CALCUTTA: PEOPLE AND EMPIRE
CALCUTTA:
PEOPLE AND EMPIRE
(GLEANINGS FROM OLD JOURNALS)

Introduction by
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"Thus the midday halt more's
the pity of Charnock—
Grew a city.
As the fungus sprouts chaotic
    from its bed
So it spread
Chance-directed, chance-erected,
    laid and built
On the silt—
Palace, byre, hovel, poverty and
    pride
Side by side;
And, above the packed and
    pestilential town
Death looked down".
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Note on Selection

The twenty five articles, news items and editorials reprinted in this volume are selected from old English journals published from Calcutta till the end of the last century. The articles grouped here are according to specific features and not on chronological order. Bibliographical references have been added at the end of each article according to Indian Standard Specification with slight modifications. Details include full title of the periodical, volume number, issue number, year of publication, month and date. Names of authors added to the articles are taken from Calcutta Review with the help of a later issue of the journal. In several cases original titles have been dropped and new ones inserted where there were none. The volumes of Selections from Calcutta Gazette particularly, the last volume had been an immense help in selection.

Thanks are due to Shri Shantanu Mukhopadhyay of the National Library for Selection, Shri Asoke Chattopadhyay of the National Library and Shri Manabendra Goswami of Jadavpur University for preparing the type script. Advice and suggestions of Dr. A. Ohdedar, Chief Librarian, Jadavpur University and other colleagues are gratefully acknowledged.

P. C.
A. M.
INTRODUCTION

In recent years attention of historians, both foreign and Indian, has been drawn to the manifold aspects of the history of nineteenth century Bengal. The rise and growth of the metropolis of Calcutta, its seemingly eternal and insoluble problems, its unique character and complexities, its amazing capacity to withstand and at the same time pose new challenges have fascinated the historians, political scientists and sociologists. One great advantage of historical research on this period is the abundance of primary data literally strewn in contemporary newspapers and journals, memoirs, biographies, letters etc. But what apparently seems to be an advantage for the historian often turns out to be the opposite to a scholar harassed and hard pressed by heavy work-load, inadequate library facilities, financial difficulties and a host of other problems. Thus, availability of source material in handy printed volumes is a boon to scholars engaged in historical research.

Publication of source material and documentary history has long been in vogue in the western academic world. Happily, many Indian scholars and publishers are now undertaking similar projects. So far as the history of nineteenth century Bengal is concerned the pioneering effort was that of Brojendra-nath Bandopadhyay’s *Sambadpatre Sekaler Katha* in two volumes published several decades ago. The cue was taken up by other scholars and similar volumes were published in subsequent years, a significant effort being that of Sri Benoy Ghose’s *Samaikpatre Banglar Samajchitra* in several volumes. These volumes, however, are essentially compilations of news-items, features, editorials etc. from newspapers and journals. The present volume, *Calcutta: People and Empire*, compiled by Sri Pradip Chaudhuri and Sri Abhijit Mukhopadhyay of the Jadavpur University Central Library and published by Sri Ranjit Ghosh is of different kind and value. It is a judicious
compilation of some very interesting and valuable articles, written by competent and knowledgeable persons, that appeared in some well-known periodicals of the last century.

The articles included in the present volume illuminate the contours, dark corners and alleyes of the socio-economic history of Calcutta and its people of the nineteenth century. They also bring to light the ecological circumstances in the development of the metropolis. The rich material unearthed by the compilers should be of considerable value to researchers interested in the subject. A number of articles are on the municipal administration of Calcutta, problems of civic amenities, public health etc. which have not lost their relevance to-day. In fact, some of the articles seem to be penetrating analyses of chronic problems confronting the everyday life of the people at this very moment.

In his survey of Calcutta in 1860 Baron Dowleans strongly supports a bill that proposes to impose a tax on personal incomes. He argues that the additional sum thus raised can be spent for “the real and lasting advantages” of the residents of the metropolis. He lays emphasis on the urgent need of improving the sanitary system, water supply, construction of quays, wharves, jetties, tramways, water houses, wet docks etc. These facilities, Dowleans points out, will lure a larger number of European traders to come and settle in Calcutta. This article gives an insight into the European attitude to the well-to-do citizens of Calcutta. The author complains that the natives had done “absolutely nothing for their own city” (p. 3) and he asserts that even those institutions which had been set up “for the special benefit of the native youth” were dependent on contributions received from the European community in Calcutta and Government aid. Baron Dowleans points out that though ‘charity’ was one of the great precepts of Hinduism its real meaning was not understood. An affluent Hindu, willing to donate generously for the construction of a ghat or excavation of a tank, “would be reluctant to contribute a farthing towards the cutting of a navigable canal, or the cons-
truction of a rail-road, because it is beyond his conception that such auxiliaries of trade and communication are the surest promoters of general prosperity." (P. 6) Though the article bears a discernible trace of the bitterness generated by the Black Acts controversy (1849) and the Revolt of 1857, it contains sound logic as well as useful information.

Leaders of the Bengali society come in for much criticism in F. C. Skipwith's *The Corruption of the Police, Its Causes and Remedies* written in 1845. He attributes the corruption and inefficiency of the police to the clandestine links between the zamindars and the local police and he suggests more European settlement in the province as a remedial measure. He emphasises that "enlightened natives," educated in public seminaries, could "come forward and stop the plague." But what he writes about the so-called enlightened natives is very uncharitable! Skipwith writes, "...they may not, 'tis true, connive with thieves and robbers, but bribery and oppression they still practise. Their nature is unchanged; they can read and write and speak English fluently, but they are the same, nay in some respects worse than their ancestors. They have copied the vices of Englishmen but are ignorant of their virtues." (p. 98) Observations such as these about the English educated Bengalis, who are generally believed to have spearheaded the renaissance of the nineteenth century, shake the foundation of our basic assumptions, and as such, call for a deeper probe.

The problem of municipal administration and civic amenities is the theme of a large number of articles incorporated in the volume. *The City of Calcutta and Its Municipal Constitution*, written about a century ago (1880), contains interesting demographic data and traces the development of Calcutta municipal administration since 1794. It also examines the problem of public health and hygiene. Among other articles of a similar nature are *The Sanatory condition of Calcutta* (1846). *Water for Calcutta* (1830), *Calcutta Roads and Drains* (1863) etc. The first one written by Macleod Wylie is rich in material on the
problem of public health. The article is based on the report of a committee appointed by the Government for the Establishment of a Fever Hospital and for inquiring into Local Management and Taxation in Calcutta. When the report was submitted in January 1840, the Indian members of the Committee were Prasannakumar Tagore, Dwarkanath Tagore, Rasomoy Dutt and Rustomjee Cowasjee. In this thorough and comprehensive report the Committee made several recommendations for the improvement of the civic amenities and sanitary condition in Calcutta among which were "a complete system of drainage", "providing water for domestic purposes" (pp, 237-238) and the setting up of a kind of modern Improvement Trust with "the power of laying considerable local rates and making great local alterations". (p. 239) From this article we further learn that Lord Wellesley was deeply interested in the welfare of the metropolis of Calcutta. He wrote in 1803, "The increasing extent and population of Calcutta, the Capital of the British empire in India, and the seat of Supreme Authority require the serious attention of Government. It is now become absolutely necessary to provide permanent means of promoting the health, the comfort, and the convenience of the numerous inhabitants of this great town." (p. 222)

It should be of interest (and a consolation) for the present day citizen of Calcutta to know that the Calcutta Corporation's financial crisis is a century old problem, that there was an acute shortage of water supply even 150 years ago, that pure milk was not easily available in old Calcutta, that water logging of the streets in the monsoon and filthy and deplorable roads caused as much headache to the people of the city hundred years ago as they are causing to-day. Even "good and wholesome fish" was in short supply though one could buy inferior quality of fish for Rs 5/- to Rs 7/- per mund (about 37 KG). A dismal feature of the life in old Calcutta was the indifference of the elite and affluent classes to the problems of civic life and public health. The articles on the various facets of the life in Calcutta and its municipal administration indicate the abundance of
material for writing a comprehensive history of the Calcutta Corporation which, surprisingly, has not yet been undertaken by any scholar.

*Calcutta: People and Empire* is also enriched with material for socio-economic and cultural history of the period. Such articles as the *Origin of Banianship in Calcutta*, *Money Market in Calcutta*, *Paper Currency in Calcutta* etc. will certainly be read with much interest. The last two articles are inter-related and indicate the reluctance of the rural population to accept the newly introduced paper currency. Thus we come to know that even quite some time after its introduction, the paper currency exercised “little or no influence, beyond the limits of Calcutta” and specie continued in the interior areas to form the circulating medium and was in constant demand (p. 71). It is interesting to note that this psychology has remained unchanged during the last hundred and fifty years as was evident at the time of the introduction of the decimal coins and new bank notes some years ago. Can this be used as a yardstick to measure the rate of ‘progress’ among the rural population over a long stretch of period?

One comes across important pieces of evidence of social history in the articles under review in unexpected places. In this respect *Street Music in Calcutta*, which appeared in *Mookerjee’s Magazine* in 1875, deserves special mention. This article gives an intimate pen-picture of the life in contemporary Calcutta. The reader comes to know that the persons engaged in the profession of extricating dropped articles from the bottom of the numerous wells in the city did brisk business, because, the city dwellers thought it unwise to fill up their wells as the supply of municipal water was not to be depended upon and it failed frequently “at very inconvenient hours” (p. 73). We also learn that the sack of the *Sissee Bottle Bikreewalla* (a pedlar who *buys* empty phials and bottles) was mostly full of empty bottles of Champagne, Beer and Brandy—an unmistakable evidence of the lingering tradition of Young Bengal that worried Pearycharan Sarkar! The same article tells us that
in spite of the Young Bengal's great liking for *Moorgeer Deem* (fowl's egg) this item could not be hawked about openly in the streets of Calcutta except in Muslim quarters. But "potatoes and onions were carried round the same basket from door to door, and even widows and Brahmans" bought the potatoes "quite heedless of their contamination." (p. 78) From the *Daily Life of a Sahib in Calcutta* (1849) we come to know that the Anglo-Indians in the city were not afraid of cobras, tigers and alligators, but were mortally afraid of mosquitoes (p. 113). Life in Calcutta had innumerable problems and disadvantages. But the city was second to none in the world in the availability of excellent food. Obviously a gourmet, the author, T Smith writes: "...we have in Calcutta better mutton...as good beef...as is to be had in England. We have moreover as good fowls, as good ducks, as good geese, and nearly as good turkeys, though smaller. Then, we have as good peas, as good cauliflower as good cabbages, as good asparagus, as good potatoes (nearly), as good turnips, as good carrots, as good onions, as good salad herbs of all kinds; and, in addition, we have several vegetables of excellent quality, which are little, or not at all, known in England." (p. 132)

C. Montague's article *The Educational Establishments of Calcutta*, which appeared in the *Calcutta Review* in 1850, contains very useful information on the state of education in the early nineteenth century, particularly about the day-schools run by Anglo-Indian teachers. A few of these schools, like the one of David Drummond, were very good. But in general, the day-schools presented a dismal picture. The profession of teaching was the last resort of persons who could not find any other employment for themselves. The schools were looked upon "simply as sources of revenue; and hence every individual, in straitened circumstances, set up a day-school, which might serve as a kind of corps de reserve, until fortune smiled propitious, and a more congenial employment was obtained." (p. 169) How one wishes that this
observation could be read merely as an amusing fact of history of the bygone days that has no relevance in the modern context of our educational system! The graphic description of Drummond's school, where Derozio had his education, and the incisive comments on Alexander Duff and his institution are added attractions of this article. Underlining the significance of the year 1830 in the history of education in Bengal Montague writes, "Not only was a new plan commenced by Dr Duff to overturn the whole fabric of Hinduism by imparting to the youth instruction of a high order—but also the Bible was introduced as an essential study in the school. He first gave a triumphant answer to the common objections, the offspring of bigotry and anility, by actually shewing that even the study of the Bible does not deter the Hindus from crowding into Missionary schools." (pp. 190-191) This article, read along with the one entitled Prohibiting the Students which appeared in the Calcutta Gazette in October 1830, gives the reader a vivid and lively account of the controversy and excitement caused by the order issued by the Managing Committee of the Hindu College prohibiting the students of the college from attending meetings in which political and religious discussions were held.

Old Calcutta was not lacking in ambitious plans for improvement that may be compared with the modern CMDA, Water-works Project, Limited stop Deluxe Buses etc. Way back in 1830 there were schemes for improving the water supply and making use of "deep-seated springs." The Government even sought to utilise the expertise of the Asiatic Society in this matter (p. 204). About the same time there was a proposal for the establishment of a fishery at the mouth of the Hooghly river on an extensive scale for improving the supply of good and wholesome fish to Calcutta (p. 208). Unfortunately, these schemes met no better fate than the modern ones of the type. In 1830, daily papers in Calcutta announced the imminent introduction of an omnibus, drawn
by three horses, from Dharmatala to Barrackpore. It was welcomed as a “handy conveyance.” This venture must have proved as successful and popular as the introduction of the modern Deluxe and Minibuses.

*Calcutta: People and Empire* is, besides being a compilation of source material, an eminently readable volume which, I am sure, will be welcomed by historians and social scientists as well as by the general readers who read books just for the pleasure of reading.

12. 7. 75

Nemai Sadhan Bose
CALCUTTA IN 1860

BARON DOWLEANS

The Right Hon'ble James Wilson, among various financial measures, brought forward a bill imposing a duty on personal incomes. Though the bill has undergone considerable modifications from what it was in its original state, still its object is, to levy a duty of three per cent. on all incomes above two hundred Rupees per annum, and where such annual income reaches a sum of Rupees five hundred and upwards, an additional duty of one per cent. will be charged. The modifications since introduced chiefly refer to military officers holding a rank below that of a Captain, and to Zemindars, whose estimated annual income is to be computed upon a more liberal principle. As our readers are aware, the revenue expected to be derived from the 3 per cent. duty is to be applied towards the exigencies of the State, whilst the net proceeds of the one per cent. duty is to be appropriated towards imperial reproductive works.

It does not come within our province to express an opinion on the merits of the bill itself, beyond our firm conviction that it is a measure fully justified by a due consideration of our financial position, and to which no one can object who has the real welfare of this country and the prosperity of its inhabitants seriously at heart. Our object is rather to dwell upon the additional resources, which the one per cent. duty may make available for such a city as Calcutta, and the manner in which such might be expended with real and lasting advantages to the residents of this Metropolis and to trade in general. Before entering more fully into the subject, it may not be amiss to take a glance at the present condition of the city of Palaces.

It cannot be denied, and we are grieved to say so, that among all the large cities of Europe and America, there is perhaps none that has so little kept pace with those Metropolitan and other local improvements which, wherever introduced, have
proved of incalculable benefit, as the British Metropolis in the East. Considering that it has now been in our possession for more than a century and a half, Calcutta, with regard to internal and external improvements, is actually half a century behind the spirit and requirements of the age. Whilst Constantinople, Alexandria, Cairo, and other cities under Mahomedan rulers are gradually assuming the character of modern European towns, the city of Palaces, the seat of a Christian Government, forms an exception to the general advance of civilization. The native part of the town, with trifling exceptions, retains its primitive oriental character, with the usual appurtenances of narrow filthy streets and crooked lanes; whilst the European quarter has been forced into existence by the removal of the former monopoly of trade, but totally regardless of any considerations for the health and real comfort of its residents; and yet, if we consider the political, financial and commercial importance of this city, it must be obvious that it ought to be in the interest of all parties, the governing and the governed, to metamorphose Calcutta as rapidly as possible into a town, which through the amelioration of its sanitary condition, would render the health and life of European settlers more secure, and by the introduction of measures for facilitating commerce be the most infallible means of largely developing not only the trade of the city, but that of Bengal, the city of Palaces being the great export and import mart of this Province.

The fault of this anomaly, is, as usual, ascribed to Government. Private enterprise can hardly be said to exist in India, and in the absence of such, Government is expected to do everything. The statistical records of the town fully corroborate our assertion. We have a number of public buildings such as the Town Hall, the Fever Hospital, the Native Girls' School, the Free Church Institution, the Ice House, the Benevolent Institution, the Metcalfe Hall, but none of them owe their existence to private enterprise; they have been erected entirely upon the strength of private contributions; and nine-tenths of the capital required for their construction have been either subscribed for by Europeans, or directly or indirectly contributed by Govern-
ment. Yet however desirable all these institutions may be for the spiritual and temporal wants of the Christian community, it is clear that none of them bears the least reference to those requirements of the town, which by conducing to the extension of commerce and the spread of general prosperity, would ensure large contributions on the part of an European floating population, towards objects of public utility.

The only building in the town, which can be classed in the category of private enterprise, is the Bonded Warehouse. A reference to the list of original shareholders, shows that the promoters of the undertaking were, with trifling exceptions, Europeans merchants. The Martiniere is the legacy of a philanthropic Frenchman; and thus almost every public building in Calcutta, owes its origin to European capital, voluntarily subscribed for, and contributed to by Government. The natives have done absolutely nothing for their own city, and indeed the very few improvements which have taken place of late, though hardly worth mentioning, are the result of compulsory laws rather than of voluntary undertakings.

But in order to form a correct view of the matter, we must take into due consideration the relative position of Europeans and natives. The object of the former in coming out to India, is to toil hard and devote all his bodily and mental energies, at the risk of life and at the almost certain sacrifice of constitution, towards the realization of a competency, which will enable him eventually to retire to his mother country. He cannot therefore, in the ordinary course of nature, be expected to take any very lively interest in undertakings, which can only be carried out by a subsequent generation, and from which therefore he individually would derive no benefits. His primary object is to be off as soon as he can, and he must therefore, to use a common phrase, look twice at a Rupee before parting with it. Times moreover have wonderfully changed. The climate is no longer the great bugbear which deterred Europeans from coming to India, colossal fortunes are not so easily realised now-a-days, competition is powerful in all trades and professions, the overland communication and telegraph have brought us within short
reach of the mother country, and tend to keep up the lively recollection of the Home of our youth, which proves a powerful stimulant to that exertion and economy, which alone can secure the prospect of early retirement from the scene of our labours. With such views and prospects, it is but natural, that the temporary European resident in India must feel reluctant to contribute towards prospective improvements, which hold out no hopes of any return whatever to himself.

It is very different with natives. They are the permanent residents of the town, and therefore either themselves or their children are sure to benefit by works of public utility; and yet may we ask what have they done within the last 25 years towards the attainment of such objects? Nothing. — absolutely nothing. Even those institutions, which have been established for the special benefit of the native youth, have been created by donations on the part of Government and by private subscriptions, the latter of which have in a great measure been contributed by Europeans. Witness the Medical College, the Mudrissa, the Hindoo College, that most excellent institution, the Chandney Choke Hospital with all its branches, the Medical College Hospital, and Mr. Bethune’s Native Girls’ School. It is true that magnificent donations towards these objects have been made by the late Baboo Dwarkanath Tagore, and Rajah Pertaub Chund Sing, but these form solitary exceptions, and we may ask, what do the wealthy natives of this city now contribute towards the maintenance of all those excellent institutions? — Nothing.

There is a singular aversion on the part of native capitalists to embark in any enterprise which does not yield an immediate return, hence, whatever is undertaken, owes its origin to European capital. The Strand Steam Flour Mills, the Fort Glos- ter Cotton Mills, the Dockyards and several other establishments of that description, are the results of European enterprise and capital, and no greater proof can be adduced of the total absence of anything approaching a disposition to encourage public undertakings from which the town or the country may derive the greatest the benefit, than the Railways now in course of construction, the whole capital for which, with tri-
flying exceptions, has been subscribed for at home and by Europeans in this country.

The reasons for this particular aversion to invest money in great undertakings are twofold. There is no doubt that past experience has taught the necessity of caution. Schemes were brought forward which, to use a mild term, bore the stamp of eccentricity upon the very face of their program, speculations on a gigantic scale were undertaken entirely with the aid of native capital, borrowed at a high rate of interest, but resulting in loss to both the lender and the borrower, and when at last a Joint Stock Company was got up which held out any prospect of a fair return to the shareholder, and did yield handsome profits, it was brought to a stand still through mere mismanagement, entailing ruin upon many a poor widow and orphan. We do not hesitate in stating that our remarks refer to the late Union Bank of Calcutta, though we believe, that on the whole, Europeans have suffered by it to a much larger extent than natives.

Yet it is somewhat remarkable, that the history of the past affords an undeniable proof of natives always breaking down, when attempting to carry out any undertaking of public benefit, unless aided by European management. One case will be sufficient to prove the correctness of this assertion. Some years ago, a vigorous attempt was made to establish a Metropolitan College. The scheme originated with some wealthy natives, and lacked not for support, but it required unanimity of purpose. That unanimity however could not be attained, and after its chief promoters spent nearly two lakhs of Rupees towards the realization of the object in view, the whole fell to the ground. This was the result of purely native management. The jealousy which exists between different classes will always prevent that cordial and disinterested support, which is so essential in carrying out any undertaking of public utility, and hence it will for some time to come, be very difficult to impress upon the native mind the necessity of that unity of action, and unity of purpose, without which, notwithstanding all the means that may be available, all projects must invariably break down.
In thus recording our views about the absence of public enterprise on the part of the natives, we wish to be understood, that our remarks apply to them as a nation. There is no doubt, that there are several men among the more enlightened classes, quite capable and ready to form more liberal views, and indeed we could name several native gentlemen, whose ideas are the most liberal that could possibly be conceived, yet their number is too small to overreach the opposition of the orthodox party, who, under the influence of traditionary customs; which form the groundwork of their moral and social laws and are carefully nursed by their priesthood, present a most formidable obstacle to the clear perception of the advantages, which must result from well directed enterprise. It therefore follows, that the ideas of wealthy natives about undertakings of public utility are generally confined to the construction of ghats and temples and the excavation of tanks, and the large number of the two former, which line the Hooghly river up to the Ganges, most of which have been constructed at the expense of private individuals, will give an idea of the immense amount of money which has been expended for those purposes: Charity is one of the great precepts of Hindooism, but its real meaning is not understood. A wealthy native would not hesitate a moment to give Rupees 10,000 for the construction of a ghat, or the excavation of a tank, because he can understand that to enable the poorer classes to perform their ablutions in the sacred river, or to place water for domestic purposes within their reach, is a benefit to his countrymen; but he would be reluctant to contribute a farthing towards the cutting of a navigable canal, or the construction of a rail-road, because it is beyond his conception that such auxiliaries of trade and communication are the surest promoters of general prosperity.

We have endeavoured to show the obstacles which exist, and which prevent both Europeans and natives from taking a personal interest in works of public utility; and we strongly apprehend that such will continue, until the European settlers will find it their interest to make India their permanent home or until their greater influx and the diffusion of education.
among the natives will lead to a clear perception and appreciation of the advantages and benefits of public works, which though perhaps not yielding an immediate pecuniary return, open a new field of enterprise, and place within the reach of our successors, if not within our own, resources, the development of which is the highroad to prosperity. India is only in her infancy; and Calcutta, the great emporium of her trade, must strive hard to give every impulse to such trade; in fact, Calcutta ought to be to the East, what London is with regard to the commerce of the world.

It is therefore clear, that we ought to strive hard to work in anticipations of the events which cast their shadows before us. It is also nothing but just, that where no private aid or cooperation can be expected, the residents of the town should be made to contribute towards its requirements, whether such be of immediate or prospective benefit. This principle seems to have been recognised by the Legislature when passing the Municipal Acts which came into force on the 1st of January 1857. The inhabitants were made to pay a lighting rate for the purpose of introducing a better system of illuminating the town by gas and by oil, long before a single gas post or bracket could be indented for from England. The House assessment rate was increased from $6\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{8}$ per cent for the avowed object of devoting thereof an annual sum of Rs. 1,50,000 and Rs. 30,000 respectively towards a new system of drainage and sewerage of the town, and for a supply of water. Two years and a half had elapsed before any system of drainage and sewerage could be decided upon, and though it will take many years before the whole of the works can be completed, yet the present residents are made to contribute towards their cost. The question of water supply is still far from its solution, but it must eventually be carried out. The same principle appears to have been acted upon by the Right Honourable James Wilson in imposing an income duty of one per cent. specially applicable to Public Works. Whatever his plans may be, it is clear that the residents will have to pay for prospective improvements, which can only be worked out in the course of
time; and it is evident that Mr. Wilson is not only fully aware of the many improvements of which our cities in the East are susceptible, but moreover that he is alive to the importance of carrying them into effect.

With a prospective annual income derivable from the one per cent. duty, the question arises about the most advantageous manner in which such might be appropriated towards the improvement of this Metropolis, and we believe that we are acting in the interests of our fellow citizens when we point out several improvements of which the town is in absolute need, but which the Municipal Commissioners have to carry out, because the conservancy of the town, as well as the current expenditure for road repairs, &c. absorb so large a portion of the general income, that they are precluded from undertaking any improvement which would prove of great and permanent public utility. It is true that since the passing of acts XIV., XXV. and XXVIII. of 1856, the municipal revenue has increased by fully three lakhs of Rupees, but at the same time it must be considered, that out of such increase not less than Rs. 120,000 are specially appropriated towards the illumination of the town by gas and by oil; that Rs. 1,50,000 have annually to be set aside for the new drainage work; that Rs. 30,000 are to be devoted towards a more diffused supply of water; so that in fact notwithstanding the increased rate of House-assessment, the imposition of the lighting rate and of the carriage and house tax, the actual municipal income available for conservancy purposes and local improvements, remains pretty much the same as it was before the passing of the Municipal Acts above adverted to; and indeed, were it not for a total revision of the valuation and assessment of the town, which Mr. Vos is so successfully carrying out, we doubt whether the Commissioners would have been in a position to meet the increased rate for stone, khoa, cattle, provender, and general wages and labour. Mr. Wilson's one per cent. duty comes therefore like a regular "godsends", and we are desirous to see it applied towards purposes which will benefit every class of residents in this Metropolis.
It appears to us, that in correctly estimating the requirements of a city, the same must be regarded in three distinct points of view, viz., sanitary, commercial, and political. In the Presidencies moreover, which form the three great ports of British India, due consideration must be given to the mixed character of the population, and therefore the interests of Europeans and natives ought to be weighed separately. To fuse both into one category is absolutely impossible. In a sanitary point they will never be identical; in commerce and trade European enterprise and capital will maintain their supremacy; in politics, the lead must be retained by Government, for we are yet far behind that stage of enlightenment, which would allow, with safety to the state and with due regard for the interests of the country, natives to take an active part in the management of the affairs of this Empire. On the basis of such views we shall now proceed to notice the principal requirements of the Metropolis of the East.

Sanitary

Free ventilation, cleanliness of streets and lanes, and an ample supply of water, are everywhere considered the principal elements of public health; in Eastern towns they are the elements of life. The drainage works now in progress, and the contemplated water supply, which must follow, will tend towards the attainment of two of the aforementioned requirements, but the third, or rather the first, viz. free ventilation can only be effected in the process of time. To comprehend the claims of the town in this latter respect, the Southern or European and the Northern or Native Divisions of the city must be considered separately.

As far as the European quarter is concerned, it may be said that the whole portion of it, which extends from along Park Street to the Southern boundary of the town, enjoys already free ventilation, and the only further improvement of any importance of which it is susceptible is the clearance of a number of bustees or plots of ground covered by clusters of native huts, and inhabited by people who apparently delight in filth and dirt. The clearance of such bustees will have the
effect of removing a number of miserable huts and their inhabitants, from the localities through which they are dispersed all over Chowringhee, and thus not only be the means of purifying the quarter, but also afford numerous building sites for private residences, and thereby render that portion of the Town strictly European. The Municipal Commissioners have already made a commencement, and from their report it appears, that the clearance of these bustees has been effected by them at a mere nominal cost.

From Park Street towards Lall Bazar, which forms the boundary between the Southern and Northern Division, the character of the Town gradually changes. The stable three-storied buildings with spacious verandahs and large compounds disappear by degrees, and smaller buildings, on narrow plots of ground and in greater proximity to each other line the streets, until at last they form an almost uninterrupted range of all description of houses and huts, inhabited by a mixed Christian and native population. Still they are intersected by a number of wide streets and lanes, which would afford ample means of ventilation could the native portion of the residents be induced to adopt habits of cleanliness. There are a number of clusters of huts dispersed over that particular area of ground, the inmates of which are totally indifferent to any extent of accumulation of filth, and indeed were it not for the fines, which the Police authorities constantly levy upon those who neglect to conform to municipal regulations, many a lane would scarcely be passable. Still many of these clusters of huts are not accessible to conservancy carts, and hence they become nuisances, creating malaria and sickness. We are happy to hear, that arrangements are now in progress, by which these evils will shortly be remedied.

It is however in the native part of the town, where ventilation can hardly be said to exist. If it be considered that the whole area of the Northern Division extends over 7,619 bee-gahs of ground; that a portion of it is taken up by Hindoo temples, public and private tanks, and numberless lanes of the narrowest dimensions; and that within the remainder 9,823
masonry buildings and 41,917 huts are huddled together, it will be easily conceived that much ventilation cannot exist there. It is true the majority of the residents seem to care very little about free ventilation and pure air, but that is no sufficient reason why improvements should not be carried out, by which a large number of fellow creatures will most undoubtedly benefit, though at present they may not be able to appreciate the real value of such improvements.

A glance at the map of Calcutta will show that we are not exaggerating the evils complained of. Though the Northern division extending from the line of Bow Bazar and Lall Bazar Streets to the Chitpore canal covers an area of more than double that occupied by the Southern division, there are actually only two great thoroughfares in it, besides the Circular Road, which forms its Eastern boundary. One of these thoroughfares, Chitpore road is the principal channel for the traffic in goods and passengers. It is narrow, irregular, and may be said to be the emporium of dirt and filth. The other is Cornwallis Street, running in a straight line from Bow Bazar to the Chitpore canal, and traversing the Eastern portion of the native town. It is a wide road, tolerably clean, but comparatively made little use of for traffic, being at a somewhat inconvenient distance. There is a third wide street, viz. Amherst Street, but it extends only one-half the length of the Northern division, namely from Bow Bazar to Rajah Goorooodas Street.

It is not less surprising, that the above thoroughfare, though extending on a length of nearly three miles, are traversed from East to West by only two straight avenues, namely Colootollah and Machooa Bazar Streets. The rest is intersected by a number of narrow irregular streets, and crooked lanes, many of the latter being hardly passable for even native vehicles, and some of them scarcely accessible to conservancy carts. To this must be added the fact, that within the whole of the Northern division there are only two public squares, and by a singular coincidence, both are situated along the same line of road. They are in Cornwallis and College Streets, the former being only a continuation of the latter. Each of these squares con-
tains a large tank, which forms the principal means of water supply to the residents of the neighbourhood. There is a large number of smaller tanks scattered all over the Native division, but chiefly belonging to private individuals, and although thrown open to the public, they afford but a scanty supply, and even that not of pure water. Reviewing then the condition of the Native town, we find that there is an immense mass of buildings and huts packed together as closely as possible; that there are only two leading thoroughfares traversed by two avenues; that there are only two public squares; and that for the wants of the residents only two large public tanks are available. But to understand the real magnitude of the evil, it is necessary to consider the singular notions, which the generality of natives entertain about cleanliness, pure air, and free ventilation. Chitpore Road will afford a sufficient criterion thereof. Considering that it is the leading thoroughfare of the native town from North to South, and that many highly respectable Hindoos and Mussulmen reside in it, one would suppose, that the practice of people bathing in the open street, of cleansing their cooking utensils alongside the aqueduct, and of washing clothes, horses and carriages in the open road, would call forth loud and strong remonstrances; but such is not the case. There are several stately edifices in that road, which have to their South large private drains, wafting an almost unbearable stench into all the other dwellings within immediate reach, and yet there is not a single voice of complaint. There are also a large number of native livery stable keepers, whose establishments line the greater portion of Chitpore Road from Lall Bazar to Colootollah Street. From thence there is an almost uninterrupted succession of sweetmeats, bakers, shoemakers, bookbinders and other trades, which do not add to the salubrity of the street. The effluvia of these stables and shops running into the public drains, and the filth deposited on the street, are as much beyond conception as they appear to be beyond the control of the conservancy department; and yet in spite of all the stench and malaria created thereby, it will be seen, that the servants attached to these identical livery
stables and to several of the shops, place their charpoys or beds right across the drain, through which the offensive effluvia is expected to pass. We use the word "expected" advisedly, because however defective the public drains may be, their action is often impeded by the practice of throwing filth into them. That this sort of nuisance is more extensive than at first sight may appear, is proved by para. 108 of the Municipal Commissioners' Report of Calcutta for the past year, in which it is stated that not less than six hundred and twenty-nine persons were convicted of and fined for the above offences.

Alarming as those evils may be, their effect upon the health of the residents of the native town and their extent, will be better understood, when we say that Chitpore Road is a mere miniature of the state of less frequented streets and lanes. The Municipal Commissioners in the report for 1859, tell us that 13,942 natives had died within the precincts of the jurisdiction of the town, and we regret that we have not the means of ascertaining how many of these have fallen victims to diseases created by the filthy condition, to which the native part of the town is reduced. It would be unfair to lay the blame for such a state of things upon the Commissioners, for whilst they candidly admit the existence of the evil, they plead poverty, and they show beyond doubt, that the least improvement in that quarter of the town, cannot be carried out for less than half a lakh of Rupees. Mr. Wilson's one per cent. duty comes therefore most apropos, and before its ultimate appropriation is decided upon, we may fairly urge the claims of the native division of the town to a fair share of it.

We have in a previous para. stated, that free ventilation, cleanliness of streets and an ample supply of water constitute the elements of life in an Eastern city. Let us now consider, how they can be effected at the lowest possible cost. As cleansing of streets falls strictly within the legitimate duties of the conservancy department, and must be attended to even at the sacrifice of public improvements, we have only to deal with the other two items, for which the present means of the Municipality are decidedly inadequate, and we shall treat them under separate heads.

It is clear that the surest, and in fact the only means of securing to the Native Town proper ventilation, is, to construct a number of public squares, and to open new and widen existing thoroughfares. This course however is in Calcutta attended with much greater difficulties than our readers may be aware of. By a singular omission in the provisions of Act XIV, of 1856, generally known as the Municipal Act, the Commissioners have not the power to force the sale of any property which might be necessary to remove in order to allow the construction of a public square; in fact their
power seems to be limited to the mere making of new streets, widening, enlarging and improving existing ones, provided that, "compensation be made to the owners for any damage which may be done thereby to any adjoining land or buildings of such owner", the extent of compensation to which such owners may be entitled being determined by arbitration. The Commissioners in their report of the year 1857 have shown the heavy expense which this circumlocutory legislation involves. The value of a parcel of ground and the dwelling standing thereupon, which stood in the way of completing a new thoroughfare, was settled by arbitration at Rs. 5,000. The cost of such arbitration together with the legal expenses incurred, amounted to Rs. 7,000, and a similar result may be expected, where no principle is laid down for ascertaining the exact value of property. The natives complain about the high valuation put upon buildings in the native part of the town, and yet if any such building were required for public purposes, and had to be bought up, not one of the owners would be willing to receive for it the price of it computed upon the strength of the rate at which it is assessed, and yet, we conceive that such would be the only fair means of ascertaining its real value.

But leaving these difficulties alone, there are other obstacles in the way. In constructing public squares in European cities, the result invariably is a considerable increase in the value of all property within their immediate vicinity, because people can fully understand the advantages thereby obtained. Not so in India, unless it be in the European quarter of the town, where upon the strength of such improvement, the rent will immediately be raised 50 per cent. Dunkin Bustee and Camac Street afford undoubted proof of our assertion. Natives, as far as their own comfort is concerned, are totally indifferent in that respect, and we are able to quote a case in point. About two years ago, a native gentleman of high respectability proposed to the Municipal Commissioners the opening of a new square and the construction of a tank, offering to contribute towards its cost the sum of Rs. 20,000, and to take all the spare ground that may be available at a fair price. The expense of this undertaking was estimated at Rs. 1,30,000 and the Commissioners at once agreed to contribute towards such desirable improvement Rs. 30,000, provided the residents of the immediate neighbourhood, who would so largely benefit thereby, were willing to subscribe the remaining sum. The proposal, as might be expected, fell to the ground, the residents feeling too reluctant to part with a single Rupee. It is therefore clear, that in opening a new square, no help whatever can be expected from those who derive immediate benefit therefrom, and the whole cost must be borne by the town itself.
Considering the proximity in which native houses, are built, the value which the residents put upon family dwellings, and the peculiar provisions of the law under which the property must be purchased, it is very evident, that the opening of a square in such part of the native town where not only masonry buildings must be purchased, but the ground itself bears a very high value, is next to impossible; not even the prospective resources of the Municipality could effect such an improvement. But there are other localities within the Northern division, where this great desideratum might be carried out at a reasonable cost. There are large number of bustees or clusters of huts dispersed all over the native town, and their clearance would at once enable us to realize the object in view, and at a moderate outlay.

Bustees are generally large spots of grounds, belonging to a particular individual, and let out in small portions to the poorest class of the native community. The tenants build their own huts, and pay only ground rent to the owner of the locality. The particular spot on which the hut is erected, is generally taken on a lease of twelve months, at the expiration of which the lease may be renewed, or the tenant is at liberty to remove his hut, provided he has paid the ground rent due by him. In the majority of cases the tenant is in arrears, and his miserable hut is forfeited to the landowner. No difficulty ought to exist in clearing such bustees for the special purpose of opening new squares, and it is in such localities where the much needed improvements might be carried out at a very moderate expense. The value of the land is easily computed by the return it yields; there are no masonry buildings to be purchased by arbitration and no compensation could be claimed for losses for rent, because the owner of the ground indemnifies himself by the seizure of the huts, which, being removable, must represent a certain value. The obvious plan therefore is to purchase one of the largest bustees, and after clearing it from all the huts thereon from it into a square, leaving sufficient spare ground on each side, which might be resold for the express purpose of building masonry houses, shops, &c. Thus in a few years a return would be obtained in the shape of assessment rate, sufficient to keep the square and its roads in good condition. On a rough circulation we find that a moderately sized square might be opened at an outlay of about Rs. 50,000.

With regard to opening new, or widening existing streets the expense would be very heavy. When Government lately appointed a Committee to take into consideration the practicability and cost of laying down a tramway from the contemplated Sealdah Railway termini to the Calcutta Custom house, three distinct lines were under consideration. The
first consisted in opening a new narrow street through a number of clusters of huts, and its cost was estimated at Rupees 2,68,507. The second involved the partial widening of Colootallah and Parsee Church Streets, and thence opening a new thoroughfare to Jackson’s Ghat Street, thereby forming a straight direct line from Sealdah to the river bank. The estimated expense such an undertaking would involve, amounted to Rs. 8,15,333. The third proposal was to widen Bow Bazar by 20 feet for its whole length, the cost of which was calculated at Rs. 4,85,888. It will thus be seen that the very cheapest improvement, and which after all would only be of a sufficient width to allow of the construction of tramway, would absorb Rs. 2,68,507, being more than the total annual income derived from the house assessment rate of the Northern Division. Still, squares must be opened, streets must be widened, and as the current Municipal income will not allow of such improvements, the inhabitants of the Northern Division have a fair right to expect, that at all events a portion of the revenue derived from Mr. Wilson’s one per cent. duty will be appropriated towards these desirable objects.

The next point to which we would draw attention, is the state of our public roads. They are getting worse from year to year; but from what the Municipal Commissioners state in their annual report for the past year, it would appear, that we are only on the eve of a greater evil to come. They plead two very strong reasons for this unsatisfactory state of things, viz, inadequacy of funds, and scarcity of stone metal. On the strength of the explanations given by the Commissioners we admit the validity of both reasons. The increased price of khoah, and the enhanced rate charged for stone broken at the House of Correction, together with the general rise in the cost of labour, tell most seriously, where only a fixed annual sum can be devoted to a particular purpose. It is clear that in proportion as the cost of road making material increases the extent of roads made or repaired must fall equally short, because there is only a fixed sum available for such purpose and no more. In addition to this, scarcity of stone metal is complained of. The importation of stone ballast from China has ceased altogether; from Mauritius it has fallen on one-half, whilst the demand for the suburban roads, and from provincial municipalities along the river have caused a considerable encroachment upon the supply to which the town was primarily entitled. Moreover a considerable quantity of stone metal will be required to restore the roads, which at present are unmercifully cut up in connection with the new drainage works in progress. But the town ought not to suffer on that account and stone must be procured any how, whether an adequate supply be obtained from some rock in the Mofussil within reach of conveyance by water, or whether it be secured
by holding out inducements to importers from abroad, is a secondary consideration; but we maintain that if the Municipal funds cannot bear the additional burthen, we may fairly look for support to the revenue derived from the one per cent. duty.

We now come to the most important requirement of the town—an ample and diffused system of water supply. Its necessity is recognized by the Legislature itself, which by section 29 of Act XXIII. of 1856 enjoins the Municipal Commissioners to set apart an annual sum of not less than Rupees 30,000 for the special object of repaying with interest, all monies that might be borrowed upon the security of the town rates for the purpose of carrying out works which will secure to the town a proper supply of good and wholesome water for drinking and domestic purposes. That the Legislature had no conception of the real requirements of the town in that respect, is evident from the fact that they limit the annual sum to be set apart to Rs. 30,000 which at a rate of interest of five per cent, would only represent a capital for five lakhs of Rupees, without having a sinking fund to provide for its ultimate liquidation. This is the more surprising, as at time three distinct schemes of supplying the town with water were before the public, the cheapest of which involved an outlay of Rs. 14,00,000—whilst at the same time an attempt to construct a public tank in the Northern Division fell to the ground, because it was found that it could not be carried out for less than Rs. 1,50,000.

Since Act XXVIII. of 1856 came into force, additional grounds have been shown for the necessity of an ample and diffused supply of water. The Committee appointed by Government to enquire and report upon Mr. Clark's scheme of drainage and sewerage of the town, in para. II. of section XII. of their report record their unanimous opinion, that they consider a Copious and diffused water supply over the city to be absolutely essential to its efficient drainage. Messrs. Rendell, to whom the Drainage Committee's report was referred for their opinion remark, that "to construct sewers without at the same time providing an ample supply of water to keep them clear of deposits, would be a worse than useless expenditure of money". Mr. Clark, the Engineer to the Municipal Commissioners expresses himself as follows: "To expect the efficient action of
sewers without water-flush, would, to use a vulgar parlance, be like putting shot into a gun without powder; but at the same time I am of opinion, that a supply of pure and wholesome water would yield a certain annual return on the part of those who choose to avail themselves of it, whilst water pumped up from the river for the mere purpose of providing flush for the sewers will be a permanent charge upon the Municipal funds.” The actual necessity of water supply is thus admitted on all hands, and it only remains to ascertain the quality of water, which many be required to answer all and every purpose. To enable us to arrive at a proper conclusion, it is necessary to review first the existing means of water supply.

On examination we find, that at present, the supply is obtained from three different sources, viz., the river, tanks, and aqueducts. In the Northern Division, the first is resorted to entirely by natives, within its vicinity, and any such of the better classes of Hindoos, as can afford to pay for the cost of having the sacred river water carried to their houses. Tanks are availed of by a large portion of the native population living at some distance from the river, whilst open aqueducts afford a supply to such as care very little about quality of water. Some of the tanks are filled from the river by means of aqueducts, but the majority depend for their supply upon the periodical rains, and upon the water which, during occasional showers, runs into them from the surface drains of the town. It is therefore clear that many of the tanks which are depending upon the rains, become during the hot season almost dry, and it is at that time more particularly that the native population experience great hardship.

In the European quarter the supply of water is almost entirely obtained from tanks, some of which are filled from the river, but the majority being dependent upon the periodical rains. Though there are a number of aqueducts, no European uses their water knowingly, because all the vigilance of the police cannot prevent natives from fouling the water, by washing in it clothes and cooking utensils. Even tanks do not escape contamination; and indeed if it were possible to put a complete stop to the practice of bathing in them, the fact of the bheesties or water carriers steeping their feet into the water whilst filling their leather bags, is not likely to add to its purity. Comparing then the existing means of water supply available
in each Division, we find that whilst the Southern has an abundant supply of comparatively wholesome water, the Northern or Native Division is labouring under a double disadvantage, viz., scarcity of supply—and of such supply consisting of water, the greater portion of which, Europeans would consider unfit for drinking purposes.

As already stated a different supply of water will become absolutely necessary in connection with the drainage works not in progress, and therefore we have general requirements of the supply will be best adapted to the general requirements of the town with due regard for the various interests involved in it. It is clear, that, as far as the drainage is concerned, it is perfectly immaterial whether the water which is to flush the drains, be pure or impure, salt or sweet. In reference to natives, their opinion of pure water totally differs from ours. Water from the river, which swarms with dead bodies, in which thousands perform their daily ablutions, into which a portion of the filth of the town either flows or is emptied, is according to their views, not considered objectionable. Again, water conveyed into tanks by aqueducts, in which a number of people wash their clothes, cleanse their cooking utensils and not unfrequently bathe, is apparently considered fit for every domestic and even for drinking purposes; but if the same water were conveyed in to tanks by means of conveying water is looked upon as opposed to the religious notions of the people: Men and women will not hesitate for a moment to allow persons afflicted with contagious diseases to bathe in the same tank with them, and yet a dog swimming across the tank would be considered a contamination of the water. True, it is only the low class of natives which exhibit such peculiar indifference as to the quality of water, but they form the majority; and what guarantee have the better classes for their own domestic servants not supplying them with water from such contaminated tanks? The European on the other hand puts a value on pure and wholesome water, being entirely indifferent as to the manner in which it can be brought within his reach.

We have thus four distinct claim upon a supply of water. One, namely the drainage of the town, totally indifferent as to quality; the second consisting of orthodox Hindoos, avowedly partial to river water even of the worst description, as long as
it is not distributed by means against religious prejudices; the third satisfied with water of any kind whatsoever, as long as pure drinking water, but indifferent as to the means by which it is conveyed to their houses. The first three can easily be supplied from the river by pumps worked by steam power, whilst the fourth can only obtain pure and wholesome water through an underground supply, drawn from some locality above the river. The first plan will necessitate the erection of another Steam Engine at Nimtollah Ghat, and the construction of several miles of aqueducts, the cost of which is estimated at Rs. 3,50,000; whilst the expense of the latter mode of water supply can even at this moment hardly be correctly ascertained. Mr. Sim's scheme involved an outlay of 67 lakhs of Rupees; Captain Young and Mr. Hawkesly calculated the cost of their scheme at 16 lakhs; the Drainage Committee's was 12 lakhs, whilst Mr. Rendell's estimate amounted to 28 lakhs of Rupees.

In undertaking works of such magnitude, the outlay they involve must be weighed by the return they yield, either in a pecuniary view, or by the benefits they secure. No private company could engage in the construction of such works, unless a fair return was in prospect for the capital invested; but a Municipality may be perfectly justified in doing so, even at an annual sacrifice, provided it was absolutely necessary for the health and comfort of the inhabitants of the town. Now as far as return is concerned, it could in the first instance only be looked for from Europeans, who, we have no doubt would be willing to pay for pure and wholesome water, but this would amount to a mere fraction; nor could the drainage of the town be charged beyond what it would cost to pump up river water for flushing purposes, whilst no law could make it compulsory upon natives to take and pay for water, which they may be either precluded from using by religious prejudices, or for the purity of which they do not care. It is for these reasons that the imposition of a water rate is entirely out of question.

From what we have stated, it is evident that water pumped up from the river at low tides, and copiously distributed over the town could answer every requirement of the native division, whilst at the same time it would render a supply of water, though not quite pure, more plentiful in the Southern Divi-
sion, and therefore we have only to consider the mode in which it is to be distributed. Only two ways of doing so are available, viz. open aqueducts, or underground pipes. The first is congenial to the people themselves, but objectionable on public grounds. Leaving out of question of low natives resorting to them for the purpose of washing clothes, cooking utensils, &c., there can be no doubt, that in the native part of the town they prove considerable obstructions to public thoroughfares. Any body passing through Colootollah or Chitpore road will convince himself of the fact. In these streets bathing along the aqueducts appears to be allowed, for we have never seen the chowkeedar in attendance attempt to prevent people from doing so. The disgusting exposure of persons bathing in open streets would not be tolerated in any other city under a Christian Government; but besides this so much space is taken up by aqueducts and the people bathing and washing along them, as seriously to interfere with the traffic of these identical streets, but to mention the filthy state to which the thoroughfare itself is reduced. An underground water supply, with cisterns at convenient distances, would at once remove all those evils, and certainly prevent the water being constantly fouled as present.

Assuming then, that a supply of water, distributed as above stated, would meet the general requirements of the town, the cost of carrying it into effect demands our next consideration. It appears that the Municipal Commissioners had it for some time under consideration to make arrangements for relieving the crying wants of the inhabitants of the Northern Division, by erecting another steam engine at Nimtollah Ghat, for pumping up river water and distributing it by means of underground pipes, through Baug Bazar, Cornwallis Street, Sam Bazar, Purria Pooker Street, Chitpore Road, Kombooliatollah Lane, Sukea’s Street, Barranossey Ghose’s Street and Machooha Bazar Road, which arrangement would have the further advantage of allowing all tanks within reach of the above streets to be filled with water from the river, at the very time, that they generally become almost dry. The expense of this arrangement was estimated at Rupees 1,50,667, exclusive of the cost of the engine, pumps and buildings and subject to a permanent annual charge upon the town for the working of the engine. Now if it be
considered, that in order to ensure real benefits to the inhabitants and to provide for the regular action of the sewers, the supply of water must be ample and diffused all over the town, and moreover that the above named streets form only a small portion of the area over which the supply of water must be spread, it is evident that to carry out the scheme to a really useful extent, the total outlay will not fall short of 12 lakhs of Rupees. This arrangement would answer every requirement of the native population; it will supply the Southern Division with ample water for culinary purposes, it will afford as much flush for the sewers as may be desired, but the outlay will bring no monetary return whatever, and after all not supply to Europeans the great desideratum, viz. pure and wholesome drinking water.

The next thing to consider is, the annual expense which the undertaking if carried out would involve. Taking as our basis the cost of working the Chandpaul Ghat Engine, which during the rains, or say three months out of twelve is stopped, we shall arrive at the following results:

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<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>Cost of working the Chandpaul Ghat + Engine</td>
<td>10,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Do. of proposed Engine at Nimtollah Ghat</td>
<td>10,000</td>
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<td>Add the time of the rains, three months</td>
<td>6,666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Actual cost</strong></td>
<td>26,666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest on block and stock 12 lakhs at 5 per cent.</td>
<td>60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wear and tear, repairs, and superintendence 10 per cent.</td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total outlay</strong></td>
<td>92,666</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

an annual expense, the greater portion of which, according to all authorities that appear to have been consulted on the subject, will have to be incurred, to ensure the efficiency of the drainage works. To meet this permanent charge, we have the following resources:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Rs.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Set apart under legislative enactment for water supply</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present cost of working the Chandpaul Ghat Engine</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expense of clearing drains, &amp;c., Rs. 50,000 of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
which one-half will be saved when the drainage works come into operation ... 25,000

Total ... 65,000

So that there is an annual deficiency of Rs. 27,666, which will have to be provided for by the Municipality.

