President, Central Provinces, Legis. Council; President, Nagpur Municipality, 1896-1918; selected to represent Central Provinces on Impl. Legislative Council, 1893-1895, 1898-99; President of C. P. and Berar Provincial Conference, 1906; additional member of Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1907; elected representative of landholders in the C. P. reformed Council, 1910-1916. Nominated Member of Imp. Legis. Council from 1918; landholder in C. P. *Address*: Nagpur, Central Provinces.

CHITNAVIS, THE HON. MR. SHANKAR MADHAV, B.A., Kaiser-I-Hind Gold Medal (1901); Imperial Service Order (1913); Landholder, *b.* Dec. 3, 1883; *m.* Parvathibai. *Educ.*: Free Church Mission School, Nagpur and then at Elphinstone College, Bombay. Appointed Probationer for Civil Service under the Statutory rules, 13 July 1885; confirmed as Assistant

Commissioner, 5th Oct. 1887; appointed Deputy Commissioner, December 1886; a member of the Indian Factory Labour Commission, 1907-08; officiated as Divisional Commissioner 1909-10; retired from Service 1st March 1916; was Minister to C. P. Government from 18 Decr. 1920 to 27 March 1924. *Address*: Near Mental Hospital, Nagpur, C. P.

CHOKSY, DR. NUSSERWANJEE HORMASJEE, C.I.E., 1922; Khan Bahadur (1897); Chevalier of the Crown of Italy (1899); Medallist of des Epidemies Republique Francaise (1906); M.D. (Hon. Causa), Freiburg, F.C.P.S. (Bombay), L.M. & S., (Bombay 1884); Member, Bombay Medical Council, 1912, *b.* 7 Oct. 1861; *m.* Serebhai Maneckjee Jhaveri. *Educ.*: Elphinstone High School and Grant Medical College. Medical Superintendent, Acworth Lepor Asylum, 1890-97; Medical Superintendent of Arthur Road Plague and Infectious Diseases Hospital (1888-1921) and Maratha Plague Hospital (1902-1921). *Publications*: Numerous publications on Plague, Cholera, Relapsing Fever, Leprosy, Special reports connected with these subjects, etc. *Address*: Sheridan House, Gowalia Tank Road, Bombay.

CHRISTOPHERS, LIEUT.-COL. SAMUEL RICKARD, M.B., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.M.S.; Director, Kala-Azar Commission, Member, Malaria Commission, Royal Society and Colonial Office, 1898-1902. *Address*: Central Research Institute, Kasauli.

CLARKE, CHARLES AGAGY, B.A. (Honours) Oxon, 1895, C.B.E. (1919), I.C.S., Commissioner, Nagpur, C. P., *b.* 14 May 1872. *Educ.*: at St. Paul's School and Univ. Coll., Oxford. Joined the I.C.S. Dec. 1896, became Dy. Commissioner, 1908 and Deputy Commissioner, Nagpur, January 1913 to April 1919; rendered certain war services and thanked by the Government of India (Mil. Dept.) 1918; became Commissioner, Raipur, C.P., April 1920. *Address*: Nagpur, C.P.

CLARKE, SIR GEOFFREY ROTHE, Kt. (1925), C.S.I., 1921; O.B.E. (1917). Serbian Order of the Sveti Sava, 1923. Director-General, Posts and Telegraphs, since 1918, *b.* July 1871, *m.* Hilda Geraldine Seymour. *Educ.*: Corrigan School, Kingstown and T. C. Dublin. Entered I.C.S., 1895. Officiated as P. M. G., Punjab, and N.-W.F., 1903. Conferred as P. M. G., Madras, 1906. On special duty with Ministry of Munitions in London, 1916, and sent on duty to America and Canada. Delegate for Government of India at International Postal Congress, Madrid, 1920, and International Postal Congress, Stockholm, 1924. *Publications*: "The Outcasts," "The Post Office of India and Its Story," "The Rookery, Simla."

CLARKE, MAJOR ROBERT WILLIAM, A.M. 1st. C.E., M.I.M.E., H.M. Trade Commissioner, Bombay, *b.* 20 Jan. 1872, *m.* Dorothy Ann St. Aubyn, *d.* of late Major W. J. St. Aubyn, Durham Light Infantry. *Educ.*: at Malvern College and the Sheffield Schol. of Mines, North West Ry., Central Provinces, and Bikaner State, from 1893-1901. Served as Mining and Civil Engineer in Australia,

Canada, British North Borneo, Russia, Roumania and Spain. Joined 5th Batt. York and Lancaster Regiment August 1914 and served in France till March 1919. Seconded to Foreign Office March, 1919 and served on Railway Mission to Poland, Economic Mission in Central and Eastern Europe, and as Economic Expert to the Interallied Plebiscite Commission in Upper Silesia up to September 1922. Was Member of the Economic Experts Conference in Paris, 1921 and Foreign Office delegate to the League of Nations on the Upper Silesian question, 1921. Lectured before the British Institute of International Affairs May 1923 on "The Influence of Fuel on International Politics." *Address*: Exchange Buildings, Ballard Estate, Bombay.

CLATTON, HUGH BYARD, C.I.E. (1924); I.C.S. Municipal Commr., Bombay. b. 24 Dec. 1877; m. Annie Blanch Nepean. *Educ.*: St. Paul's School, Wadham College, Oxford. 1st Class Hon. Mods, 1st Class Lt. Hum. Came to India 1901; served in Bombay Presidency: employed in Military Intelligence Branch of War Office, 1914-19. *Address*: Mount Pleasant Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

CLUTTERBUCK, SIR PETER HENRY, KT (1924); C.I.E., 1918; C.B.E., 1919; V.D. 1912; F.R.G.S., F.Z.S., F.E.S.; Inspector-General of Forests to the Government of India since 1921. b. 1868; s. of late Alexandra Clutterbuck of Red Hall, Watford; m. 1896, Rose Winifred, d. of Alfred Barrow Wilson Marriott, formerly District Superintendent of Police, Central Provinces, India; two s. *Educ.*: Clifton College; Bloxham; Coopers Hill College, Indian Forest Service, Central Provinces, 1889; transferred to the United Provinces, 1896; Deputy Conservator of Forests, 1897, Conservator of Forests, Eastern Circle; U.P., 1913; Chief Conservator of Forests; U.P., 1915; Kaisar-i-Hind Medal (silver), 1911; served in Volunteer forces, 1887-1918 was Lt.-Col. in command of the 8th (Northern) U.P. Horse of the India Defence Force, 1917-18; was Member of U. P. Legislative Council, 1919-20. *Address*: Simla, India.

COBDEN-RAMSAY, LOUIS EVELLIGH BAWTREE, J.P., C.I.E. I.C.S. Political Agent, Orissa Feudatory States, since 1905; b. 29 Oct. 1873, m. Dorothy Forster Grieve, d. of C. J. Grieve, J. P. Brauxholm Park. *Educ.*: Dulwich College, Sidney; Sussex College, Cambridge. Arrived in India, 1897; Under-Secretary to Govt. of Bengal in Revenue and General Dept., 1900-2; Registrar, Co-operative Credit Societies, 1905. *Publication*: *Gazetteer, Orissa Feudatory States*. *Address*: Sambalpur, B. N. Railway.

COLE, LIEUT.-COLONEL HENRY WALTER GEORGE, C.S.I.; Deputy Commissioner, Assam Commission; Political Agent in Manipur, 1914. *Educ.*: Wellington College; R.M.C., Sandhurst. Joined 5th Fusiliers, 1885; 2nd Gurkhas, 1887; Asst. Commissioner, Assam 1891; Dy. Commissioner, 1901; Supdt., Lushai Hills, 1906-11; Director, Temporary Works, Delhi, 1912-13; served Hazara, 1888; Lushai, 1888-1889; Chin Lushai, 1889-92; N. E. Frontier, 1891. *Address*: The Residency, Manipur.

COLLINS, COLONEL ROBERT JOHN, C.M.G. (1918); D.S.O. (1915); Legion of Honour (1915); Croix de Guerre (1917); Director of Military Training, A. H. Q. b. 22 Aug. 1880; m. E. A. Monro, widow of Capt. E. S. Hill, Royal Fusiliers. *Educ.*: Marlborough Coll. Joined R. Berks Regt., served in S. African Wars 1899-1902, Egyptian Army, 1904-11; Staff Col., 1912-13; Great War France, 1914-19; Instructor, Staff College, 1919-23. *Address*: Army Headquarters, Simla.

COLVIN, GEORGE LETHBRIDGE, C. B. (1919); C.M.G. (1918); D.S.O. (1916); Commandatore of the Order of St. Maurice and St. Lazarus (Italy) 1920; Agent, East Indian Railway. b. 27 March 1878. m. Katherine Mylne, d. of James Mylne of Edinburgh. *Educ.*: Westminster. Joined E. I. Railway, 1898; served in Army (France and Italy) during war 1914-1919; Hon. Brigadier-General in Army; Director of Development Ministry of Transport, London, from 1919 to 1921; Rejoined E. I. Rly. in 1921 as Agent. *Address*: Bengal Club, Calcutta.

COOKE, MAJOR-GENERAL HERBERT FOTHERGILL, C.B.E. (1924); C.B. (1919); C.S.I. (1921); D.S.O. (1917); I.A.; Commanding Sind-Rajputana District from April 1924. b. 13 Nov., 1871; m. 1923, Harriet Mary Hornby. *Educ.*: All Hallows School, Hoxton; R.M.C.; Sandhurst. First Commission, 1892; joined Indian Army, 1893; Captain, 1901; Major, 1910; Brevet Lt.-Col., 1912; Substantive Lt.-Colonel, 1916; Bt.-Col., 1917; Substantive Colonel, 1917; Temporary Major-General (1918); Substantive Major-General (1921), served Chitral, 1895 (medal and 1 clasp); Tirah, 1897 (2 clasps); Waziristan, 1902 (clasp); Tibet Expedition and March to Lhasa, 1904 (medal and clasp); European War, from Jan. 1915 to October 1917 (despatches seven times, C.B., D.S.O., Bt.-Col.); several years on Staff Appointments in India including 4 years as Dy. Adjutant-General in India and officiating Adjutant-General from March to Sept. 1920. Military Secretary, Army Headquarters, 1922-24. *Address*: C/o Messrs. Grindlay & Co., Bankers.

COPPEL, RT. REV. FRANCIS STEPHEN, R. C. Bishop of Nagpur, since 1907; b. Les Gets, Savoy, 5 Jan. 1867. *Educ.*: College of Evian, University of France, Lyons, B.A., B. Sc. Entered Congregation of Missionaries of St. Francis de Sales, Annecy; Priest, 1890; sent to India for mission of Nagpur, 1892; for fifteen years attached to St. Francis de Sales College, Nagpur, as professor and principal. *Address*: Nagpur.

CORBETT, GEOFFREY LATHAM, B.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. (1921); Joint Secretary, Commerce Department, Government of India. b. 9 Feb. 1881. m. Gladys, Kate, d. of late George Bennett, Esq., Little Rissington Manor, Glos. *Educ.*: Bromsgrove School, Hertford Coll., Oxford. 1st Class. Hon. Mods. (1902). 1st Class Lit. Hum. (1904). Passed into I.C.S., 1904; Asst. Commissioner, C. P., 1905-09; Settlement Officer, Sauror, 1910-16; Dy. Commissioner, C.P.; Dir. of Industries and Dy. Secretary, C. P., 1916-18; Dy. Secretary, Com. Depart., Government of India,

1919-21; Director of Industries and Registrar, Co-operative Credit Societies, C. P., 1923; Offg. Secretary, Commerce Department, Government of India, 1923-24. *Address*: Commerce Department, Government of India, Delhi and Simla.

COTELINGAM, JOHN PRACASA RAO, M.A. F. M. U. M. L. A. (1920), Retired Principal of the Wardlaw College, Bellary, 1891-1918, b. 9th Dec. 1860. m. Miss Padmanji, d. of the Rev. Baba Padmanji of Bombay. *Educ.*: Madras Christian Coll.; Asst., Master, London Mission High School, Madras; Headmaster, Wesley Coll.; Principal Hindu Coll., Cuddalore, 1889-1891; Member, Bellary Dist. Board and Taluk Board since 1895; Vice-Presdt., Dist. Board, 1901-4; Member, Bellary Municipal Council since 1893; Presdt., District Educational Council, Bellary. Represents Indian Christian Community and Madras Presidency on the Legis. Assembly. *Address*: Rock Cottage, Bellary.

COTTERELL, CECIL BERNARD, C.I.E., I.C.S. Collector, Chingleput District (1924); m. 1922. *Educ.*: St. Peter's School, York; Balliol College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1893; has served in the Madras Presidency, since 1899; Deputy Commissioner, Salt and Abkari Dept., 1905; Private Sec. to Governor of Madras, 1912-15. *Address*: Madras.

COTTON, CHARLES WILLIAM EGERTON, C.I.E. (1920), Agent to the Governor-General, Madras States, 1923, b. 1874. *Educ.*: Eton and Univ. Col., Oxford; I.C.S., 1897. District work in Madras until 1907 when appointed Asst. Director of Statistics, Calcutta; Offg. Dir.-Genl. Commercial Intelligence, 1908-10; Offg. Dir. of Industries, Madras, 1909-10; Dy. Secy. to the Govt. of Madras, 1911-12; Dy. Secy., Govt. of India, 1912-15; Collector of Customs, Calcutta, 1916-21; Director of Industries, Madras, 1921. *Publications*: *Review of the Trade of India, 1908 and 1910*; *Calcutta Chatterbox, 1918*; *Handbook of Commercial Information, 1919*. 2nd Edition 1924. *Address*: The Residency, Trivandrum, Travancore.

COTTON, THE HON. SIR HARRY EVAN AUGUSTE-KT (1925), C.I.E. (1921), President, Bengal Legislative Council. b. 27 May 1868, eld. s. of the late Sir Henry Cotton, K.C.S.I.; m. Nora, d. of the late W. H. Grimley, I.C.S., Member, Board of Revenue, Bengal. *Educ.*: Mont Liban, School, Pau; Sh. borne; Jesus Coll., Oxford, (open scholar, second class (honours), Classical Moderations, modern history, jurisprudence). Secretary and Treasurer, Oxford Union Society; called to Bar at Lincoln's Inn, 1893; Advocate, High Court at Fort William in Bengal, 1893-1906; Member, Calcutta Corporation, 1900-1906; Member, London County Council, 1910-1922 (Deputy Chairman, 1914-15, County Alderman, 1919-1922); M.P. for East Finsbury, July-Nov. 1918; Editor of "India," 1906-17; Hon. Secy., Indian Reforms Committee, 1919-1922. *Publications*: "Calcutta, Old and New," "The Century in India, 1800-1900"; Annotated Edition of "Hartly House, a novel of the time of Warren Hastings." *Address*: Town Hall, Calcutta.

COUBROUGH, ANTHONY CATHOART, C. B. E. (1918); M.A., B.Sc., C.E., M.I.E.E., M.I. MECH. E., M.I.E. (Ind.); General Manager for India, Messrs. Mather and Platt, Ltd. b. 10th Feb. 1877; *Educ.*: Glasgow University. Joined Mather and Platt, Ltd., in 1898 as apprentice, subsequently became General Manager, Electrical Department and in that capacity travelled widely on the Continent; went to India and South Africa and eventually returned to India to establish Mather and Platt's own office in Calcutta, Bombay and other centres for the control of their business from Mesopotamia to the Straits; has travelled in China, Japan, United States of America, Australia and Egypt. During war services were lent to Govt. of India; under Munitions Board was Controller of Priority and later Controller of Munitions Manufacture; *Publications*: Pamphlets on Technical and Economic subjects. *Address*: 7, Hare Street, Calcutta.

COUSINS, JAMES HENRY, Doctor of Literature of Keioijuku University, Japan, (1922), Principal, Brahmavidyashrama (School of International Culture), Adyar, Madras. m. Margaret E. Cousins, B. Mus., J.P. (1903). *Educ.*: at various schools in Ireland and partly in Trinity College, Dublin (Teachers' Course). Private Secretary to Lord Mayor of Belfast; Asstt. Master, Belfast Mercantile Academy; Asstt. Master, High School, Dublin; Reporter to Royal Academy of Medicine in Ireland; Demonstrator in Geography and Geology, Summer Course, Royal Col. of Science, Ireland; Asstt. Editor, "New India," Madras; Principal, Theosophical College, Madanapalle; Fellow and Prof. of English, National University, Adyar; University Extension and Post Graduate Lecturer, Calcutta University, Benares Hindu University, Mysore University; a co-founder of the Irish Literary and Dramatic Revival; poet, dramatist, critic, educationist, philosopher. *Publications*: (Prose) A text-book of Modern Geography, The Wisdom of the West, The Bases of Theosophy, The Renaissance in India, The Kingdom of Youth, Footsteps of Freedom, New Ways in English Literature, Modern English Poetry, The Cultural Unity of Asia, The Play of Brahma, Work and Worship; (Poetry) Ben Madhigan, Sung by Six, The Blended King, The Voice of One, The Awakening, The Bell Branch, Etain the Beloved, Straight and Crooked, the Garland of Life, Ode to Truth, Moulded Feathers, The King's Wife (drama), Sea-Change, Surya Gita. *Address*: Leadbeater Chambers, Adyar, Madras.

COUSINS, MRS. MARGARET E., Bachelor of Music (Royal University of Ireland, 1902), Honorary Secretary, Women's Indian Association and Hon. Magistrate, Madras. b. 7 Nov. 1878. m. Dr. J. H. Cousins. *Educ.*: Dublin and Londonderry. Solo pianist before marriage; afterwards became interested in reform movements in addition to music; Secretary, Irish Vegetarian Society; Hon. Treasurer and foundation member of Irish Women's Franchise League, a militant suffrage society in which she worked for seven years and suffered imprisonment twice

in the cause. Left Ireland 1913; spent two years in Liverpool, came to India in Oct. 1915. *Publications*: articles in many newspapers and magazines; author of "The Awakening of Asian Womanhood." *Address*: Lead-beater Chambers, Adyar, Madras.

CUTTS, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE WILLIAM STRACHAN, C.I.E., I.C.S., Barrister; Puisne Judge, Patna High Court, 1918; Registrar of Patna High Court, 1916; District, and Sessions Judge, Bihar and Orissa, 1912. *Educ.*: Dollar; Trinity College, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1895; Joint Magistrate, 1905. *Address*: High Court, Patna.

COVENTRY, BERNARD, C.I.E., 1912; Agricultural Adviser to Native States in Central India, since 1916; formerly Agricultural Adviser to Govt. of India, Director of Agricultural Research Institute, and Principal of Agricultural College, Pusa, Behar; b. 10 Dec. 1859. *Educ.*: Beaumont Coll. Came to India, 1881, and joined indigo industry; started agricultural research station on modern lines, 1899; on foundation of Pusa Agricultural Research Institute and College, 1904, was made first Director and Principal; acted as Insp. Gen. of Agriculture and became first Agricultural Adviser to Govt. of India; retired 1916. *Address*: Indore, C.I.

COVERNTON, ALFRED LAURENCE, M.A. (Oxon), Secretary, University Reform Committee (on deputation), Principal, Elphinstone College, Bombay (permanent); b. June 11, 1872. *m.* Olive Helena, d. of Dr. W. Love. *Educ.*: Merchant Taylors School, London, and St. John's College, Oxford. First Class, Literae Humaniores, 1895; Assistant Master, Merchant Taylors School, London, 1895-1898; Prof. of English and History, Elphinstone College, Bombay, 1898-1905; Inspector of European Schools, Bombay and Central Provinces, 1905-7; Principal and Professor of English, Elphinstone College, Bombay, 1908-1924; Deputy Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1913-14. *Address*: Elphinstone College, Bombay.

COX, VEN. LIONEL EDGAR, M.A., Senior Chaplain, St. George's Cathedral, Madras and Archdeacon of Madras; b. 28 March 1868. *Educ.*: Somerset College; Bath; Dorchester Theological College; Durham University. Deacon, 1891; Priest, 1894; joined Madras Ecclesiastical Establishment, 1898; Archdeacon of Madras and Bishop's Commissary, 1910. *Address*: Cathedral, Madras.

COX, STEPHEN, C.I.E. (1921), M.B.E., Ch. Conservator of Forests, Madras; b. 23 Dec. 1870. *m.* Nora, d. of Sir Alfred Bourne, F.R.S., K.C.I.E. *Educ.*: Harrow and Cooper's Hill. *Address*: Madras.

CRERAR, JAMES, C.S.I. (1922); C.I.E. (1917); Secretary to the Government of India, Home Department, since December, 1922. b. 1877; *m.* to Evelyn, d. of the late Hon. Charles Brand. Educated at George Watson's College, Edinburgh, Edinburgh University and Balliol College (Oxon). Assistant Collector, Sind; Manager of Encumbered Estates, Sind; Assistant Commissioner in Sind; Deputy Municipal Commissioner, Bombay; Municipal Commissioner, Bombay; Private Secretary to

H. E. the Governor of Bombay; Sec. to Govt. of Bombay, Home Dept. *Address*: The Secretariat, Delhi or Simla.

CROSTHWATTE, REV. CANON ARTHUR, Exhibitioner of Pembroke College, Cambridge, B.A. (Sen. Opt.), 1892, Delhi Durbar Medal, 1911, Kaiser-i-Hind Medal, 1st Class, 1923, Missionary, S.P.G.; b. 2 Nov. 1870, *m.* to Kate Louisa Barlow. *Educ.*: at St. Peter's School, York and Pembroke College, Cambridge, Missionary, S. P. G. and Vice-Principal, Christ Church College, Cawnpore, 1893-1909, Principal, 1910-1912; Fellow of Allahabad Univ. 1905; Hon. Fellow 1913; Chaplain of Moradabad and Head of S. P. G. Mission, 1909-10 and 1912 to present date, Canon of All Saints' Cathedral, Allahabad, 1921. *Publications*: "The Lessons of the Rig Veda for Modern India," "Patriotism," "Theosophy," Commentary on II Corinthians in The Indian Church Commentary Series, "Taswiran par sawal o jawab," "Dua ki kitab par sawal o jawab," "Asha-i-Rab ham kitarib par sawal o jawab." *Address*: S. P. G. Mission, Moradabad, U.P.

CRUMP, LESLIE MAURICE, C.I.E. (1921). Resident at Gwalior (1924). b. 12 September 1875. *m.* Jean Dunlop McKerrrow, d. of Dr. George McKerrrow of Ayr, Scotland, 1 s. 1 d. *Educ.*: Merchant Taylors School, Merton Coll., Oxford; Rugby football blue, 1896-97. Entered I.C.S., Bengal, 1898. Pol. Dept., Govt. of India, 1900. Served in Hyderabad, N. W. Frontier, Central India, Punjab States and Baroda. *Publications*: The Marriage of Nausicaa and other poems. *Address*: The Residency, Gwalior.

CUBITT, MAJOR-GENERAL THOMAS ASTLEY, C.B.E. (1924); C.B., 1919; C.M.G., 1916; D.S.O., 1903; R.A., G.O.C., Bengal Presidency and Assam District; b. 9 April 1871, *m.* 29 April 1920, Olive, widow of Col. B. S. Grissell, Norfolk Regt. and d. of the late Col. H. Wood, C. B., Rifle Brigade. *Educ.*: at Haileybury, R. M. Academy and Staff College. Entered Army 1891, Deputy Commissioner, Somaliland Protectorate, 1914; served West Africa, 1898 (medal with clasp); expedition against Munshi, 1900 (despatches, clasp); West Africa, 1901, as Staff Officer (despatches, brevet major, medal with clasp); West Africa, 1902, (despatches clasp); West Africa, 1903, Kano-Sokoto Campaign (despatches, clasp, D.S.O.); European war in command of troops, Somaliland, 1914-15 (despatches, C.M.G.), European War in France, 1915-18; C. B., Lt. Col., Major-General 3 June 1919. *Address*: United Service Club, Pall Mall, London; S.W.1.

CUMBERLEGE, CAPT. GEOFFREY FENWICK JOCELYN, M.A. (Oxon); D.S.O. (1917); M.C., (1918); Manager in India of the Oxford University Press. b. April 19, 1891. *Educ.*: Charterhouse and Worcester Coll., Oxford. Commission in Royal Fusiliers (Sept. 1914), Substantive Capt. in Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire L. I. (Oct. 1917); Brigade Major 1917-18, Apptd. Manager in India of Oxford University Press, Oct. 1919. *Address*: Royal Bombay Yacht Club, Bombay.

CURRIMBOY EBRAHIM, Sir, 2nd Baronet (Mahomedbhoy Currimbhoy Ebrahim), Merchant and Millowner, b. 11 Sep. 1867. *m.* Sakinabal, d. of the late Mr. Jajirbhoy Pirbhoy. *Educ.*: privately. A leading member of the Khoja Moslem Community; a trustee of the Port of Bombay for 16 years; member, Municipal Corporation, for over 20 years; a director on the board of a number of industrial concerns and of the Bank of India; member, Advisory Committee of the Dept. of Industry and the Industrial Disputes Committee; Sheriff, Bombay, 1922; Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal, 1921; Knight Bachelor, 1924. *Address*: Belvedere, Warden Road, Cumballa Hill.

CUTTRISS, C.A., M.B.E., F.R.G.S., F.R.S.A. Sec., Burma Chamber of Commerce, Commercial Member of the Burma Boiler Commission and Hon. Magistrate, Rangoon; b. Launceston 28 Nov. 1868, *m.* Janet, d. of Dr. Hayter, M.D.; was Hon. Sec., Burma "Our Day" Fund, Burma War Fund, Rangoon Rivercraft Committee and Rangoon Impression of Shipping Committee during the war. *Publications*: "Memories of Old Rangoon"; "Hints to Arbitrators"; and Essays on Commercial Subjects. *Address*: P.O. Box 324, Rangoon.

DADABHOY, SIR MANECKJI BYRAMJEE, KT. (1921); K.C.I.E. (1925) b. (Bombay) 30 July 1865; *m.* 1884, Bai Jernabai, O. B. E., d. of Khan Bahadur Dadabhoy Fallon, of the Commissariat Dept. *Educ.*: Proprietary High School and St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Joined Middle Temple, 1884; called to Bar, 1887; Advocate of Bombay High Court, 1887; Government Advocate, Central Provinces, 1891; President, Prov. Industrial Conference, Rairpur, 1907; President, All India Industrial Conference, Calcutta, 1911; Member of Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1908-12 and 1914-17, a Governor of the Imperial Bank of India (1920-21). Elected to the Council of State, 1921 Member, Fiscal Commission appointed by Govt. of India, Sept. 1921. Managing Director, Nagpur Electric Light and Power Co., Ltd., Berar Manufacturing Co., Ltd., and the Model Mills, Nagpur, Limited. Proprietor, Ballarpur, Sastli, Ghugus and Pisgaon-Rajur Collieries; numerous Manganese Mines in the Central Provinces and Berar and Behar and Orissa; Several Gin and Press Factories in all parts of India. *Publications*: Commentary on the Land Laws of the Central Provinces, and Commentary on the Central Provinces Tenancy Act. *Address*: Nagpur, C. P.

DAGA, RAI BAHADUR SETH SIR BISESARDAS, KT. (1922); Banker, Govt. Treasurer, landlord, merchant, millowner and miner. b. 1877. *m.* Krishna Bai. *Educ.*: privately. Second Class Tazim, Bikaner State. *Publications*: Sir Kasturband Memorial Dufferin Hospital at Nagpur and frequent contributions on public charity. *Address*: Nagpur (C.P.) and Bikaner (Rajputana).

DALAL, SARDAR BOMANJI ARDESHIR, First Class Sardar, Zamindar, and Merchant; Member of the Legislative Assembly since January 1921; b. 18 April 1854. *Educ.*: Broach and Bombay. *m.* Bai Navazbai Bomanji Dalal. Owns 3,000 acres of land colonizing six thriving villages in and out of the way

place in Panch Mahals. *Address*: Baroda Residency.

DALAL, SIR DADIBA MERWANJEE, KT. (1924), C.I.E. (1921); b. 12 Dec. 1870. *m.* 1890; one s. three d. *Educ.*: in Bombay. Gave evidence before the Chamberlain Currency Commission (1913); Member of the Committee on Indian Exchange and Currency (1919) and wrote minority report; Chairman, Government Securities Rehabilitation Committee, Bombay (1921); Member of Council of the Secretary of State for India, 19 Nov. 1921 to 25th Jan. 1923; Delegate for India at International Economic Conf., Genoa, and representative for India at the Hague (1922); Member of the Incheape Committee, 1922-23. Delegate for India at the Imperial Economic Conference (1923). High Commissioner for India in the U. K. 1922-24. *Address*: Marine Lines, Bombay.

DAMLE, RAO BAHADUR KESHAV GOVIND, C.I.E. (1922); High Court Vakill, Akola (Berar). b. 25 June, 1863. *Educ.*: Akola, Deccan Coll., Poona. Law Class, Bombay. Practised law at Akola since 1895. Member, C. P. Legis. Council, 1914-16. Chairman, Co-op. Central Bank Ltd., Akola since 1911. Member of Committee appointed by C. P. Govt. to draw up a scheme of village panchayats. Member of Committee on Co-operative Societies in C. P. appointed by Govt. in 1921; First President of Joint Board of Berar Dist. Boards since 1922; Vice-President, Akola District Board, since 1922; President, Bar Assocn., Akola, for many years. President, Berar Liberals and Member of Co-operative Institute, Berar. *Address*: Akola.

DARLEY, BERNARD D'OLIER, C.I.E. (1919); Superintending Engineer, P.W.D., United Provinces; b. 24 August 1880. *Educ.*: T. C. Dublin and Cooper's Hill, A.M.I.C.E. Irrigation work in P. W. D. since 1903. *Address*: Bareilly, U.P.

DAS, BRAJA SUNDAR, B.A., Member, Legis. Assembly; Zamindar and Proprietor of a press and cultivation. b. July 1880. *m.* to Umasundari, 4th d. of Rai Sudam Charn Naik Bahadur. *Educ.*: Ravenshaw Coll. and Presidency Coll., Calcutta. Took part in Utkal Union Conference since its beginning in 1904 and Secy. for two years; Vice-President, Utkalsahitya Samaj; President, Oriya Peoples' Association; Vice-President, Orissa Assocn., and Ramkrishna Sevak Samaj; Was President Central Youngmen's Association; Member, Sakligopa Temple Committee; Was Member of Cuttack Municipality and District Board; Member, Bihar and Orissa Council, 1916-1920; Fellow of Patna University and member of the Syndicate. *Publications*: Editor of the Oriya Monthly Mukan and of the only English Weekly in Orissa "The Oriya." *Address*: Cuttack.

DAS, CHITTA RANJAN, Bar-at-Law. b. Calcutta Nov. 5, 1870. Started practice Calcutta Bar, 1893; suspended practice as a non-co-operator; elected President, National Congress, Ahmedabad, 1921, but arrested for issuing public appeal for volunteers, Dec. 23, 1921; sentenced in February 1922 to six months' imprisonment; President, National Congress, Gaya, 1922; Mayor of Calcutta, 1924. *Address*: 148, Russa Road, South Calighat, Calcutta.

DAS, MAJOR-GENERAL RAI BAHADUR DEWAN BISHAN, C.I.E., C.S.I., b. Jan. 1865. *Educ.* at Punjab Government College, Lahore; Private Secretary to Raja Sir Ramsingh, K.C.B., 1896-1898; Mily. Secy. to the Com-in-Chief, Jammu and Kashmir, 1898-1909; Mily Secy. to H. H. the Maharaja, 1909-14; Home Minister to H. H. the Maharaja, 1914-18, Rev. Minister, 1918-1921 and Chief Minister, March 1921-April 1922. *Address*: Jammu and Kashmir.

DAS, MADHU SUDAN, C.I.E., Minister (Local Self-Government) Bihar and Orissa, since Jan. 1921, b. 28 April 1848. *Educ.*: Calcutta University M.A., B.L., M.R.A.S., F.N.B.A. Represented Orissa in Bengal Legislative Council four times; Fellow of Calcutta University; elected by Legislative Council of Bihar and Orissa to Imperial Council, 1913; nominated to Legislative Council of Bihar and Orissa. *Address*: Patna.

DAS, PANDIT NILAKANTHA, M.A., writer of books for children on new lines, b. August 1884. *m.* Srimati Radhamani Debi (1905). *Educ.*: Puri Zilla School, Ravenshaw College, Cuttack and Scottish Churches College, Calcutta. Founded with Pt. Gopabandhu Das and others the residential open air private school at Satyabadi on a new line, now known as Satyabadi Vihar; was Resident head master there for 8 years; worked in connection with Puri Famine in 1919; apptd. by Calcutta University for Post Graduate Professorship in 1920 and non-co-operated in 1921. Started Congress organisation and a National High School at Sambalpur and edited "The Seba" in 1921; became Dist. Congress Secy., Puri, and Prov. Congress President, Utkal, 1922. Went to jail four months and fined Rs. 200 in 1923; elected to the Assembly from Orissa in 1924. *Publications*: Pranayini (a kavya in six cantos); Konarke (a long poem kavya); Kharabela (a historical kavya in 6 cantos); Dasa Nayak (a long poem kavya); Aryajiban (Aryan life, a critical treatise on Aryan civilisation; many other books for children. *Address*: Satyabadi Vihar; P. O. Sakhipogal, Dist. Puri (Orissa).

DAS, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE PROFULLA RANJAN, Judge, High Court, Patna, 1919, b. 28 April, 1881. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's College, Calcutta. *m.* Dorothy Mary Evans, 1904. *Address*: All Manzil, Patna.

DAS, SATISH RANJAN, Advocate-General, Bengal, b. 29 February 1872. *Educ.*: Manchester Grammar School. *m.* Bonolata, d. of the late B. L. Gupta, I.C.S.; called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1894. Advocate, Calcutta High Court, 1894. *Address*: 7, Hungerford St. Calcutta.

DAVID, SIR SASSOON (Jacob), K.C.S.I. (1922), 1st Baronet, s. of Jacob David, of Bombay; b. 11 Dec. 1849. *Educ.*: Bombay; Cotton Yarn Merchant and Mill Owner, and J.P. Sheriff, 1905. For several years Member of Bombay Improvement Trust Board, of Municipal Corporation (President, 1921-22) and of its Standing Committee; Promoter and Chairman of Bank of India, and Chairman and Director of several Cos.; was Chairman

of Bombay Millowners' Association, 1904-05 Member of Council of Governor-General of India, 1910; Kt., 1905; *m.* 1876, Hannah (d. 1921) d. of late Elias David Sassoon. *Address*: 143, Esplanade Road, Bombay.

DAVIES, THE REV. CANON ARTHUR WHITCLIFFE (Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal, 1921); Principal, St. John's College, Agra, b. 1878; *m.* Lillian Mabel Birney. *Educ.*: Uppingham School, Univ. College, Oxford; Church Missionary Society, Lahore, 1906; Ordained Ripon Diocese, 1908; Joined St. John's College, Agra, 1909; Principal, 1913; Canon of Lucknow, 1917; *Address*: St. John's College, Agra.

DE, KIRAN CHANDRA, A.B., C.I.E., I.C.S., Commissioner of Chittagong since 1916. b. Calcutta, 19 January 1871. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta; St. John's College, Cambridge. Registrar of Co-operative Societies, also Fishery Officer, 1905; Magistrate-Collector, Rangpur, 1911; Member of Bengal District Administration Committee, 1913; Press Censor, Bengal, 1914. Secretary to Govt. of Bengal, Genl. Dept., 1915; Member of the Legislative Council of the Governor-General of India, 1920. *Address*: 1, Dum Dum Road, Cossipore, Calcutta; Brookside, Shillong.

DEHLIAVI, THE HON. ALI MAHOMED KHAN, J.P., Bar-at-Law (1896); Minister, Forest and Excise, Bombay; b. 1874. *Educ.*: Bombay and London. Practised in Gujarat and Sindh. Dewan at Mangrol (Kathiawar) and Palanpur; acted as Judge of the Small Causes Court, Bombay Publications: History and Origin of Polo; Mendicancy in India. *Address*: Secretariat, Bombay.

DE MONTMORENCY, SIR GEOFFREY FITZHERVEY, K.C.V.O., C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S., Private Secretary to the Viceroy, b. 23 Aug. 1876. *Educ.*: Malvern; Pembroke College, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1899; Deputy Commissioner, Lyaipur, 1907; Settlement Officer, Chenab, 1907; Junior Secy. to Financial Commissioner, 1911; on special duty in connection with transfer of capital to Delhi, 1912; Personal Assistant and Dy. Commr. till 1918; Dy. Secretary, Foreign and Political Deptt., Govt. of India, 1920-21. Secretary to H.R.H. the Prince of Wales during the Royal Tour in India, Chief Secretary to Punjab Government. *Address*: Viceregal Lodge, Simla and Delhi.

DESIKACHARI, SIR TURIMALAI, DIWAN BAHADUR, Kt. (1922), B.A., B.L., recipient Kaiser-i-Hind Medal. High Court Vakil. b. Sep. 1868, *m.* Cou-in, d. of Diwan Bahadur T. M. Rangachari. *Educ.*: Pachayappa's and Presidency Colleges. Member, Madras Legislative Council, 1919; President, District Board, Trichinopoly; M.L.C., 1921. *Address*: "Venkata Park," Reynolds Road, Cantonment, Trichinopoly.

DESIKACHARI, SIR VEMBAKKAM C. Kt., B.A., B.L., F.M.U.; Judge of the Court of Small Causes, Madras, since 1908; b. 29 Dec. 1861. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Madras. Additional Member, Madras Legislative Council, 1904-8; Fellow, Madras University, since 1903; sometime Vice-President, National Indian Association, Madras. *Address*: Padma Vilas, Luz, Mylapore, Madras.

DEVADHAR, GOPAL KRISHNA (Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal in 1920), Vice-President, Servants of India Society, b. 1871. *m.* Dwarkabai Sohail of Poona. *Educ.*: New English School, Poona, and Wilson College, Bombay. M.A., Bombay University, 1904. Served as Principal of the Aryan Education Society's High School in Bombay, was Examiner of the Bombay University for Matriculation and M. A. examinations in Marathi for more than five years. Joined the late G. K. Gokhale in his public work, 1904, and was first member to join Servants of India Society, 1905, awarded Kaiser-i-Hind Silver medal in 1914. Head of Bombay Branch. Toured in England and on the Continent in 1918 as member of Indian Press Delegation. One of the founders and Hon. Organiser and General Secretary of the Poona Seva Sadan Society started in 1909 and Joint Asstt. General Secretary of the National Social Conference. Organiser of the Malabar Relief Fund, 1921; Vice-President of the Bombay Central Co-operative Institute in 1921 and 1922; Director, Bombay Central Co-operative Bank. Has published several pamphlets on Co-operation, Female Education and Social Reform. *Address*: Girgaum, Bombay.

DHRANGADHRA, H. H. MAHARAJA SRI SR. GHANSHYAMSINHJI, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. MAHARAJA SAHEB; b. 1889; *Suc.* father 1911. *Educ.*: in England with private tutors under guardianship of Sir Charles Ollivant. *Address*: Dhrangadhra, Kathiawar.

DICK, GEORGE PARIS, C.I.E., 1916, Bar-at-Law; Member of C. P. Legislative Council, 1921, and of each preceding Council; Govt. Advocate, C.P.; b. 1866, *m.* Effie Geraldine Newman. *Educ.*: Dulwich College; called to Bar, Middle Temple, 1889; Advocate of Calcutta High Court, 1893; of the Judicial Commissioner Court, Nagpur, 1891; Lecturer in Law to the Morris College, Nagpur. President, New English High School and President, Nagpur Civil Station Municipal Council. *Publication*: Filch and His Fortunes. *Address*: The Kothi, Nagpur.

DINAJPUR, MAHARAJA JAGADISH NATH RAY BAHADUR, b. 1894. s. by adoption to Maharaja Sir Girija Nath Ray Bahadur, K.C.I.E.; *m.* 1916. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta. President, Dinajpur Landholders' Association; Municipal Commissioner; Chairman, Dinajpur Municipality; Member, Dis. Board, Dinajpur and Member, British India Association, Bengal Landholders' Assocn., Asiatic Society of Bengal, East India Assocn., London, Calcutta Literary Society, North Bengal Zamindars' Assocn., Bangiya Sahitya Parishat. *Address*: Dinajpur Rajbati, Dinajpur, and 42, Hazra Road, Balligang.

DONALD, DOUGLAS, C.S.I., (1921); C.I.E.; Commandant, B.M. Police and Samana Rifles, b. 1865; *Educ.*: Bishop Cotton School, Simla. Joined the Punjab Police Force at Amballa, 1888; transferred to Peshawar, 1889; appointed C.B.M. Police, Kohat, 1890; served Miran-zai Expeditions, 1891, on Samana posts and Tirah, re-transferred to Kohat, 1899; on special duty to raise Samana Rifles. *Address*: Military Police, Kohat.

DORNAKAL, BISHOP OF, since 1912; *Rt. Rev.* VEDANAYAKAM SAMUEL AZARIAH [1st Indian bishop, Hon. L.D. (Cantab.)]; b. 17 Aug. 1874; *Educ.*: C.M. S. High School, Mangnanapuram; C. M. S. College, Tinnevely; Madras Christian College. One of founders of Indian Missionary Society of Tinnevely, 1903; Hon. Secretary, 1903-9; Hon. Gen. Secretary of National Missionary Society of India, 1906-9; visited Japan as Delegate of World Student Christian Federation, 1907, and its Vice-President, 1909-11; visited England as Delegate to World's Missionary Conference, 1910; Head of Dornakal Mission, 1909-12. *Publications*: Holy Baptism, Confirmation, First Corinthians, etc. *Address*: Dornakal Singareni Collieries, Deccan.

DUGGAN, JAMSHEDJI NUSSEERWANJI, D.O. (Oxon), F.C.P.S., Major, I.M.S. (Hon.), L.M. & S. Ag. Ophthalmic Surgeon in charge, Sir C. J. Ophthalmic Hospital and Ag. Professor of Ophthalmology, Grant Medical College, Bombay. b. 8 April 1882. *m.* Miss Gunder. *Educ.*: Bombay, Oxford and Vienna. Was Tutor in Ophthalmology, Grant Medical College, Consulting Ophthalmic Surgeon to War Hospitals and Ophthalmic Surgeon, Parsi General Hospital, Bombay; is Private Ophthalmic Practitioner, Fellow of the Bombay University Publications:—Papers on Spring Cataract, Anterior Keratitis, Gonorrhoea and allied diseases of the eye, Artificial Eye, Traumatic pupilla, Squint cases and Sub-conjunctival Injections in the eye. *Address*: Nepean Sea Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

DUNDAS, ROBERT THOMAS, C.I.E.; Inspector-General of Police, Bihar and Orissa, since 1914; additional Member of Lieut.-Governor's Council. b. 1868, *e. s.* of the late Donald William Dundas. *Address*: Bihar.

DUNI CHAND, LALA, B.A., Licentiate in law, Honours in Persian and Literature, (1894), Member, Legislative Council, Vakalat and Public work. b. 1873. *m.* Shrimati Bhagdevi. *Educ.*: Forman Christian College and Oriental Coll., Lahore. Practised at the bar until 1921. Entered public life and took part in various activities of the Arya Samaj since 1899; was manager of Anglo-Sanskrit High School, Amballa, from 1906-1921; Member, Managing Committee, D.A.V. College; resumed practice in 1921; been a member, All-India Congress Committee, since 1920; was convicted and sentenced to six months' imprisonment in 1922 under Criminal Amendment Act; presided over Punjab Provincial Conference held in Rahtak in 1922; at present President, Provincial Swaraj Council, Punjab. *Address*: Kripa Nivas, Amballa.

DUTT, AMAR NATH, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., s. of late Mr. Durga Das Dutt and Srimati Jugal Mohini Dutt, High Court Vakil, Burdwan, b. 19 May 1875. *m.* Srimati Tulciari Dutt. 1s. 1d. *Educ.*: Salkia A. S. School, Howrah, Ripon and Municipal Schools, Metropolitan Institution and Presidency Coll., Calcutta. Was Chairman, Local Board; Member, District Board; Secretary, People's Association, District Association, Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Burdwan; and was editor of monthly magazine *Ala*. *Address*: Keshapur, Burdwan.

BESTERMANS, DR. FABIAN ANTHONY, O.C., Catholic Bishop of Lahore, since 1905; *b.* Belgium, 1858. *Educ.*: Episcopal Seminary; Hoogstraten; studied Philosophy at Mechlin; joined the Capuchin Order at Enghien, 1878; ordained Priest, 1883; Professor in Apostolic Seraphic School at Bruges, 1885-9; came to India, 1889. *Address*: Lawrence Road, Lahore.

ELLIOTT, LT.-COL. FRANCIS HARDING, C.S.I., I.A., Commissioner, Irrawaddy Division, Burma, since 1911; *b.* 1862. *Educ.*: Harrow. Entered army, 1881; joined Indian Army, 1885; Burma Commission, 1888; Lt.-Col., 1907; served Burma, 1888-9. *Address*: Irrawaddy Division, Burma.

EVERSHED, JOHN, C.I.E., F.R.S., F.R.A.S., late Director, Kodaikanal and Madras Observatories; *b.* 1864. Assistant Director, Kodaikanal and Madras Observatories, 1906; discovered radial movement in sunspots, 1909; visited New Zealand to select site for Cawthron Observatory, 1914; undertook astronomical expedition to Kashmir, 1915. *Address*: Highroom, Ewhurst, Surrey.

EWBANK, ROBERT BENSON, B.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. (1924), I.C.S., Deputy Secretary to Government of India, Dept. of Education, Health and Lands, *b.* 22 Oct. 1883. *m.* Frances Helen, *d.* of Rev. W. F. Simpson of Calbeck, Cumberland. *Educ.*: Queen's Coll., Oxford. Asst. Coll. and Asst. Pol. Agent, 1907; Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Bombay, 1912-20; Secretary to Imperial Committee on Co-operation, 1914; Deputy Secretary to Gov. of India successively in Commerce, Rev. and Agric., P.W.D. and Education, Health and Land Departments. *Publications*: Bombay Co-operative Manual and Indian Co-operative Studies. *Address*: U.S. Club, Simla.

EWENS, STANLEY R. (Adopted Indian name, Jaya Verra) Colonel, Salvation Army. Chief Secretary for Western India Territory, which includes all the Army's work in Bombay Presidency. *b.* 15th Feb. 1867. Became an officer of the S.A. in 1884 (out of Notting Hill, London). Has previously done S.A. service in South America, Ceylon and Great Britain and as under Foreign Secretary at the Army's International Headquarters and held important positions at the S.A. National Headquarters, London.

FARIDKOT, H. H. FARZAND-I-SAADAT NISHAN HAZRAT-KAISAR-I-HIND, BRAR BANS RAJA HAR INDR SINGH BAHADUR, b. 1915, *s.* in 1919 rules one of the Sikh States of the Punjab. *Address*: Faridkot, Punjab.

FARIDOONJI JAMSHEDJI, NAWAB SIR FARIDOON JUNG FARIDOON DADLA, FARIDOON MULK BAHADUR, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., C.B.E., Member Extraordinary, H. E. H. the Nizam's Executive Council. *b.* 1849. *Address*: Saifabad, Hyderabad, Deccan.

FATEH ALI-KHAN, HON. HAJEE, NAWAB KIZILBASH, C.I.E., *b.* 1862. S. to headship of Kizilbash, 1896. Placed himself and his great clan at disposal of Government for Chitral campaign, and induced many of tribes across border to adopt attitude of pacific non-intervention. For this service, received 3,000 acres of land in Chenab Canal Colony for

settlement of his followers; has served on Punjab Legislative Council; representative of Punjab at Famine Conference, 1897; Life President of Anjuman-i-Islamia, Lahore, and Imamia Association of Punjab; a Councillor of Alchison Chiefs' College, Lahore; Fellow of Punjab University, Trustee of Aligarh College; *Heir*: s. Nisior Ali Khan. *Address*: Alchison Chiefs' Coll., Lahore.

FAWCETT, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE CHARLES GORDON HILL, Judge, High Court, Bombay, since April 1920. b. 28 June 1869. *Educ.*: Harrow; Pembroke Coll., Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1888. Under Sec. to Govt. of Bombay, 1898. Acting Remembrancer of Legal Affairs, 1899. Remembrancer and Sec. to Govt., 1904. Additional Judicial Commr., Sind, 1904. Judicial Commr., Sind, 1918. *Address*: The Ridge, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

FAZULBOY CURRIMBOY, SIR (1913), C.B.E. (1920); Merchant and Mill-owner, *b.* 4 Oct. 1872. *m.* Bai Sakinabai, *d.* of the late Mr. Datooboy Ebrahim. *Educ.*: privately. Municipal Corporator for over 21 years; Chairman, Standing Committee (1910-11); President, 1914-15; Represented Bombay Millowners' Association on Bombay Prov. Council, 1910-12 and Bombay Mahomedans on Imperial Legislative Council, 1913-16; represented Bombay Corpn. on Board of the Prince of Wales Museum of W. India; Hon. Secretary, Bombay Presidency War Relief Fund. Appointed by Government Member of various Committees and Commissions, chief being the Weights and Measures Committee, Committee on the education of Factory Employees, and the Commission for Life Saving Appliances; invited by Government to be one of the three delegates from India to the International Financial Conference at Brussels, convened by the Council of the League of Nations, 1920. Connected with many of the principal industrial concerns in Bombay, and a Member of the Local Board of the Imperial Bank of India, Chairman, Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, 1914-15. An active Member of the Committee of the Bombay Millowners' Association, being Chairman 1907-8. Fellow of the Bombay University. Government Nominee on the Board of the Victoria J. Technical Institute. A keen advocate of education, particularly of Mahomedans. Member of the Anjuman-i-Islam, Bombay, a Trustee of the Aligarh College, a Vice-President of the All-India Muslim League, a Member of the Committee of the Moslem University Foundation Association. *Address*: Sakina Manban, Carmichael Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

FAZLI-HUSAIN, THE HON. Sir Mian, Kt. (1925), B.A. (Punjab), M. A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law (Gray's Inn); Minister for Education, Punjab Government, *b.* 14 June 1877. *m.* eldest *d.* of Mian Nurahmad Khan. *Educ.*: Abbottabad, Govt. College, Lahore, Christ's College, Cambridge. Practised in Sialkot, 1901-5; in the Punjab High Court, Lahore, 1905-20; Presdt., High Court Bar Association, 1919-20; Professor and Principal, Islamia College, 1907-8; Secretary, Islamia College, 1908-18; Fellow,

Punjab University, 1909-1920; Syndic, Punjab University, 1912; represented Punjab University on Legislative Council, 1917-20; President, All-India Mahomedan Educational Conf., 1922; started Muslim League, 1906; President, Punjab Prov. Conference, 1916; elected to Punjab Legislative Council, 1920. *Address*: 2, Lytton Road, Lahore; Brockhurst No. 1, Simla E.

FENTON, DAVID ANDERSON, (V. D., 1922); Chief Transportation Superintendent, G. I. P. Railway, *b.* 26 April 1868. *m.* Joan Agnes, *d.* of Mr. G. A. Anderson, Secy. to Govt., P.W.D., Madras. *Educ.*: Dumfries Academy and Glasgow and West of Scotland Technical College. Chief Draughtsman and Loco. Supdt., South Indian Railway Co., Dist. Loco. Supdt. and Dy. Loco. Supdt. *Address*: Victoria Terminus, Bombay.

FILOSE, LT.-COL. CLEMENT, M.V.O.; Military Sec. to Maharaja of Gwalior, since 1901; *b.* 1853. *Educ.*: Carmelite Monastery, Clondalkin; Carlow College. Entered Gwalior State service, 1872; Lt.-Col., 1903; Assistant Inspector-Genl., Gwalior Police and General Inspecting Officer, 1893-97; A.D.C. to the Maharaja Scindia, 1899-1901. *Address*: Gwalior.

FIRMINGER, VEN. WALTER K., F.R.G.S.; Archdeacon of Calcutta, since 1914; Editor of the Indian Churchman, 1900-05; Chaplain on Indian Establishment; *b.* 1870; *Educ.*: Lancing and Bury St. Edmunds; Merton Coll., Oxford, D.D., L.B.; Honour School of Modern History. Ordained Deacon at Hereford, 1893; Priest in Mombasa, 1895; Sub-dean of Zanzibar, 1896; present at bombardment. Government of India Historical Records Commission; Editor of Bengal Past and Present, 1907-19; Editor, Bengal District Records. *Address*: St. John's House, Calcutta.

FORD, SIR REGINALD, D.S.O. (1890); C.M.G. (1915); C.B. (1916); K.C.M.G. (1918); Commandeur Legion d'Honneur, Leopold of Belgium; American Distinguished Service Medal, Grand Officer, Crown of Italy, Belgium and Aviz of Portugal; General Manager, Dunlop Rubber Company, India, Burma and Ceylon. *b.* Dec. 7, 1868. *m.* Pearl Gertrude, *d.* of W. Tottill, Dudley, Ohio, U.S.A. *Educ.*: Durham School. Royal Marines (L.I.) 1889; R.A.S.C. 1904; S. A. War, despatches 3 times, D.S.O., Great War despatches eight times, C.M.G., C.B. Promoted Major-General and K.C.M.G. Retired 1919. Owner of Balkan Estate, S. Rhodesia. *Address*: C/o Dunlop Rubber Co., P. O. Box 535, Bombay.

FORSTER, MARTEN ONSLOW, Ph. D. (Wurzburg), D. Sc. (London), F. I. C., F. R. S. (1905); Director, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore (1922). *b.* 1872. *Educ.*: Private schools; Finsbury Technical College, Wurzburg Univ.; Central Technical College, South Kensington. Asst. Prof. of Chemistry, Royal College of Science, 1902-13; Director, Salters' Institute of Industrial Chemistry, 1918-22; Hon. Secretary, Chemical Society, 1904-10; Treasurer, 1915-22; Longstaff Medallist, 1915; President of Chemistry Section, British Association, 1921. *Publications*: Contribu-

tions to Transactions of the Chemical Society. *Address*: Hebbal, Bangalore.

FOULQUIER, RT. REV. EUGENE CHARLES, Vicar Apostolic of Northern Burma and Titular Bishop of Corydallus, since 1906; *b.* 1866. *Address*: Mandalay.

FREELAND, MAJOR-GEN. SIR HENRY FRANCIS EDWARD, K. C. I. E. (1920); C. B. (1917); M.V.O. (1911); D.S.O. (1916), Officer of the Legion of Honour. Agent, B. E. and C. I. Railway. *b.* 29 December 1870. *m.* Ethel Louise, *d.* of Col. T. Malcolm Walker, R. A. Entered R. E. 1891. Served in Chitral, with China Expeditionary Force and in European War. *Address*: Bombay.

FREKE, CECIL GEORGE, B.A. (Cantab); B.Sc. (Lond.), I.C.S., Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, India, since 1921. *b.* 8 October 1887. *m.* Judith Mary Marston. *Educ.*: Merchant Taylor's School, London, St. John's College, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1912. *Address*: 1, Council House Street, Calcutta.

FREMANTLE, SELWYN HOWE, C.I.E. (1915), C.S.I. (1920); I.C.S., Senior Member, Board of Revenue, U.P. *b.* 11 Aug. 1869. *m.* to Vera, *d.* of H. Marsh, C.I.E. *Educ.*: Eton and Magdalen College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1890; Settlement Officer, Bareilly, 1898; Registrar, Co-operative Societies, 1907; Magte. and Collr., Allahabad, 1913; Commissioner, Bareilly, 1918; Controller of Passages, 1919; Commissioner, Meerut, 1919. Member, Board of Revenue, U.P., 1920. *Publications*: Rai Bareilly Settlement Report, 1896; Bareilly Settlement Report, 1902; Report on Supply of Labour to factories, 1905; A Policy of Rural Education, 1915. *Address*: Lucknow, U.P.

FRENCH, LEWIS, C.I.E., C.B.E. (1913); Financial Secretary (1920); *b.* 26 October 1873; *Educ.*: Merchant Taylor's School; St. John's College, Oxford. Assistant Commissioner, Punjab, 1897; Colonisation Officer, Chenab Colony, 1904-06; Director, Land Records, 1906; Director, Agriculture, 1907; Deputy Commissioner, Shahpur, 1908; Chief Minister, Kapurthala State, 1910-15; Special Commissioner, Defence of India Act, 1915; Director, Land Records, 1915; Additional Secretary, Punjab Govt., 1916-18; Ch. Secretary, 1918-19; Addl. Secretary, 1919; and Chief Secretary, 1919-1920; Member, Punjab Legis. Council. *Address*: Lahore.

FROOM, SIR ARTHUR HENRY, Kt. Bach. (1922); entered service P. & O. S. N. Co., 1890; Superintendent, P. & O. S. N. Co., Bombay, 1912; Partner in firm of Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co. Bombay, from 1916; Trustee, Port of Bombay, from 1912; Chairman, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1920; Member of Imperial Legislative Council, Govt. of India, 1920; Member of Council of State, India, from 1921; Member, Central Advisory Council, Railways, India; J. P., Bombay; *b.* 15 January 1878; son of late Henry Froom; *Educ.*: St. Paul's School; *b.* 22nd Feb. 1905, Effie, youngest *d.* of late Thomas Bryant, F.R.C.S. *Address*: Mont Blanc, Dadysett Hill, Bombay.

FYSON, PHILIP FULLEY, M.A. (Cantab), F.L.S., Ag. Dist. Educational Officer, Ganjam.

b. 1877, m. Diana Ruth Wilson, 1914. *Educ.*: Loretto School; Sidney, Sussex College, Cambridge; Professor of Botany, Presidency College, Madras, 1914-1921. *Publications*: "Flora of the Nilgiri and Pulney Hill-tops," Vol. I and II (1915), Vol. III, 1920, "Botany for India"; Editor, Journal of Indian Botany. *Address*: Presidency College, Madras.

GAGE, ANDREW THOMAS, C.I.E., M.A., B.Sc., M.B., F.L.S.; Lt.-Col., I.M.S.; Director, Botanical Survey of India; Supdt., Royal Botanic Gardens, Calcutta, since 1906; b. 1871; *Educ.*: Grammar School, Old Aberdeen; University of Aberdeen; Assistant to Professor of Botany, University of Aberdeen, 1894-96; entered I.M.S., 1897; Curator of Herbarium, Calcutta Botanic Gardens, 1898. *Address*: Royal Botanic Gardens, Calcutta.

GAJJAN SINGH, SARDAR BAHADUR O.B.E., Member, Legislative Assembly (1920). b. Jan. 1864. *Educ.*: Ludhiana and Lahore. Practised at the bar from 1884 to 1920; was leader of Ludhiana District Bar; Member, Senate of the Punjab University; Member, Ludhiana Municipal Committee and District Board, Jagir and landholder; an Hon. Extra Asstt. Commissioner, awarded Sword of Honour and seat in Durbar for war services; mentioned in despatches, Author of the Punjab Juvenile Smoking Bill, which was passed. *Address*: Ludhiana.

GAME, AIR VICE-MARSHAL PHILIP WOOLCOTT, C.B. (1919); D. S. O. (1915); R.A.F., Commanding the Royal Air Force in India since January 1923. b. 30 March 1876; s. of George Beale Game, Barn House, Broadway, Worcestershire; m. 1908, Gwendolen Margaret, d. of the late Francis Hughes-Gibb of Gunville, Manor House, Blandford, Dorset; two s. one d. *Educ.*: Charterhouse. Entered R. A. 1895; Captain, 1901; Adjutant, 1902-5; Major, 1912; General Staff Officer, 3rd and 2nd Grade War Office, 1910-14; Director of Training and Organisation, Air Ministry, 1919-22; won Gold Medal, United Service Inst., 1911; served S. Africa, 1901-2 (despatches, Queen's medal, 5 clasps); European War, 1914-18 (despatches 6 times; C.B., D.S.O., Bt. Lt.-Col. and Col., Order Crown of Italy, Officer Legion of Honour. *Address*: Headquarters R.A.F., Delhi and Simla.

GAMMON, JOHN CHARLES, B.Sc. (Lond. Univ.); O.B.E. (Mil.), 1918; Civil Engineer, Managing Director of Messrs. J. C. Gammon, Ltd. b. 2nd June 1887. m. Edith L. Dansel (1922). *Educ.*: at Felsted School, Essex, and Central Technical Coll., S. Kensington and London University; also advanced Workshop Student, Woolwich Arsenal. Specialised in Reinforced Concrete Construction with Messrs. Leslie & Co., Kensington and as Asstt. Engineer, P.W.D., Bombay, till 1914 (resigned); commissioned Sept. 1914 and served with Royal Engineers in France from Feb. 1915 till February 1919; promoted Major, awarded O.B.E. and two mentions in despatches; founded firm of J. C. Gammon, Ltd., in May 1919. *Publications*: Reinforced Concrete Design Simplified (Crosby Lockwood). *Address*: Gammon Building, Messent Road, Bombay.

GANDHI, MOHANDAS KARAMCHAND, Bar-at-law (Inner Temple). b. 2nd October 1869. *Educ.*: at Rajkote, Bhavnagar, and London. Practised law in Bombay, Kathiawar, and South Africa. Was in charge of an Indian ambulance corps during the Boer War and the Zulu revolt in Natal. During the great war raised an ambulance corps and conducted a recruiting campaign in Kaira district. Started and led the Satyagraha movement (1918-19) and the non-cooperation campaign (1920) in addition to associating himself with the Khilafat agitation (1919-21). Has championed the cause of Indians abroad, notably those in South and East Africa. Sentenced to six years' simple imprisonment in March 1922, released Feb. 4, 1924. *Publications*: "Indian Home Rule"; "Universal Dawn." *Address*: Satyagrahshram, Sabarmati, Ahmedabad.

GANGA RAM, SIR, KT. (1922), C.I.E., M.V.O., Rai Bahadur, M.I.M.E., M.I.C.E.; b. 1851. *Educ.*: Thomson College. Entered P. W. D. 1873; Executive Engineer, 1883; Supdt., Coronation Durbar Works, Delhi, 1903; retired, 1903; Supdt., Engineer, Patiala State; retired, 1911; Consulting Engineer, Delhi Durbar, 1911. *Address*: Lahore.

GEBBIE, SIR FREDERICK ST. JOHN, KT. (1925), C.I.E. (1920), Consulting Engineer to the Government of India, 1923. b. 7 Aug. 1871. *Educ.*: Edinburgh Collegiate School, Edinburgh Univ. & R.L.E. College, joined P.W.D. as Asstt. Engr., 1893; Exec. Engr., 1899; Supt. Engr., 1912; Chief Engr. in Sind and Sec., Indus River Commn., 1915; Chief Engr. and acting Sec. to Govt. of Bombay, 1916; Chairman, Nile Projects Commission, 1920. Inspector-General of Irrigation, 1921-23. *Address*: Simla.

GENNINGS, JOHN FREDERICK, Bar-at-Law (Middle Temple, 1911); Director of Information, Bombay, since December 1920. b. 21 Sept., 1855, m. Edith, d. of T. J. Wallis, Esq., of Croydon, Surrey and Aldeburgh, Suffolk. *Educ.*: Aske's Hatcham and Dulwich. Entered journalism in 1902 and served on the Editorial staffs of the Morning Leader, Star, Daily Mail and Daily Telegraph. Army (25th Bufts. and R. G. A.), 1915-1919; War Office, M.I. 7 b, Propaganda Section, from Aug. 1916 to Feb. 1917. *Address*: Secretariat, Bombay.

GEOGHEGAN, LT.-COL. FRANCIS EDWARD, C.I.E. Director of Supplies, G. H. Q., India. b. 14 August, 1869. *Educ.*: St. Charles College and R. M. O. Sandhurst; m. Miss L. L. Munn; 2nd Lt., Gloucestershire Regiment, 1889, Indian Army, 1891. Served in N. W. Frontier Campaign, 1897; China, 1900; European War, 1914-18 (despatches). *Address*: C/o. Messrs. King, King & Co., Bombay.

GEORGE, EDWARD CLAUDIUS SCOTNEY, C.I.E., Dy. Commissioner, Ruby Mines, Burma. b. 1865. *Educ.*: Dulwich College. Asst. Commissioner, 1887-90; Officiating Dy. Commissioner, Bhamo, 1890-97; Sub-Commissioner, Burmo-China Boundary Commission, 1897-99. *Address*: Ruby Mines, Burma.

GHOSAL, MRS. (SRIMATI) SVARNA KUMARI (DEVI); d. of Maharshi Debendra Nath Tagore, and sister of Sir Rabindranath Tagore; b. 1857; m. late J. Ghosal, Zemindar. Before twenty published a novel anonymously; soon after became editor of Bharti (first woman editor in India), a Bengali magazine which she still conducts. *Address*: Old Ballygunge Road, Calcutta.

GHOSE, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE CHART CHUNDER, Judge, Calcutta High Court, since July, 1919. b. 4 February 1874. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta; m. Nirmal Nolini, d. of the late Protap Chunder Bose. Vakill, Calcutta, 1898. Called to the Bar in England, 1907. *Address*: High Court, Calcutta.

GHOSH, RAI BAHADUR DEVENDRA NATH, B.A. (Honours in Philosophy); Beereswar Mitter Gold Medal of Calcutta Univ. (1911); Deputy Director of Commercial Intelligence and Director of Statistics with Government of India since 1921. b. December 18, 1868. m. Miss Sushila Kumari Ray, d. of late Mr. G. C. Ray, Dy. Auditor-General, Finance Dept. *Educ.*: Hindu School, General Assembly's Institution and Presidency College, Calcutta. Joined Finance Department, Government of India, 1891. Elected Fellow of the Royal Statistical Society, London, 1909, of the Royal Economic Society, London, 1911, and Member of the Board of Agriculture in India, 1921, and of the Indian Economic Association, 1921. *Publications*: Various departmental publications relating to Sea-borne, Inland and Land Frontier Trade, Agricultural, Financial, Judicial, Industrial and Prices Statistics. *Address*: 28, Nyna Chand Dutt Street, Calcutta.

GIBBONS, THOMAS CLARKE PILLING, K.C., 1913; Advocate-General, Bengal, since 1917. b. 1868. Admitted a Solicitor, 1891; called to Bar; Inner Temple, 1897. *Address*: High Court, Calcutta.

GIDHOUR, MAHARAJA BAHADUR CHANDRA MOULKESHWAR PRASAD SINGH, MAHARAJA BAHADUR OF GIDHOUR, b. 1880 m. 1913. Has been a Member of District Board, Monghyr; Vice-Chairman, Local Board and an Honorary Magistrate with independent powers (to try cases singly). Member of Legislative Council, Bihar and Orissa, since 1920. Ascended the Gadi on 21st November 1923. Is an enlightened leader of the aristocracy of the Province. Title of Maharaja Bahadur made hereditary in 1877. Has a son and heir born 23rd January 1917. *Address*: Srivillas, Gidhour.

GIDNEY, HENRY ALBERT JOHN, LT.-COL. I.M.S. (retired); F.R.C.S.; F.R.S.; D.O. (Oxon.); F.R.S.A. (London); D.P.H. (Cantab); J.P.M.L.A. Ophthalmic Surgeon, 29 June 1873; *Educ.*: at Calcutta, Edinburgh R. College, University College Hospital, London, Cambridge and Oxford. Entered I.M.S., 1898. Served in China Expedition, 1900-01, N. E. Frontier, 1913. N. W. Frontier, 1914-15 (wounded). *Publications*: numerous works on Ophthalmic Surgery. President-in-Chief, Anglo-Indian and Domiciled European Association, India; Member of Legislative Assembly. *Address*: 28, Theatre Road, Calcutta.

GILBERT-LODGE, CAPTAIN EDWARD MORTON, F.S.I., F.I.A., F.A.I., J.P., Land Manager, Development Directorate, b. 23 Jan. 1881. m. Miss May Spencer, only d. of I. Spencer Esq., of Norwood, London, S.E. *Educ.*: at Sydney, N. S. Wales, Australia. Private practice, London, 1903-1914; Royal Engineers, April 1915—May 1920, then retiring to Reserve with rank of Captain; Asst. Land Acquisition Officer, Bombay, May-Nov. 1920; Land Manager, Development Directorate, Nov. 1920 to date. *Address*: Connaught Mansions, Colaba, Bombay.

GILES, SIR ROBERT SIDNEY, KT. (1922), M.A. (Oxon); Bar-at-Law. President, Burma Legislative Council 1924. *Educ.*: Clifton Coll. and Magdalen Coll., Oxford. Called to Bar by Middle Temple, 1890; practised in Rangoon 1894-1924. Vice-Chancellor, Univ. of Rangoon (1921). *Address*: 5, Fraser Road, Rangoon.

GILLESPIE, COLONEL R. ST. J., C.I.E. (1918); O.B.E. (1920); Chief Engineer, Military Lands Scheme, Bombay, b. 28th Sept. 1872. m. Florence, d. of Capt. H.H. Grenfell, R. N. *Educ.*: Bedford and Dona. 1st Commission, Royal Engineers, 12th Feb. 1892. *Address*: 19, Queen's Road, Bombay.

GILLUM, SIDNEY JULIUS, J.P., Managing Director, The Bombay Company, Ltd., b. 1 July 1876; m. Dorothea, d. of C. S. Smith, sometime H. M. Consul-General at Barcelona. *Educ.*: Winchester and King's Coll., Cambridge 2nd Class Classical Tripos. Dy. Chrmn. Bombay Chamber of Commerce and additional member, Bombay Leg. Council, 1918-19. Presdt, Bank of Bombay, July-Decr. 1920. Sheriff of Bombay, 1921; Member, Leg. Council Bombay, 1921-22. *Address*: C/o. The Bombay Company, Ltd., Bombay.

GILMORE, THE REV. DAVID CHANDLER, M.A., D.D., K.I.H., Lecturer in English Literature, Judson College, Rangoon, b. 29 August 1866. *Educ.*: Rochester University, U.S.A. m. Gertrude Price Clinton. Prof. in Judson College, 1890-96; Missionary at Tavoy and Henzada, 1897-1905; Prof. in Judson College, 1908-22; Principal, Judson College, 1917-1920. Lecturer in English Literature in Judson College, 1921-24. President of the American Association in Burma, 1923-24. *Publications*: Elementary Grammar of Sgaw Karen; Harmony of the Gospel in Sgaw Karen; The End of the Law. *Address*: Rangoon.

GLANCY, REGINALD ISIDORE ROBERT, C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E., Agent to the Governor-General, Central India (1924). b. 1874; m. Helen Adelaide, d. of Edward Miles, Bowen House. *Educ.*: Clifton College; Christ Church, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1896; Settlement Officer, Bannu, 1903, Political Agent, 1907; First Asstt. Resident, Hyderabad, 1909; Finance Member of Council, H. E. H. the Nizam's Government, 1911-1921; Resident in Baroda, 1922; President, Cabinet Jaipur, 1923. *Address*: Indore.

GODFREY, SIR GEORGE COCHRANE, B.A., (Cambridge), A.M.I.C.E., KT., 1919. V. D. M.L.C., Agent, Bengal, Nagpur Railway, b. 27 Sept. 1871; m. Ethel Kingsford in 1900. *Educ.*: Harrow and Trinity College, Cambridge. Came to India in 1895 as Asst. Engr.,

HAILEY, H. E. SIR WILLIAM MALCOLM, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., Governor of the Punjab, May 1924; Knight of Grace of Order of St. John of Jerusalem. *b.* 1872; *m.* 1890, *Andrina, d. of Count Hannibale Balzani, Italy.* Lady of Grace of Order of St. John of Jerusalem; *F.R.G.S. Educ.*: Merchant Taylor's School; Corpus Christi College, Oxford (Scholar). Colonisation Officer, Jhelum Canal Colony, 1902; Sec., Punjab Govt., 1907; Dy. Sec., Govt. of India, 1908. Member, Durbar Committee, 1911; Ch. Commr., Delhi, 1912-19; Chairman, Indian Soldiers' Board, 1921; Finance Member, Government of India, 1919-22. Home Member, Government of India, 1922-24. *Address*: Lahore and Simla.

HAJI WAJHUDDIN, M.L.A., Hon. Magistrate, Hon. Secretary, Central Haj Committee of India, Proprietor of the firm Royal Pioneer Arms Co., Meerut. *b.* 1880. During Great Balkan War (1910-12) was Treasurer, Meerut Division Red Crescent Fund; during Great War (1918) worked as Hon. Secretary, Meerut Cantonment War Loan Committee; liberal donations towards St. John's Ambulance, Indian Soldiers, Imperial Relief, Our Day, Peace Celebration, Famine, Influenza epidemic, Ludovic Porter Hospital, Lady Dufferin Hospital and many educational institutions. Elected in 1916 to Meerut Municipal Board; re-elected in 1919; elected in 1920 to Legislative Assembly, re-elected in 1923. *Address*: "Pioneer House," Meerut Cantonment.

HAKSAR, Lt.-Col. KAILAS NARAIN, B.A., C.I.E., Mahsar-Khas-Bahadur; Pol. Member, Gwalior Durbar, since 1912; *b.* 1878. *Educ.*: Victoria College, Gwalior; Allahabad University; Hon. Prof. of History and Philosophy, 1899-1902; Priv. Sec. to Maharaja Seindia in 1903-12; Under Sec., Pol. Dept., on dep. 1905-7; Capt., 4th Gwalior Imp. Ser. Inf., 1902; Lt.-Col., 1910; Sen. Member, Board of Revenue, 1910-13. *Address*: Gwalior.

HALL, MAJOR RALPH ELLIS CARR, C.I.E., I.A., Mil. Accts. Dept., Field Controller, Poona; *b.* 1873. Joined army, 1894; Major, 1912; served Tirah, 1897-98; European War, 1914-17. *Address*: Field Controller, Poona.

HAMILTON, C. J., M.A., F.S.S.; Indian Educational Service, Prof. of Economics, Patna College; Fellow of Patna University. *b.* 1878. *Educ.*: private tutor; King's College, London; Caius College, Cambridge; graduated first class Moral Science Tripos, 1901; Member of Mosely Educational Commission to U.S.A., 1903; Member of Inner Temple, 1908; Dunkin Lecturer at Oxford University, 1912; Minto Prof. of Economics, Calcutta University, 1913-19. *Publications*: "Trade Relation between England and India." *Address*: Patna College, Patna.

HAR BILAS SARDAR, RAI SAHIB F.R.S.I., M.R.A.S., F.S.S., Member, Legislative Assembly. *b.* 3 June 1867. *Educ.*: Ajmer Government College and Agra College. Was a teacher in Government College, was transferred to Judicial Department in 1892; apptd. guardian to H.H. the Maharaja of Jaisalmer in 1894; reverted to British service in Ajmer Merwara

in 1902; was Subordinate Judge, First Class at Ajmer till 1919 and was Sub-Judge and Judge, Small Causes Court, Beawar, till 1921; Judge, Small Causes Court, Ajmer, 1921-23; officiated as Addl. Dist. and Sessions Judge and retired in Dec. 1923. Was elected a member of Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, Royal Statistical Society of London, Statistical Association of Boston, U.S.A., Royal Society of Literature and Teachers' Guild of Great Britain and Ireland; is Secretary of Paropkarini Sabha of India. *Publications*: Hindu Superiority; Ajmer: Historical and Descriptive; Maharana Sanga; Maharana Kumbha; Maharaja Hammir of Ranthambhor; Prithviraj Vijaya. *Address*: Har Niwas, Civil Lines, Ajmer, Rajputana.

HARCHANDRAI VISHINDAS, B.A., LL.B., C.I.E. (1918); Mem., Legislative Assembly, Pleader, Zamindar and Landlord. *b.* Apr. 1862. *Educ.*: Elphinstone College, Bombay. Elected Member, Karachi Municipality, 1888-1899; Legal Adviser, Karachi Municipality, 1899-1910; Agal Elected Mem., Karachi Municipality, 1910-21; Pres., Karachi Municipality, 1911-1921; Elected Member, Bombay Leg. Council, 1910-1920; Chairman, Reception Committee, Indian National Congress, 1913; Pres., First Sind Prov. Conf., held at Sukkur 1908; Pres., Special Conference, Hyderabad on Reforms. *Address*: Lakshmidas Street, Karachi.

HARI KISHAN KAUL, RAI BAHADUR, PANDIT, M.A., C.S.I., C.I.E., Commissioner, Rawal Pindi Division, 1924. *b.* 1869 *s. of* Raja Pandit Suraj Kaul. *C.I.E. Educ.*: Govt. Coll., Lahore, Asst. Commr., 1890; Jun. Secy. to Financial Commr., 1893-97; Settlement Office, Muzaffargarh, 1898-1903; Mainwall, 1903-8; Dy. Commr., 1906; Dy. Commr. and Supdt., Census Operations, Punjab, 1910-12; Dy. Commr., Montgomery 1913; on special duty to report on Criminal Tribes Dec. 1913-April 1914; Deputy Commissioner for Criminal Tribes, 1917-19; Dy. Commissioner, Jhelum, 1919; Commissioner, Rawal Pindi Division, 1919-20. Commissioner, Jullundur Division Novr. 1920 to Novr. 1923. Appointed to Royal Commission on Services, 1923, member, Economic Inquiry Committee, 1925. *Address*: Rawal-pindi.

HARI SINGH, RAO BAHADUR THAKUR, OF SATTASAR, O.B.E., C.I.E. (1923); Military Member of the Bikaner State Council. *Educ.* Mayo College. *Address*: Sattasar House, Bikaner.

HARKISHEN LAL (LALA), President, Reception Committee of the Congress, 1910; President, Industrial Conference held at Bankipur, 1912; gave evidence before the Industrial Commission; Member, Punjab Legislative Council; Fellow, Punjab University; tried under Martial Law regime of 1919 and sentenced to transportation for life; released Christmas 1919; appointed Minister, 1920. *Address*: Lahore.

HARNAM SINGH, THE HON. RAJA SIR, K.C.I.E., *b.* 15 Nov. 1851; *y. s. of* late H. H. Raja Rajan Sir Raja Randher Singh, Bahadur of Kapurthala, G.C.S.I. *m.* 1875, Rani Lady Harnam Singh, *s. s. 1 d. Educ.*: Kapurthala. Managed Kapurthala Estates in Oudh,

for over 18 years. Served as member of Hemp Drugs Commission in 1893-94; and is Hon. Life Secy. to B.I. Association of Talukdars of Oudh and Fellow of Punjab University, was member of Imp. Leg. Council and afterwards of Punjab Leg. Council 1900-2; Member of the Council of State since 1920. Member of the Central Committee of the Lady Dufferin Fund. Created Raja 1907. Decorated for General Public Service; Raja hereditary (1922). *Address*: Simla or Lucknow or Jullundur City.

HARRIS, DOUGLAS GORDON, Dip. Ing. (Zurich), M.I.E. (Ind.), Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour, Public Works Branch. *b.* 19 Oct. 1883. *m.* Alice, *d. of* Spencer Ackroyd of Bradford, Yorks. *Educ.*: Rugby School and Federal Polytechnic, Zurich, Switzerland. Asst. and Executive Engineer, P. W. D. 1907-14; Under-Secretary to Government, U.Z., P. W. D. 1915; Under Secretary to Government of India, P. W. D. 1916; Secretary to P. W. D. Reorganisation Committee, 1917; Under Secretary to Government of India, P. W. D. 1920; Secretary to New Capital Inquiry Committee, 1922; Deputy Secretary to Government of India, P. W. D. 1922. *Publications*: Irrigation in India (Oxford University Press.) *Address*: Holmercroft, Simla.

HARRIS, LEONARD TATHAM, C.S.I. (1921); Member, Board of Revenue, 1921. *Educ.*: Falmouth Grammar School; Bath College; New College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1881; Dist. Magte. and Coll., Bangalore, 1899; Head Asst., 1902; Commissioner, Coorg, 1905-12; Collector and Agent, Vizagapatam, 1912-16; Member, Board of Revenue, 1919; Agency Commissioner, 1920. *Address*: Chepauk, Madras.

HARTLEY, LEWIS WYNNE, C.I.E. (1918), Commissioner of Income-tax, Bombay Presidency. *b.* 1867; *m.* to Annie, *d. of* William Rowlands, Rofft, Bangor, Wales. Educated at private school, *Address*: Bombay Club, Bombay.

HARTNOLL, SIR HENRY SULIVAN, Kt.; Chief Judge, Court of Lower Burma, since 1906; Barrister, 1898. *Educ.*: Exeter Grammar School; Trinity College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1881; served in Burma as Asst. Commissioner; Dy. Commissioner, 1890; Commissioner, 1902. *Address*: Chief Court, Rangoon.

HARTOG, PHILIP JOSEPH, C.I.E. (1917); Vice-Chancellor, Dacca Univ., since 1920. *b.* 2 March 1864. *m.* Mabel Helene, *d. of* H. J. Kisch. *Educ.*: Univ. College School; Owens College, Manchester; Univ. of Paris and Heidelberg; College de France. Asst. Lecturer in Chemistry, Owens College, 1810-1903. Lecturer in Victoria Univ., Manchester, 1898-1903. Sec. to Mosely Commn. of Educational Inquiry, 1902-03. Sec. to Treasury Committee on Oriental Studies in London, 1907-09 and to India Office Committee on same subject, 1910-17. Crown member and Hon. Sec. of Governing Body of School of Oriental Studies, 1916; Member of Calcutta

Univ. Commn. 1917-19; Academic Registrar, Univ. of London, 1903-20. Has published numerous works on educational subjects. *Address*: Ramna, Dacca.

HATWA, MAHARAJA BAHADUR GURU MAHADEV ASRAM PRASAD SAHI OF; *b.* 19 July 1893; *S. Oct.* 1896 to the *Gadi* after death of father Maharaja Bahadur Sir Kishen Pratap Sahi, K.C.I.E., of Hatwa. *Address*: Hathuwa P. O., District Saran, Behar and Orissa.

HAY, ALFRED, D. Sc.; Professor of Electrical Technology, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore; *b.* Russian Poland, 1886; *Educ.*: School education received at one of Warsaw "Gymnasia." University of Edinburgh, B. Sc., 1891; studied electrotechnology in London under the late Prof. Ayrton at Central Technical College; Demonstrator in Electrical Engineering at Univ. Coll., Nottingham, 1892; Lecturer on Electro-Technics at Univ. Coll., Liverpool, 1898-1901; graduated D. Sc., 1901; Professor of Electro-Technology, Cooper's Hill, 1901-04; Head of Physics and Elec. Eng. Dept., Hackney Technical Institute, London, 1904-08. *Address*: Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

HAYE, MIAN ABDUL, B.A., LL.B., M.B.E. (1919), M.L.A., Vakil, Lahore High Court. *b.* Oct. 1888. *Educ.*: at Lahore Forman Christian College. Passed LL.B., 1910; started practice at Ludhiana; elected Municipal Commissioner same year; elected Jr. Vice-President 1911 which office he held till 1921 when he was elected senior Vice-President. Is first non-official President of Ludhiana Municipal Council to which office he was elected in 1922. *Address*: President, Municipal Council, Ludhiana.

HAYWARD, THE HON. SIR MAURICE HENRY WESTON, Kt. (1923), I.C.S., LL.B. (Gnatb. Member, Executive Council, Bombay, since Jan. 1921; *b.* 2 June 1868; *s. of* the late R. B. Hayward, Esq., F.R.S., of the Park Harrow, *m.* to Alice Christine, *d. of* the late Judge Barber, Q.C., of Ashover, Derbyshire. *Educ.*: Harrow School and St. John's College, Cambridge. Assistant Collector, Bombay, 1889; Under-Secretary to Bombay Government, 1895; Judicial Assistant, Kathiawar, 1897; District Judge, Karachi, 1899; Legal Remembrancer and Secretary to Government, 1903; Additional Judicial Commissioner, Sind, 1907; Acting Judicial Commissioner, Sind, 1909, 1913 and 1916; Ag. Judge, High Court, Bombay, 1911, 1914 and 1915; Judge, High Court, Bombay, 1918-1920. *Address*: Secretariat, Bombay.

HEADLAM, CAPT. EDWARD JAMES, C.S.I. (1924), C.M.G. (1919), D.S.O. (1916), F.R.G.S., Director, R. Indian Marine; *b.* 1 May 1873; *m.* Nancy Benyon, widow of Stanley Hobson, Nigeria, *Educ.*: Durham School, H.M.S. Conway. Sub-Lieut. R.I.M. 1894, Asst. Marine Transport Officer, N. China, 1900-01, R. Humane Soc.'s medal. Hon. Member, American My. Order of Dragon; China Medal. Served gun-running operations, Persian Gulf (medal with clasp); served European war (Despatches four times). Principal, Naval Transport Officer, South and East

African Force, 1914-15; Star British and allied medals, Naval Transport Officer, East African Expeditionary Force, 1914-17; Principal, Naval Transport Officer, South and East Africa, (1917-19). *Publication:* History of Sea Service under the Govt. in India. *Address:* Bombay.

HENDERSON, ROBERT HENRIOT, C.I.E., Tea Planter (retired), Supdt. of Tarrapur Company's Tea Gardens, Cachar, Assam; Chairman, Ind. Tea Assoc., Cachar and Sylhet. Represented tea-planting community on Imp. Leg. Council, 1901-2, when legislation regulating supply of indentured coolie labour was under consideration. Was Member, Legislative Council of E. Bengal and Assam, President, Manipur State Durbar, 1917-19. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

HENRY, WILLIAM DANIEL, C.I.E., Manager, Alliance Bank of Simla, Ltd., Simla, and Colonel Commanding Simla Rifles, I.D.F., V.D.; A.D.C.; b. 1855. *Educ.:* Dr. J. Yeats' School, Peckham. *Address:* Kelvin Grove, Simla.

HEPPER, SIR (HARRY ALBERT) LAWLESS, Kt. (1918), Knight of Grace, Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England. Director, Bombay Govt. Development Dept. b. 30 January 1870. m. Kathleen Florence Keelan. *Educ.:* Rossall and R.M.A., Woolwich. Commissioned in Royal Engineers, 1890. Joined N. W. Railway, 1894, served with Chitral Relief Expedition, 1895; Deputy Agent, G. I. P. Railway, 1906. Retd. from Army, 1912; Agent, G. I. P. Ry., 1911-1920. President, Indian Railway Conference Association 1916-17; Controller of Munitions, Bombay, May 1917 to August 1918. *Address:* Pedder Road, Bombay.

HICKLEY, VICTOR NORTH, C.I.E., V.D., Lieut. Col., Behar Light Horse; A. D. C. to Lt.-Govr., Behar and Orissa; Indigo planter in Behar. *Educ.:* Eton; Exeter College, Oxford. *Address:* Mozufferpore.

HICKMAN, LT.-COL. ROBERT ST. JOHN, V.D., C.I.E., A.D.C., Comdt., 2nd Surma Valley, L.H. (I.D.F.), Tea Planter. *Address:* Dwarband, P.O. Assam.

HIDAYATALLAH, THE HON. KHAN BAHADUR SHAH GHULAM HUSSAIN, Minister, Govt. of Bombay; b. Jan. 1879. *Educ.:* Shikarpur High School, D. J. Sind Coll. and Govt. Law School, Bombay; Pleader; Member and elected Vice-Presdt., Hyderabad Municipality; Presdt., District Local Board, Hyderabad, and Member, Bombay Leg. Council, for past 8 years. *Address:* The Secretariat, Bombay.

HIGNELL, SIDNEY ROBERT, C.S.I. (1922), C.I.E., Malvern; Exeter College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1896; Magte. and Collr., 1912. Dy. Secretary, Govt. of India, Home Dept., 1915-19; Officiated as Home Secretary on four occasions during that period, Private Secretary to H.E. the Viceroy, 1920. *Address:* Delhi or Simla.

HODGKINSON, SHURLEY STEPHANIE MAUREN, d. of the late William Willson- McQuillen, Esq., of Alloa, Scotland, J.P., Journalist, Municipal Councillor. b. 6 April 1887. m. in 1906 to Commander H. Hodgkin-

son, R.I.M. (Rtd.), has one son, one daughter. *Educ.:* In England and the Continent. Conservative, Imperialist; is the first European woman elected Municipal Councillor in India, and the first woman appointed Hon. Presidency Magistrate in Bombay. Has worked for union and understanding between England and India and in various causes for the education, uplift and welfare of Indian women and children. *Publications:* Numerous verses and contributions to English, Indian and American journals and magazines. *Address:* Apollo Hotel, Fort, Bombay.

HOE, EDGAR, Lt.-Commissioner, Salvation Army, Northern Territory; Landed in 1889. *Address:* Ferozepore Road, Lahore.

HOLLAND, SIR ROBERT ERSKINE, K.C.I.E. (1925), C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E. (1917), C.V.O. (1922), V.D., I.C.S., Political Department, Government of India. b. 1873; s. of Sir Erskine Holland, K.C.; m. 1910. *Educ.:* Winchester Oriel Coll., Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1895; Secretary, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1903; served Foreign Department of Government of India, 1904-08; Political Agent and Consul at Muscat, 1908-10; Political Agent, Eastern States, Rajputana, 1911-13; Depy. Secy., Govt. of India, 1914. On political duty with Mesopotamia Field Force, 1915 and 1917. Political Secy. to the Govt. of India, 1919; Agent to Governor-General, Rajputana, Dec. 1919. Hon. Colonel, 11th Battn. 4th Bombay Grenadiers (I.T.F.) Appointed to the India Council, Dec. 1924. *Address:* The India Office.

HOLME, HENRY EDWARD, M.L.A., District and Sessions Judge, Cawnpore. b. 7 March 1870. m. Miss N. Cowie. *Educ.:* Clifton and Trinity College, Cambridge. Assistant Magistrate, Under-Secretary to Government, Magte. and Collector and District Judge. *Address:* Cawnpore.

HOOVER, REV. WILLIAM, D.D., Missionary, C.M.S.; Translator, Mussorie, since 1892; b. 1837. *Educ.:* Cheltenham Preparatory School; Bath Grammar School; Wadham College, Oxford; Hebrew Exhibition; Sanskrit Scholarship; 1st class in Lit. Hum.; B.A., 1859; M.A., 1861; D.D. 1887. Went to India, C.M.S., 1861; Canon of Lucknow, 1906-1919; Vicar of Mount Albert, New Zealand, 1889-90. *Publications:*—The Hindustani Language, Notes on the Bible and many smaller works in English, Hindi and Urdu. *Address:* Mussorie, India.

HOOTON, MAJOR-GENERAL ALFRED, C.I.E. (1923), K.H.P. (1924), I.M.S., Surgeon General with the Government of Bombay. b. 1870. *Educ.:* Manchester Grammar School and the Owens College, Manchester. Tirah and Mohmand Expeditions 1894-8; Bushire Force, 1918-19. *Address:* 5, Queens Gardens, Poona.

HORSKINS, JULIUS, Lt. Commissioner, Salv- tion Army Territorial Commander for Bombay Presidency. Has served as an officer for 43 years and seen Service in England, S. Africa, Australia and the British West Indies. *Address:* Morland Road, Bynulla, Bombay.

HOWARD, ALBERT, C.I.E., M.A., A.R.C.S., F.L.S., Imperial Economic Botanist to Govt. of India, b. 1873. *Educ.:* Royal College of Science, London; St. John's College, Cambridge. First Class Hons. Nat. Science Tripos, 1898; B.A., 1899; M.A., 1902; Mycologist and Agricultural Lecturer, Impl. Dept. of Agriculture for West Indies, 1899-1902; Botanist to South-Eastern Agricultural College, Wye, 1903-1905. Was Director of the Institute of Plant Industry, Indore, and Agricultural Adviser to States in Central India. *Publications:* Numerous papers on botanical and agricultural subjects. *Address:* Pusa, Bihar.

HOWARD, SIR HENRY FRASER, K.C.I.E. (1923), C.I.E. (1913); C.S.I. (1919); First Division first class Classical Tripos, Part I; Finance Department, Government of India. b. 20 July 1874. m. 1913, Mabel Rosa Roney-Dougal. (d. 1923). *Educ.:* Aldenham School and Trinity Hall, Cambridge. Entered Indian Civil Service, 1897; Under Secretary, Finance Department, Government of India, 1905; Collector of Customs, Calcutta, 1909; Controller of Currency, 1914; Financial Secretary, Government of India, 1917; Temporary Finance Member of Viceroy's Council, 1919; Representative of India at Brussels International Financial Conference, 1920; Controller of Finance, India Office, 1920; Secretary, Indian Retrenchment (Inchape) Committee, 1922-23. *Address:* Simla and Delhi.

HOWELLS, GEORGE, B.A. (Lond.), M.A. (Camb.), B. Litt. (Oxon); B.D. (St. Andrews); Ph.D. (Tubingen), Principal of Serampore College, Bengal, since 1906. b. May 1871. *Educ.:* Gelligae Grammar School; Regent's Park and University Colleges, London; Mansfield and Jesus Colleges, Oxford; Christ's College, Cambridge; Univ. of Tubingen. Appointed by Baptist Missionary Society for Educational work in India, 1895; located at Cuttack, Orissa, engaged in High School and theological teaching, and general literary and Biblical translation work, 1895-1904; originated movement for reorganisation of Serampore College. Angus Lecturer, 1909; published under the title 'The Soul of India', and Fellow of University of Calcutta, since 1913. *Address:* Serampore College, Serampore, Bengal.

HUDDLESTON, CAPTAIN ERNEST WHITESIDE, C.I.E., C.B.E., Deputy Director, Royal Indian Marine, Bombay, 1924. b. Aug. 1874. *Educ.:* Bedford School. Entered I.I.M., 1895; served Egyptian Camp, 1895-96; wrecked in Warren Hastings' troopship off Reunion, 1897; received Roy. Humane Society's silver medal, and Lloyd's silver medal for saving life on this occasion; Lieut., 1900; served China Expedition (Boxer Rising), 1901-02; as Assist. Mar. Transport Officer; Mar. Transport Officer, Somailand Expedition, and was in charge of landing operations in Obblat, 1902-4; Staff Officer, Bombay Dockyard, 1911; Commander, 1913. Captain, 1917. Senior Marine Transport Officer, Bombay, 1914-19. Royal Indian Marine, Port Officer, Madras. *Address:* R.I.M. Dockyard, Bombay.

HUDSON, GENERAL SIR HAVELOCK, K.C.I.E. (1919), K.C.B. (1918), Commanding in Chief, Eastern Command (1920), A.D.C. General, July 1922. b. 26 June 1862. m. Kate, d. of late Major Hawkins. *Educ.:* Reading School. 2nd Battalion Northants Regiment, 1881-84; 19th Lancers (I.A.), 1885-1910. Served in N. W. F. Campaigns, 1889 and 1897; China, 1910; European War, 1914-17. Mentioned in despatches five times. Commanded 8th Division in France. Adjutant-General in India, 1917-20. *Address:* Nalini Tal or Lucknow.

HUDSON, LESLIE SEWELL, Partner, Mackinnon Mackenzie and Co., Bombay. b. 25 Nov. 1872. *Educ.:* Christ's Hospital. Joined P. & O. S. N. Co. London 1889 and came to their Bombay office 1894, subsequently stationed Japan, China and Australia returning to Bombay 1915. Joined Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co., Oct. 1916. Deputy Chairman, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1923-24; Chairman, 1924-25. *Address:* Mont Blanc, Dadysett Hill, Bombay.

HUGHES, MAJOR JOHN EDWARD, Secretary Western India Turf Club. b. 22nd Nov. 1871. m. Evelyn Daisy Brodrick (July 1904). *Educ.:* United Service College, Westward Ho! Served 3rd Battn. Royal Welsh Fusiliers 1890; entered Sandhurst 1891; commissioned 3rd Sept. 1892; served with Northamptonshire Regiment, 1892; joined 2nd Madras Lancers, 1893; retired from 2nd Madras Lancers 1911. apptd. Secretary, W. I. Turf Club 1911; served in the war 1914 to 1918 in the Remount Department in India and Mesopotamia; mentioned in despatches. *Address:* Western India Turf Club, Poona and Bombay.

HULL, REV. ERNEST R., S.J., Editor of *The Examiner*, from 1902 to 1924. b. 9th September 1863. *Educ.:* Society of Jesus, English Province. Came to India, 1902 and since then engaged in literary work in Bombay. *Publications:* The Examiner and a series of Examiner Reprints, on theological, historical and controversial subjects. *Address:* The Examiner Press, Meadows Street, Bombay.

UMPHREYS, LIEUT.-COLONEL SIR FRANCIS HENRY, K. B. E. (1924), C.I.E. (1920), H.B., 'S. Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at the Court of H. M. The Amir of Afghanistan, Jan. 1922. b. April 24, 1879. m. Gertrude Mary Deane, d. of Sir Harold Deane, K.C.S.I., *Educ.:* Shrewsbury and Christ Church, Oxford. Joined 2nd Worcesters, 1900; South African War; Joined 25th Punjabis, 1902. Entered Political Dept., Government of India, 1903; Dy. Commr., Bannu and Kohat; Pol. Agent, Tochi; Malakand, Khyber; Joined Royal Flying Corps in Europe, March 1918; Dy. Foreign Secretary, Govt. of India, 1921. *Address:* British Legation, Kabul, via Peshawar.

USSAIN, MOULVI AHMED, C.S.I., NAWAB AMEEN JUNG BAHADUR, Assistant Minister to H. H. Nizam, since 1914, and Ch. Sec. to Nizam's Govt., since 1896. *Educ.:* Christian College, Presidency College, Madras Univ. M.A., 1890; Dy. Coll. and M. Madras Prep-

- dency, 1890-92; Asst. Priv. Sec. to H. H. Nizam, 1893; F.S.A., 1912; F.R.A.S., 1914.
- HYDARI, A., B.A., NAWAB HYDAR NAWAZ JUNG BAHADUR**, Finance Minister, Hyderabad. *b.* 8 Nov. 1869. *m.* Amena Najmuddin Tyabji (Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal). *Educ.*: St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Joined Indian Finance Dept., 1888; Asstt. Acct. General, U.P., 1890; Dy. Acctt. General, Bombay, 1897; Dy. Acctt. General, Madras, 1900; Examiner, Govt. Press Accounts, 1901; lent as Acctt. General, Hyderabad State, 1905; Financial Secretary, 1907; Secretary to Government, Home Dept., (Judicial, Police, Education, etc.), 1911; Ag. Director-General of Commerce and Industries, 1919; Accountant General, Bombay, 1920; Finance and Railway Member, Hyderabad Executive Council, 1921. First President, Hyderabad Educational Conference in 1915. President, All-India Mahomedan Educational Conference, Calcutta (1917); Conceived and organised Osmania University, Hyderabad; organised State Archaeological Department. *Address*: Hyderabad, Deccan.
- HYDERABAD, HIS EXALTED HIGHNESS ASAF JAH MUZAFFAR-UL-MAMALIK NIZAM-UL-MULK NIZAM-UD-DAULA NAWAB MIR (SIR OSMAN ALI KHAN BAHADUR FATEH JANG) OF, G.C.S.I., (1911)**, son of the late Lieut.-Genl. Mir Sir Mahboob Ali Khan Bahadur, G.C.B., G.C.S.I., Nizam of Hyderabad; *b.* 1886; *ed.* privately; Hon. Col. in the Army, and of 20th Deccan Horse. *Address*: Hyderabad, Deccan.
- IDAR, MAHARAJA OF**, since July 1911, MAHARAJA DHIRAJ MAHARAJA; SIR SHRI DOLAT SINGHJI, K.C.S.I. *m.* Maharaniji Shri Poonellanj. *Heir*: s. Maharaja Kumar Himmat Singhji. *Address*: Himmattnagar (Mahlikantha Agency).
- IMAM, SYED HASAN, Barrister.** *b.* 31 August 1871. *Educ.*: Patna and in England. Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1892. Practised at Patna and Calcutta until 1911. Judge of the High Court, Calcutta, 1912-16. Resumed practice at Patna; President, Special Session, Indian National Congress, September, 1918; President, All-India Home Rule League; Delegate to London Conference on Turkish Peace Treaty, 1921. India's representative to the League of Nations, 1923. *Address*: Hasan Munzil, Patna.
- IMPEY, LT.-COL. LAWRENCE, C.S.I., C.I.E.**; Resident at Baroda. *b.* 1862. *Educ.*: Marlborough; Sandhurst, Indian Army, 1885; employed under Govt. of India in the Pol. Dept., 1887; has held appointments of Pol. Agent in Alwar, Bhopal, Eastern States, Rajputana, Bundelkhand, etc. *Address*: Baroda.
- INDORE, MAHARAJA OF, H. H. MAHARAJAH-DHIRAJA RAJ RAJESHWAR SAWAI SHRI TUKOJI RAO HOLKAR, BAHADUR.** *b.* 1891. *Educ.*: Mayo Chiefs Coll., Ajmere; Imp. Cadet Corps. *Address*: Indore.
- INNES, THE HON. SIR CHARLES ALEXANDER, B.A. (Oxon.), K.C.S.I. (1924), C.I.E. (1919)**, Member (Commerce and Railways) of Governor General's Council. *b.* 27 Oct. 1874. *m.* Agatha Roslie *d.* of late Col. K. F. Stevenson.

- 4s. 1d. Educ.*: Merchant Taylors School, London, and St. John's Coll., Oxford, joined I.C.S., 1893; Asstt. Settlement Officer, Malabar, 1901 to 1905; Under Secy. to Govt. of India, 1907-1910; Collector of Malabar, 1911-1915; Director of Industries and Controller of Munitions, Madras, 1916-19; Foodstuffs Commissioner, Govt. of India, 1919; Secretary, Commerce Dept., 1920-21. *Publications*: Malabar District Gazetteer. *Address*: Commerce Department, Government of India, Simla.
- IRWIN, HENRY, C.I.E., M.I.C.E.** *b.* 1841; joined P.W. Dept., 1868; Consulting Architect to Govt., 1889; retired, 1890. *Address*: Adyar House, Adyar.
- ISHWARDAS LUKHMIDAS, J.P.** Yarn Merchant; *b.* 1872. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's School. For many years connected with Messrs. David Sassoon & Co., was elected to Municipal Corporation by the Justices and later by Indian Chamber of Commerce which he represents on the Port Trust; Member, Managing Committee of the Society of the Hon. Presidency Magistrates of Bombay and is on the directorate of several well-known companies including the Port Canning and Land Improvement Company, the Sassoon Spinning and Weaving Company, Ltd., and the Union Mills; trustee of Sir Harkissondas Narottamdas General Hospital; and Treasurer for Pechey Phipson Sanitarium for Women and Children; Sheriff of Bombay, 1924. *Address*: Garden View, Hughes Road, Bombay.
- ISRAR, HASAN KHAN, KHAN BAHADUR, SIR**, Home Member and President, Judicial Council, Bhopal. *b.* Shahjahanpur. *Educ.*: Shahjahanpur, Bareilly. *Address*: Bhopal.
- IYENGAR, S. SRINIVASA.** *b.* 11 September 1874. *Educ.*: Madura and Presidency College, Madras, Vakil (1898). Member of Madras Senate, 1912-16; President, Vakils' Association of Madras; President, Madras Social Reform Association; Member of All-India Congress Com.; Advocate-General, Madras. *Publication*: a book on law reform (1909). *Address*: Mylapore, Madras.
- IZZAT NISHAN, KHUDDA BAKHASH KHAN TIWANA**, Nawab, Malik; Dist Judge, Dera Ghazi Khan. *b.* 1866. *Educ.*: Government High School, Shahpore; private training through Col. Corbyn, Deputy-Commissioner. Appointed an Hon. Magistrate, 1881; Extra Asst. Commr., 1894; British Agent in Kabul, 1903-06. *Address*: Khwajabad, district Shahpore, Punjab.
- JACKSON, SIR JOHN ERNEST, KT. (1924), C.I.E.** A.C.A., J.P., Acting Agent, B. B. & C. I. Railway, Bombay, *b.* 26 November 1876. *Educ.*: Marlborough College. *Address*: Byculla Club, Bombay.
- JACOB, GENERAL SIR CLAUD WILLIAM, K.C.S.I. (1914), K.C.B., cr. 1917; K.C.M.G. cr. 1919; C.B., 1915**; Indian Army; G.O.C. in Chief Northern Command, since Oct. 1924; A.D.C., General to H. M. the King. *b.* 21 Nov. 1863; *m.* 1894 Clara Pauline, *d.* of Rev. J. L. Wyatt, Rector of Brandon, Suffolk. *Educ.*: Sherborne

- School; R.M.C. Sandhurst. Entered army, 1882; General Staff Officer, 1st Grade, India, 1912; Brig. Gen. Commanding Dehra Dun Brigade, 1915; Commanding Meerut Division, 6 Sept. 1915; 21st Division, 18th Nov. 1915; 2nd Army Corps, 28th May 1916; served Zhob Valley, 1890; N.-W. Frontier, India, 1901-2 (medal with clasp); European War, 1914-18 (C.B. wounded, Prom. Major-General, Lieut.-Gen. 3 June 1917, General, 31 May 1920). Order of St. Vladimir 4th class with swords (Russia), despatches ten times, Grand Officer de l'ordre de la Couronne (Belgium) with Croix de Guerre, Grand Officer de Legion d'Honneur, France, Grand Officer de l'ordre de Leopold, Distinguished Service Medal, American. Chief of the General Staff, 1920-24. *Address*: Army Headquarters, India.
- JADHAV, THE HON. MR. BHASKARRAO VITHOJI-RAO, M.A., LL.B.**, Minister of Education, Bombay. *b.* May 1867. *m.* to a lady from the Vichare family of Ratnagiri District. *Educ.*: Wilson College, Elphinstone College, and Government Law School. Served in Kolhapur State and retired as Revenue Member of the State Council. *Address*: Narayan Dabholkar Road, Bombay.
- JAFFER, HON. KHAN BAHADUR EBRAHIM HAROOK**, Member of the Council of State; *b.* Dec. 27, 1881. *Educ.*: Deccan College, Poona; Landlord and Proprietor of Messrs. Jaffer Jussuff & Co., President, Anjuman-i-Islam, Poona; Hon. Secy., Islamia School; Managing Trustee of Jame-Musjid and trustee and member of other institutions and funds. Organised Bombay Presidency Muslim League, 1908; revived Bombay Presidency Mahomedan Educational Conference; President, All-India Muslim Conf., Lucknow, 1919, at which All-India Central Khilafat Committee established; Member, Cantonment Reforms Committee; Member, Bombay Legislative Council, 1916-19; represented Bombay Presidency Mahomedans on the Imperial Legislative Council, 1919-20. President, 34th Session, All-India Mahomedan Educational Conference, 1920; President, Third Sessions, All-India Cantonment Conference, 1922; Member of the Court, Muslim University, Aligarh. *Address*: East Street, Poona.
- JAGATNARAYAN, PANDIT, Minister, U. P.** Govt. for Local Self. Govt. and Public Health *b.* Dec. 1864. *m.* Srimati Kamalapati, *d.* of P. Sham Narayan Sahab Raina. *Educ.*: Canning Coll., Lucknow; Leader, Criminal Bar, first non-official Chairman, Lucknow Municipality; Chairman Reception Committee, 31st Indian National Congress; Member, Hunter Committee. *Address*: Gola-ganj, Lucknow.
- JAMES, MAJOR-GENERAL WILLIAM BERNARD, C.B., (1918), C.I.E., (1912); M.V.O. (1911)**; Director of Remounts; *b.* 8 Feb. 1865. *m.* Elizabeth Minto, two *s.* *Educ.*: U.S. College and Sandhurst. 1st Commission in 1886, Derbyshire Regiment 1888, 2nd Lancers Intelligence Branch War Office 1900-01; South African War 1902; various staff appointments in India; A.Q.M.G. Coronation Durbar 1911; Commandant 21st Cavalry 1913-14; D. A. & Q. M. G. and

- Brigadier General, Gen. Staff, Indian Cavalry Corps France 1914-16 (Despatches). Temp. Q.M.G. India, 1916-17; Major-General, Administration Southern Command, 1917-19; Commanding Bombay District, 1919-22; Founder and President of the National Horse Breeding and Show Society of India, 1923. *Address*: Simla.
- JAMIAT RAI, DIWAN, RAI BAHADUR, C.I.E., b. 1861.** *m.* 1891. *Educ.*: Bhow, Kohat and Gujrat. Ent. Govt. Service, 1880; served in Political Office with Kuram F.F., 1880; accompanied Afghan Boundary Commission, 1885-1886; special duty, boundary settlement of Laghari Barkhan, 1897; Asst. to the Supdt. of Gazetteers of Baluchistan, 1902-07; services acknowledged by Govt. of India; on special duty in connection with revision of Establishments, 1910; Asst. to Supdt. of Census Operations, Baluchistan, 1910-11; Ex. Asst. Commr., 1902; Settlement Officer, Baluchistan, 1912; Provincial Superintendent of Census for Baluchistan 1920-22, President, Hindu Panchayat and Sandeman Library; Member, Dufferin Fund Committee; Member, Prov. Council Boy Scouts. *Publications*: Quetta Municipal Manual; History of Freemasonry in Quetta, Reports on the settlement of Duki and Barkhan; Notes on (1) Domiciled Hindus, (2) Hindus of Kandahar and Ghazni, (3) Purbia mental castes and sweepers, (4) Afghan Pawiudhas, (5) Achakzai Pathans, (6) Shinwar, (7) Shorard Valley and (8) Revenue rates and economic conditions. *Address*: Quetta.
- JAORA STATE, MAJOR H. H. FAKHAR-UD-DAULA NAWAB SIR MUHAMMAD IFTIKHAR AL-KHAN BAHADUR SAULAT JANG, K.C.I.E. b. 1893.** H. H. served in European War. *Address*: Jaora State, Central India.
- JARDINE, WILLIAM ELIAS, C.I.E., F.R.G.S., M.R.A.S. b. 1867.** *Educ.*: Fettes College, Edinburgh; Wren's Trinity College, Cambridge. Ent. I.C.S., 1886; joined Pol. Dept. of Govt. of India, 1893; became 2nd Asst. Resident, Hyderabad 1st Asst.; Ag. to Govt. Gen. in Cent. Ind. and 1st Asst. Resident, Hyderabad; Pol. Ag., Bundelkhand, 1904-09; Malwa, 1910-11; Resident, Gwalior, 1912-13; Baroda, 1914; Gwalior, since 1914; Knight of Grace of Order of St. John of Jerusalem. *Address*: Gwalior.
- JATKAR, DHIMRAO HANMANTRAO, B.A., LL.B.** Pleader and Member, Legislative Assembly. *b.* 24 April 1880. *m.* to Annapurnabai Jatkari. *Educ.*: at Basim A. V. School, Amraoti High School, Fergusson College, Poona and Govt. Law School, Bombay. Joined Yeotmal Bar in 1906; a Congressman working as one of the Joint Secretaries of the District Association, Yeotmal, since its inception in 1915; non-official elected Chairman, Yeotmal Municipality, since 1919. *Address*: Yeotmal (Berar).
- JAYAKAR, MUKUND RAMRAO, M.A., LL.B.** Bar-at-Law, Member, Bombay Leg. Council. *Educ.*: at Bombay University. Started a charitable public school called Aryan Education Society's High School in Bombay worked there four years; practised as a barrister in Bombay High Court; took to

public life in 1916 and since 1921 completely in public life; elected to Bombay Legis. Council in 1923 by the Bombay University Constituency; and is leader of the Swaraj Party in Bombay Council. *Publication*:— Edited a book on Vedanta Philosophy in 1924. *Address*: 391, Thakurdwar, Bombay 2.

JAYANTI RAMAYYA PANTULU, B.A., B.L. b. Aug. 1861, *Educ.*: at Rajahmundry and Madras, Served in Rev. Dept., in Madras Presidency and retd. as 1st Grade Depy. Collr., 1917; acted as Presidency Magistrate, Madras, for 3 years; Member, Legislative Assembly. *Publications*: A defence of literary Telugu and several articles on literature, history and archaeology. *Address*: Muklisvaram, Tottaramudi P. O., Godavari Dist.

JEELANI, DR. HAJI SYED ABDUL KHADER SAHEB, Member, Legislative Assembly and retired Medical Officer and Superintendent of District Jail. b. July 1867, *m. d.* of Subadar Major Yacoub Khan Sahib Sirdar Bahadur. *Educ.* at Saint Thomas Mount, Madras. Was Member, Cantonment Committee for 14 years; member, district board for 12 years of which for 3 years was Vice-President; and Hon. Magte. for Madras for seven years. *Address*: Saint Thomas' Mount, Madras.

JEFFERY, LIEUT.-COLONEL WALTER HUGH, C.I.E. (1914); C.S.I. (1924); General Staff, Army Headquarters, b. 15 Dec. 1878. *m.* Cicely Charlotte Cowdell. *Educ.*: at Blundells, Tiverton and Plymouth College. *Address*: Simla.

JEHANGIR, SIR COWASJEE, 1st Baronet; nephew and adopted son of late Sir Cowasjee Jehangir Readymoney, C.S.I. b. 8th June 1853. *m.* 1876, Dhunbai, *d.* of the late Ardeshir Hormusjee Wadia; one s. 2 *d.* *Educ.*: Proprietary School; Elphinstone College and University of Bombay. Banker, millowner and landed proprietor; J.P. Delegate of the Parsee Matrimonial Court; and Trustee and member of the Parsee Panchayet. Appointed Sheriff of Bombay in 1919; has assumed the name of Cowasjee Jehangir. Bart. 1908. *Address*: Readymoney House, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

JEHANGIR, COWASJI (Junior), M.A. (Cambridge), C.I.E. (1920); O.B.E. (1918); Member of the Bombay Executive Council 1923. b. Feb. 1879; *m.* to Hirabai, *d.* of H. A. Hormasji of Lowji Castle. Educated at St. Xavier's College, Bombay, and St. John's College, Cambridge. Partner in the firm of Cowasji Jehangir & Co. Member of the Bombay Corporation since 1894; Chairman of its Standing Committee, 1914-1915; Member of the Bombay Improvement Trust; President, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1919-1920; Temporary Member of the Executive Council, Bombay (Dec. 1921). *Address*: Nepean Sea Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

JEJEEBHAY, SIR JAMSETJEE, 5th Baronet; K.C.S.I., Vice-Presdt., Legis. Assembly, b. 6th March 1878; s. father Sir Jamsetjee, 1908, and assumed the name of Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy in lieu of Rustumjee; Head of the Zoroastrian Community in Bombay; Pres. of the Sir Jamsetjee Charity Funds, and Member of

Municipal Corporation. *m.* 1906, Serenebai Jalbhoy Ardesar Sett. *Address*: Mazagon Castle, Bombay.

JEVONS, HERBERT STANLEY, M.A., B.Sc. (Lond.), F.G.S., F.S.S.; Prof. of Economics in Univ. of Rangoon since 1923. b. 8 October 1876, *Educ.*: Giggleswick Gram. Sch. University Coll., London; Trin. Coll., Cambridge; Geol. Inst., Heidelberg; Univ. Demonstrator in Petrology, Cambridge, 1900-01; Lecturer in Mineralogy and Geology, and Asst. to Prof. T. W. Edgeworth David, F.R.S., in University of Sydney, N.S.W., 1902-04; Lectr. and later Fulton Prof. of Econ. and Pol. Science in Univ. Coll. of S. Wales and Monmouthshire, Cardiff, 1905-11; engaged in garden city and housing reform propaganda, 1911-14. Has undertaken researches in rural economics, irrigation on periodicity in Economic Phenomena and Indian Currency and Finance, 1915-1921. Until recently was editor of the Indian Journal of Economics, and Hon. Treas. Indian Economic Association. *Publications*: Essays on Economics; The Sun's Heat and Trade Activity; The British Coal Trade; Consolidation of Agricultural Holdings in the U.P.; Economics of Tenancy Law and Estate Management; Money; Banking and Exchange in India; The Future of Exchange; and numerous books, papers and articles on Petrology, Mineralogy, Economics, Politics, Housing Reform, etc., *Address*: University College, Rangoon.

JEYPORE, MAHARAJA OF, Lieutenant Sri Sri Sri Maharaja Ramchandra Deo Maharaja of Jeypore Samasthanam, s. of late Maharaja Sir Sri Vikrama Deo Bahadur, K.C.I.E., and late Sri Sri Sri Lady Seethapatta Maharani Circar. b. 31st Dec. 1893. Educ.: privately. *m.* 1913 Sri Sri Sri Lakshmi Patta Maharani Circar, *d.* of the late Maharajah Sir Sri Bhagavat Prasad Singh Bahadur, K.C.I.E., of Bahrampur, United Provinces of Agra and Oudh First Landed Zamindar in the Madras Presidency, owning about 14,000 square miles. *Address*: Fort, Jeypore, Vizagapatnam Agency, Madras Presidency, India.

JHALA, RAJ RANA SHRI MANSINGH SURAT-SINGHI, C.I.E. (1918); Dewan, Dhrangadhra State and some time Member, State Cabinet at Jaipur, Rajputana. *Educ.*: Dhrangadhra and Rajkot. Was first Guardian to H. H. Maharaja Saheb of Dhrangadhra when he was Heir-Apparent and accompanied him to England; was afterwards for a few years in Government service and left it as Dy. Superintendent of Police to join service in his parental State, where he was for a year Personal Assistant to H. H. Maharaja Saheb and then his Dewan. Member of the State Council, Jaipur, from Dec. 1922 to March 1923. *Address*: Lal Bungalow, Dhrangadhra.

JHALAWAR, II, H. MAHARAJA RANA SIR BHAWANI SINGH BAHADUR OF, K.C.S.I.; b. 1874; s. 1899. Educ.: Mayo Coll., Ajmer. Has greatly extended education throughout the state and established several libraries. Has travelled over a great part of Europe and has a taste for Music, Science and Literature. Was a research Student at New Oxford College, Oxford, and is a fellow of

the Chemical Society and Vice-President of the India Society; Member, Royal Institution of Great Britain, Royal Astronomical Society, Royal Botanical Society, Royal Aeronautical Society, Royal Asiatic Society, Royal Society of Arts, League of Nations Union and Zoological Society, London. *Publication*: Travel Pictures. *Address*: Jhalrapatan, Rajputana.

JIND, H. H. FARZAND-I-DILBAND RASIKH-UL-ITIKAD DAULAT-I-INGLISHIA, RAJA-I-RAJGAN MAHARAJA SIR RANBIR SINGH RAJENDRA BAHADUR, LT.-COLONEL, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.; b. 1879; s. 1887. Address: Sangrur, Jind State, Punjab.

JINNAH, MAHOMED ALI, Bar-at-Law and Member, Leg. Assembly, b. 25th Dec. 1876. m. d. of Sir Dinshaw Petit. Educ. at Karachi and England. Enrolled as Advocate, Bombay High Court, 1906; Pte. Secretary to Dadabhai Naoroji, 1906; Member, Imperial Legis. Council, 1910; President, Muslim League (special session) 1920. *Address*: Malabar Hill, Bombay.

JOGLEKAR, RAO BAHADUR RAMCHANDRA NARAYAN, I.S.O., B.A., Chief Land Officer, Tata Co., Coll. Baroda State, from Decr. 1916 to June 30, 1920. Depy. Coll. First grade and Native Asst. to Commr., C.D. 1901-16; some time Adv. to Chief of Ichalkaranji; b. Satara, 8th Dec. 1858. Educ.: Deccan Coll., Poona. Held non-gazetted appointments in Nasik, Satara, Ahmednagar, Poona and Sholapur Distts., 1883-1899; Depy. Coll., 1899. *Publications*: Land Revenue Code annotated up to 1st Oct. 1920; Watan Act annotated up to 1st Sept. 1920; Alienation Manual; Inspection of Revenue offices; Court fees in Revenue and Magisterial offices. *Address*: 203, Kala Haud, Shukrawar Peth, Poona City.

JOHN, SIR EDWIN, KT. (1922), C.B.E., 1921; Kt. of the Order of St. Gregory the Great (Civil Order) 1901. Grand Commander, St. Sylvester the Great (1920), Cotton and Seed Merchant and Mill-owner, b. 3 August 1850, m. 1879, Mary Sykes, Southport Lanes; one d. Educ.: Stonyhurst. *Address*: 49, Cantonments, Agra, U. P.

JOHNSTON, FREDERICK WILLIAM, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S. in Pol. Dept. of Govt. of India; Resident, Second class and Revenue and Judicial Commissioner in Baluchistan; b. 2nd Nov. 1872. *Educ.*: Kelvinside Acad., Glasgow; Trinity Hall, Cambridge (B. A., 1894). Asst. Commr., 1896; went to N.-W. Fron., 1899; and was employed there till end of 1911, Govt. of India, Finance Dept., 1911-15; Ministry of Munitions, England, 1915-17. *Address*: Quetta.

JOSHI, SIR MOROPANT VISHVANATH, KT., B.A., LL.B., Home Member, Central Provinces, b. 1861. Educ.: Deccan Coll., Poona, and Elphinstone Coll., Bombay. Practised as Advocate in Judicial Commr.'s Court in Berar from 1884-1920. *Address*: Nagpur, C. P.

JOSHI, NARAYAN MALHAR; Member of the Servants of India Soc. b. June 1879. Educ.: Poona New English School and Deccan Coll. Taught in private schools and Govt. High Schools for 8 years. Joined

Servants of India Soc., 1909. Sec., Bombay Social Service League, since 1911, and Sec., Bombay Presy. Social Reform Assoc., since 1917; Sec., W. India Nat. Liberal Assoc., since 1919. Was sent to Mesopotamia by Govt. of India as representative of the Indian Press, 1917, and in 1920 to Washington and in 1921 and 1922 to Geneva as delegate of the working classes in India to International Labour Confe. Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal (1919), Member of the Bombay Municipal Corpn. since 1919, up to end of March 1923. Was awarded, but declined C. I. E. in 1921. Nominated by Govt., a Member of the Legislative Assembly in 1921 and again in 1924 to represent labour interests. *Address*: Servants of India Society, Sandhurst, Road, Bombay.

JUGMOHANDAS VARJIVANDAS, Sir, Kt., Merchant and Landlord; b. 1869. Educ.: Fort High Sch., Bombay. Mem., Bombay Corpn., 1900-06; trustee of several charitable institutions. *Address*: Bombay.

JUKES, JOHN EDWIN CLAPHAM, C.I.E. (1921). Finance Dept., Govt. of India. b. 12 Nov. 1878. *Educ.*: Aldenham Sch., Pembroke Coll., Cambridge. Porson Univ. prizeman, 1899. Chancellor's Classical Medalist, 1902. *m.* Marguerite Jessie, *d.* of the late James Searle of Reigate. *Address*: United Service Club, Simla.

KAJIJI, MR. JUSTICE ABDEALI MAHOMEDALI, B.A., LL.B. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law; Judge, High Court, Bombay, b. 12 February, 1871. Educ.: St. Mary's Institution, Byculla; St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay, Downing Coll., Cambridge, and Lincoln's Inn. Ord. Fellow, Syndic in Law of Bombay; Univ. President, Anjuman-i-Islam, Bombay; Vice-President, Islam Club and Islam Gymkhana. *Address*: Dilkhoosh, Grant Road, Bombay.

KALE, THE HON. MR. VAMAN GOVIND. Member of the Indian Tariff Board. b. 1876. *Educ.*: New English School and Fergusson Coll., Poona. Joined the Deccan Education Socy. Poona, as a life member in 1907. Fellow of Bombay Univ. for five years since 1919. Prof. of History and Economics, Fergusson Coll., Liberal in Politics; has addressed numerous public meetings; has published many articles on economics and political and social reform, and the following works: "Indian industrial and economic problems," "Indian administration," "Indian Economics," "Dawn of Modern Finance in India," "Gokhale and economic reforms," "India's war finance," "Currency reform in India," "Constitutional reforms in India," etc. *Address*: Fergusson Coll., Poona.

KAMAT, BALKRISHNA SITARAM, B.A., Merchant and Contractor. b. 21 March, 1871. Educ.: Deccan Coll. *m.* Miss Yaminabai R. M. Gawaskar of Cochin. Member, Bombay Legis. Council, 1913-16, 1916-20, Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23; Member, Kenya Deputation to England, 1923; Member of various educational bodies. Has taken part in work for social and agricultural reform. *Address*: Ganeskhind Road; Poona, or Mathew Road, Bombay.

KANDATHIL, MOST REV. MAR. AUGUSTINE, D.D. Archbishop Metropolitan of Ernakulam. Was Titular Bishop of Arad and Co-adjutor with right of succession to the first Vicar Apostolic of Ernakulam, since 1911; *b.* Champ, Vaikam, Travancore, 25 Aug. 1874. *Educ.*: Papal Seminary, Kandy, Ceylon. Priest, 1901. Parish Priest for some time: Rector of Prop. Sem., Ernakulam, and Private Sec. to the first Vicar Apostolic of Ernakulam to end of 1911. *s.* Rt. Rev. Dr. A. Pareparambil as Second Vicar-Apostolic, 9 Decr. 1919; Installed on 18 Decr. 1919. *Address*: Archbishop's House, Ernakulam, Malabar.

KANHAIYA LAL, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE, Raj Bahadur, M.A., LL.B., Judge, High Court, Allahabad, *b.* 17 July 1866. *m.* Shrimati Devi, *d.* of Vyas Gokuldas of Agra. *Educ.*: The Muir Central College, Allahabad; Joined the U.P. Civil Service on 22 April 1891 as Munshi, acted as Subordinate Judge in 1907; appointed Asst. Sessions Judge with the powers of Additional District Judge in Feb. 1908; acted as District and Sessions Judge in 1910 and again in 1911; appointed Additional Judicial Commissioner, Oudh, July 1912; acted as Judge of Allahabad High Court in 1920 and subsequent years for different periods. Promoted Judicial Commissioner in 1922. Appointed Judge of Allahabad High Court again in 1923. *Publications*: Elementary History of India; Dharma Shiksha or a treatise on Moral culture in the vernacular; and A Note on the Reorganisation of the Judicial Staff. *Address*: No. 9, Elgin Road, Allahabad.

KANIKA, THE RAJA OF, HON. RAJA RAJENDRA NARAYAN BHANJA DEO BHADUR, O.B.E. OF KANIKA, M.L.C. *b.* 24 March 1881. *m.* *d.* of Feudatory, Chief of Nayagarh, 1899. *Educ.*: Ravenshaw Coll. Sch.; Coll., Cuttack. Received management of Killah Kanika from Court of Wards, 1902; Mem. of the Bengal Leg. Council, 1909-12; Mem. of Bihar and Orissa Leg. Council, 1912-16; Member, Imperial Leg. Council, 1916-20; Mem., Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council, 1921-22; Mem. Indian Legislative Assembly, 1922-23; Pres., Orissa Landholders' Assn.; Vice-Pres. Bengal Landholders' Association; Vice-President, Bihar Landholders' Association; Mem. of Bengal Fishery Board; Mem., Roy. Asiatic Soc. Member, Governing Body, Ravenshaw College, Cuttack; Fellow, Patna University. *Address*: Cuttack or Rajkanika, Orissa.

KAPURTHALA, H. H. JAGATJIT SINGH BHADUR, MAHARAJA RAJA-RAJGAN OF, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., *b.* Sept. 1872; *s.* father, 1877. *Address*: Kapurthala, Punjab.

KARANDIKAR, RAGHUNATH PANDURANG, High Court Pleader, Bombay, Professor, Law College, Poona, and Member, Council of State. *b.* 21 Aug. 1857 in Khadlikar family, adopted into Karandikars 1865. *m.* Sakhtul, *d.* of Rao Saheb Gogte of Pandharpur (1872). *Educ.*: at Satara and Poona. Sub-Judge (1884); Member, Bhore Forest Committee (1885); visited England 1908, Member elected Bombay Legislative Council 1911; attended His Imperial Majesty's Coronation

at Delhi 1912; member of all Congresses and Committees 1886-1918; second visit to England 1918; opened first Indian Conference at Ilkaly, Yorkshire, 1919; attended Ahmedabad Congress, 1922; President, Satara Dist. Swaraj Party. *Publications*: Note on Land Revenue Code and Note on Agricultural Associations in 1905. *Address*: Satara City.

KARAUJI, H. H. MAHARAJA DHIRAJ SIR BHANWAR PAL, DEO BHADUR, YADUKUL CHANDRA BHAI, G.C.I.E., K.C.I.E., *b.* 24 July 1864. *Educ.*: Mayo Coll., Ajmer. *s.* 1886. *Address*: Karauli, Rajputana.

KASHMIR, Major-General His Highness Sir Pratap Singh, Maharaja of Jammu and G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., *b.* 1850. Succeeded to the gadi in 1885. *Address*: Srinagar, Kashmir.

KASIMBAZAR, MAHARAJA SIR MANINDRA, CHANDRA NANDY OF, K.C.I.E., Vice-President, Bengal Landholders' Association and British Indian Association. *Educ.*: Hindu School; was Member, Council of State. Belongs to Moderate School of Politics, takes a keen interest in and is a patron of education, industries, agriculture, literature and politics. *Publications*: Upanasa, B. S. Panjika, The Indian Medical Plant, A History of Indian Philosophy, Great Balsava Granthas, Part 10 of Sreemat Bhagbat, Fundamental unity of India, History of Indian Shipping and Maritime Activity. *Address*: Kasimbazar, Bengal.

KASTURBHAI LALBHAI, SHETH, M.L.A., Millowner; *b.* 22 Dec. 1894. *m.* Srimati Sardaben, *d.* of Mr. Chhimanlal Dadilal Zaveri of Ahmedabad. *Educ.*: at Gujrat College, Ahmedabad. Hon. Secretary, Ahmedabad Famine Relief Committee 1918-19; elected Vice-President, Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, 1923-24; elected member, Legislative Assembly as a representative of the Millowners' Association. *Address*: Pankore's Naka, Ahmedabad.

KAY, JOSEPH ASPDEN, M.L.C., J.P., Managing Director, W. H. Brady & Co., Ltd., *b.* 20 Jan. 1884. *Educ.*: at Bolton, Lancashire. Came to India to present firm 1907; Managing Director and Chairman of Board of the several companies under their control; Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association, 1921 and 1922; Employers' Delegate to International Labour Conference, 1923; Officer in Bombay Light Horse. *Address*: Wilderness Cottage, Nepean Sea Road, Bombay.

KAZI SYED, HIFAZAT ALI, B.A., LL.B., Minister for Local Self-Government, Public Works, Public Health, etc., Central Provinces; *b.* 1892. *Educ.*: Jubbulpore, Allgarh and Allahabad. Elected President, Municipal Committee, Khandwa, 1920. *Address*: Imilpora, Khandwa.

KEALY, EDWARD HERBERT, I.C.S. Resident at Baroda. *b.* 1873. *m.* 1905 Tempe, *d.* of Sir Charles Bayley, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., *Educ.*: Felste and University College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1897; Bengal, 1897-1902. Joined Political Dept. Govt. of India, March 1902. Served in Rajputana, Central India, Ajmer-Merwara, N.W.F.P., F.A.A.G.G.,

Central India, 1904-05; Assist. Sec., Govt. of India, Foreign and Political Dept., 1905; Census Superintendent, Rajputana and Ajmer-Merwara, 1910-13; Secretary to Chief Commissioner, N.W.F.P., 1915-20; Offg. Resident, Gwalior, 1922; Resident, Baroda, June 1923. *Address*: Baroda.

KEANE, MICHAEL, C.I.E. (1921); Presdt., U.P. Legislative Council, *b.* 1874; *m.* Joyce Lovett Thomas. *Educ.*: Jesuit School, Clongowes Wood, and Univ. Coll., Dublin. Entered I.C.S., 1898. Has been Under-Sec. to Govt., on deputation under the Govt. of India for settlement work in the Tonk and Sirohi States in Rajputana; District Officer in Agra and Cawnpore, Judicial Sec. to Govt., and Ch. Sec. to Govt. *Address*: Lucknow.

KEELING, SIR HUGH TROWBRIDGE, KT. (1923), C.S.I., 1915, A.M.I.C.E., Ch. Eng., and Sec. to Ch. Commr., Delhi, since 1912; Mem. of Delhi Imp. Commn., 1913; Mem., Institute Engineers (Ind.) *b.* 14 April 1855. *Educ.*: Marlborough and Cooper's Hill; *m.* Edith, *d.* of Col. T. O. Underwood, late 4th Punjab Cavalry. Asst. Eng., Madras P. W. D., 1887; Exec. Eng., 1898. Superintending Eng., 1910. *Address*: P. W. D., Delhi.

KEEN, LIEUT.-COLONEL WILLIAM JOHN, C.I.E. (1916), C.B.E. (1920), Pol. Dept., Government of India. *b.* 24 March 1873; *m.* 1899, Marion Beatrice, *d.* of Col. A. McL. Mills, 37th Dogras; two *s.* two *d.* *Educ.*: Haileybury College, R. M.C., Sandhurst. Gaz. to R. Welsh Fus., 1892; Trans. to I. A., 37th Dogras, 1894; served Chitral Res. Exp., 1895; Joined Punjab Commn., 1898; Pol. Dept., Govt. of India, 1901; serving in N. W. Fron. Prov.; served Kabul Khel Exp., 1902; Mohmand Exp., 1908; Great War, 1914-18; Afghan War, 1919. *Address*: Revenue Commissioner, Peshawar, N.W.F.P.

KEITH, THE HON. SIR WILLIAM JOHN, KT. (1925), C.I.E., 1917, I.C.S., M.A., Member and Vice-President of the Executive Council of the Governor of Burma and Finance Member of the Burma Legislative Council, 2nd January 1923. *b.* 13 April 1873; *m.* 1915 Isabel, only *d.* of Sir Harvey Adamson, Kt., K.C.S.I., Lt.-Govr. of Burma (1910-15); one *s.* one *d.* *Educ.*: Edinburgh H. Sch. and Univ.; Christ Church Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1895; (first in final Exam. 1900), Sec. to Fin. Commr., 1899-1903; Sett. Off. 1907-10; Sec. to Govt. of Burma 1911, of Rev. Secry., 1912-10 and Mem. of Council 12; Lt.-Governor; Commr., Magwe Divn., 1919-21; Member, Indian Leg. Assembly Delhi Sessions, 1921 & 1922, Offg. Development Commissioner, Burma 1923, Financial Commissioner, 1923, and Vice-President of the Legislative Council of the Lieut.-Governor of Burma. *Address*: Prome House, Rangoon; Midhurst, Maymyo.

KELKAR, NARSINHA CHINTAMAN, B.A., LL.B. (1894); M.L.A., Editor, *Keasari*, Poona. *b.* 24 Aug. 1872. *m.* Durgabai, *d.* of Moropant Pendse. *Educ.*: Miraj, Poona, Bombay, Dist. Court Pleader till 1896; editor, *Mahratta*, Poona, from 1897 to 1919; editor, *Keasari*, from 1897 to 1899 and again from 1910; Municipal Councillor from 1898 to 1924;

President, Poona City Municipality in 1915 and again from 1922 to 1924; President, Bombay Provincial Conference 1920; Delegate and member of Congress, Home Rule League deputation to England in 1919; elected member of the Legislative Assembly in 1923. *Publications*: Books in Marathi: 6 dramas, 1 historical treatise, 1 treatise on Wit and Humour, Biographies of Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Garibaldi, History of Ireland; in English: Case for Indian Home Rule, and Landmarks of Lokmany's life. *Address*: 554, Sadashiv Peth, Poona City.

KEMP, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE NORMAN WRIGHT, Bar-at-Law (Inner Temple); Judge of the High Court, Bombay. *b.* 29 October 1874. *Educ.*: the Collegiate, Edinburgh and Inner Temple. Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay, Chief Judge of Small Causes, Court, Bombay; Add. Judicial Commissioner, Sind. *Address*: High Court, Bombay.

KENYON, MAJOR-GENERAL LIONEL RICHARD, C.B., 1917; R.G.A., Deputy Master-General of Supply, 1924; *s.* of J. R. Kenyon, K.C., D.C.I., of Pradoc, Shropshire, *b.* 26 July 1867; *m.* 1896, Elizabeth Jane, *d.* of P.C. Sutherland, M.D., F.R.G.S., etc. Surveyor-General of Natal. *Educ.*: Winchester; R.M.A., Woolwich, 2nd Lt. R.A., 1887; Military Assistant to Chief Supdt., Ordnance Factories, 1905-7; Secretary, Ordnance Board, 1907-10; Deputy Director, Ordnance Factories, India, 1911-16; Director of Munitions Inspection in U.S.A., 1916-19. Director-General of Ordnance, 1919-24. *Address*: Army Headquarters, India.

KERR, SIR JOHN HENRY, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., Governor of Assam since Oct. 1922; *b.* 1871. *Educ.*: Glasgow Academy and Univ.; Clare Coll., Cambridge. Joined I.C.S., 1892; Settlement Officer, Bihar, 1899; Coll. of Midnapore, 1904; Dir. of Land Rec., Bengal, 1905; Depy. Sec. to Govt. of India, 1907; Rev. Sec. to Govt. of Bengal, 1911; Chief Secretary to Govt. of Bengal, 1915; Member, Executive Council, Bengal, 1921. *Publication*: Settlement reports of Saran and Darbhanga; joint-editor of Rampini's Bengal Tenancy Act. *Address*: Government House, Shillong, Assam.

KITTLEWELL, AETHUR BRADLEY, C.I.E., I.C.S.; late Add. Sec. to Govt., Punjab. *Educ.*: Cheltenham; New Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1890; Pol. Off., Wana, 1898-99. Depy. Commr., 1903; Sec. to Govt., Punjab, 1903-07. *Address*: Lahore.

KHAPARDE, GANESH SHRIKRISHNA, B. A. (1877), LL.B. (1884). Advocate. *b.* 1855. *m.* to Laxmi Bai. *Educ.*: in Berar and Bombay. Extra Asst. Commissioner in Berar from 1885 to 1889; returned to the Bar, Vice-Chairman of the Local Municipality and Chairman of the District Board of nearly 17 years. Member of Viceroy's Legislative Council. Member of the Council of State. *Address*: Amraoti, Berar, C. P.

KINCAID, CHARLES AUGUSTUS, C.V.O., Judicial Commr. in Sind, acting Judge of the High Court, Bombay. *b.* 8 Feb. 1870. *Educ.*: Sherborne Sch., Balliol Coll., Oxford. Passed I.C.S. examination, 1889;

came out to India, 1891; Pol. Sec., 1910; Agent for Sardars in Deccan, 1914; Dist. and Sess. Judge, Satara, 1913-18; Addl. Judl. Commr., Sind, 1918; Judicial Commissioner of Sind, 1921. Made "Officer of Instruction Publique" by the French Government, 1923. *Publications*: *Outlaws of Kathiawar and The Tale of a Tulsi Plant (Essays on Indian Subjects)*; *Deccan Nursery Tales*, 1914; *The Indian Heroes*, 1915; *Ishtur Phakde*, 1917; *Tales from the Indian Epics*, 1918; *A History of the Maratha People*, Vol. I, 1918; *Tales of the Saints of Pandharpur*, 1919; *Shri Krishna of Dwarka*, 1920; *Hindu Gods*, 1920; *Tales of King Vikrama*, 1921; *Tales of Old Sind; The Anchorite*; *History of the Maratha People*, Vol. II, 1922; *Our Parsi Friends*, 1923; *Tales from the Indian Drama*, 1923. *Address*: Bombay.

KING, CHARLES MONTAGUE, C.S.I. (1922); C.I.E.; Depy. Commr., Punjab, since 1901. *Educ.*: St. Paul's School; Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1892. Depy. Commr., 1901. Commissioner, 1917. *Address*: Lahore.

KISHENGARH H. H. MAHARAJA ADHIRAJ MAHARAJA MADANSINGH BAHADUR, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.; b. Nov. 1884; s. father, late Maharaja Sir Sardul Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E.; cr. 1892; m. 2nd d. of present Chief of Udaipur; served European War, 1914-15. *Address*: Kishengarh, Rajputana.

KISHUN PERSHAD RAJA-I-RAJAN MAHARAJA BAHADUR, YAMINUS-SULTANATH, SIR, G.C.I.E., K.C.I.E., Peishkar, Hyderabad State, Deccan, b. 28 Jan. 1864; *Educ.*: Nizam Coll., Hyderabad; Min. of Mil. Dept., 1893-1901. *Decorated* for services rendered to the Hyderabad State. *Publications*: 57 works in prose poetry, Persian, Urdu and Marathi. *Address*: City Palace, Hyderabad, Deccan.

KNAPP, SIR ARTHUR ROWLAND, K.C.I.E. (1924); C.S.I. (1922); C.B.E. (1919). Member of the Executive Council (1922), Madras. b. 10 Dec. 1870. *Educ.*: Westminster School; Christ Church, Oxford. m. Florence Annie, d. of the late Dr. E. Moore, Prince of St. Edmund's Hall, Oxford, and Canon of Canterbury. Entered Civil Service, 1891. Revenue Secretary to Government 1917. Chief Secretary 1919; Reforms Commissioner, 1920; Temp. Member of Council in 1919-20 and in 1921. Special Commissioner for Malabar, 1921. *Address*: Adyar House, Madras.

