









(THE MUTINY WAS HARSH  
OVER WHICH PUNISHED)









A  
**HANDBOOK FOR INDIA;**  
BEING AN ACCOUNT OF  
**THE THREE PRESIDENCIES,**  
AND OF  
**THE OVERLAND ROUTE;**  
INTENDED AS  
A GUIDE FOR TRAVELLERS, OFFICERS, AND CIVILIANS;  
WITH  
VOCABULARIES AND DIALOGUES OF THE SPOKEN LANGUAGES OF INDIA.

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WITH TRAVELLING MAP AND PLANS OF TOWNS.

PART I.—MADRAS.

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TO

CAPTAIN WILLIAM JOSEPH EASTWICK,

OF THE BOMBAY ARMY,

LATE DEPUTY-CHAIRMAN OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY,

AND NOW A MEMBER OF THE COUNCIL OF INDIA,

A TRUE FRIEND OF THE NATIVES OF HINDÚSTÁN

AND A ZEALOUS ADVOCATE OF EVERY MEASURE CALCULATED TO

PROMOTE THEIR WELFARE,

THIS ATTEMPT TO MAKE INDIA BETTER KNOWN TO ENGLISHMEN,

IS AFFECTIONATELY INSCRIBED,

BY HIS BROTHER,

EDWARD B. EASTWICK.

*London, January the 20th, 1859.*



## P R E F A C E.

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At the present moment, when India has been drawn so much closer to England by almost continuous steam communication, by the Electric Telegraph, and, above all, by the sympathy which even the recent abortive effort to dis sever the two countries has itself most remarkably tended to evoke, a Handbook of India has become an especial want.

The vast extent of that region, however, which precludes the possibility of its being thoroughly travelled over and explored by any one man; the dimness of its history and uncertainty of information respecting its antiquities, and the difficulty of obtaining satisfactory accounts of the things most worthy of inspection, render a Handbook of India a much more arduous undertaking than the Handbooks of most other countries. When it is considered that the two minor Presidencies, which supply the routes for this present volume, comprehend an extent of country equalling Spain and Portugal, France, Belgium, Switzerland, England, Prussia, and Bavaria, the magnitude of the task will be better appreciated, and allowances will, it is hoped, be made for the numberless deficiencies in its execution.

India abounds with objects of interest. It presents every imaginable variety of scenery, from the loftiest and most sublime mountain ranges, to the gentle undulations and velvet swards of an English park. Its natural products are equal, if not superior, to those of any region in the world, and would furnish endless materials for the pen of the describer. It is rich in historical associations, and there is scarce a hill which is not crowned with the picturesque ruins of some old fortress, little known or altogether unvisited by Europeans, but bound up in the native mind with many a strange

tale and legend. In Europe the small remains of some ruined cloister, or the mouldering walls of a solitary castle, are sought out with eager interest; but India is a land of ruined cities, and in one of these the antiquities of a whole European province might be collected. The ruins of Bráhmańábád, the Pompeii of Sindh, extend for twenty miles, and wherever the mattock of the excavator falls, curious relics come to light. The deserted city of Bġjapúr presents from a distance the appearance of a populous capital, and it is not until the desolate streets are entered, that the illusion is entirely dispelled. But Indian architecture can boast not only of what is curious and surprising, but also of what is eminently beautiful. The Táġ excels all buildings in the world in symmetry and rich decoration. The temples of A'bu are not to be surpassed in ornamenture. The palace of Amber is a structure before which the Alhambra shrinks into insignificance. It would be an error, then, to suppose that the task of composing a Handbook for India could be quickly or easily accomplished.

But, in addition to the vastness of the subject, there is another formidable difficulty with which the compiler of a Handbook for India has to struggle. Intense heat and malaria are great opponents to the most zealous explorer of antiquities or of the picturesque. It happens that many of the most interesting Indian localities are situated among thick jungles, loaded with noxious vapors, and abounding with dangerous reptiles and wild beasts. Thus the caves of Salsette can never be securely examined by the traveller; and no one should explore the ruins of Máńdu, unless fully equipped for a tiger hunt. It is partly for these reasons, perhaps, that the accounts of places furnished by Indian travellers are in general so vague and inaccurate. Were it not for the elaborate notices of Tod, Fergusson, and Newbold, the mere compiler would find it impossible to give an exact description of the scenery and remarkable architectural remains of Western and Southern India.

But although it is not pretended that the Handbook for India in its present shape approaches the accuracy of the guidebooks to countries which have been longer and more minutely scrutinized, the author hopes a beginning at least has been made, and that by the contributions and corrections of those acquainted with the subjects treated, and especially by the aid of persons actually resi-

dent in India, the work now given to the public may prove a trustworthy, though not altogether complete guide for travellers in Hindústán. Indeed it is only fair to state that whatever there is of value in the present pages is due to the suggestion, or research, of distinguished Orientalists, or those who, from their practical acquaintance with Indian subjects, are eminently qualified to aid and advise. The compiler of this volume, though he has himself travelled through many parts of both Presidencies, has profited largely by the labors of others, and tenders his most grateful thanks to Professor H. H. Wilson; Colonel Faber, Chief Engineer at Madras; General Dickinson, late Chief Engineer at Bombay; Mr. Fergusson, author of the *Handbook of Architecture*; Major Wingate, late Superintendent of Survey in the S. Marátha country; Mr. C. P. Brown, of the Madras Civil Service, author of the *Telugu Dictionary* and other valuable works; Mr. Edward Thornton, and Mr. Hornidge, of the Statistical Department at the East India House; Colonel Cotton, of the Madras Engineers; the Rev. John Wilson, D.D., President of the Asiatic Society of Bombay; and Mr. A. F. Bellasis, late Collector of Haidarábád in Sindh. Mr. Walter Elliot, Mr. Sim, and Mr. Chamier, of the Madras Civil Service, and Mr. Lestock Reid, of the Civil Service of Bombay, lent their kind aid in the preparation of the Vocabularies and Dialogues, and several other gentlemen supplied information as to localities with which they were specially acquainted.

It now remains to notice briefly the plan of the work, and to explain some things which might, at first sight, appear objectionable. In order to make the work as useful as possible to the servants of Government, and persons resident in India, as well as to the mere traveller, a greater amount of statistics, and preliminary information of all kinds, has been given than is usual in Handbooks. Many of the statistics are new, and have never before been given to the public. Such are the names and directions of the Sub-Divisions in the different Collectorates, and their Chief Towns, and some of the Routes. To the etymology and correct spelling of names, much attention has been given, and owing to the almost inextricable confusion in which neglect and indifference have involved this part of Oriental research, the labor required here has been very considerable. This task has

been rendered the more irksome from the conviction that, however necessary and useful the endeavor to restore Indian names to their original correctness may be, the attempt will be viewed with aversion by those who, having no knowledge of Oriental languages, are careless of the confusion and even serious mistakes arising from the want of system in the common method of spelling. In order to give an idea of the almost incredible absurdity, and ludicrous inconsistency of the popular mode of spelling adopted for Indian names, a few examples will suffice. It must be premised, however, that the following instances are neither the most striking, nor the most important, but simply those that come first to hand. Take, then, as a specimen, the towns whose names are compounded with the words *Farrukh*, "happy," and *Fath*, "victory," in Thornton's Gazetteer. *Farrukhnagar* is the name of a district, and of a town, which are the subjects of consecutive notices in that work. The word is the same for both district and town; but it is spelled *Furrucknuggur* for the district, and *Furuknugur* for the town, both modes being wrong. In the next two notices for *Fathganj* we find *Futehgunge* (Western), *Futehgunje* (Eastern), the same word spelled in two different ways, in notices immediately following each other, and both utterly at variance with the true Oriental name. In the next 25 notices, the word *Fath* is spelled in eleven different ways—*Futeh*, *Futh*, *Futhe*, *Futick*, *Futi*, *Futte*, *Futteh*, *Futtih*, *Futtoo*, *Futtum*, *Futty*,—all modes being absolutely wrong. The words, too, with which *Fath* is compounded are spelled differently in consecutive notices. Thus *Garh* is spelled *Ghur* in one line, and *Gurh* in the next. And *Pur*, a town, is spelled alternately *Poor* and *Pore*. Now, let this method be applied in Indian schools for the spelling of English names. We should then have *Lancaster*, or rather some corruption of the word, for the town, and *Longcoaster* for the county, *West Riding* and *East Roding*, *York*, *Yark*, *Yirk*, *Yorick*, and so on for eleven varieties. The absurdity and inconvenience of such a system is palpable. A map of France prepared for English schools on the plan of accommodating French sounds to the English ear, would abound with such barbarisms as would be intolerable to every person of education and refinement. Must not then an educated native of India be disgusted with the mis-pronunciations and mis-spellings of English writers? In the popular mode of spelling

Indian proper names the aspirates are continually omitted, or inserted where they ought not to occur; and in innumerable cases letters are changed in a way that deprives the representative word of all resemblance to the original. Surely the *Hutnee* of English maps for *Athni*, *Hungut* for *Hángal*, and *Broach* for *Bharuch*, must be very uncouth and ridiculous to Indians, and simply unintelligible to the lower class. Even the general English reader now smiles at the ridiculous substitutes for Oriental names, which appear in the writings of the first servants of the East India Company; at Sir Roger Dowler (Sirájú'd-daulah) imprisoning the helpless English, who revenged themselves by treating his name with a barbarity equal to his own towards themselves; or at the ravages of the Sow Roger (Sáhu Rájá), and the exploits of the valorous Bouncello (Bhoñle). But the popular mode of spelling at present, if not quite so ridiculous, is much less consistent than that of the old jargon, leads to the gravest errors, and can amuse no one.

But these inconsistencies assume a more serious aspect, when we find them leading to important historical and topographical errors. It will be necessary to instance a few of these, in order to convince the English reader that, owing to the incorrect spelling of Indian names, the grossest mistakes are gradually creeping into influence.

The first instance may be taken from an Indian city, which has of late acquired an unhappy celebrity in this country, from *Cawnpore*. Of this city, Thornton says "the importance of this place is indeed altogether of recent date, and resulting from its selection in A.D. 1777, as a military cantonment by the British authorities. It does not appear to be mentioned by Baber in his narrative of military operations in the Doab; and it is passed over in the *Ayeen Akbery*. The first notice of it is perhaps that by Rennel." This idea of the modern foundation of Cawnpore springs partly, if not entirely, from its incorrect spelling. *Cawn* is the barbarism adopted by the historian Orme for the Persian word *Khán*, "a lord," and was contemporaneous with the equally barbarous *chan*, which was the corruption that found favor with Dow. Cawnpore was, therefore, supposed to have been built by some Muhammadan nobleman, and therefore to be a comparatively modern place. But the correct spelling of the word *Kánhpúr*, shows that

it is a Hindú word, meaning "the city of Káñh," or Kṛiṣṇah. It is, in fact, a place of primæval antiquity, and from it the Káñhpúrîyah Rájput̃s have their title, a tribe that entered Awadh (Oudh) many centuries ago.

By those who have not examined and compared maps of India and the books of routes through that country, the blunders and confusion created by incorrect spelling can hardly be imagined. In some cases quarter-masters of regiments have been unable to identify the name of a single place in routes furnished to them from the Government offices, and have sent in new drafts of the routes with the names spelled in an entirely different manner, though the places intended were in each case the same.\* The compiler of this Handbook, on comparing the Madras Government Route-book with the map of the Trigonometrical Survey, was scarcely able to trace any similarity in the names. Thus the Támraparní river is called in the Route-book Tamberperny; in Thornton's *Gazetteer*, Tambaravari; in Walker's map, Pambouri; and in the Trigonometrical map, Chindinthura. Thus, too, *ár*, in Tamil, signifies "river"; but the compilers of the Route-book, ignoring that simple fact, continually add "river" to *ár*, which they frequently write *aur*, making it a proper name. Not content even with this, they sometimes prefix the word *nuddy*, a corruption of the Sanskrit *nadi*, which also means "river," to *ár*. Thus the phrase occurs, "cross the *Nuddy-ar* river," equivalent to "cross the river, river, river," though all that is meant is, cross a stream. *Giri* is "a mountain," and *Gađi*, in Telugu, or *Garhi*, in Hindústání, is "a fort;" but Maps and Route-books write *Gherry*, *Ghurry*, or some similar corruption, for both "fort" and "mountain." Thus the *Neilgherries* is written for *Nilgiris*, "blue mountains," and *Gheriah* for *Vijaya-durg*, simply a fort. Indifference to the meaning of names is the prolific parent of another series of mistakes, for nearly all Indian names of places are significant, and the etymology is obscured and the meaning lost by their perversion. Thus *Kághazpúr*, which signifies "paper-town," and is so called on account of a paper manufactory there, is made into *Raguzpoor*, which is utterly meaningless. *Kákamári*, "crow-killer," a village so called

\* See a remarkable instance in the *Journal of the Bengal Asiatic Society* for 1834, vol. iii., p. 285.



from a plant thought by the natives to be poisonous to crows, is perverted into *Caughmahry*.\* *Eranaur* is pronounced and written *Ennore*, according to the popular English mode; but this means, "What town?" If an Indian peasant were asked the way to What Town, how is it possible that he could reply satisfactorily? This case, and the others that have been quoted, will, perhaps, be a key to the difficulty experienced by Englishmen when travelling in India in getting information as to places. They ask an unintelligible question, and if they do not succeed in extracting the information they want, too often wreak their anger on the unfortunate and bewildered Indian. In military expeditions these mistakes have sometimes had most serious consequences. And it was the consideration of the necessity of furnishing the traveller with names which would be understood by the natives that led to the adoption of the correct mode of spelling in the present work.

In fact, notwithstanding the difficulty occasioned by the inconsistencies of the popular spelling, it was originally intended to adopt it, and a considerable portion of the work had already been written according to it, but then the insuperable obstacle that has been already noticed arose. It was found that the natives themselves could not recognise a single word, if spelled and pronounced according to the common method. It was obviously a matter of imperative necessity that the traveller should be able to make the names of places intelligible to the natives. This could only be effected by spelling and pronouncing the words according to the native system. Otherwise, to a native of the Madras Presidency, *Masulipatam*, *Vizagapatam*, *Triplicane*, *Pondicherry*, *Conjeveram*, *Seringapatam*, and *Travancore* would be utterly unintelligible. The mention of these words would merely elicit from a native a shake of the head, or an intimation that he did not understand English. Whereas *Machhliapatnam*, *Vishakhapatnam*, *Tiru vali kedi*, *Pudu cheri*, *Kanchipuram*, *Shri ranga patnam*, *Tiruvankodu*, would be understood at once, and the direction would be pointed out, or the traveller guided to the place. The first time that each word occurs, however, both the popular and the correct

\* For many similar perversions, see an article by Prof. H. H. Wilson on Indian Geography, *Oriental Magazine*, Dec. 1824, p. 186.

form are given, and this, it is hoped, will render the new mode less distasteful.

In order, moreover, to save the general reader any trouble, the popular forms of all places likely to be known to him are inserted in the Index, as well as the correct forms. Those who desire to go more deeply into the subject of the spelling of Oriental words, may consult the Preface to Wilson's Glossary of Indian Terms, where the whole question is fully and ably discussed. In some parts of the work the reader will observe mention of the East India Company as still in existence, a circumstance which, when the length of time required to print the number of pages of which the volumes here given to the public consist, is taken into consideration, will need no further explanation. Part of the work was already in type when the recent change in the administration of India took place.

In conclusion, the compiler desires to invite corrections for the numerous mistakes into which he is conscious of having fallen; and notices derived from personal observation of the many interesting localities, the description of which has been omitted, are solicited from all travellers who may use these volumes. It will be seen that the work has been constructed on such a plan as to admit of the insertion of a number of Routes, so that expansion will be easy. The work thus completed might not, indeed, contain all, or even the greater part of the objects of interest to be found in India, but it would, at least, furnish as much as any traveller would have time to inspect.

LONDON,

*January the 20th, 1859.*

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## INTRODUCTION.

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SEASON FOR VISITING INDIA—HINTS REGARDING HEALTH, DIET, AND COMFORT—OUTFIT—EXPENSES—LISTS OF BOOKS ON INDIA WHICH TRAVELLERS MAY PERUSE PREVIOUS TO STARTING—OVERLAND JOURNEY—BRIEF GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION OF INDIA—CHRONOLOGICAL TABLES—FEASTS, CEREMONIES, SECTS, DRESS, AND MANNERS OF THE NATIVES—INDIAN SERVANTS—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—EUROPEAN SERVICES—FUNDS AND PENSIONS—VOCABULARIES AND DIALOGUES.

### SEASON FOR VISITING INDIA.

THE most unhealthy season in India is that of the Rains, or from the beginning of July to the end of October. It is also the most trying to the constitution of a person fresh from Europe, and unused to tropical heat. The following account of the climate of India at this season of the year, extracted from Dr. James Ranald Martin's excellent work on "*The Influence of Tropical Climates on European Constitutions*,"\* will suffice to shew the traveller that he must select any time but the Rains for the period of his arrival in Hindústán:—"From the 15th of July to the 15th of October, and as the rains advance, we live in an atmosphere having all the properties of a tainted vapour-bath; and, when the wind comes sifting through the Sunderbunds at south-east, we experience many of the inconveniencies ascribed by Hennen to the sirocco of the Mediterranean, which, 'without affecting the thermometer or barometer in any remarkable degree,' yet inflicts on the delicately sensitive human frame a feeling of indescribable languor and oppression, with an exhausting perspiration, much like that we suffer from in Bengal during the latter portion of the rainy season, and which a West

\* *The Influence of Tropical Climates on European constitutions, including Practical Observations on the nature and treatment of the diseases of Europeans on their return from tropical climates.* By James Ranald Martin, F.R.S. London, John Churchill, New Burlington Street, 1836. This work is an invaluable *cade mecum* for the traveller on all matters connected with health.

Indian lady, speaking of the sirocco, described as giving 'the feel as if she had been bathing in a boiler of syrup.' This is the moist sirocco of Bengal. The mind, too, seems to partake in the general relaxation, being unfitted for vigorous or sustained effort; in short, we here perceive the *capiplenium, languor et expletio*, remarked by Petronius amongst the luxurious and dissolute Romans of his time. The muscular system and that of the heart are relaxed and weakened, and after a time they become irritable and very defective in tone. These circumstances, together with the influences of malaria on the nervous system, appear to me to occasion the intermitting pulse so common to the old Indians. At this season, through the saturation of the atmosphere, the perspiration by evaporation is suppressed, but that by transudation is enormously increased, thus rendering the system susceptible of the least impression from cold or malarious exhalation, with a strong tendency to congestion in the abdominal vessels, while at the same time absorption is increased, and all the excretions diminished. The excessive watery discharge from the skin during this season must also, and of necessity, have the effect of rendering the venous blood unnaturally dense, and thus cause the European to be more liable to congestive forms of disease. Dr. J. B. Williams refers the disposition to liver complaints, dysentery, and cholera, to the stimulating properties of the blood, deprived, as we have seen, of more than usual of its water and less of its hydro-carbon. Such is the rainy season, and such are some of the reasons for its proverbial unhealthiness in all tropical climates. If it be true that an individual in health ought to be in that state of perspiration in which it is insensible, what are we to think of the exhausting drain flowing from the pores of an European during this and the preceding season, though differing in their modes of action?"

It may be laid down, therefore, as a rule that the traveller should leave Europe at such a time as will enable him to avoid being in India during the rains altogether, or, at least, to escape passing that season in the steaming atmosphere of the low countries. In Sindh and the Panjáb, indeed, or in the N.W. provinces, he will be better off during the rainy season, so that, if he decide to stop in India, he may frame his route so as to be in those parts at that period of the year. All persons who visit India, then, and have the option of the time at which they will leave Europe, should start at the beginning of October, so as to land in India on or about the 1st of November. Proceeding upward from the Presidency, whether Calcutta, Madras, or Bombay, they may pass four or even five months in the low country, reach the hills by March or April, pass one or two months there, and descend, so as to reach Bombay, which we will assume to be the point from which they will return to Europe, in May; or, if they will pass a whole year in India, in November.

## HEALTH AND COMFORT.

The following remarks on Tropical Hygiene are condensed from Dr. Martin's book, "*The Influence of Tropical Climates*":—

*The Prevention of Disease.*—The proper selection of localities for residence; the avoidance of exposure to heat by day, and to dews and chills at night; care in diet, clothing, and exercise are far more essential for the preservation of health in India, as elsewhere, than medical treatment. Self-quaekery with calomel and other mercurial preparations is sure to destroy the most robust constitution, and many lives have been lost by the use of saline purgatives during seasons of cholera. The real way to escape disease is to observe strict *temperance*, and to moderate heat by all possible means, habituating the body from the beginning to the impressions of cold, for from *heat* arises the predisposition to receive and develop the seeds of disease, and after *heat* has thus morbidly predisposed the body, the sudden influence of *cold* has the most baneful effect upon the frame.

*Dress.*—When Europeans enter the tropics they must bid adieu to the luxury of *linen*—if what is uncomfortable, and, indeed, unsafe in those climates, can be styled a luxury. The natives, from the lowest to the highest, wear nothing but *cotton*. The *cotton* dress, from its slowness in conducting heat, is admirably adapted for the tropics. It must be recollected that the temperature of the atmosphere, *sub dio*, in the hot seasons exceeds that of the blood by many degrees, and even in the shade it too often equals, or rises above the heat of the body's *surface*, which is always, during health, some degrees below 97°. *Cotton*, then, is cooler than *linen*, as a slower conductor of the excess of external heat to our bodies. Moreover, when the atmospheric temperature suddenly sinks far below that of the body, *cotton* causes the heat to be abstracted more slowly, and thus preserves to the wearer a greater equilibrium of warmth. Further, *cotton* absorbs perspiration with greater facility than *linen*, and will maintain an equable warmth under a breeze where a dangerous shiver would be induced by wearing *linen*.

*Woollen and cotton* dresses are actually *cooler* in high temperatures than *linen*, as may be readily proved by placing two beds in the same room when the thermometer stands at 90°, and covering one with a pair of blankets the other with a pair of linen sheets. On removing both coverings in the evening, the bed on which the blankets were placed will be found cool, the other warm; this arises from the woollen covering being a non-conductor, while the linen transmits the heat.

In particular places, where the mercury takes a wide range in a very short time, *flannel* is a safer covering than *cotton*, but, in general, it is a less desirable covering. It is, in the first place, *too heavy*; secondly, where the temperature ranges steadily a little below that of the skin, the flannel is too slow a conductor of heat *from* the body; thirdly, the spiculæ of the flannel prove too irritating, and increase the action of the perspiratory vessels, while the great object is to moderate the process. A too frequent change of body linen is injurious, especially to newly arrived Europeans, as it stimulates the cuticular discharge too much. To change morning and evening is enough, even in the hot and rainy seasons; and to change oftener is simply injurious.

*Exposure.*—No European should voluntarily expose himself at any season to the direct rays of the sun. If forced to be out of doors, the *chhatâ* or large umbrella should never be neglected, if he wish to avoid *coup de soleil* or other dangerous consequences. The ample turbans of the natives are a great defence against the sun; and where an umbrella cannot be conveniently used, muslin twisted many times round an English jockey cap, with a white covering stuffed with cotton, such as worn by Sir C. Napier in a well-known print, is the best protection. Similarly, the thick *komarbands* or *wast-cloths* of the natives protect the important viscera of the abdomen from the injurious effects of cold.

*Food.*—There are no points of hygiene to which the attention of a new comer should be more particularly directed than to *moderation* and *simplicity* in his diet. A congestive, and sometimes inflammatory diathesis, with a tendency to general or local plethora, characterises the European and his diseases, for some years at least, after his arrival between the tropics; and hence nature endeavours to guard against the evil by diminishing the relish for food. The new comer, therefore, should avoid the dangerous stimulants of wine and liquors, as well as condiments and spices, which should be reserved for that general relaxation and debility which are sure to supervene during a *protracted residence* in tropical climates. A *vegetable diet* is, generally speaking, better adapted for a tropical climate than *animal food*, especially in the case of the unseasoned European; not that it is quicker or easier of digestion, for it is slower, but it excites less commotion in the system during the digestive process, and is not apt to induce plethora afterwards. The febrile stricture, which obtains on the surface of our bodies, and in the secreting vessels of the liver, during the *gastric digestion* of the food, as evinced by diminution of the cutaneous and hepatic secretions, is proportioned to the duration and difficulty of that process in the stomach, and to the quantity of *ingesta*; and as a corresponding increase of the two secretions succeeds, when the chyme passes into the intestines, the necessity of moderating them by abstemiousness is easily perceived, since they are already in *excess* from the heat of the climate alone, and this excess is one of the first links in the chain of causes and effects that ultimately leads to various derangements of important organs, as exemplified in the fevers and dysenteries, in the hepatitis and cholera of tropical regions. The newly-arrived European should content himself with a *plain breakfast* of bread and butter, with tea or coffee, and avoid indulging in meat, fish, or eggs, or buttered toast. The butter alone often disagrees, and occasions rancidity, with nausea, while it increases the secretion of bile, already in excess. The dirty habits of the native cooks, who may be often seen buttering the toast with the greasy wing of a fowl or an old dirty piece of rag, will perhaps be of more avail than any medical caution in inducing Europeans to give up this injurious article of food.

He who wishes for health in the East must beware of *late and heavy dinners*, particularly on his first arrival, and must be satisfied with a light and early repast as the *principal meal*, when tea or coffee at six or seven o'clock will be found a grateful refreshment. After this his rest will be as natural and refreshing as can be expected in such a climate, and he will rise next morning infinitely more refreshed than if he had partaken of a heavy repast at a late hour.

*Fruits.*—A limited indulgence in fruits, during the first year, is prudent; and there is little reason to believe that when ripe and eaten in the forenoon fruit has the effect of irritating the bowels. Particular kinds of fruit have peculiar effects on certain constitutions; thus *mangoes* have sometimes a stimulating and heating effect, which often brings out pustules or even boils, on the unseasoned European. The *pine apple*, though very delicious, is not a safe fruit at any time. The *orange* is always grateful and wholesome, as is the *shaddock*, owing to its cooling subacid qualities. The *banana* is wholesome and nutritious, whether undressed or cooked.

*Drink.*—The great physiological rule for preserving health in hot climates is *to keep the body cool*. Common sense points out the propriety of avoiding heating drinks, for the same reason that leads us instinctively to guard against a high external temperature. During the first two years, at least, of residence, the nearer the approach made to a perfectly aqueous regimen in drink, the better the chance of avoiding sickness. Nothing is more salutary during the hot winds than iced beverages; they revive the spirits, strengthen the body, and assist the digestion. *Ice* is invaluable, as well in sickness as in health. Moderately acid drinks, such as *sharbat*, are wholesome. Nature seems to point out the vegetable acids in hot climates, as grateful in allaying thirst and diffusing a coolness from the stomach all



over the body. The prophylactic influence of spirits and tobacco against night exposure, malaria and contagion, appears to be a delusive doctrine.

*Exercise.*—The perspiration, biliary and other secretions, being already in excess in equatorial regions, a perseverance in the customary European exercises would prove highly injurious, by promoting and aggravating the ill effects of an unnatural climate. Such excess very soon leads to debility, and to *diminishing action* in the functions alluded to, and to a corresponding inequilibrium of the blood. It is only at particular periods of the day or year that such active or passive exercise as the climate admits should be taken. When the sun is near the meridian all nature is torpid, and seems to suggest inactivity to man. The natives, though fitted by nature to bear the climate, take more care to moderate the effects of heat than Europeans, especially in light clothing, abstemious food, and tranquil habits. *Gestation* of every kind, whether in *palkis* or spring carriages, is a species of passive exercise exceedingly well adapted to a tropical climate. The languid state of the circulation of the blood in old Indians is pointedly shewn in the disposition to raise the lower extremities on a line with the body when at rest; and this object is completely attained in the *palki*, which, indeed, renders it a peculiarly agreeable vehicle. On the same principle may be explained the pleasurable feeling and utility of *shampooing*, where the gentle pressure and friction of the soft Asiatic hand over the surface of the body, but particularly over the limbs, invigorate the circulation after fatigue, as well as after long inaction, and excite the inert cuticular secretion. The *kisa* or *hair-glove* of India is an admirable means of giving additional effect to shampooing, a practice which to the indolent wealthy natives is a real and effective substitute for exercise. The *swing* is much used by the natives, and in the hot and rainy season might be practised in the early mornings and evenings within doors when the weather did not admit of gestation in the open air. In chronic disorders of the viscera, it could hardly fail to be grateful and salutary by its tendency to determine to the surface and relax the sub-cutaneous vessels, which are generally torpid in these diseases.

*Bathing.*—The *cold bath* is death, not *during* intemperance, but in the *collapse* which follows a debauch, or indeed any other great fatigue of body or mind. It is also dangerous under every form of visceral disease; but the healthy and temperate may safely partake of it. The truth is the cold bath is a prize due to, and gained by, the temperate; to all else it is eminently unsafe. The healthy and temperate should regularly and daily persevere in the use of the cold bath from the moment they enter within the tropics; and when, from long residence there, the functions begin to be irregular, or defective, they may prudently change by degrees to the *tepid* bath, which then becomes a most valuable part of tropical hygiene. The cold bath may be used at any hour of the day, though the morning and evening are generally selected by Europeans in the East, immediately after leaving their couch and before dinner. At both these times the bath is very refreshing, and powerfully obviates that train of nervous symptoms so generally felt by Europeans in hot climates. Before dinner it seems to exert its salutary influence on the surface of the body, and, by sympathy, on the stomach, removing the sensation of thirst, which might otherwise induce too free potations at dinner. It is always imprudent to bathe while the process of digestion in the stomach is going on, as it disturbs that important operation. To persons of ordinary health, but who are not robust, the cold bath will be found tonic and agreeable in India, from the beginning of March to the end of September. The temperature ranges high in these months, and the determination to the surface is such as to ensure a sufficient reaction. It is a common error to think that it is requisite to be cool before using the cold bath, whereas the reverse is the case. To the delicate, indeed, immersion in a warm bath for a few minutes is an excellent preliminary, followed at once by the affusion of some three or four vessels of *cold* water. A glow over the whole surface of the body will immediately follow. This is a safe and excellent mode of

bathing to all who shrink from the use of cold water, or feel doubtful of salutary reaction after it. The following is the scale of temperature of the several baths in ordinary use:—Cold bath, from 60° to 75°; tepid, 85° to 92°; warm, 92° to 98°; hot, 98° to 112°.

*Sleep.*—Whatever we detract from the requisite period of our natural sleep will surely be deducted, in the end, from the natural range of our existence. Notwithstanding the silence of authors on the subject, the disturbed repose experienced in tropical climates has a great and prejudicial effect on the European constitution. The great object of the European is to sleep cool, and obtain complete protection from mosquitoes. Both these objects may be secured by the large mosquito frame and curtain, with the *pankhá* suspended from the ridge, as generally used throughout Bengal. Early hours are here indispensable. The order of nature is never inverted with impunity, even in the most temperate climates; beneath the torrid zone it is certain destruction. The hour of retirement should never be protracted beyond ten o'clock; and at daylight we should start from our couch to enjoy the cool and salubrious breath of morn. In Bengal Proper, in the plains of Upper India, and on the Coromandel coast, except during the hot land winds, or at the change of the monsoons, Europeans may generally sleep during the hot and dry season in the open verandah, not only with safety but with advantage. Scruple doses of carbonate of soda in aromatic water at bedtime, or night and morning, will remove nightmare and promote digestion.

*Moral Conduct.*—In the tropics, licentious indulgence is far more dangerous and destructive than in Europe.

*Cholera.*—The attacks of this terrible disease may in general be traced to some imprudence, as eating unripe fruit, oysters, or other indigestible food; intemperance; drinking cold liquid, or anything that suddenly chills the body when overheated; exposure to cold night air. Among the natives the most common causes are drinking unwholesome water, sleeping on the damp ground, or in the open air during unhealthy seasons. The safest remedies appear to be the application of mustard plasters, particularly to the abdomen, or the warm bath, draughts of warm water, after which 80 drops of laudanum, 6 drops of oil of peppermint, or 20 drops of essence of peppermint, and 20 grains of calomel, should be taken. To allay the burning thirst, warm *kánji* or rice water, with plenty of table salt, may be given, or pieces of ice may be allowed gradually to melt in the mouth. After the first attack is over, if there be much irritability remaining, the dose of 20 grains of calomel must be repeated. Afterwards the bowels must be kept open with calomel and jalap. For a child of from 1½ to 2 years old 12 grains of calomel, 8 drops of laudanum, 2 drops of oil of peppermint, may be given on the instant of attack. The hands and feet must be put into water as hot as the child can bear until the disease is subdued. After a lapse of eight hours from complete relief, a dose of castor oil must be administered. Great attention must be paid to the *size of the drops* of laudanum. They must be dropped from a 2 oz. phial. To natives who are not of a plethoric habit, the following pills may be given:—Astringent pills on the first attack. Calomel, 5 grains; assafetida, 2 grains; black pepper, 2 grains; opium, 2 grains; camphor, 3 grains; to be mixed and divided into three pills, which, if rejected, must be re-administered. Three hours after these pills, if the symptoms have stopped, mix the following into three pills:—Calomel, 5 grains; extract of colocynth, 12 grains; extract of tartar emetic, ½ grain. The cholera pills are an excellent purgative in general for bowel complaints.

*Medicine Chest.*—The following medicines and articles may be taken on a journey into places where medical aid is not obtainable:—Cholera pills, calomel, eau de luce, ipecacuanha, laudanum, magnesia, oil of peppermint, quinine, rhubarb, adhesive plaster, blistering plaster, gold beater's skin, lint, sponge, scales and weights, cautery, lancet, teaspoon, scissors.

*Snake Bites.*—The following appears to be the best treatment for snake-bites.

A ligature should be instantaneously fixed round the limb affected some distance from the wound to prevent absorption. If the wound be in a fleshy part, the ragged edges must be cut out, making the incision elliptical. The wound must then be sucked with a cupping glass, or with the mouth. If stupor, fainting, or sinking of the pulse supervene, administer brandy one oz., laudanum one drachm, in warm water, with sugar and peppermint water. The patient must be kept walking about, or the throat, chest, and extremities may be rubbed with laudanum, ammonia, and ether. Dram doses of ammonia, or *eau de luce*, mixed with water, and repeated every ten or twenty minutes, according to the urgency of the symptoms, have also been tried with success. But scarification, or excision and cauterization are the only sure means of escaping death in the case of being bitten by the most poisonous snakes as the cobra and black kerite.

The following suggestions,\* which were approved by Sir Colin Campbell, for the use of officers who have had no Indian experience, will be found instructive for all travellers in India :—

#### MARCHING.

When practicable, the best time for marching is undoubtedly in the early morning. The march should be finished by two hours after sunrise. The pernicious custom of serving out a dram on the line of march sows the seeds of disease, and should be avoided; but, as it is injurious to undergo fatigue after a night's rest upon an empty stomach, food of some kind should be given to the soldiers either before starting or at the first halt—tea, coffee, chocolate, or milk, with bread, biscuits, or *chapatis*.

In warm weather every precaution should be adopted to enable the European to stand fatigue, and to prevent heating of the blood. The neck should be bare, to allow of the free return of blood from the head. A flannel roller round the belly and loins is all the woollen material required.

In cold weather a flannel shirt, cloth coat, etc., should be worn, in accordance with the temperature.

Every soldier should be strongly impressed with the danger of *exposing the head, uncovered*, to the direct rays of the sun. *A light, cool, and comfortable cap*, which at the same time *allows of evaporation* from the surface of the head and shades the eyes, temples, and back of the neck, should be provided.

The men should be instructed never to throw this off, under any circumstances; and they should be told, on the first symptoms of giddiness, flushing of the face, fulness of blood in the head, or dimness of vision, to pour cold water over the head, and to keep it wet (with the cap on) for some hours. *Strict adherence to these instructions would prevent the large majority of cases of coup de soleil.*

No soldier should be allowed to remain in wet clothes longer than can be avoided. While in exercise no danger results; but, from lying down in damp clothes, fever, dysentery, or disease of the liver inevitably ensue.

When in tents, the *kanats*† on the shady side should be thrown down, and the air be allowed to circulate freely. At night, unless the weather is very cold, the *kanats* on two sides of every tent should be removed. Protection from dew and rain is all that is required. More harm is caused by the respiration of contaminated, close, and impure air than is ever brought about by exposure to the night wind.

Dry straw, grass, *karbi* (the stalk of *joadr*, a kind of Indian corn), or any of the stalks used in thatching, make excellent bedding, when covered with blankets.

#### BATHING.

The urgent necessity of keeping the pores of the skin open in a hot climate is

\* By James Harrison, M.D., Surgeon, Hon. Company's Service.

† *Kanats*, walls of a tent.

only recognized by officers in reference to themselves ; its paramount importance is not impressed upon the men. Soldiers should be made to bathe at least three times a week in cold water. This operation should always be performed upon an empty stomach, and the morning before breakfast is the best time.

It is not safe to bathe when the body is much heated, if, at the same time, it is fatigued. Hence, on the march, the evening, about four hours after dinner, would be an appropriate time.

The skin should be thoroughly dried and rubbed.

Water can generally be procured from some stream or tank ; if these are not convenient, the wells will always furnish abundance.

#### Food.

Experience proves that the same amount of animal food is not required in a hot climate to preserve health and strength as in a cold one. A large amount of animal food, instead of giving strength, heats the blood, renders the system feverish, and consequently weakens the whole body.

The Rájputs of Rájputána, and the Sikhs of the Panjáb, are physically as strong as Europeans, and they are capable of enduring more fatigue, and withstanding better the vicissitudes of the climate of India. This is due, partly to race, but chiefly to the nature of their food, of which the staple is wheaten flour, made into *chapátis*. They eat but twice a day ; and, although they partake of animal food, they do so in very much less proportion than is the habit in Europe.

Hermetically sealed, preserved, or salted provisions are noxious, if partaken of for a prolonged period, or to the exclusion of fresh food.

Bread, when tolerably well made, is, of course, one of the best articles of diet. Biscuits are not so digestible, but they have the advantage of being easily carried, and of being always ready. In the absence of these, flour (*áfa*) can always be procured, and *chapátis* (a thin unleavened cake) are easily made, are highly nutritious, and are perfectly digestible when eaten fresh and hot. When cold and tough they are unwholesome. *Chapátis* can be baked in any quantity on iron plates made for the purpose, and every European should learn (which he can easily do from any native) how to knead and prepare them. Flour can be got from every village, and with it no European detachment need ever be without "the staff of life."

Rice and *dál* (pulse or vetches, especially when split), can also be had anywhere. These, boiled separately, and afterwards mixed together, make, with the addition of salt and pepper, a wholesome and nutritious food, well suited for breakfast.

Beef is the meat usually furnished to regiments. The lean commissariat kind do not promise much, but it is difficult to procure other meat in sufficient quantity. Slow boiling for two hours will make any meat tender, and the water in which it is boiled makes excellent soup. The addition of whatever vegetables are to be had, of a few slices of salted pork or bacon, two or three handfuls of flour, some onions, and salt, and pepper, makes a savoury mess. Rice, boiled in a separate vessel, and afterwards mixed up with the soup, meat, etc., adds to the quantity and quality of the meal, which is wholesome, nutritious, and palatable.

Mutton and fowls may occasionally be had as a change ; and, in the neighbourhood of large rivers, fish makes a useful variety, and can usually be had in abundance.

Milk is an invaluable article of diet, and should be largely supplied to soldiers.

Vegetables are essential to the preservation of health. Opportunities for procuring them in quantity present themselves much oftener on the line of march than is generally supposed.

In cold weather inquiry will prove that in the neighbourhood of nearly every halting place there are fields of carrots, turnips, onions, and of many native vegetables, such as *baigan* (*solanum melogena*), *ság* (greens), etc.

Fruit, when sound and ripe, is beneficial instead of hurtful. Unripe or over-ripe fruit will produce disease. The water-melon and guava are, however, indigestible. The oranges, strawberries, custard-apples, loquat, musk-melons, pineapples, grapes, and lichis can be partaken of with advantage.

#### STIMULANTS.

The same amount of spirit undiluted is much more injurious than when mixed with water.

Great attention should be paid to the time of serving out the drams. They should never be given on an empty stomach, when the system is heated, or when exposed to the sun. To give men raw spirit early in the morning, before any food is taken, is the surest way to lay the foundation of disease. After a meal, with some hours of rest in the shade in prospect, is the best period.

Officers on coming to India for the first time find themselves surrounded by entirely new influences. The diseases of the country are formidable and rapid in their progress, and inspire in many cases a vague terror, which prevents the due exercise of the reasoning powers. The climate is found to be exhausting and debilitating; exposure to the sun is understood to be dangerous; and there are many other circumstances which combine to depress the mind and body, and to pre-dispose to the belief that some extraordinary course must be pursued to ward off any evil consequence.

Recourse is had in too many cases to stimulants; brandy is taken in large quantities to prevent the approach of sickness; exercise and the ordinary methods adopted in other countries to keep the frame sound and vigorous are neglected. Many become the victims of their own imprudence and rashness, and their premature death is erroneously ascribed to the effect of the Indian climate.

With ordinary precaution and attention to the common laws of hygiene Europeans may live as long and preserve their health as well in India as in Britain.

The neglect of these precautions rapidly produces fatal results. The mortality from disease far exceeds that caused by the enemy, and it behoves every officer to study carefully the means of preventing sickness.

#### OUTFIT AND EXPENSES.

As there are very good tailors in India at the chief towns, the traveller need not burthen himself with an over large supply of articles of dress. A few hints on matters which may appear trifling but are nevertheless important as regards comfort, may be here given. Instead of buttons, studs and wrist-links should be used. The *dhobis*, or Indian washermen, clean the clothes by beating them on stones in the river. By this process, buttons are inevitably smashed, and tear the clothes at the same time. The buckles of braces should be of silver, as steel rusts. White and black *silk gloves* are the best for India, as leather is too hot. Ladies' gloves should all be tried on previous to starting, so as to take the form of the hand, otherwise they shrink, and are not serviceable. A good English jockey cap is indispensable for a gentleman; and neither ladies nor gentlemen should fail to take with them a veil or two for crossing the desert, and as a protection against the sand storms in Sindh and elsewhere. A pair of spectacles, with a few extra glasses of neutral tint, will save the eyes. Antimony applied to the eye with the common Indian *saliá*, or anointing needle, is an admirable preservative for weak eyes.