It now remains to ascertain what the additional expense would be for supplying the town with pure wholesome drinking water, instead of that which the above outlay would secure. All the schemes that have been laid before the public agree in one point, viz., that the supply must in the first instance be drawn off the river Hooghly at some point near Pultah Ghat, by means of pumping engines, and after passing through subsiding and filtering reservoirs be conveyed to the suburbs of Calcutta, to be thence distributed by steam power over the city. The estimates of the several schemes vary according to the extent of the distribution of water, but we will, for the sake of calculation, assume the highest average which is 30 lakhs of Rupees. Supposing the above capital being borrowed at a rate of interest of five per cent. per annum, the annual charge to be met would:

Interest on 30 lakhs of Rupees at five per cent. Rupees 1,50,000 to which would have to be added the cost of working the Engines and that of Superintendence; against which we have to set off the sum of Rupees 92,666—which will have to be expended annually under any circumstances, and the revenue that may be derived from Europeans willing to pay for pure and wholesome drinking water.

But in addition to this, we have two other sources to look to, which might be made productive of considerable revenue. There is no doubt that without a proper supply of drinking water the contemplated Mutlah town will prove a complete disappointment. The only source whence a supply can be obtained is Calcutta; but such would only give water for culinary purposes, pumped up from the river at low tides. Even such water would, however, have to be paid for, and hence we should thus obtain another contribution towards the annual outlay which would prove a valuable aid, and might be the means of carrying out the far more important scheme of procuring drinking water from Pultah. Moreover by a slight change in
the plan the native Division would get water free of cost, whilst
the Europeans would be supplied with pure drinking water at a
moderate charge. As already stated the various schemes, which
came before the public, agreed in the necessity of drawing the
supply of water off the river, at some locality to the North of
Chitpore, and that Pultah seemed to have been considered as
the most suitable place. There the water was to be pumped
up into settling and filtering reservoirs, whence it would be
conveyed to Calcutta, either by pipes or covered aqueducts.
Now if the filtering reservoirs were constructed at Calcutta in-
stead of at Pultah, we should then have two distinct kinds of
reservoirs, namely settling reservoirs, whence water would be
supplied to the Northen Division, and filtering reservoirs, dis-
tributing pure water to the European quarter of the town.
Thus as soon as the native population would be willing to pay
for pure water, it could be supplied with it at once, and the
time is sure to come when the value of such a commodity will
be duly appreciated.

The cost of the works for procuring a supply of water from
Pultah and providing for its copious distribution over the town,
is estimated at 30 lakhs of Rupees, entailing an annual charge
of Rs. 1,20,000 for work and superintendence; and supposing
that the money were borrowed at the rate of five per cent. per
annum the total expense to be met, would be;
Interest on 30 lakhs at 5 per cent. ... Rs. 1,50,000
Cost of working and superintendence, ... 1,20,000

Rs. 2,70,000

Against this we have the expense which will have to be incurred
under any circumstances, as we have already shown; the reve-
 nue derived from the European quarter, the contribution from
Mutlah, and the probability of natives eventually availing them-
selves of pure water. To ascertain the probable income that
may be expected from the European quarter, we must take
into consideration the number of houses. There are in the
Southern Division:

1873 one-storied.
1436 two do.
222 three do.
8 four do.
altogether 3539 masonry houses; and supposing such to pay on an average Rs. 3 a month or Rs. 36 per annum for full supply of pure drinking water, we should obtain Rs. 1,27,404 which, together with the expense that must be paid, viz., 92,666 would give us Rs. 2,20,070 against the above outlay of Rs. 2,70,000. So that only Rs. 50,000 more would be required to defray the total annual expense. The merits of the schemes before us resolve themselves, into two questions:—are we to expend 12 lakhs of rupees, contingent upon an annual charge of Rs. 92,666 which will give only water for culinary purposes, and without any monetary return, or, is it better to lay out 30 lakhs of rupees for an undertaking, which will place at the disposal of inhabitants of Calcutta pure and wholesome drinking water, and holds out an almost immediate return of Rs. 2,20,000 towards the annual expense of Rs. 2,70,000 which will have to be incurred for interest and working charges? The latter will be no doubt the more useful one, and we have no doubt, that in the end it will be found the more economical to boot. The natives will gradually learn to appreciate the value of pure water; the Mutlah must procure a sufficient supply for the local wants; so that there is every prospect of the undertaking becoming within a short time self-supporting, and until then the deficiency between annual outlay and income should be defrayed out of the one per cent duty.

Commercial

With respect to commercial requirements, which have everywhere been the means of facilitating and developing trade, Calcutta may be said to be in its very infancy. It is true, the commerce of this city has within the last twenty years nearly trebled, but such is not owing to any particular facilities secured by private enterprise, or to any encouragement held out by Government, but it has been forced into existence by that agency, which induces wealth and energy continually to seek new fields for their practical employment. As far as Government is concerned, there is certainly nothing to show that the last stimulus was given to trade; indeed in several cases the suggestions and advice of practical men had to yield to the
dictates of public officers, who had not the least conception of
the elements and true principles of commercial policy, and who
generally owed the position they held, not to any particular
qualification for the post, but to that proportion, to which
by virtue of seniority of service they became entitled. The
total absence of all private enterprise is moreover, for reasons
already shown, hardly to be wondered at. The erection of the
Bonded Warehouse, and the establishment of two Inland River
Steam Navigation Companies, are all the past half century has
to boast of; the Railway can hardly yet be classed in the cate-
gory of commercial facilities, though when completed even as
far as Rajmahal, it will prove a most important agent in the
promotion of the commerce of Bengal and the development of
the resources of the country.

If we compare Calcutta with some of the great seaports of
Europe and America, we must be struck by the total absence
of all those useful appendages, which everywhere facilitate and
promote trade. No quays, no wharves, no jetties, no wet docks,
no warehouses, no tramways,—in fact, with the exception of a
better description of cargo boats and a couple of cranes, every-
thing bears the stamp of primitiveness. In the interior of
the country it is the same. The want of sufficient and proper
means of communication and transport have almost everywhere
operated as a powerful check upon local enterprise, and indeed
there is no country under Christian rule, in which so little
change is perceptible within a whole century as in India. The
mode of conveying merchandise is with regard to the bulk of
trade the same as it was a century ago; agricultural and manu-
facturing implements are of the same description as they were
before we had possession of this vast empire; the process of
agriculture and manufactures has not undergone the least
change; the people themselves have, whether mentally or physi-
cally but little improved; their manufacturers, and even works of
art, do not show the least progress, and thus it is, that with
a country capable of producing almost every commercial com-
modity, we are dependent upon importation from abroad, for
what we ought to be in a position not only to supply for local
consumption, but in fact for export. The great resources of the
country have remained undeveloped, because no true principles
of commercial policy existed; the system and object of protec-
tive duties were misunderstood, and the periodical revision of
the custom house tariff itself betrayed a singular absence of
those broad principles, by which it ought to have been regulat-
ed, so as to form a powerful stimulus to the import and export
trade of this country. No attempts have been made to intro-
duce and establish a firm footing in foreign markets of such
indigenous productions as have to compete with those of other
countries, whilst the very local resources of this vast Empire
have been allowed to remain dormant for the apparent benefit
of the foreign producer and manufacturer. Had a system of
expansive and liberal commercial policy been acted upon, India
by this time ought to be a formidable rival of the United
States with regard to cotton,—of China with respect to tea,—
and of Russia in reference to fibrous productions. We have
expended large sums of money upon experiments, and a much
better result might have attained at the same expense, had
we applied it in a different manner. No stronger proof can
be adduced of the want of proper development of the re-
sources within our reach, than the fact, that with mineral
wealth, the real extent of which is hardly known, but the
existence of which is corroborated by the numerous specimens
of rich ores forwarded to the London and Paris Exhibition,
we have, at a time when there is a certain prospect of the whole
of India eventually forming one great network of Railways,
to import from abroad iron rails, and convey them to the very
localities where they ought to be manufactured on the spot.

With regard to the trade of this country, Calcutta stands
in the same position, as London with reference to the com-
merce of the world. It is the centre from which all enterprise
eradiates; it is the dial of the Indian money market; it is the
regulator of rates of exchanges; and with the great handmaid
of commerce—the electric telegraph—it exercises a sort of
control over the price of all commodities both at the place of
production and that of consumption. This trade is now to be
taxed by the imposition of a duty on profits, and it must there-
fore be our obvious policy to devise means by which such profits
can be increased, for the greater the profits, the greater will be,
the revenue obtained from the proposed duty. These means
consist in a number of facilities which the trade of this port
requires, and which will have time and money, for to save one-
is so much saving of the other. Native prejudices and customs must be made to give way to the spirit and requirements of the age; the dilatory mode of transacting business through lazy sircars, must be superseded by European Agency, and we must introduce local improvements which will facilitate trade, expedite business, diminish the chances of risk, and thereby improve a considerable saving of expense.

The principal commercial requirements of the city, are quays, wharves, jetties, tramways, warehouses and wet docks. The first, we apprehend, will never be carried out, because they would require a very large outlay, and their real utility in the Hooghly is susceptible of considerable doubt, as the alluvial process tends continually to form new shoals and banks along the most important part of the town, so that ships after all could not anchor within sufficient reach of such quays. This fact is proved by several of the ghats in the Northern Division, which at low tides are not accessible to any boats whatever. But no such objections exist as to floating wharves, because the intersection of numerous piers or jetties would prevent the formation of alluvial deposits within the range of such floating wharves. Nor could any apprehensions be entertained with regard to the effects produced by the great tidal wave, for the jetties at the Armenian ghat and at the Howrah Railway station, prove their power of withstanding it. There are consequently no difficulties in the way that could not be removed by engineering skill; and besides, floating wharves and jetties have the immense advantage that they could be constructed at a mere fraction of the cost which solid quays would involve. It is true that in point of appearance, and even usefulness, (our river admitting of their construction) there is no comparison between solid quays and wooden floating wharves, but in consideration of the wants of the commercial community, and of the means that might be secured to supply such wants, floating wharves come within our reach. Whilst quays must be looked forward as a work to be accomplished by a future generation. We therefore in this case advocate the adoption of an improvement, which will secure benefits whilst in the very course of construction.

But in order to comprehend fully the value of such floating wharves and jetties, we must compare the difficulties which
exist at present with the advantages that may be expected to result. The former are as follows:

a. Passengers landing or embarking, must do so in boats, and at their own expense.

b. Goods must be landed or shipped in boats, and at hours in accordance with the tides.

c. For goods insured against sea risk, the Insurance Companies are liable, until such goods are landed on shore.

d. Goods of a fragile nature, hoisted from on board ship into a cargo boat, and then hoisted out again on the bank of the river, incur twice the risk of breakage.

e. Ships at present take upon an average three weeks to discharge their cargoes.

f. The same delay occurs in loading vessels, and therefore hardly any ship arriving in this port, can get away before two months.

g. The chance of loss or damage to goods and luggage conveyed to and from shore in boats is much greater than what it would be if ships were moored along the wharf, and could hoist in or hoist out their freight.

h. Lastly the expense incurred by the hire of boats for the above purposes.

Now if we had floating wharves and jetties, along which ships could be moored, we should save a great deal of time, much of expense, and reduce the chances or risk to a mere mite.

a. The expense of landing or shipping goods or luggage by means of boats would be totally avoided.

b. The risk of Insurance offices would be greatly diminished.

c. The chance of breakage of articles of fragile nature would be reduced from two to one.

d. Ship could receive or discharge their cargoes almost within a week.

e. Ships therefore could get away in a few weeks, and thus save a great portion of port charges.

f. The risk of loss or damage to goods or luggage in transit from shore to the ship and vice versa would be totally avoided.

If thus, by the construction of wharves and jetties, we attain one of the principal facilities required by trade for shipping and landing merchandize, the next object ought to be to improve
the means and speed of transport on shore. Everybody will admit, that the hackery is no longer suited to the wants of the age. Considering its snail-like motion, the habits of the drivers, the clumsiness of construction, and the total inefficiency of the cattle by which drawn, it is clear that, where time is necessary the hackery is one of the most expensive modes of transporting goods. Besides, these hackeries are regular public nuisances, for being parently under no control of any public authority whatever, they cause formidable obstruction in the streets and thoroughfares; indeed we have often seen parts of Clive Street and of the Burra Bazar Road completely blocked up by them. The inconvenience and not unfrequent disappointment resulting from the breaking down of a hackery on its being stopped in its progress can only be fully understood by those engaged in the export trade. Unnecessary detention of ships—expense of demurrage,—and loss of opportunities of selling bills of exchange at a favourable rate have not unfrequently been the consequences of the dilatory progress of hackeries, whose drivers have not been taught yet, that "wind and tide wait for nobody".

It appears to us therefore that we have more than ordinary reason to follow the example set to us by most commercial towns of Europe and America, and to introduce a series of tramways through the most important thoroughfares of the commercial town, adapted for light house draught. The advantages of the tramways with vans suited for the transport of merchandise cannot admit of any doubt, whilst that independent of all other considerations they would admit of goods being conveyed at a cheaper rate than by hackeries, we are in a position to prove. Our readers are probably aware, that Government recently appointed a Committee to take into consideration the practicability of constructing a tramway adapted for the conveyance of passengers and parcels, and for connecting the proposed termini of the Eastern and Mutlibah Railway Companies at Sealdah with the Custom House. The Committee after a careful investigation of the subject have come to the conclusion, that by laying down a tramway through the entire length of Bow Bazar and Lall Bazar, passengers could be conveyed for the whole distance from Sealdah to the Calcutta Custom House at an average fare of nine pie, which, after allowing for working charges and
depreciation of stock, would yield a return of 38\% percent. on
the capital expended for its construction. The above rate is
less than one-half what native passengers now pay to karran-
chies. The Committee moreover very significantly add "assum-
ing the tramway as proposed to prove successful, we would
regard it only as the first link of a chain of similar lines that
could ultimately include all the main thoroughfares, of the city
for which such accommodation would be desirable, and we do
not ourselves doubt, that the same general principles which
have led us to recommend facilities for the transport, within
the city of passengers and parcels, will in time be recognised
as equally applicable to that of heavy merchandise." That time,
we conceive to have arrived, and the sooner the views of the
Committee are generally carried out, the better it will be for
the mercantile interests of this city. The growing political and
commercial importance of the British Metropolis in the East,
renders it necessary, that our efforts in effecting improvements
should not only be based upon the immediate requirements of
the enterprise, to which the growing influx of Europeans and
European capital must eventually lead.

Having thus explained the advantages that must accrue
from the construction of floating wharves, jetties and tramways,
we have to consider the manner in which these desirable im-
provements can be effected, and the management and control
under which they ought to be placed. It appears to us that
the former two fall within the legitimate duties of the conserv-
ator of the port of Calcutta, and could be best managed by
that officer. The scheme would be truly self-supporting for
considering the great saving of expense and or risk, which must
accrue to all parties, no objection would be raised against levy-
ing a moderate charge for the use of such wharves and jetties.
Our suggestion is, that whilst passengers and their luggage be
allowed to land free, merchandize of every description should be
subject to a small charge fixed by special tariff. Thus we should
derive revenue, a portion of which would be ; required for the
repairs, maintenance and establishments connected with the
undertaking, whilst the surplus might be applied towards the
repayment of the sums, which will have to be borrowed for
construction the works themselves.

We believe the Chamber of Commerce had some time ago
prepared an estimate of the cost which the indentical undertaking would involve. We ourselves have seen several other estimates for the like purpose, the heaviest of which amounted to five lakhs of Rupees,—a sum almost equal to what at present is expended for the hire of boats conveying goods and passengers between the shore and ships. The undertaking therefore, when completed, must undoubtedly pay, but whilst in the course of construction, will yield no return. But at the same time the interest on the money borrowed for the construction of the works must be paid, and we maintain, that such ought to be provided for out of the revenue derived from the one per cent. duty, which is levied for the avowed purpose of local improvements. Every class of inhabitants which contribute towards that revenue, has a right to expect that its requirements, as far as possible, will be taken into due consideration and we therefore hold, that the merchants of this city, who are compelled to disgorge a portion of their annual profits, are entitled to see the one per cent. duty at all events, which they have to pay, applied to purposes and facilities, of which the commerce of this city is so greatly in need.

With regard to tramways, we fully endorse the opinion of the Committee, above referred to, who in para. 14 of their report express themselves as follows: "In thus anticipating the growth of the system, we consider it very expedient that it should be placed under a management interested in the convenience of the community, and it appears to us that the general control of the executive and working of the scheme could best be entrusted to the Municipal Commissioners of the city, of whose present duties it seems to be a natural and legitimate extension. It appears to us inadvisable to introduce any separate or independent administration for the communications in the town, and we think that harmony and vigor would be best secured by the agency of officers, whose special duties connect them so closely with the progress of improvements generally in Calcutta." These arguments bear out our opinion about wharves and jetties being placed under the management and control of the Conservator of the port of Calcutta.

But the question of tramways gains considerable importance, if we consider that Chitpore is to be the great emporium of one, if not of two of the railways now in course of construc-
tion. The inconvenience to ships obliged to proceed so high up the river for the purpose of discharging and receiving their cargoes, will be considerable, whilst some doubts appear to exist as to the number of vessels that may be anchored there with safety, considering that the locality is so greatly exposed to the great tidal wave; now are we quite sure that it is accessible for large vessels at all seasons of the year. Under most favorable circumstances therefore the necessity of establishing a Branch Custom House at Chitpore will become indispensable, and this we look upon as opposed to the interests of the commercial community, whose object it must be to concentrate as near as practicable the export and import trade within the mercantile part of the town. The construction of a tramway along the Strand bank from Chitpore bridge to the Custom House can be no matter of difficulty, and it would be attended with the immense advantage of clearing the Strand from those numerous hay, straw, and timber depots which at present are allowed to there in defiance of the open danger to the inhabitants with their immediate vicinity.

As far as wet docks and warehouses are concerned, they must be left to private enterprise, but if the facilities we advocate be given to trade, we have no doubt that these useful appendages of commerce must soon spring forth into existence, especially if Government is disposed to hold out the least encouragement. The Strand bank, from the Mint to the Burra Bazer affords an admirable site for wet docks, and this, we submit, ought to be given at a moderate price to any company willing to engage in the undertaking, and prepared to carry it out. Warehouses will then follow as a matter of necessity, and Calcutta, with regard to the requirements of trade, will then be, what it ought to have been many years ago. Times have changed, and the requirements of trade must be met, or its tide is forced into another channel. Our true policy must be to work in anticipation of the demands of a growing commerce, and to provide those facilities, which give a new impetus to enterprise, and carry with them general prosperity.

Political

The Right Hon'ble James Wilson, in his memorable speech in the Legislative Council of India on the 18th of Feb-
ruary last, declared that it was the intention of Her Majesty's Indian Government, to encourage to the utmost extent European settlers in this country. Whatever the particular vocation be in which Europeans may be induced to come out to India, it is clear that the majority will consist of commercial men, and of these the Presidency will get a fair proportion. We have then before us a growing commerce, and an increasing influx of Europeans, and it behoves us to provide for the accommodation and requirements of both. In this city, (this is a matter of importance, which demands due consideration), Hotels are crowded; private lodging establishments are literally crammed; and although the rent of dwelling houses within the last three years has gone up by fully 30 per cent., no sooner is one empty than there are numbers of people ready to take it at almost fabulous rates of rent, especially since Government has proved a formidable competitor, many of the best houses in Chowringhee being hired for public offices. But this increase of rental has reference to every description of dwelling-house both in the European and the Native Division of the Town, thus affording an undeniable proof of the extraordinary demand that exists, and which can only be ascribed to an increase of population and expansion of trade.

With such facts before us, there can be no doubt that in order to afford accommodation for the growing requirements of trade, many of the dwelling-houses within the commercial part of the town, must be converted into mere offices and warehouses and that their occupants will be obliged to migrate. To provide for them, as well as for new-comers, new houses must be built, and an expansion of the town necessarily follow. This expansion is only practicable to the South and to the East of the City. The former presents some obstacles, owing to the presence of the old Mahomedan burial ground, which, for some unaccountable reason, is still allowed to remain an eyesore to the residents within its vicinity, and to the passers by. Then comes Ballygunge, where there is ample room for building sites, and which can be considerably improved in salubrity, if the jungle to the South East be cleared. There is also plenty of spare land for building purposes along Circular Road, but unfortunately the New Park Street burial ground extends along a portion of that main road, and
it is likely that people will build houses in its vicinity, as the chances of obtaining European tenants would be very doubtful. Sealdah and Entally, which are to be the termini of two Railways now in course of construction, will no doubt grow rapidly into towns, and in that direction therefore as well as Ballygunge, the expansion of the town is likely to take place. But in order to secure benefits to the residents it will be necessary to bring those localities under Municipal control, and in order to provide funds for the improvements that will have to be carried out, they ought to be brought within the jurisdiction of the Municipal Commissioners. Now is the time when Municipal control would be valuable, because wide and regular thoroughfares could now be laid out at a trifling cost, whereas, when houses are once built, such a measure would be as difficult as expensive. It is our policy to encourage European settlers, but we can only do so by taking measures which will provide for their accommodation.

The necessity of making timely arrangements for straight and wide roads will become more apparent, if we take a glance at the map of this Metropolis and its environs. It will be observed that with two important military stations, Barrackpore and Dum-Dum, to the North and North East, and with Fort William at the South West of the town, there is actually only one great military thoroughfare through the Northern Division of the towns. Only on this road exist open squares with large tanks; in no other part of the native town are any large squares. It is true there is Circular Road, but that is on the outskirt of the town, and cannot properly be called a thoroughfare. That portion of the Native Town which intervenes between Cornwallis Street and the river, extending over a length of three miles and of an average breadth of two miles, has, from Chitpore bridge to Lall Bazar, only one thoroughfare, viz. Chitpore Road, which in fact does not deserve the name of road; the rest is intersected by streets and lanes of various shapes and widths, and totally deficient in ventilation. Yet Chitpore Road is the street, which for the sake of trade as well as for political consideration ought to be widened into one of the largest thoroughfares of the town. The same reasons ought to lead to the opening of several squares in the same street. In the report of the Municipal Commissioners for the
past year a suggestion is made, by which the former object may partially be attained. The one per cent. duty on incomes might facilitate that object to a still greater extent, and surely it would be a legitimate appropriation of a portion of such duty towards an improvement, which would combine increased ventilation with facility to traffic, and at the same time realise a political object.

But the interests of political economy likewise necessitate a due consideration of those facilities required by trade, which we have pointed out. The difficulties and delays which constantly occur in landing and embarking troops, shipping or landing of Commissariat, Ordnance and general military stores, are chiefly attributable to the absence of the very identical facilities which the trade requires. The importance of this matter will be better understood, if it be considered that, during nine months out of twelve, exposure to the rain or sun benefits neither men nor goods, whilst the landing or shipping of both must be regulated by the state of tides. Moreover the expense, risk and loss of time at present incurred in landing and shipping troops and stores are in themselves strong reasons in favor of our recommendations. Floating wharves and jetties, we maintain, would prove an enormous saving to the state, of both time and money. How many lakhs of Rupees and how many lives might have been saved, if we had had such facilities in 1857 and 1858!

Another reason, which urges the adoption of such improvements on political grounds, is the fact, that within a short time we shall have a railroad with a station at Barrackpore, a branch line to Dum-Dum, and a tramway from the Sealdah terminus to the Custom House, so that whilst in a position to move regiments and ordnance within an hour from the above stations to the river side, we will require days to put them on board of vessels or steamer; and the same delay will take place in the disembarkation of men and in landing of stores. If in addition to this we give one moment's thought to past occurrences, when British soldiers were allowed to hover amidst the notorious grog shops of the town during the hottest hours of the day, it must become evident that the more expeditious the mode of moving regiments either arriving at, or
leaving this port, the greater will be the saving to the state in every respect.

Reviewing then all the improvements, which on sanitary, commercial and political considerations, appear to us to be absolutely required, and towards which the income derived from the one per cent. duty on personal incomes might justly be appropriated, we would recommend to the attention of Government the following more prominently:—

Ventilation of densely populated parts of the native town.
Construction of public squares in the Northern Division.
Opening of new and widening of existing thoroughfares in the native part of the town.
Diffused supply of water.
Quays, wharves and jetties; and
The opening of a great military road.

By the above improvements every class of inhabitants would benefit, and perhaps if people knew of the exact manner in which it was intended to appropriate the special one per cent. duty, less objection would be shown against its introduction. We have to apologize for the length to which these remarks have been spun out, but subject is one in which not only the residents of the Metropolis, but of every town in India, are deeply interested; and we trust therefore that all will co-operate by pointing out to Government the particular requirements of their respective towns, for which the local Municipal income is not sufficient, and towards which the one per cent. duty on incomes might fairly and justly be appropriated.

_Calcutta Review._ 34,68; 1860.
THE CITY OF CALCUTTA
AND
ITS MUNICIPAL CONSTITUTION

The History of the origin, growth and municipal constitution of every city must afford matter for interesting and profitable study, not only to its own citizens, but to those of other cities also. It must be interesting, because the records of progress, whether moral, material or intellectual, are of the greatest value to all earnest students of history; and it must be profitable on account of the practical lessons which thoughtful and intelligent minds may deduce from its pages. The history of Calcutta, the Metropolis, as well as the chief Emporium of Trade of the British Empire in the East, in view of the fact that in less than two centuries this city has risen to its present eminence from absolute insignificance, is one of the most remarkable on record.

A brief review of the circumstances, under which the city of Calcutta was founded and gradually rose to its present position may not be here out of place. On the site of the present town, there were originally only there villages, Calcutta, Gibindpore, and Sootalooey.* The first is supposed to have been situated somewhere near the present Custom House, the second on the southern glacies of the Fort, and the third a little beyond the Mint. The last-named of the three villages, it is believed, was the point at which the very first local British settlement was made, in the year 1686, by Governor Job Charnock, who, at that time, withdrew the English Factory from Hooghly and transferred it to Sootalooey. About ten or twelve years later, these villages were purchased by the English under the permission of the Nawab of the Province, to whom the annual tribute hitherto paid by them, was continued. In the year 1717 the jurisdiction and influence of the British began to extend, and they were about that time empowered to purchase thirty-eight other towns and villages, along both banks of the River.

* Alias Sootanutti and sometimes Chuttanuti.
Hooghly. But British rule and influence had yet to undergo a fiery trial before they were firmly established. In the year 1756 was enacted the memorable tragedy of the Black-Hole, when Calcutta was captured from the English by Suraj-ud-Dowlah. Its fate, for some time trembled in the balance, but Clive promptly avenged the insult and the temporary injury done to British interests, and from the time of the re-capture of Calcutta, and the subsequent battle of Plassey, English supremacy was again in the ascendant, and the prosperity of the new capital assured. Municipal and other local improvements began to be inaugurated and continued rapidly to develop, until at the present day, Calcutta may claim to take rank with the first cities in the world. The area of the city, inclusive of the Fort and the Esplanade, is about 15,000 bighas, equivalent to nearly 5,037 acres. But if the Suburban limits of the town, including Howrah, were taken into account, both the area and the population would probably be more than doubled. It is difficult to determine with precision how much ground was actually covered by the first local English settlement. But the portion which belonged to the Hon'ble the East India Company, a hundred years ago, seems to have been less than half the area of the town at the present day. According to the census of 1876 the population was estimated at 429,535 souls. subdivided according to nationalities as in the following statement, in juxtaposition with which, for the purpose of comparison, we place the returns of the census of 1850:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Census of 1876</th>
<th>Census of 1850</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hindoos</td>
<td>278,224</td>
<td>274,506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahomedans</td>
<td>123,556</td>
<td>111,170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christians</td>
<td>23,885</td>
<td>13,086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3,870</td>
<td>16,301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>429,535</strong></td>
<td><strong>415,063</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In an analysis of the race-relations of the local population, Mr. Beverley states that in regard to race, the inhabitants have been arranged in three great classes: Non-Asiatics, Mixed Races, and Asiatics. The Asiatics naturally compose 95 per cent. of the total population; the Mixed Races are nearly 3
per cent. and Non-Asiatics 2 per cent. Of the Non-Asiatics 9,003 are Europeans, 177 Americans, 56 Africans (chiefly from Zanzibar or Mauritius) and Australasians. Of the Europeans, 7,832 are British; 370 French; 216 Germans; 110 Greeks; other Continental nations being represented by smaller numbers. Of Spaniards and Portuguese, only those who were born out of India have been classed as Europeans, the rest being included under mixed races, as Indo-Portuguese. The mixed races number 11,373, including 707 Indo-Portuguese. The census returns of 1876, compared with those of 1850, shew an increase of hardly 15,000 souls after the lapse of a quarter of a century. Intermediately, two other censuses were taken, one in 1866 and the other in 1872. Of the latter, Mr. Beverley, however, remarks, that “for all practical purposes the census of 1872 was absolutely useless, and might as well never have been taken.”

The earliest record of the population is that of 1,710 when it was approximately estimated at from 10 to 12,000 souls. From that time up to the taking of the first census, various estimates have been hazarded, but they are all apparently more or less conjectural and are consequently unreliable.

A glance at the general character of the dwelling houses, as well as the more important public and other buildings, helps us to form some conception of the material progress and prosperity of cities. Thornton writing of the number of residences in Calcutta in 1850, remarks that they amounted “to 62,565, consisting of 5,950, one storeyed houses, 6,438 of two-storeys, 721 of three, 10 of four and 1 of five-storeys and 49,445 huts.” Mr. Beverley’s returns, a quarter of a century later, show what progress has been made. He says that “of the pucka houses 7,037 are one-storeyed; 8,636, two-storeyed; 1,187 three-storeyed; 34 four-storeyed; and 2 five-storeyed.” That a very decided progress has been made in this direction, will be seen from a comparison of the foregoing returns. The houses, even in the most fashionable quarters, have generally but little pretension to architectural beauty, and it is therefore difficult to conceive how the appellation of ‘City of Palaces’ came to be conferred on the town. Some of the principal public buildings, however, may perhaps compare not unfavourably with those of other leading cities. Among the most important may be enumerated the palatial residence of the Viceroy of India. This build-
ing was erected in 1804, by the Marquis Wellesley, at a cost of 13 lakhs of rupees, or about £130,000; and probably as much, if not a larger sum of money, has since been expended in improving it. The other public buildings which call for special mention, are the new Imperial Museum; the High and Small cause Courts; the Post and Telegraph Office; the Town and Metcalfe Halls; the Medical College and the Municipal Market. To the curious in such matters it will be interesting to compare the progress of the city by collating the maps and plans of the town which have been published from time to time and are now extant. A plan of Calcutta, prepared in 1756, shows only seventy houses in the entire town; the site of the present fort was at that time a jungle, and the ground now occupied by the fashionable and imposing line of buildings along Chowringhee Road, was then covered with bamboo bush jungle, or paddy field swamps. A plan published thirty years later shows only four houses south of Park Street. The total number of brick built houses alone at the last census (1876) was estimated at 16,896.

The present municipal constitution of Calcutta passed through the usual preliminary phases and conditions of an embryonic existence. To trace its growth from infancy upwards, would be interesting; but to deal with the subject exhaustively, would be impossible in a short paper like this. Something may, however, be done, even within these limits, to elucidate the past history of local municipal institutions, and to place before the public at least its salient and most important features.

About the year 1794, the necessity for framing some kind of a municipal constitution seems to have been recognized for the first time, and an Act of Parliament was then passed, empowering the Governor-General in Council to raise a municipal fund, and to appoint Justices of the Peace. But whether anything further than the passing of this Act was done, is not clear. In 1803, however, the first Municipal Board of which there appears to be any record, was erected by a Resolution, dated 16th June of that year, by Lord Wellesley, who was then Governor-General. Thirty members were appointed to carry out the provisions of this Resolution, which purported to provide for "the health, safety, and convenience
of the inhabitants." A few years later, another body, termed the Lottery Committee, was appointed and charged with the specific duty of raising funds which were to be spent on the improvement of the town. Owing to the exertions of this Committee large sums were annually raised by public lotteries. Among other works, the Town Hall, it is said, was "entirely constructed out of the proceeds of such lotteries". In the first year of the inauguration of these lotteries, the sum of Rs. 5,00,000 was raised by the issue of 5,000 tickets of Rs. 1,000 each. Of this number, 4,000 tickets were blanks and 1,000 were prizes. However, in the year 1833, a reactionary tide of feeling against the propriety of raising money by public lotteries seems to have set in, and in that year the Chief Magistrate of Calcutta suggested to Government a scheme for a representative Municipal Board. The great Reform Act had been passed in England the year before, and it is more than probable that its influence was beginning to be felt in India, and suggested the desire for some radical reforms in the Municipal constitution of the Capital. But it was not till 1840 that any practical attempt was made to establish a definite form of Municipal Government, and it was only then that the first local Municipal Act was passed, to regulate the lighting, watering, and cleaning of streets and drains. Subsequently, various other Acts were framed, and the constitution of the Municipality, as well as the laws which governed it, gradually underwent change, until in 1856 the entire management and control of the municipal affairs of the city were vested in a new Board, composed only of three stipendiary members, who were designated Municipal Commissioners. That these gentlemen accomplished a great deal for the material advancement and progress of the town, will be admitted. But it fell to their successors to develop and to perfect many schemes which probably had been suggested, if not already anticipated, by this local triumvirate. After the lapse of seven years from their appointment, that is, in the year 1863 further changes were effected, and a new Municipal Act was passed, creating a public body corporate, composed of all the Justices of the Peace for the town, as well as all other Justices of the Peace for Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, who might be resident in Calcutta. The number of members then composing the Corporation of this
city, was over one hundred and fifty, or more than double that of the present Corporation. After the existence of nearly a decade and a half, and after, on the whole, a most useful career, they gave place to the Corporation as now constituted. In 1876, the whole Municipal Law was revised and consolidated into a single Act with effect from the 1st of July of that year; and this was followed on the 1st of September by the creation of a new Corporation, whose personnel has, however, recently been changed, as the members hold office only for three years at a time.

Without attempting to follow, step by step, the history of local municipal legislation, through all its stages of incubation and improvement, it will be edifying to notice the general scope and tendency of the law of the present day, and to point out some peculiarities and anomalies which suggest themselves on reflection, and which, under some future legislative revision of Act, it may be possible to remedy. A general idea of the present state of Municipal law may be gleaned from the opening pages of the published report of the Calcutta Municipal Corporation for 1877. The writer of the Report says:—

"In many respects Act IV(B.C.) of 1876 has introduced no material change in the modus operandi of the Municipality, but there are some important exceptions. As under the old law, so under the new law the executive staff remains unaltered. As before, so now, it consists of Chairman, Vice-Chairman; Secretary, Engineer, Health Officer, Collector, Assessor, &c. As before, so now, certain matters are required to be laid before the Commissioners in meeting, and the Chairman is vested with the powers of the Commissioners in other matters which he can, and does, dispose of, without reference to them. As before, so now, the Chairman is appointed and is removable by Government. But under the old law the appointment and allowances of Secretary, Engineer, Health Officer, Collector and Assessor were left to the discretion of the Justices, whereas, under the new law the resolutions of the Justices, whereas, under the new law the resolutions of the Commissioners in these matters are subject to the approval of the local Government. Under the old law the Justices were competent to expend the Municipal revenue on any object coming within the scope of the Municipal Act without any interference from
Government, that is to say, they could make any grant for any municipal object at their discretion, with this limitation, that no work or series of works which exceeded Rs. 50,000 should be undertaken by them without the sanction of Government. The same limitation is retained under the new law. But further restrictions have been placed upon the Commissioners. They precluded from altering or amending the Police Budget; they are required to spend annually a sum of not less than rupees one lakh and a half for the extension of drainage, and to make adequate and suitable provision for the conservancy of the town. If it should appear to the local Government that the Commissioners have failed to make adequate and suitable provision for the cleaning and conservancy of the town, to an extent likely to be prejudicial to the health of the inhabitants of the town or of any part thereof, the local Government may appoint a commission of enquiry; and on the report of such commission, may order further provision to be made for conservancy, and, should the Commissioners decline to carry out the recommendations made, the local Government may require the Chairman to carry out the orders of Government, notwithstanding any powers conferred upon the Commissioners under the Act. It will be thus seen that the new law, although it introduced a partial elective system in the Constitution of the Corporation, has materially circumscribed the powers of the Commissioners. The local Government has more direct power over the proceedings of the Corporation, than it had before. Should the Commissioners fail in the discharge of the duties imposed upon them by the law, and should their neglect prove prejudicial to the health of the inhabitants of the town, it would be always open to the local Government to intervene and exercise the powers vested in it by section 28 of Act IV of 1876."

In order, more conveniently, to review its leading features, the Act may be divided under the following general heads, although these divisions are not in strict accordance with the arrangement of the text or the regular sequence of its clauses and sections. The principal heads, then, are as follows:

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I. The constitution, functions, and powers of the Corporation and of its officers.

II. The imposition and levying of municipal rates.

III. The provision of water-supply, improvement of buildings, streets and drains, and their conservancy.

IV. Sanitation.

The Municipal Corporation of the city of Calcutta, as now constituted, is created chiefly by election, by the suffrages of those citizens who are qualified under the municipal franchise, and partly by selection by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. Excluding the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman, it is composed of seventy-two members, of whom two-thirds, or forty-eight, are elected by the rate-payers, and one-third, or twenty-four, are appointed by the local Government. As already stated, the powers of the Commissioners have been circumscribed, perhaps wisely. While the elective principle was still experimental, and its ultimate success unassured, there was prima facie good reason for such a course. But when once the principle has been fairly established, there can be no reason why these powers should not be considerably amplified.

A word or two on the supreme control which the local Government reserves to itself, through the Chairman of the Corporation, over the municipal affairs of the city, appears to be called for. The Chairman is selected and appointed by the Government, and may be looked upon as its representative and the custodian of Government interests. But there appears to be a pretty general feeling abroad, chiefly in non-official circles, that not only the chief officers, but the President of the Corporation should be elected by the Corporation. Possibly local municipal institutions are not yet ripe for such a change, and naturally the Government, which considers itself primarily responsible for the heavy financial liabilities of the city, cannot be altogether indifferent to the exercise of some kind of a general control over these matters.

The duties of the Corporation are multifarious. Its chief business is to provide by taxation the funds requisite for the maintenance of a local police, for the extension and ultimate completion of the underground drainage and the provision of
a suitable supply of water, and for the conservancy of the town. The Corporation is required under the law to hold, for the transaction of its public business, at least sixteen meetings every year four quarterly and twelve monthly, besides other special, or special general meetings, as may be necessary. At the last quarterly meeting of each year, held in October, the Chairman lays before the Commissioners for sanction the budget of estimated income and expenditure for the ensuing year. At the passing of such budget the various rates for the year are fixed:—A house-rate not exceeding 10 per cent., a water-rate not exceeding 6 per cent, for houses situated in streets supplied with filtered water, and 5 per cent. for houses situated near such streets; a police-rate not exceeding 3 per cent. and lighting-rate not exceeding 2½ per cent. The house and drainage rates are paid by house-owners (landlords), who are also bound to contribute of fourth share of the water-rate, of which the remaining three-fourths, besides the police and lighting rates, are paid by house-occupiers (tenants). In addition to the foregoing rates, there are taxes for keeping carriages and horses in the town, as well as for various conservancy requirements and other municipal wants. The general incidence of taxation, as represented by owners' and occupiers' rates does not seem to be fairly and equitably apportioned between the two classes, as will be seen from the following comparative statement:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maximum Rates payable by House-owners</th>
<th>Maximum Rates payable by House-occupiers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>House rate 10 per centum</td>
<td>Lighting rate 2 per centum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drainage rate 2½ do.</td>
<td>Police 3 do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>water rate (¼th) 1½ do.</td>
<td>Water (⅛ths) 4½ do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total 14 do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total 9½ do</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus is will be observed that while house-owners may have to contribute an aggregate of 14 per cent, house-occupiers are not required to pay more than 9½ per cent. From the Annual
Report of the Calcutta Municipality for 1877 it appears that:—
"The house-rate has been the main stay of the General Fund, and whenever there has been a strain upon it, that rate has been raised to the Maximum;" and, again:— "the expenditure of the Municipality has lately exceeded its General Budget income and the General Fund has been, both by the practice of the office and by the wording of the Act, so heavily handicapped as to put in a very sorry appearance at the grand annual audit of accounts. The whole burden of stores, advances, payment of invoices, profit and loss, and unforeseen miscellaneous expenditure of every kind is debited against the General Fund which is bankrupt, while the Water, Lighting and Police rate Funds are solvent." To understand more clearly the character of the General Fund, the sources of its income and the objects of its expenditure, an inspection of the following general statement will be useful:—

**GENERAL FUND**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Rs. as. P. Expenditure</th>
<th>Rs. as. P.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>House-rate</td>
<td>857724. 1.7 Interest &amp;</td>
<td>422139. 9. 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sinking Fund</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Licenses</td>
<td>254226.15.1 Establishment</td>
<td>204134. 7. 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carriage &amp;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse tax</td>
<td>113768.10.9 Road Repairs</td>
<td>342279. 2. 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carts</td>
<td>68745. 6.8 Conservancy</td>
<td>196692.11. 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>427269. 3.7 Miscellaneous</td>
<td>496594.13.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total            | 1721734. 4.8 Total     | 1661333. 6.0 |

From these figures, which are for the year 1877, it will be seen that during that year the House-rate, although imposed at only 7 per cent., yielded more than half the entire revenue in the General Fund; and during the current year, with this rate fixed at the maximum of 10 per cent., the receipts will amount upwards of 12 lakhs of rupees, and will probably represent even more than two-thirds of this branch of the revenue, or two-fifths of the gross revenue of the city. The aggregate
taxation for the current year is 18 per centum and is apportioned as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Host-owners</th>
<th>House-occupiers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>House-rate</td>
<td>10 per centum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water-rate</td>
<td>0.94 do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10.94</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above it will be seen that, while house-owners contribute 11 per cent. of these taxes, house-occupiers are required to provide only 7 per cent.

The total revenue of the city during the year 1877 was more than twenty-eight lakhs of rupees or about £280,000. In the General Fund, as already shewn, the receipts amounted to about 17½ lakhs of rupees, and to this should be added about 10 lakhs of rupees, on account of the police, water, and lighting rates, to obtain the gross annual municipal revenue. Although this amount seems to be a considerable one to raise by taxation, it is hardly sufficient to meet all the pressing financial requirements of the city. First and foremost, there are the periodical payments on account of the funded debt of the city, which already exceeds one hundred and fifty lakhs of rupees, or about £1,500,000, and to which additions are being steadily made year by year. The question of the reduction of the present heavy financial liabilities of the city has naturally been the subject of much anxious consideration in many quarters, and at the present time it is believed, a scheme is being matured by the local and Imperial Governments, by which it is intended to consolidate the Government portion of the debt, amounting to very nearly two-thirds, or about one crore of rupees, and to liquidate this amount in thirty years by half-yearly payments of about two-and-a-quarter lakhs of rupees. If this scheme can be carried out, as there is every reason to suppose it will, a great boon will be conferred on the rate-paying community, and taxation and expenditure may, pari-passu, be correspondingly reduced.

The annexed extract conveys a fair idea of the financial
position of the city: "The Municipality has incurred loans to the extent of Rs. 1,50,55,935 to the end of 1877, viz., Rs. 5,499,600 from the public at 6 per cent. interest, Rs. 52,000,000 from the Secretary of State for India for water-works at 4 per cent. interest, and Rs. 43,56,335 from Government for drainage, markets &c., at 4½ per cent. interest. The total interest the Municipality has to pay every year is Rs. 7,34,011, viz., Rs. 3,29,976 on loans from the public, Rs. 208,000 on loans of 52 lakhs from the Secretary of State and Rs. 1,96,035 from Government for drainage, markets, &c. Besides these sums the Municipality has to pay every year Rs. 3,000,344 towards liquidation of loans, viz., Rs. 1,10,000 for loans from the public, Rs. 1,04,000 for the loans of 52 lakhs and Rs. 86,344 for drainage, markets, &c. This latter payment will increase every half-year, but there will be a corresponding decrease in payment of interest."*

Thus it appears that the annual liability on account of interest and sinking fund contributions at the end of the year 1877 amounted to no less than Rs. 10,34,355. In other words, more than two-fifths of the gross revenue is annually appropriated to meet charges which it is possible, by well devised schemes, to extinguish in the course of a few years, with the result of very materially reducing the burden of local municipal taxation, and thus affording substantial relief to the rate-paying community. That the financial liabilities of the city have attained such vast proportions, and are still increasing year by year is matter for the gravest anxiety and calls for the application of thorough remedial measures. The scheme proposed, and now under the consideration of Government, deals only with two-thirds of the standing debt; but an auxiliary scheme may also with advantage be simultaneously provided, to embrace the remaining portion of the funded debt of the city. The imposition of every additional one per centum of taxation is said to yield an increase of municipal revenue to the extent of Rs. 125,000. The rates paid by house-owners and house-occupiers, if levied at the maximum, would just amount to 21 per cent.; that is to say, three per cent. more than the aggregate rates during the current year. A further increase of revenue of Rs. 375,000 per annum would thus be obtained,

and the present hardship of increased taxation would be more than compensated by the very material and substantial reduction of taxation which would necessarily result in the future. Under the existing law, unexpended balances of the other funds cannot be appropriated to meet the charges on account of interest or sinking fund. But this disability might, if necessary, be removed by the Legislature by a short Act, based on the principle that all unexpended balances of the water-rate fund, for instance, might be diverted legitimately and equitably towards the liquidation of the debt incurred for the cost of the construction of water works, and so on with the other funds, which might similarly be placed under contribution for the liquidation of the debts incurred on their respective accounts, instead of throwing the whole burden of debt on the general fund, in other words, on house-owners only. The immense prospective advantages to be gained by the final extinction of the entire debt of the city, the reduction of expenditure and the abatement of taxation, with consequent relief to the local rate-payer, are considerations which make the question one of vital importance, to be looked at and dealt with not so much in view of present convenience as of future and permanent benefit.

The Municipal law further requires that suitable provision should be made by the Commissioners for the supply of water and other municipal improvements as regards buildings, streets, and drains. But closely connected with the existing state of the financial liabilities of this city is the cost of the extension of present water-supply, which is now under consideration, and which, according to the estimates submitted, is likely to add from fifty to sixty lakhs of rupees to the present financial burdens of the Municipality. It is to be hoped, desirable as this project is, that the scheme will be thoroughly considered in all its financial bearings also. If any further debt is to be incurred, taxation must be correspondingly raised to meet the additional strain. Any scheme, therefore, however well conceived or elaborated, for the extinction of the present liabilities of the city, would be endangered, if not rendered nugatory, by further heavy loan operations, which would not be justifiable except on the ground of the most dire necessity.

The existing water-supply will compare favourably in
quality with that of most other cities. It is said in the official
reports to be "far purer" than some samples of London water
with which analytical comparisons had been made. But London
water is notoriously bad. At the close of the year 1876 it was
reported that there were 112 1/2 miles of filtered water ducts, or
pipes, and 26 miles of unfiltered water pipes in the city. The
daily local consumption of filtered water is over 6 1/2 millions of
gallons, allowing an average of about 14 gallons per head.
The debt on account of the water-supply works amounts to
Rs. 57,56,000 or £575,600.

The system of underground drainage has been consider-
ably expanded. At the end of the year 1876 it was reported: —
"Of the total estimated cost of the drainage works amounting
to about 89 lakhs of rupees, about 74 lakhs have been ex-
pended. Of the 40.17 miles of brick sewers provided for,
39.21 miles have been completed, and of the 135.17 miles of
pipe sewers, 47.34 miles have been completed. There remain,
therefore, yet to be constructed 0.96* miles of brick and 87.84
miles of pipe sewers". Thus it will be seen that, at least, fifteen
lakhs of rupees are still required to complete the drainage
scheme, besides a similar sum for the completion of the town
sewage, and as the money required will have to be borrowed
from time to time, the standing municipal debt must also
be proportionately increased. There appears to be consider-
able difference of opinion even among sanitary authorities, on
the subject of the utility of underground drainage, but in a
brief review like this, it is hardly possible to consider all the
arguments for and against, the system. That it has its advan-
tag es as well as its disadvantages, no one can deny, and all
things considered the former appear to preponderate in favour
of the system when properly applied to large cities. The dis-
advantages, however, may be reduced to a minimum with pro-
per gradients and a convenient outfall to sewerage. It is not
every city which, situated like Edinburgh for example, on an
elevation, can always secure the best possible conditions as
regards gradients, but Engineering science can doubtless
reduce such natural difficulties. Closely connected with every
scheme of drainage is that of cess-pools and open drains, which,

however, will be more particularly noticed under the subject of sanitation.

The aggregate length of roads in the city in 1876 was said to be 132 miles and the cost of their repairs that year was Rs. 3,20,380, which may be considered the annual average cost. This seems a large expenditure, and ought, if judiciously laid out, to keep the roads in better state than they are often to be found in. Then, again, in addition to the above sum, there is disbursed annually about a lakh and a half of rupees for the scavenging of streets and drains and the maintenance of sewers. These charges are debited under the general head of conservancy. In connection with local road-ways, it is worthy of mention, that a system of tramways is about to be introduced throughout the city, along some of the most important thoroughfares. As the scheme will be developed with private capital and enterprise, it may reasonably be expected to prove more successful than that which, under the auspices of the local Municipal authorities, a few years ago proved such a miserable failure. When the scheme is in complete working order it will doubtless be a real boon to the public.

The illumination of the city with gas has recently been considerably extended, and many portions of the town which for years previously had to put up with the primitive oil lamps that only "served to make darkness visible", now blaze out in all the glory of gas. But the fate of gas is sealed, as electricity, being a much more powerful illuminant, and probably also more economical, is certain to become the light of the future. Till the end of the present century, however, electric lighting cannot be introduced into the Calcutta Municipality, as the contract with the Gas Company does not expire till then. The number of gas lamps at the end of the year 1877 was 2,794. But during the last and present years this number has been considerably increased, including the total illumination of the Esplanade with gas, the cost of which is not, however, borne by the local Municipality, as the Esplanade, or maidan, as it is commonly termed, is outside the municipal jurisdiction.

The last and most important consideration in connexion with civil interests and wants is that of the public health of the inhabitants of cities. A city which is all that can be desired from an aesthetic point of view adorned with handsome
public buildings and other works of art; laid out with beautifully designed gardens, squares and parks and magnificently illuminated by night, may, notwithstanding all these advantages, owing to defective sanitation and the neglect of ordinary sanitary measures and precautions, be a veritable charnel-house. The sanitary condition of Calcutta has engaged public attention, and been the subject of much anxious consideration, from the beginning of the present century and even earlier. In a comprehensive article on the subject, the question was dealt with at some length in the pages of the Calcutta Review more than thirty years ago. A valuable report, entitled the "Medical Topography of Calcutta," was prepared at that time and printed, under the orders of Government, by Doctor (afterwards Sir) J. R. Martin. That gentleman, in his report, assigns many causes for the unhealthiness of the city, especially of the native portions. As these reasons, in the main, hold true, even at the present time, they may, with much advantage, be still studied, and are therefore reproduced here:

1. The overcrowded population, the crowded and ill-ventilated state of the houses; the great number of decayed habitations,

2. Their ill-construction and being built on the ground instead of being raised off it, as habitations ought always to be, in countries subject to inundation, like Bengal.

3. The close, narrow and ill-ventilated state of the streets, their want of water-courses and pavements; their dustiness and general want of cleanliness; their want of proper direction, in reference to prevailing winds.

4. The imperfection of drainage and sewerage; this is a great source of unhealthiness.

5. The deficiency of good tanks and the general want of a supply of good water; the number of decayed and half-dried tanks, affording unwholesome water and yielding noxious exhalations.


7. Neglected and ill-arranged condition of public tatties (latrines).
8. Bad state of the native burying grounds and their vicinity to the town.

9. The very neglected state of all surrounding suburbs. The number of salines and marshes.

10. The construction of canals, and the heaping of their banks, so as to prevent the drainage eastward, along the natural inclination of the soil.