KOLHAPUR, HIS HIGHNESS SIR SHRI RAJARAM CHHATRAPATI Maharaja of, since 1922; G.C.I.E. (1924). b. 30 July 1897; s. of Col. Sir Shahu Chhatrapati Maharaja of Kolhapur (d. 1922); direct descendant of Shivaji the Great, the Founder of the Maratha Empire. m. 1918 H. H. Shrimati Tarabai Saheb, g. d. of H. H. Sir Sayajirao Maharaj Gaekwar, Ruler of Baroda, *Educ.*: Privately in Kolhapur; Hendon School; studied agriculture at Ewing Christian College, Allahabad. *Address*: Kolhapur.

KOLLEN GODE, THE HON. RAJA VASUDEVA RAJA VALIA NAMBI OF, C.I.E. (1915), F.M.U. (1921); Landholder, b. Oct. 1873. m. to C. Kalyani Amma, d. of Mr. K. Rama Menon, Chief Justice of Travancore. *Educ.*:

Rajah's High School, Kollengode, and Victoria College, Palghat. Senior member and manager of the aristocratic family of Vengad in Malabar; twice nominated as member of Madras Legislative Council, afterwards elected Member, Madras Legislative Council, representing landholders; Member, Council of State (1922). Temp. Member, Madras Executive Council, from Nov. 1923 to April 1924. *Address*: Kollengode, Malabar Dist.

KOTAH, H. H. LIETT-COLONEL SIR UMED SINGH BAHADUR, MAHARAO OF, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., K.C.S.I., Hon. Lt.-Col. in Army; Hon. Major, 42nd Deol Regt. b. 1873. s. 1889. *Address*: Kotah, Rajputana.

KOTLA, HON. RAJA KUSHALPALSINGH OF, M.A. (Cal.), LL.B. (All.), LL.D., Ph.D., Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly b. 15 Dec. 1872; s. to Kotla estate, 1905. Mem. of U. P. Leg. Coun. since 1909. Mem. of Imp. Leg. Coun. as Rep. of landed aristocracy of Prov. of Agra, 1913; Sp. Mag., Vice-Chairman of Agra Dist. Bd.; Chairman of Firozabad Mun.; Trustee and Mem. of Managing Comm. of Agra Coll. *Address*: Kotla Fort, P.O. Kotla, Dist. Agra, U.P.

KRISHNAN, CHERUVARI, DEWAN BAHADUR, M.A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law, Judge, High Court, Madras, b. 26 November 1868, m. in 1895. *Educ.*: High School, Cannanore; Government College, Calicut; Presidency College, Madras; Christ's College, Cambridge; Government of India Scholar and Scholar, Christ's College, Cambridge. Joined Madras Bar, 1891. Acted as Prof. of Chemistry, Presidency College, Madras; Ch. Presidency Magistrate, Madras; Ch. Judge, Court of Small Causes, Madras; was Fellow, University of Madras. *Address*: Shenstone Park, Harrington Road, Madras.

KSHAUNISH CHANDRA RAY, THE HON. MAHARAJA, BAHADUR, of Nadia (Bengal); Maharaja created 1912, Delhi Durbar; Maharaja Bahadur created 1917; Member, Bengal Executive Council in charge of Revenue, Irrigation and Forest Departments. b. 29 Oct. 1890. m. Jyotirmoyi Debi, youngest d. of late Raja Ashutosh Nath Roy of Kashimbazar (Dist. Murshidabad). *Educ.*: Privately. Only son of late Maharaja Kshitish Chandra Roy Bahadur of Nadia, succeeded 1910; 2 d. Was elected a Member of the first reformed Bengal Legislative Council from the Non-Mahomedan constituency of Nadia, 1920-23; Member, Bengal Executive Council since 1st Aug. 1924; First elected non-official Chairman of Nadia Dist. Board, 1920-24; President, Nadia Landholders' Association. *Recreation*: Photography, Shooting. *Address*: The Palace, Krishnagar; "Nadia House," 2, Bright Street, Ballygunge, Calcutta.

KUTCH, H. H. MAHARAJA DHIRAJ MIRZAN MAHARAO SHRI KHENGARJI SAWAI BAHADUR OF, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.; b. 23 Aug. 1866; s. 1875. m. 1884. *Address*: The Palace, Bhuj, Kutch.

LAHORE, BISHOP OF, since 1913, Rt. Rev. HENRY BICKERSTETH DURRANT M.A., D.D., C.B.E. *Educ.*: Highgate Sch.; Pembroke Coll., Camb. Ch. Miss. Coll., Islington. Curate of St.

Matthew's, East Stonehouse, 1894-95; C.M.S. Missionary, Lucknow, 1896; St. John's Coll., Agra, 1897. Vice-Prin., 1900; Prin., 1911; Fellow, Allahabad Univ., 1906; served European War, Mesopotamia (Kut-el-Amara), 1915 (Despatches), 1918 (Despatches). *Address*: Bishopsbourne, Lahore.

LAKHMIDAS ROWJEE TAIRSEE, B.A., Landlord and Merchant. m. Ladhkabal L. R. Tairsee. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Trustee, Tilak Swaraj Fund; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation and its Standing Committee. *Publications*: "Frenzied Finance;" *Speeches and Writings of B. G. Horniman*. *Address*: 29-31-33, Bora Bazar Street, Fort; and 9A Walkeshwar Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

LAKHTAR, CHIEF OF, THAKOR KARAN SINGHI VAJIRAJI, C.S.I., 1911; b. 1846. *Address*: Lakhtar, Kathiawar Agency, Bombay.

LAKSHMI NARAYAN LAL, Rai Sahib, son of Munshi Dyal Narayan Lal, Pleader and Zemindar, b. 1870. m. to Srimati Navaraj Kunwer. *Educ.*: at Aurangabad, Gaya and Patna. Passed pleaders' examination in 1890 and since practising as a pleader at Aurangabad and Gaya in the Province of Bihar and Orissa. Hon. organiser of co-operative societies; Director and Deputy Chairman of the Central Bank, Aurangabad; Chairman of the Central Bank, and Local Board, Aurangabad; Chairman of the Divisional Co-operative Federation, Patna; a Councillor of the Co-operative Federation, Bihar and Orissa, a nominated member of the first Legislative Assembly, and Member, National Convention. *Publications*: *Glorias of Indian Medicine*, Sahyog, Samudrajatra. Twelve Main Points of Co-operation and Updesh Manjar. *Address*: Aurangabad or Gaya (Bihar and Orissa).

LAL, RAO BAHADUR BAKSHI SOHAN, M.L.A. (non-Mahomedan Constituency, Jullundur Divn.), Vakil, H. Ct., Lahore. b. 4 April 1857. Practised as Vakil in Kangra, Jullundur and Lahore. Elected Member, Punjab Leg. Council, 1912 and 1916. *Address*: High Court, Lahore.

LAL, PIYARE, Bar-at-Law, Member, Legislative Assembly, b. Jan. 1860. *Educ.*: Muir Central College, Allahabad. Called to the Bar in 1886; practised up to 1896; was Minister of Sallana State, 1896-1900; Chief Justice and latterly Judicial Member, Council of State, Indore, from 1900 to 1906; travelled round the world in 1913. *Address*: Meerut.

LATIF, CAMRUDIN AMIRUDIN ABDUL, B.A.; late Mem. of Sec. of State's Adv. Comm. for Ind. Students; b. Bombay, 28 Sept. 1856. *Educ.*: Elphinstone Coll., Bombay; Bombay Univ.; practised as Vakil of Consular Courts, Zanzibar and Mombassa, 1880-93; Legal Adviser to successive Sultans of Zanzibar. Fellow, Bombay Univ.; J.P., Bombay; Hereditary Inamdar, Cambay State. *Address*: 1, Harvey Road, Chowpatty, Bombay.

LATTHE, RAO BAHADUR ANNA BABAJI, M.A., LL.B. (Bombay) Vakil; b. 1878; m. to Jyotsnabai Katre of Kolhapur. *Educ.*: Deccan College, Poona; Prof. of English, Rajaram College, Kolhapur, 1907-1911; Educational Inspector, Kolhapur, till 1914;

President, Southern Maharashtra Jain Association and Karnatak Non-Brahman League; Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921-23. *Publications*: "Introduction to Jainism" (English); "Growth of Alibhat Empire in India" (Marathi); "Memoirs of Shahu Chhatrapati." *Address*: Belgaum.

LAWRENCE, HENRY STAVELEY, C.S.I.; Kaisar-i-Hind Medal; Member of Exec. Council, Bombay, since April 1921. b. 20 Oct. 1870; m. to Rosamond Napier, d. of Col. E. Napier, late Carabineers. *Educ.*: Haileybury, Magdalen College, Oxford. Arrived in India, 1890; Under Sec. and Sec. to Govt. of Bombay, 1897-1902; Dir. of Land Records and Agriculture, 1902-06; Collr. in Sind, 1908-13; Commr., Southern Divn., 1914-16; Commissioner in Sind, 1916-20; Ch. Sec. to Govt., 1920-21. *Publications*: *Paper on Indian Agriculture before the Royal Society of Arts*, 1909. *Address*: Secretariat, Bombay.

LEFTWICH, CHARLES GERRANS, C.B.E. (1919). Indian Trade Agent, East Africa, b. 31 July 1872. m. Evadne Fawcett of Alnmouth, Northumberland. *Educ.*: Christ's Hospital and St. John's College, Cantab. Entered I.C.S. 1896. Served in C. F. *Address*: Mombasa.

LEGGE, FRANCIS CECIL, C.B.E., V.D. (1919), Director of Wagon Interchange, Indian Railway Conference Assn., b. 14 September 1873. *Educ.*: Sherborne School. *Address*: Bengal Club, Calcutta.

LEGH, EDMUND WILLOUGHBY, B.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. (1924); I.C.S., Acting Secretary to the Government of Madras, Revenue Department; b. 28 March 1874. m. Baroness Elizabeth (B.F.S.) von Engelhardt (1914). *Educ.*: at Malvern Sch., and Univ. Coll., Oxford; apptd. after exam. of 1896; arrived, 6th December, 1897 and served in Madras as Asst. Collr. and Mag.; Head Asst. Collr. and Mag., Sept. 1907; Sub-Collr., and Joint Mag., May, 1910; Collr. and Dist. Mag., Dec., 1915. *Address*: Secretariat, Madras.

LESLIE-JONES, FREDERICK ARCHIBALD, M.A., C.B.E. Principal of Mayo College, b. 1874. m. Christiana Mary Baskett. *Educ.*: Bromsgrove and Lincoln College, Oxford. Assistant and House Master, Marlborough College, 1897-1904; Princ., Aitchison College, Lahore, 1904-1917. *Publication*: *A View of English History*. *Address*: Mayo College, Ajmere.

LEVETT-YEATS, GERALD AYLMER, C.I.E., I.S.O., V.D.; Factory Supdt., Opium Dept., U.P., since 1903; b. 7 March 1863; *Educ.*: Private tuition. Managing Director, Opium Factory, 1919; retired 20 Decr. 1920. *Address*: Ghazipur, U. P.

LEWIS, ARTHUR CYRIL WENTWORTH, B.A. (Oxon.), 1908; Editor, *The Englishman* (1923), b. Oct. 4, 1885; m. 1923 Josette Eugenie Noel of Le Faouet, Brittany. *Educ.*: Felsted School and Exeter Coll., Oxford; Student of the Inner Temple. Started journalism in 1909 on the staff of the *Nottingham Daily Express*; literary editor and leader-writer, *Sheffield Daily Telegraph*, 1910-1914; on Editorial staff of *The Times*, 1914 and 1919-1923; special correspondent in Denmark, Morocco, etc.; 1921-22 Chief

Correspondent in Paris. Great War saw service in France, Egypt, Palestine and Salonika, Lieut.-Col. A.D.A.P. & S.S. Egypt and Salonika. *Address:* The Englishman, Ltd., 9, Hare Street; and The Bengal Club, Calcutta.

LEWISOHN, FREDERICK, C.B.E. (1923), I.C.S., Chief Secretary to the Government of Burma, b. 28 July 1878. *m.* Edith Lillian Clementson. *Educ.:* St. Paul's School, London, Trinity College, Oxford. Came to India in the I.C.S. in Dec. 1902. *Address:* C/o Messrs. T. Cook & Son, Phayre Street, Rangoon.

LEY, ARTHUR HERBERT, C.I.E. (1918). Secretary to Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour, 1923; b. 7 November 1879. *Educ.:* Winchester and New College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1903. Director-General, Commercial Intelligence, 1914-16. *Address:* Simla.

LINDSAY, DARCY, C.B.E., M.L.A., b. Nov. 1865. Secretary, Calcutta Branch, Royal Insurance Co. *Address:* 26, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta.

LINDSAY, HARRY ALEXANDER FANSHAW, C.B.E., Off. Secretary, Commerce Dept., Government of India, b. 11 March 1881; *m.* Kathleen Louise Huntington. *Educ.:* St. Paul's School, London; Worcester College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S.; was Director-General of Commercial Intelligence. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

LINDSAY, RALPH, Secretary and Treasurer, Imperial Bank of India, Bombay, b. 1880. *m.* to Jean, d. of Alan MacDougall, Montrose. *Educ.:* at Montrose Academy. Five years Commercial Bank of Scotland, Montrose, Glasgow, Edinburgh; Member, Institute of Bankers in Scotland. Joined Bank of Bombay 1901; Agent of various branches; was Inspector of Branches at date of formation of Imperial Bank by amalgamation of Banks of Bengal, Bombay and Madras; apptd. Deputy Secretary, 1923; Secretary and Treasurer, 1924; Member, Bombay Stock Exchange Inquiry Committee, 1923. *Address:* Warden Road, Bombay.

LITTLEHAILES, RICHARD, D.P.I., Madras, 1919; b. 14 February 1878. *Educ.:* Balliol Coll., Oxford and Kiel University. Demonstrator and Lecturer, Clarendon Laboratory, Oxford. Joined I.E.S., 1903 as Prof. of Mathematics, Presidency College, Madras. *Address:* Moore Road, Madras.

LOHARU, THE HON. NAWAB SIR AMIR-UD-DIN AHMED KHAN BAHADUR, K.C.I.E., Member, Council of State, and Persian and Urdu Poet, b. 1860, S. 1884. Ruling Chief of Moghal tribe, Abducted in favour of his heir-apparent and Successor in 1920, voluntarily retaining titles and 9 guns salute as personal distinctions. For two years Mem. of Imp. Leg. Council and for two years Mem. of Punjab Council. Superintendent and Adviser to the Malerkotla State in the Punjab for 12 years. Attached to Pol. Dept. in Mesopotamia. *Address:* Loharu, Hissar.

LOHOKARE, DR. KRISHNAJI GOVIND, B.A. (1908); Medical Practitioner and Member, Legis. Council, b. 18 April 1884. *m.* Ambubai,

d. of Dr. W. G. Chobhe of Poona. *Educ.:* Poona Medical School and Canadian Mission College, Indore. Served at the Aden Native Mil. Gen. Hospital in 1904; joined Indore State Medical Dept. in the same year; joined Maharashtra Shikshana Prasarak Mandal as Life Member in 1908 and worked as teacher in Mathematics and English; Was elected to Poona Municipality in 1914; and is an elected member of the Bombay Medical Council for last seven years and has been working for All-India Medical Licentiate Association from its inception since 1906 and for co-operative societies and other institutions. *Address:* 26, Budhwar Peth, Poona City.

LUCKNOW, BISHOP OF, RT. REV. GEORGE HERBERT WESTCOTT, D.D. (1914). *Educ.:* Marlborough; Peterhouse, Cambridge, (M.A.), 1889. Ordained, 1886. Consecrated Bishop, 1910. *Publication:* "Kabir and the Kabir Panth." *Address:* Bishop's Lodge, Allahabad.

LUNAWADA, HIS HIGHNESS MAHARANA SIR SHRI WAKHATSINHJI DALESINHJI, RAJAH OF, K.C.I.B.; b. 11 Aug. 1860; S. 1867; a Virpura Solunki Rajput; *Educ.:* Rajkumar Coll., Rajkot. *Address:* Lunawada, Rewa Kantha, Bombay.

LYALL, FRANK FREDERICK, C.I.E., I.C.S., General Manager, Kasim Bazaar Raj, b. 12 June 1872. *Educ.:* Edinburgh Academy; Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1891; *m.* Miss I. K. Markham (1906). *Address:* Berhampore, E.B.S. Rly.

LYTTON, 2ND EARL OF, P.C., G.C.I.E., Governor of Bengal (1922); b. Simla, 9th Aug. 1876; s. of 1st Earl and Edith, d. of Hon. Edward Villiers, niece of 4th Earl of Clarendon. s. father 1891; *m.* 1902, Pamela, d. of late Sir Trevor Chichele-Plowden; two s. two d. Chairman of the Royal Commission for the Brussels, Rome and Turin Exhibitions, 1910-1911; Civil Lord of the Admiralty, 1916; Additional Parliamentary Secretary to the Admiralty, 1917; British Commissioner for Propaganda in France 1918; Civil Lord of the Admiralty, 1919-20; Chairman of Trust Houses, Ltd.; President of Hampstead Garden Suburb Trust, Ltd., and of Welwyn Garden City; Ltd.; Under-Secretary of State for India, 1920-22. *Publication:* Life of Edward Bulwer, First Lord Lytton, 1913. *Address:* Government House, Calcutta.

MCCARRISON, LIEUT.-COLONEL, ROBERT, I.M.S., M.D., D.Sc., Hon. LL.D., F.R.C.P. (London); Foreign Associate Fellow College of Physicians (Philadelphia); Laureate Academy of Medicine, Paris; Hon. Surgeon to Viceroy, Kaiser-i-Hind (1st Class), 1911; C.I.E. (1923); In charge, Deficiency Diseases Inquiry Indian Research Fund Association, Pasteur Institute, Coonoor, b. 15 March 1878; *m.* Helen Stella, 3rd d. of J. L. Johnston, I.C.S. (Rtd.), late Judicial Commissioner, Sind. *Educ.:* Queen's College, Belfast. Graduated M.B., B.Ch., B.A.O. (1st Class Hons. and Exhibition) (1900); M.D. (Hons.) 1900; M.R.C.P. (Lond), 1909; D.Sc. (Belfast) 1911; F.R.C.P. (Lond.) 1914; Entered I.M.S., 1901. Military Lecturer, College of Physicians, London,

1913; Mellon Lecturer, University of Pittsburgh, U.S.A., 1921; Mary Scott Newhold Lecturer, C. P. Philadelphia, 1921; Hanna Lecturer, Cleveland Ohio, U.S.A., 1921; May Foundation Lecturer, Rochester, In, U.S.A., 1921; Arnott Memorial Gold Medalist, Irish Medical Schools and Graduates Association 1921; Prix Amussat Academy of Medicine Paris (1914); Laureate of the Academy of Medicine, Paris (1914); Stewart Prize for Research British Medical Association (1918); Foreign Associate Fellow, College of Physicians of Philadelphia (1922); Hon. LL.D. Queen's University, Belfast, 1919; Brevet-Lt.-Colonel (1918) "for distinguished Service in the Field," *Publications:* "The Thyroid-Gland in Health and Disease," London, 1917 "Studies in Deficiency Disease," London, 1921; Numerous scientific papers on the physiology and pathology of the thyroid and parathyroid glands; and on disorders of Nutrition in Proe. Roy. Soc., Proc. Royal Soc. Med. Indian Journal Medical Research, etc. *Address:* Pasteur Institute, Coonoor, South India.

MACARTNEY, SIR GEORGE, K.C.I.E., C.I.E., Brit. Con.-Gen. at Kashgar, Chinese Turkestan, since 1911; b. Nankin (China), 19 Jan. 1867. *Educ.:* Dulwich Coll., France. Bachelier de Lettres de Université de France. Ent. service of Govt. of India, 1889; received thanks of Government of India, 1906. *Address:* Kashgar, Chinese Turkestan, Gilgit (Kashmir).

MACGLASHAN, JOHN, M. Inst., C. E., M.I.E. (Ind.), Chief Engineer, Calcutta Port Commissioners; b. 24 Sep. 1874; *m.* Grace Isabel Fraser. *Educ.:* Aberdeen. *Address:* Port Commissioner's Office, Calcutta.

MACKENNA, JAMES, C.I.E., I.C.S., Development Commissioner, Burma, b. Aug. 1872. *Educ.:* Dumfries Academy; Edinburgh Univ.; Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1894; Dir. of Agriculture, Burma, 1906; President, Indian Cotton Committee, 1917; President, Indian Sugar Committee, 1919. *Publication:* Agriculture in India. *Address:* Rangoon.

MACKENZIE, LIEUT.-COLONEL JOHN, C.I.E., Indian Army. Military Secretary to H. E. The Earl of Lytton, Governor of Bengal (1922); b. 21 Sep. 1876; *m.* Dorothy Helen d. of Col. W. G. Massy, C.M.G., one s. one daughter. *Educ.:* Merchiston Castle Sch. R.M.C., Sandhurst. Comptroller of Household to following Viceroy of India; Earl of Minto, 1907-10; Lord Harding, 1910-16; Lord Chelmsford, 1916-12. *Address:* Govt. House, Calcutta.

MACKISON, JAMES WALLS, B.Sc. (Edin.), M. Inst., C.E., J.P., C.I.E. (1921); Special Engineer, Development Works to Bombay Municipality since 1920. b. 18 Dec. 1869. *Educ.:* Dundee Institution, St. Andrew's University and Edinburgh University; Civil Engineer with Dundee Municipality from 1886 to 1906; Consulting Engineer in Private practice, 1906-11; Executive Engineer, Bombay Municipality, 1911-1920. *Address:* The "Grange," Wodehouse, Road, Bombay.

MACLEOD, HON. SIR NORMAN CRANSTOUN, Kt. (1919); Chief Justice, Bombay, 1919. b. 10 July, 1866. *Educ.:* Wellington Coll., New Coll., Oxford. Called to Bar, 1890; Off. Assignee, Bombay, 1900; Mem. of Imp. Leg. Council, 1903; Puisne Judge, High Court, Bombay, 1910-19. *Address:* Mount Pleasant Road, Bombay.

MACNAGHTEN, SIR HENRY PELHAM, Kt. (1920); Merchant, and Sheriff of Bombay (1925). b. 4 September 1880; *m.* Frances Cropper, d. of the Very Rev. The Dean of Gibraltar, *Educ.:* Eton and King's College, Cambridge; East India Merchant since 1902; Partner, Wallace & Co., Bombay. *Address:* Wallace & Co., Bombay.

MACPHEAL, THE REV. EARL MONTEITH, M.A., B.D., Hon. D.D. (Edn.), 1922; C.B.E. (1919); C.I.E. (1924) Vice-Chancellor of the Madras University (1923); Member, Council of State (1924); b. Jan. 31, 1861; *m.* Mary, elder d. of late James Meliss Stuart of Eriska, Argyllshire. *Educ.:* Edinburgh Academy, Edinburgh University, New College, Edinburgh, Jena, Tübingen and Berlin Universities. Ordained Missionary of Free Church of Scotland, 1890; became Prof. of Hist. and Economics, Madras Christian College, Fellow of Madras University, 1899; Mem. of the Syndicate of Madras University, 1906; Representative of Madras University, on the Madras Legislative Council, 1909 and 1919; Chairman, Madras Publicity Board, 1918; Principal, Christian College, Madras, 1921; Member, Madras Legislative Council, 1921-22. *Address:* College Road, Madras, Bendorloch Kodalkanal, South India.

MACTAGGART, COLONEL CHARLES, O.S.I., 1919, C.I.E.; Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, U.P.; b. 1861. *Educ.:* Campbelltown Gram. Sch. Glasgow Univ., Ent. I.M.S., 1886; Insp.-Gen. of Prisons, 1902; Mem., Indian Factory Labour Commission, 1907-08; Mem. of U.P. Leg. Council, 1909. *Address:* Lucknow.

MACWATT, THE HON. MAJOR-GENERAL SIR ROBERT CHARLES, Kt. (1925) C.I.E., M.B.B.Sc., M.R.C.P.E., F.R.C.S., F.Z.S., K.H.S.; Director General, Indian Medical Service; Member of the Council of State *m.* 1889 Blanche Mathilda, d. of the late General S. F. Blythe, C.B. Entered I.M.S., 1887; became Major, 1899; Lt.-Col., 1907; Col., 1918; Major-General, 1923; Hazara Expedition, 1888 (medal with clasp); Lushai Expedition, 1889 (clasp); Miranzai Expedition, 1891 (clasp); Hazara Expedition, 1891 (clasp); apptd. Chief Medical Officer, Rajputana, 1914; Asstt. Director of Medical Services, Derajat Brigade, 1918; Inspector General, Civil Hospitals, Punjab, and Administrative Medical Officer, N.W. Rly 1918; Director-General, Indian Medical Service, 1923. Has Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal. *Address:* Simla and Delhi.

MACKENZIE, THE REV. JOHN, M.A. (Aberdeen) 1904; Senior Cunninghamham Fellow, New College, Edinburgh, 1908; Principal, Wilson College, Bombay, b. 13 June 1883. *m.* Agnes Ferguson Dimmes. *Educ.:* at Aberdeen University, New College, Edinburgh; Tübingen University. Ordained 1908; Appointed Professor

In Wilson College, 1908; Appointed Principal 1921; Fellow of the University of Bombay. *Publications:* Hindu Ethics (Oxford Univ. Press). *Address:* Wilson College House, Bombay.

MOLAN, ROBERT, B.Sc., Edinburgh; Agent, G.I.F. Railway; b. 3 Feb. 1884; m. Evelyn Neil Girard. *Educ.:* Edinburgh Academy; Edinburgh University. *Address:* Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MCPHERSON, SIR HUGH, K.C.I.E. (1924), C.S.I., 1919; B.A., Member of Exec. Council Bihar and Orissa, since April 1921; b. 3 May 1870; *Educ.:* Paisley Gram. Sch., Glasgow Univ.; Balliol Coll., Oxford. Passed into I.C.S., 1889, arrived India, 1891; Settlement Officer, Santal Parganas, 1898-1905; Director, Land Records, Bengal, 1907-12; Rev. Sec., Behar and Orissa, 1912-1915; Ch. Secy., Bihar and Orissa, 1915-1919; Mem., Board of Revenue, Patna, 1919; Secretary to Govt. of India, Home Dept., 1919-20; Vice-President and Member of Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa, 1921. *Address:* Patna and Ranchi.

MOWATERS, ARTHUR ORCIL, C.I.E. (1918); I.C.S., Secretary to the Govt. of India, Finance Department (1923); b. 13 September 1880; m. Mary, only d. of Sir Stephen Finney C.I.E.; one s. *Educ.:* Clifton, Trinity College, Oxford; 1st Class, Classical Moderation, 1st Class, Lit. Hum. Joined I.C.S., 1904. Served in the U. P. Under Sec., Government of India, Department of Commerce and Industry, 1910-13. Wheat Commissioner, 1915. Controller of Hides and Wool, 1917, Chairman Board of Special Referees, Excess Profits Duty Act, 1919; Secretary to Government of India; Secretariat Procedure Committee, 1919; Represented Govt. of India on Commercial Mission to Persia 1920; Controller of Currency, 1920-23. *Address:* The Secretariat, Delhi or Simla.

MYER, JOHN ALEXANDER, I.S.O.; Supdt., Govt. Photographic Dept., Bombay, C.S.; Land Rec. Dept., since 1906; b. 10 Sep. 1859. *Educ.:* privately, Yorkshire. Joined the B. C. S., 1880. *Address:* Poona.

MADHAVA RAO, V. P., C.I.E. For 34 years in service of Mysore State in important capacities, being Mem. of Council of Regency, 1898-1902; Member of Exec. Council and Rev. Commr.; Dewan of Travancore, 1904-06; Dewan of Mysore, 1906-09. *Address:* Tanjore.

MADHAVLAI, SIR CHINUBHAI, Bt.; see Runchorelai.

MADRAS, BISHOP OF, since 1923, Rt. Rev. Edward Harry Mansfield Waller, M.A. (Cantab.); b. 8 Dec. 1871. *Educ.:* Highgate Sch., Corpus Christi College, Cam. Ordained 1894; Principal, St. Paul's Divinity Sch., Allahabad, 1903; Sec., C.M.S., Indian Group, 1913; Canon of Lucknow, 1910-15; Bishop of Tinnevely, 1915-1922. *Address:* Sullivan's Gardens, Royapettah, Madras.

MAFFEY, SIR JOHN LOADER, K.C.V.O. (1921), C.S.I. (1920), C.I.E., I.C.S.; Ch. Commr., N.-W. Frontier Province, b. 1 July 1877. *Educ.:* Rugby; Christ Church, Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1899. Private Sec. to Lord

Chelmsford; Chief Sec. to H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught during his tour in India. *Address:* Peshawar.

MAGNIA, C. BRIG.-GENERAL SIR CHARLES LANE; C.M.G. (1916); Brevt., 1918; C.B.E. (1919); Kt. (June 1923); Legion d'Honneur Officer (Jan. 1919); Agent, Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway, b. 14 Dec. 1873. m. Letitia Anne Knolles, d. of T. H. W. Knolles, Esq., of Oatlands, Kinsale Cork, Ireland. *Educ.:* United Service College, Westward Ho. Royal Engineers, 1894, Indian Railways, Sep. 1896 to August 1914; Great War, France, from Sept. 1914 to Armistice; A.D.R.T. and D.D. R.T., Afghan War, 1919; A.H.Q. Simla. *Address:* Rostrevor, Cathedral, P.O., Madras.

MAHADOOB ALI KHAN, MAHOMED ARBAR-KHAN, M.L.A., First Class Sardar (1921); Cotton Commission Agent, Hubli, b. 1878. *Educ.:* at Hubli. Stated business in cotton in 1896, extended same from time to time, created a cotton market at Savanur by establishing Ginning and Pressing factories there, also started ginning factories at Ranebennur and Guttal convenient places for marketing cotton in the interior; is an advocate of improved methods and machinery for agriculture and himself a cultivator on a large scale, cultivating about 600 acres of land on improved lines and demonstrating its benefits to the other rayats of his place and neighbourhood; is President, Hubli Anjuman-ul-Islam, working for the educational, social and material uplift of Mahomedans; *Publications:* Kanarese translation of Mr. G. F. Keatinge's "Rural Economy in the Bombay Decan" *Address:* Opposite Native General Library, Hubli, Dist. Dharwar

MAHALANOBIS, S. C., B.Sc. (Edin.), F.R.S.E., I.E.S.; Prof. of Physiology, Presidency Coll., Calcutta, since 1900. Fellow, Moderator and Syndic, Calcutta University, President, Board of Higher Studies in Physiology, Calcutta University, b. Calcutta, 1867. m. 1902 fourth d. of Keshub Chunder Sen and sister of H. H. the Maharani of Cocho-Bihar. *Educ.:* Edinburgh Univ. *Publications:* Muscle Fat in Salmon; Life History of Salmon; New form of Myograph; Teachers' Manual; Text Book of Science. *Address:* 210, Cornwallis Street, Calcutta.

MAHDI HUSAIN, KHAN WAHUB-UD-DAULA, AZOD-UL-MULK, NAWAB MIRZA, KHAN BAHADUR, C.I.E., b. 1834. Educ.: India; Arabia. Travelled extensively in Arabia, Persia, Afghanistan, Baluchistan, and Europe; visited Mecca, Medina Kaymlani. *Address:* Tirmingaz, Lucknow.

MAHOMED USMAN, Khan Bahadur, B.A., Kaiser-i-Hind 2nd Class (1923); Landlord and Medical Practitioner; Sheriff of Madras (Dec. 1923). b. 1884. m. d. of Shifa-ul-Mulk Gynulabidin Sahib Bahadur, B.A. *Educ.:* Madras Christian College, Councillor, Corporation of Madras since 1913; Hon. Pres. Magte., 1916-20; Fellow of the Madras Univ., 1921-22; Member, Town Planning Trust since 1921; Chairman of Committee on Indigenous Systems of Medicine, 1921-23. Member, Publicity Board, 1918 and 1921-22. Member, Cinema Board since 1921; Hon.

Sec., Muthialpet Mushin Anjuman, Madras, since 1913; Hon. Visitor, Govt., Mahomedan Coll. since 1919 and Hon. Visitor, Government School of Arts and Crafts, 1923; Member Madras Excise Licensing Board since 1922; Gave evidence before the Reforms Committee and the Jail Committee. Elected Member, Madras Legis. Council, 1921-23. *Address:* Hakim Manzil, Popham's Broadway, Madras.

MAHUMUDABAD, RAJA OF, SIR MOHAMMAD ALI MAHOMED KHAN, KHAN BAHADUR, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., Home Member, Executive Council of the U. P. Government, 1921; Hon. Secretary, Lucknow University, Collection Committee; President, All-India Educational Conference. Vice-Chancellor of Allahgarh Univ.; b. 1877. *Educ.:* privately. *Address:* Mahmudabad House, Kaiserbagh, Lucknow.

MAHMOOD SCHAMNAD, SAHEB BAHADUR, Landholder Member, Legislative Assembly, (re-elected in 1923) and Member, S. Kanara Dist. Board, b. 7 March 1870; m. 1896 to Mrs. Maryam Schammad, *Educ.:* St. Aloysius Coll., Mangalore and Christian Coll., Madras. Served on the South Kanara Dist. Board for about 12 years; Hon. Magte. since 1913; Pioneer of Moplah education in S. Canara. Started Madras Moplah Amelioration Committee in 1922. *Address:* Sea View, Kasaragod, S. Kanara.

MAHOMEDALI KHAN BAHADUR, NAWAB SYED, I.S.O.; Ent. Govt. Service, 1873; Insp.-Gen. of Registration, Bengal; retired, 1913; a distinguished Urdu scholar and dramatist; wrote The Nawabi-Darbar, and Adventures of Notorious Detective in English. *Address:* 4, Ballygunge, Calcutta.

MAJITHIA, THE HON. SARDAR BAHADUR SUNDAR SINGH, C.I.E. (1920); Revenue Member, Government of Punjab; b. 17th Feb. 1879; m. grand daughter of Sardar Sir Attar Singh, K.C.I.E., Chief of Bahadur (Patiala State). *Educ.:* Punjab Chiefs' College and Government College, Lahore. Worked as Hon. Secretary of the Khalsa College, Amritsar, for 11 years and Hon. Secretary, Chief Khalsa Diwan, a representative body of the Sikhs from its inception in 1902 to the close of 1920. *Address:* 27, Lawrence Road, Lahore and "Majithia House," Albert Road, Amritsar (Punjab).

MALAVIYA, PANDIT KRISHNA KANT, R.A., M.L.A., Editor of *Abhyudaya. Educ.:* at Allahabad. *Publications:* Sansar Sankat; Phulon ka Har, Karma-Vir; and many others in Hindi. *Address:* Abhyudaya, Allahabad.

MALAVIYA PANDIT MADAN MOHAN, M.L.A., Allahabad, 25 Dec. 1861. *Educ.:* Sanskrit at the Dharma Jnanopadesh Pathshala, Govt. High School, Muir Central Coll., Allahabad; B.A. (Calcutta), Schoolmaster, 1885-87; edited the Indian Union and the Hindusthan, 1885-1889; LL.B., Allahabad Univ., 1892; Vakill, High Court, Allahabad, 1892, Member, Prov. Leg. Council, 1902-12; President of Indian National Congress, 1909 and 1918; Member Imp. Leg. Council, 1910-1919; Member, Indian Industrial Commission, 1916-18; President, Sewa Samiti, Prayag; Chief Scout, Sewa Samiti Scouts Association;

Vice-Chancellor, Benares Hindu University, since 1919, President, Hindu Mahasabha 1923. *Address:* Benares Hindu University.

MALER KOTLA, HON. KHAN, SIR ZULFIGAR ALI KHAN, K.C.S.I., C.S.I.; estate holder in Maler Kotla State; Member of Imp. Council representing Mahomedan Community of Punjab; Ch. Minister of Patiala State, since 1911; b. 1875; *Educ.:* Chiefs' Coll., Lahore; Cambridge; Paris. *Address:* Lahore.

MALIK MOHAMMIED UMAR HYAT KHAN (TIWANA), COLONEL THE HON. SIR, K.C.I.E., C.B.E., M.V.O.; Member of Council of State, 1921; b. 1875. *Educ.:* Chiefs' Coll., Lahore. One of largest landholders in Punjab. Attaché to H. M. the Amir, 1907; Deputy Herald, Delhi Durbar, 1911; Member of Imperial Council, 1910-1921. *Address:* Kaira, Shahpur.

MALLIK, DEVENDRA NATH, B.A. (Cantab), Sc. D. (Dub.), F.R.S.E.; Prof. of Physics and Mathematics; Muslim University, Aligarh, since 1908; b. Bengal 1866. *Educ.:* St. Xavier's Coll., Calcutta; Univ. Coll. London; Peterhouse, Cambridge. *Publications:* Numerous works on Mathematics and Physics. *Address:* Aligarh, U. P.

MANGALORE, R. C. BISHOP OF; see Perlmi.
MANIPUR, H. H. MAHARAJA CHURA CHAND SINGH, C.B.E., b. 1886; m. March 17, 1905. Educ.: Mayo College, Ajmer, s. 1891. State has area of 8,000 sq. miles, and a population of 384,016. Salute 11 guns. *Address:* Imphal Manipur, State Assam.

MANN, HAROLD HART, D. Sc., F.I.C., F.L.S., Kaiser-i-Hind Medal (1st Class) 1917. Director of Agriculture, Bombay Presidency; b. 16 Oct. 1872. Married. *Educ.:* Ringfield Sch., York; Yorkshire Coll. Leeds, Pastur Inst., Paris; Chemical Assc. for Research to R. A. S., 1895-98; Scientific Officer to Ind. Tea Assoc., Calcutta, 1900-07; Principal, Agricultural College, Poona and Agricultural Chemist to Govt. of Bombay, 1907-18. *Publications:* Numerous on questions relating to tea culture and manufacture, and many other Indian agricultural questions; The Pests and Blights of the Tea Plant; also on sociological subjects. Land and Labour in a Deccan Village, No. 1 and No. 2. *Address:* 43, Sassoon Road, Poona.

MANSINGHI, SARDAR, B.A., LL.B., Vakill, High Court, Vice-President, The Chief Khalsa Diwan, and Member, Legis. Assembly, b. 1887. *Educ.:* Khalsa College, Amritsar, won Gold medal for writing Punjabi poetry. Practised as Vakill for a period of about ten years; edited Khalsa Young Men's Magazine from 1905 to 1909. *Publications:* Translated Kalidas, Vikramorvasi from Sanskrit into Punjabi poetry and prose, has written religious tracts. *Address:* Lahore.

MANSINGHIJI, see JHALA.

MANT, SIR REGINALD ARTHUR, K.C.I.E. (1924); O.S.I. (1919), B.A., Finance Member, Punjab Executive Council, April 1923; b. 27 September 1870; m. Eileen Gertrude, d. of Col. E. O. Tandy, I.M.S. *Educ.:* Maryborough Gr. School, Queensland, and

Trinity College, Oxon. Joined I.C.S., 1893. Under Secretary to Government of India, Finance Department, 1901; Deputy Secretary, Finance Department, 1904-05; Offg. Joint Secretary, Military Finance Branch, 1908; Financial Secretary, Punjab, 1908-1916; Secretary to Govt. of India, R. and A. Dept., 1916-1920; Offg. Member of Governor-General Council, April to Oct. 1919; Member, Indian Fiscal Commission, October 1921 to July 1922. Address: Simla and Delhi.

MARJORIBANKS, NORMAN EDWARD, C.S.I. (1922); C.I.E. (1919). Chief Secretary to the Government of Madras; b. 16 Oct. 1872; m. Barbara, d. of the late Edward Watson, H.M.'s Inland Revenue Service. Educ. at Royal Academical Institution, Belfast; Queen's Coll., Belfast, and Trinity Hall, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1893; Asstt. Collr. and Magte. until 1896; Under-Secretary to Govt., 1897-1903; Dy. Director and Director of Land Records, 1904-1910; Collr. and Dt. Magte., 1911-1918; Member, Board of Revenue, 1919-1924. Publications: Report on Emigration (in collaboration with Sir Ahmed Thamby Maracair). Address: Brodie Castle, Adyar, Madras.

MARRIS, SIR WILLIAM SINCLAIR, K.C.S.I. (1921); K.C.I.E. (1919). Governor of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh since December 1922; b. 1873; Educ.: Wanganul, N.Z.; Canterbury Coll., N.Z., Christ Church, Oxford. Passed I.C.S., open 1895; Under Secretary to Govt. of India, 1901; Dy. Sec. to Govt. of India, 1904; C.S. Commr., Transvaal Govt., 1906; to Govt. of India, Home Depart., 1913; Insp.-Gen. of Police, U.P., 1916; Spec. duty, 1917-18; Home Secretary, Govt. of Assam, 1921. Address: Lucknow.

MARSHALL, SIR JOHN HUBERT, Kt., cr. 1914, C.I.E., 1910; Litt.D. M.A., Ph.D. F.S.A. Hon. A.L.B.A.; Vice-President of the India Society; Director-General of Archaeology in India since 1902; b. Chester, 19 March 1876; m. 1902 Florence, v. d. of Sir Henry Longhurst, O.V.O. Educ.: Dulwich; King's College, Cambridge (scholar). Craven Travelling student; made journeys of exploration in Greek lands. Address: Benmore, Simla.

MARTEN, SIR AMBERSON BARRINGTON, Kt. (1924), LL.D., M.A.; Pulse Judge of Bombay High Court since 1916. b. 8 Dec. 1870; e. s. of late Sir Alfred Marten, K.C., M.P. Educ.: Eton; Trinity College, Cambridge (1st Class Law Tripos). Studentship Council of Legal Education, 1895; called to Bar Inner Temple, 1895; Mem. of Bar Council, 1909-10; practised in Chancery Division till 1916. Address: High Court, Bombay.

MARTIN, JAMES REA, B.A., C.I.E. (1923), I.C.S., Secretary to Government of Bombay, Development Department and Commissioner, Bombay Suburban Division, Member, Council of State, 1924. b. 2nd Aug. 1877, m. Frances Lily Elsie Webb. Educ. Methodist College and Queen's College, Belfast, Assistant

Collector, Manager, Sind Incumbered Estate; Deputy Commissioner, Upper Sind Frontier; Collector of Karachi and Surat; Deputy Director of Development. Address: 6 Rocky Hill Flats, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MARZBAN, JEHAINGIR B., C.I.E. (1921). Propr. of *The Jame-Jamshed*, b. 21 Sept. 1848. Educ.: Elphinstone Coll. Was Assist. Manager, *The Times of India*, for 7 years under Col. Nassau Lees; Manager, *The Bombay Gazette* for 9 years. Propr., *The Advocate of India* for 5 years. Editor and Propr., *The Jame-Jamshed*, for 30 years. Founder and Managing Trustee of the Khandala Sanitarium. Founder of Parsi Widows' Relief Fund. Publications: 30 vols. of travel, fiction, etc. Address: Shallemar, Hughes Rd., Bombay.

MASANI, RUSTOM PESTONJI, M.A., J.P., Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal, Dy. Mmpl. Commissioner, Bombay, b. 23 Sept. 1876; m. 9 Decr. 1902, Manjeh P. Wadia. Educ.: New H.S. and Elphinstone Coll.; Fellow, Elphinstone College, 1897 and 1898; Jt. Propr. and Editor of *Gup Sup* (1898); Editor of English columns of *Kaiser-i-Hind* (1899-1900); Editor, *Indian Spectator* (1901-02); Jt. Hon. Secy., Society for the Protection of Children in W. India; also of the K. R. Kama Memorial Institute and the Parsi Girls' Schools Association and Trustee; Secretary, Bombay Food Prices Committee (1914-17); Municipal Secretary, 1907-1919. Publications: English: Child Protection, Folklore of Wells; The Law and Procedure of the Municipal Corporation Bombay; Gujarati: *Dolano Upayog* (Use of Wealth); *Charni, tatha nishatni kelvuni* (Home and School education); *Tanush maha* (Health series); and novels named *Abyssiniano*, *Habshi*; *Bodhu*; *Chandra Chal*. Address: Versova (via Andheri Station).

MASOOD, SYED, ROSS, NAWAB MASOOD JUNG BAHADUR, Director of Public Instruction, Hyderabad (Deccan). b. 1889. Educ.: M.A.O. College, Allgarh, and New College, Oxford. Bar-at-law; Imperial Education Service, Headmaster, Patna School, 1913. Senior Prof. of History, Ravenshaw College, Cuttack, 1916; Formerly Fellow of the University of Calcutta; Fellow of the Madras University; Member, Council of the Osmania University; Member, Court of the Muslim University; Allgarh. Publications: "Japan and its Educational System." Address: Hyderabad, Deccan.

MATHER, RICHARD B. Met., M.I.E. (Ind.) Metallurgical Inspector, Government of India, b. 19 Sept. 1886. Educ.: Royal Grammar School, Sheffield, Univ. of Sheffield. Mappin Medalist 1908; Metallurgist, Ormesby Iron Works, Middlesbrough, 1907-1911, Dy. Dir. Metallurgical Research, War Office, Woolwich, 1911-1919; Member of Govt. Commission to Investigate German and Luxemburg steel industry, 1919. Technical Adviser, Indian Tariff Board, 1923-24. Member of Iron and Steel Institute, Inst. of Metals, Faraday Society, Technical Inspection Institute. Publications: Papers for technical societies. Address: Tatanagar, B. N. Ry.

MAUNG KUN, B.A., Bar-at-Law and Member, Legis. Council, b. 27 Aug. 1891. m. Ma Aye. Educ.: Govt. High School, Bassein, Burma, The Rangoon College, Rangoon, and Gray's Inn, London, Assistant Registrar, Chief Court of Lower Burma at Rangoon from 1918-1920 when resigned and started practice at the Bar. Address: 59, Creek Street, Rangoon.

MAUNG TOK KYI, B.A., Member, Legislative Assembly and Managing Director, The Sun Press Ltd., Rangoon, b. 1884. Educ.: Rangoon College. Member of the Subordinate Civil Service, Burma, from 1908 to 1920; resigned Govt. service and joined editorial staff of *The Sun* in 1920; became Managing Director, 1921; elected to the Municipal Corporation, Rangoon, 1922; elected Member, Leg. Assembly, 1923 and elected to Rangoon University Council, 1924. Address: 41, 51st Street, Rangoon.

MAW, WILLIAM NAWTON, C.I.E., I.C.S.; Commissioner, Nerbudda Division, C.P., since April 1923. b. 1 Aug. 1869; m. 1898, Una Agnes Brook-Mearns, d. of Col. G. Brook-Mearns, Com. Royal Irish Fusiliers. Educ.: Wesley Coll., Sheffield; St. John's Coll., Cambridge (B.A.). Ent. I.C.S., 1898. In C. P. Secretariat, 1900-12; Dy. Commissioner, Jubbulpore, 1913-16. Served as Commissioner in the Jubbulpore, Nagpur and Nerbudda Divisions of C.P. and in Berar, 1916-23. Address: Hoshangabad, C.P.

MAYNARD, HERBERT JOHN (THE HON. SIR JOHN), M.A. (Oxon.), C.S.I. (1915); K.C.I.E. (1920) Member, Executive Council, Punjab and Vice-Chancellor, Punjab University, b. 12 July 1865, m. Alfreda Horner, d. of Dr. Richard Eppes, M.D. (Virginia). Educ.: Merchant Taylor's School, London and St. John's Coll., Oxford, joined first appointment in Indian Civil Service, Punjab, Dec. 1886; Vice-Chancellor, Punjab Univ., 1917; Member, Executive Council, 1921. Address: Lahore, Punjab.

MAYNE, JONATHAN WEBSTER CORYTON, M.A. (Oxford), C.I.E. (1922), Guardian to H. H. the Maharaja of Jaipur, b. 26 April 1868. m. Margery Howel Scratton. Educ.: The Wells House, Malvern Wells, Tonbridge School, Kebble College, Oxford. Studied at Leipzig, 1890-1891; Assistant Master, Brighton Coll. 1891-1898. Nominated to I.E.S., 1898; from then till 1903 held posts of Headmaster, Karachi and Poona Government High Schools, Educational Inspector (Acting), Central and Northern Divisions, Bombay Presidency; from February 1903 to January 1923. Principal, Rajkumar College, Rajkot. Publications: Newspaper articles in the *Times of India* under nom-de-plume "Oxon," occasional poems and some songs (in England). Address: Rambagh, Jaipur, Rajputana.

MEARS, SIR GRIMWOOD, Kt. (1917), and Kt. of Order of Crown of Belgium, Chief Justice, Allahabad, 1919. Educ.: Exeter College, Oxford, Barrister, 1895; Hon. Sec. to Bryce Committee on German Outrages, Hon. Sec. to R. Com. on rising in Ireland, 1916; Sec. to the Dardanelles Commission, 1916-17; British Embassy, Washington, 1918; at office

of War Cabinet, Aug. 1918 to Jan. 1919; Paris, Jan. 1919; British Embassy, Washington, 1919. Address: Allahabad.

MEHTA, KHAN BAHADUR, SIR BEZONJI DADABHOY, Kt. Address: Nagpur.

MEHTA, THE HON. MR. CHUNILAL VIJYH-CANDAS, M.A., LL.B., Member, Executive Council of the Bombay Government, since June 1923. b. 12 Jan. 1881. m. to Tarabai Chandulal Kankodiwala. Educ.: St. Xavier's College, Bombay, Captain, Hindu XI, elected to the Bombay Municipal Corporation in 1907; Chairman, Standing Committee 1912; President of the Corporation, 1916; Elected to the Bombay Legislative Council by the Corporation in 1916; elected to the City Improvement Trust, 1918; Chairman of the Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1918. Elected to the Bombay Port Trust, 1920; Millowner and Director, Tata Iron and Steel Co.; Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Co., and several other joint stock companies; Minister, Bombay Government, 1921-23. Address: 108, Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MEHTA, DHANJIBHAI HORMASJI, L. M. & S. Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1920); Donat. of St. John Silver Medal (1917); Raj Ratna Silver Medal, Baroda (1916); Retired Sanitary Commissioner, Baroda. b. 4 Feb. 1864, m. to a cousin. Educ.: at Sir Cowsaji Jehangir Naosari Zarthosti Madressa and the Grant Medical College, Bombay. Joined Baroda Med. Service, 1887; did inoculation work with Prof. Haffkine; gave evidence on the value of inoculation before 1st Plague Commission. Has popularised St. John's Ambulance work and Red Cross Work all over Gujrat and Kathiawad and published 37 books on Ambulance Nursing, Hygiene, Midwifery, Red Cross, etc. Address: Sayaji Ganj, Baroda.

MEHTA, THE HON. MR. LALUBHAI SAMALDAS, J.P., C.I.E., (1914); Merchant, b. October 1863. m. Satyawati, d. of Bhimrao Bolanath Divatia of Ahmedabad. Educ.: Bhavnagar High School and Elphinstone College. Under Secretary to His Highness the Maharaja of Bhavnagar, and Revenue Commissioner, Bhavnagar. Resigned service in 1899 and entered business at Bombay as Guaranteed Broker to Gyst Klynanjung. Helped in starting the Bombay Central Co-operative Bank, Bank of Baroda, Indian Cement Company, and the Nira Valley Sugar Company. Director in commercial firms and banks. Nominated to the Bombay Legislative Council in 1910, 1913, and 1916. Elected to the Council of State in 1920. President of the Industrial Conference at Karachi in 1913. Member of the MacLagan Committee on Co-operation, 1914-15. President, Mysore Co-operative Conference, 1915. Chairman, Mysore Co-operative Committee, 1921-23. Member of the Senate of the Bombay University. Hon. Treasurer, Adams Wylie Hospital 1918-22, and of Seva Sadan. President, Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, 1917-18. Address: 65, Apollo Street, Fort, Bombay.

MEHTA, SIR MANUBHAI NANDSHANKAR, Kt. (1922), C.S.I. (1919), M.A., LL.B.; Diwan

(Prime Minister) of Baroda, since 1916; b. 22 July 1868; *Educ.*: Elphinstone Coll., Bombay. Professor of Logic and Philosophy and Law Lecturer, Baroda College, 1891-99. Priv. Sec. to Gaekwar, 1899-1905; Rev. Min. and First Counsellor, 1914-16. *Publications*: The Hind Rajasthan or Annals of Native States of India; Principles of Law of Evidence (in Gujarati), 3 Vols. *Address*: Baroda.

MEHTA, ROOSTUMJEE DHUNJEEBHAI, J.P., C.I.E.; Merchant; Port Commissioner, 1888-91; Chairman, Local Board, Alipur, 1886-1917; Chairman, Manicktolla Municipality. Sheriff of Calcutta, 1893; Consul for Persia at Calcutta, 1899-1904. *Publications*: The Exchange Imbroglio; Indian Railway Economics; Indian Railway Policy, Indian Railway Management. *Address*: 9, Rainey Park, Ballygunge, Calcutta.

MEKLAN, NAIB WAZIR OF, whose territory forms the northern littoral of Gulf of Oman. *Address*: Mekran, Baluchistan.

MESTON, REV. WILLIAM, M.A., B.D. (Kaiser-i-Hind Medal (First Class), 1921, Principal, Madras Christian College, b. 4 May 1871. m. Mary Innes Sinclair. *Educ.*: Grammar School, Aberdeen and University of Aberdeen; New College, Edinburgh and University of Edinburgh, St. John's College, Cambridge. Appointed to Staff of Madras Christian College, 1893; Member of Legislative Council (Madras), 1921-1923. *Publications*: Joint-author of "Our Madras Mission." Aspects of Indian Educational Policy. *Address*: College Park, Kilpauk, Madras.

MEULEMAN, MOST REV. BRICE, S.J.; Catholic Archbishop of Calcutta, since 1902; b. Ghent, 1 March 1862. *Educ.*: St. Barbe's Coll., Ghent. Joined Soc. of Jesus, 1879; nominated Superior of Jesuit Mission in Bengal, 1900. *Address*: Calcutta.

MILLER, SIR DAWSON, KT., K. C., Ch. Justice of Patna High Court, since 1917; b. Dec. 1867. *Educ.*: Durham Sch. and Trinity Coll., Oxford, Bar, Inner Temple, 1891. *Address*: High Court, Patna.

MILLER, SIR LESLIE, KT. (1914), C.B.E. (1919). Chief Judge, Mysore, 1914-22. b. 28 June 1862. m. Margaret Lowry. *O.B.E.* *Educ.*: Charterhouse, and Trinity College, Dublin. Entered I.C.S., 1881. Judge of the Madras High Court, 1906-14. *Address*: Glen Morgan, Pykara, Nilgiri Hills.

MINCHIN, LT.-COL. ALFRED BECKETT, C.I.E.; Agent to the Governor-General Punjab States, since 1st Nov. 1921. b. 23 Dec. 1870. Ent. army, 1891; Captain, 1901; Major, 1909; served Isazai Exp., 1892; Chitral Red. For., 1895; Malakand and Swat, 1897; Asst. to Gov.-General's Agent, Rajputana, 1899-1904; Pol. Ag., Bundelkhand, 1902; Assistant Sec. to Govt. of India, For. Dept., 1908. Political Agent in Bundelkhand, 1917-1921. *Address*: Lahore.

MISRA, PANDEIT HARKIRAN NATH, B.A., LL.B. (Cantab.), M.L.A. (1924); Bar-at-Law (Inner Temple), b. 16 July 1890. m. Shrimati Bhagwan Devi of Cannore Dist. *Educ.*: Muir Central College, Allahabad and Gonville & Cains College, Cambridge (1911-1915).

Joined Non-cooperation Movement in 1920; Member of the All-India Congress Committee; Senior Vice-Chairman of Municipal Board, Lucknow. *Publications*: Asstt. Editor of Oudh Law Journal, Lucknow, from 1916-1920. *Address*: 5, Neill Road, Lucknow.

MISRA, PYARE LAL, Bar-at-Law, b. Aug. 17, 1872. Educ.: Saugor, C. P. and Nagpur Hislop College; Gray's Inn, London. Was elected to the C. P. Council in 1917 and to the Legislative Assembly in 1920. Is Vice-President of the Municipality, Hon. Secy., Co-operative Bank, Member of the C. P. Board of Agriculture; First President of the Hindi Literary Conference held at Rajpur, Mem. All-India Hindi Association. *Publications*: Hindu Law in Hindi, History of English Journals in Hindi, a small pamphlet in English criticising the Calcutta University Commission's Report during Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty. *Address*: Chhindwara, C.P.

MISRA, THE HON. PANDEIT SHYAM BEHARI, M.A., Member, Council of State; Registrar, Co-operative Societies, U. P. b. 12 August 1873. m. Miss B. D. Bajpai, has two s. five d. *Educ.*: Jubilee High School and Canning College, Lucknow. Entered Executive branch, U. P. Civil Service in 1897 as Deputy Collector; was on special duty in 1903, 1908, 1909 and 1921-22 in connection with consolidation of agricultural holdings on the last occasion; was Deputy Supdt., and Offg. Superintendent, Police, (1906-09); on deputation as Dewan, Chhatrapur State, C. I. (1910-14); Personal Asstt. to Excise Commr., U. P. (1917-20); Dy. Commr., Gonda (1920-21) for over a year, besides having twice officiated as Magte. and Collr. of Bulandshahr for a few weeks; Jt. Registrar of Co-operative Societies, (1922-24) and Registrar since Aug. 1924. *Publications*: Several standard works in Hindi including the Misra-Bandhu Vinoda (a text-book for B.A. & M.A. Examinations) and the Hindi Nava Ratna (text-book in the Degree of Honours) Examination. *Address*: Golaganj, Lucknow.

MITCHELL, DAVID GEORGE, B.Sc. (Edin.), C.I.E. (2nd June 1923), Indian Civil Service. b. 31st March 1879, m. to Elizabeth Duncan Wharton. *Educ.*: George Heriot's School, Edinburgh, Edinburgh University, Lincoln College, Oxford. Joined I.C.S. Oct. 1903. Divisional and Sessions Judge in Central Provinces, 1913, Legal Secretary and Legal Remembrancer to Government of C.P. and Secretary to C.P. Legislative Council, 1919. *Address*: Nagpur, Central Provinces, India.

MITRA, The Hon. Sir Bhupendra Nath, M.A., K.C.I.E. (1924), C.B.E. (1919), Member of The Viceroy's Council (Industries and Labour), Dec. 1924. Held Ministerial appts. from 2nd April 1896; apptd. to enrolled list, Finance Dept., Jan. 1909; Asstt. Secy., Sept. 1910; on special duty in connection with Royal Commission on Indian finance and currency, June to September 1913; on deputation as Controller of War Accounts from May 1915; O.B.E., Dec. 1917; Mil. Acctt.-General, Nov. 1919; offg. Financial Adviser, Mil. Fin. Branch, May 1920; confirmed May 1922; temp. member of Governor-General's Council, April 1924. *Address*: Delhi and Simla.

MITTER, SIR BIKOD CHUNDER, KT. (1918), Barrister and Advocate, Calcutta. Member, Council of State (1921). b. 1872. m. Miss Charushilla De. *Educ.*: Presidency College and Ripon College; became examiner for many years for Doctorate of Laws in Calcutta University; twice officiated for a year and a half as Advocate-General, Bengal; Vice-President, National Liberal League; Member of the Bengal Legislative Council, 1910-16; Standing Counsel to the Government of India, 1910-17. Member of Moderates Deputation to England, 1919. Chairman of Reception Committee of Moderates' Conference in Calcutta in 1919; was invited by the Punjab Government to serve on the Gurdwara Committee but declined. *Address*: 2-1, London Street, Calcutta.

MITTER, THE HON. DR. DWARKANATH, M.A., D.L., Member, Council of State (1924), Advocate, High Court, Calcutta. b. 29 Feb. 1876. m. d. of Bala Charan Dutt of Calcutta. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta. Joined High Court Bar in 1897. Took his degree of Doctor of Laws in 1912 and since then has risen rapidly to the front rank of his profession and enjoys lucrative practice. In 1916 elected an ordinary Fellow of Calcutta Univ. for five years. *Publications*: A Thesis on Position of Women in Hindu Law published by Calcutta University. *Address*: Calcutta Club, 241, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

MITTER KHAGENDRANATH, B.A. (Hons.), M.A. (Gold Medalist); Senior Professor of Philosophy, Presidency College, Calcutta. b. 1880. m. Sneharama. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta. Nominated Member, Legislative Assembly (1922); Member, Council of State, 1924; Fellow of the Asiatic Society (1922); late editor of Bangiya Sahitya Parishat. *Address*: 35, Beadon Row, Calcutta.

MIYAN ASJAD-ULLAH, MAULVI, M.L.A. Hon. Magte., Kishanganj, Zamindar of Mehgaon. b. 5 Jan. 1883. m. Bibi S. Nisa, d. of late Mouli Insaf Ali of Henria. *Educ.*: at Mehgaon. Member, Dist. Board, Purneah (Bihar) and Member, Local Board, Kishanganj, Vice-President, Anjuman-i-Islamia, Kishanganj. *Address*: Mehgaon, P. O. Kishanganj, Dist. Purneah, Bihar.

MODI, JIVANJI JAMSHEDJI, SHAMS-UL-ULAMA (1893), C.I.E. (1917), Sec., Parsi Panchayat, Bombay. b. 26 October 1854. *Educ.*: Elphinstone High School, Elphinstone College. m. Shirinbai, d. of late H. N. Saklatwala. Has published numerous historical and antiquarian works chiefly dealing with Parsi history and religion. Is Ph. Doc. (Hon). Heidelberg, and Officer de l'Instruction publique, Fellow, Bombay Univ., 1887. Received the Campbell Gold Medal, Bombay Branch R. Asiatic Society (1917). Fellow. B. B. R. Asiatic Society, 1924. *Address*: 1, Wodehouse Road, Bombay.

MODY, HORMUSJI PEROSHAW, M.A. (1904), LL.B. (1906); Advocate, High Court, Bombay; b. 23 Sept. 1881; m. Jernai, d. of Kawasji Dadabhai Dubash. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay. Mem. of Bombay Man.

Corp. Chairman of its Standing Committee, 1921-22; and President, 1923-24; Partner, C. N. Wadia & Co. *Publications*: The Political Future of India (1908); Life of Sir Pherozeshah Mehta (1921). *Address*: Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

MOHAMED AHMAD SAID KHAN, NAWAB, C.I.E. (1921); Minister of Industries and Agriculture to the Governor of the United Provinces. b. 1893. m. to daughter of Nawab Bahadur M. Abdu Samad Khan. *Educ.*: M.A.O. College, Aligarh. *Publications*: Council Speeches; Presidential address, All India Moslem Rajput Conference. *Address*: 'Oakover', Naini Tal; and Chhatari (Buland Shahar).

MOHAMED RAFIQUE, THE HON. SIR, B.A. (Cambridge), Bar-at-Law (Middle Temple); Member, Council of State. b. 29 May 1863. m. Azmat Zamani Begum of the family of the Nawab of Patodi (Punjab). *Educ.*: M.A.O. College, Aligarh, St. John's College, Cambridge. Practised at the Bar 1886 to 1892; entered Judicial Service as S.C. Court Judge, Lucknow; Addl. Judge 1894, soon after Dist. Judge and in 1911 Judicial Commissioner, Lucknow and in July 1912 appointed High Court Judge, rtd. 1923, Allahabad. *Address*: Chandwalli-Baradari, Lucknow.

MOHAMMAD AJMAL KHAN, HAKIM, Physician. b. 1865. Educated at home, Physician and politician. *Address*: Delhi.

MOHAMMED YAMIN KHAN, THE HON. MR. B.A., of the Allahabad University (1911), Bar-at-Law; Member, Council of State (1924), Senior Vice-Chairman, Municipal Board, Meerut. b. June 1888. m. to a cousin. *Educ.*: at Meerut College, M.A.O. College, Aligarh and England. Practising as Barrister tary of U. P. War Fund for Meerut District; Secretary, Y.M.C.A. Funds, Secretary Dist. War League. Was elected a member of the Municipal Board, Meerut, in 1916 and Vice-Chairman a year later. Elected member, Legislative Assembly, 1920; Member of the Legislative Assembly 1920-1923. *Address*: Junnui Nishan, Meerut.

MOIR, THOMAS EYEBRON, B.A., C.I.E. (1917), C.S.I. (1922), Finance Secretary to Government of Madras (on leave). b. 1874. *Educ.*: Fettes Coll., Edinburgh, Wadham Coll., Oxford, Ent. I.C.S., 1898. *Address*: Fort St. George, Madras.

MOLONY, JOHN CHARTRES, M.A., I.C.S. Collector and District Magistrate, North Arcot. b. 27 Feb. 1877; *Educ.*: Portora Royal Sch., Enniskillen; Trinity Coll., Dublin. Asstt. Political Agent for Banganapalle, 1905-09. President, Madras Corporation, 1914-19; Supdt. of Census, Madras, 1910-11. *Address*: Madras.

MONTGOMERIE, ALEXANDER, M.A., C.I.E. (1921), I.C.S., Secretary to Govt. of Bombay, Home Department. b. 27 Feb. 1879; m. Katherine MacDonald Rankin. *Educ.*: Glasgow High School, Glasgow University. Balliol College, Oxford. Joined Indian Civil Service 1903; served in various districts of Bombay Presidency. *Address*: Secretariat, Bombay.

MOOKERJEE, SIR NARAYAN, Zamindar of Uttarpara; b. April 1859. Member, Bengal Legislative Council, since 1918; m. 1878; one s. *Educ.*: Uttarpara School; Presidency College, Calcutta; Chairman of the Uttarpara Municipality since 1887; Chairman of the Bench of Hon. Magistrates, 1889; Managing Committee of the British Indian Association, 1889; a Member of the Asiatic Society; a life Member of St. John Ambulance Association; Member of the Provincial Advisory Committee for Indian Students, 1918; a Member of the National Liberal League, and Vice-President of Bengal Humanitarian Association; elected to Executive Committee of All India Landholders' Association, 1919. *Address*: Uttarpara, near Calcutta.

MOOKERJEE, SIR RAJENDRA NATH, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O. (1922), M.I.M.E. (Hon. Life), Civil Engr.; b. 1854; *Educ.*: London Missionary Institution at Bhowanipur; Presidency College, Civil Engineering Branch, Calcutta Senior Partner in Martin & Co., Calcutta; Member of Indian Industrial Commission, 1917-1918; Member of Indian Railway Committee, 1920-1921; President, Howrah Bridge Committee, 1921; President, Bengal Retrenchment Committee, 1922; Member, All-India Retrenchment Committee, 1922; of Board of Trustees, Indian Museum, Calcutta; a Fellow of Calcutta Univ.; Member of Court of Visitors, Ind. Inst. Science; Sheriff of Calcutta, 1911; Member of the Board of the Governing Body of Bengal Engineering College. Ex-President, the Institution of Engineers (India). Member, Board of Apprenticeship Training of Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene; President, Indian Science Congress, 1922, President, Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1924.

MOORE, WILLIAM ARTHUR, Assistant Editor of *The Statesman*. Classical Scholar of St. John's Coll., Oxford, 1900-1904; B.A., Lit. Hum., President, Oxford Union Society, 1904; b. 1880. m. Maud Eileen, only surviving child of George Maillot. *Educ.*: Campbell Coll., Belfast and St. John's College, Oxford. Secretary, Balkan Committee, 1904-08, during which time travelled extensively in all the Balkan Countries. Special Correspondent of *The Times* for Young Turk Revolution 1908 and in Albania; special correspondent 1909, *Daily Chronicle*, *Daily News* and *Manchester Guardian* at Siege of Tabriz, Persia. Joined foreign and war staff of *The Times* 1910; Persian Correspondent 1910-12; Russian Correspondent 1913; Spain 1914; Albanian Revolution 1914. Retired from Mons and Battle of Marne 1914; obtained commission in Rifle Brigade; served Bardselles, 1915; Salonika 1915-17 (General Staff Officer, 3rd Grade); Air Force (Flying Officer), Egypt, Salonika, 1918. After armistice General Staff Officer (2nd Grade); with mili-

tary mission (General Sir G. T. Bridges) in Constantinople and the Balkans; demobilised May 1919; despatches twice; M.B.E. (military); Serbian White Eagle; Greek Order of the Redeemer; Middle-Eastern Correspondent of *The Times*, 1919-22, visiting Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Mesopotamia, Persia, Caucasus, India, Afghanistan, etc. *Publications*: *The Miracle* (By 'Antrim Oriel', Constable, 1908); *The Orient Express* (Constable 1914). *Address*: The Statesman, Calcutta.

MOOS, DR. F. N., M.B., B.Sc. (Bombay); M.D. B.S. (Lond.); D.P.H. (Eng.); D.T.M. (Eng.). Surgeon in charge, Goculdas Tejpal Hospital, b. 22 Aug. 1893. *Educ.*: at Cathedral and New High Schools, Elphinstone and Grant Medical College, Bombay; Univ. Coll. and Hospital, London. Clinical Fellow in Medicine, Grant Coll., Bombay, Medical Registrar, J. J. Hospital, Bombay, House Surgeon, Metropolitan Hospital, London, Tuberculosis Medical Officer, Boros of Stoke Newington, Hackney and Poplar, London; Medical Referee, London War Pensions Committee. *Publications*: Present Position of Tuberculosis, Prevention of Tuberculosis and Pandemic of Influenza 1918, etc., etc. *Address*: Alice Buildings, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay.

MOOS, NANABHAY A.F., D.Sc. (Edin.), L.C.F. (Bom.), F.R.S. (Edin.), Retired Director, Bombay and Alibag Observatories. b. 29 Oct. 1859. m. Bal Jeelobai y. d. of Byramjee Jeejeebhoy, Esq. *Educ.*: Bombay University and Edinburgh University; Prof. of Physics, Elphinstone Coll., Bombay; for some time Inspector of Factories, Bombay Presidency; from 1896 to 1920 Director of Bombay and Alibag Observatories; Syndic and Dean in Science, Bombay Univ.; Representative of Bombay Univ. on Royal Institute of Science Bangalore; Advisory Committee of the Coll. of Engineering, Poona; Advisory Committee of the Royal Institute of Science, Bombay; Board of Trustees of the Prince of Wales Museum, Bombay and Municipal Corporation Bombay. *Publications*: Papers in Royal Society Edinburgh and publications in the series, Bombay Observatory's Publications 1896-1920; Bombay Magnetic Data and Discussion 1846-1915 Vols. I and II. *Address*: Gowalla Tank Road, Bombay.

MORSHEAD, LEONARD FREDERICK, C.S.I. (1924), I.C.S., Board of Revenue, Bihar and Orissa. b. 5 Sep. 1868. m. Sybil May, d. of Archibald Hills, Esq. *Educ.*: Winchester and Balliol. Entered Indian Civil Service, 1889; Collector of Customs, Calcutta, 1902; Inspector-General of Police, Bengal and Behar and Orissa, 1908-12; Commissioner, Board of Revenue, 1919 to 1923.

MOTI CHAND, THE HON. RAJA, C.I.E. (1916) Banker, Landlord and Millowner. b. 2nd Aug. 1876. *Educ.*: privately. First Non-Official Chairman, Benares Municipal Board; Chairman, Benares Bank, Ltd.; Chairman of Benares Cotton and Silk Mills, Ltd.; Chairman, Benares Industries, Ltd., Member, U.P. Legislative Council from 1913-1920; Member, Council of State since 1920; Hon. Treasurer and Member of the Court and the Council of

the Benares Hindu University; Chairman of numerous local bodies, educational, industrial and social. *Address*: Azmatgarh Palace, Benares.

MOUNTFORD, LEWIS JAMES, C.B.E., Commissioner, Southern and Central Division, Bombay Presidency, 1916-20; Addl. Mem. of the Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1919, b. 1st Aug. 1871. *Educ.*: Dulwich Coll. and Pembroke Coll. (Cantab.). Joined I.C.S. Asst. Collr., 1892; Manager of Sind Encumbered Estates, 1896; Collr. of Larkhana, 1903; Spl. Collr., Bombay, 1905; Collr., Sholapur, 1907; Satara, 1911; Poona, 1913; Ahmedabad, 1916. Member of Standing Committee, Presidency Recruiting Board, 1917. *Publications*: Pamphlet on the Relations between Debtor and Creditor in Sind. *Address*: The Secretariat, Bombay.

MOZOOMDAR, RAI JADUNATH BHADUR, Vedanta Vachaspathi, M.A., B.L., Kalaer-i Hind (1915), C.I.E. (1921), M.L.A. (Vakil Hind 1915), C.I.E. (1921), M.L.A. (Vakil Saratkumari, d. of late Babu Abhaya Charan Sarkar. *Educ.*: Canning Coll., Lucknow and Free Church Coll., Calcutta. Professor, Sanskrit College, Calcutta; editor, *Tribune*, Lahore; Secy., Finance Dept., Kashmir; Principal, Katmandu Coll., Nepal; Vakil, Calcutta High Court; Member, Legislative Assembly. *Publications*: *Amitvar Prasara* in 2 parts in Bengali; Commentary on Vedanta Philosophy in Bengali; *Zeligion of Love* in English, essays and addresses in English; Appeal to young Hindus in English; and numerous other works; editor, *Hindu Patrika*. *Address*: Jessore, Bengal.

MUDDIMAN, SIR ALEXANDER PHILLIPS, KT. (1922); C.S.I. (1920); C.I.E.; Home Member, Governor-General's Executive Council since March 1924, b. 14 Feb. 1875. *Educ.*: Wimborne Sch. Ent. I.C.S., 1897; served in Belar and Bengal, in various capacities. Dy. Sec., Govt. of India, Leg. Dept., 1910-15. Sec. to Govt. of India, Leg. Dept., 1915-20. President, Council of State, 1920-1924. *Address*: Delhi.

MUHAMMAD ABDULLAH, SAIED, B.A. Zemindar and Member, Legislative Assembly, (1920), b. 1878. m. Mahmudetun Nesa Bibi, d. of late Chaudhury Keramutullah of Salar (Murshidabad) 1887. *Educ.*: Calcutta Madrassa Presidency Coll. & Ripon Coll., Hon. Magte., Rampurbet, 1896; elected member, Local and Union Boards; Commissioner, Meherpur Municipality; apptd. Sub. Deputy Collr. and Magte., 1905 and Sub-Div. Officer, Begusarai Dt., Monghyr and Meherpur (Nadia Dist). Asstt. Settlement Officer, Bhabna (Shahabad). Resigned 1917. *Address*: Margram, Birbhum Dist.

MUHAMMAD ABDUL QADIR, KHAN SAHEB MAULVI, B.A., LL.B., M.L.A., Pleader. b. 26th Dec. 1867. *Educ.*: Government College, Jubbulpore, C.P. and M.A.O. College, Aligarh. Was for some time Headmaster, Mohindra High School, Tikamgarh, Orcha, Bundelkhand. Practised in 1898 at Amraoti (Berar); Official Receiver (1917); Hon. Secy., Berar Mahomedan Educational Conference. *Address*: Amraoti Camp (Berar), C.P.

MUHAMMAD MUKARRAM ALI KHAN, MUMTAZ-UD-DOWLAH NAWAB, Chief of Pahasu Estate and Tazimi Jagirdar (Jaipur State). b. 2 Sept. 1895. m. d. of late Ali Khan, Chief of Saadabad. *Educ.*: Maharaja's Coll., Jaipur and M.A.V. Coll., Aligarh; Member of State Council, Jaipur, in the Foreign Dept. *Publications*: Sada-i-Watan Taunqad Nadir; Swaraja Home Rule. *Address*: Nawab's House, Jaipur, Rajputana.

MUKANDI LAL, B.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-law. Member, U. P. Legis. Council. b. Oct. 1890. *Educ.*: at Pauri and Almora, in colleges at Allahabad, Benares and Calcutta, and Christ Church, Oxford, 1917. Called to Bar, Grays Inn, 1918. Married in England; returned to India 1919; enrolled Advocate at Allahabad High Court; elected to U. P. Legis. Council for Harwal, 1923. Edits a Hindi periodical Tarun Kumarr. belongs to Swaraj Party. *Address*: Dehra Dun.

MUKHERJEE, BABU JOGENDRA NATH, M.A., B.L., M.L.A., Vakil, High Court, Calcutta. b. 23rd June 1861. m. d. of late Babu Harinath Chatterjee, of the Provincial Executive Service. *Educ.*: Presidency College and Hindu School, and Government Pathashala, Calcutta. Practised as pleader at Purnea, 1886-1908; was Municipal Commissioner; Vice-Chairman, Purnea Municipality; and Chairman altogether for about 18 years; Member of Bengal Legislative Council (1905-1907), practised Calcutta High Court from 1908; Prof. of Hindu Law in the Calcutta Law College from 1909-1919; Chairman of Professors, Criminal Law in that Coll., 1915-19. *Address*: 17, Pran Kissen Mookerjee Road, Tallah, Calcutta.

MULJI, VASANJI TRIKAMJI, RAO SAHIB, SIR, KT., J.P.; Hon. Magistrate; Mem., Bombay Cotton Exchange; b. 8 July 1866. Trustee, Bombay Pinjrapole, rtd. 1918. *Address*: Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MULLA, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE DINSHAH FARUNJI, M.A., LL.B., Additional Temporary Judge of the Bombay High Court, b. April 1868. m. Jeral, d. of F. F. Karaka of Bombay. *Educ.*: at Sir Jamsetji Jijibhoy School and Elphinstone College, Bombay. Fellow of the Bombay University, Lat. President, Tribunal of Appeal, Bombay, 1919-1921. *Publications*: Commentaries on the Code of Civil Procedure; Principles of Hindu Law; Principles of Mahomedan Law; Joint author of Pollock and Mulla's Indian Contract Act. *Address*: 21, Marine Lines, Bombay.

MULLER, JULIUS, Merchant, General Manager, Volkart Bros., Bombay. b. June 7, 1875. m. Mrs. Rosa Muller nee Jsch. *Educ.*: Winterthur, Switzerland. Entered service with Volkart Bros., Winterthur 1892, transferred to London Office 1895 and to Bombay 1895. *Address*: Meher Manzil, Carmichael Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

MULLICK, SIR BASANTA KUMAR, KT. (1920); Judge, Patna High Court, since 1916. *Educ.*: Univ. Col. Sch.; King's Coll., Cambridge. Ent. I.C.S., 1897; Actg. Judge, Calcutta High Court, 1913; Palsne Judge, 1915. *Address*: Bankipore.

MUMTAZUDDOLAH, NAWAB SIR MOHAMMAD FAIZALI KHAN, K.C.V.O., K.C.I.E., C.S.I., C.B.E., Nawab of Pahasu, Minister, Jaipur State; b. 4 Nov. 1851; late Member of Supreme and Provincial Legislative Councils. Address: Nawab's House, Jaipur.

MURSHIDABAD, NAWAB BAHADUR OF, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., The Hon. Itisham-ul-Mulk, Rais-ud-Dowla, Amir-ul-Omrah, Nawab Asef Kuds Syud Wasaf Ali Meerza, Khan Bahadur, Mahabub Jung, premier noble of Bengal, Behar and Orissa; 38th in descent from the Prophet of Arabia; b. 7 Jan. 1875; m. 1898, Nawab Sultan Dulin Fugloor Jahan Begum Saheba. Educ.: in India, under private tutors and in England, at Suerborne, Rugby, and Oxford; has six times been Mem. of Bengal Leg. Council. Address: The Palace, Murshidabad.

MURTRIE, DAVID JAMES, O.B.E., I.S.O., Dy. Dir.-Gen., Post Offices, 1916-1921 (retired); b. 18 Dec. 1864; Educ.: Doveton Prot. Coll., Madras. Ent. Govt. Service in Post Office, 1884; Pres. Postmaster, Bombay, 1918-16. Address: "Looland," 8a, Cunningham Road, Bangalore.

MUTALIK, VISHNU NARAYAN alias ANNASABEH, B.A., Sardar of the Deccan, Inamdar and Saranjamidar; Member, Legislative Assembly, b. 6 Sept. 1879, m. S. Ramabaisahab, d. of Mr. K. Bhiranhi, Pearl Merchant. Educ.: at Satara High School and the Deccan Coll., Poona. Member, Bombay Legislative Council for the Deccan Sardars, 1921-1923. President, Inamdars' Central Association, 1914 and onwards to the present day; Chairman, Satara City Municipality for 4 years; Member of Dist. and Taluka Local Board, Satara, for over 15 years. Publications: Currency System of India in Marathi. Address: Shanwar Peth, Satara City.

MUTHIAH CHETTIAR, SIR M. CR., KT. 1922. Banker and Member, Legislative Assembly, b. 8 February 1887, m. to Thevarai. Educ.: Maharaja's College, Pudukottai. President, South India Chamber of Commerce; Chairman, Madras Stock Exchange; Director of Indian Bank, Ltd., Madras; Trustee, Madras Port Trust; Trustee, Ratchappa's Educational Charities; Member, Advisory Board, Govt. Institute of Commerce and South Indian Railway Co., Ltd., Sheriff of Madras, 1921 and 1922; Presdt., Unite India Life Assurance Co.; was Member of Madras Legis. Council for a period before the Reformed Council and for one period after the Reformed Council: now a member, Legis. Assembly and Municipal Councilor of the Madras Corporation. Publications: Author of the Chapter on "Indigenous Banking" in Dr. Khan's book. Address: "Bedford House," Vepery, Madras.

MYSORE, H. H., THE MAHARAJA OF, COL. SIR SRI KRISHNARAJA WADIYAR BAHADUR, G.O. S.I., G.B.E., 4th June 1884; s. father, 1895. Invested with full ruling powers by Lord Curzon, at Mysore, 1902; present at Delhi Durbar, 1903. Area of State is 29,444 square miles, and its population is nearly 6,000,000. Address: The Palace, Bangalore, Mysore; Fern Hill, Nilgiris.

MYSORE, YUVARAJA OF, SIR SRI KANTHIRAJA NARASIMHARAJA WADIYAR BAHADUR, G.O.I.E., Extraordinary Member of Council in Mysore; b. 5 June 1888; y. s. of late Maharaja Sri Chamarajendra Wadiyar Bahadur. Takes keen interest in welfare of people and in all matters of education, health, and industry. Address: Mysore.

NABIHA, MAHARAJA SRI RUPUDAMAN SINGHJI MALAVENDRA, BAHADUR OF, F.R.G.S., M.R.A.S.; b. 14 March 1883; s. 1911. Educ.: privately. Travelled good deal in India and abroad; Mem. Viceroy's Council, 1906-08; Pres. of Ind. Nat. Soc. Confee., 1909; attended Coronation of King, accompanied by Maharani, 1911; made handsome contributions towards various War Funds and Loans including gift of fully-equipped Hospital Ship for Mesopotamia. Abdicated, 1923.

NAG, GIRIS CHANDRA, RAI BAHADUR, M.A., B.L., b. 14 Feb. 1864, m. Sreemati Kunjalata, d. of Rai Saheb P. C. Deb of Sylhet. Educ.: Calcutta Presidency College. Professor, Ravenshaw Coll., Cuttack (1896-1899); Pleader, Sylhet Judge's Court, 1899-1892; Member, Assam Civil Service, 1892-1918; Member, Decca University Court, and Member Leg. Assembly. Publications: "Back to Bengal." Address: Bakshi Bazar, Dacca.

NAGOD, RAJA JAUBIND SINGH, RAJA OF; b. 30 Dec. 1855; s. 1874; dynasty has ruled at Nagod for over nine centuries; State has area of 501 square miles, and population of 84,097; salute 9 guns. Address: Nagod, Baghelkhand.

NAGPUR, BISHOP OF, since 1903, RIGHT REV. EYRE CHATTERTON, D.D., F.R.G.S.; b. 22 July 1863; m. 1910 Lilian Agnes Haig, 2nd d. of Henry Alexander Haig, 43, Kensington Park Gardens. Educ.: Haileybury; Dublin Univ.; ordained, 1887. Head of Dublin University Mission, Chota Nagpur, 1891-1900. Publications: The Story of 50 years Mission Work in Chota Nagpur (S.P.C.K.), 1900: The story of Gondwana (Isaac Pitman & Co.), 1916; with the Troops in Mesopotamia, 1916; Mesopotamia Revisited, 1917. Address: Bishop's Lodge, Nagpur, C.P.

NAGPUR, R. C. BISHOP OF; see Coppel.

NAIDU, SAROJINI, MRS., Fellow of Roy. Soc. of Lit., in 1914; b. Hyderabad, Deccan, 13 Feb. 1879. Educ.: Hyderabad; King's Coll., London; Girton Coll., Cambridge. Published three volumes of poetry in English, which have been translated into all Indian vernaculars, and some into other European languages; also been set to music; lectures and addresses on questions of social, religious, and educational and national progress; specially connected with Women's Movement in India, and welfare of Indian students. Address: Hyderabad, Deccan.

NAIR, MANNATH KRISHNAN, DEWAN BAHADUR (1915); Member, Madras Legislative Council, b. August 1870. Educ.: Alathur; Calicut, and Christian College and Law College, Madras. Vakil, Calcutta Bar, Ch. Justice, Travancore High Court, for four years Dewan, Travancore, May 1914 to July 1920. Address: Palghat, Malabar District.

NAIR, see Sankaran Nair.

NAMBIAR, CHANDROTH KUDALI THAZHATH VITIL KUNHI KAMMARAN, Landlord, M.L.A. b. Dec. 1888, m. Kalliat Madhavi Amma, d. of V. Ryru Nambiar, B.A.B.L., High Court Vakil. Educ.: at the Mission High School, Brennen College, Tellicherry and Madras Medical College. Succeeded to the management of the Chandroth estate after the death of his brother in 1912; in 1914 was elected to the Tellicherry Taluk Board and in 1916 to the Malabar District Board of which he continues to be a member. In 1924 was returned to the Legislative Assembly as the representative of the Madras Landholders. Address: Panoor, via Mahe, N. Malabar.

NANDY, MAHARAJA SIR MAHENDRA CHANDRA, K.C.I.E.; Add. Mem. of Imp. Council. Address: Kasimbazaar, Bengal.

NANDY, SHIS CHANDRA, M.A. (1920), s. and h. of Maharaja Sir Monindra Chandra Nandy, Bahadur, K.C.I.E., of Kasimbazaar, Bengal. b. 1897; m. 1917 second Rajkumari, d. of Hon. Raja Promoda Nath Roy of Dighapatia. Educ.: Berhampore Coll., Bengal, and Presidency Coll., Calcutta, Chaitmar, Berhampore Municipality, Hon. Magte., Berhampore and Member, Bengal Legislative Council (1924). Address: "Rajbari," Kasimbazaar, or 302, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta.

NANJUNDAYYA, H. VELPANGURU, C.I.E.; b. 13 Oct. 1860; Educ.: Wesleyan Mission Sch., Mysore; Christian Coll., Madras; Madras Univ. (Fellow, 1895). Ent. service of Mysore Govt., 1885; Judge, Chief Court of Mysore, 1904; Mem. of Council and Ch. Judge of Chief Court; retired 1916; Vice-Chancellor, Mysore Univ. Address: Malleswaram, Bangalore.

NARIMAN, SIR TEMULJI BHICAJI, KT., M.R.C.P. (Edinburgh), Hon. Causa, 1922; Sheriff of Bombay, 1922-23. Chief Physician, Parsi Lying-in Hospital; President, College of Physicians and Surgeons; b. Navsari, 3rd Sept. 1848; Educ.: Grant M.C.; Elphinstone Coll.; Fellow of Bombay Univ., 1883; J.P., a Syndic in Medicine, 1891; a Dean in Faculty of Medicine, 1901-02; Mem., Bombay Leg. Council, 1909; Mem. of Provincial Advisory Committee, 1910. Member, Bombay Medical Council, 1913. Address: Bombay.

NARSINGARH, HIS HIGHNESS SRI HUZUR RAJA VIKRAM SINGH SAHIB BAHADUR b. 31 September 1909; belongs to Patwar or Ponwar branch of Agnikul Rajputs; s. 1924. Educ.: Daly College; State is 734 sq. miles in extent, and has population of 1,01,426; salute of 11 guns. Regent Her Highness the Rani Shiv Kanwer Sahiba, D.B.E. Address: Narsingarh C.I.

NATARAJAN, KAMARSHI, B.A. (Madras University), 1889, Editor, The Indian Social Reformer, Bombay; b. 24th Sept. 1868. Educ.: St. Peter's H.S., Tanjore; Pres. Coll., Madras; Govt. Coll., Kumbakonam; and Law Coll., Madras. Headmaster, Aryan H. S., Triplicane, Madras; Asst. Editor, the Hindu, Madras; Pres., Madras Prov. Soc. Confee., Kurnool, 1911; and Pres., Bombay Prov. Soc. Confee., Bilapur, 1918. President, Mysore Civic and Social Progress Conference, 1921, and Presi-

dent, National Social Conference, Ahmedabad, 1921; General Secretary, Indian National Social Conference, 1923-24. Publications: Presidential addresses at above conferences; Report of Census of Hyderabad (Deccan), 1911. Address: The Indian Social Reformer Office, Fort, Bombay, and Tata's Run-galov, Khar Road, Bandra, Bombay.

NATESAN, THE HON. MR. G. A., head of G. A. Natesan & Co., and Editor, The Indian Review, Member, Council of State, b. 25th August 1874. Educ.: High School, Kumbakonam; St. Joseph's School, Trichinopoly; H. H. School, Triplicane; Presidency College, Madras University B.A. (1897). Fellow of the Univ. and Commissioner, Madras Corp'n. Has taken a leading part in Congress work. Joined Moderate Conference, 1919. Sec., Madras Liberal League. Joint Secretary, National Liberal Federation of India, 1922. Publications: chiefly patriotic literature and speeches, etc., of public men, "What India Wants," "Autonomy within the Empire." Address: George Town, Madras.

NATHUBHAI, TRIBHOVANDAS MANGALDAS- J.P.; Hon. Mag. and Fellow of Univ., Bombay; Sheth or head of Kapol Banya community; resigned presidency after tenure thereof for 25 years, 1912, b. 28 Oct. 1856. Educ.: St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay. Was for 20 years an elected Mem. of Bombay Mun. Corp'n.; has been Hon. Mag. since establishment of Courts of Bench Magistrates in Bombay. Address: Sir Mangaldas House, Lamington Road, Bombay.

NAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR, was Prime Minister of Hyderabad from 1912-14. Address: Hyderabad, Deccan.

NAWANAGAR, H. II. MAHARAJA JAM SHRI RANJITSINGH, G.C.S.I., G.B.E., K.C.S.I., Hon. Lt.-Colonel in army; b. Sarodar, 10th September 1872; Educ.: Rajkumar Coll., Rajkot; Trinity Coll., Cambridge. First appearance for Sussex C. C. C., 1895; head of Sussex averages same year; head of Sussex averages, 1895-1902; champion batsman for all England in 1896 and 1900, scoring 2,780 runs with an average of 59.91; went with Stoddart's All England XI to Australia, 1897-98; served European War, 1914-15. Address: Jamnagar, Kathiawar.

NEEDHAM, BREVET-COLONEL RICHARD ARTHUR, B.Sc., M.D., D.P.H., M.R.C.P., (Edinburgh); D.S.O. (1916), C.I.E. (1919); b. 1877. Inspector of Medical Education in India on behalf of the General Medical Council of the United Kingdom. Address: Simla.

NEHRU, PANDIT MOTILAL, Member, Legis. Assembly for The Seven Cities of U.P. b. May 1861. President, U.P. Provincial Conference 1907; Member, U.P. Legis. Council; founded The Independent, 1919; Presdt., Indian National Congress 1919; suspended practice at the Bar in pursuance of non-co-operation resolution 1920; imprisoned for six months, 1921-22. Address: Anand Bhawan, Allahabad.

NEHRU, PANDIT SHAMAL, M.L.A., Journalist. b. 16 June 1879, m. Oma, d. of Pandit Niranjan Nath Hukku. Educ.: at Allahabad. Member, All-India Congress Committee, Provincial Congress Committee (U. P.), Allahabad Town

Congress Committee. Allahabad Municipal Board, Chairman, Allahabad Public Health Committee, Member, Allahabad Improvement Trust, Member, Khilafat Committee, Member, Legis. Assembly; six months' imprisonment and fine for non-co-operation (1921-22); *Publication*: Founder of "The Democrat" newspaper of Allahabad. *Address*: Allahabad U. P.

NEILSON, WILLIAM HARDCASTLE, O.B.E. (1919), V.D., M.A., M.A.I. b. 21 Feb. 1875; m. Ethel Maud, only d. of the late Frank Phillips of Plymouth. *Educ.*: Mr. Strangway's School, Dublin; Trinity College, Dublin; Asst. Engineer, Keyham Dockyard Extension, Devonport, 1900; Asst. Engineer, Calcutta Port Commissioners, 1905; Port Engineer, Chittagong Port Commissioners, 1907; Chief Engineer, Karachi Port Trust, 1916; Chief Engineer, Bombay Port Trust, 1922; Chairman, Bombay Port Trust, 1923; Controller of Munitions, Karachi Circle, 1917; Major, Bombay Battalion, A. F. I.; Member, Inst. Civil Engrs., Inst. Mech. Engrs., American Soc. C. E. (of Council) Inst. Engrs. (India). *Publications*: Report on Grain Elevators in Canada and United States. *Address*: Bombay Port Trust.

NEOGY, KSHITISH CHANDRA, M.L.A. (non-Mahomedan Electorate, Dacca Divn., E. Bengal), Vakil, High Court, Calcutta. *Journalist*. b. 1888. *Educ.*: Presy. Coll., Calcutta. Dacca, Coll., m. Sreemati Lila Devi. Sometime a member of the All-India Council of the Nat. Lib. Fedn. Elected Member of the Dacca Univ. Court, 1921-24. *Address*: 48, Toynebee Circular Road, Wari, Dacca; and 84-1, Amherst Street, Calcutta.

NEPAL, MAHARAJA CHANDRA SHUM SHEREJUNG BHADUR RANA, G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., D.C.L. (Oxon, 1908); F.R.G.S., Hon. General in British Army; Hon. Colonel of 4th Gurkha Rifles; Thong-lin-pimma-kokang-wang-sayan (Chinese Nepal); b. 8 July 1863. *Educ.*: Durbar H. S., Khatmandu. Entered army as a Colonel; Commander-in-Chief, 1901; Maharaja, Prime Minister, and Marshal, 1901; during European War, 1914, presented 31 machine guns, first gift of munitions, to the King, and placed whole of military resources of State at the King's disposal. *Address*: Singha Durbar, Khatmandu, Nepal.

NEVILL, HENRY RIVERS, B.A.; O.B.E. (1919); V.D. (1920); C.I.E. (1921), Indian Civil Service. b. 24th May 1876, m. Euphan. d. of T. Maxwell Esq., of Irvine, Ayrshire. *Educ.*: Charterhouse, Oriel College, Oxford. Entered Indian Civil Service 1899; posted to U.P. Commanded U. P. Horse, 1913-17; services placed at disposal of C-in-C, Nov. 1917; Asstt. Adjutant-General at A. H. Q. and from August 1921 to April 1923. Director of Auxiliary and Territorial Forces; Collector and Magistrate, Agra, Nov., 1923. *Publications*: Dist. Gazetteers of the United Provinces. *Address*: Agra.

NEWBOLD, HON. SIR BABINGTON BENNETT, Kt. (1924), Puisne Judge, High Court, Calcutta, since 1916; b. 7 March 1867. *Educ.*: Bedford Sch.; Pembroke Coll., Cambridge.

Ent. I.C.S., 1885. *Address*: Bengal United Service Club, Calcutta.

NICHOLAS, COLONEL STEPHEN HENRY EDMUND, Judge Advocate-General in India. b. 26th Dec. 1870, m. Maud Lane Plews, late of Q.A.M.N.S.I. *Educ.*: Swansea and Sandhurst. 1st Bn. East Surrey Regt., 1890; Indian Army 2nd Infantry (Hyderabad Contingent) 1892; Judge Advocate-General's Department, March 1912 (officiating), 1st May 1913 permanent. *Address*: Cecil Hotel, Simla.

NICHOLSON, SIR FREDERICK AUGUSTUS, K.C.S.I. (1925); K.C.I.E. (1903); C.I.E. (1899); Kaiser-i-Hind Medal, First Class, 1st Jan. 1917; b. 1846; m. 1875, Catherine, O.B.E., d. of Rev. J. Lechler, three s., *Educ.*: Royal Medical College, Epsom; Lincoln Coll., Oxford; entered Madras Civil Service, 1869; Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1899; Member, Victoria's Legislative Council 1897-99, 1900-02; reported on establishment of Agricultural Banks in India, 1895; Member of Famine Commission, 1901; retired, 1904; Hon. Director of Fisheries, 1905-1918. *Publications*: District Manual of Coimbatore. *Address*: Surrenden, Coonoor, Nilgiris.

NIHAL SINGH, REV. CANON SOLOMON, B.A., Evangelistic Missionary; b. 15 Feb. 1852. *Educ.*: Govt. H. S., Lakhimpur; Canning Coll., Lucknow; ordained, 1891; Hon. Canon in All Saints' Cathedral, Allahabad, 1906. *Address*: 2, Pioneer Road, Allahabad.

NOLAN, JAMES JOSEPH, F.J.I., Director of Publicity, Burma; F.R.G.S., Editor, *Rangoon Times*, 1915-1920; b. Limerick, 7 May 1869. *Educ.*: Crescent Coll., Limerick; King's Coll., London. Asst. Editor, *Health and Home*, 1897. Editor, 1906-12; late Editor of *The Citizen*; Editorial staff, *Black and White*, 1903-12; Asst. Editor of *Canada*, 1912-14. *Address*: Pegu Club, Rangoon.

NORMAND, ALEXANDER ROBERT, M.A., B.Sc., Ph.D., Prof. of Chemistry, Wilson Coll., Bombay; b. Edinburgh, 4 March 1880; m. 1909 Margaret Elizabeth Murray. *Educ.*: Royal H. S. and Univ., Edinburgh. *Address*: Wilson College, Bombay.

NORRIS, ROLAND VICTOR, D.Sc. (London); M.Sc. (Manchester), F.I.C., Professor of Biochemistry, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore. b. 24 October 1887, m. Dorothy, only d. of Robert and Myriam Harrop, Manchester. *Educ.*: Ripon Grammar School and Univ. of Manchester. Schunck Research Assistant, Univ. of Manchester 1909; Research Scholar, Lister Institute of Preventive Medicine 1910-11; Beit Memorial Fellow, 1911-13; Physiological Chemist, Imperial Bacteriological Laboratory, Muktesar, U.P. 1914; war service, Captain I.A.R.O. attached 103rd Mahratta Light Infantry, 1915-18; Indian Agricultural Service; Agricultural Chemist to Govt. of Madras 1918-24; appointed Prof. of Biochemistry, Indian Institute of Science, July 1924. *Publications*: numerous scientific papers in various technical journals. *Address*: The Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

NORTON, EARDLEY, Bar-at-Law (Lincoln's Inn), b. 19 Feb. 1852. Called 1876. *Educ.*: Rugby Sch.; Merton Coll., Oxford. Advocate of the High Courts of Bengal (1888); and Madras (1879). *Address*: Bar Library, High Court, Calcutta.

NOYCE, FRANK, I.C.S., C.S.I. (1924), C.B.E. (1919); Secretary to the Government of Madras, Development Department (1923); b. 4 June 1878; *Educ.*: Salisbury Sch. and St. Catharine's Coll., Cambridge, m. Enid, d. of W. M. Kirkus of Liverpool. Entered I.C.S., 1902. Served in Madras. Under Sec. to Govt. of India, Revenue and Agricultural Dept., 1912-16. Sec., Indian Cotton Committee, 1917-18; Controller of Cotton Cloth, 1918-19; Vice-President and subsequently President, Indian Sugar Committee, 1919-20; Member, Burma Land Revenue Committee, 1920-21; Indian Trade Commissioner in London, 1922-23. President, Indian Coal Committee, 1924-25. *Publication*: England, India and Afghanistan (1902). *Address*: Madras Club, Madras.

NUNAN, WILLIAM, B.A., T.C.D. (1902), M.B., B.Ch., T.C.D. (1905), M.D. (1906), b. 26 Jan. 1880, m. Jeanne Honore Thibault de Chanvalon, Paris. *Educ.*: Clongowood Wood College, Kildare, University of Dublin, Trinity College. Certifying Surgeon, Bombay-1914, Coroner of Bombay, 1915-1919; Police Surgeon of Bombay, Prof. of Medical Jurisprudence, Grant Medical College, Bombay. *Address*: Dongall House, Colaba, Bombay.

OLDFIELD, HON. JUSTICE FRANCIS DU FRE, Puisne Judge, Madras H. C., since 1913; b. 30 June 1869; *Educ.*: Marlborough; Trinity Coll., Cambridge; Fellow, Madras Univ., 1916. Ent. I.C.S., 1890. *Address*: Rutland Gate, Madras.

ORCHHA, H. H. SARAWAD-I-RAJAH-I-BUNDELKHAND, MAHARAJA MAHENDRA SAWAI, SIR PRATAP SINGH BHADUR, G.C.I.E., K.C.I.E., G.C.S.I.; b. 1854; s. brother 1874. State has area of 2,080 sq. miles and population of over 300,000. *Address*: Tikamgarh, Bundelkhand.

PADDISON, GEORGE FREDERICK, M.A. (Oxon), C.S.I. (1923), Commissioner of Labour, b. 1873, m. Miss E. L. Roberts. *Educ.*: at Richmond School, Yorkshire and Queen's College, Oxford. Special Asstt. Agent, Vizagapatam, Special Settlement Officer, Secretary and Member of the Forest Committee, Collector of Madras, Commissioner of Revenue Settlement, Labour Commissioner. Member Leg. Council. *Address*: Madras Club.

PAKENHAM-WALSH, RT. REV. HERBERT, D.D. (Dub.), Principal, Bishop's College, Calcutta. b. Dublin, 22 March 1871; 3rd son of late Rt. Rev. William Pakenham Walsh, Bishop of Ossory and Clara Jane Ridley; m. 1916, Clara Ridley, y. d. of Rev. Canon F. C. Hayes. *Educ.*: Chard Grammar School; Birkenhead School; Trinity College, Dublin; Deacon, 1896; worked as a member of the Dublin University Brotherhood, Chota Nagpore, India, 1896-1903; Principal, S. P. C. College, Trichinopoly, 1904-07; Head of the S. P. G. Brotherhood, Trichinopoly; Warden Bishop Cotton School, Bangalore,

1907-14; Bishop of Assam, 1915-23. *Publications*: St. Francis of Assisi and other poems, Nisbet, Altar and Table (S.P.C.K.), Evolution and Christianity (C.L.S.), Commentary on St. John's Ep. (S.P.C.K.), Daily Services for Schools and Colleges (Longman's) and Divine Healing (S.P.C.K.). *Address*: Bishop's College, 224 Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

PALANPUR NAWAB CAPTAIN H. H. ZUBDA-TUL-MULK DEWAN MARAKHAN TALEY MUHAMMAD KHAN BAHADUR, K.C.I.E. (1920), K.C.V.O. (1922), b. July 7, 1883. State has area of 1,750 sq. miles and population of over 2,36,694. *Address*: Palanpur.

PAL, BIPIN CHANDRA, Journalist, b. 7 Nov. 1858. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta. Sub-Editor, "Bengal Public Opinion," 1883-84. Sub-Editor, "Tribune" 1887-88; Secretary and Librarian, Calcutta Public Library, 1890-92; License Inspector, Calcutta Corporation, 1892-93; visited England and America; worked as a Brahmo Missionary; started "New India" 1901 and afterwards "Bande Mataram"; convicted in 1907 to simple imprisonment for 6 months for contempt of court; left for England 1908 where he started "Swaraj" (monthly); in 1911 sentenced on landing at Bombay to simple imprisonment for one month on a charge of sedition; started "The Hindu Review" in 1912. *Address*: Calcutta.

PALMER, RT. REV. E. J.; see Bombay, Bishop of.

PANNA, H. H. MAHENDRA MAHARAJA YADVEN'DRA SINGH OF; K.C.I.E. (1922), b. 1893; S. cousin on his deposition, 1902; m. 1912, Kunvari Shri Manhar Kunwar, o. d. of Maharajah of Bhavnagar State; has area of 2,596 sq. miles, and population of about 200,000. *Address*: Panna, Bundelkhand.

PARANJPYE, THE HON. MR. RAGHUNATH PURUSHOTAM, b. Murdi, 16 Feb. 1876; *Educ.*: Maratha H. S., Bombay; Fergusson Coll., Poona; St. John's Coll., Cambridge (Fell.); Paris and Göttingen; First in all Univ. exam. in India; went to England as Govt. of India scholar; bracketed Senior Wrangler at Cambridge, 1899; Princ. and Prof. of Math., Fergusson Coll., Poona, since 1902; has taken prominent part in all social, political, and educational movements in Bombay Pres.; Vice-Chancellor of new Indian Women's Univ., 1916-20; Bombay Leg. Council, 1913; represented the University of Bombay since 1916. Awarded the Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal in 1916. Minister, Bombay Government, 1921-23. *Publications*: Short Lives of Gokhale and Karve. *Address*: Poona.

PAREKH, SIR GOKULDAS KHANDAS, Kt. (1924); b. 24 Jan. 1847. *Educ.*: Bombay University. m. Parsanbai, daughter of Hargovan-das Tribhovan-das of Cambay. School Master, Surat High School; Deputy Inspector, Gujarati Schools, Bombay; Pleader, High Court, Bombay; Member, Bombay Legislative Council, 1897-1920; presided at Satara Provincial Confee., Gujarat Political Confee., Surat, 1919; All-India Social Confee., Bombay, 1904; Temperance Confee., Lahore, 1909;

and Temperance Confe., Ahmedabad, 1916. Instituted preliminary inquiries into land revenue collection irregularities and oppressive measures, 1899-1900, which resulted in special Government inquiry. Address: New Queen's Road, Bombay.

PARTAB BAHADUR SINGH RAJA, TALUQDAR OF KILA PARTABGARH, C.I.E. Hon. Magistrate; Hon. Mem. of U. P. Leg. Council; b. 1866. Address: Kila Partabgarh, Oudh.

PARTABGARH, H. H. SIR RAGHUNATH SINGH BAHADUR, MAHARAWAT OF; K.C.I.E. b. 1859; s. 1890. State has area of 886 sq. miles and population of 62,704; salute of 15 guns. Address: Partabgarh, Rajputana.

PASCOE, EDWIN HALL, M.A., Sc.D. (Cantab.); D.Sc. (London); F.G.S. Director, Geological Survey of India since 1921; Editor, Memoirs and Records of the Geological Survey of India; Treasurer and Editor, Mining and Geological Institute of India; President of the Governing Body, Indian School of Mining and Geology; Corresponding Member, Imperial Mineral Resources Bureau; Correspondent, Institute of Metals. b. 17 Feb. 1878. m. M.A. d. of James MacLean of Beaulieu, Inverness. Educ.: King's College and Univ. College, London; St. John's College, Cambridge. Joined Geological Survey, 1905; Kangra Earthquake Investigation, 1905; Survey of Burma Oilfields, 1905-09; accompanied Makwari Punitive Expedition, Naga Hills, 1910; deputed Persian Gulf, Arabian Coast and W. Persia, 1913; Slade Oilfields Commission in Persia and Persian Gulf, 1913-14; Punjab and N.W. Frontier, 1914-15; Commn. as 2nd Lt. in I.A.R.O. 1915. Publications: "The Oilfields of Burma; The Petroleum Occurrences of Assam and Bengal; Petroleum in the Punjab and N. W. Frontier Province; Geological Notes on Mesopotamia; and several shorter papers in the Records, Geological Survey of India and elsewhere. Address: Geological Survey of India, 27, Chowringhee, Calcutta.

PATIALA, MAJOR-GENERAL HIS HIGHNESS HAZARD-I-KHAS-I-DAULAT-I-INGLISHI A. MANSUR-I-ZAMAN AMIR-UL-UMRA MAHARAJA DHIRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR SHRI MAHARAJA RAJAGAN BHUPINDER SINGH MOHINDER BAHADUR, Ruler of Patiala State, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., A.D.C., F.R.G.S., F.R.S., M.R.A.S., M.R.S.A., F.R.C.I., F.R.H.S., b. Oct. 1891, the premier Ruling Prince of the Punjab, is one of the Ruling Princes of India, a member of the Standing Committee of Indian Princes Chamber, (Narendra Mandal), Commander-in-Chief Patiala Forces, Hon. Major-General in British Army, and Hon. Colonel, 15th Ludhiana Sikhs; served with Indian Expeditionary Force during European War 1914, on the staff in France, Belgium, Italy and Palestine in 1918, Afghan War 1919, (Grand Cross of the Legion d'Honneur, Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Italy, Grand Cordon of the Order of Leopold, Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Roumania) represented India at the Imperial War Conference and Cabinet, 1918; Cr. G.C.I.E., 1911, G.B.E.,

1918, G.C.S.I., 1921, G.C.V.O., 1922; A.D.C. to His Majesty the King Emperor, 1922. Address: (Winter) Patiala, (Summer) Chail, Simla Hills, Punjab, India.

PATON, NIGEL FAIRBOLT, Managing Partner; Graham & Co., Calcutta. b. 6 Nov. 1867. m. Nora Ermengarde, d. of the late William Skinner, Edinburgh. Educ.: Edinburgh Academy and Edinburgh University. Chairman, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1919-20; Mem., Imp. Legislative Council, 1919-20; Trustee of the Port of Bombay, 1915-20; Major, 15th Bombay Battalion, A.F.I., Hon. A.D.C. to Governors of Bombay, 1917-1921; Member, Bengal Chamber of Commerce Committee; Commissioner, Port of Calcutta; Member, Calcutta Board P. & O. Banking Corporation. Address: 3, Alipore Lane, Calcutta.

PATTANI, SIR PRABHAKAR DAPATRAM, K.C.I.E. President of Council of Administration, Bhavnagar State, 1920; Member of Exec. Council of Government of Bombay, 1912-1915; of the Bombay Legislative Council, 1916; of the Imperial Legislative Council, 1917; of the Council of India, 1917-19; b. 1862. Educ.: Morvi, Rajkote, Bombay. Address: Anantwadi, Bhavnagar.

PAUL, KANAKARAYAN TIRUSELVAM, O. B. E. (1918), Nat. Gen. Sec., Y. M. C. A. of India, Burma and Ceylon, b. 24 March 1876. Educ.: Madras Christian College, Law College, Teachers' College. m. Miss K. Narasinga Rao. Teacher. Headmaster, College Lecturer, Municipal Commissioner and Chairman, General Secretary, N.M.S. of India. Publications: "Citizenship in Modern India." "Adult Education." "An Urgent Need of Modern India." Address: 5, Russell Street, Calcutta.

PEARS, STEUART EDMUND, C.I.E. (1916), C.S.I. (1923), Resident in Waziristan. b. 25 Nov. 1875. m. Winifred M. Barton. Educ.: Edinburgh University and Trinity Hall, Cambridge. Entered Indian Civil Service, 1898; served in N.W.F. Province from 1901 onwards, as Political Agent in Tochi, Kurram, Khyber and Malakand. Delegate to Anglo-Afghan Conference at Mussorie in 1920. Address: Dera Ismail Khan, N. W. F. Province.

PERCIVAL, PHILIP EDWARD, B.A. (Oxon), I.C.S., M.L.A., Dist. and Sessions Judge, Hyderabad, Sind, b. 11th Nov. 1872, m. Sylvia Baines, d. of Sir J. A. Baines, C.S.I. Educ.: Charter-house and Balliol College, Oxford. Served under the Government of Bombay as Asstt. Collr., Asstt. Judge, Under-Secretary, Judicial Dept., Registrar, Bombay High Court, Remembrancer of Legal Affairs and Dist. and Sessions Judge, Satara. Address: Hyderabad, Sind.

PERINI, Rt. Rev. PAUL, S.J., D.D.; Bishop of Calicut since June 1923; b. Brandola, Italy, Jan. 1867. Educ.: various Colleges of Society of Jesus in Austria, England and Belgium. Joined Society of Jesus, 1883; Rector and Prin. of St. Aloysius Coll., Mangalore, for six years; Bishop of Mangalore, 1910-23. Address: Bishop's House Calicut.

PETIT, SIR DINSHAW MANOCKJEE, 2nd Baronet; s. of late Framjee Dinshaw Petit, 2nd son of 1st Baronet; b. 7th June, 1873; s. his grandfather, Sir Dinshaw Manockjee, under special remainder, 1901, and changed his name from Jeejeebhoy Framji Petit to Dinshaw Manockjee Petit; Merchant and cotton mill-owner; Member, Bombay Legislative Council; J. P. for Bombay; a Delegate of Parsee Ch. Matrimonial Court of Bombay; Pres. of Association for Amelioration of Poor Zoroastrians in Persia, the Petit Charity Funds, Petit Institute, and Parsee Orphanage, and Chairman and Member of Managing Committees of the principal Parsee charitable institutions in Bombay; m. Dinbai; d. of Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy, 3rd Bart., and has issue. Address: Petit Hall, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

PETIT, JEHANOR BOMANJEE, Merchant, millowner. b. 21 Aug. 1879. m. Miss Jaijee Sorabjee Patuck, M.B.E., Kaisar-i-Hind Silver medalist. Educ.: Fort High and St. Xavier's institutions. J.P., merchant, millowner and banker; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation, Bombay Development Board and the Industries Committee; Member of the Committees of the Bombay Millowners' Association (President, 1915-16), Indian Merchants' Chamber (President, 1919-1920) and Indian Industrial Conference (President, 1918); President, Bombay Textile Association; Vice-President, Bombay Presidency Assocn.; Trustee of Parsee Panchayat, Founder and Proprietor of *The Indian Daily Mail*; Founder and President of the B. D. Petit Parsi General Hospital, Indian Economic Society, Bombay Progressive Assocn., Bombay Symphony Orchestra, Tariff Reform League, Landlords' Association and New High School for Girls (Bombay); Founder and Hon. Secy. of the Imperial Indian Citizenship Association and the Victoria Memorial School for the Blind; Delegate of the Parsi Chief Matrimonial Court (1902-1922); Member of Bombay Legis. Council (1921-1923), Excise Committee (1921-24), Indigenous Industries Committee (1915-1917), Industrial Disputes Committee (1921), and member of the University Reforms Committee (1924). Address: Mount Petit, Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

PETMAN, CHARLES EARLE BEVAN, C.I.E., b. 9 September 1866. Educ.: Privately and at Trinity College, Cambridge. Advocate, Calcutta H. Court, 1892 and of Chief Court, Punjab, 1892. Government Advocate, Punjab, 1909; Judge of the High Court, Lahore, from April to Aug. 1920 and from Oct. 1920 to Febr. 1921. Publications: "Report on Frauds and Bribery in the Commissariat Department"; "P. W. D. Contract Manual" (Revised Edition). Address: Lahore.

PETRIE, DAVID, C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., b. 1879. Educ.: Aberdeen Univ.; Ent. Ind. Police, 1900; Asst. Dir., C.I.D., Simla, 1911-12; Spec. duty with Home Dept., since 1915. On special duty with H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught, 1921. On staff of H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, 1921-22; Senior Superintendent of Police, Lahore, Member of the R. Commn. on Public Services, 1923. Address: C/o Lloyds Bank, Bombay.

PIGGOTT, HON. JUSTICE SIR THEODORE CARO B.A., I.C.S.; Puisne Judge, Allahabad, since 1914; b. Padua, 26 Oct. 1867. Educ.: Kingswood Sch. Bath; Christ Church, Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., Jud. Commr. of Oudh, 1911. Address: High Court, Allahabad.

PILCHER, GEORGE, M.A. (Oxon.), (Mod. Hist. Hon. 1907); M.L.A., Journalist. b. 1882. m. Muriel Blackman, e. d. of Dr. J. G. Blackman of Portsmouth. Educ.: Kent College, Canterbury and Wadham Coll., Oxford. On staff of London "Morning Post" "1907-1914" as occasional leader-writer, Foreign Editor and War Correspondent (Balkan War, 1912-13) on staff of Calcutta "Statesman" 1914-24, as Assistant (and some time Joint) Editor Publications; Steel, a Factor in India's progress (Longmans, 1924); various articles in the "Nineteenth Century," and "Fortnightly, Edinburgh" and "Calcutta Reviews." Address: C/o Cox's Branch, Lloyd's Bank, Calcutta.

PILKINGTON, HARRY SEYMOUR HOYLE, C.I.E., M.V.O.; Postmaster-General, United Provinces. b. 1869. Ent. Ind. P.O., 1890; Asst. Dir.-Gen., 1909-16; served with F. P. O. in China Exp., 1900-02; took charge of postal arrangements during visits to India of Prince and Princess of Wales, 1905-06; Amier of Afghanistan, 1906-07; and King George and Queen Mary, 1911-1912; Dir., Postal Services with Indian Forces in France, 1914-1916; mentioned in despatches. Address: Lucknow.

PIYARE LAJ, LAL, M.L.A., Gold Medalist in Law (1886), Punjab Univ., Vakil, High Court. b. 21 Aug. 1858. Educ.: Delhi Govt. College; Lahore Govt. College. President, Delhi Bar Association, Vice-President, Municipal Committee, Delhi; Hon. Secretary, Board of Trustees, Hindu College, Delhi. Member, Executive Council, Delhi Univ. Address: Piyare Lal Chandra Chowk, Delhi.

PONSONBY, MAJOR-GENERAL JOHN, C.B. C.M.G., D.S.O., Commanding Madras District, b. 25 March 1866; Educ.: Eton. Gazetted to Irish Rifles, 1886. Transferred to Coldstream Guards, 1913; promoted Major-Gen., 1918. Saw service in Matabeleland, Uganda, Mutiny, South Africa and European War, 1914-18. Address: Head-quarters, Madras District, Wellington.

POSA, MAUNG, I.S.O. (1911), K.S.M. 1893, b. Tounngou, 13 May 1862. Educ.: St. Paul's R.C.M. Sch., Tounngou. Asstt. to Civil Officer; Ningyal Column II, B. Expeditionary Field Force, 1885-1887; Burma Medal with clasp, 1885-87. Senior Member, Burma Provincial Judicial ser. since 1911. Interpreter to Prince of Wales during visit to Burma Jan. 1906. Also to three Viceroy's, 1898, 1901, 1903; Dist. Judge, 1916; Offr. Divisional Sessions Judge, 1918; Retired, June 1918; Asstt. Dir. Recruiting, July to Dec. 1918. Mentioned in despatches. Address: Thaton.

PRASAD, GANESH, M.A. (Cantab.), D.Sc.; M. L. C. (Allahabad University Constituency). Hardinge Professor of Higher Mathematics the Calcutta University; Life President of the Benares Mathematical Society; Vice-President, Calcutta Mathematical Society; Patron, Allahabad University Math. Assocn. b. 15th Nov. 1876. Educ.: Ballia; Allahabad; Cambridge; Gottingen. Member

of Court, Council and Senate, Hindu Univ. (1924); Member of Court, Executive and Academic Councils and Faculty of Science, Allahabad Univ.; Fellow of Calcutta University and Vice-President, Indian Association for cultivation of science. *Publications*: "Constitution of Matter and Analytical Theories of Heat." (Berlin, 1903); textbooks on Differential Calculus and Integral Calculus (London, 1909 and 1910); "Mathematical Research in the last twenty years" (Berlin, 1922); and many other original papers published in the mathematical and scientific journals of England, Germany, Italy and India during 1900-1921. *Address*: 2 Samanaya Mansions; Corporation Street, Calcutta; and 37, Benares Cantt.

PRASAD, THE HON. JUSTICE SIR JWALA, B.A., LL.B., Puisne Judge, Patna High Court, since 1916; Acting Chief Justice, 1921. *b.* 1875. *m.* 1888. *d.* of Munshi Mangul Sen Singh, Zamindar and retired Dy. Commissioner. *Educ.*: Patna College, Calcutta University; Muir Central College and Allahabad University; Vakil, Calcutta and Allahabad High Courts, Fellow of Patna University. Rai Sahab, 1914; Rai Bahadur, 1915. *Ag. Chief Justice* in 1924. *Address*: Patna.

PRATT, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE EDWARD MILLARD, Judge, High Court, Bombay, 1918; *b.* 29th August 1865; *Educ.*: Dulwich Coll. and Univ. Coll., London. Appointed I.C.S., 1886; Dist. and Sess. Judge, 1897; Leg. Rem., 1905; Jud. Commr. of Sind, 1910. *Address*: Crismill, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

PRATT, FREDERICK, C.S.I. (1925), I.C.S.; Commissioner, Northern Division, Bombay Presidency. *b.* 4th Dec. 1869. *Educ.*: Dulwich Coll., Hertford Coll., Oxford. *Address*: Shahibag, Ahmedabad.

PRICE, EDWIN LESSWARE, B.A. (Oxon), Bar-at-Law, C.I.E., O.B.E., Merchant, French Consular Agent at Karachi since 1914. *b.* 8th July 1874. Member, Legislative Assembly, 1920-21. *Address*: "Newcroft", Ghizri Road, Karachi.

PUDUKOTTAL, H. H. RAJA MARTAND BHAIKRA TONDIMAN BAHADUR RAJA OF, G.C.I.E., *b.* 1875; *s.* grandfather; 1886; *m.* 1915. State has area of 1,179 sq. miles, and population of 426,813 and had been ruled by Tondiman dynasty from time immemorial. Salute 11 guns. *Address*: Henry S. King & Co., London.

PUDUMJEE, NOWROJEE, 1st Class Sardar of Deccan, Bombay; *C.I.E.*; *b.* 1841; *Educ.*: Poona Coll. under Sir Edwin Arnold, war mem. of Bombay Leg. Council; Promoter and Chairman of several Industrial and Banking Companies. *Address*: Pudumjee House, Poona.

PURSHOTAMDAS THAKURDAS, SIR, Kt. (1923), *C.I.E.* (1919), M.B.E. Non-Official Member, Indian Legislative Assembly (Indian Commerce), Cotton Merchant; *b.* 30th May 1879; *Educ.*: Elph. Coll., Bombay. President, East Indian Cotton Association; Chairman, Bombay Cotton Exchange; Member, Lord Inchcape's Retrenchment Committee; Director, the Imperial Bank of India, Bombay. *Address*: Malabar Castle, The Ridge, Bombay.

PURVES, ROBERT EGERTON, C.I.E.; *P. W. D.*; retired; *b.* 1859; *Educ.*: Thomason Coll., Roorkee; Ex. Eng., 1895; Supdt. Eng., 1907; Ch. Eng. and Sec. to Govt., Punjab Irrigation Branch, 1913-14; retired, 1914; since practising as Hydraulic Eng. and Irrigation Expert. *Address*: c/o Messrs. King Hamilton & Co., Calcutta.

QUILON, BISHOP OF; see Benziger, Rt. Rev. A. M.

RADHANPUR, H. H. MAHOMED JALALUDHIN-KHAN BABI, BAHADUR, NAWAB OF; *b.* 1st April 1889; Pathan, Babi, Mahomedan. *Educ.*: Rajkumar Coll., Rajkot. *S.* brother, 1910; State has area of 1,150 sq. miles, and population of 67,789. Salute 11 guns. *Address*: Radhanpur.

RAHIM, THE HON. SIR ABDUR, M.A., Kt. (1919); Judge, Madras High Court, since 1908; *b.* September, 1867; *m.* Nisar Fatima Begum. *Educ.*: Government High School, Midnapore; Presidency College, Calcutta. Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1890; practised as Advocate, Calcutta; Presidency Magistrate, Calcutta, 1900-03; Fellow, Madras University, since 1908; Member of the B. Commission on Public Services, 1913-15; officiated as Chief Justice, Madras, July, October 1916, and July to October 1919. *Publication*: "Principles of Mahomedan Jurisprudence." *Address*: College Bridge House, Egmore, Madras.

RAHIMTOOLA, SIR IBRAHIM, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. President, Bombay Legislative Council (1923). *b.* May 1862; was Mem. of Imp. Council; Mem., Bombay Leg. Council; Mem., Exec. Council, Bombay; *Address*: Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

RAINY, SIR GEORGE, K.C.I.E. (1925), *C.S.I.* (1921), *C.I.E.* (1918); Ch. Sec. to Govt. of Bihar and Orissa since (1911). *b.* 11th Feb. 1875. *Educ.*: Edinburgh Academy and Merton Coll., Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1899; Under-Sec. to Govt. of India, Commerce and Industries Dept., 1906-09; Member, Imperial Delhi Committee, 1914-16; Dy. Sec. to Govt. of India, Finance Dept., 1916-19; Chief Secretary to the Government of Behar and Orissa, 1919-23. *Address*: V. S. Club, Calcutta.

RAJARATHNA MUDALIYAR, PAKAM, C.I.E., Diwan Bahadur; served in Salt Dept. since 1860; Insp.-Gen., Registration, 1896; Mem. of Madras Council, 1896-1902. *Address*: Madras.

RAJKOT, THAKUR SAHEB LAKHAI BOWAJI, K.C.I.E.; *b.* 17th Dec. 1885. *Educ.*: Rajkumar Coll., Rajkot. State has area of 282 sq. miles, and population of 60,993. Salute of 9 guns. *Address*: Rajkot.

RAJPIPLA, CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI VIJAYSINH, MAHARAJA OF, K.C.S.I. (1925), *b.* 1890. *s.* to the gadi in 1915. *Educ.*: at Rajkumar Coll., Rajkot, and subsequently with the Imperial Cadet Corps in Dehra-Dun. Enjoys permanent hereditary salute of 13 guns. *Address*: Nandod, Rajpipla State.

RAJWADE, MAJOR-GENERAL GANPATRAO RA-GHUNATH RAO RAJA, MASHER-I-KHAS BAHADUR SAIKAT-JUNG, O.B.E., A.D.C., Army Member, Gwalior Govt., and Inspector-General, Gwalior Army; Member of His Highness' Majlis-i-Khas; ranks as First Class Sardar in the Bombay Presidency. *b.* Jan. 1884. *Educ.*: Victoria College. *Address*: Gwalior.

RAMA RAYANINGAR, SRI P., THE HON. RAJAH OF PANAGAL, M.A., Minister in charge of Local Self-Government, Madras, since 1921; *b.* 1866. *Educ.*: Triplicane Hindu High School, Presidency College; was nominated Fellow of the Madras University; represented Zemindars of this Presidency in Imperial Legis. Council from 1912-1915; was invited to Imperial War Conference in 1918; again returned to Imperial Legislative Council in 1919; gave evidence before Joint Committees of Parliament on behalf of All-India Zemindars; pleaded also the cause of non-Brahmins of Madras. *Address*: Secretariat, Madras.

RAMCHANDRA RAO, DEWAN BAHADUR M., B.A., B.L., Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal, Vakli, High Court, Member, Legislative Assembly. *b.* September 1868. *m.* M. Viyyamma. *Educ.*: at Presidency College, Madras, Member, Madras Legislative Council, 1910-1923; member of the deputation of the All India Moderates in 1919 and Member of the Lytton Committee on Indian Students. *Publications*: Development of Indian Polity. *Address*: Ellore, Madras Presidency.

RAMPAL, RAJA; see Kuthehr.

RAMPUR, COL. H. ALI AH, FARZAND-I-DILPZIR-I-DAULAT-I-INGLISHIA, MUKHLIS-UD-DAULAH, NASIR-UL-MULK, AMIR-UL-UM-ARA, NAWAB SIR SAYED MOHAMMAD HAMD ALI KHAN BAHADUR, MUSTAFA JUNG, G.C.S.I. (1921), *G.C.I.E.*, *G.C.V.O.*; A.D.C. to King Emperor. *b.* 31st Aug. 1875; *S.* 1889. State has area of 892 sq. miles and population of 531,712; Salute of 15 guns. *Address*: Rampur State, U. P.

RANGACHARIAR, DEWAN BAHADUR TIRUVENKATA, B.A., B.L., C.I.E. (1925), *M.L.A.* since 1920, Vakli, High Court, Madras. *b.* 1865; *m.* Ponnammal, *d.* of S. Rajagopala Aiyengar of Srirangam. *Educ.*: S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, Law College, Madras. Schoolmaster for 3 years; enrolled as Vakli, High Court, Madras, 1891; Professor, Law Coll., 1898-1900; Member, Madras Corp., since 1908; Member, Madras Legis. Council, 1916-1919. Member, Indian Bar Committee; Mercantile Marine Committee; Escher Committee. Elected Dy. President, Leg. Assembly; Member, Indian Colonies Committee on deputation at London with the Colonial Office, President, Telegraph Committee, 1921; Member, Frontier Committee; Chairman, Madras Publicity Board. *Publications*: A book on Village Panchayats. *Address*: Ritherdon House, Vepery, Madras.

RANGASWAMY AYYANGAR, K. V., Landholder and Member of the Council of State. *b.* 1886. Member of the old Imperial Legislative Council and a Congressman of the Tilak School. *Address*: Vasudeva Vilas, Srirangam, Madras Presidency.

RANGOON, BISHOP OF, since 1910; *Rt. Rev. ROLLESTONE STERRITT FYFFE, D.D., m.* 1914. Annis Kathleen, *d.* of late Herbert Hardy of Danehurst, Sussex, two *s.* *Educ.*: Clifton Coll., Emmanuel Coll., Cam., Ordained 1894; Curate of Bishopwearmouth, Sunderland, 1894-98; Curate of S. Agnes, Bristol; in Charge of Clifton College Mission, 1898-1900; Vicar of St. Agnes, Bristol, 1900-1904. *S.P.G.* Missionary, Mandalay, 1904-10. *Address*: Bishops, Court, Rangoon.

RANJITSINGHI; see Nawanagar.

RANKIN, THE HON. SIR JUSTICE GEORGE CLAUD, Kt. (1925), Judge, High Court, Calcutta, *b.* 12th August 1877, *m.* Alice Maud Amy Sayer. *Educ.*: Trinity College, Cambridge. Barrister (Lincoln's Inn) 1904. Practised on Northern Circuit. *R.* Garrison Artillery, 1916-18. *Address*: High Court, Calcutta.

RAO, RAO SAHIB S. M. RAJA RAM, Editor, The Wednesday Review. *b.* 24th December 1876. *Educ.*: S. P. G. and St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly. Started *The Wednesday Review* in 1905 and *The Zamindar and Progress* (monthly) incorporated into the *Feudatory and Zemindar India* in 1919. *Address*: Trichinopoly and 16, Harrington Road, Chetpet, Madras.

RATLAM, COL. H. H. SIR SAJJAN SINGHJI, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C. to H.R.H. The Prince of Wales, Maharaja Sahib Bahadur of Rutlam. *b.* 13 Jan. 1880; *S.* father (Sir Ranjit Singhji, K.C.I.E.), 1893; *m.* 1902, *d.* of H.H. Rao of Kutche; descended from younger branch of Jodhpur family, and maintains moral supremacy over Rajput Chiefs in Malwa; served European War (France) from April 1915 to May 1918, mentioned in despatches; presented with Croix d'officier of the legion d'Honneur. Served Afghan War, 1919; Member of Managing Committee, Mayo College, Ajmer; Mem., Managing Committee, Daly College, Indore; Vice-President, Central India Rajputra Hit Karini Sabha. Salute 15 guns. *Address*: Ranjit Bilas Palace, Rutlam.

RAWLINSON, 1st Baron, cr. 1919; *HENRY SEYMOUR RAWLINSON, 2nd Bt., cr.* 1891; *G.C.B.*, *cr.* 1919; *K.C.M.G.*, *cr.* 1918; *G.C.V.O.*, *cr.* 1917; *G.C.S.I.* (1924), *K.C.B.*, *cr.* 1915; *C.* B. 1900. Commander-in-Chief in India since Nov. 1920; *b.* 20th Feb. 1864; *e.s.* of Maj.-Gen. Sir Henry Creswick Rawlinson, Bt., and Louisa, *d.* of H. Seymour Knoyle Wilts, *S.* father 1895; *m.* 1890, Meredith, *d.* of Coleridge J. Kennard. *Educ.*: Eton; R. M. C. Sandhurst; Staff College, Camberley (P.S.C.). Entered 60th K.R. Rifles, 1884; A.D.C. to Sir Frederick Roberts, Commander-in-Chief in India, 1887; served with Mounted Infantry, Burma campaign (medal and clasp); resigned A.D.C.-ship and returned to England, 1889; entered Staff College, 1892; exchanged into Coldstream Guards, 1892; served in Sudan campaign as D.A.A.G. to Lord Kitchener, 1898; present at battles of Atbara and Khartoum (medal and two clasps, despatches twice); served in S. African War (two medals and eight clasps); A.A.G. (Ladysmith siege), Natal, 1899;

A.A.G. Headquarters, S. Africa, 1900; commanded Mobile Column, 1901-2 (despatches three times); European war, 1914-18; commanded 4th Division 4th Corps and the Fourth Army despatches eight times, K.C.B., From Lt.-General and General, K.C.B., G.C.B.; G.C.V.O., K.C.M.G.; Commandant, Staff College, 1903-6; commanded 2nd Brigade, Aldershot, 1907-9; commanding 3rd Division, Salisbury Plain, 1910; Commanded Forces in N. Russia, 1919; received thanks of H.M.'s Government; Commander-in-Chief, Aldershot, 1919-1920; Member of Army Council; Grand Officers, Legion of Honour; Order of Danilo (Montenegro) 1st Class, 1917; 1st Class Order of St. George, Belgium; 2nd Class Order of St. George, Russia. *Publication:* 'The Officers' Notebook. *Address:* Army Headquarters, India.

RAWLINSON, HUGH GEORGE; Principal Deccan College, Poona; Fellow, Bombay University; b. 12th May 1880; m. 1910, to Rose, only d. of Lt.-Col. J. F. Fitzpatrick I.M.S. *Educ.:* Market Bosworth Grammar Sch. and Emmanuel Coll., Cambridge; (Exhibitioner and Scholar; B.A., 1st Class; Classical Tripos, 1902; M.A. 1908); Lecturer in English and Classics, Royal College, Colombo, 1903-08; Hare University Prize, 1908. Entered I.E.S. as Professor of English Literature, Deccan Coll., Poona, 1908; Ag. Principal, Gujarat Coll., Ahmedabad, 1914; ditto, Deccan College, 1915; Fellow of the Royal Historical Society, 1916; Principal Karnatak Coll., Dharwar, 1917-23. *Publications:* Bactria, the History of a Forgotten Empire; Indian Historical Studies; Shivaji, the Maratha; Intercourse between India and the West; The Beginnings of British India, an Account of the Old English Factory at Surat: New Edition of Forbes' Ras Mala. Contributor to Vol. II, Cambridge History of India. *Address:* Deccan College, Poona.

RAY, MAHENDRANATH, C.I.E., M.A., B.L.; Vakill, Calcutta High Court; ex-Mem., Bengal Council; b. Oct. 1862. *Educ.:* Presidency Coll., Calcutta. Mem. of Syndicate, Calcutta Univ., since 1910. *Address:* 8, Khooroo Road, Howrah, and 2, Boloram Bose's 1st Lane, Bhawanipur, Calcutta.

RAY, PRITHWIS CHANDRA, Editor-in-Chief of the *Bengalee* (Calcutta). b. 1870; m. 1888, 2nd d. of Balu Dwarkanath Roy Choudhury of Santosh (Mymensingh). *Educ.:* Mymensingh Zilla School and Presidency College, Calcutta. Editor of the *Indian World* from 1905-1914; Founder of the National Liberal League (the first Indian liberal organisation). Calcutta; Secretary, 21st and 26th Sessions of the Indian National Congress, held in Calcutta in 1906 and 1911; Secretary, Bengal Social Reform Association from 1908 to 1914; Member of the Moderate Deputation to England, 1919, and the Bengal Landholders' Delegate to England in 1920. Donor of a library (in the name of the late Mr. Gokhale) to the Indian Association of Calcutta (1919). *Publications:* "Poverty Problem in India," "Indian Estates," "Our Demand for Self-Government," and "A Scheme of National Constitutional Reforms." Member, National

Liberal Club, London, S.W. *Address:* 174, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

RAY, PROFULLA CHANDRA, C.I.E., D.Sc. (Edin.); Ph.D. (Cal.); Sen. Prof. of Chemistry, Univ. Coll. of Sc., Calcutta; b. Bengal, 1861. *Educ.:* Calcutta; Edinburgh Univ. Graduated at Edinburgh. D.Sc.; Hon. Ph.D., Calcutta Univ., 1908; Hon. D.Sc., Durham Univ., 1912. Dean of Fac. of Sc. Univ. of Calcutta, 1915. *Address:* College of Science, Calcutta.

READING, 1st EARL OF, CR. 1917; RUFUS DANIEL ISAACS, VISCOUNT ERLINGH, CR. 1917; 1st Viscount Reading, CR. 1916; Baron, CR. 1914; Kt., CR. 1910; G.C.B., CR. 1915; P.C. 1911, K.C.V.O., CR. 1911; G.M.S.I., G.M.I.E. (1921); G.C.V.O. (1922); Viceroy and Governor-General of India since April 1921. Lord Chief Justice of England, 1913-21; President of Anglo-French Loan Mission to U.S.A., 1915; Special Envoy to U.S.A., 1917; High Commissioner and Special Ambassador to U.S.A., 1918; First Attorney-General to become Member of Cabinet, 1912. b. London, 10 Oct. 1860; 2nd s. of late Joseph H. Isaacs, merchant in City of London; m. 1887, Alice Edith, C.I., G.B.E., 3rd d. of late Albert Cohen, merchant, City of London; one s. *Educ.:* University College School; Brussels; Hanover. Bench of Middle Temple, 1904; Solicitor-General, 1910; Attorney-General, 1910-13; K.C. 1898; M.P. (L.) Reading, 1904-13; *Heir:* s. Viscount Erlingh. *Address:* Simla or Delhi.

READYMONEY, SIR JEHANGIR COWASJEE JEHANGIR; see Jehangir.

REED, SIR STANLEY, KT., K.B.E., LL.D. (Glasgow); Editor, *The Times* of India, Bombay, 1907-1923; b. Bristol, 1872; m. 1901, Lilian, d. of John Humphrey of Bombay. Joined staff, *Times* of India, 1897; Sp. Correspondent, *Times* of India and *Daily Chronicle* through famine districts of India, 1900; tour of Prince and Princess of Wales in India, 1905-06; Amir's visit to India, 1907, and Persian Gulf, 1907; Jt. Hon. Sec., Bombay Press, King Edward and Lord Hardinge Memorials; Ex. Lt.-Col. Comdgr. Bombay, L.H. Represented Western India at Imp. Press Confc., 1909. *Address:* *The Times* of India, 187, Fleet Street, London, E.C.

REID, COLONEL CARTWRIGHT, C.B. (June 1917), M. Inst. C.E., Engineer in Chief, Vizagapatam Harbour, b. 7 Nov., 1864, m. Julia only d. of late Henry Miller. *Educ.:* Kirkby Lonsdale Grammar School. Articled to Thomas Reid, C. E. Wakefield and Normanton. Entered Admiralty Service (1888) as Asstt., Civil Engineer; served at Pembroke, Halifax, Esquimaux and Chatham; was Superintending Civil Engineer Malta, Chatkam and Rosyth and Deputy Civil Engineer in Chief Admiralty. Lt.-Col. Royal Marines for reconstruction of Belgian Ports. Acted as a Consultant to Calcutta Port Trust in connection with proposed King George's Dock Scheme and Basra Port re Shatt-el-Arab. Loaned by Admiralty (1921) for construction of Vizagapatam Harbour. *Address:* Vizagapatam Harbour, Vizagapatam.

REID, WILLIAM JAMES, C.S.I., Member and Vice-President, Executive Council, Assam.

b. 1871. *Educ.:* Glasgow H. S.; Emmanuel Coll., Cambridge; Ent. I.C.S., 1891. *Address:* Shillong, Assam.

RHODES, SIR CAMPBELL, KT., CR. 1923; C.B.E., 1920, Partner, Hoare Miller & Co., London. b. 1874. Son of Doctor Francis Rhodes. Manchester; m. 1905, Eleanor Wemyss (d. 1921) d. of late A. G. Reid, J.P., Dublin. *Educ.:* Manchester Grammar School & Owens College, Pres., Bengal Chamber of Com., 1922. Member Indian Fiscal Commission & Bengal Retrenchment Com. Clubs: Bengal, Calcutta, Oriental, London. *Residence:* Kentons, Henley-on-Thames. *Address:* Calcutta.

RICE, WALTER FRANCIS, C.S.I., Ch. Sec., Burma, since 1907; Mem. of Lt.-Gov.'s Council, since 1909; Add. Mem. of Imp. Council. *Educ.:* Morrison's Acad., Christ; Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1890; Sec. to Govt., 1905. *Address:* Secretariat, Rangoon.

RICHARDSON, MAJOR-GENERAL CHARLES WILLIAM GRANT, C.B., 1920; C.S.I., 1918; G.O.C., Poona District (1922); b. 1868, m. 1900; Served Burma, 1888-89; (medal and clasp); N.W.F. 1894-97; (Clasp); South African War 1900-2 (Queen's medal and two clasps) G.O.C., Sind Rajputana District, 1921-22, Great War 1914-1918 (G.S. and Victory Medals: mentioned in despatches); Afghan War 1919 (Medal and Clasp) and S. W. Persia (Medal and Clasp). *Address:* Poona.