The following tables will show all that is required as to outfit:

*Estimate of Outfits for the East India Company's Service (Overland).*

UNIFORM AND APPOINTMENTS.	Artillery.		Engineers.		Infantry.		Assistant Surgeon.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
Full Dress Tunic .....	8	8 0	8	8 0	9	9 0	9	9 0
"    Busby and Plume.....	7	7 0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
"    Cocked Hat and Plume..	.....	.....	5	5 0	.....	.....	4	12 6
"    Chaco, complete .....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	4 0	.....	.....
"    Trowsers .....	5	5 0	5	5 0	2	5 0	2	5 0
"    Sword Knot .....	0	18 6	0	18 6	0	18 6	0	18 6
"    Sword Belt .....	5	5 0	5	5 0	2	15 0	2	15 0
"    Pouch Belt and Pouch...	8	8 0	5	15 6	.....	.....	.....	.....
"    Shoulder Sash .....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	10 0	.....	.....
"    Sword .....	4	4 0	6	6 0	4	4 0	4	4 0
"    Spurs .....	0	18 6	.....	.....	0	18 6	0	18 6
Undress Frock Coat .....	8	8 0	9	9 0	5	15 6	5	15 6
"    Jacket .....	6	6 0	6	6 0	4	4 0	4	4 0
"    Forage Cap.....	1	16 0	1	16 0	1	8 0	1	8 0
"    Trowsers .....	2	8 0	2	8 0	2	5 0	2	5 0
"    Sword Belt .....	2	2 0	.....	.....	2	10 0	2	10 0
"    Pouch, Belt and Sword } Belt, and Sketching Case.. }	2	15 0	5	5 0	.....	.....	.....	.....
"    Sword Knot .....	0	5 6	.....	.....	0	5 6	0	5 6
"    Great Coat Cloak .....	7	7 0	7	7 0	6	6 0	6	0 0
	72	1 6	69	14 0	50	18 0	47	10 6

	CAVALRY.					
	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.			
	Full Dress Jacket .....	26	5 0	28	0 0	30
"    Trowsers .....	5	15 6	5	15 6	5	15 6
"    Busby and Plume .....	11	11 0	.....	.....	.....	.....
"    Chaco and Plume .....	.....	.....	14	14 0	.....	.....
"    Helmet and Plume .....	.....	.....	.....	.....	16	16 0
"    Barreled Sash .....	7	7 0	8	8 0	8	8 0
"    Sword Belt, Sabretashe and } Belt, Silver Pouch Belt..... }	28	10 0	28	10 0	28	10 0
"    Sabre .....	4	4 0	4	4 0	4	4 0
"    Sword Knot .....	1	5 0	1	1 0	1	10 0
"    Spurs .....	0	15 6	0	18 6	0	18 6
Undress Jacket .....	7	7 0	7	7 0	7	7 0
"    Cord for ditto .....	0	10 6	1	5 0	1	10 0
"    Trowsers .....	2	12 6	2	12 6	2	12 6
"    Frock Coat .....	10	10 0	.....	.....	.....	.....
"    Mess Waistcoat .....	5	15 6	6	16 6	.....	.....
"    Belts .....	4	14 6	14	14 0	5	5 0
"    Sabre .....	4	4 0	4	4 0	4	4 0
"    Sword Knot.....	0	5 6	0	15 6	0	5 6
"    Forage Cap .....	2	12 6	2	12 6	2	12 6
"    Spurs .....	0	15 6	0	15 6	0	15 6
	125	0 6	132	13 6	120	14 0

*Personal Clothing for all Officers, Civilians, and Travellers.*

	£	s.	d.	
12 Long Cloth Shirts, Linen fronts, etc., at 6s. ....	3	12	0	
24 " " Calico fronts, etc., at 4s. ....	4	16	0	
12 Linen Shirt Collars, at 10d. ....	0	10	0	
6 Elastic Gauze Waistcoats, at 6s. 6d. ....	1	19	0	
12 Pairs Cotton Long Drawers, at 3s. 6d. ....	2	2	0	
24 White Cambric Pocket Handkerchiefs, at 1s. ....	1	4	0	
1 Black Silk Stock, long ends ....	0	6	6	
36 Pairs Brown Cotton half Hose, at 1s. ....	1	16	0	
2 " " Dogskin Gloves, at 2s. ....	0	4	0	
2 " " Elastic Cotton Braces, at 1s. 6d. ....	0	3	0	
12 Huckaback Towels, at 10d. ....	0	10	0	
1 Voyage Suit of Tweed ....	3	10	0	
1 " " Cap ....	0	7	6	
1 Sponge and Bag ....	0	5	6	
1 Foul Clothes' Bag ....	0	6	6	
1 Brush Case, containing Clothes, Hat, and Shoe Brush ....	0	18	0	
2 Hair Brushes, at 4s. ....	0	8	0	
1 Dressing Comb ....	0	1	6	
3 Tooth Brushes, at 9d. ....	0	2	3	
2 Overland Trunks, at 36s. ....	3	12	0	
1 Pair Boots, with box heels. ....	1	14	0	
1 " " dress. ....	1	10	0	
2 " " Walking Shoes, at 18s. ....	1	16	0	
6 " " Drill Trowsers, at 18s. ....	5	8	0	
6 White Jean Jackets, at 15s. ....	4	10	0	
6 " " Waistcoats, at 10s. ....	3	0	0	
3 Pairs Military Gloves, at 4s. 6d. ....	0	13	6	
3 Military Stocks, at 4s. 6d. ....	0	13	6	
	£	45	18	9
<i>Saddlery —</i>				
1 case of Saddlery, complete ....	8	8	6	
	£	54	7	3

*Outfit—Indian Navy (Overland).*

UNIFORM AND APPOINTMENTS.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	
Full Dress Uniform Coat. ....	5	5	0	Undress Uniform Mercella				
" " Trowsers ....	1	16	0	Waistcoat ....	0	16	0	
" " Cocked Hat. ....	2	18	0	" " Sword ....	3	3	0	
" " Belt. ....	1	5	0	" " Sword Knot. ....	0	15	6	
Undress Uniform Cap ....	1	10	0	" " Jacket ....	2	10	0	
" " Trowsers. ....	1	14	0					
" " Cashmere Waistcoat 18 0	18	0	0					
					£	22	10	6

Personal Clothing the same as for the Military.

*Civilian's Outfit (Overland).*

Cloth Clothing the same as worn in England, but of lighter material (ladies' cloth).

Personal Clothing the same as for the Military.





*Cabin Furniture—continued.*

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Mahogany Bullock Drawers, in two parts .....	5	0	0	5	12	0	5	18	0
Book Case or Shelves .....	1	6	0	2	10	0	3	5	0
Wash-hand Stand to form Table.....	1	14	0	2	2	0	3	8	0
Table .....	0	14	0	1	4	0	1	6	0
Folding Cabin Chair.....	0	8	0	0	8	6	0	9	6
Ditto with arms .....	0	12	6	0	15	0	0	18	0
Lounging Chair.....	1	15	0	and upwards.					
Swinging Tray .....	0	6	6	0	7	6			
Looking Glass with Slide.....	0	6	6	0	7	6	0	12	0
Cabin Lamp .....	0	12	0	0	14	0	0	16	0
Candlestick and Snuffers .....	0	2	6	0	3	6	0	4	6
lbs. Wax or Composition Candles .....	0	1	8	and upwards.					
Foot Bath .....	0	6	6	0	7	6	0	12	6
Water Can.....	0	3	6	0	4	6	0	6	6
Floor Cloth, Matting, or Carpet for Cabin.....	All prices.								
Hand Brush, Dust Pan, Mop, etc. ....	0	4	6						
Filtering Machine.....	1	0	0	1	3	0	1	6	0
Bag with Hammer, Nails, Cleats, Cords, etc....	0	7	6						

## LIBRARY FOR INDIAN TRAVELLERS.

The following is a list of Books which may be perused by the traveller previous to starting. Those in *Italics* are less requisite, or only of local interest:—

## HISTORY.

- Elphinstone's History of India, 1 vol., 1867.  
 Lord Mahon's British India, 1 vol.  
 Mill's History of India, with continuation by H. H. Wilson, 9 vols., 1848.  
 Kaye's Administration of the East India Company, 1 vol.  
*Thornton's British Empire in India*, 5 vols.  
*Dow's History of Hindústán*, 3 vols.  
*Murray's History of British India*.  
*Briggs' Mahomedan Power in India*, 4 vols.  
*Shore's Notes on Indian Affairs*.  
*Taylor's Popular History of British India*.  
*Malcolm's Political History of India*.  
*Prinsep's Transactions in India from 1813–18*.  
*Hough's Political and Military Events in India*.  
*Speir's Life in Ancient India*.  
*Martineau's British Rule in India*.  
*Macfarlane's Our Indian Empire*.  
*Ludlow's India and its Races*.  
*Campbell's India*.

## BENGAL.

Stewart's History of Bengal.

## MADRAS.

Orme's Hindústán.  
 Wilks' History of Maisúr (Mysore).

## BOMBAY.

Grant Duff's History of the Maráthas.

## THE PANJÁB.

Cunningham's History of the Sikhs.  
 Smyth's Reigning Family of Láhúr (Lahore).

## SINDH.

- Postans' Sindh, and *Tuhfatul Kirám, Bengal As. Trans.*, vol. xviii., 1848.  
Burton's Sindh and the Races that inhabit the Valley of the Indus. 1851.

## RÁJPUTÁNA.

- Tod's Rájásthán.

## GUJARÁT.

- Bird's Analysis of the Mirdt-i Ahmadi*  
Forbes' Rás Málá.

## CENTRAL INDIA.

- Malcolm's Memoir of Central India in 1824, 2 vols.

## NÍPÁL.

- Oliphant's Visit to Nípál.

## ORISSA.

- Stirling's History of the Rájás of Orissa.

## BIOGRAPHIES AND LETTERS.

- Malcolm's Memoirs of Lord Clive, 3 vols.  
Macaulay's Essay on the Life of Clive.  
The Wellesley Despatches and Despatches of the Duke of Wellington,  
vols. 1, 2, 3 (Gurwood); and Supplementary Despatches, vol. 1.  
Gleig's Life of Lord Clive.  
" Sir T. Munro.  
" Life of Metcalfe.  
" of Tucker.  
" of Malcolm.  
Life of Sir C. Napier.

## TRAVELS AND MISCELLANEOUS.

- Hakluyt, vols. 2 and 5.  
Purchas' Pilgrims, vol. 1, books 4 and 5.  
Fryer's Account of India.  
Forbes' Oriental Memoirs.  
Foster's Journey from Bengal to England.  
Buchanan's Travels through Maisúr and Kanáda.  
Tod's Travels in Western India.  
Heber's Journal.  
Fitzclarence's Journey from India to England.  
Lord Valentia's Travels.  
Jacquemont's Voyage aux Indes.  
Graul's Indische Reise, 5 vols.  
Bacon's First Impressions.  
Baron Hugel's Travels in Kashmir and the Panjáb.  
Fraser's Tour in the Himálayas.  
Vigne's Travels in Kashmir.  
Sleeman's Rambles and Recollections.  
Burton's Unhappy Valley.  
" Goa and the Blue Mountains.  
Burnes' Visit to the Court of Sindh.  
Mrs. Postans' Kachh (Cutch).  
" Western India.  
Hervey's Ten Years in India.  
Dry Leaves from Young Egypt.  
Davidson's Trade and Travel in the Far East.  
Von Orlich's Travels.  
Welsh's Military Reminiscences.  
Taylor's Memoirs of a Thug.

Rice's Tiger Shooting in India.  
 Smoult's Edition of Baikie's Nilgiris.  
 Lawrence's Thákurine and Life of an Adventurer.  
 Bradshaw's Overland Guide to India.  
 Autobiography of Lutfullah.  
 Fane's Five Years in India.  
 Thornton's Gazetteer.  
 Letters from Madras.  
 Capper's Three Presidencies of India.  
 Crauford's Dictionary of the Eastern Archipelago.  
 The Kánún-i Islám, being an account of all Muḥammadan Customs, etc.  
 Royle's Productive Resources of India.  
 Cotton's Public Works in India.  
 Emma Roberts' Scenes and Characteristics of Hinddístán.

## OVERLAND JOURNEY.

For the general rules of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Company, reference must be made to their Hand-book. The following are their lines of communication, the length of passage, rates of passage money, and baggage regulations. The expense of transit through Egypt is included in the routes, with the exception of hotel expenses, and of extra baggage, wines, spirits, beer, and soda water, all of which the Egyptian Transit Administration charges for separately. Servants of the Company soliciting fees are liable to dismissal. Bedding, linen, and requisite furniture are provided in the steamers, together with the attendance of experienced male and female servants.

*The Lines of Steam Communication embraced by the Company's operations are as follows, viz. :—*

PLACES.	Date and Hour of Departure from Southampton.
VIGO .....	7th, 17th, and 27th of every month, at 1 p.m. N.B.— <i>When these dates fall on Sundays, the Steamers start on the following day (Monday) at 1 p.m.</i>
OFF OPORTO .....	
LISBON .....	
CADIZ .....	
GIBRALTAR .....	
MEDITERRANEAN AND PENINSULA.	
MALTA .....	4th and 20th of every month, at 1 p.m. <i>When the 4th or 20th falls on a Sunday the Steamer leaves at 9 a.m.</i>
ALEXANDRIA .....	
BOMBAY .....	4th and 19th at 7 a.m. from Marseilles.
MAURITIUS .....	4th at 3 p.m.
—————	
INDIA.	
ADEN .....	4th and 20th of every month, at 1 p.m. <i>When the 4th or 20th falls on a Sunday the Steamer leaves at 9 a.m.</i>
CEYLON .....	
MADRAS .....	
CALCUTTA .....	
PENANG .....	
SINGAPORE .....	
HONG KONG .....	
SHANGHAI .....	
MANILLA .....	

The following table shows the length of Passage, under ordinary circumstances, between Southampton and the several Ports *outwards*; also, the usual dates of arrival at, and departure from, each Port in the course of the Voyage, and the average stay at each place.

OUTWARDS (FROM ENGLAND).						
FROM	No. of days from Southampton, &c.	TO	Date of Arrival.	Average stay.	Date of Departure	NOTES.
<b>PENINSULAR LINE.</b>						
Southampton	3	Vigo .....	10, 20, 30	3 hrs.	7, 17, 27	When the day of sailing from Southampton falls on a Sunday, the Steamers leave on the following day, at 1 p.m.
"	4	(Of) Oporto..	11, 21, 31	1 "	11, 21, 31	
"	5	Lisbon .....	12, 22, 1	12 "	13, 23, 2	
"	7	Cadiz .....	14, 24, 3	3 "	14, 24, 3	
"	8	Gibraltar .....	15, 25, 4	.....	.....	
<b>SOUTHAMPTON TO ALEXANDRIA, AND SUEZ TO CALCUTTA LINE.</b>						
Southampton	5	Gibraltar .....	9, 25	12 hrs.	4, 20	When the 4th or 20th falls on a Sunday, the Steamer leaves at 9 a.m.
"	10	Malta .....	14, 30	24 "	9, 25	
"	13	Alexandria ...	17, 2	8 "	14, 30	
		(60 hours from Alexandria to Suez.)				
Suez	6	Aden .....	25, 10	24 hrs.	19, 4	
"	17	Galle, Ceylon	5, 21	12 "	26, 11	
"	21	Madras .....	9, 25	12 "	5, 21	
"	25	Calcutta .....	13, 29	.....	9, 25	
<b>MARSEILLES AND ALEXANDRIA LINE.</b>						
Marseilles					4, 11, 19, 27	
"	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	Malta .....	7, 14, 22, 30	12 hrs.	7, 14, 22, 30	
"	6	Alexandria ...	10, 17, 25, 2	.....	.....	
<b>SUEZ AND BOMBAY LINE.</b>						
Suez					12, 27	
"	7	Aden .....	18, 2	24 hrs.	19, 3	
"	15	Bombay .....	2, 19	.....	27, 11	
<b>ADEN AND MAURITIUS LINE.</b>						
Aden					25	Messrs. Menar and Co's Steamers leave about this date with Mails and passengers for Mauritius.
<b>BOMBAY AND CHINA LINE.</b>						
Bombay					31, 16	
"	4	Galle, Ceylon	4, 20	24 hrs.	5, 21	
"	11	Penang .....	11, 27	12 "	11, 27	
"	13	Singapore .....	13, 29	24 "	14, 30	
"	24	Hong Kong...	24, 9	.....	.....	
<b>HONG KONG AND SHANGHAI LINE.</b>						
Hong Kong					26, 11	
"	5	Shanghai .....	31, 16	.....	.....	

The following table shows the length of Passage, under ordinary circumstances, between the several Ports *homewards*; also, the usual dates of arrival at, and departure from, each Port in the course of the Voyage, and the average stay at each place.

HOMEWARDS (TO ENGLAND).						
FROM	No. of days Passage.	TO	Date of Arrival.	Average stay.	Date of Departure	NOTES.
<b>PENINSULAR LINE.</b>						
Gibraltar					5, 15, 25	When the days of sailing from Gibraltar fall on a Sunday, the Steamer starts the previous evening.
"	1	Cadiz	7, 17, 27	3 hrs.	7, 17, 27	
"	3	Lisbon	8, 18, 28	48 "	9, 19, 29	
"	4	(Off) Oporto	9, 19, 29	1 "	9, 19, 29	
"	5	Vigo	10, 20, 30	3 "	10, 20, 30	
"	8	Southampton	13, 23, 3			
<b>CALCUTTA TO SUEZ, AND ALEXANDRIA TO SOUTHAMPTON LINES.</b>						
Calcutta					10, 24	In May, June, and July the Steamers leave Calcutta 3 days earlier.
"	3	Madras	27, 13	24 hrs.	13, 27	
"	7	Ceylon, Galle	31, 17	"	18, 1	
"	18	Aden	11, 28	"	28, 11	
"	24	Suez	19, 5			
		(60 hours from Suez to Alexandria.)				
Alexandria					6, 20	
"	3	Malta	10, 24	12 hrs.	10, 24	
"	8	Gibraltar	15, 29	12 "	15, 29	
"	13	Southampton	20, 3			
<b>ALEXANDRIA AND MARSEILLES LINE.</b>						
Alexandria	2½				11, 19, 26, 3	
"		Marseilles	27, 12			
<b>BOMBAY AND SUEZ LINE.</b>						
Bombay					9, 24	
"	9	Aden	18, 2	12 hrs.	18, 2	
"	15	Suez	24, 8			
<b>CHINA AND BOMBAY LINE.</b>						
Hong Kong					1, 15	The Steamers in May, June, July, and August, leave Hong Kong 3 days earlier.
"	6	Singapore	7, 21	48 hrs.	9, 23	
"	10	Penang	11, 25	12 "	11, 25	
"	16	Galle, Ceylon	17, 31	24 "	18, 1	
"	21	Bombay	22, 5			
<b>SHANGHAI AND HONG KONG LINE.</b>						
Shanghai					24, 7	
		Hong Kong	29, 12			

## BAGGAGE.

First-class passengers are allowed, in the Company's steamers only, on either side of the Isthmus, 3 cwt. of personal baggage free of freight, and children (above three years) and servants  $1\frac{1}{2}$  cwt. each.

A passenger taking a whole cabin will be entitled to take in the steamers, free of freight, one-half more baggage than the regulated allowance, and a married couple, paying for reserved accommodation, will be entitled to take 9 cwt.

The charge for conveyance of extra baggage, should there be room in the vessel, will be at the rate of £1 per cwt. between England and Malta, or Alexandria; £2 per cwt. between Suez and India; and £3 per cwt. between Suez, the Straits, and China.

Passengers for India and China will have to pay the Egyptian Transit Administration in Egypt 14s. per cwt. for conveyance of baggage through, should it exceed, for first-class passengers, 3 cwt. each, and children and servants  $1\frac{1}{2}$  cwt. each.

The Egyptian Transit Administration have given notice that they will not forward any package of baggage exceeding 80 lbs. weight, and measuring more than, length, 3 ft.; breadth, 1 ft. 3 in.; depth, 1 ft. 2 in., with the passengers to Suez. A departure from this regulation will cause a detention in Egypt, to such packages, of a fortnight.

All baggage intended for transit through Egypt should be packed in strong and well-secured packages, in order to avoid breakage or damage *en route*.

The Company cannot engage to take any excess of baggage over the regulated allowance, unless shipped at Southampton on the day before sailing, and freight paid thereon.

All baggage for the ports of the Mediterranean, India, and China, must be shipped not later than noon on the day previous to sailing, except carpet bags or hat boxes. All other baggage received on board on the day of sailing will be considered as extra baggage, and charged freight as such.

The insurance of baggage can be effected on very moderate terms.

Passengers embarking at Marseilles for Alexandria, India, and China, can have 3 cwt. of their baggage conveyed by the steamer from Southampton free of charge; all in excess will be charged.

Passengers outwards, proceeding *viâ* Trieste, and joining the steamers of the Peninsular and Oriental Company at Suez, and passengers homewards who have been conveyed to Suez in the Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamers, can ship their baggage by the Company's vessels from Southampton to Alexandria, and *vice versa*, subject to the following charge, payable in advance:—

For the regulated allowance of 3 cwt., 10s. per cwt.	} Exclusive of the charge for transport made by the Transit Administration of Egypt.
For any excess over 3 cwt., 20s. per cwt.	

N.B.—The baggage of passengers proceeding *viâ* Trieste must be shipped at Southampton so as to ensure its arrival at Alexandria a fortnight in advance of the passengers to whom it may belong. Non-compliance with this regulation is likely to involve loss or detention of the baggage in Egypt.

Passengers taking parcels or articles of merchandize in their baggage will

incur the risk of seizure by the Customs' authorities, and of detention for freight by the Company's agents.

Every package of baggage should have the owner's name and place of destination distinctly painted upon it.

Baggage can be occasionally had up from the baggage-room during the passage by application to the officer in charge.

No trunks or boxes allowed in the Saloon or Cabins.

#### INDIA, ETC.

Passengers leaving Southampton by the Company's steamers on the 4th and 20th of the month, for Aden, Ceylon, Madras, Calcutta, Penang, Singapore, Hong Kong, Shanghai, or Manilla, arrive at Gibraltar about the 9th and 25th of the month, and after staying there, say twelve hours, proceed to Malta, at which port they remain about the same time; they then leave for Alexandria, arriving there, under ordinary circumstances, in about 13 days from Southampton.

At Suez, passengers embark, by steam tender, on board one of the Company's steamers, which sail about the 19th and 4th of the month, arriving at Aden about the 25th and 10th, at Point de Galle, Ceylon, about the 5th and 21st (passengers for the Straits and China are here transferred into one of the steamers on the Bombay and China line), Madras about the 9th and 25th, and finally at Calcutta about the 13th and 29th of the following month.

#### TRANSIT THROUGH EGYPT.

Passengers are conveyed through Egypt by the Transit Administration of his Highness the Pacha.

The mode of transit is as follows:—

From Alexandria to Cairo by rail .....	7 hours.
Time for refreshments at Cairo.....	3 "
From Cairo to No. 12 station, per rail .....	4 "
Time for refreshments at No. 12 station.....	2 "
No. 12 station to Suez in vans.....	4 "
Total.....	20 "

The following are extracts from the tariff of the Transit Administration:—

"Passengers are furnished with three meals per diem, during the time they are *en route*, free of charge; but their expenses at hotels must be defrayed by them selves, as also wines, beer, etc., during their entire transit.

"The portmanteaux, trunks, carpet bags, etc., of the passengers, must bear the name and destination of the owners; such inscription to be legible and well secured.

"On the arrival of each steamer, the officer of the Administration will attend to receive the luggage of passengers.

"The Administration will not be responsible for any loss or damage of unsuitable or insecure luggage, nor for unavoidable detention."

Packages containing jewellery, plate, or other valuables, must be specially booked, and freight and transit duty paid thereon.

Packages containing parcels of specie or merchandise are liable to seizure and confiscation, and to detention for freight by the agents of the Company.

*Rates of Passage Money, including the Expenses of the Transit through Egypt.*

FROM ENGLAND TO	Aden.	Bombay.	Ceylon.	Madras.	Calcutta or Penang.	Singapore.	Hong Kong.	Shanghai.
GENTLEMEN OR LADIES TRAVELLING SINGLY.	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Gentlemen occupying a Berth in a Cabin, with two or three others, on the Lower Deck.	70	95	95	100	105	110	130	150
Ladies, if booked sufficiently early, a Berth in a Cabin, with two or three others, on the Upper Deck.								
MARRIED COUPLES, occupying a Reserved Cabin on the Main Deck ...	200	240	240	250	270	290	335	375
CHILDREN WITH THE PARENT—3 years and under 10.....	35	45	45	50	50	55	60	70
A CHILD under 3 years (no Berth provided)*.....	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.
SERVANTS—European } In Fore Cabin.	35	45	45	50	50	55	60	70
“ Native ... }	20	25	25	30	30	40	45	50

\* Except £5 transit expenses through Egypt, if above 2 years.

**MARSEILLES TO MALTA AND ALEXANDRIA.**

The Company's steamers, Vectis, Valetta, or Euxine, leave Marseilles for Malta on the 4th, 11th, 19th, and 27th of the month, at 7 a.m., with her Majesty's mails. Passengers must be at Marseilles the afternoon of the day previous to sailing.

	First Class.	Second Class.	Servants.
Fare to Malta.....	£ 8	£ 5	£ 4
Fare to Alexandria .....	18	10	9

A child, under three years, if with the parent, free. Above three, and under ten years, half fare.

Passengers proceeding through France, and joining the Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamers at Marseilles, will please take note that, to save themselves trouble and annoyance, it will be necessary to send their passports, as soon after their arrival at Marseilles as possible, to Messrs. R. Gower and Co., the agents to the Peninsular and Oriental Company at that port, as it is requisite they should be noted at the Police and Marine Offices before the departure of the steamers.

The journey across France to Marseilles, and then by a steamer to Alexandria, is undoubtedly the quickest way of reaching Egypt. The greater number of travellers, however, prefer proceeding by steamer from Southampton direct to Alexandria, because this saves much fatigue, shifting of luggage, and also some expenses.

**WHAT TO OBSERVE ON THE OVERLAND JOURNEY.**

The vessel, in general, approaches tolerably near to Cape Finis-terre. The outlines of the landscape are bold, varied and beautiful; but a heavy swell, which commonly rolls in, is apt to interfere with the voyager's contemplations.



From this, on running down the coast of Portugal, the steamer on most occasions keeps close in-shore, so that the land is for the most part visible. The first places of note that present themselves are Oporto and Vigo Bay. The appearance of the mainland is exceedingly picturesque. The coast is rocky and precipitous, jagged and irregular. There are lighthouses on certain small islands, and on more than one of the headlands; and white-walled dwellings and villages gleam out from the blue line of coast.

*Torres Vedras.*—The heights of Torres Vedras, close on shore, present nothing to the eye that is marvellous or attractive, though rich in the most striking historical associations. The magnificent pile at Mafra is generally distinctly visible without the aid of a telescope. It is of enormous extent, containing a palace, convent, and superb church. The lines of Byron here recur to remembrance:—

“The horrid crags, by toppling convent crowned,  
The cork-trees hoar that clothe the shaggy steep,  
The mountain-moss by scorching skies embrowned,  
The sunken glen, whose sunless shrubs must weep,  
The tender azure of the unruffled deep,  
The orange tints that gild the greenest bough,  
The torrents that from cliff to valley leap,  
The vine on high, the willow branch below,  
Mixed in one mighty scene, with varied beauty glow.”

The ridge, on the highest pinnacle of which the convent of our Lady of the Rock is situated, is wild, rugged, and precipitous, ascending to an elevation of about 2500 ft. A low cliff skirts the seashore, and singular masses, apparently of drift sand, make their appearance, stretching along and inland for some miles.

A very picturesque appearance is often presented by the fishing boats when the breeze is fresh. They have a drag-net attached to the extreme end of a long outrigger, stretching some thirty or forty feet beyond the vessel, and hundreds of sea-birds follow the net, with the view, apparently, of picking up any stray fish they can extract from it.

*Lisbon.*—The Rock of Lisbon, a huge, unshapely, but striking mass, indicates the approach to the Tagus. The river opens up magnificently from the sea. The spires and lofty buildings of Lisbon are distinctly seen, with the vessels at anchor off the quay. Cape Espartel, a remarkable headland, with a lighthouse upon its extremity, becomes visible a little to the south of the debouchure of the Tagus. The cliff is obliquely stratified, and marked like those of Alum Bay, Isle of Wight. The land now recedes, and is in a considerable measure lost sight of, till, rounding close in upon Cape St. Vincent, the scene of the celebrated engagement in 1797, the Bay of Cadiz is entered. In crossing this bay, land is no longer in sight for a time. It becomes visible again off Cape Trafalgar.

*Gibraltar.*—The next place of importance reached by the steamer is Gibraltar, where the vessel quits the Atlantic Ocean, and enters the Mediterranean. The rock of Gibraltar first comes into view about ten miles off. As the bay is approached, the suddenness of the change in the colour of the water, from bright deep blue to green, as the soundings decrease at once from 24 to 16 fathoms, strikes the voyager. The transition is instantaneous, without any intermediate hue or shading. Rounding the Point Carnero, and breasting Europa Point, you find yourself at once within a beautiful sheltered and spacious recess, some six miles across and ten in depth, with British men-of-war, steamers, and merchant ships of every nation at anchor. The appearance of the rock at Gibraltar, with respect to its known military strength, generally disappoints the stranger. The most formidable of the batteries are either concealed in mysterious galleries in the bosom of the rock itself, half-way up, or lie so close on the line of the sea, as to be lost sight of amongst the hulls of the vessels around. The promontory consists of a vast rock, rising from 1200 to 1400 ft. above the sea; is about three miles in length, and from one-half to three-quarters of a mile in width, and is joined to the mainland by a low sandy isthmus, about a mile and a half in length. On the north side, fronting the isthmus, the rock is almost perpendicular, the east and south sides are also steep and rugged; but on the west side it slopes downward to a fine bay, nine miles long by four miles and a half broad. On this slope lies the town, containing a mixed population of 16,000, and above rise the principal ramparts of the rocky fortress, which is generally garrisoned by from 3,000 to 4,000 troops. The ordnance consists of more than 700 cannons fit for service.

Gibraltar derives its name from Táriq, the Moorish General, by whom it was taken from the Spaniards in 711—*Jabal'ut Táriq*, "the Mountain of Táriq." It remained in the hands of the Moors till the beginning of the fourteenth century, when it was recovered by the Spaniards. It was retaken by the Moors in 1333. In 1462 it finally fell into the hands of the Christians, after having been possessed by their adversaries for 748 years. On the 24th of July, 1704, it was captured by the English, who fell on it suddenly, and stormed it—the garrison amounting to no more than 150 men, the batteries mounting 100 guns. From this time till nearly the end of the century, numberless attempts to wrest it from us have been made by the French and Spaniards, but in vain. During the late war, it seemed to be considered idle to attempt to disturb us!

The town of Algeiras, a place of considerable importance, and remarkable as that at which the Moors first landed in Spain, lies across the bay at about  $5\frac{1}{2}$  miles off, while the village of St. Roque,

at the upper end of the bay, is conspicuous on the slope. The high blue mountains of Granada fill up the background.

The winter climate of Gibraltar is extremely delightful. In December, the temperature varies from 60° to 70°, clouds shading the piercing rays of the sun. In summer, it is occasionally extremely hot, especially when the wind blows from the African shore. The appearance presented by Gibraltar, viewed from the harbour, is peculiarly striking after nightfall. The numberless lights, seen in all their brightness through the open windows, look as if issuing from apertures admitting to some bright cave or furnace in the centre of the rock, whose huge black mass towers on high, the houses in the town being undistinguishable in the darkness. In summer, the surface of the sea is occasionally so closely covered with luminous particles, as to seem sheeted with phosphorus. The slightest ripple increases the intensity of the light, and the dolphins flash through the water, literally "moving in light of their own making." In winter, this in a great measure disappears, the luminosity being confined to a few bright masses which sweep by the ship.

The view of the African shore from Gibraltar Bay is, towards sunset, peculiarly beautiful—the fortress of Ceuta, standing out purple and red in the setting sun, in mimic rivalry of that on the European shore. One huge mass of mountains, of the Atlas group on the African side, with the Sierras of Andalusia on the Spanish shore, "fill the mind with beauty" for a long while on leaving or on approaching Gibraltar.

*Algiers.*—Steaming onward through the Mediterranean, the vessel steers direct for Malta, by which the African shore is neared. The bay and town of Algiers, with the villas around, are passed, and are plainly visible to the naked eye. The country adjoining is fertile and well cultivated, and roads, gardens, and enclosures, with fields and vineyards, are seen in good condition. Cape Faroe, and the promontory of the Seven Capes, are jagged, irregular headlands, very distinctly visible. Cape Bon is another headland which comes into sight. The dreary island of Pantellaria, which is evidently the huge tumulus of an extinct volcano, is next seen. It is about 36 miles in circumference, and seems about 3000 ft. in height. The ruptured craters and streams of lava are easily traceable, with beds of loose stones hurled down the mountain's side during some of its fiercer explosions. A large mass of cloud, which might readily be mistaken for the smoke of smouldering fires, almost constantly rests on the summit of the mountain. There is a considerable town, of the same name with the island, near the sea-shore on the western slope, and vineyards and gardens appear scattered about in surprising abundance. It belongs to the king of Sicily, and is used as a penal settlement, whither the Sicilian convicts are sent.

*Malta.*—The island of Malta, which now belongs to England, is 60 miles from the nearest point in Sicily, and 200 from the African shore. It is 70 miles in length, nine in width, and 160 in circumference. It attains in one place an elevation of 600 feet. The climate is fine and healthy, though hot in summer, and suffers occasionally from the sirocco, which blows from the south-east, and occurs chiefly in September. The mean annual temperature is 67°; the variation of the yearly means from 1820 to 1840 was no more than 3°; the extreme range during the year is about 24°.

Malta consists entirely of calcareous rocks, with scarcely any soil, diluvium, or abraded matter. The country has rather an arid appearance, but it produces grapes in abundance, and other fruits. At a distance, the view is rendered lively by the great number of windmills perched on the heights, and employed for grinding corn. The inhabitants speak a language partly Arabic and partly Italian, the former predominating.

The port of Malta consists of two splendid harbours, separated from each other by the narrow promontory called Mount Xiberras. On this stands the capital, Valetta. Marsamuscetta is the name given to the western or quarantine harbour; the other is called Valetta, or the Great Harbour. The entrance to this last is guarded on the one side by the fortress of St. Elmo, on the other by that of Ricasoli, both of remarkable strength. On Fort St. Elmo is one of the most brilliant lighthouses in the Mediterranean. The Great Harbour runs away into numerous creeks and inlets. In one of these are the dockyard, the victualling-yard, and arsenal, with a wet-dock just finished, which is said to have cost the government not much under a million sterling. In another is the merchant shipping wet-dock and store-yards. A number of British, American, and French ships of war are commonly at anchor in the port; one British line-of-battle ship, of the largest size, with the admiral's flag on board, being of the number. The vast variety of forms, and diversity of appointments, of the mercantile vessels, especially of those from the Levant, present a most picturesque appearance.

It is seldom the traveller to or from the East can find leisure to examine the whole of the noble sights in or around Malta. There are abundance of excellent 'guide-books,' of which a supply can at all times be procured from the admirable library of Mr. Muir, for those who have leisure and inclination for such things.

One of the principal objects of attraction is the cathedral of St. John, the patron of the order of the famed Knights of Malta. It was built in 1580. Externally, it is a heavy-looking pile. It has a fine chime of bells, supposed to have been brought from Rhodes, and its internal decorations are rich and beautiful. The floor is mosaic marble pavement, chiefly composed of sepulchral monuments

of the knights, whose figures are represented in white marble. The governor now resides in the palace of the Grand Master, a fine spacious building. The most striking object connected with it is the armoury. It contains 10,000 stand of modern infantry arms, fit for immediate use. The most attractive portions, however, of its contents are the arms and suits of armour of the Middle Ages: some of these are beautifully chased, and inlaid with gold. There is a singular piece of ordnance, an eight or ten pounder, made of a moderately strong tube of sheet-copper, covered over with coils of tarred rope. The gun is neatly formed, and, at first, the singular material of which it is made is not apparent. It seems to have been burst in firing. The library is said, at the time of the expulsion of the knights, to have contained 70,000 volumes. There are in the palace tables, slabs, vases, and ornaments of various kinds, cut from the marble of Valetta.

The fortifications of Malta are most extensive and intricate; they are connected with the harbours; and on looking at their powers of defence, the mind is impressed with the conviction that they are impregnable. Fort St. Elmo, the most massive of these works, contains accommodation for 2,000 men. Few things are more dazzling or trying for the eyes than the rocks and buildings around Malta harbour: they are of an intensely yellowish-white, without one particle of vegetation to relieve them. The waters of the harbour are singularly pure, so that the bottom is distinctly visible to the depth of 30 or 40 feet. The Parlettario is the favourite resort for quarantine-bound passengers. It is a long narrow room, near the anchorage, divided by a barrier, where the gold and silver filigree-work, for which Malta is famous, is sold. Here also are shell cameos, bracelets, and brooches in mosaic, and a vast variety of bijouterie. The Maltese females are celebrated for the skill and delicacy with which they embroider silks, as well as for the beauty of the knit silk gloves, etc., which they manufacture; and on these a good deal of money is usually expended in the Parlettario for the benefit of friends at home.

There is a tradition that, from the time of the visit of St. Paul, Malta has been devoid of serpents or other poisonous reptiles. Dr. Buist, from whom this account of the Overland Journey is taken, gives evidence of the baselessness of the tradition, having seen a snake killed by a soldier on duty close by his sentry-box. It was about three feet long, of a dingy brown, and had very much the hue and aspect of the common cobra. Close by the anchorage are several sentry stations, and the neat economical penthouse with which the soldier is protected from the sun is particularly suitable for India. It is a light wooden stand, not unlike a music stand in shape, with a moveable board, which can be fixed at any degree of angle, to shelter the sentinel from the sun.

*Egypt.*—The land around Alexandria is so low, that it does not come into sight till the harbour of Alexandria is quite close; but some time previously, are observed rising, as it were, out of the sea, the windmills, Pompey's Pillar, the Lighthouse, and Cleopatra's Needle, with several towers and minarets. From the town westward to the Lake Mareotis, for the space of nearly a mile, the sand hillocks by the shore are literally covered with windmills. The turrets are about 30 feet high, the length of the arms about 20 feet, breadth of sail three and a half feet. They have eight vanes each; and as they are set different ways, and so move in opposite directions in different mills, when tossing their arms in the wind, they look like sea-monsters sprawling about on the shore, and striving to regain their native element. They are all employed in grinding wheat; and though rugged and rude enough in appearance, are in reality simple and efficient implements. They employ a single pair of stones, made of vesicular lava from Sicily. They have no sifting or bolting apparatus: the ground wheat is received from the stones in a sack, and the flour afterwards dressed through a fine gauze sieve by the hand.

*Alexandria.*—On landing at Alexandria, the traveller feels that he is fairly out of Europe. He may have seen a stray and stunted palm-tree or two at Gibraltar or Malta, with here and there a Turk or Arab in his native dress: these last, indeed, may be met with in the streets of London. At Alexandria all the costumes are Oriental, European residents even dressing like Turks. Vast groves of magnificent date-trees, far surpassing in beauty those to be met with in Western India, stretch away in all directions. Long strings of camels are employed in carrying merchandise. The women are all veiled—covered over with that unsightly blue vestment which conceals the person and the face, leaving a pair of little holes for the eyes to peep through. Formerly, it was the custom for passengers from the steam-packets to place themselves on the backs of donkeys, in order to get through the streets. This is all changed now, and the traveller finds a large and roomy van ready for his conveyance to the hotel, without absurdity, romance, or inconvenience.

The great square of Alexandria, where most of the European inhabitants reside, has a singularly fine and pleasing appearance, though without any true architectural beauty. The houses are built of whitish limestone, like Bath stone, only here the walls remain pure as when erected—taking no tarnish from the weather. In the centre is an obelisk of the yellowish-white Cairo marble, which surmounts a fountain. The residences of the consuls around the square have each a flag-staff, on which on gala-days the ensigns of their respective nations are displayed. The house of the French consul has a strange-looking corkscrew staircase surrounding

it, and leading to a watch-tower which overlooks the town. Many of the sign-boards of the shopkeepers, especially the apothecaries, are painted with Greek characters. Here are situated the principal hotels, and hence diverge streets to all parts of the town.

Alexandria was originally built in the form of a Macedonian mantle, with its longer side to the sea. At one time it contained a population of above half a million, of which one moiety were slaves. It boasted of 4,000 palaces, 4,000 baths, 400 theatres or places of amusement, 12,000 shops for the sale of vegetables, and 40,000 tributary Jews. Its public libraries are said to have contained 700,000 volumes of books. It was accidentally destroyed by fire during the war with the Romans in Cæsar's time. Ages of misrule under Saracens, and latterly under Turks, fell like a blight on everything in Alexandria, as on everything else in Egypt; and not until the era of Mehemet Ali did the country show any symptom of revival. Since the beginning of the present century, the population of Alexandria has increased from 7,000 to 70,000. With its harbour and docks, it now possesses the appearance of a thriving port.

Vestiges of the ancient splendour of Alexandria are everywhere to be found. Fragments of richly-sculptured columns, of architraves, cornices, and other portions of architectural ornament, are to be seen strewed about in every quarter of the city—broken up for lime or for paving-stones, and built into the meanest houses. Huge shafts of granite are continually disclosed, half buried amongst the rubbish or the sand; and the mounds of ruins are in many cases one mass of porphyries, granites, verde-anticoes, and marbles, brought from Upper Egypt or the south of Europe. Mosaics, and pieces of ancient glass, are also abundant; the latter marked by that iridescent semi-metallic hue which indicates decay through extreme lapse of time.

The sights at Alexandria are *Pompey's Pillar*, *Cleopatra's Needles*, *the Catacombs*, *the Pasha's Palace*, *the battle-field where Abercromby fell*, *the Lake Marcotis*, of which a distant view usually satisfies the traveller; and *the Canal*. *Pompey's Pillar* stands on an eminence about 600 yards from the present walls of the town, close beside the road which leads from the Rosetta Gate to the Mahmoudyé Canal. The total height of the column is 98 feet. The shaft, which is a single block of red granite or syenite, is nine feet eight inches in diameter, and 73 in length. It is now proved to have been erected by Publius, the prefect of Egypt, in honour of the Emperor Dioclesian. It was probably removed from some other site to the place where it now stands, and is said to have been originally erected, and formed most likely a portion of some of the more ancient and noble relics of Egypt. *Cleopatra's Needles* are at the opposite extremity of the town; they

consist of two obelisks, one prostrate, and one erect, of the same material as the column. One is 70, the other 65 feet high, and about seven feet in diameter at the base. They stood originally at Heliopolis, and were brought to Alexandria by one of the Cæsars. Both are covered with hieroglyphics.

The *Lake of Marcotis* is one of the curiosities of the neighbourhood of Alexandria, and is situated a short way beyond the Rosetta Gate. This lake, which is about 150 miles in circumference, was originally freshwater; and being about five or six feet deep, it answered the purposes of navigation. In consequence of its connexion with the Nile being cut off, its waters were wholly dried up, or nearly so; and in this condition it was 80 or 90 years since. An entire change followed. It is divided from the sea by mounds of sand, blown up from the shore, and its bottom is several feet lower than the level of the Mediterranean. Thus exposed to the danger of submersion, it was resolved, during the siege of Alexandria, in 1788, to let in upon it the waters of the ocean. It was certain to produce a wide-spread calamity; but when did the demon war stop to consider results? Four cuts were made, each of six yards in width, and ten distant from each other. The waters rushed in with a fall of six feet. Two more cuts were finished next day, and the sea finally broke down the divisions. The sea flowed in for a week. The calamity was fearful. The sites of 300 villages were flooded, and rendered barren for ever. The bank was afterwards closed up again, and the communication with the sea cut off; but the basin of the lake being lower than the surface of the sea, and the Mediterranean here being without tide, there was no means of drawing off the salt water. It was by degrees in a great measure evaporated by the sun, leaving a vast expanse of once fertile surface covered with a dazzling snow-white sheet of salt. The Nile is admitted annually to it at flood, and the lake then re-appears, but the returning dry season only restores the condition previously existing. Nor does there appear to be any remedy for this, until the successive depositions of silt from the river accumulate sufficiently to raise the bottom of the lake to a level with the sea—an operation only to be effected through some vast and indefinite lapse of time. Till then, the salt must always mingle with the freshwater silt deposited every year. Could rice or any grain be grown on it, as in India, which flourishes even on saline grounds, the process of recovery would of course be greatly accelerated. The lake formerly communicated by a canal with the port of Old Alexandria.