11. The vicinity or rice cultivation.

12. The quantity of low jungle trees, obstructing ventilation, and the great extent of irregularity of ground admitting of the lodgment of impure water, &c., giving off natural exhalation. These are chiefly to be found in the suburbs.


14. The institution of caste is of itself an enormous injury to public health, because prejudicial to public happiness.

15. The sedentary and indolent habits of the natives; their irregular hours of rest; their long fasts their improvidence and common practice of borrowing; their exposure and irregularities at fairs and festivals of religion.

16. Their defective diet, bedding, clothing and fuel in medicine and surgery.

17. The knavery and ignorance of the native practitioner

18. The misuse of the cold, both under circumstances of impaired health, and especially during the cold season.


20. The want of hospitals.

21. Defective education and physical management of children.*

Such, then is an abstract of the causes, active and latent, which were considered to influence the public health more than a quarter of a century ago, and which, to a great extent, more especially in the suburbs, still exercise some influence over it. Again, it will be interesting to compare the present sanitary condition of the town with its condition at the time Dr. Martin wrote his report. This is what he said:—“Whoever has visited the native part of the town before sun-rise, with its narrow lanes and rankest compounds of villainous smells that ever offended nostril, will require no argument in favour of widening

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the streets, so as to effect the two greatest improvements of all, as respects the salubrity of the city, free exposure to the sun, to rarefy and elevate the vapours, and to the winds, to dilute them, ruined houses, choked with weeds,—the asylums of dying and the sepulchres of dead ones—are to be seen packed in between crowded dwellings, full of little, low rooms without any apertures but such as open upon confined, filthy quadrangles. The inhabitants of these habitations are too much accustomed to bad smells to hasten the removal from their premises of any matter that is in a state of decomposition. Ground is too valuable to be spared for gardens, and, therefore, almost every inch is built upon. The streets and lanes of the roads are covered with filth, dust, mud or offal; and periodically coolies come round as scavengers, to stir up rather than remove the accumulated mess in the kennels, and to send up into the surrounding houses, fresh loaded pestiferous air to be pent up there in so many dungeons.”*

This very deplorable state of things existed thirty or forty years ago throughout the city, but is now to be found only in portions of the town, and, more particularly, of some parts of the suburbs. But the position of Calcutta in respect of its sanitary defects and wants, it must in justice be admitted, has not been more remarkable than that of many other great cities. For instance, of some parts of London. The following account extracted from a report made a few years ago, by Dr. Letheby, to the Commissioners of sewers of that city, will give some idea of the difficulties of sanitation even in the metropolis of the world:—“I have been at much pains” reports Dr. Letheby “during the last three months to ascertain the precise conditions of the dwellings, the habits and the diseases of the poor. In this way, 2,208 rooms have been most circumstantially inspected, and the general result is that nearly all of them are filthy, or overcrowded, or out of repair.”** So close and unwholesome is the atmosphere of these rooms”, &c.

Now this condition of affair exists doubtles, more or less, in every large city and town. But this very essential and

** Calcutta Gazette, December 2nd 1875. p. 1496.
important difference should be clearly borne in mind, that the circumstances and conditions under which such a state of things has been generated, and may even, to some extent, be neglected with impunity, are not the same all the world over. In cold countries the danger of the neglect of sanitary measures cannot be of such vital importance as in warm countries, in which the deleterious effects of a tropical climate are more sudden in their operation and far more subtle and dangerous. That there is still great need for local sanitary improvement, a recent report of the Health Officer of this city seems to more than prove. He reports that it "is impossible to conceive a more perfect combination of all the evils of crowded city-life, with primitive filthiness and disorder, than is presented in the native portion of Calcutta. Dirt, in the most intense and noxious forms that a dense population can produce, covers the ground, saturates the water, infects the air, and finds in the habits and incidents of the people's lives, every possible facility for re-entering their bodies, while ventilation could not be more shunned in their houses, than it is, if the climate were arctic, instead of tropical."

Local sanitary reforms seem to be chiefly, and most urgently required in the direction of native bustee-improvement. Bustees are blocks of huts, or hovels, situated within the city, and occupied by the poorest classes of natives. They are the analogies of rural villages and are totally wanting in the usual requirements and decencies of ordinary conservancy. The inconveniences and dangers arising from imperfect sanitation, in connection with small and isolated groups of huts, situated in open localities, may be neutralised, to a great extent, by the currents of fresh air which carry away with them into the open surrounding country much of the noxious and pestiferous exhalations from the filth and other impurities inseparably connected with them. But, situated in the very heart of a crowded and ill-ventilated city, they become the fruitful source of epidemic disease and death, and are the very centres from which they radiate. Therefore, it is matter of vital importance with every intelligent and responsible governing body, charged with

* Administrative Report, Calcutta Municipality, 1876, p. 2.
the conservation of the public health, to adopt the most satisfactory sanitary measures possible. That frequently there are difficulties in the way, is true; but it is also true that these difficulties are not insuperable. If those members of the local Corporation who recognise the importance of the vital question of sanitation, were only from time to time to agitate the subject in some practical form, the aggregate result at the end of each year would be considerable. But what, it may be asked, are the sanitary measures which require special attention? The fundamental principles are very briefly and clearly indicated in a recent resolution of the Government of India which it may perhaps be as well to reproduce here:—"In the larger cities and towns in India, employing their own Engineers and Officers of Health, the foundation of sanitary improvement must be laid in works of domestic sewerage and drainage, in water-supply brought from a distance, in surface levelling, paving, and cleansing, and in surface drainage. These together with opening up new thoroughfares, tree planting and improved house construction, where sufficient funds are available, will improve the general health and mitigate or prevent outbreaks of epidemic disease in all the larger groups of population. They are not only the most effectual measures which can be adopted for these objects, but for large, dense populations, they are in the end the cheapest."*

One of the most important factors in every perfect sanitary scheme must be a system of suitable and adequate drainage. Whether underground drainage accomplishes all that is claimed for it, or expected from it, is one of those indeterminate problems, still in the region of theory. But it is probable that in tropical climates it is preferable to open drains and cesspools, which are certain to become most intolerable and dangerous nuisances.

It may be instructive to glance for a moment, at the condition of London in this respect hardly a quarter of a century ago, before the existing system of underground sewers in that city had been expanded to its present proportions. "Dr. Southwood Smith has made the public aware that the low and filthy dis-

* Calcutta Gazette. 20th August 1879, p. 927.
tricts of London are the sources of fatal and wide-spread ing fevers. The city sewers extend to about 15 miles, but form only a small portion of the whole metropolitan drainage, the extent of which cannot be ascertained. There is scarcely a house without a cess-pool under it; and a large number have two, three, four, and more under them, so that the number of such receptacles in the metropolis may be taken at 300,000. The exposed surface of each cess-pool measures, on an average, 9 feet, and the mean depth of the whole is about 6½ feet, so that each contains 58½ cubic feet of fermenting filth of the most poisonous, noisome and disgusting nature. The cesspool, however, in general, forms but one-fourth of the evaporating surface: the house-drain forms half or two-fourths, and the sewer one; but, connected as the sewers and house-drains naturally are, and acted upon by the winds and barometric conditions, the miasma from the house-drains and sewers of one district may be carried up to another.*

The Public Health Act, passed a few years ago, has altered very materially the above condition of things in London; but the picture presented is still more or less true of the extensive suburbs of that metropolis, and serves to shew to what extent serious neglect of the most ordinary sanitary measures is likely to prove prejudicial to the public health. That there is room for considerable improvement in this direction even in some portions of this city of palaces, the following extract from a recent report of the Calcutta Municipal Corporation will sufficiently show:—"The open ditches, being, as a rule, without a hard floor, and having little or no fall, are scarcely more than elongated cess-pools, and will continue to be the most objectionable of all conservancy arrangements until filled up and superseded by underground sewers."**

The outfall of the local underground sewers is in the Salt Water Lakes to the East of this city; but a small portion of the local sewerage, viz., that from Fort William, is discharged into the River Hooghly. This has been repeatedly noticed in official

** Administration Report, Calcutta Municipality for 1876 p. 42.
and other quarters, as the primary cause of the sickness in
the port of Calcutta, particularly among the crews of the ships
moored near the neighbourhood of this outfall. The pollution
of rivers in England, especially of the Thames, has attracted
much public attention there, and should convey a warning
to the sanitary authorities in this country. The accident
to the “Princess Alice” is still fresh in the public memory,
when an English Weekly Journal, under the sensational heading
‘Drowned or Poisoned’, charged the Metropolitan Board of
Works with having murdered 600 or 700 people by poisoning
them with sewage. How serious the evil of river pollution has
become in Great Britain, not only from sewerage, but from
other causes, one more extract will serve to illustrate:— “The
ordinary sewage of towns is not, however, the most noxious
matter that enters our rivers. The refuse of manufactories of
all kinds, of dye works, of paper works, and of distilleries has
produced in many of our useful streams a fearful amount of
pollution. The stench from the Clyde at Glasgow produces
sickness. A clergyman who lives near St. Helens, says that the
river there is not only offensive out of doors, but penetrates
into every room of his house, even when the windows are shut;
that its action is felt in the kitchen, where it turns the copper
vessels almost blue. The Mersey emits in summer a very offens-
ive smell. The Calder is equally disagreeable, and we are told
that a letter is written with the water of this river instead of
ink. It was stated before a committee of the House of Commons
that a light was applied to the water of a stream near Bradford,
and it burnt. A stream called Bourne, which flows into the
river near Durham, is at times as yellow as ochre and as thick
as glue. Lord Salisbury visited Manchester the other day, and
can testify that the river there is in a bad condition. He was
told by a high Municipal authority that an unfortunate man
umbled into that river, and before he could be rescued, swal-
lowed a dose of the water of which he died.”

The prevalent local diseases in Calcutta, and the ratio
er mile of deaths therefrom, is shewn in the following table:—

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*Saturday Review, May 8th 1875, p. 592.
Causes of death in 1877.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diseases</th>
<th>No. of deaths</th>
<th>Rates of deaths per 100 of Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fevers</td>
<td>5151</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cholera</td>
<td>1418</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dysentery</td>
<td>1060</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diarrhoea</td>
<td>623</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Pox</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is worthy of note that the rate of mortality from the two principal diseases—fever and cholera, appears to be rather on the increase than on the decrease. It is said that the total number of deaths from Cholera was 796 in 1871; 1,102 in 1872; 1,105 in 1873, and 1,245 in 1874 but in 1875 it rose to, 1,674 and in 1876 to 1,851, and although in 1877 it fell to 1,488 it was much higher than during any one of the four preceding years.* The deaths from fever were 3,845 in 1867, 3,687 in 1868, 3,838 in 1869; 3,577 in 1870, 4,242 in 1871; 4,895 in 1872, 3,632 in 1873; 4,461 in 1877.† These facts speak for themselves, but it is to be hoped that some improvement will be found in the vital statistics of the city when the public health reports for the years 1878 and 1879 are published. The rate of mortality in Calcutta, it is also said, "suddenly rose from 23.9 in 1871, to 26.8 in 1874 to 32.7 in 1875, to 30.1 in 1876 and, to 31.9 in 1877." These data are gloomy enough, and afford proof that sanitary reforms are more urgently needed now than ever during the past few years. If the citizens of Calcutta would only evince an active and earnest interest in this most vital and important question, there is no reason why the city should not take a high rank, as regards its public health. Sir Ashley Eden has already placed on record his opinion that the hope that had been expressed that "the work of sanitary

† Ibid p. 69.
reform would be carried out vigorously and earnestly, has been disappointed;" and further, unlike his august predecessor, His Honor does not feel that India is ripe for representative institutions. If, not withstanding the unfavourable opinion he appears to have expressed regarding it in his Resolution on the report of the Calcutta Municipality for 1877, he has most generously and magnanimously permitted the system to continue yet a while, the note of warning already sounded should not be unheeded by the recently appointed members of the Corporation. Sir Ashley Eden observes that "the experiment of what is called a representative system of municipal administration of the town of Calcutta may be a very interesting experiment, but after all, it must be recollected, that it is only an experiment, and, having regard to the enormous outlay and heavy liabilities of the town, it is certainly a very dangerous experiment which requires the most careful watching."

From time to time, various suggestions have appeared chiefly in the columns of the local press with reference to the remodelling of the Municipal Corporation. Many schemes have been propounded, but none of them can lay claim to sufficient comprehensiveness. A few brief suggestions for the better administration of our municipal affairs are here offered, in the hope that they may contain something of practical utility.

In the first place, there should be a definite and complete understanding between the administrative and executive factors of the Corporation as regards a proper division of authority and responsibility. If such an understanding were established and fairly carried out, there would be nothing heard of recrimination at the public meetings of the Commissioners. Then, again, as regards responsibility in financial matters a most fruitful source of deficit is to be found in the expenditure of money which is not distinctly provided for in the Budget estimates and grants. It should be a cardinal principle to spend no money where none has been provided beforehand. But contingencies do, and, must, occasionally arise, when it may be necessary to incur extraordinary expenditure. Therefore, distinct provision should be made beforehand to meet such contingencies and to prevent complications. Under the head of "unforeseen contingencies" a sufficient sum might be allotted from year to year, and, if unexpended, appropriated to the
extinction of debt, or carried forward for the same purpose during the ensuing year. Then, again, in the event of sudden emergencies of a grave and pressing character occurring, works of ordinary character might very well be temporarily suspended. It is only a question which of the two matters on hand might be of greater importance, and which should give place to the other. The next important point to be provided for is the relief of the executive by delegating a portion of the control and supervision of the work in each circle or ward, to the resident Commissioners. Generally there are from two to three Commissioners in each ward. All may not be resident in their respective wards, but at any rate, they can easily arrange to look after the wants and requirements of their own jurisdictions. Each Commissioner would then know what was going on in his ward, and, as it is impossible for the Chairman to be ubiquitous, his hands would be thus considerably strengthened, by his colleagues aiding him in such part of his executive duties as might require some degree of personal supervision. He would not then be dependent on the reports and representations of petty subordinates. The ward Commissioners would feel that their interests and that of their respective circles were more in common, and their recommendations, based on a practical acquaintance with the wants of the people, would carry additional weight. By giving every member of the Corporation a direct interest in the advancement of the welfare of his immediate ward, the city would necessarily benefit, as a whole, and the work thus done individually, section by section, would, when considered in the aggregate, be found to compare not unfavourably, from year to year, with that which has been already accomplished.

_Calcutta Review_. 70,139; 1880.
SCARCITY OF FOOD GRAINS IN CALCUTTA

Whatever a vigilant and humane Government could do to alleviate the present scarcity, and the distress arising from it to the poor, has doubtless been performed, and from that foresight and activity which have been displayed, we may hope soon to see the Capital much relieved by large accessions of grain. But such been the great rise in the price of rice, that members who in ordinary times supported themselves and their families by their labor, have no longer found a maintenance from it, and must have parted with their little effects to procure a little subsistence. This enhanced rate must, in a great degree, continue until the new crop is brought to the market, which, generally speaking, cannot be looked for in less than six weeks or two months. The effects of it already begin to appear in the many emaciated figures and the many mothers with their children who wander about the streets and highways of this city, and the prospect for such is alarming.

The inhabitants of Calcutta who have beheld the public distress with anxiety, may think this a proper juncture for the exertion of their humanity. It is possible that adverse occurrences, inevitable by human prudence, may disappoint in part the expectations of relief now entertained; the sufferings of the lower class of people would then be dreadful. Should it, on the other hand, be happily found that the good offices of private solicitude were unnecessary, it would not afford matter of reflection or regret that they were ready on such an occasion; and where there was even a possibility of impending calamity, the appearance of having remained supine or indifferent would be as unfair to the character as contrary to the intention of this community. It has indeed been thought that the contributions of private benevolence, in similar cases, has had the effect of attracting multitudes to the Capital who might otherwise have made a shift in the country, but it seems a certain fact that, in every time of general scarcity,
the inhabitants of the country, without any previous encouragement, would naturally flock to the principal towns, whither, indeed the chief supplies of grain are also drawn, and when it is found that numbers have actually already thus restored to the Capital and its environs, the question then is, whether they shall be supported or left a prey to want. The daily aid afforded by Government has been extremely serviceable, but it is limited in its extent; many from distance or weakness cannot partake of it, and the longer the price continues high, the greater number must be incapacitated to support themselves, and of course need relief from the public. Where, it is supposed, as in the present case, that the whole stock of grain in the country is sufficient for its consumption until a new crop comes in, there can be no doubt of the clear benefit of extending the distribution of it, and supplying those who can no longer purchase for themselves.

Under this conviction, it has been agreed at a meeting of gentlemen of the Town, held this day, to promote a subscription for the relief of the poor, and a Committee has been named to manage the contributions, to purchase and distribute grain. They have already entered on the consideration of the best means answering this design, and will meet daily at the Exchange at 9 o’clock, where they will be happy to receive any information that may be conducive to the same end. And that no time may be lost, a certain sum for immediate exigencies has been already subscribed by the gentlemen present, and they hereby invite and solicit the subscriptions of the public which are necessary to the carrying on of the scheme, and will be received at the following places—

The General Bank.
The Bengal Bank.
Messers. Fergusson, Fairlie, & Co.
Bayne, Colvins, and Bagell.
Burgh and Barber, and Paxton, Cockerell, Delisle, & Co.
Calcutta, July 9th. 1788.

Calcutta Gazette. 1788 July 10.
ORIGIN OF BANIANSHIP IN CALCUTTA

The word “Banian” is a corruption of “Bania”, which again is derived from “Banik”, a merchant. In the earlier days of the late East India Company as the Serishtadar of the Judge’s and Collector’s Courts, and of the salt and commercial agencies, was called Dewan, so the native manager of an English Agency House and of a ship-captain, was called by the natives mutsuddi and by the Europeans Banian. In fact the Banian in old times was the factotum of houses and captains, and from the absence of any European banking establishment, had the sole charge of all their monetary transactions.

In those days the captain, officer, doctor, and even the carpenter and gunner of the company’s vessels, commonly called Indiamen, used to bring out from England investments of their own for sale at the several Presidency towns in India.

A native agent who could make himself understood both to the seller and purchaser, was requisite for negotiating for the houses and captains. The high caste Hindu who had picked up the little broken colloquy in English, which was a sort of prerogative to him, was the only man then qualified for undertaking such an office of responsibility. But as the investments of the captain and others comprised wines, liquors and provisions among other articles, the high caste Hindu of Calcutta till the latter part of the last century, from a religious scruple, kept aloof from managing them for their owners. What was then the alternative left to them? The reader will feel interested to know that the shippers found that the only Hindu (a Mahomedan being out of the question) who came across them and was capable enough to impart his thoughts by a fewer words than gestures, was a washerman, domiciled near Colootollah in Calcutta. Recourse was of necessity had to his agency for carrying out the details of their business. This washerman hither-to charged with the duty of bleaching huge bundles of
dirty clothes which had accumulated during a long and tedious voyage, was now trusted with the more responsible duty of an agent to buy and sell for his employers. The dobus, as he was called in Bombay and Madras as a synonym of Banian, was then seen hawking in the market from door to door with the bundles of clean suits on one hand, and invoices of beer, wine and liquor and of ham and cheese on the other. Dobus' negotiations failed not to secure the approbation of his masters. But unfortunately, as might be imagined, he struggled under a difficulty not easy for him to overcome. Dobus was no man of letters, and hence it was indeed a hard job for him to convert pounds, shillings and pence into rupees, annas and pies. As, however, his new post was far more lucrative, he thought it advisable for his interest to take in partners of a greater calibre than himself. Three artizans equally situated with him in society, were invited to co-operate with him. They cheerfully joined him, and set up a firm under the style of char yar, (four friends).

It may not be deemed out of place to mention here that the commanders of the Company's merchantmen and their officers were one and all either the connections or proteges of the members of the Company's Court of Directors, in whose gift was the appointment of them, like that of writers and cadets. These seafaring gentlemen were often the sons of wealthy and respectable fathers, and had extensive credit with merchants, brewers and manufacturers of England, who courted their custom and patronage. As the result of the authorized speculations of the captains and others during the Company's monopoly, was flattering enough, they largely extended their imports, and invested the proceeds of sale here in country produce when returning home direct. This extension of their operations brought on unexpected good luck to the "four friends", blessed as they were with the services of all the captains and officers who visited this port. The rich harvest which they reaped failed not to attract the notice of their more respectable neighbours, and to rouse their jealousy. Irresistible was their temptation, and caste prejudice at length gave way to
love of lucre. Legions of high caste Hindus of all denomination appeared in the field of dobus-ship, and proferred their services to the pursers of the captains, who acted on board both for the owners of the vessels and captains, and their applications were readily accepted for the sake of their greater respectability and intelligence. The sobriquet "dabus" was then changed into the more signifying term "Banian".

It is needless to dwell upon the amount of success which the labors of the Banian were crowned with; the names of many of former days yet ring in our ears, who soon amassed fortunes unknown in the present day.

After the abolition of the Company's monopoly, several of the captains and pursers set up or joined commercial houses here, and the identical banian who had served them before, served them again in their new vocation of merchants and agents.

Mookerjee's Magazine. 2, 11; 1873 Aug.
MONEY MARKET
OF CALCUTTA

We are happy to learn, that the pressure upon the Money Market in Calcutta, has within the last day or two been much alleviated, and that appearances indicate a speedy return to a balance, between the demand for and supply of cash. We are not disposed to consider the temporary scarcity of money here, as analogous to that which has prevailed at home. In England, there has been a run upon credit, which being staked too deeply in ventures of uncertain and remote return, was compelled to collect resources at any cost, and often without success. Here a certain sum of money has been wanted for a transient purpose, as Indigo advances, or the purchase of Opium, and it was not to be procured to the amount required, as it was not in the market. The primary cause of this deficiency, is the reduced importation bullion, which there is no doubt, has been for the last three or four years greatly contracted: at the same time, the public exigences have compelled the Government to become a competitor to an unusual extent, for the quantity imported, and the demand has augmented, whilst the supply diminished. That there has been also a drain of bullion, for the expenditure of the Upper Provinces, may be admitted, but we question, whether it has been extraordinary, or more than should at all times be calculated on. The Western Provinces depend upon Calcutta, chiefly, for their supply, and when we consider the course of trade, the extent and improved condition of the population and the propensity of the Natives to hoard money, or convert it into ornaments, we need not be surprised at the existence of a great and growing market for bullion, in Upper Hindustan. This demand alone is sufficient, we think, to keep the Money Market of Calcutta always at a low level, and when the decrease of the importation, and the public deductions from its amount, are considered, we conceive that the insufficiency
of disposable cash to meet the demand upon it for Mercantile purchases, is very satisfactorily accounted for. The Charter of the Bank necessarily restricts its power of being serviceable in these cases, and its issues cannot keep pace with the want of accommodation, when a scarcity of money prevails. As however, the public expenditure will speedily return to its ordinary scale in tranquil times, and supplies of Bullion from one quarter, or other, may be looked for, we cannot doubt that the mercantile community will soon cease to suffer any inconvenience. In the meantime, we understand arrangements are under the consideration of Government for affording them adequate assistance (115).

*Calcutta Gazette. 1826 June 1.*
PAPER CURRENCY
IN CALCUTTA

From the proceedings amongst the Native Bankers of Calcutta, which will be found amongst our Extracts from Native Papers, it should seem, that they have not learned to appreciate the merits of a paper currency, and that they are creating obstacles to the circulation of Bank Notes amongst them. The real grounds of their objections, we suspect, do not appear, but we are not surprised at their occurrence, for paper circulation like other European improvements, is perhaps, urged a little prematurely upon Indian practice. In the late demand for cash, the Bankers have, probably discovered, that paper is not always an equivalent for specie, and it is but natural, therefore, they should question the advantages beyond that of portability. We are not quite sure that some check to the issue of paper was not required and think it not impossible that the scarcity of money, which has of late been occasionally felt, has been attributable, in some degree, to an excessive paper issue. It is not possible to take an accurate view of the fluctuations of money market of Calcutta, from the want of a number of data, which, although it may not be impossible, it is difficult to procure. Even the amount of the currency required for the internal transactions of the Capital, is matter of extreme uncertainty, and until this is estimated within some reasonable degree of approximation it is idle to speculate upon the causes of the vicissitudes which it seems to experience: we know neither the reality nor extent.

It is clear, however, that every issue of Bank Notes must form an addition to the amount or it must supply the place, of specie. It probably does both. There can be little doubt of a progressive rise in the articles of domestic consumption in Calcutta for some years past. This may have been attributable to increased demand in part, but the proportionate
increase in the supply has, however, probably, balanced this stimulus and the continued enhancement of price can only arise from depreciation of the currency. It does not seem likely, however, that any very great accession has been made to the circulating medium of Calcutta, or prices could have risen still higher, and the Bank Notes in circulation, which during sometime past have been much more numerous than heretofore, have therefore displaced the specie. Part of the coin may be imagined to be in the coffers of those, by whom the Notes have been issued, but a portion, and large one, must be somewhere else. The paper currency exercising little or no influence, beyond the limits of Calcutta, specie continues there to form the circulating medium, and is in constant demand. Thither, accordingly, it will have been driven, and as the balance of the trade is considerably against the Presidency, thither, it will continue to flow, as long as its presence can be dispensed with in Calcutta. Under ordinary circumstances, this would be matter of little moment, but as long as a radical difference subsists between the state of currency in Calcutta and in the Provinces, it may be as well to use caution in banishing that specie to the latter, which, when it is required, can only be tempted back by disproportionate sacrifices (197).

Calcutta Gazette. 1827 Feb. 8.
THE STREET MUSIC OF CALCUTTA

I devoted a whole day to listen to the street-music of Calcutta, and report the result for the information of the readers of Maga. The cries to which I refer are to be heard daily in the native part of the town. Those peculiar to the European portion of it are of course very different.

I—KOORAR-GHOTEE-TOLLAH

Almost the first cry every morning is that of the Koorar-ghotee-tollah. Be the day ever so cold or so rainy there is the man ready to extricate from the bottom of the well whatever you may have dropped in it, though the cry speaks of brass lotahs only. The Moorish lady cried for heart out for the ear-rings she had dropped in the well, which she could not recover. There must have been no koorar-ghotee-tollah in Spain in her day, for ear-rings, or nose-rings, or finger-rings, are all picked out of wells in Calcutta with the greatest facility. Look at the man as he stands before you—an elderly, stout fellow, with elephantiasis on one leg—and you would hardly think him capable of the feat by which he earns his daily bread. He must dive at least five or six times a day to earn a decent pittance, for two or three pice is all he gets each time; and the frail steps on the well-side by which he gets down are not contemptible dangers to brave for the price paid to him. Talk of old Bazaino’s escape from Fort St. Marguerite: It surely was not half so perilous as these incessant descents into wells kept as dirty as can be imagined and in indifferent repair; and yet who ever heard of ghotee-tollah having died in the execution of his duty?

But have not water-pipes superseded the use of wells in every family residence in Calcutta? asks the English reader entirely innocent of native ways and doings. No, Aryan, brother, they have not. The supply of Municipal water is
Little to be depended upon, and fails frequently at very inconvenient hours; and our Hindu ladies are so aquatic in their habits, and delight so much in water, that an unfailing supply of it from 4 A.M. to 10 P.M. is an absolute necessity of their lives. Almost every act of housewifery requires the washing of hands or clothes, and many make entire ablutions of the body imperative; and since the filtered water of the Justices is not to be had at all hours there is no alternative for the mass but the well and the ghotee. They speak again, of the compulsory setting up of metres in private houses to regulate the supply of water according to the rate paid for it. The idea is not particularly liberal; to our thinking the supply of water, like that of air and light, should be unchecked. But, as our sapient Justices seem to think otherwise, "don't fill up your wells yet" is our warning and advice to all whom it may concern.

II—THE SONG OF THE MAKHRUM CHORA.

This is a song of the boyhood of Krishna, when that mischievous urchin used to go about from dairy to dairy stealing butter. The itinerant singer goes, Homer-like, from house to house, singing the delinquencies of the little god, that the morning might be commenced auspiciously by all, with the achievements of the deity fresh in their recollections. It is rather odd giving lessons in thieving to business-people at this early hour, as the instruction is not unapt to stick in the minds of those who buy and sell, and to influence their actions through-out the day. Songs about Ramchandra are also sung. For these regular reminders the singers claim a small buxis (varying from four pice to two annas) at the end of each month. The songs are good to hear, and some of the singers have very musical voices; and so, for one reason or another, the imposition is tolerated by all families.

III—JYE RADHAY—BIKAYAPYE, BABA:

The begging appeals in Calcutta are intolerable nuisances that recur from daybreak to dusk; and there is no means of putting them down, as the Police will never interfere. I don't
object to an old woman, or a blind or lame man, appealing to one for charity; but for two real objects of sympathy that accost you, there are four or six stalwart claimants whose only plea for appeal is that they are Bysnubs, which they think gives them a right to demand alms. They actually give you gallee if you send them away empty-handed. "What, such a "Burra Baboo, with such a house to live in, and not give alms": Remember there is another place to go to; "for he that turns away the beggar from his door gets "no admittance in Bycant." Cheek of this sort is constantly given; and as you can't condescend to resent it, you are obliged to submit to it with the best grace you can. Often, very often, a sturdy beggar will refuse to leave your door without a reasonable dole. If you ask the paharawalla to eject him, the man of authority laughs at your face; if you tell your own people to push out the applicant there is an action for assault, sometimes resulting in a fine; at all events I remember having once read of such a case in which the learned(?) Magistrate held that force should not have been used for expulsion, without laying down however how the expulsion was otherwise to be effected when the party to be dealt with is stronglimbed, obstinate, and clamorous.

Of course, as I have said, there are many real objects of charity, who in a city where there is absolutely no provision for them, well deserve the attention of the humane. But, when your temper is once upset by stubbornness, it rarely happens that you are able to do your duty to the rest. "Don't admit any of them," is the snappish order the master gives to his-door-keeper; and so many a poor woman loses the pice or grain that she would otherwise have received.

IV—SISSEE, BOTTOLE BIKREE:

This is an expressive cry, a proof of the march of civilisation as represented by the Brandy-bottle. From house to house the Bikreewalla collects all the empty bottles, in broad daylight, as a matter of course, and without any attempt whatever at concealment. The cry is constantly raised that
Young Bengal is afraid to avow his liberalism; but surely the avowal as regards the consumption of spirituous liquors is distinct enough. Sissee (medicine phials) are of course also asked for; but you see every Bikreewalla passing by loaded with Champagne, Beer and Brandy bottles with their labels on. It is an every-day and every-hour matter now, and the number of Bikreewallas is so large that one is staggered in attempting to compute the amount of consumption it represents. If you detect me in giving out bottles from my house, I have my answer ready: "Some rose-water bottles only, which I do not know what to do with. But pray, don't smell them; bad gases may have generated in them, and you may fare the worse for doing so."

V—POORANA KAGCHCH:

What a stentorian voice that bearded Mahomedan has who every morning cries out at your door for old newspapers: Do the worthy gents of the fourth estate know what their bad grammar and worse taste actually sell for second-hand in the Calcutta Bazars? Fourteen pice the quire; not a cowrie more: I haggled very hard once for four annas; but the devout Mahomedan swore by Allah Bismallah that he barely gets that rate from the shopkeepers, and could not therefore give me more than the fixed $5\frac{1}{2}$ annas a quire. Twentyfour sheets of an Indian Thunderer for fourteen pice only: with this data given, will any B.A. or M.A. work out for us how much each furious leader is appraised at? I am not a dab at figures, but my calculations give just $9\frac{1}{2}$ cowries for the biggest thunder—English or Patriotic. One of these thunder-makers asked sometime ago for immortality in a lamp-post. The immortality of the whole genus will be found in the shops of the Panchunwallahs, if they will only seek for it there.

Akin to the above cry are the cries of

VI—POORANA LOHA BIKREE

VII—POORANA CHATTA BIKREE

VIII—POORANA NAKRA KANI BIKREE

There is no such thing as destruction in the world, says the
philosopher. What we consider as such is only change. Your old iron, your old chatta or parasol, all your tattered rags, are marketable articles: there is no destruction for them but a salutary change? The broken padlock will do service again in another shape; the chatta will receive a new era of existence after it is mended and a new cloth put on to it; the rags will be converted into paper—probably to print some big daily, to be sold again at 3½ annas a quire: 3 tempora: 0 mores.

IX—DHONG : DHONG : DHONG

There goes the Kansari’s music: A coolie carries with him all the articles he has for sale. The gong and the bell are for poojahs, if you are particularly fond of them; the thalla, or dining plate, for your first born, if he has commenced to eat rice; the lotha, the pilsooj, the garoo, anything you stand in need of, Sir: But I don’t want anything; still the infernal dhong: dhong: continues. It is enough to awaken the dead in their graves:

The Kansari is a man well to do in life. He has a shop in the nearest bazaar; and both in going to it and in coming back from it he makes it a point to carry a coolie’s load with him, if only to try the temper of the people whose houses he passes by. Braziers from other places, especially from Jagganath, also frequent the street, crying Thakoorbateer bassan go: Thakoorbateer bassan: ‘But this you don’t hear every day, probably because the sellers are few in number and perambulate different parts of the town by turns.

X—BHALO, BHALO, NAYA, NAYA, SAP, SAPAY BANDORAY TAMASAR KHAYLE

Here is poetry for you, reader; the serpent-charmer’s poetry as he goes about with his baskets full of serpents, a baboon following at his heels that will play many tricks with the serpents, if you will pay a trifle for the tamasha. It is of course well known that the serpents are fangless; but what if one of the reptiles escapes while being played with and
burrows in your house? Wont it get new fangs in time? Why then is the play permitted in a densely crowded city? I never could look at serpents without dread. Our native dress at home gives us no protection against them if they are unwarily crossed, and I would unhesitatingly vote for the expulsion of all such players from the town. I know that there are many who take a delight in looking at the reptiles—particularly children. The impression left on these little-follows is various. One child, after such a sight in the day, woke up at night in convulsions, with the cry of 'Sap,' "Sap," and with froth foaming in his mouth. But this was an exceptional case. Generally, they are well pleased with the play so long as it lasts, and forget all about it afterwards; what especially delights them being the music of the charmer, which certainly does charm all simple hearted listeners—including the serpents of course. These charmers, they say, can charm out serpents from their holes and capture them. I saw one attempt myself, but that was a failure. The serpent did come out to listen to the music, but snapped at the charmer every time that he approached it; and, as it was a rather large-sized cobra, the man did not much like the idea of cultivating any intimate acquaintance with it. But there is no doubt that they do capture many serpents in this way, for many good people have seen them do so.

XII—CHYE MOONG-KE-DAL:

A very good edible is Moong-ke-dal, the Arabica Revelenta of the doctors, which has been known in this country from time anterior to the flood as a very wholesome food for the convalescent. The man who sells the dal is an up-country man, and the grains are very clean and have been well picked. The Bengali does not know, or does not care, to clean his grains in the way these up-country people do it. The fact is he is more partial to his fish and his torkdree than to his dal, though the dal is both more wholesome and more-strengthening. Altogether, in the matter of food, the natives of Bengal are very much less particular than up-country.
Hindus. The former will take anything they can get that caste rules allow, and the hurry on to money-making; while the latter, though not less fond of money-making; will still find full time for cleaning and cooking their dinner well.

XIII—HANSAYR DEEH CHYE ; HANSAYR DEEM, GO : HANSAYR DEEM :

How loud the man bawls: His custom perhaps is not as profitable as it used to be of old. Young Bengal is more fond of Moorgeer Deem (fowl’s eggs) than of Hansayr Deem (duck’s eggs); but of course the former cannot be hawked about openly except in Mahomedan quarters. The Hansayr Deem is a loathsome food. Of fowl’s eggs I have no personal experience, but they are said to be better. Both are taken by some people raw : : : and I have heard that doctors advice their being so taken. The idea makes the blood run cold.

XIV—BELATTEE AMRA CHYE ; CHYE PAT-BADAM

XV—ALOO CHYE ; PIAZ CHYE :

The first may pass without comment; but Aloo (potatoes) and Piaz (onions) selling together in the streets of an orthodox town: O Manu and Vyasa: what are we coming to: There was a time when people lost caste for eating onions; while now potatoes and onions are carried round in the same basket from door to door, and even widows and Brahmans buy the potatoes quite heedless of their unorthodox contamination.

XVI—CHYE MALSEE DOHI CHYE ; MALSEE DOHI CHYS, GO :

The cry is drawn out in lengthened sweetness, and reaches a great distance; and very great is the demand for the dohi. All people who can afford to pay for it buy it eagerly, for it very much facilitates the taking of rice—particularly when the days are hot. It is also very wholesome, notwithstanding some medical opinions expressed of late to the contrary. In bowel
complaints it acts as a charm. To other variety of it, called Malye Dohi, is less digestible, and is only liked because it is more acid. Both sell in the streets with the greatest promptitude.

XVII—TOOK-TAP-TOOK-TOOM

Play things to sell: What a crowd of ragged children follow in the wake of the seller; all anxious to buy, but having no pice to pay: And what a variety of nicknacks the man has got: birds made of colored rags and decked with tinsel, paper palkees, garies, umbrellas, trees, flowers, whistles, bells, cards, balloons, looking glasses; every thing, in fact, that is likely to catch a child’s fancy. With villainous pertinacity these are displayed ostentatiously at every door. In vain do poor mothers tell the man to pass on, not having the pice to pay for what their children clamorously ask for. The man knows that the pice will be forthcoming, and generally succeeds in getting it out.

XVIII—CHOOREE LIBEE, GO:

What a sweet melodious voice that girl has who goes from house to house selling choorees, or bracelets made or scaling wax or glass. But all the poetry evoked by her voice vanishes the moment you get a full view of her face. The phiz of Medusa could scarcely have had a more petrifying effect. You close your eyes involuntarily, while the ear continues to drink the melody that floats by, Chooree libi, go: Yes, my love, I will buy up all your choorees if you will go on hawking them in your own pretty way; but don’t break the spell by turning your face towards me, or you will convert me into stone. Throw a veil ever your features, and you will enhance the value of your wares.

XIX—GHOTEE BATEE SARABAY: GHORA, PILSOOJ SARTAY ACHYA: BHANGABASUN SARTAY ACHAY:

No man, no; I have no broken utensils to repair: pass on, please; your pertinacity is most annoying. Who can possibly require a tinker at his door every day of the year.
XX—RYPOOR KORMO:
XXI—SALIE JOOTEA; JOOTA BROOSH:
XXII—DO GOLIE SOOTA EK PYSA:
XXIII—DHAMA BANDA BAY GO?
XXIV—BAXO SARTAY ACHAY?

These shrieks and screeches are very trying indeed. There is no poetry in the voices. They are all matter of fact calls, for things or services which you cannot possibly stand in need of more than, say, once, twice, or four times a year; and yet you have to bear with the calls every blessed day of your existence, and fortunate is he who does not receive each more than once in twenty four hours.

XXV—JARUCK LABOO, BELMOROBA, HUZMEE GOLEE, AMBACHAR, TOPACOOL, KASUNDI:

A good long yarn this, and rather melodiously bawled out, hawking for sale chutnies and acids which are dear to every epicure and gourmand.

XXVI—MONDA METOY
XXVII—ROOTEE, BISKOOT, NANKHATAYA:
XXVIII—GOLAPEE AORREE CHYE?
XXIX—CHYE NARKOLE DANA?

We pass over all these cries as calling for no particular remark. Immediately after then follows the cry of

XXX—CHANACHOOR GURMA GURRUM.

Your syce is a great scoundrel and steals gram, the horse is getting thinner, you are afraid of being some day hawled up before the Magistrate by the Cruelty-Prevention-Society, which is so vigilant. But where the deuce does the gram go to? Ask this man and you will know. All the stolen gram is converted into Chanachoor, which, made hot with chillies, is much valued by drunkards both of high and low degree. Brandy-pawny and Chanachoor Gurma-Gurrum comprise a feast for the gods,
leaving aside the exquisites of the Calcutta University. What Young Bengal is there who has been able to resist the temptation of sharing them with his syce or his sirdar-bearer, if not in worse company?

XXXI—CHYE BUROPH?

And there is the Burophwalla coming in good time to cool down both the liquid fire and chillied gram: Does any one which to have revelations of pandemonium or the purgatory without the intervention of the Planchette? Let him accompany a Burophwalla for the nonce, and he will see both places with his own eyes and learn all that he may require to know. O, what secrets these Burophwallas could divulge if they had a mind to:

Night now closes up the city of palaces, brothels, and iniquities for a brief while; and no calls but those of the Paharawalla and the jackal will be heard for the next few hours. I may therefore close for the present with

XXXII—YAPEED MOOSHKILLASHAN KARAYGA

Which is announced by a broad flaring light in the hands of a bearded fakir, who goes about from door to door asking for that dole in the name of a Mahomedan saint which no Hindu housewife dares to refuse. All Mooshkili, or difficulties, will be madé ashan, or easy. Child’s sickness, husband’s irregularity of life, crustiness of old mother-in-law—every impediment to happiness will be removed at once. And what is the price to pay for this? One pice only:

I wish Maga would pay me a pice per line for this luminous contribution which may not soon be equalled. A pice-a-liner is doubtless a poorer designation than a penny-a-liner; but something is better than nothing, and I am not very hard to please.

Mookerjee’s Magazine. 4 ; 1875 Sep-Dec.
FORGERY IN CALCUTTA

It has been discovered that, for some time back Forgery, to a considerable extent, has been carried on at Calcutta. It would appear that the business was managed very systemati-
cally, and under circumstances which rendered detection a
risk of comparatively remote contingency, so that apparently
emboldened by the success of the experiment in the first
instance, the contrivers of the nefarious scheme at length
proceeded to great lengths, forging, there is reason to suppose
every kind of note or draft by which money transactions are
usually negotiated, more especially Government securities.

Anxiety was naturally occasioned among the community,
by the reports that were afloat respecting these forgeries,
and in the course of yesterday the Treasury was crowded by
people making enquiries as to the genuineness of the notes
they held. Although we regret to say that individuals have
suffered serious loss, in consequence of having purchased notes
in the bazar, without taking the precautions necessary in
such transactions, yet there is every reason to believe that
rumour has greatly exaggerated the general loss said to have
been sustained. The amount already detected, which probably
forms the bulk of the suspected paper is not by many
lakhs, so extensive as we have heard mentioned in common
correlation.

All the forged notes, though the signatures are so
ingeniously imitated, as to be calculated to deceive, are
distinguishable by the typography, putting other marks out of
the question.

The grand organ of this nefarious scheme was Rajkishore
Dutt, a Banker well known in the money market here for some
years, and of his son-in-law and agent Dwarkanath Mitter.
Both have absconded.

It is not very probable that they can ultimately escape,
for within a very few hours after their escape, the fact of their
absconding was known at the Police, and every possible means proper to the occasion adopted for their apprehension.

Rajkishore Dutt is supposed to have large property, a circumstance which we trust will prove well-founded, as a considerable part of it may be rendered available, we should hope, under the new Insolvent Act, for the benefit of those who have suffered by his villainy.

For several months back, the manufacture of Company's paper, so as to render imitation very difficult or impracticable here, in the present state of the arts; has been under the consideration of a Committee appointed by Government for the purpose, and in constant communication with the Committee, and an ingenious artist has been assiduously employed for the above purpose. The engraved plates, which we have heard highly spoken of, will be ready in a few days, and will, we doubt not, prevent in future the recurrence of such nefarious transactions as those alluded to (392).

*Calcutta Gazette. 1829 July 30.*

"A SHORT BUT INTERESTING STORY"

"Calcutta has been known to us, under various denominations. From a consideration of its architectural monuments—it is called the "City of Palaces". When the long back train of mourners, bears the remains of some individual to the grave—it is said to be a "Charnel House". Again, when we find, that preferment in the public service of Government, is accelerated by family interest, and pecuniary considerations—it is christened with the sobriquet of the "land of Interest"—"The land of indiscriminate Patronage". It is the "Arabia Petraca", in the opinion of all those, who wish to fatten at their neighbour's
expense, and who expect lucre and honor, to fall upon them, like Manna, in the Wilderness. It is sometimes called, the "land of Jobbery". A recent transaction induces us to view it in this light.

Public institutions appear to be the cradling places of some of the prettiest little jobs which the cunning ingenuity of jobbers could ever devise. They are the nurseries for suckling, darling sons and nephews, affectionate relatives, kind friends, and gentle acquaintances. Public spirit, in such establishments, becomes steam of such "high pressure", that it bursts through the limits of equity and justice — and either evaporates in smoke, or adorns the roofs of some houses, in bespangled dew-drops.

Such an instance of bursting-public spirit, displayed itself, within the precincts of the Free School. We crave our reader's indulgence for a few minutes, while we give him a brief sketch of the transaction.

It happened, that the Surgeon of the Free School, was about to vacate his appointment — and before he had actually sent in his resignation — great fear came over the Secretary of that institution at the reflection, that in case of sickness, no medical aid could now be afforded. A school without a surgeon, is in his opinion a garrison without a commander. Sickness and disease were standing tip-toe, on the steeple of the Free School Church, ready to pounce upon the little boys and girls playing on the green grass; and their attention was ominously directed towards a pretty little house situated near the north gate of the school. These enemies of human happiness, with wings out-stretched, were prepared to make an onset on the "harmless little inhabitants" of the school, so soon as the lugubrious visage of the doctor was no more seen, and the thunder-rolling wheels of his carriage no longer heard in Free School Street.

This was the season of severest trial to the Secretary. Now was the time for him gird on his loins and provide for the safety of his little flock. No delay, when the enemy is so near. Straightway did he throw himself into his buggy — and whirl round Calcutta, securing votes for Dr. Thomson, besides whom,
he knew of no other medical gentleman, who would come forward as a candidate for the vacant office.

In his capacity of Secretary, (and such was the impression upon the minds of those, on whom he had called,) he sought for support for one who had no claims on the institution; while there were two medical gentlemen, on the list of governors, who had labored for the interests and the welfare of the institution, and who were most unaccountably banished from the recollection of the Secretary. This obliviousness was, however, repaired. One of the governors, whose aid for Dr. Thomson had been solicited, justly remarked, that as he had not the honor of being acquainted with the gentlemen, he would readily give his vote for one of the two medical gentlemen, who were governors of the institution. His cavil soon received a quietus, by the assurance that neither of these two doctors would apply for the vacant office.

News, to use a vulgar phrase, flies, like wild-fire. One of the two doctor governors, was informed of the expected vacancy in the school, and on canvassing the votes of his colleagues, found to his surprise, that the Secretary, ex-officio (a very becoming conduct) had forestalled him. However he did not despair. He relied for success, on his claims of gratuitous labor, afforded to the school, in the capacity of governor, for the space of three years. At length, the day, big with the fate of the two medical applicants arrived. The claims of Dr. Vos were set aside—and Dr. Thomson was the successful candidate, because he had already secured the votes of the majority of governors.

Let us look at the reasons that were urged by the supporters of Dr. Thomson, against the fair and strong claims of Dr. Vos. One of them observed, that he (the speaker) might as well expect the office of Secretary to the School, because he had been for a long period governor of the institution. We unhesitatingly assert, that his expectation was just. In our opinion, he enjoyed the best claims for the office. He had bestowed his time and his labour—he had not spared his attendance amidst his other numerous engagements, to further...
the welfare of the institution and although he had made his office a labour of love, yet when an opportunity occurred for rewarding him, we do say, that the governors would, in our opinion, have been guilty of gross misconduct and partiality, if they did not bestow the vacant office upon him. It must not however be overlooked, that the speaker took to himself more credit than he really deserved. We assert, without a question, that he neither gives his labor to the Free School gratuitously, nor takes his seat at the board voluntarily. As Junior Presidency Chaplin he is a governor of the institution ex-officio, and is on the receipt of a salary between 11 and 1200 rupees, with an additional income derived from fees.

Such and so strong were the claims of Dr. Vos to the appointment of surgeon to the school. Besides as Secretary of the District Charitable Society, for the space of seven years—a society intimately connected with the object and proceedings of the Free School, Dr. Vos had claims, which could not honestly and fairly be set aside.

Another governor remarked, that Dr. Vos had claims from his services, on their gratitude and esteem, but not for the office for which he was a candidate. We would ask this Reverend gentleman, how be would testify his sense of gratitude for such services. We candidly reply: that the only mode in which the good-will and esteem of the governors could be manifested towards Dr. Vos, would have been by bestowing the vacant office upon him. Professions are nothing; actions are the touch-stone of all talk.

But we now come to the most amusing part of this drama. Some of the governors, after acknowledging the justice of Dr. Vos's claims, still obstinately persisted in supporting his competitor, because they had pledged their votes to him. We are truly at a loss to understand this mode of procedure. That promise is not binding which is given on a partial and mistaken view of any circumstance. It was thus in the case of Dr. Vos. Some gentlemen had already pledged themselves to support Dr. Thomson, because they were not aware that any other person, possessing stronger claims on their attention
would have come forward. They did not know that one of the governors would have been a candidate for the appointment. When such a case did occur—it was the duty of the governors, as honest and impartial men, to acknowledge the justice of Dr. Vos's claims, by appointing him to the office. In this instance, no promise would have been violated—no pledge broken. Dr. Thomson himself would not have complained, if he were refused the appointment, because he would see that the fair and equitable claims of a person, had received their due weight and consideration. Now who was there who disputed the claims of Dr. Thomson to the marine-surgeonship, which he now holds. His labor and exertions with the Army of the Indus demanded a recompense. The recompense has been bestowed by the state, and well does he deserve it. In the same manner, we would have been glad to see Dr. Vos appointed to the office of surgeon to the Free School,—for he too well deserved it.

We do not expect that these remarks will undo what has already been done. But we hope that they will tend to check future abuses—and that the Secretary will understand better the nature and duties of his office, and not overstep its limits.

Oriental Magazine. 1, 2; 1843 Feb.
THE CORRUPTION OF THE POLICE, ITS CAUSES AND REMEDIES

F. C. SKIPWITH

The attention of the inhabitants of Bengal, but more especially of Calcutta, has been lately much invited to the state of the Police in the Lower Provinces, and it has been admitted by all parties that it is inefficient.

The report of the Superintendent of Police for the year 1842 (only just published) is a document which, if correct, fully bears out the opinion of the public. We say, if correct, because the Superintendent himself admits that many of the statements on which it is founded are not trustworthy. The Superintendent does not tell us upon what authority he arrives at this conclusion, but he here and there mentions conversations with private Natives, which have influenced his opinion, and we must therefore be content with his assertion.

True or not, however, the report is startling, and it naturally leads us to enquire in what the inefficiency of the Police consists, and the causes of the inefficiency. Assuming the statements upon which the report is based to be correct, we at once see that the Police is insufficient to afford that protection to life and property which the inhabitants have a right to expect, and is incapable, after the perpetration of crimes, of collecting evidence sufficient to ensure the conviction of criminals.

There are in the provinces of Bengal and Behar, under the jurisdiction of the Superintendent of Police, 33 zillahs or districts; and we learn, from the epitome of offences ascertained by the Police to have been committed during the last six months of 1842 (vide page 81 of the Report) that 28,147 crimes were committed, in which 48,875 persons were supposed to have been concerned, of whom 24,821 were arrested,—and that of them, 16,098 were convicted and punished, 6573 acquitted, and 1932 remained under trial at the end of the year.
In round numbers then it may be assumed that there are 60,000 offences in the year committed against the persons or property of the peaceable part of the community, and that consequently 3000,000 persons (assuming five to a house) are annually placed in a state of agitation and alarm, owing to the inefficiency of the police. Nor does the alarm affect only the inhabitants of the house in which the offence is committed; the whole community is agitated by a feeling of insecurity, which is by no means allayed by the knowledge, that of 90,000 persons supposed to be concerned, 35,000 only have been convicted, — 45,000 being left at large to repeat their depredations on the inhabitants on the first favourable opportunity.