RICHMOND, REAR-ADM. HERBERT W., C.B. (1921), appointed Commander-in-Chief, East Indies Squadron, May 1923; b. 15 Sep. 1871; s. of Sir William Richmond, B.A., K.C.B. and Clara Jane Richards; m. 1907, Florence Eliza d. of Sir Hugh Bell, Bart. four d. one s. *Educ.:* H. M. S. Britannia; Lieut. 1893; Commander, 1903; Captain, 1909; Assistant Director of Operations, 1913-15; Liaison officer with Italian Fleet, 1915; Commanded Commonwealth, Conqueror, and Erin in Grand Fleet; Director of Staff Duties and Training, 1918; President, R. N. War Coll. Greenwich, 1920-23. *Publications:* Papers relating to the Loss of Minorca; The Navy in the War, 1739-1748; The Spencer Papers, Vols. III and IV. *Address:* H. M. S. "Chatham."

RIEU, JEAN LOUIS, I.C.S., C.S.I. (1920), Commissioner in Sind since 1919; b. 23 Nov. 1872, m. to Ida Augusta Edwards (deceased). *Educ.:* University Coll. School, London and Balliol Coll., Oxford. Entered I.C.S. in 1893; served as Asstt. Collr. and Collr. in the Bombay Presidency till 1911, when appointed Secy. to Government, General Department; Collr. of Karachi, 1917; Secretary to Govt., Revenue and Financial Departments, 1918. *Address:* Government House, Karachi.

RIVETT-CARNAC, JOHN CLAUDE THURLOW, b. 1888, eldest s/o John Thurlow Rivett Carnac, retired Dy. I.G. of Police, m. 1923, Jill, d. of S. Wilson, of New York City. *Educ.:* Eastbourne College. Entered Indian Police, 1909, served during War with 13th Bengal Lancers in Mesopotamia (M.C. and medals), awarded King's Police Medal, 1923. Is Supt. of Police, United Provinces, and Captain I.A.R.O. (Cavalry). *Address:* Gonda, U.P.

RIVETT-CARNAC, JOHN THURLOW, retired I. Insp., General of Police, Eastern Bengal and Assam, 2nd s/o late Charles Forbes Rivett-Carnac Bengal Civil Service and gr. s/o Sir James Rivett-Carnac, Bart. Governor of Bombay, 1838-41. b. 1856, m. 1887 Edith Emily, d. of late H. H. Brownlow and has issue four sons and one daughter. *Residence:* Shillong, Assam. Entered Indian Police, 1877, retired 1911, served in Burma campaign, 1886-7 (medal), and in Chin-Lushai expedition 1889-90 (clasp).

RIVETT-CARNAC, HERBERT GORDON, Second in Command, Kolhapur Infantry, b. 1892, 3rd son of John Thurlow Rivett-Carnac, retired Dy. I.G. of Police. *Educ.:* Bradfield Coll. (Berks.) and R. M. C. Entered Army 1911. Served during War on General Staff in Mesopotamia and as Asstt. Political Officer, Amara; is Captain Indian Army and Offg. Asst. Resident, Kolhapur State. *Address:* Kolhapur.

RIVINGTON, REV. CECIL STANSFELD; Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1918); Mission Priest in Diocese of Bombay; Supdt. of S.P.G. Missions in Canarese-speaking district of Bombay Diocese; Hon. Canon of St. Thomas, Cathedral, Bombay; b. London, 1853. *Educ.:* Rugby; Solicitors Examination, London; Cuddesdon College Priest, 1879. *Publications:* Commentaries on the Psalms, St. Luke and St. John, a Manual of Theology (all in Marathi). *Address:* Betgeri-Gadag, Dharwar District, Bombay.

ROBINSON, SIR SYDNEY MADDOCK, KT., Chief Justice, High Court, Burma (1922), b. 3 Dec. 1865. *Educ.:* Hereford Cath. Sch., Banerose Coll., Oxford, Called to Bar, Middle Temple, 1888; Govt. Adv. and Leg. Rem. to Punjab Govt., Puisne Judge, Ch. Court of L. Burma, 1903-1920; Chief Judge, 1920-1922. *Address:* I, Leeds Road, Rangoon.

ROUSE, ALEXANDER MACDONALD, C.I.E., F.C.H., Superintending Engineer, Delhi; b. 14 Sep. 1878; m. Jean Louis Jameson, March 1912; two s. *Educ.:* St. Paul's Sch., R.I.E.C. Cooper's Hill. *Address:* Delhi.

ROW, DEWAN BAHADUR CONJEEVERAM KRISHNA-SWAMI, Vak., High Court, Madras, b. Aug. 12, 1867. *Educ.:* Presy. Coll., Madras; m. a grand-daughter of the late Raja Sir T. Madhava Row, K.C.S.I., Vakill, Madras High Court, 1889. Joined Provincial Judicial Service, 1894. Rao Bahadur in 1911. Gave evidence before the Public Services Commission 1913; M.L.A. (nominated); acted as Judge, High Court, Madras 1921; retired as District Judge in 1922; rejoined the bar; made Dewan Bahadur 1922. *Address:* Masthu Baug, St. Georges' Cathedral Road, Madras.

ROW, DIWAN BAHADUR RAGHUNATHA ROW RAMACHANDRA; Secretary to Government of Madras, b. 27 September 1871. *Educ.:* Trivandrum and Presidency College, Madras. Statutory Civil Service, 1890-92. Transferred to Provincial Service, Collector, Registrar, Co-op. Credit Societies. *Address:* Madras.

ROY, RT. REV. AUGUSTIN; Bishop of Coimbatore, since 1904; b. France, 1863. *Address:* Catholic Cathedral, Coimbatore.

ROY, THE HON. RAJA PROMADA NATH of Dighapatia; Member, Council of State and Zemindar of Bengal, b. 20 Jan. 1873. *Educ.* at Raj Shahye College and Presidency College; Member of the Imperial Legislative Council, 1910-12. *Address:* Dighapatia, Rajbari, Dist. Rajshahye or 163, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

ROY, SURENDRA NATH, SASTRA VACHASPATHI. B.A., B.L. (Calcutta Univ.); Vakill, High Court, Calcutta and Landholder. b. April 1862. *Educ.:* St. Xavier's College, Hindu School and Presidency College, Calcutta. Enrolled as Vakill of the High Court, 1883; elected Vice-Chairman of the Garden Reach Municipality (first Mill Municipality in Bengal) in 1897; has been elected Chairman, South Suburban Municipality since 1900; Commissioner, Calcutta Corporation from 1895-1900; Member, Dist. Board of 24 pergunnas, from 1916-1922; elected member, Bengal Legis. Council in January 1918 and elected to Council at subsequent elections. Elected first Deputy President of the Reformed Council in Feb. 1921; acted as Presidt. from May 1921 to Nov. 1922. Introduced the Bengal Primary Education Bill in the Bengal Legis. Council and got it passed by the Council in 1919. *Publication:* (1) "A History of the Native States of India," (2) Local Self-Government in Bengal, etc. *Address:* Behala, Calcutta.

RUNCHORELAL, SIR GIRIA PRASAD CHINTUBRAI MADHAVLAL, 2nd Bt., b. 18 Apr. 1906. a. of 1st Bt. and Sulochna, d. of Chundil Khusalnair; S. father 1916. [Father was first member of Hindu community to receive baronetcy.] *Hon.* none. *Address:* Shapur House, Ahmedabad.

BUSHBROOK WILLIAMS, LAURENCE FREDERIC, M.A., B. Litt. (Oxon.) 1920, O.B.E. 1920, C.B.E. (1923), M.L.A. (1924), Director of Public Information, Government of India; b. 10 July 1891, m. 1923 Freda e. d. of Frederick Chance. *Educ.:* University College, Oxford, Private Study in Paris, Venice, Rome. Lecturer at Trinity College, Oxford, 1912, travelled Canada and U.S.A., 1913, Fellow of All Souls, 1914. Attached General Staff Army Head Quarters, India, 1916. Professor of Modern Indian History, Allahabad University, 1915-1919. On special duty with the Government of India, 1918-1921 in India, England and America, Official Historian of the Indian Tour of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, 1921-22. Secretary to the Indian Delegation at the Imperial Conference, 1923. *Publication:* History of the Abbey of St. Albans; Four Lectures on the Handling of Historical Material; Students Supplement to the *Atin-t-Akbari*; A Sixteenth Century Empire Builder: India in 1917-18, India in 1919, India in 1920, India in 1921-22, India in 1922-23. General Editor "India of To-day" and India's Parliament Volumes, 1, 2, 3 seq. *Address:* Home Department, Government of India.

SABNIS, RAO BAHADUR SIR R. V., KT. (1925), B.A., C.I.E.; Diwan, Kolhapur State, since 1888; b. 1 April 1857. *Educ.:* Rajaram H.B., Kolhapur Elphinstone Coll., Bombay. *Ent.* *Educ. Dept.:* held offices of Huzur Chitnis and Ch. Rev. Officer, Kolhapur; Mem. of Royal Soc.

of Arts, East India Assoc.; Roy. Asiatic Soc., Bombay Br. *Address:* Kolhapur.

SACHIN, MAJOR H. H. NAWAB SEEDH IBRAHIM MOHAMMED YAKUT KHAN-MUBARZARUT DAWALA NASRAT JUNG BAHADUR, NAWAB OF A.D.C.: b. 1886, and succeeded as an infant in following year. Installed May 1907; Hon. Captain, 1909, Major 1921. State has area of 49 sq. miles and population of 60,000; salute of 9 guns, personal 2 guns extra. *Educ.:* Rajkumar Coll., Rajkote; Mayo Coll., Ajmer; Imp. Cadet Corps. Served G.E.A. in 1914-15. *Address:* Sachin, Surat.

SADIQ HASAN, S. B.A., Bar-at-Law and Member, Legis. Assembly; President of Messrs. K. B. Shaikh Gulam Hussain & Co., Carpet Manufacturers. b. 1888. *Educ.:* Amritsar, Lahore and London; President, Moslem League, Amritsar; Municipal Commissioner for last 9 years; takes active interest in Moslem education and Khilafat movement. *Address:* Amritsar.

SAGRADA, RT. REV. EMMAUEL; Vicar Apostolic of Eastern Burma and Titular Bishop of Trina, since 1909. b. Lodi, 1860. *Address:* Toungo, Burma.

SATYID ABDUR RAHMAN, KHAN BAHADUR M.L.C., Retired Dy. Commissioner, Akola (Berar); b. 1864. *Educ.:* St. Francis de Sales, Nagpur. Supdt., Commissioner's Office, Hoshangabad; Extra Asstt. Commissioner; Dy. Commissioner, Akola (Berar) 1919-1921; Dy. Commissioner, Yeotmal; Per. Asstt. to Commissioner of Berar in C. P. Commission; Official Receiver, Berar; President of many Municipalities and district boards; Berar Mahomedan representative in C. P. Council; Fellow, Royal Society of Arts (England) *Address:* Official Receiver, Akola.

SAILANA, HIS HIGHNESS RAJA SAHEB BHARAT DHARM NIDHI DILFEP SINGHI BAHADUR OF, b. 18 March 1891; succeeded the Gadi, 14 July 1919, m. first to the daughter of H. H. the Maharawat of Partabgarh and after her death to the daughter of the Rawat of Meja in Udaipur. *Educ.:* Mayo College, Ajmer, salute 11 guns. *Address:* Sailana C. I.

SAKLATVALA, NOWROJI BABUJI, C.I.E. (1923), J.P., Director, Tata Sons, Ltd., b. 10th Sept. 1875, m. Goolbal, d. of Mr. Hormasji S. Batilvala. *Educ.:* at St. Xavier's College, Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association, 1916; Employers' Delegate from India to the International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1921; Member, Legislative Assembly representing Bombay Millowners' Association, 1922. Member, Board of Trustees for the Port of Bombay. *Address:* Navsari Buildings, Fort, Bombay.

ST. JOHN LT.-COLONEL HENRY BEAUCHAMP, C.I.E., C.B.E., Political Agent, Eastern Rajputana States. b. 28 Aug. 1874, m. Olive, d. of Colonel G. Herbert, C.S.I., 1907. *Educ.:* Sandhurst. *Ent.* Army, 1893. *Address:* The Agency, Bharatpur.

SAMALDAS, LALUBHAI, bco MEHTA.

SAMTULLAH KHAN, M., B.A., LL.B., M.L.A., Pleader, b. 1889, m. Miss Inasunnisa A. Jaili. *Educ.:* M.A.O. College, Aligarh. Worked

on many war committees during the war; Secy., Prov. Khilafat Committee, C. P., 1920-24; Secy., Anjuman High School, Nagpur (1923); Vice-Presdt., Nagpur Municipal Committee since 1921; one of the secretaries of the Silver Wedding Fund at its start; was Member, All-India Congress Committee and the Central Khilafat Committee from 1921-23; non-co-operated from practice from 1921-23; at present a member of Swaraj Party and a Member of the Executive Committee of the Anjuman High School Institute since 1915. *Address:* Sadar Bazar, Nagpur, C.P.

SAMS, HUBERT ARTHUR, C.I.E. (1919). Deputy Director-General, Posts and Telegraphs April 1922. b. 3 May 1875. m. Millicent Helen Langford. *Educ.:* St. Paul's School, Peterhouse, Cambridge, B.A. (1897). Entered I.C.S., 1898. Punjab Commission, 1899-1907; P.M.G., 1907; Director of Postal Services, M.E.F., 1917-19; Temp. Lt.-Col., R.E., Aug. 1917-May 1919. Three times mentioned in despatches. Postmaster-General, Bombay Circle, 1920-1922, Off. D.G., 1922-23 and May 1924. *Publication:* Post Office of India in the Great War. *Address:* c/o Lloyd's Bank, Cox's Branch, Bombay.

SAMTHAR, H. H. MAHARAJA SIR BIR SINGH DEO, MAHARAJA OF, K.C.I.E.: b. 8 Nov. 1865; S. 1896. *Address:* Samthar Bundelkhand.

SANDERSON, SIR LANCELOT, KT., K.C.: Ch. Justice of Bengal, since 1915; b. 24 Oct. 1863. *Educ.:* Ebstree; Harrow; Trin. Coll., Camb. Called to Bar, Inner Temple, 1886. King's Counsel, 1903; M.P. (U.) Appleby Div., Westminster, 1910-15; Recorder of Wigan, 1901-15. *Address:* 7, Middleton Street, Calcutta.

SANJANA, SHAMS-UL-ULEMA DASTUR DARAB PESTOTAN, B.A., J.P. Senior Head Priest of the Parsis, Bombay; b. 18 November 1867, m. Shirinbal Rustomji B. Badshah. *Educ.:* Elphinstone High School, Proprietary School, and Elphinstone College, Hon. Fellow and Examiner in Avesta and Pahlavi; University of Bombay, since 1887; awarded Sir Jamsetji Fellowship, 1888; and Sir Jamsetji Gold Medal, 1889; Principal, Sir Jamsetji Zarthosti Madrasa since 1899; Editor of Pahlavi Vendidad, "Nirangistan" and "Moino-i-Kherad," Editor and Translator of "Pahlavi Karmame Ardashir," and "Pahlavi Dinkard," of which Vol. 17 was published two years ago. Has translated into English German works and papers by Geiger, Spiegel and Windischmann (Clarendon Press, Oxford). Has preached a number of religious sermons and published many English and Gujarati essays and papers on Parsi history and religion and on "The Alleged Practice of Consanguinous Marriages in Ancient Iran" and "Dastur Tansar's letter to the 'Court of Tabaristan.'" *Address:* 85, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

SANKARAN NAIK, SIR CHETTER, KT. cr. 1912; C.I.E., 1904; B.A., B.L., b. 11 July 1857. *Educ.:* Madras Presidency College, High Court Vakill; Govt. Pleader and Public Prosecutor to the Govt. of Madras; Advocate-

General for some time acting, then permanent Judge, High Court, Madras; for many years a member of Madras Legis. Council; President of the Indian National Congress at Amraoti; President of the Indian Social Conference at Madras; President of the Indian Industrial Exhibition, Madras; Founder and for some time Editor, Madras Review and Madras Law Journal; Member of Governor-General's Executive Council in India, 1915-1919; Mem. of Council of the Secretary of State for India, 1919-1921. *Address:* Madras.

SANT, MAHARANA SRI JORAWARSINGHI, RAJA OF; b. 24 March 1881; S. 1896. *Address:* Santrampur, Rewa Kantha.

SAO, SIR MOUNG, K.C.I.E., C.I.E., Sawbwa of Yawng Hwe, Burma; Mem. of Imp. Leg. Council. *Address:* Yawng Hwe Shan States, Burma.

SAPRU, SIR TEJ BAHADUR, M.A., LL.D., K.C.S.I. (1923) b. 8 Dec. 1875. Widower. *Educ.:* Agra College, Agra. Advocate, High Court, Allahabad, 1896-1920; Member, U.P. Leg. Council, 1913-16; Member, Imperial Leg. Council, 1916-20; Member, Lord Southborough's Functions Committee, 1918-1919; Member of Moderate Deputation and appeared as a witness before Lord Selborne's Committee in London, 1919; Member, All-India Congress Committee (1906-1917); Presdt., U.P. Political Confee., 1914; Presdt., U.P. Social Confee. (1913); Presdt., U.P. Liberal League, 1918-20; Fellow, Allahabad Univ., 1910-1920; Member, Benares Hindu University Court and Senate and Syndicate; Law Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council, retired (1922). Member of the Imperial Conference in London (1923); presided over the All India Liberal Federation, Poona (1923). *Publications:* has contributed frequently to the press on political, social and legal topics; edited the *Allahabad Law Journal*, 1901-1917. *Address:* 19, Albert Road, Allahabad.

SARDAR GHIOUS BAKSH KHAN RAISANI, SIR, K.C.I.E., premier Chief of Sarawak, Baluchistan.

SARMA, THE HON. SIR B. NARASIMHA, Member of Governor-General's Executive Council, (for Education, Health and Lands). b. Jan. 1867. *Educ.:* Hindu Coll., Vizagapatam; Rajamundry Coll. and Presy. Coll., Madras. Subsequently teacher Professor, and at the bar in Vizagapatam and Madras. *Address:* Simla.

SARVADHIKARY, SIR DEVA PRASAD, KT., C.I.E., M.A., B.L. (Calcutta), LL.D. (Abedeen), LL.D. (St. Andrews), Surkritna (Navadwip), Vidyaratnakar (Dacca), Vidya Sudhakar (Benares), Jnan Sindhu (Puri), Vakee and Solicitor, Fellow, Calcutta University and Benares University, late Vice-Chan., Calcutta Univ.; Mem. of Council of State, late member of Indian Legislative Assembly, b. 1862. m. 1883. Nagendranandini, 2 d. and 3 d. *Educ.:* Ramsheshwar-pore, Sanskrit College, Hare and Howrah Schools; Presidency College, Calcutta. For several years Mem. of Mun. Corp. of Calcutta; Mem. of Imp. Lib. Comm.;

Trustee, Imp. Museum; Pres., various literary, social and philanthropic societies and Calcutta Licensing Board; Calcutta Temperance Federation Anti-Smoking Society; Calcutta University Corps Committee; Vice-President, Indian Association and National Council of Education; Sahitya Parishat, Publications: "Notes and Extracts" "Three Months in Europe," "Prabash, Patra," Address: Prasadvir, 20, Suri Lane, Calcutta.

SASTRI, SIR CALAMUR VEERAVALLI KUMARASAMI, Kt. (1924) b. July 1870. Educ.; Frey and Law Colls., Madras: B.A. (1890); B.L. (1893), Vakil, 1894, Judge, Small Causes Court, 1905-06; Judge, Madras City Court, 1906-12; District and Sessions Judge, Ganjam, 1912-14; Member of the Rowlett Committee, 1918; Chairman, Labour Committee, 1920; Judge, Madras High Court, 1914-20; Member, Criminal Procedure Code Committee, 1917. Address: Kalamur House, Madras, N.E.

SASTRI, THE RT. HON. V. S. SRINIVASA, P.C. 1921; b. Sept. 22, 1869. Educn. at Kumbakonam. Started life as a Schoolmaster; joined the Servants of India Society in 1907; succeeded the late Mr. G. K. Gokhale in its Presidency in 1915; Member, Madras Legis. Council, 1913-16; elected from Madras Presidency to Imperial Legis. Council, 1916-20. Closely associated with Mr. Montagu during his tour in India in 1918; Member, Southborough Committee; gave evidence before Joint Parliamentary Committee on Indian Reform Bill, 1919; served on Indian Railway Committee; represented India at Imperial Peace Conf., 1921 and at the meeting of the League of Nations at Geneva and the Washington Conf.; during the same year. Elected Privy Councillor and received the freedom of the City of London, 1921; undertook a tour in the Dominions as the representative of Government of India, 1922; Member, Council of State, since 1921. Address: Servants of India Society, Bombay or Poona.

SAUNDERS, COLONEL MACAN, D.S.O., Deputy Director, Military Intelligence, Army Headquarters, India, b. 9 Nov. 1884. m. Marjory, d. of Francis Bacon. Educ.: Malvern College; M.R.A., Woolwich. Lieut., Royal Field Artillery, 1903; Lieut., Indian Army 1907; Capt., 1912; Major, 1918; Lt.-Lieut.-Col., 1919; Col. 1923, in India till 1914, except for a year in Russia; Staff Capt., 2nd Royal Naval Brigade, 1914, operations in Belgium and siege of Antwerp; Operations in Gallipoli 1915, from 1st landing to evacuation; G.S.O. 3 in Egypt to March 1916; Brig. Major Eastern Persian Field Force to April 1917; G.S.O. 2 and Intelligence Officer with Major-Gen. Dunsterville's Mission through N. W. Persia to the Caucasus, 1918; G.S.O. 1, Caucasus Section, G.H.Q. British Salonika Force, 1919 (wounded, despatches four times, D.S.O. Bt. Lt.-Col.); Military Attache, Teheran, Persia, 1921-24; Appointed D.D.M.I., Army Headquarters (1924). Address: General Staff, Army Headquarters (India), Simla.

SAVANTYADI, HIS HIGHNESS CAPTAIN KHEM SAVANT V. alias BAPSUAHAB BHONSLE, Raja Bahadur, Sardesai Maharaj of, b. Aug. 20,

1897. m. Princess Shri Lakshmi Devi of Baroda. Educ.: Malvern College, England. Served in the Great War at Mesopotamia from Oct. 1917 to March 1919; attached as Hon. Officer to 116th Maharrattas. Address: Savantvadi.

SCOTT, GAVIN, M.A., C.I.E. (1922), I.C.S. Municipal Commissioner for the City of Rangoon, b. 10 Aug. 1876, m. Eileen Marie, Nolan. Educ.: Glasgow University. Joined I.C.S., 1898; posted to Burma, 20 Dec., 1899. Address: Kilmanie, 14, Kokine Road, Rangoon.

SCOTT, LIEUT.-GEN. THOMAS EDWIN, C.B. (1917), D.S.O. (1897), C.I.E. (1900), Colonel, The Royal Irish Fusiliers, Colonel 4th Bn., 13th Frontier Force Rifles, G.O.C. and Political Resident, Aden, since 1920. a. of the late Rev. J. R. Scott, b. 6 March 1867; m. Renira Josephine, d. of the late Rev. E. M. Chaplain. Entered Army, 1888. Served N. W. Frontier, 1891; Waziristan Field Force, 1894-95; East, Africa, 1895-98; Uganda, 1897-98; China, 1900, European War, Mesopotamia and German East Africa; Military Sec. to the C-in-C in India; G.O.C., Bangalore Bde., 1919-20. G.O.C., Aden Field Force, 1920. Address: Aden.

SEAL, BRAJENDRANATH, M.A., Ph.D., D.Sc., Vice-Chancellor, Mysore University, since 1920. George V., Prof. of Mental and Moral Science, Calcutta Univ., 1914-1920. b. 3 Sep. 1864. Educ.: Gen. Assembly's Institution, Calcutta University; Del., Orientalist Congress, Rome, 1899; opened discussion at 1st Univ. Races Congress, London, 1921; Mem., Simla Committee for drawing up Calcutta Univ. Reg., 1905; Chairman, Mysore Constitutional Reforms Committee, 1922-23; Author of New Essays in Criticism, Memoir on Co-efficients of Numbers; Comparative Study in Vaishnavism and Christianity; Race Origins, etc. Address: Mysore, S. India.

SELL, REV. CANON E. B.D. (Lambeth), D. D. (Edin.), Kalsar-i-Hind Gold Medallist, b. 1839; Educ.: C.M.S. Coll., London. Arr. in India, 1865; Numerous publications on the history of Islam and on Old Testament Literature. Address: Vepory, Madras.

SEN, JITENDRANATH, M.A.; Calcutta Univ. Sen. Prof. of Phys. Sc., City Coll., since 1903; b. 1875, m. 1899. Educ. Hindu Sch.; Presidency Coll.; City Coll. and Sc. Assoc., Calcutta. Publications: Elementary Wave Theory of Light and other small books. Address: 1, Muddun Mohun Sen's Street, Calcutta.

SEN, RAI BAHADUR NISI KANTA, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., General Manager, Estate Nuzurgur, Purnea City, and Vakil, b. 8 March 1868, m. Mrs. Sen. Educ.: Dacca College. Entered Bar in 1894; was Govt. Pleader up to 1912; nominated member, Behar and Orissa Leg. Council in 1914; renominated in 1916, Elected Member, Legis. Assembly in 1921; acted for 6 months as member, Special Tribunal during Arrah-Gaya Bakrid disturbances; was Vice-Chairman, Purnea Municipality, for 7 years; Vice-Chairman, Purnea Dist. Board, for 12 years up to 1921 when elected Chair-

man, Purnea District Board. Address: Sen Villa, Purnea (Bihar).

SETALVAD, SIR CHIMANLAL HARILAL, K.C.I.E. (1924) LL.D., Advocate, High Court, Bombay, b. July 1866, m. Krishnagavri d. of Nurbheram Rughnathdas Govt., Pleader, Ahmedabad. Educ.: Elphinstone College, Bombay. Pleader, High Court, Bombay; Admitted as Advocate High Court; Member, Southborough Reforms Committee, 1918; Member, Hunter Committee, 1919; Additional Judge, Bombay High Court, 1920; Member, Executive Council of Governor of Bombay, Jan. 1921 to June 1923. Address: Setalvad Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

SETALVAD, RAO BAHADUR CHUNILAL HARILAL, C.I.E., Bar-at-Law, Ag. Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay. Address: Bombay.

SETHNA, THE HON. MR. PHIROZE CURSETJEE, B.A., J.P., O.B.E. (1918); Member, Council of State, b. 8 Oct. 1866. Manager for India, Sun Life Assurance Co. of Canada; Chairman, Central Bank of India, Ltd.; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation; Trustee, City of Bombay Improvement Trust; Trustee, Bombay Port Trust. Address: Canada Building, Hornby Road, Bombay.

SHADI, LAL, SIR, M.A. (Punjab), 1895, B.A. Honours (Oxford) 1898; B.C.L. Hon. (Oxford), 1899; Boden Sanskrit Scholar (Oxford), 1896; Arden Law Scholar (Gray's Inn.), 1899; Honourman of Council of Legal Education, 1899; Special Prize in Constitutional Law, 1899; Chief Justice, High Court, Lahore, b. May 1874; Educ.: at Govt. Coll., Lahore, Balliol Coll., Oxford. Practised at the Bar, 1899-1913; Offg. Judge, Punjab Chief Court, 1913 and 1914; Permanent Judge, 1917; Judge, High Court, Lahore, 1919; Chief Justice, May 1920. Elected by Punjab Univ. to the Leg. Council in 1910 and 1913. Fellow and Syndic, Punjab University. Publications: Lectures on Private International Law, Commentaries on the Punjab Alienation of Land Act and Punjab Preemption Act, etc. Address: Lahore.

SHAFI, THE HON. MIAN SIR MUHAMMAD. KHAN BAHADUR K.C.S.I. (1922), C.I.E. (1916); D. Litt. (Aligarh); LL.D. (Delhi); Pro-chancellor, Delhi University, 1922; b. 10 March 1889. Educ.: Govt. College and Forman Christian College, Lahore. Scholar and Barrister (Middle Temple); President, All India Urdu Conference, 1911; President, Islamia College Committee, 1907-1910; President, All-India Muslim League, 1913; Trustee, M.A.O. College, Aligarh; President, All-India Mahomedan Educational Conference, 1916; President, High Court Bar Association, 1917-1919; President, Punjab Prov. Bar Conf., 1919; Member, Punjab Legislative Council and Imperial Legislative Council from 1909-1919; Education Member, Government of India, 1919-22. Vice-President of the Executive Council and Law Member, Govt. of India (1922-24). President, Indian Soldiers' Board, 1924. Publications: "Punjab Tenancy Act with notes," "Provincial Small Cause Courts Act with notes" and "Law of Compensation for Improvements in British India". Address: Simla or Delhi.

SHAH, HON. SIR LALLUBHAI ASHARAM, Kt. (1920), M.A., LL.B.; Judge of High Court, Bombay, since 1913; Ag. Chief Justice since 1922. b. 1873; Educ.: Gujarat Coll., Ahmedabad; Govt., Law Sch., Bombay. Address: Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

SHAHAB-UD-DIN CHAUDHRI, KHAN BAHADUR, B.A., LL.B., High Court Vakil, Editor and Proprietor, "Indian Cases", Member, Legislative Assembly for 3 years and President, Municipal Committee, Lahore. Educ.: Government Coll. and Law Coll., Lahore. Started Criminal Law Journal of India in 1904 and Indian Cases in 1909. Was first elected member, Lahore Municipal Committee in 1913; President of the Corporation in 1922. Elected member, Punjab Leg. Council; re-elected President, Lahore Municipal Committee; 1924. Publications: The Criminal Law Journal of India; Indian Cases and two Punjab poems. Address: "Al-Mumtaz", 8, Durand Road, Lahore.

SHAHAN, SAHSIBING CHANDASING, M.A., Principal, D.J. Sind College, Karachi, Zemindar and Member, Legislative Assembly (1920)-b. 1869. m. Rishi Tejmal Mansukhan. Educ.: Bombay and Poona. Professor, Wilson College, Bombay, 1892-96; Prof., D.J. Sind Coll., Karachi, since 1896. Publications: Umar Khayyam; Shah-Jo-Rasalo; Sind Grasses. Address: D.J. Sind College, Karachi.

SHAHPURA, RAJADHIRAJA SIR NAHAR SINGH, K.C.I.E.; 7 Nov. 1855; s. Shahpura Gaddi by right of inheritance, 1870. Address: Shahpura, Rajputana.

SHAKESPEAR, ALEXANDER BLAKE, C.I.E.; Merchant; partner in firm of Begg, Sutherland & Co.; b. 1873. Educ.: Berkhamstead. Was Sec., Upper India Chamber of Commerce, 1905-12. Address: Cawnpore.

SHAMSHER SINGH, SIR SARDAR, SARDAR BAHADUR, K.C.I.E., C.I.E.; Ch. Min., Jind State; b. 1860. Educ.: Jullundur and Hoshiarpur H. S. and Govt. Coll., Lahore. Served during Afghan War, 1879-80, with march from Kabul to Kandahar; Ch. Jud. of State, High Court, 1899-1903. Address: Sangrur, Jind State.

SHAMS-UL-HUDA, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE (NAWAB SIR SYED) K.C.I.E., M.A., B.L.; Judge, Calcutta High Court, since 1917; b. 1864; belongs to well-known family of Syeds in Tippera, East Bengal; Educ.: Presidency Coll., Calcutta; Calcutta Univ. Commenced practice as Vakil in High Court at Calcutta; Mem., Bengal Exec. Council, 1912-17; Vice-Pres., Bengal Exec. Council, April-June 1917; held office of Sec. of Bengal Prov. Moslem League and that of Bengal Landholders Assoc., Pres., All-India Moslem League, 1912. Address: 220-2, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

SHANKARSHASTRI, NARASINHSHASTRI, PANDIT JOTIRMARTAND, Astronomer and Astrologer, b. 19 Dec. 1884. m. Anna Purnabai, d. of Vedanmurti Chendramadik of Laxmishwar, Miraj Senior. Educ.: Hossaritti, Taluka Haveri, Dharwar. Compiler of the Annual Indian calendar known as "Hossaritti Panchang"; Publisher of the annual general

predictions; a nominated member of Haveri Taluka Local Board since 1922 and an elected member before. *Publications*: Annual Indian Calendar; Bhamini-Dipika in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astrology); Kalachandrika in Sanskrit (Sanhita); Tajak-Sara (a treatise on Astrology with commentary in Marathi); Dalvajna Ratnakar in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astrology); and Griha Ratna Mala in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astronomy). *Address*: Haveri, Taluka Haveri, Dharwar Dist.

SHARFUDDIN, HON. MR. JUSTICE SYED; ex. Judge of Patna High Court; Mem. of Exec. Council, Lt.-Gov. of Behar, since 1917; b. Neora, 10 Sept. 1856; *Educ.*: Patna Coll. Called to Bar, 1880; Pulse Judge, Calcutta, 1907-15; Mem. of Senate of Calcutta Univ., 1904; Bengal Council, 1905; Pres. of All-India Md. Educ. Confee., 1906. *Address*: High Court, Patna.

SHASTRI, PRAHBU DUTT, Ph.D. (Kiel), B. Sc. Litt. Hum. (Oxon.), M.A. B.T., Hon. M.O.L. (Punjab); I.E.S.; Sen. Prof. of Mental and Moral Phil. in Presidency Coll., Calcutta, since 1912; b. 20 June 1885; Educ.: Universities of Lahore, Oxford, Kiel, Bonn and Paris. Del. to and Sectional Pres. at 4th Int. Congress of Philosophy held at Bologna, 1911; Head of Dept. of Philosophy, since 1912, Calcutta Univ. Lect. in Phil. and Sanskrit, 1912-15; invited to lecture in Universities of Geneva, Florence and Rome, 1913-14. Visited the U. S. A. and Canada in 1920-22 and invited to address the Universities of Harvard, Cornell, Princeton, Yale, Johns Hopkins and Toronto. *Publications*: Several works and articles on philosophical, educational, literary, religious and social subjects. *Address*: Presidency College, Calcutta; Bharati-Bhawan, 1, Multan Road, Lahore.

SHEA, LIEUT.-GENERAL, SIR JOHN STUART MACKENZIE, K.C.B. (1923); K.C.M.G. (1919); D.S.O. (1901); Adjutant General in India; b. 17 Jan. 1869; m. 1902, Winifred Mary; d. of late William Congreve of Burton and Congreve, Educ.: Sedburgh, Sandhurst, 2nd-Lt., The Royal Irish Regt., 1888; Lt., 15th Lancers, 1891; 35th Scinde Horse, 1912. Served Chitral Relief Force, 1895 (medal with clasp); South Africa, 1900-1902; Queen's Medal 4 clasps, King's Medal 2 clasps, dispatches, D.S.O., Brevet of Major, qualified for Staff Brevet Lt.-Col., 1922, European War, 1914-18 (despatches C.B., Bt.-Col. C.M.G., K.C.M.G. Promoted Maj. Gen., for services in field, 1917; Commander Legion d'Honneur Order of Nile, 2nd class.) *Address*: Simla.

SHEPPARD, SAMUEL TOWNSEND, Editor of *The Times of India* since 1923. b. Bath, Jan. 1880. *Educ.*: Bradfield and Trinity Coll., Oxford, m. 1921 Anne, d. of the late John Carpenter. Joined the staff of *The Times* (London) as Secretary to the Editor in 1902. Assistant Editor, *The Times of India*, 1907-1923. Temporary Capt. in the Army, 1917-18. Employed on the staff of Bombay Brigade. *Publications*: Contributed to *The Times* History of the War in South Africa. "The Byculla Club: a history," Bombay Place-names and Street-names, "A History of the Bombay Volunteer Rifles." *Address*: *The Times of India*, Bombay.

SHIRRAS, GEORGE FINDLAY, M.A., Director, Labour Office, Government of Bombay, since 1921, formerly Director of Statistics with the Govt. of India. Member, Bombay Legislative Council; Fellow of the University of Calcutta, b. Aberdeen, 16 July 1885. m. 1911, Amy Zara, o.d. of late George McWatters, Madras Civil Service; two s. *Educ.*: Robert Gordon's College, Aberdeen; University of Aberdeen, University Prizeman in Economics. Professor of Dacca College, 1909, on special duty under Government of India, Finance Department, 1910-13; Member, Govt. of India Prices Inquiry Committee; on special duty in office of D.P.I., Bengal, 1913-14; Reader in Currency and Finance in Calcutta University, 1914; Member, Government Bengal Statistics Committee, and of Board of Agriculture, India, 1918; on deputation Imperial Statistical Confee., London, on behalf of Govt. of India, Dec. 1919-Feb. 1920; on special duty India Office in connection with League of Nations work, March 1920; Hon. Fellow, Royal Statistical Socy. 1920; Major, 4th Gordon Highlanders, (1920 despatches); T. A. Reserve Regimental List, 1921. *Publications*: Some Aspects of Indian Commerce and Industry; Indian Finance and Currency 3rd Impression, 1920; Some Effects of the War on Gold and Silver, 1920; The Science of Public Finance, 1924; articles on Finance and Indian trade, etc. *Address*: Labour Office, Old Custom House, Bombay.

SHOUBRIDGE, HARRY OLIVER BARON, Associate Coopers Hill and M. Inst. C. E., Chartered Civil Engineer, Chief Engineer in Sind. b. 19 Oct. 1872. m. E. Z. Mould. *Educ.*: Westminster School and R.I.E.C. Coopers Hill. Civil Engineer in the Bombay Public Works Department. *Address*: Grindlay and Co., London and Bombay.

SHRADDHANAND, SWAMI, b. at Jullunder, Started legal practice at Jullunder; gave up practice and devoted himself to Arya Samajin, 1898; founded "Gurukul," Hardwar of which he was Governor till 1921; Chairman, Reception Committee of Congress, 1919; arrested in September 1922 at Guruka Bagh and jailed; on release started Shuddhi and Sangathan movements. *Address*: Burn Borton Road, Delhi.

SIFTON, JAMES DAVID, C.I.E., (1921); I.C.S. Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi b. 17 April 1878, Educ.: St. Paul's School and Magdalen Coll., Oxford. m. Harriette May Shettle of Eye, Suffolk, Joined I.C.S., 1901. Served in Bengal to 1910. Transferred to Bihar and Orissa. Sec. to Govt. in Financial and Municipal Dept., 1917. *Address*: Ranchi, Bihar and Orissa.

SIKKIM, MAHARAJA OF, H. H. MAHARAJA SIR TASHI NAMGYAL, K.C.I.E. (1923) b. 26 Oct. 1893; s. of late Maharaja Sir Thutob Namgyal, K.C.I.E. of Sikkim, m. grand daughter of Lonchen Sholkhang (Regent of Tibet). *Educ.*: Mayo Coll., Ajmer; St. Paul's Sch., Darjeeling. *Address*: The Palace, Gangtok, Sikkim.

SIM, GEORGE GALL, M.A., C.I.E. (1920), Financial Commissioner (Railways) b. 12 Jan. 1878, m. Margaret, d. of G. Strachen,

Aberdeen. Educ.: King's Coll., Aberdeen University and Christ Church, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1901; served in U.P. as Asstt. Magt. and Collr., Under-Secretary to Govt., Chairman, Cawnpore Municipal Board; Dy. Commissioner; Financial Secretary to Government; U. P., has served under the Government of India since Jan. 1920. Member; Board of Inland Revenue, 1922. *Address*: United Service Club, Simla.

SIMLA, ARCHBISHOP OF, since 1911, MOST REV. ANSELM, E. J. KENEALY; b. 1864. Entd. Franciscan Order, 1879; Priest, 1887, Guardian of Franciscans, Crawley, Sussex, 1899; Minister Provincial for England, 1902; first Rector of the Franciscan College, Cowley, Oxford, 1906; elected life member of Oxford Union, 1907; Desinitor-General representing English-speaking provinces 1908, Visitation-General, Irish Province, 1910. *Address*: Archbishop of Home, Simla E.

SIMONSEN, JOHN LONEL, F.I.C.; D.Sc. (Manchester), F.A.S.B., K.I.H. Silver Medal, 1921. Prof. of Chem. Presidency Coll., Madras, 1910-18; Dy. Controller, Ind. Mun. Board, 1918-19; Forest Chemist, 1919; b. 22 Jan. 1884; m. 1913, Janet Dick Hendrie, M.B., Ch. B., L.M. *Educ.*: Manchester G. S. and Univ.; Pres. Chem. Section Ind. Sc. Congress, 1917. *Publications*: Numerous papers in the Transaction of Chemical Society of London and Indian Forest Records. *Address*: Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun.

SINGH, LT.-COL. BAWA JIWAN, C.I.E. (1918); I.M.S. (ret'd). b. 6 May 1863. Educ.: Government and Medical Colleges, Lahore and St. Thomas' Hospital Medical Schools, London. Joined I.M.S. 1891. Served in Military Department to 1896; Civil Surgeon, Melktila, 1896; Secretary, I.G. Prisons, with Civil Medical Administration, Burma, 1897-1899; Supdt., Central Jail, Insels, Burma from 1899 to 1909; Inspector-Genl. of Prisons, E. Bengal and Assam, 1910-1912; Inspector-Genl. of Prisons, Behar and Orissa, from 1912-1920, Director, Medical and Sanitation Departments, H. E. H. The Nizam's Govt., 1920-23, and Director, Medical, Sanitation and Jail Depts., H. E. H. the Nizam's Govt., 1923-24. *Address*: Ranchi, Chotanagpur.

SINGH, GAYA PRASAD, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., Pleader, Muzaffarpur. Educ.: Muzaffarpur and Calcutta. Was a sub-deputy magistrate and collector for a few years but resigned subsequently; now practising as a pleader; was a member of the Muzaffarpur Municipal Board. *Publication*: "Pictorial Kashmir." *Address*: Muzaffarpur (Bihar).

SINGH, SARDAR GULAB, M.L.A., Managing Director, Punjab Zemindars' Bank, Ltd., Lyallpur, and Landlord, b. March 1866. m. d. of Dr. Sardar Jawahir Singh Reils of Lyallpur. Educ.: Government Coll., Lahore. Headmaster, Govt. Sandeman High School, Quetta, for 10 years; Member, Lyallpur and Quetta Municipalities and Dist. Board, Lyallpur, and Pres. of several co-operative credit societies and associations and elected as member of Legislative Assembly, 1920, and re-elected in 1923. Hon. Magt., Lyallpur, for 9 years. *Address*: Bhawana Bazar, Lyallpur, Punjab.

SINGH, RAJA SURJ BAKSH, O.B.E. (1919), Taluqdar of Oudh, b. 15 Sept. 1868. m. grand daughter of Raja Gangaram Shah of Khairgarh (Oudh). *Educ.*: at Sitapur and Lucknow. Hon. Magt.; Hon. Munsiff; Vice-President, British Indian Assn. of Taluquards of Oudh. Member, Leg. Assembly. *Publication*: "A Taluqdar of the Old School" by "Heliolodorus" and "Arbitration." *Address*: Kamalpur P. O., Sitapur Dist. (U.P.).

SINGH, THE HON. SIEDAR JOGENDRA, Member of Council of State, Taluqdar, Aira Estate, Khari District, b. 25 May 1877. Contributes to several papers in India and England. Has been Home Minister, Patiala State. Fellow of the Punjab Univ.; Presdt. of Sikh Educ. Confee., served on Indian Sugar Committee, Editor of *East and West*. *Publication*: Nurjehan; Nasrin, Life of B.M. Malabari. *Address*: Aira Holme, Simla (East.)

SINGH, KUNWAR MAHARAJ, M.A. (Oxford), Bar-at-Law, C.I.E., Deputy Commissioner, Bahvel, (1923). b. 17 May 1878. m. to Miss Maya Das, d. of the late Rai Bahadur Maya Das of Ferozpur (Punjab). *Educ.*: Harrow Ball. Coll., Oxford; Bar-at-Law, Middle Temple, 1902. Ent. Prov. C.S.U.P. as Dy. Coll., 1904; Sen. Asst. Sec. to Govt. of India, Dept. of Education, 1915; Mag. and Collr. of Hamirpur, U.P., 1917. Dy. Commissioner and Collector, U.P., 1917-19; Secy. to U.P. Govt., 1919; Dy. Secretary, Govt. of India, Education Dept., 1920-23. *Publications*: Annual Report on Co-operative Credit Societies in the U.P., 1908-1909, and various contributions to the press. *Address*: The Manor, Simla.

SINGH, SIR RAMESHAR, G.C.I.E., K.B.E., D.Litt., Maharajahdiraja of Darbhanga; Mem. Exc. Council, Bihar and Orissa, since 1912; Mem. of Imp. Council, 1899-1900 b. 16 Jan. 1860 twice married; two s. one d. b. Maharaja Bahadur Sir Lakshmeshwar Singh, G.C.I.E., made hereditary Maharaja Bahadur, 1907; hereditary Maharajahdiraja, 1920; *Educ.*: Queen's Coll., Benares; privately; Life-Pres., Behar Landholders Assoc., Malthel Mahasabha Bharat Dharma Mahamandal and also Pres., Hindu Univ. Soc., Behar Panchayat Assoc., etc. A member of the Indian Police Commission and of Indian Famine Trust; Pres., Prince of Wales Reception Committee for Bengal, 1905; Indian Industrial Conference, 1908; Religious Convention held at Calcutta, 1910 and Allahabad, 1911; All-India Hindu Conference, April 1915, All-India Landholders' Assoc. and Bengal Landholders' Assoc., Member, Council of State, since 1920. *Address*: Darbhanga.

SINGH, COL. MAHARAJ, SRI SIR BHAIKUN BHABHUR, K.C.S.I., A.D.C.; Vice-Pres. of State Council; b. 1879; s. of Maharaj Sri Khet Singhji and c. of H. H. the Maharaja of Bikaner. *Educ.*: Mayo Col., Ajmer. *Address*: Bikaner.

SINGH, THE HON. RAJA SIR RAMPAL, K.C.I.E. (1916), Member, Council of State, Taluqdar, b. 7 Aug. 1867 m. niece of Thakur Jagannohan Singh, late Taluqdar of Dhanawan Estate in

Gonda Dist. Educ.: at Rae Bareilly High School and M.A.O. College, Aligarh. President-elect of the second U. P. Social Conference held in Lucknow in 1908 and of All India Social Conference in 1910; presided over 5th All India Hindu Conference at Delhi in 1918; elected President, British Indian Association of Oudh, in 1921 and was re-elected in 1924. Was Fellow of Allahabad Univ. until 1909 and is Secretary of Khattryia College, Lucknow; Member of the Executive Committee of the Lucknow University and of the Court of the Hindu University of Benares. President of the Trust for the Bhadri Estate and of the Board of Directors of Mahaluxmi Sugar Corporation, Lucknow, also Director of the Allahabad Bank. *Publications*: Pamphlets entitled "Talugdars and the British Indian Association" (1917), and "Talugdars and the Amendment of Oudh Rent Law (1921); and contributions to the press on social, political and religious topics." *Address*: Kurri Sudauli Raj, Dist. Rae Bareilly. Oudh.

SINGH, PRINCE VICTOR D. *see* Duleep Singh.

SINHA, BROHAR BAGHUBAR, Member, Legislative Assembly; Zamindar and Jagirdar. Educ. Government College, Jubbulpore. Hon. Magt., 2nd Class, sitting singly, has been member of the C.P. Council on behalf of Zamindars for two terms; elected Member, Legislative Assembly on behalf of C.P. Zamindars. *Publications*: Hindi Shastra Siddhanta Sar. *Address*: Jubbulpore.

SINHA, KUMAR GANGANAND, M.A. (1921); M.L.A., Hon. Research Scholar of the Calcutta University, Proprietor, Srinagar Raj, b. 24 Sept. 1898. Educ.: at Monghyr Zilla School (1907-10); Purnea Zilla School, Presidency College (Calcutta); Government Sanskrit Coll., Calcutta; and Post-Graduate Department, Calcutta University. Elected to the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland in 1921; Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1922, Bihar and Orissa Research Society in 1924 and to the Fellowship of the Royal Society for the encouragement of arts, manufacture and commerce, etc., in 1923; a commissioner of the Purnea municipality and a member of the Purnea District Board and President of the Social and Religious Department of the Malthill Sammelana; one of the founders of the Nationalist Party in the Legislative Assembly. *Publications*: "The Place of Videha in the Ancient and the Mediaeval India" (read in the Second Oriental Conference); "A Note on the Jangala Desha"; and "Discovery of Bengali Dramas in Nepal" (published in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal); joint editor of the typical selections from Malthill proposed to be published by the Calcutta University and author of several works under preparation. *Address*: "Srinagar Darbar," P.O. Srinagar, Dist. Purnea, (Bihar).

SINHA, THE HON. LALA SUKHNIR, Landlord and Jagirdar, b. 5 Jan. 1863. Educ. Agra College. Member, U. P. Legislative Council, from 1909-1920 when elected to the Council of State from the four Northern Divisions of the Agra Province; Genl. Secry.,

All-India Hindu Sabha; Hon. Secretary, Meerut College; Hon. Secry., U.P. Zamindar Association; President, Rishikul Asram and Ayurvedic College, Haridwar. Member (1) Indian Central Cotton Committee, (2) Advisory Committee in the Agriculture and Rev. Dept., Govt. of India, (3) Board of Agriculture, U.P., (4) Board of Management, Agricultural College, Cawnpore, (5) President, Edward High School Muzaffarnagar, and (6) Member, Harwar Improvement Committee. *Publications*: Translation of the "Gita" and "Yoga Patanjali" in Hindi. *Address*: "Anandbhawan," Muzaffarnagar, U.P.

SINHA, NARENDRA PRASANNA, Major, I.M.S., retired; Consulting Physician; Mem., Advisory Council, India Office; b. 30 Sept. 1853. Educ.: Calcutta; Univ. Coll., London. Ent. I.M.S., 1880; retired 1903.

SINHA, THE HON. MR. SACHCHIDANANDA, Barrister, Member, Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa, 1921; also President of Legislative Council 1921-22. b. 10 Nov. 1871, m. the late Srimati Radhika, d. of the late Mr. Sewa Ram, of Lahore. Educ.: Patna College and City College, Calcutta. Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1893; Advocate, Calcutta High Court, 1893; Allahabad High Court, 1896; Patna High Court, 1916. Founded and since edited *The Hindustan Review*, 1899. Twice Elected Member, Imperial Legislative Council, Elected Legislative Assembly, 1920, also elected its first Deputy President, Feb. 1921. Established and endowed in 1924 the Srimati Radhika Institute in memory of his wife, which building contains, besides the largest public hall in Patna, the Sachchidananda Sinha Library, a splendid collection of classical and current works in English. *Publication*: "The Partition of Bengal or the Separation of Behar." *Address*: Patna, Behar and 7, Elgin Road, Allahabad.

SINHA, SATYENDRA PRASANNA, FIRST BARON, P.C., K.C.; raised to Peerage (1st Indian), K.C.S.I. (1921); b. 1864; Educ.: Birbhoom Zilla Sch.; Presidency Coll., Calcutta; Lincoln's Inn; called to Bar, 1886; Barrister, Calcutta H.C.; Standing Counsel, Govt. of India, 1903; Adv. Gen., Bengal, 1907-9 and 1916-17; Law Member, Viceroy's Executive Council, 1909-10; Member, Bengal Executive Council, 1917-18; Representative of India in Imp. War. Conf. 1917 and in 1918. Freeman of City of London, 1917; App. Representative of India at Peace Conference. Under Secretary of State for India, 1919-20. Governor of Behar and Orissa, 1921-22; *Address*: Calcutta.

SIRMOOR, LIEUT.-COL. H. H. MAHARAJA SIR AMAR PRAKASH BAHADUR, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., b. 26 Jan. 1888, m. d. of the late His Excellency Maharaja Deb Shamsher Jung, Rana Bahadur ex-Prime Minister of Nepal in 1910. Educ.: under European and Indian Private tutors. *Address*: Sirmoor, Nahan.

SIROHI, H. H. MAHARAJA DHIRAJ, MAHARAO SARUP RAM SINGH BAHADUR, b. Sept. 27, 1888. s. to the gadi, April 29, 1920. *Address*: Sirohi, Rajputana.

SITAMAU, H. H. SIR RAJA RAM SINGH, RAJA OF K.O.I.E.; b. 1880; descended from Rathor House of Kachi Baroda. m. thrice. Educ.: Daily Coll., Indore, Hindi and Sanskrit poet, and keen student of science and ancient and modern philosophy, is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. S. by selection by Govt. of India in default of direct issue, 1900. *Address*: Ramnivas Palace, Sitamau, C.I.

SIVAGNANAM PILLAI, THE HON. DEWAN BAHADUR TINNEVELLY NELLAIAPPA, B.A., Minister of Development, Madras, b. 1 April 1861. Educ.: Madras Christian College. Service under Government; Retired as Dy. Collector; President, Dist. Board, Tinnevely, 1920-1923. *Address*: "The Hermitage," Mylapore, Madras.

SIVASWAMI AYYAR, SIR P. S., K.C.S.I., 1915. U.S.I. (1912); C.I.E. (1908). M.L.A. Retd. Member, Executive Council, Madras; b. 7 Feb. 1864. m.; no c.; Educ.: S. P. G. College, Tanjore; Government College, Kumbakonam; Presidency College, and Law College, Madras; High Court Vakill, 1885; Asst. Professor, Law College, Madras, 1893-99; Joint Editor, Madras Law Journal, 1893-1907; first Indian Representative of the University of Madras in the Madras Legislative Council, 1904-07; Advocate General, 1907; Member of Executive Council, Madras, 1912-17; Vice-Chancellor, University of Madras, 1916-18; Vice-Chancellor of Benares Hindu University, 1918-19, Elected to the Indian Legislative Assembly by the districts of Tanjore and Trichinopoly, 1920; President of the Second Session of the National Liberal Federation at Calcutta, 1919; Member of the Indian Delegation at the Third Session of the Assembly of the League of Nations at Geneva, 1922; Nominated Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1924. *Address*: Sudharma, Edward Elliot Road, Mylapore, Madras.

SLOCOCK, FRANCIS SAMUEL ALFRED, C.I.E. Educ.: Marlborough; Trinity Coll., Oxford, Ent. I.C.S., 1889; served Madras and C.P. Ch. Sec. Ch. to Commr. 1906; Insp. Genl. of Police, C. P., 1908-14; Sp. duty, Govt. of India, Home Dept., 1914-16; Ch. Sec. to Ch. Commr., C. P. and Addl. Mem., Imp. Leg. Council. *Address*: Nagpur.

SMITH, SIR HENRY MONCRIEFF, KT. (1923). C.I.E. (1920), President, Council of State (Dec. 1924) b. Dec. 23, 1873. Educ.: Blundell's School, Tiverton, Sidney, Sussex Coll., Cambridge, I.C.S., 1897. Asst. Commr., in U.P. Dist. and Sessions Judge, 1903; Addl. Sec. to U.P. Govt., 1914; Dy. Sec. to Govt. of India, 1915; Joint Sec., 1919. Secretary, Council of State, 1921-23. Sec. to Govt. of India, Leg. Dept., and Secretary, Leg. Assembly, 1921-24. *Address*: Simla or Delhi.

SMITH SIR THOMAS, KT. (1921). V. D. (1914). Chevalier of the Order of the Crown (Belgium) (1919), Managing Director, Muir Mills Co., Ltd., Cawnpore, b. 28 Aug. 1875. m. Elsie Maud, d. of Sir Henry Ledgard in 1907; 2 s. 1 d. Member of the Hunter Committee on

Punjab disorders, 1919. Presdt., Upper India Chamber of Commerce, 1918-1921; Member, U. P. Leg. Council, 1918-24; Fellow of Allahabad University, 1913-22; Com. mandant, 16th Cawnpore Rifles, 1913-22. *Address*: Westfield, Cawnpore.

SORABJI, CORNELIA; Kaiser-i-Hind Gold 1st class medal (1909). Legal Adviser to Purnahishins, Court of Wards, Bengal, Behar and Orissa, and Assam, and Consulting Counsel. Educ.: Somerville Coll., Oxford; Lee and Pemberton, Lincoln's Inn Fields, London; Bachelor of Civil Law Examination Oxford, 1893; obtained special privileges, Lincoln's Inn, London, 1903; propounded in 1902 scheme to India Office for connecting Woman Council with Prov. Exec. Govts. of India; in 1904 app. by Govt. of Bengal to position she now holds. *Publications*: *Sun-Babies* (1904); *Between the Twilight* (1908); *The Purnahishin* (1918); *Sun-Babies* (2nd Series Illustrated) 1920; contributions to the *Nineteenth Century*, *Westminster Gazette*, *The Times* and other newspapers and Magazines. *Address*: Board of Revenue, Calcutta.

SPENCER, HON. SIR JUSTICE CHARLES GORDON, KT. (1925). I.C.S., Bar-at-Law, Puisne Judge of Madras High Court, since 1914; b. 23 Feb. 1869. Educ.: Marlborough; Keble Coll., Oxford; Lincoln's Inn. Ent. I.C.S., 1888; *Address*: Rutland Gate, Nungunbaukum, Madras.

SRINIVASA RAO, RAI BAHADUR PATRI VENKATA, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakill, Guntur, and Member, Legis. Assembly, b. 1877. m. to d. of Rao Bahadur Baru Ramanarsa Pantulu Garu. Educ.: Town High School and Noble College, Masulipatam, and Christian Coll. and Law Coll., Madras. Joined Cocanada Bar, 1903, and Guntur Bar in 1906. Vice-President, Guntur Dist. Board, for 6 years; was Municipal Councillor for some years; was member, Kistna Flood Committee; Secretary of the First Dt. Congress Committee. *Address*: Guntur.

STANDEN, BERTRAM PRIOR, C.S.I. (1920); C.I.E., Commr., Berar Div., C.P. since 1915; b. 1867. Educ.: Uppingham, Trinity Coll., Camb. Ent. I.C.S., 1886, Ch. Sec. to Ch. Commissioner, 1908-11; Member, Prov. Leg. Council. *Address*: Amraoti.

STANDLEY, ALFRED WILLIAM EVANS, Associate of Coopers Hill College, Member of Council of the Institution of Engineers (India); Chief Engineer and Secretary, P. W. D., Bikaner State, b. 20 Nov. 1866. m. Una, d. of H. F. D. Bunington, I.C.S. (ret'd). Educ.: Royal College of Mauritius and then at Royal Indian Engineering Coll., Coopers Hill. Joined P. W. D. in U.P., Irrigation Branch, as Asst. Engineer in 1891; Construction of Gangao Dam, Upper E. J. Canal in 1895; services lent to Benares Municipality in 1896 as Resident Engineer for construction of drainage and sewerage and water-works. Promoted Ex. Engineer in 1899; services lent to Bikaner State, 1903-06, during which several irrigation schemes, water works and central electric power station were designed and constructed; also originated the investigation of the feasibility of irrigating the North

tracts of the State from the Sutlej river which has eventually led to Bikaner getting a share of the water in the Sutlej Valley Project now under construction; Sanitary Engr. to Govt., U.P. in 1908 and 1909. Promoted to Superintending Engineer, 1912, and then Chief Engineer and Secretary to Government, P. W. D., Irrigation Branch, U.P. in 1918 and retired in 1921. *Publications*: Papers on "Subsoil Percolation" and "Flood Absorption of Reservoirs" in the Journal of the Institution of Engineers (India), Vol. II. *Address*: Bikaner, Rajputana.

FEIN, SIR AUREL, K.C.I.E., Ph.D., D. Litt. (Hon. Oxon.), D. Sc. (Hon. Camb.), D. O.L. (Hon. Punjab); Fellow, Brit. Acad., Correspondent de l'Institut de France, Gold Medalist, R. Geo. Soc. etc.; Indian Archaeological Survey, Officer on special duty; b. Budapest, 26 Nov. 1882. *Educ.*: Budapest and Dresden; studied Oriental Languages and Antiquities at Vienna and Tubingen Universities and in England; 1888-99, Principal, Oriental College and Registrar, Punjab University; app. to I. E. S. as Prin. of Calcutta Madrasah, 1899. Inspector-General of Education, N. W. P. and Baluchistan, 1904. Carried out archaeological explorations for Indian Govt., in Chinese Turkestan, 1900-1, and in C. Asia and W. China, 1906-08; transferred to Archaeological Survey, 1909; carried out geographical and archaeological explorations in C. Asia and Persia, 1913-16. *Publications*: *Kalhana's Chronicle of Kings of Kashmir*; Sanskrit text 1892, trans. with commentary, 2 vols., 1900; *Sand-buried Ruins of Khotan*, 1903; *Ancient Khotan*, 1908 (2 vols.); *Ruins of Desert Cathay*, 1912 (2 vols.); *Serinda*, 1921 (5 vols.); *The Thousand Buddhas*; *Memoir on Maps of Chinese Turkestan and Kansu* (2 vols.), and numerous papers on Indian and Central Asian Archaeology and Geography. *Address*: Srinagar; E. T. United Service Club, London.

EVENS, LT.-COL. CECIL ROBERT, I.M.S., M.D., B.S., Lond., F.R.C.S., Eng., Prof. of Clinical and Operative Surgery, Medical Coll., Calcutta; b. 14 Mar. 1867. *Educ.*: Malvern Univ. Coll., London; St. Bartholomew's. *Address*: 5, Middleton Street, Calcutta.

STILL, CHARLES, C.I.E.; Indigo Planter; b. 1849. *Educ.*: privately. *Address*: Sathi Factory, Chumpan.

STOKES, HOWSON GABRIEL, C.I.E., B.A.; M. Alice Henrietta, d. of the late Sir Henry Lawrence, Bart., Decr. 1922; 3rd Member, Madras Board of Revenue, 1924. Dy. Sec., Govt. of India, Home Dept., 1903-11; Fin. Dept., 1911-13; Fin. Mem., Imp. Delhi Committee, 1913-15; Priv. Sec. to Govt., of Madras 1915. Pol. Ag. Banganapally, Madras. Secy. to Madras Govt., Local and Municipal Dept., 1918-19; Administrative Adviser, Klagentfurt Plebiscite Commission, 1920; Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1921; Secy. to Madras Govt., Development Dept., 1922. *Educ.*: Clifton; Oriel Coll., Oxford, Ent. I.C.S., 1895. *Address*: c/o Binny & Co., Madras.

STONE, EDWARD WALLER, C.I.E., M.E., M.I.C.E.; M.Inst.C.E.; late Ch. Eng. of Madras Ry. (retired), 1904; 4th a. of late T.G. Stoney, J.P., of Kyle Park and Arranhill, Co. Tipperary, Ireland; m. 1875; Scholar, Gold Medalist and M.E., Queen's University, Ireland; Fellow, Madras University. *Publications*: various engineering papers. *Address*: The Gables, Coonoor.

STUART, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE LOUIS, C.I.E., I.C.S.; Puisne Judge, High Court, Allahabad, since 1922. b. 12 March 1870. *Educ.*: Charterhouse; Balliol Coll., Oxford, Ent.I.C.S., 1891; Jud. Sec. to Govt. and nom. as Mem. of U.P. Council, 1910-12. Lt.-Col. Commanding Allahabad Auxiliary Force. *Address*: Allahabad.

STUART, CAPT. MURRAY, D.Sc. (Birm.), B.Sc. (Lond.), F.G.S., F.C.S., M. Inst. P.T. Chief Geologist, Indo-Burma Oilfields (1920) Ltd. since 1921 b. 5 Nov. 1882. *Educ.*: King Edward's H. S. Birmingham and Birmingham Univ., I.E.S., Prof. of Geol. in Poona Coll. of Engineering, in addition to other duties, 1918-17. Attached Waziristan Expedition, 1919-21; attached Mahsud Expedition, 1919-20 (mentioned despatches), India General Service medal with two clasps. Retired with rank of Captain, 1920; as Prof. of Geol., Presidency Coll., Madras, 1911-14. Ag. Superintendent, Madras Government Museum and Ag. Dir., Madras Govt. Marine Aquarium, 1912; Univ. lecturer in the Madras University, 1913-14. Geo. Survey of India, 1907-1921. *Address*: Thayetmyo, Burma, and Royal Societies Club, London.

STUART-WILLIAMS, SYDNEY CHARLES, M.A. (Cantab); B.A. (London). Acting Chairman, Calcutta Port Commissioners. b. 9 May 1878; m. Feb. 1903. *Educ.*: Kingswood Sch. Bath; Univ. Coll., Aberystwyth and Trinity College, Cambridge; Private Sec. to Sir Edward Holden, 1900; Junior Sec. to Agent, E. I. Ry., 1900-03; Dy. Sec. to Agent, E. I. Ry., 1903-06; Secy. to Agent, E. I. Ry., 1906-14; Sec., Port Commissioners, Calcutta, 1914-16; Vice-Chairman, 1916. Dy. Chairman, 1921; Member, Bengal Legislative Council 1922; Acting Chairman, 1922. *Publications*: *The Economics of Railway Transport*, 1909; *Article on Indian railways in Modern Railway Practice*, 1913. History of the Port of Calcutta, 1870-1920. *Address*: Port Commissioners House, Calcutta.

SUBRAHMANYAM, RAO BAHADUR CALAGA SUNDARAYYA, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., Landowner. b. Nov. 1862. *Educ.*: Kumbakonam and Madras Presidency Colleges. Practised as Vakil at Bellary; Chairman, Bellary Municipality, 1904-10; Vice-President, District Board, Bellary, 1911-1918; Member, Liberal League, Madras; has taken interest in co-operative work and social and political movements; elected to the Legislative Assembly, 1920. Apptd. President of Bench of Hon. Magistrates Mayavaram Town; in 1923. *Publications*: Pamphlets on Bubonic Plague and Irrigation Problems of the Ceded Districts. *Address*: Mayavaram, S. India.

SUDBOROUGH, PROF. JOHN JOSEPH, Ph.D., D.Sc., F.L.C.; Prof. of Org. Chem., Ind. Inst. of Sc.; b. 11 Nov. m. Elsie Dora Bean.

1869. *Educ.*: King Edward's Sch. Camp Hill, Birmingham; Mason Coll., Birmingham; Univ. of Heidelberg; Owen's Coll., Manchester, D. Sc., London; Senior Lecturer in Chemistry, Univ. Coll., Nottingham; Prof. of Chemistry, Univ. of Wales, Aberystwyth; Director of the Edward Davies Chemical Laboratories and Dean of the Faculty of Science. *Publications*: Text-book of Organic Chemistry; Practical Organic Chemistry; numerous papers in Journal of the Chemical Society, Berichte and Journal of the Indian Institute of Science. *Address*: Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

SUKHDEO PRASAD, SIR, B.A., Rao Bahadur Gold Kaiser-i-Hind Medal (1901); C.I.E., 1902. Political Judicial and Finance Member, State Council, b. March 1862, m. Mohanji, d. of Prannath Hukko. *Educ.*: at Agra College. Deputy Supdt., Settlement, Ambala, 1885; Judicial Secretary, Marwar, 1886; Member of Council 1887; Senior Member, 1901, Minister, 1908; Udaipur Minister, 1914-18; Political and Judicial Member, Regency Council, 1922-23. Official as its Vice-President, 1920. Is Sardar of first rank with judicial powers. Holds 3 villages in Jagir of an annual rental of Rs. 25,000. *Publications*: *Famine Report, 1899-1900*. Origin of the Rathores; *Agricultural Indebtedness*. *Address*: Sukh Ashram, Jodhpur, Rajputana.

SUKHIA, DR. NADIRSHAW H. E., L.M. & S. (1883), L.V. Sc. (Spl.), F.R.S.I. (Lond.), Mun. Councillor (1901); J.P. (1911); Hon. Presy. Magte. (1913); Del., the Parsi Chief Matrimonial Court (1918); Member, Schools Committee (1918-1922); Member of the Committee, the Panchayat of the Sir J. J. Parsi Benevolent Institute (1921); Member, Government Advisory Committee, re liquor licenses for A Ward (1908); as Corporation representative (a) on Ex. Committee, of King George V Anti-Tuberculosis League (1918); (b) on Ex. Committee of Anti-Venereal League (1919); (c) on the question of Tobacco Act IV of 1857 (1923); (d) on the question of Medical Relief in the City (1924); (e) on the question of the extension of the World Sewage Outfall (1924); Member, Prince of Wales Museum Trust Board (1920-22); Member, Development Committee (1921); Member, G. I. P. Railway Advisory Committee, 1924; Physician and Sanitarian; b. 26 May 1860; married. *Educ.*: Graduate, Bombay Univ., 1883; Univ. Medl. Examr., Bombay Univ., 1895; Lecturer in Anatomy and Physiology, Govt. Vety. Coll., 1886-1890; Con. Vety. Surgeon; Assist. Surgn., Indian M. Service, 1884-90; Med. Officer in charge of H. H. ex-King Theebaw of Burma and Suite and Ag. Civil Surgn., Ratnagiri (1886); Mem., Standing Committee, Bombay Mun. Corp., (1911 to 1918). *Publications*: Persian Translation of Esop's Fables, Pickings from the Avesta, Juddin controversy, Comparative Anatomy of the Domesticated Quadrupeds and Notes (minutes, etc.) on various Municipal Matters, the Municipal Act and law of Public Meetings. *Address*: Sukhia Buildings, Cowasji Patel Street, Bombay.

SULTAN AHMAD KHAN, SIRDAR SAHIBZADA MUNTAZIM-UD-Daula, C.I.E. (1924), M.A.,

LL.M. (Cantab), Barrister-at-Law, son of Intiaz-Ud-daula Nawab Ghulam Ahmad Khan Bahadur Ahmadi; Appeal Member since 1918; b. 1869; m. 1912, Lucy Pelling Hall, of Bristol. *Educ.*: at the Aligarh Mahomedan Anglo-Oriental College and Christ's College, Cambridge (called to the Bar at the Inner Temple, London, April 1894; B.A., LL.B. June, 1894, M.A., and LL.M., 1909); was Chief Justice, Gwalior State, 1905-9, Law Member of Council, 1909-12, Finance Member, 1912-16, and Army Member, 1917; a Member of the Hunter Committee to inquire into causes of Disturbances in Delhi, Punjab, and Bombay, 1919-20. *Address*: Gwalior, India.

SURAJ SINGH, CAPTAIN BAHADUR, I.O.M., Marshal of the Legislative Assembly. b. 10 Feb. 1878. m. Ratanpour. *Educ.*: under private tutors. Entered army in 1893; as a private soldier served in Somaliland 1903-04; mentioned for good service, Viceroy's Commission 1907; served as Indian Staff Officer of the Cavalry School, Saugor, 1910-14 and 1919-21; served on the staff of General M. F. Remington, Commander of the Indian Cavalry Corps in France 1914-16, France to 1918, Egypt and Palestine to 1919; Afghan War 1919; retired on amalgamation of the Forces in 1921; granted hon. rank of Captain 1923; apptd. Marshal of Indian Legislative Assembly 1921. *Publications*: *Khalat Marcus Aurelius* (Thoughts of Marcus Aurelius in Urdu); *Guide to Physical Training for Youths*; Other Military books in 1901, 1907, 1910 and 1911. *Address*: Kucha Khali, Katra Karam Singh, Amritsar.

SUTHERLAND, LIEUT.-COL. DAVID WATERS, C.I.E., V.H.S., I.M.S.; Prof. of Medicine, Med. Coll., Lahore, 6 Australia, 18 Dec. 1871, m. 1915, Princess Bamba Duleep Singh, d. of late Maharaja Duleep Singh. *Educ.*: Melbourne and Edinburgh Univ. M.D. (Edin.), M.B. C.M. (Edin.), F.R.C.P. (Lond.), F.R.S. (Edin.). Fell. Roy. Soc., Med., London. *Address*: 28, Jall Road, Lahore.

SWAIN, WALTER, C.I.E. (1922), M.L.C., Inspector-General of Police, Behar, 1923. b. Jan. 17, 1876. m. Annie Matilde, sec. d. of Chas. Fox, Esq., of Carse-of-Gowrie, Scotland. *Educ.*: Boston, Grammar School. Assistant Superintendent of Police, 1895; Supdt. of Police, 1906; Dy. Inspector-General of Police, 1919; Offg. Insp.-Genl. of Police, 1920; Delhi Durbar Medal, 1912; Volunteer Long Service Medal, 1919, King's Police Medal, 1918. *Publications*: "Instructions for Constables" (1901) in English, Kahlil and Bengali; "Advice on the Construction of Police Buildings" (1921). *Address*: The Imperial Bank of India, Patna, E.I.R.

SWAMIKANNU, PILAL LOUIS DOMINIO, M.A., B.L., LL.B. (London), C.I.E. (1924); Diwan Bahadur (1909); I.S.O. (1917); President, Madras Legislative Council. b. 4 Feb. 1885. *Educ.*: St. Joseph's College, Negapatam; Assistant and Lecturer, St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, 1883-1837; Clerk to the Legislative Council and French Translator, Chief Secretariat, Fort St. George, 1888-1890; Latin Master, Presidency College, Madras, 1890-91; Deputy Collector and

Magistrate, 1892-95; Fellow of Madras University, 1900; Asstt. Secretary, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1895-1906; Chairman, Board of Examiners to Madras University in Greek, Latin, French and German, 1903-17; Secretary, Board of Revenue, Revenue Settlement, Madras, 1906-11; Registrar of Co-operative Societies, 1911-1917; Collector and District Magistrate, 1917-1919; Secretary to Government and Director of Agriculture, 1920; Secretary, Legislative Council, 1920-23. Deputed to England to study House of Commons Procedure, April to July 1922; President, Madras Legislative Council, 1924. *Publications*: *Indian Chronology*, 1911; 2nd Edn. 1922; *Indian Ephemeris A. D. 1800—2000*; published 1915; 2nd Edn. 1922; *Indian Ephemeris A. D. 700—1800*, 6 Vols. (Madras Government publication 1922); Various articles in *Indian Antiquary and Epigraphia Indica* on Indian Chronology; Credibility of Indian Astrology, 1922; Maximum Age of Dhruva Nadi, 1923; and Secret of Memory, 1909. *Address*: "Roseville," Royapuram, Madras.

SYED MOHAMMED FAKHRUDDIN, The Hon. KHAN BAHADUR, B.A., B.L., Minister of Education, Bihar and Orissa. b. 1870. m. Musammatt Kaniz Banoo of Shaikhupura. *Educ.*: at Patna. Practised as a vakil in the mofussil courts and then in the Patna High Court, was the first Government Pleader in the Patna High Court; Member, Legislative Council, Bengal in the first reformed Council under Morley-Minto Reforms Scheme; Served two terms in the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council. *Address*: Muradpur, Patna.

SYED, SIR ALI IMAM, K.C.S.I. (1914), O.S.I. (1911) b. Neora (Patna), 11 Feb. 1869; s. of Nawab Syed Imad Imam, Shamsululama; m. 1891; five s. four d. Called to bar, Middle Temple, 1890; Standing Council, Calcutta High Court; President, 1st Session of the All-India Moslem League held at Amritsar, 1908, Mem., Moslem League Depn. to England, 1909; member of Governor's Legislative Council, Bengal, 1910; Fellow of Calcutta University, 1908-12; Law Member of Governor-General's Council, 1910-16; Puisne Judge of Patna High Court, 1917; Member, Executive Council of Behar and Orissa, 1918; President, Executive Council of the Government of the Nizam of Hyderabad, 1919; First Indian Representative to sit at the first meeting of the League of Nations, Nov. 1920. *Address*: Mariam Munzil, Patna; also Bella Vista, Hyderabad (Deccan).

SYED RAZA ALI, The Hon. B.A., LL.B. (Allahabad Univ.); Member, Council of State, Vakil of the High Court, Allahabad. b. 29 April 1882. m. d. of his mother's first cousin. *Educ.*: Government High School, Moradabad and Mahomedan College, Aligarh. Started practice at Moradabad in 1908 and was a radical in politics; returned to U.P. Legis. Council 1912; took prominent part in Cawnpore Mosque agitation; elected Trustee of Aligarh College; gave evidence before Illington Commission and Southborough Committee; returned unopposed to U.P. Council, in 1916 and 1920; was one of those responsible for introducing separate Moslem

representation in Municipal Boards in U.P.; took active part in negotiating the Congress League Compact in 1916; same year settled at Allahabad; identified himself with Swaraj and Khilafat movements but strongly differing from non-co-operation programme; became independent in politics in 1920; elected member of Council of State in 1921; elected member of Delhi University Court; was member of North West Inquiry Committee and signed majority report; headed two deputations of Moslem members of Indian Legislature to Viceroy in 1922 and 1923 in connection with Turkish question; gave non-party evidence before Reforms Inquiry Committee in 1924; has great faith in social reform and Western education, President, All-India Moslem League, Bombay Session, Decr. 1924. *Publications*: Essays on Moslem Questions (1912). *Address*: 2, Elgin Road, Allahabad.

TAGORE, ABANINDRA NATH, C.I.E.; Vice-Prin., Govt. Sch. of Art, Calcutta, since 1905; *Temindar* of Shazadpur, Bengal; b. 1871. *Educ.*: Sanskrit Coll., Calcutta, and at home. Designed Memorial Address to Lady Curzon. Casket presented to King by Corp. of Calcutta, 1911; principal work consists in reviving School of Indian Art. *Address*: 5, Dwarkanath Tagore's Lane, Calcutta.

TAGORE, MAHARAJA BAHADUR SIR PRADYOT GOOMAR, Kt.; b. 17 September 1873. *Educ.*: Hindu Sch., Calcutta; afterwards privately: Sheriff of Calcutta, 1909; Trustee, Victoria Mem. Hall; Trustee, Indian Museum; Mem. of Asiatic Soc. of Bengal; formerly Mem., Bengal Council. *Address*: Calcutta.

TAGORE, SIR RABINDRANATH, Kt., D.Lit. (Calcutta Univ.); b. 1861. *Educ.*: privately. Lived at Calcutta first; went to country at age of 24 to take charge of his father's estates; there he wrote many of his works; at age of 40 founded school at Shantiniketan, Bolpur; this has been his life-work ever since; visited England, 1912, and translated some of his Bengali works into English; Nobel Prize for Literature, 1913. *Publications*: In Bengali—about 30 poetical works, and 28 prose works, including novels, short stories, essays, sermons, dramas, etc. In English—Gitanjali, The Gardener, Sadhana, The Crescent Moon, Chitra, The King of the Dark Chamber; The Post Office, a Play, 1914; Fruit Gathering; Nationalism, 1917; Personality, 1918; Stray Birds, 1919; Sacrifice, 1919; Lover's Gift, 1919; Reminiscences, 1919; The Wreck, 1921; Creative Unity; The Fugitive, 1922. *Address*: Shantiniketan, Bolpur.

TANNAN, MOHAN LAL, B. Com. (Birm.). Barr-at-Law, I.E.S., J.P., Principal, Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay. b. 2 May 1885. m. Miss C. Chopra. *Educ.*: at Govt. High School, Gujrat, Forman Christian Coll., Lahore and the University of Birmingham. Official Liquidator of the Industrial Bank of India, Ltd., in liquidation and the Jt. Official Liquidator the Indian Army Uniforms Supplying Co., Ltd., in liquidation (both of Ludhiana, Punjab). Vice-President, the Indian Economic Society, 1921-23; Member of the Finance Sub-Committee of the Indian Merchants' Chamber

and Bureau, Bombay (1921-22); Syndic of the Bombay University, 1923-24 and 1924; Secretary, Accountancy Diploma Board, Bombay, from 1st March 1923; Director, Bombay Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Bombay, 1924; Member, Auditors' Council, Bombay; Principal and Prof. of Banking, the Sydenham Coll. of Commerce and Economics, Bombay; Chairman, Ex. Committee of the Seventh Indian Economic Conf., (Bombay). *Publications*: "Indian Currency and Banking Problems" jointly with Prof. K. T. Shah, B.A. (Bom.), B.Sc. (Econ.) London and several pamphlets such as the "Banking Needs of India," "Indian Currency and the War," etc. *Address*: The Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Hornby Road, Bombay.

TASADDUK RASUL KHAN, RAJA SIR, K.C.F.I.; Taluqdar of Jehangirabad, Mem. of U.P. Council; Mem. B. I. Assoc., Oudh; awarded Ewold of Honour for war services 1919. *Address*: Jehangirabad Raj, Dist. Bara Banki.

TATA, SIR DORABJI JAMSETJI, Kt., J.P., senr. partner, Tata Sons, Ld. b. 27 Aug. 1859; s. of late Jamsetji Nusserwanji Tata, m. 1898, Meherbai, d. of H. J. Bhabha. *Educ.*: Calcutt Coll. (Hon. Fellow), Camb.; Bombay Univ. *Address*: "Esplanade House," Waudby Road, Bombay.

TAVEGGIA, RT. REV. SANTINO; Bishop of Krishnagar, since 1906; b. Italy, 1855. Went to India, 1879. *Address*: Krishnagar.

TAW SEIN KO, C.I.E., I.S.O., K.I.H., M.L.C. (1923); Examiner in Chinese, Burma, since 1906; b. 7 Dec. 1864. *Educ.*: Christ's Coll., Camb.; Burmese and Palli Lecturer, Rangoon Coll., 1882-85; Asst. Sec. to Govt. of Burma, 1889-01; Burmese Lecturer, Cambridge, 1892-93; Suppl., Archaeological Survey, Burma Circle, 1899-1919. *Publications*: Burmese Sketches, Vols. I and II; Selections from the Records of the Huttaw; Translation of Maha Janaka Jataka; Elementary Handbook of the Burmese Language. *Address*: Peking Lodge, Mandalay.

TEGART, CHARLES AUGUSTUS, C.I.E., M.V.O., Indian Police; officiated as Dy. Insp.-Gen. of Police, Calcutta b. 1881. *Educ.*: Portora Royal Sch., Ennis-killen; Trinity Coll., Dublin. Joined Indian Police, 1901.

TEHRI, CAPTAIN H.H. RAJA NARENDRA SHAH SAHEB BAHADUR, C.S.I., of Tehri-Garhwal State. b. 3 Aug. 1898. Succeeded 1913. *Educ.*: Mayo Coll., Ajmer. *Address*: Tehri, Garhwal State.

THAKUR, RAO BAHADUR KASHINATH KESHAV, I.S.O.; Sen. Div. and Sess. Judge, Nagpur, since 1911; b. 15 Feb. 1860. *Educ.*: Saugor and Jabulpore H. S.; Muir Central Coll., Allahabad. *Address*: Nagpur.

THOMPSON, JOHN PERONET, O.S.I. (1919); Political Secretary, Foreign and Political Department, b. 8 March 1873, m. Ada Lucia, d. of the late R. Y. Tyrrell, Litt. D. Senr. Fellow, Trinity Coll., Dublin. *Educ.*: Leeds Gr. Sch. and Trin. Coll., Cambridge. 1st Class Classical Tripos. President of the Union (1895). Entered I.C.S., 1897. Revenue Sec. to Punjab Govt., 1913. Ch. Sec. 1916.

Mem. of Indian Leg. Council, 1918-19. Member of Reforms Committee, 1918-19. President, Railway Police Committee, 1921; Member of Council of State and Secretary of the Chamber of Princes, 1922. Secretary to the Orders of the Star of India and Indian Empire (1922), formerly President, Punjab Historical Society and Fellow and Syndic of the Punjab University. *Address*: Delhi or U. S. Club, Simla.

THORNTON, HUGH AYMER, C.I.E., B.A., I.C.S.; Commissioner. *Educ.*: Cheltenham, Christ Church, Oxford (B.A.). Ent. I.C.S. 1895. *Address*: Farnside, Maymyo.

THULRAI, TALUQDAR OF, RANA SIR SHEORAJ SINGH BAHADUR OF KHAJURGUAON, K.C.I.E.; Raj Bareilly District; b. 1865; m. 1st, d. of Bahi Amarjit Singh, v. b. of the Raja of Bahjoni; 2nd, d. of Raja Somesurdatt Singh, a Raja of Kundwar; 3rd, d. of the Raja of Bijapur District. *Educ.*: Govt. H. S., Raj Bareilly. S. father, 1897; descended from King Sahvahan, whose Sumvat Era is current in India. *Heir*: Kunwar Lal Elma Natli Singh Bahadur. *Address*: Thulrai, Khajurguaon.

TODHUNTER, SIR CHARLES GEORGE, K.C.S.I. (1921), O.B.E., K.-I.-H. Member of Executive Council, Madras, b. 16 Feb. 1869. *Educ.*: Aldenham Sch., and King's Coll., Cambridge, Member's prizeman, Cambridge University, 1888; m. Alice, d. of Captain C. Losack, 93rd Highlanders. Served in I.C.S., Madras; also conducted special inquiries into Customs and Excise matters in Kashmir, the O. P. and C. I. States. Sec., India Excise Committee, 1906. I.G. of Excise and Salt to the Govt. of India, 1909-12. President, Life Saving Appliances Committee, 1913; Secretary to Govt. of Madras, 1915; Member of Board of Revenue, 1916; Member of Council, 1919. *Address*: The Hermitage, Mylapore, Madras.

TOFT, COMMISSIONER JAMES, Salvation Army, Territorial Commander, Northern Territory. Has served in all Scandinavian Countries and U.S.A. Arrived in India, 1921. *Address*: Ferozepur Road, Lahore.

TOLLINTON, HENRY PHILLIPS, C.I.E., I.C.S.; Commissioner, Lahore. *Educ.*: Lamington Coll., Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1893. *Address*: Lahore.

TOMKINS, LIONEL LINTON, C.I.E.; Inspector-Genl. of Police, Punjab, since 1922; Ent. India Police Dept. in 1891; Dy. Insp.-Genl. of Police, Punjab, 1914-1922. *Address*: Lahore.

TONK, H. H. AMIN-UD-DAULA WAZIRUL MULK, NAWAB SIR HAFIZ MUHAMMAD IBRAHIM ALI KHAN BAHADUR SAULAT JANG, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.; b. 1848; 1847. S. State has area of 2,559 sq. miles and population of over 287,898. *Address*: Tonk.

TRAYANCORE AND COCHIN, SOUTH INDIA. BISHOP OF, since 1905, RT. REV. CHARLES HOPE GILL, M.A., D.D.; b. 11 Feb. 1861. *Educ.*: St. Edmund's Sch., Canterbury; King William's Coll., Isle of Man; Queen's Coll. and Ridley Hall, Cambridge. *Address*: Kottayam.

TRAVERS, WALTER LANCELOT, O.B.E. (1918); Chairman, Doars Planters' Association, 1914-20; Vice-Chairman, 1921-1924; Member, Bengal Legis. Council 1920 and of Reformed Council 1921-23 and 1924 to date; Member, Jalpaiguri District Board, 1914-24; Captain (red.) North Bengal Mounted Rifles. *Address:* Baradighi P. O., Jalpaiguri, and Bengal Club, Calcutta.

TRENCH, WILLIAM LAUNCELOT CROSSIE, Principal, Engineering College, Poona. *b.* 22 July 1881 *m.* Margaret Stephanie Huddleston. *Educ.* at Leys School and Dublin University; *P. W. D.* *Address:* Engineering College, Poona.

TURNER, ALFRED JOHN, B.Sc. London, 1901; F.I.C., 1905; Principal and Professor of Chemistry, Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute Matunga. *b.* 1874. *m.* Nita Aspden. *Educ.* Finsbury Technical College and London University. Analyst in various firms and London County Council; Demonstrator and Lecturer at East London College (London Univ.); Science Master at Giggleswick, Yorkshire. *Publications:* Papers to the Berichte Chemical Society and Monograph on Bittens. *Address:* King's Circle, Matunga, Bombay.

TURTON, COLONEL RALPH DOUGLAS, C.M.G. (1918); Director of Military Prisons and Detention Barracks in India. *b.* 11 Aug. 1882. *m.* Irene d. of the late A. Andrews, Esq. *Educ.* at Uppingham. Joined Cheshire Regiment, Feb. 1885; transferred to Military Provost Staff Corps, 1910; Lt.-Colonel 1913, Brevet Col. 1919. *Address:* The Club of Western India, Poona.

TYABJI, HUSAIN BADRUDDIN, M.A. (Honours), LL.M. (Honours), Cantab. 1896; Bar-at-Law. Second Judge, Presidency Court of Small Causes, Bombay. *b.* 11 October 1873; *m.* Miss Nazir Mohammad Fatehally. *Educ.* Anjuman-e-Islam, Bombay; St. Xavier's School and College; Downing College, Cambridge. Practised in the Bombay High Court. *Address:* Almazil, Walkeshwar Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

UDAIPUR, H. H. MAHARAJADHIRAJ MAHARANA SIR FATEH SINGHJI BAHADUR OF, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O. Maharana of Udaipur, Mewar. *b.* 1848. *Address:* Udaipur.

UDAIPUR, H. H. THE RAJA OF, CHANDRASHEKAR PRASAD SINGH DEO, CHIEF OF. *Address:* Udaipur.

ULLAH, VEN. IHSAN; Archdeacon of Delhi; Archdeacon in Lahore Diocese, since 1910; and Supdtg. Missionary of Toba Tek Singh Mission; *b.* 1857. *Educ.* Baring H. S. Batala; Lahore Div. Coll. *Address:* Holy Trinity Church, Lahore.

UNIAKKE, MAJOR-GENERAL SIR HERBERT CROFTON CAMPBELL, K.C.M.G., cr. 1919; C.B., 1918; C.M.G., 1916; G.O.C., Rawalpindi District. *b.* 4 Dec. 1866. *m.* Minnie Mary, d. of late Thomas Wild of Thorne, Yorkshire, 25. *Educ.* Woolwich. Commissioned Royal Artillery, 1885. Served three terms as Adjutant; Chief Instructor, Royal Horse and Royal Field Artillery; Commandant, School of Instruction, Shoeburyness; served European

War, 1914-18 (despatches ten times, K.C.M.G., promoted Maj.-General, C.B., Commander Legion of Honour), Commander Order of Savoy (Italy), Grand Officer Order of Avis (Portugal); 1st class order of St. Anne (Russia), Croix-de-guerre (Belgium); *Address:* Park House, Rawalpindi.

VAKIL, SIRDAR SIR RUSTOM JEHANGIR, KT. (1924); Khan Bahadur (1907); First Class Sirdar of Gujarat (1911); Millowner and Merchant. *b.* Sept. 1879. *m.* Tehmina, *d.* of Dr. D. E. Kothawala, Civil Surgeon, Bombay Medical Service. *Educ.* at Gujarat College, Ahmedabad. Since 1901 Managing Partner in Nowroji Pestonji & Co., Govt. Salt Agents; Pioneer of Magnesium Chloride Industry in India; Presdt., Dist. Local Board; for many years member of Ahmedabad Municipality; Dist. Scout Commissioner, Officer Commanding "D" Coy., 12-2 Bombay Pioneers; Divisional Supdt. St. John Ambulance Brigade, Ahmedabad Division; Was member of Imperial Legis. Council from 1913-16; has extensively travelled in European countries; Chairman and Director of several industrial concerns and Railway Boards; helped Government during the War in recruitment of combatants and non-combatants and was awarded medal and also certificate by H. E. Lord Willingdon. First Class Magistrate independently in charge of a whole Division since 1911. *Address:* The "Rosery," Shahi Bag, Ahmedabad.

VAUGHAN, MAJ.-GEN., SIR LOUIS RIDLEY, D.S.O. (1915); C.B. (1918); K.B.E. (1923); Officer of the Legion d'Honneur (1919). Commanding Central Provinces District; *b.* 7 August 1875. *Educ.* Uppingham and R.M.C., Sandhurst. *m.* Emillie, d. of J.P. Egan of St. Stephen's Cork. Served with 25th Madras Infantry, 78th Moplah Rifles, 13th Infantry, 7th Gurkha Rifles, and on the Staff in France, 1914-19. Served in the Afghan War, 1919, in command of 4th War Division. Commandant, Staff College, 1919-22. *Address:* Flagstaff House, Mhow C.I.

VAUX, MAJOR HENRY GEORGE, C.I.E. (1921), M.V.O. (1922), Military Secretary to the Governor of Bombay, *b.* 1882. *m.* The Baroness Edna von Stockhausen (American), 1915, *Educ.* St. Lawrence School. Joined the Army 1903; A.D.C. to Governor of Victoria, 1908-11; A.D.C. to Governor of Madras, 1911; A.D.C. to Governor of Bengal, 1912-14; Military Secretary to Lord Carmichael, 1914-17; Mil. Secretary to Earl of Ronaldshay, 1917-22; Mil. Secretary to Earl of Lytton, 1922; Mil. Secretary to Sir George Lloyd, 1922-23; Mil. Secretary to Sir Leslie Wilson, 1923. *Address:* Government House, Bombay.

VELINKER, SHRIKRISHNA GUNAJI, B.A., LL.B. (Bombay), J.P. (1903); Holder of Certificate of Honour, Council of Legal Education Trinity (1909); of the Honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn; Bar-at-Law, Trinity, (1909). *b.* 12 April, 1868. *m.* to Prabhavati, d. of Rao Bahadur Makund Ramchander, Executive Engr., Bombay. *Educ.* St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Enrolled as pleader, High Court, Bombay, in 1893; called to the Bar in July 1909. In

prominent practice in the High Court at Bombay and criminal courts of the Presidency. One of the Commissioners appointed under the Defence of India Act to try culprits in Ahmedabad and Viramgam arson and murder cases, 1919; President, Tribunal of Appeal under City of Bombay Improvement Act, Sept. 1922 to April 1923; Secy., P. J. Hindu Gymkhana, 1897-1908. *Publications:* Law of Gaming and Wagering and the Law of Compulsory Land Acquisition and Compensation. *Address:* Ratan House, 1-4 Lamington Road (South), Bombay.

VENKATASWETA CHALAPATI RUNGABAO BAHADUR, MAHARAJAH SIR RAYU, MAHARAJAH OF BOBBILI, G.C.I.E., C.B.E., Maharajah, 1900; Ancient Zemindar of Bobbili; b. 23 Aug. 1862. *Educ.* Bobbili, privately. Ascended Gadi in 1881; Lite Mem., Royal Asiatic Soc.; Mem. of Madras Council, 1896, 1898, 1900, and 1902; First Native Mem. of Madras Exec. Council, 1910-11. *Publications:* Advice to the Indian Aristocracy, Hindu Religion, Diaries in Europe. Criticism on the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata*. *Address:* Bobbili, Madras Presidency.

VERRIERES, ALBERT CLAUDE, C.I.E.; Joint Chief Engineer (1920), P.W.D. *m.* 1899, Mabel Blanche, d. of the late Francis Moore. *Educ.* St. Peter's Coll. Agra; Thomason Civil Engineering Coll., Roorkee. Ent. P. W. D., 1893, Under Secy. to Govt., P. W. D., Naini Tal, 1911-14; Exe. Eng., Dehra Dun, 1915-16; Supdtg. Eng., 1916-18; Sanitary Eng., 1918-19; Offg. Chief Engineer, United Provinces, 1920-21. *Address:* "Dar-ul-Shafa", Lucknow.

VIEIRA DE CASTRO, RT. REV. THEOTONIUS MANOEL RIBEIRO, D.D., D.C.L.; R. C. Bishop of San Thomé de Mysapore, since 1899; *b.* Oporto, 1859, *Educ.* Gregorian Uni., Rome. *Address:* San Thomé, Madras.

VIJAYARAGHAVA CHARYA, DIWAN BAHADUR, M.B.E. (1919); Commissioner for India, British Empire, Exhibition. *b.* August 1875. *Educ.* Presidency College, Madras. Joined Provincial service, 1898; Revenue Officer, Madras Corp., 1912-17; Secretary to Board of Revenue, 1917-18; Dewan of Cochin, 1919-22; Collector and Magistrate, 1920. *Address:* 42, Grosvenor Gardens, London, S.W.I.

VIRA VALA, DURBAR SHRI, Dewan, Junagadh State. *b.* 31 Jan. 1888. *Educ.* at Rajkumar College, Rajkot. Wing Master, Rajkumar College; Adviser to the Thakore Saheb, Chuda; Deputy Political Agent, Palanpur; Manager, Lathi State, Dewan, Porbandar State. *Address:* Junagadh, Kathiawar.

VISHNU DIGAMBER PALUSKAR, PANDIT, GAYANACHARYA, Principal, Gandharva Mahavidyalaya. *m.* Mrs. Ramabai Kelkar. *Educ.* Miraj State. *Publications:* 50 Music books of notations. *Address:* Gandharva Mahavidyalaya, Sandhurst Road, Girgaum, Bombay.

VISVESVARAYA, MOKSHAGUNDUM, SIR, K.C.I.E., D.Sc., M.I.C.E., late Dewan of Mysore. *b.* 15 Sept. 1861. *Educ.* Central Coll., Bangalore, and Coll. of Science, Poona. Asst. Engineer, P.W.D., Bombay, 1884; Supdt. Eng., 1904; retired 1908. Apptd.

Sp. Consulting Eng. to Nizam's Govt., 1909; Ch. Eng. and Sec. P.W. and R. Depts., Govt. of Mysore, 1909; App. Dewan of Mysore, Nov. 1912-1918; has visited Europe, America and Japan twice, the last tour being in 1919 and 1920. *Publication:* "Reconstructing India" (P. S. King and Son, Ltd. London). *Address:* High Ground, Bangalore

VOLKERS, ROBERT CHARLES FRANCOIS, C.I.E. Sec., Railway Board, 1907-13; Accountant, P. W. D., since 1878; Examiner, 1894. *Address:* Calcutta.

WACHA, SIR DINSHA EDULJI, KT.; a Governor of the Imperial Bank of India (1920) and Member, Council of State (1920); Director, The Central Bank of India and the Scindia Navigation Company. *b.* 2 Aug. 1844. *Educ.* Elphinstone Coll., Bombay; in Cotton Industry, since 1874; for 30 years Bombay Mun. Corp. (President, 1901-02); for 35 years, Mem., Bombay Millowners' Association Committee since 1889 and President in 1917 and Member, Bombay Imp. Trust since its formation in 1898 up to 1919; Pres. of 17th National Congress, Calcutta, 1901; and of Belgaum Prov. Conference, 1894; gave evidence before Royal Commission on Indian expenditure in 1897; Trustee of Elphinstone Coll.; also Chairman, Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau; was Gen. Sec., Indian National Congress for 18 years from 1894; Trustee of Vic. Jubilee Technical Institute from 1902 and Hon. Sec. from 1909 to 1923; Member, Bombay Legislative Council (1915-16); President Western India Liberal Association since 1919. Was Secretary, Bombay Presidency Association from 1885 to 1915 and President from 1915 to 1918. Was President of the First Bombay Provincial Liberal Conference in 1922. *Publications:* Pamphlets on Indian Finance, Currency and Economics, Agricultural Condition of India, Railways, Currency, Temperance, Military Expenditure, etc.; large contributor to leading Indian newspapers and journals for the last 40 years; also had published History of Share Speculation, 1863-64; Life of Fremchand Roychand; Life of J. N. Tata; the Rise and Growth of the Bombay Municipal Government, four papers on Indian Commerce and Statistics and My Recollections of Bombay (1860-75). *Address:* Jiji House, Ravelin Street, Fort, Bombay.

WADIA, BOMANJI JAMSETJI, M.A., LL.B. (Univ. of Bombay), Bar-at-Law and Principal, Government Law School, Bombay. *b.* 4 Aug. 1881. *m.* Kattanbai Hormusji Wadia (now widower). *Educ.* St. Xavier's College, Bombay and at the Inner Temple, London, for the bar, 1904-6. *Address:* Quetta Terrace, Chowpatty, Bombay.

WADIA, O. N., C.I.E. (1919); Millowner. *b.* 1869. *Educ.* King's Coll., London. Joined his father's firm, 1888. Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association (1918). *Address:* Pedder House, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

WADIA, JAMSETJI ABDASER, J. P. 1900; Merchant. *b.* 31 Oct. 1857. *Educ.* Elphinstone Sch. and Coll. and served apprenticeship in Dickinson Akrold & Co. of London; Promoter and Director of Cotton and other

- industrial concerns; Member of Bombay Mun. Corp., from 1901-1921. *Publications*: Writer on Industrial and Economic subjects; published two pamphlets against closing of the Mints. *Address*: Wilderness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.
- WADYA, SIR HORMASJI ARDESAR, Kt. (1918), Bar-at-Law. b. 2 January, 1849. *Educ.*: Elphinstone College, Bombay, and University College, London. m. Aimal, d. of the late Mr. Ardesar Hormasji of Lowil Castle, Parel. Called to the Bar, 1871. Personal Assistant to Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji, Dewan of Baroda. February 1874 to January 1875. Practised in Kathiawar since 1875. Trustee, Parsi Panchayat, 1912. Trustee of the late Mr. N. M. Wadia under his will, 1909. Recd. Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal, 1918. *Address*: 37, Marine Lines, Bombay.
- WADIA, PESTONJI ARDESHER, M.A., Professor of Philosophy and History, Wilson College, Bombay. b. 16 Dec. 1878. *Educ.*: Elphinstone College, Bombay. *Publications*: The Philosophers and the French Revolution; Zoroastrianism and our Spiritual Heritage; Inquiry into the Principles of Theosophy; The Wealth of India, etc. *Address*: Hormazi Villa, Malabar Hill, Bombay.
- WALI MAHOMED HUSSANALLY, KHAN BAHADUR, B.A., LL.B., Member, Legislative Assembly; Retired Dpty. Collector and Special First Class Magistrate and Landed Proprietor, Karachi. b. 5 Dec. 1860. Widower. *Educ.*: Elphinstone College and Govt. Law School, Bombay. Served Govt. in various departments for 33 years; retired in 1915. *Address*: Khurshed Lodge, Rambagh Road, Karachi.
- WALKER, COLONEL GEORGE KEMP, C.I.E., O.B.E., Fell. of Royal Coll. of Vet. Surge. Principal, Punjab Veterinary College, Lahore. Commandant, Punjab Light Horse. b. 20 March 1872; m. Jan. 10, 1899. *Educ.*: Warwick Sch.; R. V. C., London. Commission A. V. D., 1894; transferred to Civil Employ, 1897. *Address*: Lahore.
- WALKER, LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR HAROLD BRIDGWOOD, K.C.B., cr. 1918; K.C.M.G., cr. 1919; C.B. 1915; D.S.O., 1902; D.C.L.I. and Border, Regt., G.O.C., Southern Command, 1923. b. Apr. 1863; s. of late Rev. James H. Walker, m. 1887, Harriet Edith Coulthard, Plymouth; two s. *Educ.*: Shrewsbury School; Jesus College, Cambridge. Entered Army, 1884; Capt. 1891; Major 1902; Lt.-Col. 1903; served Nile Expedition, 1884-85 (Medal with clasp), (Khedive Star); Egyptian Frontier, 1885-86; N. W. Frontier, India, 1897-98 (Medal with 2 clasps); South Africa, 1899-1902 (Queen's medal, 2 clasps) (King's medal, 5 clasps) (Brev. Major D.S.O.); served with Mediterranean Expeditionary Force, Commanded 1st Australian Division, 1914-1918 (despatches seven times, wounded twice, C.B., promoted Maj.-Gen., K.C.B., K.C.M.G.), with B.R.F. France and Italy, Commanding South Midland Division. *Address*: Headquarters, Southern Command, Poona.
- WALKER, SIR JAMES, K.C.I.E., C.I.E., Commr., Nagpur; Add. Mem., Imp. Council, 1913. b. 1864. *Educ.*: Aberdeen Univ.; Balliol Coll., Oxford. Served in executive branch of I.C.S. in Madras and C.P. *Address*: Nagpur.
- WALLACE, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE EDWARD HAMILTON, M.A. (Glas.), B.A. (Oxon.), Judge, High Court, Madras. b. 13 May 1873. m. Anna Richmond Miller London. *Educ.*: High School, Glasgow; Glasgow Univ.; Balliol Coll., Oxford. Passed I.C.S., 1895. Served in Madras Presidency since 1896; Judge of Chief Court, Mysore State, 1912-14. *Address*: Cathedral Gardens, Madras.
- WALMSLEY, SIR HUGH, KT. (1923), M.A. *Educ.*: Judge, Calcutta High Court, since 1915; I.C.S., Merton Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1893. *Address*: High Court, Calcutta.
- WANKANER, CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS MAHARANA SIR AMARSINJI, RAJ SAHEB OF K.C.I.E.; b. 4 Jan. 1879; s. 1881. *Educ.*: Rajkumar Coll. State has area of 425 sq. miles, and population of 36,824. Salute, 11 guns. *Address*: Wankaner, Kathiawar.
- WARBURTON, JOHN PAUL, C.I.E. b. 28 Aug. 1840. Joined Pol. Dept., Punjab, 1864; Asst. Insp. Gen., Railway Police, 1894; retired, 1900. *Address*: Gilbert House, Kasauli.
- WARD, COLONEL HENRY CHARLES SWINBURNE, C.I.E. (1920), O.B.E. (1919) and Serbian Order of White Eagle (1917); Director of Pay and Pensions, b. 12 June 1879. *Educ.*: Winchester and Sandhurst. 1st Commission, 1898; Joined 2nd Bengal Lancers, 1901; Staff College, 1911-12; War service, 1914-1917; various staff appointments; Afghan operations, 1919; G.S.O. 1 2nd Division; commanded 2nd Lancers, 1921-22; A.A.G., Army Headquarters, 1922-23. *Address*: United Service Club, Simla.
- WARNE, RT. REV. FRANCIS WESLEY, Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church since 1900, b. 30 Dec. 1854. *Address*: Inayat Bagh, Lucknow.
- WATHEN, GERRARD ANSTRUTHER, M.A., C.I.E., I.E.S.; Prin., Khalsa Coll., Amritsar, since 1915. b. 28 Dec. 1878. m. 1909 Mallicent, d. of the late C. L. Buxton. *Educ.*: St. Paul's Sch.; Peterhouse, Camb.; Asst. Master, Tonbridge School, 1903-05; Prof. of Govt. Coll., Lahore, 1905-1914; Inspector of Schools, Jullundur, 1914-15. *Address*: Khalsa College, Amritsar.
- WATSON, HERBERT EDMESTON, D.Sc. (Lond.), A.I.C. Fellow of University Coll., London, Professor of General Chemistry, Indian Institute of Science. b. 1886. m. 1917 Miss M. K. Rowson. *Educ.*: Marlborough Coll., London, Berlin, Geneva and Cambridge Universities. Asst., Prof., Indian Institute of Science, 1911, apptd. Prof. of General Chemistry in 1916. *Publications*: numerous papers on physical chemistry and allied subjects. *Address*: Indian Institute of Science, Hebbal, Bangalore.
- WATT, REV. JOHN, M.A., D.D., F.O.S.; Prin., Scottish Churches Coll., Calcutta, since 1910. b. 1862. *Educ.*: Parish Sch., Methlick; Gram. Sch., Old Aberdeen; Aberdeen Univ.; New Coll., Edinburgh. Joined Duff Coll., Calcutta, 1888. *Address*: 4, Cornwallis Square, Calcutta.
- WEBB, CHARLES MORGAN, M.A. (Cambridge), C.I.E. (1921); Chairman, Rangoon Development Trust. b. 30th June 1872. m. to Lillian Elizabeth Griffiths. *Educ.*: Masons College, Birmingham, St. John's, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1894; Deputy Commissioner, 1901; Settlement Officer, 1903; Supdt., Census Operations, Burma, 1909; Secy., Govt. of Burma, 1914; Chief Secy., Govt. of Burma, 1918; First Vice-Chancellor, Rangoon University, 1920, Chairman, Rangoon Development Trust, 1921. *Publications*: Census Reports, Burma, 1911. *Address*: Lorrento Villa, Prome Road, Rangoon.
- WEBSTER, JOHN EDWARD, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., Commr., Surma Valley, Assam, since 1912. b. Ranchi, 8 Sept. 1871. *Educ.*: Charterhouse; Trinity Hall, Cam. Ent. I.C.S., 1891. *Address*: Shihar.
- WESTCOTT, RT. REV. F., see Calcutta, Bishop of.
- WESTCOTT, RT. REV. G. H., see Lucknow Bishop.
- WHEELER, SIR HENRY, K.C.S.I. (1921), K.C.I.E., I.C.S.; Governor of Bihar and Orissa (1922). *Educ.*: Christ's Coll., Cam. Ent. I.C.S., 1891; Dy. Sec., Govt. of India, Fin. Dept., 1907-08; Sec., Royal Commission on Decentralisation, 1908-09; Fin. Sec., Govt. of Bengal, 1909-12; Home Sec., Govt. of India, 1912-16; Member, Executive Council, Bengal, 1917-22. *Address*: Government House, Patna.
- WHEELER, THE VENERABLE HUGH TREVOR, M.A. (Dublin), Archdeacon of Lahore, 1919. b. 27 September 1874. m. Kathleen Gunning. *Educ.*: Trinity College, Dublin. Chaplain, to the Forces, M.E.F., 1915. *Address*: Ashleigh, Murree.
- WHITE, MAJOR FREDERICK NORMAN, C.I.E., M.D.; Asst. Dir.-Gen., I.M.S. (Sanitary), 1914; Sanitary Commr., Govt. of India, Simla. *Address*: c/o Grindlay, Groom & Co., Bombay.
- WHITTY, JOHN TARTON, C.I.E.; Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi. *Educ.*: Clifton Coll.; New Coll., Oxford; Univ. Coll., London. Ent. I.C.S., 1898. *Address*: Ranchi.
- WHYTE, THE HON. SIR FREDERICK, Kt. (1922); Presdt.; Indian Legisl. Assembly. b. 30 September 1883. *Educ.*: Edinburgh Academy; Abbotsholme; Jena Univ.; Edinburgh Univ.; Grenoble Univ. m. Margaret Emily, d. of the Rev. W. Fairweather, D.D., two d., one s. Lectur. d'Anglais at the Sorbonne, 1905-1906. Industrial Insurance Comr. Vienna and Budapest, 1908. Pol. Sec. to Lord Lucas (Under Sec. for War) 1908-10. M.P. for Perth, 1910-18. Parl. Pte. Sec. to Mr. Churchill, 1910-15, One of the founders of *The New Europe* and Joint Editor, 1917-20. Lt., T. R. N. V. R., 1914-18. Chairman, Indian Red Cross Society, 1923. *Address*: Legislative Assembly, Delhi.
- WILLIAMS, GEORGE BRANESBY, M. INST. C. E., M. I. MECH. E., F. R. SAN. I., F.R.G.S., M.I.E. (Ind.); Chief Engineer, Public Health Department, Calcutta. b. 7 April 1872; m. Dorothy Maud, d. of E. Thorp of Cheshire. *Educ.*: Clifton Coll. Articles to Mr. James Mansedgh, F.R.S., 1891; Asst. on York Main Drainage Works, Birmingham Waterworks; Resident Engineer-in-charge, Whitby Waterworks; Served S. Africa, 1900-01, Railway Staff Officer; Asst. District Engineer, Imperial Military Railways; Pers. Asst. to Mr. G. B. Strachan, M. Inst. C.E., 1902-06; Croxson Waterworks, Shrewsbury Waterworks; Consulting Engineer to Colonial Office, 1906-08; Nalrobi Drainage and Water works, Naivasha, Nakuru and Zanzibar sanitation; designed Sketty Sewerage Works, &c., Sanitary Engineer, Bengal (1909); designed nearly 200 schemes of water supply, drainage and sewerage of which about 60 have been carried out including Jheria, Gaya, Hooghly, Chinsurah, Kallimpong, Serampore, Morghyr, Comilla waterworks, Gaya, Burdwan, Dacca, Kurseong and Titagur main drainage schemes. *Publications*: Elementary Sanitary Engineering (1st and 2nd editions); Practical Sanitary Engineering; Modern Sewage Disposal, E. E. Journal, 1909, "Rainfall or Wales", Geographical Journal, 1909; Engineer, 1922; Recent Progress in Sanitary Engineering in Bengal, &c. *Address*: 3, Charnock Palace, and 15 May fair, Calcutta.
- WILLIAMS, CAPT. HERBERT ARMSTRONG, D.S.O., I.M.S.; Resident Medical Officer, Rangoon General Hospital, since 1907. b. 11 Feb. 1875. *Address*: General Hospital, Rangoon.
- WILLIS, MAJOR-GENERAL EDWARD HENRY, C.B. (1918), C.M.G. (1917); Technical Adviser, R.A., India. b. 6th Sept. 1870. *Educ.*: at Bath. Commissioned Royal Military Academy, 1890; Commanded 94th Battery, R.F.A. (Lahore Division), 1914; Commanded 78th Brigade R.F.A. (17th Division), 1915; C.R.A. 17th Division 1916-17; 17th Corps, 1917-18. *Address*: Army Headquarters, Simla.
- WILLIS, GEORGE HENRY, C.I.E., 1918; M.V.O. (4th) 1911, Lt.-Col. R.E., M.I. Mech. E., M.I.E. (Ind.), J.P.; Master of Mint, Bombay. b. 21 Oct. 1875; m. s. d. *Educ.*: St. Paul's Sch., London; R. M. A., Woolwich. R. E., 1895; Major, 1914. Arrived India, 1900; Deputy Mint Master, 1907; officiated as Mint Master till October, 1915; Past President of Council, Institution of Engineers (Ind.). *Address*: H. M. Mint, Bombay.
- WILSON, HIS EXCELLENCY THE RT. HON. SIR LESLIE ORME, P.C. 1922; G. O. I. E. (1923), C. M. G. (1916); D. S. O. (1900). Governor of Bombay. b. 1 Aug. 1876, s. of late H. Wilson, m. 1909, Winifred, s. d. of late Captain Charles Smith of Goderich, Sydney. *Educ.*: St. Michael's, Westgate; St. Paul's School, Apptd. 2nd Lt. B.M.L.I., 1895; Lieut. 1899; Captain 1901. Served South Africa, 1899-1901 (severely wounded, despatches Queen's Medal, 5 Clasps, D.S.O.); A.D.C. to Governor of N.S.W., Capt. in Berkshire Royal Horse Artillery (Territorials); promoted Temp. Lt.-Col. R. M. and appointed to command Hawke Batt., R.N.D.; served through operations in Gallipoli, 1914-15 (despatches, C.M.G.); served in France, 1915-16 (several times wounded); Parliamentary Asst. Secy. to the War Cabinet, 1918; Chairman, National Maritime

Board, 1919; Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Shipping, 1919; Jt. Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury and Chief Unionist Whip, 1921-1923; M.P. (C.U.) Reading, 1913-1923. *Address:* Government House, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

WITHERS, LIEUT. EDGAR CLEMENT, C.I.E., R.I.M.; Intelligence Officer, Persian Gulf. *Address:* Intelligence Department, Basra.

WITTET, GEORGE, F.R.I.B.A., Director, Tata Engineering Co., Ltd. b. 26 November 1878; Consulting Architect to the Govt. of Bombay, 1908-1919. *Address:* Dongars Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

WOOD, SIR JOHN BARRY, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., C.S.I., Resident in Kashmir. b. 1870; m. 1896; Ada Elizabeth, d. of G.A. Stack, I.E.S. *Educ.*: Marlborough; Balliol Coll., Oxford. *Ent.* I.C.S., 1894, Under-Sec. to Govt. of India, Foreign Dept., 1899-1903; 1st Assist. in Baluchistan, 1903; Dy. Sec., Foreign Dept., 1906-10; Resident, Indore, 1912; Pol. Sec., Government of India, 1914-22. *Address:* Srinagar, Kashmir.

WOODROFFE, SIR JOHN GEORGE, Kt., Fulane Judge, Calcutta High Court since 1904. b. 15 Dec. 1865. *Educ.*: Woburn Park Univ. Coll., Oxford (B.C.L., M.A.). Barr., Inner Temple, 1889; Advocate, Calcutta H.C., 1890; Standing Counsel, Government of India, 1903. Judge, 1904; Offg. Ch. Justice, Bengal, Nov. 1915. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

WOOLACOTT, JOHN EVANS, Editor of *The Pioneer*. b. 1862. *Educ.*: Milford Haven Sch., and Gr. Sch., Menalbridge. m. Anjoullna, d. of the late A. Seneca. On staff of *Central News*: Correspondent of *The Daily Mail* in Cairo and Paris. Assistant Editor, *The Economist*: City Ed. *The Tribune*: has edited *The Statesman* and *The Bombay Gazette*. President, Institute of Journalists, 1908. Parliamentary Candidate, Glasgow, 1895. *Address:* Allahabad.

WORTLEY, LIEUT.-GENERAL, THE HON. SIR A. RICHARD M. STUART, K.C.B. (1924); K.C.M.G. (1919); D.S.O. (1900); Quarter-Master-General, India. b. 20 Jan. 1868. m. Hon. M.J.M. Winn, 1 s. 1 d. *Educ.*: Wellington. 2nd Lt., K.R.R.C., 1887; Lt.-Col. 1910; Col. 1914; Major-General, 1917; Lt. Gen., 1924; Staff Capt. and G.S.O. 3, Army Headquarters, 1904-7, G.S.O. 2 1907-8; A. D. Movements 1914-1915; Director of Movements 1915-1917; Commanded 68 Inf. Brig. and 19th and 32nd Divisions, D.Q.M.G., Mesopotamia, 1917-19; Major-General-I.C. Administration, Southern Command, 1919-23; Q.M.G. India, 1924; Served in Chitral, 1895; S. African War severely wounded (mentioned despatches Medal D.S.O.), Great War (mentioned despatches several times); C.B. 1915; specially promoted Maj. Gen.; K.C.M.G., Legion of Honour 3rd cl., Order of Crown of Belgium 3rd cl., Order of Crown of Italy 3 cl., Is Hon. Colonel of Engineer and Railway Staff Corps (T.A.). *Address:* Army Headquarters, Simla.

WYNDHAM, PERCY, C.I.E., C.B.E., R.G.S., Commsr., Kumaon, since 1913. b. 13 Dec. 1867. *Educ.*: Giggleswick Sch.; Queen's Coll., Oxford, M.A., Joined I.C.S., 1889, Magte. and Collector, Mirzapur, 1900-1913. Commissioner, Naini Tal, from 1913. *Address:* Naini Tal.

YAIN, LEE AH, K.-I-H. (Gold), Bar-at-Law, M. L.C. Councillor, Rangoon Corporation; Fellow of Rangoon University; b. April 1874, *Educ.*: Rangoon College and Cambridge. *Address:* 67, Merchant Street, Rangoon.

YULE, SIR DAVID, Bart. (1922), Managing Director, Messrs. Andrew Yule & Co., Ltd. b. 4 Aug. 1858. m. Annie Henrietta Yule, d. of late Andrew Yule. *Educ.*: B. High School, Edinburgh. Joined firm of Andrew Yule & Co., Calcutta, 1875; Director of London Joint City and Midland Bank, Ltd., Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd., Royal Exchange Assurance Corporation. *Address:* 8, Clive Row, Calcutta.

Calcutta.

King Emperor's Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. Ephraums' Orange William (9st. 3lbs.), Doble 1

Mr. Eve's Flaming Orb (9st. 3lbs.), A. C. Walker 2

Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Solo Bridge (9st. 3lbs.), O'Brien 3

Mr. Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (9st. 3lbs.), A. T. Harrison 4

Won by two lengths; a neck; one length. Time.—1 min. 39 3-5 secs.

Viceroy's Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. Ephraums' Orange William (9st. 3lbs.), Doble 1

Mr. Thaddeus' Aborigine (9st. 3lbs.), Marsh. 2

Mr. Galstaun's Gaurishankar (9st. 3lbs.), A. C. Walker 3

Mr. Kelso's Revival (9st. 3lbs.), G. Smith .. 4

Won by one and three-quarter lengths; a head; two and a half lengths. Time—3 mins. 0 2-5 secs.

Governor's Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. Bartleet's Aborigine (8st. 9lbs.), Doble .. 1

Mr. Thaddeus' Untoi (8st. 7lbs.), Perkins .. 2

Mr. Eve's Silver Saint (7st. 11lbs.), A. C. Walker 3

Mr. Douetil's Midensis (8st. 5lbs.), J. E. L. Harrison 4

Won by a short head; a neck; one length. Time.—3 mins. 1 4-5 secs.

Carmichael Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. Ephraums' Orange William (9st. 6lbs.), Morris 1

Mr. Avasia's Vale of York (9st. 1lb.), Townsend 2

Mr. Pannick's Sweet Adare (9st. 1lb.), Doble .. 3

Mr. Galstaun's Starshot (8st. 10lbs.), Donoghue 4

Won by half a length; three lengths; four and a half lengths. Time.—2 mins. 6 secs.

Cooch Behar Cup. Distance 1 mile 3 furlongs—

Mr. Eve's Knight of Clonmel (8st. 2lbs.), A. C. Walker 1

Mr. Bartleet's Aborigine (7st. 12lbs.), Stevens 2

Nawabzada Khan's The Lark (7st. 8lbs.), Parker 3

Mr. Eve's The Count (7st. 13lbs.), Morris .. 4

Won by three-quarters of a length; one length; half a length. Time.—2 mins. 19 secs.

Ronaldshay Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Mr. Eve's Flaming Orb (9st. 3lbs.), A. C. Walker 1

Mr. Thaddeus' Goldgainer (9st. 3lbs.), Perkins 2

Mr. Avasia's Quarryman (9st. 3lbs.), Townsend 3

Mr. Galstaun's Solo Bridge (9st. 3lbs.), Donoghue 4

Won by one and a quarter lengths; a short head; one length. Time.—1 min. 13 4-5 secs.

Macpherson Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. Gajadhur's Prague (8st. 7lbs.), Townsend 1

Mr. Gaulstaun's Solo Bridge (8st. 6lbs.), Doble 1

Mr. Thaddeus' Aborigine (8st. 11lbs.), Donoghue 3

Mr. Douetil's Midensis (8st. 7lbs.), J. E. L. Harrison 4

Dead heat; a short head; three lengths. Time.—2 mins. 33 2-5 secs.

Prince of Wales' Plate. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. Ephraums' Orange William (10st. 5 lbs.), Morris 1

Mr. Eve's Plymouth Rock (8st. 12lbs.), A. C. Walker 2

Mr. Leckie's Martin (7st. 11lbs.), Doble 3

Messrs. Douetil and Hartley's Kilkoon (7st. 5lbs.), Parker 4

Won by one and a half lengths; one length; three-quarters of a length. Time.—1 min. 39 1-5 secs.

Wellesly Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. Galstaun's Gaurishankar (9st. 7lbs.), A. C. Walker 1

Mr. Ephraums' Orange William (9st. 7lbs.), Doble 2

Mr. Avasia's Vale of York (9st. 7lbs.), Barnett 3

Mr. Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (9st. 7lbs.), A. T. Harrison 4

Won by one and three-quarter lengths; two and a half lengths; one and a half lengths. Time.—2 mins. 6 3-5 secs.

December Plate. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr. Ephraums' Orange William (9st. 7lbs.), Doble 1

Mr. Avasia's Endorette (7st. 13lbs.), Barnett .. 2

Mr. Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (9st. 7lbs.), A. C. Walker 3

Mr. Thaddeus' Aborigine (9st. 7lbs.), Marsh 4

Won by three-quarters of a length; two lengths; a neck. Time.—1 min. 23 secs.

The Metropolitan. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Mr. Eve's Rostrum (9st. 2lbs.), A. C. Walker 1

Mr. Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st. 11lbs.), Perkins .. 2	Won by one and a half lengths; a neck; one and a half lengths. Time.—3 mins. 46 1-5 secs.
Mr. Galstaun's Floreal (8st.), Donoghue .. 3	Merchants' Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—
Mr. Pannick's Sweet Adare (9st. 5lbs.), Dobie .. 4	Mr. Galstaun's Ox Trot (8st. 1lb.), A. C. Walker .. 1
Won by three-quarters of a length; one length; one and a quarter lengths. Time.—1 min. 13 secs.	Mr. Mein Austin's Recalled (8st. 9lbs.), Parker .. 2
Indian Grand National. Distance about 3 miles (steeplechase).—	Mrs. Pereira's Dalkester (8st. 7lbs.), Dobie .. 3
Mr. Ever's Llanisinfried (11st. 5lbs.), Barnes .. 1	Mr. Thaddeus' Hatchford (8st. 4lbs.) Marsh .. 4
Mr. Gujadhur's Glen Lusset (9st. 10lbs.), Seastream .. 2	Won by three and a half lengths; three-quarters of a length; half a length. Time. 2 mins. 34 2-5 secs.
Captain Hilliard's Oxdex (11st. 12lbs.), Owner .. 3	Eclipse Pony Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—
Messrs. Gregson and Ocock's Bachelor's Vanity (10st. 12lbs.), Bloss .. 4	Mr. Galstaun's Bidesia (10st. 1lb.), Dobie .. 1
Won by twelve lengths; four lengths; half a length. Time.—6 mins. 1 sec.	Mr. Garda's Lumination B (8st. 1lb.), Ritchie .. 2
Apcar Plate. Distance 6 furlongs.—	Mr. Ali's Fancy Fair (7st. 8lbs.), Stokes .. 3
Mr. Eve's Flaming Orb (9st. 12lbs.), A. C. Walker .. 1	Mr. Douetill's Love Gift (8st. 8lbs.), J.E.L. Harrison .. 4
Mr. Garda's Chummy (7st. 3lbs.), Siely .. 2	Won by a short head; half a length; one and a half lengths. Time.—1 min. 31 secs.
Mr. Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st. 5lbs.), Marsh .. 3	Hilliard Plate. Distance 7 furlongs.—
Mr. Toonus' Ballina Breeze (8st. 2lbs.), Barrett .. 4	Mr. Eve's The Count (8st. 10lbs.), A. C. Walker .. 1
Won by four lengths; one and a half lengths; a short neck. Time.—1 min. 13 3-5 secs.	Mr. Avasia's Fille d'Or (8st.), Barnett .. 2
Mayfowl Cup. Distance 1 mile.—	Mr. Yoonus' Ballina Breeze (8st. 4lbs.), Barrett .. 3
Mr. Harper's Ship's Biscuit (8st. 7lbs.), Dobie .. 1	Mr. Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st. 8lbs.), Marsh .. 4
Mr. Eve's Dick Turpin (9st.), G. Smith .. 2	Won by one and three-quarter lengths; half a length; half a length. Time.—1 min. 27 2-5 secs.
Mr. Avasia's Eudorette (7st. 12lbs.), Barnett .. 3	
Mr. Frank's Red Cross Boy (7st. 5lbs.), A. T. Harrison .. 4	Bombay.
Won by two lengths; two and a half lengths; one and a half lengths. Time.—1 min. 40 2-5 secs.	The Eclipse Stakes of India. Distance 1½ miles.—
Burdwan Cup. Distance 1½ miles (hurdles).—	Mr. C. N. Wadia's Aquilegia (8st. 11lbs.), R. Jones .. 1
Mr. Roscoe's Archie's Fancy (11st. 3lbs.), C. Black .. 1	Mr. Eve's Boscombe (8st. 7lbs.), G. Smith .. 2
Mr. Lindsay's Tycoon (10st. 3lbs.), Captain Pearson .. 2	Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Risen Again (8st. 11lbs.), Burn .. 3
Captain Barker's St. Bee (10st. 3lbs.), Captain Roberts .. 3	Mr. H. B. Sorabjee's Swithin (9st. 7lbs.), Clarke .. 4
Mr. Roy's Catling (10st. 3lbs.), Bloss .. 4	Won by one and a half lengths; three lengths; half a length. Time.—2 mins. 6 1-5 secs.
Won by three-quarters of a length; half a length; six lengths. Time.—3 mins. 20 4-5 secs.	The Rajpipla Gold Cup. Distance 1 mile.—
Grand Annual. Distance about 2 miles (hurdles).—	Mr. A. E. Ephraums' Orange William (10st. 7lbs.), Clarke .. 1
Mr. Galstaun's Golden Square (10st.), Barnes .. 1	Mr. Eve's Rostrum (8st. 6lbs.), A. C. Walker .. 2
Mr. Darey Lindsay's Tycoon (11st. 5lbs.), Captain Pearson .. 2	Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Owen Roe (8st. 9lbs.), McPherson .. 3
Mr. Roscoe's Archie's Fancy (12st. 7lbs.), C. Black .. 3	Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Solo Bridge (7st. 13lbs.), Donoghue .. 4
Mr. Garda's Sunsell (10st. 4lbs.), Seastream .. 4	Won by three-quarters of a length; three-quarters of a length; half a length. Time.—1 min. 33 2-5 secs.

The Grand Western Handicap. Distance 1 mile.—	Mr. T. M. Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st.), Donoghue .. 1
Mr. A. Hoyt's Bell Metal (8st. 11lbs.) Bowley .. 1	Mr. P. B. Avasia's Quarryman (8st. 8lbs.) Townsend .. 2
Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Owen Roe (8st. 4lbs.), McPherson .. 2	Mr. R. R. S.'s Joy Girl (7st. 9lbs.), R. Jones .. 3
Mr. Eve's Rostrum (8st. 3lbs.), G. Smith .. 3	Mr. Eve's Nicety (8st. 2lbs.), A. C. Walker .. 4
Mr. A. E. Ephraums' Orange William (10st. 12lbs.), Clarke .. 4	Won by a short head; two lengths; one and a half lengths. Time.—1 min. 15 2-5 secs.
Won by a short head; a neck; a neck. Time.—1 min. 38 4-5 secs.	The Flying Plate. Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards.—
The Byculla Club Cup. Distance about 1½ miles.—	Mr. Eve's Suryakumari (8st. 6lbs.), A. C. Walker .. 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Gay Ditty (7st. 8lbs.), Clarke .. 1	Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Whit Week (7st. 4lbs.), Townsend .. 2
Mr. T. M. Thaddeus' Aborigine (10st. 2 lbs.), Donoghue .. 2	Mr. R. B. Davison's Cintra (7st. 12lbs.), Donoghue .. 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Marmon (7st. 12lbs.), Sheldon .. 3	Mr. T. Harrison's Kilrea (7st. 6lbs.), Harrison .. 4
Mr. W. King's Love Glass (7st. 4lbs.), cd. 7st. 7lbs.), Aldridge .. 4	Won by a neck; three lengths; four lengths. Time.—1 min. 15 1-5 secs.
Won by one and three-quarter lengths; a short head; three-quarters of a length. Time.—2 mins. 29 2-5 secs.	The Mansfield Plate. Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards.—
The Bombay City Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—	Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Owen Roe (9st. 2 lbs.), McPherson .. 1
Mr. A. E. Ephraums' Orange William (9st. 7lbs.), Morris .. 1	Mr. T. M. Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st. 8lbs.), Bowley .. 2
Mr. A. Hoyt's Bell Metal (9st.), Bowley .. 2	H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Whispering (7st. 8lbs.), Clarke .. 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Gay Ditty (7st.), Sheldon .. 3	Mr. P. B. Avasia's Quarryman (8st. 9lbs.), Townsend .. 4
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Vale of York (9st. 7lbs.), Townsend .. 4	Won by three-quarters of a length; half a length; one length. Time.—1 min. 13 4-5 secs.
Won by a head; two lengths; half a length. Time.—2 mins. 6 2-5 secs.	The Ascot Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—
The Willington Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—	Mr. A. Hoyt's Bell Metal (9st. 1lb.), Bowley .. 1
Mr. T. M. Thaddeus' Aborigine (9st.), Donoghue .. 1	Mr. W. King's Love Glass (7st. 12lbs.), R. Jones .. 2
Mr. R. R. S.'s Wasp (7st. 9lbs.), F. Huxley .. 2	Mr. Eve's Schiehallion (8st. 3lbs.), G. Smith .. 3
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Floreal (7st. 12lbs.), McPherson .. 3	Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Margaret Joyce (8st. 4lbs.), Burn .. 4
Mr. T. M. Thaddeus' Unitol (8st. 7lbs.), A. C. Walker .. 4	Won by one length; half a length; two lengths. Time.—2 mins. 7 1-5 secs.
Won by three-quarters of a length; one length; a head. Time.—2 mins. 7 1-5 secs.	Victory Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—
The Innovation Plate. Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards.—	Mr. H. B. Sorabjee's Rackle (8st. 8lbs.), Buckley .. 1
Mr. Eve's Flaming Orb (9st.), A. C. Walker .. 1	Mr. Kelso's Harry Tate (8st. 4lbs.), McPherson .. 2
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Whispering (7st.), Clarke .. 2	Mr. R. R. S.'s Rabalto (8st. 2lbs.), F. Huxley .. 3
Mr. T. M. Thaddeus' Goldgainer (8st.), Morris .. 3	Mr. Eve's Aldergrove (7st. 10lbs.), C. Hoyt .. 4
Mr. R. B. Davison's Cintra (7st. 13lbs.), Donoghue .. 4	Won by half a length; one and a half lengths; one and a half lengths. Time.—2 mins. 7 secs.
Won by one and three-quarter lengths; two lengths; one and a half lengths. Time.—1 min. 14 2-5 secs.	The Bombay Handicap. Distance 1½ miles.—
The Malabar Hill Plate. Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards.—	Mr. W. King's Love Glass (7st. 6lbs.), Aldridge .. 1

Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Risen Again (8st. 5lbs.), Burn .. 2	The Dealers' Plate. Distance 1 mile.—
Mr. R. R. S.'s Greenfinch (8st.), F. Huxley. 3	Mr. M. Goculdass' Mikado (8st. 3lbs.), R. Jones .. 1
Mr. Eve's Rowardennan (8st. 6lbs.), Bowley .. 4	Mr. Heath's Krushan (9st. 8lbs.), McPherson .. 2
Won by a short head; one and a half lengths; one length. Time—2 mins. 6 4-5 secs.	H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Kelvin Boy (8st. 10lbs.), Clarke .. 3
The Newmarket Plate. Distance 1 mile 1 furlong.—	Mr. Yussuff Haroon's Cessation (8st. 7lbs.), Morris .. 4
Mr. A. Hoyt's Bell Metal (9st. 10lbs.), Bowley .. 1	Won by two lengths; two and a half lengths; four lengths. Time—1 min. 49 2-5 secs.
Mr. Heath's Magical (7st. 2lbs.), Purtoosingh .. 2	The Gaye Plate. Distance 1 1/4 miles.—
Mr. and Mrs. Wesche-Dart's Belle Voyageur II (8st. 9lbs.), R. Jones .. 3	Mr. Eve's Rose Hill (9st. 5lbs.), Lambert .. 1
Won by one and a quarter lengths; one and a quarter lengths; three and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 53 2-5 secs.	H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Kelvin Boy (9st.), Donoghue .. 2
The Perth Plate. Distance 1 mile.—	Mr. T. M. Goculdass' Zohal (8st. 5lbs.), R. Jones .. 3
Mr. C. N. Wadia's Coleby (8st. 3lbs.), Herbert .. 1	Mr. R. S. Captain's Lamington (7st. 10lbs.), Townsend .. 4
Genl. Nawab Obaidulla Khan's Miss Evans (7st. 8lbs.), G. Smith .. 2	Won by three lengths; a neck; three-quarters of a length. Time—2 mins. 21 1-5 secs.
Mr. A. Hoyt's Bell Metal (10st.), Bowley. 3	The Gough Memorial Plate. Distance 1 mile.—
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Danzig (7st. 5lbs.), Clarke .. 4	Mr. T. M. Goculdass' Stability (8st. 1lb.), R. Jones .. 1
Won by one and a quarter lengths; three-quarters of a length; three-quarters of a length. Time—1 min. 38 2-5 secs.	Mr. M. All Asker's Arab Knight (7st. 10lbs.), Donoghue .. 2
The Epsom Plate. Distance 1 mile.—	Mr. Ahmed Hazamy's Moyeed (8st. 4lbs.), Townsend .. 3
Mr. H. B. Sorabjee's Swithin (9st. 10lbs.), Easton .. 1	Mr. Eve's Khundil (9st. 12lbs.), Bowley .. 4
Mr. W. King's Love Glass (7st. 13lbs.), R. Jones .. 2	Won by two lengths; half a length; one and a quarter lengths. Time—1 min. 50 secs.
Mr. Kelso's Tarvie (8st. 3lbs.), McPherson. 3	The Tom le Mesurier Plate. Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards.—
Mr. Eve's Rowardennan (8st. 5lbs.), Bowley 4	Mr. Heath's Hatchel (8st. 11lbs.), McPherson .. 1
Won by one and a quarter lengths; a head; a head. Time—1 min. 39 3-5 secs.	H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Waterloo (9st. 9lbs.), Perkins .. 2
The Turf Club Cup. Distance about 1 1/4 miles.—	H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Forfeit (7st. 5lbs.), Sheldon .. 3
Mr. Eve's Mandil (9st. 3lbs.), A. C. Walker. 1	S. S. Akkasaheb Maharaj's Arthur (8st. 8lbs.), Clarke .. 4
Mr. Eve's Khundil (9st. 6lbs.), Bowley .. 2	Won by a short head; three-quarters of a length; a neck. Time—1 min. 23 2-5 secs.
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Tipperary (8st. 4lbs.), Burn .. 3	The Sir Cowasjee Jehangir Plate. Distance 6 furlongs 41 yards.—
Mr. Eve's Apollo (8st. 3lbs.), R. Jones .. 4	S. S. Akkasaheb Maharaj's Gosub (7st. 12lbs.), Clarke .. 1
Won by two lengths; two and a half lengths; half a length. Time—2 mins. 45 4-5 secs.	Mr. Eve's Chieftan (8st. 2lbs.), Lambert .. 2
The Bombay Derby. Distance about 1 1/4 miles.—	Mr. Heath's Hatchel (8st. 12lbs.), McPherson .. 3
Mr. M. Goculdass' Mikado (9st. 1lb.), R. Jones .. 1	Mr. Ardeshir Cursetjee's Bismark (7st. 10lbs.), Donoghue .. 4
Mr. Eve's Khundil (9st. 7lbs.), Bowley .. 2	Won by one and a half lengths; one and a half lengths; two lengths. Time—1 min. 22 3-5 secs.
Mr. Eve's Mandil (9st. 7lbs.), A. C. Walker. 3	
S. S. Akkasaheb Maharaj's Gosub (7st. 8lbs.), Clarke .. 4	
Won by two and a half lengths; five lengths; three-quarters of a length. Time—2 mins. 46 secs.	

Poona.