*The Catacombs.*—In various masses of rock, composed of oolitic limestone, adjacent to the lake and near the town, are shown a number of curious catacombs, and other ancient works of art, including a variety of mosaics. South of the city are several



high mounds, likewise interesting from the relics of ancient art found imbedded in them. The bricks used for building in Alexandria are those excavated from the ruins of the ancient city; they are quarried in abundance in all directions. They are well-formed, and excellently burnt; and so perfectly cemented together, that it is often more difficult to break the hardened mortar than the material it unites. The potter's wheel at Alexandria is a singular one: it consists of a spindle about two feet long, turning in a socket some one and a half feet under the level of the floor, and a collar about three inches from the upper extremity. The circular disk on which the ware is thrown is of course above this last. The wheel is turned at the rate of about two revolutions a second, by a circular flange  $1\frac{1}{2}$  feet in diameter just above its lower insertion. The potter sits on the floor, his legs in a small pit below the wheel, shuffling with his feet on the flange just mentioned, and so making the wheel revolve. It is certainly a most awkward-looking implement. Yet the ware turned out is good, strong, well-shaped, and is afterwards thoroughly burned in kilns.

Admission to the *Pasha's Palace* may be procured by an order from the vakil, or steward. It is a neat, but plain and unpretending building. The view from it is beautiful. The rooms are handsome, and well-proportioned and arranged; and the floors, of inlaid brightly-polished wood, have a very pleasing effect.

Travellers for India usually hurry through Egypt, with the view of not losing the steamboat, which is ready for them at Suez. But those who have time and money to spare may occupy themselves very delightfully in spending a fortnight on the journey. The conveyance of travellers from Alexandria to Suez is effected by the Pasha, at an expense of £12. This charge includes everything save liquors and hotel bills of all kinds at Cairo, which fall on the passenger, and frequently amount to 15s. or £1. All charges of this class seem in Egypt extortionately high, and are indeed out of all proportion to tavern bills in Europe. But then it must be remembered that the whole establishments are permanently maintained for the sake of employment one day in seven; and that, unless when the passengers are on the way, the innkeepers are wholly idle. The whole distance from Alexandria to Cairo may now be performed by rail; but should the tourist wish to take things more leisurely, he may sail or steam up the canal. Having arranged matters at the Transit Office, the traveller will be duly informed of the hour when the vans quit the hotel, and should make the best of his time in the interval. The vans proceed to the place of embarkation, about two miles distant, on the Mahmoudyé Canal. The luggage is forwarded beforehand on camels, a carpet-bag being all that is allowed—it is all, indeed, that is requisite—for each individual to carry along with him.

The road to the canal leads through the great square already described, and on to the Rosetta Gate—an old ragged fragment of the fortifications of the town. And here the traveller finds that Alexandria is being fortified, after the manner of Paris, with walls, and bastions, and ditches, and all the other contrivances of military engineership. The works are being constructed on the recommendation of the French, and under the superintendence of French engineers. Passing onward, the road leads close to the elevation on which stands Pompey's Pillar. Not far to the left is the battlefield where Sir Ralph Abercromby fell.

*Atfèh.*—The Mahmoudyé Canal connects Alexandria with Atfèh, a navigable point on the Nile. This important public work was begun in 1819, and completed in little more than six months, having been opened on the 24th of January, 1820. It is 48 miles in length, 90 feet across, and about 18 feet in depth. For a long distance, the banks of the canal are ornamented on one side by neat villas, with most beautiful shrubberies and flower-gardens in front of them. The little kiosks, or summer-seats, consisting, in a circle, of benches shadowed by lofty trees, almost hang over the banks. The canal is nowhere straight, and passes along a country so perfectly level that locks are not required. One only exists at Atfèh. As many as 150,000 people are said to have been employed in the excavation of the canal: the inhabitants of all the villages in Lower Egypt were marched down to the stations respectively assigned to them, one month's pay having been advanced to enable them to supply themselves with provisions. The assemblage of so enormous a multitude, which would have formed a double line from end to end of the canal, had they stood as close as possible to each other, was sure to be productive of fatal results; and, accordingly, 20,000 perished on the occasion. Provisions ran short, many fell victims to starvation, and pestilence swept many more away. Two-thirds of them were without tools or clothing of any kind whatever, groping up the mud, and lifting it out with their hands.

The banks of the canal are sufficiently high to intercept the view of the adjoining country, so that, after passing the villas already alluded to, there is really nothing to be seen. A good sailing-boat traverses the distance in eight hours; one, tugged by horses, in ten. A small high-pressure steamer may be employed, which goes along at the rate of about five miles an hour. The boats containing the passengers and luggage are towed behind. In going up the Nile, several large works for assisting the irrigation of the country are passed.

One who has examined the magnificent specimens of grain now grown in England, is exceedingly disappointed on examining that for which Egypt, for thirty centuries, has been famous. The stalks

of the barley are seldom above 18 or 20 inches long; each root produces from 6 to 25 stems, 15 being about the average. There are six rows of grains on each stalk, each row containing at an average about ten grains, so that the return from the seed is from 600 to 900. The roots are from six to fourteen inches from each other; and an acre of land in Egypt will not yield so much grain, by measure or weight, as a similar surface in England—both under present cultivation. The barley itself, when rubbed out, would be little short of unsaleable in average seasons at home, so thin, husky, and poor is it. It is trampled out of the straw by oxen, and cleared of chaff by the wind. The straw is chopped or cut up into what is in India called *bhusá*, by an implement closely resembling a turnip-sowing harrow, drawn over it by oxen, each roller being armed with three or four circular cutters.

The crop which most surprises by its abundance is tobacco, vast fields of which extend in all directions. Nor is it to be wondered at that the cultivation of this narcotic should rival in extent that of grain, or roots, or fruits for human food. In Egypt, every man who can afford it smokes at every hour of the day. A singular variety of raft, consisting of a framework of slight sticks, buoyed up by a vast number of earthen pots, is frequently to be seen on the Nile. These rafts appear to be chiefly employed in carrying coarse earthenware down the river.

*First sight of the Pyramids.*—From the moment of arrival in Egypt, we feel that we are in a country possessing many relics of the past; but this feeling cannot be said to exist in perfect force till we approach Cairo, which is the threshold of all the great marvels of ancient art. Those who have not before sailed up the Nile, watch for the first appearance of the Pyramids. These become suddenly visible about 40 miles below Cairo. They are seen far across the desert breaking the western horizon, and seem at this enormous distance almost as large as when looked at from Cairo. Here the desert sand has fairly drifted over the fertile soil, and is blown in masses into the river. The banks of the Nile, indeed, show that this has been an event of frequent occurrence since silt began to accumulate, alternate beds of sand and mud being visible all down a section of 10 to 15 feet of bank. The sand, examined through a magnifier, is of a yellowish smoke-colour, sharp and angular, often of a regular cubical form. It looks like the quartz portions of disintegrated granite, which it probably is.

The banks of the Nile, which have been hitherto dull and uninteresting, become exceedingly striking on approaching Boulak, which is in the vicinity of Cairo. Long lines and groups of trees skirt the left bank of the river. Amongst some half-dozen of beautiful acacias, the magnificent golden flowers of the *acacia fistula*

stand conspicuous. The tree receives its name from the seed-pod being of the form and size of an ordinary fig: the flower is something like that of the laburnum, with each branch five or six times the size of those of the latter tree. Then come the gardens and pleasure-grounds around the palace of Shoubra. The island of Rhoda, almost one entire garden, divides and half fills up the river in front. The beautiful weeping willow of Egypt—most graceful and lovely of its loveliest of races—is conspicuous everywhere. The long sweeping yards of the lateen-sailed boats of the Nile, sometimes not less than 60 feet in length, shoot up by the shore. Just beyond are the large cotton-mills and other works of the Pasha, and English steam-engines and huge chimney stalks intrude upon the sight, which, though striking enough as contrasts, seem here eminently out of place. Sweeping along the eastern horizon, at a distance of two miles, is the Citadel, with the vast city and countless minarets of Grand Cairo. On the other or right side only two objects present themselves to the eye—the Desert and the Pyramids. The voyage up the Nile, extending to 120 miles from Atfèh, occupies from 18 to 19 hours, and is brought to a close at Boulak.

*Cairo.*—The drive to the city is by no means over a good road; but being through fields and gardens, the scene is everywhere most rich and beautiful. Crossing various canals and gardens, and threading some beautiful avenues of trees, the traveller at length reaches the great square at Grand Cairo, and the picture presented is sufficiently striking. There is nothing in the way of building which deserves the name of fine architecture; but the houses are lofty and picturesque, and of every conceivable shape and size—with tall graceful minarets shooting up in all directions. The Hotel d'Orient, the principal one in Cairo, is in the great square, and is a large and very showy building, though the establishment and style of living are somewhat too French for an Englishman's taste. There is an excellent, though less conspicuous, English tavern close by. The area enclosed by the great square is surrounded by a very wide and deep ditch, which is filled with water during the inundation: fine rows of acacia trees skirt it on both sides, and form a double avenue along the road which intersects it. Vast crowds of people are at all times in the neighbourhood, and this is almost the only place in Cairo where there is abundant room for observing the passers-by. It is, indeed, almost the only open space in this vast city, the thoroughfares of which consist of narrow lanes, hardly anywhere deserving the name of streets. The houses are so high, and the balconies above project so far, that it is often difficult to obtain a glimpse of the sky above. The streets are almost everywhere crowded most densely with people. Nimble donkeys, with jingling bells, trot rapidly along, threading their way with extraordinary dexterity through the multitude. Lines of

huge camels, with vast burdens on their sides, bear down upon you, threatening to close up the pathway, and arrest the progress of the living current. Contrasted with all this activity and bustle, is the profound composure of the shopkeepers, who, in their richest dresses, and with long flowing beards, recline beside their wares, smoking their hukkas, or long cherry-stalked, amber-mouthed pipes, in a state of apathetic unconcern.

Cairo is said to contain a population of 200,000 inhabitants: it stands on a plateau about 40 feet above the level of the Nile, and on the edge of the Desert. The citadel is one of the most prominent objects of attraction, and can be examined, however short the traveller's stay. It was built about the year 1171, by the Khalifah Yûsuf Salâhu'd-dîn, well known in the history of the Crusaders as "the Magnificent Saladin." A long ride through narrow, crowded, and irregular lanes, past numerous mosques of great magnitude and beauty, leads to the bottom of the steep winding ascent, at the extremity of which is the gate of the fortress. The first object of attraction which it contains is a magnificent mosque, which has now been ten years in process of construction. It is still incomplete. It consists of an open square, surrounded by a single row of 35 columns. In the centre of this is a superb fountain, and on the east a lofty gate leads to the inner part of the house of prayer. The extreme richness of its decorations does not weary by sameness—they are all symmetrical, tasteful, and beautiful. The effect is even heightened by the burnished brass mouldings which surround the base of the capital and top of the basement of the column, though this combination of metal and stone is one of the most unusual in masonry. The walls, which consist of the common building-stone of Cairo, are everywhere crusted over with a yellowish-white variegated horny-coloured marble. It is brought a considerable way across the country, having been discovered some fourteen years since at a place called Wâdî Moâhat, about 70 miles from the Nile, and is a travertine, or fresh-water limestone, deposited from springs. The undulations and coatings of the deposit form beautiful markings in the marble: it is unfortunately not susceptible of a very high polish, and is often defaced by small angular crevices, which, however, cease to be observable a few yards off. It is brought in large blocks from the quarry, and sawn into slices beside the building. The magnificent granite columns which formerly surrounded Joseph's Hall are lying prostrate around. They were pulled down in 1827, to make room for the mosque, and were in all likelihood originally the fragments of some of the noble works of Egypt's splendour in its earlier days. They are of the same material as that of which Pompey's Pillar and Cleopatra's Needles are composed. Just beyond the mosque are

the palace and *harim* of the Pasha—a neat, plain building, more richly than tastefully fitted up and furnished, but quite worthy of examination. The Mint is beyond this; and near it is Joseph's Well, an excavation 260 feet in depth, a winding staircase leading to the bottom. The reader must be reminded that the Joseph here referred to is not the Hebrew patriarch, though commonly imagined to be such, but the famous Sultán Saladin, by whom the works were constructed.

From the palace garden may be seen the spot where Emir Bey leaped his horse over the wall, to escape the massacre which awaited his brother Mamelukes on the 1st of March, 1811. Muḥammad 'Alf had prepared an expedition into Arabia, to chastise the Wábábís, who had robbed and murdered the pilgrims on their way to Makkah. The Mamelukes, impatient of a curtailment of their power, resolved to avenge and liberate themselves by the overthrow of the government. Their secret was badly kept, and the Pasha was informed of the plot hatching against him. He pretended to disbelieve it altogether, and treated it as a slander against the Mamelukes. His preparations being completed, he invited all his courtiers and chiefs to the Citadel, to be present at the investiture of his son with authority to be exercised during his absence. The beys of the Mamelukes were received with the usual courtesy; but on retiring, found the gates shut against them, while volleys of musketry were poured in on them from every side. Horses and riders fell in heaps. It is said that 440 were slaughtered in the court, Emir Bey alone escaping. He remembered that a heap of rubbish, thrown over the wall, had accumulated to a considerable height near its base. He leaped his horse over: the animal was dashed to pieces, but the rider escaped. He found shelter in the tents of some soldiers near, and succeeded in making his way to Constantinople. He survived till within these few years. The beautiful aqueduct seen from the Citadel was originally built by Saladin the Magnificent, in 1171, for the purpose of bringing water from the Nile to supply the garrison: it was renewed and enlarged in 1518.

*The Nile.*—Egypt, as is well known, consists of the fertile valley of the Nile, and a strip of desert on each side. The Nile, formed by streams coming out of Abyssinia on the south, is about 1500 miles in length; at certain places it forms rapids, or sloping cataracts, and at other points encloses islands, interesting for their beauty or the ruins which remain upon them. The remarkable phenomenon connected with the Nile, is its annual overflow of the banks which border it—an event looked for with as much certainty as the daily rising of the sun. These inundations of the Nile are owing to the periodical rains which fall between the tropics. They begin in March, but

have no effect upon the river until three months later. Towards the end of June it begins to rise, and continues rising at the rate of about four inches a-day, until the end of September, when it falls for about the same period of time. The towns are generally built in such a situation and manner as not to be overflowed by the inundation, and in some parts of the country there are long raised causeways, upon which the people may travel during the floods. It is only in cases of an extraordinary rise that any villages are destroyed. The inundations, instead of being viewed as a calamity, are considered a blessing, for they are the cause of inexhaustible fertility. After the waters have subsided, the earth is found covered with mud, which has been left there by the river. This mud, which is principally composed of argillaceous earth and carbonate of lime, serves to fertilise the overflowed land, and is used for manure for such places as are not sufficiently saturated by the river; it is also formed into bricks, and various vessels for domestic use. The whole valley of the Nile may be considered as an alluvial plain, formed of the washed-down mud and sand of Central Africa, and it is therefore to these inundations that Egypt owes its existence.

Notwithstanding the overflow of the Nile, the atmosphere of Egypt is extremely dry and healthful. During our winter, the climate of Egypt is delightful. The inhabitants speak with intense affection of the Nile, for to it they owe the verdure of their fields, their food, their drink, and the cotton for their clothing. In its taste the water is delicious and it is also extremely salubrious.

*The Pyramids* are situated about ten miles from Cairo, in a western direction, and consequently on the farther side of the Nile. The traveller may have the benefit of a carriage for the journey: formerly, the only conveyance was by donkeys. The road leads by Old Cairo, a decayed suburb of Cairo, at two miles' distance, on the banks of the river. The Nile is forded or crossed in boats at the upper end of the island of Rhodā. When within a couple of miles of the end of the journey, a number of frightful-looking Bedouins commonly make a rush from a large village a little way off, as if intent on mischief. They are men anxious to be employed as guides; and they had better be employed at once, to save further annoyance.

The Pyramids scarcely appear to increase in size until you are close up to their base; then their bulk seems enormous, and the distance betwixt the one and the other looks like a forenoon's journey. They are four in number in one view—three large and one small—and are usually known as the Pyramids of Gizeh. They stand on a plateau some 40 feet above the plain, and are fairly within the Desert. The present base of the Great Pyramid of Cheops, as it is called, is 746 feet each way; the mass is estimated at 85 millions of

cubic feet, and covers an area of 11 acres. Measured by the slope, its height is 611 ft., and its perpendicular height 461 ft. The age of the Pyramids is unknown, but it cannot be less than 3,000 years.

At a distance, the Pyramids appear to be tolerably smooth and pyramidal; but on coming close to them, they are found to have a ragged and half-ruined aspect, in consequence of the outer coating of stones and plaster having been removed. Their sides in this rough state present the appearance of a series of steps, composed of huge blocks of yellowish-white limestone. The ascent is toilsome, and the ledges of stone are uncomfortably high for a stair. Ladies meaning to ascend, should provide themselves with a footstool, which the guides may lift and hand up to them at each step. There are altogether 206 tiers of stone, from one to four feet high. The top is an irregular platform, 32 feet square; the stones constituting the apex having been thrown down. On gaining this lofty eminence, on which there is room to move about, the view on all sides is magnificent. One of its most striking features is the distinctness of the line which divides the fertile region from the Desert. There is no middle ground—no debateable land, over which fertility and desolation, the sand of Sahara and the silt of the Nile, alternately hold sway. So far as the influence of the Nile extends, all is verdure; the moment the sand begins, utter waste ensues.

It is necessary to make provision for refreshment, because there is no house, tent, or village in the neighbourhood. The Great Pyramid is not entirely solid. An entrance has been made, by which a series of labyrinthian passages and chambers have been discovered. The entrance is on the north side; the journey in some places must be performed on hands and knees. At the centre are two chambers of red granite, in one of which is a sarcophagus; and here it is thought was buried the king of what was the greatest kingdom of the earth; the proud mortal for whom this mighty structure was raised.

The ascent of the second Pyramid is seldom attempted by visitors: it is much more difficult than that of the first, especially over that portion of the smooth granite crust which still remains about 30 feet down. It is of somewhat less magnitude than the other, but looks as large, from standing on higher ground. The third of the group is considerably smaller. In the neighbourhood of these grand objects of antiquity lie scattered about many interesting remains. The most attractive of these is the Sphinx—a gigantic figure, half-woman half-lion, nearly all hewn from the solid rock, the fore-legs and part of the back only being built. There is an altar between the two paws, on which sacrifices appear to have been offered. From the lower part of the body to the top of the head, the Sphinx measures 66 feet, the recumbent portion 102, the paws



50, and the circumference of the head 100 feet. Such has been the drifting of the sands, that the whole figure is now covered except the head and a portion of the dilapidated neck.

*The Petrified Forest.*—This extraordinary curiosity is situated eight or ten miles south from Cairo, and is reached by a journey on the back of a donkey through a rugged country. The road lies over a dry gravelly soil, without a particle of vegetation. Having proceeded for some miles through a rocky valley, by a sudden turn to the right a low range of sand-hills is crossed, and in less than a quarter of an hour more the forest is reached. And such a forest! Trees lying prone on the ground, and transformed into stone. The world contains nothing more wonderful than this work of nature. On every side the prostrate forest extends as far as the eye can reach. Plains and rolling hillocks of sand sweep on and on to the horizon, all strewed thickly over with fragments of fallen trees. They lie at some places so close to each other that a sure-footed Cairo donkey can scarcely thread his way through them: at other places they are few and far between, scarcely within stone-throw of each other, as if those had been the thickets, these the openings, in the forest. The trees are nowhere round in the surface, but sharp and angular, as if split by heat into many fragments. Few pieces are more than from four to six feet in length; but a series of these may often be seen lying end to end for a space of from 50 to 60 feet, as if the tree they constituted had been sawn or broken across, the pieces remaining in their places. The appearance of the fallen trunks is like that of the half rotten bog-wood found in an Irish or a Scottish morass. In hue, they are for the most part of a lightish chestnut brown; some of them of a dusky-white, precisely of the colour of common ash or pine long exposed to the weather. Of this tint are nearly all the smaller fragments, which often lie about as if chipped off from the larger ones. There are no fangs of roots or branches connected with the stems, but there are the rudiments of both in abundance. The knots indicating where branches once had been, are often of singular beauty and distinctness; sometimes so much so, as to seem freshly torn off from the stem. The whole scene is the very picture of solitude and desolation, enhanced beyond that of the ordinary Desert—which leaves no token of ever having been more productive than it is—inasmuch as the remains around must once have been fertility and verdure. The trees, as already said, are mostly on the surface; many of them, however, are half-buried, others barely show themselves above the sand. The sand itself is light-coloured; the nodules of stone intermixed with it are rounded; sea-shells everywhere abounding. Near the edge of the forest there are what resemble the dry beds of small-sized streams and torrents: here the little cliffs are of very soft limestone, full of oyster-shells, so fresh and bright, that they

seem scarcely at all affected by the weather. They are of the transparent kind, nearly flat, and scarcely thicker than common paper. Selenite here abounds, as generally over the Desert, where sea-salt prevails. It is here for the most part fibrous, the fibres being horizontal, and at right angles to the axes of the vein.

As for the nature of the trees, they are not palms, as their branches show; nor, perhaps, is any living race nearly akin to them. They are completely silicified, ring like cast-iron, strike fire with flint, and scratch glass. How has this transformation been effected? By no chemical process now known to man. We have nothing at all analogous to it either in the laboratory of the chemist or that of nature. There is no substance more indestructible than that of charcoal. Cut off from air, it resists the most intense heats known to us, and remains in the bowels of the earth unscathed for millions of years! Here the whole woody and carbonaceous matter has vanished, and in its place we find silica—the earth of flints, a substance nearly insoluble, and by itself infusible by any heat we are acquainted with. Yet so quietly and so perfectly has the exchange been effected, that for every atom of charcoal that has been displaced, an atom of flint has been left behind. Textures and tissues so minute, that the help of powerful microscopes is required for their detection—that their delineation can only be attempted after they have been much magnified—are changed in substance, but in substance only: the most minute and fragile of their forms remain as when the green leaves and bright blossoms drew their sustenance, and the vital fluids circulated through them. Egypt is the land of hoar antiquity; but what are the wonders of the mummy-case to this? The trees look as if they had fallen down, and been turned to stone on the ground where they grew; they look “like to a forest felled by mighty winds;” they bear no marks of rolling or abrasion, such as that by which flints themselves are rounded. Yet all is sea-sand and shells everywhere; there is nothing to sustain vegetation; and whether the theory, that they belong to an age previous to that of the rock in which they are occasionally imbedded, be adopted or not, it is clear that, subsequent to their assumption of their present form and condition, the ground on which they now repose sunk beneath, and rose again far above, the surface of the sea.

It is singular, considering the extent of area, and the diversity of positions in the world over which silicified trees are found exposed above ground, that so little has been written on the subject. In Trinidad, in the West Indies, they are abundant; and they prevail over a vast expanse of surface on the seaboard of New Holland. They abound on the Coromandel coast near Madras; and in Sindh are found from Sakkar to Karáchi, on salt desert sand, resting on nummulite limestone, exactly as in Egypt.

*Cairo to Suez.*—Only a few hours being allowed at Cairo, every one should make his arrangements without unnecessary delay. Having arranged at the Transit Office to get all luggage, a small bag excepted, sent forward, and secured his place, the traveller may be considered ready to start. In hot weather, it is preferable to start from Cairo in the afternoon, so as to travel all night.

The distance from Cairo to Suez is 85 or 86 miles; and as the line of route is without any towns or villages, station-houses have been erected for the accommodation of travellers, and for the changing of horses. As far as No. 12 station-house is now performed by rail. Refreshments are furnished here, and are usually of the most sumptuous kind. Thence the journey is performed in vans, which are of different sizes. For the greater part they are strong clumsy machines, open all around, tolerably stuffed, but without springs—merely suspended on leathern straps. They have two wheels about five feet in diameter; that is, one-third larger than those of a common carriage. They are drawn by four horses, two being in shafts, and two before them in traces. They are, in general, not over-well trained, tempered, or conditioned; but, on the whole, get on wonderfully well. The plan of the drivers generally is to urge them to a good gallop for a mile or so, and then allow them a few minutes to rest.

*The Desert.*—There is but little of the Suez desert covered with drift sand; it consists mainly of hard gravel, with a vast abundance of loose stones in all directions. The vans seldom adhere very regularly to any particular track, and the jolting is occasionally dreadful. In the direction of Suez, as indeed in most other directions, unless when approaching the Nile, you enter on the Desert at once. The burying-ground around the city is all sand; and the first step beyond this the ground is as completely barren and desolate as it can be in the heart of the Great Sahara itself. The route through might be almost traced by the skeletons of camels; thousands and thousands lie bleaching by the wayside. The surface of the ground is salt, and covered with rounded pebbles, chiefly the Egyptian agate, and sea-shells. Pieces of petrified wood, often of considerable magnitude, lie strewed around; and when the limestone rock shows itself above the sand and gravel, it is generally perforated by the *pholas*, or some other variety of marine borer. The rocks, like those near Cairo, abound in petrifications—beautiful specimens of crabs and star-fishes being amongst the most abundant. Little, nimble, fairy-looking lizards, in colour very like the surface of the ground around them, are occasionally to be seen in the Desert; also a curious variety of serpent, with two horn-like processes protruding from the forehead. There are numberless vultures and carrion crows, which feed on the dead carcasses of the animals who so frequently perish on the way

across. Besides these, scarcely a living thing is to be seen. Here and there are considerable quantities of the poisonous henbane, and half-way betwixt Suez and Cairo numerous bushes of the prickly acacia or camel-thorn. Just beyond the centre station is what is called "the tree of the Desert," a solitary acacia, 18 inches in diameter, and with a stem 10 feet long, and a large, thick, bushy, round top. This is seen at a vast distance from each side: to the weary traveller it seems almost impossible to approach it, so long is it before he reaches it after first seeing it.

The beautiful phenomenon known to sailors as "looming," to naturalists as *mirage*, equally visible in extremely cold as in warm countries, is often seen in great perfection betwixt Cairo and Suez. It is occasioned by the unequal temperature and refractive powers of different strata of the atmosphere—objects being invariably elongated or depressed, or a succession of images of them exhibited one over another. Scoresby gives drawings of images of ships and icebergs seen by him in the arctic regions—direct or reversed, or the one and the other alternately—high up in the air. Pools, and lakes of water, are occasionally seen to fill up the lakes and valleys; and this is the shape the illusion most frequently assumes.

The portion of the road nearest to Suez is extremely rough, and the path is covered on every side with large rounded stones; the whole forming one of the most unsightly portions of the Desert. Barren and arid as it is, it is curious to find fresh plants of the water-melon species growing here and there on the most unfruitful-looking spots. The leaves resemble in tint, form, and size, those of the sweet-scented geranium. The stems trail along the ground, attaining a length of two or three feet. The fruit is the size of a small apple, bright green, and very pretty. In many places here the sand of the Desert is in process of solidification into rock. The muriates and sulphates of the sea-salt, with which the soil is charged, seem to act on the calcareous material abounding everywhere; and the result is a carbonate of soda and a sulphate of lime. The last constitutes the cementing material: it is bright and shining, in small plates or crystals, and yields readily to the finger-nail. A specimen of the rock which is the result of this would most grievously perplex a geologist not familiar with the process by which it is formed. It consists of the sand and sea-shells of the Desert—the last of these, when near Suez, being all apparently perfectly recent and identical with those now in the Red Sea; of the Egyptian jaspers, which here mainly constitute the gravel of the Desert, and are themselves the remnants of an abraded conglomerate of one of the rock formations at hand; and of the oyster, nummulite, and other shells of the different varieties of tertiary limestone, everywhere presenting itself above the surrounding drift and alluvium. With

these heterogeneous materials, the bones of birds and animals now existing in the country, or portions of the works of man, may occasionally mingle, and present a conglomerate made up of as many different kinds of material as can be collected together. This, it must be recollected, is a process not confined to a few limited spots: it is apparently in progress over vast expanses of surface in all parts of the Desert towards the shore of the Red Sea. Though there is no continuous rain, heavy showers occasionally fall near Suez; and in the pools formed by them, fishes, some inches long, have been found four or five miles from the sea.

When within four miles of Suez, you reach the edge of a perfectly level plain, diversified here and there by slight ridges and hillocks of sand and gravel, but the whole wearing the appearance of one of the most recent upheavals—the Red Sea, at a geological period comparatively recent, having obviously covered a large surface now dry land. Close to Suez is the track where the Israelites crossed the Red Sea. Wilkinson assumes the place to have been a little above the harbour, at the camel ford, where the water then must have been much deeper than now, and where the effects of “a strong east wind,” as described in Exodus, are now similar to what they seem to have been from the account given of them in Holy Writ. The extremity of the Red Sea is a few miles above the town, and thither travellers sometimes proceed to have the pleasure of placing one foot on African, and the other on Arabian ground.

*Suez to India.*—Suez is a poor, walled town, situated at the head of the Red Sea, and sustains its existence principally by the trade of the great caravans of pilgrims from Egypt in their journey to Makkah. Latterly, it has come a little into note by being made the point of embarkation for India. The Pasha built a very large and handsome hotel at Suez, the only respectable building in the place. The water here is highly saline: it contains a considerable quantity of pure alkali, and is well adapted for washing—that used by Europeans for drinking is brought from the Nile. Coal is also transported across the Desert from Cairo on camels, and here costs £6 a ton.

Quitting Suez, a long pull of nearly two miles through shallows and intricate channels takes the traveller to the roadstead, where the steamer awaits his reception—the smoking funnel and roaring steam giving note of preparation for a start. The Gulf of Suez, which comes to a point a little way above the town, is about three miles across at the place from which the steamer starts. The distance from Suez to Aden is 1,600 miles due south-east; that from Aden to Bombay is 1,960 miles east and by north. Passengers to Calcutta are accommodated in the magnificent steamers of the Oriental Steam Navigation Company, each from 1,200 to 1500 tons burden, and 400 to 500 horse-power. These vessels proceed straight

to Aden, this part of the route being common to both; then stretch away south-east for Ceylon, nearly at right angles to the path pursued by the Bombay vessels. The Bombay passengers are conveyed by the packets or war-steamers of the Indian navy: a portion of these are from 700 to 750 tons burden, and from 220 to 250 horse-power. Some very superior vessels, each of 1,200 and 400 horse-power, have been put on the line, and others of still larger dimensions are in process of construction. The traveller towards the East, who has been dragging by each remove a lengthening chain—who has found semi-tropical Europe at Gibraltar and Malta, and fairly tasted of the Orient in Egypt—at length finds a floating fragment of India before him at Suez. The talk becomes exclusively of Bombay: inquiries are made after old places and friends, and England is spoken of now as a distant country, not soon to be seen again. The regulations as to dress, discipline, etc., are the same in the Indian as in the royal navy; and the packets are in all respects regarded as ships of war. To the old Indian, everything looks familiar; to the visitor for the first time to the East, all seems a fragment and foretaste of what is to come. Seldom, indeed, is found so large a variety of races assembled in so narrow a compass. The officers, engineers, and regular seamen of the ship are Englishmen, all dressed in man-of-war fashion. The pilots are Arabs, from Aden or Mocha. Their costumes are beautifully picturesque, and they are for the most part highly intelligent-looking men. Then there are the sipáhís of the Bombay Marine Battalion, smart, dark-olive complexioned men, of a very low caste, in the common uniform of the English soldier. The servants of the ship are mostly Portuguese, natives of the East, dressed in jackets and trousers of white cotton, such as Europeans not in uniform usually wear in India. The butler and head servants are generally Pársís or Muslims: the Hindú is forbidden by his creed from sewing where his hands might be defiled by the flesh of the sacred cow. The firemen are mostly Muḥammadans, or low-caste Hindús—strong active fellows, who perform all the drudgery about the engine-room.

Fairly afloat on the Red Sea, there is little to attract the eye, the shores being rocky, sandy, and lifeless. If the weather be clear, north from Suez the towering summit of Sinai may be seen in the distance. As the traveller proceeds southwards, he begins to be interested in the changes presented by the firmament. At night the Southern Cross becomes prominent amongst the constellations, and the beautiful clouds of Magellan give nebulae of an aspect altogether different from any he has seen before. The Great Bear is no longer seen to sweep around the Pole; the tail becomes at times altogether invisible, the four stars which constitute the quadrangle only keeping in view, and the great land-mark, so to speak, by which the tyro astronomer

guides his way amongst the constellations, is for a period lost sight of. The moon and planets again shine out with unusual splendour, and there is the novel combination of a night sky intensely bright without the sensation of cold.

The middle channel alone is navigable for vessels of any considerable burden. Vast margins on either shore are filled up with coral to near the surface of the water. The scenes these present are often beyond description beautiful.

Keeping straight on its course down the middle of the Red Sea, the steamer does not approach the land till the Straits of Bábu'l Mandab (Babel Mandel) make their appearance. Here the sea is greatly narrowed, not only by the projections of land, but by the island of Perim. The straits are closed in on both sides by rugged, barren, burnt-looking rocks—the distance across being about three miles. Pushing her way through one of the channels, the steamer turns towards the left in a south-easterly direction, being now in what is called the Sea of Bábu'l-Mandab, which is a portion of the Indian Ocean. A series of picturesque and precipitous capes and headlands, along the coast of Arabia-Felix, on the left, come in view, and stretch away to the most prominent of them—Cape 'Adan (Aden).

Aden is situated in latitude  $12^{\circ} 47'$  north; longitude,  $45^{\circ} 9'$  east. It is a wild, barren peninsula, composed of volcanic rocks, and of no use except as a half-way house to India *viá* the Red Sea. Within 200 yards of the landing-place there is an hotel, kept by a Pársí. It contains a large roomy hall, in which smoking is specially forbidden, but always indulged in, with a very good verandah all round, and good bedrooms and baths. There is a store for general merchandise behind, and a billiard-room, close by.

Aden fell into our possession in 1839. It previously belonged to the Sultan of Lahege, who was little better than a common marauder, and in 1837 plundered a Madras vessel sailing under British colours, which had the misfortune to go ashore. A collision with Britain followed; and finally, after some fighting, and a stipulation by treaty to pay the Sultan a few thousand dollars annually, the place was taken possession of. The population has since risen from 600 to above 10,000, besides the troops and their followers from India; of these there are generally 3000 in garrison: A traffic is kept up with the interior of Arabia by means of camels and asses. There is good fresh water in wells in the cantonments, but nowhere besides.

#### BRIEF GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION OF INDIA.

India lies between N. lat.  $8^{\circ} 4'$  and  $36^{\circ}$ , and E. long.  $66^{\circ} 44'$  and  $99^{\circ} 30'$ , and contains, according to Thornton, 1,399,443 sq. miles,

with a population of 172,399,235; according to Mills, 1,465,322 sq. miles, with 180,367,148 inhabitants; according to the East India House Statistical Returns of the 27th of July, 1857, 1,466,576 sq. miles, with 180,884,297 inhabitants. This vast region is, more than any other, formed by nature to be the storehouse of the world. The magnificent chain of mountains that encircles it from N.W. to N.E., consisting of the Himálayas to the N. and N.E., with the Sulaiman and Hála ranges running down to the sea on the W., supply abundant water to irrigate the whole of Upper India; as, in like manner, the Vindhayan range, joined eastwards by the Rájmaḥal hills and other lower ranges, and the E. and W. Gháts, furnish sufficient water for the requirements of the Dakhan or S. India. Thus India exhibits a series of great water sheds, in which, or on adjoining hills, grain of all descriptions—cotton, sugar-cane, indigo, tea, coffee, rice, opium, tobacco, oil-seeds, pepper, cardamoms, ginger, capsicum, cumin, coriander, turmeric, and all kinds of vegetables and fruits, are, or may be, produced in inexhaustible quantities. In its forests, India possesses resources superior to those of any country in the world. The teak tree, the cocoa-nut tree, the sago palm, and the sandal tree, are first of their kind in utility; and innumerable trees, only second in value, might be mentioned. Iron, the parent of all other metals, abounds; and coal exists in sufficient quantity. Precious stones of all descriptions are found in different localities; and in the number and variety of its animals, no region of the earth is comparable with India. To man, the climate of India is less favourable than that of the temperate zone; yet, amid the variety of races which is found from the Himálayas to Cape Kumárin (Comorin), some are not inferior in beauty to any that exist, as *e.g.* the people of Kashmír, the Rájpúts, the Bilúchís, and Jats, of Sindh, and some of the Bráhmans.

The traveller will find in India beauties of scenery and architectural works inferior to none. The Himálayas transcend Mount Blanc as much as that giant and his brethren do the hills of Wales; and in the Western Gháts and the Nílgeris there are innumerable spots, many, we may be sure, never yet explored by Europeans, whose loveliness cannot be surpassed. The Cataracts of Gerseppa and of Gokák, the Falls of the Kávéri, and others, rank next to Niagara. In Lake scenery alone is India deficient; and, in this particular, there is nothing which can be enumerated in the same list with the lakes of Switzerland, or even of the British Isles.

To the antiquarian and architect, the Cyclopean Tombs, the Cave Temples, and the Pagodas of S. India, furnish inexhaustible materials for study and research; and though differing from European edifices in character so widely as scarcely to admit of comparison, the Táj Maḥáll must be pronounced the gem of all art.



Delhi, Agra, and Benares are rich in historical associations, and present marvels which will many times repay the trouble and expense of a visit. Those, therefore, who have the means and the leisure to travel can certainly find no region more attractive, or which, on every account, more deserves to be visited than India.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLES.

The following tables supply the dates of the principal events in Indian history:—

	B.C.
Arrangement of the first nine Books of the Rîg Veda (about) .....	1400
Composition of parts of the tenth Book (about) .....	1100
Yajur } Veda (about).....	1000—800
Sâma } .....	
Sûtras Vaidik, comprising laws.....	1000
Sûtras of Philosophical system (about) .....	1200—800
Atharva Veda .....	800
Sakya Muni, birth .....	638
Death and Æra .....	543
First Buddhist Convocation at Râjagriha.....	543
Voyage of Skylax down the Indus by order of Darcus Hystaspis .....	490
Second Buddhist Convocation at Vesali .....	443
Alexander crossed the Indus, April .....	327
Chandragupta or Sandrakottus .....	315
Mission of Meysthenes to the Court of Sandrakottus.....	302
Râmâyana .....	300
Asoka .....	270
Third Buddhist Convocation .....	249
Mahâbhârata .....	240
Laws of Manu.....	200
Menander.....	126
Ceylon Buddhistical Books.....	104—76
Æra of Vikramâditya and of the Shakuntalâ .....	57
	A.D.
Cave Temples at Salsette.....	50—100
Æra of Shâlivâhan.....	78
Sâh dynasty of Gujarât .....	100
Travels of Fa-Hian.....	399
Mahawanso .....	459—477
Travels of Hiuan Tsang .....	629—645
Purânas .....	800—1400

EARLY MUHAMMADAN CONQUERORS OF INDIA AND THEIR SUCCESSORS.

Muhammad Kâsim conquers Sindh for the Khalifah Walîd .....	711
Sabuktigin (Sabuctagi), surnamed Nâziru 'd-dîn, King of Ghizni and Khurâsân, defeats Jaypâl, the Brâhman King of N. W. India .....	977
Ism'ail (Ismâiel), second son of Sabuktigin, succeeds his father.....	997
Mahmûd I. (Mamood), eldest son of Sabuktigin, wrests the crown from his brother .....	997
Eleventh invasion of India by this Prince, in which he plunders and destroys Somnâth .....	1022
Muhammad I. (Mahommed), son of Mahmûd, succeeds.....	1028
Mas'ûd I. (Masood), second son of Mahmûd, dethrones his brother .....	1028

Muhammad I. restored on the murder of Mas'aúd by Ahmad the son of Muhammad .....	A. D. 1041
Modúd (Modood), son of Mas'aúd.....	1041
Mas'aúd II., son of Modúd (6 days).....	1049
Interregnum of one year till .....	1050
Abu'l Hasan 'Ali, son of Mas'aúd I.....	1051
'Abdu'r-rashíd, son of Mahmúd I., succeeds, and is shortly after murdered by one of his chiefs named Tughril .....	1052
Tughril (40 days), and is murdered .....	1052
Farrukh Zád, son of Mas'aúd.....	1052
Ibrahim I., brother of Farrukh Zád .....	1058
Mas'aúd III., son of Ibrahim I. ....	1098
Arsilla, brother of Mas'aúd III.....	1115
Bahrám, son of Mas'aúd III. ....	1117
Death of Bahrám and extinction of the kingdom of Ghizni by the Princes of Ghor.....	1152

## THE HOUSE OF GHIZNI AT LÁHÚR.

Khusrau I. son of Bahrám.....	1152
Khusrau II., son of Khusrau I. ....	1159
Muhammad Ghori takes Láhúr and dethrones Khusrau II. ....	1184
Muhammad defeats the Rájás of N. India on the banks of the Saraswati, 80 miles from Delhi, with dreadful slaughter .....	1193
Muhammad Ghori assassinated in his tent on the banks of the Niláb by a band of Gikkars .....	1205

## THE SLAVE DYNASTY.

Ķutb, an imperial slave, succeeds to the sovereignty of Láhúr, and soon after conquers Delhi .....	1205
Arám, son of Ķutb, King of Delhi .....	1210
Altamsh, a slave, but originally of a noble family .....	1210
Firúz Sháh, son of Altamsh .....	1235
Sultánah Rizia, eldest daughter of Altamsh.....	1235
Bahrám, son of Altamsh.....	1239
Mas'aúd IV., son of Firúz.....	1242
Mahmúd II., younger son of Altamsh .....	1245
Balin, Vazír of Mahmúd.....	1265
Kai Kubád, grandson of Balin .....	1286
Firúz II., Khiljy.....	1289
Alláhu 'd-dín I., having murdered Firúz II., ascends the throne .....	1295
'Umar, youngest son of Alláh (but seven years old).....	1316
Mubárák, third son of Alláh .....	1316
Mubárák murdered by his slave, Khusrau.....	1321
Tughlak I., a slave .....	1321
Muhammad III., son of Tughlak .....	1325
Firúz III., cousin of Muhammad III. ....	1351
Tughlak II., grandson of Firúz III.....	1388
Abú Bakr, grandson of Firúz III., by his third son .....	1389
Muhammad IV., son of Abú Bakr .....	1389
Humáyún or Sikandar, son of Muhammad IV. (45 days) .....	1392
Mahmúd III., son of Muhammad IV. ....	1393
Timúr Lang (Tamerlane) conquers Hindústán, takes Delhi, and massacres the inhabitants. He returns by way of Kábul to Samarqand, leaving Khizr Viceroy of Multán, Láhúr, and Dibalpur. Mahmúd takes refuge in Gujarát, but on Timúr's departure returns and re-ascends the throne for a short time.....	1397

DYNASTY OF LODI.

	A. D.
Daulat Lodi.....	1413
Khizr. (This Prince claimed to be a Saiyid, and he and the three following Emperors do not belong to the Lodi dynasty) .....	1414
Mubárák II., son of Khizr.....	1421
Muhammad V., grandson of Khizr (Mubárák being assassinated by the Vazir) .....	1433
Alláhu 'd-dín II., son of Muhammad V. ....	1447
Beloli (an Afghán of the tribe of Lodi).....	1450
Nizám or Sikandar I., son of Beloli .....	1488
Ibrahim II., son of Sikandar I.....	1516

HOUSE OF TÍMÚR, OR MUGHULS.