The computed value of the property stolen during the last six months of 1842. (page 83 of the Report) amounts to Rs. 2,24,888-14-7, of which Rs. 61,394-11-11½ was recovered; and of that sum we observe that Rs. 23,024-12 was recovered in one zillah alone, Rs. 1829-1-3 only having in that zillah been unrecovered.

This we attribute to fortuitous circumstances; for in other zillahs the average amount recovered is only 10 per cent. and of that again 10 per cent, is by law allowed to the Police as a stimulus to exertion; so that the parties robbed recovered but little, if any, of the property stolen from them.

It is, however, possible that both the number of offenders and the amount of property stolen is greatly exaggerated by the sufferers; the first with a view to give themselves imaginary consequence, the second to conceal their cowardice, by pretending to show that resistance would have been in vain.

On the other hand the number of crimes ascertained to have been committed is probably only half of the number which actually occurred,—the sufferers wisely considering that it is better to rest with the loss they have suffered, than to lose the remainder of their property by calling down upon themselves a visitation from the Police.

We will now endeavour to ascertain the causes of the inefficiency of the Police, and will point them out as they appear
to us honestly and fearlessly, as we are fully satisfied of the
desire of the Government to apply a remedy.

The officers of Police of all grades are not selected from one-
particular caste or class of persons, but are taken at random
from every caste and creed in the Company's territories. Mussulmans, Brahmans, Christians, and Domes are all
employed, some within the district in which they were born,
and some at a distance from it. Their inefficiency then cannot
be traced to a particular class of men, for no particular class is
employed; neither can it be traced to local connections, for
many of the Police are strangers to the country to which they
are appointed, and have no localities to turn them from the
paths of duty.

It is generally urged, that inadequacy of pay is the principal
cause of the inefficiency of the Police, and of this doctrine
Colonel Sleemen is a powerful advocate. He says, "These
Thanadras, and all the public Officers under them, are
all so very inadequately paid, that corruption among
them excites no feeling of odium or indignation in the
minds of 'those among whom they live and serve. Such
feelings are 'rather directed against the Government that
places them in 'situations of so much labor and respon-
sibility with salaries so 'inadequate, and thereby confers
upon them virtually a kind 'of license to pay themselves
by preying upon those whom 'they are employed
ostensibly to protect. They know that 'with such salaries
they can never have the reputation of being 'honest,
however faithfully they may discharge their duties; 'and
it is too hard to expect that men will long submit to the
'necessity of being thought corrupt without reaping
some of the "advantages of corruption". Again—"He
who can suppose that men so inadequately paid, who
have no promotion to look 'forward to, and feel no
security in the tenure of their office, and 'consequently
no hope of a provision for old age, will be zealous 'and
honest in the discharge of their duties, must be very
imperfectly acquainted with human nature and with motives by which men are influenced in all quarters of the world; but we are none of us so ignorant, for we all know that the same motives actuate public servants in India as elsewhere.

We are not of those who believe that inadequacy of pay is the principal cause of the inefficiency of the Police, though we have noticed with pleasure that previous to the publication of Colonel Sleeman's work, the salaries of some of the Darogahs had been raised so as to be equal to those of the lowest grade of Civil Native Judges, and to the highest salaries of Darogahs will rise by gradation. If their having no promotion to look forward to were a cause of the inefficiency, it is one that is in the course of being removed. Insecurity in the tenure of their offices still exists, and this we shall notice presently.

There are cases doubtless in which the necessities of individual members of the Police have rendered them open to temptations by which they would not have been assailed had their pay been greater; but as a body they have not been altogether so inadequately paid. They have been equally well-paid with all other bodies of Native Officers in the employment of Government, and yet among them chiefly do we hear repeatedly of breach of trust, of connivance with thieves. The Jemadar of a Treasury Guard, for instance, on the Collector's establishment receives eight rupees a month, and the Burkundazes four rupees each, and the Police Jamadar and 1 urkundazes receive the same but when do we ever hear it asserted that the Treasury Guards habitually betray their trusts, or are in connivance with thieves. We have heard, on the contrary, of many instances in which they have resisted manfully, and not unfrequently successfully, when their posts have been attacked.

The salaries of the Darogahs have been raised to a level with

*While this sheet is passing through the press, we notice with the greatest pleasure, that the pay of the body of Darogahs is to be doubled, of a portion of them trebled, and of another portion still, quadrupled.

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those of the lowest grade of Native Judges, and the Thanna Mohurirs are equally well paid with the Subordinate Ministerial Officers of the Sudder Courts, and though among these latter we hear of individual instances of corruption, no one charges them as a body with habitual corruption.

The lowest grade of Police, the Chowkidars and Pykes, receive three rupees per mensem each man, and are equally well paid as the same class of men in the service of private individuals, and yet instances of betrayal of trust among the latter are rare, whilst amongst Natives their fidelity is proverbial.

The average salaries of the Police are quite equal to the average salaries paid to servants by private individuals, whose temptations to plunder are at least equal to those of the Police, whilst their opportunities are greater, and yet robberies by them are of rare occurrence.

Besides salary there are legal emoluments granted to the Police which are not granted to other establishments. They are entitled by law to a commission of ten per cent. upon the value of all property recovered by them, and may, where their exertions entitle them to it, obtain a special reward. We do not, therefore, think that the inefficiency of the Police, as a body, can be mainly attributed to inadequacy of pay. To what then can it be attributed, for we admit its existence?

The causes to us appear two-fold. 1st. The demoralization and ignorance of the people. and 2nd. The defects of our own system of Police.

Under the native Government the Mofussil Police was at least as good as it is now, and yet it was worse paid. Its members were nominally paid by the Zemindars, but they were permitted to realize their salaries as they best could, and these were either not paid at all, or realized by cruelty and oppression.

They were also employed by the Zemindars in collecting their rents, or in making forays on their neighbours, or in persecuting such as fell under their displeasure; and thus trained and habituated to habits of extortion and oppression. The same body of men were continued under the English
Government, the only alteration being that the Zemindars were made responsible for all crimes committed within the boundaries of their own estates. For crimes committed beyond their boundaries they were not responsible, and each, therefore, connived at the residence of thieves, who carried on their depredations within the boundaries of their neighbours. This responsibility suddenly ceased, and the landholders were declared responsible only in cases in which their connivance with the robbers should be fully proved. The control of the Police was from that time vested in the Government and its Officers, but the same body of men, the Policemen of the Zemindar, was retained; and being completely his creatures, continued to perform his orders. A few of these Policemen may, perhaps, still be found, while their sons and relations compose at the present day the body of the inferior Police.

The nomination of these men is still (which it ought not to be) vested in the zemindar, and they are consequently as much bound to him by self-interest as ever; they cannot in fact with safety to themselves oppose his wishes. Bred up in ignorance, and staunch observers of the traditions of their forefathers, they as blindly perform the orders of their Zemindar now as they have heard their fathers did when he was their recognised head. From ignorance and custom, and sometime also from attachment, where the old families still retain their own, the residents of the soil are equally under the control of the Zemindar as the inferior Police, and on the occurrence of a crime are either ignorant of or acquainted with the merits of the case as he directs. If a crime occurs and the perpetrator be unknown, and the Landholder have a quarrel against any one, the whole village is bent by promises or intimidation to bring the crime home to him. The Zemindar perhaps himself gives notice of the crime at the thanna, the superior officers of the Police arrive, perjury and forgery are put in force by him, and the Police officers being totally misled, innocently forward a report to the magistrate in accordance with his wishes. If on the other hand the Zemindar is baffled by the superior penetration of the Police, and his
plot is discovered, or if before their arrival the delinquent is able to appease him, the engines of forgery and perjury are turned upon the Police, and they are sacrificed by some false but well authenticated story of oppression on their part in his stead. A crime has been reported and a victim must be found.

This is no overdrawn picture, but one of every day occurrence. And is it surprising, we ask, that the Police, men of like passions and education as the Zemindar, should in their own defence use similar weapons? This they do, and detection following, a cry, with much justice, is raised, that the Police is a curse to the country. The superior officers of Police are supposed to have now the authority as the Zemindars used to have. The Zemindars used to harbour thieves on the payment of a douceur, with the understanding that they should not practise their profession within their limits; the Police do so now, and this not perhaps from any fellow-feeling with the thieves, but from the knowledge that without compliance with this old established custom, so long sanctioned as to be now a point of honour, they could not retain their places. False charges would be brought against them either by the party whose bribe had been refused, or by members of the Police who had long been corrupted; for at every Thanna there are men who were once scrupulous, but having been themselves tumbled into the vortex of corruption, in their turn now corrupt others.

The chief remedy—apart from thoroughly moralising educational measures—for this state of things, it may be urged, could be the establishment of a healthier moral principle by the introduction of European settlers; and doubtless, if settlers could be obtained in large numbers so as to act as a check upon one another, much good might be effected. As it is, alas, cut off from all society with their equals, many of them become deeply infected with the plague raging around them, and even surpass the natives in cruelty and oppression.

Contaminated by daily intercourse with depraved natives, and forgetful of their God, they can only be distinguished from
the Heathen by the colour of their skin and their notorious open profligacy.

Do not let it to be supposed that we have any wish to vilify the whole body of settlers, for such is not the case. We know that there are among them many honourable and upright gentlemen; and to their scorn and to the scorn of the public we are anxious to hold up these desperately wicked among them, who have made and continue to make the name of Planter as detestable in the Mofussil as the name of the Police. We have heard of many deeds illustrative of the immorality and wickedness of English settlers, committed oftentimes with impunity, but the two following will be sufficient for the purpose; though to some of our readers they will not be new.

An Indigo Factory had long been established in a certain zillah, and had met with such signal success as to induce other settlers to go there also. One gentleman, however, took up his quarters so near the old established Factory as to be a source of annoyance to its owners; he was at first civilly desired to decamp, but as he had built his Factory on ground of which he had a lease in perpetuity from the Zemindar, he naturally demurred.

Petty quarrels arose between them. Charges and counter-charges, some true, some false, were made, and with various success before the magistrate; but the new-comer maintained his ground.

This was not calmly to be borne by men whose word in that part of the country had hitherto been law, and the annihilation of the Factory was determined on. The Police were summoned, and notice was given them of the intended outrage. Large bribes were given, and threats of vengeance held out, if any mention of the affair should reach the Magistrate’s ear; and the night was fixed upon for the attack. Armed with clubs and spears, and provided with spades, pickaxes and baskets, a body of three hundred men silently and slowly wended their way to the doomed Factory in the dead of the night. Its occupants were fast asleep, and the English settler was seized in his bed.
He and his servants were put in irons, and he was taken below to witness the demolition of his Factory.

The band was divided into three parties. The first collected everything combustible and set fire to it. By the light of the fire the second party broke up the Factory with their spades and pickaxes; and the third carried away the materials in their baskets, and threw them into a deep nullah which ran about two hundred yards from the house.

As the morning dawned, the attacking party reached their own Factory, carrying with them their prisoners, whom they meant to detain till matters were finally adjusted. One servant, however, unperceived by the aggressors, had effected his escape and given information of the outrage to the Magistrate. The Police Darogah was desired to investigate the affair, and after consultation with the principal aggressor, boldly reported that there was not a word of truth in the statement; that he had moreover seen Mr. ——— a guest at the house of the party charged, and that he also had affirmed to the falsehood of the statement. Dissatisfied with the report, the Magistrate summoned Mr. ——— to make personal enquiries of him, and he was permitted to attend the Court, in company however with the party charged. Face to face each fought his battle before the Magistrate, the one affirming that the outrage, as above detailed, had actually occurred, the other that it had not, and that Mr. ——— had never had a Factory on the spot stated by him. Witnesses were summoned on both sides, but their statements were so conflicting that the Magistrate determined to proceed in person to the spot. The rains however set in, the country became flooded, and his departure was unavoidably postponed. Mr. ——— went to Calcutta, and the other party returned to his Factory, quietly and carefully was every vestige of the destroyed Factory removed even to the very foundations, the earth was smoothly levelled and neatly laid down with turf, and before the visit of the Magistrate the spot was covered by a dense grass jungle. After a personal inspection of the spot, the Magistrate returned to his cutcherry fully satisfied that the charge was false.
The other tale we mean to tell will shew the Police to have been the sufferers, and is one among many instances we could give of the difficulties with which they are surrounded.

There was an Indigo Planter of very gentlemanly and winning manners, who chiefly resided at the Sudder Station, where he almost daily associated with the Judge and Magistrate,—the concerns of his Factory being to all appearance left to the care of his Gomastah or Steward.

Complaints occasionally were made to the Magistrate of acts of oppression on the part of this gentleman, which however were disproved; but as they increased in frequency, the Magistrate began to suspect that they might not have been so unfounded as he had imagined them to be, and he inwardly determined to visit the scene of the next alleged outrage. He had not long to wait. The gentleman was charged with having rooted up the crop of rice of a ryut, and to have forcibly sown the ground with Indigo, and the Police Darogah reported that the charge was true. There was now a fine opportunity for the Magistrate to see the state of things with his own eyes, and to test the probity of his Darogah, and he accordingly proceeded to the spot and pitched his tent on the contested field. The case was most clearly proved against the Indigo Planter, and he was duly summoned to answer the charge. He instantly obeyed the summons, and with gentle urbanity expressed his regret that the Magistrate should have been misled into such a wild-goose chase. The evidence was read over to him and his countenance fell, and he instantly admitted, that, though innocent, appearances were such against him, and that it would be difficult for him to disprove the charge, since the parties acquainted with the case were of course tutored against him as he and the Darogah (who was elsewhere on duty) had long been enemies.

Deeply did he seem to feel the awkwardness of his situation, but he requested the Magistrate, with a view to establish his innocence, that he would examine any uninterested parties who might accidentally pass the tent. To this the Magistrate agreed, and very shortly afterwards a party of villagers were
seen crossing the plain. The Magistrate's Chupprasis were despatched to bring them to the tent, but so great was their alarm that they were with difficulty seized. They gave their evidence very reluctantly, admitted that the Indigo Planter was oppressive, but that the present charge was false,—the field of contention having never to their knowledge been cultivated by the complainant. The complaint was of course dismissed, and the Darogah punished for a false report, while the Indigo Planter was received by the Magistrate into as much favour as ever. At length, in a fit of inebriation he confessed, "that he had done the Beak" by causing a well suborned party of witnesses to cross the plain, so soon as he should, according to the preconcerted plan, appear at the tent door in company with the Magistrate.

But surely, it will be said, the enlightened natives, those who have been educated at our public Seminaries, will come forward and stop the plague. Alas no; they may not, 'tis true, connive with thieves and robbers, but bribery and oppression they still practise. Their nature is unchanged; they can read and write and speak English fluently, but they are the same, nay in some respects worse than their ancestors.

They have copied the vices of Englishmen but are ignorant of their virtues. And why is this? They have been well educated in History and Geography, Natural Philosophy, and Mathematics, and surely they must be better than those who have not had similar instruction. Such will be the first reflection; but a deeper consideration of the subject will prove its unsoundness. 'Tis true their studies will have given them some slight knowledge of nature and of nature's God, but that is all—their own books even may teach them something of all this—their own books may teach them as much secular morality, as may be calculated to make them passable members of society, as all the lessons inculcated in the Schools. We are here speaking only of the Government Schools, and in them instruction in sound, vigorous, practical morality is wholly lost sight of. Sufficient knowledge is imparted to the scholars to make them despise their own system of Theology; and that, in all, having
broken down the barriers to vice imposed by their own religious prejudices and superstitions, the Government has not courage to offer them in their stead the ennobling doctrines of Christianity. It fears to introduce the Bible lest its introduction should deter the scholars from attending school, lest thereby our English literature should be closed to the people. We do not think that such would be the case. There is a spirit of enquiry abroad among all classes, and the doctrine of our own religion is a point to which the attention of the natives is particularly awakened. So little do they comprehend it now that the generality of the common people, more especially in the Moffussil, believe Christianity to consist in eating beef and pork, and drinking an unlimited quantity of wine.

The fear of preventing the attendance of scholars is, we believe, one of the chief reasons usually alleged for not introducing the Bible into the Schools, and that reason has now ceased to have force. The education minute of Sir H. Hardinge had declared that, of two equally qualified candidates for public employment, the preference, shall be given to the Alumni of the schools. And we unhesitatingly affirm that the introduction of the Bible will not deter the natives from sending their children to them,—from availing themselves of the most direct and certain road to the highest offices of the state.

We may not want the Government Schools to be converted into Mission-houses, to render it imperative upon the Masters to endeavour to convert the scholars to Christianity; but what we do want is, that at least our Christian system of morality, the highest in the world, should be offered to the consideration of the scholars in lieu of their own, which, as we have before remarked, they are imperceptibly taught to trample under foot. Until the Bible is introduced, until the leaven of Christianity is worked up among the masses of the people, until their moral degradation, one of the causes of the bribery and corruption of the Police, is removed, we are fully convinced that we may look in vain for its efficiency as a body. If bribery, corruption, oppression, and subornation of perjury are not rife among the rural population of Bengal, why is it, we ask, and let each
man's conscience answer the question, for we cannot—Why is it, we ask, that though almost every man accuses his neighbour of these crimes, few can be found with sufficient moral courage to venture upon prosecution—to cast the first stone?

In our opinion it is as unmanly as ungenerous of the present body of the people to upbraid the Police with bribery and corruption, as it is for a man to taunt a woman with a want of chastity, whom he has himself seduced from the paths of virtue. Once let the members of the native community be taught to shun him who has been openly guilty of perjury, forgery, bribery, or fraud, and the Police will be found more equal to the duties entrusted to them.

We have endeavoured to point out why we consider the demoralization of the people to be one grand causes of the inefficiency of the Police, and we will now turn our attention to the second cause, the defects of our own system,—and to enable our readers to understand them, we will slightly sketch it, as it at present exists.

On the receipt of information by the Darogah of the occurrence of a heinous crime, he is required to submit a notice thereof to the magistrate, and proceed himself to the spot to hold a preliminary investigation. On his arrival he sends for the prosecutor or aggrieved party, takes concisely his deposition and the deposition of his witnesses, makes such enquiries as may appear to him proper; and, if the case be proved, forwards his proceeding together with the defendant to take his trial before the magistrate. In case of simple burglary and theft the Darogah is forbidden to hold any investigation unless a petition is presented to him by the injured party, or he be ordered to do so by the magistrate.

The witnesses ought to be bound down to appear at the Magistrate's Court on a certain day, but as they would never do so voluntarily from the dread of detention at the Magistrate's Court, they are usually apprehended and forwarded under charge of a Police officer. Arrived at the Sudder station, the deposition of the prosecutor and his witnesses, are taken at length, and the case is disposed of
either by the magistrate acquitting or sentencing the prisoner himself, or by committing him for trial to the Sessions Court. If he disposes of the case himself and punishes the prisoner, an Appeal will lie to the Sessions Judge, provided it be made within one month. If however he passes a Sentence of Acquittal, his order is final. If the case be committed for trial to the Sessions Judge, a day is fixed for the trial, and the parties are a third time bound down to attend to give their evidence. If the Sessions Judge awards punishment, an Appeal from his decision lies to the Nizamut Adawlut, in certain cases, provided it be made within three months. If on the other hand a Sentence of Acquittal be passed, his order is final. If any informality appears in cases in which punishment has been awarded, or the Court of Nizamut Adawlut is of opinion that a sufficienty searching investigation into the merits of the case has not been held, it is returned for re-investigation, and the prosecutor and his witnesses are a fourth time summoned to repeat their evidence de novo. It may even be necessary to reexamine them a fifth or sixth time, but this is an extreme case. In all these Courts the conduct of the Police is rigidly enquired into. If the magistrate is of opinion that any member of it has misbehaved, he has the power of suspending or dismissing him at once,—his order however being subject to an Appeal to the Superintendent of Police. If, on the other hand, either of the Superior Courts is of opinion that any of them have misbehaved, it can only record its opinion for the information and orders of the Magistrate; or, in extremely bad cases, report the circumstances for the final orders of the Superintendent of Police.

As a check, each upon the other, the Darogah is required at the end of every month to submit a statement to the Magistrate, shewing the number of crimes ascertained to have been committed within his jurisdiction (this information being required to be furnished to him by the Zemindar or his Agents) the estimated number of offenders concerned, the actual number apprehended, the result of his preliminary investigation, the estimated value of the property stolen, the actual amount
recovered, and the number of cases still under investigation, together with a concise report of the proceeding held in them by him. These statements are entered into the body of a statement, prepared by the Magistrate, who adds to them the result of the trials thereon held by him, which he submits to the Sessions Judge. The Sessions Judge, after receiving them, and examining any cases entered therein, which he may think proper to call for, forwards them to the Court of Nizamut Adawlut, together with the result of any trials held by him either in original or in Appeal, where they are all again scrutinized, and are ultimately made the basis of a Report to Government. Quarterly, half yearly, and annual statements are similarly submitted, with the view of shewing at a glance the exact amount of crime and the state of the Police at any given period of the year. Upon these statements depend the characters of all the officers concerned.

Copies of the Magistrate’s statements are also submitted to the Superintendent of Police, and on them is based the report now before us.

But before we state our objections to this system, which however chiefly lie against the statements, we will consider the mode in which the offices of Magistrate are filled and paid, which is, we think, highly objectionable, and we earnestly hope to attract attention to the circumstance. A reference to the Register of the Civil Service (complied by Ram Chunder Das) will shew that an officer is deemed qualified to act as Magistrate after he has served an apprenticeship of three years, though the average standing of Magistrates is five years, while some few are above that standing; and yet no one is considered fit to officiate as Collector till he has at least served an apprenticeship of seven years, the average standard being ten years. If a Magistrate, after two or three years' service, is considered a good officer, he is promoted to a Collectorship, and the office is again filled up by some inexperienced stripling. And why is this? Are the duties of a Collector’s Office so much more onerous than those of the Magistrate? In his power of doing injury so much greater as to require more
matured intellect and experience? We answer, no. Intricate landed questions often come before the Collector, but the final decision does not rest with him; he merely prepares a report upon the case and submits it to the Commissioner, who in his turn submits it to the Board of Revenue, whose final orders the Collector is compelled to enforce. His power of doing injury through inexperience, though great, is less than that of a Magistrate, and is always reparable, while that caused by a Magistrate is not so. What reparation can be made to the man, who though innocent, has been branded as a felon, whose family has been dishonored?—None. A Collector may imprison a person wrongfully as a defaulter, but he is not thereby dishonored, for poverty is no crime, and he has the power of recovering damages on his release in a Civil Court, should be have been wrongfully imprisoned.

The only reason to be assigned is, that the Court of Directors have been pleased to give greater salaries to and require more experience from, those to whom the collection of the Revenue is entrusted, than to the Magistrates, who are employed in defending the people and their property; but surely this is an erroneous principle.

If the Magistracy were efficient, there would be a great probability that the Police would be also, and when there is security for property there is a disposition to accumulate it. If the population were sure that they could enjoy them, they would, instead of burying their riches in the ground, collect around them articles of luxury and elegance which are never now to be met with; and these being collected, the labors of a Collector of Revenue would be comparatively light. He could always seize the property, and by its sale realize his demands.

We do not grudge the Collectors their salaries, but we should like to see the Magistrates put upon the same footing.—We should like to have two grades of Collectors and two of Magistrates, the salaries of the highest grade in each being equal, and this would enable the Government to have men of some experience to control the Police. When it is remembered, that if a Magistrate through inexperience acquits a guilty person
he cannot be again tried; that a Magistrate is vested with the power of inflicting corporal punishment, a punishment from which an appeal is unavailing; that all classes of society combine to mislead him; that he is vested with the immediate control and the power of suspending and dismissing the Police Officers, many of whom were appointed before he was born; surely it must be admitted that experience in a Magistrate is indispensably necessary to the due administration of Justice, and to the efficiency of the Police. But to return to the system of control.

To the mode of trial we have no objection to offer, though we must regret that the incapacity or inexperience of the Judicial Officers should render a fourth or even a fifth investigation necessary, for this is a principal cause of the distaste exhibited by the Natives to our Courts. The distance of most places from the Sudder Station, where the trials are ordinarily held, is highly objectionable, and is, we know, a great incentive to the people to conceal crime and baffle the Police; but as the Government are aware of the defect, and are striving to remedy it by the appointment of Deputy Magistrates, a bare mention of the fact is all that is necessary. When a sufficient number of qualified officers of the description are procured, "the interposition of officers between the Thannadars and the Magistrates, armed with judicial powers to try minor cases," as recommended by Colonel Sleeman, will doubtless be made.

The insecurity of office is considered by Colonel Sleeman as a great cause of inefficiency, and in this opinion we heartily concur. No respectable Native will accept an office from which he knows he may be removed in a fit of irritation, and those appointed at the present day are for the most part the lowest of the low. They accept office for the sole purpose of filling their pockets as speedily as possible, and, if detected and dismissed, hurry away to another district where their delinquencies are unknown. Little care is taken in the appointment of Darogahs, nor indeed is the field of selection large, and in few instances is security, the means contemplated by the Government for ensuring respectability, demanded.
We would not take away the power of suspension and dismissal of the Police Officers from a Magistrate, but we would take care that it should be exercised with discretion. We would extend to the Police the same protection as is extended to the Native Judges. We would in extreme cases allow of suspension, but we would have the reasons reported for the immediate confirmation of the Superintendent of Police. Where the reasons for suspension are not urgent, or the Darogahs or Mohurirs are deemed fit persons to be dismissed, we would have the dismissal sanctioned by the Superintendent of Police before the dismissal take place.

It remains for us to notice the Statement system, and we will then bring this article to a close.

These Statements, if rightly used, are, we think, admirably calculated to answer the purpose intended. We say rightly used, for their use is perverted, and they are made the source of much evil. They are intended to ensure regularity, activity, and efficiency among all classes, by showing clearly and distinctly that each Officer has done and is doing his duty; and they are made instead the sources of dishonesty, inefficiency, and neglect, by being considered as proofs that duties have been neglected. If for instance a Dacoity has occurred, and the Police Darogah has been unable to trace the offenders, the offence having perhaps been committed only two days before the end of the month, the bare crime is entered in the Statements, but the column of apprehensions blank. Blank too become the faces of the Magistrate, the Sessions Judge, the Superintendent of Police, and the Judges of the Nizamut Adawlut; and as all consider erroneously that the Statement is final, all agree that the Police is worthless. Occasionally they vent their spleen one upon another by hinting at insufficiency of control somewhere: but as neither is willing to believe that the alleged incapacity rests with himself, the taunt is handed on from one to the other, till it bursts in accumulated fury upon the heads of the Police. A Perwannah or order is issued to the Darogah, informing him that unless he can apprehend the criminals within a given time, he will be dismissed as incapable;
and a futile threat, and so known to be by the Police, is sometimes added, that he will be worked upon the roads with labor and irons.

Now a Dacoity or a well contrived robbery is not always to be sifted to the bottom in the course of a week, or even in a month: but sifted it must be in some fashion, and the crime brought home to some one within the given period; or the Police Officer is ruined—his appointment is taken from him. Failing in discovering the right parties, the Darogah casts his eyes around for suspicious characters, or for persons for some reasons or other obnoxious to himself, and weaves around them such a web of false evidence, that the victims, completely entangled and seeing no road to escape, throw themselves as they suppose upon the clemency of the Courts, and confess themselves guilty of the crimes of which they are accused. The next month’s Statements do not go down blank, and all the controlling officers from the Magistrate to the Nizamut are delighted. The Darogah is extolled to the skies, and receives perhaps a pecuniary reward, and he repeats the same fraud again and again until he is either convicted or raised to the highest office in his Department.

That an innocent person should confess himself to be guilty of an heinous offence, will be to many incredible, but instances are by no means rare. Some persons are induced to confess by the promise of a large reward, measures being understood to be taken to prove their innocence; others confess from the fear of maltreatment, and others from ignorance of the consequences, they being told that no injury will ensue to them,—while a few confess with the view of extorting money from their families and connections, who pay both them and the Police large bribes to conceal a circumstance which would otherwise entail disgrace upon them.

We will mention an instance of the first description of confession, which is one of several within our own knowledge. A Darogah reported that a murder had occurred, but that he was quite unable to obtain a clue to the murderers, as no one in the village where the crime was perpetrated was acquainted with
the deceased. The Magistrate, suspecting the Darogah to be guilty of roguery or inefficiency, informed him, that if he omitted to send in the perpetrator within ten days, he was to consider himself as suspended, and to present himself at his Court as soon as possible. Being an honest man the Darogah did present himself and stated that he had used all the justifiable means in his power to discover the murderers, but without success. The Darogah was dismissed from his appointment, and a Mohurir of the Magistrate's Court was deputed forthwith to prosecute the inquiry, with the due intimation, that if successful in obtaining the conviction of the guilty parties, he should be appointed to the vacant Darogahship. He too was unsuccessful, but as such a chance of an appointment might never again occur, he offered a hundred Rupees reward to any one who would confess the crime. Strange as it may seem, two applicants were speedily found, and to ensure the silence of both, the reward was to be divided between them. A story was immediately concocted and circumstances introduced into it by the wily Mohurir, which would admit of corroboration by the inhabitants of the village. The confessions were duly made before and attested by competent persons; the circumstances artfully introduced, were corroborated by some respectable people; and the case, complete in all its parts, was transmitted together with the prisoners to the Magistrate, before whom they again repeated their confessions, the Mohurir informing them that until that was done, they had not earned the promised reward.

Before the Sessions Court the Prisoners denied that they had made any confession at all, and stated that the heads of the village had written some papers which they had made them sign, but that they (the prisoners) were wholly innocent of the contents. To prove the statement they cited a number of witnesses, whom it would be necessary to summon through their friends the Mohurir, now installed in the office of Darogah and who were by him to be properly instructed in the evidence they were to give; but all declared that they had heard the prisoners make the confession imputed to them, and were wholly
ignorant of the charge made against the heads of the village. The prisoners were convicted, and were sentenced to death by the Court of Nazumut Adawlut, but on learning their fate made a fair statement of the roguery practised by them; and as very luckily for them they had chanced to be in confinement in the Jail on the day on which the murder occurred, they obtained their acquittal.

If on the other hand the Darogah be unable to catch the real delinquents, and is too conscientious to resort to torture and perjury, he is ruined. Laughed at by the rural population around him for his scruples, branded as inefficient by the officers of Government, he keeps out of the way till his inefficiency is forgotten; and when “tried once more,” his principles having been discarded, he is found to be a “very valuable public officer.”

These Statements, as we have before remarked, we consider to be excellent, if rightly used, and as we have shewn the abuses they lead to, we will state what we consider to be the right use of them. Their object, as we conceive, is to shew that each officer is doing his duty, and not only that, but how he is doing it. They are indeed the test of efficiency, but we would but less stress than is now put upon the figured part of them, and more upon the explanatory. If a Dacoity occurred in the month of May, for instance, we would not have the Darogah or the Magistrate blamed, because the column of apprehensions is blank in that month, and also in June, or even in July; but we would have a full explanation of the measures taken towards the apprehension of the guilty parties, and if they appeared judicious, though unsuccessful, we would praise rather than blame, for success is not within the certain grasp of any one. We would not either blame a Magistrate or Darogah, as is now done, simply because it may appear that many prisoners are under trial either in jail or on bail, or many cases undisposed of, at the end of a month, quarter, or year; but we would have a full explanation of the reasons of delay, and if they are satisfactory, we would give as much credit to the officers before whom several cases are pending, as we
would to those who have disposed of all their cases. We would:
even look with suspicion upon those whose files were blank,
and satisfy ourselves that their duties had been performed;
that they were not blank for the sole view of obtaining praise:
as active and efficient officers.

One word more, and we have done. We notice that the
Superintendent of Police is disposed to blame the Magistrates for
not directing enquiries to be made into petty thefts and robberies,
but were they to do so, the spirit of the laws would be violated.
Our laws and our system of Government are in advance of the
people, and it was this fact which led Lord W. Bentinck to pass
the law forbidding the Police to investigate cases without a
petition from the injured party. If they are satisfied to put up
with their loss, the aggrieved parties argue, why should the
Magistrate torment himself? If we saw any likelihood of getting
the offender punished, of gratifying our revenge, we would our-
selves come forward; but as this cannot be the case, why should
we be subjected to the unnecessary oppression of a visitation
of the Police? The object of having all crimes reported does
not, and will not, for years to come present itself to their minds,
and we hope to find the next report free from these remarks.

The Superintendent of Police also calls for a law to put
down the Lattyal or Club system. But why? Because he has
overlooked the provisions of Section 21, Regulation 12 of 1807,
—has disregarded the relation of servant and master. Let him
enforce the first law which requires each person to register every
description of guard,—for the Planters themselves call these
Lattyal Guards maintained for the protection of their property,
—and there will be no difficulty in enforcing the second.

It is not the passing of new laws or the voting of a larger
expenditure that is chiefly necessary to render the Police
efficient; what is mainly required, is, that the people be morally
and religiously instructed, that existing laws be more efficiently
administered, and existing expenditure be re-distributed and
directed into the right channels. The remedies are within the
hands of the Local Government, and, if they are not applied, we
at least have done our duty in calling its attention to them.

_Calcutta Review. 3, 5; 1845._
DAILY LIFE
OF A SAHIB IN CALCUTTA*

T. SMITH

THERE are probably not very many of our readers whose recollections do not include visits paid, in the days of other years, to houses “at home”, that had sent forth some of their members to search for glory, or for gold, the regions of the East. Such need not be reminded of the admiration, with which they were wont to gaze on the “Indian curiosites,” that had been sent home, with the view of imparting to affectionate relative some idea of the environments, amidst which their beloved exile had pitched his tent in the land, of his sojourneying. Now we can predict, with considerable confidence, that the book, now in our hands, will ere long be as regularly found on the drawing room tables of such houses, as hitherto the palm-leaf or ivory fans, the curiously carved ivory balls, and the tale paintings, on the mantel-piece—the large umbrella, the sola hat, the long spear, and the battleaxe, in the lobby—the leopards’ or tigers’ skins on the landing places of the stairs—the powder manufactured curry, and the chatni, on the dinner-table, the hooka after dinner, (in “learning to like” which, various qualms are by the adventurous encountered), and the preserved ginger and citron and guava jelly at the dessert. And truly the “sketch” before us will do more to put our friends at home up to an infinity of our belongings than would a whole ware-house of “Oriental Presents,” consisting of things that we never see, except when we go to buy them for the purpose of sending them home. This is not the case with the articles described and delineated in the very clever production before us. They are the persons and the things that are around us, and about us, throughout our every walking and every sleeping hour; and are just the things,

* Formerly published under the title Calcutta Domestic Life.
which those, who are most interested in us, would like to understand, because we are so constantly surrounded by them, and which, for the very same reason, strange as it may appear, ordinary letter-writers never think of describing.

Before we go further, we may as well announce our townsman, Mr. C. Grant, as the author of the sketch. The publication is indeed anonymous; but we do not think we are guilty of any breach of confidence in making this announcement, in as much as, to those who are acquainted with Mr. G.'s previous publications* the fact is virtually announced in every page save the title-page. We may sagely say that there is no artist in India, who could have produced the work before us, except Mr. Grant.

Mr. Grant's sketch then is a gossipping rambling letter, descriptive of Indian men, and manners, and habits. The author follows no very regular plan, but breaks off from point to point, as object after object strikes his artistic eye. And we propose to indulge ourselves in a similar gossipping and rambling notice of it.

After a short preface, and a dedication to the memory of the mother, for whose gratification the sketch was originally designed, the writer starts off at once into a description of his Calcutta home. Outside and inside, above and below, he delineates it with the accuracy of an appraiser, and the skill of an artist. It is surprising how difficult it is to give to the uninitiated an idea of ordinary things, without the aid of diagram, or graphic illustration. We remember on our return voyage of India after a temporary absence, having had the greatest possible difficulty in making our shipmates understand the nature of that simplest of all machines, a hall punkah; and it was not till we enlisted a log-slate and a clue of spun-yarn into the service, and rigged an actual jury punkah in the

* Oriental Heads; and sketches of Public characters; and several single portraits. Among these we may take the liberty of mentioning a very admirable likeness of the Lord Bishop of Calcutta, which is just about to be published, and which will doubtless be eagerly sought for by his Lordships numerous friends and admirers.
cuddy, that we quite succeeded in indoctrinating some of the more obtuse of the party into a knowledge of the mystery. This day the way, suggests another place, where our friend's sketch will be sure to be found, and where it will not fail to be extensively popular—in the cuddy, to wit, of all outward bound India men.

The description of his own house in Calcutta naturally leads to a sketch of a bungalow (which, we think, we recognize as one at Barrackpore) and of the quadrangle of a native house. Then there is a well-merited tribute to the taste of Col. Powney, who, as many of our readers know, surrounded himself, wherever he sojourned, was well with all manner of birds and beasts and creeping things, as with a body of young men, whom he blessed with his counsel, and in many other ways: and many of whom delight in remembering the obligations, under which he laid them at the outset of their honourable career.

It is but a poor, and evidently a sour-grape sort of congratulation that our author chuckes over, when confessing the absence of that essential element of home comfort, the fire, and the cheerful fire-side. He boasts forsooth, that, if we have no fires, we have no smoky chimneys. The fact is, that very few of our houses have fire-places; but all of them ought to have; and if we were invested with legislative authority, the very first Gazette should contain the Draft of an Act to render it penal to build a house without a fire-place. We rejoice to know that "the voluntary principle" is already at work in this direction, and that a good fire is a luxury of which our children understand the meaning. It was not so a few years ago. The daughter of a friend of ours went home only three or four years ago, and of all the wonders that she saw to wonder at in that most wonderful of all places, London—the one, that seemed to strike her as the most wonderful, was the fire in the parlor grate. The fact is, that there is a good long period of every year, during which the weather is such, that there is no place in the world, where a fire is either more enjoyable, or more necessary.
Elsewhere it is possible by other means to produce a comfortable temperature of body; but here nothing will do it but a fire. The cold of Bengal is indeed a formidable foe, against which no weapons but fire-arms will avail to wage effectual war. Every one of us has experienced the feeling which dictated the words which Mr. Martin, puts into the mouth of a sturdy Scotsman; 'the cold of Caledonia's mountains he could bear, but against the cold of Bengal he was powerless.' He, who should put a grate and a chimney into each house in Bengal would be worthy to have his name handed down along-side of his, who found the imperial city of brick, and left it of marble.

Our author waxes eloquent upon the mosquitoes, those most formidable antagonists of the Anglo-Indian's comfort, whose "wound is great, because it is so small". We suppose our anxious relatives at home, when they think of the discomforts to which we are exposed in this land, conjure up in their imaginations a group of Bengal tigers, and cobras, and hideous alligators, and our poor selves trembling with terror, while we are fleeing from one, lest we fall into the jaws of the other. But we can assure them for their satisfaction, that if the number of the cobras were doubled, and that of the alligators trebled and that of the tigers quadrupled, while that of the mosquitoes should be halved, the comfort of the ninety-nine out of every hundred European residents in India would be sensibly increased. One of our friends, indeed, professes to have arrived at such a pitch of philosophy as rather to like them than otherwise, and the affliction that they caused to ourselves on our first arrival is now a matter of distant recollection; but really to new-comers the matter is a very serious one. We have seen more than one lady whose feet were so inflamed and blistered, that she could not put them to the ground; and we remember there was in the ship, in which we first came to India a sailor-boy who was invalided for half the voyage, by reason of the bites, that he had received on his previous trip. Captain Basil Hall's description of a griffin's turning into bed is no caricature. It must be said, however, in justice to trans-fossil
Bengal, that whenever we cross "the ditch", the post is greatly abated.

Our entomology is indeed a subject of much interest to every new-comer. If the mosquitoes interest him painfully, the red ants, which swarm in our houses, excite his curiosity, and are frequently the objects of his watchful attention. We think it is old Nestor Iron-sides, in the Guardian, that describes a community of ants, we deemed fabulous. But scarcely any terms could do more than justice to the sagacity and persevering industry of their brethren in India. The white ant is a disgusting insect, with which all mankind, that is all Indian mankind, wage, and ought to wage, interecine war; but the red ant is a respectable and companionable fellow, to which we can pleasantly consent to give up an occasional sponge-cake, or the remnants of a jar of jelly. Like the house-swallower in England, the red ant in India seems to claim our protection; and, unlike the swallow, he abides with us in all seasons, and renders us not an unimportant service in clearing away, as our author says, the carcass of any defunct cockroach or departed lizard, that many have escaped the vigilance, or the broom, of the sweater. The small black ants too are a poor delicate helpless race, which there is neither honour nor advantage in destroying; and the large black ants do not generally infest our houses, however they, mole-like, may sometimes disfigure our lawns. But the white ants! We affect them not. Without doors, and within, in our trees, our wardrobes, our furniture, and worst of all, our book-cases, they commit their disgusting and destructive ravages; and it is all but impossible to be secure against their attacks. We have heard that the venerable Dr. Carey was never known to be thoroughly enraged by creature except by these same white ants: and, well he might,—for they utterly destroyed in a single night either Walton's Polyglott or Poole's Synopsis. We believe it is on record, that the good old man forthwith set about a search after the queen mother, with the view of cutting off the succession; but whether he succeeded, or not, we do not remember to have heard. If however our readers wish to
peruse a description of such a hunt for the prolific mother of this unclean race, they will find a very graphic one in Captain Basil Hall’s Fragments, in which the principal huntsman was not the meek Dr. Carey, but the choleric, warm-hearted admiral, Sir Samuel Hood.

Not one of the least amusing portions of the sketch before us is the description of the cook room. It certainly would astonish a European artiste, were he to set eyes on the place, whence our dinners are produced, and on the implements and utensils, wherewith and wherein they are concocted. If the saying be true, (which he once quoted before, while discussing in these pages a somewhat different subject) that he is the real philosopher who can “bore with a saw, and saw with a gimblet”, we may claim for our Indian cooks a high standing place in the temple of science. We cannot precisely say whether it is true or not as is commonly reported that the French cooks can convert superannuated leather slippers into all the elegant luxuries of courses; but, supposing it to be so, we could back the cooks of producing eatable dinners with the smallest possible apparatus of the implements of their craft.

From the cook room, our author proceeds to the store-room, where he delivers a lecture upon wine and beer, Calcutta auctions, Calcutta tradesmen generally, China shoe-makers, the adulteration of various goods, and the substitution of country made, for “Europe,” articles.

He then returns to the subject of wine and beer and quotes various opinions, and various practices, of medical men for and against the use of these beverages in tropical climates destructive; a third, that water is certainly by far the best drink, in support of which opinion he had not himself tasted water in 28 years, but had enjoyed excellent health all the time.* It is

* It should be noticed however, in justice to Dr. Corbyn, one of the worthiest and best of men, and absolutely incapable of insincerity, that this inconsistency between his theory and his practice was, in a manner, accidental. He had formed the habit of drinking everyday a very moderate allowance of beer, and nothing else; but he confidently believed that, since the habit had been formed, it was better not to break it off; but that it would have been better still, if it had never been formed.
just the old story. General rules will not suit all cases. We believe that one main reason of the improved health and prolonged life of the European people of India now as compared with former times, is the great increase of temperate habits among consumption of wine, beer, and spirituous liquors would produce a still further improvement in the health of the community; but we believe there is a limit which it is dangerous to cross; and this limit is different for different individuals. It must in fact be ascertained, by an inductive process by each individual for himself.

From those liquids, the author proceeds to descent upon milk, or upon that compound, which passes muster as a substitute for it within the ditch. It is indeed very poor stuff at the best; and we have often wondered, that, amongst all our "companies" no one has even been formed, for the supply of pure milk to the inhabitants. From milk, he makes a transition to buffaloes, wild and tame; butter; butter making; the Acra farm; Bandel, Dacca and Hissar cheese, (the last of which, he says, is by some considered equal to Parmezan); and then, to that staff of Bengal life—ghee. It is altogether astonishing to what an extent the consumption of this article is carried by many of our native fellow-subjects. If they are in good health, they take it in all possible and imaginable forms; and in a few, that are neither possible nor imaginable, because they are well; and, if they are sick, they take it in still other forms in order to make them well. We remember once, on occasion of a severe illness, to have received a visit from a native gentleman of the respectable old school class.

On entering the room where we were extended on a couch, he stood speechless for a couple of minutes, as in astonishment at the emaciation that the disease and the doctors had been clubbing for three weeks to produce; and then broke silence with "Ah. master must drink ghee. Master lean too much—ghee make master fat—very good thing ghee!" The goodly presence of our friend was a sufficient voucher, that he at least was no
stranger to an experimental test of his own prescription. It is
certainly strange, that, in so hot a climate, such an article of
diet should be used in any considerable quantity. We can
understand how the inhabitants of Polar regions regale them-
selves with train oil; but it is strange that a similar regalement
should find acceptance with the inhabitants of a sultry land
like Bengal; yet so it is. As our author truly remarks—"To the
natives generally, I believe that nothing can be too rich. They
are as fond of ghee as the Esquimaux".

The next subject noticed is that of conveyance. This is a
fertile subject. For variety of equinages, we believe the Calcutta
Course might be backed against the world; and really although
some of them are sufficiently grotesque, and although there may
no one that in the London parks would be deemed actually first
rate, doubt whether so large a number of neat carriages and
good horses could be found any where else in the world. There
are no doubt in London a few "truns-out" that might out-price
any two Calcutta ones; but we question whether two hundred
vehicles, that should first pass a stationary spectator in Hyde
Park, would be found on the whole, so good, or so neatly
turned out, as an equal number that should pass him at driving
time, on the strand, in Calcutta. But the European vehicles all
yield in point of interest to the Karanchi, and we do not under-
stand why our author has withheld a sketch of it. Sure we are,
that his pencil would have found employment, worthy of it, in
delineating the horses, the harness, the driver, with his foot ever
lifted in mid-air, in order to add emphasis to the coups-de-fouet
wherewith he incessantly visits his cattle—the passengers, three
asleep, three awake, and one in transitu,—and the carriage itself.
Words are baffled. Really, there should have been a picture of
the Karanchi.

The subject, next introduced, is that of horses, and their
"keep". Of the temper of our country, horses our author seems
to have formed no very high opinion. Our experience has led
us to a some what different conclusion. We know that some of
the cavalry horses are very savage; but then, we believe, it is
the delight and pastime of the sowars to render them so. We
remember to have heard from an old cavalry officer, that it was not unusual thing for a horse to seize the rider in front of him by the loions, and drag him from his horse, and while his own rider pulled him off his fore-legs by a powerful Hindustani bit, to rear on his hind-legs with his victim dangling from his mouth. We believe this, to the extent that it had happened once or twice; and we lately knew a horse do, what we never heard of a horse's doing before—that is, biting his rider, while actually on his back. It was little brute of a pony, that, on receiving a touch of the switch, deliberately turned his head round and upwards, like an elephant grasping a branch of a tree over his head, seized his rider's arm, and bit it so severly, that there was danger of its requiring to be amputated. But withal, we do not think that our country horses are generally so bad-tempered. Of those, with which we have been personally conversant, a fair proportion have been perfectly gentle.

The subject, next introduced, is bathing; one of the real luxuries of our hot-weather life.

We have long been of opinion, that as a general rule, every one of us ought to bathe every day once. Lord Bacon somewhere relates of "a certain bishop"; that he used to bathe twice a day, and, being asked the reason, replied—"because I cannot conveniently bathe thrice". But we health, or comfort, require more than one thorough ablution a day, unless in extraordinary circumstances, however, we do not think that this should ever be omitted. By a very natural transition, our author passes from the subject of bathing to that of water; and truly we must acknowledge, that the best drinking water in Calcutta is not good. We never enjoy a glass of water, however properly it may be iced, within the ditch. Filtering makes it look clear enough; but still is not good. So far as we know, the best correction of the Calcutta water is charcoal made from the wood of the Babul tree. This, we believe, may be had from the apothecaries at a very moderate price, and really makes the water drinkable. The subject is an important one, and we trust that our readers will be suitably grateful to us for the hint, that we now furnish to them.
The next topic introduced is the fertile one of servants, on which there is a long discussion, containing many remarks that are well worthy of being pondered by all Indian residents: and this, by the way, suggests to us, that we have not yet allowed our author, in any instance, to speak for himself, and that we may as well introduce an extract on this subject.

We will now, if you please, return into the house, where being seated, allow me to direct your attention to an Indian domestic squad. Of the characters of its members, we have as may varying estimates, both oral and written, as they, probably, were they to turn authors, would give of their masters, the Europeans; a diversity of opinion, however, that may be traced to the usual sources, difference of rank and station, of temper and of habits, and of many accidental causes, which you can imagine, as I describe.

The Calcutta servants, are, chiefly, natives of Bengal, a portion of this mighty land, wherein the class, to which the domestic (at least) belong, is (as nearly all authors and all living witnesses, whom I have either met with, or heard of agree in representing) at a very low ebb in morality. It will not be necessary for me to be more definite than this, with reference to class,—I feel assured that the “natives of Bengal”, sometimes so collectively and sweepingly spoken of, will not need either exception, or advocacy, so humble as mine. I am happy in the acquaintance of a few native gentlemen, of his friendship and esteem I shall always be proud, and who, together with many of the rising generation, now educating,—springing up, as it were, from a new soil—are, I trust, calculated to prove to their country, both “useful and ornamental”.

From the servants then, without education, without the inculcation of any moral code, accustomed to those listless habits which climate, want of mental excitement, and the depression consequent on political causes, operating for ages past, have induced, it would be vain to seek for any large evidence of principle or spirit; though, under circumstances of excitement they may occasionally be seen to extraordinary advantage. They are patient, forbearing, generally speaking, grave and quiet in their demeanour; and I believe that with a proper acquaintance with their language, a determined and consistent strictness short of personal violence (as erroneously or heedlessly resorted to by some, as ingloriously by others) regular payment of wages, and careful administration of justice in the various little disputes and grievances arising amongst themselves, and that are most probably submitted to their masters, as “of the bench” for adjustment, much may be done towards gaining
their respect, attention, and even attachment. I have heard instances of their following their masters on foot, and coming in, after a journey of six or seven hundred miles with cheerful-ness. In one of these instances, following the same cord and mistress (upon whom indeed it reflects much honour) was an aged female domestic:

in the words of Chaucer.

"So eld she was, that she ne went
A foote, but it were by portent".

and who, declining the use of the bullock carriages, which, she said, only made her bones ache, actually performed nearly the whole of the journey from Cawnpoor to Lahore, from Lahore to Mussoorie, thence to Gwalior, and finally to Calcutta, on foot.

Amidst, however, so vast a variety of people, whom fortune or misfortune, adventure or trade, servitude or crime, may have severed from their native soil in all parts of this vast country or this vast land and its many countries and thrown into the city as a common centre, you will readily suppose that there exists a proportionate variety in character and worth. You will as readily believe that a city, ever the arena of vice and dishonesty, is not only the least advantageous to the morals and education of the lower order of its inhabitants, but to the estimate, which observers, who may not have particularly studied Miss Martineau, will form of the people at large: hence many of these prejudices and errors in regards to the people of India, which are so injurious to a kindly state of feeling generally betwixt them and Europeans, and to a just discrimination of the evil from the good, which "per adventure may be found," amongst the domestics, or their qualities. I have spoken however, of diversity of opinion; a case will illustrate this.