The Western India Stakes. Distance 1 1/4 miles.—	Mr. A. E. Ephraums' Orange William (1st. 7lbs.), Morris .. 1
Mr. Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (7st. 11lbs.), Morris .. 1	Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Owen Roe (8st. 6lbs.), Clarke .. 2
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Gaurishankar (8st. 6lbs.), Doble .. 2	Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Solo Bridge (7st. 5lbs.), Townsend .. 2
Mr. R.R.S.'s Wasp (7st. 6lbs.), Clarke .. 3	Mr. R. R. S.'s Wasp (7st. 4lbs.), Harrison. 4
Mr. R. Gajudhur's Prague (8st. 3lbs.), Ritchie .. 4	Won by half a length; dead heat; one and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 42 secs.
Won by three-quarters of a length; three lengths; four lengths. Time—2 mins. 13 3-5 secs.	The Aga Shamsudin Plate. Distance 1 mile.—
The Aga Khan's Cup. Distance 1 1/4 miles.—	Mr. Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (8st. 8lbs.), Morris .. 1
Mr. A. Hoyt's Bell Metal (9st. 2lbs.), Bowley .. 1	Mr. R.R.S.'s Wasp (7st. 6lbs.), Clarke .. 2
Mr. A. E. Ephraums' Orange William (9st. 7lbs.), Morris .. 2	Mr. Eve's The Count (7st. 6lbs.), A. C. Walker .. 3
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Gaurishankar (9st. 7lbs.), F. Huxley .. 3	Mr. Eve's Dick Turpin (8st. 3lbs.), Bowley. 4
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Risen Again (8st. 7lbs.), McPherson .. 4	Won by one length; three-quarters of a length; a neck. Time—1 min. 45 2-5 secs.
Won by a short head; five lengths; two lengths. Time—2 mins. 35 secs.	The Ganeshkhind Plate. Distance 6 furlongs.—
The Trial Plate. Distance 1 mile.—	Mr. R. B. Davison's Cintra (7st. 5lbs.), Townsend .. 1
Mr. Eve's Flaming Orb (9st. 2lbs.), A. C. Walker .. 1	Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Owen Roe (9st. 4lbs.), Bowley .. 2
Mr. A. Hoyt's Bell Metal (9st. 2lbs.), Bowley .. 2	Mr. Vernon's Canterbury Lamb (7st. 9lbs.), McQuade .. 3
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Quarryman (8st. 7lbs.), Barnett .. 3	Mr. R.R.S.'s Wasp (7st.), Harrison .. 4
Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Owen Roe (9st. 2lbs.), Ritchie .. 4	Won by half a length; two and a half lengths; a head. Time—1 min. 13 4-5 secs.
Won by a neck; a head; half a length. Time—1 min. 43 secs.	Three Year Old Stakes. Distance 1 1/4 miles.—
The Poona Cesarewitch. Distance 2 1/4 miles.—	Mr. C. N. Wadia's Spatchcock (9st.), Buckley .. 1
Mr. H. M. Mehta's Kent Eaglet (8st. 9lbs.), Morris .. 1	Mr. N. Begmahomed's Longcoat (8st. 11lbs.), Morris .. 2
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Crab Apple (7st. 10lbs.), McQuade .. 2	Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Precious Lass (8st. 11lbs.), Clarke .. 3
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Risen Again (9st. 4lbs.), Burn .. 3	Mr. Eve's Callis (9st.), Bowley .. 4
Mr. Eve's Perfect Day (7st. 8lbs.), M. Hoyt. 4	Won by one and a quarter lengths; a short head; three lengths. Time—2 mins. 10 2-5 secs.
Won by one length; a head; three lengths. Time—3 mins. 59 1-5 secs.	he Criterion. Distance 7 furlongs.—
The St. Leger Plate. Distance R. C. and distance.—	Mr. Kelso's Harry Tate (8st. 6lbs.), McPherson .. 1
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Crab Apple (6st. 12lbs.), S. Black .. 1	Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Starshot (8st. 3lbs.), Morris .. 2
Mr. Eve's Ganymede (7st. 1lb.), M. Hoyt. 2	Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Precious Lass (7st. 10lbs.), Ritchie .. 3
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Risen Again (7st. 6lbs.), Townsend .. 3	Mr. N. A. Kazi's Ulster Lad (8st. 3lbs.), S. J. Meekings .. 4
Mr. R.R.S.'s Rabalto (7st. 1lb.), F. Black. 4	Won by half a length; a neck; one and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 30 3-5 secs.
Won by four lengths; half a length; eight lengths. Time—3 mins. 4 1-5 secs.	The Newmarket Plate. Distance 6 furlongs.—
The Stand Plate. Distance 1 mile.—	Mr. Eve's Nicety (7st. 8lbs.), A. C. Walker. 1
	Mr. R. R. S.'s Greenfinch (8st. 3lbs.), Clarke. 2
	H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Whispering (7st. 2lbs.), Sheldon .. 3
	Mr. T. M. Thaddens' Goldgainer (8st. 1lb.), Burn .. 4

Won by half a length; eight lengths; half a length. Time—1 min. 15 2-5 secs.	The Turf Club Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—
The Poona Plate. Distance about 5 furlongs.—	Mr. Eve's Apollo (8st. 2lbs.), Purtoosingh. 1
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Fille d'Or (8st.), Barnett. 1	H. H. the Maharaja of Rajppla's Tipperary (9st.), Burn .. 2
Mr. Eve's Suryakumari (9st. 10lbs.), Bowley 2	H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Baronet (7st. 2lbs.), McQuade .. 3
Mr. F. M. Gardia's Bell's Life (7st. 1lb.), M. Hoyt .. 3	H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Nafa (8s 4lbs.), Perkins .. 4
Mr. R. H. Gahagan's Precious Lass (7st. 12lbs.), Clarke .. 4	Won by a short head; half a length; a neck. Time—3 mins. 2 4-5 secs.
Won by one length; three-quarters of a length; one length. Time—1 min. 2 1-5 secs.	The Poona Arab Derby. Distance 1½ miles.—
The Eclipse Plate. Distance about 5 furlongs.—	Mr. Faayad Sulleman's Tarick (7st. 6lbs.), Townsend .. 1
Mr. F. M. Gardia's Chummy (7st. 8lbs.), Ritchie .. 1	H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Nafa (8st. 12lbs.), Perkins .. 2
Mr. Frank's Very Little (7st. 6lbs.), Harrison .. 2	Mr. T. M. Goculdass' Sheboob (7st. 11lbs.), McPherson .. 3
Mr. Eve's Nicety (9st. 4lbs.), A. C. Walker. 3	Mr. T. M. Goculdass' Zohal (8st. 12lbs.), Audas .. 4
Mr. R. B. Davison's Cintra (9st.), Townsend .. 4	Won by half a length; ten lengths; two lengths. Time—2 mins. 53 2-5 secs.
Won by one length; a short head; two lengths. Time—1 min. 6 3-5 secs.	Commemoration Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—
The Poona Country-Bred Derby. Distance 7 furlongs.—	Mr. Eve's Mandil (9st. 9lbs.), A. C. Walker 1
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Joviality (9st.), Burn 1	Mr. Moosa Faras' Faithful (8st.), Townsend .. 2
Mr. F. N. Furdoonji's Mystery (8st. 11lbs.), Perkins .. 2	Mr. Eve's Rose Hill (9st. 13lbs.), Bowley .. 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Dhar's Esme (8st. 11lbs.), Donnelly .. 3	Dr. J. E. Bharucha and Mr. G. T. Mawson's Bahadorjung (8st. 10lbs.), Easton. 4
H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Sugar Kilanti (8st. 11lbs.), Morris .. 4	Won by half a length; four lengths; one and a half lengths. Time—2 mins. 21 1-5 secs.
Won by one and a half lengths; five lengths; four lengths. Time—1 min. 33 2-5 secs.	The Arab Pony Derby. Distance 6 furlongs.—
The Poona Country-Bred St. Leger. Distance 1½ miles.—	Mr. S. R. A. Wahab's Mozan (8st. 6 lbs.), Townsend .. 1
Mr. F. N. Furdoonji's Mystery (8st. 11lbs.), Harrison .. 1	S. S. Akkasaheb Maharaja's Hishan (7st. 13 lbs.), Morris .. 2
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Joviality (9st. 7lbs.), Burn .. 2	Mr. T. M. Goculdass' Safety (8st. 10lbs.), McPherson .. 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Dhar's Esme (8st. 11lbs.), Clarke .. 3	Mr. Heath's Maylah (8st. 6lbs.), Burn .. 4
H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Sugar Kilanti (8st. 11lbs.), Morris .. 4	Won by three-quarters of a length; a head; half a length. Time—1 min. 22 2-5 secs.
Won by ten lengths; two and a half lengths; four lengths. Time—2 mins. 17 4-5 secs.	
The Governor's Cup. Distance R. C. and distance.—	
Mr. Eve's Tarick (7st. 6lbs.), Townsend .. 1	
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Nafa (7st. 13lbs.), Sheldon .. 2	
H. H. The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Baronet (7st.), McQuade .. 3	
Mr. Marks' Vazir-ul-Mulk (7st. 8lbs.), S. J. Meekings .. 4	
Won by three lengths; four lengths; six lengths. Time—3 mins. 6 3-5 secs.	

Bangalore.

Bangalore Cup. Distance about 1½ miles.—
Mr. J. S. Harper's Ship's Biscuit (8st. 13lbs.), Barratt .. 1
Mr. Eve's Silver Saint (9st.), Ritchie .. 2
Messrs. Douetl and Hartley's Kilcloon (8st. 13lbs.), Thompson .. 3
Won by three lengths; two lengths. Time—2 mins. 29 secs.
Maharaja of Mysore's Cup. Distance 1 mile.—
Mr. Eve's Happy Times (8st. 11lbs.), Ritchie .. 1
Mr. A. B. Bradshaw's Lord Jim (7st.), Bona 2
Mr. G. A. Marsh's The Gaffer (8st. 12lbs.), Huxley .. 3
Mr. Rowco's Archie's Fancy (9st. 11lbs.), Flynn .. 4.

Won by half a length; three-quarters of a length; half a length. Time—1 min. 51 secs.	Mr. Roy's Catling (9st. 7lbs.), Barratt .. 2
Miller Cup. Distance about 7 furlongs.—	Zemindar of Sivaganga's Low Forse (7st.), Bona .. 3
Mr. Eve's Happy Times (9st. 4lbs.), Ritchie 1	Mr. Karim Kazi's Lucky Lad (9st. 6lbs.), S. J. Meekings .. 4
Mr. C. Vaz's Headstrong (7st. 1lb.), Black. 2	Won by one length; two and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 17 3-5 secs.
Mr. M. Younas's Espousal (8st. 11lbs.), Barratt .. 3	The Terrace Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—
Won by a short head; three lengths. Time—1 min. 37 3-5 secs.	Maharaja of Mysore's Alexo (9st.), Thompson .. 1
Ulsoor Cup. Distance about 7 furlongs.—	Zemindar of Sivaganga's Low Forse (9st. 2lbs.), Aldridge .. 2
Mr. S. Basheer Ali's Fancy Fair (8st. 5lbs.), Ritchie .. 1	Mr. P. Pogose's Sack the Lot (8st. 2lbs.), J. G. Meekings .. 3
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Patrick (9st. 11lbs.), Siely .. 2	Mr. Harper's Tell Dennis (7st. 9lbs.), Donnelly .. 4
Mr. Deomar's Fairie Knight (10st. 7lbs.), Donnelly .. 3	Won by one length; a short head; a head. Time—1 min. 35 secs.
Won by three-quarters of a length; three lengths. Time—1 min. 37 secs.	The Eclipse Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—
Haji Sir Ismail Sait's Cup. Distance about 6 furlongs.—	Mr. G. A. Marsh's Carremar (10st. 4lbs.), Huxley .. 1
Mr. Jaganath Das's Bluster (8st. 9lbs.), A. D. Walker .. 1	Maharaja of Mysore's Winniburn (7st. 7lbs.), S. J. Meekings .. 2
Mrs. Conran Smith's Landlady (9st.), Donnelly .. 2	Zemindar of Sivaganga's Cornflower (7st. 11lbs.), Aldridge .. 3
Messrs. Soutar and Simpson's Duncraye (9st. 6lbs.), Siely .. 3	Won by three-quarters of a length; two and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 19 secs.
Maharaja of Mysore's True Grace (—), Bona .. 4	The Ootacamund Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—
Won by two and a half lengths; two lengths; a neck. Time—1 min. 22 3-5 secs.	Mr. Ahmed Hazamy's Zaitoon (9st. 6lbs.), Huxley .. 1
H. H. the Yuvaraja of Mysore's Cup. Distance about 1 mile.—	Mr. H. R. Dunk's Orphan (7st. 10lbs.), Donnelly .. 2
Mr. G. A. Marsh's Good Day (8st. 5lbs.), Huxley .. 1	Mr. H. Kadum's Mahir (9st. 4lbs.), Thompson .. 3
Messrs. Soutar and Simpson's Mount Arrarat (9st. 7lbs.), Siely .. 2	Raja of Bobbili's Limerick (7st. 2lbs.), Bona .. 4
Mr. Ivan Jones' New Orleans (8st. 8lbs.), J. G. Meekings .. 3	Won by four lengths; two and a half lengths; half a length. Time—1 min. 40 3-5 secs.
Mrs. G. Conran Smith's Landlady (8st. 10lbs.), Donnelly .. 4	The Poona Cup. Distance 5½ furlongs.—
Won by three-quarters of a length; one and a quarter lengths; a head. Time—1 min. 44 4-5 secs.	Mr. H. R. Dunk's Aeroplane (8st. 5lbs.), Donnelly .. 1
	Mr. H. Kadum's Mahir (9st. 5lbs.), Thompson .. 2
	Mr. G. A. Marsh's Khallan (8st. 9lbs.), Huxley .. 3
	Mr. Godse's Valliprasad (8st. 6lbs.), S. J. Meekings .. 4
	Won by three-quarters of a length; a neck. Time—1 min. 18 4-5 secs.
	Karachi.
	Karachi Handicap. Distance 1½ miles.—
	Mrs. Osborne Carey's Limehouse Lights (7st. 7lbs.), Balfour .. 1
	Mr. Woodward's Two Gates (8st. 10lbs.), Buckley .. 2
	Mr. Shroff's Old Chris (9st. 2lbs.), Easton .. 3

Ootacamund.

The Governor's Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—
Mr. Deomar's Fairie Knight (7st. 5lbs.), Donnelly .. 1
Mr. G. A. Marsh's The Gaffer (9st. 11lbs.), Huxley .. 2
Raja of Venkatagiri's Orme d'Or (7st. 5lbs.), Bona .. 3
Won by a short head; three-quarters of a length. Time—2 mins. 14 4-5 secs.
The Madras Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—
Mr. Pogose's The O'Malley (8st. 2lbs.), J. G. Meekings .. 1

Won by two and a half lengths; one length. Time—2 mins. 51 secs.

Khalpur Cup. Distance R. C.—

Captain Russel's Tiznoter (8st. 12lbs.), Balfour .. 1

Captain McArthur's Perception (10st. 13lbs.), Easton .. 2

Captain McArthur's Legacy (7st.), Hoyt .. 3

Won by four lengths; one and a half lengths. Time—2 mins. 42 secs.

Baghdad Handicap. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. Goorji Yacoob's Sirtib (7st. 10lbs.), Jones .. 1

Mr. Abdul Karim Reza's Falada (8st. 3lbs.), Balfour .. 2

Mr. Khanna's Rangoon (7st. 4lbs.), Oosman .. 3

Mr. Shamlan's Hero (9st.), Babajan .. 4

Won by two and a half lengths; three lengths. Time—1 min. 57 secs.

Rawalpindi.

Rawalpindi Gold Cup. Distance about 7 furlongs.—

Major Exham's Grenock (7st 4lbs.), Balfour 1

Mr. Woodward's Sandoola (9st. 11lbs.), Buckley .. 2

Major Whitaker's Wally (8st. 8lbs.), Alford .. 3

Captain Farrar and Mr. Roberts' Pure Gem (10st. 12lbs.), Callanan .. 4

Won by one and three-quarter lengths; two lengths; two and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 34 secs.

Patrons' Cup. Distance about 1 mile.—

Captain Carpentier's Rambler (8st. 6 lbs.), Alford .. 1

Major Glendinning's Melwood (10st. 12 lbs.), Owner .. 2

Major Bowhay and Captain Plunkett's Homespun (10st.), Harraway .. 3

Captain McArthur's Perception (10st. 8lbs.), Balfour .. 4

Won by a head; one length; three-quarters of a length. Time—1 min. 49 2-5 secs.

Northern India Stakes. Distance about 1½ miles—

Captain Barker's St. Bee (8st.), Balfour .. 1

Colonel Stewart's Buff Mail (7st.), Tymon .. 2

Mr. Pigott's Pinsk (9st. 12lbs.), Captain Newill .. 3

Won by two lengths; one and a half lengths. Time—2 mins. 42 3-5 secs.

Arcadian Chase. Distance 2½ miles (steeplechase).—

Captain Cox's Mr. Jinks (10st. 8lbs.), Owner 1

Major Hunt's Razzle Dazzle (9st. 12lbs.), Mr. McCarthy .. 2

Mr. Webber's Lure (11st. 5lbs.), Owner .. 3

Won by one and a half lengths; twenty lengths. Time—5 mins. 4 3-5 secs.

Punjab Army Cup. Distance about 2½ miles (steeplechase).—

Mr. Graham's Prim (12st. 10lbs.), Mr. Leatham .. 1

Captain Watson's Epicurean (9st.), Owner .. 2

Colonel Brooker's Jamadar (11st. 2lbs.), Captain Martin .. 3

Lt. Ajaib Singh's Night Cap (10st. 10lbs.), Mr. McCarthy .. 4

Won by two lengths; two lengths; one and a quarter lengths. Time—5 mins. 13 2-5 secs.

Tradesmen's Cup. Distance about 6 furlongs—

Mr. W. King's Mocassin (7st.), Buckley .. 1

Major Vanrenen's Irish Love (7st.), Alford .. 2

Won by six lengths. Time—1 min. 24 4-5 secs.

Kashmir Cup. Distance about 1 mile 1 furlong.—

Major Misa's Leddiston (9st.), Owner .. 1

Major Jackson's Sensford (—), Captain Carpentier .. 2

Majors Bruce and Newton's Treddle (12st. 4lbs.), Mr. Jerrom .. 3

Captain Martin's Phalarian (9st.), Edwards .. 4

Won by two lengths; half a length; one and a half lengths. Time—2 mins. 1 sec.

Rawalpindi Stakes. Distance about 5 furlongs—

Captain Farrar's Poliduct (8st. 10lbs.), Edwards .. 1

Captain Cox's Hardware (8st. 10lbs.), Meherjee .. 2

Major Vanrenen's Irish Love (8st. 2lbs.), Alford .. 3

Mrs. Sydney Smith's Little King (8st. 10lbs.), Bona .. 4

Won by one and a quarter lengths; half a length; one length. Time—1 min. 5 secs.

Northern Cup. Distance about 1 mile.—

Mrs. Stewart's Carlisle (8st. 5lbs.), Marland .. 1

Captain Eagles' Ruddigore (8st. 9lbs.), Major Guild .. 2

Mr. Sulleman's Sinnan (9st. 12lbs.), Buckley .. 3

Mr. Khanna's Rangoon (8st. 2lbs.), Hoyt .. 4

Won by a head; two lengths. Time—1 min. 58 3-5 secs.

Secunderabad.

The Nizam's Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Major Khader Beg's Vauclerc (7st. 6 lbs.), Purtoosingh .. 1

Mr. A. B. Bradshaw's Vlamertinghe (8st. 6lbs.), Donnelly .. 2

Mr. Lakshman Reddy's Floral Fete (8st. 5lbs.), Audas .. 3

Won by two lengths; a short head. Time—1 min. 22 secs.

Commander-in-Chief's Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr. Ali Asker's Fearless (9st. 5lbs.), Audas .. 1

Mr. Ali Asker's Black Rock (9st. 8lbs.), Purtoosingh .. 2

Mr. Rahimtoolla Salt's Applause (9st. 5lbs.), Donnelly .. 3

Won by a neck; two lengths. Time—1 min. 33 secs.

The Resident's Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—

Mr. S. A. Kuppawamy's Sugar Kilkite (9st. 18lbs.), Audas .. 1

Nawab Nazir Jung Bahadur's Estella (7st. 13lbs.), Harrison .. 2

Mr. A. R. Kesava Moodellar's Corundum (9st. 1lb.), Purtoosingh .. 3

Won by one and a half lengths; a short head. Time—1 min. 7 secs.

The Wahab Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Major-General G. Ponsonby's Orphan (9st. 6lbs.), Donnelly .. 1

Mr. Rajmahomed Vazir's Lucknow (9st. 7lbs.), Purtoosingh .. 2

Mr. S. R. A. Wahab's Sultan (9st.), Harrison .. 3

Won by a neck; half a length. Time—1 min. 42 2-5 secs.

The Orr Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—

Mr. H. R. Dunk's Aeroplane (8st. 6lbs.), Donnelly .. 1

Mr. S. R. A. Wahab's Mozan (9st. 10lbs.), Thompson .. 2

Messrs. S. R. A. Wahab and H. Ahmed's Mabdri (8st. 3lbs.), Audas .. 3

Won by three lengths; two lengths. Time—1 min. 10 4-5 secs.

Quetta.

A. G. G.'s Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Lt.-Colonel A. B. Beauman's Cyanite (10st. 1lb.), Tymon .. 1

Mr. E. Griffiths' Easter Holiday (10st. 9lbs.), Mr. G. Colchester .. 2

Captain J. A. Aizlewood's Uphill (10st. 12lbs.), Feroze Khan .. 3

Lt.-Colonel A. K. Heyland's Crookhey Hall (10st. 9lbs.), Harraway .. 4

Won by half a length; half a length; three lengths. Time—1 min. 46 1-5 secs.

Quetta Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mrs. Osborne Carey's Limehouse Lights (11st.), Balfour .. 1

Major Jackson's Sensford (11st.), Harraway .. 2

Mr. Templeman's O. C. Honeymoon (9st.), Captain Bernard .. 3

Mr. Samali's Fair Lad (7st. 8lbs.), Khuda Baksh .. 4

Won by one length; five lengths. Time—2 mins. 21 3-5 secs.

Kelat Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. K. Lindsay Smith's Arab Duke (9st.), Harraway .. 1

Captain M. Cox's Hardware (11st. 12lbs.), Meherjee .. 2

Khan Bahadur Sardar Jemal Khan's Saraswati (7st. 12lbs.), Tymon .. 3

Lt.-Colonel G. Tate's Golden Sand (10st. 12lbs.), W. Jones .. 4

Won by half a length; half a length; six lengths. Time—1 min. 57 1-5 secs.

Abdul Sattar's Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Major W. B. White's Forest Lover (11st. 12lbs.), W. Jones .. 1

Captain R. G. MacArthur's Legacy (8st. 11lbs.), Harraway .. 2

Mr. D. W. Bruce and Major C. Newton-Davis' Toddy (7st. 10lbs.), Tymon .. 3

Captain R. G. MacArthur's Perception (11st. 8lbs.), Meherjee .. 4

Won by five lengths; two lengths; one and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 47 2-5 secs.

Wazir-i-Azam's Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Haji Bal Baran Khan's Gul Khandan (8st. 6lbs.), Khan Beg .. 1

H. H. the Khan of Kelat's Shams (9st. 10lbs.), Captain Bernard .. 2

Mir Mewa Khan's Kaptan (10st. 8lbs.), Major Pim .. 3

Syed Mahomed Alam Shah's The Rose (10st. 10lbs.), Ghulam Jan .. 4

Won by three lengths; a short head. Time—1 min. 24 4-5 secs.

Kelat Plate. Distance 1 mile.—

Mir Mewa Khan's Kaptan (11st.), Major Pim .. 1

Mallik Pir Mahomed's Narghis (10st.), W. Jones .. 2

Haji Baran Khan's Gul Khandan (9st. 12lbs.), Khan Beg .. 3

Nawab Merab Khan's Garj (9st. 4lbs.), Abdul Raschid .. 4

Won by three and a half lengths; a neck. Time—2 mins. 1 1-5 secs.

Desert Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—

Major Knott's Chungiz (8st. 5 lbs.), Harraway .. 1

Messrs. Hasanally and Contractor's Honey-suckle (9st. 3lbs.), Harraway .. 2

Sardar Haji Mahomed Khan's Auditor (7st 12lbs.), W. Jones .. 3

Mallik Jan Mahomed's Blue Beard (9st. 12lbs.), Mahomed Yusuf .. 4

Won by four and a half lengths; three lengths. Time—3 mins. 0 1-5 secs.

Arabia Plate. Distance 1 mile.—

- H. H. the Mir of Knairpur's Rare Find (7st. 10lbs.), W. Jones .. 1
 Major Edwards' Karun (7st. 4lbs.), Saye .. 2
 Messrs. Hasanally and Contractor's Honey-suckle (9st. 4lbs.), Balfour .. 3
 Captain MacArthur's Mohsel (8st. 13lbs.), Harraway .. 4
 Won by two lengths; three lengths.
 Time—1 min. 55 3-5 secs.

Ambala.

- Punjab Cup. Distance 1 mile 5 furlongs.—
 Nawab of Mamdot's O. K. (10st. 3lbs.), Captain Kemp .. 1
 Miss Anderson's Queen Bess (10st. 3lbs.), Colonel Mathews .. 2
 Miss Anderson's St. Ethelberga (10st. 3lbs.), Edwards .. 3
 Captain Carpentier's Ranger (9st. 7lbs.), Captain Bernard .. 4
 Won by ten lengths; eight lengths. Time—3 mins. 27 secs.

Leopardstown Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

- Lt.-Colonel Stewart's Buff Mail (7st. 10lbs.), Alford .. 1
 Mr. Ray's Jaunt (9st. 12lbs.), Edwards .. 2
 Mr. Woodward's Two Gates (9st. 12lbs.), Captain Bernard .. 3
 Lt.-Colonel Beauman's Cyanite (7st.), Tymon .. 4
 Won by one length; three-quarters of a length; three lengths. Time—1 min. 57 secs.

Shahzadpur Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

- Captain MacArthur's Perception (10st. 12lbs.), Edwards .. 1
 Mr. Roscoe's Romance (7st. 13lbs.), Saye .. 2
 Captain MacArthur's Legacy (7st. 3lbs.), Babu Lal .. 3
 Captain Carpentier's Rambler (8st. 2lbs.), Tymon .. 4
 Won by a neck; one length; two lengths. Time—1 min. 21 1-2 secs.

Kashmir Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—

- Major Grant's Cockle Shell (8st. 7lbs.), Edwards .. 1
 Major Jackson's Sensford (8st. 12lbs.), Tymon .. 2
 Mr. Bhargava's Lace (10st.), Purtoosingh .. 3
 Lt.-Colonel Stewart's Storo (8st. 12lbs.), Alford .. 4
 Won by one length; two and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 10 secs.

Ambala Cup. Distance 1 1/4 miles (hurdles)—

- Captain Aislewood's Uphill (11st. 12lbs.), Tassie .. 1
 Seth Shub Chand's Sage (11st. 12lbs.), Edwards .. 2

- Lt.-Colonel Stewart's Abbess (9st.), Captain Richards .. 3
 Won by half a length; one and a half lengths. Time—Not taken.

Aleppo Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—

- Mr. Dilawar Singh's Mundooob (7st. 6lbs.), Ghassita .. 1
 Mr. Shaw's Coronation (7st. 8lbs.), Tymon .. 2
 Mr. Rajmahomed Vazir's Lucknow (9st. 7lbs.), Purtoosingh .. 3
 Mr. Madadin Gupta's Mount Pleasant (7st.), Bona .. 4
 Won by half a length; three lengths. Time—54 secs.

Mysore.

H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Cup. Distance 1 1/4 miles.—

- Raja of Sivaganga's Low Forse (7st. 4lbs.), Black .. 1
 Messrs. Soutar and Simpson's Fair Deal (7st. 5lbs.), Siely .. 2
 H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's King's Daughter (8st. 2lbs.), Thompson .. 3
 Mr. G. A. Marsh's The Gaffer (8st. 12lbs.), Huxley .. 4
 Won by three lengths; half a length; half a length. Time—2 mins. 13 1-5 secs.

Haji Sir Ismail Salt's Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—

- Mr. N. A. Kazi's Lucky Lad (8st. 6lbs.), S. J. Meekings .. 1
 Raja of Sivaganga's Low Forse (8st.), Aldridge .. 2
 Mr. J. S. Nicholl's Nicaragua (9st. 6lbs.), Huxley .. 3
 Won by a head; one and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 3 2-5 secs.

Sirdar Lakshmikantharaj Urs' Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

- H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Max (8st. 9lbs.), Thompson .. 1
 Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Patrick (9st. 13lbs.), Flynn .. 2
 Mr. C. H. Northmore's Pamphylia (8st. 4lbs.), A. D. Walker .. 3
 Won by one and three-quarters lengths; three lengths. Time—1 min. 30 secs.

Balkumar's Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

- Mr. M. Ali Asker's Fearless (8st. 6 lbs.), A. D. Walker .. 1
 Raja of Sivaganga's Criadillo (10st. 6lbs.), Aldridge .. 2
 Captain Besavaraaj Urs and Mr. M. Ali Asker's Black Rock (7st. 12lbs.), S. J. Meekings .. 3
 Won by one and a half lengths; half a length. Time—1 min. 47 secs.

Kolhapur.

Maharaja Cup. Distance 1 1/4 miles.—

- Mr. Andrade's Prince Hamed (7st. 3lbs.), Black .. 1
 Genl. Obaidulla Khan's Somali (8st. 5lbs.), Morris .. 2
 Mr. Kelso's Irrigate (8st. 7lbs.), McPherson 3
 Won by two and a quarter lengths; four lengths. Time—2 mins. 11 4-5 secs.

Shivaji Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

- Nawabzada Sayeed Azafar Khan's Lady Rita (9st. 12lbs.), Barnett .. 1
 Mr. A. B. Sethna's The Lily (8st. 4lbs.), Oomerkhan .. 2
 S. S. Akkasabeb Maharaj's Bathurst (8st. 2lbs.), McQuade .. 3
 Won by two lengths; a neck. Time—1 min. 47 secs.

Maharani Cup. Distance 1 1/4 miles.—

- Mr. H. Kadum's Rajput (8st. 6lbs.), S. Black .. 1
 H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Ramban (8st. 12lbs.), Sheldon .. 2
 Mr. Abdulla Mana's Adwan (9st. 4lbs.), Audas .. 3
 Mr. Ardeshr Cursetjee's Cairo (8st. 8lbs.), McPherson .. 4
 Won by a head; half a length; one length. Time—2 mins. 25 4-5 secs.

Meerut.

Governor's Cup. Distance about 2 miles (Steeplechase).—

- Mr. Graham's Prim (12st. 10lbs.), Owner .. 1
 Mr. Dillon's The Baron (10st. 12lbs.), Mr. Mansel .. 2
 Captain Cox's Mr. Jinks (12st. 3lbs.), Captain Garner .. 3
 Lt.-Colonel Stewart's Traveller (12st. 10lbs.), Captain Martin .. 4
 Won by two lengths; two lengths. Time—4 mins. 12 secs.

Patiala Cup. Distance 2 miles (Steeplechase).—

- Lt.-Colonel Sulton and Mr. Leetham's Little Imp (10st. 10lbs.), Mr. Leetham. 1
 Captain Harman's Sheba (10st. 10lbs.), Captain Newill .. 2
 Mr. A. M. McGrigor's Lady Daphne (10st. 10lbs.) .. 3
 Won by four lengths; distance. Time—4 mins. 10 4-5 secs.

Meerut Chase. Distance about 2 1/4 miles (Steeplechase).—

- Mr. Graham's Prim (12st. 11lb.), Callanan. 1
 Mr. Dillon's The Baron (10st. 21lbs.), Captain Roberts .. 2
 Mr. Eustace Smith's Little Imp (9st. 4lbs.), Mr. Leetham .. 3
 Lt.-Colonel Stewart's Traveller (11st. 12lbs.), Captain Martin .. 4

H. H. the Yuvaraja of Mysore's Cup. Distance 1 1/4 miles.—

- Mr. A. Sattar's Lookhman (9st. 2lbs.), Barrett .. 1
 Mr. H. Kadum's Mahir (8st. 9lbs.), Thompson .. 2
 Mr. M. Ali Asker's Arab Knight (10st. 2lbs.), S. J. Meekings .. 3
 Won by three and a half lengths; half a length. Time—2 mins. 31 secs.

Gwallor.

Scindia Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

- Mr. Vernon's Some Scribe (8st. 9lbs.), Harrison .. 1
 Mr. T. Goculdass' Catchup (9st.), Audas .. 2
 Mr. Basheerall's Black Peter (8st. 8lbs.), C. Hoyt .. 3
 Mr. A. Hoyt's Country Lad (9st. 12lbs.), M. Hoyt .. 4
 Won by two lengths; two and a quarter lengths; four lengths. Time—1 min. 41 2-5 secs.

Turf Club Plate. Distance 6 furlongs.—

- Mr. T. Goculdass' Catchup (8st. 10lbs.), McPherson .. 1
 Mr. Vernon's Some Scribe (9st.), Thompson. 2
 Mr. Eve's Cracknel (8st. 6 lbs.), Aldridge .. 3
 Mr. Dara Cowasjee's Zea (8st. 4lbs.), McQuade .. 4
 Won by a head; a neck. Time—1 min. 15 secs.

Byculla Handicap. Distance 1 mile.—

- Mr. Eve's Cracknel (8st. 4lbs.), Aldridge .. 1
 Mr. Harrison's Night Watch (9st.), Audas .. 2
 Mr. Dara Cowasjee's Zea (7st. 8lbs.), McQuade .. 3
 Won by one and a half lengths; a neck. Time—1 min. 42 1-5 secs.
 Catchup won this race, but was disqualified for crossing.

Yuvaraj Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

- Mr. Furdoojji's Mystery (9st. 13lbs.), Harrison .. 1
 Mr. A. Hoyt's Discarded (9st. 11lb.), M. Hoyt .. 2
 Mr. Basheerall's Monsoon Jack (8st. 8lbs.), C. Hoyt .. 3
 H. H. the Maharaja of Dhar's Devotion (9st.), McQuade .. 4
 Won by a neck; two and a half lengths; two and a quarter lengths. Time—1 min. 44 secs.

Mathradas Goculdass Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

- Mr. T. Goculdass' Hazal (9st. 4lbs.), Audas 1
 Mr. Eve's Some Scamp (8st. 13lbs.), Bowley 2
 Mr. Rajmahomed Vazir's Lucknow (8st. 6lbs.), Purtoosingh .. 3
 Mr. Rajmahomed Vazir's Chanchoon (8st. 4lbs.), J. G. Meekings .. 4
 Won by one and a half lengths; four lengths. Time—1 min. 44 secs.

Won by five lengths; two lengths. Time—5 mins. 23 3-5 secs.	Raja Sripal Singh's Sarfaraz (9st. 12lbs.), Buckley 3
Meerut Military Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—	Mr. Kashi Charan's Amphitryon (7st. 11lb.), McQuade 4
Major Hughes' Slipalong (9st. 13lbs.), Captain Newill 1	Won by one and a half lengths; one and a half lengths. Time—2 mins. 11 2-5 secs.
Major Jackson's Sensford (12st. 11lb.), Captain Carpenter 2	Stewards' Plate. Distance 1 mile.—
Captain Aizlewood's Uphill (11st. 3lbs.), Captain Misa 3	Mr. Deane's Cider (7st. 11lb.), Tymon .. 1
Captain Kalrwan's Curragha (9st.), Major Guild 4	Mr. Abdulla's Apple Blossom (9st. 4lbs.), Thompson 2
Won by two lengths; two and a half lengths. Time—2 mins. 43 1-5 secs.	Mr. Woodward's The Knut (11st. 4lbs.), Buckley 3
Service Plate. Distance 6 furlongs.—	Mr. Bhargava's Cachalong (7st. 9lbs.), Purtoosingh 4
Major Jackson's Sensford (11st. 12lbs.), Captain Carpenter 1	Won by three-quarters of a length; half a length; one and a quarter lengths. Time—1 min. 45 1-5 secs.
Major Rennie's Repartee (10st. 9lbs.), Major Misa 2	Meerut Silver Vase. Distance 6 furlongs.—
Major Ian Grant and Mr. Grant's Cheeky Girl (9st. 6lbs.), Mr. Jerrom 3	Mr. Mahomed Mahdi's Antonio (8st. 4lbs.), Purtoosingh 1
Captain Kalrwan's Curragha (9st.), Major Guild 4	Mr. Woodward's First Impressions (9st. 12lbs.), Buckley 2
Won by three-quarters of a length; four lengths; half a length. Time—1 min. 16 1-5 secs.	Mr. Mata Din's Mount Pleasant (7st. 7lbs.), Bona 2
Kader Plate. Distance R. C. and 100 yards—	Mr. Ram Sarup's Ritchie (8st. 4lbs.), C. Hoyt 4
Majors Conder and Bowhay's Middleton (9st. 12lbs.), Harraway 1	Won by a neck; dead heat; one length. Time—1 min. 25 1-5 secs.
Mr. Scott's Golden Memory (8st. 12lbs.), Sley 2	Tikra Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—
Major Bowhay and Captain Plunkett's May Fair (8st. 11lbs.), McQuade 3	Sirdars Mahomed Akram Khan and Azam Khan's Red Count (8st. 11lbs.), Jones .. 1
Won by a head; one length. Time—3 mins. 10 1-5 secs.	Mr. Fawcett's Winkle (8st. 11lbs.), Edwards .. 2
Civil Service Plate. Distance 1 mile.—	Mr. Mahomed Mahdi's Antonio (7st. 6lbs.), Purtoosingh 3
Raja Sripal Singh's Uzume (10st. 11lb.), Buckley 1	Sirdar Sant Singh Chhachi's Signaller (8st. 12lbs.), Harraway 4
Captain Farrar and Mr. Roberts' Pure Gem (11st.), Callanan 2	Won by half a length; a neck. Time—1 min. 22 1-5 secs.
Major Exham's Spring Music (8st. 4lbs.), Captain Bernard 3	
Mrs. Grant's Little Boy (7st. 4lbs.), McQuade 4	Madras.
Won by a neck; two and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 45 4-5 secs.	Governor's Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—
North Western Plate. Distance 7 furlongs.—	Mr. T. M. Ross' Wee Dote (8st. 10lbs.), Thompson 1
Mr. Northmore's House of Commons (8st. 8lbs.), Marland 1	Mr. D. A. Cama's Charles William (8st. 10lbs.), Wragg 2
Mr. Woodward's Two Gates (9st. 12lbs.), Buckley 2	Mr. M. Yoonus' Ulster Maid (7st.), H. McQuade 3
Mr. Deane's Sunline (7st. 13lbs.), Jones .. 3	Mr. Dee's Snowdrift (8st. 13lbs.), Harraway .. 4
Mr. Cogdell's Murulla (7st. 8lbs.), Bona .. 4	Won by a neck; a neck; one length. Time—2 mins. 37 4-5 secs.
Won by half a length; three-quarters of a length; a head. Time—1 min. 30 1-5 secs.	Merchants' Cup. Distance about 1 mile.—
Governor-General's Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—	Mr. and Mrs. Wesche-Dart's Cheery Girl (8st. 7lbs.), Wragg 1
Mr. Orde's Cultivator (7st.), Purtoosingh .. 1	H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's King's Daughter (7st. 5lbs.), S. J. Meekings .. 2
Mr. Wadia's The Knut (10st. 6lbs.), Edwards 2	Mr. P. C. Fernando's Grand Prix (7st. 10lbs.), Sley 3
	Sirdar Lakshmikantaraj Urs' High Road (9st.), Donnelly 4
	Won by two and a quarter lengths; a head; one length. Time—1 min. 57 2-5 secs.

Jetpore Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—	Mr. Dara Cowasjee's Quantity (7st. 5lbs.), J. Day 3
H. B. Lord Willingdon's Warburton (7st. 8lbs.), White 1	Mr. Lokhandawallah's Silver Cloud (7st. 12lbs.), Burgess 4
Sirdar Lakshmikantaraj Urs' High Road (9st. 4lbs.), Donnelly 2	Won by two and a half lengths; one length; one length. Time—2 mins. 11 1-5 secs.
H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's King's Daughter (7st. 13lbs.), S. J. Meekings .. 3	Deomar Cup. Distance about 1 mile.—
Mr. T. M. Ross' Wee Dote (9st. 5lbs.), Thompson 4	H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Ramban (8st. 9lbs.), Hewitt 1
Won by a neck; one length; a short head. Time—2 mins. 10 4-5 secs.	Mr. Lokhandawallah's Silver Cloud (8st. 12lbs.), Thompson 2
Pethachi Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—	Sir Ismail Salt's Kletitor (8st. 12lbs.), H. McQuade 3
Mr. Yoonus' Bosworth (9st. 4lbs.), H. McQuade 1	Mr. Gulam Mahomed Jusub's Favil (8st. 5lbs.), Wragg 4
Mr. Deomar's Fairie Knight (7st. 12lbs.), Donnelly 2	Won by four lengths; a head; one length. Time—1 min. 54 3-5 secs.
Mr. J. O. Robinson's Daffum (8st. 3lbs.), J. G. Meekings 3	Stewards' Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—
Mr. Brendon's Chatty Tales (7st. 12lbs.), Clarke 4	Mr. J. S. Nicoll's Nicaragua (8st.), S. J. Meekings 1
Won by a neck; a neck; one length. Time—2 mins. 41 secs.	The Maharaja of Mysore's Affable (9st.), Hewitt 2
Mysore Cup. Distance 1 mile.—	Mr. M. Azan's Luxul (8st. 12lbs.), J. McQuade 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shirts (9st. 4lbs.), Hewitt 1	Mr. Pettit's Belle Syme (9st. 8lbs.), Aldridge .. 4
H. H. the Raja of Bobbili's Applique (7st. 10lbs.), Donnelly 2	Won by half a length; three-quarters of a length; three-quarters of a length. Time—1 min. 17 1-5 secs.
Mr. C. N. Wadia's The Knut (9st. 9lbs.), Wragg 3	Trades Cup. Distance 1 mile.—
Mr. Vernon's Sugarcane (10st.), Thompson .. 4	Mr. M. Ryan's Toss Up (8st. 11lbs.), M. Hoyt 1
Won by one length; a neck; two lengths. Time—1 min. 46 3-5 secs.	Mr. W. S. J. Willson's Slogan (9st. 4lbs.), Beasley 2
Sivaganga Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—	The Maharaja of Mysore's King's Daughter (9st. 8lbs.), Brown 3
Mr. Hussain's Black Top (9st. 8lbs.), Babajan 1	Raja of Sivaganga's Low Force (9st.), Calder 4
Zemindar of Sivaganga's Criadillo (7st. 4lbs.), White 2	Won by one and a quarter lengths; two and a quarter lengths; a head. Time—1 min. 44 3-5 secs.
H. H. the Raja of Bobbili's Applique (8st. 8lbs.), Donnelly 3	Travancore Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—
Mr. Mahdi and Captain Baswaraj Urs' Black Rock (8st. 3lbs.), H. McQuade .. 4	Mr. A. Sattar's Scindia (8st. 13lbs.), Fozard .. 1
Won by half a length; one length; two and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 17 4-5 secs.	The Maharaja of Mysore's Hill and Dale (8st. 13lbs.), Hewitt 2
Lady Willingdon Plate. Distance 1½ miles.—	Mr. Nugent Grant's Sunny Lady (9st. 2lbs.), S. J. Meekings 3
Mr. Ahmed Hazamy's Don't Care (8st. 3lbs.), Raymond 1	Messrs. Wilson and Dawson's Princess Jabby (7st. 11lbs.), Beasley 4
Mr. Lokhandawallah's Mahtab (8st. 5lbs.), Burgess 2	Won by one length; one length; half a length. Time—1 min. 17 3-5 secs.
Mr. Bomanji's Logic (8st. 5lbs.), Harraway 3	Bobbili Cup. Distance 1 mile.—
Mr. A. R. Dakeel's Napoleon (7st. 6lbs.), White 4	Mr. A. R. Dakeel's Black Ivory (8st. 2lbs.), J. McQuade 1
Won by one and a half lengths; two lengths; half a length. Time—3 mins. 32 2-5 secs.	Mr. S. R. A. Wahab's Sultan (7st. 11lb.), S. J. Meekings 2
Cochin Cup. Distance 1 mile 1 furlong.—	Mr. Wesche-Dart's Zohal (9st. 6lbs.), Audas 3
Mr. F. Bomanji's Logic (7st. 12lbs.), Sley .. 1	Mr. Sattar's Lookhman (9st. 11lb.), Fozard .. 4
Major H. H. Harford's Shah (7st. 8lbs.), Wragg 2	

Won by a neck; one and a quarter lengths; four lengths. Time—1 min. 54 1-5 secs.

Hafee Sir Ismail Sait's Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Kandinava (8st. 6lbs.), Brown .. 1

Mr. Eve's Raad (7st. 6lbs.), M. Hoyt .. 2

Mr. Wesche-Dart's Naldera (7st. 8lbs.), Bullock .. 3

The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Rami (8st. 6lbs.), Aldridge .. 4

Won by one length; one length; two lengths. Time—1 min. 56 4-5 secs.

Mysore Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Shirtaj (10st. 3lbs.), Aldridge .. 1

Mr. Ali Asker's Black Rock (7st. 11lbs.), M. Hoyt .. 2

Raja of Sivaganga's Criadillo (8st. 13lbs.), Beasley .. 3

Raja of Bobbili's Applicate (8st.), Bullock .. 4

Won by one length; three-quarters of a length; half a length. Time—1 min. 48 2-5 secs.

Lucknow.

Civil Service Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Mr. Douetill's Bachelor's Siren (10st. 7 lbs.), J. Harrison .. 1

Captain Farrar and Mr. Robert's Pure Gem (7st. 13lbs.), Edwards .. 2

H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Little Spec (8st. 13lbs.), O'Brien .. 3

Mr. Garda's Lumination B. (8st. 6lbs.), M. Hoyt .. 4

Won by three-quarters of a length; one length; half a length. Time—1 min. 17 secs.

Governor's Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. Bashir Ali's Curator (8st. 12lbs.), Ritchie .. 1

Mr. Ramshaw's Florella (8st. 5lbs.), M. Hoyt .. 2

Mrs. Hewson's Catling (9st. 12lbs.), Bloss .. 3

Mrs. Willson's Still Better (7st. 12lbs.), Donoghue .. 4

Won by a head; two lengths; three-quarters of a length. Time—1 min. 42 2-5 secs.

Harcourt Butler Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Captain Crawford's Stellite (9st. 2lbs.), Edwards .. 1

Mr. Bashir Ali's Curator (8st. 8lbs.), Ritchie .. 2

Mr. Kashi Charan's Brony (7st. 13lbs.), Balfour .. 3

Mrs. Hewson's Catling (9st. 13lbs.), Doble .. 4

Won by three-quarters of a length; one and a quarter lengths; one length. Time—1 min. 15 1-5 secs.

Stewards' Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—

Messrs. Mottabhooy and Rajmahomed Vazir's Old Chris (8st. 7lbs.), Purtoosingh .. 1

Mr. Jackson's Princess Fari (9st.), Thompson .. 2

Mr. Main's Staples (9st. 10lbs.), Cooper .. 3

Mr. Pigott's Stellite (9st. 8lbs.), Edwards .. 4

Won by a neck; half a length; half a length. Time—1 min. 17 3-5 secs.

Patiala Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—

Mr. Brendon's Storthing (8st. 11lb.), Edwards .. 1

Mr. Coningham's Hungary (8st. 10lbs.), Doble .. 2

Mr. B. N. Bhargava's Lace (9st. 9lbs.), Purtoosingh .. 3

Mrs. Willson's Still Better (8st. 9lbs.), J. Flynn .. 4

Won by two lengths; two and a half lengths; a neck. Time—1 min. 3 1-5 secs.

Points Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Major Kavanagh's Madam Sequin (9st. 2lbs.), Buckley .. 1

Mr. Brendon's Storthing (9st. 10lbs.), Edwards .. 2

Balkut of Balkunthapur's Dynamo (10st.), Doble .. 3

Mr. Northmore's Bachelor Girl (7st.), C. Hoyt .. 4

Won by three-quarters of a length; one length; three-quarters of a length. Time—1 min. 32 3-5 secs.

Army Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr. Roscoe's Baalmazol (10st. 11lbs.), Mr. Webber .. 1

Lt.-Colonel Gill's Vliager (11st. 12lbs.), Owner .. 2

Major Misa's Leddiston (10st. 2lbs.), Owner .. 3

Major Chapman's Edgar's Jewel (9st. 3lbs.), Major Guild .. 4

Won by one and a half lengths; two lengths; half a length. Time—1 min. 31 secs.

Jehangirabad Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—

Mr. Douetill's Bachelor's Siren (9st. 13lbs.), J. Harrison .. 1

Mr. Garda's Lumination B. (8st. 3lbs.), M. Hoyt .. 2

Balkut of Balkunthapur's Elsie R. (9st. 13lbs.), Doble .. 3

Mr. Hobday's Mool (7st. 7lbs.), Ritchie .. 4

Won by three and a half lengths; three lengths; dead heat. Time—1 min. 3 secs.

Frag Narain Bhargava Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr. B. N. Bhargava's Cachalong (7st. 9lbs.), Purtoosingh .. 1

Lahore.

Punjab Cup. Distance round the course.—

Major Vanrenen's Winston (10st.) Meherjee. 1

Captain Marshall's Theresa (10st. 4lbs.), Captain Gamble. } Dead heat 2

Colonel Steel and Captain Barnett's Radiograph (10st. 3lbs.), Colonel Steel .. }

Captain Inglis' Glen d'Or (10st. 11lbs.), Captain Broadfoot .. 4

Won by four lengths; dead heat; half length. Time—3 mins. 16 secs.

North-Western Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. Woodward's Two Gates (9st. 12lbs.), Captain Bernard .. 1

Major Hughes' Slip Along (7st. 8lbs.), Massey .. 2

Major Grant's Cockle Shell (9st. 5lbs.), A. D. Walker .. 3

Captain Teague and Mr. Fairley's La Mienne (8st. 11lb.), Edwards .. 4

Won by two lengths; short head; one length. Time—1 min. 45 secs.

Lahore Produce Stakes. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr. Reveley's Manners (8st. 5lbs.), Edwards. 1

Major Bowman and Captain Plunkett's Pomona (8st. 13lbs.) .. 2

Major Vanrenen's Irish Love (9st. 7lbs.), Marland .. 3

Mr. Roscoe's Romance (9st. 7lbs.), Captain Bernard .. 4

Won by three-quarters of a length; five lengths; eight lengths. Time—1 min. 31 4-5 secs.

Governor's Cup. Distance 1 mile.—

Major White's Forest Lover (10st. 6lbs.), Flynn .. 1

Captain MacArthur's Legacy (7st. 7lbs.), Babu Lal .. 2

Mr. Woodward's The Knot (11st. 7lbs.), Captain Bernard .. 3

Captain MacArthur's Perception (10st. 9lbs.), Edwards .. 4

Won by one and a half lengths; half a length; one length. Time—1 min. 46 3-5 secs.

Lahore Cesarewitch. Distance round the course.—

Captain Newill's Worcester (9st. 12lbs.), Owner .. } Dead heat 1

Lt.-Colonel Beaumont's Cyanite (8st. 11lb.), Tynon .. }

Sirdar Jewan Singh's Casket (8st. 11lb.), Bona .. 3

Lt.-Colonel Conder's Pomret (9st. 2 lbs.), Captain Bernard .. 4

Dead heat; half a length; half a length. Time—3 mins. 8 1-5 secs.

Breeders' Cup. Distance 2½ miles.—

Mr. Shaw's Emerald (9st. 10lbs.), Captain Newill .. 1

Mr. Skinner's Cultivator (7st. 12lbs.), Meherjee .. 2

Mr. Bashir Ali's Monsoon Jack (7st. 5lbs.), H. McQuade .. 3

Mr. Abdulla's Apple Blossom (8st. 9lbs.), Thompson .. 4

Won by one and a quarter lengths; three-quarters of a length; a head. Time—1 min. 33 2-5 secs.

ownes Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Capt. Plunkett and Major Bowhay's Home-spun (7st. 4lbs.), M. Hoyt .. 1

Raja Sripal Singh and Kaur Rajendra Singh's Sarfaraz (10st. 4lbs.), J. Harrison .. 2

Sirdar Sant Singh Chhachhi's Come On (7st. 6lbs.), Balfour .. 3

Mr. Kashi Charan's Amphyrion (—) .. 4

Won by one and a quarter lengths; one and a half lengths. Time—1 min. 30 2-5 secs.

Indian Grand Military Steeplechase. Distance 2½ miles.—

Captain Hilliard's Ordex (12st. 8lbs.), Mr. Walker .. 1

Lt.-Colonel Sutton and Mr. Leatham's Little Imp (9st. 7lbs.), Capt. Newill .. 2

Major Hunt's Razzle Dazzle (9st. 10lbs.), Captain Creagh .. 3

Won by half a furlong; four lengths. Time—5 mins. 14 3-5 secs.

Lucknow Grand National. Distance 2½ miles (Steeplechase).—

Major Lucas' Aethenian (12st. 3lbs.), Captain Newill .. 1

Mr. Graham's Prim (11st. 10lbs.), Mr. Webber .. 2

Mr. Coningham's Durban (10st. 9lbs.), Bloss .. 3

Won by three-quarters of a length; five lengths. Time—5 mins. 14 secs.

Arab Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr. Jackson's Burra Slam (9st.), Thompson .. 1

Malik Jan Mahomed's Bluebeard (9st. 10lbs.), Alford .. 2

Mr. Bisheshwar Nath's Reform (7st. 5lbs.), H. McQuade .. 3

Mr. Hughes' Shemal (9st. 2lbs.), J. Harrison .. 4

Won by three lengths; two lengths; two lengths. Time—2 mins. 26 3-5 secs.

Qudd Arab Handicap. Distance 7 furlongs.—

Mr. Sulleman's Sinnan (8st. 11 lbs.), Buckley .. 1

Mr. Kershaw's Shemal (8st. 8lbs.), Ritchie .. 2

Mr. Marchand's Signaller (8st.), Balfour .. 3

Mr. Bashir Ali's Second String (8st. 7lbs.), Quinn .. 4

Won by a short neck; one and a quarter lengths; one length. Time—1 min. 39 2-5 secs.

Malik Rabnawaz Khan's Arab Duke (9st. 12lbs.), J. Flynn 2	Won by two lengths; a short head; four lengths. Time—3 mins. 24 1-5 secs.
Captain Austin's Evergreen Eve (9st. 9lbs.), Edwards 3	Service Chase. Distance about 2 miles (steeplechase).—
Major Jackson's Toby (9st. 9lbs.), Owner .. 4	Captain Hernan's Sheba (10st. 12lbs.), Captain Cragh
Won by two and a half lengths; ten lengths; distance. Time—5 mins. 15 2-5 secs.	Major McCudden's Rathave (11st. 3lbs.), Captain Milton
Kashmir Cup. Distance 1 mile.—	Mr. Leetham's Little Imp (10st. 2lbs.), Major Misa
Major Vanrenen's Irish Love (8st. 4lbs.), Marland 1	Major Hunt's Razzle Dazzle (9st. 13lbs.), Captain Martin
Captain Case's Hardware (8st. 6lbs.), J. Flynn 2	Won by one and a half lengths; ten lengths; two lengths. Time—4 mins. 4 secs.
Mrs. Sydney Smith's Little King (7st. 9lbs.), Meherjee 3	Shalimar Cup.—Distance 7 furlongs—
Captain Carpenter's Dispute (7st.), Tymon	Lt.-Colonel Stewart's Buff Mail (8st.), Marland 1
Mr. Norbury's Summer Garb (7st.), Massey	Mr. Woodward's Two Gates (9st. 3lbs.), Buckley 2
Dead heat 4	Captain Bernard's Pussyfoot (9st. 5lbs.), Owner 3
Won by five lengths; four lengths; three lengths. Time—1 min. 15 2-5 secs.	Captain Crawford's Bridge (8st. 8lbs.), Alford 4
Renala Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—	Won by three lengths; half a length. Time—1 min. 30 2-5 secs.
Mr. Revely's Manners (8st. 10lbs.), Edwards. 1	"Civil and Military Gazette" Cup. Distance about 2½ miles (steeplechase).—
Major Bowman and Captain Plunkett's Pomona (9st. 8lbs.), Capt. Bernard .. 2	Captain Barker and Mr. MacIntyre's Traveller (12st. 12lbs.), Capt. Plunkett .. 1
Major Vanrenen's Loving Cup (8st. 10lbs.), Marland 3	Lt.-Colonel Brookes' Jemadar (10st. 12lbs.), Owner 2
General Raja Sir Hari Singh's Polgate (8st. 13lbs.), Alford 4	Mr. Wood's Dysart (9st.), Captain Oxley .. 3
Won by half a length; five lengths; one length. Time—1 min. 19 4-5 secs.	Captain Cox's Mr. Jinks (11st. 3lbs.), Owner 4
Patiala Cup. Distance 5 furlongs.—	Won by one length; two lengths. Time—5 mins. 14 secs.
Nawab of Mamdot's Crane (7st.), Babu Lal. 1	Woodward Cup. Distance 1 mile—
Major Vanrenen's Lady Avidity (9st. 10lbs.), Marland 2	Mr. Marchand's Signaller (7st. 10lbs.), Jones 1
Messrs. Blake and Nathan's Good Shot II (8st.), Massey 3	Mr. Sulleman's Jerwan (9st. 12lbs.), Buckley 2
Sirdar Jiwan Singh's Adelaide (7st.), Bona. 4	Mrs. Stewart's Carlisle (8st. 3lbs.), Marland 3
Won by one and a half lengths; one length; one length. Time—1 min. 5 secs.	Major Edwards' Karun (8st. 5lbs.), Saye .. 4
Mamdot Cup. Distance round the course.—	Won by one and a half lengths; two lengths. Time—1 min. 56 secs.
Malik Jan Mahomed's Bluebeard (10st. 10lbs.), Edwards 1	
Mrs. Knott's Chungiz (7st. 7lbs.), Saye .. 2	
Mrs. Stewart's Carlisle (7st. 7lbs.), Fownes. 3	
Malik Rabnawaz Khan's Delhi (7st. 7lbs.), Tymon 4	

ATHLETICS.

All-India Olympic Games.—	Hurdles (120 Yards)—C. K. Lakshman (Madras). Time—16 1-5 secs.
Modified Marathon (10 miles).—M. R. Hinge (Bombay). Time—57 mins. 29 3-5 secs.	100 Yards.—T. K. Pitt (Bengal). Time—10 2-5 secs.
Three Mile Race.—Sepoy Pala Singh (United Provinces). Time—10 mins. 10 secs.	Long Jump.—Sirdar Dalip Singh (Patiala). Distance—21 feet 9½ inches.
One Mile Race.—M. B. Venkataramanswamy (Madras). Time—4 mins. 46 3-5 secs.	High Jump.—J. C. Heathcote (Madras). Height—5 feet 9½ inches.
440 Yards.—T. K. Pitt (Bengal). Time—51 3-5 secs.	16lb. Shot Put.—A. R. Hawkes (Madras). Distance—38 feet 3½ inches.
220 Yards.—J. F. Hall (Bengal). Time—22 8-5 secs.	

RUGBY FOOTBALL.

All-India Tournament, Bombay.—	Calcutta Nil.
Calcutta 11 points.	Poona Gymkhana Tournament.—
Bombay 8 points.	Bombay Gymkhana 22 points.
Calcutta Tournament.—	King's Shropshire Light Infantry .. Nil.
Welch Regiment 4 points.	

RACKETS.

Northern India Championship Tournament, Rawalpindi.—	Birnie and Mr. MacGusty (Charterhouse) by 4 games to 1.
Open Singles.—Mr. E. St. J. Bernie beat Colonel Winsloe by 3 games to nil.	Bombay Gymkhana Tournament.—
Open Doubles.—Captain Marriott and Mr. Bernie beat Major Routh and Captain Tonks by 4 games to 1.	Open Singles.—P. M. D. Sanderson beat N. B. Macbeth by 3 games to 1.
Regimental Pairs.—Captain Marriott and Mr. Bernie (12th Cavalry) beat Captain J. W. Davidson and Captain Nadin (Probyn's Horse) by 3 games to 1.	Open Doubles.—Macbeth and Grant beat Sanderson and Borissow by 4 games to 3.
School Pairs.—Captain J. W. Davidson and Captain Marriott (Wellington) beat Mr.	Mysore Tournament.—
	Open Singles.—Said Ali Khan (Rawalpindi) beat Abdul Majid (Peshawar) by 3 games to nil.
	Open Doubles.—Lingara Urs and Sadasari beat Laxman Singh and Manockji by 8 games to 1.

POLO.

All-India Championship Tournament, Calcutta.	Viceroy's Staff Cup Tournament, Simla.—
Jodhpur 9 goals	Patiala "B" 9 goals
Cavalry School 5 goals	Indian Cavalry 2 goals
Prince of Wales' Commemoration Tournament, Delhi.—	Subsidiary Tournament, Simla.—
Patiala Tigers 6 goals	K.S.O.B. Lancers 7 goals
11th Hussars 3 goals	Snowdon 6 goals
Radhamohan Tournament, Delhi.—	Royal Dragoons' Cup Tournament, Lucknow.—
19th Lancers "B" 6 goals	Bhopal 7 goals
Viceroy's Staff 3 goals	Crimson Ramblers 6 goals
Inter-Regimental Tournament, Meerut.—	Subsidiary Tournament, Lucknow.—
11th P.A.V.O. Cavalry 6 goals	15th Lancers "A" 4 goals
Central India Horse 1 goal	The Remnants 2 goals
Subalterns' Tournament, Meerut.—	"Country Life" Cup Tournament, Lucknow.—
11th Hussars 11 goals	4th Hussars 9 goals
4th Hussars 3 goals	16th-5th Lancers "A" 8 goals
Autumn Tournament, Meerut.—	Subsidiary Tournament, Lucknow.—
21st Brigade, R.F.A. 4 goals	16th-5th Lancers "B" 4 goals
11th Hussars "B" 1 goal	5th Fusiliers 2 goals
Subsidiary Tournament, Meerut.—	Obaidullah Khan Cup Tournament, Bombay.—
6th Lancers "B" 4 goals	2nd Lancers 5 goals
6th Lancers "A" Nil	Bombay Enthusiasts 2 goals
Indian Cavalry Tournament, Lahore.—	Sir Pratap Singh Cup Tournament, Poona.—
Central India Horse 5 goals	Jodhpur State 10 goals
P.A.V.O. Cavalry 2 goals	2nd Lancers 3 goals
Beresford Cup Tournament, Simla.—	Junior Tournament, Poona.—
Patiala "A" 9 goals	Governor of Bombay's Staff 6 goals
Snowdon 2 goals	2nd Lancers 3 goals
	Tradesmen's Cup Tournament, Rawalpindi.—
	P.A.V.O. Cavalry 10 goals
	18th K.E.O. Cavalry 5 goals

Subsidiary Tournament, Rawalpindi—

1st Troops, R.H.A. ..	.. 9 goals
11th Pack Battery ..	.. 3 goals

Senior Tournament, Quetta—

Central India Horse ..	.. 13 goals
Plotsams ..	.. 1 goal

Autumn Tournament, Quetta—

Screwdrivers ..	.. 3 goals
Gunnery ..	.. 1 goal

Junior Tournament, Quetta—

Central India Horse "A" ..	.. 5 goals
20th Lancers ..	.. 4 goals

Subsidiary Tournament, Quetta—

Staff College "A" ..	.. 5 goals
Edfias ..	.. 3 goals

Cadet College Cup Tournament, Quetta—

21st Lancers ..	.. 3 goals
Tintacks ..	.. 2 goals

American Cup Tournament, Quetta—

Jodhpur State "A" ..	.. 2 goals
Central India Horse (Machine Gun) ..	1 goal

Pyagpur Tournament, Naini Tal—

The Puritans ..	.. 7 goals
The Crusaders ..	.. 4 goals

Subsidiary Tournament, Naini Tal—

The Gads ..	.. 5 goals
The I.C.S. ..	.. 1 goal

Maharaja of Mysore's Cup Tournament, Bangalore—

Mysore Cavalry "A" ..	.. 6 goals
20th Brigade, R.F.A. ..	.. 3 goals

Subsidiary Tournament, Bangalore—

2nd Sappers and Miners "A" ..	.. 7 goals
Arkhan Bryans ..	.. 4 goals

Junior Tournament, Bangalore—

Mysore Lancers "A" ..	.. 2 goals
Mysore Lancers "B" ..	.. 1 goal

Subsidiary Tournament, Bangalore—

Madras Sappers and Miners ..	.. 12 goals
Wiltshire Regiment ..	.. 3 goals

Captains' and Subalterns' Tournament, Secunderabad—

4th-7th Dragoon Guards ..	.. 5 goals
3rd Cavalry ..	.. 4 goals

Novices Tournament, Secunderabad—

4th-7th Dragoon Guards ..	.. 3 goals
3rd Cavalry ..	.. 1 goal

Coronation Cup Tournament, Pachmarhi—

Pogues ..	.. 4 goals
Paternosters ..	.. 3 goals

Subsidiary Tournament, Pachmarhi—

Indore ..	.. 5 goals
Scinde Horse ..	.. 1 goal

Wallace Cup Tournament, Allahabad—

Allahabad Gymkhana ..	.. 4 goals
71st Battery, R. F. A. ..	.. 3 goals

Hyderabad Junior Tournament, Secunderabad—

Fatfeh Maidan Gymkhana "A" ..	.. 6 goals
4th-7th Dragoon Guards Subalterns ..	2 goals

FOOTBALL.

Durand Tournament, Simla—

1st Worcestershire Regiment ..	.. 2 goals
2nd Essex Regiment ..	Nil

Indian Football Association Shield Tournament, Calcutta—

Calcutta ..	.. 2 goals
R.F.A. (Mhow) ..	Nil

Calcutta Championship League—

Cameron Highlanders "A" ..	First Division Champions.
Cameron Highlanders "B" ..	Second Division Champions.

Rovers Tournament, Bombay—

Middlesex Regiment ..	.. 2 goals
Royal Scots ..	.. 1 goal

Harwood League, Bombay—

West Yorks Regiment "A" ..	First Division Champions.
West Yorks Regiment "B" ..	Second Division Champions.

Madras Gymkhana Tournament—

Ulster Rifles ..	.. 1 goal
Green Howards ..	Nil

Northern Command A.S.C.B. Tournament, Rawalpindi—

Lancashire Fusiliers ..	.. 2 goals
"G" Division Signals ..	.. 1 goal

Madras District Army Tournament, Bangalore—

Green Howards ..	.. 2 goals
20th Brigade, R.F.A. ..	.. 1 goal

Poona District British Troops Tournament,

Poona ..	.. 3 goals
2nd Middlesex Regiment ..	Nil

Poona District Young Soldiers' Tournament,

Poona ..	.. 2 goals
1st King's Shropshire Light Infantry ..	Nil

Indian Territorials Tournament, Bangalore—

11th-3rd Madras Infantry ..	.. 1 goal
12th-3rd Madras Infantry ..	Nil

Cobb Army Y.M.C.A. Tournament, Bangalore—

45th Battery, R.F.A. ..	.. 3 goals
"C" Company, Wiltshire Regiment ..	Nil

All-India All Tournament, Secunderabad—

Remnants ..	.. 2 goals
Nizam's Regular Forces "A" ..	Nil

All-India Majed Tournament, Secunderabad—

Merry-go-round "A" ..	.. 2 goals
City High School "B" ..	.. 1 goal

Abdul Gaffur Tournament, Secunderabad—

City College ..	.. 1 goal
Afghan City Police ..	Nil

Bansal Cup Tournament, Secunderabad—

St. Patrick's ..	.. 1 goal
Wesleyan School "A" ..	Nil

Kelkar Cup Tournament, Nagpur—

South Indians ..	.. 2 goals
G. I. P. Railway ..	Nil

CRICKET.

Quadrangular Tournament, Bombay—

Mahomedans beat the Hindus by 5 wickets.
--

All-India Challenge Cup Tournament, Delhi—

B. B. and C. I. Railway (Bombay) beat the Roshanara Club (Delhi) by 144 runs.

All-India Alwar Cup Tournament, Ajmer—

Indore beat Alwar State by an innings and 27 runs.
--

Northern India Quadrangular Tournament, Lahore—

Mahomedans beat the Hindus by four wickets.

Central Provinces Quadrangular Tournament, Nagpur—

Hindus beat the Parsis by 158 runs.

Sind Pentangular Tournament, Karachi—

Hindus beat the Parsis by six wickets.
--

Kathlawar Quadrangular Tournament, Rajkot—

Halar team beat the Sorath team by 18 runs.

Quadrangular Tournament, Secunderabad—

Europeans beat the Parsis by 65 runs.

Quadrangular Tournament, Bangalore—

Bangalore Gymkhana beat Coorg and Mysore by 115 runs.

Central India Cup Tournament, Gwalior—

Raja of Pahargarh's team beat the Gwalior Military Club by an innings and 91 runs.
--

Galkwar Cup Tournament, Baroda—

Baroda College beat the Bahaudin College (Junagadh) by eight wickets.

Randle Cup Tournament, Baroda—

Prince Pratapsingh Raje's XI beat the Bank of Baroda (scratched).

Bahram-ud-Dowlah Cup Tournament, Secunderabad—

11th Pioneers beat the 4th-7th Dragoon Guards by 69 runs.

Hill Shield Tournament, Rajkot—

Talukdari G'assia School (Wadhwan) beat the Bhavsinghi High School (Porbunder) by 62 runs.
--

Rahimtulla Cup Tournament, Bombay—

St. Xavier's College beat the Elphinston College by 143 runs.

Nasik District Tournament, Nasik—

Police Training School beat the N. H. S. Young Men's C. C. by 14 runs.
--

GOLF.

Indian Amateur Championship, Calcutta—

G. E. D. Forrester beat E. J. Anderson.

Ladies' Amateur Championship of India—

Mrs. Evers beat Mrs. Robertson.

Nasik.

Western India Championship and Challenge Shield—Collin beat Jessop.

Nasik Cup—Alexander.

Military Cup—Captain Grant.

Bombay Cup—Lynch-Blosse.

President's Cup—McLean.

Handicap Cup—Spackman.

Advan Cup—Sanderson.

Handicap Foursomes—Collin and Sandeman.

Silver Medal for Best Scratch Score—McLean.

Peace Cup—Walker.

Captain's Cup—Coleridge.

Consolation Cup—Sansom.

Ladies' Handicap Medal—Mrs. Wanostrucht.

Bombay Bangle—Mrs. Butterworth beat Mrs. Collin.

Ladies' Foursomes—Mrs. Collin and Mrs. Butterworth beat Mrs. Rusby and Miss Owen.

Ladies' Silver Medal—Mrs. Butterworth.

Allied Pairs—Mrs. Martin and Von Rock.

Bombay.

Golfers' Cup—H. E. Robertson beat H. E. Cox.

MacDonald Cup—J. H. Herd beat G. C. Thow.

Bankers' and Merchants' Cup—Mackinnon, Mackenzie and Co.

St. George's Medal—J. Bullock.

Poona.

Gymkhana Championship—Captain Prall beat Colonel McLeod.

Governor's Prize—Colonel Palmer beat Captain Middleton.

Lady Wilson's Prize—Mrs. Inglis beat Mrs. Dexter-Davison.

W. I. T. C. Cup—Captain Prall.

Leach and Weborny Cup—Captain A. V. D. Jones.

Senior Competition—Colonel W. N. McLeod.

Junior Competition—Major Elliot.

Dexter-Davison Cup—Indian Medical Service beat Police.

Gulmarg.

Men's Amateur Championship of Northern India—Captain G. N. Martin beat D. Johnston.

Ladies' Amateur Championship of Northern India—Mrs. Fraser beat Mrs. Robertson.

Srinagar Open Golf Cup—Captain Wilson beat General Charles Davis.

Ootacamund.

Southern India Men's Championship—R. B. Carrick beat S. G. Forbes.

Southern India Ladies' Championship—Mrs. Gasson beat Miss Hancock.

Calcutta Cup—Mr. White beat Mr. Butler.

Quetta.

Staff College Cup—Major N. A. B. Baillie-Hamilton.

Inter-Regimental Cup—Major Baillie-Hamilton and H. K. F. Wedderburn.

R.A.M.C. Cup—S. Ldr. R. T. Leather.

Mahabaleshwar.

Governor's Cup—Wiles beat Hatch.

Willingdon Salver—Mrs. Cadell beat Mrs. Kydd.

Karachi.

Merchants' Cup—Karachi Port Trust.

WRESTLING.

Northern Command A.S.C.B. Championships—
Bantamweight—Sepoy Dya Ram beat Sepoy Partab Singh.
Lightweight—Sepoy Ramji Lal beat Sepoy Bhoj Raj.

Middleweight—Sepoy Bishen Singh beat Sepoy Babu Khan.

Catchweight—Naik Ramji Lal beat Sepoy Mahomed Bux.

YACHTING.

R. B. Y. C. Regatta—

Gordon Bennett Cup—Mr. R. McGregor's ("Wendy.")

Curzon Cup—Mr. N. B. MacBeth's ("Puffin.")
Vice-President's Cup—Colonel Gillespie's ("Sheila.")

E. E. Officers' Cup—Mrs. Walcott's ("Turquoise.")

Gordon Bennett-Lysistrater Cup—Mr. C. N. Rich's ("Loon.")

Bombay Town Cup—Mr. J. McGregor's ("Jenny Wren.")

Captain Headlam's Cup—Mr. F. Seymour-Williams' ("Lestris.")

"Irene" Challenge Cup—Mr. K. MacIver's ("Valmal.")

Lamington Cup—H. M. S. "Cairo's" Cutter.

Lady Willingdon Salver—Mr. T. E. Grant's "Isca."

Naini Tal Y.C. Regatta—

Inter-Club Races—Naini Tal beat Bombay.

LAWN TENNIS.

Western India Championship Tournament, Bombay.—

Men's Singles—C. Chunilal beat R. A. Wagle.

Men's Doubles—Rajaram Morarji and R. A. Wagle beat J. A. D. Naoroji and H. L. Hostie.

Mixed Doubles—Miss S. R. D. Tata and J. A. D. Naoroji beat Mrs. Row and R. A. Wagle.

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. McKenna beat Mrs. Swinhoe.

Bombay Presidency Hard Court Tournament.—

Men's Singles—G. Perkins beat A. C. Pereira.

Men's Doubles—R. S. Raja Iyer and N. B. Bhagvat beat N. F. Naoroji and A. R. Wadia.

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Row and A. R. Wagle beat Mrs. Clayton and Jeejeebhoy.

Bengal Championship Tournament, Calcutta.—

Men's Singles—G. Perkins beat S. Okamoto (Scratched).

Men's Doubles—Brooke Edward and Megata beat N. S. Iyer and G. M. Gregory.

Mixed Doubles—Brooke Edward and Mrs. Peacock beat S. Okamoto and Mrs. Graham.

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Williams beat Mrs. Graham.

Southern India Amateur Championship Tournament, Madras.—

Men's Singles—T. O. Singaravelu beat T. P. Balagopalani.

Men's Doubles—C. Ramaswami and Venkataramanjulu beat Nigel-Jones and Elliot.

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Gompertz and C. Ramaswami beat Mrs. Burnett and Prasad.

Ladies' Singles—Miss Kirkpatrick beat Miss Anson.

Karachi Championship Tournament.—

Men's Singles—R. D. England beat Hiranandani.

Men's Doubles—Parsram and Bhojwani beat R. D. England and Hawkes.

Mixed Doubles—Miss Beatty and Frost beat Mrs. Stephens and Dickson.

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Bailey.

Simla Championship Tournament.—

Men's Singles—Jagat Mohan Lal beat Vickery.

Men's Doubles—Jagat Mohan Lal and Robbins beat Hartwell and Jukes.

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Wright and Jagat Mohan Lal beat Mrs. Norris and Captain Norris.

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Mitchell beat Mrs. Walker.

Army Championship Tournament, Peshawar.—

Men's Singles—Captain L. Barclay beat Captain O'Callaghan.

Kathliwar Championship Tournament, Rajkot.—

Men's Doubles—Maganlal W. Vyas and Laxmishanker W. Vyas (Jamnagar) beat N. R. Green and Manilal (Jamnagar).

Dhulla Championship Tournament.—

Men's Singles—M. S. Bhide beat Amrite.

Men's Doubles—M. S. Bhide and Oak beat Farrel and Ramaswami.

Quetta Open Tournament.—

Men's Singles—Major Bernard beat Newton.

Men's Doubles—Captain Ashton and White beat Major Bernard and Major Williams.

Inter-Regimental Doubles—Major Bernard and Captain Barstow beat Colonel Wyatt and Captain Fenwicke-Clennell.

Mixed Doubles—Major Bernard and Mrs. Anderson beat Colonel Turner and Mrs. Bayley.

Ladies' Doubles—Mrs. Anderson and Mrs. Furness beat Mrs. Myline and Mrs. Rainford-Hannay.

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Furness beat Mrs. Anderson.

Blessington Open Handicap Tournament, Simla.—

Men's Singles—Smith beat Rashid Ali Khan.

Men's Doubles—Colonel Scott and Wing-Commander Fowler beat Jagat Mohan Lal and Robbins.

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Lumby and Major Stevenson beat Jagat Mohan Lal and Miss Freitas.

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Lumby beat Mrs. Martin.

Men's Doubles (Open)—Jagat Mohan Lal and Major Pott beat Captain Norris and Smith.

All-India Tournament, Bangalore.—

Men's Singles—Rachappa beat Seetharam Iyengar.

Men's Doubles—Rachappa and Seetharam Iyengar beat Captain Loganadam and Dr. Dominic.

Mixed Doubles—Mr. and Mrs. Flanagan beat Mrs. Laver and Ijaz.

Bangalore Open Tournament.—

Men's Singles—Ramaswami beat Perkins.

Men's Doubles—Raja Iyer and Chandras Khan beat Perkins and Ricketts.

Mixed Doubles—Miss Austin and Kemble beat Mrs. Laver and Perkins.

Ladies' Singles—Miss Jones beat Mrs. Ross.

Open Hindu Tournament, Poona.—

Men's Singles—Powar beat Raja Iyer.

Men's Doubles—Lele and Gadgil beat Raja Iyer and Subba Rao.

Poona Gymkhana Open Tournament.—

Men's Singles—A. C. Miller beat H. R. P. Hutchins.

Men's Doubles—A. C. Miller and Chief of Miraj beat MacDonald and Robinson.

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Dix-Perkins and J. C. Ker beat Mrs. Clayton and Woodgate.

Ladies' Doubles—Mrs. Monteath and Mrs. Power beat Mrs. Cahusac and Miss Lea Smith.

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Clayton beat Mrs. Turner.

P. Y. C. Open Tournament, Poona.—

Men's Singles—Pereira beat Deodhar.

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Critchley beat Miss Karmarkar.

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Brown and Laxton beat Mrs. Thompson and Jeejeebhoy.

Men's Doubles—Gore and Khare beat Jeejeebhoy and Chavan.

Mount Abu Tournament.—

Men's Singles—Rogers beat Colonel Twiss.

Men's Doubles—Colonel O'Brien and Colonel Twiss beat Martin and Blood.

Mixed Doubles—Mrs. Cotesworth and Major McNab beat Miss Brook-Taylor and Thomson.

Ladies' Doubles—Mrs. Homer and Mrs. Cotesworth beat Mrs. Lynch-Blosse and Miss Brooke-Taylor.

Ladies' Singles—Mrs. Lynch-Blosse beat Miss Brooke-Taylor.

Junagad Tournament.—

Men's Singles—B. B. Mehta beat A. M. Joshi.

Men's Doubles—L. F. Rozario and L. O. Dias beat A. J. Mankad and R. B. Chhaya.

Conder Tournament, Bombay.—

Men's Doubles—Raja Iyer and Desai beat Perkins and Kohloff.

South Club Tournament, Calcutta.—

Men's Singles—S. Okamoto beat Robson.

Delhi Local Tournament, Delhi.—

Men's Handicap Singles—Cleophas beat Ram Pershad.

Men's Handicap Doubles—Tara Chand and Har Chand beat Ripusudan Singh and Mittra.

Mixed Handicap Doubles—Mr. and Mrs. Russell beat Wilkins and Miss McKenna.

Men's Singles—Bishambar Dayal W. O. Hari Ram.

Men's Doubles—Grindal and Wilkins beat Norris and Cleophas.

HOCKEY.

All-India Tournament, Allahabad.—	
Allahabad Auxiliary Force	2 goals
Queen's Regiment	1 goal
Aga Khan Tournament, Bombay.—	
B. B. & C. I. Railway, Ajmer	3 goals
5th Bombay Brigade, Royal Artillery ..	1 goal
Belgion Tournament, Calcutta.—	
Calcutta	2 goals
Jamalpur Apprentices	1 goal
Madras Tournament, Madras.—	
Madras Cricket Club	2 goals
Bangalore Indians	1 goal
All-India Auxiliary Force Tournament, Allahabad.—	
B. B. & C. I. Railway	3 goals
G. I. P. Railway	2 ..
Anderson Cup Tournament, Rawalpindi.—	
North-Western Railway	4 goals
Sherwood Foresters	2 ..
A. S. C. B. Tournament, Rawalpindi.—	
2nd-15th Punjabis	3 goals
1st-16th Punjabis	2 ..
Mercantile and Trades Tournament, Delhi.—	
Ajmer Loco Sports Club	5 goals
Delhi Nondescripts	1 goal
Zamir Cup Tournament, Delhi.—	
Railway Club, Saharanpur	1 goal
J. C. C. Khalsa Club, Patiala	Nil.
All-India Scindia Cup Tournament, Gwalior.—	
Ajmer Loco Sport Club	3 goals
Aligarh Muslim University	Nil.
All-India Charity Tournament, Delhi.—	
Ajmere	2 goals
Aligarh	Nil.
C. P. Police Tournament, Saugor.—	
Jubbulpore Police	2 goals
Amraoti Police	Nil.
Survey of India Cup Tournament, Mussorie. —	
St. George's College "A" team	8 goals
St. George's College "C" team	2 ..

All-India Banwari Lal Cup Tournament, Lucknow.—	
Aligarh Muslim University	—
Lucknow University	—
Poona Aga Khan Tournament, Poona.—	
Poona Rifles	4 goals
Middlesex Regiment	2 ..
Sarangarh Durbar Cup Tournament, Nagpur.—	
Bilaspur Recreation Club	1 goal
Rajpur Moslems	Nil.
Narsinghri Tournament, Secunderabad.—	
Coronation "A" team	1 goal
Qumar Club	Nil.
Futtee Maldan Tournament, Secunderabad.—	
Coronation	4 goals
Salfabad Combined	Nil.
Hyderabad Tournament, Hyderabad.—	
Nizam College "A" team	2 goals
Nizam College "B" team	Nil.
British Army Tournament, Bangalore.—	
Royal Engineers	2 goals
St. Joseph's College "A" team	Nil.
Police Shield Tournament, Bangalore.—	
2nd Madras Sappers and Miners	1 goal
Bangalore Indians "A" team	Nil.
Territorial Tournament, Bangalore.—	
11th Battalion, 3rd Madras Regiment ..	2 goals
12th Battalion, 3rd Madras Regiment ..	1 goal
Madras District Tournament (British), Bangalore.—	
Green Howards	3 goals
20th Bde., R.F.A.	Nil.
Madras District Tournament (Indian), Bangalore.—	
Battray's Sikhs	1 goal
Madras Sappers and Miners	Nil.
Temple Cup Tournament, Jamshedpur.—	
Bachelor's Athletic Club	4 goals
Electrical Sporting Club	2 ..
Sassoon Cup Tournament, Saugor.—	
Infantry	1 goal
Police Training Camp	Nil.

BOXING.

All-India Civil and Military Tournament, Delhi:—	
Flyweight.—Lce.-Cpl. Neville (Worcesters) beat Pte. White (Devons).	
Bantamweight.—Lce.-Cpl. Mitchell (Seaforths) beat Bombardier, Foulser (R. F. A.)	
Lightweight.—Pte. Warren (Devons) beat Pte. Gorman (Seaforths).	
Welterweight.—Trooper Hunt (11th Hussars) beat Pte. Dunn (Devons).	
Middleweight.—Pte Williams (Worcesters) beat Pte. White (Devons).	

Best Loser's Cup.—Lce.-Cpl. Horton (Worcesters.)	
United Provinces Championship Tournament—	
Open Welterweight.—Lance-Corporal Sole (Queens' Royal Regiment) beat Jarrett (Queen's Royal Regiment).	
Boys' Championship (5st. to 6st.).—Boy Samuel (St. Joseph's) beat Boy Bowen (St. Joseph's).	
Boys' Championship (6½st. to 7½st.).—Boy	

Rifle Shooting.

Briggs (St. Joseph's) beat Boy Franklin (St. Cecilia's).
Boys' Championship (7½st. to 8½st.) Bo-
Light (Queen's Royal Regiment) beat Bo-
Briggs (St. Joseph's).

Northern Command A. S. C. B. Championship Tournament—

Officers' Featherweight—Lieut. Taunton (58th Regiment) beat Lieut. Stephens (52nd Light Infantry).
Officers' Lightweight.—Lieut. Stannus (Lancashire Fusiliers) beat Lieut. Wall (K.R.R.C.)
Officers' Welterweight.—Lieut. Long (1st/6th Gurkhas) beat Lieut. Dean (D.C.M.).
Officers' Middleweight.—Lieut. Harrison (R.W.F.) beat Lieut. Weatherall (58th Regiment).
Officers' Heavyweight.—Lieut. Osborne (K.R.R.C.) beat Lieut. Glenn (Lancashire Fusiliers).
Flyweight.—Lce-Corporal Riley (58th Regiment) beat Badsorn. Galbraith (R.W.F.).
Featherweight.—Lce-Corporal Mitchell (Seaforths) beat Fusilier Sansum (Royal Scots Fusiliers).
Bantamweight.—Bombardier Foulser (12th M.B., R.G.A.) beat Fusilier Evans (R.W.F.).
Lightweight.—Fusilier Newell (Lancashire Fusiliers) beat Staff-Sergt. Lynn (I.A.S.C.).
Welterweight.—Bombardier Scott (24th Bde., R.F.A.) beat Lce.-Corporal Griffiths (R.W.F.).

Middleweight.—Fusilier Edwards (R.W.F.) beat Lce.-Corporal Bee (Foresters).
Light-heavyweight.—Lce.-Corporal Rawden (Seaforths) beat Sergt. Lloyd (37th Battery, R.F.A.).
Heavyweight.—Lce.-Corporal Biggs (Seaforths) beat Sergt. Hunter (24th Bde. I.F.A.).

Madras District (Military) Tournament—

Flyweight.—Rifeman Rice (Royal Ulster Rifles) beat Corporal Aldridge (Green Howards).
Featherweight.—Pte. Bolssell (2nd Wiltshires) beat Corporal McKnight (Royal Ulster Rifles).
Bantamweight.—Rifeman Carnduff (Royal Ulster Rifles) beat Corporal Hodgson (Green Howards).
Lightweight.—Rifeman Johnston (Royal Ulster Rifles) beat Trumpeter Conner (5th/6th Dragoons).
Welterweight.—Trumpeter Parrott (5th/6th Dragoons) beat Trumpeter Gentry (5th/6th Dragoons).
Middleweight.—Corporal Tribe (5th/6th Dragoons) beat Corporal Hale (5th/6th Dragoons).
Light-Heavyweight.—Rifeman MacMillan (Royal Ulster Rifles) beat Sergt. Griffiths (Green Howards).
Heavyweight.—Sergt. Barton (5th/6th Dragoons) beat Sergt. Moore (Royal Engineers).

BOATING.

Royal Connaught Boat Club Regatta, Poona.—	Junior Sculls (½ mile)—C. L. Mackay beat C. A. Grey by 3 ft. Time—Not taken.
Service Fours (½ mile)—4th-2nd Pioneers beat R.A.M.C. by 2½ lengths. Time—4 mins. 42 secs.	Mixed Double Sculls (½ mile)—Mrs. McCleod and Colonel H. Ross beat Major A. S. M. and Mrs. Winder by 1 length. Time—1 min. 56 secs.
Tub Fours (½ mile)—Royal Engineers beat Army Signal School by 2½ lengths. Time—3 mins. 20½ secs.	Merchants' and Bankers' Regatta, Madras—
Senior Pairs (½ mile)—Oxford (W. Dunlop and C. S. W. Rayner) beat R.A.M.C. (R. A. Anderson and C. H. C. Byrne) by ½ length. Time—3 mins. 42½ secs.	Challenge Fours.—Messrs. Benny and Co. beat Messrs. Parry and Co. by 1½ lengths. Time—3 mins. 14 secs.

MOTOR CYCLING.

Bombay M.C.C. Speed Trials—	Unlimited Sidecars—A. Wozencroft (Harley Davidson).
Unlimited Solo (Bombay Speed Championship)—S. A. Palkhiwalla (Indian).	Note:—S. A. Palkhiwalla's 1206 c.c. Indian beat all known records for this country by covering the half mile course, from a flying start, at an average speed of 76.92 miles per hour.
600 c. c. Solo.—M. W. R. Sell (Sunbeam).	
350 c. c. Solo.—W. G. Garriock (Dot-Bradshaw).	
600 c. c. Sidecars.—M. W. R. Sell (Sunbeam).	

RIFLE SHOOTING.

S. I. R. A. Meeting—
S. I. R. A. Championship (British)—Sergeant Pattison, North Staffordshire Regiment.
Bangalore Cup—G. I. P. Railway Battalion (A.F.I.).
N. C. O's Cup—1st Battalion, M. & S. M. Ry. Regiment (A.F.I.).
Cater Prize—Kolar Gold Field Battalion (A.F.I.).

S. I. R. A. Championship (Indian)—Lce.-Naik Simon, 1st/3rd Madras Regiment.
Cubbon Cup.—Mysore Lancers.
Indian Officers' Cup—2nd Q.V.O. Madras Sappers and Miners.
Indian N. C. O's Cup—2nd/1st Madras Pioneers.
European Schools' Challenge Shield.—Lawrence Royal Military School, Sanawar, beat Lawrence School, Ghora Gali.

The Press.

The newspaper Press in India is an essentially English institution and was introduced soon after the task of organising the administration was seriously taken in hand by the English in Bengal. In 1773 was passed the Regulating Act creating the Governor-Generalship and the Supreme Court in Bengal and within seven years at the end of the same decade, the first newspaper was started in Calcutta by an Englishman in January 1780. Exactly a century and a third has elapsed since, not a very long period certainly, a period almost measured by the life of a single newspaper, *The Times*, which came into existence only five years later in 1785; but then the period of British supremacy is not much longer, having commenced at Plassey, only twenty-three years earlier. Bombay followed Calcutta closely, and Madras did not lag much behind. In 1789 the first Bombay newspaper appeared, *The Bombay Herald*, followed next year by *The Bombay Courier*, a paper now represented by *The Times of India* with which it was amalgamated in 1861. In Bombay the advent of the press may be said to have followed the British occupation of the Island Calcutta the English were on suzerainty before Plassey, but in Bombay they were absolute masters after 1665, and it is somewhat strange that no Englishman should have thought of starting a newspaper during all those hundred and twenty-five years before the actual advent of *The Herald*.

The first newspaper was called *The Bengal Gazette* which is better known from the name of its founder as *Hicky's Gazette or Journal*. Hicky like most pioneers had to suffer for his enterprising spirit, though the fault was entirely his own, as he made his paper a medium of publishing gross scandal, and he and his journal disappeared from public view in 1782. Several did not fortunately copy his bad example. *The Indian Gazette* had a career of over half a century, when in 1833 it was merged into the *Bengal Harkara*, which came into existence only a little later, and both are now represented by *The Indian Daily News* with which they were amalgamated in 1866. No fewer than five papers followed in as many years, the *Bengal Gazette* of 1780, and one of these, *The Calcutta Gazette*, started in February 1784, under the avowed patronage of Government, flourishes still as the official gazette of the Bengal Government.

In 1821 a syndicate of European merchants and officials commenced the publication of *John Bull in the East*, a daily paper which was intended to reflect Tory opinion in India and set an example to the Press generally in the matter of moderation and restraint. The name of this journal was altered to *The Englishman* by the famous Stockholder in 1836.

From its commencement the press was jealously watched by the authorities, who put serious restraints upon its independence and pursued a policy of discouragement and

rigorous control. Government objected to news of apparently the most trivial character affecting its servants. From 1791 to 1790 several editors were deported to Europe without trial and on short notice, whilst several more were censured and had to apologise. At the commencement of the rule of Wellesley Government promulgated stringent rules for the public press and instituted an official censor to whom everything was to be submitted before publication, the penalty for offending against these rules to be immediate deportation. These regulations continued in force till the time of the Marquis of Hastings who in 1818 abolished the censorship and substituted milder rules.

This change proved beneficial to the status of the press, for henceforward self-respecting and able men began slowly but steadily to join the ranks of journalism, which had till then been considered a low profession. Silk Buckingham, one of the ablest and best known of Anglo-Indian journalists of those days, availed himself of this comparative freedom to criticise the authorities, and under the short administration of Adam, a civilian who temporarily occupied Hastings' place, he was deported under rules specially passed. But Lord Amherst and still more Lord William Bentinck were persons of broad and liberal views, and under them the press was left practically free, though there existed certain regulations which were not enforced, though Lord Clare, who was Governor of Bombay from 1831 to 1835, once strongly but in vain urged the latter to enforce them. Metcalfe who succeeded for a brief period Bentinck, removed even these regulations, and brought about what is called the emancipation of the press in India in 1835, which was the beginning of a new era in the history of the Indian press. Among papers that came into being, was the *Bombay Times* which was started towards the close of 1833 by the leading merchants of Bombay, and which in 1861 changed its name to the *Times of India*. *The Bombay Gazette*, founded in 1791, ceased publication in 1914.

The liberal spirit in which Lord Hastings had begun to deal with the press led not only to the improvement in the tone and status of the Anglo-Indian press, but also to the rise of the Native or Indian Press. The first newspaper in any Indian language was the *Samachar Darpan* started by the famous Serampore Missionaries Ward, Carey and Marshman in 1818 in Bengali, and it received encouragement from Hastings who allowed it to circulate through the post office at one-fourth the usual rates. This was followed in 1822 by a purely native paper in Bombay called the *Bombay Samachar* which still exists, and thus was laid the foundation of the Native Indian Press which at the present day is by far the largest part of the press in India, numbering over 650 papers.

From 1835 to the Mutiny the press spread to other cities like Delhi, Agra, Gwalior, and even Lahore, whereas formerly it was chiefly confined to the Presidency towns. During

the Mutiny its freedom had to be temporarily controlled by the Gagging Act which Canning passed in June 1857 on account of the license of a very few papers, and owing still more to the fears of its circulating intelligence which might be prejudicial to public interests. The Act was passed only for a year at the end of which the press was once more free.

On India passing to the Crown in 1858, an era of prosperity and progress opened for the whole country in which the press participated. There were 19 Anglo-Indian papers at the beginning of this period in 1858 and 25 Native papers and the circulation of all was very small. The number of the former did not show a great rise in the next generation, but the rise in

influence and also circulation was satisfactory. Famous journalists like Robert Knight, James Maclean and Hurris Mookerji flourished in this generation. The *Civil and Military Gazette* was originally published in Simla as a weekly paper, the first issue being dated June 22nd, 1872. Prior to and in the days of the Mutiny the most famous paper in Northern India was the *Mofussilite*, originally published at Meerut, but afterwards at Agra and then at Ambala. After a lively existence for a few years in Simla the *Civil and Military Gazette* acquired and incorporated the *Mofussilite*, and in 1876 the office of the paper was transferred from Simla to Lahore, and the *Gazette* began to be published daily.

INDIAN PRESS LAW.

Before 1835 all printing of books and papers was subject to licence by the Governor-General in Council, and the licences were issued or refused at the discretion of Government. Act XI of 1835 repealed the old Regulations and merely required registration of the printer and made a few minor requirements. That Act was replaced in 1867 by the present Press and Registration of Books Act, and, except for an Act which was in force for one year during the Mutiny, there was no further legislation directly affecting the Press until 1878 when the Vernacular Press Act was passed. That Act was repealed during the Viceroyalty of Lord Ripon in 1882. From that date until 1907 Government made no attempt to interfere directly with the liberty of the Press, the growth of sedition being dealt with in other ways by the passing in 1898 of section 124A of the Penal Code in its present form, which had been originally enacted in 1870, and by the introduction into the Penal Code of section 153A and into the Criminal Procedure Code of section 108. There were a certain number of prosecutions under those sections up to 1907, but the dissemination of sedition through the Press continued. In 1908 the Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act was passed which dealt with papers inciting to murder or to acts of violence. This Act failed to have the desired effect.

The Indian Press Act, 1910, was a measure of wider scope, the main object of which was to ensure that the Indian press generally should be kept within the limits of legitimate discussion.

The Act deals, not only with incitements to murder and acts of violence, but also with other specified classes of published matter, including any words or signs tending to seduce soldiers or sailors from their allegiance or duty, to bring into hatred or contempt the British Government, any Native Prince, or any section of His Majesty's subjects in India, or to intimidate public servants or private individuals.

The different sections of the Act have in view (i) Control over presses and means of publication; (ii) control over publishers of newspapers; (iii) control over the importation into British India and the transmission by the post of objectionable matter; (iv) the suppression of seditious or objectionable newspapers, books, or other documents wherever found.

Repeal of Press Legislation.—By the autumn of 1917 the Government of India had begun to consider the desirability of modifying at least one section of the Press Act to which great exception had been taken on account of the wide powers that it gave. Finally, after more than once consulting Local Governments, a Committee was appointed in February 1921 after a debate in the Legislative Assembly, to examine the Press and Registration of Books Act, 1867, and the Indian Press Act, 1910, and report what modifications were required in the existing law. That Committee made an unanimous report in July 1921, recommending:—

- (1) The Press Act should be repealed.
- (2) The Newspapers Incitements to Offences Act should be repealed.
- (3) The Press and Registration of Books Act and the Post Office Act should be amended where necessary to meet the conclusion noted below: (a) The name of the editor should be inscribed on every issue of a newspaper and the editor should be subject to the same liabilities as the printer and publisher, as regards criminal and civil responsibilities; (b) any person registering under the Press and Registration of Books Act should be a major as defined by the Indian Majority Act; (c) local Governments should retain the power of confiscating openly seditious leaflets, subject to the owner of the press or any other person aggrieved being able to protest before a court and challenge the seizure of such document, in which case the local Government ordering the confiscation should be called upon to prove the seditious character of the documents. The powers conferred by Sections 13 to 15 of the Press Act should be retained. Customs and Postal officers being empowered to seize seditious literature within the meaning of Section 124A of the I. P. C. subject to review on the part of the local Government and challenge by any persons interested in the courts; (e) any person challenging the orders of Government should do so in the local High Court; (f) the term of imprisonment prescribed in Sections 12, 13, 14 and 15 of the Press and Registration of Books Act should be reduced to six months; (g) the provisions of Section 16 of the Press Act should be reproduced in the Press and Registration of Books Act.

Effect was given to these recommendations during the year 1922.

Press Association of India.—At the end of 1915 this Association was formed in Bombay. According to the articles of constitution "Its objects shall be to protect the press of the country by all lawful means from arbitrary laws and their administration, from all attempts of the Legislature to encroach on its liberty or of the executive authorities

to interfere with the free exercise of their calling by journalists and press proprietors, and for all other purposes of mutual help and protection which may be deemed advisable from time to time." Members pay a minimum subscription of Rs. 10 annually. The affairs of the Association are managed by a Council.

Number of Printing Presses at Work, and Number of Newspapers, Periodicals, and Books Published.

Province.	Printing Presses.	Newspapers.	Periodicals.	Books.	
				In English or other European Languages.	In Indian Languages (Vernacular and Classical) or in more than one Language.
Madras	954	304	665	624	2,349
Bombay	697	211	765	167	1,510
Bengal	829	144	241	581	2,342
United Provinces	618	114	248	174	2,285
Punjab	292	112	158	158	1,789
Burma	243	66	109	16	196
Bihar and Orissa	146	35	34	93	761
Central Provinces and Berar	132	58	4	21	171
Assam	33	15	7	1	43
North-West Frontier Province	26	1	2		
Ajmer-Merwara	16	4	3	6	53
Coorg	2				
Delhi	90	30	16	15	307
Total, 1921-22 ..	4,083	1,094	2,252	1,856	11,807
1920-21 ..	3,795	1,017	2,207	1,690	10,105
1919-20 ..	3,371	941	2,152	2,019	9,162
1918-19 ..	3,140	883	2,049	2,092	9,687
1917-18 ..	3,155	838	1,937	1,916	10,772
1916-17 ..	3,101	805	1,900	1,919	11,149
1915-16 ..	3,237	857	2,927	1,541	10,658
1914-15 ..	3,102	847	2,938	1,602	11,477
1913-14 ..	3,020	827	2,848	1,477	10,712
1912-13 ..	2,828	673	2,395	1,662	9,631

Newspapers and News Agencies registered under the Press Rules and arranged alphabetically according to Station where they are published and situated.

NOTE.—News Agencies are distinguished by an asterisk.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Agra	Agra Akbbar Jain Path Pradarshak Sanadhyab Karak	
Ahmedabad	Gujarati Punch Political Bhomiyo Praja Bandhu Navajivan Young India	Sundays. Thursdays. Saturdays.
Ajmer	Navin Bajsthan	
Akola, Berar	Praja Paksha	Saturdays.
Akyab	Arakan News	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Aligarh	Aligarh Institute Gazette	Wednesdays.
Allahabad	Abhyudaya Associated Press Bhavishya Hindustan Review Democrat Leader Navayug Pioneer Reuter's Telegram Company, Ltd.	 On first of every month. Daily, except Mondays Daily.
Allahabad Katra	Stri Dharam Shikshak	Monthly.
Amraoti	Bharat Udaya	Wednesdays.
Amritsar	Daily Vakil Akali to Pardesi Punjab Press Bureau Gurumukhi Daily Khalsa Gurumukhi Daily Pardesi Khalsa Dard	Daily. Daily.
Amroha	Itihas	Saturdays.
Asansol	Ratnakar	Sundays.
Bagalkot	Navina Bharat	
Bagerhat	Jagaran	Sundays.
Bangalore	Daily Post Kasim-ul-Akhbar Truth	Daily. Mondays and Thursdays. Mondays and Thursdays.
Barisal	Barisal Hitaishi	Sundays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Baroda	Jagriti	Weekly.
	Shree Sayaji Vijaya	Thursdays.
Bassein, Burma ..	Bassein News	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Beawar	Vyaparik Daily Report	
Belgaum	Belgaum Samachar	Mondays.
	Chaitanya	
	Awazal Khalk	Every Wednesday.
	Bharat Jiwan	Sundays.
Benares City	Hindi Kesari	Wednesdays.
	Kashi Temperance Samachar	Monthly.
	Mahamandal Magazine	Monthly.
	Trishul	
Bhavnagar	Daily Market Report	
	Jain	Saturdays.
	Jainhasan	Tuesdays.
Bijapur	Karnatak Vaibhav	Saturdays.
	Advocate of India	Daily.
	Akhbar-i-Islam	Daily.
	Akhbar-i-Soudagar	Daily, except on Sundays.
	Associated Press *	
	Balaram Sporting News	
	Bharat	
	Bombay Chronicle	Daily.
	Bombay Samachar	Daily.
	Breul Co's. Market Report	
	Catholic Examiner	Saturdays.
	Commercial Sporting News	
	Dnyana Prakash	
	Evening News of India	Daily.
	Gujarati	Saturdays.
	Hindusthan and Akhbar-i-Soda- gar	
	Indian Daily Mail	Daily.
	Indian Industries and Power	On the 15th of each month.
	Indian Social Reformer	Saturdays.
	Jam-e-Jamshed	Daily, except Saturday.
	Kaiser-i-Hind	Saturdays.
	Khilafat Daily	
	Khilafat Bulletin	
	Lakshpati Sporting News	
	Lokmanya	Daily, except Tuesday.
	Maul	Wednesdays.
	Mufide Rozgar	Sundays.
	Muslim Herald	Daily.
	Nawa Kai	Daily, except Monday.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
	Nyayadarshak	
	Nusrat	
	O Amigo do Goano	Fridays.
	O Anglo-Lusitano	Saturdays.
	Rast Goffar, Parsi and Praja Mitra	Daily.
	Railway Times	Fridays.
	Reuter's Indian Journal	Daily.
	Reuter's Telegram Company, Ltd.	
	Rushimukh	
	Saffee Racing Chronicle	
	Sanj Vartaman	Daily, except Sundays.
	Satya Mitra	Daily and Weekly.
	Shri Venkateshwar Samachar	Fridays.
	Sports Bulletin	
	Times of India	Daily. †
	Times of India Illustrated Weekly	Sundays.
	Voice of India	Daily.
Bowringpet	Kolar Gold Fields News	Tuesdays.
Budaon	Akhbar Zulqarnain	6th, 13th, 20th and 27th of every month.
Calangute Goa).. ..	A Voz do Povo	Saturdays.
	Advocate	Daily.
	Alkamal	
	Amrita Bazar Patrika	Daily.
	Ananda Bazar Patrika	
	Asrijadid	
	Associated Press *	
	Bangabasi	Wednesdays.
	Bagumati	Daily.
	Bengalee	Daily, except Sundays.
	Bhagavan Gandhi	
	Bharata Mitra	Thursdays.
Calcutta	Bureau-de-World's News	
	Business World	Monthly.
	Calcutta Samachar	Daily.
	Capital	Thursdays.
	Catholic Herald of India	Tuesdays.
	Collegian	Bi-monthly.
	Commerce	
	Dowejadid	

† With The Times of India there are published every Wednesday, a Supplement of Indian Motoring and every Friday, an Indian Engineering Supplement.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Calcutta - contd.	Empire (Calcutta Evening News).	Daily, except Sundays.
	Englishman	Daily.
	Forward	Daily.
	Guardian	Fridays.
	Hindu Patriot	Daily, except Saturdays.
	Hindusthan	
	Hitabadi	Wednesdays.
	Indian and Eastern Engineer ..	14th of each month.
	Indian Daily News	Daily, except Sundays.
	Indian Engineering	Thursdays.
	Indian Express	Once a month.
	Indian Mirror	Daily.
	Indian News Agency	
	Indian Planters' Gazette	Saturdays.
	Industry	Monthly
	Inqilab-i-Zamana	
	Liberty	
	Market Intelligence	Daily.
	Mussalman	Thursdays.
	Navayug	
	Nayak	Daily.
	Prakash	
	Railways	15th and last day of every month.
	Rayat Bhandu	
	Reuter's Telegram Company, Limited.	
	Sanjibani	Wednesdays.
	Samay	Wednesdays.
	Samyavadi	Daily.
	Servant	
	Statesman	Daily.
	Swatantra	
	Swaraj	
	Telegraph	
	United Press Syndicate *	
	Vishwamitra	Daily.
	Vyapar	
	Young Men of India	Monthly.
	World Peace	
	Zamana	
Calcut	Kerala Sanchari	Wednesdays.
	Malabar Journal	
	Manorama	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Mitavadi	Daily.
	West Coast Reformer	Sundays and Thursdays.
	West Coast Spectator	Wednesdays and Saturdays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Cawnpore	Azad	Wednesdays.
	Cawnpore Journal	Daily.
	Daily Vartaman	
	Hindi Daily and Weekly Paper..	
	Hurriat	
	Prabha	Monthly.
	Pratap	Saturdays.
	Prabha	
	Reuter's Telegram Company, Limited.	
	Zamana	25th day of every month.
Chandernagore	Probartak	Bi-monthly.
Chindwara	Lokmitra	
Chinsurah	Education Gazette	Tuesdays.
Chittagong	Jyoti	Wednesdays.
Cochin	Cochin Argus	Saturdays.
	Cochin News Agency	
	Malabar Herald	Saturdays.
Cochin Mattancherry	Malabar Islam	
Cocanada	Ravi	Thursdays.
	Ceylon Catholic Messenger	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Ceylon Daily News	Daily.
	Ceylonese	Daily.
	Ceylon Independent	Daily.
	Ceylon Morning Leader	Daily.
	Ceylon Observer	Daily.
	Dinakara Prakasa	Mondays, Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays.
	Dinamina	Daily, except Sundays.
	Dravida Mitran	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Gnanartha Pradipaya	Mondays and Thursdays.
Colombo	Islam Mittiran	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Lakmina	Daily except Sundays.
	People	Daily.
	Sarasavi Sandaresa	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Times of Ceylon	Daily.
	Nihar	Mondays.
	Utkal Deepika	Fridays.
	Indian Sunday Journal	Monthly.
	Dacca Gazette	Mondays.
	Dacca Prakash	Sundays.
Dacca	Herald	Daily.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Darjeeling	Darjeeling Visitor and Advertiser.	Mondays.
	Alaman	
	Arjun	
	Asla	
	Associated Press	
	Daily Congress	Daily.
	Daily Raiyat	Daily.
	General News Agency and Book Depot.	Daily.
	General News Billmaran	Daily.
	Hindustan	Daily.
	Indian News Agency	Weekly.
	Maheswari (Hindi)	Weekly.
Delhi	Mail Trading	Monthly
	Morning Post	Daily, except Sundays.
	National News Agency	Weekly.
	Quam	Weekly.
	Sabha	
	Taj	
	Tamadun	Monthly.
	Vijaya	Saturdays.
	Weekly Hindi Paper	
	Weekly Moballig	
	Dharwarvrittt	Wednesdays.
	Karnatakavritta and Dhananjaya	Tuesdays.
Dharwar	Karm Veer	
	Raja Hansa	Daily.
	Vijaya	
Dhule	Khandesh Valbhav	Fridays.
Dibrugarh	Times of Assam	Fridays.
Gaya	Bihar Advocate and Kayastha Messenger.	Sundays.
Gorakhpur	Swadesh	
Guntur	Deshabhimani	Daily.
Howrah	Biswa Duta	Daily.
Hyderabad, Deccan	Musheer-i-Deccan	Daily.
	Sahifa-i-Rozana	Daily.
	Usman Gazette	Daily.
	Bharatvasi	Daily.
	Hindu	
	Musafr	Saturdays.
	Sind Journal	Wednesdays.
	Sind Mail	Daily.
	Sindvasi	Daily.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
afna	Ceylon Patriot and Weekly Advertiser.	Tuesdays.
	Jaffna Catholic Guardian	Saturday Mornings
	Sithia Veda Pathukavalan	Fortnightly.
	Vasavilan Jaffna Native Opinion	Fortnightly.
Jaffna (Vannarponnai)	Hindu Organ	Wednesdays
Jalgaon (Khandesh)	Pragatik	
Jhansi	Free India Sahas	
Jubbulpore	India Sunday School Journal	Third Thursday of every month.
	Karmaveer	
	Taj	
	Alwahid	
	Bharat	
	Daily Gazette	Daily.
	New Times	Daily.
Karachi	Parsi Sansar	Saturdays.
	Reuter's Telegram Company, Limited.	
	Rozana Biupar	Daily.
	Sind Observer	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Sind Sudhar	Saturdays.
Karanpur, Dehra Dun	Mazahir-i-Jadid	Monthly.
Karat Kudi	Dhana Vysla Gotran	
Khulna	Khulna Basl	Saturdays.
Kolhapur City	Vidyavilas	Fridays.
Kottayam	Kerala Varathi	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Malayala Manorama	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Nazrani Deepika	Tuesdays.
Kumta	Kanara News	
	Kanara Leader	
	Akal	
	Akhbar-i-Am	Daily.
	Associated Press *	
	Bande Mataram	
	Civil and Military Gazette	Daily (Sundays excepted).
	Congress Publicity Bureau	
Lahore	Daily Milap	
	Daily Updeshak	
	Daily Urdu Ittifaq	
	Daily Zamindar	
	Desh	Daily.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Lahore—contd ..	Haq	Fridays.
	Kesari	
	Liberal	Sundays.
	Muslim Outlook	Daily.
	Paigham-i-Sulab	Sundays and Wednesdays.
	Panth	
	Pratap	1st, 8th 16th and 24th of every month.
	Rajput Gazette	
	Reuter's Telegram Company, Limited.	
	Scientific World	
Larkana	Siyasat	
	Sudarshan	Daily, except Sundays.
	Tribune	
	N. W. Railway Union Gazette ..	Weekly.
	Watan	Thursdays.
	Khairkhab	Saturdays.
	Larkana Gazette	Fridays.
	Advocate	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Anand	Thursdays.
	Daily Hamdam	Daily.
Lucknow	Hindusthani	
	Indian Daily Telegraph	Daily.
	Indian Witness	Wednesdays.
	Kaukab-i-Hind	Wednesdays.
	Lucknow Times	
	Muslim Gazette	Tue-days.
	Oudh Akhbar	Daily, except Sundays.
	Al-Mazmoon	On the first of every month
	Andhra Patrika	Tuesdays.
	Anglo-Indian	Thursdays.
Madras	Associated Press	
	Azadhind	
	Catholic Leader	
	Daily Express	Daily, except Saturdays.
	Desabaktan	Daily.
	Hindu	Daily.
	Indian Railway Journal	15th of every month.
	Jarida-i-Rozgar	Saturdays.
	Justice	Daily.
	Law Times	Saturdays.

Madras Mail
Madras Times

Daily.
Daily.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Madras—contd. ..	Muhammadan	Mondays and Thursdays.
	Mukhbir-i-Deccan	Wednesdays.
	Nyayadiplika	
	New India	Daily.
	Reuter's Telegram Company, Ltd.	
	Shamshul Akhbar	Mondays.
	Swadesa Mitran	Daily.
	Swarajya	
	South Indian Mail	Mondays.
	Upper Burma Gazette	Daily.
Madura	A Terra	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Noticias	Mondays.
	Ultramar	Mondays and Fridays.
	Chakravarthi	Saturdays.
	Roznama	Qaum.
	Satyarth Patrika	Thursdays.
	Mirpurkhas Gazette	Wednesdays.
	Khichri Samachar	Saturdays.
	Moulmein Advertiser	Daily.
	Hindu	Daily, except Sundays.
Mangao (Goa) ..	Mussorie Times	Thursdays.
	Jain Gazette	Mondays.
	Kerala Dheepika	Saturdays.
	Charu Mihir	Tuesdays.
	Travancore Times	Tuesdays.
	Desha-Sewak	Mondays.
	Hitavada Maharashtra	
	Marwadi	Tuesdays.
	Pranavir Samaj Sewak	Daily.
	Sankalpa	
Nagpur	Sankalpa Mahal	Fridays.
	Young Patriot	Sundays.
	Naini Tal Gazette	Wednesdays.
	Diario de Noite	Daily.
	Heraldo	Daily, except Mondays;
	O'Debate	Mondays.
	O'Heraldo	Daily, except Sundays and holidays.
	South of India Observer and Nilgiri News	Daily issue except Sundays.
	Nilgiri Times	

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Oral	Utah	Thursdays.
Pandharpur	Pandhari Mitra	Sundays.
Panjim, Goa	O'Crente	Saturdays.
Parur	Uttara Tharaka	Saturdays.
Patna	{ Behar Herald Express Searchlight	Saturdays. Daily. Saturdays.
Pen	Kolaba Samachar	11 days.
Peshawar	Peshawar Daily News	Daily.
Poona	{ Deccan Herald Unyana Prakash Kesari	Daily. Daily, except Mondays. Tuesdays.
Poona City.. ..	{ Lokasangraha Maharatta Motee Sporting News War Cry	Daily. Sundays. Sundays.
Quadian (via Batala)	{ Satyagrahee Servant of India	Weekly.
	{ Alfazal Alhakam Alfarooq Nur Review of Religions (in English.)	Bi-Weekly. Weekly. Weekly. Fortnightly. Monthly.
	Do. (in Urdu)	Monthly.
Quetta	{ Baluchistan Gazette Baluchistan Herald Daily Bulletin Quetta News War Bulletin	Wednesdays and Saturdays Daily. Daily.
Quilon	{ Desabhimani Malayali	 Wednesdays and Saturdays
Rajkot	Kathlwar Opinion	
Rampur (Kathlwar)	Kathlwar Times	Wednesdays and Sundays.
	Saurashtra	
	{ Associated Press * Burma Sunday Times Chinese Daily News Free Burma	
Rangoon	{ New Burma New Light of Burma Rangoon Daily News Rangoon Evening Post	
	{ Rangoon Gazette Rangoon Times Rangoon Mail The Sun	Daily, except Mondays. Daily, except Sundays. Saturdays.
Ratnagiri	{ Bakool Satya Shodhak	Saturdays. Sundays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Rawalpindi.. ..	{ Frontier Bulletin Shanti	
Samastipur.. ..	Vigilant	
Satara	Shubha Suchaka	Fridays.
Satara City.. ..	Prakash	Wednesdays.
Secunderabad	{ Hyderabad Bulletin Notice Sheet	Daily. Daily.
Shahjahanpur	Sarpunch	Daily.
Sholapur	{ Kalpataru Navajug	Sundays. Tuesdays
Silchar	{ Sholapur Samachar Surma	 Sundays.
Simla	{ Associated Press * Indian News Agency*	
Sukkur	{ Indian War Cry Renter's Telegram Company, Limited. *	27th of each month.
	Sindhi	Saturdays.
	{ Deshi Mitra Deshodaya Gujrat Mitra and Gujarat Darpan	Thursdays. Tuesdays. Saturdays.
Surat	{ Jain Mitra Navayuga Weekly Peoples' Business Gifts	Wednesdays. Monthly.
	{ Praja Pokar Samachar Sat-aug Surat Akhbar	Wednesdays. Sundays.
Sylhet	Paridarsaka	Wednesdays.
Tinnevely	Kalpaka	Monthly.
Trichur	Lokaprakasam	Mondays.
Trivavalla	{ Kerala Kahalam Kerala Taraka	 Wednesdays.
	Bharata Kesari	Bi-Weekly.
Trivandrum	Trivandrum Daily News.. ..	Daily.
	Western Star	Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays.
Vizagapatam	Andhra Advocate.. ..	Fridays.
* Wai	{ Modavritta Vrittasar	Mondays. Mondays.
Wardha	Rajasthan Kesari.. ..	
Yeotmal	Lokamat	

Banking.

An event of great importance in the history of Indian banking was the formation on the 27th January 1921 of the Imperial Bank of India by amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks of Bengal, Bombay and Madras.

The idea of a Central Banking establishment for British India was mooted as early as 1836, and was the subject of a minute by Mr. James Wilson, when Finance Member, in 1859. Again, in 1867 Mr. Dickson, the well-known Secretary of the Bank of Bengal, submitted detailed proposals for an amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks. On various later occasions the matter was brought forward without result and it was discussed by the Chamberlain Commission on Indian Finance and Currency in 1913. The present scheme which has come to fruition was however the result of a *rapprochement* on the part of the Banks themselves as a result of the experience gained during the war and the realisation of the desirability of strengthening and extending the Banking system in India.

The Presidency Banks:—The history of the Presidency Banks in their relationship with Government falls into three well-defined stages. Prior to 1862 the Presidency Banks had the right of note issue, but were directly controlled by Government and the scope of their business was restricted by their charters. The second period was from 1862 to 1876. In 1862 the Banks were deprived of the right of note issue, though by their agreements of that year they were authorised to transact the paper currency business as agents of Government. As compensation for the loss of their right of issue, they were given the use of the Government balances and the management of the treasury work at the Presidency towns and at their branches. The old statutory limitations on their business were at the same time greatly relaxed, though the Government's power of control remained unchanged. In 1866 the agreements were revised and the paper currency business was removed from their control and placed under the direct management of Government. The third period dates from the Presidency Banks Act of 1876 by which nearly all the most important limitations of the earlier period were reimposed. Put very briefly, the principal restrictions imposed by this Act prohibited the Banks from conducting foreign exchange business, from borrowing or receiving deposits payable out of India, and from lending for a longer period than six months, or upon mortgage or on the security of immovable property or upon promissory notes bearing less than two independent names or upon goods, unless the goods of the title to them were deposited with the Bank as security. At the same time Government abandoned direct interference in the management, ceasing to appoint official directors and disposing of their shares in the Banks. The Banks no longer enjoyed the full use of the Government balances. Reserve Treasuries were constituted at the Presidency towns into which the surplus revenues were drawn and the balances left at the disposal of the Banks were strictly limited.

This system continued with only minor modifications until 1920. During the war, however, the policy was deliberately adopted of reducing the amount of the balances held in the Reserve Treasuries and leaving much larger balances with the Headquarters of the Presidency Banks in order to assist the money market.

The Imperial Bank:—Under the Imperial Bank of India Act (XLVII of 1920), the control of the Bank is entrusted to a Central Board of Governors with Local Boards at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras and such other places as the Central Board, with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council may determine. The Central Board of Governors consists of—

- (a) Managing Governors not exceeding two in number, appointed by the Governor-General in Council on recommendation by the Central Board;
- (b) the Presidents, Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Local Boards;
- (c) the Controller of the Currency, or other officer nominated by the Governor-General in Council; and
- (d) not more than four non-officials, nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

Representatives of any new Local Boards, which may be constituted, may be added at the discretion of the Central Board.

The Controller of the Currency and the Secretaries of the Local Boards are entitled to attend the meetings of the Central Board but not to vote under the agreement with Government. The Governor-General in Council is entitled to issue instructions to the Bank in respect of any matter which in his opinion vitally affects his financial policy or the safety of the Government balances, and if the Controller of the Currency or such other officer of Government as may be nominated by the Governor-General in Council to be a Governor of the Central Board shall give notice in writing to the Managing Governors that he considers that any action proposed to be taken by the Bank will be detrimental to the Government as affecting the matters aforesaid, such action shall not be taken without the approval in writing of the Governor-General in Council. Under the Imperial Bank of India Act provision was made for the increase of the capital of the Bank. The capital of the three Presidency Banks consisted of 3½ crores of rupees in shares of Rs. 500 each, fully subscribed. The additional capital authorised was 7½ crores in shares of Rs. 500 each, of which Rs. 125 has been called up, making the present capital of the Bank Rs. 11½ crores, of which Rs. 5,62,50,000 has been paid up. The reserve fund of the Bank is Rs. 4,57,50,000 and the balance sheet of 30th June 1924 showed the Government Balance at Rs. 22,03,22,098. Other Deposits at Rs. 76,62,44,807 and Cash Rs. 21,95,37,406 with a percentage of cash to liabilities of 22.105.

Class of Business:—The Imperial Bank of India Act follows the Presidency Banks Act of 1876 in defining absolutely the class of business in which the Bank may engage, though the older limitations are modified in some minor points. It permits for the first time the constitution of a London Office and the borrowing of money in England for the purpose of the Bank's business upon the security of assets of the Bank, but not the opening of cash credits, keeping cash accounts or receiving deposits in London except from former customers of the Presidency Banks. The Act provides for an agreement between the Bank and the Secretary of State, and this agreement, which was signed on the 27th January 1921 and is for a period of ten years determinable thereafter by either party with one year's notice, provides, *inter alia*, for the following important matters:—

- (1) All the general banking business of the Government of India is to be carried out by the Imperial Bank.

THE DIRECTORATE.

Managing Governors Sir Norcot Warren, K.C.I.E.
N. M. Muray, Esq.

Presidents, Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Local Boards.

CALCUTTA—
Sir Willoughby Carey, Kt., M.L.C. President.
Raja Reshee Chae Law, C.I.E., M.L.C. Vice-President.
D. S. McClure, Esq. Secretary.

BOMBAY—
Sir Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy, Bart., K.C.S.I. President.
F. O. Annesley, Esq. Vice-President.
R. Lindsay, Esq. Secretary.

MADRAS—
Sir James Simpson, Kt. President.
T. M. Ross, Esq. Vice-President.
W. Lamb, Esq. (Offg.) Secretary.

Controller of Currency A. V. V. Aiyar, Esq., B.A., C.I.E. (Offg.)

Nominated by Government.

The Hon'ble Sir Maneckji B. Dadabhoy, K.C.I.E., Nagpore.
The Hon'ble Sir Dinsha E. Wacha, Kt., J.P., Bombay.
The Hon'ble Sir S. R. M. Annamalai Chettiar, Kt., Madras.
Rai Sir Onkar Mull Jatia Bahadur, Kt., O.B.E., Calcutta.

MANAGER IN LONDON.

Sir Sidney Sitwell, Kt.

LOCAL HEAD OFFICES.

Calcutta.

Bombay.

Madras.

LONDON OFFICE.

No. 5, Whittington Avenue,
E. C. 3.

BRANCHES.

Burra Bazaar, Calcutta.
Clive Street, Calcutta.
Park Street, Calcutta.
Byculla, Bombay.
Mandvi, Bombay.
Sandhurst Road, Bombay.
Mount Road, Madras.
Abbotabad.
Agra.
Ahmedabad.
Ahmedabad City.
Ahmednagar.
Ajmer.
Akola.
Akyab.
Allahabad.
Alleppey.
Amballa.
Amballa Cant. (Sub-Agency).

Amraoti.
Amritsar.
Bangalore.
Bareilly.
Bassein.
Bellary.
Benares.
Berhampore (Ganjam).
Bezwada.
Bhilai (Sub-Agency).
Bhind (Sub-Agency).
Bhopal.
Broach.
Calicut.
Cawnpore.
Chandpur.
Chittagong.
Coconada.
Cochin.
Coimbatore.
Colombo.

Cuddalore.	Kasauli.	Peshawar.
Cuddapah.	Katni.	Peshawar City (Sub-Agency).
Cuttack.	Khandwa.	Poona.
Dacca.	Kumbakonam.	Poona City.
Dalhousie.	Lahore.	Quetta.
Darjeeling.	Larkana.	Rajahmandry.
Dehra Dun.	Lucknow.	Rajkot.
Delhi.	Ludhiana.	Rangoon.
Dhanbad.	Lyallpur.	Rangpur.
Dhulia.	Madura.	Rawalpindi.
Dibrugarh.	Mandalay.	Saharanpur.
Erode.	Mangalore.	Salem.
Farrukhabad.	Masulipatam.	Sargodha.
Ferozepore.	Meerut.	Secunderabad.
Fyzabad.	Moradabad.	Serajgunge.
Godhra.	Moulmein.	Shivpuri (Sub-Agency)
Gorakhpur.	Multan.	Sholapur.
Gufranwala.	Murree.	Sialkot.
Guna (Sub-Agency).	Musoorie.	Simla.
Guntur.	Muttra.	Srinagar (Kashmir).
Gwalior.	Muzaffarpur.	Sukkur.
Hathras.	Mymensingh.	Surat.
Hubli.	Nadlad.	Tellicherry.
Hyderabad (Deccan).	Nagpur.	Tinnevely.
Hyderabad (Sind.)	Naini Tal.	Trichinopoly.
Indore.	Nandyal.	Trivandrum.
Jaipur.	Naraingunge.	Tuticorin.
Jaigaon.	Nasik.	Ujjain.
Jaipalguri.	Negapatam.	Vellore.
Jamshedpur.	Nellore.	Viranganam.
Jharia (Sub-Agency).	Nowshera.	Vizagapatam.
Jubbulpore.	Ootacamund.	Vizianagaram.
Jullundur.	Parbhani (Sub-Agency).	Yeotmal.
Karachi.	Patna.	

In Schedule 1 Part 1 of the Act, the various descriptions of business which the Bank may transact are laid down, and in Part 2 it is expressly provided that the Bank shall not transact any kind of banking business other than that sanctioned in Part 1.

Briefly stated, the main classes of business sanctioned are:—

- (1) Advancing money upon the security of:—
 - (a) Stocks, &c., in which a trustee is authorised by Act to invest trust monies.
 - (b) Securities issued by State aided Railways, notified by the Governor-General-in-Council.
 - (c) Debentures, or other securities issued under Act, by, or on behalf of, a District Board.
 - (d) Goods, or documents of title thereto, deposited with, or assigned to the Bank.
 - (e) Accepted Bills of Exchange or Promissory Notes.
 - (f) Fully paid shares and debentures of Companies with limited liability or immovable property or documents of title relating thereto, as collateral security where the original security is one of those specified in a, b, c, d and, if authorised by the Central Board, in e.
- (2) With the sanction of the Local Government, advancing money to Courts of Wards upon security of estates in their charge.
- (3) Drawing, accepting, discounting, buying and selling bills of exchange and other negotiable securities payable in India and Ceylon, and subject to the directions of the Governor-General in Council, the discounting, buying and selling of bills of exchange payable outside India for and from or to such Banks as may be approved.
- (4) Investing the Banks' funds in the securities referred to in (1) a, b, c.

(5) Making Bank Post Bills and Letters of Credit payable in India and Ceylon.

(6) Buying and selling gold and silver.

(7) Receiving deposits.

(8) Receiving securities for safe custody.

(9) Selling such properties as may come into the Bank's possession in satisfaction of claims.

(10) Transacting agency business on commission.

(11) Acting as Administrator, for winding up estates.

(12) Drawing bills of exchange and granting letters of credit payable out of India for the use of principals in connection with (11) and also for private constituents for bona fide personal needs.

(13) Buying, for the purpose of meeting such bills, &c., bills of exchange payable out of India at any usance not exceeding six months.

(14) Borrowing money in India.

(15) Borrowing money in England upon security of assets of the Bank, but not otherwise. The principal restrictions placed on the business of the Bank in Part 2 are as follows:—

(1) It shall not make any loan or advance:—

(a) For a longer period than six months,

(b) upon the security of stock or shares of the Bank;

(c) save in the case of estates specified in Part 1 (Courts of Ward) upon mortgage or security of immovable property or documents of title thereof.

(2) The amount which may be advanced to any individual or partnership is limited.

(3) Discounts cannot be made or advances on personal security given, unless such discounts or advances carry with them the several responsibilities of at least two persons or firms unconnected with each other in general partnership.

The Balance Sheet of the Bank as at 30th June 1924 was as follows:—

LIABILITIES.	Rs.	a.	p.	ASSETS.	Rs.	a.	p.
Subscribed Capital ..	11,25,00,000	0	0	Government Securities ..	10,53,60,832	15	11
Capital Paid up ..	5,62,50,000	0	0	Other Authorized Securities under the Act ..	1,22,04,387	14	0
Reserve ..	4,57,50,000	0	0	Loans ..	21,88,72,111	1	9
Public Deposits ..	22,08,22,098	12	4	Cash Credits ..	43,60,70,651	3	8
Other Deposits ..	76,62,41,807	6	0	Inland Bills discounted and purchased ..	5,60,03,088	9	8
Loans against Securities ..				Foreign Bills discounted and purchased ..	1,03,635	1	11
per contra ..				Bullion ..	2,56,58,025	4	8
Loans from the Government of India under Section 20 of the Paper Currency Act, against Inland Bills discounted and purchased per contra ..				Dead Stock ..			
Contingent Liabilities ..	60,83,504	3	8	Liability of Constituents for Contingent Liabilities per contra ..	53,63,523	12	11
Sundries ..				Sundries ..			
				Balances with other Banks ..	1,69,76,747	14	9
					87,56,13,003	15	1
					21,95,37,406	6	11
Rupees ..	1,09,51,50,410	6	0	Cash ..	1,09,51,50,410	6	1

The above Balance Sheet includes:—

Deposits in London £ 1,513,771-16-4; Advances, in London £ 434,176-5-8; Cash and Balances at other Banks in London £ 1,132,920-0-11.

Government Deposits.

The following statement shows the Government deposits with each Bank at various periods during the last 40 years or so:—

In Lakhs of rupees.

	Bank of Bengal.	Bank of Bombay.	Bank of Madras.	Total.		Bank of Bengal.	Bank of Bombay.	Bank of Madras.	Total.
30 June 1881 ..	230	61	53	344	1913 ..	247	167	68	482
1886 ..	329	82	39	450	1914 ..	290	197	93	580
1891 ..	332	97	53	482	1915 ..	263	187	102	552
1896 ..	225	88	57	370	1916 ..	336	263	115	714
1901 ..	187	90	63	340	1917 ..	1338	718	209	2263
1906 ..	186	93	46	325	1918 ..	664	549	213	1426
1911 ..	198	129	77	404	1919 ..	346	298	142	786
1912 ..	210	155	75	440	1920 ..	801	663	170	1634
					26 January 1921 ..	364	206	138	708

IMPERIAL BANK.

30th June 1921	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,220
" 1922	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,672
" 1923	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,256
" 1924	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,208

Government Deposits.

The proportions which Government deposits have borne from time to time to the total Capital Reserve and deposit of the three Banks are shown below :—

In Lakhs of Rupees.

			1	2	3	4	Proportion of
			Capital.	Reserve.	Government deposits.	Other deposits.	Government deposits to 1, 2, 3 & 4.
31st December.							
1891	..	..	350	97	297	1412	13·7 per cent.
1896	..	..	350	158	299	1202	14·2 "
1901	..	..	360	213	340	1463	14·3 "
1906	..	..	360	279	307	2745	8·3 "
1907	..	..	360	294	335	2811	8·8 "
1908	..	..	360	309	325	2861	7·4 "
1909	..	..	360	318	307	3285	9·7 "
1910	..	..	360	331	339	3234	9·6 "
1911	..	..	360	340	438	3419	9·0 "
1912	..	..	375	361	426	3578	11·8 "
1914	..	..	375	370	587	3644	10·5 "
1915	..	..	375	386	561	4002	9·5 "
1916	..	..	375	389	487	3860	9·0 "
1917	..	..	375	358	520	4470	9·3 "
1918	..	..	375	383	771	6771	12·9 "
1919	..	..	375	340	864	5097	8·8 "
1920	..	..	375	855	772	7226	9·6 "
30th June (Imperial Bank.)							
1921	..	..	547	371	2220	7016	21·8 "
1922	..	..	562	411	1672	6336	18·6 "
1923	..	..	562	435	1256	7047	13·5 "
1924	..	..	562	457	2208	7662	20·2 "

Recent Progress.

The following statements show the progress made by the three Banks prior to their amalga-

In Lakhs of Rupees.

BANK OF BENGAL.

	Capital.	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash.	Investments.	Dividend for year.
31st December.							
1895	200	68	184	677	422	132	10 per cent.
1900	200	103	155	582	243	136	11 ..
1905	200	140	187	1204	396	181	12 ..
1906	200	150	180	1505	528	149	12 ..
1907	200	157	187	1573	460	279	12 ..
1908	200	165	178	1575	507	349	13 ..
1909	200	170	188	1760	615	411	14 ..
1910	200	175	198	1609	514	368	14 ..
1911	200	180	270	1677	729	321	14 ..
1912	200	185	234	1711	665	310	14 ..
1913	200	191	301	1824	840	319	14 ..
1914	200	200	287	2160	1169	621	16 ..
1915	200	*204	285	1978	785	793	16 ..
1916	200	*213	274	2143	772	768	16 ..
1917	200	1221	448	2934	1482	778	17 ..
1918	200	1189	584	2392	894	779	17 ..
1919	200	1200	405	3254	997	864	17 ..
1920	200	1210	434	3398	1221	910	19 ..

* Includes Rs 63 lakhs as a reserve for depreciation of investments.

†	"	67	"	"	"	"
•	"	25	"	"	"	"

BANK OF BOMBAY.

BANK OF CANADA									
			Capital.	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash.	Investments.	Dividend for year.
									per cent.
1895	..	..	100	51	76	358	228	105	11
1900	..	..	100	70	87	432	129	89	11
1905	..	..	100	87	92	676	259	158	12
1906	..	..	100	92	101	832	354	177	12
1907	..	..	100	96	112	821	324	164	13
1908	..	..	100	101	94	832	377	149	13
1909	..	..	100	103	120	1035	415	163	14
1910	..	..	100	105	152	1053	436	149	14
1911	..	..	100	106	107	1104	463	208	14
1912	..	..	100	106	117	1124	515	210	14
1913	..	..	100	106	200	1015	477	232	15
1914	..	..	100	110	183	1081	646	202	15
1915	..	..	100	100	136	1079	423	207	15
1916	..	..	100	90	142	1367	667	312	15
1917	..	..	100	92	235	2817	1398	744	17
1918	..	..	100	101	177	1749	542	353	18
1919	..	..	100	110	262	2756	928	315	19
1920	..	..	100	120	349	2748	876	298	22

BANK OF MADRAS.

				DATA OF 1911				DATA OF 1912				10 per cent.	
1895	..	..	50	16	45	278	144	45	8	..			
1900	..	..	60	22	35	260	82	67	10	..			
1905	..	..	60	30	41	344	140	71	10	..			
1906	..	..	60	32	54	355	151	81	10	..			
1907	..	..	60	36	35	416	162	84	10	..			
1908	..	..	60	40	52	447	153	84	11	..			
1909	..	..	60	44	49	500	141	79	12	..			
1910	..	..	60	48	72	567	184	85	12	..			
1911	..	..	75	52	59	625	165	104	12	..			
1912	..	..	75	70	75	743	196	113	12	..			
1913	..	..	75	73	86	805	219	117	12	..			
1914	..	..	75	78	91	761	267	134	12	..			
1915	..	..	75	65	86	803	256	184	12	..			
1916	..	..	75	55	104	960	286	161	12	..			
1917	..	..	75	50	87	1020	496	94	12	..			
1918	..	..	75	60	102	954	271	139	12	..			
1919	..	..	75	45	104	1215	436	175	12	..			
1920	..	..	75	45	118	1579	505	211	18	..			

IMPERIA BANK.

30th June.							
1921..	547	371	22.20	70.16	34.34	16.52	16 per cent.
1922..	562	411	16.72	63.36	33.95	900	16 "
1923..	562	435	12.56	70.47	29.13	925	16 "

THE EXCHANGE BANKS.

THE EXCHANGE BANKS.

The Banks carrying on Exchange business in India are merely branch agencies of Banks having their head offices in London, on the Continent, or in the Far East and the United States. Originally their business was confined almost exclusively to the financing of the external trade of India; but in recent years most of them, while continuing to finance this part of India's trade, have also taken an active part in the financing of the internal portion also at the places where their branches are situated.

At one time the Banks carried on their operations in India almost entirely with money borrowed elsewhere, principally in London—the home offices of the Banks attracting deposits for use in India by offering rates of interest much higher than the English Banks were able to quote. Within recent years however it has been discovered that it is possible to attract deposits in India on quite as favourable terms as can be done in London and a very large proportion of the financing done by the Exchange Banks is now carried through by means of money actually borrowed in India. No information is available as to how far each Bank has secured deposits in India, but the following statement published by the Director-General of Statistics in India shows how rapidly such deposits have grown in the aggregate within recent years.

TOTAL DEPOSITS OF ALL EXCHANGE BANKS
SECURED IN INDIA.

In Lakhs of Rupees.

1895	1030
1900	1050
1905	1704
1910	2479
1911	2816
1912	2953
1913	3103
1914	3014
1915	3354
1916	3803
1917	5337
1918	6185
1919	7435
1920	7480
1921	7519
1922	7338

Exchange Banks' Investments.

Turning now to the question of the investment of the Banks' resources, so far as it concerns India, this to a great extent consists of the purchase of bills drawn against imports and exports to and from India.

The financing of the import trade originated and is carried through however for the most part by Branches outside India, the Indian Branches' share in the business consisting principally in collecting the amount of the bills at maturity and in furnishing their other branches with information as to the means and standing of the drawers of the bills, and it is as regards the export business that the Indian Branches are more immediately concerned. The Exchange Banks have practically a monopoly of the export finance in India and in view of the dimensions of the trade which has to be dealt with the Banks would under ordinary circumstances require to utilise a very large proportion of their resources in carrying through the business. They are able however by a system of rediscount in London to limit the employment of their own resources to a comparatively small figure in relation to the business they actually put through. No definite information can be secured as to the extent to which rediscounting in London is carried on but the following figures appearing in the balance sheets dated 31st December 1922 of the undernoted Banks will give some idea of this:

LIABILITY ON BILLS OF EXCHANGE RE-DISCOUNTED AND STILL CURRENT.

Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China, Eastern Bank, Ltd.	£ 487,000
Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation.	5,100,000
Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd.	2,461,000
National Bank of India, Ltd.	3,678,000
P. & O. Banking Corporation, Ltd.	12,958,000
	31,517,000

The above figures do not of course relate to re-discounts of Indian bills alone, as the Banks operate in other parts of the world also, but it may safely be inferred that bills drawn in India form a very large proportion of the whole.

The bills against exports are largely drawn at three months' sight and may either be "clean" or be accompanied by the documents relating to the goods in respect of which they are drawn. Most of them are drawn on well known firms at home or against credits opened by Banks or financial houses in England and bearing as they do an Exchange Bank endorsement they are readily taken up by the discount houses and Banks in London. Any bills purchased in India are sent home by the first possible mail so that presuming they are rediscounted as soon as they reach London the Exchange Banks are able to secure the return of their money in about 16 or 17 days instead of having to wait for three months which would be the case if they were unable to rediscount. It must not be assumed however that all bills are rediscounted as soon as they reach London as at times it suits the Banks to hold up the bills in anticipation of a fall in the London discount rate while on occasions also the Banks prefer to hold the bills on their own account as an investment until maturity.

The Banks place themselves in funds in India for the purpose of purchasing export bills in a variety of ways of which the following are the principal:—

- (1) Proceeds of import bills as they mature.
- (2) Sale of drafts and telegraphic transfers payable in London and elsewhere out of India.
- (3) Purchase of Council Bills and Telegraphic Transfers payable in India from the Secretary of State.
- (4) Imports of bar gold and silver bullion.
- (5) Imports of sovereigns from London, Egypt or Australia.

The remaining business transacted by the Banks in India is of the usual nature and need not be given in detail.

An interesting event in Indian Banking history is the recent entry in the Banking field here of one of the English "Big Five". This has been brought about by the acquisition of the business of Cox & Co., by Lloyds Bank.

The following is a statement of the position of the various Exchange Banks carrying on business in India as at 31st December 1923:—

In Thousands of £.

Name.	Capital.	Reserve.	Deposits.	Cash and Investments.
Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China, Ltd.	3000	3900	41589	19058
Comptoir National D'Escompte de Paris	10000	2897	165095	20308
Eastern Bank, Ltd.	1000	320	4942	4165
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corpn.	2322	7345	58520	22096
Imperial Bank of Persia	650	390	4165	4618
International Banking Corpn.	1000	2100	13083	3632
Lloyds Bank, Ltd.	14372	10000	340168	152638
Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd.	1050	1250	12831	8216
National Bank of India, Ltd.	2000	2700	31254	17152
Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd.	10000	7450	50808	26846
Sumitomo Bank, Ltd.	5000	1750	34405	15552
Bank of Taiwan, Ltd.	5250	1338	25273	11657
P. & O. Banking Corpn., Ltd.	2594	135	9491	4755
Netherlands Trading Society	6666	3558	20877	13679
Banco Nacional Ultramarino	5333	7555	64988	40219

JOINT STOCK BANKS.

Previous to 1906 there were few Banks of this description operating in India, and such as were then in existence were of comparatively small importance and had their business confined to a very restricted area. The rapid development of this class of Bank, which has been so marked a feature in Banking within recent years, really had its origin in Bombay and set in with the establishment of the Bank of India and the Indian Specie Bank in 1906. After that time there was a perfect stream of new flotations, and although many of the new Companies confined themselves to legitimate banking business, on the other hand a very large number engaged in other businesses in addition and can hardly be properly classed as Banks.

These Banks made very great strides during the first few years of their existence, but it was generally suspected in well informed circles that the business of many of the Banks was of a very speculative and unsafe character and it was a matter of no great surprise to many people when it became known that some of the Banks were in difficulties.

The first important failure to take place was that of the People's Bank of India and the loss of confidence caused by the failure of that Bank resulted in a very large number of other failures, the principal being that of the Indian Specie Bank.

Since those events of ten years ago, confidence has been largely restored. But in April 1923 the Alliance Bank of Simla suspended payment and is now in voluntary liquidation. The effect of the failure of this old established Bank might have been disastrous but for the prompt action of the Imperial Bank which dealt with the situation in close association with the Government of India. The Imperial Bank undertook to pay the depositors of the Alliance Bank 50 per cent. of the amounts due to them. A panic was averted and a critical period was passed through with little difficulty.