Bábar, son of Amír, son of Abú Saïd, son of Muhammad, son of Mirán Sháh, son of Timúr.....	1525
Humáyún, son of Bábar.....	1530
Shír or Faríd, an Afghán of the Sur tribe, expels Humáyún, who takes refuge with Sháh Tahmásp, king of Persia .....	1542
Salim (Selim) or Jalál, younger son of Shír.....	1545
Firúz, son of Salim (three days, murdered by Mubárák).....	1552
Mubárák or Muhammad 'Adil, nephew of Shír, styled Muhammad VI. ...	1552
Ibrahim III., cousin of Muhammad.....	1552
Humáyún restored .....	1554
Akbar the Great .....	1555
Salim or Jahángír, son of Akbar .....	1605
Khurram, third son of Jahángír, and known as Sháh Jahán .....	1627
Aurangzib or 'Alamgír, third son of Sháh Jahán .....	1658
Muhammad M'uzim, second son of Aurangzib, and known as Bahádur Sháh Mu'azza'd-dín or Jahándár Sháh, eldest son of Bahádur Sháh .....	1707
Farrukhsiyar, son of 'Azim, second son of Bahádur Sháh .....	1712
Raff'au'd-darjat, son of Raff'au-sh-Sháh, third son of Bahádur Sháh (a few days) .....	1717
Muhammad Sháh, son of Jahán, son of Bahádur Sháh.....	1718
Nádir Sháh takes and sacks Delhi.....	1739
Ahmad Sháh, son of Muhammad Sháh.....	1747
'Iyágu'd-din, son of Jahándár Sháh, and known as 'Alamgír II. ....	1753
Interregnum .....	
'Alí Gauhar, known as Sháh 'Alam .....	1761
Akbar, son of Sháh 'Alam .....	1806
Muhammad Bahádur .....	1837

ABSTRACT OF THE HISTORY OF THE MUHAMMADAN KINGS WHO RULED IN THE DAKHAN.

Abú'l-Muzaffar Yúsuf 'Adil Sháh, the founder of the Adil Shahí dynasty of Vijayapur, was the son of Aghá Murád or Amurath II., Emperor of Rúm, *i. e.* Asia Minor. His elder brother, on his accession, ordered him, then an infant, to be strangled; but his mother substituted a slave, and sent him out of the country. He was educated at Sava, and of his own accord passed through Persia to India, and was there sold as a Georgian slave at the age of 17 to Mahmúd Gawán, minister of Muhammad Sháh Báhmaní II. He

soon distinguished himself; and when Nizámu 'l-Mulk was slain at Kehrla, in 1467, Yúsuf took command of the army of the Dakhan. After the death of Muhammad Sháh, in 1489, he retired from Bidar to Vijayapur, and declared himself independent. In 1493 he defeated the Rájá of Vijayanagar, and took 200 elephants, and, it is said, two millions of pounds sterling, and this accession of wealth confirmed his power. One of his first steps was to surround his capital, Vijayapur, with a stone rampart. In 1497, he betrothed his infant daughter to Ahmad, the son of Maḥmúd Sháh Báḥmaní; and in 1504 defeated and slew in battle Dastúr Dínár, the Governor of Kulbarga and Ságar, whose province he annexed to his own dominions. At the same time, 'Ainu 'l-Mulk Gílání, who held the Konkan and all the sea-board, did homage to him as his vassal, so that he now assumed the title of Sháh, and caused the Khutbah to be read in his own name, this being the mark of royalty. In 1510 he re-took Goa from the Portuguese, who had captured it that year; shortly after which success he died.

The first event of importance in the reign of Ism'aíl Sháh, who, when he succeeded his father, Yúsuf, was yet a child, was the final surrender of Goa (which had been retaken by Albuquerque on the 25th of Nov., 1510) to the Portuguese, on condition of their attempting no further encroachments. This cession was made by the advice of the Regent, Kamál Khán, who shortly after began to aspire to the throne. He imprisoned Ism'aíl and his mother, and had resolved on putting them to death, when he was himself assassinated by one of their friends. A struggle ensued, in which Ism'aíl was saved by his mother and his foster-aunt, who, clad in armour, rallied a few troops, and fought round the young sovereign, with the skill and intrepidity of men. In 1514 the young monarch had to defend his capital against Maḥmúd Sháh Báḥmaní, or rather Amír Baríd, the minister and virtual king, who advanced with 25,000 men against him. These he defeated at Alláhpur,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles from Vijayapur, and took Maḥmúd and his son Aḥmad prisoners. He treated his captives with respect, released them, and gave to Aḥmad his sister, who had been betrothed to him 17 years before. A war broke out with Vijayanagar in 1519, and here Isma'íl, imprudently crossing the Kṛishṇa with a small force when heated with wine, was defeated, and 242 elephants and many of his soldiers were drowned. The same year he received an embassy with the present of a sword from Sháh Ism'aíl Safaví of Persia. In 1524 he gave his sister Maryam to Burhán Sháh of Aḥmadnagar, but neglecting to make over the districts of Sholapur, which he had allotted as her dowry, a war ensued, and in 1525 Ism'aíl defeated his brother-in-law with great slaughter, and took his royal standard. In 1528 he again defeated Burhán Sháh, and next year took Bidar, where, however,

he still suffered the pageant king, Alláhu 'd-dín II., to reside. In 1531 he again defeated the King of Aḥmadnagar, and three years after closed a glorious reign of 25 years with a peaceful death.

The reigns of his sons, Malú and Ibrahím, present no events that require to be noticed. Ibrahím was succeeded by his son 'Alí, who formed an alliance with Rám Rájá of Vijayanagar, and with him ravaged the territories of Aḥmadnagar. Subsequently he joined a coalition of Muslim princes against the Rájá, and with Husain Nizám Sháh of Aḥmadnagar, Ibrahím Kuṭb Sháh of Golkonda, and 'Alí Baríd of Bidar, fought the great battle of Talikóṭ on the S. bank of the Kriṣhṇa on the 25th of January, 1565. In this battle the army of Vijayanagar was completely destroyed, and it is said 100,000 Hindús fell by the sword. Rám Rájá was taken prisoner during the conflict, and his head struck off and exhibited on a pole by command of Husain Nizám Sháh. A sculptured representation of it to this day forms the opening of one of the sewers of the citadel of Vijayapur, and the real head itself was long annually exhibited on the anniversary of the battle, covered with oil and red pigment, to the pious Muḥammadans of Aḥmadnagar, by the descendants of the executioner, in whose hands it remained. After their victory, the Kings marched on Vijayapur, which they sacked and razed, so that it never afterwards recovered.

In 1568, according to Firishtah, but two years later according to the Portuguese writers, 'Alí Sháh attacked Goa, but was repulsed with great loss. In the same year he took Adhwaní, a fortress which had hitherto been deemed impregnable. He subsequently took Dhárwád and Bánkapur, and in 1577 compelled the brother of Rám Rájá of Vijayapur to retire with his treasures and effects to the fortress of Chandragañi in the Karnatak. Two years after, he was assassinated—by a eunuch who had been the favorite of 'Alí Baríd Sháh, king of Bidar, and who was surrendered to him as the price of his aid in a war with the king of Aḥmadnagar—after a fortunate reign, leaving the grand cathedral, mosque, and many other buildings, to attest his magnificence, which they do to this day.

'Alí Sháh was succeeded by his nephew Ibrahím 'A'dil Sháh II., son of Tahmásp, the younger brother of the late king. In 1586, Ibrahím married the sister of Kuli Kuṭb Sháh of Golkonda. In 1589, his minister and general, Diláwar Khán, was defeated by Jamál Khán of Aḥmadnagar. In this battle, the historian, Muḥammad Kásim Firishtah Astarabádí, who was with Diláwar Khán, was wounded and taken prisoner.

Ibrahím was a prince of great justice, as well as firmness and resolution, which he showed in a successful war with Aḥmadnagar, and in escaping from the thralldom of his minister, Diláwar Khán.

He was also humane, for the time and country in which he lived; yet, after quelling a dangerous insurrection raised by his only brother, Ism'ail, and one of his nobles, 'Ainu'l-Mulk, he found it requisite to put them both to death. This happened in 1593. Two years after Ibrahim's general, Hamid Khán, defeated and slew in action Ibrahim Nizam Sháh, King of Ahmadnagar, and with this event Firishtah's history of the 'A'dil Sháhí kings closes abruptly.

Ibrahim 'A'dil Sháh II. died in 1626, and his mausoleum "is the most perfect (*see* Grant Duff) and beautiful of the many buildings which remain among the ruins of Vijayapur to attest its former grandeur." He left his son, Muhammad 'A'dil Sháh, who succeeded him in the sixteenth year of his age, a full treasury, and an army which is stated at 80,000 horse and 200,000 foot. In 1635 Vijayapur was besieged by Khán Daurán, the general of the Emperor Sháh Jahán; but the following year Muhammad 'A'dil Sháh was so fortunate as to conclude an advantageous peace, by which he gained the province of Kalyáni and the whole of the country between the Bhíma and Níra rivers, as far north as Chákan. For these districts, however, he was to pay a tribute of 20 lákhs of pagodas. Soon after this peace Sháhjí, the father of the famous Sivají, took service with Muhammad 'A'dil Sháh, and the Maráthás began to make a prominent figure in the wars of the Dakhan. Muhammad died at Vijayapur on the 4th of November, 1656, and his son, 'Alí 'A'dil Sháh, then in his nineteenth year, succeeded him. In March, 1657, Aurangzib and Mír Jumlah laid siege to Vijayapur, and would have taken it but for the civil war breaking out between Aurangzib and his brothers. In October, 1659, Sivají murdered the Vijayapur general, Afzal Khán, at Pratágarh, and destroyed his army, taking 4,000 horses, several elephants, camels, a considerable treasure, and all the camp equipage. From this time may be dated the rise of the Marátha power, which was soon to eclipse, and finally to extinguish, that of the Muhammadans in India. At the close of 1662 Sivají had wrested from Vijayapur, notwithstanding the vigor and personal bravery of Muhammad 'A'dil Sháh, the whole of the Konkan from Kalyán to Goa, while his territory extended inland about 100 miles. He occupied this province with 50,000 foot and 7,000 horse. On the 5th of January, 1664, he, with 4,000 horse, sacked the city of Surat, and on his return heard of the death of his father, Sháhjí, by which he acquired a claim to the Forts of A'rní and Porto Novo, and the province of Tanjúr, these having been conquered and held by Sháhjí. On this Sivají assumed the title of Rájá and caused coins to be struck in his own name. Next year his inroads into the imperial territories brought upon him the Mughul army under Aurangzib's general, the Rájá Jay Singh, who laid siege to Purandhar. The garrison were soon reduced to extremities, but before they capitulated

lated Sivají concluded a treaty, called the Convention of Purandhar, by which he surrendered to the Mughuls 20 forts he had taken from them, retaining 12 to be held as a fief from the Emperor. A revenue also of five lákhs of pagodas was assigned to him, to be levied on Vijayapur, and his son Sambhují received a command of 5,000 horse in the imperial army. Sivají then joined Jay Singh's army with 2,000 horse and 8,000 foot, and co-operated with him against Vijayapur, and for his services received a letter of thanks, and an invitation to Court from Aurangzíb. Accordingly he set out for Delhi in March, 1666, and effected his memorable escape from thence in November of the same year. From this time till the day of his death on the 6th of April, 1680,\* his history is one of continued successes over the forces of Vijayapur and Delhi.

Muhammad 'Adil Sháh died in December, 1672, and left a son, Sultán Sikandar, five years old, and a daughter, Pádsháh BÍbí. Khawás Khán was appointed Regent, but three years after, on consenting to give Pádsháh BÍbí to one of the sons of Aurangzíb, and to hold Vijayapur as a province of the Mughul empire, he was assassinated by a faction headed by 'Abdu'l Karím, who then assumed the office of Regent. He held office till January, 1678, when he died, and was succeeded by Mas'aúd Khán. The Mughul army, under Dilír Khán, now advanced against Vijayapur, and in spite of the generous devotion of Pádsháh Bigam, who surrendered to the enemy in order to remove that ground of contention, they laid siege to the city; partly, however, owing to the vigorous resistance of the defenders, partly through the harassing attacks of the Maráthas, Dilír Khán was compelled to retire, and was soon after attacked by a Marátha army and completely defeated.

The extinction of the 'Adil Sháhi dynasty was thus deferred till 1686, when Aurangzíb in person besieged Vijayapur with a vast army, and took it on the 15th of October of that year. The young prince Sikandar was kept a close prisoner for three years in the Mughul camp, when he died suddenly, not without suspicion of having been poisoned by Aurangzíb.

*Sultán Kuli Kutb Sháh*, the founder of the *Kutb Sháhi* dynasty, was a Turkamán chief of the Baharlú tribe, and of the 'Alí Shakar persuasion. He was born at S'adábád, a village in the province of Hamadan, and came to seek his fortune in the Dakhan towards the close of Muhammad Sháh Bahmaní's reign. He was soon ennobled by the title of Kutbu'l Mulk, or "Pillar of the State," and made governor of Telingána; and when Yúsuf 'Adil Sháh and others threw off their allegiance to the Báhmaní family, he, being then general in chief, caused the public prayers to be read in the name of the 12

\* According to Wilks and Grant Duff; in 1682, according to Orme and Mill.

Imáms; or, in other words, changed the public confession of faith to that of the Shí'ahs. In 1512 A.D., under the weak government of Maḥmúd Sháh, he declared his independence, and assumed the title of King of Golkonda, the name of a village where he built his capital, and called it Muḥammadnagar, after Muḥammad Sháh Báḥmaní, but the original name prevailed. In the commencement of his reign he was incessantly occupied in reducing the Hindú Rájás of Telingána till the year 1533, when Ism'aíl 'Adil Sháh entered his country and laid siege to the fort of Kalyání. A peace, however, was concluded through the mediation of Burhán Nizám Sháh. In 1543, in the ninetieth year of his age, Sulṭán Kuli Kuṭb Sháh was assassinated by a slave, or, according to another account, by Mír Maḥmúd Hamadání, Governor of Golkonda, at the instigation of his second son, Jamshíd. He left three other sons, Kuṭbu'd-dín, Ḥaidar, from whom the present city of Ḥaidarábád takes its name, and Ibrahím.

The parricide Jamshíd Kuṭb Sháh now ascended the throne, and caused his elder brother, Kuṭbu'd-dín, to be blinded. Sometime after a war broke out between the kings of Vijayapur and Aḥmadnagar, and Jamshíd supported the latter, but was defeated in several engagements by Asad Khán, the Vijayapur general, from whom he received a sabre wound which cut off the tip of his nose and his upper lip, disfiguring him for life; though, according to another account, it was his father, Sulṭán Kuli, who was so wounded, and not Jamshíd. Towards the close of his reign his temper became so morose that his younger brothers fled to Bidar, where Ḥaidar died. Ibrahím then fled to Vijayanagar, but hearing of Jamshíd's death, which took place in 1550 A.D., he returned to Golkonda and was proclaimed king, thus putting aside Subḥán Kuli, the infant son of Jamshíd, who had been for a few months on the throne.

Ibrahím Kuṭb Sháh was a prince of great personal valour. When at Vijayanagar, he killed in a duel with swords Ambar Khán, an officer in the pay of that court, and on the slaughtered man's brother taking up the quarrel, Ibrahím slew him also. In his public wars, however, Ibrahím showed more craft than courage. In 1558 he joined Ḥusain Nizám Sháh, King of Aḥmadnagar, in a war with Vijayapur, but deserted his ally before any encounter took place, and soon after joined 'Alí 'Adil Sháh and Rám Rájá of Vijayapur in besieging Aḥmadnagar. After the fall of that city, with characteristic inconsistency, Ibrahím again united his forces to those of Ḥusain Nizám Sháh, and in 1564 laid siege to Kalyání, a fort belonging to Vijayapur, and, in consideration of this aid, obtained the hand of Bībí Jamálf, the daughter of Ḥusain Sháh. Next year he marched with the other Muḥammadan kings of the Dakhan against Vijayanagar, and was present at the capture of the place, and defeat and death



of the Rájá. Afterwards, while in alliance with Murtazá Nizám Sháh, of Aḥmadnagar, in a war with 'Alí 'Adil Sháh, of Vijayapur, he made overtures to the latter, who forwarded his letter direct to Murtaza. Incensed at this treachery, Murtaza sent a body of horse to attack Ibrahim's camp, which they surprised, and took from him 150 elephants, at the same time putting the flower of his army to the sword. In order to check the pursuing enemy, his son, 'Abdu'l Kádír, asked leave to head an ambuscade and make a counter-surprise; but Ibrahim, jealous of the young prince, ordered him to be confined and then poisoned. He himself died suddenly, A.D. 1581, after a reign of 32 years, leaving six sons and thirteen daughters. He had greatly adorned his capital, Golkonda, and fortified it anew. Among his public works the Husain Ságar Tank and the Kálá Chabútarah, or Black Terrace, at Golkonda, may be particularly mentioned.

The *'Imád Sháhí dynasty of Berár* was founded by *Fathulláh*, originally a Hindú boy of Vijayanagar. Having been taken prisoner by the Muhammadans, he was enrolled in the body-guard of *Khán Jahán*, governor of Berár, who raised him to offices of distinction. After *Khán Jahán's* death, he repaired to the camp of *Muḥammad Sháh Báḥmaní*, and, through the influence of *Mahmúd Gawán*, received the title of 'Imádu-l Mulk, "Pillar of the State," whence his subsequent title of 'Imád Sháh. He declared himself independent in 1484 A.D., and shortly afterwards died, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Alláhu'd-dín.

This prince fixed his royal residence at Gával. When *Mahmúd Sháh Báḥmaní* fled from the persecutions of *Amír Baríd*, Alláhu'd-dín marched to his aid, but *Mahmúd* deserted his ally in the heat of the action which ensued. Sometime after, Alláhu'd-dín having got possession of the forts of *Mahúr* and *Rámgarh* by treachery, was involved in a war with *Burhán Nizám Sháh* of Aḥmadnagar, who utterly defeated him, and wrested from him the two forts. Alláhu'd-dín had married the daughter of *Ism'aíl 'A'dil Sháh*, but that monarch being at war with Vijayanagar was unable to assist him. In 1527, however, Alláhu'd-dín, with *Mírán Muḥammad*, governor of *Khandesh*, marched against *Burhán Nizám Sháh* to revenge his defeat, but was again routed with the loss of all his elephants and guns. *Mírán Muḥammad* then called in the aid of *Bahádúr Sháh*, king of *Gujarát*, and swore fealty to him, as did Alláhu'd-dín. *Bahádúr Sháh* advanced upon Aḥmadnagar, and compelled the king to acknowledge him as paramount, and had coins struck there in his own name. Shortly after this, Alláhu'd-dín died and was succeeded by his eldest son, *Daryá 'Imád Sháh*, who gave his daughter, *Bíbí Daulat*, in marriage to *Husain Nizám Sháh* of Aḥmadnagar. His reign appears to have been one of great tranquillity. He was suc-

ceeded by his son, Burhán 'Imád Sháh, then a child. The regent, Tufál Khán, soon usurped the throne, and confined the young prince in irons in the fort of Narnala. He was, however, himself made prisoner by Murtaza Sháh of Aḥmadnagar, who is said to have destroyed him and Burhán 'Imád Sháh, together with their whole families, amounting to 40 persons, by confining them in a close dungeon on a hot night. Berár thenceforward became an appanage of Aḥmadnagar.

The founder of the *Nizám Sháhi dynasty* of Aḥmadnagar was *Malik Aḥmad Nizám Sháh*, the son of Malik Náib Nizámu'l Mulk Bahrí. This Nizámu'l Mulk was originally a bráhman of Vijayanagar, and his real name was Timappa; but having been captured in his infancy by the army of Aḥmad Sháh Báhmaní, he was brought up among the royal slaves as a Muḥammadan, and named Hasan. The King was so struck with his abilities that he gave him to his son Muḥammad Sháh as companion; and when that Prince succeeded to the throne, Hasan rose to the first offices of the state, with the titles of Ashraf Humáyún and Nizámu'l Mulk. After the assassination of Khwájah Maḥmúd Gawán, he succeeded him as prime minister; but was himself assassinated at Bidar, by Pasand Khán, in the year 1486. Malik Aḥmad, at the time of his father's death, was in charge of Junír, Bír, and other districts near Daulatábád; he had already displayed uncommon vigor in his operations, and had reduced a number of hill forts, and the whole of the Konkan, and was besieging the seaport of Danda Rájpur, when the tidings of Nizámu'l Mulk's murder reached him. Returning forthwith to Junír, he assumed the titles of the deceased, and began to act as an independent prince. Maḥmúd Sháh Báhmaní despatched an army against him, under Shekh Muwallid, and Zainu'd-dín, the governor of Chákan, a neighbouring fortress, when Aḥmad suddenly escalated the walls, having made a rapid counter-march at night. He himself was the first to ascend, and 17 of his comrades in full armor secured their footing before the garrison were alarmed. The assailants continued to swarm up, and in spite of a desperate resistance, Chákan was taken, and Zainu'd-dín and 700 of his men cut to pieces. Aḥmad next made a night attack on Shekh Muwallid's camp, and slew him and the flower of his army, taking all the elephants, tents, and baggage.

Maḥmúd Sháh now sent forward another army of 18,000 men, under 'Azamatu'l Mulk, but Aḥmad Sháh passed him with 3,000 horse, and arriving suddenly at Bidar, gained over the guard, was admitted, and carried off, not only the females of his father's family, but also those of the principal officers now in arms against him. 'Azamatu'l Mulk was then disgraced, and Jahángír Khán appointed to succeed him; but on the 28th of May, 1490 A.D., Aḥmad made a

night attack upon his camp, and put to the sword, or made prisoners, the greater part of his army. Jahángír himself, and many of his chief officers, were among the slain. Aḥmad Sháh, in commemoration of this victory, which was called the "Victory of the Garden," built a palace, the ruins of which still exist at Aḥmadnagar. He laid out there an elegant garden, which was beautified by his successors, surrounded with a fortification, and called *Bágh Nizám*. Moreover, being now placed by his successes beyond all risk of reduction, he assumed the white canopy, and directed his own name to be substituted for the Báhmaní king in the public prayers. In 1493, Aḥmad, at the solicitation of Kásim Baríd, compelled Yúsuf 'A'dil Sháh to raise the siege of Bidar. He then himself unsuccessfully besieged Daulatábád for two months. Next year, A.D. 1494, he laid the foundation of a new capital for his dominions, which he called Aḥmadnagar, or "the city of Aḥmad." It was built on the banks of the Sena river, and near the palace of the *Bágh Nizám*. In the meantime, Malik Ashraf, the governor of Daulatábád, had called in the aid of Maḥmúd Sháh Begarḥa, king of Gujarát. This led to more than one campaign between Aḥmad Nizám Sháh and Maḥmúd in 1499 and the following years; but at length the garrison of Daulatábád deposed their commander, and surrendered to Aḥmad Sháh. In 1508 A.D. Aḥmad Sháh died. He was an able general and politician, and renowned for his justice. Among other accomplishments he was an expert swordsman, and used to permit young men to exhibit their prowess before him in single combat, till the practice grew to such a height that one or two perished every day. The king then discountenanced these fights; but duelling had taken such firm root that it spread all over the Dakhan, insomuch that Firishtah tells us he himself saw two brothers, respectable grey-bearded men, and the son of one of them, engage three other grave and elderly gentlemen, who were also brothers, -with such fury that all six combatants were slain.

Burhán Nizám Sháh, the son of Aḥmad, ascended the throne in his seventh year. At ten he was an accomplished scholar for those days, and Firishtah mentions having seen in the Royal Library, at Aḥmadnagar, a work on the duties of kings, copied by him at that early age. In 1510, he was present, mounted on the same horse with his tutor, at the battle of Ranúrí, when his troops entirely defeated the army of 'Imádu'l Mulk, king of Berár. A peace followed this victory, but hostilities were soon recommenced, in consequence of a claim to the district of Pátrí, in the Berár dominions, preferred by Burhán Sháh, whose ancestors had been the bráhman accountants of the place, before they moved to Vijayanagar, where Nizámu'l Mulk, the grandfather of Burhán, had been taken prisoner, and converted to Islám. It is a striking proof of the importance

attached to such hereditary offices in Hindústán, that, after a change of faith, and after rising from a private station to a throne, the family of Burhán Sháh should have perseveringly made war to recover this district. In 1523, Burhán married BÍbí Maryam, the sister of Ism'aíl 'A'díl Sháh; in 1524 he attacked his brother-in-law, in conjunction with the kings of Bidar and Berár, but suffered a sanguinary defeat. In 1527 he took the fort of Pátrí and razed it to the ground, giving over the district in charity to his relatives, the bráhmans, in whose hands it continued for several generations. 'Imád Sháh then called in the aid of Bahádur Sháh, king of Gujarát, who occupied Ahmadnagar, taking up his quarters in Burhán's palace, and compelled him to submit to a disadvantageous peace. Burhán Sháh, in short, acknowledged himself the vassal of the king of Gujarát, and even submitted to stand in his presence. In 1531 he invaded the dominions of Ism'aíl 'A'díl Sháh, but was totally defeated by him, with the loss of 4,000 men. In 1537 he was more successful, and took 100 elephants and some guns from the king of Vijayapur. In 1542 he made another successful campaign in the same territory; but, in 1546, he was defeated by Ibrahim 'A'díl Shah, with the loss of 250 elephants and 170 guns. In subsequent campaigns against Vijayapur he was very successful; but in 1553, while besieging the capital of that name, he was seized with a mortal disease and returned to Ahmadnagar to die. His body was sent to the holy Karbalá-a in Persia, and entombed near the burial-place of Husain, the grandson of the prophet.

Husain Nizám Sháh, the eldest son of Burhán, succeeded his father at the age of 13 years. The beginning of his reign was disturbed by the pretensions of his half-brother, Sháh Haidar, whose rebellion he quelled in spite of the support given to the pretender by Ibrahim 'A'díl Sháh. In 1557 he gave his daughter in marriage to the king of Berár. In the same year his capital was besieged by the united forces of Vijayapur, Golkonda, and Vijayanagar, and Husain was compelled to accept a very ignominious peace. In 1562 he gave his eldest daughter to Ibrahim Kutb Sháh, and with him laid siege to Kalyáni, which the king of Vijayapur had wrested from him. 'Alí 'A'díl Sháh, however, called to his aid Rámraj of Vijayanagar and the kings of Bidar and Berár, and inflicted a signal defeat on Husain, taking from him 660 pieces of cannon, and among them the celebrated gun of Vijayapur, the largest piece of brass cast ordnance in the world (see Vijayapur in Bombay Presidency), which had been cast by Chalebí Rámí Khán at Ahmadnagar. Three days afterwards he was again put to the rout and lost his few remaining guns. The enemy pursued him to Ahmadnagar, which they entered, and the Hindú soldiers of Rámraj committed every species of atrocity there. They were unable, however,

to take the fort; and, after beleaguering it for some time, the siege was raised by an extraordinary flood of the Sena, which is said to have swept away 25,000 of Rámraj's troops. In 1564 Husain Nizám joined the Muhammadan league against Rámraj, who encountered them with an immense host, said by Firishtah to have consisted of 2,000 elephants, 70,000 horse, and 900,000 infantry! but was defeated and slain. Husain Nizám Sháh died at Ahmadnagar in 1565, soon after this victory, of a disorder brought on by excess.

The son of Husain, Murtaza Nizám Sháh, was yet a minor, when by his father's death he became king. His mother, Khunza Sultánah, acted as Regent, and conducted in person an invasion of the Vijayapur dominions, and afterwards of Berár. In 1569 he caused his mother to be seized and began to act for himself. Shortly after, he began to display that blind violence which obtained for him the name of Díwánah, "the madman." Being enraged with Kishwar Khán, the governor of the fort of Dhárúr and General of the Vijayapur forces, he charged up to the gates at full gallop, amid a shower of rockets and cannon balls. Suddenly the fire ceased, and the enemy evacuated the fort, a lucky arrow having killed Kishwar Khán, and the garrison being terrified by the madness of the attack. Soon after this, Murtaza concluded an alliance with 'Alí 'Adil Sháh, according to which he was at liberty to reduce the kingdoms of Berár and Bidar, while the Vijayapur king prosecuted his conquests in the Karnátak. Berár was soon subdued, and Burhán 'Imádu'l-Mulk, the king, with his usurping minister, Tufál Khán, were made prisoners and died suddenly in confinement. Murtaza then marched against Bidar, but was recalled by the invasion of Berár by Mírán Muhammad Sháh, King of Khandesh. This invasion he soon repelled, and obliged the ruler of Khandesh to buy peace with a large sum of money. He would soon have reduced the kingdom of Bidar also, but Mírzá Khán Işfahání, the crafty agent of Ibrahim Kuţb Sháh, managed to fill his mind with suspicions of his minister, Changíz Khán. Murtaza, in consequence of these doubts, compelled the faithful Changíz to drink poison, but afterwards, discovering his error, he called his nobles together, and, committing the government to Mír Kází Beg, shut himself up in an apartment of his palace, and refused to meddle in public affairs, as being unworthy to reign. In 1584 he obtained Khadíjah, the sister of Ibrahim 'Adil Sháh, in marriage for his son, Mírán Husain, but, being jealous of the young prince, endeavoured to destroy him. A sanguinary struggle followed between the king's faction and that of the prince, and the historian Firishtah was engaged on the side of the king. Mírán Husain, however, proved victorious, and put his father to death by suffocating him in a bathing room, the doors and windows of which were closed, while a great fire was kindled beneath.

The reign of the parricide Mírán Husain was short and bloody. It lasted but ten months and three days, when he was beheaded by his minister, Mírzá Khán, whom he had intended to destroy. The minister, in turn, was seized by a chief named Jamál Khán, hewn in pieces, and his limbs affixed to different buildings. The bodies of his friends were rammed into cannon and blown to fragments.

Jamál Khán, who was now the most powerful noble in the State, raised Ism'áil Nizám Sháh, the son of Burhán Nizám Sháh, and nephew of Murtaza, to the throne. Being himself of the schismatic sect of Mahdí, who believe that Saiyid Muhammad, A.D. 1550, was the promised Imam Mahdí, he persuaded the king to embrace that heresy. It is a sect still numerous in the Dakhan, the Núwábs of Karnul, Elichpur, and Tuljepur being followers of it. Jamál Khán was opposed by Šalábat Khán, who had been formerly prime minister of Murtaza, but totally defeated him at Paitan on the Godávarí. Šalábat Khán soon after died at Talagáon, near Púnah, and his mausoleum at Aḥmadnagar is one of the most picturesque objects of that interesting capital. Meantime Burhán Sháh, the father of Ism'áil, who was a refugee with the Emperor Akbar, thought the opportunity favorable for advancing his own claims to the throne. He was supported by Vijayapur, and after a short but fierce struggle defeated and killed Jamál Khán, and having imprisoned his son Ism'áil, was proclaimed king by the title of Burhán Nizám Sháh II. His reign was short and inglorious, lasting but 4 months and 16 days. The principal event of it was a terrible slaughter inflicted on his forces by the Portuguese. He died in 1594, and was succeeded by his son Ibrahim Nizám Sháh, who, after a short reign of four months, was killed leading his troops in an attack on the forces of Vijayapur.

The son of Ibrahim being an infant, it was proposed by Miyán Manjú, the noble of the greatest authority, to put him aside and elevate some older prince of the Nizám Sháhí family to the throne. For this purpose Aḥmad, the son of Táhir, was elected, and he was crowned August 6th, 1594. It was soon discovered, however, that he was of spurious birth, and this led to a sanguinary struggle with a faction headed by Ikhlás Khán, who was at first so successful that Miyán Manjú invited the prince Murád Mírzá, son of the Emperor Akbar, to occupy Aḥmadnagar. Murád Mírzá accordingly advanced with 30,000 Mughul and Rájput horse, but before he could enter the fort of Aḥmadnagar, Manjú had completely defeated the other party, and had begun to regret his overtures to the Mughuls. He, therefore, made preparations for the defence of the fort; and, leaving Chánd Bibí, the aunt of the late king, and some of his own confidential adherents there, he departed with Aḥmad to seek the aid of the Kings of Golkonda and Vijayapur. No sooner was he gone than

Chánd Bibí caused the chief officer he had left to superintend his interests to be assassinated, took upon herself the conduct of the defence, and proclaimed Bahádur Sháh, the infant son of the late monarch, king. The Mughuls invested Aḥmadnagar on all sides, and cut off Sháh 'Alí, a chief who endeavoured to throw reinforcements into the place, with all his men. Ibrahim 'A'dil Sháh of Vijayapur, alarmed at this progress of the Delhi army, despatched 25,000 horse to Sháhdurg on the frontier, where they were joined by Miyán Manjú, Aḥmad Sháh, and Ikhlás Khán, who laid aside his factious feelings on this emergency. Murád Mírzá, hearing of this assemblage, determined to storm, and five mines were laid, which were to explode on the morning of Feb. 21, 1590. One of the Mughul nobles, however, betrayed the secret during the night to the garrison, who were thus enabled to render two of the mines useless. They were in the act of removing the powder from the third when it exploded, killing numbers of the counter-miners, and throwing down several yards of the wall. A panic seized the garrison, but Chánd Bibí, with a veil over her face, and a naked sword in her hand, rushed into the breach, and her example brought back the fugitives. Animated by her heroism, the besieged fought with such desperation that, though attack succeeded attack from four p.m. till nightfall, they were all repulsed. During the night, the breach, under the superintendence of Chánd Bibí, was built up seven or eight feet, and the Mughuls were so daunted by the defence that they made terms and retired, on the province of Berár being ceded to them. From that time the Lady Chánd was called Sultánah Chánd, "the Empress Chánd." Bahádur Sháh was proclaimed king; but the fall of the kingdom was at hand. After three troublous years, Akbar himself marched towards the Dakhan in the beginning of the year 1599 A.D. He laid siege to the fort of Asírgarh, while Prince Dániyál Mírzá and Khán Khánán operated against Aḥmadnagar. Chánd Sultánah was basely murdered by the garrison, and the Mughuls, having stormed the fort, gave no quarter. Asírgarh fell at the same time, and Bahádur Sháh was imprisoned in the fortress of Gwálior, where he was at the time Firishtah wrote his history.

From this time, then, the kingdom of Aḥmadnagar may be said to have become a province of the Mughul empire; but the Nizám Sháhí officers having made the son of Sháh 'Alí king, by the title of Murtaza Nizám Sháh II., this puppet monarch held his court for some time at Parendá. Meantime, an Abyssinian chief, named Malik Ambar, rose to great power, and eventually reduced under his control nearly the whole of the Aḥmadnagar territories. He, in 1610 A.D., founded the city of Khirkí, to which Aurangzib afterwards gave the name of Aurangábád, and was renowned for his

justice and wisdom. He abolished revenue farming, and collected the sums due from the land to government by bráhmaṇ agents under Muḥammadan superintendence. He restored the village system where it had fallen into decay, and revived a mode of assessment by collecting a moderate proportion of the produce in kind, and commuting this for a money payment after the experience of a few seasons. His territories thus became thriving and populous; and though he occasionally met with reverses, the ancient Nizám Sháhí flag, which he hoisted on the impregnable rock of Daulatábád, was never lowered; and he even for a time regained Berár and Aḥmadnagar itself. But in 1626 he died, and his death was followed by the final annexation of Aḥmadnagar to the Mughul empire.

*Kásim Baríd* was the founder of the *Baríd Sháhí dynasty* of *Bidar*. He was a Turk, and was sold as a Georgian slave to Sultán Muḥammad Sháh Lashkarí Báhmaṇí. He distinguished himself in reducing the rebel Maráṭhas of Paitan and Chákan; and having slain the chief Sahají, was rewarded by the daughter of his deceased foe being bestowed on his son, Amír Baríd, by Muḥammad Sháh. The tribe of the Maráṭha chief now joined him as retainers, and it was by their aid he rose to greatness, and usurped the forts of Kandhar, Udgarh, and Ausa. He died in 1504, having for 12 years acted as an independent prince.

His son, Amír Baríd, reigned 45 years. In his time, Kalímu'lláh Sháh Báhmaṇí, the last of his race, fled from Bidar to Aḥmadnagar. At the same period, Ism'aíl 'Adil Sháh took Bidar, but made it over again to Amír Baríd, whom he invited to Vijayapur, and entrusted 4,000 foreign horse to his command, deputing him to aid Burhán Nizám Sháh. In the campaign which followed Amír Baríd greatly distinguished himself. Some years after, when proceeding again to assist Burhán Sháh, he died at Daulatábád. He was succeeded by 'Alí Baríd, who first took the title of Sháh. Having offended Sháh Táhir, the envoy of Burhán Sháh, who was sent to congratulate him on his accession, he incurred the resentment of that monarch, and in the war which followed he was divested of almost all his territories. Some years after, Murtaza Nizám Sháh besieged Bidar itself, and would have taken it but for the diversion effected by 'Alí 'A'dil Sháh. 'Alí Baríd reigned 45 years, according to Firishtah. The dates of the reigns of this dynasty are, as seen in Briggs' translation, involved in inextricable confusion. According to Grant Duff, Bidar was annexed to Vijayapur before the year 1573. The names of the other sovereigns who are said to have reigned at Bidar are as follows:—

	A.D.
Ibrahim Baríd Sháh, eldest son of 'Alí Baríd .....	1562
Kásim Baríd Sháh, brother of Ibrahim .....	1569
Nürzá 'Alí Baríd, son of Kásim .....	1572
Amír Baríd Sháh II., who was on the throne in 1609, when Firishtah wrote	1572



## KINGS OF GUJARÁT.

	A.D.
Muzaffar Sháh I. ....	1396
Ahmad Sháh I., grandson of M. Sháh.....	1412
Muhammad Sháh, son of Ahmad .....	1443
Kuṭb Sháh, son of Muhammad .....	1451
Dáúd Sháh, uncle of Kuṭb.....	1459
Mahmúd Sháh I., surnamed Begarha (Two-castle, from the forts of Gírnál and Champanír reduced by him, and before thought impregnable), nephew of Dáúd .....	1459
Muzaffar Sháh II., son of Mahmúd .....	1511
Sikandar Sháh, eldest son of Muzaffar.....	1526
Naṣír Khán, brother of Sikandar, is crowned under the title of Mahmúd Sháh II. ....	1526
Bahádúr Sháh, brother of Sikandar.....	1526
Bahádúr being murdered by the Portuguese, and dying without heirs, Mirán Muḥammad Sháh Farrukhí, king of Khandesh, is made king	1536
Mahmúd Sháh III., nephew of Bahádúr Sháh .....	1538
Ahmad Sháh II.....	1553
Muzaffar Sháh III.....	1561
Deposed by Akbar .....	1583

## KINGS OF MÁLWAH.

Sultán Diláwar Ghúrí, governor of Málwah, proclaims himself king, making Dhár and Mándu his capitals .....	1401
Hushang Ghúrí, son of Diláwar .....	1405
Muhammad Ghúrí, son of Hushang .....	1432
Mahmúd Khiljy .....	1435
Ghiyáṣu 'd-din, eldest son of Mahmúd .....	1469
Náṣíru 'd-din, son of Ghiyáṣu 'd-din .....	1500
Mahmúd II., younger son of Náṣír .....	1512
Bahádúr Sháh conquers Málwah .....	1534

## KINGS OF KHANDESH.

Malik Rájá Farrukhí .....	1370
Malik Naṣír, elder son of the above .....	1399
Mirán 'Adil Khán Farrukhí, son of the above.....	1437
Mirán Mubárah Khán Farrukhí, son of the above .....	1441
'Adil Khán Farrukhí I., eldest son of the above.....	1457
Dáúd Khán Farrukhí, brother of the above.....	1503
'Adil Khán Farrukhí II. ....	1510
Mirán Muhammad Sháh, son of the above .....	1520
Mirán Mubárah Khán Farrukhí .....	1535
Mirán Muhammad Khán Farrukhí, son of the above.....	1566
Rájá 'Ali Khán Farrukhí, brother of the above .....	1576
Bahádúr Khán Farrukhí, son of the above .....	1596

## REMARKABLE EVENTS CONNECTING INDIA WITH EUROPE.

Odoricus, an Italian friar, visits Thánah ....	1300
Vasco de Gama reaches Kolikod (Calicut) by sea.....	1498
Albuquerque, the Portuguese admiral, burns Kolikod, but is at last driven off.....	1510
Goa captured by the Portuguese; retaken by the natives; ceded to the Portuguese .....	1510
The Zamorin permits the Portuguese to build a fort at Kolikod .....	1513
Bombay occupied by the Portuguese.....	1532

	A.D.
The Venetian merchant, Cæsar Frederick, reaches Ahmadâbâd.....	1563
Thomas Stephens, of New College, Oxford, reaches Goa in October, and Sir Francis Drake lands at Ternate, and subsequently at Java .....	1579
A land expedition, organised by the Levant Company, reaches India .....	1589
Petition presented by 101 merchants and others to Elizabeth for a charter to trade with India.....	1599
John Mildenhall sent as Ambassador to Agra, which he reaches in 1603... } Charter for 15 years to "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading to the East Indies" .....	1600
A fleet from Torbay reaches Acheen in Sumatra, and Bantam in Java, establishing factories in each place .....	1601
Second Charter, by which the East India Company is made a corporate body, with the retention of a power to dissolve them at three years' notice. Captain Hawkins of the <i>Hector</i> reaches Agra with a letter to Jahângîr. The Dutch occupy Palikat .....	1609
The Mughul Emperor issues a <i>farmân</i> permitting the English to establish factories at Surat, Ahmadâbâd, Khambâyat, and Gogo .....	1611
Captain Best, with the <i>Dragon</i> and <i>Hosiander</i> , defeats the Portuguese squadron at Surat, and receives a <i>farmân</i> , authorising an English Envoy to reside at Agra, and the English to trade with Surat .....	1612
Sir Thomas Roe, Ambassador to Jahângîr, reaches India ... ..	1615
The Danish settlement of Tallangambadi (Tranquebar) founded .....	1617
The Dutch and English Companies contend for the exclusive trade with the Spice Islands.....	1618
The Dutch assign to the English a share of the pepper trade with Java and with Palikat.....	1619
Sir Robert Shirley courteously received by Jahângîr at Agra .....	1624
The East India Company receive permission to exercise martial law in India	1625
The English open trade with Durgarâzâpatnam .....	1635
Treaty with Portugal, by which the English are allowed to trade with Portuguese ports in India .....	1636
Gabriel Boughton, surgeon of the Company's ship <i>Hopewell</i> , cures the daughter of Shâh Jahân and the favorite mistress of the Nûwâb of Bengal, and so obtains for the Company the right to trade throughout the dominions of the Great Mughul .....	1638
The English remove from Durgarâzâpatnam to Madras.....	1639
Fort St. George built at Madras .....	1641
Fort St. George constituted a Presidency.....	1654
New Charter for seven years .....	1657
Forts on Malabar coast placed under Surat, Bengal under Madras .....	1658
The Dutch take Nâgapatnam from the Portuguese, and make it their capital on that coast .....	1660
Bombay ceded to England by the Portuguese as part of the Infanta Catherina's dower on her marriage with Charles II. ....	1661
A New Charter confirms former privileges, with the right to make peace and war, to exercise civil and criminal jurisdiction, and send unlicensed persons to England .....	1661
French East India Company established. Defence of Surat by the English against Sivaji, for which they are rewarded with fresh privileges by Aurangzib .....	1664
Island of Bombay granted by Charles II. to the East India Company .....	1668
The natives destroy the English factory at Honâwar, and murder every Englishman .....	1670
St. Helena granted by Royal Charter to the Company .....	1673
Bombay revolts under Captain Keigwin .....	1683