Let us suppose an old and independent resident,—his health best, it not alone, preserved by a warm climate—long habi-
tuated to a troop of attendants—taught on his arrival and accustomed to obey, an unwritten but thoroughly understood law, which saith, "Thou shalt for nothing for thy self, which thy servant can do for thee"—having in fact, resided over long in the camp of Darus, and acquired a natural fondness for eastern pomp, servility, and quietude—forming, or influ-
cenced in his estimate of the people's worthy, not by their integrity, but by the degree in which their services conduce to this envied state of case and feudal dignity; never having need to study either their expense, or individual industry, which will not appear to be lacking in the presence, and (from the numbers to share it) is never very largely drawn upon,—such
an individual is not likely, unless a man of very observing mind, to view, otherwise than favourably, the reverential and submissive Asiatic attendants, whom he will probably declare to be the finest servants in the world". These, on the other hand with high and regularly paid wages; with full opportunity for the acquisition of "perquisites", and with very little to do, will of course do their best to set that little off to advantage. Away, however, from attendance on the master, or put in the slightest degree out of the usual way, none can be seen more independent and careless. They will do nothing, which is not "so nominated in the bond"; to which many Europeans, unless acting from motives of private policy, are good natured, or weak enough, to yield. I have generally observed far more neglect of strangers, or visitors, and sometimes worse attendance in the houses of the higher classes, than in humbler dwellings.

The individual of more circumscribed means has to look somewhat closer, and through a less golden medium than his wealthy neighbour.

He is brought into immediate collision, both with the servants and the people generally; and then it is that the gulf between master and man in India becomes apparent. Participation of interest, or feeling, cannot be expected. Dissimilar faiths, and diametrically opposed habits and customs, even amongst equals, who, with few exceptions, neither eat nor drink together and lack, consequently, one of the grand sources of sociality and good feeling, are sufficiently inimical to any such participation: how much more, therefore, where servitude is the only connecting bond? Whether rich or poor, the Europeans are regarded as birds of passage; the domestic in India, therefore, can never, as in England, look upon himself as in a place of permanency, as forming part and portion of the family, domiciled for his old age,—possessing, as it were, for his own, and probably children's sake, an actual interest, a fee simple, in the very soil.

Although I feel assured that the mass of Europeans arrive in the country most favourably disposed towards their "brethren of the sun, "there appear no means for appliances, save the enlightening and all charity-breathing spirit of Christianity (where its riches are fairly drawn upon), to foster and encourage the disposition; and so it commonly follows in a short time that those, who on their arrival, had entered their protests against the severe opinions, careless demeanour, and harsh language of their friends, themselves merge into the indifferent, the careless, and the severe.

The want of principle, so unhappily prevailing amongst the
very class with whom Europeans in Calcutta have the most dealings, strikes at one of the most vital points in man's affections. Indifference to the master's interests begets, of course, indifference to the servants' feelings; and their want of spirit and energy seems further, too often, to beget the opinion that they have no feelings to hurt. Ignorance of their language bars appealing to, or correcting, them in a proper manner; and thus it follows, that the fears or self-interest are supposed, and, in many cases, too truly, to be their only assailable points. The feelings thus engendered toward the servants, extend themselves to the people at large.

With persons of violent tempers, insufferable pride, and sweeping prejudices—maladies incurable, and as common to the frozen north, as to the burning east—it can only be said—You cannot "gather figs from thorns, not grapes from thistles. To the impetuous may be added the juvenile, and too often, consequently, the inconsiderate; of whom, arriving in the country at the ages of sixteen and seventeen, no small number go towards the formation, immediately and ultimately, of Indian society. With hotblood in their veins, little judgment in their heads, and spirits above boiling point—sobriety or circumspection of behaviour would be milksopism in their vocabulary; any tricks, inconsistencies, or indignities, are of no consequence to the "black fellows", who, in accordance probably with the imbied notions of our young Englishers, are regarded, without discrimination, as rogues, thieves and pusillanimous cowards, undeserving either of consideration of respect. The mildness of demeanour, perfectly natural to the Bengal oriental, whatever his principles be, is neither appreciated nor understood, but rather furnishes theme for contempt.

On the other hand, the very griffinage of many kind-hearted persons is evidenced by some attempted demonstrations of kindness, conceivable only in an English brain, or of that unrestrained demeanour which they have been accustomed to show towards domestics at home. There, the spirit of Benevolence need fear no mortification, the rejection of her offerings and her sacrifices; here, where superstition, fatality, priest-craft, and idolatry, live and reign in almost the zenith of their prosperity and their power—where our griffins cannot approach even a menial who may be cooking—offer his child a fruit—accidentally touch an article of his cooking paraphernalia—lay finger on his hooka, or put foot within the threshold of his mud hut—without having imparted pollution; where, amongst the most heinous sins of ill-breeding, is that of asking man after the welfare of his wife and sisters—and to admire and compliment his infant is to plant upon it "an evil eye"—where if, in mercy and in kindness, they offer medicine to the sick, it is probably
refused from their hands or their vessel—one might detail a
catalogue of their errors and mishaps, to exceed even those of
the ‘Blunderer’ of Theophrastus.

Turn which way they will, they are checked in every attempt
to do the polite, or the social; their endeavours to render any
little attention, or acts of consideration might be compared to a
child’s industrious exertions with shawl, pillows, and sweet-
meats, to “make pussy comfortable.”

Now these little things are neither agreeable nor self-flatter-
ing, and in spite of some persons’ philosophy, act as so many
rebuffs and annoyances; the consequence is that the European,
in self-defence, wraps himself in a cloak of dignified reserve, and
holds a respectful distance for the future.

Here we must stop; else we should very willingly go on to
quote our author’s very sensible remarks upon the advantage
that would be derived by each individual, if, on coming to
India he (or she) would set resolutely to the learning of one, or
other of the native languages. Hindustani probably would be
best for a lady in almost every part of India; but it is very
desirable, that every gentleman, in addition to a competent
knowledge of this widely spread dialect, should be able to read
and speak well the language, peculiar to the part of the country,
where he is “located”. This would unquestionably cause him
to be regarded with much greater respect by the natives. In
fact it is not very creditable to us, that we generally know so
little of the language of the people among whom we sojourn.
Multitudes of instances might he given to show the evil efforts
that have arisen from want of knowledge of the language, on
the part of those who might have known it. But we shall
content ourselves with one instance, in which the effects were
not evil, but only ludicrous; and this we the rather give, because
we can vouch for the actual occurrence of the fact, substantially
as we relate it, and because it has never “appeared in print”
before. A lady had occasion to be dissatisfied with the
condition of her carriage horses. They had gram and grass at
will, but still they seemed to grow leaner and leaner. At last
she took the advice of a friend, who recommended that a trial
should be made with oats. She accordingly wrote a “chit” to a
lady, who was her next-door neighbour, to the following effect—
“Pray tell me what is Hindustani for oats?” The answer was returned immediately, and forthwith the coachman was summoned. He appeared in full state; and, whatever might be the condition of the horses, he was all right on that score. After making due salams, the following dialogue took place:—

Lady. Why are the horses so thin?
Coachee. How can I tell, Mem Saheb? If it be the will of Allah that they should be thin, who shall make them otherwise?
Illa. But why are they so lean?
Ille. If you Ladyship does not know, how can your slave by possibility know?
Illa. But what do you give them? What do they eat?
Ille. Every day each one eats four seers and sixteen bundles, (4 seers of gram and 16 bundles of grass).
Illa. But do you not give them any rats?
Ille. (With an adjuration), How can I do so?
Illa. Of course, No wonder though they are lean. In England we always give our horses plenty of rats; and they are so nice and plump.
Ille. Oh Father.
Ille. Every day give them one seer of rats; one seer, you understand, mixed up with their gram, and you will soon see how fat they will grow.
Ille. (Looking excessively puzzled). But how shall I get them?
Illa. In the bazar, to be sure. Are there not any in the grain dealer’s shops?
Ille. Too many there.
Illa. Well, get a maund; have you not got money?
Ille. Yes; but they not to be sold.
Illa. Why. Did not you tell me that they are in the grain dealer’s shops. Why wan’t they sell them?
Ille. But how shall they be caught?
Thus the dialogue went on for some time, until the lady began to “smell a rat”—if we may be allowed for once to condescend upon such an expression—and dismissed the
coachman to discuss the wonderment with the syces, while she is like manner sought the assistance for her husband towards the unravelment of the mystery. We presume our readers have unravelled it long ago; and therefore we need scarcely explain, that the note, which she sent to her neighbour, being written in a modern "lady's hand", the first principle of which, as of the science of derivative etymology, seems to be, that "all letters are convertible", the receiver read "rats instead of "oats", and gave answer accordingly. We cannot make the matter palpable by means of types; but if any sceptical reader will ask any young lady to write the two words in her best hand, he will see how natural the mistake was. Before we leave this subject of mistakes arising from an imperfect knowledge of the language, we must take leave to caution our readers against ever being betrayed into the addressing to their servants any of the terms of abuse, that they may hear them address to one another. We have been told that it is not very uncommon thing, to hear ladies call their servants by a name, which applied by one man to another, conveys the basest insinuation against some members of his family, and which, addressed by a female to a male, could only convey the basest declaration respecting herself. Of course the servants know very well, that it is in pure and perfect ignorance of the meaning of the term that the lady uses it; but how they chuckle over it, and make it and her the subject of all manner of impure conversation among themselves, can easily be imagined.

On the subject of language there is another point on which we must say our say. It is about the language that is taught by the servants to our children. A friend once assured us, that he overheard a band of his own servants teaching his two daughters to repeat very term of obscenity in the language. This we trust is a rate case; but this certain, that all our children learn terms of abuse, and especially that one to which we have just alluded. Of course they know nothing of the meaning of it; but it is not to be doubted that a portion of that impurity of mind, which dictates the impurity of language to those, who do understand it, and continually make-
use of it, is transferred into the tender minds of those, who pick up the language without understanding it. The practical conclusion is, not that children should not be allowed to learn the language of the servants, for this it is impossible to prevent; but that they should never be left under their care, when it is possible for them to be under the care of their parents. This would be attended with many good effects, which this is not the place to enter upon.

The mention of khansamahs, and their monthly bills, leads the author into a digression, (if and thing can be properly called a digression, where no special order is professed to be followed) upon the coinage and current money of the country. He then gives a description of the various bazars in Calcutta, as they were in the days when his "sketch" was begun. We must quote his description of the Burra bazar:

"But for oriental traffic, oriental tongues, and Oriental heads commend me to the Burra bazar,* a mart tailed on to the north end of the China Bazar and occupied or visited by merchants and travellers from all parts of the East; from the snowy range of the Himalayas, north westward, to the very shores of the Caspian and Mediterranean—southward, from the scorching sands of Arabia Deserts to Cape Comorin, and eastward, to the Archipelago and the Celestial Empire.

Few Europeans, I believe, have ever taken the trouble of exploring the inmost recesses of the Babel-like regions of the Burra Bazar. Indeed a person might walk through it, and from the singular manner in which the buildings are constructed, remain unconscious, that the chief or most important part of the traffic existed above his head—whole range of little offices or apartments occupying a second floor, to which, possibly, but one of two narrow, dark, break-neck passages are to be found as entrances.

Here above and below, may be seen the jewels of Golconda and Bundelkund, the shawls of Cashmere, the broad cloths of England, silks of Moorsheadabad and Benares, muslins of Dacca calicoes, gingham, chintzes, brocade of Persia, spicery and myrrh and frankincense from Ceylon, the spice Islands, and Arabia, shells from the eastern coast and straits, iron ware and cutlery in abundance, as well from Europe as Monghyr,

*The north end of the China Bazar, being occupied chiefly by up country people, or foreigners to Bengal, I take the liberty to consider as forming part of the Burra Bazar.
coffee drugs, dried fruits, and sweetmeats from Arabia and Turkey, cows' tails from Thibet, and ivory from Ceylon. A great portion of these and other such articles, are either sold or brought by natives of the countries from whence they are obtained, who together with visitors, travellers and beggars, form a diversified group of Persians, Arabs, Jews, Marwarrees, Armenians, Mundrazaees, Cashmeerrees, Malabars, Goojratees, Goorkhas, Affghans Seiks, Turks, Parsees, Chinese, Burmese and Bengalis."

He then describes the motiyas, or coolies, who take home the "bazar" (the uniform abbreviation for "the goods daily purchased in the bazar"); and then the hackeries, or carts, which are employed for the conveyance of heavier articles. Respecting awkwardness, and noisiness, I would match against any carts in the world". And safely could we back him. But these same hackeries are singular things. It had struck a friend of road from the breaking of their axe; but that, although they are constantly pushed, in the narrower streets, to the extreme verge, he had never seen one turned over into the ditch; at last being a man, calide qui potuit rerum dignoscere causas, he discovered that this is due to the fact, that the bullocks are yoked so far apart that they are always without the wheels, so that even were the bullocks in the ditch, the wheel might still be on the road. To ourselves also, deeply pondering, like a certain quondam Lord-Chancellor, an idea occurred, which seems to us not altogether unworthy of record. Our India readers all know that the hackeries are drawn by bullocks, and that the Indian bullock is furnished by nature with a hump. Now this hump is made a point d'appui for the draught pole, or rather for across pole, attached to the draught pole, as a yard is to a mast. Now it is certain that the ox was used as a beast of draught, long before the horse was. But at last men discovered that certain advantages would result from the use of the horse for purposes of draught. But horses have no humps; and here was a problem. How was an animal, without a hump, to be made to do the work, which an animal, with a hump, had hitherto accomplished, and to the accomplishment of which the hump had been
essential? Why,—by being furnished with an artificial hump. And such an artificial hump, composed of rags and straw, was fitted upon him, and he wears it, in its primitive form, whenever he does duty in a Bengali Karanchi, and in a somewhat modified and refined form, under the style and title of a cart saddle, when his services are required in England to draw a cart; and in a style of superlative refinement, when he tosses his proud head in a curricula. From the nautilus shell to the ship of the line; so from the bullock's hump to the most improved curricula harness; thus does art borrow from nature.

We must pass very cursorily over the notices of the various servants of the household, only observing that the sketches of them (evidently portraits) are particularly good. Under the head of the khidmutgar it is related, that, until of late years, those servants* refused to put on the table any of the flesh of the unclean animal; and, it is stated, that the objection was overruled, in consequence of many of them having been detected, not only touching but eating it. As we have heard the story, it goes that a gentleman high in authority had a very fine Yorkshire ham, which his servant refused to bring to the table, he had no resource but to bring it himself, and in due time to remove it to the sideboard. After dinner, having occasion to return to the dining-room, he found the servants busily employed in consuming large slices of it, thickly spread over with strawberry jam.

In connexion with the notice of the durwan, our author utters a well-merited reproof of the habitual falsehood, that is perpetrated in the orders given to servants to say, "Not at home" to visitors at inconvenient hours. But we must confess that we were in perfect ignorance of the existence of such a practice in India.

It is certainly much less common here, than "at home". The "Darwaze band hai" (the gates are shut) we thought to be the universal substitute for it; and always implicitly believed, that if the individual, whom we wished to see, was declared to

* They are Muhammedans.
be bahar (abroad), that he (or she) was really and literally so, in the lexicological, and not in any conventional, sense of the term. We should be sorry to yield up this belief, and must enquire more diligently into the matter.

Before leaving the subject of servants, we must quote our author's graphic description of one peculiarity of Anglo-Indian life; that of transacting all matters, down to the most trivial, by means of written correspondence.

"The man of whom I am now to speak is known—without reference to nice distinctions and derivations by the various appellations of CHUPRASEE, HURKARUH, PTYADUH, PEON, or Messenger, and borrows the first name from the chuprds, or brass plate, containing his master's initials, or the name of the firm or office to which he is attached, worn on a belt across his breast. Though commonly attached to mercantile or public offices, where indeed he forms an indispensable assistant, he is yet occasionally found in private domestic life, and there serves to mark one of its peculiar features. His duty is simply that of carrying bills, parcels, letters and so forth, in which way an office will, of course, find for him plenty of employment; but of verbal messages, whether in public or private affairs, he is seldom, if ever, the bearer. No; you would really imagine that the whole business of life here were conducted by chits—anglice notes. Even were Europeans sufficiently acquainted with the language to trust themselves they could not well trust the men, for the delivery of any but agreement, to do so would be considered as something akin to a slight, or a rudeness. I know of but one general exception,—on occasions of enquiry after the sick, when alike from good feelings and necessity, the formalities of life are disregarded, but at other times and those times endure from the rising of the sun to the going down thereof, for the remainder of the year nothing less than a note will answer the purpose. The very constitution of society here, arising from the nature of the climate, serves to multiply the occasion for paper and pens. A lady cannot, in India, put on her bonnet, nor a man at all times his hat, and step were it but fifty yards from the door, to see a friend, or a new investment or transact the slightest affairs of business. Carriage, buggy, or palkee cannot always be at command without expense: a chit, therefore, favours economy. If a neighbour wish to set her clock; to know the range of the thermometer, to borrow the newspaper or a friend to invite you to tiffin, to desire your advice, opinion, or aid in the most trifling matter; if an article be required from the bazar or the
shops a new pair of boots, a book from the library, or a 
cheese from the provisioner's these, and the thousand little 
matters which require no enumeration, are all subjects for 
ote correspondence. As for the ladies, it would be super-
ficus to attempt detailing the occasions which they find for 
the expenditure of their gilt edged chit paper and medallion 
wafers. I need only remark that the ladies of this country, 
proverbially, write good hands and with a facility of language 
and expression, which practice only can give. But why talk of 
the ladies and their out door correspondence? The habit of 
chit-writing is so strong, that members of the same family, 
living in the same house, correspond by note from one room to 
another—nay, the very children of eight years of age resort 
to pen, ink and paper to borrow from their playmates, 'Peter 
Parloy', 'Goody two shoes', the 'Boys Own Book', or the last 
new toy'.

In short I think, that a greater quantity of note paper must 
be consumed in Calcutta, and the other presidencies, than in 
London, Edinboro, Dublin and Parish, put together and that, if 
one other to the various appellations of "Curry laters"— 
"Mules"—"Ducks", and "Qui hy's" by which the society of 
India has been honoured and distinguished, were needed, it 
might characteristically be found in the designation of "the chit 
writers".

Under these circumstances, you will readily believe that, in 
a large family, employment in the small way, may generally be 
found for servants about a house; and that where, to obviate 
the possible inconvenience of taking them away from their 
accustomed sphere of usefulness, a chuprasi is engaged, it is not 
exceedingly difficult to preserve him from the rust of idleness.

I may remark, further, that the thoughtless habit which 
many people have of keeping servants unnecessarily waiting at 
the door (where they may sometimes be seen enjoying a 
composing nap), might serve as a further excuse, were any 
wanting, for the retention of the chuprashi services.

This constant writing of notes might be supposed to be 
traceable in some way or other to the influence of the 
stationers; for verily it must lead to a consumption of note-
paper and envelopes, in proportion to the population, far

*Mulls*—from Mulg-táni, a favourite dish, and made in perfection, at 
Madras.

"Ducks"—The inhabitants of Bombay. Qui hy's—applied to Bengal 
Folk, amongst whom the pompous call for servants—Qui hi? Who 
waits? Was thought to be characteristically common.
beyond what takes place in any other country in the world. But we suspect that the real origin of the habit is that same ignorance of the native tongues, to which our author elsewhere refers; and which is we will not say sometimes, but very generally, such that it were not safe to trust any message to a servant. Indeed in any case, in which a message might be delivered by a European to a native servant, and by that servant conveyed to another European, and an answer brought back, the probability is so great, as to amount to certainty, that a mistake would occur somewhere, and some one link in the chain be snapped.

Hence the necessity of constantly sending notes.

Our author says that there is an exception in favour of enquiry respecting the sick, and of the answers thereto. There are two standing stories, which at once shew the reality of the exception, and the unadvisableness of exception more widely. For aught we know, they may be rather representation of what might have taken place, than of what actually did occur in any particular instance, but we "tell the tale as 't was told to us". The one is of a gentleman, who on receiving such a message of enquiry as to the health of his sick wife, sent back in reply that she was burra krāb (very wicked); and the other is that of a lady, who declared of her husband in similar circumstances, that he was a swine. To our Indian readers it is superfluous to explain, that the gentleman meant to say of his lady, and that she was very ill, and that she intended to convey the favourable intelligence, that her husband was asleep.

We have next a long, but interesting, account of the eatables, that constitute our daily food. On this point many people at home sadly, lack information. A lady, who had been born in this country, and had never left it, till she went to England with her husband, told us that the afforded great surprise to her husband's relatives, by her not being surprised at the sight of beef. They were people of good standing in society, and for ought we know, people of average information; but they had heard that the Hindus do not eat beef, and thence had concluded by an over hasty generalization that there is no beef
eaten in India. Be it known then to all such through the medium of these pages that we have in Calcutta better mutton (so says our author and so say we), as good beef (so says not our author, but so say we) as is to be had in England. We have moreover as good fowls, as good ducks, as good geese, and and nearly as good turkeys, though smaller. Then, we have as good pease, as good cauliflower, as good cabbages, as good asparagus, as good potatoes (nearly), as good trunips, as good carrots, as good onions, as good salad herbs of all kinds; and, in addition, we have several vegetables of excellent quality, which are little, or not at all, known in England. There is, for example, the brinjal, a very good vegetable, which we never saw or heard of in England; the nol-kole, which is much more common here than there, and which is one of the most delicate vegetables that can be put on a table; the sweet potatoes which some people like very much, but which we, confess, is not to our taste; the durras (our author calls it dherras, and we suppose correctly), which is not at all to be despised, although its snail-like appearance renders it rather repulsive to new comers. Then not to mention a great variety of sâgs, or vegetables, of which the leaves are used as food, we have a vast multitude of plants of the gourd or cucumber kind, many of which are fit for something else than to be cultivated and dressed, and thrown away. The only really good vegetable, which we have seen at home and not here, is the sea-kale; and we are not sure, that we have not read in Mr. Speede's work, that it also has been cultivated here with success.

Nor has our Ichthyine—(such we think is the term, by which the books that teach us "how to observe" and "what to observe", bid us designate the whole body of fish, that frequent the rivers, and sea-coasts, and dining-table of a country) any reason to shrink from comparison with that of England. The bhekti is very like the cod; the hilsa is scarcely distinguishable from the grilse; the mango-fish is as like a burnt trout, as two-blades of grass are like each other. Our author narrates the

*It is the seed-vessel of a hibiscus.
usual legend, illustrative of the taste that old Indians exhibit for this fish, He says that an old gourmand declared, that a dinner of mango fish is worth a voyage to India. But this is an apocryphal version of the matter, and by no means equal to the genuine. As we have it, his speech ran thus, "True I have lost my health in India; my liver is gone, and I have nothing before me but a few years of suffering; but I have eaten mango-fish."

The flora of India, indigenous and exotic, is very extensive and although the general opinion is exactly the opposite, we venture to assert, that there is no place in the world, where the flower-garden affords a more pleasing amusement. Plants will grow here; where as in England, you have to wait for three months before you can decide, with respect to any plant, whether it will grow or not, and then generally the decision is in the negative. There is certainly no city in the world, where there are such facilities for gardening as in Calcutta. This is owing to the way in which the houses are generally built, each within its own compound. And as we write, not indeed within Calcutta, but in its immediate neighbourhood, we look out upon a garden which we venture to say contains as many fine flowers as could be found in any garden in England, that is kept up at not more than ten times the cost, that is expended upon ours. As an instance of the rapidity, with which plants are propagated in this country, we may refer to the *Poinsettia pulcherrima*, which we have understood, was introduced here in the time of Lord Auckland's administration, probably not more than a dozen years ago; and, at this moment, its bright rich flowers are beautifying, we believe, every garden in Bengal. The *Russelia juncea* is also a nearly recent importation, which is now everywhere. The *Poivrea coccinea* was introduced but a few years ago, and is already becoming not uncommon. Plants which, a few years ago, were esteemed as rarities, and bought at 16 and 20 Rupees per graft, can now be had everywhere for the asking; such for example are the *Cordea Sebestina*, the *Euphorbia Jacquiniflora*, and though in a less degree, the *Bouganyilloea spectabilis*. In fact, there is every encouragement that can be desired to amateur gardening. The idea, that the
heat of the weather makes it impossible to take pleasure in a garden, is a groundless prejudice. It is true that, in the middle of the day, it is impossible to enjoy a walk in the garden, unless under thick shade in the cold season; but where in the wide world is there a greater proportion of really enjoyable mornings and evenings, than in this maligned climate of Bengal? Throughout the hot weather, the mornings are always delightful; during the rains there are very few evenings, that are not exceedingly pleasant; and in the cold weather, both mornings and evenings are almost uniformly fine—the only exception being a few days in December, when cold of that morning and evening is too intense, and when the mid-day is the most enjoyable season of the day. We wish we could disabuse our fair readers of the too prevalent notion, that gardening is not an amusement suited to the climate of India. As to India generally, we cannot speak. From the little we have seen of Madras, we should suppose that there are difficulties to encounter there, which it would be very honorable to surmount. But in Bengal, we repeat it, few amusements could be devised to which the climate is so suitable and so helpful, as the superintendence, and occasional participation in the lighter work, of a garden. But, it they will not be persuaded of this, at least let them be advised to undertake the task of arranging the flowers, that the mali brings into almost every house every morning. How easily could these be converted, from an object of pure ridicule, into a really tasteful ornament; for the flowers themselves are good enough; it is only arrangement that they require.

Our author next describes some of the fruits of India, beginning with the cocoa, which is certainly entitled, in respect of its multifarious utility, to take precedence of all others. With all that he says about it we most cordially agree, excepting as to the point on which, above all others, his judgment is entitled to infinitely greater respect than ours. We mean as to the beauty and gracefulness of the tree. We confess we have never thought it either graceful or beautiful, except indeed when it is only about 5 or 6 feet high. These epithets, we can more
conscientiously agree with our author in applying to the areca, or betelnut palm, which he aptly compares to an arrow shot down from the sky. But is he right in saying that it sustains the shock of the storm by yielding at all, and all through its very slenderness. In fact, the wind has nothing to take hold of.

As to our Indian fruits generally, we suspect that all new comers find them fall far short of the expectations they had been led to form of tropical fruits. At the time of their arrival which is generally in the cold season, the best of the fruits are not in season; and when they express disappointment, they are told to wait till the mangoes are ripe; and this constantly repeated advice so stimulates their curiosity, that it defeats its own end. Generally speaking, they do not want, but from their first acquaintance with the fruit, while still unripe; and certainly few edible things are worse than an unripe mango. But, in point of fact, we are not such enthusiastic champions of the fruit garden, as of the flower garden of India. It is true that, besides the mango (and as a bad mango is very bad, so a good one is very good) we have the litchi, and the guava, which we estimate more highly than does our author, and the pineapple, which with a little care, may be had in as great perfection, as in the West Indies, or in the pineries of England; and the orange which however is by no means so good as those that are imported into England, and which moreover ‘comes in’ in the season, when it can least of all be enjoyed; and last of all, the plantain, which is, all over the year, the staple fruit. We cannot agree with our author in the preference that he expresses of this fruit over all others.

But, from his picture, we suppose that he refers to a variety, with which we are not conversant. This variety he calls the Mutawan (Qu. Martaban?). It may be common enough, we are unacquainted with it, as our researches have not pointed in that direction.

But we must draw to a close. We cannot afford to follow our author through his graphic description of the seasons, not to allude to the various peculiarities of Anglo-Indian life, which are connected with these. We take leave of him with hearty
thanks for the pleasure he has afforded us. The work having occupied Mr. Grant's scanty leisure hours during a period of nearly ten years, there is a very marked progression both in the literary and artistic style. When he has to re-write the "sketch", which, we doubt not, the exhaustion of the present edition will soon require him to do he will probably be induced by his matured taste and judgment to render the former part somewhat less "eloquent", and more plain and accurate. The human figures too, in the former part, seem to us very much inferior to those in the latter. There is just one matter, which may be brought under the head of literary style, on which we will venture a remark. Mr. Grant sometimes indulges in (what we cannot but regard as) an unpleasing habit that of using the expressions of scripture, diverted from their original sense and application. For example, we do not like even such an expression as this that "the morning air, and evening breeze and a night's sound sleep, are more precious than gold—yea than much fine gold;" while we positively dislike some expressions, which it is not necessary to quote. We know that this is, or rather we would say, was, with Mr. Grant, merely what we may call an external habit, and altogether unconnected with any want of reverential feeling towards the inspired records of our holy faith; and it is with real pleasure that we observe a total disuse of the practice in the latter portion of the sketch.

Altogether, we look upon this work as a real acquisition to our Anglo-Indian literature, and confidently predict that it will be received as a very acceptable present, by the multitudes in England, to whom it will be sent. The illustrations are a highly creditable indication of the state of the fine arts amongst us, and will contribute to the extension of that reputation, which Mr. Grant has already earned as an artist. As we have been permitted to adorn our pages with a specimen, we select the following, not as the best in the book, but as a fair specimen of the whole. When our readers know that there are nearly two hundred of such lithographs, they will be disposed to wonder at the reasonable price of the book.

*Calcutta Review. 12, 24; 1849.*
THE CHINESE COLONY IN CALCUTTA

C. ALABASTER

CONFUCIUS was sparing of his words, neither did Mencius say much. "What I have seen" said the sage, "I speak of, 'what I have not, how can I relate.'" "Writing you write for the instruction of your friends, to your friends," says the Classic; "It is well to tell the truth:" and now may our pencil flow harmoniously.

Among the communities which constitute the patchwork called Calcutta, there is a little one colored whity-brown, which, utterly distinct from all the others, different in speech, in language, color, dress, character, and institutions, has almost escaped observation, dependent as the most important of them are upon it; for thinking that its opinions are as good if not better than those offered in exchange, it has refused to sacrifice its prejudices to those of others, and, being too weak to excite antagonism, it has met with indifference, the natural and appropriate punishment, or as it considers it, reward, of its non-assimilating disposition.

Tzülu said, "I desire not to oppose others, only if they get in my way," so with our dear colonist; they oppose not, only those who get in their way. But these somehow or other they crush or expel quietly. Silently advancing they have driven all competitors out of the field; and now as shoemakers, ship-carpenters and hogshead-manufacturers, they reign unrivalled. Although but 500 strong they have the greatest European powers at their feet; England through its lady representatives in Calcutta; France through its grease-loving colonists in Bourbon, for "those French men they eaty too muchy grease; and sposy English lady no got shoe, how can go to carriage maky ride." But though they wield this tremendous power, and are not altogether ignorant of
it, we may repose quietly and fear nothing, unless indeed some energetic magistrate puts down their opium and gambling house; for they are a peace-loving people only desirous to make a little profit.

Properly speaking, they are two distinct colonies, belonging to distinct races, carrying on distinct trades, and speaking different languages; but community of interests, the manufacture of hogslard, opium-smoking, and Hindustani have almost merged them into one; and constant intermarriage threatens to annihilate the difference between the shoe-makers and ship-carpenters notwithstanding the still existing obstacles to such complete union in the great disparity of wealth of the two communities.

As to their origin there are doubts, for although the authenticity of Chinese history, extending back thousands of years before the creation, is undoubted, our colonists, it must be confessed, are not literary men, and though their question, "who is there that has no ancestors," is unanswerable, still being a doubter you may doubt their genealogies. About a hundred years ago, say they, the governor of Canton wanting some money, came down on one of the Hong merchants for a sum much larger than he felt inclined to pay, and so, knowing that his only choice, if he remained there, lay between payment of the sum or the loss of his land he found on reference to his almanack that it was a fortunate day for commencing a voyage, and accordingly bought a ship, ballasted it with his dollars, freighted it with his family, and started for India, where, and observe the minuteness of the legend, after having been sea-sick all the way, he arrived safely, and established a factory, the site of which, for the factory no longer exists, is to this day known as the place where the China mandarin once lived; thence sprung the colony.

Such is the fable, but though it is authenticated by a stone the characters on which are quite illegible, but which from its appearance should be 10,000 years old at least, and although, as disbelievers are indignantly asked, "if not
so, how can say," yet, as the said Canton mandarin's descen-
dants are not Cantonese at all, the more probable solution
of their origin seems to be, that a boy from near Amoy coming
hither with his master, was either left behind, or left his
master, wishing to do a little "pidgeon," and so setting up
as a shoe-maker prospered, and sent for his family from
China. Or perhaps the ship-carpenters may be older, some one
having been left behind drunk, and finding this a good
spot, having settled down here and prospered, attracted his
countrymen to him. But be their origin what it may, the
fact remains that here they are—shoe-makers, opium-sellers,
carpenters, cabinet-makers, and hogshead manufacturers, and
that the colony exists is certain, though possibly it never had a
beginning.

As money-making now-a-days ranks above all things,
the shoe-makers, literally worshippers of Mammon, deserve
first mention, even did not their numbers entitle them to take
precedence of their more energetic and scarcely less useful
rivals. Coming from the Hakka districts of Kiaying Chow in
the province of Canton, they are considered foreigners in their
own country, though probably the indigenous inhabitants ; and
nothing but their wealth saves them from the withering con-
tempt of the later settlers as men without ancestors, or at least
without regular authenticated genealogies. But thus protected,
from insult they see their native shopmen and apprentices stick
to their lasts, and drink the execrable tea of their father-land in
peace.

Living in and about Cossitollah and Durrumtollah, they
have built a fine temple in one of its lanes, there by constitu-
ting themselves a community, for without a josshouse there is
no community in China. Going down this lane, guided by the
poles pointing heavenward—poles like our steeples shewing,
how necessary it is to point out to the world the house of
God; as else perchance few find it—guided by these poles, you
come at the bottom of the lane to a stuccoed portico close by
a little gate; and while this is being opened, you look up, and
though you can scarce tear away your eyes from the grotesque-
ries which surround it, find the temple is dedicated to Kuanti, whom Europeans generally call the god of war.

By this time the gate is opened, and passing the screen which hides the interior from the external world, you find yourself in the courtyard of the temple. In one corner you observe Kuanti's horse comfortably stabled, the Chinese, with a just regard for propriety, thinking he would find an upstairs-stable inconvenient, and therefore putting him down here rather than in his master's chapel. Two flights of stairs leading to the chapels occupy the sides balancing each other and making every thing look comfortable. Facing the door are several rooms appropriated to the attendants who have charge of the temple, and here you find a lot of cooks sacrificing fowls, sucking-pigs, ducks, and kids, preparatory to stewing, on the grosser parts of which the worshippers will regale, when Kuanti and his attendant have satisfied themselves with the ethereal portions.

Stopping but for one moment to enquire what dish Kuanti peculiarly affects, and strange to say, for you asked but for information, being answered by a laugh, you turn to the left, and passing the wicket gate, come at the first landing to a pleasant little niche in which repose the images or the Lares and Penates of these adventurous wanderers from the land of the hills and rivers. Before these you pause, and whether it is the sweet scent of the incense or the meaning of the scrolls surrounding them thou hast but to ask and thy petition shall be granted; which of these reasons causes you to do so we know not, but you stop and involuntarily sigh, wishing you could feel your social deities were with you, and that here you had a home.

Passing this cheery yet mournful little niche, your feelings experience a rude shock in the lumber that fills up the left-hand-chapel, boxes of incense, old lamps, benches, and transparencies, all in un-Chinese, un-Confucian disorder. Passing as quickly as possible through this, scarcely noticing the drum which frowns down on you, you hasten into the adjoining middle chapel, and you are standing in the presence of the god.
But no feelings of solemnity now oppress you, and so far from awing, the grim visage of the thunderer excites rather merriment, and though his weapon—a sort of scythe-looks very formidable at a distance, you are not deceived a moment; English-like you go up and tap it, and so make the interesting discovery that it is wood.

Nor when you look up, and find from the scrolls hung around that Kuanti is the essence of propriety, that his breath is excessively strong, and that he is wonderfully extensive, do you feel more inclined to honor and respect him, but hastily looking at the pewter incense-rots and dragons, and finding them orthodox Chinese articles, your attention is diverted from his seal and his sword placed in frames on either side of his altar, and which you have just discovered are as great shams as himself, to two pictures of horse races, hung up in honor of him by some pious but innovating Chinaman. "Races in a Chinese temple,—races in the Hall of Zeal and Propriety"! for that is its name. Your involuntary exclamation is excusable; it is really going ahead. But some Chinese will have joined you, so restrain unbecoming mirth, and with them enter the chapel of the god of wealth, enter the only temple set up in this mighty city to the god whom we all worship. You deserve your wealth, my copper brothers, both for your gratitude in worshipping him whom you believe to be its author, and for the observation you display in putting that big bell in his temple, for he is very, very, hard of hearing.

But alas this temple does not speak so well for you as at first appeared, for looking for a difference between the money-giving god and his neighbour, you cast your eyes on the ground and lo! the cushion before him is nearly worn out, while that before his neighbour is in excellent condition, and sad experience tells us that if every one were grateful, the majority, the large majority, of those who have knelt here before you, have been petitioners-petitioners who have disregarded the voice of their great master, saying, whatever is your condition, rich or poor, but be contented. So, disgusted, you turn back, nearly knocking over as you do, some-
little Chinaman who, having learnt to do as Confucius bid him, "repress your every impulse," was unprepared for such superfluous energy on your part.

"Pray excuse me, what may be your honorable surname?"
"My insignificant denomination is Cha."
"Meaning a pig," but this you say in English, and then entering into conversation you learnt, that your little friend was a little doctor, and much information you got from him.

Formerly, you learnt, there was another doctor who used to attend foreigners, who had learned foreign plans of healing, but he had died, for he could not think of a plan to cure himself, so then the Chinese here had no doctor, for of course they could not trust English doctors, and native doctors, did not understand medicine at all so he came and managed to live and make a little profit, and then the little man proceeded to tell you that he belonged to the great class of the shoe-makers, though he was not a shoe-maker himself, and that the temple belonged to them, and that they had it regularly repaired every year, and elected head-men to look after it and their other concerns, and finally that it was their Kungso or council-room, in which they met to deliberate on any measure necessary for the welfare of the community. That this temple was their meeting house, and that here all their affairs were settled; here as in a parochial vestry in England they decided, should such a lane be paved, and like their emulators on the other side of the water, in nine cases out of ten decided that it should not; but they also turn it to a use of which their English brothers have no conception. Here they meet, not to talk about, but talk out, their differences, holding as they do, that difference can only be the result either of misconception or evil disposition, and that thus if it be the former, a little conversation on it will lead to speedy settlement, if the latter, public opinion will force the one who is in the wrong to give way, when once the matter is fully understood. It serves too as a sort of Exchange or Town Hall, and they drop in here to have a little gossip or transact a little business as the case may be, and outwardly listless as the crowd appears, it is inwardly as interested, and gets through very
nearly, if not quite, as much business and pleasure, as its busy European brothers.

Round about this temple live our gallant Crispins, and if any one have sufficient courage to face ill-smelling lanes, and if he has a valiant disregard of puddles, he may visit John Chinaman at home, but he must remember that Confucius said nothing about municipal reform, and so forbear to blame the Chinese for their neglect in this particular. Unromantic are their houses, for they did not build them themselves, but they have made their courtyards look Chinese to a degree. The red paper, the little niches, the little pots of incense, the stunted flowers, and the general dirt and disorder, almost making you believe yourself back again in China, did not the sudden appearance of the mistress of the house, whose angry tones had previously aided in the delusion, undeceive you.

Poor John Chinaman, why did you leave your dear flowery land, without bringing your peach blossoms with you these which the sun of India cherishes are not like those from famed Soochow; their necks indeed are grubby, but it is not the silk grub that they resemble; their hair is long and black, but can they dress in the dragon fashion? Their cheeks are brown, and they do not at all understand the beauties of vermillion; and last, worst, of all, they do not resemble weeping willows, and you cannot escape them.

"Why for," said we "you no bring your wifey," and the mournful 'how can do,' still rings in your heart. Unfortunate, most unfortunate, are these poor Chinamen, they can't bring their wives away from China, nor will these follow them thither, how then can they feel the calm repose of sweet domestic bliss, that exquisite sense, that you are no longer seeking and never finding a calm retired bay, where you may rest when buffeted beyond endurance by the cruel blasts of life, that you are settled, that you are no longer alone. Poor Chinaman we envy your long-suffering patient spirit, but we pity you, and feel the hard tests to which your life here puts it. Yet with all this, these however get on very tolerably
while they last, for, bound together by no legal ties, each party has to be cautious in its conduct to the other, and the Chinese wife, who knows that misconduct would deprive her of a home, perhaps gives her husband less anxiety than she, who knows her lord and master must either endure her or the talk and scandal of divorce; and the husband is perhaps more affectionate who knows his companion is bound to him but by love, than he who knows she cannot run away.

At first they used to go through the Chinese ceremony of burning paper, and one orthodox old gentleman tried to induce his bride to be lifted over the constitutional pan of Charcoal, but by degrees, finding it a bother, they gave it up, and merely take the lady into their house to be turned out, if there is any incompatibility of temper; or if so fortunate as to escape this, to be deserted when the husband goes back to China. The children, if boys, have their little pates shaved, and are many of them sent to Roman Catholic Schools, their mothers generally belonging to that religion; but so soon as they have mastered a little writing and arithmetic, their fathers withdraw them, and if unable to send them to China, make them study Confucius at home; thus even if, as the good fathers say, they do become indifferent Christians while at School, they soon lapse back into Paganism when their great Master's works are set before them. The girls also go to these schools, and like their brothers are generally but dull scholars; they stop however much longer, being generally kept there until marriageable, when they are married off to perpetuate that extraordinary race, found in all eastern cities, libellously called Portuguese.

It seems strange that, importing as they do cooks, priests, barbers, and doctors, they have not imported some of the fair sex, but whether it is that they fear their lady customers would be so outshone by their surpassing beauty, and that they mercifully wish to leave them their faces, or whether there is a hard stone to the soft peach, or for whatever other reason, the only Chinese women known to have set foot in Calcutta were two poor girls from Australia, who came here, to prove the
truth of the proverb that the silken mantle often hides the aching heart, and to die. Poor girls, your sins were many, but your pains were great, and your marble tombs, so far surpassing those around them in the Chinese cemetery, teach us humility and virtue, thinking how gladly you would have given, how you must have longed to give, all that wealth recorded in that little tablet in the temple, for a kind nurse to soothe you as you lay wasting on your death-beds.

Indeed like all grave-yards, the three Chinese cemeteries might offer the moralist hours of amusement. There is the modest altar raised to the presiding genius of the place; there the towering structure recording the name of those benevolent and pious men who bought the ground, and raised the altar, only to be surpassed by that, whereon are inscribed the names of those who lately repaired it, while before you is avenue on avenue of horse-shoe-like graves, and the dust of many copper-colored brothers. Walking down them you discover that such a colony of scholars never existed, and not content, like Horace, with fame more durable than brass, the memory of their talents, one and all, will be remembered for ten thousand years (at least if their pious sons and grandsons are to be believed) that they were all of phoenix-like ability; while their powers of composition were as those of the tortoise. Fearfully untranslatable are the titles with which their sons have honored them, and which they are supposed to bear at the court of Hades; but you are surprised by seeing many female tombs, as a Chinaman would say, and knowing that those two marble pedestal cover the only two Chinese women who ever came here, you begin to doubt your information, but looking again you find they record the death of Too-li-ya, or Ma-li-ya, who poor creatures living and being, as they thought, good Catholics, have been borne hither to rest in unconsecrated earth beside their pagan kinsmen.

Utterly ignoring and contemning the theory, that ghosts do not like horse-shoes, all their tombs are built in the Chinese orthodox form, with the exception of a few built in European fashion by those who threaten to be the forefathers
of a new offensive race young China, and though, because land
costs money here, the poor ghosts are not allowed so much
space to wander about in as in China, their dwellings are care-
fully swept out, and plastered up, with the exception of those
unfortunates who have left no posterity, and who, if they
have any feeling, must be eaten up by envious jealousy in
their cracked, ruined mossy sepulchres; for Chinamen, and
why not Chinese ghosts, though they admire the picturesque,
admire it but in its proper place, and though a pretty error
looks well in their garden, it is most improper in their
dwelling. Propriety before all things, cried the sage; it is
the scandal, not the fact, that is to be avoided, said his humble
imitator. It matters little what this marble slab may cover,
so that the four walls supporting it are firm.

But the historian may gather facts here. What are these
tombs which seem as if, long neglected, they had lately been
repaired? They are the memorial of those unhappy feuds
which once existed among our peace-loving celestials; these
tombs were built in the early days of our rising colony, when
yet too few to quarrel, they had but one temple, one last
resting-place; these record how, as their numbers increased,
the haughty carpenters, failing to subdue their wealthier and
more numerous competitors, determined that they would no
longer submit to the strap leather of the sons of Crispin, and
founding for themselves another cemetery, found themselves
entirely excluded from their old one. Oh steady carpenters,
what fasts were then your lot, unless indeed armed with the
shadows of those wives you bore with when living, you seized
forcibly the offerings intended for your oppressors. What
fearful annoyance at the least you must have felt at the
untidiness in which your dear posterity perforce left your
dwellings. What a joyous day it must have been for you,
when the head shoe-maker and the head carpenter became
bound together by the marriage of their children, and the
merging into one of their beforetime rival hogsland manufac-
tories! But would that the peace had been concluded sooner,
for the carpenters, attached to their new quarters, send you
no new companions to tell you what is stirring up above. Poor shades; even in your good fortune, you are to be pitied.

Not far from this are the piggeries and manufactories, which have proved the bond of union between the two contending parties here. In the spring you meet droves of porkers which, if they stand the critical examination of their biped cousins, are transferred to the numerous pigsties which surround you; the only duty that is required of them being to get fat. And it must be allowed that they do so, though their Chinese owner, unable to get over the suspicion that you might be inclined to set up in the trade yourself, obstinately refuses to communicate the secret of their treatment to you; but scarcely leaving you time to observe that they are all well lodged and very dirty, takes you into a cool stone-paved gallery, where you see a long line of tubs full of the spoils of the victims whom a minute before you almost envied.

But you vainly try to gain an entrance into the room where these tin boxes, each holding half a maund, are filled, and are obliged to be satisfied with the excuse that it is number one and dirty, for when you hear your conductor's indignant denial, how can you believe the insinuation, that the centre of each of these boxes holds a ball of opium. The most suspicious doubter must have been satisfied when he heard that Confucius declared that to make "pidgeon" was not altogether proper, that to do wrong was not altogether right. So apologising by the declaration that what is, at least men say so, you descend with your mollified entertainer, who proposes that you should stop to breakfast, which, he tells you will be ready in a moment.

Declining to join him on the plea of an engagement you yet accompany him into the pleasant little bungalow in the middle of which you find a long table, gaily covered with a scarlet cloth, and set off by a brilliant nosegay, down the sides of which are ranged plates, knives, and forks, and horror! —chopsticks, but your host quickly informs you that the former are only, "making look see," while the latter are for
use, and proving that at Rome you must do as Rome does, and that consequently he had knives and forks. He tells you that as he found he was always touching his mouth and cutting his fingers when he tried to use them, he has retained his native useful chopsticks.

No one but a Chinaman would have his country villa close to a lard manufactory, as these colonists do at Chingreetollah, but being, as a great mandarin once said when asked why he did not attempt municipal reform, being accustomed to ill smells from their infancy, they rather like them; and besides it was the custom of their forefathers to think such little matters quite unworthy of consideration. So our rich shoemakers and carpenters retire hither to be lulled to sleep by the sweet murmurs of their porkers, and awakened by the balmy breezes which proceed from their factory chimneys, quite regardless of the want of harmony between their pretty bungalows and the surrounding pigsties. There are no records when they first established these manufactories, but it must have been many years ago, and the profit they make out of them is so great that it is probable they will be continued many years longer, carpenters and shoemakers alike all looking anxiously forward to the day, when they shall have saved enough money to permit of their embarking in this seducing, congenial, and profitable trade.

The only other business to any extent undertaken by the shoemakers is that of the preparation and sale of opium and charas, which they probably have taken to as lucrative, and reminding them of home. All about Durrumtollah and the little lanes leading out of Cossitollah, you see little black boards informing the public that they are licensed to retail opium, ganja, and such like articles, and if you have sufficient resolution to put up with a little nasal inconvenience, you will do well to enter, and remain a while there, till you get accustomed to the scene around you. First then, passing the little counter where the master is weighing out leaves of a bready substance which he will tell you is opium, you enter a long room scarcely light enough to enable you to distinguish
what is going on. On two wooden platforms raised on each side you see stretched two rows of dusky creatures, some smoking, some preparing the opium for their pipe by drying it on a long needle over the little lamp which flickers beside them, here one snoring heavily, there one sitting, staring at you with bright blood-shot eyes. Let us interrogate them.

"Why do you smoke, old woman, is it not a very bad habit?" "I am sick, take it to cure me." "Why do you not go to a doctor?" "Alas, I have got no money" "But opium-smoking is expensive?" "No, not very." "Why are you not smoking, oh man of the blood-shot eyes. Why do you look at us so fiercely?" Stop, do not speak to him, he has been eating ganja, and the poor victim now commencing to feel the violent effects of the maddening drug he has been taking, how he twists his arms! Is that the extreme of joy or the excess of pain? But he is becoming composed, he smiles, he sleeps, and that other is, like him, under its effects. Let us see if we can wake him: he grunts success, he opens his eyes, and looks crossly at us. "What have you been doing?" "Drinking in the Loll Bazaar," and so we leave him, attracted by the strains of music issuing from the adjoining room, where we soon find ourselves.

This differs little from the other, save that it is lighter and cleaner, and that here you have three musicians to soothe the smokers over their pipes, but save the master no one is visible. You do not think the sons of Han would herd with natives, that the golden colored natives of the celestial empire would mix with the Hindoos, who, their geographies say, live in a cloudless country beyond the sea, where it is so hot that they all have black faces. Know that a native always says, saheb, to a Chinaman, and follow us across the yard into the chamber where their heads, resting on variegated pillows, be conversing and smoking. The young prodigal of China! Here you will learn that though indeed un-Confucian, opium-smoking is not such a bad thing after all, and that it is bhang not opium, which should be covered
with merited opprobrium; and that so long as John Chinaman keeps to his pipe, he may thrive and prosper; it is when, corrupted by bad example, he takes to eating the drug, that he rushes to his ruin. Let those who think opium an equal, if not a far greater ill than gin, go hither and return repenting of their injustice.

This opium shops are very numerous, and pay well, no credit being ever given even to the longest habitue, for though by doing so they might retain the smoker for a longer time, the probability is that they would not gain much, and that they would have all the trouble of ruining their customer without gaining. Belive it says the Master, that mutual confidence and ready money are the only true principles of business.

So much for the shoe-makers; now for the jolly carpenters, for less numerous, these energetic Cantonese embrace all the extraneous trades of the sons of Crispin, and add to them that of keeping lodging-houses. If some morning wandering in Durumtollah, you see a stout coolie carrying an enormous basket filled with vegetables, while by a string he carries in his hands several tens of pounds of pork, follow him. He will lead you surely to the houses where his master's lodgers ponder anxiously in their many beds when breakfast will be ready. Suddenly you see some pieces of red paper with black characters upon them, and the coolie disappearing through the door-way. You follow and find yourself in a little courtyard. Quick the Chinese cook seizes the basket, the pork is chopped into convenient mouthfuls in a moment, the same with the yams and cabbages. The odoriferous onions alone detaining the active artists for a moment, they are stewed, and all is steaming in the iron pan which he so carefully covers with a wooden lid; he leaves them to steam awhile, and asks you what's your 'pidgeon.' You asking for the master, he informs you that he is out, but that he is the master's son, and takes you upstairs. Here are rows of Chinamen under their blue curtains, rolled up in their China blanket, and looking as comfortable on the boards, which constitute their mattress, as only Chinamen can be. But your guide looks
grave, some one is smoking opium, it will spoil their appetite for breakfast. He remarks, were you a little cleaner one would embrace you.