During 1923 the Tata Industrial Bank, which was established in 1918, was merged in the Central Bank of India.

The following shows the position of the better known existing Banks as it appears in the latest available Balance Sheets:—

In Lakhs of Rupees.

Name.	Capital.	Reserve.	Deposits.	Cash and Investments.
Allahabad Bank, Ltd., affiliated to P. & O. Banking Corporation, Ltd.	35	35	849	316
Bank of Baroda, Ltd.	29	19	520	293
Bank of India, Ltd.	100	74	989	380
The Bank of Mysore, Ltd.	55	11	14	4
Central Bank of India, Ltd.	20	11	143	66
Karachi Bank, Ltd.	168	100	1559	1064
Oudh & Commercial Bank, Ltd.	2	2	5	1
Punjab National Bank, Ltd.	5	18	601	188
Union Bank of India, Ltd.	30	59	66	40

London Agents of Banks in India.

Growth of Joint Stock Banks.

The following figures appearing in the Report of the Director-General of Statistics show the growth of the Capital, Reserve and Deposits of the principal Joint Stock Banks registered in India:—

In Lakhs of rupees.					
Capital.	Reserve.	Deposits.		Capital.	Reserve.
1870 .. 9	1	13	1907 .. 229	63	1400
1875 .. 14	2	27	1908 .. 239	69	1626
1880 .. 18	3	63	1909 .. 266	87	2049
1885 .. 18	5	94	1910 .. 275	100	2565
1890 .. 33	17	270	1911 .. 285	126	2529
1895 .. 83	31	566	1912 .. 291	134	2725
1900 .. 82	45	807	1913 .. 291	132	2259
1905 .. 133	56	1155	1914 .. 251	141	1710
			1915 .. 281	156	1787
			1916 .. 287	173	2471
			1917 .. 303	182	3117
			1918 .. 436	165	4059
			1919 .. 539	224	5899
			1920 .. 837	255	7114
			1921 .. 938	300	7659
			1922 .. 802	261	6163

LONDON OFFICES, AGENTS OR CORRESPONDENTS OF BANKS AND FIRMS (DOING BANKING BUSINESS) IN INDIA.

Name of Bank.	London Office—Agents or Correspondents.	Address.
Imperial Bank of India ..	London Office ..	5, Whittington Avenue, E. C. 3.
Other Banks & Kindred Firms.		
Allahabad Bank ..	National Provincial Bank ..	15, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Bank of Morvi ..	Ditto ..	15, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Central Bank of India ..	Midland Bank ..	5, Threadneedle Street, E. C. 2.
Grindlay & Co. ..	London Office ..	54, Parliament Street.
Karnani Industrial Bank ..	Barclays Bank ..	168, Fenchurch Street, E. C. 3.
King's Branch (Calcutta) ..	Lloyds Bank ..	71, Lombard Street, E. C. 3.
(Bombay) ..	Midland Bank ..	5, Threadneedle Street, E. C. 2.
Punjab National Bank ..	Grindlay & Co. ..	54, Parliament Street.
Simla Banking & Industrial Co. ..	London Office ..	Ludgate Circus, E. C. 4.
Thomas Cook & Son ..	Westminster Bank ..	Bartholomew Lane, E. C. 2.
Union Bank of India ..		
Exchange Banks.		
Banco Nacional Ultramarino ..	London Office ..	9, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Bank of Taiwan ..	Ditto ..	25, Old Broad Street, E. C. 2.
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China ..	Ditto ..	38, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris ..	Ditto ..	8-13, King William St., E. C. 4.
Cox's Branch (Lloyds Bank) ..	Ditto ..	71, Lombard Street, E. C. 3.
Eastern Bank ..	Ditto ..	4, Crosby Sq., E. C. 3.
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation ..	Ditto ..	9, Grace Church St., E. C. 3.
Imperial Bank of Persia ..	Ditto ..	25, Abchurch Lane, E. C. 4.
International Banking Corporation ..	Ditto ..	36, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Lloyds Bank ..	Ditto ..	71, Lombard Street, E. C. 3.
Mercantile Bank of India ..	Ditto ..	15, Grace Church St., E. C. 3.
National Bank of India ..	Ditto ..	26, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Nederlandsche Handel-Maatschappij ..	National Provincial Bank ..	15, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Nederlandsche Indische Handelsbank ..	London Representative ..	27, Old Broad Street, E. C. 2.
P. & O. Banking Corporation ..	London Office ..	122, Leadenhall St., E. C. 3.
Sumitomo Bank ..	Ditto ..	67, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Yokohama Specie Bank ..	Ditto ..	7, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.

INDIAN PRIVATE BANKERS AND SHROFFS.

Indian private Bankers and Shroffs flourished in India long before Joint Stock Banks were ever thought of, and it seems likely that they will continue to thrive for some very considerable time to come. The use of the word "Shroff" is usually associated with a person who charges usurious rates of interest to impetuous people, but this is hardly fair to the people known as "shroffs" in banking circles, as there is no doubt that the latter are of very real service to the business community and of very great assistance to Banks in India. Under present conditions the Banks in India can never hope to be able to get into sufficiently close touch with the affairs of the vast trading community in India to enable them to grant accommodation to more than a few of these traders direct, and it is in his capacity as middleman that the shroff proves of such great service. In this capacity also he brings a very considerable volume of business within the scope of the Presidency Banks Act, and enables the Presidency Banks to give accommodation which, without his assistance, the Banks would not be permitted to give. The shroff's position as an intermediary between the trading community and the Banks usually arises in something after the following manner. A shopkeeper in the bazaar, with limited means of his own, finds that, after using all his own money, he still requires say Rs. 25,000 to stock his shop suitably. He thereupon approaches the shroff, and the latter after very careful inquiries as to the shopkeeper's position grants the accommodation, if he is satisfied that the business is safe. The business, as a rule, is arranged through a hoondee broker, and in the case referred to the latter may probably approach about ten shroffs and secure accommodation from them to the extent of Rs. 2,500 each. A hoondee usually drawn at a currency of about 2 months is almost invariably taken by the shroffs in respect of such advances.

A stage is reached however when the demands on the shroffs are greater than they are able to meet out of their own money, and it is at this

point that the assistance of the Banks is called into requisition. The shroffs do this by taking a number of the bills they already hold to the Banks for discount under their endorsement, and the Banks accept such bills freely to an extent determined in each case by the standing of the shroff and the strength of the drawer. The extent to which any one shroff may grant accommodation in the bazaar is therefore dependent on two factors, viz., (1) the limit which he himself may think it advisable to place on his transactions, and (2) the extent to which the Banks are prepared to discount bills bearing his endorsement. The shroffs keep in very close touch with all the traders to whom they grant accommodation, and past experience has shown that the class of business above referred to is one of the safest the Banks can engage in.

The rates charged by the shroffs are usually based on the rates at which they in turn can discount the bills with the Banks and necessarily vary according to the standing of the borrower and with the season of the year. Generally speaking, however, a charge of two annas per cent. per mensem above the Bank's rate of discount, or 1½%, is a fair average rate charged in Bombay to a first class borrower. Rates in Calcutta and Madras are on a slightly higher scale due in a great measure to the fact that the competition among the shroffs for business is not so keen in these places as it is in Bombay.

The shroffs who engage in the class of business above described are principally Marwaries and Multanis having their Head Offices for the most part in Bikanir and Shikarpur, respectively, the business elsewhere than at the Head Office being carried on by "Moonimis" who have very wide powers.

It is not known to what extent native bankers and shroffs receive deposits and engage in exchange business throughout India, but there is no doubt that this is done to a very considerable extent.

THE BANK RATE.

Formerly each Presidency Bank fixed its own Bank Rate, and the rates were not uniform. Now the Imperial Bank fixes the rate for the whole of India. The rate fixed represents the rate charged by the Banks on demand loans against Government securities only and advances on other securities or discounts are granted as

a rule at a slightly higher rate. Ordinarily such advances or discounts are granted at from one-half to one per cent. over the official rate; but this does not always apply and in the monsoon months, when the Bank rate is sometimes nominal, it often happens that such accommodation is granted at the official rate or even less.

The following statement shows the average Bank Rate since the Imperial Bank was constituted:—

Year.	1st Half-year.	2nd Half-year.	Yearly average.
1921	6.038	5.108	5.573
1922	7.132	4.610	5.821
1923	7.419	4.5	5.959
1924	8.05		

BANKERS' CLEARING HOUSES.

The principal Clearing Houses in India are those of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Rangoon, Colombo and Karachi, and of these the first two are by far the most important. The members at these places consist of the Imperial Bank, most of the Exchange Banks and English Banking Agency firms, and a few of the better known of the local Joint Stock Banks. No Bank is entitled to claim to be a member as of right and any application for admission to a Clearing must be proposed and seconded by two members and be subject thereafter to ballot by the existing members.

The duties of settling Bank are undertaken by the Imperial Bank at each of the places mentioned and a representative of each member attends at the office of that Bank on each business day at the time fixed to deliver all cheques he may have negotiated on other members.

and to receive in exchange all cheques drawn on him negotiated by the latter. After all the cheques have been received and delivered the representative of each Bank advises the settling Bank of the difference between his total receipts and deliveries and the settling Bank thereafter strikes a final balance to satisfy itself that the totals of the debtor balances agree with the total of the creditor balances. The debtor Banks thereafter arrange to pay the amounts due by them to the settling Bank during the course of the day and the latter in turn arranges to pay on receipt of those amounts the balances due to the creditor Banks. In practice however all the members keep Bank accounts with the settling Bank so that the final balances are settled by cheques and book entries thus doing away with the necessity for cash in any form.

The figures for the Clearing Houses in India above referred to are given below:—

Total amount of Cheques Cleared Annually.

In lakhs of Rupees.

In lakhs of Rupees.								
	Calcutta.	Bombay.	Madras.	Rangoon.	Colombo.	Karachi.	Total.	
1901	Not available	6511	1338	Not available	..	178	8027	
1902	..	7013	1295	..	..	268	8576	
1903	..	8762	1464	..	..	340	10566	
1904	..	9492	1536	..	..	365	11393	
1905	..	10927	1560	..	..	324	12811	
1906	..	10912	1583	..	..	400	12895	
1907	22444	12645	1548	..	..	530	37167	
1908	21281	12585	1754	..	..	643	36263	
1909	19776	14376	1948	..	..	702	39801	
1910	22238	16652	2117	4765	..	755	46527	
1911	25763	17605	2083	5599	..	762	51612	
1912	28831	20831	1152	6043	..	1159	58016	
1913	33133	21890	2340	6198	..	1219	64780	
1914	28031	17696	2127	4989	..	1315	54158	
1915	32266	16462	1887	4069	..	1352	56036	
1916	48017	24051	2495	4853	..	1503	80919	
1917	47193	33655	2339	4966	..	2028	90181	
1918	74397	53362	2528	6927	..	2429	139643	
1919	90241	76250	3004	8837	..	2266	180598	
1920	153388	126353	7500	10779	..	3120	801140	
1921	91672	89788	3847	11875	..	3579	200761	
1922	94426	86683	4279	12220	9681	3234	210523	
1923	89148	75015	4722	11094	11940	4064	195983	

Table of Wages, Income, &c.

TABLE OF WAGES, INCOME, &c.

Showing the amount for one or more days at the rates of 1 to 10 Rupees per Month of 31 Days.

Runes.																
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
Days	Ba. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	Ra. a. p.	
1	0 60	1 00	1 60	2 00	2 60	3 10	3 70	4 10	4 70	5 10	5 80	6 20	6 90	7 30	7 90	
2	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
3	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
4	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
5	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
6	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
7	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
8	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
9	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
10	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
11	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
12	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
13	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
14	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
15	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
16	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
17	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
18	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
19	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
20	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
21	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
22	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
23	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
24	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
25	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
26	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
27	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
28	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
29	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	
30	0 60	1 00	2 00	3 10	4 10	5 10	6 20	7 30	8 40	9 50	10 10	11 20	12 30	13 40	14 50	

Life Insurance.

There are no publications from which a complete statistical survey of the various branches of insurance work in India can be obtained, but the official "Report on the working of Life Assurance Companies doing business in British India," published by the Government of India, (1924) gives much information in regard to the Life Assurance Companies subject to the provisions of the Indian Life Assurance Companies Act, 1912.

The oldest of the Indian Companies were established in Madras about 90 years ago: Bombay has none older than the Bombay Mutual, the Oriental and the Bombay Widows' Pension Fund which were established about 50 years ago. Life Assurance seems not to have been started in Bengal until much later, and it was not until 1906 that many Companies were established either in that Presidency or elsewhere in India. The year 1919 was marked by the formation of several new companies, more particularly in Bombay.

In his introductory note to the official publication already mentioned, Mr. H. G. W. Meikle, Actuary to the Government of India, dealing with the year 1922-23, says:—

The total amount of paid-up capital of the Indian companies was increased slightly during the year and is now nearly 5½ lakhs, 18 lakhs of which has already been expended in preliminary and organization expenses and 6½ lakhs of the balance has been earmarked to meet deficits disclosed at the time of the actuarial valuations of assets and liabilities.

The total sums assured remaining in force at the end of the year 1923 under ordinary life assurance policies issued by Indian companies is 40 crores. The new sums assured during the year were over 5½ crores. This new business is larger than in any previous year and is nearly more than three times as large as in 1916.

The average rate of annual premium payable under the policies issued by Indian companies is nearly 5½ per cent. of the sum assured. The corresponding rate deduced from the returns to the British Board of Trade is lower, the difference being partly due to the fact that endowment assurances constitute a larger proportion of the policies issued by Indian than by British companies.

Expenses.—Although the expense ratio of the companies as a whole shows a slight improvement yet there are unfortunately many companies which still conduct their business on ruinously extravagant lines. This is mainly the case with companies established after 1905 at the time of the Swadeshi boom.

The expense ratios of each different company show that although a few of the old companies have undesirably high expenses ratios and a few of those established since 1905 have commendably small ratios yet it is mainly amongst the latter that the undesirable high rates are noticeable. Of the companies established in the past 20 years more than half are spending over 45 per cent. of their premium income. In this connection it may be pointed out that in the Industrial Assurance Companies Bill

which was introduced in the British House of Lords in 1921, it was laid down that if the expenditure exceeded 20 per cent. in the case of ordinary assurance and 40 per cent. in the case of industrial assurance business, the excess should be met by the directors failing which the company had to be wound up. Although this provision was not adopted when the Bill was finally passed into law in September 1923, it should receive the most serious consideration of extravagantly managed companies especially as fresh legislation dealing with insurance companies is to be undertaken in this country at an early date.

Actuarial Examinations.—It will be of interest to those who are desirous of qualifying as Actuaries to learn that the Institute of Actuaries, London, has for the last few years opened centres in Bombay and Calcutta for holding its annual examinations. The examinations are usually held in April each year. Candidates who wish to sit for the examinations are required to give notice in writing to the Assistant Secretary of the Institute, Staple Inn Hall, Holborn, W. C. I., at least two months before the date of examination specifying the particular Examination for which they desire to enter and the centre at which they propose to present themselves.

Actuarial Valuations.—Of the 52 existing Indian companies 37 have submitted the results of actuarial valuation of their assets and liabilities. The majority have undergone valuation more than once, and altogether 81 valuation reports have been submitted by the companies now existing. In the case of 26 companies the result of the latest valuations disclosed a surplus. In 4 cases the deficit was covered by the paid up capital, thus proving solvency but precluding the payment of either bonus or dividend. In the remaining 7 cases it became necessary either to call up more capital or alter the policy contracts. Thus only 15 companies out of a total of 52 have not undergone any actuarial valuation. Four of these transact business which is not readily susceptible of actuarial valuation and the remaining 11 have not yet reached the stage of having a valuation.

Provident Insurance Societies.—Although several of the Indian Life Assurance companies formerly in existence may deservedly have had very undesirable reputations, it must be remembered that a great deal of discredit has been brought on the better class of such companies owing to the existence of a large number of Provident Societies whose unsound methods have been dealt with in previous issues of these returns. The essential difference between a Life Assurance Company and a Provident Insurance Society is that the company is subject to the Life Act and not to the Provident Insurance Societies Act, if, under insurances payable at the death of survivorship of any one life, it undertakes either to pay sums which in the aggregate exceed Rs. 500 or to receive premiums which in the aggregate exceed Rs. 25 in any one year where the period for which the premiums are payable is unlimited, or which exceed Rs. 250 altogether where such period is limited. If,

as may happen in the case of a dividing society, the sum assured payable at death is not fixed but may in certain contingencies exceed Rs. 500, the society is subject to the Life Act. The fact of either the sum assured or the premiums exceeding those limits under any other form of insurance than life assurance does not make the Society subject to the Life Act.

Eighteen years ago there were about 1,200 societies in existence in India of the Provident Insurance Society type. Now 31 only remain, 7 of which are proprietary and the rest mutual. The total paid up capital of the proprietary societies is only about Rs. 36,000. The latest accounts received from the societies indicate that their total annual income is about 2 lakhs and their total funds amount to little over 4 lakhs. Thirteen of these societies either do

ordinary life assurance business, or work on the dividing plan with a minimum guarantee, one is a widow's fund and another transacts sickness insurance business. These 15 societies could with advantage undergo actuarial valuation. The remaining 16 societies either work on the dividing plan without any minimum guarantee, or on the death call system, and are consequently not susceptible of actuarial valuation. They, however, are mostly in a moribund state. Nine of the Provident Insurance Societies transact other classes of business, mostly marriage insurance, in addition to life business.

Indian Life Assurance Companies.—The following list shows the Indian companies in existence in the several provinces of India arranged according to the year in which they were founded.

The names of Mutual companies are printed in Capitals.

Year when established.	Madras Presidency.	Bombay Presidency.	Bengal Presidency	Punjab.	United Provinces, Assam, Ajmer-Merwara and Central Provinces.
1833	MADRAS WIDOWS.				
1847 ..				CHRISTIAN MUTUAL. (Started in the U. P.).	
1849 ..	TINNEVELLY.				
1871 ..		BOMBAY MUTUAL.			
1874 ..		Oriental.			
1876 ..		BOMBAY WIDOWS.			
1884 ..	INDIAN CHRISTIAN.				
1885 ..		GOAN MUTUAL.			
1888 ..	MANGALORE R.C.	B. B. AND C. I. ZORON.			
1889 ..		BOMBAY ZORON ..			
1891 ..		GUJARAT ZOROASTRIAN.	HINDU MUTUAL. (Started in Simla).		
1892 ..		Indian Life			
1893 ..				PUNJAB MUTUAL.	RECHABIES (U. P.)
1894 ..		SIND HINDU			

Year when established	Madras Presidency.	Bombay Presidency.	Bengal Presidency.	Punjab.	United Provinces, Assam, Ajmer, Merwara and Central Provinces.
1896		Empire of India ..		Bharat ..	
1901				SIMLA MUTUAL.	
1906	United India		National Indian; National. Hindusthan Co-operative.	Co-operative.	
1907					
1908		Bombay Life ..	India Equitable ..	Hindusthan Death Benefit	General (Ajmer).
1910	ALL INDIA & BURMA.		Bengal Mercantile		
1911	S O U T H I N D I A W E S L E. Y A N.				Aryya (Assam).
1912		Asian Commercial ..	Unique ..		
1913	Mysore Lite.	Industrial and Prudential; Western India; East and West.	Light of Asia ..		
1914				British India.	
1916		Zenith			
1917		Britannia			
1918					
1919		New India; New Era; Crescent.	Himalaya ..		
1920			Bengal Insurance and Real Property.		
1921		Indian-Lion ..			Nagpore Pioneer (C. P.).
1924		Rising Star		Laxmi ..	

Post Office Insurance Fund.—This was instituted by the Government of India for the benefit of the postal employees in 1883 but gradually admission to this Fund has been thrown open to almost all classes of Government servants who are employed on civil duties. On the 31st March 1923 there were 39,988 policies in force assuring a total sum of Rs. 6,82,23,639 including bonus additions. The life assurance fund on that date amounted to Rs. 2,00,07,561. The limit of assurance permissible under the rules of the Fund, which was previously Rs. 4,000, has been raised to Rs. 10,000.

British, Colonial and Foreign Companies.—There are at present 23 British, Colonial and Foreign Life Offices which have a place of business in India. Of these 17 are constituted in Britain, 2 in Canada, 1 in Australia, 1 in the Straits Settlements and 2 in Shanghai. Nearly

all are partially exempt from the operation of the Indian Life Assurance Companies Act of 1912 on the ground that, when it came into force, they were carrying on business in the United Kingdom in conformity with the provisions of the British Assurance Companies Act of 1909.

The principal effects of the exemptions allowed to these British, Colonial and Foreign companies are that they are freed from the necessity either of making a deposit with the Controller of Currency or of making separate statements respecting their Indian business. Those granted exemptions are allowed to submit their accounts in the form prescribed by the British Assurance Companies Act of 1909. The Indian Life Act has to a great extent been enacted on the lines of the British Act.

The following table gives the list of non-Indian Companies transacting life business in India.

Name of Company.	Year when established.	Head Office.	Other class of Insurance business done. F = Fire; M = Marine. C = Capital redemption. S = Sickness and Accident. G = Fidelity Guarantee and Burglary, etc.						Percentage of Life Assurance premium income in the United Kingdom to total life assurance premium income.	
Constituted in the United Kingdom.										
1. Alliance ..	1824	London ..	F	M	C	S	G	93·8		
2. Atlas ..	1808	London ..	F	..	C	S	G	78·2		
3. Commercial Union ..	1861	London ..	F	M	C	S	G	77·8		
4. Gresham ..	1848	London ..	..	..	C	..	..	25·3		
5. Law Union and Rock ..	1806	London ..	F	..	C	S	G	100		
6. Liverpool and London and Globe ..	1836	Liverpool ..	F	M	C	S	G	96·4		
7. London Assurance Corporation ..	1720	London ..	F	M	C	S	G	85·5		
8. North British and Mercantile ..	1823	Edinburgh ..	F	..	C	..	..	88·1		
9. Northern ..	1836	Aberdeen ..	F	..	C	S	G	98·2		
10. Norwich Union ..	1797	Norwich ..	..	..	C	..	..	57·0		
11. Phoenix ..	1782	London ..	F	M	C	S	G	81·8		
12. Royal ..	1845	Liverpool ..	F	M	C	S	G	84·8		
13. Royal Exchange ..	1720	London ..	F	M	C	S	G	91·7		
14. Royal London Auxiliary* ..	1910	London ..	F	..	C	S	G	..		
15. Scottish Union and National ..	1824	Edinburgh ..	F	M	C	S	G	87·4		
16. Standard ..	1825	Edinburgh ..	..	..	C	..	..	57·9		
17. Yorkshire ..	1824	York ..	F	M	C	S	G	89·9		
Not constituted in the U. K.										
18. Manufacturers ..	1887	Canada ..	..	..	..	..	..	·5		
19. Sun of Canada ..	1865	Canada ..	..	..	C	S	..	14·8		
20. National Mutual of Australasia. ..	1869	Australia ..	..	..	..	..	..	..		
21. Great Eastern ..	1909	Singapore ..	..	..	..	..	..	Nu		
22. China ..	1898	Shanghai ..	F	..	..	..	..	Nu		
23. Shanghai ..	1905	Shanghai ..	..	..	..	..	..	Nu		
24. New York† ..	1845	United States of America.	..	..	..	..	..	·6		

* This Company has, with effect from June 1922, merged in the Royal London Mutual Insurance Society.

† The Indian life insurance business of these companies is transferred to the Sun Life of Canada.

The Railways.

The history of Indian Railways very closely reflects the financial vicissitudes of the country. Not for some time after the establishment of Railways in England was their construction in India contemplated, and then to test their applicability to Eastern conditions three experimental lines were sanctioned in 1845. These were from Calcutta to Raniganj (127 miles), the East Indian Railway; Bombay to Kalyan (93 miles), Great Indian Peninsula Railway; and Madras to Arkonam (39 miles), Madras Railway. Indian Railway building on a serious scale dates from Lord Dalhousie's great minute of 1853, wherein, after dwelling upon the great social, political and commercial advantages of connecting the chief cities by rail, he suggested a great scheme of trunk lines linking the Presidencies with each other and the inland regions with the principal ports. This reasoning commended itself to the Directors of the East India Company, and it was powerfully reinforced when, during the Mutiny, the barriers imposed on free communication were severely felt. As there was no private capital in India available for railway construction, English Companies, the interest on whose capital was guaranteed by the State, were formed for the purpose. By the end of 1859 contracts had been entered into with eight companies for the construction of 5,000 miles of line, involving a guaranteed capital of £52 millions. These companies were (1) The East Indian; (2) the Great Indian Peninsula; (3) the Madras; (4) the Bombay, Baroda and Central India; (5) the Eastern Bengal; (6) the Indian Branch, now the Oudh and Rohilkund State Railway; (7) the Sind, Punjab and Delhi, now merged in the North Western State Railway; (8) the Great Southern of India, now the South Indian Railway. The scheme laid the foundations of the Indian Railway system as it exists to-day.

Early Disappointments.

The main principle in the formation of these companies was a Government guarantee on their capital, for this was the only condition on which investors would come forward. This guarantee was five per cent. coupled with the free grant of all the land required; in return the companies were required to share the surplus profits with the Government, after the guaranteed interest had been met; the interest charges were calculated at 22½. to the rupee; the Railways were to be sold to Government on fixed terms at the close of twenty-five years and the Government were to exercise close control over expenditure and working. The early results were disappointing. Whilst the Railways greatly increased the efficiency of the administration, the mobility of the troops, the trade of the country, and the movement of the population, they failed to make profits sufficient to meet the guaranteed interest. Some critics attributed this to the unnecessarily high standard of construction adopted, and to the engineers' ignorance of local conditions; the result was that by 1869 the deficit on the Railway budget was Rs. 166½ lakhs. Seeking for some more economical method of construction, the Government

secured sanction to the building of lines by direct State Agency, and funds were allotted for the purpose, the metre gauge being adopted for cheapness. Funds soon lapsed and the money available had to be diverted to converting the Sind and Punjab lines from metre to broad-gauge for strategic reasons. Government had therefore again to resort to the system of guarantee, and the Indian Midland (1882-85), since absorbed by the Great Indian Peninsula; the Bengal-Nagpur (1883-87), the Southern Maratha (1882), and the Assam-Bengal (1891) were constructed under guarantees, but on easier terms than the first companies. Their total length was over 4,000 miles.

Famine and Frontiers.

In 1879, embarrassed by famine and by the fall of the exchange value of the rupee, Government again endeavoured to enlist unaided private enterprise. Four companies were promoted:—the Nilgiri, the Delhi-Umballa-Kalka, the Bengal Central, and the Bengal North-Western. The first became bankrupt; the second and third received guarantees, and the Tirhut Railway had to be leased to the fourth. A step of even greater importance was taken when Native States were invited to undertake construction in their own territories, and the Nizam's Government guaranteed the interest on 330 miles of line in the State of Hyderabad. This was the first of the large system of Native State Railways. In the first period up to 1870, 4,255 miles were opened, of which all save 45 were on the broad gauge; during the next ten years there were opened 4,239, making the total 8,494 (on the broad gauge 6,562, the metre 1,865, and narrow 67). Then ensued a period of financial ease. It was broken by the fall in exchange and the costly lines built on the frontier. The Penjdeh incident, which brought Great Britain and Russia to the verge of war, necessitated the connection of our outposts at Quetta and Chaman with the main trunk lines. The sections through the desolate Harnai and Bolan Passes were enormously costly; it is said that they might have been ballasted with rupees; the long tunnel under the Kholak Pass added largely to this necessary, but unprofitable, outlay.

Rebate Terms Established.

This induced the fourth period—the system of rebates. Instead of a gold subsidy, companies were offered a rebate on the gross earnings of the traffic interchanged with the main line, so that the dividend might rise to four per cent. but the rebate was limited to 20 per cent. of the gross earnings. Under these conditions, there were promoted the Ahmedabad-Prantel, the South Behar, and the Southern Punjab, although only in the case of the first were the terms strictly adhered to. The Barsi Light Railway, on the two feet six inches gauge, entered the field without any guarantee, and with rolling stock designed to illustrate the carrying power of this gauge. The rebate terms being found unattractive in view of the competition of 4 per cent. trustee stocks; they were revised in 1896 to provide for a

absolute guarantee of 3 per cent. with a share of surplus profits, or rebate up to the full extent of the main line's net earnings in supplement of their own net earnings, the total being limited to 3½ per cent. on the capital outlay. Under these terms, a considerable number of feeder line companies was promoted, though in none were the conditions arbitrarily exacted. As these terms did not at first attain their purpose, they were further revised, and in lieu was substituted an increase in the rate of guarantee from 3 to 3½ per cent. and of rebate from 3½ to 5 per cent. with equal division of surplus profits over 5 per cent. in both cases. At last the requirements of the market were met, and there was for a time stood a mild boom in feeder railway construction and the stock of all the sound companies promoted at a substantial premium. Conditions changed after the war and the Acworth Committee so far from approving of this system, considered that the aim of the Government should be to reduce by amalgamation the number of existing companies and that it should only be in cases where the State cannot or will not provide adequate funds that private enterprise in this direction should be encouraged.

The existing Branch Line Companies have ceased for some time to raise additional capital for capital requirements. They have either obtained overdrafts from various Banks for this purpose at heavy rates of interest (usually debentures at special rates of interest asked for about 7 per cent.) or in several cases asked for money to be advanced to them by the Railway Board. So far, therefore, from reducing the amount that the Government of India have to raise in the open market, they are at present increasing that amount. It is proposed, therefore, to come to some arrangement with local authorities so that the construction of lines which are desired more on account of the administrative advantages which they are likely to confer or for the development of a particular area, can be arranged.

Railway Profits Commence.

Meantime a much more important change was in progress. The gradual economic development of the country vastly increased the traffic, both passenger and goods. The falling in of the original contracts allowed Government to renew them on more favourable terms. The development of irrigation in the Punjab and Sind transformed the North-Western State Railway. Owing to the burden of maintaining the unprofitable Frontier lines, this was the Cinderella Railway in India—the scapegoat of the critics who protested against the unwisdom of constructing railways from borrowed capital. But with the completion of the Chenab and Jhelum Canals, the North-Western became one of the great grain lines of the world, choked with traffic at certain seasons of the year and making a large profit for the State. In 1900 the railways for the first time showed a small gain to the State. In succeeding years the net receipts grew rapidly. In the four years ended 1907-08 they averaged close upon £2 millions a year. In the following year there was a relapse. Bad harvests in India, accompanied by the monetary panic caused by the American financial crisis, led to a great falling off in receipts just

when working expenses were rising, owing to the general increase in prices. Instead of a profit, there was a deficit of £1,240,000 in the railway accounts for 1908-09. But in the following year there was a reversion to a profit, and the net Railway gain has steadily increased. For the year ended March 1919 this gain amounted to £10,573,000. Although in a country like India, where the finances are mainly dependent upon the character of the monsoon, the railway revenue must fluctuate, there was no reason to anticipate a further deficit, but the net railway gain decreased to £3,767,000 in 1920-21 and there was an actual loss of £6,182,000 in 1921-22. As a result of the steps taken by the Railway Board, however, on the report of the Acworth Committee in 1921, this loss was changed into a gain of £813,000 in 1922-23 and this was further increased to a gain of £4,273,000 in 1923-24. Provided that the present railway policy is not influenced too much by political considerations the net railway gain should continue to improve.

Contracts Revised.

One factor which helped to improve the financial position was the revision of the original contracts under which the guaranteed lines were constructed. The five per cent. dividend, guaranteed at 22½ per rupee, and the half-yearly settlements made these companies a drain on the State at a time when their stock was at a high premium. The first contract to fall in was the East Indian, the great line connecting Calcutta with Delhi and the Northern provinces. When the contract lapsed, the Government exercised their right of purchasing the line, paying the purchase-money in the form of terminable annuities, derived from revenue, carrying with them a sinking fund for the redemption of capital. The railway thus became a State line; but it was released to the Company which actually works it. Under these new conditions the East Indian Company brought to the State in the ten years ended 1909 after meeting all charges, including the payments on account of the terminable annuity by means of which the purchase of the line was made, and interest on all capital outlay subsequent to the date of purchase, a clear profit of nearly ten millions. At the end of seventy-four years from 1880, when the annuity expires, the Government will come into receipt of a clear yearly income of upwards of £2,700,000, equivalent to the creation of a capital of sixty to seventy millions sterling. No other railway shows results quite equal to the East Indian, because, in addition to serving a rich country by an easy line, it possesses its own collieries and enjoys cheap coal. But with allowance for these factors, all the other guaranteed companies which have been acquired under similar conditions as their contracts expired, have proportionately swelled the revenue and assets of the State. It is difficult to estimate the amount which must be added to the capital debt of the Indian railways in order to counterbalance the loss during the period when the revenue did not meet the interest charges. According to one estimate it should be £50 millions. But even if that figure be taken, Government have a magnificent asset in their railway property.

Improving Open Lines.

These changes induced a corresponding change in Indian Railway policy. Up to 1900 the great work had been the provision of trunk lines. But with the completion of the Nagda-Muttra line, providing an alternative broad gauge route from Bombay to Delhi through Eastern Rajputana, the trunk system was virtually complete. A direct broad gauge route from Bombay to Sind is needed, but chiefly for strategic purposes. The poor commercial prospects of the line and the opposition of the Rao of Cutch to any through line in his territories, keep this scheme in the background. There does not exist any through rail connection between India and Burma, although several routes have been surveyed; the mountainous character of the region to be traversed, and the easy means of communication with Burma by sea, rob this scheme of any living importance. Further Survey work was undertaken between 1914 and 1920, the three routes to be surveyed being the coast route, the Manipur route, and the Hukong valley route. The metre gauge systems of Northern and Southern India must also be connected and Karachi given direct broad-gauge connection with Delhi, a project that is now under investigation. But these works are subordinate to the necessity for bringing the open lines up to their traffic requirements and providing them with feeders. The sudden increase in the trade of India found the main lines totally unprepared. Costly works were necessary to double lines, improve the equipment, provide new and better yards and terminal facilities and to increase the rolling stock. Consequently the demands on the open lines have altogether overshadowed the provision of new lines. Even then the railway budget was found totally inadequate for the purpose, and a small Committee sat in London, under the chairmanship of Lord Incheape, to consider ways and means. This Committee found that the amount which could be remuneratively spent on railway construction in India was limited only by the capacity of the money market. They fixed the annual allotment at £12,000,000 a year. Even this reduced sum cannot always be provided.

Government Control.

As the original contracts carried a definite Government guarantee of interest, it was necessary for Government to exercise strong supervision and control over the expenditure during construction, and over management and expenditure after the lines were open for traffic. For these purposes a staff of Consulting Engineers was formed, and a whole system of checks and counterchecks established, leading up to the Railway Branch of the Public Works Department of the Government of India. As traffic developed, the Indian Railways outgrew this dry nursing, and when the original contracts expired, and the interests of Government and the Companies synchronised, it became not only vexatious but unnecessary. Accordingly in 1901-02 Mr. Thomas Robertson was deputed by the Secretary of State to examine the whole question of the organisation and working of the Indian Railways, and he recommended that

the existing system should be replaced by a Railway Board, consisting of a Chairman and two members with a Secretary. The Board was formally constituted in March 1905. The Board is outside, but subordinate to the Government of India in which it is represented by the Department of Commerce and Industry. It prepares the railway programme of expenditure and considers the greater questions of policy and economy affecting all the lines. Its administrative duties include the construction of new lines by State agency, the carrying out of new works on open lines, the improvement of railway management with regard both to economy and public convenience, the arrangements for through traffic, the settlement of disputes between lines, the control and promotion of the staff on State lines, and the general supervision over the working and expenditure of the Company's lines. Two minor changes have taken place since the constitution of the Railway Board. In 1908, to meet the complaint that the Board was subjected to excessive control by the Department of Commerce and Industry, the powers of the Chairman were increased and he was given the status of a Secretary to Government with the right of independent access to the Viceroy; he usually sits in the Imperial Legislative Council as the representative of the Railway interest. In 1912 in consequence of complaints of the excessive interference of the Board with the Companies, an informal mission was undertaken by Lord Incheape to reconcile differences. Various changes were introduced during the years 1912-1920 such as the modification of the rule that the President and members of the Railway Board should all be men of large experience in the working of railways due to the importance of financial and commercial considerations in connection with the control of Indian Railway policy. This decision was, however, revised in 1920 and an additional appointment of Financial Adviser to the Railway Board created instead. The question of the most suitable organisation was further fully examined by the Acworth Committee in 1921 and a revised organisation which is described later was introduced from 1st April 1924.

Management.

The Railways managed by Companies have Boards of Directors in London. They are represented in India by an Agent, who has under him either a departmental organisation with a Traffic Manager, Chief Engineer, Locomotive and Carriage and Wagon Superintendent, Controller of Stores and Chief Auditor or a divisional organisation with a Chief Operating Superintendent, Chief Traffic Manager, Chief Engineer, Chief Mechanical Engineer, Controller of Stores and Chief Auditor. The state Railways are similarly organised.

Clearing House.

Proposals have several times been made for the establishment of a Clearing House but the distances are too great. The work which would ordinarily be done by the Clearing House is done by the Audit Office of each Railway.

The Railway Conference.

In order to facilitate the adjustment of domestic questions, the Railway Conference was instituted in 1876. This Conference was

consolidated into a permanent body in 1903 under the title of the Indian Railway Conference Association. It is under the direct control of the railways, it elects a President from amongst the members, and it has done much useful work.

The Indian Gauges.

The standard gauge for India is five feet six inches. When construction was started the broad gauge school was strong, and it was thought advisable to have a broad gauge in order to resist the influence of cyclones. But in 1870, when the State system was adopted, it was decided to find a more economical gauge, for the open lines had cost £17,000 a mile. After much deliberation, the metre gauge of 3 feet 3½ inches was adopted, because at that time the idea of adopting the metre system for India was in the air. The original intention was to make the metre gauge lines provisional; they were to be converted into broad gauge as soon as the traffic justified it; consequently

they were built very light. But the traffic expanded with surprising rapidity, and it was found cheaper to improve the carrying power of the metre gauge lines than to convert them to the broad gauge. So, except in the Indus Valley, where the strategic situation demanded an unbroken gauge, the metre gauge lines were improved and they become a permanent feature in the railway system. Now there is a great metre gauge system north of the Ganges connected with the Rajputana lines and Kathiawar. Another system in Southern India embracing the Southern Maratha and the South India Systems. These are not yet connected, but the necessary link from Khandwa by way of the Nizam's Hyderabad-Godavari Railway, cannot be long delayed. All the Burma lines are on the metre gauge. Since the opening of the Barsi line, illustrating the capacity of the two feet six inch gauge, there has been developed a tendency to construct feeders on this rather than on the metre gauge.

The following statement brings out the more important features of the operation of Indian railways during the year 1923-24 together with similar information for the year 1922-23:—

	1922-23.	1923-24.
Mileage open on the 31st March—		
1. Single line	34,453.07	34,810.15
2. Double line or more	3,164.84	3,228.37
3. Total route mileage	37,617.91	38,038.52
4. Total track mileage	50,219.74	50,934.68
Capital and Revenue Earnings and Expenditure—		
5. Total capital at charge including ferries and suspense on open line Rs.	6,97,46,07,000	7,17,93,02,000
6. Gross earnings	1,05,65,19,000	1,07,76,66,000
7. Gross earnings per train mile	6.69	6.78
8. Working expenses	72,99,49,000	68,44,77,000
9. Working expenses per train mile	4.62	4.31
10. Net earnings	32,65,70,000	39,34,89,000
11. Percentage of working expenses to gross earnings	69.09	63.50
12. Percentage of net earnings on total capital outlay	4.68	5.48
Equipment—		
13. Locomotives	9,740	9,988
14. Passenger carriages	*19,663	*20,068
15. Other passenger vehicles	*5,032	*5,177
16. Goods stock	†209,134	†214,011
Passenger Traffic—		
17. Number of passengers carried	572,621,400	599,029,800
18. Passenger miles Miles.	18,922,705,000	19,448,523,000
19. Average journey	33.5	32.6
20. Earnings from passengers carried Rs.	37,59,22,000	38,07,15,000
21. Average rate charged per passenger per mile Pies.	3.78	3.75
22. Total coaching earnings Rs.	43,82,67,000	44,05,26,000
Goods Traffic—		
23. Number of tons carried	93,845,000	98,210,000
24. Net ton miles	18,373,699,000	18,840,758,000
25. Average haul	196.8	192.8
26. Earnings from tonnage carried Rs.	58,02,32,000	60,28,94,000
27. Average rate charged for carrying a ton of goods one mile Pies.	6.05	6.13
28. Total goods earnings	58,30,04,000	60,63,69,000
Number of employees	749,680	727,093

At the close of the year 1923-24 the total capital invested in railways was Rupees 7,17,93,02,000 represented by a property which in terms of route mileage amounted to 38,039 miles of railway. This property brought in to the owners a return of 5.48 per cent. on the

* Excluding departmental vehicles.

† Excluding Railway service wagons.

capital at charge. Similar figures for the railways owned by the State are:—

	Rs.
Total capital at charge ..	6,33,84,24,000
Total route mileage ..	27,078
Return on capital outlay	5.23

After provision for interest, annuity and other similar charges the working of the State-owned railways resulted in a net gain of Rs. 6,41,26,000 as compared with a net gain of Rs. 12,090,000 in the previous year. This result was largely due to reductions in working expenses, the percentage on gross earnings having dropped from 69.09 per cent. to 63.5 per cent.

Railway Board Reorganised.—The machinery by which the Government of India controls the railways of the country has been frequently under review in the past. The basis of the system which was superseded in April 1924 was evolved in 1904 as a result of the investigations of Mr. Robertson and the Railway Board was established in the following year. Some of the difficulties involved in the constitution of a controlling authority for the railways of India may be realised from a study of the "Notes on the Relation of the Government to Railways in India" printed as an appendix to the Railway Administration report for 1922-23. These notes bring out the great diversity of conditions prevailing which involve the Railway Department in the exercise of the functions of—

(a) the directly controlling authority of the three State-worked systems aggregating 9,028 miles,

(b) the representative of the predominant owning partner in systems aggregating 22,949 miles,

(c) the guarantor of many of the smaller companies, and

(d) the statutory authority over all railways in India.

Moreover in all questions relating to railways or extra municipal tramways in which Provincial Governments are concerned, the Railway Department is called upon to watch the interests of the Central Government and is frequently asked to advise the Local Governments. Its duties do not end there. The future development of railways depends largely on the Government of India and the Railway Department is therefore called upon to plan out schemes of development, to investigate and survey new lines and to arrange for financing their construction. The statement of the varied responsibilities of the Government of India in regard to railways might be extended almost indefinitely. It will perhaps be sufficient to mention only the complications that may and do arise owing to the very considerable railway mileage in Indian States. In the exercise of all these functions the Railway Department is a Department of the Government of India, its policy must be in accord with the policy of the Government as a whole and every decision must be made with that consideration in mind. The evolution of a satisfactory authority for the administration of these varied functions has proved extremely difficult and the question was one of those referred to the

Railway Committee (1920-21) presided over by Sir William Acworth who expressed the unanimous opinion that material changes were necessary in the constitution of the Railway Board. Amongst their recommendations they advised the early appointment of a Chief Commissioner of Railways whose first duty should be to prepare a definite scheme for the reorganisation of the Railway Department and Mr. C. D. M. Hindley formerly Agent of the East Indian Railway and Chairman of the Calcutta Port Trust was appointed Chief Commissioner on November 1st, 1922.

The principal constitutional change involved in this appointment is that the Chief Commissioner who takes the place of the President of the Railway Board is solely responsible—under the Government of India—for arriving at decisions on technical matters and for advising the Government of India on matters of railway policy and is not, as was the President, subject to be out-voted and over-ruled by his colleagues on the Board. The detailed re-organisation of the Railway Board in accordance with the Chief Commissioner's proposals required careful consideration but one of the most important of his recommendations namely the appointment of a Financial Commissioner was considered of particular urgency and the Secretary of State's sanction was therefore obtained to the appointment of Mr. G. G. Sim, C.I.E., I.C.S., who joined the Board on April 1st, 1923. While in the person of the Chief Engineer the Railway Board has always had available the technical advice of a senior Civil Engineer in Mechanical Engineering questions it has had to depend on outside assistance. The disadvantages of this arrangement have become increasingly evident and it was therefore decided with effect from November 1st, 1922, to create the new appointment of Chief Mechanical Engineer with the Railway Board.

In the new organisation adopted from the 1st of April 1924, the Board consists of a Chief Commissioner, a Financial Commissioner and two Members, one of whom deals more particularly with traffic and establishment questions while the other deals with technical questions relating to civil and mechanical engineering.

Under the members are four Directors for

- (1) Traffic.
- (2) Mechanical Engineering.
- (3) Civil Engineering.
- (4) Establishment.

These Directors are executive officers and heads of branches and have the power to decide questions which do not affect the policy of the Board.

Working under the Directors are Deputy Directors of Traffic, Stores, Projects, Way and Works and Establishment and an Assistant Director, Technical, in charge of the Drawing Branch. In addition a Deputy Director in charge of statistics has been appointed.

The Deputy Directors are immediately in charge of branches dealing with definite phases of the working. The Traffic Branch deals with both the operating and commercial sides of traffic working; the Stores Branch deals mainly with the calling for tenders and placing of orders for all classes of rolling stock and generally with the supply of stores and materials. In

the Project Branch are considered all questions of new construction and developments while the Way and Works Branch deals with all works on the open line. In the Establishment Branch all questions relating to personnel on railways, such as scales of pay, recruitment, leave rules, etc., the training of the staff, Local Advisory Councils, medical arrangements, Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, etc., are dealt with. The Statistics Branch is responsible for collecting statistical information required by all branches and at the same time receives monthly statements furnished by railways and circulates comparative abstracts with notes criticising the results attained on railways. This branch is also responsible for the issue of the Annual Report on Indian Railways by the Railway Board. As it has been found that the Deputy Director of Statistics has to spend a considerable portion of his time in routine work and in checking the correctness of the statistics furnished to the Board, it has been decided to appoint an Assistant Director of Statistics to assist him so that he can concentrate more on the use to be made of the statistics and on helping Railway Administrations with their own figures.

There is also a Secretary who is responsible for the general conduct of work in the department, for co-ordination between branches and in particular for the correct relations between the department and other departments of Government. He, in addition, acts as Secretary of the Central Advisory Council and is responsible for seeing that in all cases necessary sanctions in the Railway Department are submitted to the Standing Finance Committee in accordance with the rules. He is assisted by an Assistant Secretary who was formerly called the Registrar.

The question of transferring the supervision of railway accounts on State Railways from the Finance Department to the Railway Board is still under examination and at present this work is carried out by the Accountant-General for Railways who is responsible both to the Railway Board and to the Auditor-General.

State versus Company Management.—The relative advantages and disadvantages of State and Company management of the railways owned by Government which comprise the great bulk of the railway mileage in India have been the subject of discussion in official circles and the public press for many years. In India the question is complicated by the fact that the more important companies have not in recent years been the owners of the railways which they manage and the headquarters of their Boards are in London. The subject was one, perhaps the most important, of the terms of reference of the Acworth Railway Committee. That Committee was, unfortunately, unable to make a unanimous recommendation on this point, their members being equally divided in favour of State management and Company management. They were, however, unanimous in recommending that the present system of management by Boards of Directors in London should not be extended beyond the terms of the existing contracts and this recommendation has met with general public acceptance. During the year 1922-23, the question was again referred to certain Local Governments and public bodies and opinions collected and discussed. The approaching

termination of the East Indian Railway contract on 31st December 1924 and of that of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway on 30th June 1925 rendered an early decision on this question imperative. When the question was debated in the Legislative Assembly in February 1923, the non-official Indian Members were almost unanimously in favour of State management and indeed were able to carry a resolution recommending the placing of the East Indian Railway and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway under State management at the close of their present contracts. The Government of India, however, expressed themselves as being so convinced by the almost universal failure of this method in other countries that they proposed, while accepting the necessity for taking over the management of the East Indian Railway and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to continue their efforts to devise a satisfactory form of Company domiciled in India to take these railways over eventually on a basis of real Company management. The position at the close of the year under review was that arrangements had been instituted for bringing both these railways under State management at the termination of their contracts.

Separation of the Railway from the General Finances.—The question of the separation of the railway from the general finances has been under consideration for some time and as a result of the recommendations of the Acworth Committee in 1921, the question was further examined by the Railway Finance Committee and the Legislative Assembly but it was decided to postpone a definite decision for the present.

The question was examined afresh in connection with the recommendation of the Retrenchment Committee in 1923, that the railways in India should be so worked as to yield an average return of at least 5½ per cent. on the capital at charge and it was decided that a suitable time had arrived when this separation could be carried out. A resolution was accordingly introduced in the Assembly on the 3rd March 1924, recommending to the Governor General in Council:—

"that in order to relieve the general budget from the violent fluctuations caused by the incorporation therein of the railway estimates and to enable the railway to carry out a continuous railway policy based on the necessity of making a definite return over a period of years to the State on the Capital expended on railways:—

(1) The railway finances shall be separated from the general finances of the country and the general revenues shall receive a definite annual contribution from railways which shall be the first charge on railway earnings.

(2) The contribution shall be a sum equal to five-sixths of 1 per cent. on the capital at charge of the railways (excluding capital contributed by Companies and Indian States and Capital expenditure on strategic Railways) at the end of the penultimate financial year plus one-fifth of any surplus profits remaining after payment of this fixed return, subject to the condition that if any year railway revenues are insufficient to provide the percentage of five-sixths of 1 per cent. on the capital at charge, surplus profits in the next or subsequent years

will not be deemed to have accrued for purposes of division until such deficiency has been made good. From the contribution so fixed will be deducted the loss in working, and the interest on capital expenditure on strategic lines.

(3) Any surplus profits that exist after payment of these charges shall be available for the railway administration to be utilised in

(a) forming reserves for

(i) equalising dividends, that is to say, for securing the payment of the percentage contribution to the general revenues in lean years,

(ii) depreciation,

(iii) writing down and writing off capital,

(b) the improvement of services rendered to the public.

(c) the reduction of rates.

(4) The railway administration shall be entitled, subject to such conditions as may be prescribed by the Government of India, to borrow temporarily from capital or from the reserves for the purpose of meeting expenditure for which there is no provision or insufficient provision in the revenue budget subject to the obligation to make repayment of borrowings out of the revenue budgets of subsequent years.

(5) In accordance with present practice the figures of gross receipts and expenditure of railways will be included in the Budget Statement. The proposed expenditure will, as at present, be placed before the Legislative Assembly in the form of a demand for grants and on a separate day or days among the days allotted for the discussion of the demands for grants the Member in charge of the Railways will make a general statement on railway accounts and working. Any reductions in the demand for grants for railways resulting from the votes of the Legislative Assembly will not ensure to general revenues, i.e., will not have the effect of increasing the fixed contribution for the year.

(6) The Railway Department will place the estimate of railway expenditure before the Central Advisory Council on some date prior to the date for the discussion of the demand for grants for railways."

When introducing this resolution the Hon'ble Member for Commerce stated that it had been represented to him that there was a general feeling in the House that before the House was asked to commit itself to those proposals, it should be allowed to refer them to a committee of the House. He further stated that he had no objection to this course provided that the committee met rapidly. This was agreed to and members were appointed.

The committee met twice and considered the resolution but was not able within the time allowed to satisfy itself fully as to the effect of the proposals in the resolution on the control of the Assembly over railway finance and policy and as to the amount and form of contribution to be paid by the railways to general revenues. In the circumstances, the committee recommended that the consideration of the resolution be adjourned till the autumn session to allow the committee further time for examination. Government raised no objection to this proposal and it was agreed to by the Assembly.

The resolution was further examined by the Standing Finance Committee in September and as a result of the views expressed by the committee and in the Assembly certain modifications were introduced. The final resolution agreed to by the Assembly on September 20th, 1924 and accepted by Government differed from the original resolution in that the yearly contribution had been placed at 1 per cent. instead of 5/6th per cent. on the capital at charge and if the surplus remaining after this payment to General Revenues should exceed 3 crores, only 1/3rd of the excess over 3 crores were to be transferred to the Railway Reserve and the remaining 2/3rd was to accrue to General Revenues. At the same time a Standing Finance Committee for Railways was to be constituted to examine the estimate of railways expenditure and the demand for grants the programme revenue expenditure being shown under a depreciation fund. This committee was to consist of one nominated official member of the Legislative Assembly as Chairman and 11 members elected by the Legislative Assembly from that body. This would be in addition to the Central Advisory Council which will include the Members of the Standing Finance Committee and certain other official and non-official members from the Legislative Assembly and Council of State. These arrangements were to be subject to periodic revision but to be provisionally tried for at least 3 years. They would, however, only hold good as long as the E. I. Railway and the G. I. P. Railway and existing State Managed Railways remain under State management and if any contract for the transfer of any of the above to Company management was concluded against the advice of the Assembly, the Assembly would be at liberty to terminate the arrangements in this resolution.

The Assembly in an addendum recommended that the railway services and the Railway Board should be rapidly Indianised and that the stores for the State Managed Railways should be purchased through the organisation of the Indian Stores Department.

Re-organisation problems.—The growing complexity of railway administration in India and the evolution of new methods of controlling traffic have given a stimulus to the efforts of various railways to revise their organisations. The general direction in which this re-organisation is being considered is that of consolidation into one department of the operating or transportation work of the railway, including the provision of power. The advisability of adopting the divisional system in place of the present rather highly centralised departmental system has also been receiving attention and was adopted on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway during 1922-23. This entailed—

(a) the separation of the commercial and operative duties of the Traffic Department,

(b) the separation of the mechanical and running duties of the Locomotive Department,

(c) the fusion of the operative duties of the Traffic Department with the running duties of the Locomotive Department.

Under the new organisation there is now—

(1) a Chief Transportation Superintendent in charge of all operating functions,

(2) a Chief Traffic Manager in charge of the commercial side of the railway,

(3) a Chief Mechanical Engineer in charge of the design and construction of engines and of all repairs and renewals of engines carried out in the central workshops.

This organisation is more or less similar to the divisional organisation found on most American Railways with the exception that the Engineering Department still works on a departmental basis.

A somewhat similar organisation was introduced on the North-Western Railway from 1st October 1924, except that it follows rather the organisation in force on the South Africa Railways where the railways are divided into a number of areas or divisions each under one chief officer and all reporting to the General Manager who is assisted by a number of principal officers in charge of definite phases of the working. The question of introducing a similar organisation on the East Indian, Oudh and Rohilkhand, and Eastern Bengal Railways is under consideration.

Revision of Railway statistics.—A Committee consisting of one officer from the Traffic Department and one from the Audit Department of the North-Western Railway was appointed in October 1922 to suggest alterations in the existing administrative statistics furnished by railways to the Railway Board and to bring them into line with present up-to-date practice. For many years after the first railways were opened, such statistics as were produced were primarily directed towards showing the return on capital invested, although commodity statistics were also prepared to some extent for trade purposes. It was only when comparisons between different railway systems came to be a matter of interest that statistics of actual working were found to be necessary and even then the tabulation and examination of these figures were directed primarily towards ascertaining the ultimate cost of transportation as a marketable commodity. The introduction of scientific methods of railway working in recent years, however, has shown that properly prepared statistics form a most valuable portion of the machinery whereby the railway management is able to improve efficiency in the details of working and effect economies in working costs.

The existing statistics are based on the report of a Committee which sat in 1880 to revise the form of the statistics. Considerable changes have been introduced since then, and certain individual railway administrations have made considerable progress in the introduction of modern railway statistics, but the Acworth Committee which sat in 1921 criticised the figures prepared and used for the purposes of the Railway Board as being out of date and not in conformity with present-day practice.

The main changes recommended by the Committee of 1922 and accepted by the Railway Board are:—

(1) The introduction of monthly statistics in addition to the yearly statistics at present furnished to the Railway Board.

(2) The classification of railways under three classes for statistical purposes.

The former change will ensure the supply of up-to-date information of the working of railways to the Railway Board and will enable railways to compare their own working with that of other railways month by month as is done in England and America. The second change will relieve the smaller railways of the necessity for compiling the detailed statistics which larger railways have to prepare.

Revised Statistics were introduced from 1st October 1923, on all railways and already their value has been proved as not only on railways able to compare their results with those obtained by other railways but the Railway Board is in possession of up-to-date figures of working of all railways. Stating from April 1924, the complete monthly statistics of all class I Railways have been published on the lines of the monthly statements issued by the ministry of Transport for English Railways and on sale to the public.

The outlay during the year 1923-24 was Rs. 21.32 crores, of which Rs. 19.71 crores represented expenditure incurred on State-owned lines.

Capital Programme.—The Government of India has decided definitely to provide the sum of Rs. 150 crores for expenditure on the rehabilitation of railways during the quinquennium commencing with 1922-23. The programme of works on which that sum was based was prepared in 1921 at a time when prices of materials were still high and unstable. Moreover the position of the general Revenues of India rendered impossible the provision of the full amount, chargeable to revenue expenditure, which the capital programme involved. These conditions coupled with the fact that 1922-23 was the first year of the quinquennium and many of the larger works were therefore in the preliminary stages explain why less than 2-3rds of the annual quota of the Rs. 150 crores were actually expended. The original programme provided for a general increase in facilities which had long been recognised as essential if the railways were to render a reasonably efficient service. While many of these works would certainly give an adequate and immediate return, in the case of others it was found difficult without further examination to justify the proposed expenditure. In March 1923 the report of the Inchaque Committee was received. In dealing with the capital programme that Committee recommended that, except in the case of commitments already entered upon, no further capital expenditure should be incurred on certain lines classed by the Committee as unremunerative, until the whole position has been examined by the Financial Commissioner and reviewed by Government. And further that if the full amount of the capital could not be immediately employed on remunerative works on open lines, it would be a matter for consideration whether some portion of it could not with advantage be devoted to the construction of new lines promising an adequate return. In view of these recommendations it was decided that the capital expenditure proposed for 1923-24 must be re-examined and that as regards the years 1924-25 to 1928-29 the whole programme must be recast. This was carried out

during 1923-24 and at the same time the recommendations of the Inchcape Committee were considered by the Central Advisory Council who endorsed the policy proposed as likely to be of value to India as a whole.

Trade review.—The earnings of railways are dependent on the general prosperity of the country which in the case of India is most easily measured by the agricultural position and the returns of foreign trade. Judged by the usual criteria, there was on the whole a small improvement in the trade of the country as while there were increases under some heads there were

decreases in others. This is reflected in the fact that the total earnings of all railways only increased from Rs. 105·65 crores to Rs. 107·80 crores.

Earnings.—Of the total earnings of Rs. Rs. 107·80 crores Rs. 38·09 crores or 35·33 per cent. were from passenger traffic and Rs. 69·64 crores or 64·67 per cent. from goods traffic. The earnings from passengers carried increased from Rs. 37·59 crores to Rs. 38·09 crores or 1·33 per cent. The following table shows the numbers of and earnings from passengers carried separately for each class for the 4 years previous to the War and for the last 4 years.

Year.	Number of passengers carried (in thousands).				
	1st. class.	2nd. class.	Inter. class.	3rd. class.	Season & vendors' tickets.
1910	778	2,962	11,033	332,462	24,341
1911	799	3,135	11,762	348,479	25,687
1912	796	3,223	10,833	375,567	26,810
1913-14	812	3,461	12,371	410,960	30,114
1920-21	1,148	7,129	11,750	490,280	48,939
1921-22	1,125	6,404	9,264	500,515	52,376
1922-23	917	5,133	8,129	502,776	55,665
1923-24	817	4,538	8,095	512,974	58,084

Year.	Earnings from passengers (in thousands of rupees).				
	1st. class.	2nd. class.	Inter. class.	3rd. class.	Season & vendors' tickets.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1910	58,82	77,23	94,99	14,05,16	15,85
1911	66,38	83,83	108,88	15,73,15	16,85
1912	62,90	83,31	91,37	17,01,35	17,55
1913-14	68,94	88,70	103,48	18,37,03	19,38
1920-21	1,30,48	2,26,49	191,19	28,91,25	37,24
1921-22	1,38,47	2,28,91	145,08	28,75,29	41,58
1922-23	1,39,72	2,11,77	138,30	32,20,85	48,58
1923-24	1,29,80	1,95,99	137,88	32,91,78	51,70

It will be noticed that the numbers of and earnings from third class passengers carried show a more or less steady increase but the numbers of and earnings from 1st, 2nd and inter class passengers carried for the last 4 years have decreased. These figures indicate that the present 1st, 2nd and inter class fares are

higher than the traffic can bear and the question what steps should be taken to encourage this traffic is being carefully examined.

The following statement shows by commodities the number of tons of freight originating and the earnings from freight carried on Class 1 Railways during the last two years.

Commodity.	1922-23.		1923-24.	
	Tons originating on Home line in Millions.	Rs. in crores.	Tons originating on Home line in Millions.	Rs. in crores.
(1) Coal and Coke	14·66	8·39	14·67	8·22
(2) Railway Stores	20·30	2·98	21·97	3·23
(3) Wheat	1·57	2·34	1·76	2·75
(4) Rice in the husk and Rice not in the husk	3·85	3·68	3·98	3·85
(5) Gram and pulse Jowar and Bajra and other grains and Pulses	2·71	3·66	3·54	5·48
(6) Marble and Stone	1·84	0·71	2·16	0·78
(7) Metallic Ores	1·64	1·12	2·20	1·05
(8) Salt	1·56	2·07	1·12	1·43
(9) Wood, unwrought	1·57	1·10	1·53	1·02
(10) Sugar, refined and unrefined	0·51	1·06	0·56	1·22
(11) Oilseeds	2·04	3·28	2·29	3·56
(12) Cotton, raw and manufactured	1·49	5·86	1·49	5·69
(13) Jute, raw	0·75	1·08	0·89	1·27
(14) Fodder	0·72	0·56	0·77	0·60
(15) Fruits and Vegetables, fresh	0·76	0·74	0·72	0·71
(16) Iron and steel, wrought	0·64	1·41	0·78	1·58
(17) Kerosine oil	0·72	1·58	0·76	1·67
(18) Gur, Jaggree, molasses etc.,	0·75	1·34	0·83	1·35
(19) Other Commodities	10·27	13·27	10·70	13·01
Total	68·35	56·23	72·54	58·47

The number of tons originating and the earnings for 1923-24 show only a small increase as compared with the figures of the previous year. The largest increase was in the earnings from carriage of grains and pulses which increased from Rs. 3·66 crores to Rs. 5·48 crores.

The working expenses of State railways decreased from Rs. 65·96 crores in 1922-23 to Rs. 61·05 crores in 1923-24. The summary below shows the distribution of this expenditure between the various departments:—

Department.	Work.	Amount spent in	
		1922-23.	1923-24.
Engineering	Maintenance of way, works and stations	Rs. in crores. 13·08	Rs. in crores. 12·29
Locomotive	Maintenance and renewing of engines and cost of fuel and running stores and other expenses attached to provision of motive power	23·31	21·74
Carriage and Wagon	Maintenance and running of carriages and wagons	9·17	7·99
Traffic	Working of trains from a business standpoint, i.e., booking of passengers and goods and arrangements for transport	10·58	9·78
Agency and others	Agent's office expenses, Audit, Stores, Medical and Police charges, etc.	4·99	4·48
Ferry	Steam boat expenses	0·28	0·26
Miscellaneous	Law charges, compensation, contribution to Provident Fund, etc.	4·92	4·65
Suspense		—0·37	—0·14
Total		65·96	61·05

In spite of an increase in the traffic dealt with there was a saving of Rs. 4'90 crores of which Rs. 1'46 crores was due to less expenditure under programme revenue and so cannot be considered as a true saving as it was due to deferred maintenance. The true saving can then be taken as Rs. 3'34 crores of which the majority or Rs. 1'40 crores is found in the Locomotive Department due to decreased consumption of foreign coal and improved efficiency of working. There were also savings in the other departments due to increased efficiency such as in the case of the Traffic Department in a large reduction in the amount paid as compensation for goods damaged or lost.

Open Mileage.—The total route mileage on March 31st, 1924, was 38,038'52 made up of—
5'6" gauge 18,640'35 miles.
Metre gauge 15,659'21 "
Narrow gauge 3,738'96 "

Under the new classification adopted for statistical purposes, this mileage is divided between the three classes of railways as follows:—
Class I 34,761'65 Miles = 91'5 per cent.
Class II 1,868'06 " = 4'8 "
Class III 1,408'81 " = 3'7 "

Class I includes all the 5'6" gauge mileage 14,158'87 or about 90 per cent. of the metre-gauge and 19,62'43 or 52'5 per cent. of the narrow-gauges.

The State-owned 27,078'00 miles or about 72 per cent. and directly managed 9,178'35 miles or about 24 per cent. of the total.

During the year 1923-24 430'12 miles of new lines were opened for public traffic. Of this mileage 422'48 miles belong to Class I, and 7'64 miles to Class II railways.

Additions to Equipment.—Statements No. V—Statement of Equipment—and No. IX—Statement of net additions to Equipment—summarise the equipment and the net additions to equipment during 1923-24 on Indian Railways. Statements Nos. 10, 11, 32 and 33 give this information in more detail for individual lines.

It will be seen that on Class I railways there were additions of 168 and 65 Broad and Metre-gauge Locomotives bringing the respective totals up to 6,564 and 2,715.

In the case of passenger carriages on Class I railways net additions of 237 to the stock of broad gauge vehicles brought the total up to 10,091 and similar figures for the metre gauge were net additions 127 and total 7,577. The following table shows total figures of seating accommodation under the four classes:

Class I Railways.	Number of seats in passenger carriages.			
	1st.	2nd.	Inter.	Thrid.
5'6" ..	21,802	40,724	48,837	567,328
3'3½" ..	10,089	13,261	9,547	321,242

The additions to the goods stock of Class I railways were 4,650 covered and 1,583 open broad gauge and 2,452 covered and 179 open metre gauge wagons.

Purchase of Rolling Stock.—The following table shows the value of rolling stock purchased by Indian Railways in 1923-24:—

	Value of imported materials.			Value of indigenous materials.	Total purchases, 1923-24.	Total purchases, 1922-23.
	Purchased direct.	Purchased through Indian firms.	Total imported materials.			
	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.
Locomotive and spare parts	3'57	'05	3'62	'06	3'68	3'67
Coaching stock ..	'22	'01	'23	'07	'30	'66
Goods stock	1'83	'01	1'89	'15	2'04	1'60
Spare parts, coaching and goods stock	4'28	'32	4'60	'22	4'82	4'51
Motor cars	'01	'01	'02	..	'02	'03
Total ..	9'96	'40	10'36	'50	10'86	10'47

Without going into details beyond the scope of this report, it is impossible to connect these figures with the number of locomotives and rolling stock brought into use during the year. The expenditure on locomotives, etc., besides including the cost of spare parts for repairs represents payments for f.o.b. deliveries at foreign ports of engines which at the close of the year may have been still at sea or under erection in India. In the case of wagon contracts too the position is complicated. It has, for example, the practice in the case of wagons purchased in India to make advance payments for raw material when received by the contractors.

Progressive Policy.—Considerable progress was made during 1924 in investigating new methods and adopting improved ideas. For example, the Railway Board have decided to recommend the adoption of a centre buffer coupler to all railways and railways have been asked to experiment with transition devices in order to evolve a satisfactory transition gear during the transition period.

The first Mallet engine for use on the broad gauge was received in India for service on the Quetta District of the N. W. Railway. The engine is a 2-6-6-2 articulated compound type fitted with superheater and the tractive effort at 85 per cent. working pressure is 32,000 pounds. At the same time a Garrett engine which is another special type of articulated engine has been ordered and expected to arrive during 1924-25. These two engines will be tried on the same section and it will then be possible to decide which is the best type of engine for use on heavy grades.

A comprehensive enquiry was carried during the year into the resources of supply of timber sleepers in India and Burma and the development of such resources. Owing to the increasing difficulty of obtaining a sufficient supply of suitable hard wood sleepers and to the rise in the price of sleepers it became necessary to consider the possibility of opening up new forest areas, of substituting new varieties of indigenous timber, suitably treated if necessary,

and of using larger numbers of steel, cast-iron and ferro concrete sleepers.

A second enquiry is being made into the possibility of using the cheaper varieties of timber suitably treated for carriage building and of introducing artificial means of seasoning timber to obviate the necessity of having to keep in stock large supplies of timber.

Considerable progress was made during the year on all railways in reducing expenditure by such methods as:—

- (1) reduction of staff,
- (2) improved methods of operation,
- (3) reduction in stores balances,
- (4) increased use of scrap materials,
- (5) economy in the use of stores and employment of cheaper materials where possible etc., etc., etc.

British Empire Exhibition.—The exhibits from Indian Railways occupied a space of over 4,000 square feet in the Indian pavilion and all the more important railways sent exhibits which were placed in three courts. The outer boundary of two courts was designed in the Moghul style of architect while that of the third court was in the Dravidian Temple style as more representative of the railways in the south of India. Generally speaking the exhibits consisted of models of various classes of stock, stations, bridges, wagon factories, etc., and included an exhibit illustrating the development of transportation in Southern India. Considerable interest was shown in these exhibits by the general public and many visitors realised for the first time the high standard reached by railways in India.

Financial Results of Working.—The total gross earnings of all railways in India during the year 1923-24 amounted to Rs. 107'80 crores as compared with 105'65 crores in 1922-23. These figures, however, include railways owned by Indian States and companies for which the Govt. of India has no direct financial responsibility. The figures of receipts and expenditure for railways with which the Government are directly concerned are as follows:—

	Rs. (in thousands)
Traffic receipts from Government Railways	94,65,52
Government share of surplus profits from subsidised companies' railways ..	23,64
Total ..	94,89,16
Working Expenses	61,05,28
Surplus Profits paid to Companies	1,14,46
Interest on Government debt	17,53,64
Interest on Capital contributed by Companies	3,09,94
Annuities in purchase of railways	4,89,82
Sinking Funds	47,75
Land and subsidy to Companies	5,40
Miscellaneous	4,30
Total charges ..	88,30,59
Net gain ..	6,58,57

After meeting all interest and annuity charges Government therefore received a net profit of 8.59 crores as against a profit of 1.22 crores in 1922-23. On the capital at charge of the State lines the net receipts, that is the gross receipts minus the working expenses, have in recent years given the following returns:—

	Per cent.
1913-14	5.01
1921-22	2.64
1922-23	4.38
1923-24	5.24

Up to date figures of the results of working of other countries are not available, but the following table compares the latest available figures of average receipts per ton mile of those countries which have published statistics of working later than 1919:—

	Receipts per ton mile. Pies.
United States of America 1923 ..	7.29*
United Kingdom 1922 ..	19.3
South Africa	9.79
Switzerland 1921	46.08

	Year.	Operating Ratio.
United States of America	1923	77.97 per cent.
France—State Lines only	1922	115 " "
All Lines	1922	89 " "
English Railways	1923	81.22 " "
South African Railways	1922-23	77.1 " "
Argentine Railways	1921-22	74.34 to 85.20 " "
Canadian Railways	1923	86.22 " "
India	1922-23	69.09 " "
	1923-24	63.50 " "

Value of Railway Materials Purchased.—The value of materials purchased by Indian railways in 1923-24 (excluding coal, coke, stone, bricks, lime, ballast, etc.) showed a decrease of Rs. 3.80 crores as compared with the value of materials purchased in 1922-23.

	Value of Imported materials.			Value of Indigenous materials.	Total purchases, 1923-24.	Total purchases, 1922-23.
	Purchased direct.	Purchased through Agents in India.	Total Imported materials.			
	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.	Rs. crores.
Rolling stock	9.96	40	10.36	50	10.86	10.47
Tools and stores	1.30	2.30	3.60	3.46	7.06	10.13
Permanent-way	1.50	28	1.78	4.10	5.88	7.54
Electrical plant	64	24	88	01	89	86
Buildings and station materials and fencing ..	28	16	44	14	58	58
Bridge work	69	08	77	05	82	53
Workshop machinery	67	11	78	..	78	52
Engineer's plant	13	05	18	01	19	23
Total ..	15.17	3.62	18.79	8.27	27.06	30.88

Railway Collieries.—Considerable progress was made in the acquisition and development of railway collieries during 1923-24 and the Secretary of State's sanction to the acquisition of the following collieries was received. Argada,

Bellgari-Darl and Bhurkunda all in the South Karanpura Coalfield. The out-turn of railway owned collieries during 1923-24 was 1,692,876 tons out of a total of 61,84,054 tons consumed on railways. The cost of raising compares

	Receipts per ton mile. Pies.
South Australia 1921-22	22.08
Canadian Railways 1923	6.42*
India 1923-24	6.13

* Corrected at \$ 4.40=£ 1.

In the case of receipts per passenger mile the figures for United States of America and India are as follows:—

United States of America, 1922. 10.64 pies.
India, 1923-24 3.8 "

while in England the present fare charged per mile third class is 18 pies.

From the above it will be seen that railway transportation of freight in India is probably the cheapest in the world and still more so in the case of passenger traffic.

An examination of the latest available figures of operating ratios of foreign countries brings out results not unfavourable to Indian Railways.

very favourably with the market price and in the interests of cheap transportation the policy of railway owned collieries has been fully justified.

Stores Balances.—Further steps were taken during 1923-24 to reduce the stores balances on railways and in this connection a conference of Controllers of Stores and Audit Officers was called and the steps to be taken were discussed with them and the Agents of Class I Railways. As a result of these discussions it was decided among other things that existing stocks should be written down to current market rates, surplus stock should be disposed of, large stocks of stores obtained by local purchase should not be maintained and additional grants should be given to enable railways to utilise materials in stock for programme revenue works.

Number of Staff.—The total number of railway employees at the end of the financial year 1923-24 was 727,093 as compared with 749,680 for the previous year. This is a decrease of 22,587 in number in spite of an increase in mileage of 430.12 miles, of the 727,093 employees 6,642 were Europeans, 11,509 Anglo-Indians and 708,942 Indians. Similar figures for 1913-14 were Europeans 7,986, Anglo-Indians 10,437 and Indians 614,882 which make up a total of 633,305.

The position regarding the more extended employment of Indians in the higher grades of railway service was reviewed in considerable detail in the Administration Report for 1921-22. Since then the public interest in this question has been maintained, finding voice in the press and by interpellations in the Legislature. The Government of India have throughout maintained the attitude that every reasonable means should be adopted to increase the number of Indians in the higher grades in so far as such increase is consistent with efficiency and economy. A very thorough report on the steps

to be taken to improve the facilities for training Indians was proposed by Mr. H. L. Cole and on the advice of the Central Advisory Council in July 1923 it was arranged that an officer should be placed on special duty to make definite recommendations in regard to the measures which should be adopted immediately. As a result of the work done by this officer, the Railway Board were in a position to place before the Central Advisory Council their proposals in February 1924 and after considering their views the Railway Board decided to proceed with the scheme at once so far as the State Railways were concerned and the whole question was also discussed with Agents of Class I Railways so as to ensure the active co-operation of Company managed railways.

The subject divides itself into two main parts.—

(1) The method of recruitment to be adopted in future for appointment to the officer and senior subordinate grades and for providing the necessary facilities for training either before or after recruitment.

(2) The means to be provided for training in their current duties the existing subordinate staff of all classes.

It is proposed to start a Central Transportation School in the United Provinces and considerable progress with this scheme has been made during 1924.

Fatalities and Injuries.—During 1923-24, there was an increase of 78 in the number of persons killed and a decrease of 22 in the number of persons injured as compared with the figures of 1922-23. This increase of 78 was wholly due to an increase in the number of persons other than passengers—railway servants killed. The following table shows the numbers killed and injured separately under passengers, railway servants and others for 1923-24 as compared with 1922-23:—

	Killed.		Injured.	
	1922-23.	1923-24.	1922-23.	1923-24.
A. Passengers—				
(1) Accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent-way, etc.	30	63	154	214
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	364	300	1,170	1,038
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	11	9	44	20
B. Servants—				
(1) Accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent-way, etc.	30	21	125	374
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	345	355	671	585
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	47	41	554	461
C. Others—				
(1) Accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent-way, etc.	17	65	24	39
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	1,890	1,945	712	678
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	6	19	15	38
Total ..	2,740	2,818	3,469	3,447

Of the total number of persons killed 1,607 were trespassers on the line and 243 committed suicide. Thus 1,850 or over 65 per cent. of the persons killed on railway premises were for causes over which the railways have no control.

Local Advisory Committees.—By July 1924 Local Advisory Committees had been formed on all Class I State Railways with the exception of the B. N. Ry. where this question is still under consideration. A wide range of subjects was discussed at these meetings and particular attention was paid to such subjects as improvement of facilities for inter and third class passengers, increased facilities for merchants, timings of trains and running of through carriages, etc.

Compensation for loss and damage to goods in transit.—A great improvement was made during 1923-24 in reducing the amount paid in compensation for loss and damage to goods in transit, the total reduction on Class I Railways being Rs. 42 lakhs. The full effect of the measures taken on railways such as the reorganisation of the Watch and Ward Staff has not yet had time to take place and a further improvement is expected during the next year.

As a result of a resolution adopted in the Legis-

lative Assembly in March 1922, a Committee was appointed to revise the existing risk note forms. The recommendations of this Committee, received in September 1922, involved considerable changes in the form of risk notes aiming chiefly at imposing on the railways the onus of proof in cases where losses appeared to be *prima facie* due to misconduct of railway staff. After obtaining the views of Local Governments, Railway Administrations and Chambers of Commerce on these recommendations, the revised forms were referred to the legal advisers of Government. Revised risk note forms A, B, D, G and H have been issued and have been notified as coming into force from 1st October 1924.

Conditions of 3rd Class Travel.—The desirability of improving the conditions of travel of third class passengers has been constantly referred to in the press and in the Legislature, and considerable progress was made during 1923-24 in providing extra facilities of which details have been given in the Assembly from time to time and in the report by the Railway Board for 1923-24. It was found that the knowledge of local conditions possessed by Local Advisory Committees was most useful in helping Railway Administrations to find out when facilities were required.

THE CHIEF RAILWAYS IN INDIA.

The Assam-Bengal Railway, which is constructed on the metre gauge, starts from Chittagong and runs through Surma Valley across the North Cachar Hills into Assam. It is worked under a limited guarantee by a company.

Mileage open	1,049.09
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 20,23,17,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 46,73,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	2.30

Bengal and North-Western.

The Bengal and North-Western Railway was constructed on the metre gauge system by a company without any Government assistance other than free land and was opened to traffic in 1885. The system was begun in 1874 as the Tirhut State Railway. In 1890 this line was leased by Government to the Bengal and North-Western Railway. Since then extensive additions have been made in both sections. It is connected with the Rajputana metre gauge system at Cawnpore and with the Eastern Bengal State Railway at Khatihar and the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway at Benares.

Mileage open	2,062.37.
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 19,31,43,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 1,74,23,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	9.03.

Bengal-Nagpur.

The Bengal-Nagpur Railway was commenced as a metre gauge from Nagpur to Chhatishgarh in the Central Provinces in 1887. A company was formed under a guarantee which took over the line, converted it to the broad gauge and extended it to Howrah, Cuttack and Katni. In 1901 a part of the East Coast State Railway from Cuttack to Vizagapatam was transferred to it and in the same year

sanction was given for an extension to the coal fields and for a connection with the Branch or the East Indian Railway at Haridwar.

Mileage open	2,939.35
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 60,83,65,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 2,70,79,000
Earnings per cent. ..	4.45.

Bombay Baroda.

The Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway is one of the original guaranteed railways. It was commenced from Surat *via* Baroda to Ahmedabad, but was subsequently extended to Bombay. The original contract was terminable in 1880, but the period was extended to 1905; and then renewed under revised conditions. In 1885 the Rajputana Malwa metre gauge system of State railways was leased to the Company and has since been incorporated in it. On the opening of the Nagda-Muttra, giving broad gauge connection through Eastern Rajputana with Delhi the working was entrusted to this Company. On the acquisition of the Company in April 1907 the purchase price was fixed at £11,685,581.

Mileage open	3,784.62
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 67,96,54,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 5,17,12,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	7.61.

Burma Railways.

The Burma Railway is an isolated line, and although various routes have been surveyed there is little prospect of its being connected with the Railway system of India in the near future. In reply to a question in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1919, Sir Arthur Anderson said:—"During 1914-15 extensive survey operations were carried out to ascertain the best alignment for a railway connection along the coast route between Chittagong and certain stations on the Burma Railways south of Man-

delay. A rival route via the Hukong Valley between the northern section of the Assam-Bengal Railway and the section of the Burma Railways north of Mandalay was to have been surveyed during the following year but was postponed because of the war. It is now proposed to commence this survey during the coming cold weather, and on its completion, Government will have sufficient information to enable them to decide which route shall be adopted. Thus no arrangements for the construction of a line have yet been made nor has any concession been granted, but it is probable that the line selected will be built at the cost of Government and worked by one or other of the main lines which it will connect. It was commenced as a State Railway and transferred in 1896 to a Company under a guarantee.

Mileage open	1,695.49.
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 26,08,69,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 1,61,84,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	6.20

Eastern Bengal.

The Eastern Bengal State Railway was promoted under the original form of guarantee and was constructed on the broad gauge. The first portion of the line running to Calcutta over the Ganges was opened in 1862. In 1874 sanction was granted for the construction on the metre gauge of the Northern Bengal State Railway, which ran from the north bank of the Ganges to the foot of the Himalayas on the way to Darjeeling. These two portions of the line were amalgamated in 1884 into one State Railway.

Mileage open	1,727.86.
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 44,61,34,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 1,51,55,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	3.40.

The East Indian.

The East Indian Railway is one of the three railways sanctioned for construction as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. The first section from Howrah to Pandua was opened in 1854 and at the time of the Mutiny ran as far as Raniganj. It gives the only direct access to the port of Calcutta from Northern India and is consequently fed by all the large railway systems connected with it. In 1880 the Government purchased the line, paying the shareholders by annuities, but leased it again to the company to work under a contract which is terminable in 1919.

Mileage open	2,792.75.
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 99,45,00,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 6,56,61,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	6.60.

Great Indian Peninsula.

The Great Indian Peninsula Railway is the earliest line undertaken in India. It was promoted by a Company under a guarantee of 5 per cent. and the first section from Bombay to Thana was open for traffic in 1853. Sanction was given for the extension of this line *via* Poona to Rajchur, where it connects with the Madras Railway, and to Jubulpore where it meets the East Indian Railway. The feature of the line is the passage of the Western Ghats, these sections being 15½ miles on the Bhore Ghat and 9½ miles on the Thul Ghat which rise 1,131 and 972 feet. In 1900, the contract

with the Government terminated and under an arrangement with the Indian Midland Railway that line was amalgamated and leased to a Company to work.

Mileage open	3,389.48.
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 1,03,85,83,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 4,93,98,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	4.80.

Madras Railway.

The Madras Railway was the third of the original railways constructed as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. It was projected to run in a north-westerly direction in connection with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway and in a south-westerly direction to Calcutta. On the expiry of the contract in 1907 the line was amalgamated with the Southern Mahratta Railway Company, a system on the metre gauge built to meet the famine conditions in the Southern Mahratta Country and released to a large Company called the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company. The mileage is 3,041.29.

Mileage open	3,041.29.
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 53,70,62,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 3,28,48,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	6.11

The North-Western.

The North-Western State Railway began its existence at the Sind-Punjab-Delhi Railway, which was promoted by a Company under the original form of guarantee and extended to Delhi, Multan and Lahore and from Karachi to Kotri. The interval between Kotri and Multan was unbridged and the railway traffic was exchanged by a ferry service. In 1871-72 sanction was given for the connection of this by the Indus Valley State Railways and at the same time the Punjab Northern State Railway from Lahore towards Peshawar was begun. In 1886 the Sind-Punjab-Delhi Railway was acquired by the State and amalgamated with these two railways under the name of the North-Western State Railway. It is the longest railway in India under one administration.

Mileage open	5,827.97.
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 1,21,03,76,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 5,07,99,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	4.20.

Oudh and Rohilkhand.

Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway was another of the lines constructed under the original form of guarantee. It began from the north bank of the Ganges running through Rohilkhand as far as Saharanpur where it joins the North-Western State Railway. It was not until 1887 that the bridge over the Ganges was completed and connected with the East Indian Railway. To effect a connection between the metre gauge systems to the North and those to the South of the Ganges, a third rail was laid between Bhairwal and Cawnpore. The Company's contract expired in 1889 when the Railway was purchased by the State and has since been worked as a State Railway.

Mileage open	1,622.52.
Capital at charge ..	Rs. 31,74,58,000.
Net earnings	Rs. 1,12,10,000.
Earnings per cent. ..	3.53

The South Indian.

The South Indian Railway was one of the original guaranteed railways. It was begun by the Great Southern India Railway Company as a broad gauge line; but was converted after the seventies to the metre gauge. This line has been extended and now serves the whole of the Southern India, south of the south-west line of the Madras Railway. Between Tuticorin and Ceylon a ferry service was formerly maintained, but a new and more direct route to Ceylon via Rameswaram was opened at the beginning of 1914. As the original contract ended in 1907, a new contract was entered upon with the Company on the 1st of January 1908.

PROGRAMME OF FUTURE CONSTRUCTION.

As a result of the decision to spend part of the Rs. 150 crores sanctioned by the Assembly on the construction of new lines promising an adequate return the Railway Board have been engaged during 1923-24 in investigating the prospects of such projected railways. Future railway construction falls into 4 main groups:—

- The development of railways in:—
(1) South India.
(2) The Coal field area.
(3) Burma.
and (4) The rest of India.

For many years it has been recognised that there was need for considerable railway extension in the Madras Presidency and after careful investigations it has been settled that certain projects, of which the following are the more important, should be undertaken and completed as early as possible:—

(1) Villupuram & Trichinopoly Chord.

This line will form an alternative route between Madras and Trichinopoly and will afford such relief to the existing line as will defer the necessity of doubling it for many years. The new chord will be 100 miles in length and will open up and develop new and populous country.

(2) Shoranur Nilambur Railway.

This extension on the 5' 6" gauge will run through the Moplah country and is one of the most important measures necessary for the reconstruction of Malabar. The line will be 41 miles in length.

(3) Virudupatti-Tenkasi Railway.

This line will also open up new country and help to relieve congestion on the main line. It will be 76 miles in length.

As regards the coal field area investigation has proved that good coal in large areas is available in the area lying between the East Indian and Bengal Nagpur Railways running westward from the Jheria Coal fields as far as Katni in the Central Provinces. It is accordingly proposed to provide the following lines to serve as outlets towards the north and west of India:—

- (a) Dalkonganj to Hutar. 17 miles.
(b) Hutar to Hela. 163 miles.
(c) Hutar to Anuppur. 188 miles.

Mileage open	..	1,876.21.
Capital at charge	..	Rs. 27,74,46,000.
Net earnings	..	Rs. 2,40,00,000.
Earnings per cent.	..	8.65.

The Indian States.

The principal Indian State Railways are: the Nizam's, constructed by a company under a guarantee from the Hyderabad State; the Kathiawar system of railways, constructed by subscriptions, among the several Chiefs in Kathiawar; the Jodhpur-Bikaner Railway, constructed by the Jodhpur and Bikaner Chiefs; the system of railways in the Punjab, constructed by the Patiala, Jind, Maler Kotla, and Kashmir Chiefs; and the railways in Mysore, constructed by the Mysore State.

A large amount of railway construction is at present in progress in Burma and when this is completed large stretches of new country will be opened up. The most important of them are probably:—

- Pyinmama—Taungwingyi.
Moulmein—Ye.
Alo—Sainglyin.
Segyi—Yeu.

As regards the remainder of India probably the most important lines projected are a line joining Chittagong and Akyab and the construction of the Ralpur-Parvatipuram section of the Ralpur Vizianagram Railway with which is linked the development of Vizianagapatam as a major port.

The proposed Ralpur-Parvatipuram Railway 260½ miles in length would traverse near its centre the largest remaining area of India which is devoid of railway communication. The main traffic expected to travel over this line is manganese ore which is at present despatched from Central Provinces to Calcutta and Bombay. The second item of traffic of which the export is expected to develop via Vizianagapatam is cotton.

Electrification of Railways.—Work on the electrification of the Bombay Suburban and local services of the Great Indian Peninsula and the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railways is in progress. In the case of the G.I.P. Railway it is proposed to electrify the following sections:—

- Thana Kalyan 12.41 miles.
Harbour Branch and Mahim Chord. 9.49 miles.
Victoria Terminus to Thana 21 miles.

The Harbour Branch from Victoria Terminus to Kuria was opened for traffic in February, 1925.

The Harbour Branch and Mahim Chord will provide for an entirely new passenger traffic which is expected as a result of the development scheme for the city of Bombay.

The introduction of electric traction will allow of all main line trains between Kalyan and Victoria Terminus being hauled by electric engines and the question of extending the electric services to Igatpuri and Poona is now under investigation.

In the case of the B. B. & C. I. Railway it is proposed to electrify the local services between Church Gate and Borivli, a distance of 21 miles. Power for this scheme and for the G. I. F.

Railway electrification will be obtained from the Associated Tata Hydro Electric Power Supply Companies and considerable savings by a reduction in working cost are anticipated from its use.

INDIA AND CEYLON.

The possibility of connecting India and Ceylon by a railway across the bank of sand extending the whole way from Rameswaram to Mannar has been reported on from time to time, since 1895 various schemes having been suggested.

The South Indian Railway having been extended to Dhanushkodi, the southernmost point of Rameswaram Island, and the Ceylon Government Railway to Talaimannar, on Mannar Island, two points distant from each other about 21 miles across a narrow and shallow strait, the project has again been investigated with the idea of connecting these two terminal stations by a railway constructed on a solid embankment raised on the sand bank known as "Adam's Bridge", to supersede the ferry steamer service which has been established between these two points.

In 1913, a detailed survey was made by the South Indian Railway Company, and a project has now been prepared. This project contemplates the construction of a causeway from Dhanushkodi Point on the Indian side to Talaimannar Point on the Ceylon side, a length of 20.05 miles of which 7.19 will be upon the dry land of the various islands, and 12.86 will be in water. The sections on dry land will consist of low banks of sand pitched with coral and present no difficulty. The section through the sea will be carried on a causeway which it is proposed to construct in the following way. A double row of reinforced concrete piles, pitched at 10 feet centres and having their inner faces 14 feet apart, will first be driven into the sand. These piles will then be braced together longitudinally with light concrete arches and chains and transversely with concrete ties, struts and chains. Behind the piles slabs of reinforced concrete will be belapped into position, the bottom slabs being sunk well into the sand of the sea bottom. Lastly, the space enclosed by the slabs will be filled in with sand.

The top of the concrete work will be carried to six feet above high water level, and the rails will be laid at that level. The sinking of the piles and slabs will be done by means of water jets. This causeway, it is expected, will cause the suspended sand brought up by the currents, to settle on either side bringing about rapid accretion and eventually making one big island of Rameswaram Island and Mannar Island.

If this method of construction is adopted, it is estimated that the total cost of the causeway and works at the two terminal points, viz.—Dhanushkodi and Talaimannar will be approximately 111 lakhs.

Indo-Burma Connection.

The raids of the Emden in the Bay of Bengal in 1914, and the temporary interruption of communications between India and Burma, stimulated the demand for a direct railway connection between India and Burma. Govern-

ment accepted the position and appointed Mr. Richards, M. Inst. C.E., to be the engineer-in-charge of the surveys to determine the best route for a railway from India to Burma. The coast route appears to be the favoured one. This would start from Chittagong, which is the terminus and head-quarters of the Assam-Bengal Railway and a seaport for the produce of Assam. The route runs southwards through the Chittagong district, a land of fertile rice fields intersected by big rivers and tidal creeks and it crosses the Indo-Burma frontier, 94 miles from the town of Chittagong. For about 160 miles further it chiefly runs through the fertile rice lands of Arakan and crosses all the big tidal rivers of the Akyab delta. These include the Kaladan river which drains 4,700 miles of country and even at a distance of about 30 miles from its mouth is more than half a mile wide. About 260 miles from Chittagong the railway would run into the region of mangrove swamps which fringe the seacoast north and south of the harbour of Kaungkphu stretching out into the mangrove swamps like ribs from the backbone. Innumerable spurs of the Arakan Yoma have to be crossed. Yoma is a mountain ridge which extends from Cape Negrais northwards until it loses itself in a mass of tangled hills east of Akyab and Chittagong. At its southern end the height of the ridge is insignificant but it has peaks as high as 4,000 feet before it reaches the altitude of Sandway and further north it rises much higher. It is a formidable obstacle to railway communication between India and Burma. This route is estimated to cost about £7,000,000 and would have to be supplemented by branch lines to Akyab where there is at present a considerable rice traffic and the cost of this would have to be added to the £7,000,000 already referred to.

The other routes examined have been the Hukong Valley route and the Manipur route which were surveyed by the late Mr. R. A. Way many years ago. The Manipur route is estimated to cost about £5,000,000 as it has to cross three main ranges of hills with summit levels of 2,650, 3,600 and 8,900 feet long. Altogether there would be about four miles of tunnelling through the three main ridges and through other hills and more than 100 miles of expensive undulating railway with grades as steep as 1 in 50 and 11,000 feet of aggregate rise and fall. The Hukong valley route seems to be the cheapest one as it is estimated to cost £3,500,000. This line is only about 284 miles long and it presents fewer engineering difficulties than either the Coast or the Manipur route. One hundred and fifty miles of this route lie in open country capable of cultivation though at present it is only very thinly populated. Only one range of hills has to be crossed and this can be negotiated with a summit tunnel of 5,000 feet long at a height of 2,500 feet. There are less than fifty miles of very heavy work and only about 4,500 ft. aggregate of rise and fall.

Main results of working of all Indian Railways treated as one system.

Particulars.	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24.
1 Mileage open at close of the year Miles	85,833	36,286	36,334	36,616	36,735	37,029	37,266	37,618	38,039
2 Total Capital outlay, including ferries and suspens., on open lines (in thousands of rupees) .. Rs.	5,29,98,29	5,35,27,97	5,41,70,90	5,49,74,45	5,56,37,77	6,28,80,53	6,47,97,17	6,97,46,07	7,17,93,02
3 Gross earnings (in thousands of rupees)	64,60,04	70,68,42	77,36,39	86,23,68	89,15,32	91,98,76	92,88,67	1,05,65,19	1,07,70,66
4 Gross earnings per mile open	18,041	19,480	21,292	23,565	24,269	24,842	24,925	27,086	28,350
5 Gross earnings per mile open per week	347	375	409	453	467	478	479	538	545
6 Gross earnings per train-mile	4.07	4.32	4.93	5.44	5.50	5.69	5.80	6.69	6.78
7 Total working expenses (in thousands of rupees)	32,91,95	33,40,32	35,38,87	41,80,17	50,65,65	60,29,04	70,79,95	72,99,49	68,44,77
8 Working expenses per mile open	9,185	9,266	9,734	11,416	13,789	16,274	18,998	19,344	17,992
9 Working expenses per train-mile	2.07	2.04	2.25	2.64	3.13	3.73	4.42	4.62	4.31
10 Percentage of working expenses to gross earnings Per cent.	50.91	47.26	45.72	48.45	56.81	63.54	76.22	69.09	63.60
11 Net earnings (in thousands of rupees)	31,74,09	37,28,10	41,99,52	44,48,51	38,49,67	31,69,72	22,08,72	32,65,70	39,34,89
12 Net earnings per mile open	8,856	10,274	11,558	12,149	10,480	8,556	6,927	8,651	10,348
13 Net earnings per train-mile	2.00	2.28	2.68	2.80	2.37	1.96	1.38	2.07	2.48
14 Percentage of net earnings on total capital outlay (item 2) Per cent.	5.99	6.96	7.75	8.09	6.80	5.06	3.41	4.68	5.48
15 Coaching train-miles (in thousands) Train-miles	56,364	55,719	44,407	44,117	52,092	58,016	60,617	63,991	64,484

* Represent figures of capital at charge.

Main results of working of all Indian Railways treated as one system—contd.

Particulars.	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24.
16 Goods train-miles (in thousands) Train-miles	92,766	68,083	72,528	74,283	70,091	67,010	63,180	58,319	57,368
17 Mixed train-miles (in thousands)	34,471	34,874	34,618	34,240	34,169	32,254	30,402	30,342	30,391
18 Total, including miscellaneous train-miles (in thousands)	159,038	163,604	167,036	158,598	162,161	161,802	160,155	158,041	158,949
19 Unit-mileage of passengers (in thousands) Unit-miles	16,522,646	17,846,064	16,204,362	18,039,577	20,614,612	20,955,008	19,794,595	18,922,705	19,446,523
20 Freight ton-mileage of goods (in thousands) Ton-miles	17,157,841	19,825,901	21,015,126	22,140,806	20,401,456	19,920,888	17,736,009	18,373,696	18,840,758
21 Average miles a ton of goods was carried Miles	207.98	230.08	245.97	242.88	232.33	227.56	205.57	196.2	192.8
22 Average rate charged for carrying a ton of goods one mile Pies	4.34	4.01	4.06	4.26	4.43	4.62	5.36	6.05	6.13
Average miles a passenger was carried.									
23 1st class Miles	113.18	126.60	124.99	133.83	139.16	130.55	120.98	125.5	125.7
24 2nd class	93.44	106.88	99.68	90.64	86.63	77.81	74.03	57.4	70.7
25 Intermediate class	50.20	52.17	71.54	75.37	75.85	71.66	72.08	62.5	60.5
26 3rd class	36.60	37.56	38.91	40.63	40.73	38.73	36.58	35.2	34.9
27 Season and Vendors' tickets	8.52	8.46	8.54	8.81	9.18	9.16	8.89	9.5	9.9
28 Total	35.59	36.52	37.66	39.24	39.64	37.52	35.26	33.5	32.6
Average rate charged per passenger per mile.									
29 1st class Pies	13.68	13.32	16.68	15.28	16.04	16.72	20.25	23.74	24.33
30 2nd class	6.50	5.07	6.76	7.15	7.59	7.84	9.13	11.75	11.73
31 Intermediate class	9.16	3.14	4.02	4.17	4.21	4.36	4.45	5.33	5.42
32 3rd class	2.29	2.32	2.76	2.86	2.84	2.92	3.04	3.52	3.53
33 Season and Vendors' tickets	1.42	1.43	1.60	1.49	1.54	1.60	1.71	1.74	1.38
34 Total	2.44	2.48	2.99	3.08	3.09	3.18	3.33	3.78	3.75

† Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year.

[illegible]

• Worked by a Company.

(a) *Split up into two railways, viz.* (1) Bangalore-Badhar Railway, and (2) Mysore-Bangalore Railway, figures of which have been shown separately. (b) *Includes figures for Indian State Section.*

‡ Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*contd.*

[illegible]

• Worked by a Company.

• Worked by a Company.
 † These are the latest figures published in 1923.
 (a) Amalgamated with Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway.
 (b) Amalgamated with North Western Railway.
 (c) Shown under Indian State lines against Kolar District Railway.

† Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*contd.*

Railways.	1915-16.	1916-17.	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
ASSISTED COMPANIES—<i>contd.</i>									
Gardwan Khatwa ..	33	33	33	33	32	32	32	32	32
Champaner-Shirpur Pan' Light *	25	32	32	32	32	33	33	33	31
Chaparmukh-Sligat ..	..	..	..	..	51	51	51	51	51
Darjeling-Himalayan Extension	..	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Daschava-Jam'purgunj ..	95	95	95	95	95	95	95	95	95
Dehri-Umballa Kalka ..	192	206	206	206	206	206	206	206	206
Dehri-Rates Light ..	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
Dhond-Baramati ..	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27
Durg-Sadiya ..	86	86	86	86	86	86	86	86	86
Elichpur-Yotal ..	117	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Fuwar-Islampur ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Godhra-Limavada ..	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Hardwar-Dehra ..	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Howrah-Midnapur ..	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44
Howrah-Shekharia Light	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
Jacobabad-Kashmir ..	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77
Jamnagar and Dwarka	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Jessore-Jendian ..	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Jumadar Road † ..	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130
Katunpur-Vokerian † ..	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
Kalgaat Falia ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kasabhai-Lahabar ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Khatwa-Beghat † ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kharana-Jacobabad † ..	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46
Kharana-Bisun † ..	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
Kharana-Light ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kayurhan (C) ..	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Kirpur Khas-Khadro ..	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Kirmising-Bisulab Bazar *	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31
Kyminsing-Jamalpur-Jaganathganj	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
Kandad-Kapadvanj ..	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Factora-Jamner ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Panposh-Balpara ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Phagwara-Bahon † ..	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26

* Worked by a Company.

† Worked by State Railway Agency.

(a) Temporarily dismantled.

(b) Incorporated with the Eastern Bengal Railway from 1st January 1920.

(c) Shown under "Indian State Lines" up to 1919-20.

* Worked by a Company.

† Worked by State Railway Agency.

(a) Temporarily dismantled.

(b) Incorporated with the Eastern Bengal Railway from 1st January 1920.

(c) Shown under "Indian State Lines" up to 1919-20.

* Worked by a Company.

† These are the latest figures published in 1923.

(a) Temporarily dismantled.

(b) Incorporated with the Eastern Bengal Railway from 1st January 1920.

(c) Shown under "Indian State Lines" up to 1919-20.

† Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*contd.*

Railways.	1915-16.	1916-17.	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
ASSISTED COMPANIES—<i>contd.</i>									
Podanur Pollachi ..	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Powayen Light ..	40	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39
Fulgaon-Arvi ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Rohilkhand and Kumaon	259	259	259	259	259	259	259	259	259
Sara-Siragan † ..	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22
Shahjira (Delhi) Saharanpur Light	93	93	93	93	93	93	93	93	93
Sialkot Narawal † ..	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
South Behar ..	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79
Southern Punjab † ..	576	577	578	578	578	578	578	578	578
Buramanglam-Salem ..	208	208	208	208	208	208	208	208	208
Sutlej Valley † ..	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
Tanlore District Board *	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
Tapti Valley ..	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
Tarkesur ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tenali-Repalli ..	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
Tezpur-Balpara ..	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
Tinnevely-Tiruchendur ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
UNASSISTED COMPANIES.									
Amballi-Taranga Light	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bengal Provincial ..	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Dehri-Rohas Light ..	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Jagadri Light ..	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
Kulasekarpattanam Light	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Ledo and Tikak Margherita Colliery	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
Madaya Light ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Trivellore Light ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	68	68	76	90	110	90	78	84	..
INDIAN STATE LINES.									
Batharkhah Warangal *	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bangalore-Chik Ballapur Light	29	35	39	39	39	39	39	39	47
Bhavnagar ..	206	206	206	206	206	217	240	253	39
Bhopal-Itarsi* (Indian State Section)	45	44	45	45	45	45	45	45	283

* Worked by a Company.

† These are the latest figures published in 1923.

(a) Dismantled.

(b) Incorporated with the East Indian Railway on the 1st January 1915.

(c) Shown under "Assisted Companies."

(d) Figures included under British Section.

(e) Shown under State lines.

‡ Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*contd.*

Railways.	1914-15.	1915-16.	1916-17.	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
INDIAN STATE LINES—<i>contd.</i>										
Bhopal-Ujjain*	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113
Bikaner	470	498	498	498	498	498	498	498	520	563
Bilimora-Kolamba*	26	26	26	35	35	35	35	35	35	(c)
Bina-Goonar-Baraut	146	146	146	147	147	147	147	147	147	147
Birur-Shimoga*	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	(d)
Chickapur-Chitaldurg	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bodell-Choda Udaipur	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cooch-Bihar †	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Cutch	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Dholpur-Bari	37	37	37	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
Dhrangadra	40	43	43	43	43	40	40	40	40	54
Gackwar's Baroda State	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Gackwar's Dabhol	142	147	147	154	187	187	187	199	223	216
Gackwar's Mehsana*	153	153	163	163	163	163	231	231	231	(c)
Gondal-Forbandar	148	148	148	148	148	(b) 108	(b) 106	(b) 106	108	106
Gwalior Light*	250	250	250	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
Hindupur	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Hingoli Branch*	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Hyderabad-Godavari Valley*	391	391	391	391	391	391	391	391	391	391
Jalpur*	73	73	107	108	122	122	122	122	139	156
Jammu and Kashmir †	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Jannagar	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
Jetalsar-Rajkot	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46
Jind-Panipat	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Jodhpur	604	609	609	609	609	609	609	609	609	609
Junagad	114	121	121	121	136	140	141	141	141	148
Khanpur-Chachran †	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22
Khijadiya-Dhari*	26	26	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Kolar District	11	41	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64
Kolar Gold Fields*	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	(d)
Kolhapur*	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
Kosambi-Zankhivay	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Ludhiana-Dhuri-Jakhal †	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79

* Worked by a Company

† These are the latest figures published in 1923.

‡ Worked by State Railway Agency.

(b) Gondal only—Figures of Porbandar State Railway have been shown separately.

(c) Included in Gackwar's Baroda State Railway.

(d) Shown under State Lines.

† Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*contd.*

Railways.	1914-15.	1915-16.	1916-17.	1917-18.	1918-19.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
INDIAN STATE LINES—<i>contd.</i>										
Mohari-Barauli	..	..	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
Norvi	93	93	93	93	93	93	93	93	93	93
Nourbanj*	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Nyore-Arikere	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Nyore-Bangalore	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Nyore-Nanjangud*	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Tarkare-Narasimharajapura Light..	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
Nagda-Ujjain*	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34
Nizam's Guaranteed (†)	330	330	330	330	330	330	330	330	330	330
Okhamandal*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Parlakimedi Light*	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Petlad-Cambay*	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34
Petlad-Yaso	16	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
Pipar Bilara Light	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Porbandar-State	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Rajpiple*	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Rajpura-Bhatinda †	108	108	108	108	108	108	108	108	108	108
Sangli*	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Secunderabad-Gadwal*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Shoranur-Cochin*	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65
Tinnevely-Quillon* (Travancore) Indian Section..	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58
Udaipur-Chitorgarh	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
Vijapur-Kalol-Kadi*	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46
Total	4,504	4,599	4,825	5,027	5,089	5,177	5,154	5,194	5,303	5,475
FOREIGN LINES.										
Karalkal-Peralam*	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
Pondicherry*	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
West of India Portuguese*	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Total	74	74	74	74	74	74	74	74	74	74
Grand Total	35,285	35,833	36,236	36,334	36,616	36,735	37,029	37,266	37,618	38,039

* Worked by a Company.

† These are the latest figures published in 1923.

‡ Formerly worked as part of the Mysore Section of M. & S. M. Railway. † Worked by State Railway Agency. (a) Now called Mysore Railway.

(b) Shown under "Assisted Companies." (c) Called Mysore Light this year.

(d) Included in Gackwar's Baroda State Railway. (e) Included in Gackwar's Mehsana Railway.

(f) Although shown under Indian State Lines. This is a Company's Line guaranteed by Indian State.

Mines and Minerals.

Total value of Minerals for which returns of Production are available for the years 1922 and 1923.

	1922. (Rupee=1s. 4d.)	1923. (Rupee=1s. 4d.)	Increase.	Decrease.	Variation per cent.
	£	£	£	£	
Coal	9,755,343	9,738,569		16,774	-0.2
Petroleum	7,202,494	7,007,915		194,579	-2.7
Manganese-ore (a)	915,428	2,215,984	1,300,556		+142.1
Gold	1,557,577	1,702,642		154,935	+8.3
Lead and lead-ore	945,137	1,121,474	176,337		+18.7
Salt	744,966	749,382	4,416		+0.6
Silver	675,234	677,207	1,973		+0.3
Mica (b)	385,683	538,435	152,752		+39.6
Building Materials	394,833	512,409	117,576		+29.7
Tin and tin-ore	188,963	185,641		3,322	-1.8
Saltpetre	234,966	149,757		85,109	-36.2
Iron-ore	104,428	136,415	31,987		+30.6
Jadette (b)	124,811	55,803		69,008	-41.6
Chromite	24,096	51,119	77,033		+112.2
Ruby, Sapphire and Spinel	46,487	48,679	192		+0.4
Tungsten Ore	25,035	31,979	6,944		+27.7
Clays	16,900	21,356	4,456		+26.4
Magnesite	16,046	15,622		424	-2.6
Zinc-ore (b)	90,505	11,584		78,921	-87.2
Phosphate	1,133	5,388	4,255		+375.6
Ochre	3,805	4,461	656		+17.2
Copper-ore	20,509	4,367		16,142	-78.7
Alum	6,651	4,298		2,353	-35.4
Fuller's earth	2,451	3,811	1,360		+55.9
Monazite	1,871	3,697	1,826		+97.6
Bauxite	1,063	3,682	2,619		+246.4
Steallite	2,432	3,290	858		+35.3
Diamonds	6,110	3,100		3,010	-49.3
Barytes	3,200	2,850		350	-10.9
Ilmenite	1,200	2,100	900		+75.0
Soda	68	1,600	1,532		
Zircon	1,280	1,160		120	-9.4
Gypsum	1,315	1,156		159	-12.1
Amber	131	915	784		
Asbestos	701	659		42	-6.0
Hyalite		352	352		
Total	23,804,742	25,018,858	1,839,364	625,248	+4.8
					+1,214,116

(a) F. O. B. value at Indian Ports.

(b) Export values.

(c) Excludes the value of 932 tons.

The feature which stands out most prominently in a survey of the mineral industries of India is the fact that until recent years little has been done to develop those minerals which are essential to modern metallurgical and chemical industries, while most striking progress has been made in opening out deposits from which products are obtained suitable for export, or for consumption in the country by what may conveniently be called direct processes. In this respect India of to-day stands in contrast to the India of a century ago. The European chemist armed with cheap supplies of sulphuric acid and alkali, and aided by low sea freights and increased facilities for internal distribution by the spreading network of railways has been enabled to stamp out, in all but remote localities, the once flourishing native manufactures of alum, the various alkaline compounds, blue vitriol, coppers, copper, lead, steel and iron, and seriously to curtail the export trade in nitre and borax. The reaction against that invasion is of recent date. The high quality of the native-made iron, the early anticipation of the processes now employed in Europe for the manufacture of high-class steels, and the artistic products in copper and brass gave the country a prominent position in the ancient metallurgical world, while as a chief source of nitre India held a position of peculiar political importance until, less than forty years ago, the chemical manufacturer of Europe found among his by-products, cheaper and more effective compounds for the manufacture of explosives.

With the spread of railways, the development of manufactures connected with jute, cotton and paper, and the gradually extended use of electricity the demand for metallurgical and chemical products in India has steadily grown. Before long the stage must be reached at which the variety and quantity of products required, but now imported, will satisfy the conditions necessary for the local production of those which can be economically manufactured only for the supply of groups of industries.

Coal.

Most of the coal raised in India comes from the Bengal and Bihar and Orissa—Gondwans coal-fields. Outside Bengal and Bihar and Orissa the most important mines are those at Singareni in Hyderabad, and in Central Provinces but there are a number of smaller mines which have been worked at one time or another.

The subjoined statement shows the production of all mines in British India and in Indian States during 1923, as compared with 1922:—

	1922.	1923.
British Provinces—	Tons.	Tons.
Burma	172	2,166
Assam	348,103	326,149
Bihar and Orissa	12,711,323	13,212,250
Bengal	4,328,986	4,621,578
Punjab	67,180	63,501
Baluchistan	60,135	42,562
Central Provinces	675,916	548,074
Total British Province	18,191,820	18,816,280

	1922.	1923.
Indian States—	Tons.	Tons.
Hyderabad	642,880	658,429
Rajputana (Bikaner)	15,055	7,119
Central India (Rewah)	161,231	175,950
Total Indian States	819,166	841,498*
GRAND TOTAL, INDIA	19,010,986	19,657,778

(*) Provisional figures.

The next statement shows the quantity of coal available for consumption in India in 1922 and 1923:—

	1922.	1923.
	Tons.	Tons.
Imports of foreign coal	1,712,467	629,126
Re-exports of foreign coal	72,944	46,031
Available supply of foreign coal	1,639,523	583,138
Production of Indian coal	19,010,986	19,657,778
Exports of Indian coal to foreign parts	77,118	136,585
Available supply of Indian coal	18,933,868	19,521,193
Total available supply of coal	20,573,391	20,104,331

Average Price (per ton) of Coal extracted from the mines.

	1922.	1923.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Assam	8 5 4	8 11 1
Baluchistan	13 7 5	14 14 4
Bengal	9 10 1	9 1 9
Bihar and Orissa	6 15 5	6 13 7
Burma	16 0 0	21 3 3
Central India	5 13 0	5 13 0
Central Provinces	7 10 7	6 10 7
Punjab	14 13 10	9 15 10
Rajputana	7 2 2	6 13 9

Origin of Indian Coal.

—	Average of last five years.	1922.	1923.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Gondwana coalfields.	19,490,848	18,520,513	19,218,284
Tertiary coalfields.	434,487	490,473	439,494
Total ..	19,925,335	19,010,986	19,657,778

Coal Committee appointed.—The Government of India announced in 1924 the appointment of a representative Coal Committee to inquire (1) generally what measures are to be taken by the Government, the coal trade, the railways and by the ports whether singly or in combination, to stimulate the export of suitable coal from Calcutta to Indian and foreign ports, (2) in particular whether effective measures can be taken for pooling and grading Indian coal for export and for bunkering and how the cost of such measures should be met.

The Government quotes coal import figures

which show the competition from which the Indian coal industry is now suffering, not so much in the Indian market as in overseas markets such as Colombo and Singapore. While the Government holds that the overseas market could not be recovered by the protection of the Indian Market, it regards it, nevertheless, as possible that the measures necessary to recover the overseas market would be sufficient without further protection to enable Indian coal to meet competition in the home market.

The committee consists of : President, Mr. F. Noyce, I.C.S. Members : Mr. F. C. Legge, the Chief Mining Engineer of the Railway Board, Mr. S. C. Stuart Williams, a Director of the Wagon Interchange, Mr. A. A. F. Bray, the Chairman of the Calcutta Port Trust, Mr. W. C. Banerjee, Chairman of the Indian Mining Association; Sir Rajendra Nath Mukerjee, Vice-Chairman of the Indian Mining Federation and the Hon. J. W. A. Bell of Messrs. Mackinnon & Mackenzie, Calcutta; Secretary, Mr. H. P. V. Townsend, I.C.S.

The committee assembled in October. Its recommendations will necessarily influence the Tariff Board's investigation into the question whether the Indian coal trade is in need of protection.

IRON ORE.

Bengal and Bihar and Orissa are the only provinces in India in which iron ore is mined for smelting by European methods. Iron smelting, however, was at one time a widespread industry in India and there is hardly a district away from the great alluvial tracts of the Indus, Ganges and Brahmaputra in which slag heaps are not found. The primitive iron smelter finds no difficulty in obtaining sufficient supplies of ore from deposit that no European ironmaster would regard as worth his serious consideration. Early attempts to introduce European processes for the manufacture of pig-iron and steel were recorded in 1830 in the South Arcot District. Since that date various other attempts have been made but none proved a success before that now in operation near Barakar in Bengal. The site of the **Barakar Iron-Works** was originally chosen on account of the proximity of both coal and ore supplies. The outcrop of iron stone shales between the coal-bearing Barakar and Raniganj stages stretches east and west from the works, and for many years the clay ironstone nodules obtainable from this formation formed the only supply of ore used in the blast furnaces. Recently magnetite and hematite have been obtained from the Manbhumi and Singhbhum districts, and the production from the last-named district has largely replaced the supplies of ore hitherto obtained near the iron-works. The Bengal Iron and Steel Company, Limited, have now given up the use of ores obtained from the neighbourhood of Barakar and Raniganj and are now obtaining most of their ores from the Kolhan Estate, Singhbhum. Some years ago the Bengal Iron Steel Co., Ltd., secured two deposits of iron-ore in Saranda (Singhbhum) forming parts of two large hill masses known as Notu Buru and Buda Buru respectively. Recent prospecting in this part of

Singhbhum has led to the discovery of numerous additional deposits of iron-ore, the extension of which has been traced into Keonjhar and Bonal States in Orissa, a total distance of some 40 miles in a S. S. W. direction. At Pansira Buru, a portion of Notu Buru, the deposit has been opened up, and now feeds the Barakar ironwork. Pansira Buru rises to over 2,500 feet above sea level, the low ground on the west side being at about 1,100 feet above sea-level. The uppermost 400 to 450 feet of this hill has now been opened up, and the workings indicate the existence of a deposit about a quarter of a mile long, perhaps 400 feet thick and proved on the dip for about 500 feet. The ore body appears to be interbedded with the Dharwar slates, from which it is separated by banded hematite-jaspers. The ore itself is high-grade micaceous hematite, often lateritised at the outcrop. Cross-cuts into the interior of the deposit show that the hematite becomes very friable not far below the outcrop. In fact the characteristics of this ore, including the surface lateritisation, are almost exactly reproduced in the iron-ore deposits of Goa and Ratnagiri. The Tata Iron and Steel Company at Sakchi possesses slightly richer and purer ore-bodies in the Raipur district, supplies of ore are at present drawn from the deposits in Mayurbhanj. The ore-deposits have all been found to take the form of roughly lenticular leads or bodies of hematite, with small proportions of magnetite, in close association with granite on the one hand and granitic rocks on the other. These latter have been noted in the field as charnockites, the term being employed, rather loosely no doubt, but probably in the main correctly, to cover types of pretty widely varying acidity. In still more intimate association with the ores than either of the foregoing were found masses of dense

quartz rocks, frequently banded, and banded quartz-iron-ore rocks. These last are of the types so commonly associated with Indian iron-ores, but are here not so prominent as is usually the case.

The production of iron-ore increased by 23.6 per cent., viz., from 625,274 tons in 1922 to 774,384 tons in 1923. The figure shown against Mayurbhanj in the following table represents the production by the Tata Iron and Steel Company, Ltd.; although the raisings amounted to 507,225 tons, the total ore despatched from Mayurbhanj was 663,247 tons, the excess over production being taken from the balance of raisings in the year previous to 1922, which could not be despatched owing to the incompletion of railway sidings and consequently remained in stock. The production in Singhbhum is mostly that of the Bengal Iron Company, the Indian Iron and Steel Company being responsible for 9,009

tons from their mining at Gua. The Amda-Jamda railway extension to Gua has now been opened and the despatch of ore from that locality to the Indian Iron and Steel Company's blast furnaces at Hirapur commenced; previously these furnaces had been supplied with ore from Mayurbhanj State and the Central Provinces.

The Tata Iron and Steel Company produced 392,135 tons of pig iron, 151,097 tons of steel including rails, and 3,506 tons of ferro-manganese, showing a decided increase in each case over the previous year. The Bengal Iron Company produced 119,669 tons of pig iron and 41,849 tons of iron castings, also showing substantial increases in the two cases. The Indian Iron and Steel Company commenced turning out pig iron, railway sleepers and railway "chairs" in November 1922; their production of pig iron during 1923 amounted to 77,980 tons.

Quantity and value of Iron-ore produced in India.

	1922.			1923.		
	Quantity.	Value. (Rupee=1s 4d.)		Quantity.	Value (Rupee=1s.4d.)	
Bihar and Orissa—	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£
Mayurbhanj	378,134	9,45,335	63,022	507,225	12,68,062	84,537
Sambalpur	798*	5,495	366	632*	4,427	295
Singhbhum	215,746	4,93,316	32,888	218,584	4,51,543	30,123
Burma—						
Mandalay				329	1,316*	88
Northern Shan States	27,680	1,10,720*	7,381	52,911	2,11,644*	14,110
Central Provinces	2,891	11,564	771	24,632	1,08,933	7,262
Other Provinces and States	25			71		
Total ..	625,274	15,66,430	104,428	804,384	20,46,225	136,415

* Estimated.

† Not available.

MANGANESE ORE.

This industry commenced some thirty years ago by quarrying the deposits of the Vizagapatam district, and from an output of 74 tons in 1892, the production rose rapidly to 92,008 tons in 1900 when the richer deposits in the Central Provinces were also attacked, and are now yielding a larger quantity of ore than the Vizagapatam mines. India now competes with Russia as the first manganese-producing country in the world. The most important deposits occur in the Central Provinces, Madras, Central India, and Mysore—the largest supply coming from the Central Provinces. The uses to which the ore is put are somewhat varied. The peroxide is used by glass manufacturers to destroy the green bluish in glass making, and it is also used in porcelain painting and glazing for the brown colour which it yields. The ore is now used in the manufacture of ferromanganese for steel manufacture. Since 1904, when the total output was 150,190 tons, the progress of the industry has been remarkable owing to the high prices prevailing. In 1905 production reached 247,427 tons; the following year it was more than doubled (571,495 tons), and in 1907 the figures again rose to 902,291 tons. In 1909, on account of the fall in prices the output contracted to 842,675 tons, but it almost regained its former position in 1910 when the

production rose to 800,907 tons. In 1911 it fell to 670,290 tons. In 1916 the output was 645,204 tons valued f. o. b. at Indian Ports at £1,487,026. The ore raised in the Central Provinces is of a very high grade, ranging from 50 to 54 per cent. of the metal, and in consequence of its high quality is able to pay the heavy tax of freight over 500 miles of railway, besides the shipment charges to Europe and America.

The output in 1923 was 695,055 tons valued at £2,215,984 f. o. b. Indian Ports. Exports of Manganese-ore from British Indian ports during 1923.

	Quantity.	Value.
To—	Tons.	Rs.
United Kingdom	330,945	67,49,031
Germany	7,250	1,48,125
Netherlands	17,200	3,08,350
Belgium	158,013	38,07,943
France	173,037	35,91,847
Italy	19,862	5,85,397
Japan	5,657	1,39,038
United States of America	63,883	21,38,001
Total ..	775,870	1,75,30,732

GOLD.

The greater part of the total output of gold in India is derived from the Kolar gold field in Mysore. During the last decade the production of this mine reached its highest point in 1905 when 616,758 ounces were raised. In 1906 the quantity won was 565,208 ounces and this figure fell to 535,085 ounces in 1907. The figures for the latter years reveal a small improvement. The Nizam's mine at Hutti in Hyderabad comes next, but at a respectable distance, to the Kolar gold field. This mine was opened in 1903. The only other mines from which gold was raised were those in the Dharwar district of Bombay and the Anantapur district of Madras. The Dharwar mines gave an output of 2,993 ounces in 1911 but work there ceased in 1912. The Anantapur mines gave their first output of gold during the year 1910, the amount being 2,532 ounces, valued at Rs. 1,51,800. Gold mining was carried on in the North Arcot district of Madras from 1893 till 1900, the highest yield (2,854 ounces) being obtained in the year 1898. The Kyaukpazat mine

in Upper Burma was worked until 1903, when the pay chute was lost and the mine closed down. In 1902 dredging operations were started on the Irrawaddy river near Myitkyina, and 216 ounces of gold were obtained in 1904; the amount steadily increased from year to year and reached 8,445 ounces in 1909, but fell in subsequent years until, in 1922, it was no more than 24 oz. The small quantity of gold produced in the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and the United Provinces is obtained by washing. Gold washing is carried on in a great many districts in India, but there is no complete record of the amount obtained in this way. The average earnings of the workers are very small, and the gold thus won is used locally for making jewellery.

The continuous decrease in the output of gold in India from the maximum production of 616,728 ozs. reached in 1915, continued during the year 1923, when the total output of gold was 422,306 ozs., valued at £1,702,642.

Quantity and value of Gold produced in India during the years 1922 and 1923.

	1922.			1923.			Labour.
	Quantity.	Value (Rupee=1s. 4d.)		Quantity.	Value (Rupee=1s. 4d.)		
<i>Burma—</i>	oz.	Rs.	£	oz.	Rs.	£	
Katha ..	12.01	815	54	23.46	1,672	111	42
Upper Chindwin	12	1,280	85	44.30	4,134	276	86
<i>Madras—</i>							
Anantapur	8,388(a)	6,08,673	40,578	1,519(a)	1,01,016	6,734	275
				(c)	2,53,69,141	1,691,276	
Mysore ..	429,559.6(b)	2,72,50,073	1,816,672	419,667.64			20,604
				(d)	60,690	4,046	
Punjab ..	40.8	2,638	176	48.8	2,860	191	62
United Provinces.	2.63	175	12	1.9	125	8	12
Total ..	438,015.04	2,78,83,654	1,857,577	422,306.56	2,55,39,638	1,702,642	21,081

(a) Fine gold.

(b) Contains 381,955.18 oz. fine gold including 3,172.24 oz. obtained from cyanide slags.

(c) Contains 381,058.93 oz. fine gold.

(d) Fine gold obtained from cyanide slags.

PETROLEUM.

Petroleum is found in India in two distinct areas—one on the east, which includes Assam, Burma, and the islands off the Arakan coast. This belt extends to the productive oil fields of Sumatra, Java, and Borneo. The other area is on the west, and includes the Punjab and Baluchistan, the same belt of oil-bearing rocks being continued beyond the borders of British India to Persia. Of these two the eastern

areas by far the most important, and the most successful oil fields are found in the Irrawaddy valley. Yenangyaung is the oldest and most developed of these fields. Native wells have been at work here for over 100 years, and in 1886, prior to the annexation of Upper Burma, the output is estimated to have averaged over 2 million gallons a year. Drilling was begun in 1887. The Yenangyat field yielded a very

small supply of petroleum before 1891, in which year drilling was started by the Burma Oil Company. Singu now holds the second place among the oil fields of India. Petroleum was struck at the end of 1901, and in 1903, 5 million gallons were obtained. In 1907 and 1908 the production of this field was 43 million gallons, and after a fall to 31½ million gallons in 1910 it rose to 58½ million gallons in 1912. Several of the islands off the Arakan coasts are known to contain oil deposits but their value is uncertain. About 20,000 gallons were obtained from the eastern Barongo Island near Akyab, and about 37,000 gallons from Ramri Island in the Kyaukpyu district during 1911. Oil was struck at Minbu in 1910, the production for that year being 18,320 gallons which increased to nearly 4 million gallons in 1912. The existence of oil in Assam has been known for many years and an oil spring was struck near Makum in 1867. Nothing more, however, was done until 1883, and from that year up till 1902 progress was slow. Since that year the annual production has been between 2½ and 4 million gallons.

On the west, oil springs have been known for many years to exist in the Rawalpindi and other districts in the Punjab. In Baluchistan geological conditions are adverse, and though some small oil springs have been discovered, attempts to develop them have not hitherto been successful.

Output in 1923.—The statistics of petroleum show that it is becoming more and more difficult to maintain the output of India (including Burma) at the high level it reached in 1919 and 1921, which amounted to well over 305½ million gallons. During 1923 the total production amounted to nearly 294½ million gallons against 293½ million gallons in 1922; for this decrease the two largest fields of Burma, Yenangyaung and Singu were mostly responsible.

The Yenangyat field is rapidly dying, and its yield is now less than that from Thayetmyo.

As in the previous year the Singu and Yenangyaung oil-fields again shew a decided decrease, the outputs falling by 4½ million gallons and 4½ million gallons, respectively. Thayetmyo and Badarpur contributed, to much the same extent in each case, to the general deficit; the latter field is a disappointment and shews no promise of making any substantial contribution to India's output of petroleum. Against these declines are to be recorded an increase in the Digboi field of over 2 million gallons and a gratifying increase of nearly 4½ million gallons in the Punjab. Minbu and the Upper Chindwin more or less maintained their level.

The utilization of the shallow oil-sands of the Yenangyaung field which were shut off during the competitive rush for the richer deep sands, continues; several remunerative wells are now being worked at depths a little above or below 400 feet. The electrification of this field has extended itself and more than 700 wells are now being either pumped or drilled, by electricity. The Indo-Burma Oilfields, Ltd., have now ceased operations in the Yenangyaung field.

During the year active prospecting was continued in the Punjab, Assam and Burma, by a variety of oil interests.

In the Punjab the oil industry entered on a new phase with the completion at Rawalpindi, and the opening in February 1922, of the refinery erected by the Attock Oil Company to deal with the production of the Khaur oilfield in the Attock district. The refinery has a daily capacity of 65,000 gallons of crude oil, but the average throughput has not yet reached the maximum. The test wells in the Dhullan and Gabbir areas reached the depths of 2,800 feet and 1,760 feet respectively without striking oil in remunerative quantity; both wells have been abandoned but a fresh test at Dhullan has already been started.

Quantity and value of Petroleum produced in India during 1922 and 1923.

	1922.			1923.		
	Quantity.	Value (Rupee=1s. 4d.)		Quantity.	Value (Rupee=1s. 4d.)	
<i>Assam—</i>	Gals.	Rs.	£	Gals.	Rs.	£
Badarpur ..	4,038,731	(a) 6,66,794	44,453	3,555,377	4,01,912	26,794
Digboi ..	5,343,910	(b) 9,12,918	60,861	7,448,719	12,71,935	84,796
<i>Burma—</i>						
Akyab ..	8,886	2,563	171	8,628	2,573	172
Kyaukpyu ..	16,211	17,529	1,169	16,721	16,714	1,114
Minbu ..	3,940,416	12,31,380	82,092	3,915,140	12,23,461	81,565
Singu ..	92,107,998	3,45,73,653	2,304,910	87,476,474	3,28,03,678	2,186,912
Thayetmyo ..	2,319,835	7,24,948	48,330	1,818,584	4,54,646	30,310
Upper Chindwin	1,210,914	90,818	6,055	1,311,644	98,374	6,558
Yenangyat ..	2,413,416	7,54,102	50,279	1,700,035	4,42,717	29,514
Yenangyaung ..	179,741,493	6,72,22,038	4,481,469	175,168,721	6,54,51,455	4,368,430
<i>Punjab—</i>						
Attock ..	7,362,315	18,40,579	122,705	11,804,560	29,51,140	196,743
Mainwall ..	..	..	..	450	112	..
Total ..	298,504,125	10,80,37,412	7,202,494	294,215,053	10,51,18,737	7,007,915

(a) Revised.

(b) Estimated at Re. 0-2-8-8 per gallon.

Imports of Kerosine Oil amounted in 1923 to 64,083,037 gallons.

Amber, Graphite and Mica.—Amber is found in very small quantities in Burma, the output for 1923 being 47 cwts. valued at Rs. 13,720. Graphite is found in small quantities in various places but little progress has been made in mining except in Travancore. The total output in 1921 was 25 tons. India has for many years been the leading producer of mica, turning out more than half of the world's supply. In 1914, owing to the war, the output was only 33,189 cwts. compared with 43,650 cwts. in 1913. Owing to necessary restrictions with regard to the export of mica, the output fell off considerably in the year 1915, but subsequent demand in the United Kingdom for the best grade of ruby mica led to a considerable increase in production during the following years.

There was an increase of about 1,980 cwts. in the declared out-put of mica in 1923 above that of the previous year. But the output figures are incomplete, and a better idea of the size of the industry is obtained from the export figures. The exports of mica during 1923 amounted, in fact, to more than double the declared output, equalling 83,296 cwts., valued at Rs. 80,76,522 (£ 538,435); this figure is not far short of double that for the previous year 1922, which was 43,145 cwts., valued at Rs. 57,85,245 (£ 385,683). It will be noticed, however, that the average price of the mica fell from Rs. 134 (£ 8.9) to Rs. 97 (£ 6.5) per cwt.

Tin, Copper, Silver and Lead.—The only persistent attempt to mine tin is in Burma. The output was for some time insignificant but rose in 1913 to 116 tons valued at £46,000 which fell to £78,000 in 1914. In 1923 Burma yielded 1,996 tons. Copper is found in Southern India, in Rajputana, and at various places along the outer Himalayas, but the ore is smelted for the metal alone, no attempt being made to utilize the by-products. The only Lead mine of any importance being worked in the Indian Empire is that of Rawdwin, where a very large body of high-grade lead-zinc-silver ore has now been blocked out. For many years the smelting operations of the Company were directed to recovering lead and silver from the slags left by the old Chinese miners. Those slags, however, are now practically exhausted, and the mine has reached a stage of development at which a steady output of ore is assured. In 1923 the output was 46,060 tons valued at Rs. 1,68,18,111.

Silver is obtained as a by-product in the smelting of the lead-zinc ores of Bawdwin. The total output in 1923 was 4,843,939 oz. valued at Rs. 1,01,16,985.

Zinc.—A monograph on zinc ores issued by the Imperial Institute in 1917 says that during the past fifty years zinc ores have received but little attention in India, and no production was recorded until 1913. In 1914 the production was 8,558 tons, and although the output fell to 196 tons in 1915, there is a prospect of India becoming an important producer of zinc ore in the future. Important silver-lead-zinc deposits occur at Bawdwin, in Tavagpeng State, one of the Northern Shan States in Upper Burma. The mines are connected with the

Mandalay-Lashio Branch of the Burma railways by a narrow-gauge line 51 miles long, the lines meeting at Manhpwe, which is about 544 miles from Rangoon. They were worked for many centuries by the Chinese for silver, and have long been known to contain zinc ore; until recently, however, no serious attempt appears to have been made to market the ore for its zinc values. In 1907 the present undertaking was started by the Burma Mines, Ltd., with the idea of recovering the lead from the old slag heaps left by the Chinese, estimated at 125,000 to 160,000 tons, and later to work the deposit. Smelting operations on these slags were first carried out at Mandalay, but later the works were transferred to Namtu, about 13 miles below the mines on the narrow-gauge railway. The deposits, which comprise an area of about 2,500 acres, have now been taken over by the Burma Corporation, Ltd., and one is being worked.

Gem Stones.—The only precious and semi-precious stones at present mined in India are the diamond, ruby, sapphire, spinel, tourmaline, garnet, rock-crystal, agate, cornelian, jadeite and amber. Amber has already been referred to; of the rest only the ruby, sapphire and jadeite attain any considerable value in production and the export of the latter has declined owing to the disturbances in China, which is the chief purchaser of Burmese jadeite. The output of diamonds is comparatively unimportant. The output of the ruby mines in 1923 was 187,010 carats valued at Rs. 7,30,183. In 1922 an exceptionally valuable ruby of nearly 23 carats was found of rare size and quality.

Wolfram.—Owing to the continued depression in the wolfram market, Tungsten ore is now nowhere extracted except in the Tavoy District, where it occurs chiefly as a constituent of mixed concentrates. The production of wolfram decreased slightly from 943 tons valued at Rs. 3,75,532 (£25,035) during 1922 to 872 tons valued at Rs. 4,79,693 (£31,979) in 1923. The decrease in output was, however, accompanied by a considerable increase in total value, amounting to £6,944.

Radio-active Minerals.—The General Report of the Director of the Geological Survey of India for 1913 includes a brief report by R. C. Burton on an occurrence of pitchblende at mica mines near Singar, Gaya district, Bengal. The pitchblende occurs as rounded nodules in a pegmatite that is intrusive in mica schists. Other minerals occurring in the pegmatite are mica, tripelite, ilmenite, tourmaline, and uranium ochre; whitish columbite, zircon, and torbernite have also been recorded. Of these minerals tripelite is stated to be the commonest.

The importance of the find of uranium oxide impregnating the tripelite led to the discovery of weathered pitchblende, and as the pits were deepened the weathering became less and less until pure pitchblende was obtained. In the six months from July 1913 to February 1914, eight hundredweight of pitchblende was obtained from Abrahki Hill together with six tons of uranium earth debris, five to six hundred tons of tripelite and two tons of tantalite. These ores were raised under a prospecting license in respect of Abrahki Hill alone and in March 1914, a

mining lease for thirty years was obtained in respect of sixty square miles of the Singar estate. The first intention was to work only the five square miles round Abrahki and a syndicate was formed for this purpose, which on the outbreak of war, was refused a Trading License on account of the German element in it.

Labour in Mines.

The question of the labour supply presents difficulties which are not encountered in countries where mining is a special calling. The majority of the persons working at the Indian coal mines are agriculturists, and the supply of labour, as experience has recently shown, depends to a material extent on the condition of the agricultural industry. "The major portion of those employed," says a report by the Department of Statistics, "are the aboriginal Dravidians from the mountainous country of Chota Nagpur and the Central Provinces, but a large number of other castes is also employed, particularly in the outlying fields. The majority of the workmen follow the vocation of agriculture as well as mining and return to their homes during the period of sowing and reaping, the result being that at such times the output of many of the mines is greatly restricted. At the Makum collieries of the

Assam Railway and Trading Company, where the labour question continues to be a very difficult one, nearly a third of the total labour force are Mekranis, Chinese, and Nepalese. The Chinese have, however, proved unsatisfactory, and it is unlikely that they will in future be recruited." With the increase in the depth of working the need for a skilled mining class will become accentuated, and if the price of coal remains at a sufficiently high level, further development in the introduction of coal-cutting plants may take place. During the period of high prices some nine years ago cutting plants were introduced in order to augment the output. These worked successfully, but the cost proved to be high and as labour conditions improved the machines were discarded.

The average number of persons employed daily in the coal-fields during 1923 remained practically the same as it was in 1922, while the average output per person employed showed a slight improvement, rising from 94.6 tons in 1922 to 97.8 tons during the year under report; in 1919 this figure was 111.05 tons. The number of deaths by accident was unusually large, totalling 363, and corresponding to a death-rate of 1.81 per thousand persons employed; in 1922 the total figure was 243 corresponding to a rate of 1.21 per thousand.

Average number of persons employed daily in the Indian Coalfields during 1922 and 1923:

	Number of persons employed daily.		Output per person employed.	Number of deaths by accident.	Death-rate per 1,000 persons employed.
	1922.	1923.			
Assam					
Baluchistan	3,636	3,901	83.6	13	3.3
Bengal	1,492	1,195	35.6	4	3.3
Bihar and Orissa	44,893	44,251	104.4	73	1.6
Burma	119,790	123,554	106.9	211	1.7
Central India	65	197	10.9	1	0.4
Central Provinces	2,595	2,762	63.7	1	0.4
Hyderabad	13,255	9,857	55.6	30	3.0
Punjab	13,402	13,558	48.6	28	2.1
Rajputana	1,686	1,544	41.1	1	0.6
	99	99	71.9	2	20.2
Total	200,913	200,918	97.8	363	1.81
Average					

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Stock Exchanges.

There are about 446 Share and Stock Brokers in Bombay. They carry on business in the Brokers' Hall, bought in 1899 from the funds of the Share and Stock Brokers' Association formed to facilitate the negotiations and the sale and purchase of Joint Stock securities promoted throughout the Presidency of Bombay. Their powers are defined by rules and regulations framed by the Board of Directors and approved by the general body of Brokers. The Board has the power to fix the rates in times of emergencies. The official address of the Secretary is Dalal Street, Fort, Bombay.

At first the admittance fee for a broker was Rs. 5 which was gradually raised to Rs. 7,000. The fee for the Broker's card has increased and it was recently sold by public auction for Rs. 21,800. The rules of the Association were revised in October 1916 and from the New Year the purchaser of shares has to pay the stamp and transfer fee instead of the seller. There are two classes of Exchange Brokers, Europeans and Indians, the latter being certified for recognition by the native Stock Exchange. Business in Government Paper and all other Trustees' Authorised Securities is carried on under the rules of the Bombay Stock Exchange, but in the street outside the hall.

In November 1917 a second Stock Exchange was opened in Bombay, with its headquarters in Apollo Street, known as the Bombay Stock Exchange, Ltd. This separate Exchange came to an end in 1921, when it was merged in the older body; it was revived in 1922 but complaint was made that it did very little, if any business.

Committee of Enquiry.—In 1923 the Government of Bombay appointed a Committee to enquire into the constitution, government, customs, practices, rules, regulations and methods of business of the Native Share and Stock Brokers' Association of Bombay and to investigate any such complaints of the public and to make any such enquiries with reference to any of the aforesaid matters or any other matter appertaining to the aforesaid Association as the Committee may deem proper and thereafter with a view to protect the investing public against the interested or irregular control of business to formulate such definite proposals for the future constitution, control, direction and regulation of the aforesaid Association as the Committee may deem proper.

The Committee issued a report early in 1924 signed by all the members save one who appended a minority report. The majority report made several important recommendations for reform, notably one aimed at the prevention of corners and another for facilitating the handling of legitimate complaints against the brokers on the part of the public. The Association, however, adopted the minority report which leaves the constitution and practice of the Exchange very little modified.

For many years the Calcutta Share Market had its meeting place in various gullies in the

business quarter and was under no control except that of established market custom. In 1908 the Calcutta Stock Exchange Association was formed, a building was leased in New China Bazar Street now called Royal Exchange Place, a representative committee was formed, and the existing trade customs were focussed into rules drawn up for the conduct of business. Admittance as a member of the Stock Exchange is by vote of the committee, and the entrance fee is at present Rs. 500. The market custom differs very materially from that of most other Stock Exchanges since there are no settlement days, delivery is due the second day after the contract is passed and sales of securities are effected for the most part under blank transfers. Another difference in procedure as compared with the London Stock Exchange is that there are no "Jobbers" in the Calcutta market. The Dealers who take their place, more or less, are not compelled to quote a buyer's and a seller's rate and are themselves Brokers as well as dealers, calling upon the Banks and other clients and competing with Brokers.