	A.D.
Admiral Sir Thomas Grantham arrives in Bombay, and Keigwin submits to his authority .....	1684
Bombay made a Regency, with sway over all the Company's establishments. Puducheri (Pondicherry) colonized by the French. English driven from Hugli, and allowed to return.....	1687
Fort St. David built. Yâkub Khân Şidi, the Imperial Admiral, lands in Bombay with 25,000 men, and takes Mazagâon .....	1689
Charter forfeited for non-payment of 5 per cent. levied on all Joint Stock Companies, but on October 1st a new charter granted by the King .....	1693
New Company incorporated under the name of "The English Company." The old Company, called "The London Company," ordered to cease trading in three years. Calcutta purchased by the old Company, and Fort William built .....	1698
The old Company obtain an Act authorising them to trade under the charter of the new Company .....	1700
Lord Godolphin's Award, by which the two Companies are united under the title of "The United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies." Three Presidencies established, and a Governor, with the title of General, and a Council appointed for Bombay, 29th of Sept.	1708
An Act passed (9 Anne, c. 7) that no person shall be a Director of the East India Company and a Director of the Bank of England at the same time	1711
July. Deputies from the Company arrive at Delhi, and on the 6th of January, 1717, obtain a <i>farmân</i> exempting their trade from duties, and allowing them to possess land round their factories .....	1715
Ostend East India Company formed .....	1717
The Emperor of Germany grants a charter to the Ostend Company, under which they carry on a successful trade .....	1723
Charter renewed till Lady-day, 1769. The Company accept 4 per cent. interest for £3,200,000 lent to Government, and pay a premium of £200,000 .....	1730
Swedish India Company formed .....	1731
The Company lend £1,000,000 to Government, and obtain an extension of privileges to 1783. Commencement of the contest between England and France in India .....	1744
War declared between England and France. A French fleet anchors 12 miles S. of Madras, and lands a force under Labourdonnais. Madras capitulates after a bombardment of five days. Labourdonnais signs a treaty to restore the town on a ransom being paid. This treaty violated by Dupleix, Governor of Puducheri .....	1746
December 19th. Dupleix fails in an attack on Fort St. David.....	1747
The English lay siege to Puducheri, but without success. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which Madras is restored to the English .....	1748
Sâhuji Râjâ of Tanjûr, dethroned by his cousin, calls in the aid of the English, who, after one repulse, take Devikôta, which was to be the guerdon of their assistance. They then desert their ally, and conclude a treaty with Pratâp Sing. Clive leads the storming party at Devikôta. The war in the Karnâtak begins .....	1749
Muhammad 'Ali, claimant of the Nûwâbship of the Karnâtak, whose cause is espoused by the English, takes refuge in Trichinâpalli, which is besieged by the French, under M. Lally and Chanda Şâhib. The siege ends in their utter discomfiture. Clive takes Arcot, and defends it against overwhelming odds .....	1751
Dupleix superseded. December 26th. Treaty of peace signed at Puducheri—the French and English withdraw from interference in the affairs of the Native Princes .....	1754

	A. D.
Commodore James takes Suwardnurg and Bankot from Angria, the Maráṭha piratical chief .....	1756
February 11th. Angria taken prisoner, and his forts destroyed, by Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive, assisted by the troops of the Peshwá. June 18th. Calcutta attacked by Sirájú'd-daulah. The tragedy of the Black Hole.....	1756
January 2nd. Calcutta retaken. June 23rd. Battle of Plassy. Mir J'afar made Šúbahdár of Bengal in room of Sirájú'd-daulah. War renewed in the Karnátak. English take Madura.....	1757
April 28th. Count de Lally arrives at Fort St. David with a French fleet, and an indecisive action is fought next day. June 1st. Lally takes Fort St. David, and razes the fortifications. June 11th. A commission arrives in Bengal from the Directors, appointing a Council of ten, with a Governor for each three months. All invite Clive to assume the Government. October 4th. Lally takes Arcot; and December 11th lays siege to Madras .....	1758
February 19th. Lally retires from before Madras. April 6th. The English take Machhlipatnam. The Nizám engages not to permit the French to settle in his dominions. November 9th. Wandewash taken .....	1759
February 9th. Arcot taken by the English. July. Vansittart succeeds Clive as Governor of Bengal. Clive sails for England in February. Mir Kásim succeeds Mir J'afar as Šúbahdár of Bengal. Sept. 27th. Revenues of Vardhawán (Burdwán), Midnapur, and Chittagáon ceded to the English by Mir Kásim. ....	1760
January 7th. Battle of Pánipat. 14th. Puducheri taken by the English. Fall of the French power in the Dakhan. Sháh 'Alam II. defeated at Patna by Major Carnac. Treaty with Sháh 'Alam, who acknowledges Mir Kásim on payment of £240,000 per annum .....	1761
February 10. Puducheri and other forts restored to the French by the treaty of Paris. June 25th. Mr. Ellis, with a body of troops, attacked and made prisoners by Mir Kásim at Patna. July. The English agree to restore Mir J'afar. Nov. 6th. Patna taken by the English: Mir Kásim seeks shelter with the Núwáb of Awadh (Oude).....	1763
October 23rd. Battle of Buxar .....	1764
Death of Mir J'afar at Calcutta. His son, Najmu'd-daulah, succeeds him. May 3rd. Lord Clive arrives at Calcutta as Governor-General. August 12th. The Diwání, or Revenue of Bengal, Bahár, and Orissa granted to the Company by Sháh 'Alam II. ....	1765
May 8th. Najmu'd-daulah dies, and is succeeded by his brother, Saifu'd-daulah. The Nizám (Nizám 'Ali) cedes the N. Šarkárs to the English for 5 lákhs per annum .....	1766
January. Lord Clive sails for England. September. The troops of the Nizám and Haidar 'Ali attack the English .....	1767
Treaty with the Nizám, who cedes the Karnátak, Bálághát, and reduces the tribute for the Šarkárs. The English attack Haidar Ali .....	1768
April 4th. Haidar, at the gates of Madras, forces the English to conclude a peace .....	1769
March 10th. Saifu'd-daulah dies, and is succeeded by his brother, Mubá-raku'd-daulah .....	1770
War between Haidar and the Maráṭhas. Sháh 'Alam II. enters Delhi with the Maráṭhas .....	1771
July. Maráṭhas make peace with Haidar.....	1772
Alláhábád and Korah sold to the Núwáb of Awadh (Oude) for 50 lákhs; the Núwáb agrees with Warren Hastings to pay 40 lákhs for the reduction of Rohilkhand. Tanjúr taken by the English on the 16th of Sept.,	

- at the instigation of the Nŭwáb of the Karnátak, and the Rájá handed over to the Nŭwáb. The Dutch expelled by the English from Nágapatnam. June. Act to lend the Company £1,400,000 at 4 per cent. Act to regulate the votes of Proprietors of East India Stock, giving one vote to holders from £500 to £1000, two votes from £1000 to £3000, three from £3000 to £6000, four from £6000 to £10,000. Six Directors to go out by rotation. The other Presidencies subordinated to Bengal. Supreme Court established at Calcutta. .... 1773
- April 23rd. The Rohillas defeated by the English. Dec. 28th. Salsette and Bassein taken by the Bombay troops. .... 1774
- March 6th. Treaty between the Bombay Government and Raghubá, the deposed Peshwá, who cedes Salsette and Bassein, and the revenues of Bharuch. May. The Bombay army march to the aid of Raghubá, and gain several successes. The Supreme Government disapprove of the proceedings of the Bombay Government, who are compelled to withdraw their troops, whereupon Raghubá retreats to Súrat. Aşafu'd-daulah, Nŭwáb of Áwadh, cedes Benares to the Company, who guarantee to him by treaty Alláhábád and Korah. December 11th. Lord Pigot succeeds to the Government of Madras. .... 1775
- April 11th. Rájá of Tanjúr restored. August 5th. Nand Kumár hanged for forgery. Lord Pigot (August 24th) arrested by two suspended members of Council and their faction, and imprisoned ..... 1776
- July. Chandranagar (Chandernagore), Machhliapatnam, and Karikal taken from the French. August 10th. The French fleet defeated off Puducheri, and driven from the coast by the English. October. Puducheri surrenders. Hastings tenders his resignation to the Court of Directors, who accept it, but he subsequently disowns it ..... 1777
- January 4th. Expedition to Púnah to support Raghubá. It fails, however, and the English are compelled to sign a treaty, by which they give up Raghubá and all their acquisitions since 1756. January 30th. General Goddard's celebrated march across India. He reaches Burhánpur in the Nizám's country, leaves it on the 6th of February, and reaches Súrat on the 26th ..... 1779
- January 2nd. General Goddard crosses the Tapti, and takes Dubhoi (Jan. 20th), and Ahmadábád (Feb. 15th), and April 5th he defeats Sindhia. August 25th. Sir Hector Munro arrives from Madras to oppose Haidar. September 10th. Baillie's defeat and surrender. 11th. The English retreat, and reach Madras on the 13th. October 31st. Haidar takes Arcot. Nov. 5th. Sir Eyre Coote arrives at Madras with reinforcements ..... 1780
- January 17th. Advance of Sir E. Coote. July 1st. He defeats Haidar near Porto Novo, and returns to Madras in November. June 22nd. Lord Macartney arrives at Madras as Governor. Sadras, Palikat, and Nágapatnam taken from the Dutch. October 24th. Judgeship of Şadr Diwání given by W. Hastings to Sir Elijah Impey, already Chief Judge of the Supreme Court. The Commons recall Impey in May following. The Company's Charter renewed by 21 Geo. III., c. 65, till March, 1794; the Company to pay £400,000, and to be allowed a dividend of 8 per cent. .... 1781
- February 18th. Colonel Brathwaite, with 100 Europeans, 300 cavalry, and 1,500 Sipáhís, after a gallant defence of two days, overpowered by Tipú, and his whole force cut to pieces or made prisoners. The battle took place about 40 miles from Tanjúr, on the Kolerun river. 19th. The French land 2000 men to aid Tipú. April 12th. Indecisive action between the fleets of Admiral Hughes and the French Admiral Suffrein. August 31st. The French take Trincomalce. September 8th. Action

between the fleets, in which the English have the advantage. Dec. 7th.	A.D.
Death of Haidar 'Ali .....	1782
General Matthews takes Bednúr. March. M. Bussy lands at Gudalúr (Cudalóre). General Stuart, who had succeeded Sir Eyre Coote, being ordered to march on Gudalúr, refuses, but sets out on the 21st of April at the rate of 2½ miles a day. He attacks Gudalúr on the 13th of June, and is repulsed with the loss of 62 officers and 920 men, nearly all Europeans, killed or mortally wounded. Indecisive action between Hughes and Suffrein. General Stuart's army saved by the peace between the English and the French: he is arrested and sent to England. The French possessions in India restored in pursuance of the treaty of Versailles. Trincomalee restored to the Dutch. Tipú retakes Bednúr, where Colonel Macleod had superseded General Matthews. The English army made prisoners, and treated with great cruelty by Tipú .....	1783
January 24th. The English garrison of Mangalúr, which had been besieged by Tipú since May 23rd, 1783, capitulates, and marches out with all the honors of war. March 11th. Peace with Tipú; conquests on both sides restored. August 13th. Mr. Pitt's Bill, 24 Geo. III., c. 25, establishes Board of Control.....	1784
Pulo Penang, or Prince of Wales's Island, purchased by the Company, and occupied July 6th. 26 Geo. III., c. 16, empowers Governor-General to act in opposition to his Council; c. 25 grants the power of recall of the Governor-General to the Crown .....	1786
February 13th. Trial of Warren Hastings began. Defence began June 2nd, 1791; acquitted April 23rd, 1795. The Court grant him an annuity of £4,000 for 28½ years from the 24th of June, 1785. September. Guntúr ceded by the Nizám .....	1788
Decennial land settlement in Bengal began; the same in Bahár next year: the whole completed in 1793, when it was declared perpetual. This is the Permanent Settlement of Lord Cornwallis, by which the Zamíndárs were declared landowners, they having been only the revenue agents of the Mughul Government. December 24th. Tipú attacks the lines of Travancore .....	1789
May 7th. Tipú ravages part of Travancore. June. Alliance between the English, Maráthas, and the Nizám against him; signed by the Maráthas on the 1st of June, by the Nizám on the 4th of July. June 13th. General Meadows opens the campaign.....	1790
February 5th. Lord Cornwallis marches to Vélúr. March 21st. Takes Bengalúr. May 26th. The English, on their retreat owing to disease, are joined by the Maráthas. July. The allies reach Bengalúr.....	1791
February 6th. The allies storm the redoubts at Shrirangpatnam (Seríngapatam). March 9th. Tipú signs treaty, by which he agrees to pay £3,300,900, and to give his two eldest sons as hostages .....	1792
Zila or District Courts for Civil Causes established in Bengal; Courts of Appeal at Calcutta, Patna, Dháka (Dacca) and Murshidábád; Šadr Diwáni 'Adálat (Final Civil Appeal) at Calcutta, and Šadr Nizámat 'Adálat (Final Criminal Appeal). Pudukcheri and other French settlements taken for the third time. New Charter for 20 years; salaries of Commissioners of Board of Control to be paid by the Company; the Commissioners not necessarily to be Privy Councillors. Company to provide 300 tons of shipping for private traders .....	1793
Sons of Tipú restored to him.....	1794
The Maráthas defeat the Nizám and compel him to cede territory. The Dutch settlements in Ceylon, at Banda, Amboyna, Malacca, and the Cape taken. Cochin surrenders after a gallant defence .....	1795

- September 1st. Treaty with the Nizám, by which he agrees to disband his French Contingent and receive four battalions of English ..... A.D. 1798
- May 4th. Seringapatam stormed and Tipú slain. Partition Treaty of Maisúr between the Nizám and the English. October 25th. Treaty with the Rájá of Tanjúr, "by which he surrenders his power to the English, receiving a lách of pagodas as pension, and one-fifth of the net revenue." December 29th. Sir J. Malcolm sails from Bombay as Ambassador to Persia ..... 1799
- May 13th. The Náváb of Surat compelled to sign away his government for a pension of £10,000 per annum. October 12th. Subsidiary Treaty with the Nizám, who gives up his share of Maisúr in consideration of English protection ..... 1800
- July 16th. On the death of the Náváb of the Karnátak the English demand that his heir, 'Alí Husain, shall sign away his power, and on his refusal raise 'Azimu'd-daulah, his nephew, to the throne on that condition. October 14th. Jeswant Ráo Holkar defeated at the battle of Indúr (Indore) by Daulat Ráo Sindhia. November 14th. The Náváb of Awadh compelled to cede Rohilkhand and the Doáb to the Company. Puducheri restored to the French in pursuance of the Treaty of Amiens. ..... 1801
- June 4th. The Náváb of Farukhábád compelled to cede his territory to the English for a pension of 108,000 rupees per annum. October 25th. Holkar defeats Sindhia near Pánah, whereupon the Peshwá flies to Bassein, leaving with the English Resident an engagement to subsidize a body of English troops. The Governor General ratifies the engagement, and agrees to restore the Peshwá. December 31st. Treaty of Bassein, by which the Peshwá agreed not to hold intercourse with any State except in concert with the English Government, and to cede territory for the support of the contingent furnished by the Company ..... 1802
- March. The Madras army, under General Wellesley, march on Pánah, which they reach on the 20th of April. May 13th. The Peshwá is escorted back to Pánah by British troops. August 12th. General Wellesley takes Ahmadnagar; September 23rd, gains the victory of Assaye over Sindhia and the Rájá of Nágpur; takes Burhánpur October 13th, and Asirgarh October 21st; defeats Sindhia at Argaum November 28th, and takes Gávelgarh December 15th. General Lake takes Aligarh on the 30th of August, defeats the Maráthas near Delhi September 12th, and enters Delhi, where he captures the Emperor and his family; enters Agra October 17th, and gains the victory of Laswaree November 1st. December 17th. The Rájá of Nágpur cedes Katak (Cuttack) and agrees to admit no Europeans but the English into his dominions. December 29th. Sindhia cedes Ahmadnagar, Bharuch, and his forts in the Doáb, with a like clause about the exclusion of Europeans. Puducheri taken again ..... 1803
- February 27th. Treaty of Burhánpur with Sindhia, who agrees to receive and support a British Contingent. April 16th. War declared against Holkar. August 24th. Colonel Murray takes Indúr. Oct. 8th. Holkar attacks Delhi, but after a nine days' siege is repulsed by Lieut.-Colonels Burn and Ochterlony. November 13th. General Frazer defeats Holkar at the battle of Díg (Deeg) and takes 87 guns. December 4th. The Fort of Díg taken ..... 1804
- January 3rd. Siege of Bharatpur (Bhurtpore) began, and lasted till the 22nd of February, when Lord Lake determined to retreat, having lost 2334 men in killed and wounded before the place. April 10th. The Bharatpur Rájá signs a treaty, by which he agrees to pay 20 lákhs, cede certain districts, and deliver his eldest son as hostage. October 5th.

	A. D.
Marquis Cornwallis dies. Nov. 23rd. Treaty with Sindhia. Dec. 24th. Treaty with Holkar, who renounces all territory N. of the Chambal and in Bandalkhand, and agrees to exclude all Europeans but English from his dominions .....	1805
July 10th. The mutiny of Vélár, in which Colonel Fancourt and 13 other officers and 99 Europeans were massacred .....	1806
War with the Rájá of Travancore.....	1807
Colonel Hamilton defeats the Travancore army at Anjuricha, December 3rd.	1808
January 15th. Travancore army again defeated. February 10th. The lines stormed and entirely in possession of the English on Feb. 21st, which ends the war. August 6th. The Madras troops at Chitradurg (Chittledroog) mutiny and seize the treasure, and march to join other mutineers at Seringapatam, but are routed by Colonel Gibbs. August 23rd. The mutineers at Seringapatam surrender at discretion .....	1809
February 17th. Island of Amboyna taken by the English. July 9th. Isle of Bourbon taken. August 9th. Banda; 29th, Ternate; December 9th, Mauritius taken .....	1810
July 21st. Charter renewed, but trade with India thrown open by 53rd Geo. III., c. 155.....	1813
May 29th. The Nipálese attack the Police Station at Bhutwal. Nov. 1st. War declared against Nipál .....	1814
April 27th. Nipál cedes Kumáon by the Convention of Almora .....	1815
June 13th. Báji Ráo cedes Ahmadnagar and other places. October 18th. The Governor General takes the field against the Pindáris. Nov. 6th. The Gáikwád cedes Ahmadábád. Nov. 5th. Battle of Khirkí, in which Báji Ráo Peshwá is defeated by Colonel Burr, the Maráthas being 12 to 1. November 26th. Battle of Sitábalái, in which Colonel Hopeton Scott defeats the Rájá of Nágpur, the Maráthas being twelve times more numerous than the English. December 28th. Sir T. Hislop gains the battle of Mehidpur against Holkar .....	1817
January 6th. Holkar makes peace. May. Pindári war ended by the destruction of the principal hordes and their chiefs. June 3rd. Báji Ráo, the last of the Peshwás, surrenders, and is sent to Benares .....	1818
The Náwáb of Awadh (Oude) at the suggestion of Lord Hastings, Governor-General, assumes the title of king, and renounces his nominal fealty to the Emperor of Delhi.....	1819
Malacca ceded to the British by the Dutch. Singhapur purchased. War with Barmah. April 12th, 17th. The Bengal army embark for Rangún, which is taken May 11th. August. Mergui, Tavoy, and Tenasserim surrendered. October. Martaban and Yeh taken. Nov. 1st. Mutiny at Barrackpur of the 47th Bengal Native Infantry, with part of the 26th and 62nd Native Infantry. The 47th erased from the army list, and many sipáhis of that corps killed .....	1824
Feb. 13th. A rebellion at Bharatpur on the death of the Rájá Baldev Singh. A strong faction support Durjan Sál, his brother; the English declare in favor of Baldev Singh, infant son of the late Rájá. Dec. 9th. British troops march for Ava .....	1825
January 18th. English, under Lord Combermere, take Bharatpur, with the loss of 578 men killed and wounded. February 24th. Treaty of Yandabu, by which the Barmese cede Assam, Arakan, Tavoy, Mergui, and Tenasserim, and pay £1,000,000 .....	1826
February. Europeans allowed to hold lands in India in their own names on lease for 60 years. December. The abolition of Sati, or "widow burning," decreed .....	1829



June 18th. By 2 Wm. IV., c. 117, natives of India allowed to sit as jurymen and justices of the peace.....	A. D. 1832
August 18th. Royal assent given to 3 and 4 Wm. IV., c. 85, by which the Charter is renewed till April 30th, 1854, the property of the Company being held in trust for the Crown for the service of India. From April 22nd, 1834, the China trade of the Company to cease, and all their commercial transactions to close. St. Helena to revert to the Crown.....	1833
April 6th. Markára, capital of Kurg, taken. 10th. Rájá deposed, and Kurg annexed.....	1834
October 1st. The Simla Proclamation. Lord Auckland declares war against Dost Muḥammad .....	1838
February 20th. Bengal army begins to march towards Afghánistán from Fírúzpur. March 6th. Enters the Bolán Pass. April 12th. The Bombay army enters the Bolán; and May 4th, joins the Bengal army at Kandahár. July 22nd. Fall of Ghazní. August 7th. Sháh Shuj'a enters Kábul .....	1839
November 3rd. Dost Muḥammad gives himself up to Sir W. Macnaghten	1840
November 2nd. Sir A. Burnes, Lieut. C. Burnes, and Lieut. Broadfoot, murdered at Kábul. The Afghans rise <i>en masse</i> against the English and Shah Shuj'a. December 23rd. Sir W. Macnaghten shot by Akbar Khán. December 26th, The English army at Kábul capitulate .....	1841
Jan. 6th. Retreat of the English from Kábul commences. Jan. 13th. The massacre of the British forces consummated at Gandámak. 18th. Akbar besieges Jalálábád. March 6th. Colonel Palmer surrenders at Ghazní. September 6th. General Nott retakes Ghazní. 15th. General Pollock enters Kábul. 17th. Rescue of Lady Sale and the Kábul prisoners. October 12th. The army begins to return to India .....	1842
February 17th. Sir C. Napier gains the battle of Miáni; and March 24th, the battle of Dabba or Haidarábád. December 29th. Sir H. Gough gains the victory of Mahárájpur (15 miles N.W. of Gwálíor) over the Gwálíor army, in the interest of the widow of Jankaji Ráo Sindhia; and on the same day, General Grey wins the battle of Paniár (a place 12 miles S.W. of Gwálíor) over another division of the same army .....	1843
December 18th. Battle of Múdkí, in which Sir H. Hardinge and Sir H. Gough capture 17 guns from the Sikhs. 21st, 22nd. Battle of Fírúزشahr; the Sikhs lose 74 guns, the English killed and wounded amount to 2,415 .....	1845
January 28th. Battle of Aliwal. Sir H. Smith takes 48 guns from the Sikhs. British killed and wounded, 589. February 18th. Battle of Sobráon; the Sikhs lose 13,000 men and 67 guns, the English 2,383 killed and wounded. March 9th. Treaty of Láhúr; the Jalandar Doáb annexed, the Sikhs to pay £1,500,000, and Dhalip Singh placed on the throne of Láhúr under the protection of the British. March 16th. Kashmír given to Guláb Singh by the treaty of Amritsar. Guláb Singh pays £1,000,000 of the Sikh fine .....	1846
April 20th. Murder of Mr. Vans Agnew and Lieut. Anderson by Mulráj, the Governor of Multán. July. Lieut. Edwardes and the Nówáb of Bháwalpur's army, under Fath Muḥammad Ghorí, the former Vazír of Mír Rustám of Sindh, lay siege to Multán. August 18th. Gen. Whish arrives, and batteries open on the 12th of September; on the 22nd of which month General Whish is obliged to raise the siege in consequence of the desertion of Shír Singh with 5000 Sikhs. December 27th. Siege of Multán renewed .....	1848

January 2nd. Multán taken by storm; 13th. Battle of Chilianwálá. Lord Gough's army repulsed by the Sikhs, with the loss of 2,357 killed and wounded; 22nd. Mulráj surrenders. February 21st. Victory of Gujarát over the Sikhs, who lose 53 guns and all their stores. The British killed and wounded amount to 807. March 14th. The Sikh army, 16,000 strong, lay down their arms; 29th. The Panjáb annexed. May 6th. Sir C. Napier arrives in Calcutta as Commander-in-Chief. September. Mulráj sentenced to be transported for life .....	A.D. 1849
February 27th. Sir C. Napier disbands the 66th Bengal Native Infantry for mutiny. May 25th. Jang Bahádur, the Nipálese Ambassador, arrives in England. July 2nd. Sir C. Napier resigns .....	1850
January 28th. Death of the ex-Peshwá Báji Ráo at Bithúr, near Kánhpur (Cawnpore). September 21st. Prince of Wales's Island, Singhapur, and Malacca formed into a separate government independent of Bengal. October 29th. British squadron arrives from Rangún to demand redress of injuries.....	1851
April 14th. Rangún taken by General Goodwin. June 4th. Pegu taken and evacuated; 9th. Prome taken and evacuated. October 9th. Prome retaken. Nov. 21st. Pegu retaken. Dec. 20th. Pegu annexed .....	1852
June 20th. Proclamation announcing the 2nd Barmese war at an end. Aug. 20th. By 16th and 17th Vict., c. 95, Charter renewed, until Parliament shall otherwise provide. After April, 1854, the Directors to be reduced from 24 to 18, the Crown to nominate six. Dec. 11th. Raghuji, the Rájá of Nágpur, having died without issue, his dominions were annexed .....	1853
February 7th. The King of Awadh (Oude) deposed and his kingdom annexed .....	1856
January. Great excitement and discontent apparent among the Bengal army. 18th. The subject of the greased cartridges discussed amongst them. 24th. The Telegraph Office at Barrackpur burnt down by the Sipáhís. February 15th. General Hearsey harangues the Barrackpur Brigade, consisting of the 2nd Grenadiers, the 34th Native Infantry, the 43rd Light Infantry, and the 70th Native Infantry, on the groundlessness of their suspicions. Colonel Birch telegraphs to the Schools of Musketry at Siyalkót and Ambála, in the Panjáb, to prohibit the use of the obnoxious cartridge. February 24th. A detachment of the 34th Native Infantry communicate their grievances to the 19th Native Infantry at Burhánpur (Berhampore). 26th. The 19th Native Infantry mutiny; but after treaty with Colonel Mitchell give up their arms. 27th. Distribution of <i>chápattis</i> from Kánhpur, being the signal for a general revolt. March 6th. The "Bentinek," sent to Rangún to bring Her Majesty's 84th Regiment to Calcutta, returns with that corps on the 20th. 29th. Mangal Páñdi, of the 34th Native Infantry, wounds Lieut. Baugh, the Adjutant of the regiment. 31st. The 19th Native Infantry disbanded at Barrackpur. April 3rd. Execution of Mangal Páñdi. 21st. Execution of the Jam'adár of the 34th who commanded the guard on the day that Lieut. Baugh was wounded. May 3rd. Sir H. Lawrence suppresses a mutiny of the 7th Awadh Irregulars at Lakhnau (Lucknow). 6th. The 34th Native Infantry disbanded at Barrackpur. 9th. 85 troopers of the 3rd Bengal Cavalry placed in irons for refusing the cartridges. 10th. The 3rd Cavalry and the 11th and 20th Native Infantry rise and set fire to the cantonments at Mirat, set at liberty the prisoners, murder many Europeans, and march for Delhi. 11th. The mutineers reach Delhi, and are joined by the whole garrison, the 38th, the 54th, and 74th Native Infantry, and a battery of Native Artillery.	

- The restoration of the Emperor of Delhi to the throne of his ancestors proclaimed at Delhi. 13th. The 45th and 57th Native Infantry mutiny at Firdzpur, but the mutiny is quickly quelled; other mutinies at various places; the 16th, 26th, and 49th Native Infantry disarmed at Miyán Mir, the cantonment of Láhúr. 16th. The Sappers and Miners mutiny at Mírat, and kill their commanding officer, Captain Fraser. 22nd. The 24th, 27th, and 51st disarmed at Pesháwar; the 55th Native Infantry dispersed or destroyed at Mardán; General Anson dies of cholera at Karnul, and is succeeded by Sir H. Barnard. 30th. The Mírat Brigade defeat the mutineers of Delhi at Gházíu'd-dín nagar. 31st. The 48th, 71st, and part of the 13th Native Infantry, and two troops of the 7th Cavalry, mutiny at Lakhnau. June 1st. The 44th and 67th Native Infantry disarmed at Agra. 4th. Mutiny of the 37th Native Infantry, a Sikh Regiment, and Irregular Horse at Benares, and of the 6th Native Infantry at Alláhábád, with great slaughter of Europeans. 5th. Mutiny of the 12th Native Infantry at Jhánsi and massacre of all the Europeans. 6th. Náná Sáhíb attacks Sir H. Wheeler's entrenchments at Kánhpur; the revolt general throughout the Bengal army. 8th. Sir H. Barnard takes up a position before Delhi, after a sharp action at Badlí Sarái, in which Colonel Chester, the Adjutant-General, is killed. June 27th. Náná Sáhíb massacres the Europeans at Kánhpur. July 1st. General Havelock's victorious advance. 4th. Sir H. Lawrence killed by a shell at Lakhnau. 5th. Sir H. Barnard dies of cholera, and is succeeded by General Reid. 17th. General Havelock retakes Kánhpur. 22nd. General Reid succeeded by General Wilson. August 2nd. Death of Guláb Singh. 10th. General Nicholson joins the camp at Delhi with a strong column. September 14th-20th. Storm and capture of Delhi, with the loss to the British of 1178 killed and wounded. 25th. General Havelock and Sir J. Outram fight their way to the Residency at Lakhnau, where the British garrison had been besieged since the beginning of June. Nov. 3rd. Sir C. Campbell reaches Kánhpur. 11th. Advances against Lakhnau. 13th. Defeats the enemy and reaches the Canal. 15th. Takes the Dilkushá Palace and the La Martinière. 16th. Storms the Sikandar bágh. 17th. Opens communication with General Outram. 22nd. The garrison of Lakhnau evacuate their position, and the retreat on Kánhpur commences. 25th. Death of General Havelock. 26th. General Windham defeats the van of the Gwálior Contingent. 27th. He is defeated and driven into his entrenchments by the Gwálior rebels and Náná Sáhíb, who take and plunder Kánhpur. December 6th. Sir C. Campbell defeats the Gwálior rebels with great slaughter and the loss of nearly all their guns..... 1857
- January 2nd. Sir C. Campbell takes Farrukhábad. Jang Bahádúr, the Nipálese General, advancing with 10,000 Gorkhas to the aid of the British, takes Gurakpúr. 12th, 16th. General Outram defeats the rebels at 'Alambágh ..... 1858

## THE MARÁTHA PRINCES.

- Sháhjí Bhoáslé, born at the village of Verol, near the caves of Eldra ..... 1594  
 Enters the service of the Emperor Sháh Jahán as the Chief of 5000 horse ..... 1629  
 Sivají, founder of the Maráthá empire, born at Junír, 50 miles N. of Púnah, May ..... 1627  
 Murders Afzal Khán, the Bijapur General at Pratápgarh ..... 1659  
 Assumes the title of Rájá ..... 1664  
 Repairs to Delhi ..... 1666  
 Ascends the throne ..... 1674

	A. D.
Dies, and is succeeded by his son Shambuji (Sambhajee) .....	1680
Shambuji executed by Aurangzib .....	1689
Rájá Rám, son of Sivaji, by his second wife .....	1690
Sháo or Sáhu Rájá, or Sivaji II., son of Shambuji .....	1708
Dies, and the Peshwás get possession of the whole power, 27th December .....	1749
Rám Rájá, son of Sivaji II. ....	1778
Sáhu II., adopted son of Rám Rájá, 4th of May .....	1808
Pratáp Singh, eldest son of Sáhu II., enthroned by the English .....	1818
Deposed by the English, and sent prisoner to Benares .....	1839
Appa Sháhí, brother of Pratáp Singh .....	1839
Dies, and his territories are annexed by the English .....	1848

## PESHWÁS.

Báláji Wíshwanáth .....	1714
Báji Ráo Balál, son of Báláji .....	1720
Báláji Báji Ráo, eldest son of Báji Ráo Balál.....	1740
Mahádev Ráo, second son of Báláji .....	1761
Náráyan Ráo, brother of Mahádev Ráo (murdered 3rd August, 1773).....	1772
Raghunáth Ráo, second son of Báji Ráo Balál .....	1773
Mahádev Ráo Náráyan, son of Náráyan Ráo .....	1774
Death of Raghunáth Ráo .....	1784
Mahádev Ráo Náráyan kills himself, and is succeeded by his cousin, Báji Ráo Raghunáth, son of Raghunáth, and born at Dhár, 1774 .....	1793
Deposed by the English, and his dominions annexed, June 3rd.....	1818

## NÚWÁBS AND KINGS OF ÁWADH (OUDEH OR OUDE).

S'aádat Khán, a Persian nobleman and Saiyid .....	1722
'Abdu'l-Manšúr, his nephew, surnamed Šáfidar Jang.....	1739
Shuj'au'd-daulah, son of Šáfidar Jang .....	1756
Ašafu'd-daulah, son of Shuj'a .....	1775
Vazír 'Alf, son of Ašafu'd-daulah, deposed in four months by the English as illegitimate, died a prisoner in Fort William in 1817 .....	1797
S'aádat 'Alí Khán, brother of Ašafu'd-daulah.....	1798
Gházíu'd-din Haidar, son of S'aádat 'Alí .....	1814
Assumes the title of King at the suggestion of the Governor General .....	1819
Naširu'd-din Haidar, son of Gházíu'd-din .....	1827
Muhammad 'Alí Sháh, brother of Gházíu'd-din .....	1837
Amjad 'Alí Sháh, son of Muhammad 'Alí.....	1842
Wajid 'Alí Sháh, son of Amjad 'Alí.....	1847

## GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA.

Alexander Dawson, January 27th, 1748.	Lord Cornwallis, February 24th, 1786.
William Fytche, January 8th, 1752.	Major-General W. Meadows, April 28th, 1790.
Roger Drake, August 8th, 1752.	Sir John Shore (Lord Teignmouth), September 19th, 1792.
Colonel Robert Clive, March 25th, 1758.	Sir Alured Clarke (provisionally), Sept. 20th, 1797.
Henry Vansittart, Nov. 23rd, 1759.	Lord Mornington (Marquess Wellesley), October 4th, 1797.
Lord Clive (2nd time), June 1st, 1764.	Marquess Cornwallis (2nd time), January 9th, 1805; died October 6th.
John Spencer, November 26th, 1764.	Sir George H. Barlow (appointment revoked by H.M.), Feb. 9th, 1806.
Harry Verelst, January 26th, 1767.	Lord Minto, July 19th, 1806.
John Cartier, December 16th, 1769.	
Warren Hastings, April 25th, 1771.	
John Macpherson (provisionally), Feb. 1st, 1785.	
Lord Macartney (declined office), July, 1785.	

- Earl of Moira (Marquess of Hastings),  
November 18th, 1812.  
George Canning (declined office), March,  
27th, 1822.  
William, Lord Amherst, Oct. 23rd, 1822.  
W. B. Bayley (provisionally) March  
23rd, 1828.  
Lord Wm. Bentinck, March 13th, 1828.  
William, Lord Heytesbury (appointment  
revoked by H.M.), Jan. 28th, 1835.  
Sir Charles Metcalfe (provisionally),  
March 20th, 1835.  
George, Lord Auckland, Aug. 12th, 1836.  
Edward, Lord Ellenborough (recalled by  
Court of Directors, May 1st, 1844),  
Oct. 20th, 1841.  
W. W. Bird (provisionally), 1844.  
Sir Henry Hardinge (Viscount Har-  
dinge), May 6th, 1844.  
James Andrew, Marquess of Dalhousie,  
August 4th, 1847.  
Charles John, Viscount Canning, July,  
1855.

## PRESIDENTS OF THE BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS FOR INDIA SINCE 1784.

- Thomas, Lord Sydney, September 3rd,  
1784.  
Right Hon. W. Wyndham Grenville,  
March 12th, 1790.  
Right Hon. Henry Dundas, June 28th,  
1793.  
George, Viscount Lewisham, May 19th,  
1801.  
Robert, Viscount Castlereagh, July 12th,  
1802.  
Gilbert, Lord Minto, Feb. 12th, 1806.  
Right Hon. Thomas Grenville, July  
16th, 1806.  
Right Hon. George Tierney, October  
1st, 1806.  
Right Hon. Robert Dundas, April 6th,  
1807.  
Dudley, Earl of Harrowby, July 16th,  
1807.  
Right Hon. R. Dundas (2nd time),  
November 13th, 1809.  
Robert, Earl of Buckinghamshire, April  
7th, 1812.  
Right Hon. George Canning, June 20th,  
1816.  
Right Hon. Charles Bathurst, July  
16th, 1821.  
Right Hon. C. Watkin Williams Wynn,  
July 8th, 1822.  
Robert Dundas Viscount Melville, Feb.  
7th, 1828.  
Edward, Lord Ellenborough, April 24th,  
1828.  
Right Hon. Charles Grant, December  
6th, 1830.  
Edward, Lord Ellenborough (2nd time),  
December 20th, 1834.  
Right Hon. Sir John C. Hobhouse,  
Bart., April 29th, 1835.  
Edward, Lord Ellenborough (3rd time),  
April 9th, 1841.  
W. F. Fitzgerald, Lord Fitzgerald and  
Vesci, October 28th, 1841.  
Frederic J., Earl of Ripon, May 23rd,  
1843.  
Sir J. C. Hobhouse, Lord Broughton,  
(2nd time), July 10th, 1846.  
Right Hon. Fox Maule, Feb. 5th, 1852.  
Right Hon. J. C. Herries, Feb. 27th,  
1852.  
Right Hon. Sir Charles Wood, Bart.,  
December 28th, 1852.  
Right Hon. R. Vernon Smith, 1855.  
Edward, Lord Ellenborough (4th time),  
March, 1858.

## FEASTS, CEREMONIES, SECTS, DRESS, AND MANNERS OF THE NATIVES.

## HINDÚ FEASTS.

In the subjoined brief description of the principal native holi-  
days, it will be seen that the order observed is that by the months,  
commencing with the month which corresponds to January and  
ending with that which answers to December.

*Makar Sankranti* (from *Makar*, the Sanskrit name for a monster,  
with the head and forelegs of an antelope, and the body and tail of  
a fish, the sign of the Zodiac corresponding to Capricorn, and  
*Sankranti*, the passage of the sun from one sign of the Zodiac to

another), held on the 5th of *Pausā* (Dec.-Jan.). From this day, when the sun reaches the most S. sign of the Zodiac till the time he leaves the most N. sign, is called *Uttarāyanam*, and the other half of the year *Dakṣhindāyanam*. The days of *Uttarāyanam* are considered lucky, and marriages and the ceremonies of investiture with the sacred cord are then performed, while the days of *Dakṣhindāyanam* are held to be unlucky. On *Makar Saṅkrānti* the Hindús bathe, and rub their bodies with the *tilāh* or sesamum seed, the favorite grain of the sun. On returning home they feast bráhmans, and present them with cups of bell metal filled with the sesamum seed, and with money. Friends and relations are invited to dinner, and the *tilāh* seeds are distributed with the words "Receive these *tilāhs* mixed with sugar, and be friendly with me throughout the year!" The sun is the sole deity worshipped this day. On the following day women distribute presents among their own sex.

*Rathsaptimí* (from *Rathah*, Skr., a car, and *Saptamí*, 7th day of the month), is the 7th of *Māgha* (Jan.-Feb.), the day on which a new sun is supposed to have mounted his car, and a feast is accordingly observed in honor of the sun. On this day the present *Manwantaram*, or reign of a distinct Manu, commenced. There are 14 *Manwantarams* in each *Kalpā* or grand period of creation and destruction, and the present is the 7th *Manwantaram* of this *Kalpā*.

*Shivarātri* (*Shiva*, the Hindú deity, and *Rātri*, night), a celebrated festival on the 14th of the moon's wane in *Māgha*, in honor of Shiva. The 14th of the dark half of every month is observed by the votaries of that god, but that day in *Māgha* is peculiarly sacred. The followers of Shiva fast during the day, and at night repair to the temples with a bráhman, who pours water over the *Lingam* or Phallus, the emblem of Shiva, and decorates it with flowers. He then reads over the 1000 names of the god, and at each name the worshippers cast leaves of the *Vileā*, commonly called *Bel*, the *Ægle Marmelos*, over the *Lingam*. This is done four times during the night, which is consequently a complete vigil from eight p.m. to five a.m. There is a tradition that on this night a hunter took shelter in a *Bel* tree, and to amuse himself plucked branches and threw them down, which, accidentally falling on a *Lingam*, so gratified Shiva that he immediately carried the hunter up to *Kailās*, his celestial abode. On this day there is a fair at Elephanta.

*Holí* (etymology doubtful), a most popular festival held on the full moon of *Phālgun* (Feb.-March) in honor of Kṛiṣṇa, the day previous being called *Dolā* or *Dolavatra*, in commemoration of the god's sportive swinging. This day is held as a complete saturnalia. An excellent account of the festival will be found in

Broughton's Letters from a Marátha Camp. Red powders mixed with water are squirted over every one, rude jests are passed, women addressed in ribald language, and persons are sent on bootless errands as in England on the 1st of April. At the close of the festival a pile is lighted in every village, on which a wheaten cake is placed, and the right of offering this is considered an honorary privilege. The *Rás*, or circular dance, by boys, is performed on this day in commemoration of Kṛiṣṇa dancing with the cowherdesses.

*Guddí Padwa* (from the Hindú word *Guddí*, "a paper kite," *Padwa*, flying), the Hindú New Year's day, is held on the new moon of *Chaitrah* (March-April). In the morning the Hindú anoints himself with oil, and then bathes in warm water. He then erects a pole bearing a flag, and crowned with a brass or copper vessel, in front of his house. This represents the banner of Indra, who is supposed to be similarly honored by the gods in their sphere. The leaves of the *Nimb* tree (*Melia Azadirachta*) are then chewed. *Pújá* or worship is then paid to the Almanac, and its predictions are heard from the mouths of the *Jyotiṣhts* or astrologers, to whom presents are given. This is an auspicious day for beginning to build, or engaging in any undertaking.

*Rám Naumi* (from *Rám*, the Skr. name of the 7th Incarnation of Viṣṇu, and *Naumi*, 9th day of the month *Chaitra*) (March-April), a festival in honor of the birth of Rámá, at *Ayodhyah*, *A'wadh* or Oudh. It is celebrated from the 1st of *Chaitra Shudh* to the 9th. The temples of Rámá are decorated and illuminated, and readers recite the verses of the *Rámáyana* or other poems descriptive of the glorious acts of the god. The red powder called *gulál*, which is the same as that used at the *Hólí*, and composed of barley meal or rice paste, or the *Trapa natans*, dyed with *baḡam* (sappan) wood, is thrown about. On the 9th the Hindús fast all day.

*Nág Pañchamí* (Skr. *Nág*, the cobra, and *Pañchamí*, 5th day), a day sacred to certain demigods called *Nágas*, *i.e.* Pythons, the 5th of *Shrávan* (July-August). On this day Kṛiṣṇa slew the great serpent *Káli*. Ceremonies are performed to ensure protection against the bite of snakes.

*Náriyal Púrnamá*, cocoa-nut day (from *Náriyal*, a cocoa-nut, and *Púrnamá*, the day of the full moon), is held on the 15th of the light half of *Shrávan*, and is reckoned to be the last day of the rainy season, and on that day cocoa-nuts are thrown into the sea as a propitiatory offering for those who are about to embark, as the season for voyages now commences.

*Janmah Aṣṭamí* (from Skr. *Janmáh*, birth, and *Aṣṭamí*, eighth day of the month), is a feast held on the 8th of the dark half of *Shrávan* in honor of the birth of Kṛiṣṇa, who was born at Mathura on that day at midnight. A sect of Hindús keep the following day

sacred instead of this as being the day when Kṛiṣṇa was carried off to the house of Nand in Gokul to save him from the fury of his uncle Kañs, and this sect call their holiday *Gokul Aṣṭamī*. Which-ever day is kept, the Hindús fast the whole day, and at night bathe and worship an image of the infant Kṛiṣṇa, which they adorn with the *tulsi* (*Ocymum Sanctum*) and other flowers. Fruit and particular kinds of grain are eaten at 11 p.m., rice being prohibited. On *Gokul Aṣṭamī* the cowherds keep up great rejoicings, dancing with joined hands, and throwing curds over one another. The *Bhagat* or head priest of the temple of Kánhobá is supposed to have miraculous powers on this day. He dances a frantic dance, and scourges himself and his disciples.