Here was the son of a father owning his cooking the breakfast of his father's lodgers, and regretting that they were injuring their appetites. Rare virtue! But the youth could read Confucius, he knew that in the service of your father, you should scorn nothing, and as his father afterwards told us he was thrashed when lazy. Prompt and ready to put their hands to any thing, more talented than their cousins, they do not enjoy such good characters, and belong to the dreaded Triad Society. It is even rumoured that they sometimes use the little knives they carry, but this need cause us no trouble, for if they do it is only upon those with whom they disagree, and so it is, as they say, no business of ours.

Far more exclusive than the shoe-makers, they rarely trouble even the Small Cause Court; although they concur with them in their admiration of it; but less fortunate, they have more frequently appeared before the police, whether because they deserved it, or because, as they say, persecuted by them. Great seems to have been the feud between them and the chowkeydars, originating, it is said, in an excusable desire on their part to evade the unreasonable laws of the barbarians. They went on increasing to such a pitch that a few years back we find ten or a dozen of them were brought up for amusing themselves by gambling, no doubt an improper but scarcely an illegal recreation. Lately it has lulled, whether because, as is vaguely whispered, a chowkeydar was sacrificed to their vengeance or whether they thought that such would be the end of it; but both sides now let each other alone, and peace is the consequence.

So in their little temple they decide quietly and calmly, whether it is advisable to dethrone the emperor just yet, or whether it would not be better to raise their charge and wait a little longer. Here they settle, like shoe-makers, their disputes by dint of talking, and warm or correct offenders, bamboozing the disobedient son, and notching the ears of gay young men
for, it may be, innocent flirtations. What their exact principles may be, the uninitiated cannot tell, but they avow that the leading one is to help each other in all cases, and while respecting each other's property and families, to assist each other to violate those of all outsiders. Their temple is not nearly so grand as that of the shoe-makers, the substitution of the god of carpenters for that of wealth having been apparently unlucky; but if their private temple is less rich than that of the other class, they are almost compensated for it by having nearly the entire charge of the common one to the queen of heaven, the goddess of way-farers, whose well-kept temple in the Bow-bazar is visited once a year by both classes in grand procession.

On this fortunate occasion dressed in the silken robes, and donning caps, to wear which would get them the bastinado in their native country, they carry pigs roasted whole; ducks baked in their feathers; fowls dressed like camels with an abundance of onions—the chosen vegetable of the shades. Carrying these in grand procession, they march to the temple with flags flying and gongs beating, till their own ears nearly crack. There amid the shrieking melody of bagpipes they go through the potow to her holiness, and then, wretched mortals! return to enjoy roast pig and such like luxuries.

Like the shoe-makers they deal in opium, and smoke it themselves to a far greater extent, for taking much, more exercise they require a larger quantity to affect them; and this same craving for excitement, it is said, leads them into converting one of the rooms of their temple into a gambling house so cunningly contrived, that when the police have broken their shins and lost their patience in getting in, they find nothing to reward them. Gambling they and all acknowledge to be wrong, but then it was the custom of their ancestors to gamble, and as for giving it up because people unacquainted with Confucious, creatures utterly destitute of moral virtue, wish it, it is not for an instant to be thought of; so they gamble and are happy.

An exciting life is that of the carpenters, and their manners
have been affected by it. They walk sturdily, their little straw hat is cocked jauntily, and their brawny-arms look as if they could knock a man down on occasion, but still their early education has its influence on them; they are calm even in their contentions. It is recorded that one day, one of the brotherhood travelling by rail was refused entrance into a carriage by some Brahmins. Time was passing, yet our friend proceeded quietly, rightly thinking himself far superior to any Brahmin. Suddenly he lugged him out, quietly he boxed his ears, and seating himself in the Brahmin’s seat, calmly he looked round. Furious was the disciple of Brahma, bitter were his curses; but the train went on, and the disciple of Confucius was serenely happy: his peaceful countenance communicating sudden calmness to the noisy friends of the uproarious unseated. But it must be confessed they do not always take an insult so quietly; witness their conduct when one of their fraternity lost his tail by a boyish freak; witness their siege of the school, those horried shouts, those hideous faces, and on those wretched swine. They were kept out, and calm reflection told them on the morrow, that in seeking revenge they were losing time and neglected their business.

But we are quite forgetting thee, queen of heaven, poor old lady, obliged to listen to the senile twaddle of the superannuated old men who, fit for nothing else, frequent your temple. How you are to be pitied, how fearful it is even to look at them. A framework of bones covered with some dried up muscles and clothed in a shrivelled skin! An old Chinaman is an awful sight, and yet they are reverenced, almost worshipped. Let no one who has not strong nerves enter this temple, do not attempt however strong-minded you are to speak to that old man who, men say, is ninety-eight. Your endurance will be put to strong enough test without that. Go rather into the opium-making priest’s room and chat with him, and that jolly old man of sixty; they are both reprobates, but they are intelligent; and if you do not mind listening to untruths without number, you may spend a pleasant half
hour. Why, you ask, do not the heirs poison those awful old men. "Oh, it would be too muchy spence makey burry," the funeral would cost too much, and such a paltry considera-
tion stands in your way; rightly did the sage say, "I have not seen man of enlarged mind," But as you cannot persuade the old men that it would be best to ship them off to China or any-
where at any rate, get rid of them, you had better leave,
for they will be dropping in quietly in moment and joining
in conversation. Fearful old men, may you be reverenced
all your lives, but be it far away!

These old men are most Chinesy. Everywhere in the
flowery land, you find them in these josshouses where they talk
away the cheerless remnant of their lives, urged on, when
necessary, by some energetic member of the community gov-
erning or supposed to govern it, and perhaps acting as cold
water, tempering the fiery spirit of their juniors; but they are
not a pleasant sight, and every spectator must wish that
they might be dispensed with. The visitor will be disappointed
if he thinks to cull curious legends from them; their brains
seem shrunk like their bodies, and a few Confucian sentences
alone seem left there, and he will find it quite impossible
to gain any information from them on things past, present or
to come. Unlike Confucius, who at ten knew all things,
they at sixty-five know nothing. They may perhaps be able,
after mature consideration, to tell you their honorable longevity,
but beyond that it is useless to ask; they are ignorant even of
the names of those who support them. Not that this josshouse
is an aims-house, but the carpenters, always on the move,
landing here to-day, going on a voyage to-morrow, and unlike
the shoe-makers, being for the most part a wild improvident
set, find themselves suddenly useless, penniless, old men.
Then some younger brother pitying the sorrows of the poor old
man, or perhaps wishing to get a little credit, takes him to his
house, and giving him his rice regularly, sends him during
business hours to the temple to amuse himself and be out of
the way.

The shoe-makers have few old men, and those few are well
to do; for with rare exceptions, very thrifty, they soon contrive to scrape up a little money, and get into the hogslard manufacture. Some few to go back to China, but others will be deterred in future by the example of a late unfortunate, who having by this diligence and prudence amassed his dollars, was on his arrival in his dear father-land, thrown into prison, and squeezed of them all for his traitorous dealings with the outside barbarians. It must have been a bitter lesson to him; why was he not, like Confucius, content? But one cannot regret it, for the man, perverse beyond measure, was not satisfied, but returned hither giving up his country, at least so long as the mandarins are in power, just to become rich again.

How dear is one’s country. How much dearer are rupees for a crust of bread at home. We say we would give up all our luxury out here, could not we get that crust of bread in the workhouse. The Chinaman is the more honest, he says he likes his own country better, far better than any other; but he wants to make rupees, and here he makes them quicker. There is a blunt sort of honesty about everything the Chinese do, and when they forget themselves, what they say, which makes you admire them, is what you would call impertinence in a native, in them simple independence.

How coolly they treat their customers, as if it was a matter of perfect indifference to them whether you bought their shoes or not; how indignant they become if you declare the shoe does not fit; it may be true, it is only the wearer who knows, where the shoe pinches, but who but the maker can tell if it is small enough. Did he not measure your foot? How dreadfully unreasonable you are; but at any rate it is best to take the shoes, for he may get seriously offended, and then his honor which he has been so assiduously fanning, all the time he has been with you, bursting out into a flame, he will leave you shoe-less and despairing, for, unless a dragoness you will know that it is no use going to another shop, that Achin will not sell to Ahip’s customers, and that:

* A more appropriate word than ‘griffin’.
unless you bring yourself to submit with as good grace as may be, you have no more chance of getting those pretty little coverings, in which you enclose your prettier little feet and which the Chinese make so well.

But they are not without their good points. Rationally considering their national custom of haggling waste of time, and their monopoly permitting them to do so, they charge the price which in time they would have abated to the mutual satisfaction of themselves and their customers. Again, they rarely press you for payment of their bills, and an “Oh, never mind” meets your offer to do so, and if when it does come in, it is rather a long one, why it has been running on a long time, and it is not as if it was a native, so you pay it, knowing Mr. S. has no time to growl over bills like those wretched husbands in England and besides, if you did not pay, you would have to go to a native for your next supply.

They are not however, it must be allowed, without their faults. They are not punctual, and their shoes are not lasting, but this is not their fault, being rather that of the ladies of Calcutta who, giving them so much more work than they can possibly get through, prevent their being the former, and by, in the same way, forcing them to employ native workmen and devote themselves to the simple superintendence, prevent their doing the latter. But with all their faults they are good citizens. Utterly as they are dependent on foreigners for their living, hating the natives in all the intensity of Chinese hatred; their only security is the maintenance of British power, and although they would not, unless paid for it, willingly shed their blood even for their native country, they would rather pay many dollars than that we should be driven hence. “The English Government is a very good one, it lets us manage our own affairs and helps us if any one else tries to injure us, its policemen leave us alone, and its Small Cause Court has been established specially for our convenience.”

This admiration of us is good, and if their imitation of Europeans was regulated by the same good taste that has influenced them in simply taking the convenient shoes and
comfortable straw hat, one might hope much from them but they are getting fast, and young China dashes along in his buggy, and discarding mild opium, quaffs brandy pawnee to an extent that makes you fear he will some day put off his tail and let his hair grow a fearful sight for several generations, or perhaps worse, take to washing, the dirty Hindoos, instead of polishing his brown smiling physiognomy, and then till by repeated efforts he has got off all the layers, how fearfully dirty he will look!

But there are hopes yet. They still read Confucius, do not rashly alter, and besides it keeps them so warm and comfortable in the cold weather, and pigs and Chinamen like to be comfortable. The wise man's mind is easy when he is entirely comfortable, said the sage, "being happy, why should you repine." So long as they gain nothing not even respectability, by giving way to ridiculous and troublesome conventionalisms, why should they; and as for the tail it is so convenient: do you want to ropesend one of your workmen, what so handy; or to dust the table, or to clean your boots, or hang yourself what so convenient. It will take much convulsion, much brandy pawnee, to make them sacrifice their tails.

In the meantime they prosper; their physical energy and their mental capacity fit them for superintendence, and as fore-men they are always in demand. A Chinese carpenter works as neatly as, and far more cheaply than, an Englishman, and calculating that he gets only the same amount, if he is two or twenty days, works quickly to finish his job. Regular Yankees, the land of dollars is their only country except indeed in paper and they as willingly work for the tea-growers in the Himalayas as our cousins do for Russia. Peace to them both, why shouldn't they, are we not all brothers? Did not Confucius say, all within the four seas are the sons of the emperor? Are we not all crying out for a universal language and a general fusion, and persons of the same color to be allowed to marry, and an immediate abrogation of all the rules of that old conventionalism? Nature lets every one shave his head and shiver.

The wise man, when unable to say more, is silent. The lamp, burnt down, goes out. Unable to write more, the flowery Scholar lays down his pencil.

_Calcutta Review. 31, 62; 1858._
ILLUMINATIONS IN CALCUTTA
FOR VICTORY AT WATERLOO

The public manifestation of joy last Friday evening, in honor of the great victory at Waterloo, reflected credit on the Metropolis of India. On no former occasion has there been so general and magnificent a display of enthusiastic feeling. Calcutta was universally illuminated, even before day had disappeared:—

Behold her streets a-blaze,
With light that seems to kindle the red sky;
Her myriads swarming through the crowded ways,
Master and slave, old age and infancy,
All, all abroad to gaze;
House top and balcony,
Clustered with lights.
Behold the smoke in many a fold
Ascending, floats along the fiery sky,
And hangeth, visible on high,
A dark and waving conopy.

Southey.

The scene of most conspicuous splendour was of course, the GOVERNMENT HOUSE, the northern front of which was peculiarly brilliant, and embellished with a variety of well-arranged devices. The transparency of the DUKE OF WELLINGTON, alluded to in our last, was exhibited over the gateway, and had a grand effect. We have already said that the painting was taken from a spirited sketch by Mr. CHINNERY, and we are anxious that no mistake should arise to lead the public to conclude the transparency was executed by that eminent Artist. We wish that it had been equal to the design, yet it was sufficiently attractive for a street decoration, the whole plan being so happily arranged. The lights were disposed with great taste over every part of the buildings. Amongst the private houses, most remarkable for transparencies, and splendid illuminations, we observe those of Mr. PALMER,
ILLUMINATIONS IN CALCUTTA

Dr. SHOOLBRED, Dr. McWHIRTER, Commodore HAYES, Mr. C. PLOWDEN, GREENWAY’S Library. Mr. MATHEW, Mr. ADAM, the POST MASTER GENERAL, and Mr. BARRETTO. The ballustrades at the top of MR D’OYLY’S house in Chowringhee, were surmounted with “WELLINGTON”, and every letter brilliantly illuminated. Mr. HUNT, the Undertaker, also gave his aid on this grand occasion, and erected a magnificent Cenotaph in front of his house! “SACRED TO THE MEMORY OF THOSE HEROES WHO GLORIOUSLY FELL IN THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO!”

The opulent Natives too, we understand, contributed largely to the splendour of the evening, and the blaze of lights extended from the extremity of Chitpore Road to Garden Reach, where Mr. TREVOR PLOWDEN’S house was, we are informed, one of the most brilliant. It is said that he had himself painted with great taste, a transparency of the meeting of the two Marshals, WELLINGTON and BLUCHER, at the Farm LA BELLE ALLIANCE.

The grand Ball at the Government House afforded a great display of elegance and fashion. Between nine and ten the greater part of the Company had assembled. The Right Honorable the GOVERNOR GENERAL, and the COUNTESS OF LOUDOUN AND MOIRA, entered the Ball Room about ten, and soon afterwards dancing commenced. The first dance was led off by Mrs. EDMONSTONE and Sir W. RUMBOLD. The whole of the upper floor of this magnificent edifice, appropriated for public entertainments, was uncommonly crowded. About one o’clock, the Supper Rooms were thrown open, and the tables, splendidly ornamented, were filled with the richest luxuries of the season. The Champagne was peculiarly fine. At two, dancing was resumed, and kept up with joy and hilarity till four o’clock.

*Calcutta Gazette. 1815 Dec 14.*
THE METROPOLIS AND ITS SAFETY

GRISH CHUNDER GHOSE

THE inhabitants of Calcutta are reasonably in dread of a sepoy emeute. The Asiatic idea of rebellion is confined to the murder of the reigning sovereign and the taking of his capital. And, indeed if these two acts are gone through, an Asiatic kingdom instantly and for ever changes its dynasty of rulers. The sepoys in and near Calcutta have already evidenced a no very loyal disposition. The 25th N.I., just returned from Burmah, are accused of having actually entertained the idea of taking the fort. They are, however, unarmed. It is impossible that they may yet seduce the native portion of the garrison and of the guard in the public establishments, and attempt in Calcutta what their comrades have succeeded in doing at Delhi. At all events, the contingency is one which ought to be provided against; for the interests at stake are large, and should Calcutta be for a single day in the hands of an insurgent soldier, the moral effect upon the country already excited as it is—would be much greater than if one of the provinces on the Indus were lost.

We have one regiment of Europeans, Her Majesty's 53rd foot, in the Fort. This regiment could well give an account of any number of sepoys within a fortnight's march of Calcutta, if they had not been encumbered with garrison duties. A party, we find has already been told off to guard the suburbs of Alipore and Garden Reach. Another party of greater strength must be placed on the north town where the roads branch off towards the cantonments of Dum Dum and Barrackpore. The remainder can hardly afford a detail in sufficient strength to cope with a thousand sepoys in the streets of Calcutta. Of the European regiment at Chinsurah, a detachment has already been sent to Benares, where a large
cantonment is now garrisoned entirely by native troops. The remainder must be kept in tact to assist in keeping the regiments at Barrackpore in order. The Company of Artillery in Dum Dum may be withdrawn thence at an emergency but it should be remembered that there are native artillerymen at Dum Dum, and that the wing of H. M.'s 84th Foot can do little at Barrackpore without the assistance of a battery. The available military strength for the internal defence of the metropolis is therefore small enough, and there is some little ground for alarm. Now let us see what Government is doing for the safety of the town. Troops have been indented for from Burmah and Madras; but if things do come worst, they can hardly arrive before the storm shall have blown over. Messages have been sent to Ceylon to intercept the reinforcements despatched from England for China. That is a still more distant hope. It is said the Chief Commissioner of Police has given Government and the Chowringhee public assurances of safety. We wish the events in Upper India had left us in a mood to laugh.

Two other schemes have suggested themselves to the public mind for ensuring the safety of the town. The first is the raising of a local militia. Such a body can be raised from the European and East Indian residents alone. Now, both these portions of the community are engaged in pursuits which utterly disqualify them from undertaking the active and serious duties of militia. Their habits are of a kind as discordant with those of militia life as they can possibly be, and their time is not at their command. The constant readiness to respond to call which constitutes the value of a regular army need not be looked for in a militia; but the constant inability to turn out at a call except at a few convenient hours in the morning and evening is a positive disqualification. It is stated that the Governor-General is not unwilling to see the inhabitants of Calcutta enrol themselves into a militia. Probably his lordship wishes them to exhibit an example of loyalty to the rest of Her Majesty's subjects here; for he could scarcely have been so unobservant of the character of Calcutta society as not
to have understood that a "Calcutta European Militia" is not likely to turn out a more formidable body than the London Shopmen formed, when Napoleon's threat of invading England led those estimable citizens to practise the goose-step.

The other is a more promising scheme. Calcutta, as a port, has always a large floating population of seafaring and other adventurous classes of people who are consummate masters of the art of streetfighting, with the fist as well as the pistol. These will be always available in care of need. It is only necessary to keep up an organization for bringing them properly armed to the scene of action when required.

We are speculating in the presence of a bare chance of a sepoy outbreak. For ourselves we cannot persuade ourselves to the belief that, rash and ignorant as the sepoys are, they will hurl themselves upon destruction rendered all the more certain by the utter and known impossibility of their obtaining any help or refuge.

_Hindoo Patriot._ 1857 May 21.
FEMALE SLAVES
IN CALCUTTA

LAST Wednesday two grown up girls, the natives of a country which they called Habaish, and who appeared to be what are generally called Coffrees, absconded from the house of Syed Husein, an opulent Mogul, and he, to have them apprehended, made an application at the Thannah of the Division in which he lives, and stated that the women had robbed him of some silver ornaments and clothes which belonged to him. They were immediately taken into custody and were brought before Mr. Robison at the Police, to whom they stated that they were slaves, and that from having been obliged to do more work than they liked they formed the plan of running away, and had only taken with them some of the articles given to them during the time they were in Sahib Husein’s house. One of them said that she had been seized by some Arabs in Habaish, from whence she was taken and sold in the market of Mocha to the person who afterwards became Sued Husein’s father-in-law, and by whom she was given when his daughter was married to Sued Husein. She also stated that ever since her arrival she had been confined in the house, and was not even allowed to go outside of the door to witness any of the processions as they passed the house; orders having been given to the male servants to prevent her and the other slave from leaving the premises. To-day (Thursday) Sued Husein’s deposition was taken before Mr. Robison, in which he stated that when his father died, one of the girls was given to his mother, who gave that one into his charge, and she was since that considered as a slave belonging to the family. The other his father-in-law made him a present of, five years ago, when he got married. He stated that he believed both the girls to have come to Calcutta at a very early age, but he did not know how they were brought away from their own country. During
the time they had been with him they had received no wages, but had as they required been supplied with pocket money, food, and clothings. He stated that slave keeping was very common in Calcutta, as all the Moguls, most of the Armenian families, and a number of the natives, keep slaves in their houses in the same manner that he had done. He acknowledged that the articles taken away by the girls had been given by him to them, but stated that they were not intended as presents, but merely for them to wear on particular occasions. They had the charge of his house-hold property, and might have taken away other articles which he was not then aware of but wished these articles which have been found on them to be given back to him, and them to be punished for the robbery. This was all that he required, as he did not care about the women returning to his service.

Mr. Robison took great pains in explaining to him the object of the Slave Trade Act, for the violation of which a Captain in the Indian Navy had lately been sentenced to transportation, and had he (Sued Husein) bought or imported the girls, Mr. Robison would have indicted him for it. He was however sufficiently acquainted with how the law regarded persons who had not purchased or imported slaves, and who, not having been aware of the Slave Act, when they learned its nature were willing to give their slaves freedom; and he would therefore allow Sued Husein to go away till he satisfied himself on this particular point. The articles given to the girls during their servitude were their own property, the taking away of which by them could not be considered a crime. All slaves become free the moment they land in Calcutta, and if their purchasers detain them by force, they made themselves liable to an indictment for assault. After hearing these remarks by the Magistrate, Sued Husein left the office.

The girls on being asked what they intended to do for their livelihood, and if they would not like to return to Sued Husein as servants, said that they could do Khitmutghar’s work, but that they were determined not to go back to their late master, as there they had to labour all day, and all night
were obliged to shampoo the women; they were also afraid that Sued Husein would, after what had now occurred, severely ill use them. The girl who had belonged to Sued Husein's mother said that she did not recollect when she came from her own country, having been very young, and in other particulars corroborated the other woman's statement. When asked about the ornaments and clothes, they said that they had them in constant wear, and some articles which had been given to one of them were still in Sued Husein's house.

Mr. Robison directed Mr. Macan to have them taken care of for a day or two; and to endeavour to recover from Sued Husein the remainder of their property which they stated to be in his possession.—India Gazette (594).

*Calcutta Gazette. 1831 Aug 15.*
STRIKE BY
ORIYA PALKEA BEARERS.

Part I

THESE Courteous gentlemen of Ooriya, the Bearers, have been these three or four days making a great noise against the new Regulation passed by Government, for licensing Teeka Palkea and Bearers, and levying taxes on them. Some are assembled on the plain of the Fort, others at Chad Pal Ghaut, in separate bodies. They say, these confounded Firigis have been at their usual tricks of taxing our bodily labour! "Let us be off to our own country, and there maintain ourselves in the midst of our families by agriculture." They have refused, accordingly, to bear Palanquins for these few days and we apprehend it will be necessary to make some alteration in regard to the Regulation, in order to pacify the Oriya rabble—Sambad Timira Nasak (224).

_Calcutta Gazette._ 1827 May 28.

Part II

The opposition made by the Ooriya Bearers to the recent Regulation for their registry, and rates of hire, is considerably diminished, and many may be now seen bearing their badges, as small brass ornaments on the upper arms. Their objections originated, no doubt, in some degree, in misapprehension of the purport of the Regulation, as well as in that dislike of novelty, which characterises the Native of India. They apprehended, being converted into Company's servants, by investiture with the badge, and being liable to be put in requisition for public duties. As this impression wears off, their repugnance will be overcome. Many of those who were previously prepared to return to their villages, have left Calcutta, and their departure will be productive of temporary inconvenience, but we have no doubt that the place of the seceders will speedily be supplied, as the real merits of the case come to be understood (226).

_Calcutta Gazette._ 1827 June 4.
THE EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENTS
OF CALCUTTA

C. MONTAGUE

READER: transport yourself in fancy to the latter part of the last century, and, in one of the quadrangles of the Fort, which adorns and protects this city of Palaces, you will see a snug little house, which is given up to those staff Serjeants, who are employed in the Ordnance Department, by Government. Enter; and, in the ante-room, you will see a small knot of little chubby children, conning their daily lessons under the superintendence of some widow, who has long past the meridian of life, and whom the res angustae domi have compelled to undertake the tuition of children, to introduce them into the vestibule of learning's fane, and to initiate them in the mysteries of Reading, Writing, and (perhaps) Arithmetic. "Mavor's Spelling" is the text-book. Some are forcing their way through the mystical twenty and six letters, the wonderful combination of which has astonished mankind, and changed the face of society. Others are reading the story of Frank Pitt, the great fat boy, who devoured an enormous-sized cake, and had to swallow a corresponding quantity of medicine to counteract the effects of his gluttony: while a third set, more advanced than the rest, are learning to spell such tremendous words, as "Va-le-tu-di-na-ri-an," "La-ti-tu-di-na-ri-an;" are reading about the wolf, who devoured the pretty little lamp most cruelly; and are poring over the meaning of the contest between Αεolus and the Sun, fought, like a good practical joke, at the expense of a poor unoffending way-farer. The progress, which these children have made, is considered very satisfactory: and the poor widow, taking the mouth-piece of the hukah from her mouth, and laying down her needle-work on the mat, congratulates herself, with spectacles on her nose, that the education of Annie, Janet, and Margaret is nearly complete.
Let us turn hence towards a spot, now much changed from its pristine desolate appearance, and known by the name of Coolie Bazar. The pretty Church, and the little white mansions, which now adorn the spot, were not then to be seen. Small bungalows, like so many mounds of straw, broke the level prospect of the situation, and were the habitations of invalid soldiers, who had fought at Seringapatam or helped to drive Sujah from the plains of Plassey. Living upon a rupee a day, these old pensioners smoked and walked, and smoked and slept, their time away. One, more learned perchance than the rest, opened a school: and, while the modest widow taught but the elements of knowledge, the more ambitious Pensioner proposed to take them higher up the hill of learning.

Let us contemplate him seated in an old-fashioned chair, with his legs resting on a cane morah. A long pipe, his most constant companion, projects from his mouth. A pair of loose pyjamahs and a charkanah banian keep him within the pale of society, and preserve him cool in the trying hot season of this climate. A rattan—his sceptre—is in his hand; and the boys are seated on stools, or little morahs, before his pedagogic majesty. They have already read three chapters of the Bible, and have got over the proper names without much spelling; they have repeated a column of Entick's Dictionary with only two mistakes; and are now employed in working compound Division, and soon expect to arrive at the Rule of Three. Some of the lad's eyes are red with weeping, and others expect to have a taste of the ferula. The partner of the Pensioner's days is seated on a low Dinapore matronly chair, picking vegetables, and preparing the ingredients for the coming dinner. It strikes twelve o'clock; and the school-master shakes himself. Presently the boys bestir themselves: and, for the day, the school is broken up:

These pictures are not the figments of the imagination: they are the photographs of other years and distant scenes: and, if there be any, who still have even a faint recollection of the times of which we are treating, they will acknowledge the verisimilitude of the picture, and give writer credit for fidelity.
Such were the schools, which, soon after the establishment of British supremacy in the East, were formed for the instruction of youth of both sexes. They were really make-shifts—mere plans, like other domestic plans, which men contrive for augmenting their means of subsistence. They were looked upon simply as sources of revenue; and hence every individual, in straitened circumstances, set up a day-school, which might serve as a kind of corps de reserve, until fortune smiled propitious, and a more congenial employment was obtained. Things have not much altered in this respect. The office of school-master, one of the most responsible and important under the sun, is still recklessly adopted by all kinds and classes of men, who cannot find any other employment for themselves. The “broken down soldier,” the bankrupt merchant, and the ruin’d spendthrift, now no longer proud, generally fill the office of the pedagogue, and perpetrate an amount of moral mischief, which it is not easy to calculate, and very difficult to remove.

It is a truism that there is not a business in life, which does not require a particular mental, moral, and physical discipline. Even the cutting of corks requires an apprenticeship of seven years. The honourable professions in life demand the devotion of the entire season of youth, to attain a complete qualification in all their requirements and dependencies, The only exception, it would appear, from this wholesome rule is the office of the school-master. Those, who are fully alive to its importance and its magnitude, enter upon their duties with misgivings, and never fail to study the great improvements, which are being made in Science, Philosophy, Literature, and Art, in order that they may qualify themselves for their duties. Such conscientious teachers are however rare. For one of this stamp, we have a hundred reckless, careless, and bold-spirited adventurers, without experience, thought, study, training, or any preparation, who offer themselves as teachers—and are accepted!

It is a remarkable fact that, in the ordinary transactions of life, men display more caution than in the moral and intellectual training of their own offspring. Generally, they will seek
the assistance of those people, who are regularly brought up, that is, really educated, in the particular business, for which such aid is required. A man, who wants a farrier, will not trust his horse to be shod by a barber, nor, if he be in need of a khidmutghar, will he employ the services of a professional dhoby. Only in the great business of education do we see a blind and unreasonable departure from this rule. Children are entrusted to the care, not only of empirics, quacks, and men of base or worthless character, but to those, who are well known to have been brought up to other employments, and have therefore never bestowed so much as a passing thought on the great ends of education. But surely a child is of greater value than a horse, and the pabulum mentis far more important than mutton and beef for the nourishment of the boy.

The season of infancy is the seed time of the mind. The faculties of observation and memory are then beginning to be developed. The former catches every thing, and the latter stores it up. How necessary then is it, that the observation should be directed to those objects and those scenes, which may be useful in after life, which ennable man’s nature, enlist his feelings on the side of virtue, and attach them to Truth! At this season, too, curiosity is most powerful, and imitation, most active. It is obvious, then, that this curiosity should be directed to those objects, which strengthen the intellect, and develop the moral nature; and that the principle of Imitation should have held up it, as it were in a mirror those actions, that course of conduct, and those characters, which add to the dignity of human nature, and adorn it with those graces, which shed a lustre around names, that will not easily be unlearned by mankind! And now, above all others, is the time to teach the dawning mind to reverence God, to write upon it His holy commandments, and to train it to look up with child-like love, trust and confidence to its Creator and Redeemer. So spoke the wisest of men: “Train up a child in the way in which he should to; and, when he is old, he will not depart from it.”

As the child advances to maturity, the understanding begins.
to exert its powers, and admonishes the teacher that now, with
the various systems of Science and Philosophy, the truths
of man's nature and his destiny must be taught, so that he may
know who and what he is, and to what his destiny points. His
mind must be fortified against the prejudices and errors, which
often lead the mind from the path of truth to the cold
and benumbing regions of infidelity. In short, he must be
taught how to lead a useful and a happy life here, and to make
this life a stepping stone to life everlasting.

These, and much more than these, constitute the great
business of the School-master; and yet how few consider
the responsibility, which is attached to the office. A few
columns of Spelling, a few pages of Grammar and Geography,
a few chapters of Reading, writing copies, and working
examples in Arithmetic, with many make up education. With
others, a play of Shakespeare, some Essays of Bacon, a super-
ficial knowledge of History, an equation, and a demonstration
comprise the sum of teaching. Moral and religious education
are altogether omitted.

But what else can reasonably be expected, as things—now
stand? One man starts in life, as an assistant to an Indigo
Planter; but, at the end of the season, which proved un-
favourable, he becomes a teacher; for he thinks the work
extremely simple, and concludes that the manufacture of Indigo
is a far more difficult task. Another has been trying to enter
a Government Office; but the portals of patronage will not
open: and he is thereby induced to become a teacher, as
a kind of "hanger-on," until he shall succeed in the accom-
plishment of his wishes. A third cannot find employment
for himself. He is too well known for his irregular habits.
The profession, in which he has been brought up, has discarded
him. The society, in which he moved, has driven him out
of its pale. He is in utter disgrace: when suddenly he
becomes a schoolmaster—and (will it be believed?) he is
supported, tolerated, praised. A fourth is a widow, left without
any support by her deceased husband. Her education has been
scanty. And yet she puts herself forward as a teacher; opens-
a school; and manages to eke out a subsistence, without any conscientious scruples, that she has undertaken a task, for which she is utterly unqualified.

This wretched system is not yet defunct; but great changes have taken place. So long as parents will look out for cheap education only; so long as they do not estimate at their proper value a sound and thorough training for their children—strangers of blighted prospects will perpetuate this system: and, though driven from the 'high places' of the city, it will still haunt its purlieus, and, creeping into lanes and crowded streets, live a life of feverish anxiety for some years to come.

As British supremacy began to extend, and the increasing demands of war and commerce caused an influx of Europeans into this land, greater efforts (and on a larger scale) were made to extend the benefits of education, and to elevate its tone. With the view of presenting our readers with a complete sketch of the state of education in Calcutta, past and present, we will divide our essay into four distinct heads.

I.—The educational efforts of private individuals.
II.—The educational efforts of classes of men.
III.—The educational efforts of the clergy.
IV.—The educational efforts of the Government.

Before we enter on the first division, we feel ourselves bound to notice the Free School, which is decidedly the first school that was established in Bengal, even prior to the efforts of private individuals of liberal education. The Free School may be regarded as the termination of all those little schools, of which we have already taken notice, and as the beginning of changes in education, which have not yet ceased in this country. It is the end and the beginning of two phases of society, two different moral epochs; and as such, is quite an historical monument.

About the end of the year 1747, a charity fund was instituted for the purpose of giving board and education to indigent Christian children—so early was there manifested a good spirit towards the poor of this world. Besides subscriptions, either
monthly or annual, it enjoyed an endowment, which, upon the authority of Mr. Charles Weston's letter to the Select Vestry of the Cathedral, dated in the year 1787, grew out "of the restitution money received for pulling down the English Church by the Moors, at the capture of Calcutta, in 1756." To this amount was subsequently added a legacy of 6 or 7,000 Rs. bequeathed by Mr. Constantine; and this sum was still further increased by the public spirit of Mr. Bourchier, and the liberality of the Government.

Mr. Bourchier, well known as Governor of Bombay, was originally Master Attendant of Calcutta; he was a merchant, and most successful in his pursuits. At this period there was no particular house, in which the Mayor and Aldermen could meet for the transaction of business; for there was a time, when Calcutta was governed by a Mayor and Aldermen: To remedy the inconvenience, which these municipal officers suffered for want of special accommodation, Mr. Bourchier built the Old Court House, which was much enlarged by several additions in the year 1765. He gave it to the Company; on condition that Government should pay 4,000 Arcot Rs. per annum, to support a charity school, and for other benevolent purposes. In consideration of the many great improvements, which had been chiefly made by the munificence of private individuals, Government agreed to devote 800 Rs. per month to these charitable purposes. And, when the ruinous state of the building rendered its demolition necessary, Government with a truly generous spirit consented to pay 800 Rs. in perpetuity. Some years afterwards, when application for assistance was again made to the Government on behalf of the school, a further donation of 800 Rs. per mensem was munificently bestowed. The liberality of the Government, on this occasion, is truly deserving of praise.

In the lapse of time, the old Charity School became quite inadequate to the demand for education: and, in consequence of the necessity of providing instruction for the offspring of the poor, the Free School Society was established on the 21st of December 1789, and its management placed in the hands.
of a Patron (the Governor-General), the Select Vestry, and a few other governors.

It was soon found that the subscriptions and property of the old Charity School, and the Free School Society, "being of a contingent nature, so that each was occasionally obliged to lend and borrow interchangeably from the funds of the other, produced thereby a perplexity in the accounts, which would be avoided by the consolidation of the funds;" and it was therefore resolved that, on the 14th April, 1800, the two funds should be consolidated, and the two institutions be united under one establishment, to be governed by the Select Vestry.

In 1813, the benefits of the school were extended to an unlimited number of day scholars; and in 1817, a separate establishment was formed for children, who were willing to pay a sufficient sum to cover all expenses. These children were placed under the superintendence of the 2nd master.

At this time the funds of the school suffered diminution, on account of the improvements, which the governors were obliged to make on the premises, for securing the health and comfort of the children,—and on account of the reduction in the rate of interest given by the Government. On this occasion, the Bishop preached a sermon on behalf of the school; and correspondent exertions being made by other friends of education, the funds were once more restored to a healthy condition, and its means for doing good were considerably enlarged.

The Free School may be considered as the parent of all educational and benevolent institutions in this land. It emphatically stands a monument of British sympathy and generosity, at a time when "war and the rumours of war" rendered all things connected with the East India Company fluctuating and insecure, and when the desire for making money was more intense than it is at present. Many of those, who now hold responsible situations in the uncovenanted service of Government, received their education in the Free School; and others, who have since been numbered with the "generations gone," but who, in their day, were conspicuous
for their mental and moral qualities, owed all the knowledge, which they possessed, to this same school.

At the present moment the Free School is imparting an excellent practical education to about four hundred indigent children of both sexes. Great praise is due to the head teacher and his colleagues for their indefatigable labours in the schoolroom. A School of Industry has been established also for printing, tailoring, shoe-making, and carpentry. So far things promise well, and we have only commendation to bestow. But there is a small cloud, which is, we see, annually increasing, and which, we much fear, will, if not quickly dispelled, paralyse the exertions of the friends of this school. The income is diminishing. As far as regards the origin of this serious evil, we cannot acquit the governors of all blame; and we would ill discharge the duty, which we have undertaken, if we shrank from speaking the truth. The first evil, from which the funds of the school suffered, was the appropriation of upwards of thirty thousand rupees to another purpose. The building of the Free School Church, however praiseworthy in itself, was a diversion of the school funds from their proper object. This was a heavy blow to the financial prosperity of the school. Another great cause of the diminution of the funds is, that applications for subscriptions are not now made with that energy and perseverance, which characterized the exertions of an individual, whose services to the school can never be too highly appreciated, and who deserves a passing notice.

Mr. Patrick Sutherland, Register of the Military Board Office, was connected with the Free School, as Purveyor and Assistant Secretary, from November 1807 to March 1833, a period of twenty-six years. If we are not mistaken, he was originally educated in this school; and never have we witnessed a more handsome return for benefits received, than in the instance of Mr. Sutherland's after-exertions for its prosperity. The comforts of the children were well attended to; every thing was managed on the most approved economical principles; and, at his suggestion, the Government donation of 800 Rs. per
month was originally obtained. Various other sources of revenue were also opened by him for the benefit of the school; and not a stranger could arrive in the country, but straight way an application was made to him for a pecuniary contribution.

We have already remarked that, in consequence of the increasing demand for the education, fee scholars were received into the Free School. Their number was increasing every month; and parents, notwithstanding the reluctance they felt to send their children to charity schools, were compelled, for want of other private or public educational establishments, to sacrifice their feelings, and to send their little urchins to the Free School. This state of things was not suffered to continue. Many enterprising individuals observed that a school would make a capital speculation; and it was left to the energy and good sense of a Mr. Archer to establish the first school for boys, in this City of Palaces, before the year 1800. His great success attracted others to the same field; and two institutions speedily took the lead. Mr. Farrell's Seminary, and the Durrumtollah Academy, were the two rival institutions. There was also school conducted by Mr. Halifax, another by Mr. Lindstedt, and a third by Mr. Draper; but these were of less note, and did not attract so much attention.

In all these institutions, a plain English education was given; and, what must on no account be overlooked, the principles of navigation and book-keeping were made objects of special study. At that time, through the exertions of Mr. Kidd, the founder of the Kidderpore Dock Yard, the country trade had received a great impetus. Ships were being built; and young men, who had acquired a superficial knowledge of the theory of navigation, soon found employment. The study of navigation is now nearly banished from our schools; and it is sometimes only, when the boys are sent to the schools in Calcutta from the eastward, that a special request is made for the study of navigation. This occurs so rarely, that when the request is made, some such surprise is felt as if an echo of an antediluvian period fell upon our ears.
In order to give our readers an idea of what these private seminaries were, we shall quote at length a passage from the memoir of Mr. David Drummond, which most graphically describes the state of things at that period:

"Mr. Drummond has himself declared, that he was the first person, who introduced the study of Grammar and the use of the Globes, in the Durrumtollah Academy. This seminary was, as that period, in the most flourishing condition. Receipts were large, and the profits, which the proprietors realized, handsome; and yet we perceive how lamentably low was the tone of education in it: in truth, people looked for no higher qualification, than that comprised in the three 'Rs.'—Reading, Writing, Arithmetic. A knowledge of these branches of learning was a passport to the subordinate offices under Government. No other sphere of extended usefulness was demanded at the hands of the uncovenanted branch of the service.—Merchants themselves required no high scale of qualification. It is matter of surprise to know how little was then required at the hands of school-masters: but then we must not omit that the Government of the country was satisfied with that little, at the time to which we have made reference. There were men of brilliant talents among us—a Malcolm, a Munro, and others: but the duties which devolved on them were not so onerous, as to demand so complicated and expensive of machinery, as the covenanted and uncovenanted service of the Hon'ble Company now is.

"How widely things are altered now! The studies of schools are adapted to present circumstances; nothing is left untried which will develop the energies of men, refine their feelings, establish their morals, and make them fit instruments for employment in the service of a Government, whose responsibilities are daily increasing."

"We are happy to observe that Mr. Drummond was mainly instrumental in introducing two studies of such importance. They are not however the only two, he introduced. English literature, and the study of the Latin classics, were also taught in his school, through his recommendation. But we must not
overlook another important change, which he effected. Every individual is become so familiar with it, that we are assured that it will occasion surprise, when we mention that Annual Examinations were first held by Mr. Drummond. As at present, so was it formerly, *a big day for boys.* It was a day of fear, of trembling, and of joy. The prospect of a defeat—a discomfiture—was appalling to the lads; while the uncertain prospect of a prize, and the too certain prospect of the joyful holidays, were indeed soul-enlivening and soul-thrilling. Could one but realize the day, as it came off under the auspices of the late Mr. Drummond! The beauty and wealth of the city were assembled there, and the curious gaze of the humble clerks, and the eager faces of the teachers and the school-boys of other institutions—all were there. But the most prominent figure was Mr. Drummond. He was the life and the soul of the assembly. All eyes were bent on him, and with a smile he graciously repaid their kindness. Light and elastic, with the vigour of youth, a pleasing countenance, and brilliant blue eyes, Mr. Drummond was the hero of the day. As each class was called up, he detailed minutely the studies and the progress of the lads, and passed a high eulogium on their assiduity and application; and lastly, who can forget the book-keeping class? The boys in their Sunday clothes, with their slates in their hands, ready to journalize and post with the ledger the most intricate mercantile calculation—Mr. Drummond throwing his gauntlet to the assembly to puzzle his lads, ‘cunning in workmanship’—a question pompously and slow falling from the lips of the late Mr. Halifay—the answer after a while correctly given, a burst of applause announcing the success; Derozio receiving his medal a descent on his merits from his admiring master:—all these combined to present a scene, which, while we write, warms our heart, and makes us live over those days again.

"The first examination of this kind gave the death-blow to Mr. Farrel’s seminary. Mr. Drummond knew the power of (what the French appropriately call) *éclat.* He felt also that an examination without ladies was a non-entity. He
therefore called upon a lady-friend of influence and respectability, and, making known to her his intention, he promised her a grand ball and supper, and conveyances for her friends to boot, if they would honour the examination with their presence. Could such arts ever fail? The bait took. The hall was crowded; and Mr. Drummond became, in the opinion of the ladies, a great man, a famous man!"

Besides the institutions, which we have already mentioned, as public institutions for the sole benefit of private individuals, there were private seminaries, conducted by Reverend Gentlemen of the various denominations then in Calcutta. That conducted by the late Rev. Doctor Yates was the most flourishing. These seminaries were opened for the purpose of support; and, as more permanent employment was obtained, they were abandoned. For this reason we had a number of private seminaries in succession,—some very excellent in their way: but they were all evanescent. Either some employment, which relieved a sensitive mind from anxious dependence on public patronage, drew the conductors away, or death removed them from the scene of their labours.

We would feel ourselves guilty of an unpardonable omission, if we did not at this place make prominent mention of the schools for young ladies, which were also established in this city. The earliest was that of a Mrs. Pitts; and soon after many others were founded by private enterprise and public encouragement. That, which enjoyed the most extensive support however, was Mrs. Durrell's seminary. It was of great repute: and there are many ladies, yet alive, who received the rudiments of their education, and their finish also, in this seminary.

There were some features of the society of that period, which rendered these seminaries for ladies very popular. There were no hotels and large boarding-house, to which strangers, on their arrival in the City of Palaces, could repair. The only places of resort for young ladies, whose friends and relatives were at a distance from Calcutta, were these schools; and hence the seminaries for young ladies were at once semi-
naries for learning, and boarding houses for young ladies, who had taken their farewell of the school.

These seminaries also afforded an excellent opportunity for forming matrimonial alliances. Young men and old—civilians and military gentlemen—merchants and indigo-planters, met here with a capital mart for sweet-hearts and wives. To enliven the ennui of Ditch society, and to hasten the approach of 'an establishment' a grand ball and supper were given almost every month. Friends were invited, who introduced other friends: and it was no uncommon circumstance to find that many a young man most miraculously found his lost rib, and many a young woman discovered from whose side she had been taken.

Much cannot be said of the pabulum mentis, which was given in these seminaries. Accomplishments were abundantly supplied; and there were not wanting stimulants for acquiring them. But that knowledge, which enlightens, invigorates, and dignifies the character, was a sealed font.

We must however make an exception in favour of one school, which was conducted by the late Rev. Mr. Lawson. Those alone, who enjoyed the good fortune of his acquaintance, knew the worth of that man. As a Baptist Minister, he pursued his ministry, noiselessly and without ostentation; but he possessed a mind, which would have adorned the highest station, and shed a grace on the loftiest eminence of preferment. He is still remembered by some as a poet; nor was he less distinguished in this walk, than in others. His "Maniac" best shews his poetical powers; and his minor pieces display great delicacy and tenderness of sentiment, combined with a light and playful fancy, and a wit as harmless and as brightly keen, as that of Addison's. He was moreover no mean sculptor, a tolerable painter, and an excellent musician. His school for young ladies could not but progress under such an able conductor. He bestowed great care on English composition—a great, aye almost indispensable, requisite in this as well as in all other lands: and there are ladies living, who are remarkable for their easy and graceful writing, and who
received their lessons in grammar and style from the accomplished mind of the Rev. Mr. Lawson. Having now performed our duty to one, who well merits a more permanent notice than these pages can afford, we turn our attention to the second division on our subject:—the exertions made by classes of men.

II. Various reasons urge the different classes of men in every society to establish institutions for their independent advantage. It is well that it should be so. For if all men were actuated by the same views, and adopted the same plan, a flat and uninteresting monotonous would be the inevitable result. The British in Calcutta early felt the necessity of those institutions, which are flourishing in their native land; and which, being the offspring of benevolence, serve in a great measure to alleviate distress and relieve poverty, to check crime and improve society.

Actuated doubtless by these views, Major General Kirkpatrick, in August 1782, circulated proposals for the establishment of an Orphan Society. Not a single exception was to be found, so cheerfully and cordially did the officers respond to the appeal of the gallant Major General. In the month of March following, the Society was formed. The objects of the Society "are to provide funds, or resources, for the maintenance of the children of officers dying in indigent circumstances; to relieve officers from the burden of contributing to private subscriptions on behalf of the orphans of individuals; and, in the hour of sickness and danger, to yield them the consolation that, in the event of their dying poor, a certain pension will be secured to their offspring."

The Military Orphan Society is divided into two schools—the Upper and Lower. The former contains are children of officers; the latter, of soldiers. These schools are again divided into two departments, for boys and girls respectively; and the education imparted is of a practical nature, designed to qualify the children for the situations they are likely to occupy in this land.

The Orphan Society has been productive of manifold
advantages. Some of the most eminent East Indians, both male and female, having been educated in the schools connected with the Society. For reasons of economy it was found necessary to abolish the boy's department of the Upper-school, and to amalgamate it with Saint Paul's School. This arrangement was carried out in 1846.

A Society, that has existed so long, and which is an honour to the Company's Military Service, should not be allowed to have a mere passing notice. They were urgent reasons for a wise and benevolent provision of this nature for the offspring of the military gentlemen of the Company's Service. So early as the year 1770, various propositions were made, and various plans floated in the atmosphere of society, for making some kind of provision for the children of officers born out of the pale of wedlock. Young men, heedless and improvident, on their entering into the service, and arriving at Calcutta, too early contracted fatal intimacy with the women of the soil, and were totally regardless of the future welfare of their unfortunate progeny, who were left to the benevolence and the charity of the friends and associates of their fathers. Many were entirely lost, being imperceptibly blended with the Muhammadans. The Orphan Society has rescued these poor children from distress, and afforded them an asylum, where they have received an education, which has enabled them to obtain their livelihood, and become respectable and reputable members of the society.

With the Orphan Society, the name of the Rev. Mr. Hovenden is most intimately associated. Many, who were in the school under his regime, make mention of him in very affectionate terms. His deeds of benevolence have been also treasured by many others: and we have often pain, when we honestly declared our unfavourable opinion with regard to his management of the schools. With this man however we have nothing to do. His public acts are our concern; and by these do we judge of him. It seems that he devoted all his attention to the girls of the Upper School. The boys did not share so much of his regard: nor did the Lower School experience a proportionate share of kindness. His affection for
the ladies of the Upper School blinded him to their best interests. The state of education was decided inferior; while there was a wasteful expenditure in the victualling department. He was in short an excellent, pious, and most amiable man; but an indifferent superintendent, and a very poor economist.

It will not be considered out of place here to advert to the European Female Orphan Asylum—an institution, which reflects the highest honour on the community, by whom it was established, and on whose support it still depends. The destitute condition of the offspring of European soldiers, who, if they fortunately escaped the dangers of infancy, were notwithstanding exposed to the corrupting influence of scenes of profligacy, attracted the kind and sympathizing notice of the Rev. Mr. Thomason, who appealed to the public, and succeeded in establishing the European Female Orphan Society. Contributions flowed in from every quarter—the officers and soldiers gave liberally towards so desirable an object, and the Government bestowed a donation of 200 rupees per mensem.*

A house and grounds in Circular Road were purchased for 37,000 rupees; and this Asylum has proved a blessing to the offspring of the European soldiery.

* We think it will perhaps be interest to give a list of donations, from the officers and soldiers of the European regiments stationed in India, towards the Asylum.

| Officers of H. W. 14th Regiment | ... | Rs. 742 0 0 |
| Ditto of ditto 66th " | ... | 785 0 0 |
| Ditto of ditto 67th " | ... | 717 0 0 |
| Ditto of ditto 24th Light Dragoons | ... | 412 2 0 |
| Ditto of ditto 11th ditto | ... | 657 0 0 |
| Non-Commissioned officers and privates of the H. Co’s Artillery | ... | 121 9 7 |
| H. C. European Regiment | ... | 274 9 2 |
| H. M. 8th Light Dragoons | ... | 262 6 4 |
| H. M. 11th ditto | ... | 444 1 7 |
| H. M. 14th Foot | ... | 371 14 0 |
| H. M. 17th Foot | ... | 1,016 0 0 |
| H. M. 59th ditto | ... | 1,128 15 0 |
| H. M. 87th ditto | ... | 810 14 5 |

Rs. 8,400 8 1
The year 1821 was also remarkable for the exertions of the Ladies' Society for native Female Education in Calcutta and its vicinity. Miss Cooke, better known as Mrs. Wilson, arrived in 1821, and commenced her devoted labours. As we propose to devote a separate article to native female education, we content ourselves at this time with the simple mention of the name of one, who deserves to be honourably enrolled with the Frys, and Mores, and other female benefactors of the world.

We have now arrived at that stage of our subject, which requires us to record the exertions of classes of men, not only for their own benefit, but also for the advantage of others. The most excellent private seminaries labour under the evil of transitoriness. This evil began to be painfully felt about the year 1820. People were then convinced that private schools could not answer the great purposes of national education. It may be, that the conductor of a private school might be afflicted with protracted indisposition, and his school would fail—or that, growing old and feeble, he could not put forth those energies, which he did in his adolescence.