There are about 150 members, besides outside brokers, the former consisting of European, Jewish, Marwari, and Bengalee firms. The Marwaris predominate. The volume of *bona fide* investment business is comparatively small and insufficient for the number of Brokers. The principal business transacted on the Calcutta Stock Exchange is connected with the shares in Jute Mills, Coal Companies, Tea Companies registered in India, Miscellaneous Industrial concerns (such as Paper, Flour, Sugar), Railway and Transit Companies and Debentures, the latter comprising those of Industrial concerns and Trust Investment Securities, namely, Municipal and Port Trust Debentures. When speculative operations are being actively engaged in, which frequently take the form of forward contracts for delivery in three months' time, the value of securities changing hands may aggregate as much as a crore of Rupees per month, but since the trade is not constant and one year differs very much from another, it would be difficult to estimate what the average annual turn-over would amount to. The association has an honorary secretary and is not at present affiliated to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce.

The Madras Stock Exchange situated No. 9 Broadway (in Tata Industrial Bank Buildings) consists of about 100 Members of which 25 are working Members. It was opened on 26 April 1920 and deals principally in Mill shares. Business is regulated by rules drawn up by the Directors. There is a Board of arbitration. There is an admittance membership card of Rs. 1,000 and an annual subscription of Rs. 100. The original 100 members were elected by the first Directors and each of the working members have deposited a security of Rs. 3,000 which is held by the Stock Exchange Committee.

Chambers of Commerce.

Modern commerce in India was built up by merchants from the west and was for a long time entirely in their hands. Chambers of Commerce and numerous kindred Associations were formed by them for its protection and assistance. But Indians have in recent years, taken a large and growing part in this commercial life. The extent of their participation varies greatly in different parts of India, according to the natural proclivities and genius of different races. Bombay, for instance, has led the way in the industrial and commercial regeneration of the new India, while Bengal, very active in other fields of activity, lags behind in this one. Arising from these circumstances we find Chambers of Commerce in Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Madras and other important centres, with a membership both European and Indian; but alongside these have sprung up in recent years certain Associations, such as the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, of which the membership is exclusively Indian. These different classes of bodies are in no sense hostile to one another and constantly work in association.

The London Chamber of Commerce in 1912, realising the increasing attention demanded by the economic development of India, took steps to form an "East India Section" of their organization. The Indian Chambers work harmoniously with this body, but are in no sense affiliated to it, nor is there at present any inclination on their part to enter into such close relationship, because it is generally felt that the Indian Chambers can themselves achieve their objects better and more effectively than a London body could do for them, and on various occasions the London Chamber, or the East India Section of it have shown themselves out of touch with what seemed locally to be immediate requirements in particular matters.

A new movement was started in 1913 by the Hon. Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy Ibrahim, a leading millowner and public citizen of Bombay, which aims at effecting great improvement in strengthening Indian commercial organization. Sir Fazulbhoy's original plan was for the formation of an Indian Commercial Congress. The proposal met with approval in all parts of India. The scheme was delayed by the outbreak of war but afterwards received an impetus from the same cause and the first Congress was held in the 1915 Christmas holiday season in the Town Hall, Bombay. The list of members of the Reception Committee showed that all the important commercial associations of Bombay were prepared to co-operate actively.

The Congress was attended by several hundred delegates from all parts of India. Mr. (now the Hon. Sir) D. E. Wacha, President of the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber, presided, as Chairman of the Reception Committee, at the opening of the proceedings and the first business was the election of Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy as the first President. The Congress resolved upon the establishment of an Associated Indian Chamber of Commerce, and elected a Provincial Committee empowered to

take the necessary steps to get the Association registered and to enrol members and carry on work. The Congress also approved of the draft constitution.

The following are the principal paragraphs of a Memorandum of Association of the new Associated Chamber as approved by the Congress:—

I. The name of the Chamber will be "THE ASSOCIATED INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE."

II. The Registered Office of the Chamber will be in Bombay.

III. The objects for which the Chamber is established are:—

(a) To discuss and consider questions concerning and affecting trade, commerce, manufactures, and the shipping interests, at meeting of delegates from Indian Chambers of Commerce and Commercial Associations or Bodies and to collect and disseminate information from time to time on matters affecting the common interests of such Chambers or Associations or Bodies and the commercial, manufacturing and shipping interests of the country.

(b) To communicate the opinions of the Chambers of Commerce and other Commercial Associations or Bodies separately or unitedly, to the Government or to the various departments thereof, by letter, memorial, deputation or otherwise.

(c) To petition Parliament or the Government of India or any Local Government or authority on any matter affecting trade, commerce, manufacture or shipping.

(d) To prepare and promote in Parliament or in the Legislative Councils of India, both Imperial and Provincial, Bills in the interest of trade, commerce, manufactures, and shipping of the country and to oppose measures which in the opinion of the Chamber, are likely to be injurious to those interests.

(e) To attain those advantages by united action which each Chamber or Association or body may not be able to accomplish in its separate capacity.

(f) To have power to establish an office either in England or in any part of British India with an Agent there, in order to ensure to the various Chambers early and reliable information on matters affecting their interests and to facilitate communication between the Chamber or individual chambers and the Government or other public bodies, and generally to conduct and carry on the affairs of the Chamber.

(g) To organise Chambers of Commerce, Commercial Associations or Bodies in different trade centres of the Country.

(h) To convene when necessary the Indian Commercial Congress at such places and at such times as may be determined by a Resolution of the Chamber.

(i) To do all such other things as may be incidental or conducive to the above objects.

The Articles of Association provide for the management of the Chamber by an Executive Council composed of a President, Vice-President, and ten other members elected at the annual meeting of the Associated Chamber, the Executive Council to present a report and statement of accounts at each annual meeting.

BENGAL.

The Bengal Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1834. Its headquarters are in Calcutta. Other societies connected with the trade and commerce of the city are the Royal Exchange, the Bengal Bonded Warehouse Association, the Calcutta Trades Association, the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce and the Marwari Chamber of Commerce. The Bengal Chamber is registered with a declaration of membership of 300. Its objects are the usual purposes connected with the protection of trade "in particular in Calcutta." There are two classes of members. Permanent (Chamber and Associate) and Honorary.

Merchants, bankers, shipowners, representatives of commercial, railway and insurance companies, brokers, persons and firms engaged in commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and joint stock companies or other corporations, formed for any purpose or object connected with commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and persons engaged in or connected with art, science or literature, may be elected as permanent members of the Chamber.

The following are the office bearers of the Chamber for the year 1924-25:—

President.—Mr. William C. Currie, M.L.C. (Mackinnon, Mackenzie & Co.).

Vice-President.—Mr. Kenneth Campbell (Messrs. Shaw, Wallace & Co.).

Committee.—Mr. R. N. Band, M.L.C. (Messrs. Thos. Duff & Co., Ltd.); Sir Willoughby Carey, M.L.C. (Messrs. Bird & Co.); Mr. J. B. Crichton (Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd.); Mr. B. E. G. Eddis, M.L.C. (Messrs. Gillanders, Arbuthnot & Co.); Mr. H. C. Edmondson (Messrs. Turner, Morrison & Co., Ltd.); Colonel G. R. Hearn, C.I.E., D.S.O. (Agent, Eastern Bengal Railway); Mr. J. A. Tassie (Messrs. James Finlay & Co., Ltd.).

The Secretary of the Chamber is Mr. H. M. Haywood, C.I.E. Asst. Secys.—Mr. D. K. Gunnison and Mr. A. C. Daniel.

The following are the public bodies (among others) to which the Chamber has the right of returning representatives, and the representatives returned for the current year:—

Council of State.—The Hon'ble Mr. J. W. A. Bell.

Bengal Legislative Council.—Mr. William C. Currie, Sir George Godfrey, Mr. George Morgan, Mr. J. Y. Phillip, Mr. S. A. Skinner, Mr. B. E. G. Eddis.

The Articles declare the number of members of the Associated Chamber not to exceed one hundred, and the Executive Council are given power to elect honorary members. "There shall be an annual meeting of the Associated Indian Chamber held at Bombay on a date to be fixed by the Executive Council in the month of February," or at some other time, and "semi-annual or special meetings . . . may be convened by the Executive Council or on the requisition of one-third of the total number of members addressed to the Secretary . . ."

The following are details of the principal Chambers of Commerce and kindred bodies in India at the present time:—

Calcutta Port Commission.—Sir Willoughby Carey, M.L.C. (Bird & Co.), Mr. William C. Currie, M.L.C. (Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co.), Mr. H. C. Edmondson (Turner, Morrison & Co., Ltd.), Mr. J. A. Tassie (James Finlay & Co., Ltd.), Mr. W. P. Reynolds (Macneill & Co.), Mr. B. E. G. Eddis (Gillanders, Arbuthnot & Co.).

Calcutta Municipal Corporation.—Mr. D. J. Dalgarno (Marshall Sons & Co., India, Ltd.), Mr. J. Campbell Forrester, M.L.C. (Smith, Forrester & Co.), Mr. Geo. Morgan, M.L.C. (Morgan, Walker & Co.), Mr. Norman R. Luke (James Luke & Sons), Mr. H. G. Pooler (John Dickinson & Co., Ltd.), Mr. D. C. Stewart-Smith, Octavius Steel & Co., Ltd.).

Bengal Boiler Commission.—Messrs. R. Neish (Tittagarh Jute Mills Co., Ltd., No. 2), H. H. Reynolds (Andrew Yule & Co.) and H. E. Skinner, M.L.C. (Jessop & Co., Ltd.).

Board of Trustees of the Indian Museum.—Mr. H. C. Edmondson (Turner, Morrison & Co., Ltd.).

Bengal Smoke Nuisances Commission.—Messrs. T. M. Shewell (Burn & Co., Ltd.) and C. Robertson (Union Jute Coy.'s, S. Mill.).

Calcutta Improvement Trust.—Mr. A. H. Johnstone, B.A., B.E., A.M.I.C.E. (East Indian Railway).

The Chamber elects representatives to various other bodies of less importance, such as the committee of the Calcutta Sailors' Home, and to numerous subsidiary associations. The following are the recognised associations of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce:—

Calcutta Wheat and Seed Trade Association, Indian Jute Mills Association, Indian Tea Association, Calcutta Tea Traders Association, Calcutta Fire Insurance Association, Calcutta Import Trade Association, Calcutta Marine Insurance Agents' Association, The Wine, Spirit and Beer Association of India, Indian Mining Association, Calcutta Baled Jute Association, Indian Paper Makers' Association, Indian Engineering Association, Calcutta Jute Fabric Shippers' Association, Calcutta Hydraulic Press Association, Jute Fabric Brokers' Association, Baled Jute Shippers' Association, Calcutta Jute Dealers' Association, Calcutta Liners' Conference, Calcutta Hides and Skins Shippers' Association, Northern India Tanners' Federation, Indian Indigo Association, Indian Lac Association for Research and Calcutta Accident Insurance Association.

The Chamber maintains a Tribunal of Arbitration for the determination, settlement and adjustment of disputes and differences relating to trade, business, manufactures, and to customs of trade, between parties, all or any of whom reside or carry on business personally or by agent or otherwise in Calcutta, or elsewhere in India or Burmah, by whomsoever of such parties the said disputes and differences be submitted. The Secretary of the Chamber acts as the Registrar of the Tribunal, which consists of such members or assistants to members as may, from time to time, annually or otherwise be selected by the Registrar and willing to serve on the Tribunal. The Registrar from time to time makes a list of such members and assistants.

The Chamber also maintains a Licensed Measurers Department controlled by a special

committee. It includes a Superintendent (Mr. R. Ellis), Deputy Superintendent (Mr. A. H. Lugg), Head Office Manager (Mr. C. G. Smith) and three Assistant Superintendents (Messrs. J. G. Smyth), A. H. Mathews, and G. C. G. Smyth and the staff at the time of the last official returns consisted of 112 officers. The usual system of work for the benefit of the trade of the port is followed. The Department has its own provident fund and compassionate funds and Measurers' Club. The Chamber does not assist in the preparation of official statistical returns. It publishes weekly the *Calcutta Prices Current*, and its Monthly Supplement, and also publishes a large number of statistical circulars of various descriptions in addition to a monthly abstract of proceedings and many other circulars on matters under discussion.

BOMBAY.

The object and duties of the Bombay Chamber, as set forth in their rules and regulations, are to encourage a friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men on all subjects involving their common good; to promote and protect the general mercantile interests of this Presidency; to collect and classify information on all matters of general commercial interest; to obtain the removal, as far as such a Society can, of all acknowledged grievances affecting merchants as a body, or mercantile interests in general; to receive and decide references on matters of usage and custom in dispute, recording such decisions for future guidance, and by this and such other means, as the Committee for the time being may think fit, assisting to form a code of practice for simplifying and facilitating business; to communicate with the public authorities, with similar Associations in other places and with individuals, on all subjects of general mercantile interests; and to arbitrate between parties willing to refer to, and abide by, the judgment of the Chamber.

The Bombay Chamber was established in 1836, under the auspices of Sir Robert Grant, who was then Governor of the Presidency, and the programme described above was embodied in their first set of rules. There is affiliated with the Chamber the Bombay Millowners' Association, which exists to carry out the same general objects as the Chamber in the special interests of "millowners and users of steam and water power." According to the latest returns, the number of Chamber members is 144 and the number of Associated members is 2. Of these numbers 19 represent banking institutions, 7 shipping agencies and companies, 3 firms of solicitors, 3 railway companies, 6 insurance companies, 16 engineers and contractors, 92 firms engaged in general mercantile business.

All persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits desirous of joining the Chamber and disposed to aid in carrying its objects into effect are eligible to election to membership by ballot. The Chamber member's subscription is Rs. 360 and the Associate member's subscription is Rs. 300 per annum and an additional charge of

Rs. 640 per annum is made to firms as subscription to the trade returns published by the Chamber. Gentlemen distinguished for public services, or "eminent in commerce and manufactures," may be elected honorary members and as such are exempt from paying subscriptions. Any stranger engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits and visiting the Presidency may be introduced as a visitor by any Member of the Chamber inserting his name in a book to be kept for the purpose, but a residence of two months shall subject him to the rule for the admission of members.

Officers of the Year.

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a committee of nine ordinary members, consisting of the chairman and deputy-chairman and seven members. The committee must, as a rule, meet at least once a week and the minutes of its proceedings are open to inspection by all members of the Chamber, subject to such regulations as the committee may make in regard to the matter. A general meeting of the Chamber must be held once a year and ten or more members may requisition, through the officers of the Chamber, a special meeting at any time, for a specific purpose.

The Chamber elects representatives as follows to various public bodies:—

The Council of State, one representative.

Legislative Council of the Governor of Bombay, two representatives.

Bombay Municipal Corporation, one member, elected for three years.

Board of Trustees for the Improvement of the City of Bombay, one member, elected for two years.

Board of Trustees of the Port of Bombay, five members, elected for two years.

Representatives on the Legislative Councils become ex-officio members of the committee of the Chamber, during their terms of office, if they are not already members.

The following are the officers of the Chamber for the year 1924-25 and their representatives on the various public bodies:—

Chairman.—L. S. Hudson, Esq., M.L.C.

Deputy Chairman.—V. A. Grantham, Esq., M.L.C.

Committee.—Major-General Sir Henry Freeland, K.C.I.E., C.B., D.S.O., M.V.O., T. E. Cunningham, Esq., C. H. Goodall, Esq., A. K. Graham, Esq., J. Muller, Esq., Major G. C. Richardson, D.S.O., M.C., W. P. G. Taggart, Esq.

Secretary.—Mr. C. B. Sayer.

Representatives on—

Council of State: The Hon'ble Sir Arthur Froom, Kt.

Bombay Legislative Council: L. S. Hudson, Esq., and V. A. Grantham, Esq.

Bombay Port Trust: L. S. Hudson, Esq., M.L.C., A. K. Graham, Esq., T. E. Cunningham, Esq., V. A. Grantham, Esq., M.L.C., F. C. Annesley, Esq.

Bombay Improvement Trust: Harry T. Gorrie, Esq.

Bombay Municipal Corporation: D. W. Wilson, Esq., C.I.E.

Sydenham College of Commerce Advisory Board: L. S. Hudson, Esq., M.L.C., E. C. Dalton, Esq.

Representative on the Railway Committee: G. I. P.—F. C. Annesley, Esq.
B.B. & C.I.—F. C. Annesley, Esq.

Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission: B. Brown, Esq.

St. George's Hospital Advisory Committee: C. H. Goodall, Esq.

Indigenous Industries Advisory Committee: A. B. Morrison, Esq.

Indian Central Cotton Committee: Y. A. Grantham, Esq.

Empire Cotton Growing Corporation: Osborne Marshall, Esq.

Advisory Committee to the Director of Development: E. C. Reid, Esq.

Auxiliary Force Advisory Committee: D. W. Wilson, Esq., C.I.E.

Ex. Officers Association, (India): L. S. Hudson, Esq., M.L.C. (Ex.-Office.)

Army Canteen Board (India): L. S. Hudson, Esq., M.L.C.

Special Work.

One of the most important functions performed by the Chamber is that of arbitration in commercial disputes. Rules for this have been in existence for many years and have worked most satisfactorily. The decisions are in all cases given by competent arbitrators appointed by the General Committee of the Chamber and the system avoids the great expense of resort to the Law Courts.

A special department of the Bombay Chamber is its Statistical Department, which prepares a large amount of statistical returns connected with the trade of the port and of great importance to the conduct of commerce. The department consists of fourteen Indian clerks who, by the authority of Government,

work in the Customs House and have every facility placed at their disposal by the Customs authorities. They compile all the statistical information in connection with the trade of the port, in both export and import divisions, which it is desirable to record. No other Chamber in India does similar work.

The Bombay Chamber publishes a Daily Arrival Return which shows the receipts into Bombay of cotton, wheat and seeds, and a Daily Trade Return, which deals with trade by sea and shows in great detail imports of various kinds of merchandise and of treasure, while the same return contains particulars of the movements of merchant vessels.

The Chamber publishes twice a week detailed reports known as Import and Export manifests, which give particulars of the cargo carried by each steamer to and from Bombay.

Three statements are issued once a month. One shows the quantity of exports of cotton, seeds and wheat from the principal ports of the whole of India. The second gives in detail imports from Europe, more particularly in regard to grey cloths, bleached cloths, Turkey red and scarlet cloths, printed and dyed goods, fancy cloth of various descriptions, woollens, yarns, metals, kerosine oil, coal, aniline dyes, sugar, matches, wines and other sundry goods. The third statement is headed, "Movements of Piece Goods and Yarn by Rail," and shows the despatches of imported and local manufactured piece-goods and yarn from Bombay to other centres of trade served by the railways.

The "Weekly Return" issued by the Chamber shows clearances of a large number of important destinations of merchandise. A return of "Current Quotations" is issued once a week, on the day of the departure of the English mail, and shows the rates of exchange for Bank and Mercantile Bills on England and Paris, and a large quantity of general banking and trade information.

The annual reports of the Chamber are substantial tomes in which the whole of the affairs of the Chamber and the trade of the port during the past year are reviewed.

The Chamber has also a Measurement Department with a staff of 18, whose business is that of actual measurement of exports in the docks before loading in steamers. Certificates are issued by these officers with the authority of the Chamber to shippers and ship agents as to the measurement of cotton and other goods in bales or packages. The measurers are in attendance on the quays whenever there are goods to be measured and during the busy season are on duty early and late. The certificates granted show the following details:—

- the date, hour and place of measurement;
- the name of the shipper;
- the name of the vessel;
- the port of destination;
- the number and description of packages;
- the marks;
- the measurement; and, in the case of goods shipped by boats;
- the registered number of the boat;
- the name of the tidal.

Bombay Millowners' Association.

The Bombay Millowners' Association was established in 1875 and its objects are as follows:—

- The protection of the interests of millowners and users of steam water and/or electric power in India.
- The promotion of good relations between the persons and bodies using such power.
- The doing of all those acts and things by which these objects may be furthered.

Any individual partnership or company, owning one or more mill or mills or one or more press or presses or one or more ginning or other factory or factories actuated by steam, water, electric and/or other power is eligible for membership, members being elected by ballot. Every member is entitled to one vote for every complete sum of Rs. 50 paid by him as annual subscription.

The membership of the Association in 1924 numbered 97.

The following is the Committee for 1924:—

S. D. Saklatvala, Esq. (Chairman), A. Geddis, Esq. (Deputy Chairman), Sir Dinshaw M. Petit, Bart., The Hon'ble Sir Dinshaw E. Wacha, Kt., Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy, Kt., C.B.E., H. F. Commissariat, Esq., J. A. Kay, Esq., M.L.C., H. P. Mody, Esq., Ratanji D. Morarji, Esq., Laljee Naranjee, Esq., M.L.C., Jehangir B. Petit, Esq., Mumtazdas Ramji, Esq., N. B. Saklatvala, Esq., C.I.E., Captain E. V. Sassoon, H. H. Sawyer, Esq., F. F. Stileman, Esq., F. Stones, Esq., O.B.E., Madhooji D. Thackersey, Esq., C. N. Wadia, Esq., C.I.E., M.L.C., T. Watts, Esq., T. Maloney, Esq., M. O. A. M. O. T., Secretary, J. P. Wadia, Esq., B.A., Asst. Secretary.

The following are the Association's Representatives on public bodies:—

Bombay Legislative Council: Mr. C. N. Wadia, C.I.E., M.L.C.

Bombay Port Trust: Mr. N. B. Saklatvala, C.I.E.

City of Bombay Improvement Trust: Mr. S. D. Saklatvala.

Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute: Messrs. Jehangir B. Petit and C. N. Wadia, C.I.E., M.L.C.

Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission: Messrs. N. B. Saklatvala, C.I.E., and W. A. Sutherland.

Advisory Board of Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics: Mr. S. D. Saklatvala.

Central Cotton Committee: Mr. J. A. Kay, M.L.C.

Development of Bombay Advisory Committee: Mr. Jehangir B. Petit.

Bombay Technical and Industrial Educational Committee: Mr. J. A. Kay, M.L.C.

Royal Institute of Science Advisory Committee: Mr. J. A. Kay, M.L.C.

League of Nations—Commission of Enquiry: Mr. J. A. Kay, M.L.C.

G. I. P. Railway Advisory Committee: Mr. A. Geddis.

B. R. & C. I. Railway Advisory Committee: Mr. Mumtazdas Ramji.

Bombay Municipal Corporation: Mr. H. P. Mody.

The Office of the Association is located in Sohrab House, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay, and the telephone number is 25350.

Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd.

The Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd., was registered on 30th June 1924, as a Company limited by guarantee. The registered office of the Association is located in Sohrab House, Hornby Road, Bombay.

The objects of the Association are:—

- The mutual insurance of members of the Company against liability to pay compensation or damages to workmen employed by them or their dependents, for injuries or accidents, fatal or otherwise, arising out of and in the course of their employment;
- The insurance of members of the Company against loss or damage by or incidental to fire, lightning, etc.; and
- to reinsure or in any way provide for or against the liability of the Company upon any assurances granted or entered into by the Company, and generally to effect and obtain re-insurances, counter-insurances and counter-guarantees, etc., etc.

The Association consisted of 57 members on 1st November 1924.

All members of the Millowners' Association are eligible for admission to the Mutual Company. Non-members are also eligible for membership of the Mutual, provided their application is approved of by the Committee of the Millowners' Association.

The affairs of the Mutual Insurance Association are under the control of a Board of Directors.

The present Directors are:—

Mr. S. D. Saklatvala, Chairman, Mr. A. Geddis, Capt. E. V. Sassoon, Mr. J. A. Kay, Mr. C. N. Wadia, Mr. Mumtazdas Ramji, Mr. G. M. Rose, and Mr. B. K. Mantri, B.A., Bar-at-Law, Secretary of the Association.

Indian Merchants' Chamber.

The Indian Merchants' Chamber was established in the year 1907. Its objects are:—

- To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among business community on all subjects connected with the common good of Indian merchants.
- To secure organised action on all subjects relating to the interests of the Indian business community directly and indirectly.

- (c) To promote the objects of the Indian business community in matters of inland and foreign trade, shipping and transport, industry and manufacture, banking and insurance.
- (d) To collect and disseminate statistical and other information securing the promotion of the objects of the Chamber and to make efforts for the spread of commercial and economic knowledge.
- (e) To take all steps which may be necessary for promoting, supporting or opposing legislation or other action affecting the aforesaid interests by the Government or any Department thereof or by any local body or bodies and in general to take the initiative to secure the welfare of the business community in all respects.
- (f) To make representations to Local Central or Imperial authorities, Executive or Legislative on any matter affecting trade, commerce, manufacture or shipping, banking or insurance.
- (g) To undertake by arbitration the settlement of commercial disputes between merchants and businessmen and also to provide for arbitration in respect of disputes arising in the course of trade, industry or transport, and to secure the services of expert technical and other men to that end if necessary or desirable.
- (h) To advance and promote commercial and technical education and to found and support establishments and institutions for such purposes.
- (i) To undertake special enquiries and action for securing redress for legitimate grievances of any branch of trade or industry as also all such other actions as may be conducive to the extension of trade, commerce or manufactures, or incidental to the attainment of the above objects.
- (j) To secure the interests and well-being of the Indian business communities abroad.
- (k) And generally to do all that may be necessary in the interests of the realisation of the above objects of the Chamber directly or indirectly.

There are three classes of members:—

- (1) Ordinary, (2) Patrons and (3) Honorary.
- (1) There are three classes of ordinary members:—
- (a)—Residents of Bombay and its suburbs who will have to pay Rs. 75 as annual subscription; but joint stock Companies will have to pay Rs. 100 per year.
- (b)—Movable members who will have to pay Rs. 25 as annual subscription.
- (c)—Associations which will have to pay Rs. 125 as annual subscription.

Admission Fee.—All the ordinary members and patrons pay Rs. 100 as admission fee which is credited to a capital fund of the Chamber and not expended on revenue account except with the consent of the general body.

- (2) **Patrons.**—Indian firms or individual Indian merchants can join as patrons. Firms will have to pay Rs. 5,000 and individuals Rs. 2,500 as donation, the proceeds of which will be credited to a capital fund which shall not be expended on revenue account but the interest whereof shall be taken to revenue account.
- (3) **Honorary members.**—Gentlemen distinguished for public services or eminent in commerce and manufactures or otherwise interested in the aims and objects of the Chamber may be elected as Honorary members by a General Meeting of the Chamber on the recommendation of the Committee and as such shall be exempted from paying subscriptions. They shall not be entitled to vote at any meeting of the Chamber nor shall they be eligible to serve on the Committee.

Any Indian gentleman, firm or association engaged in mercantile pursuits or interested in trade and commerce desirous of joining the Chamber shall be eligible for membership.

The following bodies are connected directly and indirectly with the Chamber:—

- The Grain Merchants' Association (which is a member).
- The Hindustani Native Merchants' Association (which is a member).
- The Bombay Rice Merchants' Association.
- The Bombay Yarn, Copper and Brass Native Merchants' Association.
- The Mauritius Shippers' Association.
- The Bombay Shroff Association.
- The Bombay Diamond Merchants' Association.
- The Bombay Pearl Merchants' and Jewellers' Association.
- The Bombay Bullion Exchange, Ltd.
- The Bombay Paper and Stationery Merchants' Association.
- The Ghee Merchants' Association, Bombay.
- The Japan and Shanghai Silk Merchants' Association, Bombay.
- The Sugar Merchants' Association.
- The Indian Match Manufacturers' Association.

Under the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms, the Chamber has the right of electing one representative on the Indian Legislative Assembly and one on the Bombay Legislative Council. The Chamber also has the right to elect five representatives on the Bombay Port Trust and one representative on the Bombay Municipal Corporation.

The following are the Office-bearers of the Indian Merchants' Chamber for the year 1924:—

Manmohandas Ramji, Esq., J.P. (President).
The Honourable Mr. Phiroze C. Sethna, O.B.E. (Vice-President).

(Members.)

Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E., M.L.A.
Sir Fazulbhai Currimbhai, Kt., O.B.E.
Lalji Naranji, Esq., M.L.C.
Jehangir Bomanji Petit, Esq.
Honourable Mr. Lalubhai Samaldas, C.I.E.
Ishwardas Laxmidas, Esq.
Devidas Madhavji Thakersey, Esq.
Laxmidas Rowjee Tairsee, Esq.
H. F. Macdon, Esq.
S. N. Pochkhanawalla, Esq.
S. R. Billimoria, Esq.
Motilal Kanji, Esq.
Jamnadas Dwarakadas, Esq.
Fazal Ibrahim Rahimtoola, Esq.
Mavji Govindji Seth, Esq.
Gulabchand Devchand Javeri, Esq.
H. P. Mody, Esq.
Morarji Mulraj Khatan, Esq.
Vallabhdas Chaturbhuj Shivjee, Esq.
Walchand Hirchand, Esq.
M. V. Merchant, Esq.
B. Das, Esq., M.L.A.
Motilal Vallabhlal, Esq.

(Co-opted Members.)

M. M. Amersey, Esq.
Kaikobad Cowasji Dinshaw, Esq.
Manu Subedar, Esq.
Prof. Khushal T. Shah.
Madhavji D. Thakersey, Esq.

(Ex-officio Member.)

Chhotalal Kilachand, Esq. (Bombay Port Trust).

The following are the Chamber's representatives on various public bodies:—

Indian Legislative Assembly: Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, C.I.E., M.P.E., M.L.A.
Bombay Legislative Council: Mr. Lalji Naranji, M.L.C.
Chamber's Representatives on the Board of Trustees of the Bombay Port Trust: Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, C.I.E., M.B.E., Mr. Devidas Madhavji Thakersey, Mr. Chhotalal Kilachand Devchand, Mr. Ishwardas Laxmidas, Mr. Lalji Naranji, M.L.C.
Chamber's Representative on the Bombay Municipal Corporation: Mr. Ishwardas Laxmidas.
Representative on the Advisory Committee to the Bombay Development Department: Mr. Manu Subedar.

Representative on the Indian Central Cotton Committee: Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, C.I.E., M.B.E.

Representative on the Advisory Committee of the Royal Institute of Science in Bombay: Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, C.I.E., M.B.E.
Representative on the Advisory Committee of the Grant Medical College, Bombay: Mr. Manmohandas Ramji. (Ex-officio.)

Secretary: Mr. J. K. Mehta, M.A.

Assistant Secretary: Mr. K. M. Desai, B. Com.

The Chamber's Anglo-Gujarati Quarterly is published in July, October, January and April.

Bombay Native Piece-Goods Merchants' Association.

The objects of the Association are as follow:—
(a) To promote by creating friendly feelings and unity amongst the Merchants, the business of the piece-goods trade in general at Bombay, and to protect the interest thereof; (b) to remove as far as it will be within the powers of the Association to do so, all the trade difficulties of the piece-goods business and to frame such line of conduct as will facilitate the trade; (c) to collect and assort statistics relating to piece-goods and to correspond with public bodies on matters affecting trade, and which may be deemed advisable for the protection and advancement of objects of the Association or any of them; and (d) to hear and decide disputes that may be referred to for arbitration.

The following are the office-bearers for the current year:—

Chairman.—Mr. Manmohandas Ramji, J.P.
Deputy Chairman.—Mr. Devidas Madhavji Thakersey, J.P.
Hon. Joint Secretaries.—Messrs. Goculdas Jivraj Dayal and Hurjiwan Walji.
Hon. Treasurer.—Mr. Mulji Laxmidas.

Grain Merchants' Association.

The object of this body is "to promote the interests of the merchants and to put the grain and oil-seeds trade on a sound footing." It is an influential body of large membership. The office holders for the current year are as follow:—

Chairman.—Mr. Velji Lakhamsi, B.A., LL.B.
Vice-Chairman.—Mr. Purshotam Rajji.
Hon. Secretary.—Mr. Nathoo Cooverji.
Secretary.—Mr. Uttamram Ambaram, B.A., LL.B.
The address of the Association is 262, Masjid Bunder Road.

KARACHI.

The objects and duties of the Karachi Chamber of Commerce are set forth in terms similar to those of Bombay. Qualifications for membership are also similar. Honorary Membership may be conferred upon "any gentlemen interested in the affairs and objects of the Chamber" subject to election by the majority of votes of members. All new members joining the Chamber pay Rs. 500 entrance fee and the monthly subscription is Rs. 18. The subscription to the Chamber's periodical returns is at present fixed at Rs. 5 per month. The affairs of the Chamber are managed by a committee of ten members, consisting of a Chairman, Vice-Chairman and eight members, elected at the annual meeting of the Chamber as early in the year as possible. The Chamber elects a representative on the Bombay Legislative

Council, three representatives on the Karachi Port Trust and two on the Karachi Municipality. There were last year 65 members of the Chamber. The following are the officers for the current year:—

Chairman.—Mr. F. Clayton, C.I.E., M.L.C. (Fleming, Shaw & Co.).

Vice-Chairman.—R. D. England, Esq. (Messrs. Grahams Trading Co., Ltd.).

Committee.—Messrs. J. R. Affeltranger (Volckart Brothers), J. R. Baxter (Mackinnon, Mackenzie & Co.), O. H. H. Chessall (National Bank of India Ltd.), C. C. Demetriadi (Ralli Brothers), J. Herbertson (James Finlay & Co.), E. A. Pearson (Forbes, Campbell & Co., Ltd.), A. I. Sleigh (North Western Railway) and H. C. Whitehouse.

Representatives on the Bombay Legislative Council.—Mr. F. Clayton, M.L.C.

Representatives on the Karachi Port Trust.—Mr. F. Clayton, M.L.C., Mr. C. C. Demetriadi & Mr. J. R. Baxter.

Representatives on the Karachi Municipality.—Mr. F. R. Hawkes, O.B.E. & Mr. E. G. H. Mewburn.

Secretary.—Major Alan Duguid, A.F.C., late R.A.F.
Public Measurer.—Major Alan Duguid (Ag.)

The following are the principal ways in which the Chamber gives a special assistance to members. The Committee take into consideration and give an opinion upon questions submitted by members regarding the custom of the trade or of the Port of Karachi. The Committee undertake to nominate European surveyors for the settlements of disputes "as to the quality or condition of merchandise in which both parties desire the Chamber to do so." When two members of the Chamber or when one member and a party who is not a member have agreed to refer disputes to the arbitration of the Chamber or of an arbitrator or arbitrators nominated by the Chamber, the Committee will undertake to nominate an arbitrator or arbitrators, under certain regulations. Similarly, the Chamber under certain regulations, will undertake to appoint an arbitrator or arbitrators for the settlement of disputes in which neither of the parties are members of the Chamber. A public measurer is appointed under the authority of the Chamber to measure pressed bales of cotton, wool hides and other merchandise arriving at or leaving the port.

MADRAS.

The Madras Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1836. All merchants and other persons engaged or interested in the general trade, commerce and manufactures of Madras are eligible for membership. Any assistant signing a firm or signing *per-pro* for a firm is eligible. Members who are absent from Madras but pay their subscriptions may be represented in the Chamber by their powers-of-attorney, as honorary members, subject to ballot. Honorary members thus elected are entitled to the full privilege of ordinary members. Election for membership as by ballot at a general meeting, a majority of two-thirds of the recorded votes being necessary to secure election. Every member pays an entrance fee of Rs. 100, provided that banks, corporate bodies and mercantile firms may be represented on the Chamber by one or more members and are liable for an entrance fee of Rs. 100 once in ten years each. The subscriptions shall not exceed Rs. 300 per annum, payable quarterly in advance, subject to reduction from time to time in accordance with the state of the Chambers' finances. Absentees in Europe pay no subscription and members temporarily absent from Madras pay one rupee per month. Honorary members are admissible to the Chamber on the usual conditions. Members becoming insolvent cease to be members but are eligible for re-election without repayment of the entrance donation.

The Chamber undertakes arbitrations and surveys the granting of certificates of origin and the registration of trade marks. One of the rules for the last named is "that no trade mark on ticket shall be registered on behalf of an Indian firm trading under a European name."

The following publications are issued by the Chamber:—Madras Price Current and Market Report, Tonnage Schedule and Madras Landing Charges and Harbour Dues Schedule.

There are 49 members and eight honorary members of the Chamber in the current year and the officers and committee for the year are as follows:—

Chairman.—Mr. T. M. Ross.

Vice-Chairman.—Sir James Simpson.

Committee.—Mr. W. M. Browning, Mr. H. F. P. Hearson, Mr. W. Lamb, Mr. C. H. Straker, Mr. W. C. Wright.

The following are bodies to which the Chamber are entitled to elect representatives, and the representatives elected for the year:—

Madras Legislative Council.—Mr. T. M. Ross and Sir James Simpson.

Madras Port Trust.—Mr. T. M. Ross, Sir James Simpson, Mr. H. F. P. Hearson & G. W. Chambers.

Corporation of Madras.—Mr. A. B. Bradshaw, Mr. D. E. Bremner & Mr. A. J. Powell.

British Imperial Council of Commerce, London.—Mr. A. D. Jackson (Europe).

Secretary.—Mr. H. Waddington.

Southern India Chamber.

The Southern India Chamber of Commerce has its Registered Office in Madras. The objects of the Chamber are those usual for such bodies, concerning the promotion of trade, especially in the Madras Presidency, and the interests of members. Special objects are stated to be:—

"To maintain a Library of books and publications of commercial interest, so as to diffuse commercial information and knowledge amongst its members."

"To establish Museums of commercial products or organise exhibitions, either on behalf of the Chamber or in co-operation with others."

There are two classes of members, permanent and honorary. The usual conditions as to eligibility for election prevail.

The right of electing two representatives to the Madras Port Trust was accorded to the Chamber by the Madras Port Trust Amendment Act, 1915. Members of the Chamber hold seats in the Madras Legislative Council and the Chamber has also been accorded the right of electing a representative to that body. Under the Madras City Municipal Act, 1919, the Chamber has the right of electing two Councillors to the Madras Corporation.

UPPER INDIA CHAMBER.

The Upper India Chamber of Commerce is concerned with trade, commerce and manufactures in the United Provinces and has its registered office at Cawnpore. Members are elected by the Committee, subject to confirmation by the next general meeting of the Chamber. Gentlemen distinguished for public service, or eminent in commerce or manufactures, may be elected honorary members of the Chamber by the members in a General Meeting and such shall be exempted from paying any subscription to the Chamber. There is no entrance fee for membership, but subscriptions are payable as follows:—A firm, company or association having its place of business in Cawnpore, Rs. 200 a year; an individual member, resident or carrying on business in Cawnpore, Rs. 100; firms or individuals having their places of business or residence outside Cawnpore pay half the above rates, but the maintenance of a branch office in Cawnpore necessitates payment of full rates.

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a Committee of ten members, which has power to constitute Local Committees, of from four to seven members each, at trade centres where membership is sufficiently numerous to justify the step. Such Local Committees have power to communicate only with the Central Committee.

PUNJAB.

The Punjab Chamber of Commerce has its headquarters at Delhi and exists for the care of mercantile interests on the usual lines in the Punjab, the North West Frontier Province and Kashmir. The Chamber has Branches at Amritsar and Lahore. Membership is by ballot and is restricted to Banks, Merchants (wholesale), Railways and proprietors of large industrial interests. The entrance fee is Rs. 100 and the rate of subscription Rs. 180 per year. The Chamber returns one member to a seat on the Reformed Punjab Legislative Council jointly with the Punjab Trades Association, and shares representation in the Indian Legislative Assembly with other Chambers which are members of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, in the seat allotted to the Associated Chambers. The Chamber is a member of the British Imperial Council of Commerce, London, and is represented in England by Sir James Walker, K.C.I.E. The Chamber is also represented on the Municipal Corporation of Amritsar and Delhi as well as on the East Indian Railway Advisory Committee, Cawnpore, the Cotton Excise Duties Advisory Committee, Bombay; and the Auxiliary Forces Committees, Delhi & Lahore Military Areas.

President.—Sir M. Ct. Muthia Chetty.

Vice-Presidents.—Dewan Bahadur Govindas Chathoorbhujadas and Mr. C. Abdul Hakim Sahib.

Honorary Secretaries.—Mahomed Musa Salt and C. Gopala Menon.

Assistant Secretary.—C. Duraiswamy Aiyangar, B.A.

The Chamber appoints arbitration Tribunals for the settlement and adjustment of disputes when invited, to do so, members of the tribunals being selected from a regular printed list of arbitrators.

The Chamber has in the present year 79 members, three honorary members and six affiliated members.

The following are the officers:—

Upper India Chamber of Commerce Committee, **President**.—Mr. A. B. Shakespear, C.I.E. (Messrs. Beggs, Sutherland & Co., Ltd.); **Vice-President**.—Mr. G. M. Hunter Thoms. (The Muir Mills Co., Ltd.); **Members**.—Mr. A. Smart (The Allahabad Bank Ltd.); Mr. W. R. Watt, M.A. (The British India Corporation, Ltd.); Mr. A. L. Carnegie (The British India Corporation, Ltd.); Mr. J. M. Lowrie (Messrs. Beggs, Sutherland and Co., Ltd.); Babu Ram Narain (Cawnpore); Mr. J. P. Srivastava, M.Sc. (Cawnpore); Mr. P. V. Blomfield (Messrs. Bird & Co.); **Representatives on the United Provinces Legislative Council**.—Sir Thomas Smith, M.L.C. (The Muir Mills Co., Ltd.); Mr. T. Gavin Jones, M.L.C. (Messrs. D. Waidie & Co., Ltd.).

Secretary.—Mr. J. G. Ryan.

Head Clerk.—Mr. B. N. Ghosal.

The Managing Committee meets alternately at Delhi and Lahore and the following are office bearers:—

Chairman.—Mr. V. F. Gray, M.L.C.

Deputy Chairman.—Mr. P. Mukerjee.

Members.—Mr. Balj Nath Sayal (Crown Flour Mills, Delhi), Mr. D. N. Bhanja (Kerr, Tarruck & Co., Delhi), Mr. V. H. Boalth (Traffic Manager, Commercial, N.W.Ry., Lahore), Mr. J. Davidson (Messrs. Bird & Co., Lahore), Mr. Basheswar Nath Khanna (The Cotton Trading Syndicate, Lahore), Mr. T. K. Fordyce (Allahabad Bank, Ltd., Delhi), Mr. Lachmi Narain (I. D. Lachmi Narain, Amritsar), Mr. G. V. Lewis (New Egerton Woollen Mills Co., Ltd., Dhariwal), Mr. Motiram Mehra (Messrs. Motiram Mehra & Co., Amritsar), Mr. A. C. Mullen (The Amritsar Distillery Company, Amritsar), Mr. R. E. Grant-Govan (The Delhi Flour Mills Co., Ltd., Delhi), Rai Bahadur Ram Saran Dass, C.I.E., M.C.S. (Lahore), Mr. Shri-Ram (Delhi Cloth & General Mills Co., Ltd., Delhi), Mr. D. T. Simpson (Messrs. Turner Hoare & Co., Ltd., Lahore).

Secretary.—Mr. E. S. Hearn.

UNITED PROVINCES.

Cawnpore.

The number of members on register is 109 (78 Local and 31 Mofussil). All the important commercial and industrial interests of the Provinces of Agra and Oudh are represented.

President.—Rai Bahadur Lala Bishambhar Nath, Proprietor of Sri Krishna Ginning Factory and Director of the Punjab National Bank, Ltd., Cawnpore.

Vice-Presidents.—Babu Sri Ram Khanna (Managing Director of Messrs. Ramchandra Gurhal Maj Cotton Mills Co., Ltd., Lucknow); Lala Ramkumar (of Messrs. Ramkumar Rameshwardass, Cawnpore.)

Secretary.—Rai Bahadur Babu Vikramajit Singh, M.L.C., Director of British India Corporation, Ltd., Cawnpore.

Joint Secretary.—Babu Gur Prasad Kapoor (of Messrs. Basti Ram Mata Din, Cawnpore).

BURMA.

The Burma Chamber of Commerce, with headquarters at Rangoon, exists to encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men on all subjects involving their common good, to promote and protect trade, commerce and manufactures and, in particular, the general mercantile interests of the province, to communicate with public authorities, associations and individuals on all matters, directly or indirectly affecting these interests, and to provide for arbitration between parties willing to refer to, and abide by, the judgment of arbitrators appointed by the Chamber. The following are affiliated bodies:—

Burma Fire Insurance Association.

Burma Marine Insurance Agents' Association.

Rangoon Import Association.

Burma Motor Insurance Agents' Association.

The Chamber elects representatives to the following Public Bodies:—

Council of State.

Burma Legislative Council.

Rangoon Port Trust Board.

Rangoon Corporation.

Victoria Memorial Park Trustees

Pasteur Institute Committee.

Burma University Council.

Rangoon Development Trust.

Standing Advisory Committee on Communications in Burma.

Rangoon European Stipend Board.

Accountancy Classes Advisory Board, Rangoon.

Advisory Committee Constituted under the Auxiliary Force Act, 1920.

Countess of Dufferin's Fund Managing Committee.

Standing Committee on the Imperial Idea.

Local Railway Advisory Council.

Rangoon Water Supply Committee.

Members of the Committee.—Babu Dwarka Prasad Singh, Cawnpore; Babu Kalka Prasad (of Messrs. Puttan Lal Gopi Narain), Cawnpore; Babu Behari Lal, Cawnpore; Mr. I. D. Varshanie, Proprietor of the U. P. Glass Works, Ltd., Bahjoie, District Moradabad; Lala Jawahir Lal Jainy (of Messrs. Jainy Brothers), Cawnpore; Mr. Hira Lal Khanna (of Messrs. Jwala Prasad Radha Krishna, Cawnpore); Mr. J. P. Srivastava, Cawnpore; Lala Rameshwar Prasad (of Messrs. Garga Dhar Baij Nath), Cawnpore; Mr. W. C. de Naronah (of Messrs. M. X. de Naronah & Sons), Cawnpore; Lala Kedar Nath (of Messrs. Sardar Mal Haradai Rai), Cawnpore; Pt. Surrendra Nath (of Messrs. Surrendra Nath Kalka Prasad), Cawnpore; Rai Sahib Babu Gopinath (of Messrs. Gopi Nath Chhanga Mal), Cawnpore.

All British corporations, companies, firms or persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits, such as merchants, bankers, ship-owners and brokers or who are connected with agriculture, mining, manufactures, insurance, railways, commerce, art, science or literature shall be eligible to become Chamber Members. Every non-British concern or person, similarly engaged or interested as indicated above, other than a subject of a State with which the British Empire was at War on September 19th, 1918, shall be eligible for election as an Associate Member. The annual subscription of each Chamber Member shall be Rs. 480 per annum and of each Associate Member Rs. 360 per annum. An entrance fee of Rs. 150 is payable by each new Member. Officials and others indirectly connected with the trade of the province or who may have rendered distinguished service to the interests represented by the Chamber may be elected by the Committee either on their own motion or on the suggestion of two Members as Honorary Members of the Chamber. Honorary Members are not required to subscribe to the funds of the Chamber.

The Chamber undertakes arbitrations in addition to its ordinary work. It does not publish any statistical returns.

Secretary.—Mr. C. A. Cuttriss, M.B.E., F.R.C.S., F.R.S.A.

Representative on the Council of State.—Hon'ble Mr. W. A. W. Dawn.

Representatives on the Burma Legislative Council.—Sir Alexander Anderson, Kt., C.S.I., M.L.C. and R. Sinclair, Esq., M.L.C.

Representatives on the Rangoon Port Trust Board.—Sir Alexander Anderson, Kt., C.S.I., M.L.C., A. McKeand, Esq., J. K. Michie, Esq. and R. Sinclair, Esq., M.L.C.

Representative on the Rangoon Municipal Committee.—J. R. Turner, Esq.

Victoria Memorial Park Trustee.—Sir Alexander Anderson, Kt., C.S.I., M.L.C.

Pasteur Institute Committee.—Sir Alexander Anderson, Kt., C.S.I., M.L.C.

Burma University Council.—Mr. H. Smiles, M.A.

Rangoon Development Trust.—R. Sinclair, Esq., M.L.C.

Standing Advisory Committee on Communications in Burma.—Sir Alexander Anderson, Kt., C.S.I., M.L.C.

Rangoon European Stipend Board.—Mr. C. A. Cuttriss, M.B.E., F.R.C.S., F.R.S.A.

Accountancy Classes Advisory Board.—Mr. L. Baird.

Countess of Dufferin's Fund, Managing Committee.—A. McKeand, Esq.

COCANADA.

The Cocanada Chamber of Commerce was established on 29th October, 1868.

The following are the members of the Chamber and has its head quarters at Cocanada, the chief port on the Coromandel Coast, north of Madras:—

Messrs. Simson Bros., Ltd.; the Coromandel Co., Ltd.; Wilson & Co.; Innes & Co.; Ripley & Co.; Volkart Bros.; Shaw Wallace & Co.; Gordon Woodroffe & Co.; J. H. Vavasour & Co., Ltd.; Alfred Johnson Co. Inc.; the Northern Circars Development Co.; the Agent, Imperial Bank of India.

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE.

Mr. A. E. Todd (Chairman).

„ G. Hodding.

„ G. Attwood.

„ G. A. LeStyne, Secretary.

The rules of the Chamber provide "that by the term 'member' be understood a mercantile firm or establishment, or the permanent agency of a mercantile firm or establishment, or a society of merchants carrying on business in Cocanada, or other place in the Districts of Kistna, Godavari, Vizagapatam, and Ganjam, and duly electing according to the Rules of the Chamber, and that all such be eligible but only

NORTHERN INDIA.

The Northern India Chamber of Commerce, Lahore, was inaugurated in November 1923, to watch over the mercantile interests of the hitherto practically unrepresented area of Northern India and the N. W. F. Province.

The main aims and objects of the Chamber are to promote and protect commerce and industries, to obtain the redress of any grievances and hardships under which the general mercantile community suffer, and to establish just and equitable principles of trading, etc. Among its other activities, the Chamber undertakes the conduct of surveys and arbitrations, the registration of Trade Marks, etc.

CEYLON.

The Ceylon Chamber of Commerce was established on the 25th March 1839 and was incorporated in 1895, with its headquarters at Colombo. All firms and persons engaged in the general trade of Ceylon are admissible as members and every person or firm desirous of joining the Chamber must be proposed by one member, seconded by another and balloted for by the whole Chamber. The affairs of the Chamber are conducted by a Board of Directors consisting of Chairman and Vice-Chairman and from 5 to 10 members.

Standing Committee on the Imperial Idea.—J. R. Turner, Esq.

Local Railway Advisory Council.—H. Calder Esq.

Rangoon Water Supply Committee.—J. W. Richardson, Esq., J. R. Baird-Smith, Esq., and A. G. Bray, Esq.

Advisory Committee constituted under the Auxiliary Force Act, 1920.—J. R. Turner, Esq.

Members resident in Cocanada can hold office. Members are elected by ballot. The Committee, when called upon by disputing members or non-members of the Chamber, give their decision upon all questions of mercantile usage and arbitrate upon any commercial matter referred to them for final judgment. In either case a minimum fee of Rs. 16 must accompany the reference with Rs. 5 from a non-member and Re. 1 from a member as payment for the Chamber's Sealed Certificate.

The Committee consisting of 3 members, including the Chairman, are elected by ballot at the general meeting in January in each year, for a term of 12 months. The entrance fee for each member, whose place of business is in Cocanada, is Rs. 100 and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs. 25. The subscription for each member whose place of business is in Cocanada is Rs. 120 per annum, payable quarterly and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs. 60 per annum, payable in advance. Committee meetings are held on the 1st Tuesday in the month and general meetings on the 3rd Tuesday or when ordered.

A Fortnightly Circular of current rates of produce, freights, and exchange is drawn up by the Committee.

Members are elected by ballot, the entrance fee and annual subscription for firms in Lahore being Rs. 100 and Rs. 200, respectively.

The following are the Officers, Committee, etc., for the year from April 1924:—

Chairman.—Mr. W. R. Macpherson.

Vice-Chairman.—Mr. D. J. Horn.

Committee.—Messrs. D. May Arrindell, P. H. Guest, Roy Croft, A. Gilbert, H. J. Rustomji, J. Mitchell, and L. Raja Ram.

Secretary.—H. J. Martin.

Office.—Allahabad Bank Building, The Mall, Lahore.

The following is the membership of the Board at the present time:—

Hon'ble Col. E. J. Hayward, C.B.E., V.D. (Chairman); Mr. J. J. Wall (Vice-Chairman); Mr. H. G. Maddocks, Mr. W. Fraser, Mr. S. P. Hayley, Mr. L. O. Leefe, Mr. C. A. Pearcey, Mr. N. J. G. Robertson, Mr. J. J. Park, Mr. R. H. Skrine, Mr. A. R. Quarne, Mr. F. Trollope.

Secretary.—Mr. C. F. Whitaker.

Representative in the Legislative Council.—Hon'ble Col. E. J. Hayward, C.B.E., V.D.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCIAL INTELLIGENCE.

The Department of Statistics was reabsorbed into the Department of Commercial Intelligence with effect from the 1st December 1922. The joint department has its office at No. 1, Council House Street, Calcutta, the headquarters of the Director-General. It embraces two distinct classes of work: (a) the collection and dissemination of information connected with overseas trade which may be of use to Indian firms, and (b) the compilation and publication of All-India statistics. The latter are published in a series of volumes of which the most important are the sea-borne Trade Accounts, monthly and annual, Statistical Abstract, Agricultural Statistics (in two volumes), and the Review of Trade. The department also publishes a weekly journal—"The Indian Trade Journal"—the principal features of which are (a) information as to tariff changes in foreign countries which affect Indian interests, (b) notices of tenders called for by Government departments and public bodies, (c) crop reports and forecasts, (d) Government orders, communications and other notifications affecting trade, (e) analysis of Indian trade statistics, (f) market reports, prices and trade movements of the staple exports and imports, (g) trade enquiries for securing trade introductions, (h) summaries of the leading features of consular and other trade reports, and (i) abstracts of the proceedings of the various Chambers of Commerce in India.

The Department also administers the COMMERCIAL LIBRARY AND READING ROOM located at No. 1, Council House Street, Calcutta. This was at first a small departmental library used for the purpose of answering enquiries, but in 1919 the Government of India agreed to the formation of a combined technological library of reference in Calcutta in place of the separate libraries attached to the Departments of Commercial Intelligence, Statistics, and Patents and Designs, and the resultant Commercial Library and Reading Room was placed under the administrative control of the Director-General. It has now been expanded into a first-class technical library containing over 9,000 volumes as well as Indian and foreign statistical publications, and 200 technical and commercial journals and market reports. Ordinarily books are consulted in the Library, but they are also available on loan upon deposit of value.

The Department works in close co-operation with Directors of Industries and other Government Departments in India, with the Indian Trade Commissioner in London, with His Majesty's Trade Commissioners in India and the Dominions, and with Consular Officers in various parts of the world. And the yearly increase in its correspondence shows that it is steadily being used more and more both by firms in India and by overseas firms interested in Indian exports.

THE BRITISH TRADE COMMISSIONER SERVICE IN INDIA.

The British Trade Commissioners in India are part of the world-wide Commercial Intelligence Organisation of the Imperial Government. The Department of Overseas Trade, London, which is the headquarters of this organisation, is a joint department of the Board of Trade and the Foreign Office and was created in 1917 with the specific object of stimulating the overseas trade of the United Kingdom by securing Commercial information from all parts of the world by disseminating it to British manufacturers and exporters; by undertaking such special constructive activities as may be found possible; and by assisting traders in the removal of their difficulties. The Department has nothing to do with the regulation of trade. It passes no measures and makes no restrictive or regulative orders. Briefly, the policy on which it is based is the policy of assistance without interference.

The Department of Overseas Trade maintains a network of trained and experienced Commercial Intelligence officers throughout the world, who forward a constant supply of commercial information to London and provide local assistance in the promotion of British economic interests. Those overseas officers who are stationed in the British Empire are members of the Trade Commissioner Service while Foreign countries are served by the Commercial Diplomatic Service forming part of the British Diplomatic Missions and by the Consular Service.

Mr. T. M. Ainscough was appointed His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India in January 1918 and opened an office in Calcutta in May of that year. For five years, owing to the pressing need for economy in the Public Service, he was singlehanded in covering this vast territory. In 1923, however, two additional Trade Commissioners were appointed to India. Mr. W. D. M. Clarke was posted to the Calcutta office and Major R. W. Clarke opened an office in Bombay at Exchange Building, Sprott Road, Ballard Estate. The territory is now divided between the Calcutta and Bombay posts and this development allows the Senior Officer to travel almost continuously to any part of India which may call for his attention and to devote his time to some of the broader politico-economic problems which are becoming so important in view of the changing political conditions in India.

Functions of Commissioner.—The primary duty of the British Trade Commissioner comprises the collection of information in regard to opportunities that may arise within his territory for securing and developing trade by British manufacturers and merchants, both in the United Kingdom and other parts of the British Empire. He is, therefore, enjoined carefully to watch and report from time to time to the Board of Trade and the Governments of the Dominions concerned on all matters affecting the trade,

industry and commerce of his area. His general functions are to maintain cordial relations with the governing authorities of his area; to enter into personal relations with the Chambers of Commerce, Trade Associations, and similar bodies, and with the principal representative importers and local manufacturers; to visit the principal commercial centres; to report upon foreign competition, on financial and trade conditions, and new legislation affecting trade; to make an annual general report on the conditions and prospects of trade in his area; and to furnish special reports and monographs on particular questions which are likely to be of interest to British manufacturers and exporters. He is also expected to supply a regular flow of commercial information of all kinds to his department; to maintain an active correspondence with firms in the United Kingdom or the Dominions who wish to extend their trade with his area; and to give all possible assistance to the representatives of British firms who may visit his territory.

Every effort is made by His Majesty's Trade Commissioners to keep in touch with British representatives and agents in India. The offices are equipped with a complete range of directories and reference books of all kinds and information is available with regard to such matters as tariff conditions, port dues and charges throughout the world, etc. A library consisting of over 1,000 catalogues of the leading British manufacturing engineers is maintained in Calcutta and firms desiring information with regard to specific manufacturers of particular machinery or processes are invited either to call personally or to forward their requirements in writing. It is hoped that local importers and buyers will co-operate by making a more extended use of the information available in the offices and by bringing to the attention of the British Trade Commissioners any cases where the interests of exporters from the United Kingdom or the Dominions may be adversely affected by foreign competition or otherwise.

For many years British traders have deplored the fact that there have not been available

officials with commercial experience who could help them in voicing their difficulties and in meeting foreign competition. As a rule these complaints eulogized the Consuls of other countries and invited the attention of Government to their many virtues. In response to this agitation the greatest care has been taken by the British Government to select, as their trade officers overseas, men of sound commercial training and experience who have acquired some reputation in their respective spheres, and a comprehensive and businesslike organization has been built up at the Department of Overseas Trade, London, to deal with the information sent home. It now rests with the British mercantile community, both at home and also overseas, to co-operate freely and frankly with the Trade Commissioners and to recognize the work they are doing in the Imperial interest by assisting them with such information and particulars with regard to foreign competing goods, conditions of trade, etc., as they are able to afford.

H. M.'S. TRADE COMMISSIONERS IN INDIA.

Calcutta—

Mr. T. M. Ainscough, O.B.E.,

His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India and Ceylon.

Mr. W. D. Montgomery Clarke,

His Majesty's Trade Commissioner at Calcutta.

Post Box No. 683, 11, Clive Street.

Telegraphic Address—"Tradcom, Calcutta."

Telephone No. "Calcutta 1042."

Bombay—

Major R. W. Clarke,

His Majesty's Trade Commissioner at Bombay.

Post Box No. 815, Exchange Buildings, Sprott Road, Ballard Estate.

Telegraphic Address—"Tradcom, Bombay."

Telephone No.—"Bombay 23095."

Ceylon—

Imperial Trade Correspondent.

The Principal Collector of Customs, Colombo.

INDIAN COTTON DUTIES ACT.

The origin of this fiscal measure dates back to 1894 when the embarrassment caused to the finances of India by the fall in exchange drove the Government of India to the necessity of adopting measures to increase their sources of revenue. Among these measures was the re-imposition of the Customs Tariff which had been in force prior to 1882 subject, however, to this difference that cotton yarns and fabrics, which had formerly been subjected to an import duty, were in 1894, excluded from the list of dutiable articles. This partial re-imposition of import duties had been recommended by the Herschell Commission which, in reporting in 1893 on the currency question, had favoured this method of adding to the revenue as being the least likely to excite opposition. In point of fact, however, this recommendation which was carried into effect in the Indian Tariff Act of March 1894 gave rise to very marked opposition. In support of their policy the Government appealed to the Resolutions passed in 1877 and reaffirmed in 1879 by the House of Commons, the first of

which had condemned the levy of import duties on cotton fabrics imported into India as "being contrary to sound commercial policy," while the latter called upon the Government of India to effect "the complete abolition of these duties as being unjust alike to the Indian consumer and to the English producer." It was, however, an open secret that the decision to exclude from the list of dutiable articles cotton yarns and fabrics was not the decision of the Government of India but that of the Secretary of State. It was pertinently pointed out that the volume of trade in cotton goods and yarns then represented nearly one half of the total imports from abroad, and that the exemption of these important commodities when practically every single other commodity was being subjected to an import duty could not be justified on its merits as a sound fiscal measure, much less when it was an admitted fact that the Budget would still show a deficit.

Excise Duties Imposed.—The opposition to this measure, though it failed to secure

its rejection in the Legislative Council, was strong enough to induce the Secretary of State to reconsider the matter. Yielding to the united representations of the Government of India and of Indian public opinion, His Majesty's Government eventually agreed to the re-imposition of import duties on cotton yarns and fabrics provided that it could be shown that such a measure was necessitated by the position of Indian finances, and that it was combined with an Excise duty which would deprive the import tax of any protective character. Accordingly in December 1894, consequent on the further deterioration in the financial position, two bills were introduced in the Legislative Council. The first of these subjected cotton yarns and fabrics to the general import duty of 5 per cent. *ad valorem*. The second imposed an Excise duty on all cotton yarns of 20's and above produced by Mills in British India. In introducing this latter Bill the then Finance Minister, Sir James Westland, was careful to explain that the policy underlying its provisions had been imposed on the Government of India by the Secretary of State in pursuance of the Resolution of the House of Commons quoted above. The provisions of this particular Bill are of little interest. From the first it was recognised that they were unpractical, Lancashire and Indian spinners disagreed as to the point at which the line should be drawn exempting Indian yarns from the Excise Duty. Practical difficulties were pointed out by Indian spinners as to the impossibility of spinning precisely to a particular count. From the Lancashire point of view it was contended that the Bill offered facilities for evasion while it was admitted that under the system adopted in the Bill, the taxation of Indian and Lancashire products was not being carried out on a similar basis.

Act of 1896—The Act was in fact doomed to be short-lived, and in December 1895 the Government of India were compelled to reconsider the whole position and to introduce an entirely new measure which became law in January 1896 as the Indian Cotton Duties Act II of 1896. This measure proceeded from two conclusions, namely, that no attempt should be made to obtain any duty from yarns whether imported or locally manufactured, and that an equal rate of duty should be applied to all woven goods whether imported or of Indian origin. With the object of conciliating the opposition, the rate of duty was fixed at 3½ per cent. as opposed to the general rate of Customs duty of 5 per cent. The main provisions of the Act provided that the assessment for the purposes of collecting the Excise duty should be based on returns submitted by the mill-owners; and that provision should be made for a rebate in the case of woven goods exported out of India. No control beyond a requirement that statistical returns should be furnished was attempted in respect of spinning mills. On the other hand certain concessions in the matter of import duty on Mill stores were made by executive order so as to place Indian Mills on a footing more or less equal to their Lancashire competitors.

Criticisms of the Measure.—It is not possible within the limits of the present article to do more than summarise the criticisms with which this measure was received in India. Much of the opposition was based on grounds of a

transient character; as for instance that the Indian industry was then in a state of continued depression and that it had been hard hit, particularly in respect of its export trade, by the currency legislation, and by the uncertainty as to the fiscal policy of Government. In some quarters objection was offered to the exemption of yarn, which it was shown, would place the Indian hand weaving industry at an advantage with the Indian power weaving industry. But the hostility to this measure, as also to the earlier measures already described, clearly proceeded from the feeling that the policy of the Government of India and of the Secretary of State had been dictated by Lancashire, and that the action of Lancashire was due not so much to the fact that there was any real competition between Indian and Manchester goods, but to a desire to handicap the Indian industry whose progress was already causing uneasiness to Lancashire interests. It was argued that the imports from Lancashire were practically all of the higher counts, which, for climatic and other reasons, Indian mills could not produce; that in any case the advantage to the Indian millowner of the import duty was inconsiderable and was counterbalanced by certain drawbacks, arising from the inferiority of Indian labour, which could not be overcome; and that this advantage, such as it was, could scarcely be said to have a protective character, in view of the higher cost of initial equipment in the case of an Indian mill which has to import its machinery, and of working expenses consequent on the scarcity of skilled labour and on the necessity of importing stores required in the production of cloth. Finally, from the standpoint of the consumer, very severe criticism was directed against the reduction, in favour of imported cotton goods, of the general rate of duty from 5 per cent. to 3½ per cent. on the ground that the effect of the legislation would relieve the richer classes who were consumers of the finer Manchester fabrics and impose new taxation on the poorer classes whose requirements were met by the Indian mills.

Later Factors in the Situation.—Since the passing of this measure into law the policy of the Government of India in this respect has frequently been the subject of attack in the press and in the Legislatures in India, while it has also formed the subject of continued representations by the industrial interests affected and political organizations. In more recent years the agitation in favour of the abolition of the Excise duties was revived by the growth in England of a strong body of public opinion in opposition to the policy of Free Trade. Advantage was taken of this new phase in English economic thought to press on behalf of India the acceptance of a policy of Protection—now adopted by the Government of India in the form of discriminating use of the current necessarily high important tariff for fostering Indian industries—and the removal of the Excise duties was claimed by the opponents of this measure as a necessary corollary of the application to the British Empire of the principles associated with the name of Mr. Chamberlain. A new factor in the situation which has strengthened the position of those who are in opposition to the Excise duties is to be found in the severe competition which Indian mills have to face in

China as well as in India from the Japanese industry. The Japanese market was lost to India in the early years of this century. More recently, however, Japan has entered as a competitor with India into the China market, while within the last few years it has pushed its advantage as against the Indian millowner in the Indian market itself. The Government of India have publicly declared their view of this development to be that it needs careful watching.

Policy of 1917.—The policy of Government towards the Cotton Duties underwent a further development in 1917. In the budget of that year provision was made for interest and sinking fund charges on £100 millions, the contribution of India towards the cost of the war. This demanded in addition to the natural increase in the revenues fresh taxation to the extent of £3 millions per annum. Amongst the expedients adopted to produce this revenue was the raising of the import duty on cotton goods from 3½ per cent. to 7½ per cent. which is the general tariff rate. At the same time the cotton excise duty was fixed to remain at the previous figure of 3½ per cent. thus giving the indigenous industry a slight protection to the extent of 4 per cent. The question of the abolition of the Excise entirely had to be dismissed from consideration in view of the demands upon the exchequer, as it was estimated to produce in 1917-18 £320,000. By means of the increase in the tariff on Cotton Duties the Finance Member estimated to produce an additional £1 million per annum. The proposal was received with immense satisfaction in India as a step towards the righting of what is almost everywhere regarded as a reverse economic wrong. It aroused very vehement protests in Lancashire where the cotton industry organised its political vote and brought great pressure to bear upon the Secretary of State to withdraw the measure. Mr. Austen Chamberlain, the then Secretary of State for India, stood firm and with the Government at his back refused to budge an inch from the position which he had taken up in supporting the Government of India in this matter. There were anxious moments in the House of Commons when the Labour Party joining with the Irish Nationalists and the Lancashire vote mobilised its forces against the Government especially as the attitude of Mr. Asquith and his following was obscure. In the end Mr. Asquith gave his support to the Government policy on the understanding that this, in common with all other fiscal issues, would be reconsidered at the end of the war. With this support, the Bill was carried through the House of Commons by a large majority. The policy laid down in 1917 has been maintained. The Excise Duty remains stationary at 3½ per cent. for purely revenue purposes. The imports of piece-goods have been subjected to the same tariff as other imports in all variations of the Customs duties. (See Customs Tariff).

The Present Position.—The question has frequently come under discussion in the Indian Legislature during the past few years and the new political constitution alters its perspective there inasmuch as it subjects taxation not merely to debate but to the actual votes of both Council of State and Legislative Assembly. The latter house has paid most attention to the

Excise and both the annual Budgets and the right of unofficial members to move Resolutions have afforded opportunities for pressing the popular view upon Government. During the life of the first Assembly—1921-1923, inclusive—the position was still dominated by the financial difficulties of Government and the necessity for utilising every possible source of income for meeting successive deficits. Representatives of the cotton manufacturing industry continued their agitation nevertheless, but they received no sympathy from the House at large. The attitude of unofficial members other than those from Bombay, who are in close contact with the industry in its main centres, is by no means friendly to the millowners. The agricultural members, particularly, remember how Bombay raised cloth prices during and after the Great War and have not forgiven the millowners the huge profits that they then made. Debates in the House on various questions have also on several occasions shown the existence on the unofficial benches of a considerable body of members standing for the purely consumers' point of view and these resent the suggestion of abolishing the Excise Duty without also reducing the import duty because to do so would be to give the whole advantage into the millowners' pockets, prices being governed by the cost of imports.

The Government of India's attitude is primarily governed by a declaration by Lord Hardinge, when Viceroy, that "the excise duty should for the present remain at its actual figure and an assurance given that it would be abolished as soon as financial considerations permit." But over the obligation thus expressed there lies another, which concerns the financial contributions now annually made by the Provinces to Central Revenues. These amount to approximately nine crores. When the amounts were fixed, in connection with the introduction of the new constitution and the consequent separation of Central and Provincial finances, the contributions were clearly marked as a temporary necessity. From that day to this the Provinces, struggling with financial exigencies of their own, have clamoured for their early diminution and rapid extinction and the Government of India have formally and repeatedly given assurances that the first disposable surpluses with which they have to deal shall go in that direction. The old controversy of Lancashire versus Bombay over the cotton excise having vanished and the matter having thus been reduced to purely fiscal grounds, Government also indicate their preference for easing the Provincial finances, rather than for remitting the excise duty in circumstances which would make remission a present to the millowners.

The "nationalist" element which dominates the unofficial benches in the second Assembly has debated the matter and is fully acquainted with all these arguments, and the time has nearly come when its vote will finally decide the matter. Government last year had a surplus and proposed to devote part of it to the reduction of Provincial Contributions. The Assembly, pursuing its purely political aims, threw out the Budget and the Governor-General, having given the House the option of keeping the Salt Tax at a higher or lower figure declared himself unable to impose it at the

higher figure by the exercise of his prerogative. There appears a practical certainty of another surplus in the coming Budget. The Assembly last September debated an unofficial Resolution recommending the abolition of the excise. Government opposed, on economic grounds and the debate reflected the differences of opinion already indicated. The promoters of the Resolution urged the House to accept it not on economic grounds, but on political, nationalist, ones, talking much of past economic injustice and of the need to foster Indian industries. When the question was put Government did not claim a division. The Resolution was then declared carried by accla-

mation, but as it amounted only to a "plous expression" of opinion and as the avoidance of a division freed any member from the obligation of registering his name on one side of the question or the other, that fact cannot be accepted as final.

Government suggested during this last debate that the choice between reducing Provincial Contributions and abolishing the Excise Duty might be left to the House when a decision on the disposal of the next surplus has to be taken. It is impossible to forecast what the vote of the House would be if that question were left to its vote in the near future.

THE INDIAN COTTON COMMITTEE.

A resolution issued by the Government of India in September 1917 announced the appointment of a Committee to examine the possibilities of increasing the cultivation of long-stapled cotton in India, of improving existing methods of ginning and marketing cotton, of preventing adulteration, damping and mixing, of improving the accuracy of the cotton forecasts and, generally, of making the statistical information published by Government of greater utility to the cotton trade. The Committee were also directed to submit recommendations in regard to the staff required and the organization necessary for the development of the cultivation of long-stapled cotton in tracts which they considered suitable for that purpose.

The Committee consisted of the following:—Mr. J. MacKenna, C.I.E., I.C.S., Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India, President. Mr. N. N. Wadia, C.I.E., Ex-Chairman, Bombay Mill Owners' Association, Mr. F. Hodgkinson, Member of the Council of the British Cotton Growing Association, Mr. H. F. Ashton, Executive Engineer, Punjab, Mr. G. S. Henderson, Imperial Agriculturist, and Mr. W. Roberts, Principal, Lyaalpur Agricultural College, Members. Mr. F. Noyce, I.C.S., Secretary.

A full summary of the Report of the Committee, appeared on page 291-294 of the Indian Year Book, 1922. The Committee in their report conclude that, so far as separate figures are available, of the 4,728,000 bales of cotton produced by India in a normal season, 728,000 fall within the Lancashire definition of long staple cotton and an additional 478,000 bales within the Bombay definition.

They emphasize that, of the methods by which an improvement in the quality and an increase in the output of Indian cotton can be secured, botanical work is the most important. The Report points out that the output of cleaned cotton to the acre in India is only 85

pounds, whereas in the United States it is 200 pounds, and that improvements in agricultural practice should very considerably reduce this difference. The Committee recommend considerable expansion of the Agricultural Department in order to extend its work for cotton.

The possibilities of the extension of the cultivation of long staple cotton under irrigation in the cotton growing Provinces of North India—the Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province, the United Provinces and Sind—are examined in great detail in the Report.

One of the main problems dealt with by the Committee is that of securing to the cultivation an adequate price for the pure or superior varieties of cotton grown as the outcome of the recommendations in the first part. With this object, they make comprehensive recommendations. They also make important recommendations in regard to the improvement of cotton forecasts. The Committee suggest not only the better organization of the Agricultural Department but also of the Cotton Trade by the establishment of a Central Cotton Trade Association in Bombay, to be known as the East India Cotton Association which, as far as the control of the cotton trade is concerned, would take the place of the seven distinct bodies representing different branches of the trade which were in existence at the time the Report was written. Finally, the Committee make provision for much closer connexion between the Agricultural Department and the Cotton Trade, by the institution of a Central Cotton Committee to which all connected with cotton, whether agriculturally or commercially, could able to turn to for advice or assistance. They recommended that the Committee should consist of about 20 members including the following nine official members: the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India, who would be President, six agricultural experts working

on cotton from the six great cotton growing Provinces, the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, and the Director of Statistics. The remaining members, with the exception of a representative of the Co-operative Department, who might be either an official or a non-official, should they said represent Chambers of Commerce and similar bodies and would also include a representative of Lancashire. The functions of the Committee would be almost entirely advisory but its advice would carry very great weight.

The proposal to reorganise the Bombay Cotton Trade in one efficient organisation, to be called the East India Cotton Association, at first failed through the jealousy of the small speculative element, resentful of any form of control, but was eventually brought into being, with the assent of all parties, in 1922.

The first meeting of the Central Committee recommended in the Report was held in July 1921, when it assembled in Bombay, and it has since accomplished much constructive work. It has advised the Government of India regarding the preparation of legislation for the restriction of cotton transport, the regulation of gins and presses and the compulsory rendering of cotton statistics. Legislation in regard to the first was introduced in the Central Legislature in September, 1922, and referred to a Joint Select Committee of both its Houses. It has since been passed into law, subject to the local application of the measure by Provincial Governments, and the Provinces have where desirable followed by action on their part. A Bill for the

checking of abuses and collection of statistics in gins and presses was submitted in the Legislative Assembly by the Government of India last September, but was met with opposition by representatives of the gins and presses with the result that the House insisted on carrying a delaying motion that the Bill be circulated for public opinion.

The Central Cotton Committee has placed itself in touch with such organisations as the Empire Cotton Growing Corporation and the Cotton Industry Research Association and has made arrangements for a study of changes in export demand, and for a study of Indian mill consumption in detail. Several provinces have now taken tentative action in regard to the 1917 Committee's recommendations that concern them.

The Committee is specially devoting its attention to tests of new cottons for the Agricultural Department, research work in relation to the measurable characters of cotton and their spinning value and a study of the intrinsic spinning value of Indian cottons. As regards the first and last it has urged the need for the establishment of a technological research establishment in Bombay. As regards the second it has made special representation to the Government of India.

Provision for technological research and for the other activities recommended by the Committee will require money and to raise this the Committee has recommended the levy of a cess of four annas a bale on the commercial cotton crop (excluding domestic consumption) which is estimated to produce Rs. 8 lakhs a year.

The Textile Industry.

India has been the home of the cotton trade from the earliest times. Its cotton, known as white wool, was well known to the ancients and its cloth was familiar to the West in the days of the overland route. The name Calico comes from the fine woven goods of Calicut, and the products of the Dacca handlooms are still remarkable as the finest muslins human skill can produce.

Indian Cotton.

The exports of Indian cotton began to assume importance with the opening of the sea route.

They received an immense stimulus during the American Civil War, when the close blockade of the Confederate ports produced a cotton famine in Lancashire, and threw the English spinners back on India for their supply of raw material. When the war broke out the shipments of Indian cotton were 523,000 bales, but during the last year of the war they averaged 973,000 bales. Most of this cotton was sold at an enormously inflated price, and induced a flow of wealth into Bombay, the great centre of the trade, for which there was no outlet. The consequence was an unprece-

dented outburst of speculation known as the "Share Mania," and when the surrender of Lee re-opened the Southern Ports widespread ruin followed. It is estimated that the surplus wealth brought into the country by the American Civil War aggregated £92 millions. Since then the cultivation of Indian cotton, although interrupted by famine, has steadily increased. For the last season for which returns are available 1923-24 the total area in all the territories reported on was computed at 23,088,000 acres which is 1,296,000 acres or 6 per cent. above the revised figures of last year. The

total estimated outturn was 5,075,000 bales of 400 lbs. which remains the same as in the last year. To this figure may be added some 17,000 bales estimated as the production in Indian States in Bihar and Orissa which make no return.

Bombay, the Central Provinces and Hyderabad are the chief producing centres. The following table gives the rough distribution of the outturn. The figures are the estimated figures for the past season, and are not exact, but they indicate the distribution of the crop:—

Provinces and States.	1923-24. (Provisional estimates.)	
	Area.	Yield.
	(1,000 acres.)	(1,000 bales.)
Madras (a)	2,669	480
Bombay (b)	6,291	1,127
Bengal (a)	71	21
United Provinces (a)	652	215
Punjab (a)	1,914	628
Burma	297	46
Bihar and Orissa	81	16
Central Provinces and Berar	4,901	1,020
Assam	39	14
North-West Frontier Province	23	4
Ajmer-Merwara	41	13
Delhi	3	1
Hyderabad	3,500	1,079
Mysore	84	15
Baroda	657	76
Gwalior	500	60
Central India	1,041	187
Rajputana	324	73
Total	23,088	5,075

The distribution of the export trade is indicated in the appended table.

Exports of Cotton.—A portion of the Indian crops of the season 1921-22 and a portion of the crop of the season 1922-23 came into the statistical consideration in the exports during the year 1922-23. The exports amounted to nearly 13½ million cwts. valued at Rs. 98 crores, against 12 million cwts. valued at Rs. 71 crores in 1922-23. This represents 53 per cent. of the total value of raw materials exported from India and 23 per cent. of the total exports. The exports showed an increase of 13 per cent. in quantity and 39 per cent. in value. The average declared value per cwt. rose from Rs. 59 to 73 or by 24 per cent. whereas the total increase was Rs. 27 crores. The principal purchasers of Indian cotton are Japan and China which together took 53 per cent. of the total export during 1923-24. Besides these, Germany, Belgium, the United Kingdom, Italy, and France who are large consumers of Indian raw cotton, had 6, 7, 8, 15, and 5 per cent., respectively.

	Exports of Raw Cotton.		
	1921-22. Cwts.	1922-23 Cwts.	1923-24. Cwts.
United Kingdom	127,800	682,820	1,037,100
Germany	838,360	939,600	872,540
Holland	19,160	31,340	14,660
Belgium	708,220	900,220	915,480
France	202,440	451,140	623,080
Spain	107,740	234,520	312,520
Italy	551,100	861,880	1,967,930
Austria	119,560	151,900	149,980
Ceylon	9,680	18,520	22,780
Indo-China	105,500	71,060	95,060
China	1,555,160	1,776,060	913,980
Japan	6,286,660	5,789,300	6,151,540
United States of America	32,780	77,960	153,780
Other Countries	11,580	18,820	21,260
Total (cwt.)	10,676,040	12,007,940	13,438,720
tal (=Bales) †	2,981,361	3,362,601	3,763,858

(a) Includes Indian States. (b) Including Sind Indian States. † Bales of 400 lbs. each.

Bombay is the great centre of the cotton trade. The principal varieties are Dholleras, Broach, Oomras (from the Berars), Dharwar and Cooptas. Broach is the best cotton grown in Western India. Hinganghat cotton, from the Central Provinces, has a good reputation. Bengals is the name given to the cotton of the Gangetic valley, and generally to the cottons of Northern India. The Madras cottons are known as Westerns, Coconadas, Colmbatores and Tinnevellys. The best of these is Tinnevely. Cambodia cotton has been grown with success in Southern India, but it shows a tendency to revert. The high prices of cotton realised of recent years have given a great impetus to cultivation. Government have also been active in improving the class of cotton produced, by seed selection, hybridization and the importation of exotic cottons. Although these measures have met with a considerable measure of success, they have not proceeded far enough to leaven the

whole outturn, which still consists for the most part of a short-staple early maturing variety, suitable to soils where the rainy season is brief.

Reference has been made to the popularity of the Indian handloom cloths in the earliest days of which we have record. This trade grew so large that it excited alarm in England, and it was killed by a series of enactments, commencing in 1701, prohibiting the use or sale of Indian calicoes in England. The invention of the spinning jenny and the power loom and their development in England converted India from an exporting into an importing country, and made her dependent on the United Kingdom for the bulk of her piece-goods. The first attempt to establish a cotton mill in India was in 1838, but the foundations of the industry were really laid by the opening of the first mill in Bombay in 1856. Thereafter, with occasional set backs from famine, plague and other causes, its progress was rapid.

The following statement shows the quantity (in pounds) of yarn of all counts spun in all India for the twelve months, April to March, in each of the past three years:—

	1920-21.	1921-22.	1923-24.
BRITISH INDIA.			
Bombay	492,634,404	497,351,824	398,552,023
Madras	44,387,593	53,425,405	50,938,954
Bengal	33,626,236	28,937,591	26,104,621
United Provinces	40,476,743	41,469,903	44,400,235
Ajmer-Merwara	2,548,906	2,351,619	2,981,474
Punjab	3,564,347	2,717,976	1,264,236
Delhi	2,959,655	3,804,217	5,188,985
Central Provinces and Berar	32,817,846	31,877,488	32,258,371
TOTAL	658,010,720	661,936,023	561,688,899
FOREIGN TERRITORY.			
Indian States of Indore, Mysore, Baroda, Nandgaon, Bhavnagar, Hyderabad, Wadhwan, Gwalior (Ujjain) and Pondicherry (a)	40,560,957	43,957,576	46,938,673
GRAND TOTAL	698,571,677	705,893,599	608,627,572

(a) Including the production of one mill only.

The spinning of yarn is in a large degree centred in Bombay, the mills of that province producing nearly 74 per cent. of the quantity produced in British India. The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and Madras produced about 7 per cent. and 8 per cent. respectively, while Bengal and the Central Provinces produced 4·7 and 5·2 per cent. Elsewhere the production is as yet very limited.

BOMBAY SPINNERS.

Here is a detailed statement of the quantity (in pounds) and the counts, or numbers, of yarn spun in Bombay Island:—

	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
Nos. 1—10	71,273,946	74,226,403	56,122,753
.. 11—20	175,505,096	171,828,510	125,909,820
.. 21—30	94,752,981	95,405,789	79,538,076
.. 31—40	6,000,208	5,586,789	6,604,846
Above 40	989,043	1,027,621	1,537,956
Wastes, &c.	173,357	23,992	73,132
TOTAL ..	348,694,631	348,099,104	269,586,583

YARN AT AHMEDABAD.

The corresponding figures for Ahmedabad are as follows:—

	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
Nos. 1—10	2,431,605	1,982,716	1,892,330
.. 11—20	31,695,855	33,783,105	31,387,197
.. 21—30	45,092,715	48,249,942	36,436,990
.. 31—40	5,541,661	5,471,816	4,880,197
Above 40	726,440	595,296	1,004,832
Wastes, &c.	109,974		709
TOTAL ..	85,593,250	90,082,875	75,602,255

YARN SPUN THROUGHOUT INDIA.

The grand totals of the quantities in various counts of yarn spun in the whole of India; including Native States, are given in the following table:—

	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
Nos. 1—10	99,169,675	102,978,242	84,572,023
.. 11—20	371,458,122	375,617,116	318,868,244
.. 21—30	203,161,956	208,958,812	181,716,621
.. 31—40	16,900,186	15,930,424	19,666,343
Above 40	2,364,419	2,195,291	3,260,788
Wastes, &c.	517,319	213,714	513,553
TOTAL ..	693,571,677	705,893,599	608,627,572

In the early days of the textile industry the energies of the millowners were largely concentrated on the production of yarn, both for the China market, and for the handlooms of India. The increasing competition of Japan in the China market, the growth of an indigenous industry in China and the uncertainties introduced by the fluctuations in the China exchanges consequent on variations in the price of silver compelled the millowners to cultivate the Home market. The general tendency of recent years has been to spin

higher counts of yarn, importing American cotton for this purpose to supplement the Indian supply, to erect more looms, and to produce more dyed and bleached goods. This practice has reached a higher development in Bombay than in other parts of India, and the Bombay Presidency produces nearly 78·8 per cent. of the cloth woven in India. The United Provinces produces 3·2 per cent., the Central Provinces 4 per cent., and Madras 4 per cent. Grey and Bleached goods represent nearly 74 per cent. of the whole production.

ANALYSIS OF WOVEN GOODS.

The following brief extract is taken from the statement of the quantity (in pounds and their equivalent in yards) and description of woven goods produced in all India, including Native States:—

	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
Grey and Bleached piece-goods—			
Pounds	300,036,343	300,365,540	286,874,951
Yards	1,284,751,703	1,271,769,694	1,196,754,894
Coloured piece-goods—			
Pounds	98,432,961	98,634,845	108,281,950
Yards	446,821,593	453,494,493	503,642,799
Grey and coloured goods other than piece-goods—			
Pounds	3,052,986	3,422,967	2,575,352
Dozens	629,375	1,212,640	514,307
Hosiery—			
Pounds	382,819	464,371	544,122
Dozens	130,989	205,767	243,531
Miscellaneous—			
Pounds	1,438,022	2,201,290	2,237,111
Cotton goods mixed with silk or wool—			
Pounds	177,750	164,726	207,229
Total—			
Pounds	403,520,881	405,253,739	401,433,829
Yards	1,781,573,296	1,725,284,187	1,700,397,693
Dozens	760,364	1,418,407	757,838

BOMBAY WOVEN GOODS.

The output of woven goods during the three years in the Bombay Presidency was as follows. The weight (in pounds represents the weight of all woven goods; the measure in yards represents the equivalent of the weight of the grey and coloured piece-goods.)

	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
Pounds	326,614,977	318,781,067	307,915,375
Yards	1,455,312,174	1,418,163,780	1,364,539,530
Dozens	587,927	660,262	500,712

The grand totals for all India are as follows:—

	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
Pounds	403,520,881	405,253,739	401,433,829
Yards	1,781,573,296	1,725,284,187	1,700,397,693
Dozens	760,364	1,418,407	757,838

Progress of the Mill Industry.

The following statement shows the progress of the Mill Industry in the whole of India.

Years ending 30th June	Number of Mills.	Number of Spindles.	Number of Looms.	Average No. of Hands Employed Daily.	Approximate Quantity of Cotton Consumed.	
					Cwts.	Bales of 892 lbs.
1877	51	12,44,206	10,385	Not stated.	Not stated.	
1878	53	12,89,708	10,533	Do.	Do.	
1879	56	14,52,794	13,018	42,914	9,36,547	2,67,585
1880	56	14,61,590	13,502	44,410	10,76,708	3,07,631
1881	57	15,13,096	13,707	46,430	13,26,461	3,78,989
1882	65	16,20,814	14,172	48,467	13,91,467	3,97,562
1883	67	17,90,388	15,373	53,476	15,97,916	4,56,556
1884	79	20,01,667	16,262	60,387	18,59,777	5,31,365
1885	87	21,45,646	16,537	67,186	20,88,621	5,96,749
1886	95	22,61,561	17,455	74,383	22,51,214	6,43,204
1887	103	24,21,290	18,536	76,942	25,41,966	7,26,276
1888	114	24,88,851	19,496	82,379	27,54,437	7,86,982
1889	124	27,62,518	21,561	91,598	31,10,289	8,88,654
1890	137	32,74,196	23,412	1,02,721	35,29,617	10,08,462
1891	134	33,51,694	24,531	1,11,018	41,26,171	11,78,906
1892	139	34,02,232	25,444	1,16,161	40,80,783	11,65,933
1893	141	35,75,917	26,164	1,21,500	40,98,528	11,71,008
1894	142	36,49,736	31,154	1,30,461	42,78,778	12,22,508
1895	148	38,00,929	35,338	1,38,669	46,95,999	13,41,714
1896	155	39,32,946	37,270	1,45,432	49,32,613	14,09,318
1897	173	40,65,618	37,584	1,44,335	45,53,276	13,00,936
1898	185	42,50,720	38,013	1,48,964	51,84,648	14,81,328
1899	188	47,28,333	39,069	1,62,108	58,63,165	16,75,190
1900	193	49,45,783	40,124	1,61,189	50,86,732	14,53,352
1901	193	50,06,936	41,160	1,72,883	47,31,090	13,51,740
1902	192	50,06,965	42,554	1,81,031	61,77,633	17,65,038
1903	192	50,43,297	44,092	1,81,399	60,77,690	17,39,340
1904	191	51,18,121	45,337	1,84,779	61,06,611	17,44,766
1905	197	51,63,486	50,139	1,95,277	65,77,354	18,79,244
1906	217	52,79,595	52,668	2,08,616	70,82,306	20,23,516
1907	224	53,33,275	58,436	2,05,696	69,30,595	19,80,170
1908	241	57,56,020	67,920	2,21,195	69,70,250	19,91,500
1909	259	60,53,231	76,593	2,36,924	73,81,500	21,09,000
1910	263	61,95,671	82,725	2,33,624	67,72,535	19,35,010
1911	263	63,57,460	85,352	2,30,849	69,70,511	19,05,666
1912	268	64,63,929	88,951	2,43,637	71,75,357	20,59,102
1913	272	65,96,862	94,136	2,53,786	73,36,056	20,96,016
1914*	271	67,78,895	1,04,179	2,40,276	74,23,126	21,43,126
1915*	272	68,48,744	1,08,009	2,65,346	73,59,212	21,02,632
1916*	266	68,39,877	1,10,268	2,74,861	76,92,013	21,97,718
1917*	263	67,38,697	1,14,621	2,76,771	76,93,574	21,98,164
1918*	262	66,53,871	1,16,484	2,82,227	72,99,673	20,85,678
1919*	238	60,89,680	1,18,221	2,93,277	71,54,805	20,44,230
1920*	253	67,63,876	1,19,012	3,11,078	68,33,118	19,52,318
1921*	257	68,70,041	1,23,783	3,32,176	74,20,835	21,20,230
1922*	298	73,31,219	1,34,620	3,43,723	77,12,390	22,04,540
1923*	333	79,27,938	1,44,794	3,47,300	75,30,943	21,61,698

* Year ending 31st August.

Statement of the amount in rupees of Excise duty realised from goods woven in the Cotton Mills in British India; under the Cotton Duties Act, II of 1896; also the amount of equivalent duty levied in the Native States; in each year from 1902-1903 to 1923-24.

	Bombay.	Madras.	Bengal.	United Provinces and Ajmer-Merwara.	Punjab and Delhi.	Central Provinces and Berar.
1902-03	15,84,121	67,813	6,605	74,023	3,031	1,30,620
1903-04	17,64,527	62,350	10,908	89,189	1,104	1,56,371
1904-05	20,43,832	61,379	11,929	96,710	2,607	1,61,368
1905-06	22,78,425	1,10,943	11,185	1,32,364	5,144	1,68,743
1906-07	24,36,265	1,23,603	23,709	1,35,884	7,484	1,64,680
1907-08	28,82,296	1,35,131	31,556	1,66,044	8,746	1,75,944
1908-09	29,51,859	1,42,295	53,351	1,88,345	9,509	1,98,419
1909-10	33,88,658	1,45,333	55,822	1,92,552	8,611	2,17,217
1910-11	36,78,552	1,48,136	56,359	1,82,093	7,300	2,07,818
1911-12	42,17,878	1,65,048	48,631	1,84,653	10,862	2,52,415
1912-13	48,27,698	2,06,862	81,709	2,11,847	17,971	2,71,882
1913-14	45,68,188	2,13,166	78,951	2,55,467	22,353	3,00,919
1914-15	42,31,546	1,83,880	53,046	2,07,454	10,068	2,54,937
1915-16	42,25,608	2,11,456	41,704	2,01,012	9,291	2,36,497
1916-17	35,38,236	2,87,043	70,529	2,47,991	24,183	2,93,466
1917-18	64,12,808	7,09,467	1,18,336	2,91,052	88,628	3,49,490
1918-19	1,16,18,396	7,48,545	2,10,582	5,07,555	56,612	6,75,343
1919-20	1,28,66,707	7,67,021	3,32,972	6,12,726	68,383	8,66,681
1920-21	2,03,33,415	7,50,690	3,17,920	6,97,185	73,846	9,19,814
1921-22	1,93,50,732	6,54,913	2,65,202	6,85,350	57,825	9,02,784
1922-23	1,54,78,696	5,46,783	2,27,530	7,29,192	1,50,077	8,61,929
1923-24	1,30,36,943	8,92,005	2,22,633	6,79,024	1,66,758	7,52,779
	Total British India.		Native States.		Grand Total.	
	Gross duty.	Net duty.	Gross duty.	Gross duty.	Net duty.	
1902-03	18,66,213	18,25,469	65,541	19,31,754	18,91,010	
1903-04	20,77,449	20,36,104	59,061	20,95,149	20,95,149	
1904-05	23,81,825	23,33,636	67,320	24,49,145	24,06,976	
1905-06	27,06,784	26,71,061	83,455	27,90,239	27,54,516	
1906-07	29,00,957	28,64,202	81,976	29,32,671	29,46,152	
1907-08	33,99,717	33,55,946	97,499	34,97,216	34,53,443	
1908-09	35,43,778	34,98,480	1,14,498	36,58,276	36,12,977	
1909-10	40,06,193	39,61,020	1,37,699	41,43,892	40,93,719	
1910-11	42,26,575	41,75,878	1,75,878	44,56,129	44,01,707	
1911-12	48,79,478	48,04,492	1,82,479	50,61,957	49,86,971	
1912-13	56,17,969	55,76,567	2,21,178	58,39,147	57,97,745	
1913-14	54,39,043	53,95,014	2,38,393	56,77,436	56,33,407	
1914-15	49,40,931	49,32,185	2,33,160	51,74,091	51,65,345	
1915-16	49,25,571	48,40,107	1,90,275	51,15,846	50,30,382	
1916-17	44,61,448	43,80,425	2,47,301	47,08,749	46,27,726	
1917-18	76,20,779	75,45,252	4,84,780	80,05,559	79,37,032	
1918-19	1,38,17,033	1,36,79,252	5,07,891	1,43,24,924	1,41,87,143	
1919-20	1,55,14,490	1,52,54,671	8,90,778	1,64,05,268	1,61,45,449	
1920-21	2,30,92,870	2,28,71,827	9,65,902	2,47,58,772	2,38,87,729	
1921-22	2,19,16,806	2,12,28,108	10,07,533	2,29,24,345	2,22,35,647	
1922-23	1,87,34,207	1,74,22,997	11,53,142	1,98,87,149	1,85,76,139	
1923-24	1,57,40,142	1,54,72,407	11,67,300	1,69,07,442	1,66,39,797	

The Jute Industry.

Considering its present dimensions, the jute industry of Bengal is of very recent origin. The first jute mill in Bengal was started at Rishra in 1855, and the first power-loom was introduced in 1859. The original output was 8 tons per day. In 1909 it had grown to 2,500 tons per day, it is now 4,000 tons per day, and it shows every indication of growing and expanding year by year. Another interesting thing about the jute industry of Bengal is that, although it is practically a monopoly of Scotsmen from Dundee, the industry itself owes its inception to an Englishman. The founder of the industry was George Acland, an Englishman, who began life as a midshipman in the navy, and was for some years in the East India Marine Service. He quitted this service while still a young man, and engaged in commercial pursuits in Ceylon, where he was successful. Later on he turned his attention to Bengal, and arriving in Calcutta about 1853 he got into touch with the management of the paper works, then at Serampore, where experiments were being tried with country grasses and fibre plants to improve the quality or cheapen the manufacture of paper. This seems to have suggested to Acland the manufacture of reha, and in 1854 he proceeded to England, with a view to obtaining machinery and capital in order to manufacture goods from that material. During this trip he visited Dundee, and while there Mr. John Kerr, of Douglas Foundry, suggested to him the importing of machinery into Bengal "where the jute comes from and spin it there." This suggestion bore fruit, for shortly afterwards Acland placed orders with Kerr for a few systems of preparing and spinning machinery, and returned to India the same year accompanied by his two sons and a few Dundee mechanics who were to assist him in erecting and operating the first jute mill in Bengal. This, as has been stated, was at Rishra, the site of the present Wellington mills, near Serampore, and here, in 1855, the first machine spun jute yarns were made. As not infrequently happens the pioneer got very little out of his venture. After several ups and downs the Acland interest in the Rishra mill ceased in 1867, and the company which Acland had formed in 1854 was wound up in 1868.

Power-loom.—The pioneer's example was followed by Mr. George Henderson of that silk and firm, and in 1859 the Borneo Jute Co. was launched under his auspices. To this company is due the credit of introducing the power-loom for jute cloth. Unhampered by the financial difficulties which had burdened the Aclands, the Borneo Jute Co. made rapid progress, doubling their works in 1864, and clearing their capital twice over. In 1872 the mills were turned into a limited liability company, the present "Barnagore Jute Manufacturing Co., Ltd." Four other mills followed in succession—Gouripore, Serajunge, and India Jute Mills.

"From 1866 to 1873," writes Mr. David Wallace in "The Romance of Jute," "the five mills excepting the Rishra mill simply

coined money and brought the total of their looms up to 1,250." To illustrate the prosperity of the industry at this period we may take the dividends paid by the Barnagore Company. On the working of their first half year, a 15 per cent. interim dividend was declared, which seemed to justify the enormous capital at which the company was taken over from the Borneo Company, and shares touched 68 per cent. premium. The dividend for the first year, ending August 1873, was 25 per cent., for 1874, 20 per cent., and for 1875, 10 per cent. Then came a change. The investing public had forgotten the effect of the Port Canning bubble, and the condition of the jute industry in 1872-73 seeming to offer a better return than coal or tea, both of which had just enjoyed a boom, it was only necessary to issue a prospectus of a jute mill to have all the shares snapped up in the course of an afternoon.

In 1872-73 three new companies were floated locally—the Fort Gloster, Budge Budge and Sibpore, and two Home companies, the Champdany and Samnugger, all of which commenced operations in 1874. In 1874-5 eight other mills were launched—the Howrah, Oriental (now Union), Asiatic (now Soorah), Clive, Bengal Pressing and Manufacturing Co. (now the Bellaghatta-Barnagore branch mill), Rustomjee (now the Central), Ganges (registered in England), and Hastings, owned by Messrs. Birkmyre Bros., of Greenock fame—in all thirteen new companies, coming on all of a heap and swelling the total looms from 1,250 up to 3,500. This was too much of a strain for the new industry, and for the next ten years all the mills had a severe struggle. The older ones all survived the ordeal, but four of the new concerns—the Oriental, the Asiatic, the Bengal Pressing and Manufacturing Co. and the Rustomjee—became moribund, to appear again later on under new names and management. Fort Gloster also suffered badly.

Between 1875 and 1882 only one new mill was put up. This was Kamarahatty, promoted by Messrs. Jardine, Skinner & Co., which came into being in 1877, as the result of Dr. Barry's visit to Calcutta in 1876, when he transferred the agency of the Gouripore Co. from Messrs. Jardine, Skinner & Co. to his own firm. This mill, together with additions made by some of the other mills, brought the total looms up to 5,150 in 1882. By the end of 1885 the total was further augmented by the Hooghly, Titagur, Victoria and Kanknarrah mills, bringing the number of looms at work up to 6,700. From this period on to 1894 no new mills came into existence except the Calcutta Twist Mill, with 2,460 spindles, since merged into the Wellington branch of the Champdany Co. Between 1896 and 1900 the following new mills were started:—the Gordon Twist Mill with 1,800 spindles (now acquired by Anglo-India), Khardah, Gondopara (French owned), Alliance, Arathoon, Anglo-India, Standard, National, Delta (which absorbed the Serajunge), and the Kinnison. A full of four years witnessed large extensions to the existing mills, after which came the following series of new

mills, besides further heavy extensions—Dalhousie, Alexandra, Naihati, Lawrence, Reliance, Belvedere, Auckland, Kelvin and Northbrook.

Progress of the Industry.

THE record of the jute industry may well be said to be one of uninterrupted progress. The following statement shews quinquennial averages

from the earliest year for which complete information is available with actuals for each year from 1917-18 up to 1923-24 and the figures in brackets represent the variations for each period, taking the average of the quinquennium from 1879-80 to 1883-84 as 100:—

	Number of mills at work.	Authorised Capital (in lakhs of Rs.)	Number (in thousands) of		
			Persons employed.	Looms.	Spindles.
Average—					
1879-80 to 1883-84 ..	21 (100)	270.7 (100)	38.8 (100)	5.5 (100)	88 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89 ..	24 (114)	341.6 (126)	52.7 (136)	7 (127)	138.4 (157)
1889-90 to 1893-94 ..	26 (124)	402.6 (149)	64.3 (166)	8.3 (151)	172.6 (196)
1894-95 to 1898-99 ..	31 (148)	522.1 (193)	86.7 (223)	11.7 (213)	244.8 (278)
1899-1900 to 1903-04 ..	36 (171)	680 (251)	114.2 (294)	16.2 (295)	334.6 (380)
1904-05 to 1908-09 ..	46 (219)	960 (355)	165 (425)	24.8 (451)	510.5 (580)
1909-10 to 1913-14 ..	60 (286)	1,209 (443)	208.4 (537)	33.5 (600)	691.8 (786)
1914-15 to 1918-19 ..	73 (348)	1,403.6 (519)	259.3 (668)	39.7 (722)	821.2 (933)
1917-18 ..	76 (362)	1,428.5 (528)	266 (686)	40.6 (738)	834 (948)
1918-19 ..	76 (362)	1,477.2 (540)	275.5 (710)	40 (727)	839.9 (954)
1919-20 ..	76 (362)	1,563.5 (579)	280.4 (723)	41.0 (745)	856.3 (973)
1920-21 ..	77 (367)	1,923.5 (712)	288.4 (758)	41.6 (745)	869.9 (908)
1921-22 ..	81 (386)	2,122.4 (784)	288.4 (743)	43.0 (782)	908.3 (1,032)
1922-23 ..			304.6	45.5	943.4
1923-24 ..			319.5	47.0	985.4

The production of the mills has increased to a still greater extent. The following figures show the exports of jute manufactures and the declared values for the same periods. The value of jute manufactures exported by sea in 1923-24 was over thirty-three times as great as the average value of the export in the period 1879-80 to 1883-84:—

	Jute manufactures.		Value in lakhs of Rs.
	Gunny bags in millions of number.	Gunny cloths in millions of yards.	
1879-80 to 1883-84 ..	54.9 (100)	4.4 (100)	124.9 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89 ..	77 (140)	15.4 (350)	162.9 (130)
1889-90 to 1893-94 ..	111.5 (203)	41 (932)	289.3 (232)
1894-95 to 1898-99 ..	171.2 (312)	182 (4,136)	518 (415)
1899-1900 to 1903-04 ..	200.5 (376)	427.2 (9,709)	826.5 (662)
1904-05 to 1908-09 ..	257.8 (469)	698 (15,864)	1,442.7 (1,154)
1909-10 to 1913-14 ..	339.1 (618)	970 (2,045)	2,024.8 (1,621)
1914-15 to 1918-19 ..	667.6 (1,216)	1,156 (26,273)	4,019.3 (3,218)
1919-20 ..	342.7 (624)	1,275.1 (28,980)	5,001.5 (4,004)
1920-21 ..	533.9 (987)	1,352.7 (33,800)	5,299.4 (4,273)
1921-22 ..	366.7 (715)	1,120.5 (28,000)	2,999.5 (2,419)
1922-23 ..	344.2 (637)	1,254.3 (31,350)	4,049.4 (3,205)
1923-24 ..	413.7 (762)	1,348.7 (30,652)	4,228.3 (3,382)

Until the outbreak of war the exports by sea of raw jute were marked by increases from year to year, although the increase was very much less than that in the case of manufactures. During the war years exports declined very considerably. The cessation of the war stimulated the export trade and in 1919-20, the exports showed an increase as compared with the average of the war quinquennium (1914-15 to 1918-19). In the following two years, the exports recorded a decrease and in 1922-23 they again made a recovery and amounted to 578,000 tons :

	Jute, raw, ton.
Average 1879-80 to 1883-84..	375,000 (100)
" 1884-85 to 1888-89..	445,000 (119)
" 1889-90 to 1893-94..	500,000 (133)
" 1894-95 to 1898-99..	615,000 (164)
" 1899-1900 to 1903-04..	625,000 (169)
" 1904-05 to 1908-09..	755,000 (201)
" 1909-10 to 1913-14..	765,000 (204)
" 1914-15 to 1918-19..	464,000 (124)
Year 1919-20 ..	592,000 (158)
" 1920-21 ..	472,000 (129)
" 1921-22 ..	468,000 (125)
" 1922-23 ..	578,000 (154)
" 1923-24 ..	660,000 (176)

The total quantity of jute manufactures exported by sea from Calcutta during the year 1922-23 was 663,000 tons as against 639,000 tons in the preceding year and 603,500 tons in the pre-war year 1913-14. The values of these exports amounted to Rs. 40.28 lakhs, or an increase of Rs. 10.36 lakhs over the preceding year and Rs. 12.08 lakhs over the pre-war year. The shipments of gunny bags were valued at Rs. 15.82 lakhs and of gunny cloth Rs. 24.24 lakhs as against Rs. 13.86 and Rs. 15.92 lakhs respectively in the preceding year and Rs. 12.48 and Rs. 15.58 lakhs in the pre-war year.

The price of raw jute reached a very high point in 1906-07, the rate being Rs. 65 per bale; in 1907-08 it dropped to Rs. 42 per bale, and the fall was accentuated in 1908-09 and 1909-10, the price having declined to 36.4 and Rs. 31. In 1917-18 it dropped to Rs. 38-8-0 but rose again in 1919-20 up to Rs. 77-8-0. In 1920-21

it dropped to Rs. 65, but rose again to Rs. 86. It again declined to Rs. 66. In 1921-22 the price rose to Rs. 73 at the end of September, but fell back again to Rs. 50 at the end of November and recovered at Rs. 64 at the close of the year.

Price of jute,
ordinary,
per bale of 400 lbs.

	Rs. a. p.
1879-80 to 1883-84 ..	23 8 0 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89 ..	23 3 2 (99)
1889-90 to 1893-94 ..	32 6 5 (138)
1894-95 to 1898-99 ..	30 12 0 (131)
1899-1900 to 1903-04 ..	32 1 7 (137)
1904-05 to 1908-09 ..	44 13 6 (191)
1909-10 to 1913-14 ..	51 0 10 (217)
1914-15 to 1918-19 ..	58 6 5 (214)
1917-18 ..	50 8 0 (164)
1918-19 ..	60 0 0 (255)
1919-20 ..	77 8 0 (330)
1920-21 ..	69 8 0 (296)
1921-22 ..	63 0 0 (263)
1922-23 ..	73 0 0
1923-24 ..	55 0 0

The average prices of gunny cloth have been as follows:—

Price of Hessian cloth
10½ oz. 40" per 100 yds.

	Rs. a. p.
1879-80 to 1883-84 ..	10 7 11 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89 ..	8 0 7 (77)
1889-90 to 1893-94 ..	10 6 6 (99)
1894-95 to 1898-99 ..	9 11 8 (93)
1899-1900 to 1903-04 ..	10 2 10 (97)
1904-05 to 1908-09 ..	11 14 1 (112)
1909-10 to 1913-14 ..	12 12 2 (122)
1914-15 to 1918-19 ..	23 5 7 (222)
1917-18 ..	33 8 0 (319)
1918-19 ..	33 0 0 (314)
1919-20 ..	28 0 0 (267)
1920-21 ..	20 8 0 (195)
1921-22 ..	14 8 0 (139)
1922-23 ..	21 12 0
1923-24 ..	19 13 0

The 1924 crop.—The final figures of outturn for the three provinces work out as follows:—

PROVINCE.	BALES.	
	1923.	1924.
Bengal (Including Cooch Behar) ..	6,204,516	72,39,855
Bihar and Orissa (Including Nepal) ..	463,791	422,289
Assam ..	322,600	823,990
Total ..	6,995,807	7,986,144

PROVINCE.	AREA IN ACRES.	
	1923.	1924.
Bengal (Including Cooch Behar) ..	2,014,615	23,83,290
Bihar and Orissa ..	183,770	2,12,200
Assam ..	114,300	1,14,300
Total ..	2,312,685	2,714,790

The Indian Jute Mills Association now one of the most important, if not the most important, of the bodies affiliated to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce, was started under the following circumstances:—In 1886 the existing mills, finding that, in spite of the constant opening up of new markets, working results were not favourable, came to an agreement, with the late S. E. J. Clarke, Secretary to the Chamber of Commerce, as trustee, to work short time. The only mills which stood out of this arrangement were the Hooghly and Serajgunge. The first agreement, for six months dating from 15th February 1886, was subsequently renewed at intervals without a break for five years up to February 15, 1891. The state of the market at the time of the renewals dictated the extent of the short time, which varied throughout the five years between 4 days a week, 9 days a fortnight and 5 days a week. Besides short time, 10 per cent. of the sacking looms were shut down for a short period in 1890. An important feature of this agreement was a mutual undertaking by the parties not to increase their spinning power during the currency of the agreement, only a few exceptions being made in the case of a few incomplete new mills.

The present officials of the Association are:—
Chairman.—Mr. K. N. Band, M.L.C.
Members of Committee.—Mr. C. G. Cooper, M.L.C., Mr. J. Sime, Mr. J. W. A. Simpson and Mr. D. J. Leckie.

Working days.—With the introduction of the electric light into the mills in 1896, the working day was increased to 15 hours, Saturdays included, which involved an additional amount of cleaning and repairing work on Sundays. In order to minimise this Sunday work and give them a free Sunday, an agitation was got up in 1897 by the Mill European assistants to have the engines stopped at 2 or 3 p.m. on Saturdays. The local Government took the matter up, but their action went no further than applying moral suasion, backed by a somewhat half-hearted threat. The Mill Association held meetings to consider the question and the members were practically agreed as to the utility of early closing on Saturdays, but, more so, could not trust themselves to carry it out without legislation. Unfortunately the Government of India refused to sanction the passing of a Resolution by the provincial Government under the Factory Act and the matter was dropped. Only a year or two ago the Jute Mills Association in despair brought out an American business expert, Mr. J. H. Parks, to advise them on the possibility of forming a jute trust with a view to exercising some control over the production and price of jute. Mr. Parks came, and wrote a report which the Association promptly pigeon-holed because the slump was over and the demand was so prodigious that there was no need to worry about the price of jute.

An Association, styled the Calcutta Jute Dealers Association, has lately been formed in Calcutta to promote and to guard the common interests of its members as dealers in jute for local consumption. The members are balers and brokers of jute for sale to the jute mill in and around Calcutta. The present Committee:—Mr. Geo. Morgan, J.L.A., Chairman, Members:—Messrs. D. King, G. C. Moon,

J. Campbell Forrester, M.L.C., J. R. Miller and D. A. Wylie.

Effects of the War.—The official review of the Trade of India in 1916-17 says:—The value of the exports of raw jute increased in 1916-17 by nearly Rs. 65 lakhs to Rs. 1,629 lakhs. The quantity exported, however, was less than in the preceding year. The estimated yield of the crop was 12 per cent. above that of the previous year, viz., 1,490,000 tons or 8,340,000 bales. Owing to the lack of tonnage and other abnormal circumstances brought about by the war, the quantity exported was 10 per cent. below that of the previous year. Of the consumers the United Kingdom and Italy took less, while the United States, France (mainly via Dunkirk), Russia (via Vladivostok) and Brazil took greater quantities. There were, of course, no exports to enemy countries which took more than 27 per cent. in the five years ending 1913-14, the pre-war year. The increase in the value accompanied by a decrease in the volume of exports was due to the very high range of prices during the months of September, October, November and December. Towards the close of the year under review prices steadily declined, and have since gone still lower.

Jute Manufactures.—The value of the exports now approximates to Rs. 42 crores. In spite of the war with its attendant difficulties of freight and finance, the exports of gunny cloth showed an increase of Rs. 241 lakhs of which Rs. 163 lakhs were due to higher prices and Rs. 78 lakhs to an increase in the volume of exports. There were also an increase of Rs. 118 lakhs in the value of gunny bags exported. The number of bags shipped increased while the weight decreased, and bags for war purposes being lighter than the ordinary bags for transporting grain. Exports to Australia in 1916-17 were a record. The United Kingdom with Australia took more than half of the number of bags exported while the United States took more than half of the quantity of cloth exported.

There were 74 mills at work throughout the year with 41,292 looms and 863,339 spindles. The number of persons employed was 285,831. There were no difficulties as regards the supply of labour.

The number of gunny bags shipped from Calcutta during 1922-23 declined from 386 million bags to 342 million bags, but the value increased from Rs. 13,87 lakhs to Rs. 15,82 lakhs. Shipments of gunny cloth rose from 1,120 million yards to 1,251 million yards valued at Rs. 15,92 lakhs and Rs. 24,24 lakhs, respectively.

Hemp and Jute Substitutes.

Experiments have been made during the last few years by the Agricultural Department of the Government of India with the Deccan hemp plant (*Hibiscus cannabinus*), which yields a fibre very similar to jute. As a result, a new variety of the plant, known as Type 3, has been obtained, which it is now proposed to introduce into several parts of India, and, as a beginning, the variety is to be grown on a number of estates in Bihar. A sample of the fibre prepared from this variety by the usual methods of retting was 10 ft. to 12 ft. long, of an exceptionally light colour, well cleaned, and of good strength

It was valued at £18 per ton with Bimilpatam jute at £12 10s., and Bengal first mark jute at £17 per ton. Deccan hemp has been grown fairly extensively in Bombay, the Central Provinces, and Madras, where it is used for ropes and cordage and also for the manufacture of a coarse sackcloth. A valuable feature of the plant is its suitability for cultivation in such parts of India as are not suitable for jute.

Prior to the war, the United Kingdom's requirements of hemp were mainly supplied by the following countries in order of importance:—the Philippine Islands, New Zealand, India, Russia, Italy and Germany. The opinion appears to be held that the effect of the war will be to cause very considerable changes in the character of the fibre market. There will probably be labour difficulties, it is thought, in the prepa-

ration of the hemp crops of Russia and Hungary, and it is not unlikely that the world will look to countries such as India for the supply of fibres which may be used as substitutes for the European varieties of hemp. There can be no doubt that one of the early effects of the war was to firm up hemp prices. As far as Indian hemp is concerned, values were persistently depreciated during the first six months of 1914 owing to large stocks held; but the closure of the Russian hemp market on the outbreak of war resulted in a marked improvement in values, and there was a keen demand and a considerable rise in price. Exports from Calcutta during 1922-23 made a great recovery from the previous year. The quantity advanced by 37 per cent. from 197,412 cwts. to 269,487 cwts. and the value from Rs. 26.93 lakhs to Rs. 36.68 lakhs.

THE WOOL INDUSTRY.

Wool exported from India consists not only of wool grown in India itself, but of imports from foreign sources, these latter coming into India both by land and by sea. Imports by sea come chiefly from Persia, but a certain quantity from Persia also comes by land, while the main imports are from Afghanistan, Central Asia, Tibet and Nepal. Quetta, Shikarpur, Amritsar and Multan are the main collecting centres for wool received by land from Afghanistan and Persia, whence it is almost invariably railed to Karachi for subsequent export overseas.

Imports and Exports.—A considerable amount of wool is imported annually from Tibet and, in normal years, from Afghanistan. Total imports of raw and manufactured wool in 1923-24 were valued at Rs. 2.84 lakhs, the exports in the same year totalled in value Rs. 4.00 lakhs.

Production in India.—The production of wool in India is estimated at 60 million lbs. the estimate being arrived at from the available figures of the number of sheep in the country and their estimated yield per fleece, the average quantity of wool yielded per sheep per annum being taken at only 2 lbs.

All Indian wools are classed in the grade of carpet wools, and it is correct to say of perhaps fully half the breeds of sheep found on the plains of India that they yield a kind of hair rather than of wool. They are reared chiefly on account of the mutton, and the fleece has been generally regarded as of subsidiary interest. In many respects, in actual fact, the Indian plains sheep approximate more nearly to the accepted type of the goat rather than of the sheep. Short remarks in his manual on Indian cattle and sheep, particularly with respect to the Madras type, that they "resemble a greyhound with tucked up belly, having some coarseness of form, the feet light, the limbs bony, sides flat and the tail short."

Mill manufacture.—The number of woollen mills at work in British India in 1902 was three, with an authorised capital of Rs. 38,50,000, and employing 23,800 spindles and 624 looms. The number of persons employed in the industry then was 2,559, and the quantity of woollen goods produced 2,148,000 lbs. At

the end of 1917 the number of mills had risen to five, with an authorised capital of Rs. 2,56,50,000 employing 39,603 spindles and 1,155 looms. The weight of goods produced then was 9,744,264 lbs. and the number of persons employed 7,824. With regard to Indian States, there was one mill in Mysore in 1903 with a capital of Rs. 6,00,000, employing 1,430 spindles and 45 looms. The quantity of goods produced was 1,136,000 lbs. and the number of persons employed 297. In 1907 there was still only the one mill working in an Indian State—the authorised capital had been increased to Rs. 15,00,000, the quantity of goods produced to 1,724,087 lbs., and the number of persons employed to 563. Three of the mills manufacture all classes of woollen and worsted goods, the remainder manufacturing blankets only. The existence of these mills in India proved of great service to Government in the meeting of war requirements, and they were all employed to their fullest capacity in supplying army demands for greatcoat cloth, serges, putties, flannels, blankets and hosiery. Their total capacity, however, was not sufficient to meet the full requirements of the army, and consequently their supplies had to be supplemented by large imports from home. The bulk of the wool used by the Indian mills is Indian wool, although it is supplemented to some extent by the importation of merinos and cross-breeds from Australia for the manufacture of the finer classes of goods. Their market for manufactured goods is almost entirely in India itself.

Blanket weaving and carpet manufacture are carried on in various parts of the country, notably in the Punjab and the United Provinces. Woollen pile carpets are made in many of the jails. Amritsar had a considerable trade at one time in weaving shawls from *pashm*, the fine under fleece of the Tibetan goat, but its place has been taken to some degree by the manufacture of shawls from imported worsted yarns, but more generally by the manufacture of carpets of a fine quality which find a ready sale in the world market. This work is done entirely on hand looms and the carpets fetch a high price.

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Silk.

In the early days of the East India Company the Indian Silk trade prospered greatly, and various sub-tropical races of the Silkworm were introduced. But the trade gradually declined for the following reasons:—

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries India's chief competitor in the silk trade was the Levant Company. Successful efforts, however, were made to acclimatise in Europe one or two races of a temperate worm, procured from China and Japan. When sericulture became part of the agriculture of France and Italy, a quality of silk was produced entirely different from that of India and Turkey, and its appearance created a new demand and organized new markets.

All subsequent experience seems to have established the belief that the plains of India, or at all events of Bengal, are never likely to produce silk that could compete with this new industry. On the lower hills of Northern India, on the other hand, a fair amount of success has been attained with this (to India) new worm, as, for example, in Dehra Dun and Kashmir. In Manipur, it would appear probable that *Bombyx mori*, possibly obtained from China, has been reared for centuries. The caprice of fashion has, from time to time, powerfully modified the Indian silk trade. The special properties of the *korah* silk were formerly much appreciated but the demand for them has now declined. This circumstance, together with defective systems of rearing and of hand-reeling and weaving, accounts largely for the present depression in the mulberry silk trade of India.

Mulberry-feeding worms.—Sir George Watt states that in no other country does the necessity exist so pressingly as in India to treat the subject of silk and the silk industries under two sections, viz. *Bombycidae*, the domesticated or mulberry-feeding silk worms; and *Saturniidae*, the wild or non-mulberry-feeding worms. In India the mulberry worm (*Bombyx Mori*) has been systematically reared for many centuries, there being six chief forms of it. In the temperate tracts of India various forms of *Morus alba*, (the mulberry of the European silk-producing countries), are grown specially as food for the silkworm. This is the case in many parts of the plains of Northern India, Baluchistan, Afghanistan, Kashmir, and along the Himalaya at altitudes up to 11,000 feet. The other species even more largely grown for the Indian silkworm is *M. Indica* of which there are many distinctive varieties or races. This is the most common mulberry of Bengal and Assam, as also of the Nilgiri hills.

India has three well-known purely indigenous silkworms; the *tasar*, the *muga* and the *eri*. The first is widely distributed on the lower hills, more especially those of the great central tableland, and feeds on several jungle trees. The second is confined to Assam and Eastern Bengal, and feeds on a laurel. The third exists in a state of semi-domestication, being reared on the castor-oil plant. From an art point of view the *muga* silk is the most interesting and attractive, and the cocoon can be reeled readily. The *eri* silk, on the other hand, is so extremely

difficult to reel that it is nearly always carded and spun—an art which was practised in the Khasi Hills of Assam long before it was thought of in Europe.

Experiments and results.—Numerous experiments have been made with a view to improving sericulture in India. French and other experts are agreed that one of the causes of the decline of the silk industry in India has been the prevalence of diseases and parasites among the worms, the most prevalent disease being pebrine. M. Lafont, who has conducted experiments in cross breeding, believes that improvement in the crops will be obtained as soon as the fight against pebrine and other diseases of the worms is taken up vigorously by the producers of seed and the rearers of worms, while improvement in the quality of the cocoons will be obtained by rearing various races, pure and cross breeds.

In Kashmir and Mysore satisfactory results have been obtained. In the former State sericulture has been fostered on approved European principles with Italian reeling machinery, seed being imported annually on a large scale. In 1897 in Mysore Mr. Tata, after selecting a plantation and site for rearing houses, sent to Japan for a Superintendent and trained operatives. The Mysore authorities have made a grant of Rs. 3,000 a year to the Tata firm in return for instruction given to the people of Mysore in Japanese methods of growing the mulberry and rearing the insects. The products of the Mysore State are exported to foreign countries from Madras. The work of the Salvation Army is also noteworthy in various parts of India. They have furnished experts, encouraged the planting of mulberry trees, and subsidised several silk schools. The draft prospectus has been issued of a silk farm and institute to be started at Simla under the auspices of the Salvation Army. The Lieut.-Governor of the Punjab has permitted the school to be called after his name, and the Punjab Government made a grant of Rs. 2,000 towards the expenses. Sir Dorabji Tata has also made a donation of Rs. 1,000. The Bengal Silk Committee under the guidance of some French experts have conducted cross-breeding experiments with a view to establish a multi-voltine hybrid of European quality. There is a Government sericultural farm at Berhampore, where, it is said, a pure white multi-voltine of silk worm is reared. The results of the Bengal Committee's labours may be summed up as follows: the only really effective method of dealing with the problem is to work up gradually to a point at which the whole of the seed cocoon necessary for the province will be supplied to rearers under Government supervision, and to establish gradually a sufficient number of large nurseries throughout the silk districts of the province.

In 1915 there was issued by the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, a *Bulletin* (No. 48 of 1915) entitled "First Report on the Experiments carried out at Pusa to improve the Mulberry Silk Industry." In a short Prefatory note Mr. Bainbridge Fletcher (Imperial Entomo-

logist) explains that the object of the Bulletin is to place on record some of the more important experiments which were commenced at Pusa in the year 1910 and have since been carried on in the endeavour to fix a superior multivoltine race of the Mulberry Silkworm which would not degenerate and which would yield silk better both in quality and outturn than that supplied by the multivoltine races which are reared at present.

Central Nurseries.—The report of the Agricultural Department, Bengal, for the year ending June 30, 1913, gives an account of a scheme which has been devised with the object of reclaiming the silk industry. The aim of the scheme is gradually to establish throughout the silk districts a sufficient number of central nurseries with rearing houses and thus enable the whole of the seed cocoons required in the province to be supplied under Government supervision. It is believed that this is the only really effective method of dealing with the problem. A number of the existing smaller nurseries were closed during 1913 and others are being converted into enlarged and improved central nurseries with rearing houses complete. The ultimate success of the scheme depends largely on the willingness of the rearers to pay an adequate price for pure seed.

A pamphlet was published in 1915, by Mr. M. N. De, Sericultural Assistant at Pusa, which contains practical hints on improved methods which are recommended to be used for reeling mulberry silk in Bengal and other silk producing districts. It has been found that, by the provision of two small pulleys to the ordinary

Bengal type of reeling machine, superior thread can be obtained, the cost of the extra apparatus is merely nominal (five or six annas per machine) whilst the suitability of the machine for cottage workers is maintained. By attention to such simple points as the stifling and storage of cocoons and the temperature and quality of the water used in the reeling pans, great improvements can be effected in most silk centres in Bengal and other districts.

Exports of Silk.—As a result of the war the trade has showed in some degree signs of revival from its decadent condition, both as regards its volume and value. The value of exports during 1915-16 improved by Rs. 12 lakhs to Rs. 27½ lakhs, of which raw silk accounted for Rs. 24 lakhs. In 1916-17 the total exports rose to Rs. 54½ lakhs. In 1922-23 exports of raw silk amounted to Rs. 38 lakhs and of silk manufactures to approximately Rs. 2½ lakhs.

Imperial Silk Specialist.—At the end of 1915 it was decided that the first step to be taken to revive the silk industry should be the employment of a qualified expert who, after a careful study of the conditions not only in India but in other silk-producing countries, will formulate recommendations for the consideration of Government. With the approval of the Secretary of State, Mr. H. Maxwell Lefroy, formerly Imperial Entomologist and now Professor at the Imperial College of Science and Technology, South Kensington, was appointed to the temporary post of Imperial Silk Specialist.

Indigo.

Indigo dyes are obtained from the Indigofera, a genus of Leguminosae which comprises some 300 species, distributed throughout the tropical and warm temperate regions of the globe, India having about 40. Western India may be described as the headquarters of the species, so far as India is concerned, 25 being peculiar to that Presidency. On the eastern side of India, in Bihar, Bengal, Assam and Burma, there is a marked decrease in the number of species but a visible increase in the prevalence of those that are met with.

There is evidence that when Europeans first began to export the dye from India, it was procured from the Western Presidency and shipped from Surat. It was carried by the Portuguese to Lisbon and sold by them to the dyers of Holland, and it was the desire to obtain a more ample supply of dye stuff that led to the formation of the Dutch East India Company and so to the overthrow of the Portuguese supremacy in the East. Opposition to indigo in 17th century Europe was keen owing to its interference with the wood industry, but it was competition to obtain indigo from other sources than India that led to the first decline of the Indian indigo industry.

In the middle of the eighteenth century, when the cultivation of indigo in the West Indies had been given up—partly on account of the high duties imposed upon it and partly because sugar and coffee were found to be more profitable—the industry was revived in India, and, as one of the many surprises of the industry, the province of Bengal was selected for this revival. It had no sooner been organised, however, than troubles next arose in Bengal itself through misunderstandings between the planters, their cultivators and the Government, which may be said to have culminated in Lord Macaulay's famous *Memorandum* of 1837. This led to another migration of the industry from Lower and Eastern Bengal to Tirhut and the United Provinces. Here the troubles of the industry did not end, for the researches of the chemical laboratories of Germany threatened the very existence of any natural vegetable dye. They first killed the madder dye of Europe, then the safflower, the lac and the *al* dyes of India, and are now advancing rapidly with synthetic indigo, intent on the complete annihilation of the natural dye. Opinions differ on many aspects of the present vicissitude; meantime the exports from India have seriously declined, and salvation admittedly lies in the path of

cheaper production both in cultivation and manufacture. These issues are being vigorously faced and some progress has been accomplished, but the future of the industry can scarcely help being described as of great uncertainty. The issue is not the advantage of new regulations of land tenure, but one exclusively of natural versus synthetic indigo. (See Watt's "Commercial Products of India.") In this connection it may be noted that increases in the price of coal in England, due to labour difficulties, have greatly strengthened the position of natural indigo. In February 1915 a conference was held at Delhi when the possibility of assisting the natural indigo industry was considered from three points of view—agricultural, research and commercial. The agricultural or botanical side of the question is fully discussed by Mr. and Mrs. Howard of Pusa in Bulletins Nos. 51 and 54 of the Agricultural Research Institute. Other aspects of the question were fully examined last year in the *Agricultural Journal* of India by Mr. W. A. Davis, Indigo Research Chemist to the Government of India. An Indigo Cess

Bill was passed in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1918. It provides for a cess on indigo exported from India for the scientific investigation of the methods of cultivation and manufacture of indigo, the proceeds of the cess being received and expended by Government.

Decline of the Industry.—Since synthetic indigo was put upon the market, in 1897, the natural indigo industry of India has declined very rapidly; apart from slight recoveries in 1906-07 and 1911-12, the decline continued without a break until the revival due to the impossibility of obtaining artificial dyes in sufficient quantities during the war.

The total area under indigo in 1923 is estimated at 185,400 acres, which is 57 per cent. below the finally revised area of 1922. The total yield of dye is estimated at 36,100 cwts. (53,900 factory maunds *) as against 53,800 cwts. (80,200 factory maunds), the finally revised estimate of 1922, or a decrease of 33 per cent. Details for the province are given below:—

Province.	Area (acres).		Yield (cwts.)	
	1923-24.	1922-23.	1923-24.	1922-23.
Madras	95,900	142,600	22,000	34,000
United Provinces	19,800	39,100	2,200	4,000
Bihar and Orissa	24,800	35,400	4,200	4,100
Punjab	36,000	50,300	6,600	9,300
Bengal	900	7,300	(a)	200
Bombay and Sind (including Indian States)	8,000	11,900	1,100	2,200
Total ..	185,400	293,600	36,100	53,800

Exports.—The exports by sea to foreign countries were in each of the last five years (in cwts.) as follows:—

From—	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
Calcutta	cwts. 15,739	cwts. 3,961	cwts. 6,340	cwts. 2,180	cwts. 3,316
Madras ports	12,138	4,874	5,062	1,735	2,744
Bombay	4,179	1,301	837	555	574
Karachi	631	114	123	65	63
Total ..	32,687	10,250	12,362	4,535	6,702

* One factory maund 75 lbs.

(a) Less than 50 cwts.

OILS AND OIL CAKES.

The production of oil-seeds—rape, mustard, linseed, sesamum, and ground-nut—was estimated in 1920-21 at 2,762,000 tons of which 489,000 tons, or 18 per cent, were exported. Exports in 1922-23 amounted to 1,177,000 tons valued at Rs. 27.35 lakhs, showing an increase of 60 per cent. in quantity and 57 per cent. in value compared with the previous year.

A pamphlet on the subject recently published by the Commercial Intelligence Department points out that it is both economically and industrially unsound for India to export her oil seeds instead of manufacturing the oils and oil cakes in India. It allows other countries to reap the manufacturers' profits and at the same time deprives Indian agriculture of the great potential wealth, as cattle-food and manure, contained in the oil cakes. An immense quantity of oil is, as a matter of fact, already manufactured in this country by more or less crude processes. Village oil mills worked by bullocks and presses worked by hand exist in all parts of the country and supply most of the local demand for oil. There has also been a great increase in recent years in the number of oil mills worked by steam or other mechanical power. These crush all the commoner oil seeds and development has been especially marked in the case of mustard oil, castor oil and ground-nut oil. In spite of all this there has been a perceptible diminution in the export of oil from India, particularly of coconut oil and linseed oil, and an increase in the export of oil seeds, which is particularly marked in the case of copra and groundnuts. The situation created by the War has naturally led to too much discussion of the possibility of developing on a large scale the existing oil-milling industry in India.

There are three difficulties with which any proposal to develop in India an oil-milling

industry on a great scale is faced. In the first place, there exist high protective tariffs in European countries which encourage the export from India of the raw material rather than the manufactured product. Secondly, there is a better market for the oil cake in Europe than in India and the freight on oil seeds is less than the freight on cake. Thirdly, it is much easier and less expensive to transport oil seeds by sea than it is to transport oil. While this has been the position in the European markets, Indian made oils, other than coconut oil, have made enough headway in Eastern markets to suggest the possibility of a development of those markets.

The problem of finding a market for oil cakes is equally important. The value of oil cakes is much better appreciated in Europe than in India. The Indian cultivator is prejudiced against the use of machine-made cake as a cattle food or as manure because he considers that it contains less oil and therefore less nourishment than the village-made cake. He is therefore unwilling to buy it except at a reduced price. His prejudices on this point have no justification in fact since experts are agreed that mill cake is a better food for cattle than village-made cake. Even when the mill cake contains less oil than the village cake, there is still more oil in the cake than cattle can digest. The excess of oil in the village cake, where it exists, is a drawback and not an advantage to the use of the cake as food. A considerable amount of demonstration work has been done by the Agricultural Departments of Government in order to remove the cultivator's prejudices and there is said now to be an increasing demand for most classes of mill cake.

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modifications of them in their application translations and musical compositions. In the case of works first published in British India the sole right to produce, reproduce, perform or publish a translation is, subject to an important proviso, to subsist only for ten years from the first publication of the work. The provisions of the Act as to mechanical instruments for producing musical sounds were found unsuitable to Indian conditions. "The majority of Indian melodies," it was explained in Council, "have not been published, i.e., written in staff notation, except through the medium of the phonograph. It is possible in many cases to identify the original composer or author, and the melodies are subject to great variety of notation and tune. To meet these conditions s. 5 of the Indian Act follows the English Musical Copyright Act of 1902 by defining musical work as meaning any combination of melody and harmony, or either of them, printed, reduced to writing, or otherwise graphically produced or reproduced."

Tea.

Tea cultivation in India is chiefly in Assam, Bengal and Southern India, the cultivation elsewhere being comparatively unimportant. The total production of tea in India was estimated at 75 million lbs. in 1923, as compared with 312 million lbs. in 1922 and 274 million lbs. in 1921. Assam contributed 63 per cent. or nearly two-thirds of the total, Northern India (excluding Assam) nearly 25 per cent, and Southern India 12 per cent. The statement below shows the development of the industry during the past 18 years:—

	1915	1920	1921	1922	1923
ACREAGE.					
Assam	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Rest of Northern India ..	382,800	420,200	417,200	412,100	411,800
Southern India	181,300	193,800	200,600	203,200	203,600
Burma	68,000	88,400	91,200	92,900	94,900
	2,800	1,700	..	..	..
Total ..	634,900	704,100	709,000	708,200	710,300
PRODUCTION					
Assam	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)
Rest of Northern India ..	245,752	234,314	181,503	199,905	237,601
Southern India	94,695	75,237	61,362	75,126	92,076
Burma	31,610	35,655	31,399	36,548	45,679
	146	134	..	..	..
Total ..	372,203	345,340	274,264	311,600	375,356

Exports during the same years were as follows:—

Exports of tea by sea to foreign countries.

	1915-16	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)
From Northern India ..	301,429	251,508	284,378	253,906	206,871
From Southern India ..	37,035	34,238	20,403	34,296	41,879
From Burma	6	6	7	10	5
Total ..	338,470	285,752	313,878	288,296	338,755

The total exports during 1923-24 were valued at Rs. 31.65 lakhs, as compared with 288 million lbs., valued at Rs. 22.04 lakhs, in the previous year. The quantity exported to the United Kingdom increased by 19 per cent. from 248 to 293 million lbs., and the value by 46 per cent. from Rs. 19.14 to Rs. 27.97 lakhs. The consumption in the United Kingdom expanded less rapidly than in 1921, but the smaller amount imported together with larger re-exports effected a substantial reduction in the heavy stocks. Direct shipments to Canada and the United States were larger than in the preceding year. Australia slightly improved her demands from 4.0 to 4.3 million lbs., as against 7.5 million lbs. in 1921-22, due mainly to the competition of tea from Java. The exports to Ceylon increased from 3 to 4 million lbs. On the other hand, Mesopotamia and Persia reduced their demands. Bengal supplied 88 per cent. of the exports and Madras nearly 11 per cent.

EXPORTS AND PRICES.

The following table shows the quantity of Tea exported by sea and by land to Foreign Countries from India, Ceylon, and China in the years 1897-98 to 1923-24 with variations in index numbers, taking the figure of 1896-97 as 100:—

	INDIA		CEYLON.*		CHINA.†		Java.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	CHINA.†		
					Black and green.	Brick, table and dust.	
1898-99	158,589,488 [105]	122,395,518 [111]	147,967,200 [91]	68,017,067 [87]			
1899-1900	177,163,999 [118]	129,691,908 [118]	153,869,067 [95]	71,205,067 [91]			
1900-01	182,300,958 [125]	140,284,603 [136]	144,270,883 [90]	62,190,667 [86]			
1901-02	182,594,536 [121]	144,275,608 [137]	119,590,000 [74]	42,740,583 [54]			
1902-03	183,710,031 [122]	158,829,707 [137]	128,326,933 [79]	78,512,400 [100]			
1903-04	209,552,150 [139]	149,227,236 [136]	140,607,867 [88]	83,813,600 [107]			
1904-05	214,300,325 [142]	157,920,333 [143]	132,366,933 [83]	61,483,733 [78]			23,650,156 [100]
1905-06	216,770,366 [144]	171,256,703 [156]	112,152,533 [69]	70,784,267 [91]			27,455,019 [107]
1906-07	236,090,328 [157]	171,558,110 [156]	108,864,534 [67]	79,506,133 [101]			29,298,402 [114]
1907-08	228,187,826 [151]	181,128,298 [164]	130,022,266 [80]	84,940,000 [108]			36,579,041 [148]
1908-09	235,089,126 [156]	181,436,718 [165]	129,295,733 [80]	80,835,733 [103]			36,679,003 [148]
1909-10	250,521,064 [167]	189,585,924 [172]	120,174,800 [74]	79,617,600 [101]			40,639,185 [158]
1910-11	256,438,614 [170]	186,925,117 [170]	123,947,734 [77]	84,158,943 [107]			50,362,907 [196]
1911-12	263,515,774 [175]	184,720,534 [168]	137,788,933 [85]	87,251,467 [73]			61,691,452 [241]
1912-13	281,815,329 [187]	196,632,380 [169]	127,626,800 [79]	69,733,200 [89]			64,088,907 [253]
1913-14	291,715,041 [194]	197,419,430 [179]	109,259,733 [68]	82,274,400 [105]			71,322,504 [278]
1914-15	302,556,697 [201]	191,838,948 [174]	117,337,867 [73]	81,125,333 [103]			81,853,000 [241]
1915-16	304,433,163 [206]	214,900,383 [185]	143,662,000 [89]	93,776,667 [119]			101,603,335 [396]
1916-17	292,594,026 [194]	208,090,279 [189]	126,260,800 [78]	79,259,733 [101]			93,006,121 [332]
1917-18	360,631,933 [240]	195,231,592 [177]	89,115,333 [55]	60,936,666 [78]			80,236,200 [313]
1918-19	326,645,780 [217]	180,817,744 [164]	43,422,333 [27]	10,445,866 [13]			61,553,000 [241]
1919-20	332,631,694 [224]	208,560,843 [189]	71,801,200 [44]	20,182,400 [26]			110,762,430 [432]
1920-21	337,824,697 [231]	184,770,231 [168]	38,908,800 [24]	1,809,867 [2]			93,680,400 [365]
1921-22	347,566,850 [241]	161,610,966 [147]	53,892,533 [33]	3,158,532 [4]			67,652,200 [264]
1922-23	394,700,469 [266]	171,507,581 [156]	73,336,933 [45]	3,472,800 [4]			80,713,600 [315]
1923-24	344,774,111 [229]	181,393,731 [155]	98,012,133 [61]	8,813,167 [11]			90,138,400 [351]

* The figures for years previous to 1905-06 and also from 1917-18 to 1920-21 relate to the calendar year as it has been found impossible to procure complete data for the official year.
† In the case of Java the figure for 1905-06 has been taken as 100, earlier figures not being available.