*Práchi Amáwasya* (Skr. *Práchi*, Eastern, *Amáwasya*, produced in the new moon), a festival on the last day of the dark half of *Shrávan*, when women worship the 64 Yoginís or female attendants of Durgá with the hope of obtaining offspring. *Práchi* is a goddess of the East called by the people of the Konkan and Dakhan *Pethúri*. Wealthy Banyáns and others from Gujarát go to the temple of Válukeshwar in Bombay, remain in the *Dharamsálah* all night, and bathe the next morning in the tank, which is called *Bángangá* (from *Bán*, an arrow, and *Gangá*, the Ganges). *Shrádhas* or ceremonies for the deliverance of ancestors from the thraldom of *Yama*, the Regent of Hades, are also performed on the margin of the tank. The rest of the day is spent in amusement, but particularly in gambling.

*Gañesh Chauth* or *Chaturthí* (from *Gañesh*, name of the son of Shiva and Párvatí, the deity who presides over wisdom and who removes obstacles, and *Chauth*, the 4th day of the month), is a festival on the 4th of *Bhádrapad* in honor of the birth of Gañesh. Clay images of the deity are formed, worshipped for eight or nine days, and then thrown into the water. The Chinchwad (Chinchore) man-god who resides at the village so called is thought to be an incarnation of Gañesh, who granted to an ascetic who had won his favor that he would take human shape in his family for seven generations. This is the third day on which clay images are made; the worship of *Mrittiká*, or earth, being on these occasions enjoined by the Shástras. The other days are *Nág Pañchamí*, when a snake of clay is worshipped; and *Gokul Aṣṭamí*, when a clay image of the infant Kṛiṣṇa is made, and similarly adored. On the day of *Gañesh Chaturthí*, Hindús are prohibited from looking at the moon, and if by accident they should see it they get their neighbours to revile them in the hope the calamity likely to follow will be limited to this abuse.

*Rishi Pañchamí*.—On the day following *Gañesh Chauth* the seven *Rishis* or sages are worshipped.

*Gauri* (Skr., a virgin, a name of Párvatí). On this festival,



which follows two days after the above, the wife of Shiva is worshipped as a tender maid. Cakes are made in the shape of pebbles, and eaten at night.

*Wáman Dwádashí* (Skr. *Wáman*, a dwarf, *Dwádashí*, 12th day of the month), a feast in honor of the 5th incarnation of Viṣṇu in the shape of a dwarf, in which form he beguiled Bali, the universal monarch, to grant him as much ground as he could compass at three steps. On receiving his boon he set one foot on earth, one on the sky, and with a third thrust Bali down to the infernal regions. It is held on the 12th of *Bhádrapad* (Aug.-Sept.).

*Pitra Pakṣh* (Skr. *Pitrah*, paternal ancestors, *Pakṣh*, half of the lunar month). The dark half of the month *Bhádrapad*, or the last day of it, or new moon of *Ashwin*, sacred to the Pitris or progenitors. At this time the celebration of funeral rites is peculiarly proper. Offerings of water and fire are made to the manes.

*Dasahrá* (Skr. *dashan*, ten). On this day, the tenth of the light half of *Ashwin*, Ráma marched against Rávana, the demon king of Ceylon. The Maráṭhas therefore selected it as the day for commencing their inroads into foreign states. They worship the sword and other weapons of war, and beseech them to be propitious. They go to the temples in procession, carrying flowers and branches of the *Palás* tree (the *Butea Frondosa*), which is thought to represent gold. They give presents to the bráhmans with leaves of this tree. It is said that on this day the Páñdu Princes, after twelve years of exile, commenced their great war with their cousins the Kauravas. Horses are decorated with flowers in imitation of what the Páñdu did. The nine days previous are called the *Naurátri*, nine nights; and the votaries of Durgá, particularly women, keep vigils with dance and song during those nights. It is also said that on this day Durgá slew the *Maheshásur* or buffalo-headed demon. Maráṭha Princes review their armies at this feast, it being, in fact, the conclusion of the rains, when military operations can be undertaken.

*Devólí* (Skr. *Dípah*, "a lamp," *Alí*, "a row,") "feast of lamps," a festival held with great rejoicing on the new moon of *Kártik* (Oct.-Nov.), in honor of Lakṣhmí, the wife of Viṣṇu. On this day, new accounts being opened, *pújá*, or worship, is performed by bankers and merchants to their new and old books. The feast lasts five days, beginning with the 13th of the dark half of *Ashwin*, during which houses are cleaned, white-washed, and illuminated. A quadrangular floor is made in front of the house, and painted different colors, and is called *Rangalí*. The 13th of the dark half of *Ashwin* is called *Dhan Tryodashí* (Skr. *Dhan*, wealth, *Tryodashí*, 13th); on this day a light is made, and dedicated to Yama. The next day is called *Narak Chaturdashí* (*Narak*, hell, *Chaturdashí*, 14th), from *Narakásur*, a dæmon slain by Viṣṇu. The mistress of each house

places wicks in silver or brass dishes, and each male makes her a present. Next day is the new moon, and is sacred to *Saraswati*, the goddess of learning, the same as Lakshmi, the goddess of wealth. A basket is filled with rubbish, a lighted lamp put in it, and it is cast out with these words, "Let all the misery and troubles go, and the kingdom of Bali come!" Next day is *Yama devitiyá* (*Yama*, death, *devitiyá*, 2nd day); and as Yama on this day visited his sister, Hindús go to visit their sisters and make them presents. Gambling is carried on vigorously throughout the whole festival.

*Kártik Purnamá*, a festival on the full moon of *Kártik*, in honor of Vishnu's victory over *Tripurásur*, "the dæmon of the three cities." A great fair is held in Bombay at the temple of *Válukeshwar*.

#### MUHAMMADAN FEASTS AND FASTS.

*Muḥarram* (Ar. *Muḥarram*, "most sacred.")—A fast and solemn mourning, commencing on the evening when the new moon of the first month (*Muḥarram*) becomes visible. It lasts, including the *Ziyárat*, "or visiting the grave," till the 12th. But the fast is for 10 days, and is hence called '*A'shúra*, from the Arabic word signifying "ten." Houses are set apart for the mourning ceremonies, and are called '*A'shúr-khánah*, "ten-day house;" *Táziyah-khánah*, "house of lamentation;" and '*A'stánah*, "threshold," or "*fakír's residence*." The moment the new moon is seen a spade is struck into the earth, and at this spot a pit is dug two or three days after for a bonfire. The striking the spade is called *kodalí márná*, and the bonfire *alláwa*. At night men dance round the fires, fencing with swords, and springing through and into the flames with cries of *Yá 'Alí! Ó 'Alí, Sháh Hasan! Sháh Husain! Dulhá*, "bridegroom," etc. Instead of the '*A'shúr-khánah* rich people have an *Imám báráh*, which is often also a Mausoleum. Here verses are chaunted in honor of Hasan and Husain, in memory of whom the fast is held. They were the sons of 'Alí, the cousin, and Fátimah, the daughter, of Muhammad, and wife of 'Alí. Of these two brothers, the elder, Hasan, was poisoned by Yazid, the son of Máwiah; and the younger, Husain, was murdered with all his retinue at Karbalá-a, in Turkish Arabia, in the 46th year of the Hijrah. Zainu'l-'Abidín, eldest son of Husain, alone escaped. On the night of the 7th, a representation of *Burák*, the horse or mule on which Muhammad ascended to heaven, is brought out. On the 10th, a bier called *tábút* or *táziyah* is carried in procession. It is gaily decorated and lighted up, and is intended to represent Husain's tomb at Karbalá-a. It is during this procession that furious encounters take place between the Muslims and the Hindús, and between different processions, for it is a point of honor not to give way. The Shí'ahs alone observe the

fast and these rites, which are strongly condemned by the Sunnis. Before the martyrdom of Ḥasan and Ḥusain this fast was observed as a feast, and is still reckoned one of the lesser 'I'ds.

*A'khiri Chahār Shambah.*—A lesser 'I'd, or minor festival, held on the last Wednesday of the second month (*Ṣafar*) on account of Muḥammad having recovered a little on this day during his last illness, and taken a bath for the last time. It is usual to write out seven benedictions, wash off the writing while the ink is fresh and drink it. On this day it is proper to bathe, wear new clothes, prepare sweetmeats, walk in gardens, and repeat prayers.

*Barī Wafāt* (H. *Barī*, great, Ar. *Wafāt*, death).—A fast held on the 13th of the third month (*Rabīu'l-awwal*) in commemoration of the death of the Prophet, which took place on the day previous. On this day the *Kadam-i rasūl*, Prophet's foot, the impression of a foot on stone, or the *mū-i mubārak*, sacred hair of Muḥammad, is brought forth and honored. On the 11th and 12th processions take place at night.

*Pīr-i-dastgīr.*—A festival on the 11th of the fourth month (*Rabīu's sāni*) in honor of a famous saint who has 96 names. He is better known as *Saiyid 'Abdu'l Kādir Jilāni* or *Ghilāni*, and as *Pīr Pīrān*, and is revered both by Sunnis and Shi'ahs. He was a celebrated doctor of the Sūfis, born in Ghilān, who taught at Baghdād, where his tomb is still held sacred. S'adī studied under him, and mentions him in the third story of the second chapter of his *Gulistān*. On the day above mentioned, as well as during the ravages of cholera or any plague, it is usual to carry a large green flag in his name. Vows are made to this saint for offspring. His sister's son, Saiyid Aḥmad Kabīr is the patron of the remarkable religious mendicants called *Gurzmār*, for whom see *Kānūn-i Islām*, p. 191.

*Chirāghān-i Zindah Shāh Madār.*—A festival on the 17th of the fifth month (*Jumāda'l-awwal*) in honor of *Badi' u'd-dīn*, a Syrian saint, who is said to have fixed his abode at Makkhanpur in A'wadh (Oudh), and to have lived to a great age, or to be yet living, whence his name of *Zindah* (living). His tomb there, or cenotaph, is visited annually by a million pilgrims, and the fair lasts 17 days. *Dam Madār*, "the breath or spell of Madār," is supposed, like St. Oran's rhyme, to be a charm against bites of snakes, the violence of fire, and, in short, all evil. His flag is black, and black cows are sacrificed in his name.

*'Urs-i Kādir Walī.*—A festival on the 11th of the sixth month (*Jumāda'l-ākhīr*) in honor of *Kādir Walī* or *Khwājah Mu'innu'd-dīn Chishtī*, one of whose shrines is at Nāgūr, near Nāgapatnam, and another at Ajmīr. This saint was born in Sijistān (*Autobio-*

*graphy of Lutfullah*, p. 345) in the year 527 A.H., and lived to the age of 108. He reached Ajmír during the reign of the Emperor Kutbu'd-dín Ibak, where he married the daughter of Saiyid Husain Mashhadí, though himself a Sunní and the Saiyid a Shí'ah. A magnificent mosque was built near the tomb at Ajmír by the Emperor Jahángír, 1027 A.H. He is greatly revered by the Mápillahs (Moplahs).

*Miráji-i Muḥammad.*—The ascension of Muḥammad on the 27th of the seventh month (*Rajab*), when the angel Gabriel mounted him on Burák and conveyed him to heaven.

*Shab-i Barát*, or night of record, is a festival held on the 16th of the eighth month (*Sh'abán*), when it is said the actions of men for the ensuing year are recorded. It is passed in mirth, with illuminations and the discharge of fireworks. This is one of the three inferior I'ds. The whole night should be spent in reading the Kur'án, and a fast should be observed next day.

*Ramazán Rá Rozah.*—The Muḥammadan Lent, which commences from the morning that succeeds the evening when the new moon of the ninth month (*Ramazán*) is observed. From two to four a.m. a meal may be taken, and from that time till sunset it is unlawful to eat, drink, or have connubial intercourse. On the 20th or 21st the Shí'ahs celebrate the night of 'Alí, as he is said to have died on one of these nights, it is uncertain which. They perambulate the streets beating their breasts, and carry a bier (*tábut*) in procession. On the night of the 27th it is said the Kur'án descended from heaven, and it is therefore called the *Lailatu'l-Kádr*, or night of power. A vigil should be kept all night. On this night the Ghair Mahdís (see *Sects*) have dreadful encounters with the Sunnís and Shí'ahs, and those who are killed are supposed to be rewarded as martyrs.

*'I'du'l-Fitr*, "the festival of breaking fast," or *Ramazán kí 'I'd*, "the 'I'd of Ramazán," called in the *Kánún-i Islám* "the feast of alms," is held on the 1st of the tenth month (*Shawwál*). On this day all Muslims bathe, put on new clothes, apply antimony to the eyes, and perfume themselves. They then distribute the *fitr* or *Sadqah*, "alms," which is  $2\frac{1}{2}$  *ser* of wheat, dates, grapes, or any grain used for food given to the poor or to religious mendicants. All then proceed to the *'I'dgáh*, repeating "God is great. There is no God but God." The priest ascends to the middle step of the *mimbar* or pulpit and reads the *Khutbah* or Friday sermon, preceded, however, by a short thanksgiving. He then descends to the lowermost step, which is the third with Shí'ahs, and the fourth with Sunnís. On this step he recounts the virtues of the king, and prays for him. The king is he whose coin is current, but in India the King of Delhi has been prayed for, not the Company. After that a general prayer is offered, and the congregation rise with a shout of

*Din!* "Faith!" and fire off muskets. The evening is spent in rejoicings. Nách girls attend in the men's apartments, and the *domnis*, a class of singers who exhibit before females only, present themselves in the seraglios.

*Charághán-i Bandah Nawáz*.—A festival on the 16th of the eleventh month (*Zi K'adah*) in honor of a saint called *Bandah Nawáz* "slave-cherisher," or *Gisú daráz*, "the long ringleted." His shrine is at Gulbarga (Calburgah), in the Nizám's territories.

*Bakarí 'I'd* or *'I'd-i Kurbán* (Ar. *Bakar*, a bull, *Kurbán*, a sacrifice), a feast on the 10th of the twelfth month (*Zi Hijjah*) in honor of Abraham's intending to offer up Ism'aíl (Ishmael), whom, and not Ishák (Isaac), the Muslims say he was called upon to sacrifice. On this day, sheep, cows, or camels are sacrificed, for those who offer them will be carried with lightning speed over the *Púl-sirát*, or bridge of trial, into heaven. In the morning all attend at the *'Idgáh*. This and the *'I'du-l fitr* are the two great festivals of the Muslims.

## FEASTS OF THE PÁRSÍS.

The dates are given according to the system of the *Kadamis*, for which see SECTS.

*Nawroz* or *Páppáti*, New Year's day, the 1st of *Farwardín* (Aug.-Sept.). On this day the Pársís honor the memory of Yazdijird, the last of the Sassanian dynasty, who was dethroned by the Khalífah 'Umar about A.D. 640. His accession forms their æra, so that the present year is with them 1227. Their year contains 12 months of 30 days each, and they add 5 days at the end of the year. In every 120 years a month is intercalated. On this day they go to the Fire-temples, and pass the day in visiting and merry parties. Akbar borrowed this and the other festivals of the Pársís for his new faith called *Iláhi Din*, "Religion of God," which he vainly tried to introduce. On the 19th of this month a feast is kept in honor of the angel who presides over the month.

*Arđibihisht*, a day sacred to the angel of this month (Sept.-Oct.), held on the 3rd. It is supposed that the angel presiding over this month has the keys of Paradise. It is a fortunate season for going to battle, and presenting petitions to a king.

*Kh'urdád-Sál*.—The birthday of Zartasht or Zoroaster. He was born in the city of Rehe in the north of Persia, 520 B.C., and his birthday is kept on the 1st of the month *Khurdád* (Oct.-Nov.) The religious ceremonies are performed by the women and the priests. On the 6th it is considered fortunate to marry. On the 20th a great victory was obtained over the tyrant *Zahhák*.

*Nawroz-i Jamshíd*, the New Year's day of Jamshíd, is observed about the 21st of March, in the month *Míhr* (Feb.-March), and pro-

bably on account of the vernal equinox. The feast is kept by the Pársís with great merriment, but without religious ceremonies.

The *Muktáds* are certain days at the end of the year on which ceremonies in honor of the dead are performed before a pile of brass or silver vessels filled with water. The custom is supposed to have been borrowed from the Hindús.

#### HINDÚ CEREMONIES.

It obviously would be impossible to supply here the most abridged account of Hindú or Muslim ceremonies in general. All that can be done is to notice very briefly some of the observances at births, marriages, and deaths.

*Birth.*—At the birth of an infant a drop of honey should be given it out of a golden spoon before dividing the navel string. This is called *Jal-Karan*. When a father first sees his son he should take a piece of gold in his hand, offer a sacrifice to Brahmá, and anoint the forehead of the child with the *ghí* left on the fingers at the close of the sacrifice. A string of seven or nine threads and five blades of the *Durba* grass must be bound by the father round the wrist of the child. Other rites are to be observed on naming the child 12 days after birth, on bringing him outside the house when three months old, on feeding him with the hand at six months, and on shaving the head at three years.

*Marriage.*—Among Bráhmans the male may be married at any time after the *Munj*, or investiture with the sacred thread, which is done within the age of eight years, and among other castes at any age. The female should not be ten years old, and her age must be less than that of her husband; and she should be married before the appearance of the signs of puberty. The Shasters mention eight kinds of marriage, but only one is observed by the higher castes, named *Brahmá*, when the charges are severally incurred by the fathers of the parties. The principal marriage ceremonies among Bráhmans are the *Laganpatriká*, or writing by the *Joshi* or astrologer the names of the parties, and the day and hour at which the wedding is to take place; the *Saptapadi*, or walking round a fire three times, at each time seven steps, and tying together the garments of the parties, and the *hom* or burnt offering; after which the contract is indissoluble. The girl is given away by her father in his own house, in which it is usual for her to remain a certain time, after which she proceeds to the residence of her father-in-law, where her husband also resides, or to that of the latter, should it be otherwise. Particular months and junctions of the planets are prescribed for the celebration of marriages in different castes; as also the same castes in different countries have their peculiar ceremonies, which are too various to be described here.

*Death.*—On the death of a man the performance of his funeral obsequies (*Kriyás*) and of the monthly and annual purificatory ceremonies, devolves on his heir. The principal times for performing *Shrádh* are eleven days after death; secondly, every month; and thirdly, on the anniversary of death. Bráhmans are unclean for ten days after the death of a relation, the military class for twelve, the mercantile for fifteen, and Shudras for thirty. Among the Hindús generally the body of the deceased is burnt, but that of an infant under two years of age is buried. The *Shrádh* consists in the offering of rice, flowers, water, etc., to the deceased and to his manes, in order to enable his soul to ascend to the heaven of the *Pitris*, or great progenitors of the human race.

#### MUHAMMADAN CEREMONIES.

*Birth.*—At the end of the seventh month of pregnancy the family that can afford it make great rejoicings, put new clothes on the woman, and adorn her with flowers. This is called *Satwásá* (*sapta*, seven, *mása*, month). The same thing is repeated in the ninth month, and the merry vigils then kept up are called *Ratjaga* (*rát*, night, *jagna*, to watch). A lemon, some *Nimb* leaves, and a *Kathár*, or poniard, are laid near the parturient woman's head to ward off misfortune, and for drink she is allowed boiled water in which a red hot horse shoe or other iron has been slaked. In general, she has nothing to eat for the first six days but *achwání*, caudle. On the 6th and 40th days if a stranger enters the room rue is thrown on the fire to avert evil, and an iron plate and a broom are placed in a corner to keep off evil spirits. No dog or cat must come near, and the very name of a cat must not be mentioned. The birth of a boy is always hailed with much greater rejoicing than that of a girl. After the infant has been wrapped in swaddling clothes, the summons to prayer must be uttered aloud in his right ear, and the Muhammadan creed in his left. Some man of pious repute must dip his finger in honey and insert it in the infant's mouth before it is put to the breast. The friends or kith of the mother repair in a body to the house, and place a few blades of green grass in the husband's hair, for which he must reward them with a present.

The name of the child takes place on the day of its birth or that day week. It belongs to its father's tribe invariably; hence if the father be a Saiyid the first name is Saiyid or Mír. After mature age this is often dropped. Certain names are peculiar to certain families or tribes. Thus Shekhs will have *Khwájah*, *Ghulám*, '*Ali*, *Bakhsh*, *Din*, '*Abd*, etc., added to their surnames. *Mughuls* are marked by the names *Mirzah*, *Beg*, *A'ghá*, or *A'ká*; *Pañhans* by *Khán* as the last name. If the father be a Shekh and the mother a

Saiyidání, *Sharif* is added or prefixed. If the father be a Mughul and the mother a Saiyidání, the offspring are called *Khwájahzádah*. *Sáhib*, *Miyan*, and *Ján*, are loving titles given by parents, but often supersede the true names. Female surnames for Saiyidánis are *Begam*, *Bibi* or *Bi*, *Nissá*, and *Sháh*; for Mughulánis, *Khánam*; for Pathánis, *Khátún* or *Bánú*, but, when illegitimate, *Bái* is invariably subjoined.

The choice of the particular name from the proper class is decided either by opening the *Kur'án* at a venture, and taking the first letter of the first line of the page at which the book is opened as the first letter of the name, and then making a child select a paper from among several on which names beginning with that letter are written, or by the planet in whose hour the child is born. For further information on this subject see *Kánún-i Islám*, p. 18.

On the *chillá*, or 40th day, certain ceremonies are performed when the mother ceases to be unclean, and then, and not till then, she may pray, touch the *Kur'án*, and enter the *masjid*. A sacrifice is sometimes offered of two he-goats for a boy and one for a girl. On the same day, or the day after, the child is shaved and the hair is carried to the water-side and launched on a raft into the river, after a prayer in the name of Khizr or Elias has been said over it. Sometimes the hair, or a lock of it, is allowed to grow in honor of some saint.

*Marriage*.—Marriages are contracted at a very early age, and are solemnized when the youth is 18 and the lady 13 or 14 at most. When a youth is desirous of marrying he or his parents send out some female emissaries called *Madówatniyán*, who report the charms or the riches of such and such maidens. Astrology then steps in, and, for its precepts, the *Kánún-i Islám* must be consulted, where they are laid down at length, p. 86, etc. The ceremonies attending betrothment are six—the distribution of betel leaves, sending presents to the bride called “sugar-bringing, solicitation, or wooing,” in which the bridegroom goes on horseback attended with musicians and persons carrying presents to the house of the bride, sending sweet cakes from the bride to the bridegroom, treading the threshold, when the bride’s mother gives a handkerchief, a gold ring, and some money to the bridegroom, and tasting salt, till which the bridegroom must eat only sweet things in the house of the bride. Subsequent to these there are various ceremonies of anointing and bathing, after which the wedding garments are prepared. Then follow eight ceremonies, the most important of which are the carriage of the bridegroom’s wedding gifts to the bride, and the conveyance of the bridal paraphernalia to the bridegroom’s house; after these the *Sháb-gasht*, or nocturnal perambulation, takes place. This is the grandest



ceremony of all. The bridegroom, gaily dressed, and attended by musicians and a company of friends, rides on horseback or on an elephant to the mosque, where he offers three short prayers, and then proceeds to the bride's house. It is usual to oppose his entrance until he bestows a present on some of the bride's friends; and, on entering the court-yard, he dismounts, and is carried by a man whose advance is also resisted till further presents are given. The marriage ceremony is performed by the *Kází* or his deputy, who, after removing two veils from the bridegroom's face, causes him to repeat after him, in Arabic, first a form of deprecation, then the 109th, 112th, 113th, and 114th chapters of the *Kur'án*; then the five creeds; then the articles of belief; and, lastly, a thanksgiving. After this the bridegroom repeats the marriage contract, when the hand of the bride is joined with his, and the *Kází* then offers a supplication that the couple may be as loving as Adam and Eve, Abraham and Sarah, etc.

*Death.*—When a man is dying, a reader of the *Kur'án* is sent for, who reads the chapter called the *Surah-i-yásin* and two creeds. Sweet *shárbat* is then poured down the throat of the moribund person, and this is said to facilitate the exit of the spirit. Mrs. Meer gives the following account of the ceremonies attending washing the corpse and shrouding it. They will be found at much greater length in the *Kánún-i Islám*:—"The dead body of a Muslim, in about six hours after life is extinct, is placed in a coffin and conveyed to the place of burial, with parade suited to the rank he held in life. A tent or *kanát* (screen) is pitched in a convenient place, where water is available, near the tomb, for the purpose of washing and preparing the dead body for interment. They take the dead body out of the coffin and thoroughly bathe it. When dry, they rub powdered camphor on the hands, feet, knees, and forehead, these parts having, in the method of prostrating at prayer, daily touched the ground. The body is then wrapped neatly in a winding-sheet of neat calico, on which have been written particular chapters of the *Kur'án*. The religious man generally prepares his own winding-sheet, keeping it always ready, and occasionally taking out the monitor to add another verse or chapter as the train of thought may have urged at the time." The coffin is carried to the grave by the relations, who repeat all the way, "There is no God but God, and Muhammad is the prophet of God;" or another creed, or sacred verse. The *Kází* reads service for the poor and friendless, and the nearest relation, or any other required to do so, for the opulent. Then some one calls three times, "The funeral service is beginning," on which any persons within hearing run to the spot, and reverently take part in the service. All stand up in three rows, with an *Imám*, or head, in front. The service consists of four confessions of faith and one

benediction, after which the nearest relative calls out, "All have leave to go." The body is then lowered into the grave, and is laid on its back, with the head to the north and face towards *Makkah* or the west. Each person then takes up a little earth, and after repeating the 112th chapter of the *Kur'án*, or the verse, "We created you of earth and return you to earth, and we shall raise you out of the earth on the day of resurrection," puts the earth softly into the grave. *Fátihah* for the dead is then offered, first for the person just interred, then for all the dead in that burying ground. It consists in saying, "I offer this prayer for such a one." The 1st and 11th chapters of the *Kur'án* are then recited. Alms are then distributed, and all depart. On the 3rd, 10th, 20th, 30th, and 40th days after the demise the grave is visited and various ceremonies are performed. On the third day the whole *Kur'án* is read through near the grave; and after three, six, nine, and twelve months *fátihah* is recited.

#### HINDÚ SECTS.

The principal Hindú Sects are the *Saivas*, the *Vaiṣṇavas*, the *Sháktas*, the *Bauddhas*, the *Jainahs*, and the *Sikhs*. The followers of *Chaitanya* are rather reformed *Vaiṣṇavas* than a distinct sect, as reckoned by Ward. The *Saivas* are the worshippers of Shiva, and worship the Ling or Phallus. They are distinguished by marking their foreheads with three carved lines like a half moon, to which is added a round dot on the nose. It is made either with the clay of the Ganges or sandal wood, or with ashes of cow dung. The religious mendicants called *Sannyásis* belong to this Sect.

The *Vaiṣṇavas*, as their name implies, worship Viṣṇu, reject all animal food, even fish, and wear only white garments. One-half of the Hindús in Bengal belong to this Sect, and almost all in Orissa. The distinguishing mark of the sect consist of two lines, rather oval, drawn the whole length of the nose, and carried forward in two straight lines across the forehead. This mark is common to the worshippers of all the different forms of Viṣṇu. It is generally made with the clay of the Ganges; sometimes with powder of sandal wood. The religious ascetics called *Gus'díns* and *Bairágis* belong to this Sect.

The followers of *Chaitanya*, a branch of the *Vaiṣṇavas*, worship Kṛishṇa, the 8th incarnation of Viṣṇu, and the *Bhágavad* is their favorite book. The wandering mendicants called *Sakhí-bhavas*, who dress as women, belong to the school of *Chaitanya*.

The *Sháktas* are worshippers of the female principle, that is, of the divine energy in its feminine personification. Their principal deity is *Bhagavatí* or *Durgá*, the wife of Shiva. In their outward

dress they resemble the *Saivas*, but they have distinctive marks on their bodies. They do not embrace a life of mendicency, and indulge much in spirituous liquors, which are said in their sacred books, the *Tantras*, to be a proper offering to *Bhagavatí*.

The *Bauddhas* were, in the fourth and third century B.C., the dominant sect in India; but they are now to be found only in Pegu and Ceylon. They consider matter as eternal, that there is always some superior deity, who has attained to this elevation by his own merit. Their idea of beatitude is called *Nirvāṇnah* (from Skr. *nir*, out, *vá*, blow), extinction as of fire, emancipation from matter, and perfect and perpetual calm. They revere *Gautamah*, another name for *Sakya Muni* or *Buddha*. Their five commandments forbid the destruction of animal life, theft, adultery, falsehood, and the use of spirituous liquors. Their priests are forbidden to marry, must live by mendicency, possess only three garments, a begging dish, a girdle, a razor, a needle, and a straining cloth, to prevent swallowing insects, and so destroy life, when they drink. The *Bauddhas* have no caste distinctions among themselves.

The *Jainahs* closely resemble the *Bauddhas* in some points, but they are divided into the four Hindú castes. They marry and burn their dead, but do not make offerings to them in the *Shráddha*. The strict *Jainahs* are constrained to a life of mendicency. This sect was founded by *Rishabha-deva*, of the family of *Ikṣhwák*; its name is said to be derived from *ji*, to conquer. He who has overcome the eight great crimes is a *Jain*. These crimes are eating at night; slaying any animal; eating the fruit of trees that give milk, pumpkins, young bambús; tasting honey or flesh; taking the property of others; taking by force a married woman; eating flowers, butter, cheese; and worshipping the gods of other religions. Their sacred book is the *Kalpa-sútra*, and their principal deity is *Dárshwanáth*. They are found principally or solely on the W. coast, in *Málwah* and *Gujarát*, and are distinguished by wearing a cloth over the mouth that they may not swallow insects, and holding a branch in their hands to sweep insects out of their path lest they should destroy life.

The *Sikhs* (literally, "disciples," from the Skr. *Shishya*) are the followers of *Nának*, who was born in 1469 at *Talwandí*, or, according to some, at *Kanakách*, near *Láhúr*. His father, *Kálu*, was a leader of the *Khatri* tribe. He taught one sole and timeless Deity, the creator, the self-existent, the incomprehensible, and the everlasting. He was succeeded by nine Great Teachers, of whom the fifth, *Arjun*, compiled the *A'di-Granth*, or First Book, the Sacred Code of the Sikhs; but the tenth *Guru Govind* was the most celebrated, and his name is the Sikh battle-cry. He also compiled a sacred book which is called *Dashama-Pádsháhi-Grantha*, "Tenth-

King's-Book." This and the other *Granth* are placed in the temples and worshipped. They contain the histories of the Hindú incarnations and accounts of the inferior heavens, but advise Sikhs to seek absorption into the Supreme Deity rather than enjoyment in those inferior abodes of bliss. They admit all castes as proselytes, and do not acknowledge caste among themselves. When a Muslim becomes a Sikh he is forbidden in the strongest manner to eat beef. The Sikhs burn their dead.

Besides these sects there are the *Sauras*, who worship the sun, and the *Ganpatyas*, who worship Gaṇesh. They are not, however, very numerous.

*Caste.*—There are four principal castes among Hindús:—1, Bráhmans, or priests; 2, Kṣatriyas, or warriors; 3, Vaishyas, merchants or agriculturists; 4, Shúdras, or servile tribe. Among these, again, are infinite sub-divisions.

#### MUHAMMADAN SECTS.

The two principal Muḥammadan Sects are the *Sunnis* and the *Shi'ahs*.

The *Sunnis* consider the *Sunnat*, or traditions of Muḥammad, as a supplement to the *Kur'an*, and of nearly equal authority. They revere equally the four successors of Muḥammad, viz.: Abú Bakr, 'Umr, 'Uṣmán, and 'Alí. The Arabs, Turks, Afgháns, and Rohillas are *Sunnis*.

The *Shi'ahs* reject the *Sunnat*, and do not acknowledge Abú Bakr, 'Umr, or 'Uṣmán as *Khalífahs*. The Persians, the Kings of A'wadh, and a great portion of the Muḥammadan population in India are *Shi'ahs*; as are also the Kizzilbáshís of Kábul. They are called by the *Sunnis* *Ráfi'í*, or heretics. Few *Shi'ahs* perform the pilgrimage to Makkah, because they are then obliged to praise the three *Khalífahs* whom they regard as usurpers; and none go to Madínah, because there are buried Abú Bakr and 'Umr. Instead, they go to Karbalá-a, where is the tomb of Ḥusain.

Besides these, there are four sects, called from four celebrated doctors of Islám. These are:—*Hanafí*, or followers of Abú Haní-fah, surnamed Al-N'umán. This theologian was born at Kúfah in the year 80 A.H. He was imprisoned by the *Khalífah* Al-Mansúr for refusing to subscribe to the doctrine of absolute predestination, and died in confinement 180 A.H. In the year 1092 A.D., Malik Sháh Seljukí erected a superb Mausoleum to him at Baghdád. He adhered very closely to the *Kur'an* and the traditions, wherefore his rejection of predestination appears the more surprising. He held that sins did not destroy faith, or that the faithful might fall into sin.

*Sháfi'i*, called from Abú 'Abdu'lláh Muḥammad bín Idrís, surnamed *Sháfi'i*, from one of his ancestors, descended from the grandfather of Muḥammad. This doctor of Islám was born at Gaza, in Palestine, in 150 A.H. He died in Egypt 204 A.H. He was the first Muḥammadan who wrote of jurisprudence. In India, his disciples reside principally at Nágúr, near Nágapatnam.

*Málíkí*, followers of Málík Ibn Ans, who was born at Madinah, and died in 179 A.H.

*Hanbalí*, followers of Aḥmad Ibn Hanbal, surnamed Al-Shibání Al-Merúzí, born at Baghdád in 164 A.H. He died 241 A.H. He was imprisoned and punished by the Khalífah Mutassim for refusing to say that the Kur'án was not created.

Other sects, such as the *Ghair Mahdí*, or deniers of Mahdí, being Patháns, who affirm that the 12th Imám Mahdí is come and gone, while the orthodox Muslims hold he is yet to come, need not be mentioned here, but some notice of them will be found in the *Preliminary Information* to the Routes.

#### PÁRSÍ SECTS.

*Sháhansháhís* or *Rasmís* are those who retain the computation of time and liturgical forms used since the arrival of their tribe in India.

*Kadímís* assent to the change in computation and other matters introduced by Jámásp, a learned priest, who came to India from Persia about 150 years ago. He found a difference of a month between the year of the Pársís in India and that of the same tribe in Persia. The question was warmly canvassed, and the Pársís at Bombay presented a considerable sum to Lieutenant W. Eastwick for translating some parts of Hyde, *De Religion Persarum*, which referred to the question.

#### DRESS AND MANNERS OF THE NATIVES.

In the *Autobiography of Lutfullah*, at pp. 41, 124, will be found the opinions of a native of India regarding both native and European dress. It will be seen there that the natives, while they like and approve their own costume, consider ours as absurd, inconvenient, and indecorous. The common dress of a male Hindú is the *dhotí*, a long cotton cloth passed round the waist and between the legs and fastened at the back; and for the upper part of the body the *angarkhá*, a sort of shirt, over which the *jámah*, or long gown, is worn, the body part being tied in two places on each side. *It is to be particularly remarked that the Hindús fasten their jámahs on the left, the Muḥammadans on the right.* Bráhmans wear small white turbans; Rájputs, turbans of the same color, but much larger. Reli-

gious personages and ascetics wear little or no clothing. The *dopattah*, a long scarf of two breadths, joined down the middle by a seam, is also a common Hindú vestment. Hindú females wear a *cholí*, or bodice, generally blue or red; and a *sári*, a very long piece of cotton cloth, which is passed round the waist, under the legs, and over the shoulder or head.

*Muhammadans* wear the turban, which is of many different sizes and shapes, according to the tribe. In the folding and wearing this article especially consists the style of those who are thought to be tasteful in dress. The *angarkha* and *jámah* are both worn by Muslims as by Hindús, but are *buttoned on the right side*. The *kamarband*, or girdle, is a most useful article, and very conducive to health. The *lungi*, a colored cloth girdle, must, according to Muslim rule, be simply wrapped round the body and not passed under the thighs, as is done by Hindús. *Pái-jámah* are loose trousers; *shalwár*, long drawers; *gurgí*, short drawers. Females wear the *cholí*, or bodice, which has tight sleeves reaching half-way down between the shoulder and elbow, never farther, as it would resemble too much that of the Hindús, which reaches entirely down to the elbows. The *shalwár*, or trousers, are tighter than those of the men. The *sári* is also worn, but falls down over the legs to the ankle like a petticoat. The *orhni* is a wide muslin scarf thrown over the left shoulder, and, passing under the right arm, is crossed under the middle, and hangs down to the feet, or is spread over the head for a veil. The *chadar* is a sheet thrown over the head, which covers the whole body, and reaches to the ground. Women wrap themselves in it when going into the streets, and conceal their faces with it. The *pishwáz* is a double-breasted gown of colored muslin.

The *Pársis* may be distinguished by their very peculiar turban, which looks like a pasteboard mitre covered with chintz.

*Manners.*—The natives of India attach more weight to form and ceremony than Europeans. It is obviously unnecessary to enter at length into their codes of etiquette, and it will be sufficient to mention a few things on which they lay great stress. It is considered highly disrespectful to use the left hand in salutation or in eating, or, in fact, on any other occasion when it can be avoided. Hindús sometimes prostrate themselves with the arms stretched out and the hands joined; Muslims never. To remove the turban is disrespectful; and, still more so, not to put off the shoes on entering a strange house. Natives, when they make calls, never rise to go until they are dismissed, which, among themselves, is done by giving *betel*, and sprinkling '*Itr*, "rose-essence;" and with Hindús, by hanging wreaths of flowers round the visitor's neck, at least on

great occasions. Discourteous Englishmen are apt to cut short a long visit by saying *Ab jáo*, "Now go!" than which nothing can be more offensive. The best way is to say "Come and see me again soon;" or, "Always make a practice of visiting my house," which will be speedily understood. Or to one much inferior, one may say, *Rukhsat lená*, "Leave to go;" or better, *Rukhsat lijíye*, "Please to take leave." A letter closed by moistening the wafer or the gum with the saliva of the mouth should not be given to a native. The feet must not be put on a chair occupied by them, nor must the feet be raised so as to present the soles to them. One must avoid touching them as much as possible, especially their beards, which is a gross insult. If it can be avoided it is better not to give a native three of anything. Inquiries are never made after the female relations of a man. If they are mentioned at all it must be as "house." "Is your house well?" *i.e.*, "Is your wife well?" There are innumerable observances to avoid the evil eye; and many expressions, seemingly contradictory, are adopted for this purpose. Thus, instead of our "Take away," it is proper to say, "Set on more;" and for "I heard you were sick," "I heard your enemies were sick." With Muhammadans of rank it is better not to express admiration of anything they possess, as they will certainly offer it. In case of acceptance they would expect something of more value in return. To approach a Hindú of high caste while at his meal is to deprive him of his dinner; to drink out of his cup may deprive him of his caste, or seriously compromise him with his caste-fellows. Leather is an abomination to Hindús; as is everything made from the pig, as a riding saddle, to the Muslim. When natives of different ranks are present you must be careful not to allow those to sit whose rank does not entitle them, and to give to each his proper place. Hindús, in general, will not kill insects; and a Rájá will remove a bug from his turban and place it on your carpet with all care. To kill monkeys or peacocks may create a dangerous disturbance, as an order to put dogs to death produced a serious *émeute* among the Pársís in Bombay. Natives, in general, will not kill wolves; to kill a cow is, with Hindús, a crime of the first magnitude.

## INDIAN SERVANTS.

The Native servants are often bad, because they are badly treated. Pay them well, and treat them well, and, in general, they will be found more faithful and attached than English domestics. For a traveller, four servants will be sufficient, if he means to travel leisurely and keep his horse—*Khánsamán*, or butler; a *Bawarchí*, or cook; a *Dhobí*, or washerman; and a *Sáís*, or groom. If he prefers travelling by *Dák* he may dispense with servants in regular employ, and hire

them only at those places where he makes a lengthened halt. The ordinary establishment of a European gentleman resident in India is as follows:—

	RUPEES.
<i>Múnsihí</i> , linguistic teacher or amanuensis .....	15 to 30
<i>Kháinsómán</i> , or butler .....	12 „ 24
Under-butler .....	9 „ 12
<i>Khidmatgár</i> , body servant .....	10 „ 12
<i>Búwarchí</i> , or cook .....	10 „ 20
<i>Sardár</i> , or chief bearer of <i>Pálki</i> .....	10 „ 0
Three <i>Hammáls</i> or <i>Pálki</i> bearers, each .....	6 „ 8
<i>Darbán</i> , porter or doorkeeper .....	8 „ 0
<i>Dhobí</i> , washerman .....	8 „ 12
<i>Dirzí</i> , tailor .....	12 „ 16
<i>Gáriwán</i> , coachman .....	10 „ 12
<i>Sáís</i> , groom (two or three), each .....	6 „ 8
<i>Biháhtí</i> , watercarrier .....	5 „ 0
<i>Málli</i> , gardener .....	8 „ 0
<i>Chaprásí</i> , messenger .....	7 „ 9
<i>Dáriyá</i> , dog-keeper .....	5 „ 7
<i>Ayah</i> , nurse, lady's maid .....	10 „ 16
<i>Mihtar</i> , sweeper .....	4 „ 6

## WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

## TIME.

	B.C.
<i>Indian Æras</i> .—The <i>Kali-Yug</i> , the present or fourth age of the Hindús, commenced in March .....	3102
The <i>Samsat</i> , or Æra of Vikram, Prince of Ujjain .....	57
	A.D.
<i>Sika</i> , or Æra of Sháliváhan, a Prince of the Dakhan .....	78
Muhammadan Æra or <i>Hijrah</i> (Hegira) 15th of July ...	622
Pársi or Persian Æra of Yezdijird III., 16th of June .....	630

*Division of the Day by Native Reckoning.*

- 60 *Til* = 1 *Bipal*, and 150 *Til* = 1 second.  
 60 *Bipal* = 1 *Pal*, and 2½ *Pal* = 1 minute.  
 60 *Pal* = 1 *Gharí* = 24 minutes.  
 60 *Gharí* = 8 *Pahar* and 1 *Din* or Day of 24 hours.

## MONEY—THE COMPANY'S RUPEE.

- 3 *Pie* = 1 *Paisá* (Pice).  
 4 *Paisá* (Pice) = 1 *Ánd*.  
 16 *Ánd* (Annas) = 1 *Rúpiyah* = 2 shillings.

## BENGAL WEIGHTS.

In 1833 the Bengal Government (by Reg. VII. of that year) effected a great reform in the ponderal system of the Company's principal territory, by establishing the *Tolá* or *Sikkah* (Sicca) *weight* (identical with the weight of the *Company's Rúpiyah* (Roopee) as the *Unit* by which the principal legal commercial weights and the weights of the Calcutta and Ságar (Saugor) Mints



should be regulated. The weights were consequently revised according to the following table:—

<i>British Indian Weights.</i>		<i>Bengal Commercial Weights.</i>		<i>English Troy Weight.</i>			
				lbs.	oz.	dwt.	grs.
4 <i>Dhán</i> (Dhan)	= 1 <i>Rattí</i> (Rut,tee)	=	...	...	...	...	1.875
8 <i>Rattí</i> (Rut,tee)	= 1 <i>Máshah</i> (Ma,sha)	=	...	...	...	...	15
12 <i>Máshah</i> (Ma,sha)	= 1 <i>Tolá</i> (To,la)	=	...	...	...	...	7 12
5 <i>Tolá</i> (To,la)	= 1 <i>Chhatáńk</i> (Chhut,ank)	=	...	1	17	12	
4 <i>Chhatáńk</i> (Chhut,ank)	= 1 <i>Páo</i> (Pao)	=	...	7	10	...	
4 <i>Páo</i> (Pao)	= 1 <i>Ser</i> (Ser)	=	2	6	...	...	
5 <i>Ser</i> (Ser)	= 1 <i>Paserí</i> (Puser,ee)	=	12	6	...	...	
8 <i>Paserí</i> (Puser,ee) or } 40 <i>Ser</i> (Ser)	= <i>Man</i> (Mun or Maund)	=	100	...	...	...	