About the year 1820, "a spirit was abroad." Not only did the acute indisposition of Mr. Drummond blight his prospects, and hasten the 'decline and fall' of his academy; but a change had at this time taken place in society. New views were entertained by individuals, and a new system was required. Men perceived the necessity of attending to the moral and religious education of children—The East Indians at that time exerted themselves in a way, which they have never done since. They not only sought for a redress of the grievances, under which they laboured—they not only determined to carry their complaints to the very fountain of British influence and power—but they united together to establish a school for the benefit of their own children."

The PARENTAL ACADEMY, through the influence and exertions of the late John Miller Ricketts, was established on the 1st March, 1823. The Calcutta Grammar School was established in June of the same year, owing to a dispute among

*Oriental Magazine.
the original members of the Parental Academy, which led to a separation of efforts. On the establishment of these schools, Mr. Drummond's Academy very sensibly declined; until it was merged in the Verulam Academy, conducted by Mr. Masters, which was in its turn given up, when Mr. Masters was appointed to fill the office of the Head Master of La Martiniere.

The Parental Academy was cradled in discord. The storm of passions swept over it, and the waves of prejudice buffeted it. A bad feeling crept in among those who were united in establishing this school; and no sooner was the Parental ushered into existence, than it experienced a sad reverse. Many friends were converted into bitter enemies; and an opposition school, the Calcutta Grammar School, was immediately established. Mr. Ricketts, with his small, faithful, and resolute band, however, remained steadfast in their good work; and though the beginning was feeble—only sixteen scholars having applied for admission—it soon prospered very greatly.

To this Institution must be cheerfully and unreservedly given the tribute of having raised the tone of Christian Education in this city, and directed attention to the importance of the study of the History of India, and of the Vernaculars. The Roman and Grecian Classics, the importance of which we do not mean to underrate, were—very properly for the youth of this country, and the employments which they are likely to fill—reckoned of only secondary consideration, and held subordinate to the study of English Literature in all its branches, and the practical Sciences. Hence the success of the Institution. Many of its alumni fill lucrative and respectable employments, and have distinguished themselves in after-life. By adhering to these principles, it will continue to prove a blessing to the East Indian body. We know that it is now under excellent management; and we wish the Institution every success.

There is a fact connected with the Institution, which is alike honourable to the teaching, the pupils, and the East Indian body. It has enjoyed great popularity and success under two individuals, Mr. Lorimer and Mr. Montague, who
have been wholly brought up within its walls, and who have, like the Roman child of historic recollection, returned to the parent—their alma mater—the nourishment, which they had received from her.

These two gentlemen maintained the institution amidst the hottest competition, that was known to exist in this country. La Martiniere was in full operation, with its splendid funds and illustrious governors. Sanit Xavier's College was carrying every thing before it; and the Calcutta High School was in an efficient state, the Rev. Mr. McQueen having just left. Still the Parental bore up against the current most successfully.

We have already adverted to the CALCUTTA GRAMMAR SCHOOL, which owed its origin to the division among the original members of the Parental Academy. It was established in 1823, and continued until the year 1830; when it was so dilapidated in condition, that it was found necessary to break it up, and erect another school on its ruins. The CALCUTTA HIGH SCHOOL was next founded, on the 4th June, 1830; and, under its first rector, the Rev. Mr. McQueen, it flourished exceedingly. However it was also laid in the grave; and on, its ruins SAINT PAUL's SCHOOL was established, in the year 1847.

On the 2nd April 1821, the Armenian community established THE ARMENIAN PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTION for the benefit of their youth. This school has dragged on a not very lively existence until last year; when it was shaken from its lethargy by the establishment of a rival school, designated St. SANDUCT'S SEMINERY.

It will not be beyond our scope to mention the foundation of LA MARTINIÈRE, on the first March 1836, from the funds left by Major General Claude Martin. It is a richly endowed institution—the most wealthy in Calcutta. There is an anomaly in its constitution, however, which cannot fail to strike the most superficial observer. It has effected a compromise between Popery, the Church of England, and Presbyterianism—a compromise, which we confess we are:
unable to appreciate, and which we can never conscientiously approve. It is a charitable institution; but the charity is extended not so much to the low and ragged poor, as to the rich and respectable poor, of whom there are hundreds in Calcutta. It is also a public boarding school. The teachers are very highly paid; and the establishment is very large and expensive. If the greatest amount of charity were really and truly sought, the funds, now employed so largely and slothfully, could be made to relieve hundreds of indigent children, and to prove a real and enduring blessing to the poor.

The Roman Catholic community, about the year 1833 and 1834, were induced to make great exertions for the purpose of establishing a school for the benefit of their community. The fathers of the Society of Jesus, in the year 1834, established St. Xavier's College. The original school was in Doomtollah. It was mainly assisted by two members of the Catholic community, who were remarkable for their liberality. One of them gave the buildings; and the other furnished the College throughout, and supported it largely during the first months of its existence. This College flourished exceedingly, until it was ruined by the departure of the Jesuits in 1847. Saint John's College has been founded in its stead. Great praise is most undoubtedly due to the present Archbishop, through whose energy and perseverance several schools, asylums, and orphanages have been established. It is truly astonishing to find by what slender means so much has been done. His own self-denial is however the principal cause—the corner-stone—of his great and unprecedented success. Wherever indigent Catholics are to be found, there have a chapel and a school house reared their heads, and ministers have been sent to labour among them.*

* We subjoin a list of the various schools, & c., established under the auspices of Archbishop Carew. The list is interesting, and should influence others, as an example of what self-denial and perseverance can accomplish.

St. John's College.
An Orphanage and Free school in the Catholic Cathedral.
A free school at Bow-Bazar.
The Loretto House—a Convent.
Female Orphanage at Entally.
A Widow's Asylum at Entally.
A school at Serampore.
A school at Darjeeling for the youth of both sexes.
We regret that it is not our power to record any corresponding exertions put forth to establish schools for young ladies. Some attempts were made; but they all signally failed. The Committee of the Parental Academy established a female branch in the school under their superintendence in the month of August 1831: but, for want of due support, they were obliged to abandon it in the month of December following. Private seminaries are to be found: Miss Thornton's for instance succeeded Mrs. Durrell's; and the names of the excellent Reichardts are still fresh in the recollection of many of our readers. But Calcutta at present is deplorably in want of a first-rate female schools: it has literally nothing that can compete with Loretto House of the Roman Catholic community.

III. We have now arrived at the third division of our subjects, and not the least important. It is at all times a glorious sight to witness self-denial, and exertions made without the expectation of any pecuniary reward. The Missionaries therefore have our sincere admiration. Their cause is next our heart; and their moral heroism, in labouring earnestly, zealously and cheerfully among the Heathen, is generally felt and appreciated. They form a group, which cannot but attract regard and attention. All who cross the ocean, double the Cape of Good Hope, or are wagon borne across the isthmus of Suez, put their foot on this country for gold. They walk with Mammon, "the least erect spirit" that fell, and think more of Indian riches than of the country itself. The Missionaries are the only exception. Their exertions in the cause of education are great and enduring. They have written their names and their worth in letters of gold, and with a pen of diamond. India will never forget them; and "generations yet unborn" will pour out their hearts in gratitude to them.

We believe that the first school, established by the Clergy for the children of indigent Christians, was that founded by the Rev. Mr. Kiernander, on the premises of the Old or Mission Church, on the 1st of December 1758; and, on the 31st of December of the following year, 175 children were received by
him, 37 of whom he had provided for. The Rev. Mr. Browne also kept a school. There were clergymen of other denominations also, who opened schools; but as these schools were for private advantage, and not for the Hindus, we do not think them worthy of record.

The first attempt, and that too on a large scale, that was made, in connection with the Church of England, for the purposes of education, was the BISHOP'S COLLEGE, founded A.D. 1820, by the Incorporated Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, at the instance of Bishop Middleton. So much has already been said and written on the subject of this College, that it will be an unprofitable occupation to go over the same ground, and to arrive at the conclusion to which all right-thinking men have come. It was fondly hoped by the founder, that it would be productive of great advantage. It is needless to say, that his hopes have not hitherto been realized.

Through the exertions of Bishop Middleton, the Boys' School, connected with St. James' Church, was established in the year 1823, under the auspices of the Committee of the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, and continues to this day under their direction. The Girls' School was established A.D. 1830 under the patronage of Lady Bentinck, and is supported entirely by voluntary contributions.

The School, connected with the Church Missionary Society, was established A.D. 1829. It is now under the able superintendence of the Rev. Messrs. Long and Hassell, and is in a flourishing condition. The study of music and stenography has been introduced; and, as we enjoyed the good fortune of being present at the last quarterly examination of the School, we were particularly struck with the progress of the children. Certainly great praise is due to Mr. Long and his colleagues for their unwearied exertions and untiring zeal in imparting a sound education to the indigent children of the Hindus.

THE BENEVOLENT INSTITUTION, in connection with the Serampore Missionaries, was founded A.D. 1819. It
receives a grant from Government, and was designed for the instruction of indigent children, embracing Roman Catholics, Protestants, Hindus, Mahomedans, Jews, Chinese, and Armenians. On its establishment, and for some time after, children belonging to the first three classes crowded into it. There has of late been a considerable diminution of Roman Catholic children, who have gone over to the schools of their own denomination. This Institution has been the blessed instrument of performing great good. Esto perpetua:

There are, we believe, other small scholastic institutions connected with Christians of other denominations, which do not require prominent notice, as they are conducted very unostentatiously, and are not perhaps arrived at that state of maturity and perfection, which would enable them to take rank with the other more improved institutions.

The state of native education was, until the year 1830, in a very imperfect state. The Missionaries even did not direct their attention to it. And yet it is evident that the young offered a promising field for their benevolent labours. Their tender and susceptible hearts, their fresh feelings, and their unsophisticated natures, are very favourable for the communication of just views, and the inculcation of that knowledge which maketh wise unto salvation. It is by instructing the young of many successive generations, that the mass will be impregnated with the truth, and custom and prejudice, and error and superstition will cease to exercise any hold on the minds of men.

Simple and convincing as these reasons are, they were not adequately promulgated, much less carried out, by any one, until the arrival of Dr. Duff from Scotland. The year 1830 is an era in the history and progress of Native Education. Not only was a new plan commenced by Dr. Duff to overturn the whole fabric of Hinduism by imparting to the youth instruction of a high order—but also the Bible was introduced as an essential study in the school. He first gave a triumphant answer to the common objections, the offspring of bigotry and anility, by actually shewing that even the study of the Bible
does not deter the Hindus from crowding into Missionary schools.

In the year 1830, the General Assembly’s Institution was established: and, in the year 1837, the building was finished, which adorns the east side of Cornwallis-square. It cost somewhere between fifty and sixty thousand Rupees. A great portion of this sum, as well as the Library and Philosophical apparatus, were procured by Dr. Duff. The success of this Institution has been unprecedented. It has given a tone to Native Education: and we believe, it will be generally acknowledged that the present improved tone of Government Education is owing to the admirable system, and still more admirable results, of the General Assembly’s Institution.

In the year 1843, the great separation took place in the Church of Scotland: and Dr. Duff and his colleagues left the premises, and immediately established the Free Church Institution in Nimtollah, which is conducted on the same principles, and attended with the same success, as the former. It has now about 1,400 pupils on the roll. The Literary Observer remarks:

“We cannot conclude this article without adverting to Dr. Duff, as a Teacher. He is eminent in this Department. There is no subject of study, of which he has not a good and comprehensive grasp. His illustrations are very happy, and his expositions are lucid. You can never fail to understand him. He is able to clothe with interest the driest subjects. His examinations are lectures. He would not answer for an Infant School-teacher, but he does make a most excellent instructor of youth. He must always be the chief of a school, and utterly exempt from the drudgery of teaching. No man, we say emphatically no man, would be better able than Dr. Duff to connect all the several lessons together—mark their bearings on each other—shew their connexion—and introduce useful matter. What is more, he most beautifully and most unexpectedly rolls up all the knowledge, which the pupils have acquired with the able assistance and felicitous illustrations, into a bundle, and places it at the foot of HIM, who is the great Lord and Creator of all things.”
Dr. Duff has been singularly happy in his co-adjuators. It would be difficult to find an equal number of men labouring together more harmoniously, or with talents better fitted to their work.

So high, and not less just, is the estimate, which the Hindus have formed of Dr. Duff—so great and sincere is the respect, which they entertain for him—that, when it was rumoured the other day that he would be compelled to leave India, one highly respectable Hindu gentleman was prepared to call a meeting of his countrymen to present an address expressive of their good opinion of him. Dr. Duff has great reason to congratulate himself, that he has done his duty in India. Several large flourishing schools bear witness to his zeal and his talents; and various institutions and societies owe a debt of gratitude to him.

The building vacated by Dr. Duff and his colleagues, is now known, as THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY'S INSTITUTION. The School is very admirably conducted by the Rev. Messrs. Ogilvie and Anderson, of the Established Church of Scotland, and numbers about a thousand pupils.

The Missionary School, which was succeeded next to those of the Scottish Churches, is that connected with the body of Independents in this country. It is established at Bhawanipore, is now under the very efficient management of Mr. Mullens, assisted by his colleagues, and masters upwards of 500 pupils.

IV—The sum of a lac of rupees, by the Act of the 53rd Geo. III. Cap. 155, was ordered to be appropriated "for the revival and improvement of literature, and the encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India." Sometime however before the passing of this Act, exertions had been made by the local Government to extend the benefits of Education to the natives of the country. Mr. Hastings had founded the Madrissa, or Muhammadan College, in the year 1780; and in 1794, at the recommendation of Mr. Duncan, a college was endowed in Benaras for the cultivation of ancient literature. In the year 1811, the decay of science and literature among the Hindus
became the subject of general remark, and it was resolved to found two Hindu Colleges at Nuddeah and Tirhut, for which it was designed to expend annually 25,000 rupees. This design was abandoned. Provincial Seminaries did not secure those advantages, which the Government contemplated; and it was therefore resolved to establish a Hindu College at Calcutta, near the seat of Government, by which a facility and efficiency of control could be at once exercised. The College was established in the year 1821; and Government granted it a donation of 25000 rupees, which was afterwards increased to 30,000 rupees.

About a lac and twenty thousand rupees was allotted by the Government for the building; and the foundation stone was laid on the 25th of February, 1824, with masonic honors.

As we have already remarked, the MADRISSA, or Muhammadan College, owes its origin to Mr. Hastings, who in the year 1780, founded a building for it at his own expense: and, at his recommendation, the Government assigned lands, of the estimated value of Rs. 29,000 per annum, for the benefit of the institution. Of all the Colleges this is the only one which has given little or no satisfaction. Government allotted 1,40,537 rupees for the building, which is handsome and classical: but the Mussulmans have shown no disposition to avail themselves of the advantages of an English education, so eagerly grasped at by their Hindu fellow subjects.

As the Government had now deliberately turned its attention to the subject of education, the General Committee of Public Instruction was organized to carry on the work systematically. Its first President was Mr. Harrington, and its last Sir Edward Ryan. In 1842, this Committee was dissolved by Lord Auckland; and the present Council of Education was established in its place. It does not fall within the scope of this article to notice the numerous Government Schools and Colleges beyond the Ditch, or to make any comments on the nature and results of the education, which they offer. We had almost forgotten to state, that a Normal School was
attempted in this city, under the auspices of the Council of Education; but after a short and unsatisfactory trial, it was somewhat hastily abandoned.

It would be unjust to pass over here the name of a gentleman, whose memory will always be intimately associated with the history of education in this city. Mr. David Hare was in many respects a remarkable man. He loved the Hindus, and was admitted into more familiar intercourse with them than any of his countrymen, of whom we have ever heard. His school had the good fortune of being conducted by two native gentlemen, Krishna M. Banerjea, and Russick C. Mullick, of whom we shall only say, that the Government system does not now appear to produce any that can be compared with them. Mr. Hare and his labours we shall probably notice hereafter.

We might now consider our task as finished; but our sketch would be incomplete, if we omitted to bestow a passing notice on the private seminaries, which are established in Calcutta by the natives themselves. These deserve notice. We present our readers with a list of our principal

Indian Free School, ... Morning...125 pupils.
Indian Academy, ... Day ...225 Do
Seal's Free College, ... Do ...300 Do
Patriotic College, ... Do ...110 Do
A. D. 1823, Oriental Seminary, ... Do ...585 Do
Anglo-Indian School, ... Morning...100 Do
A. D. 1793, Union School, ... Do ...100 Do
Hindu Benevolent ... Do ...100 Do
Institution,
Literary Seminary, ... Do ... 50 Do
Charitable Morning School ... ... 80 Do

Of all these private seminaries, the best conducted is the Oriental Seminary. Its founder was the late Babu Gourmohun Addi. We shall let the Observer speak of him:

"It (the Oriental Seminary) is the oldest private seminary existing, and is considered, and that most justly, as the one next in excellence to the Hindu College."
"Gourmohun Addi received a very imperfect education in a private school. At the age of twenty-seven, finding that he had no other resources, he opened a school for his countrymen, and for a number of years perseveringly laboured; until he could number about two hundred pupils. He then entered into partnership with a Mr. Turnbull, and found his school make great progress. After the death of his colleague, until the day of his own death, he conducted the school under his own superintendence. Fortunately he picked up a Mr. Herman Geoffry, a Barrister and child of misfortune, and, under his able tuition, Gourmohun saw his school rise to great importance. He was in the fair way of realizing a handsome fortune; but he was cut off in the employment of great health and strength. His boat upset in a North Wester, and he could make no exertion to save himself.

"He was a very pious-looking man, and so candid, as to tell his pupils of the first class, that he could not superintend their lessons. In him was no false pride. What he knew, he could communicate better than any other native. He was exceedingly good-tempered; and it was matter of surprise to us to see how well he steered his course, through the variety of temper and dispositions with which he had to deal; and on no occasion, did he give offence. He was very popular among his pupils: and, though a strict disciplinarian, and having to do with boys, whose attendance is dependent on their own will, he commanded the respect of all, and was beloved by many."

We cannot withhold from our readers the Observer's graphic sketch of the rise and fall of a native private seminary:

"The nascence and dissolution of the Hindu Academies, conducted by private individuals, have been of such frequent occurrence, that it no longer excites surprise. The reason is plainly this: A young man, anxious of seeking employment under Government, finds that he has not sufficient interest in the proper quarters to unbar the gates of preferment for his admission, and resolves to establish a school. He makes some young men acquainted with his design, and they readily enter into his views, actuated not by the desire of raising their
countrymen by cultivating their minds, but for the desire of profit,—for the love of rupees, annas, and pice. An agreement is drawn up. The share of each partner is carefully defined. A house is hired for 16 to 20 rupees per month; a durwan is employed; a few old forms and desks are purchased; and a board, with—"Patriotic College for Hindoos"—is suspended from one of the windows of the school house. The partners are elected, and golden visions float before their eyes. Every new pupil sets them on a calculation of what the share of each will be. Perhaps twenty pupils—five at a rupee per month, and the rest at eight annas—are admitted. The rest of the partners are next employed about engaging the services of a Head Master, who must be a Christian. It is at the same time necessary to obtain the services of one, who is known to the Hindu community. The person is fixed upon; and two of the partners are deputed to negotiate with him. At dark of the evening, the partners arrive, and are accommodated with seats. They begin by asking a few questions as to how the school, with which the gentleman is connected, is progressing. Then they flatter him by comparing him to Bacon, or Gibbon, or Milton. Lastly they open the Battery upon him about their own school, and promise him a hundred rupees per month, and a half share in the school. The offer is tempting; for the poor fellow has been perhaps in the receipt of fifty rupees. Of course on taking leave, they put the gentleman in mind, that he must bring some scholars with him. 'Oh!' replies the gentleman—'my going away will ruin the school. I'll bring a hundred scholars.' The deed is written and duly signed. Mr.—becomes head master of the Patriotic College. A month rolls away—and no pupils; Mr.—applies for his hundred rupees. 'No funds' is the reply, and a squabble ensues. Where is my hundred rupees for last month? is returned by,—where are the hundred boys you promised? Mr.—runs after the partners to kick them, who run away, being light birds. The few scholars about, abuse, and also run; the durwan closes the gate, puts a padlock on it, and makes his exit with the partners; Mr.—
finds himself imprisoned. His palkee and set of bearers arrive; and the latter set him free. He returns home, and finds that, on the strength of a hundred rupees, he has entered into obligations, which he has not the means of discharging. Thus ends the College."

All these private schools pursue the system of education adopted by the Government: and it is amusing to see boys, who will all at the most receive employments of ten or sixteen rupees per month, reading Bacon and Pope, and studying Mathematics,—while Arithmetic and plain English, and reading and writing, with composition, are entirely overlooked. It is not the less amusing to read the sign-posts over these schools to "catch the passers-by."

THE LITERARY SEMINARY

THE CHARITABLE MORNING SCHOOL

We must now bring our remarks to a close. Our sketch has been simply historical; and, as such, may not be without its use.

_Calcutta Review. 13, 26; 1850._

_Note by the Editor of the Calcutta Review_  
_(Reprinted from V14, No. 27, 1850)_

In our Notice of the Calcutta High School (No. 26, P. 458), we find that we have done unintentional Injustice to Mr. Graves, who succeeded Mr. Macqueen in the Rectorship. It might seem, from our statement, that the school fell into disrepute in consequence of the removal of Mr. Macqueen; whereas the fact is, that the number of scholars continued to increase, and, during the greater portion of the eleven years during which Mr. Graves held the Rectorship, was considerably larger than it had ever been under Mr. Macqueen's very successful management.
PROHIBITING THE STUDENTS

Anglo-Indian College: In course of the last month—a good deal of discussion arose out of an Order issued by the Committee of Managers of this Institution—and which was couched as follow: The Managers of the Anglo-Indian College having heard that several of the Students are in the habit of attending Societies at which Political and Religious discussions are held, think it necessary to announce their strong disapprobation of the practice, and to prohibit its continuance. Any Students being present at such a Society after the promulgation of this order, will incur their serious displeasure. A letter addressed to a Contemporary by the Reverend Mr. Hill, in explanation of the causes that let to the above order, stated, that impressed with the conviction, that whilst the system of education pursued at the Anglo-Indian College was subverting the faith of the Alumni in their own, it was substituting nothing in its room:—several persons determined to attempt bringing before them the subject of natural and revealed religion. The Reverend Mr. Duff residing in the neighbourhood of the Hindoo College offered the lower apartment of his house for the purpose. A lecture, accordingly, was delivered to a very respectable and attentive auditory of young native gentlemen; and shortly afterwards the order alluded to was issued by the Managers. Mr. Hill, in his letter, deprecates this measure and considers the insertion of the word Political discussion as artful, and insidious—contending that the meeting was not sectarian, nor in violation of any existing regulation, and particularly, that it was not political apposition, we presume, which no one, upon a due consideration of the circumstances, and persons engaged in it, will be disposed to controvert for a moment.

It was also observed with reference to the order, that it strongly indicated the fears of the votaries of Brahma, that the 'frivolous rites' of Hindoism could not stand before the system
of Christianity, that the interference was presumptuous and tyrannical, the Managers, having no right whatsoever to dictate to the students of the Institution how they shall dispose of their time out of College. A writer in the Christian Intelligencer for October seeing that the decree of the committee is unrepealed asks whether it really possesses those qualities that entitled it to a permanent continuance, and whether, in short, the enactment of the Managers be distinguished by wisdom, justice, or goodness? In a style of fervid argument, the writer reasons against the claims of the order to either of these qualities and regret that what he considers such announces that the lectures are to be resumed.

To all that has been observed the Committee of Managers, have not made any reply and the measure deprecated on the other side, stands unrepealed. Both parties, it is no compliment to either to say, have, we believe, been actuated by the best motives. What has been stated against the order is before the public: we are not in the secrets of the Managers of the Anglo-Indian College, we cannot tell therefore what they might urge in favour of the measure: but we presume of its necessity and its justice they feel convinced, otherwise they would not adhere to it. In the first place then, we are to enquire, was the order really and absolutely aimed at the meeting adverted to by the Reverend Mr. Hill? Of this we confess we had some doubt, for, independent of the introduction of the word political discussion, are there not other Societies or Meetings to which the decree may apply? In that case the insidious and unfear sense which the Rev. M. Hill attributes to the wording of the order assumes a different character. If the order then did not apply to these meetings for the examination of the evidences of natural and revealed religion, to that meeting is maybe enquired, did they apply? This we must frankly confess is a question which we cannot answer, although the use of the word Political, and no declaratory order following explicit explanation of the esteemable clergyman already mentioned, that the meetings were wholly and essentially of a different nature, would lead us to imagine that the decree had a different reference altogether.
The next point for consideration is whether the Managers have acted consistently with the obligations they contracted upon undertaking their office, and whether they have exceeded the limits of their proper authority and interfered to prevent private discussion by violence or undue influence. This part of the subject has its difficulty, since we are not aware what obligations were undertaken. On the leading rule, however, has already distinguished the British Administration of the affairs of India and that is, a perfect and complete toleration of the religious rights of the Natives. A writer whom we have quoted calls this 'frivolous'. They may be so and more, to the preception of the Christian and the philosopher; but they are of the most weighty import in the opinion of the Natives themselves. The support and continuance of Government have to a certain extent being given to this institution, and the Managers may have felt that the state of things which arose, and to which their order referred was such as, in some degree, not merely to compromise their own responsibility, but the supposed preponderance of higher authority. The Natives who have placed their children in this Seminary, have, we believe, none so on the bonafide stipulation that the courses of instruction were not to include anything that would in the slightest degree, interfere with their own religious system. We have then (we may suppose the Managers of the Institution to say) one clear, consistent, imperative task before us, to teach the Hindoo youth the elements of European knowledge and Science and nothing more. Now, no one will deny that this was gaining an immense advantage. All at once, however, according to the other side, an alarm was spread. We all know how very prominent a feature of the native character suspicion is and how very apt natives are to connect by some refinement of prejudicial concatenation, matters in themselves perfectly distinct. Among the parents of the Students there are, we are aware, individuals of clear discernment and considerable intellectual expansion but such, we suspect, do not constitute the majority and on most occasion, the popular force will generally counteract that of mere enlightenment. We may
suppose the parents of many of these youths to have waited the Managers saying 'When we entrusted you with your office, we did so upon the expressed understanding that no undue interference was to be made with the religious belief of our children, here, however, are two clergymen of distinguished talents, masters of great learning and who have received the permission of the Government to settle here what are we then to think, when close to the very threshold of the institution, these very able men are to be permitted to shake the whole fabric and our religion to its foundation? No-no-unless you Managers, whom we entrusted with the task of Superintending our Children’s education, interfere in some way, as we consider you pledged to do we must remove our children.' In such a contingency then, the Managers might conceive themselves justified in issuing the obnoxious order, as the only means of preventing the sudden and complete subversion of an institution so happily established, and from which so much good was to be expected. The query next urges to itself which of the two would be the greatest evil, the ruin of the institution, through a zeal that might be somewhat indiscreet of one party or the preservation of it through a stretch of extra authority on the other.

But say the advocates of the Christian prelections we distinctly avow that we had no intention of attacking or reviling Hindooism therefore the Native parents and guardians are quite mistaken on that head. We intended for we considered it as our sacred and imperative duty so to do, to explain the evidences of our religion, and to let these work their own effect and the Managers, though they were willing to hear us have, by an exertion of undue authority prevented the students from attending our prelections. We have thus endeavoured to give a brief and impartial view of the question. For ourselves, reasoning on what has already appeared and the unexplained nature of the measure, we think, that it is prima facie undoubtedly open to the objection of an interference with the freedom of private conduct for hitherto we certainly had no idea—Magagers of the institution possessed authority over the students out of the institution. If they do so in one respect, we
presume they do in others for, supposing that the parents of the
some of the students came to the Managers and said the lads we
understand are in the habit of frequenting a certain gambling
house we understand we beg of you to issue an order for bidding
it as it injures their morals and leads them into dissolute com-
pany; we should have supposed, that to such a proposal the
most likely reply would be; we have undertaken the task of
superintending the education of your children within these walls,
and nothing more it is therefore out of the question that we
should volunteer a controul over their movements beyond these
limits. Their morals within the walls of the institution, we
consider it our duty to take care shall suffer no contamination
but out of the College compound our charge ceases and the
parents themselves must be their guardians for an extra collegiate
supervision, on our part, we must altogether decline. On the
other hand, perhaps it is to be regretted that the locality chosen
for the delivery of the prelections alluded to, should be in
such close vicinity to the College, as to excite suspicion in the
Natives, that the circumstance might have been authorised in
quarters, whence it was of importance it should in no way be
suspected to emanate (498).

WATER FOR CALCUTTA

The Twentieth No. of the Gleanings in Science contains several articles of an able and scientific character. The one which most interests a Calcutta reader, perhaps, is that which to him comes home with most local effect, we mean the Essay on 'the best means of procuring a plentiful supply of wholesome water in the vicinity of Calcutta'. After referring to the availability of deep-seated springs of pure water, and the great convenience and comfort, as well as the saving of trouble and expense of over-flowing wells; the principle has, the writer observes, a particular value for us of the City of Palaces, where the poorer classes particularly labour much under the want of wholesome water, and where even Europeans would have no objection to a more plentiful supply obtainable without any trouble, than a reliance on rain water affords. The water of our wells is brackish, and wholesome neither for man nor beast. The latter remark applies to the water of the tanks generally, which, in fact, may be considered, in most instances, as so many reservoirs of malaria and abomination. Indeed, there can be little doubt that the redundancy of such noisome pools is one of the active causes of much sickness and mortality annually. "There is probably no other example in the whole world of a city of such importance and wealth as Calcutta, being so ill supplied with this necessary of life. Placed on the verge of the tropic, and with every facility for such conveniences, we have neither fountains nor baths. Even our puny efforts to water about a mile of road, serves but to render us ridiculous for the waste of means in effecting so trifling a good, while it makes the want of such a refreshment in the other parts of the town so much the more palpable. But whatever may be thought of these deficiencies with such a climate as that of Calcutta, every stranger must be struck with the existence of so important a want as that of good wholesome water for domestic consumption. Even our best
tanks—such, for instance, as the Lal Digi—cannot be said to furnish pure and wholesome water. It is better, certainly, than the brackish water of our wells, but it is far from pure; and every stranger who has occasion to use it, considers it, in fact, to be bad; as every one leaving Calcutta is sensible of the improvement of the water as he proceeds up the river."

The article goes on to notice, that the attention of General Garstin was many years ago drawn to the subject of deep-seated springs, and that from the facts he collected, he entertained a confident expectation that they would furnish a supply of good water, notwithstanding the brackishness of the surface springs. The results of the experiments for boring are next stated, and, although owing to the death of General Garstin, the experiments were relinquished, yet his researches proved so far useful, that a new and effective apparatus had been received from England, which was used in after experiments. Recently the subject has been brought to the notice of the Asiatic Society, and Government have placed at their disposal the necessary means, as boring irons, &c. Other measures have also been adopted, and the writer thinks that there is little doubt of the experiments now succeeding, provided those who have undertaken the management will but persevere (528).

_Calcutta Gazette._ 1830 Dec 30.
CALCUTTA ROADS AND DRAINS

GRISH CHUNDER GOSE

The Imperial city in the middle of the rains is a sight worth the enthusiasm of the tourist. Perhaps no other chief city in the world presents variations of road scenery so great or so interesting. The traveller who lands at Chandpal Ghat fresh from the atmosphere of European civilization is regaled with the view of a splendid metropolis, with church steeples reaching up to the clouds, rows of palaces on each hand, streets smooth as bowling greens—wide, dustless, and dry—the very perfection of macadamization. He drives into Chowringhee, through all its bye lanes and larger thoroughfares, and his heart cannot wish for higher displays of Municipal talent and conservancy genius and activity than those before him. Everything except Dhurm-tollah Bazar is neat, clean and tidy, even the lamp posts wear an appearance suggestive of the idea of their being weekly varnished. The ideal of civilization is maintained with an almost idolatrous zeal and if the newspapers breathe a whisper about Municipal mismanagement the growl is undoubtedly a malicious defamation. Did the new arrival not stir from Chowringhee, this state of his feeling would continue. But should business of curiosity call him to the native Town, or that part of Calcutta—not far distant from Chowringhee—which is occupied by the actual owners of the palaces which excited his admiration, he would observe a change in the landscape as violent as any that can be conceived by the imagination. He will see or rather feel, by the jolt of his carriage, streets than which the natural paths of the forest are better fitted for travelling. He will have his nose assailed by the stench of drains which have not felt the ministering hand of man ever since the last rains, his affrighted horse will obstinately back from pits in the thoroughfares wide enough to bury all the rubbish in the adjoining houses, his carriage-
wheels will stick resolutely into ruts from which release is possible only by the aid of half a dozen men and as many bamboo props. Not unfrequently his new carriage springs, the chef d’aeuvre of Dykes or Eastman, will snap with a violence more painful to him if he possesses the usual sense of property, than the snapping of one of the ribs in his own body. After a heavy shower of rain he will in some places deem it more pleasant and advantageous to hire a boat than swim his horse. Perhaps the municipal authorities are unwilling to deprive the citizens of Calcutta of occasional variations in the dull monotony of hard brick roads. What will poetically-inclined school boys do to obtain some faint idea of the city of gondoliers if Nimtollah Street and Chitpore Road and Cornwallis Street are tortured into clean dry thoroughfares at all seasons. Half the poetry of Byron will be lost upon the native mind and the work of education will perhaps remain unfinished. This is too serious a responsibility to be neglected by a corporation which cannot indeed subordinate civilization to sanitation. Then again these periodical overflows are useful in saving scavengers’ work. The heaps of dirt which line the thoroughfares cannot be always disposed of by manual labour. It is unjust to deny to the Municipal Corporation that trust in providence which is a principal feature in the proceedings and success of statesmen and private men. In the most pressing difficulty the Chief of a faction relies upon providential interference to find him out a way. Such is precisely the hope of the man in whose private affairs a crisis is approaching. Why should there be a bar to Mr. Schalch’s anxiously regarding the aspect of the heavens to save him from the effect of his vigorous advertisement on the subject of private filth. According to notice, householders are heaping refuse outside their premises with strict attention to their Macabes. But the mounds are in many places gaining wide proportions for want of scavengers’ carts to remove them. In such an extremity a vigorous down-pour from the skies reducing the streets to temporary canals is a service not to be thoughtlessly derided and the Chairman of the Board of Justices has every right to
avail himself of it and no small temptation to wish for its permanence.

Patching is another very convenient expedient for avoiding large outlays, and it has therefore obtained deserved favour with an economist whose broadness of view is limited to theories. So that whilst Mr. Clarke goes home with Rs. 5,000 in his pocket to inspect the quality of English pumps (we hope the selection will not be in favor of those which will best act upon the pockets of rate-payers) Manicktollah Street, one of the most well-used thoroughfares in the Northern Division of the Town, is obtaining repairs at the rate of a bushel of Kunkur to ten square feet a week. God save us from King Stork!

_Bengalee. 1863 Aug 19._
FISH FOR CALCUTTA

A small Pamphlet has just been circulated, containing Hints, for Establishing a Fishery at the mouth of the River Hooghly, on an extensive scale. This is a subject, unquestionably, of very general interest, and therefore, we lay the whole scheme before our readers, fully impressed with the convictions of its utility and importance.

Hints—A progressive improvement has taken place in the quality of every article of food procurable in the Calcutta Bazar, whether ranking under the necessaries or luxuries of life, within the last ten years, with the exception of fish; this arises not from a want of good fish within our reach,—but from a defect in the mode of supplying the markets.

Fish is universally used by all classes of the inhabitants of Calcutta, any improvement therefore in the quality and supply will be an important benefit to the community: so anxious were Government to effect that desirable object, that a committee was appointed in 1822, to examine into the state of the Calcutta fish market and report upon the possibility of its improvement.

From the report of this Committee, collected with great care and research, such portions are annexed as relate to the present supply, and their conviction of the possibility of that supply being improved both in quantity and quality.

In adopting the information of this report, as applicable to the present state of the Calcutta fish market, it may be remarked that the difficulty of quick conveyance which, in the opinion of the Committee, offered the greatest obstacle to the success of their object, may be considered as almost entirely surmounted by the application of steam for that purpose.*

The following is the Report of the Committee appointed to investigate into the state of the Calcutta fish market, and to report upon the supply and demand, and the possibility of its improvement.
"We have no hesitation in stating our conviction that the supply of good and wholesome fish is much less than the demand. The chief source of complaint however is, that a price is paid for bad and unwholesome fish which if the fisheries were well managed, would be sufficient to commend good.

"The poorer classes of the inhabitants can only afford to purchase the inferior sorts of fish, which, though not sold by weight, may be calculated to average from 4 to 7 rupees per maund. Of these, a pice will purchase sufficient for a meal.

"With the exception of what are brought from various places in the neighbourhood, and from a distance of 15 to 20 miles round Calcutta, these fish are generally stale and bad before they reach the markets. Vast quantities are imported from parts of the Jessore and Dacca, Jelaspore districts, 40 miles from the town, and even from Sylhet, a distance of 12 days journey or more. They are kept partially alive by changing the water, and when brought to market are exposed for sale in a most unwholesome state.

"When caught in the vicinity of Calcutta, fish of this description are brought by the Julleas or fishermen direct to the bazars or to the Huldars (the farmers of the fish markets), who employ persons to retail them. When brought from a distance the Nikarees or wholesale dealers who receive advances from the Huldars, proceed to the fishing districts, collect the fish from the Julleas, and convey them to the market places hired by the Huldars. The fishing boats and tackle are usually the property of the Julleas. They do not commonly get advances, but when they do the interest is paid in kind at the rate of 1 or 2 annas per rupee. In extensive concerns, where the largest kind of nets are used, the fisherman receives a small portion of the produce in lieu of wages. The Nikarees are accompanied on these expeditions by Pykars, or servants in pay of the Huldar, who attend them to prevent their carrying the fish elsewhere, and to see that they deal fairly with their masters. It is calculated that after deducting all expenses of carriage and pay of servants, and of rent paid to the proprietor of the market in which the fish are exposed for sale, the Huldar
(including the interest on the advances made to the Nikarees) derives a profit of 2 annas or more for every rupee’s worth of fish sold. The Nikaree has also his profit of 1 anna per rupee, so that there is a difference of 3 annas in the rupee between the original purchase of the fish when fresh, and the sale of them to the consumer when bad and scarcely fit for food. It appears from returns which we have obtained from the several divisions of the Dacca, Jelaspore, Hooghly, Midnapore, Jessore, and 24 Pargunnahs districts, that the Mofussil bazars are generally well supplied with fish, and that the fisheries for the supply of the Mofussil bazars, which are not frequented by the Nikarees, who carry on their trade direct with the fishermen. An extensive trade is also carried on by brokers independent of the fish merchants and Nikarees, who go themselves into the Mofussil and buy up large quantities of fish which are sold by wholesale at the Khuthees to the highest bidders.”

“With regard to the better kinds of fish, which are principally caught in the Sundarbuns and Oolooburrea in the Hooghly river, nearly the same process is pursued. The Nikarees proceed to the fisheries, collect the fish and bring them to the Khuthees, or place of rendezvous, which for the Sunderbund fisheries are situated at Taradah** for those of the Salt-water Lake at Pagladangah*** and for the Hooghly river at Oolloburreah. From Ocoloobureah they are forwarded to town by water in large water pans, and in like manner from Taradah to Pagladangah whence they are carried by land in baskets. They reach the latter place in one night, and are brought next morning to market. The finest fish are caught in the Sunderbunds at a considerable distance from Taradah, and the plan frequently adopted in bringing them fresh to that place is by passing a string through the gills and towing them on the side of the boats. This practice is also pursued with the large fish taken in the Hooghly river.”

“The profit derived by the Nikarees engaged in these fisheries is said to be 3 annas in the rupee, out of which he has to pay interest on the advances made to him by the Huldar. The profit of the Huldar is also rated at 3 annas in the rupee,
from which is to be deducted his expenses, leaving him a clear gain to 2 annas in the rupee. Hence it would appear that fish purchased from the Julleas at 10 annas, will sell in the markets of Calcutta for 1 rupee.

"In this wide field of gain the Jullea is the only labourer whose condition is stationary, and who derives no advantage from the large profits of the concern. It is not to be expected therefore, were it even consistent with the habits of the natives, that they should feel much interest in introducing any improvement into the established mode of fishing, their poverty would indeed oppose the attempt,—whilst the other parties are contended with their gains, which would be reduced by any innovation in the present system, calculated to increase the supply of the markets. Several of the Huldars (or merchants) have acquired considerable fortunes in the trade, and are of course perfectly satisfied with the present state of things.

"The price of fish in the large towns within 15 or 20 miles of Calcutta, contrasted with the prices in the city, is at least one-third less; and the purchasers in the former have the advantage of being able to obtain it fresh.

"Besides the Khuthees before-mentioned, there are other large fish markets in the Suburbs, from which the surrounding villages are furnished with fish ††, and whence also a large quantity of fish are carried into the city. Particularly from Chingreehatta, to which all the inferior kinds from the eastward are, in first instance, conveyed.

"There are 14 principal Bazars in the city, in each of which a part of the market-place is allotted to the sale of fish †††. The established Huldars or farmers of fish markets, pay rent at the rate of 3 or 4 rupees per month for each Tukhta, or place for exposing their fish (4 or 5 cubits square) besides a tax of 3 or 4 pice per day. The intinerant fish-mongers, who bring their fish in baskets for sale, pay at the rate of one anna per day, or according to the quantity they sale, but the mode of levying these rents varies in different markets.

"The market is frequented in the early part of the day, and the fish remaining at the close of it are sold, at a reduced
price, to the poorest classes. In the evening the Bazars are again supplied and are kept open till 9 or 10 o'clock at night.

"The evils we have enumerated may be considered to arise chiefly from the comparative ignorance of the natives in the art of fishing, and from their want of intelligence and enterprise in originating or conducting any trade on a grand comprehensive scale."

"Neither their boats nor nets admit of their fishing in deep waters, hence they are contented to fish in Jheels, and to bring their miserably produce at 12 days journey to market, instead of fishing in the sea whence they could procure the finest fish in a third of the time.

"We cannot allow ourselves to suppose that there is any want of fish off Saugor and Edmonstone's Island, nor do we entertain any doubts of the practicability of bringing them up fresh to Calcutta provided proper measures were adopted for preserving them; but we are at the same time quite convinced that this will never be accomplished until British Capital, and British Skill and enterprise are engaged in the Undertaking: the bonus offered by Government of the use of market-places to be built in the first instance at its expense, certainly holds out a liberal encouragement to the speculation; but the Saugor Society have declared their funds unequal to an undertaking of the kind, and we know of no person here sufficiently acquainted with the nature of the business who would be induced to involve a Capital in it, nor from the enquiries we have been led into do we think that experienced Europeans could be procured, at the present time, to manage the details of the concern, without which its success would be (to say the least) extremely precarious.

"Our information does not enable us to say whether the present supply of fish is intentionally limited in order to maintain high prices. We are inclined to think that the markets are in too many hands to admit of such a combination. The Juleas are dependent on the Nikarees, who will take from them only the quantity of fish they may require, and the Nikarees again are limited by the advances made to them by the
Huldars, and are controlled in their purchases by the Pykar, the Huldar's servant so that in fact the Huldar must possess the power of regulating the quantity brought to his own market, and in so much as the one may depend on the other, the price also; but we have no reason to think that any combination exists between the farmers of different markets with a view to keep up prices.

"The boats and nets are usually the property of fishermen. It does however happen, that they receive advances, and are set up by the Nikarees, Their earnings are small, generally speaking less than that of common labourers, and their mode of life necessarily wretched and uncomfortable."

The information contained in this report may be considered conclusive as to the following points.

1st. That the supply of good and wholesome fish is less than the demand.

2ndly. That the poor classes purchase bad fish at a price which ought to ensure a supply of the best.

3dly. That a great portion of the fish which supplies the Calcutta market is spoilt, in the conveyance, from distance.

4thly. That the fisherman's condition is wretched, that he derives no advantage from the increased profits on the sale of fish, and therefore be expected to exert himself to supply the market with fish of superior qualities.

5thly. That the average daily price of fish sold in Calcutta is Sa. Rs. 1,780-30.

6thly. That the profits on the sale of fish is 6 annas in the rupee.

7thly. That no combination for the purpose of keeping up the price of fish seems to exist among the Huldars.

We now come to the important point, whether any quantity of fish of a superior quality is obtainable in the vicinity of Saugor and at the mouth of the River Hooghly. The Committee appointed by Government confined their enquiries to the Calcutta market, but express their conviction that no want of a sufficient supply of fish exists off Saugor and Edmonstone's Islands. The following information received from a Gentleman
who took considerable interest in the undertaking and made accurate enquiries regarding the possibilities of establishing a fishery at Saugor, confirms the expectations of the Committee.

The fishing grounds applicable for the supply of the Calcutta market may be considered to extend from Point Palmiras to Chittagong, a line of coast extending for 200 miles, and exhibiting the finest grounds in the world, being a series of rivers and banks where boats might ply in the worst weather, making choice of the lee sides of at least 50 sandbanks at pleasure, and having at all times a river to run into for protection, when the weather is too rough to continue at sea. The part of this ground best adopted for the commencement at least of a sea fishery is to the east side of Saugor, for in the Buratullah, Lacam’s Channel, a series of rivers commence which may be navigated under the lee of islands and sandbanks, during the most boisterous weather, as they have the uncommon advantage of communication with each other in a variety of directions in and, as far east as Chittagong, even for vessels of a considerable draught of water.

The Sunderbunds which separates the inhabitants of Bengal from the sea, have hitherto been the obstacle which has hindered the establishment of a sea fishery at the head of the Bay; but this is daily diminishing as cultivation is now extended to the upper part of Lacam’s Channel. There are three stations on the eastern side of the Saugor and Edmonstone’s Islands well situated for a fishing establishment, and sufficient for the commencement at least of the undertaking; these stations would contain supplies of necessaries for the fishing boats and also be depots for cured fish. Salted fish is now imported into Calcutta from both coasts of the Bay of Bengal, from Bombay and Ceylon; from Maldives and Lacadives, and even from Muscat, and is sold at great profit. This supply would form one of the most profitable branches of the speculation in view, particularly, if Government would encourage it by allowing the salt used in curing the fish to be supplied free of duty: this is one of the many bounties granted by the English Government for the encouragement of the British fisheries, and
it is to be hoped that it would in like manner be extended by our Supreme Government for the encouragement of so important of benefit.

The establishment of a fishery on the scale proposed would encourage the natives to settle at the mouth of the river, on Saugor Islands and along the Sunderbunds, and become fisherman by profession, and expert deep-sea fisheries, as they are at Bombay, Madras, Ceylon, and along the Malabar and Coromondal Coasts, in all of which places the natives are remarkably enterprising, industrious, and hardy fishermen.

* An experiment of this was made in May last with success, the Comet Steam Boat received a considerable number of fish at Edmontone's Island in the morning, and arrived at Chaund Paul Ghaut at 4 p.m., bringing them up as fresh as the moment they were taken out of the sea.

** 15 miles from Calcutta
*** 4 miles from Calcutta
† 25 miles from Calcutta.
‡‡ Chingreehatta (salt-water lake) Bowanipore, Wyattgunge (Kidderpore).

††† 1. Matchwa Bazar
  2. Lalla Baboo's Bazar, Chitpore Road
  3. Simla Bazar
  4. Cossinath Baboo's Bazar, Chitpore Road
  5. Soba Bazar
  6. Raja Sookmoy's Posta Bazar, River Side
  7. Tirretta Bazar
  8. Baboo Samul Doss's Bazar, River Side
  9. Chandnee Choke
  10. Bytukana Bazar
  11. Dhurumtollah Bazar
  12. Cossinath Mullick's Bazar, Circular Road
  13. Toltollah Bazar

*Calcutta Gazette. 1828 Sep 22.*
THE BUS FROM DURRUMTOLLAH

We observe in the advertisements of the Daily papers, that an Omnibus is to be started between Calcutta and Barrackpore and trust that the proprietor, who states that it will leave his Premises in the Durrumtollah, from the 22nd, every evening, for Barrackpore, will have reason to congratulate himself on the spirit and enterprise that has led to his introduction of so handy a conveyance in Calcutta.

Omnibuses, we find, were first introduced in England from France in the middle of last year—and were immediately found to be such cheap and safe vehicles—that in a few weeks they had almost superseded the use of short couches running on the New Road, between the West End of London and the City. They were afterwards adopted on most of the other short stages in the vicinity of town to the great loss of the former coach proprietors, who were immediately obliged to reduce the prices nearly 50 per cent to compete with the cheapness of the Omnibus. On Friday Evening, our new Vehicle for Barracpore which lately arrived from England was first sported on the Calcutta Course. It had three horses abreast, a novel and strange looking mode of harnessing. It is found to answer well in France—but we suspect that the centre horse, in a climate like India must have a suffocating post of it between his two smoking brethren, on a hot day, and at the close of a wearisome stage (514).

Calcutta Gazette. 1830 Nov 22.
THE SANATORY CONDITION
OF CALCUTTA

MACLEOD WYLIE

No one can have contemplated the progress of British legis-
lation, without admiring the benevolent character. For many
years numerous successive Acts of Parliament have been
passed, of which the design and the tendency are generally
acknowledged to be, the benefit of the people. The names
of Wilberforce, Romilly, and of many others, remind us of
almost countless measures, which the principles of freedom,
Justice, and mercy demanded, and of which experience has
proved the wisdom. Abroad and at home,—in relation to the
rich and the poor, these measures have extended their opera-
tion; and their influence promises to be as permanent, as it has
been great. They have had the excellent effect of encouraging
legislators to legislate still more boldly and benevolently—and
thus they afford us ground to hope, that many more measures
will erelong be adopted, in which sound principles of political
and christian wisdom, will be practically developed; the sacred
rights of toleration be further ratified; the blessings of all the
liberty which is consistent with the necessary control of govern-
ment, be fully secured; and all the impediments to public
improvement, be entirely overthrown. Certainly the ensuing
half century, nay, we may rather say the next coming ten
years, are pregnant with most important events, and he who
looks to them without either hope or fear, can feel little interest
in the welfare of his country or his kind, and can very little
understand his real position in the history of the world. We
are not living now, in days in which the great point to be
debated and settled simply is whether the Pelham administra-
tion shall be maintained or not, or whether there shall be a war
with Spain about the Falkland islands, or not; or whether
Brook's or White's Club shall be filled from the ministerial
benches; no, but it is our lot, and if we estimate it rightly, it is our privilege, to be living in times, when the destinies of some hundreds of millions in China and India, and in other quarters of the globe, are affected directly by British literature, legislation, and enterprize, and the minds of many men of great natural power, are employed in devising schemes for the amelioration of the condition of their fellow-creatures.

Not the least remarkable feature in recent British legislation, is the homely and practical character of a considerable portion of it. Of this we have an illustration in a bill now before us, which was brought into the House of Commons last year by the Earl of Lincoln and Sir James Graham, for the improvement of the sanatory condition of large towns. Before next year closes, that bill, we hope, will be made law. It is founded on the Reports of a Commission to inquire into the state of large towns and populous districts. The members were the Duke of Buccleugh, the Earl of Lincoln, Mr. R. A. Slaney, Major Graham, Sir H. De la Beche, Mr. Playfair, Dr. Reid, Dr. Martin (late of Calcutta) Mr. Stephenson, the engineer, Mr. Cubit, an eminent builder and others. One of its reports, now before us, is a masterly document, and indicates great zeal, intelligence, and industry. Of the importance of the subject-matter of its inquiries, some idea may be formed from the fact, that Mr. Chadwick's statement that 50,000 persons annually die in England from diseases which might be prevented by proper sanatory regulations, has since been shown to have been the reverse of an exaggeration.