The following statement illustrates the variations in prices of Indian tea sold at auction sales in Calcutta and in average declared values of exports by sea in 1889-90 and the six years ending 1923-24 the average price of 1901-02 to 1910-11 being taken as 100 in each case :—

Year.	Average price of Indian tea.		Average declared value of Exports by Sea.	
	Price.	Variation.	Price.	Variation.
	As. p.		As. p.	
1889-90	7 7	126	8 2	117
1918-19	8 0	133	8 9	125
1919-20	8 0	133	8 8	124
1920-21	5 1	85	6 10	98
1921-22	10 1	168	9 3	134
1922-23	13 3	221	12 3	175
1923-24	15 0	250	14 11	213

The following table shows the quantity of tea, green and black, produced, exported available for consumption in India during the years 1919-20 to 1923-24 (the figures in the last column being calculated after adding stocks left from previous year and deducting those left at end of year) :—

	Production.		Net exports.		Available balance.	
	lbs.		lbs.		lbs.	
1919-20	377,055,639		370,372,501		29,897,138	
1920-21	345,339,576		276,510,111		43,958,465	
1921-22	274,263,771		304,829,523		30,568,748	
1922-23	311,638,936		281,494,433		29,357,003	
1923-24	375,355,689		324,537,711		47,254,878	

Quantity of Indian Tea exported by sea* (distinguished according to countries of final destination) and by land, in the years 1918-19 to 1922-23.

	1919-20.	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
United Kingdom ..	336,916,942	240,111,440	268,716,739	242,491,397	296,287,665
Rest of Europe ..	1,747,449	191,714	666,770	1,367,387	1,883,514
Africa ..	3,113,264	2,808,314	5,431,617	4,480,087	3,678,638
Canada ..	8,299,579	7,995,940	11,900,753	10,450,161	12,177,980
U. S. A. ..	6,594,383	3,146,515	7,981,511	4,342,551	5,669,215
Rest of America ..	3,726,280	2,107,815	696,079	1,415,794	1,393,910
Ceylon (a) ..	1,720,735	3,274,846	4,115,485	2,570,260	3,845,870
China ..	161,356	29,610	15,323	9,474	14,628
Persia ..	1,950,402	2,050,955	1,282,752	2,925,787	2,357,863
Turkey, Asiatic ..	4,645,806	5,445,880	12,583,079	6,053,666	3,380,961
Rest of Asia ..	2,528,226	2,967,537	2,306,837	2,076,595	3,635,579
Australasia ..	7,782,976	6,521,278	8,291,313	4,483,706	4,772,039
By Land ..	2,837,296	1,772,848	8,644,592	6,074,544	(b) 5,476,240
GRAND TOTAL ..	332,033,694	287,524,697	317,566,850	294,700,469	314,774,111

* Including shipments from the State of Travancore.

(a) Tea consigned from British India to Ceylon is almost entirely transhipped at Colombo to other countries and does not, therefore, appear in the Ceylon Customs Returns as imports into Ceylon.

(b) Exclusive of the exports from the North-West Frontier Province for the months, July to February 1924, for which returns have not been received.

† Includes Mesopotamia.

Coffee.

The history of the introduction of coffee into India is very obscure. Most writers agree that it was brought to Mysore some two centuries ago by a Mohammedan pilgrim named Baba Budan, who, on his return from Mecca, brought seven seeds with him. This tradition is so universally believed in by the inhabitants of the greater part of South India, that there seems every chance of its being founded on fact. About the beginning of the 19th century there is no doubt coffee had found its way to India, and in 1823 a charter was granted to Fort Gloster, near Calcutta, authorising it to become a cotton mill, a coffee plantation and a rum distillery. Some of the coffee trees planted in fulfilment of that charter are supposed to be still alive, and about the same time coffee was successfully grown in the Botanic Gardens, Calcutta; but the industry of coffee planting nowhere found an abiding place on the plains of India but migrated to the hills of South India, in Mysore more especially, and thus into the very region where tradition affirms it had been introduced two centuries previously.

The first systematic plantation was apparently Mr. Cannon's near Chikmagalur. This was established in 1830. It is supposed, however, that Major Bevan may have actually grown coffee on the Wynad at a slightly earlier date and that Mr. Cockburn's Shevaroy plantation bears the same date as Mr. Cannon's. In 1840 Mr. Giasson formed a plantation at Manantoddy, and in 1846 plantations were organised on the Nilgiri hills.

The Position of the Industry.—The number of reporting plantations in the year 1922-23 was 2,998, covering an area of 227,676 acres, as against 2,961 with an area of 216,746 acres reported a year ago. New land planted with coffee in these plantations during the year amounted to 7,224 acres, while the area of old cultivation abandoned was 2,842 acres. This represents a net increase of 4,382 acres over the total area (127,272 acres) under coffee for 1921-22. The total reported area under cultivation in the year 1922-23 was, therefore, 131,655 acres, or an increase of 3 per cent. over that of the preceding year. Of this total area, Mysore accounted for 52 per cent., Coorg 24 per cent., Madras 22 per cent., and Cochin and Travancore together 2 per cent.

It is reported that in some of the coffee-growing districts coffee is giving way to tea, or where the altitude is not prohibitive, to rubber. The advent of large supplies of cheap

Brazilian coffees in the markets of Europe has by bringing down prices, no doubt injured the coffee industry of India very seriously.

Exports of Coffee.

		Cwts.
1902-03		269,165
1903-04		291,254
1904-05		329,647
1905-06		360,182
1906-07		228,094
1907-08		244,234
1908-09		392,022
1909-10		232,645
1910-11		272,249
1911-12		241,085
1912-13		267,000
1913-14		260,000
1914-15		290,000
1915-16		177,000
1916-17		198,000
1917-18		190,000
1918-19		219,000
1919-20		272,600
1920-21		233,400
1921-22		235,000
1922-23		169,000
1923-24		218,000

The pre-war average value of the coffee exports was Rs. 79,17,000. In 1923-24 the exports were valued at Rs. 1,58,89,000.

Labour—The daily average number of persons employed in the plantations during 1921-22 was returned at 69,191, of whom 42,036 were permanently employed (namely, garden labour 26,209 and outside labour 15,827) and 27,155 temporarily employed (outside labour), as compared with 74,945 persons (32,598 garden and 17,736 outside labour permanently employed and 24,611 temporary outside labour) in 1920-21.

INDIAN TOBACCO.

The tobacco plant was introduced into India by the Portuguese about the year 1605. As in other parts of the world, it passed through a period of persecution, but its ultimate distribution over India is one of the numerous examples of the avidity with which advantageous new crops or appliances are adopted by the Indian agriculturist. Five or six species of *Nicotiana* are cultivated, but only two are found in India, namely, *N. Tabacum* and *N. rustica*. The former is a native of South or Central America, and is the common tobacco of India. About the year 1829 experiments were conducted by the East India Company towards improving the quality of leaf and perfecting the native methods of curing and manufacturing tobacco. These were often repeated, and gradually the industry became identified with three great centres: namely, (1) Eastern and Northern Bengal (more especially the District of Rangpur); (2) Madras, Trichinopoly, Dindigul, Coconada and Calcutt in Southern India; and (3) Rangoon and Moulmein in Burma. Bengal is the chief tobacco growing Province, but little or no tobacco is manufactured there. The chief factories are near Dindigul in the Madras Presidency, though, owing to the imposition of heavy import duties on the foreign leaf used as a cigar wrapper, some cigar factories have been moved to the French territory of Pondicherry.

The question of improving the quality of Indian tobaccos has received the attention of the Botanical section of the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, and three Memoirs have been published recording the results of investigations in that direction. The immediate problem at Pusa is the production of a good cigarette tobacco. Many attempts have been made in the past to introduce into India the best varieties of cigarette tobacco from America, but the results have been disappointing. It is now hoped to build up by hybridizing new kinds of tobacco, suited to Indian conditions of growth, which possess in addition the qualities necessary to obtain a better price.

Area under Cultivation.—The cultivation of tobacco is very widespread in Burma. The two main varieties are called "Burmese tobacco" and "Havana tobacco." Of the Burmese tobacco there are two main varieties "Seywet-gyi," the large-leaved variety and "Seywet-gyun," a smaller-leaved variety with pointed leaves. The former yields a heavier crop, but the latter gives better quality. There is always a great demand on the market for both the Havana and the Burma tobacco. The smooth leaves of the Havana plant are used for the wrappers and the coarser Burmese leaf for the filling.

The most important tobacco tracts in British India are:—(i) the Coimbatore and Dindigul tract of Madras, where the *Uti-Kappal* and *Wara Kappal* varieties are largely grown, the former supplying the Trichinopoly cigar; (ii) the Godavari Delta of Madras; (iii) the

Rangpur tract of Bengal; (iv) the Districts of Bihar and Orissa; (v) Guzerat in Bombay and (vi) the delta tract of Burma.

The season for harvesting varies in different localities ranging from December to June, but the bulk of the crop is harvested during the months of February, March and April. The leaves when quite dry, are assorted and placed in heaps in stacks to ferment. They are then tied into bundles of 25 or 30, a useless leaf being employed for tying each bundle. The leaves are laid perfectly flat, the bundles being fan-shaped. In this condition they are baled, the broom-like ends projecting outwards. By varying the degree of fermentation of the leaves, different qualities of tobacco are obtained. A black variety is used in India for cake tobacco, and this is the most common product, but a certain amount of yellow leaf is grown for cigar making.

Small Holding Crop.—The area under tobacco in British India is always well above the million-acre line, and there are some 100,000 acres in the Indian States. The output varies, according to the attention given to the crop, from 200lb. to as much as 3,000 lb. of cured leaf per acre. The long-established Indian theory has been that the crop is suited only to small holdings, as it requires considerable attention and liberal manuring. But these latter conditions, as the history of the Assam tea industry shows, are not necessarily a bar to large plantations and organized production. The possibilities in this direction have been little explored, largely because cultivation in small holdings was current when British influence was established in India, whereas the cultivation of tea owes its introduction entirely to British enterprise. The great bulk of the tobacco grown in the country disappears in local consumption, but the export trade is developing.

Export Trade.—In the last three fiscal years the imports into the United Kingdom from India have risen from 1,677,000 lb. to 3,577,000lb. The trade continues to advance, and in the first five months of the fiscal year, 1923-24 the shipments to England reached close upon 800,000lb., as compared with 600,000lb. in the corresponding period of last year and 435,000lb. in the first five months of the previous year.

Since the duty in England is charged by weight and not by value, India, as an exporter of the relatively cheaper grades, has to pay more duty in proportion than some foreign countries. But the higher degree of preference she will now enjoy will provide a substantial set off, and at the same time stimulate the efforts being made to raise the quality of production. Another factor in the same direction is the effect of the heavier import duties on tobacco shipped to India, and the consequent tendency of middle-class and other consumers to find satisfaction in the homegrown article.

The form of cocaine chiefly used in India is Cocaine Hydrochloride. This salt forms light shining crystals, with a bitterish taste, and is soluble in half its weight of water. The alkaloid cocaine—of which this is a salt—is obtained from the dried leaves of the *Erythroxylon* Cocaine which grows in Bolivia, Peru, Java, Brazil and other parts of South America. The leaves are most active when freshly dried and are much used by the Natives as a stimulant. Tea made from them has a taste similar to green tea and is said to be very effectual in keeping people awake. In India the Coca plant seems never to have been cultivated on a commercial scale. It has been grown experimentally in the tea districts of Ceylon, Bengal and Southern India and has been found to produce a good quality and quantity of cocaine. As the plant has not been seriously cultivated and as there is no possibility for the present of the drug being manufactured in India, no restrictions have as yet been placed on its cultivation.

Spread of the habit.—The cocaine traffic in India which seems to be reaching alarming proportion in spite of legislation and strict preventive measures is of comparatively recent growth; though it is impossible to estimate how widespread it was in 1903 when the Bombay High Court for the first time decided that cocaine was a drug included within the definition of an intoxicating drug in the Bombay Abkari Act. Since that date the illegal sale of cocaine in India has largely increased and the various provincial Excise Reports bear witness to the spread of the "Cocaine habit." The consumers of the drug, which is notoriously harmful, are to be found in all classes of society and in Burma even school children are reported to be its victims; but in India as in Paris the drug is mostly used by prostitutes or by men as an aphrodisiac. The habit has spread chiefly to those classes which are prohibited by religion or caste rules from partaking of liquor and the well-known Indian intoxicating drugs.

Imports from Europe.—Cocaine and its allied drugs are not manufactured in India, but are imported. Most of the drug which is smuggled into India, comes from Germany and bears the mark of the well-known house of E. Merck, Darmstadt. This firm issues cocaine in flat packets of various sizes ranging from 1 to 3 ounces which are easily packed away with other articles and greatly favour the methods of smugglers. Owing to its strength and purity cocaine eaters prefer this brand to any other in the market. Cocaine is also being imported into India from Japan and America. The League of Nations has only recently imposed some restrictions on the export of Cocaine but their effect has not yet been felt in India.

Smuggling.—So far as the cases already detected show, the persons who smuggle the drug by sea from Europe and places outside India, into India, are chiefly sailors, stewards, firemen and sometimes engineers and officers of foreign ships. The ports through which cocaine enters India are Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Madras, Marmagao and Pondicherry. The main inland distributing centres are Delhi, Lucknow, Meerut, Lahore, Multan, Surat and Ahmedabad. Delhi especially is notorious for the cocaine trade. Great ingenuity is employed in smuggling cocaine through the Custom houses. It is packed in parcels of

newspapers, books, toys and piece-goods and in trunks which have secret compartments. The retail trade in the towns is very cunningly organized and controlled. In addition to the actual retailers, there is a whole army of watchmen and patrols whose duty is to shadow the Excise and Police Officials and give the alarm when a raid is contemplated. During the War several cases of importation of Japanese cocaine were detected, the importers being Japanese and Chinese sailors, but since the cessation of hostilities and the resumption of trade most of the seizures were made from European seamen chiefly Italians. The cocaine was chiefly of German origin. The original marks on the packets and phials are usually destroyed so that the name of the manufacturing firm may not be found out. In 1922-23 The largest seizure of cocaine made by the Excise Department in the Bombay Presidency was one of 10,500 grains while in 1923-24, a seizure of 24,000 grains was effected. In October 1924 the Excise Department made a seizure of 46,500 grains in a single case.

Price.—The amount seized is either given to Hospitals in India or destroyed. It is no longer possible to buy cocaine from any betel-nut seller as it was ten years ago, but scores of cases in the Police Courts show that the retail trade thrives, though to a diminished extent, in Bombay. High profits ensure the continuance of the trade. At present the English quotation varies from 21 to 22 shillings per ounce and the price as quoted by licensed chemists in India varies from Rs. 23 to Rs. 30 per ounce. Since the trade with Austria and Germany has revived, the wholesale illicit dealers have put down their prices for wholesale transactions to from Rs. 50 to Rs. 80 per ounce. The retail price of sale by grains varies from Rs. 120 to Rs. 150 per ounce. These profits are further enhanced by adulteration with phenacetin and inferior quinine.

The above prices are for Bombay. They are much higher up-country.

The law in regard to Cocaine.—This varies in different provinces. A summary of the law in Bombay is as follows: No cocaine can be imported except by a licensed dealer and importation by means of the post is entirely prohibited. The sale, possession, transport and export of cocaine are prohibited except under a license or permit from the Collector of the District. A duly qualified and licensed Medical practitioner is allowed to transport or remove 20 grains in the exercise of his profession; and as far as 6 grains may be possessed by any person if covered by a *bona fide* prescription from a duly qualified Medical practitioner. The maximum punishment for illegal sale, possession, transport, etc., under Act V of 1878 as amended by Act XII of 1912 is as follows: Imprisonment for a term which may extend to one year or fine which may extend to Rs. 2,000 or both and on any subsequent conviction imprisonment for a term which may extend to 2 years or fine which may extend to Rs. 4,000 or both. The law in Bombay has been further amended so as to enable security to be taken from persons who have been convicted of cocaine offences. The new Act also contains a section for the punishment of house owners who let their houses to habitual cocaine sellers.

The Opium Trade.

Two descriptions of opium must be distinguished. *Bengal* opium which is manufactured from poppy grown in the United Provinces; and *Malwa* opium which is almost entirely produced in certain Native States in Central India and Rajputana.

Bengal Opium.—Cultivation of poppy is only permitted under license. The cultivator to whom advances are made by Government free of interest is required to sell the whole of his production to the Opium Factory at Ghazipur at a rate fixed by Government, now Rs. 7/8 per seer of 70° consistency. The area licensed for cultivation has in recent years been much reduced as a consequence of the agreement between the Government of India and the Chinese Government, and is now restricted to the United Provinces. The following are the figures of the area under cultivation and of production in 1917-18: Bighas cultivated, 331,216; Gross produce in Maunds, 32,321; number of chests manufactured, 25,146. At the Factory two classes of opium are manufactured:

(1) "Provision" opium intended for export to foreign countries. This opium is made up in balls or cakes, each weighing 3.5 lbs., 70 cakes weighing 140 lbs. being packed in a chest.

(2) "Excise" opium intended for consumption in British India. This is made up in cubic packets, each weighing one seer, 60 packets being packed in one chest. It is of higher consistency than "provision" opium.

"Provision" opium is sold by public auction in Calcutta, the quantity to be sold being fixed by Government. This quantity has been reduced in recent years in accordance with the agreement with China, the figures being 15,440 chests in 1911 and 6,700 chests in 1912. Exports to China have been stopped altogether since 1913.

Malwa Opium.—The poppy from which Malwa opium is manufactured is grown chiefly in the Native States of Indore, Gwalior, Bhopal, Jaora, Dhar, Rutlam, Mewar and Kotah. The British Government has no concern with the cultivation of the poppy, or the manufacture of the opium: but it used to regulate, before exports to China were stopped, the import of Malwa opium into, and the transport through, its territories. As the chief market for Malwa opium was China, and as the States in which the drug is produced had no access to the sea, except through British territory, the British Government were able to impose a duty on the importation of the drug on its way to Bombay for exportation by sea.

No statistics of cultivation or production are available. The poppy is sown in November, the plants flower in February, and by the end of March the whole of the opium has been collected by the cultivators who sell the raw opium to the village bankers. It is then bought up by the large dealers who make it up into balls of about twelve ounces and store it until it is ready for export, usually in September or October. The opium is of 90° to 95° consistency and is packed in half chests: con-

siderable dryage took place in the case of new opium while transported to Bombay.

Sales of Malwa opium for export to China have ceased since January 1913 and the trade has become extinct since 17th December of that year when the last shipment was made. Practically the whole of the Malwa opium exported from Bombay went to China. There is no market for it in the Straits Settlements. A few chests annually are shipped to Zanzibar.

Revenue.—The revenue derived by the Government of India from opium in recent years is as follows:—

	£
1915-16	1,913,514
1916-17	3,160,005
1917-18	3,078,903
1918-19	3,229,000
1919-20	2,088,000
	Rs.
1920-21	3,72,85,000
1921-22	3,03,24,000
1922-23	3,98,68,000
1923-24	4,30,64,000
1924-25 (Budget estimate) ..	4,33,60,000

Agreement with China.—The fluctuations in the revenue derived from opium are directly attributable to the trade conditions arising out of the limitation of opium exports. In 1907 being satisfied of the genuineness of the efforts of the Chinese Government to suppress the habit of consuming opium in China, the Government of India agreed to co-operate by gradually restricting the amount of opium exported from India to China. In 1908 an arrangement was concluded by which the total quantity of opium exported from India was to be reduced annually by 5,100 chests from an assumed standard of 67,000 chests. Under a further agreement, signed in May 1911, the cessation of the trade was to be accelerated on evidence being shown of the suppression of the native production of opium in China, and in accordance with this agreement a further limitation was placed on exports to Chinese ports. The reduction of exports led to an increase in the price of the drug in China and a corresponding rise in the price obtained in India at the auction sales. For some considerable time, however, in 1912 the trade in China was paralysed by the imposition by Provincial Governors in defiance of instructions from the Central Government of restrictions on the importation and sale of Indian opium. Stocks accumulated rapidly at Shanghai and Hongkong and the position in December 1912 had become so acute that a strong and influential demand was made on the Government of India to relieve the situation by the suspension of sales. Sales were accordingly postponed both of Bengal and Malwa opium and in order to afford the Malwa trade the most complete relief, the Government of India undertook to purchase for its own use 11,253 chests of Malwa opium which remained to be exported in 1913. The present position is that the export trade to China has ceased since 1913.

GLASS AND GLASSWARE.

The total value of the glass and glassware imported into India in 1922-23 amounted to Rs. 260 lakhs compared with Rs. 222 lakhs in the previous year. The imports of glassware in India are showing an upward tendency, they being in 1913-14 over Rs. 190 lakhs in value, i.e., over the quinquennial average of Rs. 161 lakhs. Austria Hungary and Germany before the outbreak of the war exported bangles, beads, funnels, chimneys and globes, etc., to the value of Rs. 116 lakhs in 1913-14. The value of average imports from the enemy countries during the five pre-war years was Rs. 93 lakhs or about 57% of the trade. With their disappearance from the Indian market, imports from Japan increased to 71% from 8%, the pre-war average. United Kingdom increased her shipments of sheet and plate glass, which before 1914 came largely from Belgium. Japan, however, could not meet the Indian demand, and hence renewed and pioneer efforts were made in India to satisfy the needs of the Indian consumer. After the war imports from what was the Dual Monarchy quickly revived.

Manufacture of Glass in India.—Glass was manufactured in India in centuries before Christ and Pliny makes mention of "Indian Glass" as being of superior quality. As a result of recent archaeological explorations, a number of small crude glass vessels have been discovered indicative of the very primitive stage of the industry. But no further traces of ancient Indian Glass Industry as such survive; yet, it is certain that by the sixteenth century it was an established industry producing mainly bangles and small bottles. The quality of the material was inferior and the articles turned out were rough. Beyond this stage, the industry had not progressed until the nineties of the last century. Manufacture of glass in India on modern European lines dates from the nineties of the last century, when some pioneer efforts were made in this line. Since then a number of concerns have been started, a number of them have failed, while some are still clinging to life owing to war conditions. They mainly devote themselves to the manufacture of bangles and lampware side by side with bottle-making on a small scale. This, therefore, is the criterion which determines the two well-defined classes of the industry in its present stage, (i) indigenous Cottage Industry and (ii) the modern Factory Industry.

(i) The indigenous Cottage Industry which is represented in all parts of the country, but has its chief centres in Firozabad District of U. P., and Belgam District, in the South, is mainly concerned with the manufacture of cheap bangles made from "glass cakes or blocks" made in larger factories. The industry is at present in a flourishing state and supplies nearly one-third of the Indian demand for bangles. The quality has been improved by the discovery of new glazing processes and for the present

the turnover in this line has gone up to 20 lakhs of rupees a year. But these bangles have now to face a very hard competition from Japan whose "silky" bangles are ousting the old type Indian ones.

(ii) The modern Factory type of organization of this industry is just in its infancy at present. The existing factories either stop at producing glass cakes for bangle as in Firozabad or simple kind of lampwares and bottles. With the existing state of knowledge and machinery in India they can neither produce sheet and plate glass, nor do they pretend to manufacture laboratory or table glass. Artistic glassware is out of the question and the private capitalists who have to run their concerns mostly with commercial ends do not think it worth their while to spend money and labour on it. War caused a great decrease in volume—though not so much in value which was much increased—of the imports of the lampware, etc., and in order to meet the Indian demand for them, new factories were started and old revived, which produced only cheap and simple kind of lampware and bottles on small scale. The total production of these Indian Glass Works has not been exactly estimated, but it is generally supposed that they were able to meet in these war years nearly half the Indian demand for this kind of glassware. There are at present 14 factories engaged in the production of lampware, of which two or three only produce bottles and carboys also. The chief centres for the former kind are Bombay, Jubbulpore, Allahabad, and Bijhol and Ambala; while bottles are only manufactured at Naini and Lahore, and recently at Calcutta.

During the latter years of the war period, a number of Glass Works were opened in the Bombay Presidency and adjoining districts, local manufacture having been stimulated by the cessation of imports of German, Austrian and Belgian glass.

Causes of failure.—Records of the earlier ventures have shown that the failures in some cases were due in part at least to preventable causes, prominent among which were (1) Lack of enlightened management. (2) Lack of proper commercial basis, as in some cases the proprietors had a number of other more larger concerns to look to. (3) Bad selection of site. An ideal site for a Glass Factory would be determined by the (a) nearness of quartz and fire-clay, (b) nearness of fuel, and (c) by the nearness of market. At least two must be present. In some concerns, two were absent. (4) Specialisation was lacking, some factories in their initial stages trying to manufacture three or four different kinds of glassware simultaneously like lampware, bottles, and bangles, etc. (5) Paucity of sufficient fluid capital for initial expenses for machinery or other improvements or even in some cases for running the concern in the beginning.

But beyond these there are certain real and special causes that contributed to the failure of

some of these and hinder the progress of the rest. Chief among them are (1) The industry is in its infant stage and hence such failures are but incidental. (2) No expert guidance in this line, there is a lack of men and good literature. (3) Paucity of skilled labour of higher type. The present Indian workmen in this line and blowers are few in number and illiterate. They, therefore, master the situation and are unamenable to management. (4) Heavy cost of good fuel, the works usually being situated where good sand and quartz can be obtained, and consequently, in most cases, at a great distance from the coal-fields. (5) To a certain extent competition from Japan and other European countries.

Alkali used is almost entirely of English manufacture being Carbonate of Soda 98-99% in a powdered form. This alkali has almost completely taken place of the various Alkaline Earths formerly employed by the Glass Bangle manufacturers as the latter cannot be used in the manufacture of glass which is to compete

with the imported article. These points must be carefully noted for future guidance.

The industry developed considerably under war conditions; but in peace times, in this transition stage, immediate efforts must be made in the direction of what the Indian Industrial Commission say in their Report (Appendix E), viz.: "The Glass Industry, even in its simplest form is highly technical and can be efficiently carried on only by scientifically trained managers and expert workmen. The present stage has been reached by importing men, only partially equipped with the necessary qualifications, from Europe and Japan, and by sending Indian students abroad to pick up what knowledge they can. The glass industry is a closed trade and its secrets are carefully guarded, so that the latter method has not proved conspicuously successful."

Bibliography.—Indian Industries Commission Report (Appendix); Indian Munitions Board, Industrial Handbook, etc. "Notes on Glass Manufacture." By C. S. Fox. (Bulletin No. 29 of Indian Industries and Labour, 1922.)

WILD BIRDS' PLUMAGE.

The Bill for prohibiting the importation into England of wild birds' plumage, which was introduced into Parliament in 1913, was the occasion of a fierce controversy on the nature of the plumage traffic. Organised opposition to the Bill, although successful in preventing it from becoming law, failed to convince the public that the plumage trade was not one of great cruelty. The controversy continued with unabated vigour until May 1921, when an agreement was arrived at between the two parties. The most important clause in the agreement stipulates that within four months of the Bill becoming law an Advisory Committee shall be appointed by the Board of Trade. This Committee will consist of an independent chairman, two expert ornithologists, three representatives of the feather trade, and four other independent members. The function of this Committee will be to advise the Board of Trade as to additions to and removals from the existing schedule (ostrich and elder duck) of birds whose plumage may be imported. The passing of the Plumage Bill will thus place England abreast of the United States and of her own daughter Dominions in the suppression of a barbarous industry, as all legitimate methods of breeding birds for their plumage will be safeguarded as definite exceptions under the Plumage Bill.

Plumage birds.—The birds most killed on account of their plumage in India are paddy birds, egrets, kingfishers, bustards, junglefowl, pheasants, parakeets, peafowl, hoopoes and rollers. Egrets and rollers (popularly known as Blue Jays) are perhaps the birds which have been most extensively killed in the past, and of these, egrets have attracted the greatest attention. There are three species met with in India: the Large, Smaller and Little Egrets. All three are pure white slim birds which develop during the breeding season a dorsal train of feathers, which elongates and becomes "decomposed" as it is expressed, that is to say, the bars are separate and distinct from each other,

thus forming the ornamental plume or egrette for which these birds are much sought after and ruthlessly destroyed. Thirty years ago the exports were valued at over six lakhs in one year, but since 1895 the export trade has steadily diminished. But, though legitimate exports have been stopped, the trade is so lucrative as to lead to many attempts at smuggling. Within a recent period of 12 months the Bombay Preventive Department, for example, seized egret plumes worth Rs. 2,19,047 in India and £44,000 in London. The rupee value represents the sum which the exporters paid to those who took the feathers from the birds, so the loss to the trade was considerable. In addition, penalties varying from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 10,000 each and amounting altogether to Rs. 59,175 were inflicted on the ten merchants concerned in attempting to export the feathers. A case was reported from Rangoon in 1916 of a man being found in possession of 22 lbs. of egret feathers valued at Rs. 66,000. Although frequently denied, there seems very little reason to doubt, that within the last decade egrets have been successfully bred in captivity by the fisherfolk in the province of Sind. But whether such birds can be bred without cruelty, and if so whether the export of their plumage could be legalised without encouraging barbaries in other areas of the peninsula, is a question which can only be decided as a result of a searching and exhaustive inquiry.

Legislation.—Indian legislation on the subject will be studied with interest by those who have followed the course of legislation on this subject in other countries. Until 1887 no legislation was considered necessary in India. An Act of that year enabled local governments and municipal and cantonment authorities to make rules prohibiting under penalties the sale or possession of wild birds recently killed or taken during their breeding seasons, and the importation into any municipal or cantonment area of the plumage of any wild birds during

those seasons; and local governments were empowered to apply these provisions to animals other than birds.

Afterwards, in 1902, action was taken under the Sea Customs Act to prohibit the exportation of the skins and feathers of birds, except feathers of ostriches and skins and feathers exported *bona fide* as specimens illustrative of natural history. Act VIII of 1912 goes much further than the previous law. It schedules a list of wild birds and animals to which the Act is to apply in the first instance, enables local governments to extend this list, empowers local governments to establish "close times," presumably during the breeding seasons, in the whole of their territories or in specified areas, for wild birds and animals to which the Act applies, and imposes penalties for the capture, sale, and purchase of birds and animals in contravention

of the "close time" regulations, and for the sale, purchase and possession of plumage taken from birds during the close time. There is power to grant exemptions in the interests of scientific research, and there are savings for the capture or killing by any person of a wild animal in defence of himself or of any other person, and for the capture or killing of any wild bird or animal in *bona fide* defence of property.

One defect in the law may be noticed. When an exporter is discovered, the Customs Department can on a magistrate's warrant have his house searched and seize the feathers found there to produce as evidence that he is engaged in the trade. But they have to return the feathers and can only take possession of them if they are discovered presently in course of export.

HIDES, SKINS AND LEATHER.

India's local manufactures of skins and leather have steadily increased in recent years. Previous to the outbreak of war, the trade in raw hides in this country was good; there was a large demand for hides, and prices ruled high. While in the continental markets stocks were high owing to overtrading in the previous year, the United States had a shortage which was estimated at approximately two million pieces. On the declaration of war, the trade which had up till then been brisk was seriously dislocated. Exports to enemy countries, especially to the great emporium of Indian hides, Hamburg, were stopped, and exporters had to find new markets for the raw material. The raw hide business of India, it is well known, has hitherto been largely, if not quite entirely, in the hands of German firms or firms of German origin. Germany has had the largest share of India's raw hides. In the four months before the outbreak of war she took 39 per cent. of the total exports. In 1912-13 she took 32 per cent. and in 1913-14, 35 per cent. Raw hides were exported to Trieste in considerable quantities whence they were taken to Germany or Austria. In the four months before the outbreak of war 15 per cent. of India's exports passed through Trieste; in 1913-14 the percentage was 21.

Exports.—The exports in raw and tanned hides and skins in 1923-24 amounted in value to Rs. lakhs 12.93 compared with 10.76 lakhs in the previous year. About 40 per cent. of the exports went to the U. K., 24 per cent. to the U. S. A., and 11 per cent. to Germany.

Conditions of the Trade.—The trade in hides and skins and the craft in leather manufacture are in the hands either of Mahomedans or of low caste Hindus, and

are on that account participated in by a comparatively small community. The traffic is subject to considerable fluctuations concomitant with the vicissitudes of the seasons. In famine years for instance the exports of untanned hides rise to an abnormal figure. The traffic is also peculiarly affected by the difficulty of obtaining capital and by the religious objection which assigns it to a position of degradation and neglect: it has thus become a monopoly within a restricted community and suffers from the loss of competition and popular interest and favour.

No large industry has changed more rapidly and completely than that of leather. By the chrome process, for example, superior leather may be produced from the strongest buffalo hides in seven days, from cowhide in twenty-four hours, and from sheep and goat skins in six to eight hours; and these operations formerly took thirty days or as much as eighteen months. Of these changes the native tanners of India were slow to take advantage, but in spite of general backwardness the leather produced by some of the tanneries, especially those under European management, is in certain respects equal to the best imported articles. But since the outbreak of war progress has been more rapid and considerable quantities of special forms of chrome leather, for which Indian hides are particularly suitable, have found a ready market in London.

Protecting the Industry.—The report of the Industrial Commission pointed out that the principal difficulty at present in the hides and leather industry was the lack of organisation and expert skill. Government action to foster the industry was first taken in September 1919, when a Bill was introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council further to amend the Indian

Tariff Act, 1894. The effect of this Bill was officially described as follows: "It is to impose an export duty of 15 per cent. on hides and skins with a rebate of 10 per cent. on hides and skins exported to other parts of the Empire, and there tanned. Its object is to ensure that our hides and skins shall be converted into fully tanned leather or articles of leather so far as possible in India and failing this in other parts of the Empire, instead of being exported in a raw state for manufacture in foreign countries." Sir George Barnes who was in charge of the Bill and described the tanning industry as one of the most promising Indian industries explained that "the present position is that we have in India at the present time some hundreds of tanneries for the tanning of hides, a large number of which have come into existence in order to satisfy military requirements during the war. We have in fact the foundations of a flourishing tanning industry, but there is reason to fear that it may tend to dwindle and disappear with the diminution of military requirements, if some other support is not given. We want to keep this industry alive, and we believe that in this case protection in the shape of a 15 per cent. export duty is justifiable and ought to be effective. It is clearly just also that the same measure of protection should be extended

to the tanners of skins whose business, as I have already stated, was injured by the necessities of the war. Though Indian tanneries have enormously increased in number during the past three years, they can only deal with a comparatively small proportion of the raw hides and skins which India produces, and it is to the advantage of India and the security of the Empire generally that this large surplus should, so far as possible, be tanned within the Empire, and with this end in view the Bill proposes a 10 per cent. rebate in respect of hides and skins exported to any place within the Empire. I should add that it is proposed to limit by notification the benefit of this rebate to hides and skins actually tanned within the Empire; and Indian hides and skins re-exported from an Empire port for the purpose of being tanned abroad will not be entitled to any rebate."

Indigenous methods.—India possesses a large selection of excellent tanning materials such as Acacia pods and bark, Indian sumach, the Tanner's cassia, Mangroves, and Myrabolans. By these and such like materials and by various methods and contrivances, hides and skins are extensively cured and tanned and the leather worked up in response to an immense, though purely local, demand.

GRAIN ELEVATORS.

The question of adopting elevators for the handling of Indian grain has engaged attention for some time and has assumed increased importance in the light of the railway congestion experienced in recent years and more particularly in the grain season. In the last three years great strides have been made by other countries in the adoption or perfecting of the elevator system, and a large mass of contemporary data on the subject has been brought together by the Commercial Intelligence Department. Since the subject is one that cannot receive adequate consideration in India till the facts are before the public, these have been embodied in a pamphlet entitled *Indian Wheat and Grain Elevators*, by the late Mr. F. Noel-Paton, Director General of Commercial Intelligence to the Government of India. The work gives full particulars regarding India's production of wheat, and shows that less than one-eighth of the crop is exported. It describes the conditions under which the grain is held and the risks that it runs. It is pointed

out that the cultivator has no adequate means of preserving his wheat and that he is constrained to sell at harvest time; also that the prices then obtained by him are considerably lower than those usually current in later months. The constant nature of the European demand is explained and an attempt is made to gauge the probability that the enormously increased quantities of wheat to be expected when new irrigation tracts come into bearing would be accepted by Europe at one time and at a good price, or could be economically transported under a system in which a few months of congestion alternated with a longer period of stagnation. Figures are given which suggest that in practice the effect of equipping railways to do this is to intensify the evil and so to engage in a vicious circle. The author explains the structural nature of elevators and their functions as constituted in other countries. Particulars are given as to the laws that govern their operations in such countries.

TRADE MARKS.

The Indian Merchandise Marks Act (IV of 1889) was passed in 1889, but its operation in the earlier years was restricted, especially in Calcutta, in consequence of the lack of adequate Customs machinery for the examination of goods. In 1894, with the introduction of the present tariff, the Customs staff was strengthened for the examination of goods for assessment to duty, and this increase enabled examination to be made at the same time for the purposes of the Merchandise Marks Act. The Act was intended originally to prevent the fraudulent sale of goods bearing false trade marks or false trade descriptions (as of origin, quality, weight, or quantity). While the Act was before the Legislature a provision was added to require that piece-goods should be stamped with their length in yards. In this respect these goods are an exception, for the Act does not require that other descriptions of goods should be stamped or marked, though it requires that when goods are marked the marks must be a correct description. The number of deten-

tions under the Act during the twenty years ending 1912-13 has been:—

Average of the five years			
ending	1897-98	1,386	
" " " " "	1902-03	1,411	
" " " " "	1907-08	1,198	
" " " " "	1912-13	1,060	

Detection is but rarely followed by confiscation, and there have been only 109 such cases during the stated twenty years. Usually, detained goods are released with a fine, and this procedure was followed in 19,282 cases out of the 29,774 detentions ordered in the same period. In 10,364 cases the detained goods were released without the infliction of a fine. In this period of twenty years 42 per cent. of the detentions were on account of the application of false trade marks or false trade descriptions. In 36 per cent. of the cases detention was ordered because the country of origin was either not stated or was falsely stated, and in 21 per cent. because the provisions of the Act for the stamping of piece-goods had been infringed.

INVENTIONS AND DESIGNS.

A handbook to the Patent Office in India, which is published by the Government Press, Calcutta, gives the various Acts, rules, and instructions bearing on the subject together with hints for the preparation of specifications and drawings, hints for searchers and other valuable information that has not hitherto been readily accessible to the general public in so convenient a form. In the preface Mr. H. G. Graves, Controller of Patents and Designs, explains the scope of the Patent laws in India and indicates wherein they differ from English law and procedure.

The foundation of patent legislation throughout the world lies in the English "Statute of Monopolies" which was enacted in 1623, the 21st year of King James the First. In part this Act has been repealed, but the extant portion of the more important section 6 is as follows:—"Provided also that any declaration before mentioned shall not extend to any letters patent and grants of privilege for the term of fourteen years or under, hereafter to be made of the sole working or making of any manner of new manufactures within this realm to the true and first inventor and inventors of such manufactures, which others at the time of making of such letters patent and grants shall not use, so as also they be not contrary to the law nor mischievous to the State by raising prices of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient; the said fourteen years to be accomplished from the date of the first letters patent or grants of such privilege hereafter to be made, but that the same shall be of such force as they should be if this Act had never been made, and of none other."

The existing Indian patent law is contained in the Indian Patents and Designs Act, 1911, supplemented by the Indian Patents and Designs (Temporary Rules) Act, 1915, and

by the Rules made under those Acts. The Patent Office does not deal with trade marks or with copyright generally in books, pictures, music and other matters which fall under the Indian Copyright Act III of 1914. There is, in fact, no provision of law in British India for the registration of Trade Marks which are protected under the Merchandise Marks Act (IV of 1889) which forms Chapter XVIII of the Indian Penal Code.

On the whole, Indian law and procedure closely follow that in the United Kingdom for the protection of inventions and the registration of designs, as they always have done in matters of major interest. One main difference exists, however, as owing to the absence of provision of law for the registration of trade marks, India cannot become a party to the International Convention under which certain rights of priority are obtainable in other countries.

The first Indian Act for granting exclusive privileges to inventors was passed in 1856, after an agitation that had been carried on fitfully for some twenty years. Difficulties arising from an uncertainty as to the effect of the Royal Prerogative prevented earlier action, and, owing to some informality in the Act itself was repealed in the following year. In 1859 it was re-enacted with modifications, and in 1872 the Patents and Designs Protection Act was passed. The protection of Inventions Act of 1883, dealing with exhibitions, followed, and then the Inventions and Designs Act of 1888. All these are now replaced by the present Act of 1911.

The existing Acts extend to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Santhal Parganas. This of course includes Burma, but it does not embrace the Native States. Of the latter three, viz., (1) Hyderabad (Deccan), (2) Mysore, (3) Gwalior have ordinances of their own, for which particulars must

be obtained from the Government of the States in question as they are not administered by the Indian Patent Office in Calcutta. The object of the Act of 1911 was to provide a simpler, more direct, and more effective procedure in regard both to the grant of patent rights and to their subsequent existence and operation. The changes made in the law need not here be referred to in detail. They gave further protection both to the inventor, by providing that his application should be kept secret until acceptance, and to the public, by increasing the facilities for opposition at an effective period. At the same time a Controller of Patents and Designs was established, with power to dispose of many matters previously referred to the Governor-General in Council, and provision was made for the grant of a sealed "patent" instead of for the mere recognition of an "exclusive privilege." The provisions of the Act follow with the necessary modifications those of the British Inventions and Designs Act of 1907.

Printed Specification of applications for patents, which have been accepted (8 annas per copy), may be seen free of charge, together with other publications of the Patent Office at the following places:—

AHMEDABAD ..	R. C. Technical Institute.
ALLAHABAD ..	Public Library.
BANGALORE ..	Indian Institute of Science.
BARODA ..	Department of Commerce and Industry.
BOMBAY ..	Record Office.
" ..	Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Byculla.
" ..	The Bombay Textile and Engineering Association, No. 1A, Sussex Road, Parel.
CALCUTTA ..	Patent Office, No. 1, Council House Street.
" ..	Bengal Engineering College, Sldpur.
CAWNPORE ..	Office of the Director of Industries, United Provinces.
CHINSURAH ..	Office of the Commissioner, Burdwan Division.
CHITTAGONG ..	Office of the Commissioner, Chittagong Division.
DACCA ..	Office of the District Board, Dacca.
DELHI ..	Office of the Deputy Commissioner.

HYDERABAD ..	Industries and Commerce Department of His Highness the Nizam's Government.
KARACHI ..	Office of the City Deputy Collector.
LAHORE ..	Punjab Public Library.
LONDON ..	The Patent Office, 25, Southampton Buildings, W. C.
MADRAS ..	Record Office, Egmore.
" ..	College of Engineering.
MYSORE ..	Office of the Secretary to Government, General and Revenue Department.
NAGPUR ..	Victoria Technical Institute.
POONA ..	College of Engineering.
RANCHI ..	Office of the Director of Industries, Bihar & Orissa.
RANGOON ..	Office of the Revenue Secretary, Government of Burma.
ROORKEE ..	Thomason College.
SHOLAPUR ..	Office of the Collector.

PUBLICATIONS on sale at the Patent Office:—

	Price Rs. a.
Patent Office Handbook (Acts, Rules and Instructions) ..	1 0
The Indian Patents and Designs Act, II of 1911 ..	0 10
The Indian Patents and Designs Act, II of 1911 (Urdu and Hindi) ..	each 0 2
The Indian Patents and Designs Rules, 1912 ..	0 2
Weekly Notifications (Extract from the Gazette of India) ..	0 1
Annual Subscription with postage ..	3 0
Inventions (Consolidated Subject Matter Index, 1900—1908, and Chronological lists, 1900—1904) ..	2 8
Inventions (Consolidated Subject Matter Index, 1900—1911, and Chronological lists, 1905—1911) ..	each 3 0
Patent Office Journal (issued quarterly) ..	0 8
Patent Office Journals, 1914, 1915, 1916, 1917, 1918, 1919, 1920 ..	1 0
Printed Specifications of Inventions since 1912 ..	0 3

ABSORPTION OF GOLD (both coin and bullion) IN INDIA.
(In lakhs of Rupees.)

	AVERAGE OF 5 YEARS ENDING										1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
	1883-84.	1888-89.	1893-94.	1898-99.	1903-04.	1908-09.	1913-14.	1918-19.	1919-20.					
1. Production (b) ..	4.23	3.41	71	2.01	2.05	3.40	3.36	3.39	2.44	2.73	3.08	2.79	2.55	
2. Imports ..	10	33	4.12	5.48	13.00	10.85	32.79	9.88(a)	45.34(a)	23.57	13.82	41.32	29.25	
3. Exports ..	4.13	3.08	2.02	3.23	6.82	7.50	4.64	3.01(a)	3.08(a)	21.46	16.68	13	6	
4. Net imports (i.e., 2-3) ..	4.13	3.08	2.10	2.25	6.18	9.35	28.15	6.87(a)	42.26(a)	2.11	-2.86	41.19	29.10	
5. Net addition to stock (i.e., 1+4) ..	4.13	3.08	2.81	4.26	9.13	12.75	31.51	10.26	44.70	4.84	22	43.08	31.74	
6. Balance held in mint and Govt. Treasury ..														
7. Increase (+) or decrease (-) in stock held in mints, etc., as compared with the preceding year ..				66	12.88	6.57	19.11	16.93	44.49	24.17	24.32	21.32	22.32	
8. Net absorption (i.e., 5-7) ..	4.13	3.08	2.81	3.65	6.46	16.00	27.04	11.28	17.59	25.16	7	43.98	38.74	
9. Progressive total of additions to stock ..	15.24	35.17	51.74	61.86	1,04.19	1,58.81	2,77.15	3,72.61	4,38.89	4,43.73	4,43.95	4,87.93	5,19.67	
10. Net progressive absorption ..	15.24	35.17	51.74	61.19	88.31	1,62.24	2,58.04	3,55.68	3,94.41	4,19.57	4,19.64	4,63.62	4,97.36	

Note.—The quinquennial average figures are inserted only for comparative purposes. The progressive total of additions to stock (item 9) and net progressive absorption (item 10) are calculated on the annual figures and are not based on these averages. Item 9 is the sum of the yearly figures in item 5 and item 10 the sum of the yearly figures in item 8.

(a) Excludes gold imported and exported on behalf of the Bank of England.

(b) Figures are for calendar year ending 31st December.

Customs Tariff.

General import duties are levied for fiscal purposes and not for the protection of Indian industries. But the tariff has been modified with a view to admitting free or at favourable rates articles, the cheap import of which was considered necessary in the interests of the country. Thus certain raw materials, manures, agricultural implements and dairy appliances are admitted free. Machinery, printing materials, etc. are assessed at 2½ per cent. and iron and steel railway material and ships at 10 per cent. High duties are imposed on tobacco, liquors and matches.

Re-Imports.—Articles of foreign production on which import duty has been once paid, if subsequently exported, are on re-import exempted from duty on the following conditions:—

The Collector of Customs must be satisfied—

- (1) of the identity of the articles;
- (2) that no drawback of duty was paid on their export;
- (3) that the ownership has not changed between the time of re-export and subsequent re-import;
- (4) that they are private personal property re-imported for personal use, not merchandise for sale;
- (5) that not more than three years have passed since they were re-exported.

Duty is, however, charged on the cost of repairs done to the articles while abroad which should be declared by the person re-importing the articles in a form which will be supplied to him at the time of re-importation.

To facilitate identification on re-importation, an export certificate giving the necessary particulars should be obtained from the Customs Department at the time of shipment of the articles which should be tendered for examination.

This concession of free entry on re-importation is not extended for the benefit of Companies or Corporate Bodies.

Drawbacks.—When any goods, capable of being easily identified which have been imported by sea into any Customs port from any foreign port, and upon which duties of Customs have been paid on importation, are re-exported by sea from such Customs port to any foreign port, or as provisions or stores for use on board a ship proceeding to a foreign port, sevenths of such duties shall, except as otherwise hereinafter provided, be repaid as drawback:

Provided that, in every such case, the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Customs Collector at such Customs port and that the re-export be made within two years from the date of importation, as shown by the records of the Custom House, or within such extended

term as the Chief Customs Authority, or Chief Customs Officer on sufficient cause being shown, in any case determines, provided further that the Chief Customs Officer shall not extend the term to a period exceeding 3 years.

When any goods, having been charged with Import duty at one Customs port and thence exported to another, are re-exported by sea as aforesaid, drawback shall be allowed on such goods as if they had been so re-exported from the former port:

Provided that, in every such case, the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Officer-in-Charge of the Custom House at the port of final exportation, and that such final exportation be made within three years from the date on which they were first imported into British India.

No drawback shall be allowed unless the claim to receive such drawback be made and established at the time of re-export.

No such payment of drawback shall be made until the vessel carrying the goods has put out to sea, or unless payment be demanded within six months from the date of entry for shipment.

Every person, or his duly authorised agent, claiming drawback on any goods duly exported, shall make and subscribe a declaration that such goods have been actually exported, and have not been re-landed and are not intended to be re-landed at any Customs port; and that such person was at the time of entry outwards and shipment, and continues to be, entitled to drawback thereon.

Merchandise Marks.—Importers into India especially from countries other than the United Kingdom, would do well to make themselves acquainted with the law and regulations relating to merchandise marks. In Appendix II will be found the principal provisions of the Indian Merchandise Marks Act, 1889 and connected Acts and the notifications issued thereunder. The following summary of the regulations in force does not claim to be exhaustive. For those seeking more complete information a reference is suggested to the Merchandise Marks Manual which is published under the authority of the Government of India and obtainable of all agents for the sale of Indian Government publications.

Infringements or offences may be classified conveniently under four heads:—

1. Counterfeit trade marks;
2. Trade descriptions that are false in respect of the country of origin;
3. Trade descriptions that are false in other respects; and
4. Lengths not properly stamped on piece-goods.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff).

Note.— In the expression "*ad valorem*" used in this schedule the reference is to real value as defined in section 30 of the Sea Customs Act, 1878 (VIII of 1878).

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco.				
FISH.				
1	FISH, SALTED, wet or dry	Indian maund of 82½ lbs. avoirdupois weight.		Such rate or rates of duty not exceeding one rupee as the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the <i>Gazette of India</i> , from time to time prescribe.*
2	FISH, excluding salted fish		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
3	FISHMAWS, including singally and sozille, and sharkfins.		"	15 " "
FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.				
4	FRUITS AND VEGETABLES, all sorts, fresh, dried, salted or preserved—		Rs. as.	
	Almonds without shell	cwt.	65 0	15 per cent.
	" in the shell Persian	"	15 0	15 " "
	" kagazi Persian in the shell	"	90 0	15 " "
	" All other sorts	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	Cashew or cajoo kernels	"	22 0	15 " "
	Cocoanuts, Straits and Dutch Indies and Siam.	thousand.	120 0	15 " "
	" Maldives	"	34 0	15 " "
	" other	"	55 0	15 " "
	" kernel (khopra)	cwt.	21 0	10 " "
	Currents	"	30 0	15 " "
	Dates, dry, in bags	"	10 0	15 " "
	" wet, in bags, baskets and bundles	"	6 0	15 " "
	" in pots, boxes, tins and crates	"	12 0	15 " "
	Figs, dried, Persian	"	15 0	15 " "
	" European	"	21 0	15 " "
	Garlic	"	8 0	15 " "
	Pistachio nuts	"	90 0	15 " "
	Raisins, Munakka, Persian Gulf	"	15 0	15 " "
	" other sorts		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	All other sorts of fruits and vegetables, fresh, dried, salted or preserved.		"	15 " "
GRAIN, PULSE AND FLOUR.				
5	FLOUR		"	15 " "
6	GRAIN AND PULSE, all sorts, including broken grain and pulse, but excluding flour (see No. 5).		"	2½ " "

* The rate on 1st January 1925 and until further notice is annas 7½.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd.				
LIQUORS.				
				Rs. a. p.
7	ALE, Beer, and Porter, Cider and other fermented liquors.	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles		0 8 0
8	Denatured Spirit		<i>Ad valorem</i>	7½ per cent.
9	LIQUEURS, Cordials, Mixtures and other preparations containing spirit—			
	(a) Entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested.	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles.		30 0 0 or 15 per cent. <i>Ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher.
	(b) If tested	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles of the strength of London proof.		21 14 0 and the duty to be increased or reduced in proportion as the strength of the spirit exceeds or is less than London proof or 15 per cent. <i>Ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher.
10	PERFUMED SPIRITS	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles.		36 0 0 or 15 per cent. <i>Ad valorem</i> whichever is higher.
11	All other sorts of SPIRIT	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles of the strength of London proof.		21 14 0 and the duty to be increased or reduced in proportion as the strength of the spirit exceeds or is less than London proof or 15 per cent. <i>Ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd.				
LIQUORS—contd.				
12	WINES— Champagne and all other sparkling wines not containing more than 42 per cent. of proof spirit. All other sorts of wines not containing more than 42 per cent. of proof spirit. Provided that all sparkling and still wines containing more than 42 per cent. of proof spirit shall be liable to duty at the rate applicable to "All other sorts of Spirit."	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles.		Rs. a. 9 0
		"		Rs. a. p. 4 8 0
PROVISIONS AND OILMAN'S STORES.				
13	PROVISIONS, OILMAN'S STORES, AND GROCERIES, all sorts, excluding vinegar in casks (see No. 14)—			
	Butter	lb.	1 14	15 per cent.
	Cassava, Tapioca or Sago whole	cwt.	17 0	15 " "
	" " " flour		13 0	15 " "
	China preserves in syrup	Box of 6 large or 12 small jars.	9 0	15 " "
	" " dry, candied	lb.	0 8	15 " "
	China canned fruit	cast of 4 dozen.	16 0	15 " "
	Cocum	cwt.	7 0	15 " "
	Ghi	"	60 0	15 " "
	Vermicelli, flour, Chinese	"	27 0	15 " "
	" Peas	"	31 0	15 " "
	" Rice	"	14 0	15 " "
	Yeast, Chinese	cwt.	21 0	15 " "
	All other sorts of provisions, oilman's stores and groceries.		Ad valorem	15 " "
14	VINEGAR, in casks		" "	2 1/2 " "
SACCHARINE.				
15	Saccharine (except in tablets)	lb.		Rs. a. p. 20 0 0
16	Saccharine Tablets		Ad valorem	25 per cent. or Rs. 20 per pound of saccharine Contents, whichever is higher.
SPICES.				
17	SPICES, all sorts— Betelnuts, raw, whole, split, or sliced, also red whole from Goa. " boiled, split or sliced	cwt. " "	18 0 16 0 25 0	15 per cent. 15 " " 15 " "

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Name of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd.				
SPICES—contd.				
	Betelnuts, whole, from Ceylon	cwt.	15 0	15 per cent.
	" raw, split (sun-dried), from Ceylon	"	27 0	15 " "
	" all other sorts		Ad valorem	15 " "
	Chillies, dry	cwt.	25 0	15 " "
	Cloves	"	65 0	15 " "
	" exhausted	"	16 0	15 " "
	" stems and heads	"	9 0	15 " "
	" in seeds, nariavang	"	20 0	15 " "
	Ginger, dry	"	40 0	15 " "
	Mace	lb.	1 6	15 " "
	Nutmegs	"	0 8	15 " "
	" in shell	"	0 6	15 " "
	Pepper, black	cwt.	25 0	15 " "
	" long	"	45 0	15 " "
	" white	"	50 0	15 " "
	All other sorts of spices		Ad valorem	15 " "
SUGAR.				
18	CONFECTIONERY		" "	30 " "
19	SUGAR, all sorts, including Molasses, but excluding confectionery (see No. 18)— Sugar, crystallised and soft, not inferior to 8 Dutch standard— From Java, 23 Dutch standard and above	cwt.	17 8	2 1/2 " "
	" " 16 to 22 Dutch standard	"	15 8	25 " "
	" " 15 Dutch standard and under	"	15 0	25 " "
	" Japan or Formosa	"	19	25 " "
	Refined in China including Hong Kong	"	18 8	25 " "
	From Egypt	"	16 0	25 " "
	" Mauritius	"	16 0	25 " "
	Cane, from other countries	"	17 8	25 " "
	Sugar, crystallised	"	3 0	25 " "
	Molasses	"	25 0	25 " "
	Sugar-candy	"	Ad valorem	25 " "
	Sugar, all other sorts			
TEA.				
20	TEA— Tea, black	lb.	0 12	15 " "
	" green	"	1 0	15 " "

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—contd.				
OTHER FOOD AND DRINK.				
21	COFFEE.. .. .	cwt.	Rs. a. 40 0	15 per cent.
22	HOPS			Free.
23	SALT, excluding Salt exempted under No. 24 ..	Indian maund of 32½ lbs. avoirdupois weight.		The rate at which excise duty is for the time being leviable on salt manufactured in the place where the import takes place.*
24	SALT imported into British India and issued, in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, for use in any process of manufacture; also salt imported into the port of Calcutta and issued with the sanction of the Government of Bengal to manufacturers of glazed stoneware; also salt imported into any port in the provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa and issued, in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, for use in curing fish in those provinces.			Free.
25	ALL OTHER SORTS OF FOOD AND DRINK not otherwise specified.		Ad valorem	15 per cent.
TOBACCO.				
26	CIGARS AND CIGARETTES		" "	75 " "
27	TOBACCO, unmanufactured	lb.		Rs. a. p. 1 0 0
28	All other sorts of TOBACCO, manufactured ..	"		2 4 0
II.—Raw Materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—contd.				
COAL, COKE AND PATENT FUEL.				
29	COAL, COKE AND PATENT FUEL ..	Ton.		0 8 0
GUMS, RESINS AND LAC.				
30	GUMS, RESINS AND LAC, all sorts—			
	Gambier, block	cwt.	27 0	15 per cent.
	" Cube	"	27 0	15 " "
	" in flakes or circular pieces ..	"	45 0	15 " "
	" Other Sorts		Ad valorem	15 " "
	Gum Ammoniac	cwt.	35 0	15 " "
	" Arabic	"	25 0	15 " "
	" Benjamin, raw	"	25 0	15 " "

* The rate of excise duty on 1st January 1925 and until further notice is Rs. 1-4-0.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff valuation.	Duty.
II.—Raw Materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—contd.				
GUMS, RESINS AND LAC, all sorts—contd.				
	Gum Benjamin, cowrie.. .. .	cwt.	56 0	15 per cent.
	" Bysabol (coarse myrrh)	"	42 0	15 " "
	" Olibanum or frankincense	"	15 0	15 " "
	" Persian (false)	"	14 0	15 " "
	Myrrh	"	42 0	15 " "
	Rosin	"	13 0	15 " "
	All other sorts of gums, gum-resins, and articles made of gum or gum-resin.		Ad valorem	15 " "
HIDES AND SKINS, RAW.				
31	HIDES AND SKINS, raw or salted.. .. .			Free
METALLIC ORES, AND SCRAP IRON OR STEEL FOR RE-MANUFACTURE.				
32	IRON OR STEEL, old.. .. .	cwt.	2 0	10 per cent
33	METALLIC ORES, all sorts, except Ochres and other pigment Ores.			Free.
OILS.				
34	KEROSENE and MOTOR SPIRIT; also any mineral oil other than kerosene and motor spirit which has its flashing point below one hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer by Abel's close test.*	Imperial gallon.		Rs. a. p. 0 2 0
35	MINERAL OIL which has its flashing point at or above two hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer and is such as is not ordinarily used for any other purpose than for the batching of lute or other fibre, or for lubrication—			
	Batching oil	ton.	125 0	7½ per cent.
	Other sorts		Ad valorem	7½ " "
36	Mineral oil which has its flashing point at or above one hundred and fifty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer and is such as is not ordinarily used except as fuel or for some sanitary or hygienic purpose—			
	(i) Imported in bulk	ton.	65 0	7½ " "
	(ii) Otherwise imported		Ad valorem	7½ " "
37	All sorts of animal, essential, mineral, and vegetable non-essential OILS not otherwise specified (see Nos. 34, 35 and 36):—			
	Cassia oil	lb.	2 4	15 per cent.
	Citronella oil	"	2 8	15 " "
	Cocoonut oil	cwt.	30 0	15 " "
	Kajiputty oil	lb.	2 4	15 " "
	Linseed oil, raw or boiled	gallon	3 12	15 " "
	Peppermint oil	lb.	7 0	15 " "
	All other sorts of oil		Ad valorem	15 " "

* Motor spirit is liable to an additional duty of six annas per gallon under Act II of 1917 as amended by Act II of 1919.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—contd.				
SEEDS.			Rs. a.	
38	OIL-SEEDS, imported into British India by sea from the territories of any Prince or Chief in India.			Free.
39	SEEDS, all sorts, excluding oil-seeds specified in No. 38.		Ad valorem	15 per cent.
TALLOW, STEARINE AND WAX.				
40	TALLOW AND STEARINE, including grease and animal fat, and WAX of all sorts, not otherwise specified:—			
	Tallow	cwt.	41 0	15 " "
	Vegetable wax	"	58 0	15 " "
	All other sorts		Ad valorem	15 " "
* TEXTILE MATERIALS.				
42	COTTON, raw			Free.
43	TEXTILE MATERIALS, the following:—			
	Silk waste and raw silk including cocoons—			
	Bokhara	lb.	12 0	15 per cent
	Floss		Ad valorem	15 " "
	Raw silk—Yellow Shanghai, including re-reeled.	lb.	7 8	15 " "
	Yellow from Indo-China, and places in China other than Shanghai including re-reeled.	"	8 8	15 " "
	Mathow	"	5 8	15 " "
	Panjam	"	5 0	15 " "
	Persian	"	9 0	15 " "
	Siam	"	6 0	15 " "
	White Shanghai, Thonkoon or Duppon	"	4 8	15 " "
	" other kinds including re-reeled.	"	8 8	15 " "
	" other kinds of China, including re-reeled.	"	9 8	15 " "
	Waste and Kachra		Ad valorem	15 " "
	All other sorts, including cocoons		15 " "	
	Coir fibre	cwt.	8 0	15 " "
	Raw hemp	"	35 0	15 " "
	Raw Flax, Jute and all other unmanufactured textile materials not otherwise specified.		Ad valorem	15 " "
44	WOOL, raw, and WOOL-TOPS			Free.
WOOD AND TIMBER.				
45	FIREWOOD		Ad valorem	2½ per cent.
46	WOOD AND TIMBER, all sorts, not otherwise specified, including all sorts of ornamental wood.		"	15 " "

* There is no entry bearing Serial No. 41.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—contd.			
MISCELLANEOUS.			Rs. a.
CANES AND RATTANS		Ad valorem	15 per cent
COWRIES AND SHELLS—			
Cowries, bazar, common	cwt.	7 8	15 " "
" yellow, superior quality	"	8 8	15 " "
" Maldiva	"	12 0	15 " "
" Sankhli	"	140 0	15 " "
Mother-of-pearl, nacre	"	20 0	15 " "
Nakhla	"	130 0	15 " "
Tortoise-shell	lb.	7 0	15 " "
" nakh	"	2 4	15 " "
All other sorts, including articles made of shell, not otherwise described.		Ad valorem	15 " "
IVORY, unmanufactured—			
Elephant's grinders	cwt.	300 0	15 " "
tusks (other than hollows, centres, and points), each exceeding 20 lb. in weight, and hollows, centres, and points each weighing 10 lb. and over.	"	825 0	15 " "
Elephants' tusks (other than hollows, centres and points), not less than 10 lb. and not exceeding 20 lb. each, and hollows, centres, and points each weighing less than 10 lb.	"	700 0	15 " "
Elephants' tusks, each less than 10 lb. (other than hollows, centres, and points).	"	470 0	15 " "
Sea-cow or moye teeth, each not less than 4 lb.	"	190 0	15 " "
Sea-cow or moye teeth, each not less than 3 lb. and under 4 lb.	"	160 0	15 " "
Sea-cow or moye teeth, each less than 3 lb.	"	100 0	15 " "
All other sorts unmanufactured not otherwise specified.		Ad valorem	15 " "
MANURES, all sorts, including animal bones and the following chemical manures:—Basic slag, nitrate of ammonia, nitrate of soda, muriate of potash, sulphate of ammonia, sulphate of potash, kainit salts, nitrate of lime, calcium cyanamide, mineral phosphates and mineral superphosphates.			
PRECIOUS STONES, UNSET AND IMPORTED OUT. * ..		Ad valorem	15 per cent.
PRECIOUS STONES, IMPORTED UNOUT AND UNSET AND PEARLS, unset			Free.
PULP OF WOOD, RAGS and other paper-making materials.			Free.
ALL OTHER RAW MATERIALS, and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured, not otherwise specified. *		Ad valorem	15 per cent.

* Under Government of India Notification No. 4317, dated 2nd July 1921, and 385, dated 9th June 1923 unmanufactured mica and Raw Rubber are exempt from payment of import duty.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured.			
	APPAREL.			
55	APPAREL, including drapery, boots and shoes, and military and other uniforms and accoutrements, but excluding uniforms and accoutrements exempted from duty (No. 56) and gold and silver thread (Nos. 96 and 97) and articles made of silk (No. 107).		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
56	UNIFORMS AND ACCOUTREMENTS appertaining thereto, imported by a public servant for his personal use.			Free.
	ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES.			
57	Subject to the exemptions specified in No. 60, ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES, that is to say,—			Rs. a.
	(1) Firearms other than pistols, including gas and air guns and rifles.	Each.		15 0
	(2) Barrels for the same, whether single or double.	"		15 0
	(3) Pistols, including automatic pistols and revolvers.	"		15 0
	(4) Barrels for the same, whether single or double.	"		15 0
	(5) Main springs and magazine springs for firearms, including gas, guns and rifles.	"		5 0
	(6) Gun stocks and breech blocks	"		3 0
	(7) Revolver cylinders, for each cartridge they will carry.	"		2 0
	(8) Actions (including skeleton and waster), breech bolts and their heads, cocking pieces, and locks (for muzzle-loading arms).	"		1 0
	(9) Machines for making loading or closing cartridges for rifled arms.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent.
	(10) Machines for capping cartridges for rifled arms.		"	30 "
58	GUNPOWDER for cannons, rifles, guns, pistols and sporting purposes.		"	30 " "
59	Subject to the exemptions specified in No. 60 all ARTICLES, other than those specified in entry No. 57, which are ARMS OR PARTS OF ARMS within the meaning of the Indian Arms Act, 1878 (excluding springs used for air-guns which are dutiable as hardware, under No. 75), all tools used for cleaning or putting together the same, all machines for making, loading, closing or capping cartridges for arms other than rifled arms and all other sorts of ammunition and military stores, and any articles which the Governor General in Council may by notification in the <i>Gazette of India</i> declare to be "ammunition" or "military stores" for the purposes of this Act.		"	30 " "

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>			
	ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES—<i>contd.</i>			
60	The following ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES:—			Free.
	(a) Articles falling under the 5th, 6th, 8th, 9th or 10th item of No. 57 when they appertain to a firearm falling under the 1st or 3rd item and are fitted into the same case with such firearm;			
	(b) Arms forming part of the regular equipment of a commissioned or gazetted officer in His Majesty's Service entitled to wear diplomatic, military, naval, Royal, Air Force or police uniform;			
	(c) A revolver and an automatic pistol and ammunition for such revolver and pistol up to a maximum of 100 rounds per revolver or pistol (i) when accompanying a commissioned officer of His Majesty's regular forces or of the Indian Auxiliary Force or the Indian Territorial Force or a Gazetted Police Officer, or (ii) certified by the commandant of the corps to which such Officer belongs or in the case of an Officer not attached to any Corps, by the Officer Commanding the Station or District in which such Officer is serving, or in the case of a Police Officer by an Inspector-General or Commissioner of Police, to be imported by the Officer for the purpose of his equipment;			
	(d) Swords for presentation as Army or Volunteer Prizes;			
	(e) Arms, ammunition and Military Stores imported with the sanction of the Government of India for the use of any portion of the Military Forces of a State in India which may be maintained and organised for Imperial Service;			
	(f) Morris tubes and patent ammunition imported by Officers Commanding British and Indian Regiments or Volunteer Corps for the instruction of their men;			
61	EXPLOSIVES, namely, blasting gunpowder, blasting gelatine, blasting dynamite, blasting roburite, blasting tonite, and all other sorts, including detonators and blasting fuse.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
	CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES.			
62	ANTI-PLAGUE SERUM			Free.
63	COPPERAS, green—		Rs. a.	
	(1) Imported in bulk	cwt.	5 0	2½ per cent.
	(2) " otherwise	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	2½ " "
64	OPIMUM and its alkaloids, and their derivatives ..	Seer of 80 tolas.		Rs. a. p. 24 0 0 or 15 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured— <i>contd.</i>				
CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES— <i>contd.</i>				
65	CINCHONA BARK and the alkaloids extracted therefrom including <i>Quinine</i> .			Free.
66	CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES, all sorts, not otherwise specified—			
	Alkali, Indian (saji-khar)	cwt.	3 8	15 per cent
	Alum (lump)	"	8 0	15 "
	Ammonium chloride—	"	23 0	15 "
	Muriate of Ammonia, crystalline	"	30 0	15 "
	Salammoniac, sublimed	"	33 0	15 "
	Other sorts, including compressed	"	80 0	15 "
	Arsenic (China mansil)	"	Ad valorem	15 "
	" other sorts	"	11 0	15 "
	Bleaching Powder	cwt.	5 8	15 "
	Calcium chloride	"	20 0	15 "
	Carbide of Calcium	"	35 0	15 "
	Carbonate of Ammonia	"	4 8	15 "
	Epsom salts (in bulk)	"	4 12	15 "
	Magnesium chloride	"	34 0	15 "
	Potassium bichromate	"	30 0	15 "
	Peppermint crystals	lb.	9 8	15 "
	Silicate of Soda (in liquid form)	cwt.	6 8	15 "
	Soda ash including calcined natural soda and manufactured sesqui-carbonates.	"	0 0	15 "
	Soda bicarbonate	"	25 8	15 "
	Soda bichromate	"	12 8	15 "
	Soda, caustic, solid	"	18 0	15 "
	" flake	"	18 8	15 "
	" powdered	"	7 0	15 "
	Soda Crystal in bulk	"	12 0	15 "
	Sodium Sulphide	"	18 0	15 "
	Sulphate of Copper	"	3 8	15 "
	Trona or natural soda uncalcined	"	Ad valorem	15 "
	All other sorts of Chemical products and preparations not otherwise specified.†		100 0	15 "
	Aloe-wood	cwt.	40 0	15 "
	Asafoetida (hing)	"	Ad valorem	15 "
	" coarse (hingra)	lb.	0 8	15 "
	Atary, Persian	cwt.	10 0	15 "
	Bansiochan (bamboo camphor)	lb.	2 12	15 "
	Calumba root	"	2 6	15 "
	Camphor, refined, other than powder	"	2 0	15 "
	Camphor powder, from Japan	"	22 0	15 "
	" Hongkong	"	20 0	15 "
	" China including	"	35 0	15 "
	Cassia Lignea	"	135 0	15 "
	China root (chobchini) rough	cwt.	15 0	15 "
	" scraped	"	250 0	15 "
	Cubeba	"	50 0	15 "
	Galangal, China	"	Ad valorem	15 "
	Salap	"		
	Storax, liquid (rose mellos or salaras)	"		
	All other sorts of drugs, medicines and narcotics.			

† Under Government of India Notification No. 1796, dated 1st April 1922, 1380, dated 10 November 1923 and 2233, dated 9th June 1924, Urea, Carbo Limu and Sulphur are exempt from the payment of import duty.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured— <i>contd.</i>				
CONVEYANCES.				
67	COAL-TUBS, tipping wagons and the like conveyances designed for use on light rail track, if adapted to be worked by manual or animal labour and if made mainly of iron or steel; and component parts thereof made of iron or steel.		Ad valorem	25 per cent.
	TRAMCARS, motor-omnibuses, motor-lorries, motor-vans, passenger lifts, carriages, carts, jinrikshas, bathchairs, perambulators, trucks, wheel barrows, bicycles, tricycles, and all other sorts of conveyances not otherwise specified, and component parts and accessories thereof, except such parts and accessories of the motor vehicles above-mentioned as are also adapted for use as parts or accessories of motor cars, motor cycles or motor scooters (see No. 68).		"	15 "
68	MOTOR-CARS, motor-cycles, motor-scooters, and articles adapted for use as parts and accessories thereof: provided that such articles as are ordinarily also used for purposes other than as parts and accessories of motor-vehicles included in this item or in No. 67 shall be dutiable at the rate of duty specified for such article.		"	30 "
CUTLERY, HARDWARE, IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS.				
69	The following AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS, namely, winnowers, threshers, mowing and reaping machines, binding machines, elevators, seed-crushers, chaff-cutters, root-cutters, ensilage cutters, horse and bullock gears, ploughs, cultivators, scarifiers, harrows, clod-crushers, seed-drills, hay-tedders, and rakes; also agricultural tractors; also component parts of these implements or tractors, provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the implements or tractors for which they are imported, and that they cannot ordinarily be used for purposes unconnected with agriculture.*			Free.
70	ARTICLES PLATED WITH GOLD AND SILVER		Ad valorem	30 per cent
71	CLOCKS AND WATCHES, and parts thereof.. ..		"	30 "
72	CUTLERY, excluding plated cutlery (see No. 69.)		"	15 "
73	The following DAIRY APPLIANCES, namely, cream separators, milk sterilizing or pasteurising plant, milk aerating and cooling apparatus, churns, butter dryers and butter workers; also component parts of these appliances provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the appliances for which they are imported and that they cannot ordinarily be used for other than dairy purposes.			Free.

* Under Government of India Notifications Nos. 239, dated the 2nd February 1924 and 4257, dated the 15th September 1924, the following are also exempt from payment of Import duty:—

- (1) Spraying machines used for agricultural purposes, and component parts thereof which can readily be fitted into their proper places in the machines and cannot ordinarily be used for purposes unconnected with agriculture.
- (2) Galvanized latex spouts used on rubber plantations for insertion in rubber trees.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured— <i>contd.</i>				
CUTLERY, HARDWARE, IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS— <i>contd.</i>				
74	ELECTRICAL CONTROL GEAR AND TRANSMISSION GEAR, namely, switches, fuses and current-breaking devices of all sorts and descriptions, designed for use in circuits of less than ten amperes and at a pressure not exceeding 250volts and regulators for use with motors designed to consume less than 187 watts; bare or insulated copper wires and cables, any one core of which has a sectional area of less than one-eighth of a square inch and wires and cables of other metals of not more than equivalent conductivity; and line insulators, including also cleats, connectors, leading in tubes and the like, of types and sizes such as are ordinarily used in connection with the transmission of power for other than industrial purposes, and the fittings thereof.		<i>Ad valorem.</i>	15 per cent.
75	HARDWARE, IRONMONGERY AND TOOLS, all sorts not otherwise specified.		"	15 "
76	INSTRUMENTS, APPARATUS, AND APPLIANCES, imported by a passenger as part of his personal baggage and in actual use by him in the exercise of his profession or calling.			Free.
77	MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS AND PARTS THEREOF ..		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent.
78	TELEGRAPHIC INSTRUMENTS AND APPARATUS, and parts thereof, imported by or under the orders of a railway company.		"	10 " "
79	WATER-LIFTS, SUGAR-MILLS, OIL-PRESSES, and parts thereof, when constructed so that they can be worked by manual or animal power.			Free.
80	All other sorts of IMPLEMENTS, INSTRUMENTS, APPARATUS AND APPLIANCES, and parts thereof, not otherwise specified. *		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
DYES AND COLOURS.				
81	DYEING AND TANNING SUBSTANCES, all sorts, and FAINTS AND COLOURS and painters' materials, all sorts—		Rs. a.	
	Allizarine dye, dry, not exceeding 40 per cent.	lb.	1 12	15 per cent.
	" " " over 40 per cent. but not exceeding 50 per cent.	"	2 0	15 " "
	" " " over 50 per cent. but not exceeding 60 per cent.	"	2 4	15 " "
	" " " over 60 per cent. but not exceeding 70 per cent.	"	2 8	15 " "

* Under Government of India Notification No. 245, dated the 19th May 1923, apparatus for wireless telegraph imported in accordance with the terms of the Notification of the Government of India in the Commerce Department No. 6081, dated the 22nd October 1921, is liable to duty at 2½ per cent. *ad valorem*.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured— <i>contd.</i>				
DYES AND COLOURS— <i>contd.</i>				
	Allizarine dye, dry, over 70 per cent. but not exceeding 80 per cent.	lb.	2 12	15 per cent.
	" " " over 80 per cent.	"	3 4	15 " "
	" " " moist, not exceeding 10 per cent.	"	0 7	15 " "
	" " " over 10 per cent. and not exceeding 16 per cent.	"	0 8	15 " "
	" " " over 16 per cent. and not exceeding 20 per cent.	"	0 10	15 " "
	" " " exceeding 20 per cent.	"	1 0	15 " "
	Aniline Dye, moist ..	"	2 0	15 " "
	" dyes, black, of sulphur series ..	"	0 12	15 " "
	" Congo red ..	"	1 4	15 " "
	All other aniline dyes, dry ..	"	2 8	15 " "
	Aniline Salts ..	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	Avar bark ..	cwt.	4 8	15 " "
	Cochineal ..	lb.	0 14	15 " "
	Galunuts (myrabolams) ..		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	" Persian ..	cwt.	35 0	15 " "
	Gamboge ..	lb.	2 4	15 " "
	Turneric ..	cwt.	32 0	15 " "
	All other sorts of dyeing and tanning materials.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	Lead, red, dry ..	cwt.	32 0	15 " "
	" white, dry ..	"	35 0	15 " "
	Lithopone ..	"	16 0	15 " "
	Turpentine ..	Imperial gallon.	5 0	15 " "
	Vermillion, Canton ..	box of 90 bundles.	165 0	15 " "
	Zinc, white, dry ..	cwt.	45 0	15 " "
	All other sorts of paints, colours pigment ores and painters' materials not otherwise specified, including glue and putty.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
FURNITURE, CABINETWARE AND MANUFACTURES OF WOOD.				
82	FURNITURE, CABINETWARE, and all manufactures of wood not otherwise specified.		"	15 " "
GLASSWARE AND EARTHENWARE.				
83	GLASS AND GLASSWARE, lacquered ware, earthenware, China and porcelain; all sorts, except glass bangles, beads and false pearls and aerated water bottles (Codd's pattern) (see Nos. 84 and 85).		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
84	AERATED WATER BOTTLES, (Codd's pattern)—			
	Under 10 ozs. ..	gross.	32 0	15 " "
	10 ozs. ..	"	34 0	15 " "
	Over 10 ozs. ..	"	37 0	15 " "
85	Glass Beads and false pearls ..	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 " "
GLASS BANGLES—				
	China—		Rs. a. p.	
	Nimuchi and pasalal ..	100 pairs	2 0 0	30 " "
	Bracelet Jadi and fancy all kinds ..	"	4 0 0	30 " "
	Rajawarakh all kinds ..	"	7 8 0	30 " "

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>		Rs. a. p.	
	GLASSWARE AND EARTHENWARE—<i>contd.</i>			
	<i>Japan—</i>	Dozen pairs	0 1 4	30 per cent.
	Reshmi, plain and fancy, all colours, including valmel.		0 4 6	30 „ „
	<i>Sonerikada (golbala)</i>	„		
	<i>European—</i>			
	Common, including plain colours, painted and flowered—		0 11 6	30 „ „
	Garnet and ruby excluding pasalai ..	„	0 4 6	30 „ „
	All colours excepting garnet and ruby but including pasabadrang.	„	1 6 0	30 „ „
	Gilt and fancy, all sizes, including Kerhira, Chandera, Salmadar, “K” flower and Momachi and including pressed and painted.	„	0 11 0	30 „ „
	Pasaful and machine polished, thin, including patli flower and fancy round rings.	„	0 12 0	30 „ „
	Common mirror bangles including chasma and Ranidarbar.	„	0 8 0	30 „ „
	Pasalai		Ad valorem	30 „ „
	All other kinds			
	HIDES, SKINS AND LEATHER.			
86	HIDES AND SKINS not otherwise specified, LEATHER AND LEATHER MANUFACTURES, all sorts, not otherwise specified.		„ „	15 „ „
	MACHINERY.			
87	MACHINERY, namely, such of the following articles as are not specified in any of the following numbers, namely, Nos. 67, 68, 69, 73, 74, 89, 103, 114, 127, 132, and 134—		„ „	2½ „ „
	(1) prime-movers, boilers, locomotive engines and tenders for the same, portable, engines (including power-driven road rollers, fire engines and tractors), and other machines in which the prime-mover is not separable from the operative parts;			
	(2) machines and sets of machines to be worked by electric, steam, water, fire or other power, not being manual or animal labour, or which before being brought into use require to be fixed with reference to other moving parts;			
	(3) apparatus and appliances, not to be operated by manual or animal labour, which are designed for use in an industrial system as parts indispensable for its operation and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose;			

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

No.	Name of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>		Rs. a.	
	MACHINERY—<i>contd.</i>			
	(4) control gear, self-acting or otherwise and transmission gear designed for use with any machinery above specified including belting of all materials and driving chains but not driving ropes;			
	(5) bare hard-drawn electrolytic copper wires and cables and other electrical wires and cables, insulated or not; and poles, troughs, conduits and insulators designed as parts of a transmission system, and the fittings thereof.			
	<i>Note.</i> —The term “industrial system” used in sub-clause (3) means an installation designed to be employed directly in the performance of any process or series of processes necessary for the manufacture, production or extraction of any commodity.			
88	COMPONENT PARTS OF MACHINERY, as defined in No. 87, namely, such parts only as are essential for the working of the machine or apparatus and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose;		Ad valorem	2½ per cent.
	Provided that articles which do not satisfy this condition shall also be deemed to be component parts of the machine to which they belong if they are essential to its operation and are imported with it in such quantities as may appear to the Collector of Customs to be reasonable.			
89	MACHINERY and component parts thereof, meaning machines or parts of machines to be worked by manual or animal labour, not otherwise specified (<i>see</i> Nos. 69, 73, and 79) and any machines except such as are designed to be used exclusive in industrial processes which require for their operation less than one quarter of one brake-horse-power.		„ „	15 „ „
	METALS, IRON AND STEEL.			
90	IRON—			
	ANGLE—			
	Angle and T, not fabricated—			
	Crown and superior qualities	ton.	200 0	10 „ „
	Other kinds	„	Specific	Rs. a. p. 20 0 0
	„ „ If galvanised tinned; or lead coated.	„	200 0	10 per cent.
	Angle, channel and tee, fabricated		Ad valorem	15 „ „

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>		Rs. a.	
	METALS, IRON AND STEEL—<i>contd.</i>			
	IRON—<i>contd.</i>			
	BAR AND ROD—			
	Qualities superior to Grade A of the British Engineering Standard Association.	ton	350 0	10 per cent.
	Grade A of the British Engineering Standard Association and Crown quality and intermediate qualities—			
	Over $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in diameter or thickness ..	"	190 0	10 " "
	$\frac{1}{2}$ inch and under in diameter or thickness ..	"	220 0	10 " "
	Common	"	Specific	Rs. a. p.
	" if galvanised, tinned, or lead coated ..	"	180 0	35 0 0
	All other sorts	"	Ad valorem.	10 per cent.
	Pipe	ton	90 0	10 " "
	RICE BOWLS	cwt.	23 0	10 " "
	SPINGELISEN, ferro-manganese, ferro-silicon and other ferro-alloys.		Ad valorem	10 " "
91	STEEL—			
	ALLOY STEEL, all kinds		Ad valorem	10 per cent.
	ANGLE and tee if galvanised, tinned or lead coated—			
	Not fabricated	ton	180 0	10 " "
	If fabricated		Ad valorem	10 " "
	ANGLE and tee, all other sorts, and beam, channelled, trough plate, piling and other structural sections—			
	Not fabricated	ton	Specific	Rs. a. p.
	If fabricated		Ad valorem	30 0 0
	Planned or polished including bright steel shafting.	ton	240 0	25 per cent.
	Galvanised or coated with other metals ..	"	180 0	10 " "
	Common merchant, and bar and rod designed for the reinforcing of concrete, all sizes.	"	Specific	Rs. a. p.
	All sorts not otherwise specified		Ad valorem	40 0 0
	CRUCIBLE, shear, blister and tub steel all kinds		"	10 " "
	EXPANDED metal		"	10 " "
	INGOTS, blooms and billets		"	10 " "
	RAILWAY TRACK MATERIAL—			
	Rails 30 lbs. and over per yard, and fishplates therefor.	ton	Specific	Rs. a. p.
	Rails under 30 lbs. per yard, and fishplates therefor.	"	"	14 0 0
	Bearing plates		Ad valorem	40 0 0
	therefor.			
	Spikes and tie-bars	ton	Specific	10 per cent.
	Sleepers and fastenings therefor and lever boxes		Ad valorem	Rs. a. p.
	Switches, crossings and the like material not made of alloy steel.		"	40 0 0
	SLABS, $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick or over		"	10 per cent.
	STEEL for springs and for cutting tools made by any process.		"	25 " "
			"	10 " "
			"	10 " "

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>		Rs. a.	
	METALS, IRON AND STEEL—<i>contd.</i>			
	IRON OR STEEL—<i>contd.</i>			
	STRUCTURES fabricated partially or wholly, not otherwise specified, if made mainly or wholly steel bars, sections plates or sheets, for the construction of buildings, bridges, tanks, well-curbs, trestles, towers and similar structures or for parts therefor, but not including builders' hardware (see No. 75) or articles specified in Nos. 67, 87, 88, or 136.		Ad valorem	25 percent.
	TIN plates and tinned sheets, including tin taggers	ton	Specific	Rs. a. p.
	TIN plate cuttings		Ad valorem	60 0 0
	TRAMWAY TRACK MATERIAL—			
	Rails, fishplates, tie-bars, switches, crossings and the like materials of shapes and sizes specially adapted to tramway track.		"	15 per cent.
	WIRE rope		"	10 " "
92	IRON OR STEEL—			
	ANCHORS and cables		Ad valorem	10 per cent.
	BOLTS and nuts including hook bolts and nuts for roofing.		"	10 " "
	HOOPS AND STRIPS—			
	Hoops, Crown and qualities similar or superior	ton	230 0	10 " "
	" other kinds	"	170 0	10 " "
	" if galvanised tinned, planned, lead coated or aluminium coated.	"	230 0	10 " "
	Strips, Crown and qualities similar or superior	"	230 0	10 " "
	" other kinds	"	170 0	10 " "
	" if galvanised tinned, planned, lead coated or aluminium coated.	"	230 0	10 " "
	NAILS, RIVETS AND WASHERS, all sorts—			
	Nails, wire or French	cwt.	Specific	Rs. a. p.
	" rose, deck, and flat-headed	"	20 0	3 0 0
	" bullock and horse-shoe	"	50 0	10 per cent.
	Panel pins, 16 gauge and smaller	"	20 0	10 " "
	Nails, other kinds, including galvanised, tinned or lead coated and tacks.	"	30 0	10 " "
	Rivets, black, boiler-makers' or structural ..	"	12 0	10 " "
	other sorts		Ad valorem	10 " "
	Washers, black, structural	cwt.	17 0	10 " "
	other sorts, including galvanised, nickel-plated, tinned or lead coated and dome-shaped, spring or locking washers.		Ad valorem	10 " "
	PIPES AND TUBES, and fittings therefor, that is to say, bends, boots, elbows, tees, sockets, flanges, plugs, valves, cocks and the like.—			
	If rivetted or otherwise built up of plates or sheets.		"	25 " "
	All other kinds		"	10 " "

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd.		Rs. a.	
	METALS, IRON AND STEEL—contd.			
	IRON OR STEEL.—contd.			
	PLATES not under $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, including sheets $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick or over—			
	Boiler fire-box and special qualities not fabricated	ton	300 0	10 per cent.
	Chequered, not fabricated	"	160 0	10 " "
	Galvanised, plain, not fabricated	"	280 0	10 " "
	Ship, tank, bridge and common, not fabricated	"	Specific	Rs. a. p.
	Cuttings, all kinds	"	25 0 0	25 per cent.
	All kinds, fabricated		Ad valorem	
	SHEETS under $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, not fabricated—			
	Black, whether corrugated or flat	ton	Specific	Rs. a. p.
	Galvanised, whether corrugated or flat	"	45 0 0	15 per cent.
	Cuttings of the above kinds of sheets		Ad valorem	
	If annealed which have been either cold-rolled, smoothed (including planished), pickled or cleaned by acid or other material or process	ton	200 0	10 " "
	Other sorts, including cuttings not otherwise specified.		Ad valorem	10 " "
	SHEETS under $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, fabricated—			
	All sorts		"	15 " "
	WIRE—			
	Barbed and stranded fencing		"	10 " "
	Netting		Rs. a. p.	
	All other kinds	ton	Specific	60 0 0
	IRON OR STEEL all other kinds not otherwise specified.		Ad valorem	15 per cent.
93	IRON OR STEEL CANS OR DRUMS—			
	When imported containing kerosene and motor Spirit which is separately assessed to duty under No. 34, namely:—			
	Cans, tinned, of four gallons capacity	can	0 8	15 per cent.
	Cans or drums, not tinned, of two gallons capacity—			
	(a) with faucet caps	can or drum	1 8	15 " "
	(b) ordinary	"	0 6	15 " "
	Drums of four gallons capacity—			
	(a) with faucet caps	drum	2 3	15 " "
	(b) ordinary	"	1 8	15 " "
	IRON OR STEEL CANS OR DRUMS, other sorts		Ad valorem	15 " "
	METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL.			
94	CURRENT NICKEL, BRONZE, AND COPPER COIN of the Government of India.			Fres.
95	GOLD AND SILVER BULLION AND COIN			"
96	GOLD PLATE, gold thread and wire and gold manufactures, all sorts.		Ad valorem	30 percent.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd.		Rs. a.	
	METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL—contd.			
97	SILVER PLATE, SILVER THREAD and wire and SILVER MANUFACTURES, all sorts.		Ad valorem	30 per cent.
98	ALL SORTS OF METALS OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL, and manufactures thereof, not otherwise specified—			
	Aluminium circles	lb.	0 15	15 " "
	" sheets	"	0 14	15 " "
	Brass, patent or yellow metal sheets and sheathing, weighing 1 lb. or above per square foot, and braziers and plates.	cwt	60 0	15 " "
	" patent or yellow metal (including gun metal) ingots.	"	35 0	15 " "
	" " " " old	"	30 0	15 " "
	" sheets, flat or in rolls, and sheathing, weighing less than 1 lb. per square foot.		Ad valorem	15 " "
	" wire		"	15 " "
	" all other sorts		"	15 " "
	Copper, bolt and bar, rolled		"	15 " "
	" braziers, sheets, plates and sheathing..	cwt.	65 0	15 " "
	" sheets, planished		Ad valorem	15 " "
	" nails and composition nails		"	15 " "
	" old	cwt.	36 0	15 " "
	" pigs, tiles, ingots, cakes, bricks and slabs.	"	55 0	15 " "
	" China, white, copperware	lb.	3 0	15 " "
	" foil or danks, plain, white, 10 or 11 in. X 4 to 5 in.	hundred leaves	2 0	15 " "
	" foil or danks, plain, coloured, 10 to 11 in. X 4 to 5 in.	"	2 8	15 " "
	" wire, including phosphor-bronze		Ad valorem	15 " "
	" all other sorts, unmanufactured and manufactured, except current coin of the Government of India which is free.		"	15 " "
	German silver		"	15 " "
	Lead, pig	cwt.	22 0	15 " "
	Lead, all sorts (except pig).		Ad valorem.	15 " "
	Quicksilver	lb.	2 4	15 " "
	Tin, block	cwt.	175 0	15 " "
	" foil, and other sorts		Ad valorem	15 " "

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>			
	METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL—<i>contd.</i>		Rs. a. p.	
	ALL SORTS OF METALS OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL, and manufactures thereof, not otherwise specified— <i>contd.</i>			
	Zinc or spelter, tiles, slabs or plates, hard or soft.	cwt.	25 0 0	15 per cent.
	" " all other sorts including boiler tiles and sheets.		Ad valorem	15 " "
	All other sorts of metals and manufactures thereof.		" "	15 " "
	PAPER, PASTEBOARD AND STATIONERY.			
99	PAPER AND ARTICLES MADE OF PAPER AND PAPER MACHINE, PASTEBOARD, MILLBOARD, AND CARD-BOARD all sorts, and STATIONERY including ruled or printed forms and account and manuscript books, drawing and copy books, labels, advertising circulars, sheet or card almanacs and calendars, Christmas, Easter and other cards, including cards in booklet form, including also waste paper and old newspapers for packing except old newspapers in bales and bags, but excluding trade catalogues and advertising circulars imported by packet, book, or parcel post (<i>see</i> No. 100) and also excluding the descriptions given below		" "	15 " "
	Old newspapers in bales and bags	cwt.	6 8 0	15 " "
	News printing paper, glazed and unglazed :—			
	White or grey	lb.	0 2 3	15 " "
	Coloured	"	0 2 6	15 " "
	Printing paper, white or coloured :—			
	Real Art	"	0 6 6	15 " "
	Imitation Art, machine finish, super calendered, ivory finish, antique, stereo, litho, poster, cartridge, (other than drawing or photographic cartridge) and cover paper.	"	0 4 0	15 " "
	Other sorts		Ad valorem	15 " "
	Packing and wrapping paper—			
	Nature brown, and machine-glazed pressings machine-glazed wrappings.	lb.	0 2 3	15 " "
	Manilla, machine-glazed or unglazed, and sulphite envelope.	"	0 2 9	15 " "
	Kraft and Imitation kraft	"	0 3 3	15 " "
	Other sorts including tissues	"	Ad valorem	15 " "
	Writing paper—			
	Bond, bank, or glazed and unglazed	"	0 6 6	15 " "
	Cream laid other than Mechanical	"	0 4 6	15 " "
	Mechanical Creamlaid	"	0 4 0	15 " "
	Other sorts		Ad valorem	15 " "
	Straw boards	cwt.	8 0 0	15 " "
100	TRADE CATALOGUES AND ADVERTISING CIRCULARS IMPORTED BY PACKET, BOOK OR PARCEL POST.			Free.

* Under Government of India Notification No. 296C, dated 10th July 1924, postage stamps, whether used or unused, are exempt from payment of import duty.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd.</i>			
101	RAILWAY PLANT AND ROLLING STOCK RAILWAY MATERIALS FOR PERMANENT WAY AND ROLLING STOCK, NAMELY.— Sleepers, and fastening therefor; bearing-plates, fish-bolts and nuts, chairs, interlocking apparatus, brake-gear, couplings and springs, signals, turn-tables, weigh-bridges, carriages, wagons, traversers trolleys, trucks, and component parts thereof; switches, crossings, and the like materials made of alloy steel; also cranes and water tanks, when imported by, or under the orders of a railway company. Provided that for the purpose of this entry "railway" means a line of railway subject to the provisions of the Indian Railways Act, 1890, and includes a railway constructed in a State in India and also such tramways as the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the <i>Gazette of India</i> , specifically include therein. Provided also that nothing shall be deemed to be dutiable hereunder which is dutiable under No. 87 or No. 88.		Ad valorem	10 per cent.
102	COMPONENT PARTS OF RAILWAY MATERIALS , as defined in No. 101, namely, such parts only as are essential for the working of railways and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose: Provided that articles which do not satisfy this condition shall also be deemed to be component part of the railway material to which they belong, if they are essential to its operation and are imported with it in such quantities as may appear to the Collector of Customs to be reasonable.		Ad valorem.	10 per cent.
103	YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS.			
	COTTON FIBRE GOODS			
104	COTTON TWIST AND YARN, and COTTON SEWING OR DARNING THREAD.		Ad valorem	11 per cent.
105	SECOND-HAND OR USED GUNNY BAGS made of jute.		"	5 " "
106	YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS, that is to say— Cotton thread other than sewing or darning thread, and all other manufactured cotton goods not otherwise specified.			Free.
	Flax, twist and yarn and manufactures of flax.		Ad valorem	15 per cent.
	Haberdashery and millinery excluding articles made of silk.		"	15 " "
	Hemp manufactures		"	15 " "
	Hosiery excluding articles made of silk		"	15 " "
	Jute twist and yarn and jute manufactures, excluding second-hand or used gunny bags (<i>see</i> No. 105).*		"	15 " "
	Silk yarn, noils and warps, and silk thread		"	15 " "
	Woolen yarn, knitting wool, and other manufactures of wool, including felt.		"	15 " "
	All other sorts of yarns and textile fabrics, not otherwise specified.		"	15 " "

* Under Government of India Notification No. 281, dated the 26th May 1923, used gunny cloth made of jute is exempt from payment of import duty.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured— <i>contd.</i>			Rs. a.	
YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS— <i>contd.</i>				
107	SILK PIECE-GOODS, and other manufactures of silk— Silk piece-goods, (white or coloured, plain or figured and all widths) from Japan and China (including Hongkong)— <i>Japan</i> — Paj, Thama; Junken and Nankin, all kinds, including striped, printed, embossed and pine-apples Satins and Kohaku, all kinds, including striped, printed, woven and embossed. Twill, all kinds Jarina (Gold embroidered) Fugi and Boseki, all kinds Fancies, printed and woven, including Georgettes, Kobe-crepes, crepe-de-chine, (chirmlin), ninons and gauzes. Embroideries, excluding Burmese scarves .. Shawls, dhuties, scarves, excluding Burmese, mufflers, handkerchiefs and hosiery. Dupettas and China Silk patkas Burmese Scarves (a) Paj " (b) other kinds Cotton and Silk mixed satins, embroidered .. Cotton and silk mixed satins, other kinds .. " " Hosiery " " Fugi and Boseki, all kinds Silk Fents <i>China (including Hongkong but excluding Cantons)</i> — Honans, all kinds, and patkas Shantung, all kinds, and Patkas Corded, all kinds, except Woochow White cord (Woochow), all kinds Crepe, Gauze and paj, all kinds Satins and fancies, all kinds Cantons, all kinds Silk piece-goods, apparel and other manufactures of silk not otherwise specified.*	lb.	26 8 30 0 28 0 34 0 15 0 35 0 52 0 47 0 20 0 45 0 50 0 16 0 8 0 28 0 12 0 13 0 8 0 5 0 6 0 13 0 25 0 27 0 <i>Ad valorem</i> 30	30 per cent. 30 " " 30 " " 30 " " 30 " " 30 " " 30 " "<

* Under Government of India Notification No. 4375, dated 22nd September 1924, the following are liable to duty at 15 per cent. *ad valorem*.

- (1) Silk ligatures.
- (2) Elastic silk hosiery required for medical purposes, comprising elbow pieces, thigh pieces, knee caps, leggings, socks or anklets, stockings and suspensory bandages.
- (3) Silk abdominal belts.
- (4) Silk web catheter tubes.
- (5) Oiled silk used solely for medical purposes.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured— <i>contd.</i>				
MISCELLANEOUS— <i>contd.</i>				
110	ART, works of, excluding those specified in No. 109.		<i>Rs. a. Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
111	Bangles— Celluloid, plain, flat, without border " other sorts " (rubber) rings excluding coils	dozen pairs	2 4 <i>Ad valorem</i> 0 7	15 " " 15 " " 15 " "
112	BOOKS, printed, including covers for printed books, maps, charts, and plans, proofs, music and manuscripts.			Free.
113	BRUSHES AND BROOMS		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
114	BUILDING AND ENGINEERING MATERIALS, including asphalt, bricks, cement other than Portland cement, chalk and lime, clay, other than China clay (see No. 116), pipes of earthenware, tiles, fire bricks not being component parts of any article included in No. 87 or No. 101, and all other sorts of building and engineering materials not otherwise specified including bitumen and other insulating materials.		"	15 " "
	PORTLAND CEMENT	cwt.	3 0	15 per cent.
115	CANDELS		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
116	CHINA CLAY	ton.	85 0	15 " "
117	CINEMATOGRAPH FILMS:— Exposed standard positive films new or used .. Other films	foot.	0 4 <i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " " 15 " "
118	CORDAGE AND ROPE AND TWINE OF VEGETABLE FIBRE (EXCLUDING COIR YARN). COIR YARN	cwt.	12 8 <i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " " 30 " "
119	FIREWORKS *		"	15 " "
120	FURNITURE, TACKLE AND APPAREL, not otherwise described, for steam, sailing, rowing and other vessels.		"	30 " "
121	Ivory, manufactured		"	30 " "
122	JEWELLERY AND JEWELS		"	30 " "
123	MATCHES— (1) In boxes containing on the average not more than 100 matches. (2) In boxes containing on the average more than 100 matches.	Gross of boxes. For every 25 matches or fraction thereof in each box, per gross of boxes.		<i>Rs. a. p.</i> 1 8 0 6
	Undipped splints such as are ordinarily used for match making	lb.		0 4 6
	Veneers such as are ordinarily used for making match boxes, including boxes and parts of boxes made of such veneers.	"		0 0 0
124	MATS AND MATTING		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
125	OIL CAKES		"	15 " "
126	OILCLOTH AND FLOOR CLOTH		"	15 " "
127	PACKING—ENGINE AND BOILER—all sorts, excluding packing forming a component part of any article included in Nos. 87, 88 and 101.		"	15 " "

* Under the Government of India Notification No. 4487, dated 2nd September 1922, such fireworks as are specially prepared as danger or distress lights for the use of ships are liable to duty at 15 per cent. *ad valorem*.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured— <i>contd.</i>				
MISCELLANEOUS— <i>contd.</i>			Rs. a.	
128	PERFUMERY, not otherwise specified—			
	Gowia husked and unhusked	cwt.	50 0	15 per cent.
	Kapurkachri (zedoary)	"	25 0	15 " "
	Patch leaves (patchouli)	"	30 0	15 " "
	Rose-flowers, dried	"	16 0	15 " "
	All other sorts		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
129	PITCH, TAR AND DAMMER—			
	Coal pitch	cwt.	5 0	15 " "
	Coal tar	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
	Stockholm pitch	"	20 0	15 " "
	Stockholm tar	"	16 0	15 " "
	Dammer Batu	"	7 0	15 " "
	Other sorts		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
130	PNEUMATIC RUBBER TYRES and tubes for motor cars, motor lorries, motor-cycles, and motor-scooters.		"	30 " "
131	POLISHES AND COMPOSITIONS.. .. .		"	15 " "
132	PRINTING AND LITHOGRAPHING MATERIAL, namely, presses, type, ink, aluminium lithographic plates, brass rules, composing sticks, chases, imposing tables, and lithographic stones, stereo-blocks, wood blocks, half-tone blocks, electrotypes, blocks, roller moulds, roller frames and stocks, roller composition, standing screw and hot presses, perforating machines, gold blocking presses, galley presses, proof presses, arming presses, copper plate printing presses, rolling presses, ruling machines, ruling pen making machines, lead and rule cutters, type casting machines, type setting and casting machines, rule bending machines, rule mitring machines, bronzing machines, leads, wooden and metal quoins, shooting sticks and galleys, stereo-typing apparatus, metal furniture, paper folding machines, and paging machines, but excluding paper (<i>see</i> No. 99).		"	2½ " "

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*concluded.*

No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty.
III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured— <i>contd.</i>				
MISCELLANEOUS— <i>contd.</i>			Rs. a.	Rs. a. p.
133	PRINTS, ENGRAVINGS AND PICTURES, including photographs and picture post cards.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent.
134	RACKS for the withering of tea leaf. . . .		"	2½ " "
135	RUBBER tyres and other manufactures of rubber not otherwise specified (<i>see</i> No. 130).*		"	15 " "
136	SHIPS AND OTHER VESSELS for inland and harbour navigation, including steamers, launches, boats and barges, imported entire or in sections.		"	10 " "
Provided that articles of machinery as defined in No. 87 or No. 88 shall, when separately imported, not be deemed to be included hereunder.				
137	SMOKERS' REQUISITES, excluding tobacco (Nos. 26 to 28) and matches (No. 123).		"	30 " "
138	SOAP		"	15 " "
139	STARCH AND FARINA		"	15 " "
140	STONE AND MARBLE, and articles made of stone and marble.		"	15 " "
141	TOILET REQUISITES, not otherwise specified ..		"	15 " "
142	TOYS, games, playing cards and requisites for games and sports, excluding bird-shot.		"	30 " "
	Bird-shot	cwt.	35 0	30 " "
143	ALL OTHER ARTICLES wholly or mainly manufactured, not otherwise specified.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 " "
IV.—Miscellaneous and unclassified.				
144	ANIMALS, living, all sorts			Free.
145	CORAL		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
146	FODDER, BRAN AND POLLARDS		"	2½ " "
147	SPECIMENS illustrative of natural science, and medals and antiquarian coins.			Free.
148	UMBRELLAS, including parasols and sunshades, and fittings therefor.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
149	ALL OTHER ARTICLES NOT OTHERWISE SPECIFIED, including articles imported by post.		"	15 " "

*Under Government of India Notification No. 303, dated 9th February 1924, rubber tyres and tubes used exclusively for aeroplanes are liable to duty at 2½ per cent. *ad valorem*.

* Under Government of India Notification No. 1428, dated 17th November 1923, Jute Rags such as are used for paper making are exempt from payment of export duty provided that the Customs Collector is satisfied that they are useless for any purpose to which cloth or rope is ordinarily put.

The year 1923-24 marked a slow but distinct advance towards India's commercial recovery. The improvement in trade which characterised the previous year was maintained and there was a further development on sound and healthy lines towards a more stable economic conditions. A study of trade in the year 1923-24 seems to suggest that we have moved away from the violent fluctuations and that sober and steady alterations may be looked for in succeeding years. Even with world-trade at its present low ebb India's exports have expanded from a pre-war average of Rs. 2194 crores to Rs. 349 crores in the year under review. The world's stocks of most of India's staple exports are low and this latter figure represents a low estimate of the quantity of her goods which humanity must buy if current standards of living are to be maintained. The final liquidation of accumulated stocks of imports was practically completed and another good monsoon gave India her third year of good crops in succession.

Exports.—The most striking feature of Indian trade as a whole was that exports showed an increase of 50 crores over those of the previous year, while imports decreased by 10 crores. The large increase in the former has to be discounted to some extent as 27 crores of it is attributable to raw cotton of which there were large exports at high prices on account of the shortage of the American crop. The following figures have been compiled to show the values of imports and exports of merchandise on the basis of declared values in 1913-14. These statistics are necessarily approximate, but they are sufficiently accurate to afford a reliable measure of the course of trade.

(In crores of Rupees)

	1913-14	1919-20	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
Imports	183	101	142	124	138	120
Exports	244	198	172	182	214	240
Total trade in merchandise excluding re-exports	427	299	314	306	352	360

They illustrate the extent to which Indian trade is returning to its pre-war dimensions, especially on the exports side. And it has always to be borne in mind that in 1913-14 trade was distinctly better than the pre-war normal.

On the **Import** side cotton piece-goods fell in quantity by 107 million yards to 1,486 million yards and in value by Rs. 1½ crores to Rs. 57 crores. This was due to a decrease of Rs. 6½ crores in grey goods which was only partly set off by an increase of Rs. 5 crores in coloured

goods. The total value of the import trade, excluding cotton piece-goods, decreased by 10 per cent. from Rs. 174 crores to Rs. 171 crores. The quantities of imports including molasses and confectionery imported fell by 5 per cent. from 504,000 tons to 476,000 tons, while the value remained almost stationary at Rs. 151 crores. Machinery and millwork decreased in value from Rs. 23 crores to Rs. 19 crores, while railway plant and rolling stock showed a small improvement from Rs. 11 to Rs. 11½ crores. Iron and steel showed a small increase

in quantity with a fall of 2 per cent in value, which amounted to nearly Rs. 18 crores. The value of the imports of hardware decreased from Rs. 5 crores to Rs. 4½ crores, while motor cars improved from Rs. 1½ crores to Rs. 2 crores. Importations of coal were further reduced from Rs. 3 crores to Rs. 1½ crores, but mineral oil increased from nearly Rs. 7 crores to Rs. 8½ crores. The quantity of all-zarine and aniline dyes imported increased by 2½ million lbs. to 16½ million lbs., but their value stood at Rs. 2½ crores which approximated closely to the previous year's figure. In liquors the quantity increased with a small decrease in value. Imports of raw cotton increased from Rs. 1½ crores to Rs. 2½ crores, but there was a fall in cotton twist and yarn from Rs. 9½ crores to nearly Rs. 8 crores.

On the **Export** side raw cotton increased from Rs. 71 to Rs. 95½ crores and the total value of raw cotton and cotton manufactures exported increased by Rs. 25½ crores to Rs. 110½ crores. Raw jute increased in quantity by 14 per cent, to 660,000 tons, but decreased in value by 11 per cent, from Rs. 22½ crores to Rs. 20 crores. Gunny bags exported increased in quantity and value, while gunny cloth showed an increase in quantity with a small decrease in value. The total value of raw jute and jute manufactures shipped fell slightly from Rs. 63 crores to Rs. 62½ crores. Shipments of rice increased in quantity by 81,000 tons to 2·2 million tons, while their value showed a small decrease of Rs. 14 lakhs and amounted to Rs. 34·9 crores. Exports of wheat showed a large increase and amounted to 638,000 tons, valued at Rs. 9 crores. The tea trade also showed a marked improvement, shipment increasing in quantity by 50 million lbs. and in value by Rs. 9½ crores to 338½ million lbs. valued at Rs. 31½ crores. The total value of oilseeds exported again increased in the year under review by Rs. 2½ crores to nearly Rs. 30 crores.

The Balance of Trade in merchandise in favour of India reached the record figure of Rs. 145 crores, which was partly liquidated by bullion imports, gold to the value of Rs. 29 crores, and silver to the net value of Rs. 18 crores, by the sale of council bills, purchases in India of sterling, and sales of gold in India against sterling payments.

Imports of Merchandise.

Cotton Manufactures.—Another year of high prices had the effect of checking the recovery in demand for cotton manufactures which was anticipated after a prolonged period of agricultural prosperity. The prices of raw cotton in America dominate the world's piecegoods markets and the year under review was one of high and widely fluctuating prices. The prices of middling American at New Orleans was in the neighbourhood of 28 cents per lb., both at the opening and at the close of the year. But it varied between 22 cents in July and 35½ cents in December. Up to the end of July there was an expectation that the American cotton crop would prove of sufficient size to bring about reasonable level of values, but the damage it suffered during August was so great that a sharp upward movement was experienced in September and by the beginning of October the hope of an adequate yield was generally abandoned and prices moved accordingly. As usual, Indian buying was slack till the character of the monsoon was clear and even when the rains had proved to be good no large orders were placed until September-October and by that time prices had risen sharply owing to the rapid advance in the price of the raw material. Stocks in all the principal centres in India were scarce, and there would have been a strong cold weather demand but for the damping effect of a very considerable increase in prices. The year closed with stock low and a feeling that there would be a strong demand as soon as lower prices of the raw material should permit more reasonable quotations for the manufactured products.

The imports of cotton manufactures were valued at Rs. 67½ crores as compared with Rs. 70 crores in 1922-23 and Rs. 57 crores in 1921-22. The decrease was in cotton twist and yarn and grey piece-goods, while white and coloured goods increased.

The value of the imports represented 29½ per cent of the total import trade in 1923-24, as compared with 30 per cent, in 1922-23 and 21 per cent, in 1921-22. The chief descriptions of imports during the last three years and the pre-war year were as follows:—

Imports of Cotton manufactures	1913-14 (pre-war year)	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)
Twist and yarn	4·16	11·51	9·26	7·94
Piece-goods—				
Grey (unbleached)	25·45	22·65	30·44	23·06
White (bleached)	14·29	12·67	15·01	15·44
Coloured, printed, or dyed ..	17·86	7·59	12·60	17·69
Fents of all descriptions ..	54	25	46	65
TOTAL PIECE-GOODS ..	58·14	43·16	58·51	56·84
Hosiery	1·20	63	80	94
Handkerchiefs and shawls ..	89	10	16	23
Thread	39	72	70	71
Other sorts	1·52	82	70	82
GRAND TOTAL ..	66·30	56·94	70·13	67·48

Cotton Twist and Yarn.—There was a noticeable decrease in the imports of cotton twist and yarn, the quantity falling by 15 million lbs. or 25 per cent to 4½ million lbs. and the value by Rs. 1·32 lakhs or 14 per cent to Rs. 7·94 lakhs. The total quantity of the imports was approximately the same as in 1913-14. Imports from the United Kingdom fell from Rs. 5·69 to Rs. 4·61 lakhs and Japanese from Rs. 3·20 to Rs. 2·85 lakhs. The high cost of cotton hampered the British yarn trade, and the earthquake in September 1923 temporarily suspended Japanese activities. Prices were higher than in the preceding year and the average declared value per lb. rose from Rs. 1·9-0 in 1923-23 to Rs. 1·12-6 in 1923-24.

Cotton Piece-goods.—The following table compares the imports of the three important classes of piece-goods in millions of yards during

each of the last eleven years:—

Year.	Grey (unbleached)	White (bleached)	Coloured, printed or dyed
	Million yards.	Million yards.	Million yards.
1913-14 ..	1,534·2	793·3	831·8
1914-15 ..	1,320·2	604·2	494·8
1915-16 ..	1,148·2	611·4	358·7
1916-17 ..	847·0	589·8	454·9
1917-18 ..	625·5	502·3	395·6
1918-19 ..	583·4	286·6	227·3
1919-20 ..	533·3	322·0	208·3
1920-21 ..	580·2	421·8	489·3
1921-22 ..	635·6	306·2	138·3
1922-23 ..	931·0	402·5	243·8
1923-24 ..	704·0	415·3	347·6

Percentage share of the United Kingdom and Japan in the imports of Cotton Piece-goods.

	1913-14		1921-22		1922-23		1923-24	
	United King- dom.	Japan	United King- dom.	Japan	United King- dom.	Japan	United King- dom.	Japan
Cotton piece-goods grey	98·8	·5	82·8	13·1	89·5	9·6	85·2	13·7
Cotton piece-goods white	98·5	..	97·8	·6	98·2	·6	97·0	·6
Cotton piece-goods coloured	92·6	·2	88·0	3·6	86·9	6·3	87·4	6·7

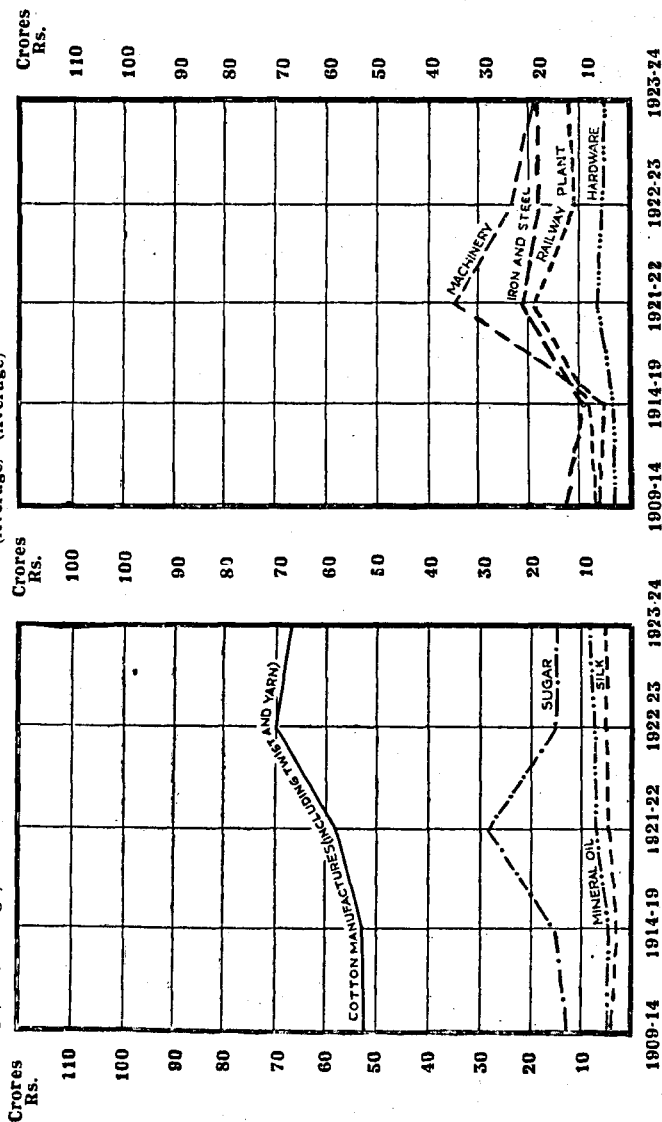
Silk—Raw and Manufactured.—There was a fall of 25 per cent, both in the quantity and value of raw silk imported. The imports amounted to 1,365,000 lbs., valued at Rs. 1·19 lakhs as compared with 18,29,000 lbs. and Rs. 1·58 lakhs in 1922-23. As in the preceding year, 93 per cent, of the imports came from China and Hongkong and the remainder mainly from Siam, and Japan. Imports by overland routes from Western China, Siam and the Shan States amounted to 669,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 93 lakhs, as compared with 583,632 lbs. and Rs. 77 lakhs in 1922-23. Silk yarn, nolls and warps increased to 937,000 lbs., valued at Rs. 71 lakhs, from 897,000 lbs. and Rs. 62 lakhs in the preceding year, owing to larger arrivals from Italy, China, and the United Kingdom. A half of the total quantity under this head came from Italy and 21 per cent, from Japan.

Silk piece-goods, the most important description of manufactured silk imported, decreased in quantity by nearly 2 per cent, to 14,087,000

yards, while the value of the imports increased slightly by one per cent, to Rs. 2·30 lakhs. Over 98 per cent of the total quantity came, as usual, from the Far East (China, Hongkong and Japan).

Metals and Manufactures thereof.—The total quantity of metals and manufactures thereof imported during 1923-24 increased to 808,000 tons from 801,300 tons in 1922-23 but the value showed a decrease by a crore of Rupees to Rs. 24½ crores. Iron and steel represented Rs. 18 crores of this total, and occupied the third place in order of importance among imports, as in the preceding year. If we include under this heading machinery and millwork, railway, plant and rolling stock, cutlery, hardware, implements and instruments, and vehicles (excluding carriages and carts) the total value would aggregate Rs. 67 crores. The first quarter of 1923 saw the occupation of the Ruhr, which entirely dislocated the German steel industry and also materially reduced the steel output

IMPORTS.



of France and Luxemburg, owing to the curtailment of fuel supplies. And continental supplies of iron and steel hardly became an appreciable factor in world's supplies again until the last quarter of that year, and their supplies to India were consequently much restricted in the year under review. The United States also considerably curtailed her exports owing to a strong home-demand for industrial developments. The United Kingdom, where the industry suffered from a disastrous slump in 1921, regained, in 1923, her position as the chief exporting country. An important factor in this recovery was that prices were remarkably steady throughout the year. And, even when continental suppliers were able to underquote British suppliers certainty and promptness of delivery gave the latter a distinct advantage. The United Kingdom output of 3,700,000 tons of steel in 1921 was the smallest recorded for over a quarter of a century and represented a decline of 5,300,000 tons on the previous year. In 1922 the output advanced to nearly 6 million tons and in 1923 to 8½ million tons as against 7 million tons in the pre-war year 1913.

Machinery and Millwork.—As in the two preceding years, machinery and millwork maintained its position as second to cotton manufactures in India's import trade in 1923-24. There has been a steady reduction in the value of importations since the boom year 1921-22. The total imports of machinery of all kinds, including belting for machinery and printing presses, during 1923-24 were valued at Rs. 20 crores, as compared with Rs. 24 crores in 1922-23, Rs. 35 crores in 1921-22 and Rs. 24 crores in 1920-21.

Railway Plant and Rolling Stock.—Imports under this head, on private and Government accounts combined, were valued at Rs. 14 crores (Rs. 11,72 lakhs private and Rs. 2,28 lakhs Government) as compared with Rs. 13,76 lakhs (Rs. 11,06 lakhs private and Rs. 2,70 lakhs Government) in 1922-23 and Rs. 21,86 lakhs (Rs. 18,91 lakhs private and Rs. 2,95 lakhs Government) in 1921-22.

Motor Vehicles.—Notwithstanding an import duty of thirty per cent, there was a remarkable increase in the imports of motor cars, which numbered 7,984 as compared with 4,323 in 1922-23 and 2,895 in 1921-22. With the exception of the two abnormal years immediately after the close of the war this represents the largest importation on record. The total recorded values also increased by 48 per cent. to Rs. 2,05 lakhs. The expansion was due partly to increased imports of small light cars, but more particularly was it due to drastic price-cuttings, mainly on the part of the United Kingdom and Continental manufacturers. Of the total imports, 41 per cent. came from Canada, 36 per cent. from the United States, 13 per cent. from the United Kingdom. The average declared value of cars imported from Canada was Rs. 1,982 (Rs. 1,982) as compared with Rs. 2,424 (Rs. 3,160) for each car from the United States and Rs. 4,511 (Rs. 7,312) from the United Kingdom, the values per unit in the preceding year being shown in brackets. The relative fall in the average cost of cars from the United King-

dom is noticeable. Bengal had 36 per cent. of the trade, Bombay 29 per cent., Madras 14 per cent. and Burma 13 per cent.

Hardware.—This is a comprehensive heading and includes among others the following heads:—

	1922-23 Rs. (lakhs)	1923-24 Rs. (lakhs)
Agricultural implement	23	21
Other implements and tools (except machine tools)	79	68
Builders' hardware	35	24
Domestic hardware	9	9
Enamelled ironware	24	31
Metallamps	57	60
Metallamps parts	12	9
Stoves	6	7
Safes, etc.	3	4
Gas mantles	6	5
Other sorts	2,61	2,04

Sugar.—Sugar held fourth place in India's import trade in 1923-24 as in the preceding year, the total value of all kinds of sugar, including molasses and confectionery, imported being Rs. 15½ crores. Cotton manufactures ranked first as usual with Rs. 67½ crores and they were followed by machinery and millwork, including belting (Rs. 20 crores), and iron and steel (Rs. 18 crores). The imports of sugar, refined and unrefined, excluding molasses and confectionery, decreased in quantity by 7 per cent. to 411,500 tons and the value stood at Rs. 14,78 lakhs as against Rs. 14,85 lakhs in 1922-23. High prices ruling in Java during the latter half of the year restricted business, but the bulk of the imports arrived during August to October when prices were low. Java continued to be the main source of supply and accounted for nearly 90 per cent. of the total quantity imported as compared with 84 per cent. in 1922-23. Imports therefrom (including consignments from the Straits Settlements which are forwarding agents of Java sugar) fell slightly from 373,700 tons in 1922-23 to 371,200 tons. This quantity was distributed as follows:—Bengal 154,500 tons or 42 per cent., Bombay 99,600 tons or 27 per cent., Karachi 87,900 tons or 24 per cent., Burma 20,000 tons or 5 per cent., Madras 9,200 tons or 2 per cent. of the total. Mauritius sugar, mostly imported into Bombay, dwindled to 1,300 tons as compared with 31,400 tons a year ago—this reduction being due to the diversion of this sugar to the United Kingdom as a result of the preference accorded to it.

Mineral Oils.—Mineral oils imported into India from foreign countries are comprised mainly of kerosene, fuel oils and lubricating oils. The imports of petrol from abroad are insignificant, the bulk of this oil coming coastwise from Burma. The total quantity of foreign mineral oil imported in the year under review increased to 169 million gallons from 133 million gallons in the preceding year. The increase was almost equally contributed by kerosene and fuel oils. Nearly 69 million gallons of kerosene oil (bulk oil) 62 million gallons and case oil 7 million gallons) valued at Rs. 4.42 lakhs were imported from abroad in 1923-24, as compared with 50 million gallons (bulk oil) 46 million gallons and 4 million gallons in tins) valued at Rs. 3.38 lakhs in 1922-23 and 46½ million gallons (bulk oil) 41 million gallons and 5 million gallons in tins) and Rs. 3.46 lakhs in 1921-22. The quantity exceeded by 2 million gallons, the average annual imports during the five pre-war years.

The importations of fuel oil into India, to meet the growing demands of railways, steamships, and industrial plant, have steadily risen from 34 million gallons in 1919-20, 48 millions in 1920-21, 58 millions in 1921-22, 62½ millions in 1922-23 to a record figure of 80½ millions. Imports from Persia, which is the largest supplier amounted to 60 million gallons or nearly 75 per cent. of the total quantity imported, as compared with about 51 million gallons in each of the two preceding years. Borneo's supplies rose strikingly from 5 million gallons to 16½ million gallons, while the imports from the Straits Settlements fell from 5 million gallons to 3½ million gallons. Lubricating and batching oils decreased to 16 million gallons, valued at Rs. 1.74 lakhs, from 18 million gallons and Rs. 1.79 lakhs in 1922-23. The United States supplied 11 million gallons and the remainder came mostly from Borneo (3 million gallons) and the United Kingdom (1½ million gallons). Imports of petrol from abroad were, as stated above, insignificant, being only 2,700 gallons, while the imports into India proper of petrol and other motor spirit from Burma amounted to 14½ million gallons, as compared with 16½ million gallons in 1922-23 and 17 million gallons in 1921-22.

Paper and Pasteboard.—Under paper the revival of trade recorded in the previous year continued and increases were recorded in all the major headings. The quantity of paper and pasteboard imported increased by 15 per cent. from 60,300 tons to 69,700 tons. In respect of value, there was a decline of 3 per cent. from Rs. 2,79 lakhs to Rs. 2,71 lakhs, owing particularly to the lower prices of German paper, although nearly all prices showed an easier tendency.

Printing paper was imported to the extent of 19,900 tons as compared with 19,300 tons in the preceding year, while the value decreased to Rs. 86½ lakhs from nearly Rs. 86 lakhs. News printing paper which was specified separately from April, 1923, accounted for 10,030 tons, valued at Rs. 33 lakhs. A noticeable feature was the increase in the imports of printing paper from Germany, which

supplied 5,500 tons, valued at Rs. 22½ lakhs, as compared with 2,200 tons and Rs. 10 lakhs in 1922-23. The share of the United Kingdom receded from Rs. 35 to Rs. 28 lakhs and that of Norway from Rs. 30 to Rs. 20 lakhs. The quantity imported from Norway, the United Kingdom and Sweden decreased from 6,900, 5,700 and 2,000 tons in 1922-23 to 5,300, 5,000 and 1,100 tons, respectively, last year. The Netherlands increased her supplies from 660 to 900 tons, while there were reduced imports from Belgium and Japan. The United States of America has almost disappeared from the trade, supplies from that country amounting to 15 tons only as compared with 44 tons in 1922-23 and 204 tons in 1921-22.

Provisions.—This comprehensive head covers a large variety of articles, of which the principal are (in order of importance), canned and bottled provisions, farinaceous and patent foods, milk condensed, biscuits and cakes, bacon and hams, cheese, jams, and jellies, pickles and sauces, cocoa and chocolate, isinglass, butter, ghee, lard, and vinegar. The total value of imported provisions increased slightly from Rs. 2,77 lakhs in 1922-23 to Rs. 2,80 lakhs in 1923-24.

Canned and bottled provisions increased in quantity from 100,000 cwt. to 107,000 cwt., but decreased in value from Rs. 75 lakhs to Rs. 70 lakhs, of which the United Kingdom supplied Rs. 35 lakhs and the United States of America Rs. 4 lakhs. The share of Australia fell to Rs. 1½ lakhs. Prices declined in sympathy with reduced prices in the United Kingdom, the main source of supply.

Liquors.—The total of liquors imported increased in quantity but decreased in value, owing particularly to cheaper continental beer and spirits. The total imports were 4,700,000 gallons, as compared with 4,605,000 gallons in 1922-23, an increase of 3 per cent., while the value amounted to Rs. 3,14½ lakhs, a decrease of Rs. 28 lakhs or 8 per cent. Ale and beer, brandy, gin, spirit present in drugs, liqueurs and wines showed increases, while there were noticeable decreases in rum, whisky and perfumed spirits.

Salt.—The duty on salt manufactured in India was raised from Rs. 1-4 to Rs. 2-8 per maund on the 1st March, 1923. The fact that the enhanced rate was to be in force for one year, after which the question of its continuance would be considered again, necessarily limited clearances to the immediate requirements for consumption and there was a corresponding reduction also in imports. The imports of salt from abroad showed a decrease of 12 per cent. in quantity from 642,000 tons to 475,000 tons, while the value fell by 35 per cent. from Rs. 1,69 lakhs to Rs. 1,10 lakhs. Foreign salt was, as usual, imported almost entirely into Bengal and Burma, the former importing 419,000 tons or 88 per cent. of the total quantity and the latter 55,300 tons or over 11 per cent. as compared with 484,000 tons and 57,800 tons, respectively, in the preceding year.

Dyeing and Tanning Substances.—Synthetic dyes increased in quantity by 18 per cent. from 14 million lbs. to 16½ million lbs., but in value by only 2 per cent. from Rs. 2.47 lakhs to Rs. 2.51 lakhs. The increase in value was due entirely to alizarine dyes which rose by 10 per cent. both in quantity and value and amounted to 5,809,000 lbs., valued at Rs. 47½ lakhs, as compared with 5,286,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 43 lakhs in the preceding year. The aniline dyes imported increased in quantity by 24 per cent. from 8,742,000 lbs. to 10,809,000 lbs., while their value (Rs. 2,02½ lakhs) was approximately the same as in the preceding year on account of the reduced prices of German supplies. The average declared value of alizarine dyes was Rs. 0-13-1 per lb. as in 1922-23, while in the case of aniline dyes it fell to Rs. 1-14-0, as compared with Rs. 2-5-0 in 1922-23. Noticeable features were the increases in the imports of British Alizarine dyes from 878,000 lbs. to 2,431,000 lbs. and of German aniline dyes from 6,726,000 lbs. to 8,551,000 lbs. Germany almost regained her pre-war importance as a supplier, although the value of her imports fell from Rs. 184 to Rs. 181 lakhs. British supplies advanced from Rs. 20 to Rs. 27 lakhs and those from Netherlands, probably in transit from Germany, from Rs. 14 to Rs. 16 lakhs. American shipments also increased from Rs. 9 to Rs. 11 lakhs.

Glass and Glassware.—The value of glass and glassware imported decreased to Rs. 2.46 lakhs from Rs. 2.60 lakhs in 1922-23. Japan maintained her lead in this trade with Rs. 81 lakhs and was followed by Germany (Rs. 43 lakhs), Czechoslovakia (Rs. 42 lakhs), the United Kingdom (Rs. 32 lakhs), and Belgium (Rs. 24 lakhs). With the exception of bangles, all the principal descriptions specified showed decreases in value. Imports of bangles from Japan and Czechoslovakia increased. More beads and false pearls also came from Japan, while the supplies from Germany and Italy decreased. In bottles and phials the quantity increased, but the value decreased owing to a large increase in the imports of a cheap class of phials from Japan. Germany also sent more bottles and phials than in 1922-23. There were decreases in the imports of funnels, gloves and glass parts of lamps from Germany and Japan, of sheet and plate glass from Belgium, and of tableware from Japan.

Tobacco.—The activity of the Indian cigarette manufacturing industry was reflected in the figures of imports of unmanufactured tobacco and cigarettes. There was a remarkable increase in unmanufactured tobacco from 1,228,000 lbs., valued at Rs. 17 lakhs, to 4,557,000 lbs., valued at Rs. 48½ lakhs together with a decrease in cigarettes from 4,087,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 1.85 lakhs, to 3,453,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 1.57 lakhs in 1923-24. These figures include imports of cigarettes by postal packets which were not separately specified prior to April, 1922. The United States of America sent 3,889,000 lbs. of unmanufactured tobacco, as compared with 703,000 lbs. in 1922-23. Nearly 97 per cent. of the total quantity of cigarettes imported came from the United Kingdom, as compared with 94 per cent. in the preceding year. The imports of American and Egyptian cigarettes decreased. These figures suggest that the high rate of import duty

of 75 per cent. has stimulated the manufacture of Indian cigarettes from imported tobacco. Cigars were in greater demand with lower prices, the imports rising from 24,600 lbs. valued at nearly Rs. 2 lakhs to 27,200 lbs. valued at Rs. 1½ lakhs. Tobacco for pipes and cigarettes decreased to 279,200 lbs. worth Rs. 17½ lakhs, from 309,800 lbs. and Rs. 20 lakhs in 1922-23.

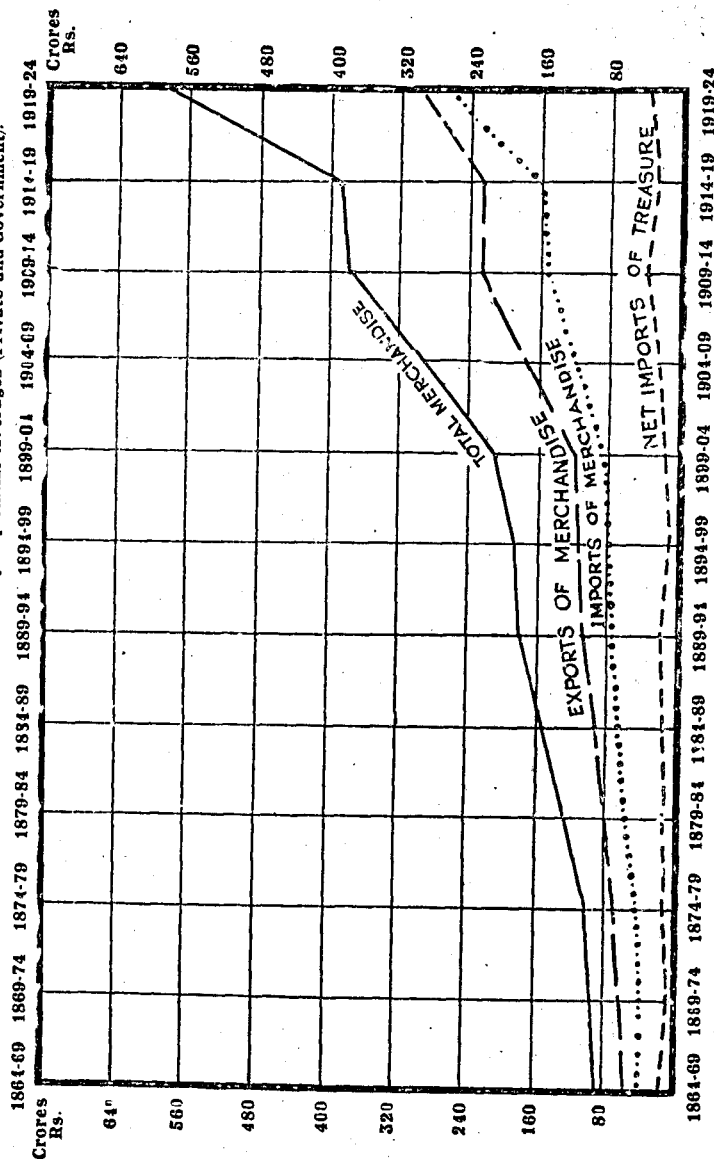
Precious Stones and Pearls unset.—The value of precious stones imported in the year under review decreased from Rs. 1,32 lakhs to Rs. 89 lakhs, of which over Rs. 85 lakhs consisted of diamonds. This was largely due to a falling in prices, owing partly to speculation and partly genuine slackness of demand. The chief supplier of diamonds was, as usual, Belgium which accounted for Rs. 45 lakhs. The United Kingdom sent Rs. 24 lakhs of precious stones, Belgium Rs. 46 lakhs, and France Rs. 10 lakhs, as compared with Rs. 50 lakhs, Rs. 77 lakhs and Rs. 3 lakhs, respectively in the preceding year. Pearls unset were valued at Rs. 91 lakhs, as compared with Rs. 94 lakhs in 1922-23. The imports were, as usual, mostly from the Bahrain Islands and Maskat, which together supplied Rs. 86½ lakhs worth as compared with Rs. 79 lakhs in 1922-23.

Coal.—The imports of foreign coal showed a further decrease to 592,000 tons, as compared with 882,000 tons in the preceding year. The most noticeable feature was the decrease in the supplies from the United Kingdom, which fell from 497,000 to 79,000 tons, a decrease of 418,000 tons. This was partly set off by increases of 20,000 tons from the Union of South Africa, of 135,000 tons from Portuguese East Africa, and of 37,000 tons from Australia. Imports from Japan dropped from 83,000 tons in 1921-22 and 85,000 tons in 1922-23 to 700 tons in 1923-24.

Matches.—Imports of matches were steady at 11 million gross, although the value decreased from Rs. 1,62 lakhs to Rs. 1.46 lakhs. Nearly 9 million gross worth Rs. 1,18½ lakhs were safety matches, of which 52 per cent. came from Japan and 44 per cent. from Sweden. Other kinds of matches amounted to 2½ million gross, of which Sweden supplied 56 per cent. and Japan 39 per cent. The interesting feature of the trade was the large increase in the imports of Swedish matches, which amounted to over 5 million gross as compared with 2½ million gross in 1922-23, while the arrivals of Japanese matches dropped from 8 million gross to 5½ million gross. The share of Japan in the total quantity of matches imported was 49 per cent. and of Sweden 46 per cent., as compared with 74 and 23 per cent., respectively, in the preceding year. Imports from Norway and Czechoslovakia increased in quantity, but showed decreases in value. The high import duty was the direct cause of a new Japanese trade in splints, complete in every way except for the head, and empty boxes. So that the only manufacturing processes applied to these goods in India were the dipping and the packing. With effect from 1st March, 1924, a high specific duty has also been imposed on undipped splints, veneers for match boxes, and empty boxes, which came in formerly at an *ad valorem* import duty of 15 per cent.

Cement.—With the expansion of the Indian cement industry imports of cement declined from 134,000 tons, valued at Rs. 1,06 lakhs, to 113,000 tons valued at Rs. 75 lakhs.

During the last 60 years (1864-69 to 1919-24). Quinquennial Averages (Private and Government).



Note.—Imports and Exports include both private and Government transaction.

Exports of Merchandise.

Cotton.—The year ending March 1924 was one of general depression in the Lancashire spinning industry, particularly in the section using American cotton. The section of the spinning industry using Egyptian cotton did somewhat better. The uncertainty of the position was intensified by the character of the American cotton-season. With practically a record acreage there seemed every hope of a large crop, but succeeding condition reports steadily diminished this hope and the crop eventually gained was only 12,675 thousand bales (400 lbs.) excluding linters. The Egyptian crop decreased to 1,447,000 bales from 1,659,000 bales in 1922 and 1,076,000 bales in 1921. The Indian crop in 1923-24, in spite of an increased area of 6 per cent. was estimated at 5,074,000 bales, the same figure as in 1922-23, as against 4,485,000 bales in 1921-22.

On May 11th it had dropped to 14.18d. but was just over 16.00d. by the end of that month. From 17.23d. half way through June a gradual decline took place, and on the 1st of August 13.40d. the lowest point of the year was recorded. From that date over 2d. per lb. was added before the beginning of September and nearly 3d. more during the course of that month, whilst in November the price was raised another 4d. from 17.78d. to 21.72d. A set back in early December reduced the quotation to 18.59d., but through bullish activities the month closed at 21.06d. only 1d. per lb. less than the highest point of the year. Prices then took a downward turn and reached 16.46d. on 28th March 1924. The trend of prices in the Bombay market responded generally to the price movements of American cotton. Broach cotton at Bombay was quoted at Rs. 527 per candy (781 lbs.) at the beginning of April, and with small fluctuations prices tended to weaken during the first few months of the year, the lowest quotations of the year, Rs. 444 being recorded in August, when monsoon prospects were good. Prices then began to move upwards and there was a sharp rise by the end of November when the highest quotation Rs. 715 was reached. Subsequently prices fell and Rs. 545 was the quotation on 28th March, 1924.

Indian mill consumption was reduced by two mill strikes in Ahmedabad and Bombay respectively and by a period of poor demand for yarn and cloth. Export was brisk, the high prices of American cotton leading to an increased demand for the cheaper Indian product. Exports from India during the year rose to 3,764,000 bales as compared with 3,363,000 bales in 1921-22. The value, on account of the high range of prices, rose by 39 per cent. from Rs. 71 crores to Rs. 98 crores and represented 25 per cent. of the grand total value of all Indian merchandise exported during the year, as compared with 24 per cent. in the preceding year. Stocks of unsold cotton in Bombay on 31st August 1923 were only 387,000 bales as compared to 938,000 in the preceding year (on 31st August, 1924, stocks

amounted to 233,500 bales only). Japan was as hitherto, India's best customer and took 1,722,000 bales (value Rs. 42,62 lakhs) or 46 per cent. of the total quantity exported, as compared with 1,621,000 bales or 48 per cent. in 1922-23 and 1,760,000 bales or 59 per cent. in 1921-22.