In Bengal and the Upper Provinces all goods, whether dry or liquid, are sold by weight. There are certain articles which are usually sold by measures, but these are all referable to the weights named in the above table, each article, as lime, milk, grain, etc., having its own peculiar measure regulated by the weight from which it derives its name, from the *Man* (Mun) down to the *Chhatáńk* (Chhut,ank).

The *Man* (or that weight to which it closely accords in value, and to which it is legally equivalent in the new scale), has been hitherto better known among Europeans by the name of *Bázár Maund*; but, upon its general adoption (under Reg. VII. of 1833) for all transactions of the British Government, it should be denominated the *British Man* (*Angrezi Man*) to distinguish it at once from all other weights in use throughout the country.

The *Paserí* is, as its name denotes, a five *Ser* weight, and therefore (with the *Páo*) should not form an integrant point of the scale; but as its use is very general, it has been introduced for the convenience of reference.

The *Ser* being the commonest weight in use in the retail business of the *Bázárs* in India, and being liable, according to the pernicious system hitherto prevalent, to vary in weight for every article sold, as well as for every market, is generally referred to the common unit, in native mercantile dealings, as the *ser* of so many *toldás* (or *sikkahs*, etc.), the standard or *Bázár Ser* being always 80 *toldás*.

The *Chhatáńk* is the lowest denomination of the gross weights, and is commonly divided into halves and quarters (called in Bengálí *kachchá*; thus marking the line between the two series, which are otherwise connected by the relation of the *ser*, etc., to the *tolá*).

The *Tolá* is chiefly used in the weighing of the precious metals and coins; all bullion at the Mints is received in this denomination, and the tables of bullion produce are calculated per 100 *toldás*. It is also usual at the Mints to make the subdivisions of the *tolá* into *ánás* (sixteenths) and *pie* in lieu of *máshahs* and *rattís*.

The *Máshah*, *Ratti*, and *Dhán* are chiefly used by native goldsmiths and jewellers. They are also employed in the native valuation by assay of the precious metals: thus 10 *máshahs* fine signifies 10-12ths pure, and corresponds to the "10 oz. touch" of the English assay report on silver. There is a closer accordance with the English gold assay scale, inasmuch as the 96 *rattis* in a *tola* exactly represent the 96 carat grains in the gold assay pound, and the *dhán* the quarter grain.

The accordance of the *man* weight (of 40 *seers*) with the 100 lbs. *troy* of England affords a ready means of ascertaining its relative value in the standards of other countries employed in weighing the precious metals, since tables of the latter are generally expressed in lbs. *troy*.

The same degree of correspondence cannot be expected between the Indian weights and the avoirdupois system of England; but, as the latter are employed in all the transactions of commerce excepting those of bullion and some other trifling articles, rules for their conversion may prove useful.

Since 35 *seers* are exactly equal to 72 lbs. *avoirdupois*, the following simple and accurate rules will effect their mutual conversion:—

RULE I.—To convert Indian into avoirdupois weight.

1. Multiply the weight in *seers* by 72 and divide by 35: the result will be the weight in lbs. *avoirdupois*.

2. Or, multiply the weight in *mans* by 36 and divide by 49: the result will be the weight in *cwt. avoirdupois*.

RULE II.—To convert avoirdupois into Indian weight.

1. Multiply the weight in lbs. *avoirdupois* by 35 and divide by 72: the result will be the weight in *seers*.

2. Or, multiply the weight in *cwts.* by 49 and divide by 46: the result will be the weight in *mans*.

One ton = 27.222 *mans*, or  $27\frac{1}{4}$  *man* nearly.

One *man* =  $82\frac{2}{7}$  lbs. *avoirdupois* exactly.

The readiest practical method of reducing the Indian into the English system, where the utmost accuracy is not required, is derived from the equation—300 *mans* = 11 tons. Hence the following rules in addition to the foregoing:—

1. Add a tenth to a sum of *mans*, and divide by 30: result, the weight in tons.

2. Multiply a sum in *tons* by 30, and deduct an eleventh from the product: result, its value in *mans*.

3. Deduct one-third from a weight in *mans*, and increase the remainder by one-tenth: result, the weight in *cwts.* nearly.

4. Add one-half to a given weight in *cwts.*, and diminish the sum by one-eleventh: result, the equivalent in *mans* nearly.

#### Grain Measure.

5 <i>Chhatáák</i>	= 1 <i>Kunki</i> (Koon, kee)	= 1 <i>Páo</i> 1 <i>Chhatáák</i> .
4 <i>Kunki</i>	= 1 <i>Rek</i>	= $1\frac{1}{4}$ <i>Ser</i> .
4 <i>Rek</i>	= 1 <i>Páyali</i>	= 5 <i>Ser</i> .
20 <i>Páyali</i>	= 1 <i>Sodli</i>	= $2\frac{1}{2}$ <i>Man</i> .
16 <i>Sodli</i>	= 1 <i>Káhun</i>	= 40 <i>Man</i> .

*Cloth Measure.*

3 <i>Jau</i> (lit. barleycorns) = 1 <i>Ungal</i> (Oongul) = 0 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches.
3 <i>Ungal</i> (lit. fingers) = 1 <i>Girih</i> (lit. joint) = 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ "
8 <i>Girih</i> = 1 <i>Háth</i> (lit. cubit) = 18 "
2 <i>Háth</i> = 1 <i>Gaz</i> = 36 "

*Long Measure.*

3 <i>Jau</i> = 1 <i>Ungal</i> = 0 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches.
4 <i>Ungal</i> = 1 <i>Múthi</i> (lit. fist) = 3 "
3 <i>Múthi</i> = 1 <i>Bilisht</i> (span) = 9 "
2 <i>Bilisht</i> = 1 <i>Háth</i> = 18 "
4 <i>Háth</i> = 1 <i>Bám</i> = 2 yards.
1000 <i>Bám</i> = 1 <i>Kos</i> * = 1 mile and 240 yards.

*Land Measure.*

1 <i>Chhatáik</i> = 45 sq. feet.
16 <i>Chhatáik</i> = 1 <i>Katthá</i> (Cotta) = 80 sq. yards.
20 <i>Katthá</i> = 1 <i>Bighá</i> (Beegah) = 1600 "
30 $\frac{1}{2}$ <i>Bighá</i> = 1 English acre.

## MADRAS WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

The weights and measures given in the two following tables were directed by proclamation, dated Fort St. George, October 16th, 1846, to be used exclusively in the Public Departments throughout the Madras Presidency, and all the Public Accounts are now kept therein. *Money*, same as Bengal. Accounts were formerly kept in *Star Pagodas*, *Fanam*s and *Cash*, thus:—80 *Kásulu* (cash) = 1 *Fanam*; 42, 44 to 45 *Fanam*s = 1 *Star Pagoda*.

*Madras Weights.*

	<i>Avoirdupois.</i>			<i>Troy.</i>		
	lbs.	oz.	drs.	lbs.	oz.	dwts.
1 <i>Told</i> .....	0	0	6.582 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	0	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
3 <i>Told</i> = 1 <i>Pálam</i> (Pollam).....	0	1	3.748 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	1	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
40 <i>Pálam</i> (Pollams) = 1 <i>Vis</i> .....	3	1	5.942 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	9	0
8 <i>Vis</i> = 1 <i>Man</i> (Maund).....	24	10	15.542 $\frac{1}{2}$	30	0	0

*Dry Measure.*

	<i>Cylindric.</i>	
	Depth and diameter inside in inches and tenths.	
1 <i>Olak</i> (Ollock).....		2.5154
$\frac{1}{2}$ ditto.....		1.9965
$\frac{1}{4}$ ditto.....		1.5846
8 <i>Olak</i> (Ollocks) = 1 measure.....		5.0308
4 ditto = $\frac{1}{2}$ ditto.....		3.9930
2 ditto = $\frac{1}{4}$ ditto.....		3.1692
8 measures = 1 <i>Markál</i> .....		10.0616
4 ditto = $\frac{1}{2}$ ditto.....		7.9859
2 ditto = $\frac{1}{4}$ ditto.....		6.3384
5 <i>Markál</i> = 1 <i>Phará</i> (Parrah).....		17.2050

The *Garisha* (Garce) of rice or corn = 320 lbs.

*Land Measure.*—1 *Ground* or *Máni* = 2,400 square feet.

24 *Grounds* = 1 *Káni* (Cawnie) = 57,600 square feet.

The *Káni* is to the English acre as 1 to 1.3223.

*Cloth Measure.*—The *Ková* = 18 inches, but the English yard of 36 inches is generally used.

\* The *Kos* varies in different parts of India from one mile to three.

## BOMBAY WEIGHTS AND MEASURES,

*In common use in the Bázár, by which all heavy goods, except grain and rice, are weighed.*

	lbs.	oz.	drs.
30 <i>Paisá</i> (Pice) or 72 <i>Táúk</i> (Tanks) make 1 <i>Ser</i> (Seer) =	0	11	3½
40 <i>Ser</i> (Seers) 1 <i>Man</i> (Maund)	=	28	0 0
20 <i>Man</i> (Maunds) 1 <i>Khandí</i> (Candy)	=	500	0 0

*Grain Measures.*

2 <i>Tiparí</i> (Tipprees) make 1 <i>Ser</i> (Seer)*	=	0	11	3.2
4 <i>Ser</i> (Seers) 1 <i>Páyali</i> (Paily) or <i>Adhali</i> (Adowley, or Adoly)	=	2	12	12.8
16 <i>Páyali</i> (Pailies) 1 <i>Phará</i> (Pharah)	=	44	12	12.8
8 <i>Phará</i> (Pharaha) 1 <i>Khandí</i> (Candy)	=	358	6	6.4

*Weights for Drugs, Precious Metals, &c.*

1 <i>Cháwal</i> (lit. grain of husked rice) (Chawl) or 4 <i>Dhán</i> (Dhans) = 1 <i>Ratti</i> (Rut,tee) or <i>Gunj</i> (Goonj, seed of the <i>Abrus Precatorius</i> ) = 2 gr. Troy.
2 <i>Gunj</i> (Goonj) = 1 <i>Vál</i> (Val) 4 gr.
8 <i>Gunj</i> = 4 <i>Vál</i> = 1 <i>Mashah</i> (Ma,sha) 16 gr.
96 <i>Gunj</i> = 48 <i>Vál</i> = 12 <i>Máshah</i> = 1 (Tola) 9.12 gr.

## EUROPEAN SERVICES.

Of the European Services, the Civil and the Medical are both thrown open to competition. Chaplains, Cadets, and Midshipmen for the Indian Navy are still appointed by the Directors.

*Civil Service.*—Haileybury College, at which all but a few Civilians for the 50 years previous to 1856 were educated, was closed on the 31st of January, 1858. The first Student who was educated at that College was Robert Mertins Bird, who entered January the 22nd, 1806; and during the half century the College was in existence 2055 Students passed through it. In July, 1855, the first competitive examination took place according to the sub-joined rules. Mr. Wells Butler was the first civilian appointed on the new system:—

*Civil Service.—Rules for the Competitive Examination.*

1. Any natural-born subject of her Majesty, who shall be desirous of entering the Civil Service of the East India Company, will be entitled to be examined at such examination, provided he shall have transmitted to the Indian Board, Cannon Row, Westminster,

- (a) A certificate of his birth, showing that his age will be above 18 years and under 23 years at the time of the examination.
- (b) A certificate signed by a physician or surgeon, of his having no disease, constitutional affection, or bodily infirmity, unfitting him for the Civil Service of the East India Company.
- (c) A certificate of good moral character, signed by the head of the school or college at which he has last received his education; or, if he has not received education at any school or college, then such proof of good moral character as may be satisfactory to the Board of Commissioners for the affairs of India.
- (d) A statement of those of the branches of knowledge hereinafter enumerated in which he desires to be examined.

\* This is the common Bombay *Ser* (Seer) and is computed at 11 oz. 4 drs.

2. The examination will take place only in the following branches of knowledge:—

English Language and Literature :—Composition .....	500
English Literature and History, including Laws and Constitution .....	1,000
	1,500
Language, Literature, and History of Greece.....	750
"    "    "    "    Rome .....	750
"    "    "    "    France .....	375
"    "    "    "    Germany.....	375
"    "    "    "    Italy .....	375
Mathematics, pure and mixed .....	1,000
Natural Science, that is, Chemistry, Electricity, and Magnetism, Natural History, Geology, and Mineralogy.....	500
Moral Sciences, that is, Logic, Mental, Moral, and Political Philosophy .....	500
Sanskrit Language and Literature .....	375
Arabic Language and Literature .....	375
	6,875

3. The merit of the persons examined will be estimated by marks, according to the ordinary system in use at several of the Universities, and the numbers set opposite to each branch in the preceding paragraph denote the greatest number of marks that can be obtained in respect of it.

4. No candidate will be allowed any marks in respect of any subject of examination, unless he shall obtain, in respect of that subject, one-sixth of the number of marks set against that particular subject.

5. The examination will be conducted by means of printed questions and written answers, and by *visé voce* examination.

6. After the examination shall have been completed, the marks obtained by each candidate, in respect of each of the subjects in which he shall have been examined, will be added up, and the names of the candidates who shall have obtained a greater aggregate number of marks than any of the remaining candidates will be set forth in order of merit; and those candidates will be appointed to the Indian Civil Service, provided they comply with the regulations in force at the time for the said Service.

7. All papers relating to the above-mentioned examination are to be sent, and all inquiries are to be addressed, thus:—

“Indian Civil Service  
“ Examination.

“ The Secretary, India Board,  
“ Westminster.”

*Memo.*—All persons appointed to the Civil Service will be required to attend at the Secretary's Office, East India House, to make the necessary arrangements for entering into covenant, and for giving a bond for £1000 jointly with two sureties for the due fulfilment of the same.

*Civil Furlough Regulations* will be found at length in the *India Register*, p. xxxvii. It will be sufficient here to mention that a civilian may proceed to Europe on medical certificate for 15 months at one time, or for 18 altogether, retaining a moiety of his pay, provided that does not exceed £1,000 per annum. He may also during his period of service, after having served seven years, proceed to Europe on private affairs for one year; and, again, after

a like period of service, take furlough for another year; and, again, a third time after a like period. Or he may divide his three years' furlough into two, and take one moiety after ten years' service, and the other moiety after another ten years. But, in all such cases, he must vacate his office; and, on his return, take such appointment as may offer. An allowance, at the rate of £500 per annum, will be made to him for three years, while on furlough, whether on medical certificate, or on private affairs. Absence for one year, on medical certificate, is reckoned in the period of 22 years, which any Civilian must serve in India before he becomes entitled to the retiring annuity of £1000 per annum.

*Civil Retiring Annuity.*—The covenanted Civil servants, as long as they remain in the service, pay at the rate of 4 per cent. towards the Retiring Fund, from all their salary, except from travelling allowances. This entitles them, in turn, to a retiring pension of £1,000 per annum, after 22 years' service, or 25 years, including furloughs. If invalided before 10 years, they receive a donation of £500; before 15 years, a pension of £250; before 22 years, a pension of £500.

*Civil Fund for Widows and Orphans.*—By subscriptions, to the amount of £2,500, each Civilian may secure for his widow, subject to various regulations, an annuity of £300; for each daughter, an annuity varying from £30 to £100, with a donation of £300 on marriage; and, for each son, an annuity from £30 to £100, up to his 21st year.

*Military Service.*—The appointments for the Indian Army are either direct, when the nominee must have attained the age of 16, and be under 22 years—or, if a commissioned officer in Her Majesty's Service, under 25 years; or, to the College at Addiscombe, when the age must be between 15 and 18 years. For the Examination Rules of direct cadets, and the Regulations of the Military College, the *India Register*, p. xxvii., must be consulted.

*Military Furlough Regulations.*—Every officer may proceed to Europe or elsewhere on furlough, for two years, after ten years' service; and, again, for a like period, after a like period of service. Staff appointments are not vacated for a period of six months' absence. Leave, on sick certificate, is granted for 18 months, and this may be renewed, if requisite.

#### FUNDS AND PENSIONS.

*Retiring Allowances.*—After 22 years' service in India, an officer may retire on the full pay of his rank. If compelled, by ill health, to resign the service before this time, an officer receives from two to six shillings a day, according to his period of service.

*Military Fund for Widows and Orphans.*—Subject to certain

regulations, for which see the *India Register*, the following annuities are attainable from the Madras Military Fund\* :—

*Table showing the Amount of Pensions to Widows during their Widowhood, and to Children of each Class and Condition.*

Classes.	Description of the Annuitants, the Widows according to the Regimental Rank of their Husbands, the Children according to their Age and the Parents they have lost.	Pension payable by the Military Fund in England.		
		£	s.	d.
<i>Widows.</i>				
1	Of a Colonel .....	235	18	9
2	Lieutenant-Colonel .....	208	15	0
3	Major, Chaplain of 10 years' standing, Major and Assist. Chaplain 15 years' standing.....	181	11	3
4	Captain, and Assistant-Chaplain under 15 years' standing	136	17	6
5	Lieutenant.....	102	3	9
6	Cornet, 2nd Lieutenant, and Ensign .....	81	15	0
<i>Children having lost One Parent.</i>				
1	Under 6 years of age.....	20	0	0
2	Between 6 and 12 years of age.....	30	0	0
3	Above 12 until 21 for boys, and for girls for whom the donation may not have been paid.....	40	0	0
<i>Children having lost both Parents.</i>				
1	Under 6 years of age .....	30	0	0
2	Between 6 and 12 years of age .....	45	0	0
3	Above 12 until 21 for boys, and for girls for whom the donation may not have been paid .....	60	0	0

At Bombay, the following are the annuities :—

*Table showing the Amount of Pension to Widows during their Widowhood.*

Widow of a Colonel .....	205	0	0
Lieut.-Colonel, Member of Medical Board, or Archdeacon .....	175	0	0
Major, Superintending Surgeon, and Chaplain, above 10, or Assistant-Chaplain above 15, years' standing.....	145	0	0
Captain, Surgeon, Chaplain under 10 years', Assistant-Chaplain under 15 years', or Veterinary Surgeon after 20 years' service	120	0	0
Lieutenant, Assistant-Surgeon, or Veterinary Surgeon, after 10 years' service .....	102	3	9
Second Lieutenant, Cornet, Ensign, or Veterinary Surgeon, under 10 years' service.....	81	15	0

*Table showing the Amount of Annuities payable to Children for whom donations have been paid.*

	£	s.	d.
Children, without distinction of rank, if bereft of both parents, under 7 years old .....	30	0	0
From 7 to 10 years old.....	45	0	0
From 10 to 18 years old .....	60	0	0
If bereft of their father only, under 7 years old.....	22	10	0
From 7 to 10 years old.....	30	0	0
From 10 to 18 years old .....	37	10	0

The subjoined statements and Pay Tables have been drawn up more particularly with relation to the Madras Army, now the chief Native Army of India, but apply generally to the Army of Bombay also.

A Regiment of Cavalry consists of 6 troops, with 1 serjeant major, 1 quarter-

\* The Bengal Military Fund was in an embarrassed state before the revolt. During the revolt so many officers died, or were killed, that the Fund, without aid from Government, would be insolvent.

master serjeant, 1 assistant apothecary, 1 second dresser, 6 *šúbahdárs*, 6 jam'adárs, 1 *haváldár* major, 30 *haváldárs*, 24 náiks, 1 trumpet major, 6 trumpeters, 1 farrier major, 12 farriers, 2 veterinary pupils, 300 troopers, 40 recruit and pension boys, 1 second tandel, 8 regimental Laskars, 1 *chaudhari* (purveyor or clerk), 2 peons, 6 *pakhális* (water-carriers), 5 artificers, and 2 *tofis* (scavengers).

The Horse Brigade Artillery consists of 4 European and 2 native troops, with 1 riding master, 1 serjeant major, 1 quartermaster serjeant, 1 schoolmaster serjeant, 1 orderly room clerk, 1 trumpet major, 1 farrier major, 1 hospital writer, 1 *chaudhari*, 2 peons.—Each European troop consists of 1 troop quartermaster, 1 troop serjeant major, 1 troop quartermaster serjeant, 6 sergeants, 6 corporals, 12 bombardiers, 2 trumpeters, 3 farriers, 84 gunners, 1 assistant apothecary, 1 second dresser, 4 *pakhális*, 12 artificers.—Each Native Troop consists of 1 *šúbahdár*, 2 jam'adárs, 1 troop quartermaster, 1 troop serjeant major, 1 troop quartermaster serjeant, 3 serjeants, 1 assistant apothecary, 1 troop *haváldár* major, 1 drill *haváldár*, 1 drill náik, 6 *haváldárs*, 6 náiks, 2 trumpeters, 3 farriers, 1 veterinary pupil, 84 troopers, 3 *pakhális*, 5 recruit boys, 3 pension boys, 2 regimental Laskars, 12 artificers, 1 *tofi*. A Battalion of Artillery consists of 4 Companies, with 1 serjeant major, 1 quartermaster serjeant, 1 schoolmaster serjeant, 1 drill serjeant, 1 orderly room clerk, 1 second apothecary, 1 assistant apothecary, 1 second dresser, 1 hospital writer, 1 drill corporal, 1 bugle major, 16 Laskar boys, 1 *chaudhari*, 2 peons, 2 *tofis*.—Each Company consists of 1 brigade staff serjeant, 6 serjeants, 6 corporals, 6 bombardiers, 2 buglers, 2 half-pay buglers, 60 gunners, 2 *pakhális*, 12 artificers,

Two Companies of Gun Laskars are attached to each Bat. of Eur. Art.—Each Company consists of 1 *šúbahdár*, 1 jam'adár, 4 *haváldárs*, 60 gun Laskars, 1 *pakháli*.

The Golandáz Battalion of Artillery consists of 6 *šúbahdárs*, 12 jam'adárs, 1 serjeant major, 1 quartermaster serjeant, 1 assistant apothecary, 1 second dresser, 1 *haváldár* major, 1 drill *haváldár*, 48 *haváldárs*, 2 bugle majors, 12 buglers, 1 drill náik, 48 náiks, 552 privates, 6 *pakhális*, 30 recruit boys, 40 pension boys, 16 Laskar boys, 1 second tandel, 8 regimental Laskars, 72 artificers, 2 *tofis*.

Two Companies of Gun Laskars are attached to the Battalion.—Each Company consists of 1 *šúbahdár*, 1 jam'adar, 6 *haváldárs*, 60 gun Laskars, 1 *pakháli*.

The Sappers and Miners consist of 9 Companies, with 1 serjeant major, 1 quartermaster serjeant, 18 serjeants, 18 first corporals, 18 second corporals, 1 assistant apothecary, 1 second dresser, 9 *šúbahdárs*, 9 jam'adárs, 1 *haváldár* major, 38 *haváldárs*, 76 náiks, 18 buglers, 1,039 privates, 24 recruit boys, 24 pension boys, 1 *chaudhari*, 2 peons, 9 regimental Laskars, 9 *pakhális*, 41 artificers, 2 *tofis*.

A Regiment of European Infantry consists of 10 Companies, with 1 serjeant major, 1 quartermaster serjeant, 4 staff serjeants, 50 serjeants, 50 corporals, 1 drum or bugle major, 20 drummers or buglers, 20 half-pay drummers or buglers, 800 privates, 1 second apothecary, 1 assistant apothecary, 1 second dresser, 1 hospital writer, 20 *pakhális*, 3 artificers, 1 *chaudhari*, 2 peons.

A Regiment of Native Infantry consists of 10 Companies, with 1 serjeant major, 1 quartermaster serjeant, 1 assistant apothecary, 1 second dresser, 10 *šúbahdárs*, 10 jam'adárs, 1 *haváldár* major, 50 *haváldárs*, 50 náiks, 20 drummers and fifers or buglers, 700 privates,\* 30 recruit boys, 40 pension boys, 1 second tandel, 12 regimental Laskars, 1 *chaudhari*, 2 peons, 4 artificers, 10 *pakhális*, 2 *tofis*.

The 20th Regiment N. I. has an additional jam'adár to carry an honorary color. A Native Veteran Battalion consists of 1 serjeant major, 1 quartermaster serjeant, 1 assistant apothecary, 1 second dresser, 20 *šúbahdárs*, 20 jam'adárs, 2 drum majors, 2 *haváldár* majors, 80 *haváldárs*, 80 náiks, 30 drummers, 1000 privates, 30 recruit boys, 40 pension boys, 10 *pakhális*, 2 *tofis*.

The Artillery Veteran Company consists of 6 serjeants, 6 corporals, 2 buglers, 10 bombardiers, 100 gunners, 2 *pakhális*.

The Infantry Veteran Company consists of 6 serjeants, 6 corporals, 2 drummers, 100 privates, 2 *pakhális*, 1 assistant apothecary, 1 *tofi*.

\* An augmentation takes place during war, as now, owing to the Revolt of the Bengal Army.



TABLE A.—Pay and Allowances of the European Commissioned Officers of H. M.'s. and H. M. I. Services at the three Presidencies, in cantonment and in the field; pay of Paymasters and Quartermasters in H. M.'s. Service, and of Adjutants and Quartermasters in H. M. I. Service being shown separately.

In Garrison or Cantonment within 200 miles of direct distance from the seat of Government at Fort St. George.

CORPS AND RANK.	Pay and Indian Allowance.			Regimental House rent.	Horse Allowance.			Tentage.	Total pay and Ordinary Regimental Allowance.			
	R.	A.	P.		R.	R.	A.		P.	R.	A.	P.
<i>Horse Artillery and Cavalry.</i>												
Colonel .....	1158	7	0	...	120	0	0	200	1478	7	0	
Lieut.-Colonel .....	582	10	0	100	120	0	0	150	952	10	0	
Major .....	461	1	10	80	120	0	0	120	781	1	10	
Captain or Surgeon .....	306	11	4	50	90	0	0	75	521	11	4	
1st Lieut. or Assistant-Surgeon .....	194	6	0	30	60	0	0	50	334	6	0	
2nd Lieut. or Cornet .....	154	15	10	25	60	0	0	50	289	15	10	
Vet. Surg. {	Under 3 years' service...	182	4	5	30	47	13	3	50	310	1	8
	Above ditto .....	206	10	0	30	47	13	3	50	334	7	3
	Ditto 10 ditto .....	230	15	6	30	47	13	3	50	358	12	9
	Ditto 20 ditto .....	267	8	0	30	47	13	3	50	395	5	3
	Ditto 25 ditto .....	297	14	11	30	47	13	3	50	425	12	2
<i>Artillery, Engineers, European, or Native Infantry.</i>												
Colonel .....	1065	5	0	...	30	0	0	200	1295	5	0	
Lieut.-Colonel .....	547	14	0	100	30	0	0	150	827	14	0	
Major .....	410	14	6	80	30	0	0	120	640	14	6	
<i>Artillery or Engineers.</i>												
Captain or Surgeon .....	267	5	0	50	...	...	...	75	392	5	0	
Lieut. or Assistant-Surgeon .....	154	14	0	30	...	...	...	50	234	14	0	
Second Lieutenant .....	117	10	6	25	...	...	...	50	192	10	6	
<i>European Native Infantry.</i>												
Captain or Surgeon .....	249	1	0	50	...	...	...	75	374	1	0	
Lieut. or Assistant-Surgeon .....	145	12	0	30	...	...	...	50	225	12	0	
Ensign ..	107	1	11	25	...	...	...	50	182	1	11	
<i>Her Majesty's Cavalry.</i>												
Qrtr. Paymaster. {	First appointment .....	279	8	0	50	90	0	0	75	494	8	0
	After 5 years' service ..	309	15	0	50	90	0	0	75	524	15	0
	Ditto 15 ditto .....	340	6	0	50	90	0	0	75	555	6	0
	Ditto 20 ditto .....	370	13	0	50	90	0	0	75	585	13	0
	Ditto 25 ditto .....	401	4	0	50	90	0	0	75	616	4	0
Qrtr. Paymaster. {	First appointment ..	161	2	3	25	60	0	0	50	296	2	3
	After 10 years' service ..	185	7	10	25	60	0	0	50	320	7	10
	Ditto 15 ditto .....	203	12	1	25	60	0	0	50	338	12	1
<i>Her Majesty's Infantry.</i>												
Qrtr. Paymaster. {	First appointment .....	279	8	0	50	...	...	...	75	404	8	0
	After 5 years' service ..	309	15	0	50	...	...	...	75	434	15	0
	Ditto 15 ditto .....	340	6	0	50	...	...	...	75	465	6	0
	Ditto 20 ditto .....	370	13	0	50	...	...	...	75	495	13	0
	Ditto 25 ditto .....	401	4	0	50	...	...	...	75	526	4	0
Qrtr. Paymaster. {	First appointment.....	164	0	3	30	...	...	...	50	244	0	3
	After 10 years' service ..	188	5	9	30	...	...	...	50	268	5	9
	Ditto 15 ditto .....	206	10	0	30	...	...	...	50	286	10	0

TABLE A. II.—*Pay and Allowances of the above Officers in the Field and in Garrison or Cantonment beyond 200 miles of direct distance from the seat of Government at Fort St. George.*

CORPS AND RANK.	Pay and Indian Allowance.			Extra Batta.			Horse Allowance.			Tentage.	Total pay and full Regimental Allowances.		
	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	P.		R.	A.	P.
<i>Horse Artillery and Cavalry.</i>													
Colonel .....	1158	7	0	...	...		120	0	0	200	1478	7	0
Lieut.-Colonel .....	582	10	0	304	6	0	120	0	0	150	1157	0	0
Major .....	461	1	10	228	4	6	120	0	0	120	929	6	4
Captain or Surgeon ...	306	11	4	91	5	0	90	0	0	75	563	0	4
Lieut. or Assistant-Surgeon .....	194	6	0	60	14	0	60	0	0	50	365	4	0
Cornet .....	154	15	10	45	10	6	60	0	0	50	310	10	4
Vet.-Surgeon.	Under 3 years' service .....												
	Above ditto .....												
	Ditto 10 ditto ...												
	Ditto 20 ditto ...												
	Ditto 25 ditto ...												
<i>Artillery, Engineers, European, or Native Infantry.</i>													
Colonel .....	1065	5	0	...	...		30	0	0	200	1295	5	0
Lieut.-Colonel .....	547	14	0	304	6	0	30	0	0	150	1032	4	0
Major .....	410	14	6	228	4	6	30	0	0	120	789	3	0
<i>Artillery or Engineers.</i>													
Captain or Surgeon ...	267	5	0	91	5	0	...	...		75	433	10	0
Lieut. or Assistant-Surgeon .....	154	14	0	60	14	0	...	...		50	265	12	0
Second Lieutenant ...	117	10	6	45	10	6	...	...		50	213	5	0
<i>European and Native Infantry.</i>													
Captain or Surgeon ...	249	1	0	91	5	0	...	...		75	415	6	0
Lieut. or Assist.-Surg.	145	12	0	60	14	0	...	...		50	256	10	0
Ensign .....	107	1	11	45	10	6	..	...		50	202	12	5
<i>Her Majesty's Cavalry.</i>													
Paymaster.	1st appointment..												
	After 5 years' service .....												
	Ditto 15 ditto ...												
	Ditto 20 ditto ...												
	Ditto 25 ditto ...												
Quarter-master.	First appointment .....												
	After 10 years' service .....												
	Ditto 15 ditto..												

CORPS AND RANK.	Pay and Indian Allowance.			Extra Bhatá.			Horse Allowance.			Tentage.	Total pay and full Regimental Allowances.		
	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	P.		R.	A.	P.
<i>Her Majesty's Infantry.</i>													
Paymaster. { 1st appointment..	279	8	0	91	5	0	...	...	75	445	13	0	
After 5 years' service .....	309	15	0	91	5	0	...	...	75	476	4	0	
Ditto 15 ditto ...	340	6	0	91	5	0	...	...	75	506	11	0	
Ditto 20 ditto ...	370	13	0	91	5	0	...	...	75	537	2	0	
Ditto 25 ditto ...	401	4	0	91	5	0	...	...	75	567	9	0	
Quarter-master. { First appointment .....	164	0	3	60	14	0	...	...	50	274	14	3	
After 10 years' service .....	188	5	9	60	14	0	...	...	50	299	3	9	
Ditto 15 ditto..	206	10	0	60	14	0	...	...	50	317	8	0	

REMARKS.—The pay, half bhátá, and gratuity of the European officers, both of H. M.'s and H. M. I. Services, together with the non-effective allowance received by certain classes of the former, are included in one sum under the denomination of Pay and Indian Allowance, leaving Extra Bhatá, House-rent, Tentage, and Horse Allowance to be drawn up separately according to this table.

TABLE B.—Table of Pay Proper of European Commissioned Officers of H. M.'s and H. M. I. Services, converted into Indian currency at 2s. 0½d. per rupee, and admissible when not in receipt of Indian or Staff Allowance.

HER MAJESTY'S TROOPS.—Cavalry.		For any Month.		
		R.	A.	P.
Colonel.....		...	...	...
Lieutenant-Colonel.....		342	14	2
Major .....		286	15	9
Captain .....		217	6	7
Lieutenant .....		134	2	9
Cornet .....		119	4	3
Adjutant (being a Lieutenant or Cornet) .....		149	1	4
Paymaster*.....	{ On first appointment .....	186	5	8
	{ After 5 years' service .....	223	9	11
	{ " 15 " .....	260	14	3
	{ " 20 " .....	298	2	7
Quartermaster.....	{ " 25 " .....	335	6	11
	{ On first appointment .....	126	11	6
	{ After 10 years' service .....	158	8	7
Surgeon .....	{ " 15 " .....	178	14	4
	{ On first appointment .....	193	12	11
	{ After 10 years' service .....	223	9	11
Assistant-Surgeon	{ " 20 " .....	283	4	1
	{ " 25 " .....	327	15	8
	{ On first Appointment .....	126	11	6
Veterinary Surg.†	{ After 10 years' service .....	163	15	10
	{ On first appointment .....	119	4	3
	{ After 3 years' service .....	149	1	4
	{ " 10 " .....	178	14	4
	{ " 20 " .....	223	9	11
	{ " 25 " .....	260	14	2

*Infantry.*

Colonel.....	...	...	...
Lieutenant-Colonel.....	253	7	0

\* The Pay of Paymaster, Quarter-master, Surgeon, and Assistant-surgeon, is the same in the Infantry.

† Veterinary Surgeons in H. M. I. Horse Art. and Cavalry get the same pay as here shown.

Major .....	238	8	6	
Captain .....	{ Being a Brevet Field Officer .....	202	8	0
	{ " Regimental " .....	172	11	0
Lieutenant .....	{ Above 7 years' service.....	111	13	0
	{ Under 7 " .....	96	14	5
Ensign .....	78	4	3	
Adjutant (being a Lieutenant or Ensign).....	126	11	6	

HER MAJESTY'S INDIAN ARMY.—*Horse Artillery and Cavalry.*

Colonel .....	486	11	9	Captain .....	219	10	8
Lieutenant-Colonel .....	340	11	5	Lieutenant.....	134	1	4
Major.....	285	1	7	Cornet .....	119	2	11

*Foot Artillery, Engineers, European and Native Infantry.*

Colonel .....	372	11	3	Surgeon.....	149	1	4
Lieutenant-Colonel .....	298	2	7	Assistant-Surgeon.....	74	8	8
Major.....	223	9	11				

*Foot Artillery and Engineers.**European and Native Infantry.*

Captain .....	171	6	10	Captain .....	149	1	4
First Lieutenant .....	85	11	5	Lieutenant.....	74	8	8
Second Lieutenant .....	73	7	6	Ensign .....	60	9	0

TABLE C.—STAFF PAY.

REGIMENTAL STAFF—HER MAJESTY'S INDIAN ARMY.	Staff Pay.	Office Allowance.	Horse Allowance.	Office Tentage.	For any Month.
ADJUTANTS.					
<i>European Regiment, or European Foot Artillery, or Sappers and Miners.*</i>					
Adjutant and Quartermaster, combined appointment .....	R. A. 122 0	R. 55	R. 30	R. 30	R. A. 237 0
<i>Horse Artillery and Cavalry.</i>					
Adjutant .....	92 7	55	30	30	207 7
<i>Engineers.</i>					
Adjutant (consolidated pay) .....	...	...	...	...	137 0
<i>Golandz, i.e., Native Artillery, or Native Infantry.</i>					
Adjutant .....	92 7	40	30	30	192 7
<i>Detachments of not less than a wing of a Brigade of Horse Artillery, or wing of a Battalion of Foot Artillery, or wing of a Regiment of Cavalry or Infantry.</i>					
Adjutant.....	}	}	}	}	}
Quartermaster .....					
Paymaster .....					
QUARTERMASTERS AND INTERPRETERS.					
<i>European Regiment.</i>					
Quartermaster and Interpreter .....	62 0	55	30	30	177 0
<i>Horse Artillery, Golandz, Cavalry, or Infantry Regiment.</i>					
Quartermaster and Interpreter .....	62 0	40	30	...	132 0

\* In the Sappers and Miners, the Adjutant draws Staff pay—212s. 7d.; Quartermaster and Interpreter, 137s.

TABLE D.—GENERAL STAFF.

APPOINTMENT.	Staff Salary.			Horse Allowance.	Office Establishment.			Writers and Stationery.	Feeds and Lashkars.	Total.		
	R.	A.	P.		R.	R.	A.			P.	R.	A.
Commander-in-Chief (if Member of Council) <i>c</i> .....	6941	5	8	...	...	...	...	280	7221	5	8	
Ditto (not Member of ditto) <i>c</i> .....	5316	8	2	...	...	...	...	...	5316	8	2	
Ditto Provincial, <i>c</i> ...	1300	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	1300	0	0	
Commander of the Forces, <i>e</i> .....	875	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	875	0	0	
Commandant of Ar- tillery, <i>a</i> .....	1250	0	0	30	...	...	...	...	1280	0	0	
Adjutant-General* <i>c</i> } Qr.-master-General <i>c</i> }	1940	0	0	60	(1867	0	0)	...	...	2000	0	0
Deputy ditto, <i>b</i> .....	539	5	4	60	(768	4	8)	...	...	599	5	4
Assistant, <i>a</i> .....	263	0	10	60	...	...	...	...	323	0	10	
Deputy-Assistant, <i>b</i> ...	175	0	0	60	...	...	...	...	235	0	0	
Aide - de - Camp to Governor or Com- mander-in-Chief, <i>a</i> ..	149	9	8	60	...	...	...	...	209	9	8	
Ditto to General Offi- cer on the Staff, <i>a</i> ...	149	9	8	30	...	...	...	...	179	9	8	
Assistant Adjutant- General Artillery, <i>a</i>	263	0	10	60	(250	0	0)	...	...	323	0	10
Auditor-General (Mili- tary) <i>c</i> .....	2916	10	8	...	(4667	0	0)	...	...	2916	10	8
Deputy ditto, <i>b</i> .....	700	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	700	0	0	
Assistant ditto, <i>b</i> .....	350	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	350	0	0	
Second Assistant do., <i>b</i>	280	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	280	0	0	
Baggage Master in the Field, <i>a</i> .....	350	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	350	0	0	
Deputy ditto, <i>a</i> .....	350	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	350	0	0	
Barrack Master at Madras, <i>a</i> .....	456	2	10	...	...	...	35	185†	676	2	10	
Brigade Major in the Field, <i>a</i> .....	124	0	0	60	...	...	60	...	244	0	0	
Ditto Bengalûr, or H. M. troops, <i>b</i> .....	124	0	0	60	...	...	60	...	244	0	0	
Brigadier, 1st class, <i>a</i>	1000	0	0	30	...	...	40	...	1070	0	0	
"    2d    " <i>a</i>	750	0	0	30	...	...	20	...	800	0	0	
"    3d    " <i>a</i>	500	0	0	30	...	...	20	...	550	0	0	
Commissary-General, <i>c</i>	2189	7	9	...	(7103	14	4)	...	...	2189	7	9
Deputy ditto, <i>a</i> .....	1063	10	11	...	...	...	...	...	1063	10	11	
Assistant ditto, <i>a</i> .....	709	15	8	...	...	...	...	...	709	15	8	
Deputy-Assistant do. <i>a</i>	356	2	10	...	...	...	...	...	356	2	10	
Sub-Assistant ditto, <i>f</i>	181	2	10	...	...	...	...	...	181	2	10	
Temporary Assistants ditto, <i>d</i> .....	150	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	150	0	0	

\* When not provided with public office, draws office rent, 17s. 8s. per mensem.

† For care of Civil Buildings.

APPOINTMENT.		Staff Salary.			Horse Allowance.	Office Establishment.			Writers and Stationery.		Pens and Ink.	Total.		
		R.	A.	P.	R.	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	R.	R.	A.	P.
Divisions.	Officers under rank of Generals, commanding, <i>c</i> .....	2500	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2500	0	0
	Assist. - Adjutant-General, <i>a</i> .....	263	0	10	60	...	...	...	205	...	...	528	0	10
	Ditto Qr.-master-General, <i>a</i> .....	263	0	10	60	...	...	...	170	...	...	493	0	10
	Deputy - Assistant Adjut.-General, <i>a</i> .....	143	15	11	60	...	...	...	100	...	...	303	15	11
	Ditto Qr.-master-General, <i>a</i> .....	143	15	11	60	...	...	...	117	8	...	321	7	11
	Brigade Major, Malabar and Kanara, <i>a</i> .....	143	15	11	60	...	...	...	42	...	...	245	15	11
Fort Adjutant of Fort St. George, <i>b</i> .....	280	0	0	30	...	...	...	...	...	...	310	0	0	
Ditto of Cantonment, <i>d</i> .....	70	0	0	30	...	...	...	35	...	...	135	0	0	
General Officer on the Staff, <i>c</i> .....	3333	5	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3333	5	4	
H. M. Troops.	Deputy - Inspector General of Hospitals, <i>b</i> .....	2150	0	0	...	(214	0	0)	...	...	...	2150	0	0
	Ditto Adjutant-General, <i>c</i> .....	1454	7	9	...	(185	8	0)	...	...	...	1454	7	9
	Ditto Qr.-master-General, <i>c</i> .....	1454	7	9	...	(87	8	0)	...	...	...	1454	7	9
Joint Agent for purchase of Remount Horses for Madras and Bombay Armies, <i>a</i> .....	709	15	8	<i>k</i>	...	...	...	...	...	...	709	15	8	
Judge Advocate-Gen. <i>b</i> .....	1000	0	0	60	(327	0	0)	...	...	...	1060	0	0	
Deputy ditto, <i>a</i> .....	350	0	0	...	...	...	...	52	8	...	402	8	0	
Ordnance Commissary, <i>b</i> .....	1000	0	0	...	(500	0	0)	...	...	...	1000	0	0	
Ditto Superintendent Gun Carriage Manufactory, <i>b</i> .....	700	0	0	...	(300	0	0)	...	...	...	700	0	0	
Ditto Director of Artillery Depôt, <i>a</i> .....	450	0	0	...	...	...	...	105	...	...	555	0	0	
Ordnance Commissary, <i>d</i> .....	350	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	350	0	0	
Deputy ditto, being a Commissioned Officer, <i>d</i> .....	250	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	250	0	0	
Assistant ditto, ditto ditto, <i>d</i> .....	200	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	200	0	0	
Deputy Assistant Commissary, ditto ditto, <i>d</i> .....	120	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	120	0	0	
Ordnance Inspector, if a Field Officer, <i>b</i> .....	200	0	0	30	...	...	...	42	...	...	272	0	0	

## PAY AND ALLOWANCES.

CXV

APPOINTMENT.	Staff Salary.			Horse Allowance.	Office Establishment.			Writers and Stationery.	Pens and Lankars.		Total.		
	R.	A.	P.		R.	R.	A.		P.	R.	A.	R.	A.
Ordnance Inspector, if not a Field Officer, <i>b</i>	100	0	0	...	...	...	42	...	142	0	0	0	
Officer Commanding Nilgiri Hills, <i>a</i> .....	400	0	0	...	...	...	...	20	420	0	0	0	
Ditto General Depôt of European Pensioners, Gudalûr, <i>b</i>	200	0	0	...	...	...	15	...	215	0	0	0	
Paymaster, Madras, <i>b</i>	1000	0	0	...	(1000	0 0)	...	...	1000	0	0	0	
Ditto Out-station, 1st class, <i>d</i> .....	600	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	600	0	0	0	
Ditto ditto, 2nd class, <i>d</i>	400	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	400	0	0	0	
Deputy ditto, 1st class, <i>d</i>	300	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	300	0	0	0	
Ditto ditto, 2nd class, <i>d</i>	200	0	0	..	...	...	...	...	200	0	0	0	
Persian Interpreter at Head Quarters, <i>b</i> ...	350	0	0	60	...	...	...	...	410	0	0	0	
Secretary to Commander-in-Chief, <i>a</i> ...	891	8	7	60	(160	0 0)	...	...	951	8	7	0	
Ditto to Provincial ditto, <i>a</i> .....	445	12	4	30	...	...	...	...	475	12	4	0	
Staff Officer at St. Thomas's Mount, <i>b</i>	207	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	207	0	0	0	
Ditto at Palaveram, Singapur, and Moulmein, <i>d</i> .....	60	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	60	0	0	0	
Ditto at Punamalli, <i>d</i>	50	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	50	0	0	0	
Ditto at Tirupatiûr (Tripassore), <i>d</i> .....	...	...	...	...	...	...	35	...	35	0	0	0	
Ditto at Stations of one or more corps, <i>d</i> .....	...	...	...	...	...	...	25	...	25	0	0	0	
Ditto at inferior Stations, <i>d</i> .....	...	...	...	...	...	...	10	...	10	0	0	0	
Superintendent of Powder Manufactory, <i>b</i> ...	1000	0	0	...	(136	8 0)	...	...	1000	0	0	0	
Ditto of Family Payments and Pensions, <i>b</i>	600	0	0	...	(795	0 0)	...	...	600	0	0	0	
Ditto of Cadets, <i>b</i> .....	110	0	0	...	...	...	...	94 8	204	8	0	0	

## REMARKS.

*a* Exclusive of pay and full regimental allowances.