We cannot here enter into the very interesting facts which crowd on our attention in glancing at the Reports of this Commission but some few remarks on the subject may be allowed, the better to prepare our readers to enter, with cordial sympathy into the consideration of our statements relative to Calcutta.

In the speech of the Marquis of Normanby in the House of Lords on the 28th July, 1844, on moving an address to the Crown on the sanatory condition of the people,—a speech which does him very great honor—we find some statements of facts,
of which he had obtained personal cognizance by accompanying the medical and relieving officers of Spitalfields, Whitechapel, and Bethnal Green, to some of the abodes of the poor. In single apartments, he found whole families without a regular supply of water; and supplied, in so far as they obtained any, with impure water, or obtaining it by payment of labour, from a distance,—and all around filth, and open sewers, or none. From this mode of life, fever, scrofula, consumption and other diseases were found commonly to ensue; then disease interfered with labour; the want of employment and wages led to destitution; and destitution to worse disease and to crime. In some of the accounts of the poor lodging houses, facts are stated by Lord Normanby on the authority of the Commission, which if not verified by unquestionable testimony would be almost incredible. In Preston in Lancashire, for instance, it appears, that eighty-four instances were found in which four persons slept in one bed, thirty-five in which five so slept, three in which seven, and one in which eight slept in the same bed. From the evidence of Dr. Southwood Smith regarding his experience at the London Fever Hospital, Lord Normanby quoted as follows:—

“From No 24, Crown-place, Soho, nine persons have been received into the hospital; that is, two three, and four, from as many different families residing in this filthy den. The following remarkable fact may be mentioned in connexion with this house:—About five or six weeks before the admission of the nine individuals just mentioned, three persons had been sent to the hospital from this same house labouring under fever. For want of room in the hospital no more could be admitted at that time, although it was stated that several others were ill of the disease. Of these some were sent to the St. Giles’s work-house, and others it is believed to the Middlesex Hospital. The house was then shut up. After the house had remained shut up for about a fortnight, the landlord, without adopting any cleansing or purifying measures whatever, let the house to some other tenants; among whom were the unfortunate creatures (nine) received into the hospital on this second occasion of the breaking out of fever in this pest-house. It was now again shut up, but this time the parish officers, whose attention was directed to the matter, thoroughly cleansed, lime-whiteed, and purified the house, as well as the adjoining tenements; since which no case of fever it is believed, has occurred in this place; at all events, there has been no application
for the admission of any patient into the fever hospital.

"In Friday-street, Cheapside, there is a small court called Starcourt, three houses forming the court. From the house No. 2, no less than ten cases of fever were one after another admitted into the hospital; in fact, every inmate of this house was attacked with fever, and some of the inhabitants of the two adjoining houses were also seized with this malady. All the sick were removed, and the houses, court, &c. were thoroughly cleansed and the walls lime-whited. No cases of fever occurred for some time afterwards. At length, however, the disease again broke out in a very severe form, and the sick, as before, were immediately removed. The court generally, and the houses in particular underwent a careful inspection; both appeared tolerably clean; yet there was always, but more especially after a shower of rain, a most intolerable stench in the court, the source of which could not for some time be detected. At last, however, through the perseverance of the parish-officers, it was discovered that the contents of a filthy privy belonging to one of the neighbouring houses were constantly escaping, and that they had infiltrated into the stratum of earth immediately under the pavement. This privy was thoroughly repaired, and the pavement of the court was relaid; this change excepted, all the other circumstances of this locality, such as the number of inhabitants to each house, and the inhabitants being of the same class, remain as before; yet, since this change no case of fever has occurred."—"These cases are given not as extraordinary occurrences, but as examples of what is taking place every day; and as long as the places in question remain unchanged, such cases will as surely occur daily as the sun will rise."

To other facts of a similar kind Lord Normanby called attention, and very many more might be quoted from the Reports of the Commission, but we must remember that Calcutta is our main subject, and forbear from giving any others, but we may quote one paragraph from this excellent speech, relating to the principles on which remedies may be applied, which we shall find useful in our subsequent consideration of our local wants. "The whole question of sanatory regulation," said His Lordship, "seems to turn upon the treatment of those two elements, air and water; both equally necessary to the healthful course of human existence—both equally necessary in their external influence on our frame; and, in their internal use, one the primary ingredient in all
human nutriment, the other the life-spring of our lungs. And yet, to apply them in perfection to their several purposes, they require precisely opposite treatment. Leave to the air its free and unrestrained course—put no artificial impediment upon its buoyant natural action; but, on the other hand, guide and direct on scientific principles, and by mechanical aid, the course of water. And by such means and in such proportion will you mitigate those "ills which flesh is heir to."

The sanatory condition and wants of Calcutta attracted the attention of Lord Wellesley, when he held the office of Governor General with such distinguished honor to himself, and such great advantage to the empire. In looking back to the remarkable career of that eminent statesman in this land, and then considering his subsequent and greatly diminished exertions in his country's service, a feeling of astonishment is excited at the vast energies which at one time were so successfully exerted, and at a future period were so greatly repressed. There is even something melancholy in the reflection, that he, who had displayed extraordinary abilities and indomitable courage, in a crisis of unsurpassed difficulties, and while occupying a post of the highest importance, should have sunk afterwards, into a state of comparative inaction, and have been content in 1830, when Lord Grey's government succeeded the Duke of Wellington, to follow rather than to lead the opposition into office, and take no other part than that of Chamberlain to the king. Such indifference in old age is not uncommon in men of the greatest power and the most ardent natural zeal. Even Warren Hastings could live quietly for twenty years in the country without directly or indirectly taking part in public affairs, and in former days Charles the 5th could descend from his imperial throne and enter a monastery. And, indeed, retirement, from a sense of impaired ability and vigor, is honorable, and often necessary to the preservation of former frame, and present usefulness; but it is painful to see men of noble talents which have once been exerted in the public service, wasting them, or withdrawing the use of them from the public service before old age
has been felt, as Lord Wellesley, we fear for the most part wasted or withdrew his, with a very few short intervals from the period of his return to England in 1804, to his death in 1843.

But to return from this digression: in one of the appendices before us, we find a minute by the Marquess Wellesly, dated 16th June, 1803, which commences as follows:

"The increasing extent and population of Calcutta, the Capital of the British empire in India, and the seat of Supreme Authority require the serious attention of Government. It is now become absolutely necessary to provide permanent means of promoting the health, the comfort, and the convenience of the numerous inhabitants of this great town.

"The construction of the Public Drains and Water-courses of the town is extremely defective. The Drains and Water-courses, in their present state, neither answer the purpose of cleansing the town, nor of discharging the annual accumulation occasioned by the rise of the river, and by the excessive fall of rain during the south-west monsoon. During the last week, a great part of the town has remained under water, and the drains have been so offensive, that unless early measures be adopted for the purpose of improving their construction, the health of the inhabitants of Calcutta, both European and Native, must be seriously affected.

"The defects of the climate of Calcutta during the latter part of the rainy season may indeed be ascribed in a great measure to the state of the Drains and Water-courses, and to the stagnate water remaining in the town and its vicinity.

"The health of the town would certainly be considerably improved by an improvement of the mode of draining the streets, roads, and Esplanade. An opinion is generally entertained, that an original error has been committed in draining the town towards the River Hooghly. And it is believed that the level of the country inclines towards the salt water lake, and consequently, that the principal channels of the Public Drains and Water-Courses ought to be conducted in that direction."
His Lordship then proceeds to notice the necessity for regulations of the public markets, burial places, and slaughter-houses of cattle, and the evil of the formation of streets in the native part of the town, without reference to the health, convenience, or safety of the inhabitants, and he emphatically declares it to be a primary duty of Government to attend to these subjects. He then nominates a committee to consider them and report to him. To this body he issued the following instructions:—

1. To take the level of Calcutta and the adjacent country, and ascertain and report what alteration may be necessary in the direction of the Public Drains and Water-courses.

2. To examine the relative level of the river during the rainy season compared with the level of the Drains and Water-courses.

3. To suggest what description of Drains and Water-courses, may be best calculated—1st, to prevent the stagnation of rain in Calcutta and the vicinity there of—and 2dly, to cleanse the town.

4. To consider and report what establishment may be necessary for cleansing the Drains and Water-courses, and for keeping them in constant repair.

5. To take into consideration the present state of all places of interment in the vicinity of Calcutta, and to propose an arrangement for the future regulation of those places, in such manner as shall appear to be best calculated for the preservation of the health of inhabitants of Calcutta and its vicinity.

6. To examine the present state and condition of the bazar and markets for meat, and of the slaughter-houses of Calcutta, and to propose such rules and orders as shall appear to the Committee to be proper for the regulation of those already established—for the removal of such as may have actually become nuisances—and for the establishment of new markets and slaughter-houses hereafter.

7. To enquire into all existing nuisances in the town and vicinity of Calcutta, and to propose the means of removing them.
8. To examine and report for the consideration of Government, the situations best calculated for opening new streets and roads, leading from east to west from the new Circular Road to Chowringhee and to the River, and from north to south in a direction nearly parallel with the new road.

9. To suggest such other plans and regulations as shall appear to the Committee to be calculated to promote the health, convenience, and comfort, of the inhabitants of Calcutta, and to improve the appearance of the town and its vicinity.

10. To form and submit to the Governor General in Council, an estimate of the expense required to complete all such improvements as may be proposed by the Committee.

Of this Committee, we may mention that Mr. St. George Tucker, the present very able and active Deputy Chairman of the Court of Directors, was a member.

It is unnecessary for us to enter into a detailed account of the measures adopted by this Committee, or by the Government, to give effect to Lord Wellesley's views. No doubt much good was done by both and by the Lottery Committee, which for several years served as the agent of Government in effecting improvements in Calcutta; but as the sanitary state of the town in 1839 was such as we shall presently have to mention, it would be useless to enumerate any irregular and ineffectual efforts which have been made to cure the evils which attracted the attention of Lord Wellesley. No bold and comprehensive plan was carried out, or even settled, but here and there, and from time to time, public improvements were made in the streets and roads of Calcutta, and it is due to the Lottery Committee to say that these added considerably to the salubrity of some particular neighbourhoods, to the general appearance of the town, and to the facility of the passage of carriages and foot-travellers, through many parts of it.

In 1835, Dr. Martin,—whom we must take the liberty, according to India's customs, of calling so, although we believed he was a surgeon and not a doctor of medicine,—a gentleman of high reputation and benevolent character, addressed a letter to the governors of the Native Hospital in Calcutta, pointing out
the necessity of establishing a Fever Hospital for the town. The considerations to which he then called their attention, were of so interesting and important a nature, that the governors very promptly took up the subject, and submitted some resolutions on it to Lord (then Sir Charles) Metcalfe, the acting Governor General of India. Public meetings followed, through which contributions to the amount of nearly 50,000 rupees were obtained for the object contemplated by Dr. Martin. In 1836, Lord Auckland, then being Governor General, recommended a Committee to be formed, and this was accordingly done by the authority of the Government. The objects contemplated were, the establishment of an Hospital for the treatment of medical cases—the Native Hospital being designed principally for surgical cases—and to this Hospital Lord Auckland suggested that dispensaries should be attached; secondly, to consider the sanatory state of Calcutta, to suggest local improvements for the purpose of producing and maintaining greater salubrity;—and the framing a plan of local management, and taxation. Of this Committee the following were the acting members:—Sir E. Ryan, Sir J. P. Grant, Christopher Webb Smith, Esq., Baboo Ramcomul Sen, the late Dewan of the Bank of Bengal, S. Nicolson Esq., J. H. Martin, Esq., Dr. A. R. Jackson, Rustomjee Cowasjee, Esq., Baboo Dwarkanath Tagore, Baboo Russomoy Dutt, R. H. Cockerell, Esq., and Alexander Rogers, Esq.,—but several alterations in its constitution followed, so that when the report was presented in January 1840, the members were Sir J. P. Grant, Chairman, Mr. C. W. Smith, Colonel Young, Dr. Martin, Prosonocoomar Tagore, Mr. R. Scott Thomson, Dwarkanath Tagore, Russomoy Dutt, Rustomjee Cowasjee, and Dr. Nicolson, whose long experience and great sagacity must have been particularly useful, but who, at that time, was unable, from illness, to sign the report. To those around us in Calcutta, it is needless to say, that the Committee could scarcely have been composed of more efficient members; but the zeal of Dr. Martin, and the characteristic energy, firmness, and ability of Sir J. P. Grant, rendered them its two most
conspicuous members; and to them pre-eminently among all their colleagues, the honor will belong, of rendering the climate of Calcutta salubrious, of relieving the sufferings of thousands of its inhabitants annually, and of promoting by these means, its prosperity, and through it, the prosperity of this whole presidency— if the Government of Bengal at length carry out the plans of this Committee, or adopt any others, in the benevolent and zealous spirit which the Report of this Committee is calculated to stimulate or to produce.

The Report which we have just mentioned is a compilation of great care and labour, replete with valuable observations, and affording a very complete synopsis of the evidence given to the Committee. It is a standing memorial of the earnestness and patience which were displayed throughout. But being, necessarily somewhat voluminous, an abstract of it has been since drawn up with great skill, and has been printed separately. Connected with the Report are several Appendices, containing minutes of evidences, copies of correspondence, documents, &c. To all of these treasuries of information we must refer, as we proceed now to notice the sanatory state of Calcutta, as exhibited by the Committee; the causes which produced the effects they lament; and the remedies they have suggested or noticed.

In the Report allusion is made to some Notes on the Medical Topography of Calcutta, which Dr. Martin handed in when he was examined. This is a document of great research and ability. In Appendix D. the following interesting abstract of it is given:

"By the report presented by Mr. J. R. Martin, and printed by order of Government, on the Medical Topography of Calcutta, it appears, that the following are the chief causes assigned by that gentleman for the unhealthiness among the Native inhabitants of the Town and Suburbs—

1. The overcrowded population; the crowded and ill-ventilated state of the houses; the great number of decayed habitations.
2. Their ill-construction, and being built on the ground
instead of being raised off it, as habitations ought always to be in countries subject to inundation, like Bengal.

3. The close, narrow, and ill ventilated state of the streets, their want of water-courses and pavements; their dustiness and general want of cleanliness, their want of proper direction, in reference to prevailing winds.

4. The imperfection of drainage and sewerage; this is a great source of unhealthiness.

5. The deficiency of good tanks, and the general want of a supply of good water; the number of decayed and half-dried tanks, affording unwholesome water, and yielding noxious exhalations.


8. Bad state of the native burying grounds, and their vicinity to the town.

9. The very neglected state of all surrounding suburbs. The number of salines and marshes.

10. The construction of canals, and the heaping of their banks, so as to prevent the drainage eastward, along the natural inclination of the soil.

11. The vicinity of rice cultivation.

12. The quantity of low jungle tree, obstructing ventilation, and the great extent of irregularity of ground, admitting of the lodging of impure waters, &c., giving off natural exhalation. These are chiefly to be found in the suburbs.


14. "The institution of caste, is of itself an enormous injury to public health, because prejudicial to public happiness."

15. The sedentary and indolent habits of the natives—their irregular hours of rest; their long fasts; their improvidence and common practice of borrowing; their exposure and irregularities at fairs and festivals of religion.

16. Their defective diet, clothing, bedding, and fuel.

17. The knavery and ignorance of the native practitioners in medicine and surgery.
18. The misuse of the cold bath under circumstances of impaired health, and especially during the cold season.


20. The want of hospitals.

21. Defective education and physical management of children."

It is convenient to put this abstract thus in the front of our details, relative to the state of Calcutta, as noticed by the Committee, as it presents to view a remarkable complication of prejudicial influences, and must prepare the reader for almost anything that may follow. A greater and more appalling array of fatal causes, both moral and physical, could not be found probably in any other town in the world, no, not in Africa, or in Turkey. Let us examine some of the details connected with this abstract, begin with that very important point—the Town’s drainage.

We find from the evidence of most intelligent engineers and other witnesses, who had endured the task of examining into the subject, that in the native part of the town, none of the large open drains are paved; that there are inequalities in their bottoms in which the water lodges; that there are some in which the bottoms are two feet below the outlets, so that the contents are never entirely cleared out, and cannot be except by evaporation; that there is no such flow of water through the drains, or such a fall in them as to keep them even in a tolerable state of cleanliness; that the common mode of endeavouring to empty them, (by means of coolies dragging ropes and straw through them) is quite ineffectual; and that all the worst kinds of filth are deposited in the drains ad libitum. One witness, Mr. John Phipps after a residence of forty years in the town, spoke thus: "the drains, many of them, are merely irregular furrows in the soil, without brick-work, and are continually left in a most filthy uncleaned state, emitting the most noxious effluvia, doubtless highly pernicious to the health of the inhabitants dwelling in such situations." Some of these drains are very justly styled "Kennels", in the statement afforded by Sir John Grant, and Mr. Rustomjee Cowasjee, after
a personal inspection of them in the most populous part of the
native portion of the town. Dr. W. Graham said, that it was
"impossible for the drains to be in a worse state than they are
at present; rudely constructed, without any knowledge of the
principles of draining the centre of the conduit being in many
places below the level of the extremities;" that they are
"poisonous", and are "the hotbeds of disease."

To bad drains must be added the effluvia of bad tanks.
Dr. Graham deposed, that as early in the season as the 28th
of February, they were putrid and dry. Such filthy pools
abound. When the rains set in, they are filled;—when the hot
weather is trying the health of the inhabitants most severely,
they send forth from their parched crust intolerable odours.
They are depositaries of all kinds of decomposed animal and
vegetable matter,—rank and foul with putrescence, and sources
of fatal pestilence.

To bad drains and bad tanks, must be further added,
poisonous water for drinking and culinary purposes. To a
considerable extent the Natives drink the Ganges water at all
periods of the year indiscriminately, and there can be no doubt
whatever, that for some months it is most deleterious. In some
cases, the richer classes, bring it from places higher up the
river, as Hooghly and Culna, but this expedient cannot be
adopted by the poor. Their great supply of water, therefore
is from the public tanks, or the river which flows by the
town. Of these tanks most are in an "impure and neglected
condition from the annual accumulations of the vegetation going
on at the bottom, so as to render them progressively shallow,
until at length they become half dried, the green and slimy
puddles which so contaminate every portion of the native
town." In several districts of the town the inhabitants have no
pure water near them, and are compelled to send to some
distant tank of comparatively good formation. But such tanks
are few in number, and the Europeans, as well as the natives,
feel the consequences. Government has provided in a measure,
for some parts of the town by means of aqueducts, but these
are not protected; the natives are constantly bathing themselves
and their clothes in them, or houses by the side of them; all kinds of disgusting matter are freely cast into them; and at all hours of the day, men and children, nearly naked, may be seen enjoying their liberty of recreating themselves in these channels of water for domestic purposes. On this part of the subject, the abstract of the report speaks comprehensively as follows:

"Your Committee think that it is established, that pure and wholesome water for drinking and preparing food, is extremely scarce in Calcutta,—that the river water in unwholesome during about three months of the year, being impregnated with salt, and turbid and unfit for drinking, unless artificially purified for three months more,—so that it is wholesome and fit for use only during half the year, while at its best it is defiled by the quantity of nastiness, of which it is the receptacle, and the number of dead bodies which are floated down it, rendering its purification before use, necessary to health and comfort,—that except one in Nobin Sing's garden, there is no wholesome tank in the native part of the town and no public tank of any sort in the neighbourhood of the Circular Roads, and that in the part of the town which is chiefly inhabited by the British, and in Chowringhee, the only tanks containing wholesome water are Lall Dighi, in Tank Square, and one or two of the tanks on the Esplanade—that, in the whole of Calcutta and Chowringhee, there is not well which produces wholesome water, that the length of the native town to the northward of the part chiefly inhabited by Europeans, and consequently to the northward of Tank Square, in which is the nearest wholesome tank, is one mile and a quarter upon an average in the whole of which space, most thickly inhabited, there is not one tank or well which affords wholesome water,—that wholesome water, consequently, is procured by the rich with considerable trouble and cost, and is denied to the poor, the Europeans catching rain water and preserving it for use at some expense, and the richer natives paying for bringing it from a distance—that the cost in Calcutta, of a quantity of wholesome water, equal to the smallest quantity of water allowed, in calculating the necessary supply of water as the average per
head, per diem in England, where much less water is necessary than here—(amounting only to two-fifths of the supply in London, and to less than one-fourth of the quantity allotted in Rome and Constantinople,) is a quarter of an anna, in a country where the wages of an ordinary labourer do not exceed two annas per day,—that the great majority of the inhabitants and therefore driven to the use of unwholesome water for drinking and preparing their food and that this one great cause of the frightful amount of disease which pervades the town,—that for the other purposes to which water is necessary, (the preserving personal and domestic cleanliness, and the cleansing and watering the streets,—all matters essential to the health of the inhabitants, and for extinguishing occasional fires, which is essential to their safety)—the supply of water is lamentably deficient."

We cannot proceed through all the points enumerated in the abstract of Dr. Martin’s observations, but must confine ourselves to one more only,—the want of ventilation. The streets in the native, (which is by far the most populous) part of the town, are formed without any regard whatever to the free circulation of air. The atmosphere is locally poisoned by noxious exhalations, and the pure breezes from the plain to the south of Calcutta, are shut out by thickly built dwellings. On the ground floors of these wretched abodes multitudes transact business and sleep,—sleep within a few feet of the drains or kennels, which run by the sides of the streets. "Whoever", said Dr. Martin, "has visited the native part of the town before sun-rise, with its narrow lanes and ‘rankest compounds of villainous smells what ever offended nostril,’ will require no argument in favor of widening the streets, so as to effect the two greatest improvements of all, as respects the salubrity of the city—free exposure to the sun to rarify and elevate the vapours, and to the winds to dilute and dissipate them." Ruined houses choked with weeds,—the asylums of dying animals, and the sepulchres of dead ones,—are to be seen packed in between crowded dwellings full of little, low rooms, without any apertures but such as open upon confined petty
quadrangles. The inhabitants of these habitations are two much accustomed to bad smells, to hasten the removal from their premises, of any matter that is in a state of decomposition. Ground is too valuable to be spared for gardens, and therefore almost every inch which is available, is built upon. The streets and lanes are narrow and crooked. The surface of the roads is covered with filth, dust, mud, or offal; and periodically coolies come round as scavengers and stir up, rather than remove, the accumulated mess in the kennels, and so send up into the surrounding houses, fresh loaded pestiferous air, to be pent up there, in so many dungeons.

Thus we have bad drains, tainted tanks, impure water, and the want of ventilation, combining to affect a population, whose habits predispose them to almost every ailment by which the human species is commonly afflicted. Thus disease is engendered; vice and bad diet, and the general local causes we have just mentioned, tend to give it strength; and then, empirics, of every kind, from heathen priests with their charms, to medical quacks with their nostrums, inflame it. Let a very intelligent witness, himself a native medical practitioner, but one of character and education, tell the result. Mûdûsúdan Gúpto Kobûruttan, after a medical experience of twelve years among his countrymen in Calcutta says, that there are few inflammatory diseases, but that dysentery, diarrhoea, dyspepsia, rheumatism, and fevers, are prevalent; that the effects of these are extensive and lamentable; that nearly two-third of the native population in the town have dyspepsia, that rheumatism often arrives to such height among the poor as to prevent them labouring for their bread; that he does not see any native children in the town, who are in perfect health; that there is much opthalmia in the hot season from the dust; that the state of the town tends to produce cholera; that between the months of August and to November upwards of 18,000 persons among the natives of Calcutta (properly so called, of which the population is not 300,000)—suffer under intermittent, remittent, and bilious fevers, dysentary, and cholera. Dr. Martin concurred in the evidence of this witness, but believed he had
underrated the prevalence of fever, and its sequelae spleen and diarrhaea, which carry off more natives than any other diseases.

It is difficult to read and consider such statements, without feeling the difficulty of giving them their full legitimate effect in the mind. They overpower the imagination. The aggregate of misery here indicated is inconceivable. The awful reality even of one month's accumulated sufferings, baffles all human power of description, and we feel ourselves quite unable to touch on it at all. But we may be excused, if we borrow from the Sermon preached by Dr. Duff and prefixed to this article, a passage, in which some of the general, and some of the particular features of the case, are painted in glowing colours, but with power, which, great and eminent as it is, nevertheless here falls short of disclosing to view, the whole of the appalling reality:

"Think of the unparalleled extent of general sickness, or rather sickness or unhealthiness, that prevails!—when, on credible evidence, it is declared that no native children are to be found in perfect health—and that nearly two-third of the adult population are afflicted with one variety of disease alone, Dyspepsia, with its clustering retinue of ordinary concomitants, weakness, langour, and debility,—which invariably prepare and predispose the constitution for the attacks of more rapidly fatal maladies, and therefore, positively court and invite such violent aggressions! Think of the unparalleled extent of the prevalence of such rapidly fatal maladies;—when in addition to worst of those which swell the catalogue of the great Christian Poet and replenish his imaginary lazar-house, we find others abounding of still more exasperated virulence, which it had never entered his imagination to conceive;—when, during the four unhealthy months, between July and October inclusive, out of a fixed population of 200,000 or a floating population of 300,000, it is declared on credible evidence, that not fewer than 18,000 persons are attacked with different kinds of dangerous fevers and other acute diseases—that, of this enormous aggregate not less than one-fifth or 20 per cent. die before December—and that, as regards the remainder, a large proportion of their complaints run on into the following months and eventually terminate fatally! Nor is this all. Think of the melancholy fact that, during the eight remaining months, the number of acute cases far exceeds that stated as occurring during the rains—that the supposed superior healthiness of one season, as compared with that of another,
arises, not from any perceptible diminution of the amount of general disease, but merely from a diminution of disease in those more severe forms, which immediately prostrate the strength and exhaust the vital energies—that each successive season has its own peculiar maladies which, if not medically treated, are sure, humanly speaking, to terminate fatally with greater or less rapidity—that the cooler and more healthy months, besides their own proper progeny of distempers, are burdened with the resulting effects or residuary consequences of "the imperfect cures of the severe diseases of the preceding season," which "have been left without resistance to do their work of immediate slaughter upon the great majority of those whom they have attacked, and to implant in the rest the seeds of certain and not distant dissolution"—and that, as the result of the whole, the amount of constant dangerous disease, throughout every revolving period of the year, is nearly uniform, or very much the same; in other words, that "the poorer classes suffer in nearly the same numbers at all seasons,—the only important difference consisting in the greater intensity of the diseases of one as compared to those of another."

But,—however appalling the whole of this statement, considered abstractly by itself, as a mere summation of human suffering, within the bounds of this great metropolis, and therefore, at our very doors,—it is rendered vastly more so, by the peculiarly aggravating circumstances in which multitudes of the diseased are placed. Acute disease is distressing enough to bear, even under every imaginable palliative or alleviation which affection can minister, wealth can purchase, or professional skill can supply. But, what, if there be a total absence of all palliatives and alleviations? Or what, stillmore, if there be the positive presence of all manner of provocatives to envenom and exulcerate the original malady? Now this is precisely the fell and fatal predicament of numbers of the suffering poor around us. They come to this city from all parts of the country in quest of employment, or to beg for charity. They take up their abode with individuals nearly as destitute as themselves; or they hire a wretched but, or as wretched an apartment in some old building, for a few annas per month. They are attacked and laid prostrate by disease. Who can depict, who can adequately conceive the loneliness, the desertedness, the imploring helplessness of their forlorn condition? Think of them, in hundreds and thousands, with scarcely any clothing to cover their nakedness by night or by day—unprovided with any sort of couch, on which to repose their aching limbs,—lying down on bare mats, or coarse grass spread on the damp ground in their narrow cheerless cells. Think of them, in hundreds.
and thousands, exposed at different seasons to pinching cold or scorching heat, or drenching rain, or stifling dust, or steamy vapour, or suffocating smoke. Think of them, in hundreds and thousands, panting for breath—immured in closely built, illventilated dens—begirt with masses of old walls and tumbling ruins, with belts of jungle and patches of underwood and rank vegetation, that prevent all free exposure to the sun, which might rarify or elevate the noxious vapours, and debarred all access to the winds of heaven that might dilute or dissipate them. Think of them, in hundreds and thousands, surrounded by accumulated deposits of filth and rubbish intermingled with heaps of decomposed animal and vegetable matters, which, simultaneously with the tainted pools and the putrid drains, constantly evolve and disengage all manner of noxious exhalations—sulphuretted hydrogen and other poisonous gases—together with the whole nameless and countless brood of miasmata and malaria and other concentrated sources or germinating essences of plague and pestilence. Think of them, in hundreds and thousands, not merely without the means of personal or domestic cleanliness, but often parched with thirst, without a drop of water to cool their burning tongues;—or if some portion of that needful element be scantily, and at wide intervals supplied by some casual hand, it is supplied, either directly from the river, which, at one season, is unwholesome from the quantity of its unfiltered mud, and at another, equally so, from a copious of infusion ingredients that render it brackish and saline; or from stagnant tanks, whose waters are impure and deleterious from the annual vegetable growth going on from beneath and all around—rendering them progressively more and more shallow, and eventually converting them into green and slimy nuisances that contaminate the surrounding atmosphere. Think of them, in hundreds and thousands, craving for some cordial to soothe or assuage, or mitigate inward agonizing pain, and if ought be granted to the petition of the rueful piteous look, that little is sure to consist of some raw, crude, indigestible substances that cannot fail to aggravate the fatal symptoms of the disease. Think of them, in hundreds and thousands, with cries and tears imploring the kindly offices of medical aid; and if a farthing's worth of the commonest and cheapest native remedy be grudgingly doled out, it is only to accelerate their fate,—since the rude compound or preparation thus furnished is "efficacious to enkindle the feeble flames of constitutional power, only to sink the more rapidly in death." Think of them, in hundreds and thousands, when, however pre-maturely, all hope of recovery has been abandoned, and the dread of the disgrace, the reproach, the infamy, the pollution to be incurred
-or contracted by the presence of a dead body in their vicinity, has aroused and alarmed the hitherto unconcerned and apathetic neighbours,—think of them, unceremoniously handed over to the heartless officers of death, who convey them roughly, without one look of sympathy or tear of commiseration, to the ghats and banks of the river, where, pitilessly exposed to all the inclemencies of the weather, they expire in a few hours, or before they cease to breathe, are ferociously attacked by horrid vultures and beasts of prey. Aye, and what is most affecting of all,—think of them, in hundreds and thousands, enduring these countless and untold sufferings in the present life, without any support or consolation drawn from the anticipated glories of the future.”

If, after these statements there be still a doubt, on the minds of any, that common humanity, (not to mention a higher and far more powerful motive), calls for earnest efforts to ameliorate the condition of the inhabitants of Calcutta, as well as efforts to raise them morally and intellectually, so that the sanitary state of the town may be improved, and that the people may co-operate with a benevolent Government in the work of providing for their own comfort, and security,—we have no more arguments to use, and can say no more. To us, certainly, it seems very evident, that John Howard when he visited the Lazarettos, had not a more forcible demand on his sympathies, than we have now before us in the city in which we dwell, and that it would be very far from creditable to the British Government, to spare labour or money, to remedy the remarkable evils in the state of Calcutta. It is not saying too much to denominate Calcutta, the chief town, if not the very capital,—the heart, of Asia. It is the seat of the most powerful Government, and of the greatest commerce known in this vast continent. It is the focus of British intelligence in this quarter of the globe, the great scene of enterprise, the great source of capital, the great school of knowledge. But such is its sanitary condition that Ispahan, we believe, is a more healthy dwelling place, and Bokhara as safe a home. Its burial grounds are crowded with graves and monuments; its most hopeful citizens are constantly being cut down in the midst of usefulness, and in the prime if not the dawning of active
life; its river is notorious for its exhibitions of floating carcasses, and gorging birds of preys; some of its streets are impassable, save at the hazard of immediate sickness;—and all this has been known for more than forty years, but the city is still such as Lord Wellesley described it in all the chief features of his picture. It is still, as of old, the most unhealthy "City of Palaces" in the world.

We are willing to admit, and it is due to the Government to acknowledge that very considerable difficulties present themselves to view, when the object of thoroughly providing for all the sanatory wants of Calcutta, is contemplated. There must be an entirely new drainage of the whole town and suburbs; and for this purpose levels must be carefully made, and very great expense must be incurred. It would be necessary to determine with very great care, the direction in which the drains and sewers should run. On this point it would be found, that, while there appear to be great advantages in draining off the refuse of the town into Salt-water Lake, there may be some danger of that, shallow as it is, becoming itself noxious and pestilential to the whole surrounding and very populous neighbourhood. In England and Scotland, the contents of the drains are valuable as manure, and in fact a considerable part of the filth of Edinburgh and Aberdeen, is removed from these towns by their respective Town Councils, and sold for considerable sums of money (in Aberdeen at a profit) for the use of the adjacent farms. But here, this manure is not required, (or in a comparatively small degree), and if it were required, it would find no purchasers. Then as to the expense: we have seen no estimate, we confess, which is satisfactory to our mind. We certainly fear that for a complete system of drainage alone, very much more than the sum of Co.'s Rs. 9,41,560, mentioned in the Report, would be required.

To the expense of draining, must be added the expense of providing water for domestic purposes. This object might be effected by a plan similar to that adopted in English towns, by large pipes under ground carrying water under high pres-
sure, and service pipes proceeding from them,—which might be carried to the houses of which the proprietors were willing to pay a separate special charge, and otherwise branching off to small reservoirs, pumps, fountains, and tanks. Or it might be effected by the plan of opening some large open spaces in the native town, similar to Tank Square, which might be filled with wholesome water, and might be made capacious enough to hold a body of water which would retain its purity throughout the year. These might be made in the most crowded parts of the native town, and free open spaces for the purposes of public ventilation and private recreation, would be thus obtained. But it is evident from the quantity of land required, and the high price which the Government would be compelled to pay as compensation to all the owners of tenements and lands with whom it would have to deal, that the expense of these tanks would be very great indeed. It is next to be remembered, that in order to secure good water it must be brought from a distance,—from Hoogly or some place, and still higher, and considerable additional expense would be thus incurred; and afterwards it would be needful to calculate on a large original outlay in the construction of new and wide streets, although probably this object might be so effected, as to be profitable in the end, for the rents of the houses in the new streets would be high. Lastly, there must be an extensive conservancy department, on a new footing; the streets and roads must be well watered; and nuisances must be abated. All these improvements must be made, if the work is to be done effectually. But the entire sum required for them at the outset, and the annual charge of maintaining the public works when constructed, would be very great.

Other difficulties present themselves to view, in the form of legal rights and liabilities, and the want of an existing municipal corporation to work in co-operation. If power is to be given for such purpose as the effecting purchases of land, carrying drains into and under houses, entering private dwellings to inspect nuisances, and levying rates to pay the greatly increased
conservancy expenditure of the town, very ample and distinct legal authority and protection must be provided by legislative enactment. Actions of trespass without number, besides refusals of pay rates and to sell land that might be required for public purposes, would otherwise rapidly accumulate in number. If land is to be purchased when required, (as for instance as sites for new streets or reservoirs,) such powers must be given to the public purchasers, as Railway and other Public Companies possess at home. There must be a mode of estimating the amount of compensation, and of compelling owners to convey their property or of supplying the lack of their formal conveyances;—and, in fact, (not to enter into all the detailed arrangements and provisions which are so familiar to all Railway Committees in England,) there must be introduced into Calcutta somewhat of all the extensive and complicated machinery, which is required in England for the purpose of effecting great public improvements. Here then, two considerations arise,—how would such machinery work in a town which is not accustomed to local self-government, as English corporate towns are; and secondly who are to work it? The public will expect to be at least represented by the Board, or the Trustees, or Commissioners, or by whoever else may have the power of levying considerable local rates and making great local alterations; and if this expectation be recognized as entirely, just, it remains to be seen, how such a body as the Calcutta public, ever can or will be represented. The system of electing representatives would be entirely new, and might entirely fail or be neglected. The mere nomination by the government would not be deemed to confer sufficiently, the representative character. And even if elections or some other mode of obtaining public representation, were fixed upon with general consent,—who is to be elected? We have no idle, retired gentlemen, who pride themselves on great zeal for "the parish", or no notable decisions at "quarter sessions"; there is little public spirit, and little time, which can be placed at public disposal. In British towns it is thought by a large class, and that, not a class deficient in intelligence or character, to be
a considerable thing to be a churchwarden, and an object of high ambition to be an alderman or baillie, and still more so, to be Provost or Mayor; but here, the main thought is, how one's time can be so spent as to prepare most rapidly for a return to Great Britain; and most men seem to think, that if they personally can escape the infection of Calcutta, it is enough, and that the general health of the population, and the state of Calcutta, after they have got safely out of it, need not be a matter of any interest to them. Would, indeed, that we could say, that this indifference does not extend to higher things, and that the Europeans in India, do not, for the most part apparently regard spiritual and physical debasement as equally beyond the pale of their sympathy, and the mitigation and gradual cure of them, as matters entirely unconnected with their duty.

And yet further, we must notice another difficulty. Let it be supposed that provision has been made by the Government for the receipt by the agents of its schemes of public improvement, of a large income, from various rates, tolls, and taxes. It would be necessary to meet the immediate exigency of the commencement of the work, by raising a large sum of money to pay for the primary outlay of a complete drainage of the town, and other extensive but necessary undertakings. In England this would present no obstacle. Many very substantial ladies and gentlemen would be found mourning over the small return their capital yielded them while hidden under "the solid security of the three per cents.", and who would be very thankful to any respectable public company, which would take their money from them, mortgage ample rates and tolls for its security, and pay them five per cent. per annum. But here, where Government's five per cents. are scarcely at a premium; where ten and twelve per cent. are common private rates of interest; and where not mere vague rumours orderly legal reports occasionally inform us of Native gentlemen,--"all honorable men",--who have found means to obtain seventeen, twenty, and even seventy per cent. for their beloved rupees, how shall untried Commissioners or Trustees, with no other property
than fluctuating uncertain tools rates, and taxes, find willing
lenders of three or four scores of lakhs at moderate interest?
We apprehend that it will be found that the Government must
either advance the money, and make arrangements for its
gradual repayment by annual instalments with just interest;
or, must add its security to the floating security of the
Commissioners’ income. For the former course it has suffi-
cient precedents at home, where money has been frequently
advanced on the security of public works and the produce
of them, and has been repaid punctually. Not to mention
other cases, we may name, in passing one instance: that of
the new London Bridge and its approaches, for which magni-
ficent undertaking, (certainly one of the greatest ever completed
by a Municipal Corporation), the Duke of Wellington’s
Government in 1829, consented to advance very large sums of
money, all of which, were, we believe, repaid some time ago.

In adverting to these difficulties, we have purposely stated
them without any mitigation. They are great, and unless
Government be in earnest in this matter they will be regarded
as insuperable, and the whole of the labours and suggestions of
those who have so ably and so perseveringly exerted themselves
in this cause of mercy, will consequently end in producing
some patchwork in the drainage, as it now exists irretrievably
and hopelessly bad. But if a comprehensive view be taken
of the whole subject.—of the importance of Calcutta; of the
duty of Government to its people; of the examples and
encouragements afforded by History, of the principles of
eminent statesmen;—it will, we think, be found, that the work
of rendering the great and rising capital of India salubrious, is
a work to which it is fitting that early regard should be paid,
by our rules; and for which sacrifices may be safely made; and
in which no contemptible fame may be acquired. It was one of
the highest tributes paid to one of the most honorable and
prosperous of the Roman Emperors, that he left a city
figuratively speaking of marble. The arts of peace, we may be
assured, will not be cultivated in vain, for their effects,
generally speaking, are far more permanent than the triumphs
and conquest of war. In looking back to the line of ancient rulers, the eye, (most naturally) is attracted far more by those who have elevated their country by just laws, and beneficent measures, than by those who have earned earthly glory by enterprise and warlike ambition. Among the wisest and best of monarchs it is easy to see that one great general principle was generally recognized namely that the state of the capital, in knowledge, in regard to the administration of justice, and as developing marks of the wealth, power, and public sympathies of the Government, might be expected to produce very beneficial and extensive effects on the whole nation. The capital of most countries is its model of public taste, and controls its public opinion. It is visited by all classes, it stimulates the energies of all enterprising men and if it be well governed, it may be, without citadels or walls the great seat of the ruler's power. If therefore, in the case now before us, the wants of his great city be neglected, we shall fear that very narrow views have been taken of public policy and public duty. But we hope for better things, and we believe that the present heads of the Government of this presidency and of India, have fully felt the obligations incumbent on them, and are more than desirous,—are determined, to endeavour adequately to discharge them. In no way could they, in present circumstances, better exhibit their solicitude for the public welfare. An act, it is understood, is now before them, and to the consideration of this, we have reason to believe, they have brought willing minds. Should their deliberations result in a comprehensive, satisfactory, and bold measure, "the blessing of many ready to perish" will be theirs; they will alleviate unspeakable misery, and instrumentally will annually save many thousands of valuable lives. As Calcutta rises in commercial and political importance, the importance of their public services will be more and more appreciated and their memories will be increasingly honored; and in themselves, they will have the satisfactory assurance, that they have used their power for benevolent and salutary public ends, and have left in the enduring public works of their seat of Government, substantial
proofs of their enlightened principles, of their sympathy with
the afflicted, and of their peaceful but effectual zeal.

If however the works to which we have thus imperfectly
directed attention, be accomplished, we must not forget the
tribute that will be due to the Committee of Enquiry, from
whose labours, and whose suggestions, so much will have
arisen. Dr. Martin, and Dr. Nicolson, Mr. C. W. Smith, and
some other members of it will have established a lasting claim
to public gratitude; but we say no more than all persons who
have examined the subject and traced its history, will
acknowledge, when we add, that Sir John Grant, above all,
will be regarded as the leading and most effective agent of the
benevolent design, and to his determination of character and
his steady and long continued personal labours, success will be
primarily attributable. We hope that the measures he has
advocated so ably and so firmly, will be adopted before he
leaves this country; and that he may live to hear that they are
fully accomplished; that they are in most satisfactory opera-
tion; and that Calcutta is in a highly sanitary state, very
different to that, in which he found it, when he first began to
devote so large a portion of his leisure and his energies,
to its improvement.

We have not dwelt, in the preceding article, on the subject
of the Fever Hospital, the establishment of which, in the
first instance, was Dr. Martin’s primary object,—for we hope,
that nothing more is now required to be said in reference to
it. Private subscriptions, and a gift of a piece of land, have,
apparently, placed the Council of Education in a position to
commence this important work, and Government has consented
to support it in connection with the Medical College. Thus,
a very important object is likely to be obtained very speedily,
and one result of the Municipal Committee’s labours is
secured. This is a boon of great importance to the native
population, and as education advances and prejudices against
hospitals diminish, we may expect to see its usefulness further
developed. It will enlarge the town’s already large school of
medicine, and will afford relief in the only satisfactory manner
to fever patients. Dr. Nicolson’s letter on that point, as printed in one of the appendices to the Committee’s report, appears to us decisive, and we are very glad therefore, that a Hospital (instead of a number of Dispensaries), is now to be erected. But after all, let our readers secure to the abstract of Dr. Martin’s notes, as quoted by us, in a former page, and they will see, that even the most extensive and liberal sanitary improvements in Calcutta, will not by themselves meet all the wants of the population. There are moral as well as physical evils to be cured, and it may will be doubted which are the most destructive. Happily very vigorous efforts are now being made to remedy the moral disorders of the country,—efforts which once were ignorantly condemned and wickedly opposed, but which now are acknowledged almost universally, to be the means of incalculable value. It remains that these should be augmented, and that the physical wants of the people should be as sincerely and zealously supplied. By leading onward the march of enlightened philanthropy, and by stimulating private benevolence through the exhibition of its own benevolence, the British Government will write its history in permanent monuments, and will obtain a witness in the happiness and in the hearts, of the people, to its superiority and its wisdom. Not, certainly, for light and unimportant objects, was the British power rendered triumphant in India; nor will it adequately discharge its responsibility, if very great results do not follow from its sway. Much it has done, but very much more remains for it to do. If great earnestness be not displayed, the present Charter will be ended, and another opportunity will be lost. In reference, therefore, to all the great and pressing claims of justice and benevolence on the attention of the Government, and in reference particularly, to the matter now before us, we must conclude with an exhortation and entreaty, that there may be no unnecessary delay.

*Calcutta Review. 5, 10; 1846.*
MORTALITY IN CALCUTTA

Great sickness and mortality, we regret to say, have prevailed and do still prevail, in the Native quarters of Calcutta. We cannot add, that we are at all surprised at this, all things considered. In the first place, the cold weather came on at once, and not as usual, gradually. Thus there was a sudden transition from the sultry months of September and October, if not a part of November, to the cold of the latter portion of the same month. In October, there were some nights as oppressive as any we recollect of during the rainy season. That the alteration was rather extreme is evident from the effects. In the second place all surprise will cease when we bear in mind the state of body in which such vicissitudes of temperature find the poorer classes of Natives. All that has been asserted of the misery of the Irish poor, does not exceed the wretchedness of many of the Native poor of Calcutta. Badly housed, fed and clothed, and filthy to the last degree in person, as well as in, and about their overcrowded hovels, they present objects of easy predisposition to disease—and the worst of it is that too generally they have no stamina to withstand its attacks, when of a serious nature. The subject is by far too important to be discussed in a paragraph, but its due examination would lead us too much into details which we cannot afford space at present. Before dismissing the topic, however, we may be permitted to observe, that much might be done by the wealthier Natives towards an amelioration of the condition of the indigent in various ways. One of the most fruitful sources of disease is, we believe their system of bathing. standing as they do, in the open air, and walking home afterwards in wet clothes. Might not baths be constructed on the banks of the river that would, in a great measure, obviate the evil? The rich man may have the Ganges water, in his own house—but the poor man must walk
down into the water at all seasons. This very water too—they drink—saturated as it is with all kinds of impurities, or worse still, some green slimy stagnant tank is resorted to for the same purpose by those who are too indolent to go to the river (517).

Calcutta Gazette. 1830 Dec 6.
NOTES ON THE PERIODICALS

BENGAL EE

First published in 1862 as a weekly. Incorporated to “Indian Public Opinion”. Continued as a weekly till 1897. Then t became a daily. Founder-editor was Girish Chandra Ghosh and Surendranath Banerjee was also one of the editors. After acquiring the proprietorship in 1879, the journal became a vehicle for propagating the militant views of Surendranath Banerjee.

CALCUTTA GAZETTE

First published in 1784 as a weekly entitled “Calcutta Gazette and Oriental Observer”. From September 1791 to May 1815, the title was changed to “Calcutta Gazette”. From June 1815 to March 1832, it assumed the title “Government Gazette”. From April 1832, it again became “Calcutta Gazette”. From the beginning upto March 1832, it was published as a newspaper containing both official and unofficial information. From April 1832, it became exclusively an official journal. Before this it gave interesting information on the rule of the John Company as well as on those who were ruled. A volume of “Selections” from Calcutta Gazette covering 1784 to 1788, compiled by W. S. Seton-Carr was published in 1864. Four more volumes were published within five years covering 1789-1823. The compiler of the last two volumes was Hugh Saudemann. The sixth and last volume (January 1824 to March 1832), compiled by Anil Chandra Dasgupta came out after 90 years in 1959.

CALCUTTA REVIEW

First published in 1844 as a quarterly. Founder-editor was Sir John William Kaye. It was considered as the best magazine published in India. Had many native contributors. In the opinion of its founder-editor: “The object of this work
is simply to bring together such useful information, and propagate such sound opinions,...as will, it is hoped, conduce... to the amelioration of the condition of the people”. Its subsequent editors were Rev. Alexander Duff, W. S. Mackay, Sir Richard Temple etc. Rev. Krishna Mohan Banerjee, Rev. Lal Behary Dey, Peary Chand Mitra contributed to its pages.

**HINDOO PATRIOT**

First published in 1853. Continued as weekly till 6 June, 1892. Then continued as daily. It was founded by Girish Chandra Ghosh. Harish Chandra Mukherjee was associated with it and became editor in 1856.

**MOOKHERJEE’S MAGAZINE**

First published in 1861. Founder-editor Sambhu Chandra Mookerjee edited this journal in collaboration with Harish Chandra Mookerjee and Girish Chandra Ghosh. Within five months of its publication, it came to a sudden stop. It again appeared in 1872 as a half yearly. About this journal, Sambhu Chandra Mookerjee said: “This periodical has a double character—first that of a non-exclusive liberal Indian journal open to all races...through which European writers address the public. The second character of the Magazine is that it was the only organ, in all India, of the most advanced native culture and aspirations”. Its list of contributors included Girish Chandra Ghosh, Rajendralal Mitra, Ras Behari Bose, Michael Madhusudan Dutt, Jatindra Mohan Tagore etc. It again came to an abrupt close in 1876. The last issue of 1876 was published in 1878.

**ORIENTAL MAGAZINE**

First published as a monthly in 1843. It contained interesting articles on the men and matters of the time. It, however, is very little known today.
NOTES

CALCUTTA IN 1860


James Wilson (1805-1860), mentioned in the article, was the Financial Secretary to the Treasury (1853-1858). In 1859 he was the Vice-President of the Board of Trade and Paymaster-General. He was made Privy Councillor in 1859. He was specially selected to reorganise the Indian finances and meet the deficit of Revenue and great increase of the Public Debt caused by the Revolt of 1857. He imposed a personal Income Tax, created a Government paper currency and remodelled the whole system of Indian finance and accounts within 9 months. He died at Calcutta.

THE CORRUPTION OF THE POLICE, ITS CAUSES AND REMEDIES

Based on: 1. Report of the Superintendent of Police, 1842. 2. Rambles and travels of an Official (Colonel Sleeman) in India.

DAILY LIFE OF A SAHIB IN CALCUTTA.

Based on: An Anglo-Indian Domestic Sketch; a letter from an Artist in India to his mother in England. Calcutta, 1849.

THE CHINESE COLONY IN CALCUTTA

THE EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENTS OF CALCUTTA, PAST AND PRESENT


Charles Weston (1731-1809), mentioned in the article, was born in Calcutta. He was an apprentice to J. Z. Holwell. The Latter, when left India, gave pecuniary help to Weston. Then Weston made a vast fortune by agency business. He was Charitable and left a lakh of rupees for the poor.

WATER FOR CALCUTTA

Major General John Garstin (1756-1820), mentioned as “General” in the article, had been given a Commission by George III in the Engineers. He was the Surveyor-General of Bengal and Chief Engineer. He was employed Chiefly in the construction of civil works. He was the architect of Calcutta’s Government House.

THE SANATORY CONDITION OF CALCUTTA

Based on: 1. Report of the Committee appointed by the Right Hon’ble the Governor of Bengal for the Establishment of a Fever Hospital and for inquiring into Local Management and Taxation in Calcutta, with its Appendices. Calcutta. 1839.

2. The Revd. Dr. Duff’s Sermon for the proposed Fever Hospital, preached at the Free Church of Scotland, Calcutta. 1844.

3. Speech of the Marquess of Normanby in the House of Lords on Friday, the 26th of July, 1844.

Sir James Ronald Martin (1793-1874), mentioned in the article, joined the Medical Department of the East India Company’s Bengal Army (1818). He became the Presidency Surgeon in 1830 and Surgeon to the Calcutta General Hospital. He wrote “Notes on the Medical Topography of Calcutta” and “On the Draining of the Salt Water Lake.”
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