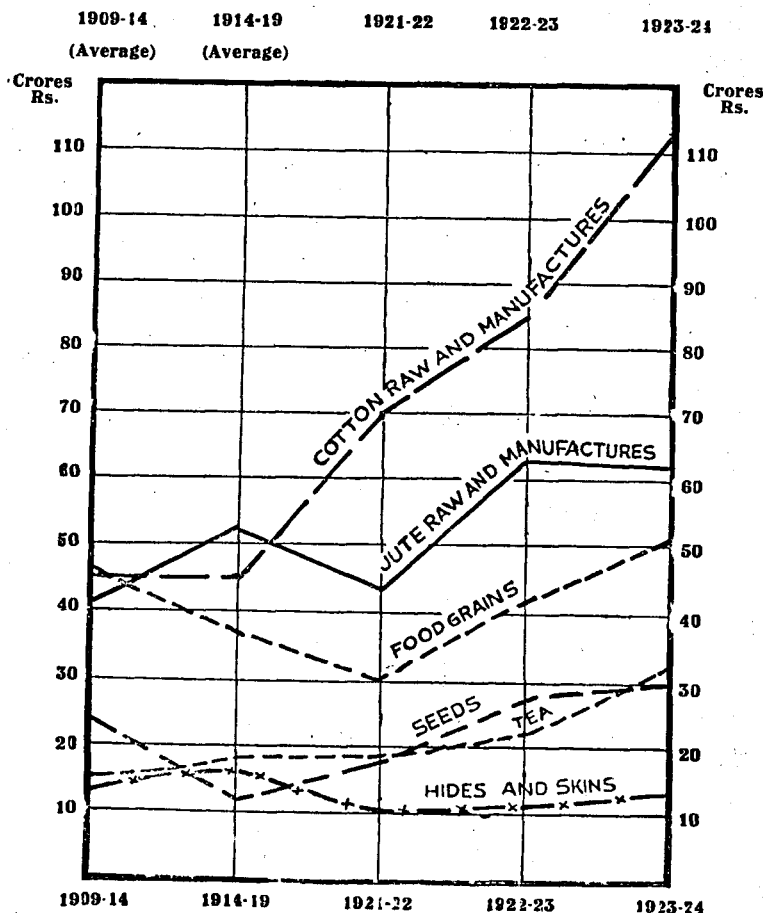
Cotton yarn.—The production of yarn in the Indian mills during the year was the lowest on record since 1904-05, amounting only to 608½ million lbs. as compared with 706 million lbs. in 1922-23, 693 million lbs. in 1921-1922, and 683 million lbs. in 1913-14. In the early part of the year Indian yarns found themselves unable to compete with the cheaper Japanese yarns and the resulting fall in demand led to an accumulation of stocks. The disastrous earthquake in Japan in September was the direct cause of a brisker demand which had the effect of a considerable reduction in stocks and a temporary rise in prices. Thereafter owing to the abnormal rise in the price of raw cotton, business became difficult and trade at the end of the year was in a depressed state. The mill strikes at Bombay and Ahmedabad in January-February, were not unmitigated evils, as they enabled mill-owners to clear their stocks. Demand however was slack and there was no improvement in prices.

Cotton Piece-goods.—The previous year's depression in the Indian cotton-mill industry continued through the first half of the year under review. Prices were reduced but in the absence of demand stocks still accumulated. There was a short-lived but valuable spurt in clearances during November and the first half of December, which helped the mills to clear stocks and to put through a certain number of forward contracts. Thereafter, as in the case of imported goods, prices rose owing to the great increase in the cost of the raw material, and demand fell away. There is little direct competition between Manchester goods and Indian goods, but competition of Japanese piece-goods with the latter is severe. And it is significant that in 1923-24 imports from Japan reached the high figure of 123 million yards as compared with 108 million yards in 1922-23 and 90 million yards in 1921-22. The earthquake at the end of September gave a temporary set-back to Japanese supplies, and this was a factor which assisted the strengthening of demand for Indian goods from the end of October onwards. But the set-back was only temporary, as the Japanese cotton mills had not been working full time and the reduction in spinnage was partly offset at once by an increase in working hours.

Jute and Jute Manufactures.—The figures of 1923-24 again showed an increase in weight, but this was accompanied by a slight decrease in value. The total weight of raw and manufactured jute shipped increased by 12½ per cent. from 1,250,000 tons to 1,407,000 tons, but the value of the exports showed a fall of one per cent. from Rs. 63 crores to Rs. 62½ crores. The following statement shows the quantities exported during 1913-14 and the last three years:—

	1913-14.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
Jute (in thousand tons)	768	468	578	660
Bags (in millions)	369	387	344	411
Cloth (in million yards)	1,061	1,121	1,254	1,340

EXPORTS.



Raw jute showed an increase in quantity of 14 per cent. over 1922-23, but the figures were still 14 per cent. below those of 1913-14. But it is satisfactory to note that the number of bags and the yardage of cloth exported were both greater than the corresponding figures of either the preceding year or the pre-war year.

Tea.—The total production of tea in India

was estimated at 375 million lbs. in 1923, as compared with 312 million lbs. in 1922 and 274 million lbs. in 1921. Assam contributed 63 per cent. or nearly two-thirds of the total, Northern India (excluding Assam) 25 per cent. and Southern India nearly 12 per cent. The statement below shows the development of the industry during the past 18 years:—

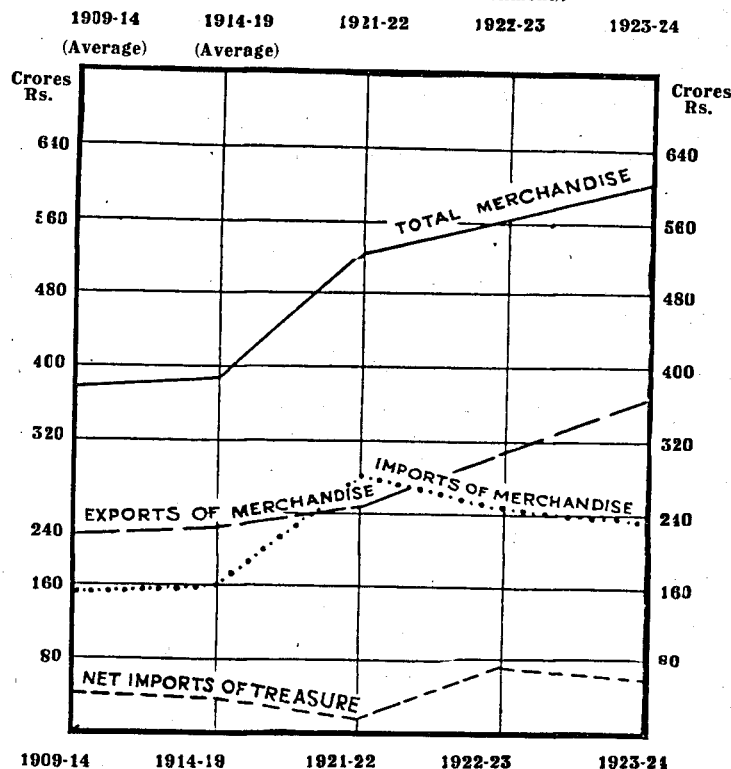
	1905	1915	1920	1921	1922	1923
Acreage.	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Assam	339,200	382,800	420,200	417,200	412,100	411,800
Rest of Northern India ..	153,500	181,300	193,800	200,600	203,300	203,600
Southern India	33,800	68,000	88,400	91,200	92,800	94,900
Burma	1,500	2,800	1,700	(b)	(b)	(b)
TOTAL ..	528,000	634,900	704,100	709,000	708,200	710,300
Production.	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)
Assam	151,905	245,752	234,314	181,503	199,965	237,601
Rest of Northern India ..	57,478	94,695	(a) 75,237	61,382	75,126	92,076
Southern India	11,910	31,610	35,655	31,399	36,548	45,679
Burma	107	146	134	(b)	(b)	(b)
TOTAL ..	221,400	372,203	345,340	274,264	311,639	375,356

The total area under tea in India during 1923 was 710,000 acres as against 708,000 acres in the previous season and the estimated yield increased by 64 million lbs. to 375 million lbs. Over 80 per cent. of the area lies in Assam and in the adjoining districts of Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri. Exports during the same years were as follows:—

	1905-06	1915-16	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
From Northern India (Calcutta and Chittagong)	lbs. (1,000) 199,737	lbs. (1,000) 301,403	lbs. (1,000) 284,086	lbs. (1,000) 253,796	lbs. (1,000) 290,774
From Southern India (Madras ports)	12,680	25,840	27,233	30,386	38,560
From Bombay, Sind and Burma	1,807	11,227	2,559	4,114	3,417
TOTAL ..	214,224	338,470	313,878	288,296	338,755

It will be observed from the above statements that the bulk of India's production is exported abroad, but local consumption is also reported to be steadily increasing.

During the last three years as Compared with Averages of the pre-war and war periods (Private and Government).



Foodgrains and Flour.—In 1923-24, the exports of foodgrains and flour amounted to 3,423,000 tons valued at nearly Rs. 51 crores, showing an increase of 32 per cent. in quantity and 20 per cent. in value. The detailed exports during the last three years as compared with the average figures of the five pre-war years are shown in the following table:—

	Pre-war average.	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
	Tons (000)	Tons (000)	Tons (000)	Tons (000)
Rice not in the husk	2,398	1,366	2,088	2,177
Rice in the husk	42	39	37	30
Rice flour				
Wheat	1,308	81	220	638
“ flour	55	64	50	57
Pulse	201	80	147	276
Barley	227	10	16	169
Jowar and bajra	41	5	16	14
Maize	49	2	23	67
Other sorts	..	6	1	1
TOTAL TONS (000) ..	4,411	1,653	2,503	3,429
VALUE Rs. (lakhs.) ..	4,581	2,999	4,248	5,087

The important crops are rice and wheat. Sixty-four per cent. of the total quantity of grain, pulse and flour exported consisted of rice, 20 per cent. wheat and wheat-flour, 8 per cent. pulse including beans, gram, lentils, etc., and 5 per cent. barley.

Wheat.—Wheat is a cold-weather crop and consequently any year's exports are principally of the previous year's crop. The crop of 1922-23 was estimated at nearly 10 million tons on an area of 30½ million acres and showed a small increase over the estimated production (9·8 million tons) of 1921-22. The following table shows the figures of production and exports of wheat in the last four years and the pre-war year 1913-14:—

Total production of wheat and total exports by sea to foreign countries.

	Production.	Exports.
	Tons (1,000)	Tons (1,000)
1913-14	8,367	1,202
1920-21	6,706	238
1921-22	9,830	81
1922-23	9,982	220
1923-24	9,754	638

Two excellent wheat-harvests in succession had filled local granaries and there was consequently a fair surplus for export. Shipments increased markedly from 220,000 tons valued at Rs. 3,44 lakhs to 638,000 tons valued at Rs. 9,11 lakhs in 1923-24.

Oilseeds.—Seeds ranked fifth in order of importance in India's export trade, the first

four being cotton, jute, raw and manufactured foodgrains and tea. The total exports showed an increase of nearly 7 per cent. in quantity and 9 per cent. in value and amounted to 1,235,000 tons, valued at Rs. 29,82 lakhs, as compared with 1,177,000 tons and Rs. 27,35 lakhs in 1922-23. Ninety-five per cent. of the total quantity of oilseeds exported consisted of linseed (29·4 per cent.), rapeseed (26·8 per cent.), groundnuts (20 per cent.), cotton seed (12 per cent.), and castor seed (6·8 per cent.). The bulk of the oilseed crops are harvested towards the end of one financial year and marketed in the following year.

Hides and Skins.—The exports of raw hides and skins increased by 7 per cent. in quantity, and 21 per cent. in value, from 45,700 tons valued at Rs. 5,71 lakhs in 1922-23 to 48,900 tons valued at Rs. 6,93 lakhs in 1923-24. The chief item of note was the increased exportation of raw hides due to two factors, stronger Continental demand, particularly from Germany and Italy, and the reduction in the export duty. Of cow hides Germany took 9,461 tons valued at Rs. 97 lakhs and Italy 4,894 tons valued at Rs. 45 lakhs in 1922-23, while Germany took 11,618 tons valued at Rs. 1,32 lakhs and Italy 5,386 tons valued at Rs. 57 lakhs in 1923-24, and of buffalo-hides Germany took 1,124 tons valued at Rs. 7½ lakhs and Italy 182 tons valued at Rs. 1½ lakhs in 1922-23, while Germany took 1,662 tons valued at Rs. 14 lakhs, and Italy 1,358 tons valued at Rs. 13½ lakhs in 1923-24. Thus in 1923-24 of the 285 lakhs worth of raw hides exported from India 218 lakhs worth went to these two countries. The export duty on raw hides and skins was reduced, with effect from the 1st March 1923, from 15 per cent. with a rebate of 10 per cent. on shipments tanned within the Empire, to an all-round rate of 5 per cent.

India's exports normally exceed her imports in the case of all the countries with which she deals in large quantities excepting the United Kingdom where the reverse has always been the case. It is, however, of interest to note that the excess of imports over exports in the case of the United Kingdom declined to Rs. 41 crores in 1923-24 from Rs. 70 crores and Rs. 1,02 crores respectively, in the two preceding years. The average during the five war years was only Rs. 14 crores and that during the five years immediately preceding the war was Rs. 35 crores.

The percentage share of the United Kingdom in the import trade fell from 60.2 in 1922-23 to 57.8 in 1923-24, while her share in the export trade increased from 22.4 to 25 per cent. The share of His Majesty's Dominions and other British Possessions in imports was 6.8 per cent. almost on the level of the preceding year, the smaller imports of Mauritius sugar being set off by larger arrivals of Kenya cotton. In the export trade their share fell from 18.3 to 13.9 per cent. The whole British Empire had 48.8 per cent. of the total trade (64.6 per cent. in imports and 38.9 per cent. in exports) as compared with 52 per cent. (67.2 per cent. in imports and 40.7 per cent. in exports) in 1922-23. The share of the United States of America in the import trade was 5.6 per cent. being about the same as in the preceding year, while her share in the export trade, which showed some improvement in 1922-23, decreased in 1923-24 to 9.4 per cent. from 11.1 per cent. Japan's share in the import trade showed no appreciable change, but on the export side her share improved from 13 to 14.1 per cent. owing to larger exports of cotton to that destination. Germany's share in imports was 5.2 per cent. as compared with 5.1 per cent. in 1922-23, while her share in the export trade decreased to 6.9 per cent. from 7.2 per cent. Belgium had 2.4 per cent. of the import trade and 3.8 per cent. of exports as compared with 2.7 per cent. and 3.6 per cent. respectively, in 1922-23. The share of Java in the import trade increased on account of larger imports of sugar from that country, while Mauritius considerably reduced her supplies. Larger imports of raw cotton from Kenya Colony and coal from Portuguese East Africa increased the share of East Africa in the import trade.

In iron and steel the United Kingdom improved her position considerably in 1923-24 and had over 67 per cent. of the trade as compared with 58 per cent. in 1922-23, and nearly 70 per cent. in the pre-war year 1913-14, while the other important sources of supply, Belgium, Germany and the United States lost ground. The shares of Belgium and the United States were, however, higher than before the war. In machinery, the position of the United Kingdom was stationary at nearly 85 per cent. while the United States of America slightly improved her share to 10.2 per cent. as compared with 9.6 per cent. in 1922-23 and 3.3 per cent. in the pre-war year, 1913-14. The United Kingdom lost ground in hardware by 2.7 per cent. to 46.9 per cent., while the United States showed an increase of 1.3 per cent. to 16.4 per cent. The shares of Germany and Japan showed small decreases. In mechanically propelled vehicles motor cars, motor cycles, etc., Canada increased her share by 7 per cent. to over 27

per cent. and the United States from nearly 33 per cent. to over 35.3 per cent. while the share of the United Kingdom further declined in the year under review from nearly 31 per cent. to 26.2 per cent. The position of the United Kingdom in railway plant and rolling stock remained unchanged at 94.1 per cent. Under the head "instruments" the United Kingdom improved her position, while that of the United States of America was the same as in the preceding year and Germany's share was reduced. In cotton manufactures the share of the United Kingdom decreased from 84.5 to nearly 82 per cent. Japan showed a small improvement from 11.7 to 12.4 per cent. In silk manufactures, China improved her share from 31.5 to 34.6 per cent., while Japan's share fell by from 51 per cent. to 41 per cent. and Italy improved her position from 7.3 to 11.7 per cent. Java dominates the sugar market and increased her share from 82 to 89.4 per cent., while the share of Mauritius showed a heavy decrease and was only 0.4 per cent. as compared with 6.6 per cent. in 1922-23 and 16.9 per cent. in the pre-war year, 1913-14. In liquors the share of the United Kingdom decreased, while France and Germany improved their position. The United States of America decreased her share in mineral oils from 60.6 per cent. to 54.4 per cent. and the share of Persia also fell, while that of Borneo increased. Germany considerably improved her position in the paper trade at the expense of Norway and Sweden.

Turning to the exports, the United Kingdom increased her share in the tea trade from 86.8 to 88.4 per cent. while Australia, on account of the competition of Java tea, further reduced her share to 0.9 per cent. from 1.2 per cent. in 1922-23 and 3.1 per cent. in 1913-14. Direct trade with Russia does not yet claim a share and the portion taken by the Persian Gulf littoral also decreased. In raw jute Germany came first with 25.6 per cent. as compared with 24.8 per cent., while the share of the United Kingdom and the United States fell by more than 3 per cent. each, to 23 and 12 per cent., respectively. In jute manufactures, the noticeable feature was the fall in the share of the United States of America from 45.8 to 40.2 per cent. The United Kingdom, Australia and the Argentina showed small increases. The share of Japan in the exports of raw cotton again decreased in the year under review from 48.4 to 43.2 per cent., and of China from nearly 15 to 7 per cent., while Italy improved her position from 6.8 to 15.2 per cent. and the United Kingdom from 5.9 to 8.7 per cent. Oilseeds is a composite head. The United Kingdom showed a small improvement from 28.8 to 29.7 per cent., and France from 29.1 to 29.8 per cent. The shares taken by Belgium and Germany decreased, while the Netherlands showed a small increase. Under foodgrains the United Kingdom considerably improved her position and was the best customer with 22.4 per cent. as compared with 12.2 per cent. in 1922-23 and 26.7 per cent. in 1913-14. The shares of the other principal importing countries—Ceylon, Germany, and the Straits Settlements—showed decreases. In hides and skins the shares taken by both the United Kingdom and the United States fell from 42.3 and 25.6 to 40.1 and 24.3 per cent., respectively,

Germany and Italy improved their position, while Spain considerably reduced her share.

Japan ranked second in importance in India's foreign trade as in the two preceding years. The value of her total trade with India increased to Rs. 64½ crores from Rs. 55 crores owing mainly to the increased price of raw cotton which constitutes the chief item in Indo-Japanese trade. Imports from Japan decreased in value from Rs. 14½ crores to Rs. 13½ crores, while exports rose from Rs. 40 crores to nearly Rs. 51 crores. Imports of cotton manufactures

including twist and yarn were valued at Rs. 8½ crores as compared with Rs. 8.2 crores in 1922-23 and represented 60 per cent. of the total import trade as against 56 per cent. in the preceding year. Cotton piecegoods increased to 122 million yards, valued at Rs. 4½ crores, from 108 million yards and Rs. 4½ crores, while twist and yarn fell to 20½ million lbs., valued at nearly Rs. 3 crores, from 26½ million lbs. and Rs. 3½ crores in 1922-23. The following table gives the figures of imports under the three main groups of grey, white, and coloured goods:—

In thousands of yards,				
	1913-14.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24;
Grey	7,108	83,490	90,037	96,172
White	58	1,861	2,375	2,307
Coloured, etc. .. .	1,735	4,924	15,366	23,422

There was again in 1923-24 a heavy decrease in the imports of matches from 8 million gross valued at Rs. 1.15 lakhs, in 1922-23 to 5½ million gross and Rs. 70 lakhs. The value of silk manufactures imported also fell from Rs. 1.62 lakhs to Rs. 1.39 lakhs, both silk yarn and piecegoods sharing in the decrease. Glass and glassware were valued at nearly Rs. 81 lakhs as compared with Rs. 80 lakhs in 1922-23. Imports of coal, hardware, brass, apparel, and cement decreased, while camphor, umbrella fittings and wood manufactures increased. Under exports raw cotton accounted for 84 per cent. of the total value as in the two preceding years. The quantity rose by 6 per cent. to 1,722,000 bales and the value by 24 per cent. to Rs. 42½ crores. Japan increased her demands of rice to 128,000 tons valued at Rs. 2.12 lakhs, from 80,000 tons and Rs. 1.26 lakhs in 1922-23. Pig iron also increased by 32,000 tons to 144,000 tons, valued at Rs. 1.02 lakhs. The quantity of raw jute exported increased from 11,500 tons to 12,300 tons, but the value decreased from Rs. 38 lakhs to Rs. 35 lakhs. The number of gunny bags exported increased from 10.8 millions to 11.4 millions and the value from Rs. 43 lakhs to Rs. 51 lakhs. Shipments of rapeseed and sesamum, cakes, bone meal, sheep skins and indigo increased, while there were decreases in shellac, paraffin wax and pig lead.

The United States occupied the third place in India's foreign trade as in the two preceding years. The value of India's total trade with that country decreased by over a crore of rupees to nearly Rs. 47 crores. Imports fell from Rs. 13.2 crores to Rs. 12.8 crores and exports from Rs. 34.9 crores to Rs. 34 crores. The principal articles imported from the United States were mineral oils (Rs. 4½ crores), machinery and mill work (Rs. 2 crores), motor vehicles

(Rs. 1 crore), iron and steel, and hardware (Rs. ½ crore each). These five articles accounted for 70 per cent. of the total import trade as in the two years 1921-22 and 1922-23. Imports of mineral oils increased from 52.2 million gallons to nearly 58 million gallons and the value from Rs. 4.12 lakhs to Rs. 4.56 lakhs. Machinery and mill-work decreased by 12 per cent. in value to Rs. 1.96 lakhs. The quantity of iron and steel imported again decreased in 1923-24 by 52 per cent. from 38,000 tons to 18,000 tons and the value by 47 per cent. from Rs. 1.39 lakhs to Rs. 73 lakhs. Imports of motor cars increased to 2,865 in number, valued at Rs. 69½ lakhs, from 1,386 and Rs. 44 lakhs in 1922-23, while hardware decreased from Rs. 77½ lakhs to Rs. 72 lakhs. There were increases under railway plant and rolling stock imported and aniline dyes, while sugar, copper braziers and sheets, cotton piecegoods and cigarettes decreased. The value of instruments showed a small improvement of Rs. ½ lakh. The number of rubber tyres for motor vehicles increased from 23,800 to 25,800, but the value fell from Rs. 16 lakhs to Rs. 13½ lakhs.

The bulk of the exports to the United States consisted of raw and manufactured jute (Rs. 10½ crores), shellac (Rs. 5 crores), raw hides and skins (Rs. 3 crores), and raw cotton and castor seed (about one crore each). These articles accounted for 86 per cent. of the total value of exports to the United States as compared with 90 per cent. in 1922-23.

Germany occupied the fourth place in India's foreign trade as in the preceding year. The value of the imports was nearly Rs. 12 crores as in 1922-23, while exports increased by 11 per cent. to Rs. 25 crores. The total value of the Indo-German trade increased by Rs. 2½ crores to Rs. 37 crores. The following figures show the values of the Indo-German trade

during the past three years as compared with the pre-war average:—

	Pre-war average	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.
	Rs. (lakhs.)	Rs. (lakhs.)	Rs. (lakhs.)	Rs. (lakhs.)
Imports	9,35	7,25	11,89	11,89
Exports, including re-exports	22,36	16,34	22,64	25,11

It will be observed that the balance of trade is in India's favour by over Rs. 13 crores as compared with Rs. 11 crores in 1922-23 and Rs. 13 crores, the pre-war average.

Balance of Trade and Movements of Treasure.

Balance of Trade.—There was a large surplus of exports over imports of private merchandise in the year under review, amounting to over Rs. 134 crores as compared with a credit balance of Rs. 82 crores in 1912-23 and a debit balance of Rs. 21 crores in 1921-22. The average credit balance was Rs. 78 crores in the five pre-war years and Rs. 76 crores in the five war years.

The following table shows the movements of merchandise and the trade balance in each month of 1923-24:—

(In lakhs of rupees.)

Month.	Private merchandise.		Excess Net Imports— Net Exports +	Excess in the corresponding month of 1922-23.
	Imports.	Exports.		
1923—				
April	21,00	30,67	+ 9,67	+ 5,96
May	19,28	30,10	+ 10,82	+ 8,51
June	18,01	29,89	+ 11,88	+ 3,08
July	16,39	16,10	+ 9,71	+ 6,31
August	17,01	23,43	+ 6,42	+ 4,04
September	18,71	23,42	+ 4,71	+ 3,41
October	20,59	25,53	+ 4,94	— 1,27
November	2,10	27,63	+ 6,53	+ 8,19
December	15,41	30,70	+ 15,29	+ 8,89
1924—				
January	22,61	36,95	+ 14,34	+ 8,08
February	18,19	35,73	+ 17,54	+ 12,28
March	19,31	41,76	+ 22,45	+ 14,13
Total	2,27,61	3,61,91	+ 1,34,30	— 81,61

Movements of Treasure.—The following table shows the imports of coin and bullion on private account during the last three years, as compared with the averages of the pre-war and war periods:—

(In lakhs of rupees.)

ERRATA.

Page 805. Column I, line 4, for "Rs. 21 crores" read "Rs. 22 crores."

Column II, last paragraph, lines 3 and 4, for "3rd and the 5th January 1924" read "13th February 1924."

1922-23		41,31	13	20,71	2,54	—59,35
1923-24		29,25	6	21,78	3,40	—47,57

Imports of gold decreased from Rs. 41 crores to Rs. 29 crores mainly owing to its increased price. Gold bullion decreased by Rs. 9 crores to Rs. 21 crores, owing to smaller shipments from the United Kingdom and France, and the value of sovereigns and other British gold coin imported also decreased from Rs. 10 crores to Rs. 7 crores, due mainly to smaller arrivals from the United Kingdom and Western Australia. Of the total value of gold imported during the year under review, the United Kingdom contributed Rs. 16½ crores, Australia and New Zealand Rs. 2½ crores, Natal Rs. 3½ crores and the United States Rs. 2½ crores. France also supplied Rs. 1½ crores and Aden and Mesopotamia together Rs. 2½ crores. South African gold was diverted to India after the mines were released in August 1923 from their obligations to send the whole production to the United Kingdom. Besides these imports gold equivalent to 2 million sovereigns was sold by the Government of India in London for delivery in India against sterling paid to the Secretary of State in London. The exports of gold were valued at Rs. 6½ lakhs as compared with Rs. 13 lakhs in the previous year. The sterling price of gold per ounce in London reached the highest point at 98s. on the 21st January 1924 and closed at 96s. at the end of March, the corresponding highest and lowest quotations for 1922-23 being 95s. in April 1922 and 88s. 2d. in March 1923. In Bombay the price of gold per tola rose from Rs. 25-3 on the 1st April 1923 to Rs. 26-6 on the 31st March 1924, the corresponding quotations for 1922-23 being Rs. 28-13 in April 1922 and Rs. 25-2 in March 1923.

In the case of silver, however, the imports on private account established a fresh record, the gross imports exceeding the previous year's figures by about a crore and amounting to Rs. 21-4-5 crores, owing to larger arrivals

of bar silver from the United States. Imports of the white metal into India during the year were consigned principally from the United Kingdom (nearly Rs. 10 crores), the United States (Rs. 8½ crores), Australia and New Zealand (Rs. 89 lakhs), Mauritius (Rs. 56 lakhs), Mesopotamia (Rs. 38 lakhs), China (Rs. 30 lakhs) and Arabia (Rs. 25 lakhs). It is worthy of note that while the imports from the United Kingdom remained stationary those from the United States of America more than doubled in the year under review. The value of silver exported rose by Rs. 86 lakhs to Rs. 3,40 lakhs, there being larger shipments to China (Rs. 1½ crores), Mauritius (Rs. 70 lakhs) and Ceylon (Rs. 30 lakhs). Imports on Government account were valued at Rs. 32 lakhs, as compared with Rs. 23 lakhs a year ago. The increase was due to larger arrivals of Government of India rupees from Aden and Mesopotamia. Exports of silver on Government account were considerably reduced, being valued at Rs. 52,000 only as against Rs. 5 lakhs in 1922-23.

Imports of currency notes increased from Rs. 1,02 lakhs to Rs. 1,17 lakhs on private account and from Rs. 30 lakhs to Rs. 68 lakhs on Government account, while exports decreased from Rs. 11 to Rs. 9 lakhs on private and from Rs. 18½ to Rs. 11 lakhs on Government account.

Silver prices were lower and steadier in 1923-24 than in 1922-23. The highest point 34½d. per ounce, was reached on the 3rd and the 5th January 1924 and the lowest point, 30½d., was touched on the 11th, 16th and 30th July and 24th August 1923. The difference between the highest and the lowest prices was thus 3½d., as compared with the variation of 7d. between the highest price 37½d. on the 22nd May 1922 and the lowest 30½d. on the 15th December 1922.

during the past three years as compared with the pre-war average:—

	1922-23	1923-24.
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804. 6

surplus of exports over imports of private merchandise in the year under review, amounting to over Rs. 134 crores as compared with a credit balance of Rs. 82 crores in 1912-23 and in the five pre-war years and Rs. 76 crores in the five war years.

The following table shows the movements of merchandise and the trade balance in each month of 1923-24:—

(In lakhs of rupees.)

Month.	Private merchandise.		Excess Net Imports—Net Exports+	Excess in the corresponding month of 1922-23.
	Imports.	Exports.		
1923—				
April	21,00	30,67	+ 9,61	+ 5,96
May	19,28	30,10	+ 10,82	+ 8,51
June	18,01	29,89	+ 11,88	+ 3,08
July	16,39	16,10	+ 9,71	+ 6,31
August	17,01	23,43	+ 6,42	+ 4,04
September	18,71	23,42	+ 4,71	+ 3,41
October	20,59	25,53	+ 4,94	— 1,27
November	2,10	27,63	+ 6,53	+ 8,19
December	15,41	30,70	+ 15,29	+ 8,89
1924—				
January	22,61	36,95	+ 14,34	+ 8,08
February	18,19	35,73	+ 17,54	+ 12,28
March	19,31	41,76	+ 22,45	+ 14,13
Total	2,27,61	3,61,91	+ 1,34,30	— 81,61

Movements of Treasure.—The following table shows the imports of coin and bullion on private account during the last three years, as compared with the averages of the pre-war and war periods:—

(In lakhs of Rupees.)

	Gold.		Silver.		Net Imports—Net Exports+ Gold and Silver.
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	
Average of pre-war period	32,79	3,92	10,88	3,67	—36,08
Average of war period	10,60	2,99	4,56	1,77	—10,40
1921-22	13,82	16,61	17,33	2,38	—12,16
1922-23	41,31	13	20,71	2,54	—59,35
1923-24	29,25	6	21,78	3,40	—47,57

Imports of gold decreased from Rs. 41 crores to Rs. 29 crores mainly owing to its increased price. Gold bullion decreased by Rs. 9 crores to Rs. 21 crores, owing to smaller shipments from the United Kingdom and France, and the value of sovereigns and other British gold coin imported also decreased from Rs. 10 crores to Rs. 7 crores, due mainly to smaller arrivals from the United Kingdom and Western Australia. Of the total value of gold imported during the year under review, the United Kingdom contributed Rs. 16½ crores, Australia and New Zealand Rs. 2½ crores, Natal Rs. 3½ crores and the United States Rs. 2½ crores. France also supplied Rs. 1½ crores and Aden and Mesopotamia together Rs. 2½ crores. South African gold was diverted to India after the mines were released in August 1923 from their obligations to send the whole production to the United Kingdom. Besides these imports gold equivalent to 2 million sovereigns was sold by the Government of India in London for delivery in India against sterling paid to the Secretary of State in London. The exports of gold were valued at Rs. 6½ lakhs as compared with Rs. 13 lakhs in the previous year. The sterling price of gold per ounce in London reached the highest point at 98s. on the 21st January 1924 and closed at 96s. at the end of March, the corresponding highest and lowest quotations for 1922-23 being 95s. in April 1922 and 88s. 2d. in March 1923. In Bombay the price of gold per tola rose from Rs. 25-3 on the 1st April 1923 to Rs. 26-6 on the 31st March 1924, the corresponding quotations for 1922-23 being Rs. 23-13 in April 1922 and Rs. 25-2 in March 1923.

In the case of silver, however, the imports on private account established a fresh record, the gross imports exceeding the previous year's figures by about a crore and amounting to Rs. 21-4-5 crores, owing to larger arrivals

of bar silver from the United States. Imports of the white metal into India during the year were consigned principally from the United Kingdom (nearly Rs. 10 crores), the United States (Rs. 8½ crores), Australia and New Zealand (Rs. 89 lakhs), Mauritius (Rs. 56 lakhs), Mesopotamia (Rs. 38 lakhs), China (Rs. 30 lakhs) and Arabia (Rs. 25 lakhs). It is worthy of note that while the imports from the United Kingdom remained stationary those from the United States of America more than doubled in the year under review. The value of silver exported rose by Rs. 86 lakhs to Rs. 3,40 lakhs, there being larger shipments to China (Rs. 1½ crores), Mauritius (Rs. 70 lakhs) and Ceylon (Rs. 30 lakhs). Imports on Government account were valued at Rs. 32 lakhs, as compared with Rs. 23 lakhs a year ago. The increase was due to larger arrivals of Government of India rupees from Aden and Mesopotamia. Exports of silver on Government account were considerably reduced, being valued at Rs. 52,000 only as against Rs. 5 lakhs in 1922-23.

Imports of currency notes increased from Rs. 1,02 lakhs to Rs. 1,17 lakhs on private account and from Rs. 30 lakhs to Rs. 65 lakhs on Government account, while exports decreased from Rs. 11 to Rs. 9 lakhs on private and from Rs. 18½ to Rs. 11 lakhs on Government account.

Silver prices were lower and steadier in 1923-24 than in 1922-23. The highest point 34½d. per ounce, was reached on the 3rd and the 5th January 1924 and the lowest point, 30½d., was touched on the 11th, 16th and 30th July and 24th August 1923. The difference between the highest and the lowest prices was thus 3½d., as compared with the variation of 7d. between the highest price 37½d. on the 22nd May 1922 and the lowest 30½d. on the 15th December 1922.

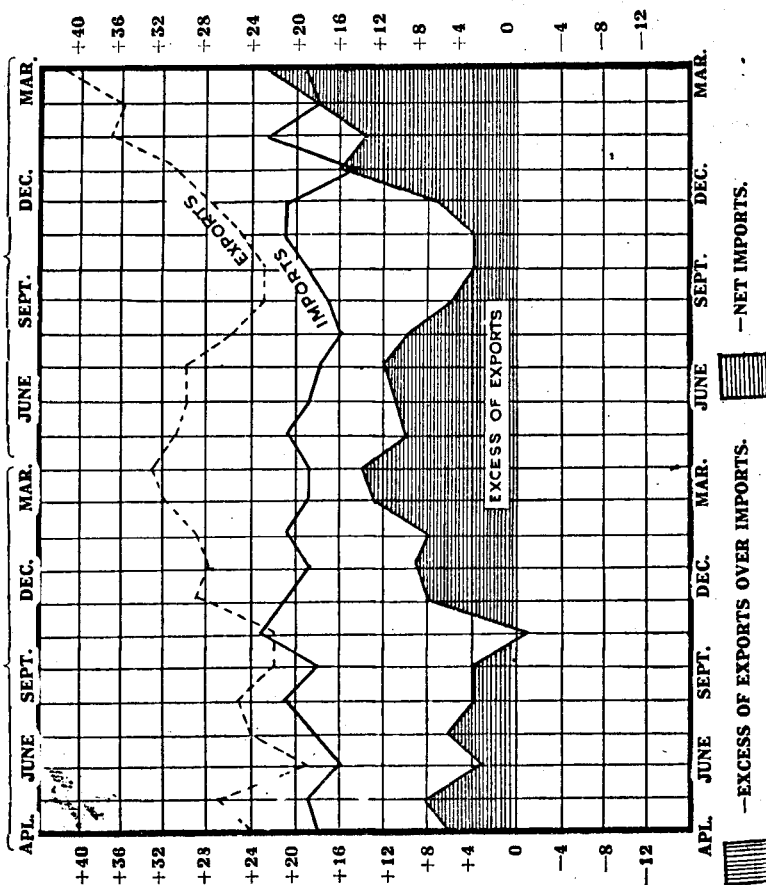
The following table shows the imports from and exports to European and other foreign countries :—

Countries.	Imports.			Exports.		
	1920-21.	1921-22.	1922-23.	1923-24.	1920-21.	1921-22.
	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)
European Countries.						
Russia	22	5	1	15	..	..
Sweden	1,89	96	1,13	1,33	27	28
Norway	1,70	38	82	68	52	38
Germany	4,75	7,25	11,89	11,89	8,82	23,11
Netherlands ..	3,03	2,86	2,22	2,28	1,39	4,08
Belgium	5,83	5,83	6,32	5,31	12,84	11,37
France	3,64	2,23	1,96	2,23	9,54	20,06
Spain	34	29	6	9	2,83	3,17
Switzerland ..	2,28	1,02	1,10	1,63	26	2
Italy	4,13	2,00	2,10	2,73	6,71	10,29
Austria	64	20	29	76	86	1,26
Hungary	..	..	..	42	..	..
Turkey, European ..	10	..	..	..	34	28
Other Countries ..	19	52	90	1,62	1,08	89
Total European Countries	28,24	22,59	29,00	31,82	45,46	70,21
					48,90	94,63

DIRECTION OF TRADE.

Table showing the Share of the British Empire and Foreign Countries in the total trade of India.

	1920-21			1921-22			1922-23			1923-24		
	Exports	Imports	Net Imports (-) or Exports (+)	Exports	Imports	Net Imports (-) or Exports (+)	Exports	Imports	Net Imports (-) or Exports (+)	Exports	Imports	Net Imports (-) or Exports (+)
	Rs. (Crores)	Rs. (Crores)	Rs. (Crores)	Rs. (Crores)	Rs. (Crores)	Rs. (Crores)	Rs. (Crores)	Rs. (Crores)	Rs. (Crores)	Rs. (Crores)	Rs. (Crores)	Rs. (Crores)
United Kingdom ..	56	205	-149	49	151	-102	70	140	-70	90	132	-42
Other British Possessions ..	54	17	+ 37	52	26	+ 26	53	16	+ 42	51	15	+ 36
TOTAL BRITISH EMPIRE ..	110	222	-112	101	177	-76	123	156	-28	141	147	-6
Europe	45	28	+ 17	47	23	+ 24	69	29	+ 40	95	31	+ 64
United States of America ..	38	35	+ 3	26	22	+ 4	35	13	+ 22	34	13	+ 21
Japan	24	26	- 2	39	14	+ 25	41	14	+ 27	51	14	+ 37
Other Foreign Countries ..	41	25	+ 16	32	30	+ 2	40	20	+ 20	41	23	+ 18
TOTAL FOREIGN COUNTRIES ..	148	114	+ 34	144	89	+ 55	186	76	+ 109	221	81	+ 140
GRAND TOTAL ..	258	336	-78	245	266	-21	314	232	+ 81	362	228	+ 134

Imports and Exports Trade of India (Private Merchandise only) and Excess of Exports over Imports.
1923-24

Bombay Stamp Duties.

809

	Rs. a.		Rs. a.
<i>Acknowledgment of Debt</i> ex. Rs. 20 ..	0 1	<i>Bill of Lading</i>	0 8
<i>Affidavit or Declaration</i>	2 0	<i>Bond</i> (not otherwise provided for)—	
<i>Agreement or Memo. of Agreement</i> —		Not exc. Rs. 10.. .. .	0 2
(a) If relating to the sale of a bill of exchange	0 4	Exc. Rs. 10, but not exc. Rs. 50 ..	0 4
(b) If relating to sale of a Government security, or share in an incorporated company or other body corporate—Subject to a maximum of Rs. 20, a. 2 for every Rs. 10,000 or part.		Exc. Rs. 50, but not exc. Rs. 100 ..	0 8
(c) If not otherwise provided for ..	1 0	Exc. Rs. 100 & does not exc. Rs. 200 ..	1 0
<i>Appointment in execution of a power</i> —		Exc. Rs. 200 & does not exc. Rs. 300 ..	2 4
(a) Of trustees	15 0	Up to Rs. 1,000, every Rs. 100 or part	0 12
(b) Of property moveable or immovable	30 0	For every Rs. 500 or part, beyond Rs. 1,000	3 12
<i>Articles of Association of Company</i> —		<i>Bond, Administration, Customs, Security or Mortgage Deed</i> —For amount not exceeding Rs. 1,000, same duty as a Bond.	
(a) Where the company has no share capital or the nominal share capital does not exceed Rs. 2,500.	25 0	In any other case.. .. .	10 0
(b) Where the nominal share capital exceeds Rs. 2,500 but does not exceed Rs. 1,00,000.	50 0	<i>Cancellation</i>	5 0
(c) Where the nominal share capital exceeds Rs. 1,00,000.	100 0	<i>Certificate or other Document relating to Shares</i>	0 2
<i>Articles of Clerkship</i>	250 0	<i>Charter Party</i>	2 0
<i>Award</i> , any decision in writing by an Arbitrator, other than by an Order of the Court. The same duty as a Bond for the amount or value of the property to which the award relates as set forth in such award subject to a maximum	20 0	<i>Cheque</i>	0 1
<i>Bill of Exchange</i> payable on demand..	0 1	<i>Composition—Deed</i>	20 0
Where payable otherwise than on demand but not more than one year after date or sight (if drawn singly)—Not exc. Rs. 200, a. 3; exc. Rs. 200, not exc. Rs. 400, a. 6; exc. Rs. 400, not exc. Rs. 600, a. 9; exc. Rs. 600, not exc. Rs. 800, a. 12; exc. Rs. 800, not exc. Rs. 1,000, a. 15; exc. Rs. 1,000, not exc. Rs. 1,200, R. 1 a. 2; exc. Rs. 1,200, not exc. Rs. 1,600, R. 1 a. 8; exc. Rs. 1,600, not exc. Rs. 2,500, Rs. 2, a. 4; exc. Rs. 2,500, not exc. Rs. 5,000, Rs. 4 a. 8; exc. Rs. 5,000, not exc. Rs. 7,500, Rs. 6 a. 12; exc. Rs. 7,500, not exc. Rs. 10,000, Rs. 9; exc. Rs. 10,000, not exc. Rs. 15,000, Rs. 13 a. 8; exc. Rs. 15,000, not exc. Rs. 20,000, Rs. 18; exc. Rs. 20,000, not exc. Rs. 25,000, Rs. 22 a. 8; exc. Rs. 25,000, not exc. Rs. 30,000, Rs. 27; and for every add. Rs. 10,000, or part thereof, in excess of Rs. 30,000, Rs. 9.		<i>Conveyance</i> , not being a Transfer—	
Where payable at more than one year after date or sight, same duty as a Bond.		Not exceeding Rs. 50	0 8
		Exceeding Rs. 50, not exceeding Rs. 100	1 0
		Exceeding Rs. 100 but does not exceed Rs. 200	2 0
		Exceeding Rs. 200 but does not exceed Rs. 300	4 8
		For every Rs. 100 or part in excess of Rs. 100 up to Rs. 1,000	1 8
		For every Rs. 500, or part thereof, in excess of Rs. 1,000.. .. .	7 8
		<i>Copy or Extract</i> —If the original was not chargeable with duty, or if duty with which it was chargeable does not exceed 1 Rupee.. .. .	1 0
		In any other case	2 0
		<i>Counterpart or Duplicate</i> —If the duty with which the original instrument is chargeable does not exceed one rupee—The same duty as is payable on the original. In any other case	2 0
		<i>Delivery Order</i>	0 1
		<i>Entry in any High Court of an Advocate or Vakil</i>	500 0
		In the case of an Attorney	500 0
		<i>Instrument—Apprenticeship</i>	10 0
		Divorce	2 0
		Other than Will, recording an adoption or conferring or purporting to confer Authority to adopt	20 0

Rs. a.	Rs. a.
Lease —Where rent is fixed and no premium is paid, for less than 1 year, same duty as Bond for whole amount; not more than 3 years, same as Bond for average annual rent reserved; over 3 years, same as Conveyance for consideration equal to amount or value of the average annual rent reserved; for indefinite term, same as Conveyance for a consideration equal to the amount or value of the average annual rent which would be paid or delivered for the first ten years if the lease continued so long; in perpetuity, same as Conveyance for consideration equal to one-fifth of rents paid in respect of first 50 years. Where there is premium and no rent, same as Conveyance for amount of premium; premium with rent, same as Conveyance or amount of premium in addition to the duty which would have been payable on the lease if no fine or premium or advance had been paid or delivered.	
Letter —Allotment of Shares 0 2	
Credit 0 2	
License 10 0	
Memo. of Association of Company —If accompanied by Articles of Association 30 0	
If not so accompanied 80 0	
Notarial Act 2 0	
Note or Memo. intimating the purchase or sale—	
(a) Of any Goods exceeding in value Rs. 20 0 4	
(b) Of any Stock or marketable Security exceeding in value Rs. 20—Subject to a maximum of Rs. 20, a. 2 for every Rs. 10,000, or part.	
Note of Protest by a Ship's Master .. 1 0	
Partnership —Where the capital does not exceed Rs. 500 5 0	
In any other case 20 0	
Dissolution of 10 0	
Policy of Insurance —	
(1) <i>Sea</i> —Where premium does not exceed rate of 2a., or $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of amount insured 0 1	
In any other case for Rs. 1,500 or part thereof 0 1	
(2) <i>For time</i> —For every Rs. 1,000 or part insured, not exc. 6 months .. 0 2	
Exceeding 6 and not exceeding 12 months 0 4	
If drawn in duplicate, for each part:—Half the above rates, for Sea and Time.	
(3) <i>Fire</i> —When the sum insured does not exceed Rs. 5,000.. .. 0 8	
In any other case 1 0	
In respect of each receipt for any payment of a premium on any renewal of an original policy—One half of the duty payable in respect of the original policy in addition to the amount, if any, chargeable under Art. 53 (Receipt).	
(4) <i>Accident and Sickness</i> —Against Railway accident, valid for a single journey only 0	
In any other case—for the maximum amount which may become payable in the case of any single accident or sickness where such amount does not exceed Rs. 1,000, and also where amount exc. Rs. 1,000, for every Rs. 1,000 or part 0	
(5) <i>Life, or other Insurance, not specifically provided for</i> —	
For every sum insured not exceeding Rs. 250 0 2	
For every sum insured exceeding Rs. 250 but not exceeding Rs. 500 0 4	
For every sum of Rs. 1,000 in excess of Rs. 500 0 6	
If drawn in duplicate, for each part—	
Half the above rates.	
In case of a re-insurance by one Company with another— $\frac{1}{2}$ of duty payable in respect of the original insurance, but not less than 1 anna, or more than 1 R.	
Policies of all classes of Insurance not included in Article 47 of Schedule 1 of Stamp Act of 1899 covering goods Merchandise personal effects, crops and other property against loss or damage, are liable to the same duty as Policies of Fire Insurance.	
Power of Attorney —	
For the sole purpose of procuring the registration of one or more documents in relation to a single transaction or for admitting execution of one or more such documents 1	
When required in suits or proceedings under the Presidency Small Causes Courts Act, 1882 1	
Authorising 1 person or more to act in a single transaction other than that mentioned above 2	
Authorising not more than 5 persons to act jointly and severally in more than 1 transaction, or generally .. 10	
Authorising more than 5 but not more than 10 persons to act 20	
When given for consideration and authorising the Attorney to sell any immovable property—The same duty as a Conveyance for the amount of the consideration.	
In any other case, for each person authorised 2	

Rs. a.	Rs. a.
Promissory Notes —	
(a) When payable on demand—	
(i) When the amount or value does not exceed Rs. 250 0 1	
(ii) When the amount or value exceeds Rs. 250 but does not exceed Rs. 1,000 0 2	
(iii) In any other case 0 4	
(b) When payable otherwise than on demand—The same duty as a Bill of exchange for the same amount payable otherwise than on demand.	
Protest of Bill or Note 2 0	
Protest by the Master of a Ship 2 0	
Proxy 0 2	
Receipt for value exc. Rs. 20 0 1	
Reconveyance of mortgaged property —	
(a) If the consideration for which the property was mortgaged does not exceed Rs. 1,000—the same duty as a bond for the amount of such consideration as set forth in the Reconveyance.	
(b) In any other case 10 0	
Release —that is to say, any instrument whereby a person renounces a claim upon another person or against any specified property—	
(a) If the amount or value of the claim does not exceed Rs. 1,000—the same duty as a Bond for such amount or value as set forth in the Release.	
(b) In any other case 10 0	
Respondentia Bond —The same duty as a Bond for the amount of the loan secured.	
Security Bond —(a) when the amount secured does not exceed Rs. 1,000—the same duty as a Bond for the amount secured.	
(b) In any other case 10 0	
Settlement —The same duty as a Bond for the sum equal to the amount or value of the property—settled as set forth in such settlement.	
Revocation of Settlement —The same duty as a Bond for a sum equal to the amount or value of the property concerned as set forth in the instrument of revocation but not exceeding ten rupees.	
Share-warrant to bearer issued under the Indian Companies Act.—One and a half times the duty payable on a conveyance for a consideration equal to the nominal amount of the shares specified in the warrant.	
Shipping Order 0	
Surrender of Lease —When duty with which lease is chargeable does not exceed Rs. 5.—The duty with which such Lease is chargeable.	
In any other case 5 0	
Transfer of Shares —One-half of the duty payable on a Conveyance for a consideration equal to the value of the share.	
Transfer of any Interest secured by a Bond, Mortgage-deed, or Policy of Insurance—If duty on such does not exceed Rs. 5.—The duty with which such Bond, &c., is chargeable.	
In any other case 10 0	
—Of any property under the Administrator General's Act 1874, Section 31.. 10 0	
—of any trust property without consideration from one trustee to another trustee or from a trustee to a beneficiary—five rupees or such smaller amount as may be chargeable for transfer of shares.	
Transfer of Lease by way of assignment and not by way of under-lease—The same duty as a conveyance for a consideration equal to the amount of the consideration for the transfer.	
Trust, Declaration of —Same duty as a Bond for a sum equal to the amount or value of the property concerned, but not exceeding 15 0	
Revocation of —Ditto, but not exceeding 10 0	
Warrant for Goods 0 8	

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY.

At the commencement of the year there were six coast stations for communication with ships and twelve inland stations together with three stations in the Bay of Bengal, maintained by the Department of Posts and Telegraphs. In the latter part of 1921 and beginning of 1922 the question of bringing the inland stations up to date was re-considered. These stations were built some years ago and are entirely unsuitable to modern telegraphic requirements.

It was, therefore, decided that they should be modernised so as to form a high-speed network to supplement the existing land lines. This was termed the "Inland" system. It was further decided that local governments should be permitted to erect groups of small stations to feed and distribute from the Inland system. These are called "Feeder" stations. In addition it was decided to allow private individuals to erect and work sets for business or

private purposes under license. Owing to the necessity for curtailing all unproductive expenditure, the end of 1922 saw the definite postponement of the development of the inland scheme and consequently it is unlikely that any Feeder stations will be erected in the near future.

Progress Delayed:—The Department of Posts and Telegraphs now keeps only the Coast stations fully open. The Inland stations have been placed on a basis which enables their valuable plant to be kept in working order but they perform no services. This together with the closing and dismantling of two or three small or entirely unproductive stations will result in considerable saving, a portion of which it is proposed to use annually to bring the stations up to date. Therefore no improvement in the general radio service will be apparent for some time. In the meanwhile the high-speed service between Rangoon and Madras is nearing completion which should considerably improve the telegraph facilities between these places and prove remunerative. The improvement of existing stations referred to consists in putting in modern radio plant and providing that the stations are operated from the local telegraph offices. If a pair of stations can be so treated each year the main links of the Inland service should be complete in about five years.

Long Distance:—A great deal of valuable experimental work has been carried out and considerable improvement in working, especially as regards long distance reception and the reduction of atmospheric effects has resulted. An experimental service from England was given a good trial during the year and this has now developed into a regular service for a short period each day at 75% of the existing cable rates. From this we should obtain experience which will be most valuable when the Imperial station is being designed.

Very little progress has been made as regards the Indian station for the Imperial scheme, but signs are not wanting that a long delayed decision will shortly be arrived at. The position of India in respect to other radio stations in the world demands the most efficient station if all the traffic which will be on offer is to be accepted and dealt with on a commercial basis.

Broadcasting:—Proposals to permit Broadcasting by private enterprise have been worked out and are now only awaiting the settlement of some minor details before being formally presented to Government. There is no question that India will offer very great possibilities to a properly organised broadcasting service not only for entertainment and educational purposes but also for business purposes, i.e., broadcasting quotations, business news, etc.

It was intended to proceed with the erection of a Government radio school at Karachi to take

the place of the existing temporary and inadequate establishment and to include therein suitable workshops and an experimental establishment. This has been postponed in view of the financial situation and the instruction of Government and private students must perforce be continued in the temporary premises. During the year the school has been fairly well occupied with training students for the Department, Army and also a few from Indian States.

The question of the organisation of State-owned radio sets in the States in India has been considered and will probably be settled this year. In the meanwhile some of the States are purchasing small sets, mostly for telephony.

Private Agency:—A large number of licences have been granted to private persons in British India for the erection of sets and this form of radio work should steadily develop more especially as the manufacture and scale of apparatus in India by private enterprise is in contemplation. There is no doubt that the majority of parts for small radio sets could be more cheaply manufactured in this country than they can be imported and further such an industry would find the right kind of skilled labour already in India.

Prospects:—Finally, the development of radio by Government has been almost entirely restricted for the reasons given above, but the development by private enterprise has been encouraged and it is to this source that India must look in the immediate future for internal radio communication. There are three most promising lines of development, viz.:—

(a) Erection of small sets either for speech or Morse in districts where no land lines exist, and to link such districts with the existing landlines. In this connection it may be remarked that modern small radio sets are capable of using either Morse or speech at will and if used for speech can be operated by the ordinary desk telephone instrument in daily use all over India.

(b) Broadcasting.

(c) The use of radio as a substitute for landline to form the trunk telephone route between two cities which already have telephone facilities.

All of these will open up a new industry which if properly fostered would very soon extend its sales outside the limits of India.

In the meanwhile a great deal of work has been done both as regards legislative and general organisation to clear the ground, with the result that Government is in the position to exercise the completest control over radio development while at the same time being able, because of its powers, to foster private enterprise to the fullest possible extent.

The Indian National Congress.

For a complete history of the movement represented by the Indian National Congress the reader is referred to earlier editions of The Indian Year Book. The Congress was founded in 1885 by Mr. Allan Octavian Hume, a retired member of the Indian Civil Service, and it held its first session in Bombay at Christmas of that year, the fundamental principles of the Congress were laid down to be:—

Firstly, the fusion into one national whole of all the different and discordant elements that constitute the population of India;

Secondly, the gradual regeneration, along all lines, mental, moral, social and political of the nation thus evolved; and

Thirdly the consolidation of union between England and India by securing the modification of such of the conditions as may be unjust or injurious to the latter country.

With these objects in view the Congress pursued an uneventful career until 1907. It undoubtedly exercised a great influence in inducing a spirit of national unity amongst the diverse peoples of India, in focussing the chief political grievances, and in providing a training ground for Indian politicians. But in 1907 the Extremists, chiefly of the Deccan and the Central Provinces, who had for some time chafed under the control of the older generation, succeeded

in wrecking the Surat session of the Congress and produced a split which had long been seen to be imminent. The senior members of the Congress therefore re-crystallised its creed in definite terms. They laid down that—

“The objects of the Indian National Congress are the attainment by the people of India of a system of Government similar to that enjoyed by the self-governing members of the British Empire, and a participation by them in the rights and responsibilities of the Empire on equal terms with those members. These objects are to be achieved by constitutional means by bringing about a steady reform of the existing system of administration and by promoting national unity, fostering public spirit and developing and organising the intellectual, moral, economic and industrial resources of the country.”

For some years following 1907 efforts were made to heal the split and these were without avail until 1916 when a re-united Congress met at Lucknow under the presidency of Pt. B. K. Chauri. The union then effected was purely superficial; the difference between the Moderates and the Extremists was fundamental: the Extremists captured the machinery of the Congress and from the period of the special session held at Calcutta in September 1920 the Congress passed entirely under the domination of Mr. Gandhi.

THE NON-CO-OPERATION MOVEMENT.

It was in 1920 that Mr. Gandhi, who had only in the previous year unsuccessfully started his Passive Resistance struggle as a protest against the Rowlatt Act, conceived his idea of non-co-operation. Originally intended to be a protest against the British policy towards Turkey, the “fighting” of two other grievances was later on added to its first object, namely, the punishment of officials in the Punjab Martial Law regime and the securing of Swaraj for India. Mr. Gandhi and Mr. Shaukat Ali were able in 1920 to get the Calcutta Special Congress to endorse their programme of “progressive non-violent non-co-operation” which was reiterated by the annual session at Nagpur, which, on Mr. Gandhi's motion, changed its old creed into “the attainment by India of Swaraj by all legitimate and peaceful means.” Before and after the Nagpur session, the Congress leaders claimed large success for their movement in the boycott of Government-aided schools, boycott of Law Courts, the collections to Tilak Swaraj Fund and the stimulation of the use of khaddar (q.v. the Indian Year Book, 1922, pp. 689, 690). The stern measures adopted by local Governments led to the imprisonment of a large number of active Congressmen with the result that the Ahmedabad Congress in 1921 made a “grim resolve” to challenge the “repression movement” by appointing Mr. Gandhi as dictator and by resolving to start a “No Tax” campaign at Bardoli. The riots in Chauri Chaura in 1922, preceded by the Bombay riots in 1921 during the Prince of Wales' visit (see 1923 and 1924 editions of this book) opened Mr. Gandhi's eyes to the impossibility of main-

taining a non-violent atmosphere under exciting conditions. He suspended his proposed civil disobedience campaign, and replaced it by what is known as the Bardoli Programme which suspended all the aggressive items of non-co-operation in favour of the promotion of inter-communal unity and khaddar. Soon after, Mr. Gandhi was arrested for sedition, tried and sentenced to undergo imprisonment for six years. (See 1923 and 1924 editions.)

This turn of events threw cold water on the enthusiasm of non-co-operators who got discouraged. In order, therefore, to sound the country's readiness for aggressive action once more, the All India Congress Committee appointed a Committee, known as the Civil Disobedience Committee, in June 1922. The Committee toured the country and in October, 1922, produced two reports, one favouring council entry to offer obstruction to Government and the other recommending the adoption of the Bardoli Programme. A battle royal ensued between the two parties at the Gaya Congress. The anti-Council Party won the day, and the Councilites, led by the Congress President Mr. C. R. Das, formed the Swarajya Party in order to push their own Council programme. The Swarajya Party by its continuous propaganda gained considerable support in the country. The No-Change Party seeing the trend of public opinion got the Congress to lift the ban on Council entry. The Swarajists secured a large number of seats in various provincial Councils and in the Assembly. The annual Congress at Coconada, under the presidency of Mr. Mahomed Ali, put an end to the Council entry controversy,

THE CONGRESS IN 1924.

The Congress had an eventful career in 1924. Mr. Gandhi, who had an attack of appendicitis of a serious form in the Yerowda Jail, was released by the Government of Bombay. Immediately, the No-Changers revived their hopes of fighting the Swarajists to a finish. In the meanwhile the Swarajists in the Assembly and in the C. P. and Bengal provincial Councils managed to get the respective budgets rejected. This, preceded by their refusal to take office in Bengal and C. P., appealed to the popular imagination. The scene of activities suddenly changed to Juhu near Bombay, where Mr. Gandhi had gone for his convalescence. He invited Messrs. C. R. Das and Motilal Nehru, the Swarajist leaders, to discuss the political situation. Political India was in a fever-heat and was indulging in speculations of all sorts over the Council entry question. After nearly six weeks' discussion, in May, 1924, Mr. Gandhi in a statement to the Press definitely dissociated himself from the Council Programme and the Swarajist obstructive policy; while the Swarajist leaders in a separate statement defended their policy. Public controversy again centred round the Council question. The differences culminated in June at Ahmedabad when Mr. Gandhi succeeded, against Swarajist opposition, in getting the All-India Congress Committee to endorse his policy of excluding Swarajists from that body. Though at the same meeting he subsequently got the original decision rescinded, he shocked the Swarajists by his spinning resolution which made it incumbent on the Swarajists and No-Changers alike to send 2,000 yards of handspun yarn every month. The Swarajist protests were of no avail.

The Bengal Ordinance.

After the Ahmedabad meeting, Mr. Gandhi realised the serious differences in the country and wrote in his paper to the effect that people who were the first to vote with him were the last to follow him. The serious state of communal tension in various parts of India added to Mr. Gandhi's worries. He, therefore, set himself to bring about unity once more between the warring elements in the country.

In the meanwhile, the Government of Bengal with the sanction of the Governor-General pro-

mulgated an Ordinance in order to check the forces of the growing revolutionary movement in Bengal. Under this Ordinance and under Regulation III of 1818 they effected several arrests including a few Swarajists. Mr. C. R. Das at once set the cry that the Government of Bengal, feeling the growing power of the Swarajists, got the Ordinance promulgated only to suppress the Swarajist movement. He, therefore, appealed for unity in the country to fight the Government. Mr. Gandhi went to Calcutta and, after a series of consultations with the Swarajist leaders, drew up what is now known as the Gandhi-Swarajist Pact by which Mr. Gandhi agreed to suspend the non-co-operation movement and to recognise the Swarajists as the accredited representatives of the Congress on legislative bodies, while in return the Swarajists agreed to his spinning franchise which laid down 2,000 yards of hand-spun yarn every month as the subscription to Congress membership instead of the four annas a year as decided by the Nagpur Congress.

Before this agreement was arrived at Mr. Gandhi turned his activities to the communal tension in the Punjab. Finding his advice for unity to be of no avail, he decided to observe a three weeks' fast at Delhi in August last. A Conference of leaders of several communities was summoned by Mahomed Ali; and the Conference dispersed after passing some resolutions in favour of Hindu-Moslem unity.

Bombay Conference.

This Conference was succeeded by another at Bombay in November, 1924. Its object was to secure a united platform of all parties once more under the Congress flag. The Conference after a prolonged discussion passed a resolution condemning the Bengal Ordinance, but would not characterise it as directed against the Swarajists. On the principal subject, namely, the securing of unity of all parties, the Conference contented itself by appointing a Committee of more than a hundred persons with power to co-opt. Mrs. Besant, Mr. Sastri, Mr. Chintamani, Mr. Das, Mr. Nehru and a host of others representing different parties took part in the Conference besides Mr. Gandhi.

THE BELGAUM CONGRESS.

The Congress which met at Belgaum during Christmas week under Mr. Gandhi's presidency was a tame affair. It was the only Congress, however, which concluded within 24 hours of its opening. Just prior to the Congress meeting, Mr. Gandhi succeeded in enlisting the No-Changers support to his pact with the Swarajists. The principal objection to the pact raised by the No-Changers was that the Swarajists should not be raised to the status of being officially recognised by the Congress. But, Mr. Gandhi having succeeded in enlisting the support of No-Changers at private Conference, the work before the Congress was smooth sailing. Mr. Gandhi's presidential address was a defence of his pact and the spinning franchise. The

Congress at his instance endorsed the Bengal Pact and changed its franchise to 2,000 yards of charka yarn every month as above referred to. Mrs. Besant who had, since the inauguration of the non-co-operation movement, been opposing the Nagpur creed signed it and attended the Belgaum Congress as a delegate. It is noteworthy that she accepted the spinning franchise. The Congress also condemned the Bengal Ordinance and supported Messrs. Gandhi, Das and Nehru in the view that it was directed against the Swarajists. Among the other resolutions passed by the Congress was one suspending the non-co-operation programme. Thus the movement received its final burial at the hands of the very author of its being.

The National Liberal Federation.

The definite breach between the moderate and extremist elements in the Congress at its special session in Bombay in August 1918 (vide 1919 edition of this book) witnessed the birth of the National Liberal Federation which has, since then, been the platform of Indian moderate leaders. It held its first session in Bombay in 1918, Sir Surendranath Banerjee presiding. The federation adopted for its creed the old Congress formula which was set aside by the Nagpur Congress. The 1924 session of this body met at Lucknow during Christmas under the Presidentship of Dr. R. P. Paranjpye, ex-Minister of Education to the Government of Bombay. Dr. Paranjpye's presidential address was an earnest plea for the continuance of the methods of Mehta and Gokhale in their political pursuits. The President condemned the non-co-operation movement and expressed the opinion that unity between Liberals and the Gandhi Party was impossible of achievement in view of the fundamental differences in outlook.

The Conference passed about twenty resolutions touching a variety of subjects. The resolution placing on record Mr. Montagu's services to India and expressing the sorrow of the Conference at his premature death took precedence.

A resolution demanded complete provincial autonomy and the introduction of partial responsibility in the Central Government.

The financial condition of provincial Governments formed the subject of another resolution, which was incorporated with another condemning the Lee Commission's recommendations of the acceptance of which by His Majesty's Government it characterised as "utter disregard of Indian opinion."

On the lines of the All Parties Conference resolution, the Federation condemned the Bengal Ordinance.

The position of Indians overseas, removal of untouchability, promotion of Hindu-Moslem unity, and like subjects were all dealt with separately by other resolutions passed by the Federation.

Conditions of Unity.

The outstanding feature of the proceedings however, was the reply given by the Subjects Committee of the Federation to the invitation of Mr. Gandhi for the unity of all parties. Though the subject was not taken up by the open Conference, the resolution itself clearly set forth the conditions under which alone the Liberals were ready to coalesce with the Congressmen. The resolution stated that the Liberal Party, in view of strong convictions they hold as to what is in the best interests of India's political and national progress, could only join the Congress if that body definitely declares that it stands for Dominion Self-Government to be attained by constitutional methods.

The Liberal Party are for the abandonment of the non-co-operation movement and of all the projects of mass civil disobedience. They cannot consent to the agreement reached between Mr. Gandhi on one side and Mr. Das and Mr. Nehru on the other that the Swaraj Party members of the Legislative Assembly and Councils should be the accredited spokesmen and representatives of the Congress in the Legislatures; nor can they agree to the Congress decisions on charkha yarn franchise and khaddar.

If, as is evident, the Congress does not agree to these proposals, the Liberal Party will propose as the next best thing that there should be co-operation between the different political parties upon those matters in which there is agreement. The Liberal members of the committee of the All-Parties Conference are to advocate the views stated above.

The Moslem League.

The All India Moslem League came into being in 1906 out of the universal desire among leading Mussalmans at that time for an effective organisation to protect their communal interests. With a view to secure separate Muslim representation in the legislative bodies of the land under the Minto-Morley scheme of constitutional reforms then under discussion, Indian Moslems who had been hitherto keeping aloof from politics organised the League. Its original objects were the promotion of loyalty to British

Government, the protection of political and other rights of Mussalmans and to place their needs and aspirations before Government in temperate language and to promote inter-communal unity without prejudice to the other objects of the League. Moslem opinion slowly advanced; and in 1913 the securing of self-government within the British Empire was included in the objects. The League was a powerful and influential body in 1916 and 1917 and what is known as the Lucknow pact of 1916

munal representation arrived at between the League and the Congress in 1916 was bodily incorporated in the Government of India Act, 1919. The birth of the Khilafat Committee however overshadowed the League which from 1919 had almost disappeared till April 1923 when it met for a brief period under the presidentship of the late Mr. Bhurgri, but had to be adjourned for want of a quorum. In 1924, however, some influential Moslem leaders like Mr. M. A. Jinnah thought that the Khilafat Committee's functions having ceased in view of the Turkish deposition of the Khalifa decided to revive the League which met under Mr. Jinnah's chairmanship at Lahore in May 1924. The Lahore session practically did nothing else save to reorganise the scattered branches of the League.

The Bombay Session.—In December, 1924, the regular annual session of the League was held in Bombay and all parts of India. The League passed many resolutions one of which appointed a big Committee to draft proposals for Muslim representation in legislative and local bodies and in the services of the country. Another resolution condemned the British policy towards Egypt and warned the British Government that the attitude would be interpreted by Indian Moslems as inimical to Moslem interests. The Bengal Ordinance formed the subject of a resolution. Among other resolutions passed by the League was one demanding that the N.W. Frontier Provinces be made a regular province like Madras, Bombay and Bengal under the Government of India Act.

The Khilafat Committee.

The Central Khilafat Committee owed its origin to the reticence shown by the All-India Congress Committee in 1920 to the question of the khilafat and Non-co-operation. Messrs. Gandhi and Shaikat Ali started this organisation with a view to educative propaganda throughout the country and, if possible, to capture the Congress. The object of the Committee was stated to be the righting of the Khilafat "wrongs." As a result of intensive propaganda mainly led by Mr. Gandhi himself, prominent Indian publicists supported the view that the Indian Moslems being deeply concerned over the "exploitation of the Holy places of Islam," had a right to expect the Hindus to help them in securing their rights. Soon after, the Madras Khilafat Conference under the chairmanship of Mr. Shaikat Ali unfolded a programme of progressive non-co-operation and appealed to the country for support. The Khilafat Committee, with the huge funds at its disposal, was able to draft in a large number of delegates to the Calcutta special Congress in 1920 when the non-co-operation programme was accepted by that body with two more objects added to it, namely the

obtaining of Swaraj and the 'righting of the Punjab wrongs.'

With the deposition of the Khalifa last year by the Kemalists and the revival of the Moslem League, the Committee's activities have been considerably restricted. Recently the Committee sent a deputation to Nejd to intervene and settle the dispute between the warring elements. Though the Government of India were willing to permit a deputation of the Committee to Turkey, the Turkish Government did not quite like the idea which had consequently to be abandoned.

The Session of 1924.—The 1924 session of the Khilafat Conference which was held at Belgaum under the chairmanship of Dr. S. Kitchlew passed a number of resolutions. One of these characterised the British action in Egypt consequent on the murder of Sardar Sir Lee Stack, as outrageous and welcomed the success of the Rifis in Morocco. Another resolution condemned the action of King Emir Ali in stopping the supply of provisions to Mecca. As for the rest, the Conference endorsed the resolutions passed by the Congress.

The Indian Legislature.

The Indian Legislature was called together three times during 1924, the first meeting being in Delhi during February and March, the second in Simla in May-June and the third in Simla in September. The Delhi meeting was the annual Budget Session, the May meeting was specially summoned for the consideration and passage of an official Steel Industry (Protection) Bill and that of September was the usual autumn meeting. An innovation was made in arranging the date for the conclusion of the year's Session, properly so-called. Hitherto, the Legislative Session has been terminated by prorogation at the end of the Budget meeting, so that it has been co-terminous with the official financial year. This involved the State opening of the new Session when the Legislature again met in Simla. But Simla is not so convenient for the purpose as Delhi. It does not equally lend itself to a display of ceremonial suitable to the occasion. His Excellency the Viceroy, therefore, decided that in 1924 and in future prorogation should take place at the end of the autumn meeting in Simla, so that the Delhi Spring meeting should be opened with formality, its final sitting being merely adjourned.

The change produced a curious effect in connection with the Presidentship of the Legislative Assembly. The Constitution provides that for the first four years under the Constitution of 1919 the President shall be nominated by the Governor-General and that thereafter the President shall be elected by the House; but it lays down that if the House is in session when the fourth year of its life expires the nominated President then in office shall continue in office till the end of the session. The four years expire on 3rd February 1925. The expectation hitherto has been that Sir Frederick Whyte, the first President, would hold office until prorogation at the end of March 1925, but if the House is then not prorogued but merely adjourned till the Simla meeting the new arrangement will mean Sir Frederick's retention of office until the beginning of 1926. Unofficial members of the Assembly have petitioned His Excellency not to summon the Delhi Session of 1925 until 5th February, so that the fourth year of the Constitution will expire before the Assembly meets. The House could thereupon at once proceed to elect its own President. But the amount of business for submission to the Legislature usually makes the summoning of a meeting before the end of January imperative and it is semi-officially announced that the legislature will be called together about 19th January 1925. How the matter will develop cannot at the time of writing be forecast.

The Annual Budget.

The Annual Budget is usually presented in both Houses of the Legislature on the morning of 1st March. Complaints have been made that the announcement of its terms in the middle of the business day is undesirable and in 1924, therefore, it was laid before both Houses at half-past four in the afternoon of the last day of February.

The Hon. Sir Basil Blackett, Finance Member, in his annual statement to the Assembly and the Hon. Mr. McWatters, Finance Secretary, in simultaneously presenting the Budget in the Council of State, showed that the past year had been one of steady, though sometimes difficult, trade, favourable to India on the balance. "The volume of both imports and exports continued to expand and there was every prospect that the visible balance of trade in favour of India would almost reach a record."

On the revenue side of the Budget Customs receipts showed at 40.42 crores, against an estimate of 45.10 crores. Railway receipts were 1½ crores under estimate, but working expenses were 1.93 crores down, so that net receipts were 68 lakhs better than the estimate. Opium revenue was 38 lakhs up on the estimate but Posts and Telegraphs 22 lakhs down. Under Interest, Currency and Miscellaneous there was an improvement of 112 lakhs on the estimates, largely owing to high prices for short money in London, and under Salt, despite the doubling of the Salt Duty, the total revenue was 8½ crores, or 3 crores less than the estimate, this result, the Finance Member explained being due not to smaller consumption (an assurance that was challenged) but to manoeuvres in the trade following, first, anticipation of the raising of the duty and, second, anticipation of its reduction by the Legislature on the present Budget.

On the expenditure side, the Budget showed a saving of 74 lakhs owing to the favourable rate of the year's rupee loan, a saving of 80 lakhs under sinking fund and a non-recurrent receipt of 41 lakhs from the disposal of temporary military lines. Adjustments for these and smaller details left a deficit of 38 lakhs.

Further, there was a windfall of about 3½ millions sterling, profits from the control of enemy ships in the war. The exact amount was only settled in 1923-24, in negotiation with His Majesty's Government. The Finance Member proposed to credit 2.44 lakhs of this to the current year and to reserve the rest for special expenditure in 1924-25.

The Budget showed the general financial position to be better than a year previously. The floating debt in the hands of the public in the form of Treasury Bills had been reduced from 22 crores to about 2 crores. A large reserve had been built up during the year against sterling requirements. There appeared no need for a sterling loan, nor for a bigger rupee loan than twenty crores. A striking feature of the financial situation was the continued popularity of Post Office Cash Certificates.

A prominent feature of the Finance Member's speech was his proposal to institute a regular sinking fund for the avoidance and extinction of debt. Hitherto obligations of this nature had been met by various methods but without a general plan. The new scheme would amount to the provision of 4 crores for debt repayment

and avoidance every year for five years, after which period the working of the arrangement might be re-examined and continued or revised. It was also announced that Government were considering the organisation of a Provincial Loan Fund, for similarly placing the management of borrowing by the Provincial Governments on a scientific basis.

Railway stores for State lines worked by companies had been held by the Bombay High Court to be State stores and therefore not liable to import duty. An appeal had gone to the Privy Council and if the former judgment was upheld Government would have to repay 2 crores to the railway companies and would lose a source of income in future. It was proposed to introduce legislation to make all Government Stores subject to Customs Duty, Provincial Government being refunded through a special assignment whatever they thus had to pay for their own imports.

Exchange for the ensuing year, for Government remittances, the Budget took at 1-4½.

Military expenditure for 1924-25 would, with this basis of exchange calculation, amount to 58½ crores, i.e., 63 lakhs less than the figure assumed by the Retrenchment Committee, 3-19 crores less than the original Budget figure for 1923-24 and 1½ crores less than the revised estimate.

For 1924-25 the total expenditure of Government, with exchange at this rate, and eliminating railway transactions, as legislation to separate railway finance from general finance was pending, was shown in the new estimates at 104-57 crores. Revenue on the existing basis of taxation was estimated at 107-93 crores, including a contribution of 4-27 from railways, which were expected to pay this to general revenues after the introduction of the financial separation scheme. Customs were taken at 45-02 crores, including payments on Government stores, income-tax at 18-22 crores, a reduction of 85 lakhs, owing to depression in the Bombay cotton mill industry.

Various methods were suggested for dealing with the surplus of 3-36 crores thus anticipated. Government proposed some minor reductions in customs and excise duties, including the reduction of the excise duty on motor spirit to 4½ annas per gallon. The Finance Member reminded the House that so long as the Provincial Contributions remained as at present they interposed 9 crores of obligations between the Central Government and general reduction of taxation. On the other hand, there was general desire for the reduction of the Salt Tax, which was raised from Rs. 1-4-0 to Rs. 2-8-0 a maund in the preceding Budget. To reduce the Salt Tax to Rs. 2 per maund would demand 1-82 crores out of the surplus and to reduce it to its former level of Rs. 1-4-0 would require 3-32 crores, or practically the whole surplus.

"If we retain taxation at its present figure and give away our surplus in whole or in part to the Provincial Governments, we can face the year 1925-26 with some hope not merely of achieving a balance but with the brighter expectation that some further reductions in expenditure or some normal growth in the

yield of our existing sources of income will again give us a small surplus. If, however, we were to reduce the salt tax to Rs. 1-4-0 a maund, we have an initial deficiency of 2-18 crores to face in 1925-26. The receipts in 1924-25 would be abnormal partly because dealers would at once replenish their depleted stocks if the duty were reduced to Rs. 1-4-0 and partly because we give the dealers six months' credit. For the first five months of 1924-25 we shall in any case be collecting some revenue at the rate of Rs. 2-8-0 a maund. A reduction to Rs. 1-4-0 in the 1924-25 Budget would not therefore have its full effect on our figures till 1925-26."

Government left the choice between a Rs. 2 and a Rs. 1-4-0 Salt Tax to the Assembly, but pointed out that "if we reduce the Salt Tax to Rs. 1-4-0 we are in truth proclaiming to the Provinces that neither in 1924-25 nor in 1925-26 can we offer them any certain prospect of relief. We are at the same time postponing indefinitely the date at which we can foresee any reasonable possibility of reducing other onerous taxes or increasing our expenditure on beneficial services."

Government therefore proposed to dispose of the surplus by applying 1-82 crores to reduction of Salt Tax to Rs. 2 and 1-50 crores to reduction of Provincial Contributions.

The two days' general debate with which the discussion of the Budget began and indeed the whole discussion lasting several days, produced practically no criticism of the Government proposals, or of Government financial stewardship, on merits, and were completely overshadowed by the efforts of the Swarajists to utilise the occasion to advance their aim to overturn the Constitution. The Swarajist leader early in the session referred to the accusation that his party were wreckers and destroyers and replied to it that yes, they were out to destroy things of evil and rightly or wrongly they regarded the recent political reforms as a thing of evil.

The political combat began in the earliest stages of the session. The recent general election had resulted in Swarajists entering the Assembly to the number of about 45, instead of staying outside as they formerly did. Their leader in the House was Pandit Motilal Nehru and under him an aggressive member of the party and leader of the left wing of it was Mr. V. J. Patel. Other new members of the House who either belonged to the party or voted with them on critical divisions were Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, representing the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber, Mr. Mahomed Ali Jinnah, Mr. N. C. Kelkar, Lala Hans Raj, and Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya. At the outset of the session the House contained a large number of "Independent" members, belonging to no party, and standing somewhere between the constitutional Liberals and the Swarajists. The Liberals made little or no organised attempt to win these to their fold. Pandit Motilal Nehru, having no majority without them, assiduously wooed them from the beginning. A considerable group of Independents, on the other hand, formed themselves into a party of the same name, under the chair-

manship of Mr. Jinnah. Their aim was to gain power through organisation and their leanings were towards the extremists rather than towards the Constitutional party. This situation speedily resulted in the development of a so-called Nationalist party, which consisted of the Swarajists and Mr. Jinnah's Independents, and existed to enable the two component parties to work together within the House. Every member of it had to sign terms of membership. These bound members to vote in the House according to the decisions of a two-thirds majority of the Nationalist party. The effect was to place the Independent member's votes and influence at the disposal of the Swarajists.

H. E. the Viceroy opened the session in State on 31st January. In his opening address he reviewed cheerfully the progress of events in which India is interested outside India and, turning to Home affairs, specially dwelt upon the political situation and in particular the revolutionary movement in Bengal. Of the latter, he said, of its conspiracies to assassinate public servants and of its association with communist agencies outside India Government had long been aware and to "permit these sinister designs to advance on their way to results that no process of law can remedy" was out of the question. As to the general political situation, His Excellency pointed to the handicap which the change of Government in England and the arrival of a Labour Ministry in office placed upon his freedom. But he pointed out that each of the recent Governments in England, of whatever political complexion, had accepted the Reforms in India as the rock-foundation of British policy in India—"The cardinal policy of the reforms remains the same for all. It is the policy of the British nation and not of any party.... I came to India charged with the solemn duty of carrying out those reforms.... I have seen the first courses of the edifice of parliamentary institutions and traditions and I stand pledged to carry onward the erection of the structure.... But.... the future must largely depend upon the people of India and the actions of the Legislature...."

"There is now a spirit in India, if I am to credit all I read, which is bent upon destruction or the Reforms unless it immediately attains that which it is impossible for any British Government to grant forthwith, that is, complete Dominion self-government.... No change in the constitution can be effected by legitimate and peaceful methods save with the assent of the British Parliament, that is, the British people.... I gather that there is a disposition in some quarters to believe that the hands of the British Parliament can be forced and that a situation may be created which may impair the reforms and thus cause Parliament to act contrary to their desire and better judgment.... These influences make no appeal to the British people and the British Parliament would emphatically repudiate and reject them.... As a devoted friend of India, I am convinced that action based on reason and justice will alone prevail with the British people and will prove the only safe road to the ultimate goal to be attained."

Constitution Makers.

First place on the first day for unofficial resolutions was won in the ballot by Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachariar, Deputy President of the House, and a prominent member of the Nationalist party, for a resolution running, "This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he be pleased to take at a very early date the necessary steps (including if necessary procuring the appointment of a Royal Commission) for revising the Government of India Act so as to secure for India a full self-governing Dominion status within the British Empire and Provincial Autonomy in the Provinces." The Hon. Sir Malcolm Hailey, Home Member, opposing the motion, showed that it did not accord with the Government of India Act in so far as immediate grant of Dominion status was different from the goal of responsible government as laid down in the Act, and that this new demand was inconsistent with the comparatively recent pronouncement of leading members on the unofficial side of the House, while it also repudiated the specific provision that realisation of the ideal should be by successive stages. He critically examined the assumptions underlying the new demand and pointed to the difficulties of the situation of which the mover had taken no account, such as the position of the Indian States, communal jealousies, the protection of minorities and the problem of defence. But, he said, Government were prepared to institute an investigation of complaints against the working of the reforms scheme in practice, to assess the causes and to consider remedies. "We claim that this must precede any general inquiry into the policy and scheme of the Act, or general advance within the Act itself."

Pandit Motilal Nehru moved the following amendment to the motion, "That the following be substituted for the original resolution. This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council to take steps to have the Government of India Act revised with a view to establish full responsible government in India and for the said purpose (a) to summon at an early date a representative round table conference to recommend with due regard to the protection of the rights and interests of important minorities the scheme of a constitution for India and (b) after dissolving the central Legislature to place the said scheme for approval before a newly elected Indian Legislature for its approval and submit the same to the British Parliament to be embodied in a Statute." The Pandit condemned the present Government of India Act from preamble to end. He offered Government the co-operation of his party if Government would give them what they wanted; otherwise they would continue to non-cooperate. Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas and Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya were among the most prominent supporters of the amendment, as to which the Hon. Sir Basil Blackett said that "the difference between us is mainly as to whether we should tear up the Act, reconsider the whole structure and lose the base from which we are at present advancing." The debate lasted three days, with intervals between. Sir Abdul Qayum, from the N.W.F.P., Mr. Abu Kasem, representing Bengal Mahomedans

Captain Hira Singh speaking for the Sikhs and the army, were the most prominent Indian speakers against either resolution or amendment and strongly opposed both, on the ground that conditions in India were not ripe for the granting of the demands made. Diwan Bahadur Ramachandra Rao, a lifelong Liberal, supported the demands. Sir Sivaswamy Iyer, leader of the Liberal Party, criticised both the extreme demands and tactics and the Home Member's speech. Diwan Bahadur Rangachariar fought for his own resolution till the last moment and then withdrew it in favour of the Swarajist amendment. The Home Member, winding up the debate, reiterated Government's willingness to institute an inquiry into the defects and difficulties revealed by the working of the reform scheme and somewhat elaborated the lines on which they were willing for the inquiry to proceed.

In the end the Swarajist amendment was carried on a division by 76 votes to 48.

The fight was continued over the Budget, when the President said that in deference to the wishes of a large number of members he would on the first demand for appropriation of funds allow the discussion to go beyond the strict limits of the vote. Pandit Motilal Nehru proceeded to move the rejection of the first demand, which was for the necessary grant for the Customs Department, and declared that he did so on the general ground of refusing to vote money because of the general grievance against the entire administration. After a prolonged debate the motion for rejection was carried by 63 votes to 56. The demand for the grant for the Income Tax Department was similarly thrown out by 61 to 60. The demand under Salt by 62 to 53 and that under opium by 62 to 57. The House then adjourned for the day.

The Independent members of the Nationalist party were much chagrined that by virtue of their signature of the party conditions Pandit Motilal Nehru had been able to carry them into his lobby for the rejection of several appropriations when they had only intended to throw out the first as a matter of protest. When, therefore, the next day's business began the Swarajist leader stated that having "established the principle" for which they contended they did not think it necessary to continue the previous day's procedure. Mr. Jinnah, agreeing with this, declared that his friends had no intention of joining in civil disobedience, or revolution, or non-payment of taxes. Nevertheless when, after the remaining appropriations had been passed in the absence of the Swarajists and almost without amendment, the Finance Bill was presented and the Finance Member moved for its consideration Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya in a speech lasting nearly three hours urged the House to reject the motion. Sir Malcolm Hailey powerfully enjoined the House not to commit such an act of irresponsibility. The Swarajist leader replied strongly supporting Pandit Malaviya and on a division consideration of the Bill was refused by 60 votes to 57.

The Constitution enables the Governor-General to pass over the head of either House legislation that he can certify to be necessary for the safety,

tranquillity of interests of British India, although the House has refused to pass it despite his special recommendation of its indispensability. On the rejection of the Bill by the Lower House, therefore, the Bill was shorn of details which the Governor-General could not so certify and submitted in the amended form to the Council of State with a Recommendation. In its new form the Bill provided for a Rs. 1-4-0 salt duty for no reduction of the duty on motor spirit and for no remission of provincial contributions. The day after the Assembly rejected the Bill it was resubmitted to that House in the amended form and with a recommendation. After a speech by Pandit Motilal Nehru the Bill was again thrown out, Government this time not challenging a division. The Bill was discussed in detail in the Upper Chamber, and Mr. Natesan, from Madras, strongly condemned the omission of the provision for the reduction of Provincial Contributions. It was finally passed there without amendment and without a division. It then became law on endorsement by the Governor-General.

Constitutional Balance.

The attitude of the Swarajists and their friends during the rest of the Delhi session was in the main dictated by their aim to wrest power from the Executive Government and take possession of it for the Assembly. The first move in this direction was made at the expense of Provincial autonomy, the House carrying a motion recommending "that all important questions put by the unofficial members on subjects over which the Governor-General in Council has control and superintendence be answered by the Government Members in this Assembly after obtaining the necessary information from the Provincial Governments." Diwan Bahadur Ramachandra Rao moved a recommendation that in all long term contracts for the working of State railways or conveyance of mails a condition should be inserted making the contract dependent for validity upon a resolution by the Indian Legislature. The Hon. Mr. Chatterjee, Member for Industries and Labour, pointed out that this was an attempt to make the Executive responsible to the Legislature in a way that had no parallel except in England, where it existed for historical reasons and had been criticised on the ground of economy. The resolution was carried. Mr. Vadamurti in the Council of State moved a recommendation that the New Capital Committee be reconstituted with unofficial members in a majority. The Hon. Mr. Ley, Secretary for Industries, opposing the motion pointed out that the Committee was an executive body exercising the full powers of the Government of India in its sphere of work and not an advisory body. The House accordingly adopted an unofficial amendment to the resolution making it a recommendation for the appointment of an advisory committee of unofficials.

Sardar Gulab Singh in the Assembly moved for the appointment of a committee with a substantial unofficial majority to inquire into the grievances of the Sikh community and report on the Akali movement. The Home Member showed the House that if Government were to interfere in the manner suggested the interference should be by the Punjab Government and in

opposing the resolution he assured the House and the Sikhs that Government were not opposed to the reforming element among the Sikhs but in the name of the public at large were bound to require the Sikhs to realise that their reforms should be effected otherwise than by steps that ignored the rights of other communities or ran counter to good citizenship. The House adopted an amended resolution containing a general recommendation for a committee of inquiry consisting of official and unofficial members. Sardar Kartar Singh the same day moved for the immediate unconditional release of Sardar Kharak Singh, sent to jail in connection with political activities. The accused man had refused to defend himself before the court in which he was summoned, or to appeal against his conviction. The motion for his release was carried. Mr. Sidik Hasan then moved for the similar release of Maulana Hasrat Mohani, who, the Home Member pointed out, had been convicted by the High Court of gross sedition, including a speech declaring that as soon as he discovered that the establishment of his proposed parallel government could not be achieved by peaceful means he would take to guerrilla warfare, preaching "kill them wherever you can," and was now still in jail because he had been by a magistrate found guilty of attempting to corrupt a warder. The motion was carried. There followed a long debate on a motion by Mr. V.J. Patel for the removal of restrictions in the way of the return of Mr. B. G. Horniman to India and this also was passed. Mr. Amarnath Dutt moved for the immediate repeal of Bengal Regulation III of 1818, to which was added by amendment a demand for the repeal of the Criminal Law Amendment Act and other repressive laws and regulations still on the statute book. The Home Member, in resolutely opposing the motion, defended the use by Government of exceptional preventive legislation, quoting the Rowlatt Committee's findings as to the methods of revolutionary conspirators in India and arguing that there was no other remedy for this kind of crime. Government must, he said, decline to repeal the powers they had because they could not feel that they had behind them a Legislature willing to take the responsibility for special measures in case of need. The motion was carried by 68 votes to 44.

General Subjects.

Mr. Rangachariar moved recommendations that the Chief Justice of a High Court must be a barrister, advocate or pleader and that three-fourths of the judges of a High Court should have similar qualifications, but on it being explained that this subject was under examination he withdrew his motion. Mr. Kabir-ud-Din moved a resolution prescribing special representation of Moslems in the Legislatures and Public Services, but as a result of discussions in the lobby the debate upon it was adjourned *sine die*. Government accepted a motion by Mr. Venkatapatiraju for the appointment of a committee to consider steps to improve and expand the Indian Territorial Force and to remove racial distinctions from the non-regular military forces, including the I. A. F. Other unofficial resolutions moved

and passed dealt with the problem of Indians overseas, with the Indian Colonies Committee and with tariff protection for Indian-mined coal. An unofficial motion for an inquiry into the economic conditions of the people drew from Government an announcement that Government intended to appoint a committee to inquire into incidence of taxation. The abolition of the Cotton Excise Duty was the aim of another resolution, but discussion of it was adjourned. The opposition of Government, pointing out that touch by an official member would deprive the handloom the Excise Duty light protection against mill competition, the he now enjoys. There was a long discussion of stores purchase policy and methods and a resolution recently adopted by the Associated Chambers of Commerce and recommending the institution of a system of rupee tenders for stores was adopted. The Hon. Sir Charles Innes moved an elaborate resolution for the separation of railway finance from general finance, but to give time for unofficial consideration of the question the debate was adjourned and a committee appointed to examine the terms of the proposed new arrangement.

Government Bills.

The official legislative programme for the session was lighter than usual. It was for the most part not of high general public interest and its principal measures concerned the improvement of the morality law to bring it into line with recent conventions or resolutions of the International Convention for the suppression of the traffic in women and children.

Protection of Steel.

A session of the Indian Legislature specially called to consider legislation for the protection of the Indian Steel Industry on lines recommended by the Indian Tariff Board, commenced on 27th May, 1924. No unofficial bills or resolutions were included in the programme, but in addition to the Steel Industry (Protection) Bill Government included in it the Indian (Specified Instruments) Stamp Bill, the Indian Soldiers' Litigation (Amendment) Bill both of which were finally passed by both Houses—and a resolution to give effect to a recommendation of the Tariff Board for the removal of the import duty on sulphur. The publication of the Report of the Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services in India in May created an unofficial demand for an opportunity to discuss an unofficial resolution on the subject and this Government conceded.

The Hon. Sir Charles Innes, Member of Government for Commerce and Railways, introduced on 27th May a Bill for the fostering and development of the Indian steel industry by increasing the import duties leviable on certain iron and steel articles and by enabling bounties to be granted to manufacturers in British India on certain such articles. The Bill was for three years only, i.e., until 31st March 1927, and provided for the amendment of the schedule of the Indian Tariff Act, 1894, containing the list of articles liable to import duty. It added a sub-section to section 3 of the Act providing that if after such inquiry as he thought necessary the Governor-General in Council was satisfied that

articles of any class liable to duty under Part VII of the Second Schedule of the Indian Tariff Act, 1894, were being imported into British India at such a price as was likely to render ineffective the protection intended to be offered by such duty to similar articles manufactured in India, he might, by notification in the Gazette of India, increase such duty to such extent as he thought necessary. The Bill further provided for the payment, on the certificate of an officer authorised by Government, of bounties on steel rails and fish plates manufactured in India, of Rs. 20 to Rs. 32 per ton, and of bounties on steel rails and fish plates manufactured in India, of Rs. 20 to Rs. 32 per ton. It also enabled the Governor-General in Council under two conditions specified in the Bill and with power to prescribe other conditions subject to which and the manner in which they might be paid, in each of the financial years commencing from 1st April, 1924, 1st April, 1925, and 1st April, 1926, to pay by way of bounties upon iron or steel wagons such sum not exceeding Rs. 7 lakhs in any one financial year as he thought fit.

Sir Charles Innes in introducing the Bill acknowledged the great care and impartiality which the Tariff Board had brought to bear upon a very intricate task and appealed to the House not to let the fact that the steel industry in India was represented by the single firm of the Tata Iron and Steel Company lead to a controversy over the affairs of that one company. The speech was chiefly explanatory rather than an argument for the adoption of protection and much of it was devoted to tracing back the details of the Bill to recommendations by the tariff Board. As to the period of the life of the measure, "it is obviously undesirable and indeed wrong," said Sir Charles Innes, "either to perpetuate or to prolong the protective duties at a pitch which experience may show very shortly to be unnecessarily high and we are quite satisfied that in three years' time the whole question, that is of the amount of protection, will have to be investigated again by the Tariff Board. On the other hand.....it takes five years for a man embarking for the first time on the manufacture of steel to produce steel and therefore if the duties are guaranteed only for three years they do not offer much attraction for new firms to come in." Sir Charles claimed that Government had treated as a whole the scheme put forward by the Tariff Board and asked the house to accept it as such, for, he pointed out, they had not merely to consider the question of the steel industry but also to take into account the interests of millions of consumers. "I think (concluded the Commerce Member) we all agree in this House that it will be a national calamity if the steel industry in India collapses. In all their inquiries the Tariff Board have held the balance in the most careful manner between the interests of the industry on the one hand and the interests of the consumer on the other.....We have this careful, balanced, comprehensive scheme from the Tariff Board. As we see it, the scheme is conceived in an impartial manner. It gives the minimum of protection which is required by the industry. We have embodied these proposals of the Tariff Board in this Bill and I ask the House favourably to consider that Bill."

Mr. W. S. J. Wilson, representing the Associated Chambers of Commerce, protested that the Bill had been introduced in undue haste and that protection should take the form of bounties rather than tariff manipulation. The Bill, he said, would inflict rank injustice upon Burma and upon all extremities of India, like Karachi and Tuticorin.

Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya argued that no system should be adopted which would enable the manufacturer competing from a distance to transfer his manufacturing activities to India and that to pass a Bill without sufficient safeguards against that would be a crime against the public interest.

The Hon. the Finance Member of Government replied that, the doctrine of discriminating protection through the import tariff having been accepted, it would be difficult to improve upon the method chosen by the Tariff Board. He pointed out that industrial development in India must depend on parallel developments in other fields and in particular on the financial side. If the dangers of foreign capital were to be avoided everything possible must be done to increase the creation of new capital in India. "We cannot usefully regard protection as an end in itself. Protection is one of the many means for creating that many-sided India which we have in view and therefore in commending this Bill to the Assembly I would like to add to it this request, that all those who are interested in the furtherance of Indian Industry should turn their minds at the same time to the other directions in which progress is required: progress in banking, progress in education, specially technical education, and the other directions which are necessary to create the men who are to take part in creating the industry which this Bill is destined to establish firmly on its feet."

Mr. Chaman Lal, a Swarajist, described the Bill as directly in the interests of the capitalists against the masses. Mr. Ranga Iyer, also a Swarajist, said Swaraj meant the nationalisation of industries by a national government and this he advocated. Mr. V. J. Patel, a leader of a wing of the Swarajists in the Assembly, argued that this was a most opportune time to take over the Tata Company and run it as a national concern, and as an alternative he suggested that the Company after receiving protection should be asked to hand over to the State any profits above 5 per cent.

The Bill was on the motion of Mr. Neogy referred to a Select Committee consisting of the Hon. Sir Charles Innes, the Hon. Sir Basil Blackett, Pandit Motilal Nehru, Mr. Wilson, Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya, Mr. V. J. Patel, Mr. Bipin Chandra Pal, Diwan Bahadur Ramachandra Rao, Sir Hari Singh Gour, Messrs. E. J. Fleming, M. A. Jinnah, Piyare Lal, Mahomed Yakub, Rangaswami Iyengar, K. C. Iyohokare, Jamnadas Mehta, Chaman Lal, N. M. Joshi, K. C. Neogy, Devaki Prasad Sinha and K. Datta.

Suggestions made in Select Committee included those of nationalisation, option to purchase, profit-sharing, control by the Government and Legislature, the conditioning of protection by the obligation to make certain con-

cessions to workers. The comparative advantages of bounties and tariffs for protection were also debated. In the end the Bill emerged from the Committee with its provision for the special protection of tin-plate struck out but otherwise with only verbal alterations.

The House again discussed the measure on 2nd June, when the debate was reopened by Dr. Datta moving, with the support of the free traders in the House, that the Bill be circulated for opinion, a step which, if adopted, would have shelved the Bill. The motion was rejected by 51 votes to 21, the majority consisting of 26 official and 25 unofficial members. Other free trade amendments were moved by Mr. V. J. Patel and Mr. Fleming in favour, respectively, of the exemption of steel being imported under contract by the Bombay Municipality and into Burma and both were rejected.

The main discussion was on an amendment by Mr. Patel providing for the restriction of the protection afforded by the Act to concerns in which "at least two-thirds of the capital invested in the business" is Indian. Finally, Government promised to appoint a Committee of official and unofficial members of the Legislature to examine the problem of the inflow of overseas capital and the following new clause was inserted in the Bill:—

"Notwithstanding anything contained in section 3 or section 4, no bounty in respect of steel rails, fish-plates or wagons shall be payable to or on behalf of any company, firm or other person not already engaged at the commencement of this Act in the business of manufacturing any one or other such articles, unless such company, firm or person provides facilities to the satisfaction of the Governor-General in Council for the technical training of Indians in the manufacturing processes involved in the business and in the case of a company unless—

- it has been formed and registered under the Indian Companies Act, 1913; and
- it has a share capital the amount of which is expressed in the memorandum of association in rupees; and
- such proportion of the directors as the Governor-General in Council has by general or special order prescribed in this behalf consists of Indians."

The Select Committee's exclusion of tinplate from benefit under the Bill was overridden. A rural member's amendment to omit from the schedule of increased import duties a number of implements chiefly used on railway and other engineering works was carried in the belief that the utensils in question were only agricultural requisites.

The Bill was then passed amid unofficial congratulations on the opening of a new chapter in Indian industrialism.

The Council of State passed the Bill without amendment, its only opponent in the upper Chamber being the Hon. Mr. J. W. A. Bell, representing the Bengal Chamber of Commerce.

[The provision in the Bill for the re-examination of the amount of protection given in case its desired effect was not attained was brought into operation a

few months later. The Tariff Board were then commissioned to inquire into complaints that as a result of the maintenance of high rupee exchange (at about 1s. 6d.) and of a heavy drop in the sterling prices of Continental steel the Protection Bill was largely ineffective. The Board found the complaint justified and recommended a substantial increase of protection through further raising of the import duties, a method which they said they felt bound to specify since they were, according to their interpretation of their terms of reference, prevented from recommending bounties instead. Government accepted the main finding of the Board but decided to give the necessary additional protection by bounties. Their chief reason for this decision was that the original Bill had divided the means of protection between increased import duties and bounties in proportions designed to balance the revenue from the former against the cost of the latter and that the revenue in question promised to be so large during the whole year as to provide not only for the bounties prescribed in the Bill but for the additional ones required to give effect to the Board's judgment in favour of increased protection. The orders accordingly passed by Government affect the current financial year only.]

The official resolution for the removal of the import duty on sulphur, on the ground that sulphur was a raw material for various industries, was accepted.

The Public Services.

Sir Sivaswamy Iyer moved in regard to the Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services a resolution declaring that the House would not be in a position to discuss the report till the September session and that to take action upon the report without waiting for discussion by it then would be resented in India. The Hon. the Leader of the House expressed his willingness to accept a resolution substantially in the terms of that moved and said, "I am prepared to give on behalf of the Government of India and also of the Secretary of State a pledge that no decision on any question of principle or policy shall be arrived at till this House has had an opportunity in the September session of examining the matter." Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya moved an amendment to the resolution to the effect that the proposals in the report ought to be examined simultaneously with the demand political put forward in the Assembly in February, but another unofficial member moved the adjournment and this was agreed to. The Council of State, after hearing a statement by the Home Secretary to Government, postponed discussion of the Report.

The Indian Legislature met in Simla on 3rd September for its Autumn session, at which the principal business was consideration of the report of the Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services. Government at an early stage laid on the table the observations made by the Provincial Governments on the Report and the debate was opened in the Legislative

Assembly on 10th September, when the Leader of the House, in behalf of Government, moved—

This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council:—

"(1). That the following recommendations of the Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services in India be in principle approved.

(a) that while the existing system of appointment and control of the All-India Services should, in present conditions, be maintained in reserved fields, the following services operating in transferred fields, namely, the Indian Educational Service, the Indian Agricultural Service, the Indian Veterinary Service, the Buildings and Roads Branch of the Indian Service of Engineers in those provinces in which the two branches have been separated and the Indian Forest Service in Bombay and Burma, should, so far as future recruits are concerned, be appointed and controlled by Local Governments;

(b) that recruitment of Indians for the Services in reserved fields should be increased as recommended;

(c) that, having particular regard to recommendation (a) early steps be taken to constitute the Public Services Commission contemplated by section 96C of the Government of India Act and to enact such legislation as may be necessary;

(2). That pay passage concessions and pensions be granted to the officers of the Superior Civil Services in India approximately on the scale recommended; and

(3). That the recommendations of the Royal Commission regarding the constitution of the Provincial Medical Services in Governors' Provinces be accepted in principle, subject to:

(a) the employment in the Provinces of an adequate military reserve;

(b) the provision of adequate medical attendance for British Officers in the Civil Services and their families; and

(c) the further consideration of the conditions necessary to secure an adequate number of British medical recruits for the needs of the Army."

The Hon. the Leader of the House pointed out that this debate was taking place in accordance with the pledge given by Government that before orders were passed on the Report the Indian Legislature should be given an opportunity of expressing its opinion on the recommendations. He proceeded to appeal to the House not to hold in the balance against the members of the Public Services complaints that might be laid against Government on grounds of policy and showed that in every country nine-tenths of the government must be carried on by the Services, who form the arms of Government. He showed that the Royal Commission's proposals for the future organisation of the Services were based on the principle that the Services should be controlled by the authority ultimately responsible for the administration of the subjects with which they dealt. As regards Indianisation, he

pointed to the drastic nature of the recommendations: "If the proposals of the Commission are given effect to there will, I estimate, eventually remain in the All-India Service only some 1,300 British Officers, including the doctors of the military reserve. If we confine our consideration to the two security Services—the I. C. S. and the Indian Police Service—the number of posts which will eventually be held by Europeans on the proposals of the Commission is less than 900." Sir Alexander Muddiman devoted the latter part of his speech to the financial proposals of the Report and impressed upon the House with a wealth of facts and arguments in support of the pressing need to give members of the Services economic relief.

Pundit Motilal Nehru immediately afterwards rose and moved a long and complicated amendment the crux of which lay in an early paragraph stating that "all questions affecting the Civil Services are inseparably connected with and entirely dependent upon the larger question of the grant of responsible Government to India and cannot be entertained and satisfactorily dealt with unless and until the resolution of this House on Responsible Government adopted on 18th February, 1924, is substantially complied with." The amendment demanded the stoppage of further recruitment for the Services in England under the existing rules, the establishment of a Public Services Commission in India with functions determined on the recommendations of a committee of the Legislative Assembly and the transfer of the powers of appointment and control of the Services from the Secretary of State to the Government of India and the Local Governments, "such powers to be exercised under laws to be passed by the Indian and Local Legislatures regulating the Public Services, including the classification of the Civil Services in India, the methods of their recruitment, their conditions of service, pay and allowances and discipline and conduct." The amendment also declared that the Assembly "cannot with due regard to the interests of the tax-payer assent to the imposing of fresh burdens on the already overburdened finances of the country," but in view of the financial relief that would follow the stoppage of recruitment outside India was prepared to consider the alleged grievances of present members of the Services and for that purposes recommended the Government to take steps to have a Committee elected by the House.

The debate extended over three days, the unofficial speeches generally following political lines rather than the merits of the Report and eventually the amendment was adopted, the first part by 68 votes to 46 and the remainder without a division being challenged by Government.

The Home Secretary moved in the Council of State on 15th September the same resolution in reference to the Lee Report as the Home Member moved in the Assembly on an earlier date. Sir Devi Prasad Sarvadhikary immediately followed and moved an amendment, "That this Council recommends to the Governor-General in Council that it be represented to the Rt. Hon. the Secretary of

State for India that pending the inquiries about reforms and action that may be taken thereon, it is not desirable to give effect to the recommendations of the Lee Commission." He supported his opposition to the immediate adoption of the report by arguments on financial and political grounds and by the contention that delay would have no ill effect at any rate. There followed a long debate, in which Sir Mahomed Shah, H. E. the Commander-in-Chief (General Birdwood) and Sirdar Charanjit Singh made powerful speeches against the amendment and Messrs. Karandikar, Vedamurti and Natesan and Padshah Sahab strongly supported it. The amendment was thrown out and Mr. Karandikar moved another recommending the reference of the Report to a Committee of both Houses of the Indian Legislature, and to await its report before taking action. This also was rejected, and as the day was at an end the House adjourned.

Next morning Mr. Khaparde moved an amendment stipulating that every All-India Service, in both reserved and transferred fields, should so far as future recruits are concerned be appointed and controlled by Local Governments and that recruitment for these services should be so conducted as to produce within ten years a proportion of Indians to Europeans in the ratio of 75 to 25 per cent. Sir Devi Prasad moved as an amendment of it the addition of a recommendation that all recruitment in England for the various services be at present stopped. The debate again lasted several hours and a large number of unofficial members participated in it. Finally, all amendments were rejected by such preponderance of votes that their movers did not challenge divisions of the House upon them and the Government proposition was then carried.

Other Business.

The Legislature during its autumn dealt with a considerable amount of general business, including numerous Bills. Among the latter the following were of most importance and were dealt with as indicated.

The Land Customs Bill was passed through all stages by both Houses. The existing law authorised Government to collect import duties at seaports only and the new measure was to enable them to collect it also at land frontiers, a development necessitated by the large amount of trade coming in across the Siam frontier in order to escape the new high tariff.

The Indian Merchant Shipping (Amendment) Bill, to regulate the Mahomedan pilgrim traffic by sea for Jeddah for the Haj was referred to and reported upon by Select Committee of the Assembly.

The Imperial Bank of India (Amendment) Bill, regulating assistance by the bank to other banks was passed finally by both Houses.

The Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Bill, for dealing with malpractices in such factories, was ordered by the Assembly to be circulated for opinions.

The Indian Post Office (Amendment) Bill was passed by both Houses. It authorises the Post Office to sanction the use of letter stamping machines by mercantile houses and others.

The Indian Criminal Law (Amendment) Bill, was passed by both Houses. It affords additional protection for persons under 18 years of age.

There was an important discussion in the Council of State on a Resolution moved by Sir Blaneckji Dadabhoi recommending Government to introduce legislation providing for the annual provision of funds for the avoidance or reduction of public debt. This was designed to give effect to the proposals made in the direction indicated by the Finance Member in his Budget speech a few months previously. Government objected to legislation on the lines suggested on the ground that it was too early to adopt permanent measures and stated that they proposed shortly to issue orders for five years, instead of legislation, so as to serve the purpose of the Resolution but permit the policy followed to be reviewed after a comparatively short period.

A long and elaborate Government Resolution which has been on the tapis for some years for the separation of railway finance from general finance was laid before the Assembly on report by Select Committee and was the subject of prolonged debate, in which business considerations were mixed with the political designs of the Swarajists. It was finally adopted.

Unofficial Resolutions adopted in the Assembly were one for the abolition of cotton excise duties and one for the suspension of the Taxation Inquiry Committee, the latter being condemned on the ground that it should be preceded by a general economic inquiry. The Assembly in March voted the Budget grant for the Taxation Inquiry in the current year, but there appeared since then to have grown in the classes composing the electorate a fear that they would suffer from a revision of the incidence of taxation.

Supplementary Budget Grants were passed.

The Assembly adopted, despite earnest protests by the Home Member, an unofficial Bill for the repeal of Part II (Part I already having been repealed on Government initiative) of the Criminal Law Amendment Act, which empowers Government proclamation of associations whom they consider dangerous to be illegal. The Bill was not moved in the Council of State.

Both Houses were prorogued.

Central Government Committees.

[The following are details regarding various Committees appointed by the Government of India and the business of which is of current importance.]

REFORMS INQUIRY COMMITTEE.

The appointment of a Committee to inquire into the working of the Constitutional Reforms was announced by the Government of India, in a *Gazette Extraordinary*, dated Simla, 20th June 1924, running:—

“The Governor-General in Council, with the approval of the Secretary of State, has decided to appoint a Committee—

(1) to inquire into the difficulties arising from, or defects inherent in, the working of the Government of India Act and the Rules thereunder in regard to the Central Government and the Governments of the Governors' Provinces; and

(2) to investigate the feasibility and desirability of securing remedies for such difficulties or defects, consistent with the structure, policy and purpose of the Act;

(a) by action taken under the Act and the Rules, or

(b) by such amendments of the Act as appear necessary to rectify any administrative imperfections.

“2. The Committee will be constituted as follows:—

Chairman: The Hon. Sir Alexander Muddiman, C.S.I., C.I.E., Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council.

Members.

The Hon. Dr. Mian Sir Muhammad Shafi, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council.

Sir Bijay Chand Mahitab, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., I.O.M., Maharajahdiraja of Burdwan.

Dr. Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, K.C.S.I.

The Hon. Sir Arthur Froom, Kt.

Sir Sivaswamy Iyer, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., M.L.A.

Sir Henry Moncreiff Smith, Kt., C.I.E., M.L.A., Secretary to the Government of India, Legislative Department.

Mr. M. A. Jinnah, Barrister-at-law, M.L.A.

Dr. R. P. Paranjpye.

Secretary: Mr. H. Tonkinson, C.I.E., M.L.A., Joint Secretary to the Government of India, Home Department.”

“3. The Committee will assemble in Simla on a date to be appointed by the Chairman. Persons who desire to supply written evidence for the consideration of the Committee should send to the Secretary of the Committee on or before the 1st day of August a memorandum thereof together with a statement of their full names and addresses and an intimation of whether they are prepared to give oral evidence if the Committee considers that any oral examination on the points in their memorandum is desirable.

“4. The Committee will report to the Governor-General in Council.”

The Committee assembled in Simla on August 4th, when there were placed before it a quantity of written memoranda submitted in response to the Government's invitation, reports by the Provincial Governments on the working of the Reform Scheme in their areas and a Memorandum prepared by a Departmental Committee of the Government of India dealing with technical matters arising under the Government of India Act. The Committee sat privately for a few days and then in public for the examination of numerous witnesses. This lasted till the end of August, when owing to the autumn session of the Government of India Legislature during September it adjourned till mid-October. Some further witnesses were then heard and a further adjournment was made till late in November. The Committee then reassembled in Delhi to draw up their report, which was completed in the second week in December.

The report has not yet been published, but it is understood that the Committee divided, the majority signing a report in accordance with the terms of reference and a minority, consisting of Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, Sir Sivaswamy Iyer, Mr. Jinnah and Dr. Paranjpye, refusing to sign that but, it is reported, adopting one of their own based on the wider considerations elaborated in the evidence of several of the witnesses.

Publication of the report is not expected to be long delayed, but action upon it may suffer postponement through reference of it to the Provincial Governments for their opinions.

The Committee was appointed as a result of a demand put forward in the Legislative Assembly by the Swarajists in February, 1924, in accordance with their political programme and supported by some of the Liberal party members on the unofficial benches and by the Independents, members who declined to be bound by any of the regular party programmes, the resolution embodying the demand being carried. Pandit Motilal Nehru, the leader of the Swaraj party in the Assembly, declined to serve on the Committee because its terms of reference did not fully comply with the demand expressed in the Resolution, which ran as follows:—

“This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council to take steps to have the Government of India Act revised, with a view to establish full responsible government in India and for the said purpose:

(a) to summon at an early date a representative Round Table Conference to recommend, with due regard to the protection of the rights and interests of important minorities the scheme of a constitution for India; and

(b) after dissolving the Central Legislature, to place the said scheme before a newly elected Indian Legislature for its approval and submit the same to the British Parliament to be embodied in a Statute.”

EXTERNAL CAPITAL COMMITTEE.

Several unofficial members of the Legislative Assembly, during the discussion of the Indian Steel (Protection) Bill, at the Simla session of the Legislature in May and June, 1924, expressed hostility to the protection to be afforded by the measure, at the expense of the Indian taxpayer, being beneficial to industries conducted in India with foreign capital. Demands were made by them for the exclusion of industries so capitalised from the operation of the benefits assured by the measure and the prejudice was shown to extend to any industry so organised in India. The Commerce Member of Government, the Hon. Sir Charles Innes, replied with a promise to appoint a Committee of members of Government and the Legislature to consider the question of the flow of capital into India from external sources.

The appointment of the Committee was

announced in September, its personnel being as follows:—

The Hon. Sir Basil Blackett, K.C.B., Finance Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council, (Chairman).

The Hon. Sir Charles Innes, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council for Commerce and Railways.

The Hon. Messrs. J. W. A. Bell and G. A. Natesan and the Hon. Dr. Dwarkanath Mitter, elected by the Council of State.

Mr. W. S. J. Wilson, Sir P. S. Sivaswamy Iyer, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya and Mr. V. J. Patel, elected by the Legislative Assembly.

The Committee held preliminary meetings during the September session of the Legislature and issued an elaborate questionnaire from Delhi in November, replies to this to be returned by the middle of January.

AUXILIARY AND TERRITORIAL FORCE COMMITTEE.

The Legislative Assembly on 5th February 1924 after a long debate initiated by an unofficial member adopted the following resolution moved by Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya and assented to by H. E. the Commander-in-Chief in behalf of Government:—“This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that a Committee including members of the Legislature be immediately appointed to investigate and report what steps should be taken to improve and expand the Indian Territorial Force so as to constitute it an efficient second line of reserve to the regular army and also to remove all racial distinctions in the constitution of the non-regular military forces in India, including the Auxiliary Force.”

Government accordingly appointed a committee with the following terms of reference:—

To consider and report what steps should be taken—

1. To improve the Indian Territorial Force so as to constitute it an efficient second line to the regular army;

2. To expand the Indian Territorial Force so as to constitute it an efficient second line to the regular army;

3. To remove racial distinctions in the constitution of the non-regular military forces, including the Auxiliary Force.

The composition of the Committee was as follows:—

Lieut. Genl. Sir John Shea, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., D.S.O., Adjutant General in India (Chairman),

Sir P. S. Sivaswamy Iyer, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., M.L.A.

Dr. R. P. Paranjpye, D.Sc., J.P., Dr. Zia-ud-Din Ahmad, D.Sc., C.I.E., M.L.O.

Dr. S. K. Mullick, C.B.E., M.B.

Capt. Ajab Khan, O.B.E., I.O.M., M.L.A.

Mr. H. Calvert, I.O.S., M.L.A.

Lieut. Col. H. A. J. Gidney, M.L.A.

Lieut. Col. G. E. Llewellyn, V.D., A.D.C.

Capt. Suraj Singh Bahadur, I.O.M.

Mr. E. Burdon, C.I.E., I.C.S., M.L.A., Secretary, Army Dept.

Colonel J. C. Freeland, Deputy Directors, Auxiliary and Territorial Forces, Army Headquarters, was appointed Secretary.

Dr. Zia-ud-Din being unable to serve on the Committee throughout its deliberations, owing to his absence in Europe, Dr. Hyder, D.Sc., C.I.E., M.L.A., was appointed in his place.

The Committee held preliminary meetings in Simla on 10th and 11th June, to settle the procedure to be adopted in pursuing their inquiries. They then adjourned till late August, but as two members were then still engaged upon the Reforms Inquiry Committee a further adjournment till November was made. The Committee met in Delhi on 10th November and sat daily till 22nd of that month, by when they completed their investigations. They then adjourned till the end of January, with the intention of meeting then for the consideration and adoption of their report, which was published in February.

TAXATION INQUIRY COMMITTEE.

The question of instituting a scientific inquiry into the system of Indian taxation has recently attracted considerable attention in India and has on more than one occasion been discussed in the Indian Legislature. The first annual conference of Provincial Finance Members with the Finance Department of the Government of India, held in November 1923, agreed to the desirability of such an inquiry and to the general lines on which it should proceed and the Government of India accordingly in May 1924, issued a Resolution announcing the formation of the following Committee for the purpose:—

Sir Charles Todhunter, K.C.S.I., I.C.S., till recently Finance Member of the Executive Council of the Governor of Madras (*Chairman*).

Sir Percy Thompson, K.B.E., Deputy Chairman of the Board of Inland Revenue in England.

Sir Bijay Chand Mahtab, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., I.O.M., Maharajahdhipa, Bahadur of Burdwan, and

Dr. R. P. Paranjpye, Professor of Ferguson College, Poona.

Dr. L. K. Hyder, Professor of Economics at Aligarh University, was subsequently added to strengthen the expert side of the Committee, and

The Hon. Sirdar Jogendra Singh, Member of the Council of State, was added to strengthen the representation of agricultural interests, a discussion in this direction having been raised by him in the Council of State after the first announcement of personnel.

Mr. W. B. Brett, I.C.S., was appointed secretary.

The following were notified to be the terms of reference to the Committee:—

- (1) To examine the manner in which the burden of taxation is distributed at present between the different classes of the population;
- (2) To consider whether the whole scheme of taxation—(central, Provincial and Local)—is equitable and in accordance with economic principles and, if not, in what respects it is defective;
- (3) To report on the suitability of alternative sources of taxation;
- (4) To advise as to the machinery required for the imposition, assessment and collection of taxes, old and new;
- (5) To prepare rough estimates of the financial effects of the proposals.

Government in their Resolution announcing the institution of the inquiry stated, "The motive for the appointment of the Committee is not any need for meeting additional expenditure or any intention to increase the total amount raised by taxation in India. The necessity for the inquiry arises largely from the effect produced by the war on the general level of prices and of expenditure and consequently on the incidence of taxation in its existing forms."

"The problems arising therefrom are common to many countries, but in India the changes which have been made since the war in the relations between the central and provincial Governments and the development of self government furnish special reasons for a study of the subject of taxation in general and for the examination of alternative sources from which to raise the money to meet the expenditure which has necessarily to be incurred by the various taxing authorities at the present time."

The intention of Government to appoint the Committee was announced in the Council of State on 4th February 1924, when the proposal was subjected to useful criticism and some hon. members on the unofficial benches urged Government also, or alternatively, to institute a general economic inquiry. An unofficial resolution for the suspension of the Inquiry was moved in the Legislative Assembly in September, six months after the House had passed the Budget vote for the first year's expenses of the Inquiry and four months after the Chairman of the Committee had, in association with Sir Percy Thompson, initiated its actual work by inquiries in Europe. Its supporters demanded instead of this inquiry a general economic inquiry. Government pointed out that the latter would take many years to complete on useful lines and would almost certainly have to be conducted by Provincial Governments, while the Taxation Inquiry was an immediate need for immediate purposes. The resolution was nevertheless carried.

The second annual conference between Provincial Finance Members and the Finance Department of the Government of India took place in Delhi in November and information was, after its conclusion, published to the effect that as a result of a discussion at the Conference in conjunction with Sir Charles Todhunter, the Finance Member of the Government of India had secured general approval of a suggestion to issue to the Taxation Inquiry Committee a further direction that they should consider and recommend lines on which an economic inquiry, following their own inquiry, might be instituted.

The Committee was at the end of the year on tour in the course of its investigations.

basis, with particular reference to the constitution, statutory recognition, functions and authority of a Bar Council or Bar Councils, and their position vis-a-vis High Courts;

- (2) the extent to which it may be desirable to remove existing distinctions enforced by statute or practice between barristers and vakils; and to make recommendations.

The constitution of the Committee was as follows:—

Sir E. M. des C. Chamier, Kt., Barrister-at-law, Legal Adviser and Solicitor to the Secretary of State and late Chief Justice of the High Court of Judicature at Patna (*President*).

The Hon. Mr. Justice V. M. Coutts Trotter, Barrister-at-law, Judge of the High Court, Madras.

The Hon. Mr. Justice Dinshah Fardunji Mulla, LL.B., Additional Judge of the High Court, Bombay.

Mr. S. R. Das, Barrister-at-law, Advocate-General, Bengal.

Mr. H. P. Duval, I.C.S., Secretary to the Government of Bengal, and Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs, Bengal.

Colonel Sir Henry Stanyon, Kt., C.I.E., V.D., Barrister-at-law.

Rao Bahadur Thiruvankata Rangachariar, Vakil, High Court, Madras.

Mr. Sitaram Sunderrao Patkar, LL.B., Government Pleader, Bombay.

Mr. M. M. Chatterji, President of the Incorporated Law Society, Calcutta.

Mr. J. H. Wise, I.C.S., was appointed Secretary.

Rai Bahadur Babu Lalit Mohan Banarji, M.A., LL.B., Government Advocate, Allahabad, was later appointed member of the Committee in place of Mr. Justice Mulla, who communicated his inability to serve.

Previous proposals for the formation of an Indian Bar were embodied in a resolution moved in the Legislative Assembly by Munshi Iswar Saran on 24th February 1921. These were submitted to the criticism of associations and individuals throughout India and the opinions expressed on them, showing wide divergence of views, were before the Committee. The President of the Committee also, before a meeting of its members, issued a questionnaire dealing with the subject of its investigations. The Committee took a large amount of evidence orally and otherwise.

The Committee presented a unanimous report—subject to certain minutes of dissent—in February 1924. It included sweeping recommendations for the removal of distinctions between different classes of practitioners in the High Courts, but announced that as regards the compulsory dual system of advocates and attorneys or vakils in existence in the High Courts of

Calcutta, Bombay and Madras, the views of the Committee were as divided as those of the legal world generally and the division permitted no recommendation for a change of the existing system.

As regards the creation of an Indian Bar, the Committee reported, "We have had little difficulty in coming to the conclusion that it is not practicable to set up an all-India Bar in the sense of a body of legal practitioners admitted to practise and controlled by one central authority for the whole of India. The notion of an all-India Bar has proved attractive to some mind as being in accordance with what is called the national movement. But it is not possible to have an all-India Bar in any real sense unless there is to be throughout India a single type of advocate possessed of the same qualifications and entitled to practise in all the courts of the Country. It might perhaps be possible to secure uniformity in the three Presidencies, but our inquiries in the different places which we visited have satisfied us that elsewhere this would not be possible. The tendency is for the Presidencies and Provinces to develop on their own lines, education is more advanced in some than in others and the same degree of proficiency cannot at present be attained or insisted on throughout India."

The Committee point out that no institution corresponding to an all-India Council with definite powers of control is to be found in any other part of the Empire. They further say—

"While we are of opinion that the establishment of an all-India Bar or all-India Council is not practicable we think that the time has come when the bars attached to some of the High Courts should be accorded a measure of self-government. . . . We regret to say that the result of our inquiries is not such as to enable us to feel confident that Councils at all the High Courts would at present be able to make the best use of the powers which witnesses have suggested should be conferred upon them. . . . Many who expressed themselves in favour of wholly independent Bar Councils in India with final disciplinary authority have done so in ignorance of the fact that they are advocating an institution which is almost without parallel in the Empire or the United States of America."

The Committee for the present recommend the establishment of statutory Bar Councils, appointed in ways they detail and invested with powers that they suggest, at Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad, Patna and Rangoon and that provision be made for setting up others at Lahore, Nagpur, Karachi and Lucknow when experience has been gained of the working of the Councils at the other centres indicated.

The Government of India have published the report for information and public criticism before forming their own final conclusions.

COAL INDUSTRY COMMITTEE.

A Committee was constituted by the Government of India on 7th December 1923, to examine and report on—

- (1) the proposals made from time to time for constituting an Indian bar, whether on an all-India or a Provincial

The Legislative Assembly on 15th March 1924, after considerable debate adopted a resolution moved by a Bengal unofficial member recommending the imposition of a countervailing duty

on South African coal imported into India. The recommendation was based on the need to protect the Indian coal mining industry. The Government of India decided to refer to the

Tariff Board for investigation the question whether the Indian coal trade is in need of protection either against coal from South Africa or against imports of overseas coal generally and if so whether, having regard to all the interests concerned, protection should be accorded to it.

Imports of coal into India are relatively small and are steadily diminishing in quantity. The average production of coal in India during the three years preceding the adoption of the Assembly resolution was about 19 million tons per annum and imports during the same period were respectively (in thousands of tons) 1,489, 832 and 592. Returns for the succeeding months continued to show a decline in imports. Exports of Indian coal overseas simultaneously contracted. The statistics indicate that the competition from which the Indian coal industry is suffering is not so much in its home market as in overseas markets, such as Colombo and Singapore. The Government of India, therefore, decided to appoint an expert committee, representative of the interests concerned, to consider this side of the matter and they did so on 20th September 1924, with the following terms of reference:—

"To inquire and report—

- (1) generally what measures can be taken by Government, by the coal trade, by the railways and by the ports, whether singly or in combination, to stimulate the export of suitable coal from Calcutta to Indian and foreign ports; and

- (2) in particular, whether effective measures can be taken for the pooling and grading of Indian coal for export and for bunkering and how the cost of such measures should be met.

The Committee is composed as follows:—
Mr. L. Noyce, O.S.I., C.B.E., I.C.S. (President), The Chief Mining Engineer to the Railway Board.
Mr. F. C. Legge, C.B.E., Director of Wagon Interchange.
Mr. S. C. Stuart-Williams, Chairman, Calcutta Port Trust.
Mr. A. A. F. Bray, Chairman, Indian Mining Association.
Mr. W. C. Bannerjee, Vice-Chairman, Indian Mining Federation.
Sir Rajendra Nath Mookerjee, K.C.I.E., K.O.V.O., of Messrs. Martin & Co., Calcutta.
The Hon. Mr. J. W. A. Bell, of Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co., Calcutta.
Mr. H. P. V. Townsend, I.C.S., being appointed Secretary.

Government, in announcing the appointment of the Committee, stated: "The recommendations of the Committee will necessarily influence the Tariff Board's investigation of the question whether the Indian coal trade is in need of protection. The Government of India, therefore, after consulting the Tariff Board, have decided to postpone this reference to the Tariff Board until after the Committee has reported."
The Committee began its meetings in October and by direction of the Government of India has conducted its main inquiry in Calcutta, subject to visits of inquiry to other ports. Its proceedings still continue at the end of the year.

The Calendars.

A full Calendar will be found at the beginning of this book. Below are given details of the other Calendars in use in India.

The Jewish Calendar is in accordance with the system arranged A.D. 358. The Calendar dates from the Creation, which is fixed as 3,760 years and 3 months before the beginning of the Christian Era; the year is Luni-solar.

The Mohammedan, or era of the Hejira, dates from the day after Mahomet's flight from Mecca, which occurred on the night of July 15, 622 A.D. The months are Lunar.

The *Faski* year was derived from a combination of the Hejira and Samvat years by the order of Akbar; it is Luni-solar. The *Bengali* year seems also to have been related at one time to the Hejira, but the fact of its being Solar made it lose 11 days each year.

The *Samvat* era dates from 57 B.C., and is Luni-solar. The months are divided into two fortnights—*sudi*, or bright, and *badī*, or dark. Each fortnight contains 15 tithis, which furnish the dates of the civil days given in our calendars.

PUBLIC HOLIDAYS IN 1925.

Parsee (Shenhshahi).

Jamshedi Naoroz	..	..	March	21
Avan Jashan	..	..	April	16
Adar Jashan	..	..	May	15
Zarthost-no-Diso	..	..	June	16
Gatha Gahambars	..	..	September	7
Parsi New Year	..	..	" 8 & 9	
Khordad Sal	..	..	"	14

Parsee (Kadmi).

Avan Jashan	..	..	March	17
Jamshedi Naoroz	..	..	"	21
Adar Jashan	..	..	April	15
Gatha Gahambars	..	..	August 7 & 8	
New Year (2nd day)	..	..	"	10
Khordad Sal	..	..	"	15

Mahomedan (Sunni).

Shab-e-Barat	..	..	March	10
Ramzan'Id	..	..	April	25
Bakri-Id	..	..	July	2
Muharram	..	..	"	31
Ashura	..	..	August	1
Barawafat	..	..	October	1
Mahim Fair	..	..	December	1

Mahomedan (Shiah).

Shahadat-e-Huzrat Ali	..	..	April	15
Ramzan-Id	..	..	"	25
Bakri-Id	..	..	July	2
Muharram	..	..	"	31
Ashura	..	..	August	1
Shahadat-e-Imam Hassan	..	..	September	16
Barawafat	..	..	October	1
Id-e-Maulud	..	..	"	16

Hindu.

Makar Sankrant	..	..	January	14
Maha Shivratri	..	..	February	21
Holi (2nd Day)	..	..	March	11
Ramnavmi	..	..	April	2
Cocoanut Day	..	..	August	4
Gokul Ashtami	..	..	"	12
Ganesh Chaturthi and Samvatsari	..	..	"	23
Dassera	..	..	September	27
Diwali	..	..	October	15
	..	..	"	16
	..	..	"	17

Jewish.

Pesach	..	..	April	9
	..	..	"	15
Shabuoth	..	..	May	29
Tishabaeb	..	..	July	30
Rosh Hoshana (1st day)	..	..	September	19
Kippur (2nd day)	..	..	"	23
Sukkoth (1st day)	..	..	October	3

Jain.

Chaitra Sud 15	..	..	April	9
	..	..	August	18
	..	..	"	19
Shravan Vad 13 to Bhadrapada Sud 3	..	..	"	20
	..	..	"	21
	..	..	"	22
Pajushan Bhadarva Sud 5	..	..	"	24
Kartik Sud 15	..	..	October	31

Christian.

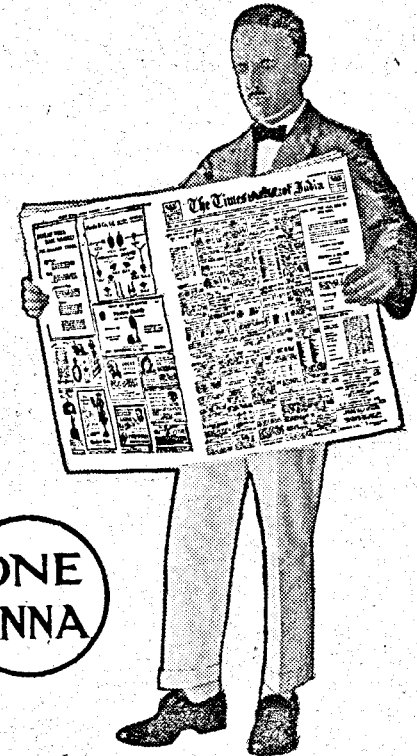
New Year	..	..	January	1 & 2
Good Friday	..	..	April	10
Easter	..	..	" 11 & 13	
	..	..	December	24
	..	..	"	25
	..	..	"	26
Christmas	..	..	"	28
	..	..	"	29
	..	..	"	30

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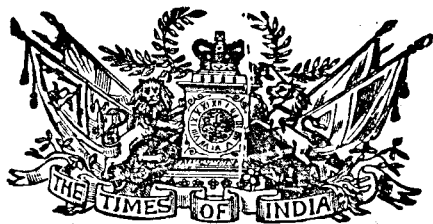
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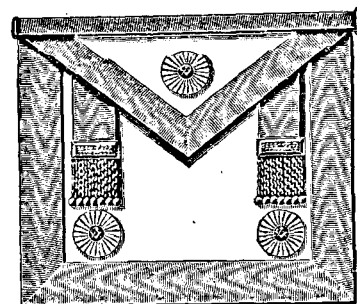
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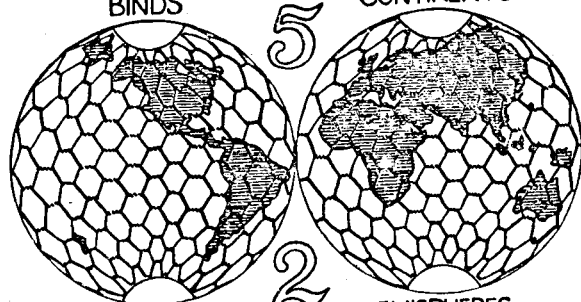
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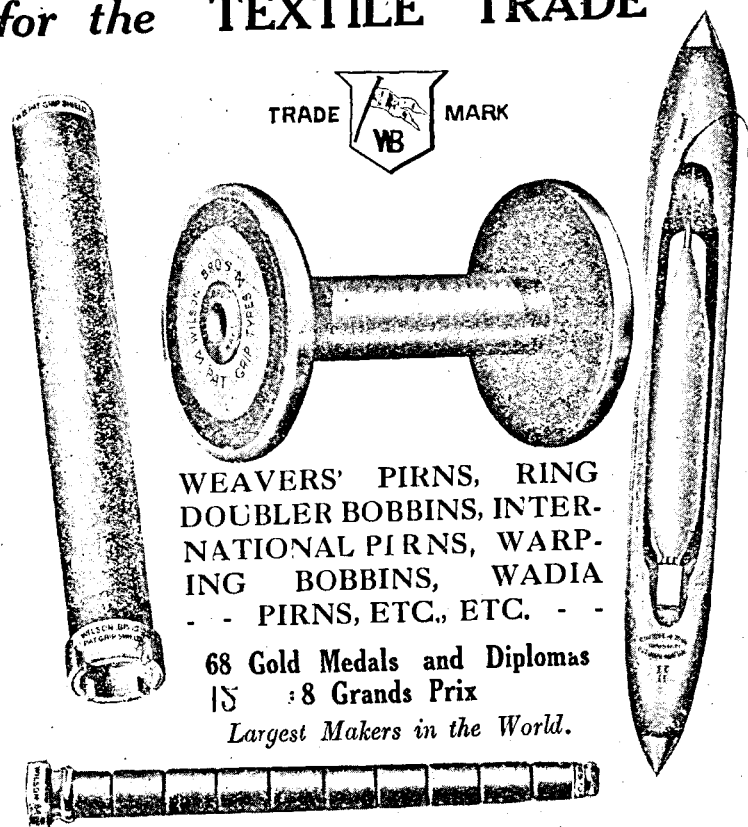
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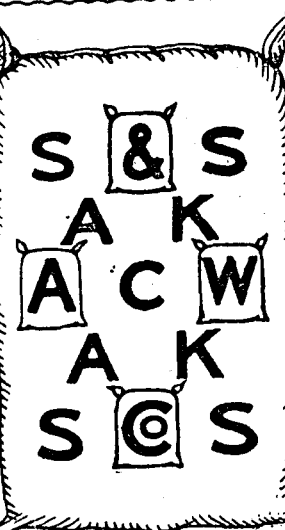
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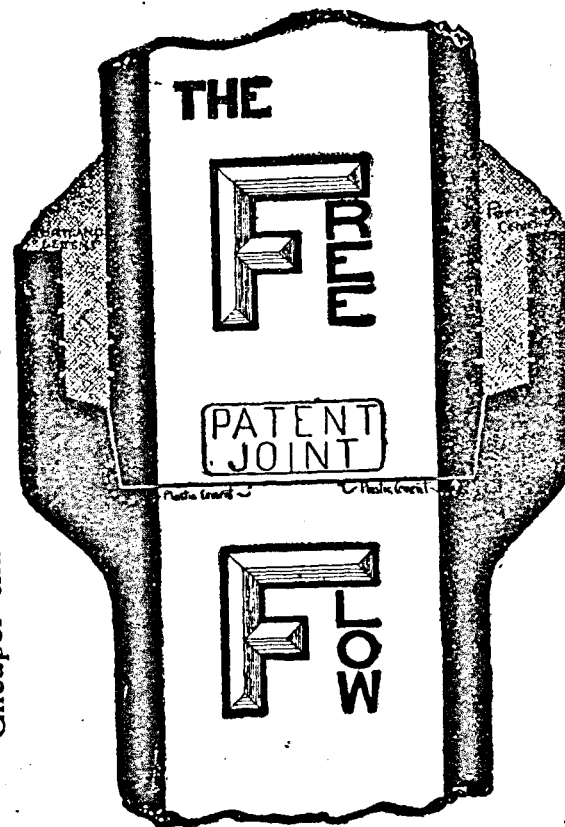
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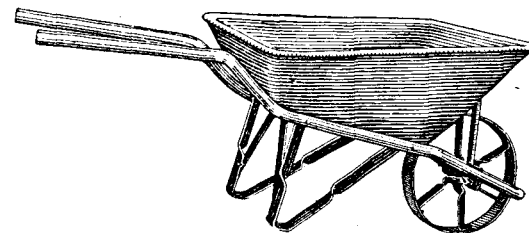
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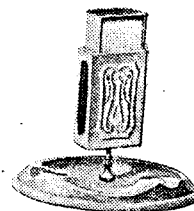
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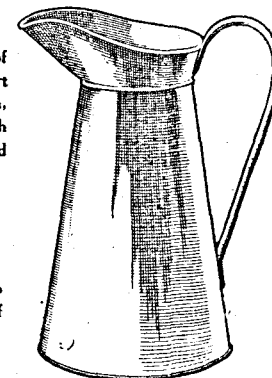
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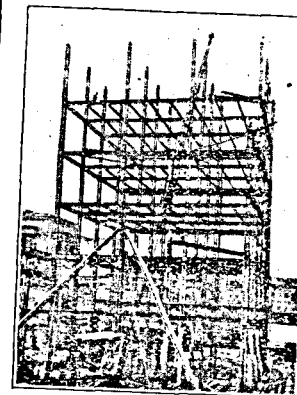
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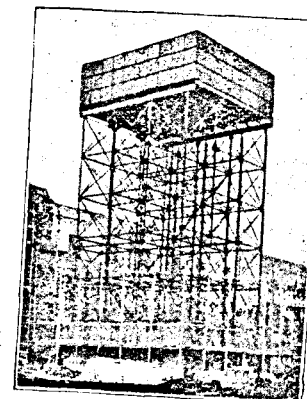
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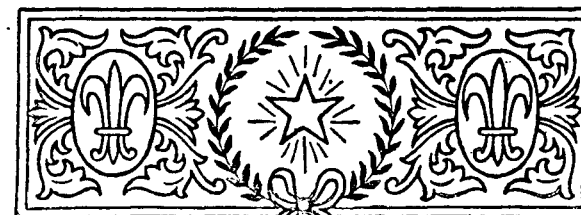
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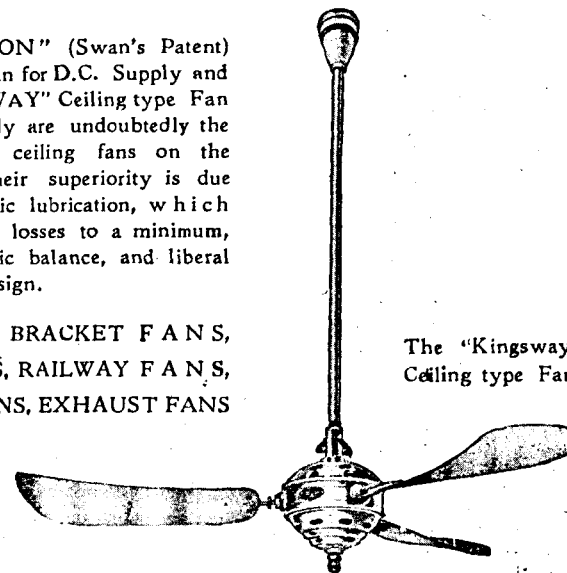
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