*b* Exclusive of pay and ordinary regimental allowances.

*c* Exclusive of pay proper, but including full regimental allowances.

*d* Exclusive of pay and allowances, according to rank and station.

*e* In addition to pay and allowances, if a Major-General commanding a division.

*f* Draws 175*a*. in addition when in charge of Military Bâzars.

*A* Including pay and full regimental allowances.

*k* Paid at Bombay—half chargeable there and half at Madras.

TABLE E.—CIVIL STAFF.

*Salaries Paid and Audited in the Civil Department.*

APPOINTMENT.	Staff Salary.			Office Allowance.		For Fees and Laskars.			Total.		
	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	P.
Assistant Assay Master, <i>b</i> .....	350	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	350	0	0
Do. to Government Agent at Karnul, <i>d</i> .....	200	0	0	( <i>k</i> 81 6)	...	...	...	...	200	0	0
Do. in Ganjam, <i>d</i> .....	558	5	4	{ <i>j</i> 42 0 } { <i>k</i> 81 6 }	...	...	...	...	600	5	4
Agent for suppression of Meriah Sacrifice and Female Infanticide in Orissa, <i>d</i> .....	2000	0	0	( <i>g</i> 500 0)	...	...	...	...	2000	0	0
Principal Assistant do., <i>d</i> .....	900	0	0	( <i>g</i> 250 0)	...	...	...	...	900	0	0
Assistant do., <i>d</i> .....	600	0	0	( <i>g</i> 250 0)	...	...	...	...	600	0	0
Government Agent at Chepák, <i>f</i>	525	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	525	0	0
Maráthi Translator to Government, <i>i</i> .....	300	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	300	0	0
Mint Master, <i>d</i> .....	1750	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	1750	0	0
Police Magistrate, <i>d</i> .....	1000	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	1000	0	0
Resident at Tiruvankodu (Travancore) and Kachhi (Cochin) <i>d</i>	2800	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	2800	0	0
Secretary to Government Military Department, <i>c</i> .....	2000	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	2000	0	0
Deputy do., <i>a</i> .....	600	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	600	0	0
Do. Private to Governor, <i>d</i> ...	1500	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	1500	0	0
Do. Military to Governor, <i>d</i> ...	1000	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	1000	0	0
Do. College Board and University <i>f</i> .....	500	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	500	0	0
Superintendent Magnetic Observatory, <i>b</i> .....	500	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	500	0	0
Do. of Roads .....	1250	0	0	...	...	...	...	...	1250	0	0
Do. first Assistant .....	400	0	0	( <i>h</i> 93 0)	...	...	...	...	400	0	0
Do. second do.....	300	0	0	( <i>h</i> 93 0)	...	...	...	...	300	0	0
Surveyor-General in charge of Survey, <i>a</i> .....	350	0	0	...	...	43	14	0	393	14	0
Do. attached to a Survey, <i>a</i> ...	180	0	0	...	...	24	9	4	204	9	4

## REMARKS.

- a* Exclusive of Pay and full Regimental Allowances.  
*b* Exclusive of Pay and Ordinary Regimental Allowances.  
*c* Exclusive of Pay Proper, but including full Regimental Allowances.  
*d* Including Pay and full Regimental Allowances.  
*e* Pay Audited in Military Department.  
*f* When held by a Military Officer, not otherwise entitled to Pay and Military Allowances, the Salary is Consolidated and includes these.  
*g* Travelling Allowances paid only when absent from Head Quarters on Duty.  
*h* Tentage at 4s. per diem to Civil Engineer, and 3s. to an Assistant do. while actually under canvass.  
*i* When held by Military Officer, not otherwise entitled to Pay and Allowances, he receives only Pay or Subsistence in Military Department.  
*j* Fixed Tent Allowance.  
*k* Extra Tentage at 2s. 10s. per diem only while on Circuit on Duty.



# A VOCABULARY OF INDIAN WORDS USED IN THIS BOOK.

[A. signifies Arabic; H. Hindústání or Hindí; K. Kanarese; Mal. Malayalam; M. Maráthí;  
My. Malay; P. Persian; S. Sanskrit; Tel. Telugu; Tur. Turkish; T. Tamil.]

- AHKÁM**, A. pl. of *ahkam*, "orders."  
**AMÍR** (Ameer), A. "commander," a title of princes and nobles, as, the Amirs of Sindh.  
**ANÁ** (Anna), H. the 16th part of a rupee, or about three half-pence.  
**ANDORA**, Mal. the 10th class of Nairs, who are potmakers by profession.  
**ANAKAṬṬ** (Anicut), Tel. *aḍḍa*, "between," *kaṭṭu*, "to bind," a dam or embankment.  
**BABÚL**, A. a tree of the tamarisk kind.  
**BAHÁDUR**, P. "brave," "chivalric," a title of honor among Muḥammadans.  
**BAJRÁ** (Budgerow), H. a large, round-bottomed boat, without a keel.  
**BÁMAN**, S. the 5th incarnation of Viṣṇu in the shape of a dwarf.  
**BANGLÁ** (Bungalow), H. a thatched house, the name usually applied to the houses of the English in India, and to the houses for travellers built by Government on the public roads.  
**BÍGAM** (Begum), Tur. a lady of rank, a queen or princess.  
**BHÁTÁ** (Batta), H. additional allowance to public servants or soldiers employed on special duty.  
**BRÁHMAN**, S. a Hindú of the first, or priestly caste.  
**BUDDHIST**, S. a worshipper of Buddha, or Sakya Muni, who died A.D. 543.  
**BÁZÁR**, P. a market, or market-place.  
**CASTE**, class, sect, corruption of the Portuguese *casta* or race.  
**CATAMARAN**, T. *kaṭṭu*, "to bind," *maram*, "a tree," a log-raft on which the natives of Madras paddle through the surf.  
**CHAKRÁ**, S. a discus, the quoit of Viṣṇu.  
**CHAUSAR**, S. Hindú dice.  
**CHARNADU**, Mal. the 3rd class of Nairs, who are accountants.  
**CHÁWADI**, Tel. a native rest-house for travellers.  
**CHINNA-KUNDAKA**, T. a kind of native harrow.  
**CHOLTRY**, an English corruption of Cháwadi, *q.v.*  
**CHUNAM**, S. an English corruption of H. *chúnd*, from S. *chúrṇaś*, lime, a plaster or mortar made of shells of a remarkable whiteness and brilliance.  
**COMPOUND**, My. an enclosure. A corruption of the Malay word, *Kampong*.  
**DAGHOPA** or **DAHGOP**, S. *deh*, "the body," *gup*, "to hide," a circular structure inside Buddhistic cave temples, supposed to contain the ashes or relics of Buddha, and occupying the place of our altars.  
**DARBÁR** (Durbar), P. a royal court, an audience or levee.  
**DHARAM SÁLÁ**, S. *dharma*, "justice," "piety," and *śalá*, "a hall;" a place of accommodation for travellers and pilgrims.  
**DÍWÁN**, P. "a royal court," "a minister;" especially the chief financial minister.  
**DRUG**, S. an English corruption of *durga*, "a fort."  
**DURÁSH**, S. *do*, "two," *bhāṣhā*, "language;" one who speaks two languages, an interpreter.

- FAẖÍR, A. "poor;" a religious man, who has taken the vow of poverty.
- GAṆA, S. an attendant of Shiva.
- GARISHA, Tel. a measure of grain = 400 markáls, or 185·2 cubic ft., or 9860 lb. avoirdupois.
- GHÁT (Ghaut), S. *ghatta*, "a landing place," "steps on a river side;" a mountain leading up, like a step, to a tableland.
- GOPURA, S. from *gop*, "to preserve;" a town gate.
- GUMÁSHTAH, P. an agent.
- HAMMÁL, A. a bearer of a páلكí.
- HAVÁLDÁR, H. an officer in native regiments corresponding to our sergeant.
- HÓM, S. sacrifice.
- HUKKAH (Hookah), A. a pipe.
- HUZÚR, A. The royal presence, a respectful term applied to collectors, judges, or other high officials.
- ILÁVAS, T. a tribe in Tinneveli and S. Tiruvankodu (Travancore).
- JÁGÍR, P. a tenure by which the public revenues of an estate or district were granted to an individual, with powers to collect them, and administer the general affairs of the place.
- JANJAM, T. the thread worn by bráhmans as a caste distinction.
- JAM'ADÁR, A. a native officer next to a Śúbahdár, and corresponding to our lieutenant.
- KACHERÍ or KACHHARÍ, H.M. a court or office for public business.
- KÁLAM, T. a disease affecting the tobacco plant.
- KÁTOPI, M. a wild tribe inhabiting the Sahyádrí range.
- KHÁN, A. a title of nobility answering to our "lord."
- KHÁNDÍ (Candy), M. a measure of weight and capacity: in Madras = 500 lb.; in Bombay, 560 lb.
- KHÍND, M. a narrow pass between mountains.
- KIL'ADÁR, A. the commander of a fort.
- KIMKHWÁB (Kimeob), P. silk stuff interwoven with gold and silver.
- KIRŪM, Mal. the highest class of Nairs.
- KOLÁS, M. a caste in the Kóukap and Gujarát, who are fishermen, watermen, and robbers.
- KOTÁRAM, T. a palace.
- ḲUBBAH, A. a dome.
- ḲULÍ (Cooly), T. and Tur. a day laborer.
- ḲUMBÍ, M. a farmer, a farm laborer.
- LÁKH (LAC), S. the number 100,000.
- LÁT or LÁTH "a pillar;" ancient Hindú pillars on which inscriptions were set up in an old and obsolete character.
- MÁLÁ, S. a garland.
- MAN (Maund), H. a weight, varying in different parts of India. In Bombay it is 25 lb.; in Bengal, since 1833, 87½ lb.
- MANDAPAM, S. an open pavilion or porch in front of a temple.
- MASSULAH, T. a boat sewed together, used for crossing the surf at Madras.
- MONSOON, A. a corruption of the A. *mausim*, "a season;" applied now to the periodical rains in India.
- MORTT, T. a Toda village.
- MAHÁRS, M. a low caste in the Bombay Presidency.
- MUKWAR, T. a low caste in Malabar.
- MUNSHÍ (Moonshé), A. a writer, a secretary, a teacher of languages.
- MUNSHÍP, A. a native judge of the 3rd class.
- NÁCH, S. a dance, an exhibition of dancing-girls.
- NÁG, S. the cobra snake.
- NÁIK, S. an officer in native armies corresponding to a corporal.

- NAUBAT KHÁNAH, A.** the guard-room, the chamber over a gateway, where a band is stationed.
- NIADIS, Mah.** an outcast tribe of Malabar.
- NIẒÁM, A.** an arranger; a title of the prince whose capital is Haidarábád in the Dakhan.
- NÚWÁB, A.** this word means lit., "deputies," being the pl. of *na'ib*, "a deputy." It is now a title of governors.
- PAGODA, P.** an Anglican corruption of the P. word *but-kadah*, "an idol temple;" also a coin =  $3\frac{1}{2}$  rupees, called by the natives *lán*, but deriving its appellation of pagoda from its showing a temple on one face.
- PÁL-AL, T.** the priests of the Toda tribe, lit. "milkmen."
- PÁLEGÁR (Polygar), T.** Tel. a shareholder, a landed proprietor. A title of native chiefs in the Madras Presidency.
- PALANQUEEN, H.** an Anglican corruption of the word *pálki*, a sedan in which persons of rank are carried on men's shoulders.
- PÁN, S.** the leaf of the betel tree.
- PÁRSÍS, P.** a caste who worship the Deity under the emblem, fire.
- PARWÁRÍS, H.** people of low caste.
- PE-KOVIL, T.** "devil-temple," a hut dedicated to the worship of the spirits of dead men.
- PEONS, H.** an Anglican corruption of the word *piyáda*, "footman."
- PESHKÁRS, P.** an agent. In Bengal, the native officer under a judge, next to the *Sarrishtadár* in rank.
- PESHKASH, P.** tribute, an offering from an inferior to a superior.
- PESHWÁ, P.** the prime ministers of the Rájás of Sátará, who afterwards became the supreme chiefs of the Marátha nation.
- PE'YA, Tel.** a native town or suburb.
- PHATEMÁR, M.** lit., "a letter carrier," a sailing vessel common on the W. coast of India.
- PHINS, T.** the Toda name for the stone circles on the Nílگیرis.
- PICE, H.** a corruption of the word *paisá*, a copper coin, of which 64 go to a rupee.
- PÍR, P.** old, a Muḥammadan saint.
- RÁJÁ, S.** a Hindú king or prince.
- RÁMOSÍS, S.** a tribe in the Dakhan who are watchmen and thieves.
- RÁNÍ, S.** the wife of a Rájá, a queen or princess.
- RATH, S.** a chariot.
- REGIMENTDÁRS, E. and P.** a commissioned native officer in the Maisúr Horse.
- RISÁLAHDÁR, A.** a native captain of a troop of horse.
- RYOT, A.** an Anglican corruption of the word *r'aiyat*, a subject, a peasant.
- ŞADR AMÍN, A.** a native judge of the highest class.
- ŞADR 'ADÁLAT, A.** the Supreme Court of Justice in India for trying appeals.
- ŞÁHIB, A.** lord, a title applied to English gentlemen in India.
- ŞAKTÍ, S.** a goddess, the personified power of a deity.
- SAMBARANI, T.** frankincense.
- SARPEŞHKÁRS, P.** a non-commissioned officer in the Maisúr Horse.
- SARŞAFARDÁRS, P.** a commissioned officer in the Maisúr Horse.
- SATÍ (Suttee), S.** the burning of a widow with her deceased husband.
- ŞÁH, P.** a king, the title usually applied to the King of Persia.
- ŞHÁNÁRS, T.** a tribe in Tinneveli and the extreme S. of India, who are palm tree climbers by profession.
- SHANKH, S.** a shell, the large shells which are blown as horns by the Hindús.
- SHOLA, T.** a patch of jungle, a wooded dell.
- SHUDRA, S.** the 4th or lowest caste of Hindús.
- SIPÁMÍ (Sepoy), P.** a native soldier, one of a *sipáh* or army.
- SHIBANDÍ (Seebandy), M.** an auxiliary, a soldier of a native auxiliary levy.

- SÍTÁPHAL, S. a species of fruit.  
 ŠÚBAH, A. a province.  
 ŠÚBAHDÁR, A. a governor of a province, a native military officer corresponding to a captain.  
 TAṢŠÍLDÁR, A. a native collector of revenue.  
 TÁJ, P. a crown, the name of a magnificent mausoleum at Agra.  
 TÁLUK, or more properly *ta'alluṣāh*, a district, a division of a province.  
 TANAR NAIMAR, T. the 9th class of the Nairs, who are tailors by profession.  
 TAPPÁL, H. the post, delivery of letters.  
 TARAGON, T. the 11th class of the Nairs, who are weavers.  
 TAṬṬI, M. matting, especially of bambú.  
 TERIRIS, T. the temples of the Tuda or Toda tribe.  
 TUDAS, T. a remarkable tribe on the Nilgiri Hills.  
 TUGULTIS, T. dangerous quagmires on the Nilgiris.  
 TURBAT, A. a tomb.  
 VÁZIR, A. a prime minister.  
 VIHÁRA, S. a cell, an apartment in a monastery.  
 WILLIAM, T. the 4th class of Nairs, who are farmers.  
 VIMÁNA, S. a sacred vehicle or shrine.  
 WALLAKATRA, T. the 7th class of Nairs, who are barbers.  
 WALLATERA, T. the 8th class of Nairs, who are washermen.  
 WÁRALÍ, M. a wild tribe in the N. Koṅkan.  
 WATTAKATTA, T. the 5th class of Nairs, who are oilmakers.  
 WÉTZ, K. Indian steel.  
 ZAFARDÁRS, A. a non-commissioned officer in the Maisúr Horse.  
 ZAMÍNDÁR, P. a landed proprietor.  
 ZIAR, T. a low caste in Malabar.  
 ZIL'A (Zillah), A. a province or tract, constituting the jurisdiction of a circuit judge.

The following abbreviations are used in the Routes given in this book :—

b. Bungalow	Properly Banglá.	× 2 ns.....	Cross two nálas (nullahs).
b. & t. o. ...	{ Banglá and Tappál or native post-office.	N.....	North.
div.....	Division of the army.	p. ....	Page.
dh.....	{ Dharam Sálá, a native house of accommodation for travellers.	p.o. ....	Post-office.
E. I. C.....	East India Company.	rd. ....	Road.
E. ....	East.	r. ....	River.
f. ....	Furlong.	r. l. b. ....	River left bank.
ft.....	Feet.	r. b. ....	Right bank.
in.....	Inch.	rs .....	Rupees.
m. ....	Mile.	Roy. As. Soc.	Royal Asiatic Society.
n. Nullah...	{ Properly Nálá or nálah, "water-course."	S.....	South.
		W.....	West.
		yds. ....	Yards.

## SECTION I.

# MADRAS.

### *Preliminary Information.*

1. TERRITORIAL DIVISIONS — COLLECTORATES — POPULATION — REVENUE. —
2. MONSOONS — CLIMATE.—3. GOVERNMENT — CIVIL OFFICERS — ARMY.—
4. OBJECTS OF INTEREST TO THE TRAVELLER — NATURAL PRODUCTS.—
5. ARCHITECTURAL AND PICTURESQUE TOURS.

#### 1. TERRITORIAL DIVISIONS—COLLECTORATES—POPULATION—REVENUE.

THE Madras Presidency may be conveniently considered as consisting of five divisions, according to the present distribution of the army. These are:—

1. Central Division, comprehending Guntúr, Nellúr, Chengalpatt, N. Arcot, S. Arcot.
2. The N. Division, comprising Ganjám, Vishákpatanam (Vizagapatam), Rájamahendri, and Machlipatanam (Masulipatam).
3. The S. Division, or Salem, Koimbatúr, Trichinápalli (Trichinopoly), Tanjúr, Madura, Tinneveli, and the territory of the Rájá of Travancore.
4. The Maisúr Division extending over the province of the same name, Malabar, and Kanara.
5. The Ceded Districts Division, embracing Kadapa, Ballári, and Karnúl.

Besides these, Madras troops are employed in two portions of the Bengal Presidency, thus forming—

1. The Ságar Division, lying to the N. of Nágpur, and comprising the British districts of Ságar, Jabalpur, Hushangábád, Seoni, Dumoh, Narsinghpur, Baital, Rámgarh, and Sohájpur, as well as some Native States.
2. The Pegu Division.

To these are to be added the Nizám's territory and that of Nágpur, in both of which subsidiary armies are maintained; and which, as being, *quoad* military matters, governed by Madras, as well as on account of their geographical situation, are best included under the Madras Presidency. It must not be forgotten, however, that they are usually assigned to Bengal, to which, as far as civil administration is concerned, they belong.

The total area of this Presidency is 355,846 sq. m., reckoning the British territory (as per table) at 184,077 sq. m.; the Nizám's dominions at 95,337; and Nágpur at 76,432.

The following is a table of the Collectorates in the Madras P. taking them in

their order from N.E. to S.W. The names in Italics are those of protected States, more or less subject to British dominion :—

NO.	NAME.	AREA IN SQ. M.	POPULATION.	DIVIS.	NET REV.*	CHARGES OF COLLEC.			
1	Ganjám .....	5,758	926,930	N. Division.	£142,366	£16,847			
—	<i>Jaypur</i> .....	13,041	391,230						
2	Vishákpatanam.....	4,690	1,254,272						
3	Rájamahendri .....	4,501	1,012,036						
4	Machlipatanam ...	4,711	520,866	Centre Div.	205,787	20,258			
5	Guntúr and Palnáđ	4,752	570,083						
6	Nellúr .....	7,959	935,690						
7	Chengalpatť .....	2,717	583,462						
	including Madras	27	720,000						
8	N. Arcot .....	6,580	1,485,873						
9	S. Arcot.....	5,020	1,006,005						
10	Ballári .. .....	12,101	1,229,599				Ceded Districts Div.	284,717	21,800
11	Kadapa .....	13,298	1,451,921						
12	Karnúl .....	3,278	273,190						
13	Salem.....	7,499	1,195,377	S. Division.	201,643	17,819			
14	Koimbatúr .....	8,151	1,153,862						
15	Trichinápalli.....	2,922	709,196						
—	<i>Pudukóta</i> .....	1,165	61,745						
16	Tanjúr .....	3,781	1,676,086						
17	Madura & Dindigal	13,545	1,756,791						
18	Tinneveli .....	5,482	1,269,216						
—	Kurg .....	2,116	135,600	Maisyúr D.	260,478	28,857			
—	<i>Maisyúr</i> .....	30,886	3,460,696						
19	Malabar.....	6,050	1,514,909						
20	Kanara .....	7,152	1,056,333						
—	<i>Cochin</i> .....	1,988	288,176						
—	<i>Travancore</i> .....	4,722	1,011,824	—	—	—			
—	<i>French Territory</i> ...	185	171,217						
	Total .....	184,077	28,222,185						
1	Nizám's dominions.	95,337	10,666,080		1,550,000				
2	Nágpur .....	76,432	4,650,000						
	Grand Total ...	355,846	43,538,265						

Of the Collectorates, Ganjám, Vizagapatam, and Karnúl are Non-Regulation provinces; the rest are subject to the Government Regulations in matters of law and finance.

\* Taken from the Revenue Board's Report for the Fasli year 1262—1263. Since that year in consequence of drought, the revenue has somewhat fallen. The charges of collection comprise the salaries of collectors, Tahsildárs, and other Revenue servants; but not the expenditure of the districts in the Judicial, Military, or Public Works Departments. There are

An analysis of the Revenue supplies the following particulars :—

Land Tax .....	£3,445,716	Post-Office .....	41,392
Abkâri .....	221,431	Marine.....	7,862
Sair Tax on Personal Property .....	25,597*	Judicial Fees and Fines...	14,053
Muhtarifah Tax on Trades .....	110,237	Subsidies (from Maisûr, Travancore, and Cochin)	344,643
Stamps.....	50,185	Interest on Rev. Arrears	33,227
Customs .....	100,931	Miscel. Civil Receipts.....	33,183
Tobacco (abolished) .....	8,958	Do. in Revenue Depart. ...	6,880
Salt .....	480,214		
Mint.....	9,893	Total ...	£4,934,402†

## 2. MONSOONS—CLIMATE.

The whole of the Madras P. is situated within the tropics, extending from Cape Komorin in lat. 8° 4' to Nâgpur in lat. 21° 10'. The climate, therefore, may be generally described as exceedingly hot, intensely so in the provinces, where the Monsoons are slight and short in duration, as in the Ceded Districts and in the Collectorates of the N. Div. The S.W. Monsoon, commencing about April, thoroughly cools all the W. coast of the Madras P., *i.e.*, the provinces of Travancore, Malabar, and Kanara, as well as part of Koimbatûr and Maisûr; but the W. Ghâts prevent its beneficial effects from being much felt further inland. On the other hand the N.E. Monsoon, which commences in Oct., is neither so strong nor so lasting, and hence the greater heat of the E. provinces, which are principally dependent upon it for rain. From the middle of Nov. till March is the best season for travelling.

## 3. GOVERNMENT—CIVIL OFFICERS—ARMY.

The Government of Madras is vested in a Governor and 3 members of Council, of whom the Commander-in-Chief is one. The other 2 are civilians. There have been 59 Governors since the time of Sir W. Langhorne in 1672. Of these the most distinguished were—Lord W. Bentinck, 30th Aug., 1803; Sir G. Barlow, 24th Dec., 1807; and Sir T. Munro, 10th June, 1820. There are 3 Secretaries; the Chief Secretary, who, with 1 deputy, manages the *Political, Public, and Judicial* Department; the Secretary of the *Revenue and Public Works D.*, to whom a deputy will probably be assigned, and has been applied for; and the Secretary of the *Military D.*, assisted by 1 deputy. There are 186 Civilians, of whom, on an average, about 49 are applied in exclusively judicial duties; 94 are collectors of revenue, and magistrates; 34 are absent or unemployed; 7 studying at the col-

no authentic returns of the revenue of Jaypur, Pudukôta, Cochin, Travancore, and the French Territory. In fact (with the exception of Pudukôta, which is only a Zamindâri of the Madara Collectorate, and ought to be included in it) these States are not subject to the Civil Government of the Madras Presidency, though included in its territorial limits. The returns from them are submitted direct to the Government of India in the political department. The population returns are for 1853-4. A new census is about to be taken.

\* This tax was abolished in 1844, and is now collected only on the frontiers of foreign territories. When levied throughout the Presidency it amounted to £242,606.

† The refunds of charges, and proceeds from public sales of provisions, etc., in the Military Departments, and items of profit and loss, are not included. With all these the total receipts would be £5,098,338.

lege; and 11 engaged in the Accountant-General's and other offices. The scale of allowance is shown in the following table:—

*Table of Civil Pay, per Mensem.*

	R.	A.	P.
Member of Council and Chief Judge of Sadr and Faujdári 'Adálat...	5,333	5	4
Member of Council, President of the Board of Revenue.....	5,333	5	4
Commissioner N. Sarkárs, who is 1st Member of Board of Revenue	5,000	0	0
Accountant-General (including fees).....	4,188	4	11
Member of Legislative Council of India.....	4,166	10	8
Chief Secretary .....	4,166	10	8
Puisne Judge of Sadr 'Adálat .....	4,083	5	4
2nd Member of Revenue Board.....	3,408	5	4
Secretary in Revenue Department.....	3,333	5	4
Collector of Sea Customs .....	3,179	6	0
3rd Member Revenue Board .....	3,016	10	8
Sub-Treasurer (including fees) .....	2,672	11	7
Deputy Accountant-General (do.) .....	2,679	6	8
Collector of Ganjám and Agent to Governor .....	2,850	0	0
Collector of Tanjúr.....	2,583	5	4
Collector of Machlipatanam ... ..	2,508	5	4
Collector of Vishákpatanam and Agent to Governor .....	2,500	0	0
Inspector of Prisons .....	2,500	0	0
Director of Public Instruction .....	2,500	0	0
Postmaster-General, or Collector, or Civil and Session Judge .....	2,333	5	4
Secretary to Revenue Board .....	2,000	0	0
Sub-Secretary to ditto .....	1,500	0	0
Register S. C. and Translator to Government .....	2,259	6	0
Register Sadr Court .....	2,187	10	0
Deputy ditto .....	1,300	0	0
Civil Auditor and Superintendent of Stamps .....	2,166	10	8
Governor's Agent at Karnúl.....	2,000	0	0
Deputy-Secretary to Government .....	1,650	0	0
Deputy-Collector of Sea Customs.....	1,500	0	0
Subordinate Zila Judge .....	1,400	0	0
Sub-Collector and Joint Magistrate .....	1,166	10	8
Head Assistant to Accountant-General .....	850	0	0
Head Assistant-Register Sadr Court.....	700	0	0
Second Assistant to Accountant-General .....	700	0	0
Head Assistant to Collector (above 6 years).....	733	5	4
Head Assistant to Collector (under 6 years).....	558	5	4
Assistant to Collector (above 6 years) .....	525	0	0
Assistant to Collector (under 6 years) .....	350	0	0
Senior Civilian without employ.....	350	0	0
Student at College [highest rate] .....	350	0	0
Ditto [second].....	300	0	0
Ditto [lowest rate] .....	250	0	0



*Pay of Native Civil Officers.*

	MONTHLY.		
	R.	A.	P.
Above 20 years' service as Sarishtadár in unsettled districts.....	700	0	0
From 15 to 20 years, as do. do. ....	525	0	0
Principal Sadr Amin.....	500	0	0
From 10 to 15 years as Sarishtadár in unsettled districts.....	437	8	0
Above 20 years as do. in settled do. ....			
„ 15 to 20 as do. in do. do. ....			
„ 5 to 10 as do. in unsettled do. ....			
Under 5 years as do. in do. do. ....	280	0	0
From 10 to 15 as do. in settled do. ....			
„ 5 to 10 as do. in do. do. ....	245	0	0
Under 5 years as do. in do. do. ....			
Sadr Amíns .....	200	0	0
District Munshifs, 1st class .....	200	0	0
„ 2nd „ .....	150	0	0
„ 3rd „ .....	100	0	0

*Table of Rates for Payment of daily Bhdtd.*

To Collector's Huzúr servants above the rank of Dafadár when on circuit, whose pay amounts to or exceeds 200 rupees .....	1	14	0
To do. less than 200 and more than 100 rupees .....	0	15	0
To do. „ 100 and more than 35 rupees .....	0	7	6
To do. „ 35 and more than 10 rupees .....	0	3	9

The above allowances are to be paid for the whole period the Kacheri is on circuit, except when a halt of more than 10 days is made : upon such occasions they will cease after the 10th day, until the setting out again of the Kacheri.

*Monthly Bhdtd.*

Sarishtadárs of the Board of Revenue when required to travel in the provinces upon public duty.....	87	8	0	{ In addition to the hire of Palankeen bearers and coolies. }	{ Sanctioned by Government on the 30th June, 1826. }
To Gumáshtas accompanying them .....	28	0	0		

Peons escorting prisoners and witnesses beyond the limits of the district to which they are attached, receive bhátá at the rate of one áná each per diem, from and after the day on which they may quit the limits of their own district until that of their return within those limits. } Sanctioned by Government on the 6th August, 1839. No. 639.

## POWERS OF EUROPEAN AND NATIVE CIVIL OFFICERS—JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

*Civil Jurisdiction.*

*Village Munshifs*—Are empowered to try suits, without appeal, for money or other personal property not exceeding 10 rupees.

*District Munshifs*—Have original jurisdiction in suits for land exempt from revenue, the annual produce of which does not exceed 100 rupees, and in all other suits the amount or value of which does not exceed 1,000 rupees. They, however, cannot receive suits in which they themselves, or their relatives or dependants, are parties. Nor can they try pauper suits unless referred to them by the Zila Judge.

*Sadr Amins*—Have original jurisdiction in suits for land exempt from revenue, the annual produce of which does not exceed 250 rupees, and in all other suits, the amount or value of which does not exceed 2,500 rupees; but they cannot receive pauper suits unless referred to them by the Zila Judge.

*Subordinate Judges and Principal Sadr Amins*—May hear and try appeals from District Munshifs, when referred to them by the Zila Judges, but when the Subordinate Court is established at a place remote from the Zila Court station, the Sadr 'Adalat, with the sanction of Government, may order appeals from the decisions or orders of District Munshifs stationed within the limits assigned to such Court to be preferred to the Subordinate Judge or Principal Sadr Amin of such Court. Their original jurisdiction extends to suits not exceeding 10,000 rupees.

*Assistant Judges*—May hear and try appeals from Sadr Amins and District Munshifs, when referred to them by the Zila Judges.

*Zila Judges*—Appeals from inferior Courts lie to Zila Judges.

At stations where the Subordinate Court is presided over by a Principal Sadr Amin, appeals from decisions of European Officers of Government lie to Zila Judge, instead of the Principal Sadr Amin.

Have original jurisdiction in all cases for not less than 10,000 rupees.

*Sadr 'Adalat*—All appeals from decisions or orders of the Zila Courts lie to the Sadr 'Adalat.

All special appeals lie to the Sadr 'Adalat.

The Sadr 'Adalat is empowered to call up from the Zila Courts, and try in the first instance, suits for 10,000 rupees and upwards.

*The Queen in Council*—Appeals lie to the Queen in Council from decrees of the Sadr 'Adalat, in which the amount or value exceeds 10,000 rupees.

*No. of Courts.*

Sadr 'Adalat .....	1	Principal Sadr Amins .....	12
Zila Judges .....	20	Mufti Sadr Amins.....	20
Assistant Judges .....	1	Sadr Amins .....	2
Subordinate Judges .....	9	District Munshifs .....	119

*Criminal Jurisdiction.*

*Heads of Villages*—Are to apprehend offenders and forward them to the District Police, except in the trivial cases which they are empowered to punish.

To report to the District Police-officers the arrival of suspicious persons.

To search for stolen property, on receiving information of such property being concealed.

To take charge of strays and report each case to the District Police.

To hold an enquiry when receiving information of the discovery of dead bodies supposed to have been murdered, and to send a notice of the same to the District Police-officer.

Are empowered in trivial cases, such as abusive language, inconsiderable assaults or affrays, and petty thefts not exceeding 1 rupee, to confine the offender in the Village Chāwadi for a period not exceeding 12 hours, or to put him in stocks for a time not exceeding 6 hours.

*Subordinate Officers of Police*—Are not empowered to hear and determine complaints for petty offences; they are required to hold enquiries in cases of a heinous nature, and to forward their proceedings to the District Police-officer for transmission to the Magistrate, or Criminal Courts.

In all cases of murder they should proceed to the spot, examine the body and all other circumstances likely to lead to the discovery of the perpetrators.

To search for stolen property.

Not empowered to inflict punishment of any kind.

*Police Amins*—Possess the same Police and Criminal powers as are vested in Tahsildárs.

*Tahsildárs*—Are to act as Heads of Police, and to have charge in subordination to the Magistrate. To exercise general authority over all Subordinate Police-officers; are charged with the maintenance of the peace. To assist the village police in apprehending offenders.

On receiving information of heinous offences, to apprehend the suspected persons, and, on apprehension, to examine the witnesses and forward proceedings to the Subordinate Judge.

To communicate with each other information they may receive of offences committed, or of gangs of robbers, or of suspicious persons having entered or taken refuge in each others' Districts.

To pursue offenders into any District or Zila.

In all cases of murder they shall proceed to the spot, examine the body and other circumstances likely to lead to the discovery of the perpetrators.

To search for stolen property.

To prevent *Sati* [the cremation of widows], to arrest persons selling or pawning property under suspicious circumstances, to prevent forcible occupation or seizure of lands, crops, or water.

May punish cases of a trivial nature, such as abusive language and inconsiderable assaults or affrays, by a fine not exceeding 3 rupees, commutable to imprisonment not exceeding 3 days, or to confinement in stocks for a time not exceeding 6 hours.

In cases of petty theft, or cattle stealing, or killing or wounding cattle not attended with aggravating circumstances, and when the value of property shall not exceed 5 rupees, they may punish by imprisonment not exceeding 10 days.

*Magistrate*—To apprehend offenders charged with crimes or misdemeanors. To take security for keeping the peace.

To apprehend and confine, or hold to bail, vagrants and suspicious characters.  
To have charge of the Police, and the maintenance of the peace.

To require manufacturers of fire-arms and offensive weapons to take out licenses.

To prevent forcible occupation or seizure of lands, crops, or water.

To remove nuisances.

To determine rates of hire for coolies, bearers, etc.

To sell stray cattle if not owned.

To prevent *Sati*.

To receive complaints respecting false weights and measures.

To appoint Police-officers.

To hear and determine all petty cases, as abusive language, calumny, inconsiderable assaults or petty affrays, thefts unattended with aggravating circumstances, petty cases of stealing, poisoning or maliciously killing, maiming or wounding cattle.

May also exercise the powers vested in Subordinate Criminal Judges by Section 7, Regulation X. of 1816.

To report to Government before trying a case in which a British subject is charged with an offence committed in the territory of any Foreign State.

To give immediate notice to Government on receiving charges of offences against the State.

To act as guardian on behalf of any orphans or poor children abandoned by their parents or convicted of vagrancy or any petty offence.

To report to Government any particular cases which may render it advisable that an offence alleged to have been committed in a Foreign Territory should be investigated in a District near to such Territory.

*Powers*—In petty cases of abusive language, calumny, or inconsiderable assaults, or affrays—imprisonment not exceeding 15 days or fine within 50 rupees.

For petty theft and petty cases of poisoning, or maliciously killing, maiming or wounding cattle—corporal punishment not exceeding 90 stripes, or imprisonment not exceeding 1 month. May adjudge solitary imprisonment when exercising the powers of Subordinate Criminal Judges, may punish by imprisonment not exceeding 6 months, with corporal punishment not exceeding 150 stripes, in cases of theft, or in other cases with fine not exceeding 200 rupees, commutable to imprisonment for a further period of 6 months.

*Sadr Amin*—May be employed by Subordinate Judges in the investigation and decision of criminal cases under the same rule as Subordinate Criminal Judges, except that cases committable to the Sessions Courts and those in which Europeans or Americans are concerned are not cognizable by them.

When a *Sadr Amin's* Court is established at a detached station, the Government may empower him to receive and dispose of criminal cases sent to him by the Police and Magistracy, for which the punishment shall not exceed the limitation prescribed by Section 7, Regulation X. of 1816.

*Subordinate Judge and Principal Sadr Amin*—Are to take cognizance of only such cases as are brought before them by the Magistrate or Police-officers, except

in cases of gross and culpable neglect on the part of guards, whereby prisoners may have escaped from custody; stealing, obliterating, injuring, or destroying judicial records; perjury, subornation of perjury.

Principal S. Amin cannot receive charges against Europeans and Americans.

Subordinate Judge and Principal S. Amin may communicate direct with Police-officers, and call for documents from Magistrates and Police-officers.

May punish or discharge prisoners.

To commit to Session Courts all cases not punishable by themselves.

Subordinate Judge to have charge of the jails.

Principal S. Amin not to have charge of jails except at a station detached from the Session Court.

May act for the Magistrate for preserving the public peace or securing public offenders, when the Magistrate or his assistants are not present, and the case requires the immediate interference of the Magistracy.

*Powers*—Two years' imprisonment, corporal punishment not exceeding 150 stripes. Fine not exceeding 200 rupees.

*Session Judges*—To hold permanent Sessions for trial of Criminal cases cognizable by them, and committed by Subordinate Judge and Principal S. Amin.

To discharge the functions of Subordinate Judges when no Subordinate Court is established at the Zila stations.

To have charge of jails at stations where the Subordinate Court is presided over by a Principal S. Amin.

To review all reports of cases disposed of by the Subordinate Criminal authorities and Magistracy, as well as all sentences and orders of the same.

To refer to the Faujdari 'Adalat all cases requiring sentence of death or imprisonment for life, or cases in which they differ from the Fatwa of Law-officer or verdicts of assessors and jurors.

To report to Faujdari 'Adalat the misconduct, neglect, or incapacity of Magistrates and Subordinate Criminal authorities.

May communicate direct with District Police-officers.

To visit and inspect the jails.

*Powers*—Fourteen years' imprisonment, corporal punishment 195 stripes.

*Faujdari 'Adalat*—To take cognizance of all matters relating to the administration of justice in criminal cases, and the police of the country, and to submit to Government such suggestions regarding them as may be deemed advisable.

To receive reports from Session Judges on the criminal system.

A single Judge competent to exercise all the powers vested in two or more Judges except in trials where prisoners are liable to a sentence of death, and when a single Judge does not concur with the Session Judge as to the conviction of the prisoner.

May, on the representation of Magistrate, Subordinate Criminal or Session Judge, sanction the offer of a conditional pardon to one or more of the supposed accessories in heinous crimes, and confirm the same on the necessary condition being fulfilled.

To prescribe the forms and fix the period for the transmission of all Reports Calendars, Registers, or other Statements, etc.

*Powers—Death.\**

The Madras army consists of a body-guard of 127 troopers, who are withdrawn from, and form part of, the regts. of Light Cavalry; 8 regts. of Native Cavalry, of 376 men each; 1 brig. Horse Artillery, consisting of 4 European and 2 native troops—European 483, and natives 216 men; 5 bat. Foot ditto—4 European, 4 companies 339 men each, 1 native, 6 companies 690 men each; 52 regts. of Native Infantry, 843 each; 3 regts. European Infantry, each 10 companies, 2,841; 1 corps of Engineers and Sappers, 1,229 men; 2 European veteran companies Artillery 125 men, and 2 of Infantry 115 men; 2 native veteran battalions 2,472 men. The entire strength of the army for the year 1856 is as follows:—European officers, 1,883; medical establishment, including veterinary surgeons, 253; Europeans, 5,100, including H. M.'s troops in all 9,287; native troops, 51,944; total, 59,180.

To this is to be added the Haidarábád contingent, consisting of 4 companies of Artillery, 400 men; 4 regts. of Cavalry, 2,000 men; and 6 regts. of Infantry, 4,800 men; in all 7,200 men. The stations of this force are Bolaram, Aurangábád, Gulbarga, Elichpur, Mumidábád, Maktúl, Lingásur, Hingoli.

There is further the Nággpur subsidiary force, consisting of 1 regt. of Irregular Cavalry, 500; 3 regts. of Infantry, 2,400; and 1 Horse Field Battery, 96; in all 2,996 men.

Besides the above there are, also, the Nair brigade in Travancore, consisting of 2 bat. of Infantry, 1,670 men, and 30 Artillerymen, under 4 European commissioned officers, and 40 native commissioned ditto. The Karnúl Irregular Horse, consisting of 226 men, under 2 European commissioned officers and 9 native officers. The Maisúr Siláhdár Horse—7 regts., in all 2,679 men, entirely under native officers, of whom there are 56. They are termed Regimentdárs, Risálahdárs, and Sarzafardárs, who are all commissioned; and Sarpeshkárs, Jamádárs, Zafardárs, and Peshkárs, who are non-commissioned. The Malabar Police Corps of 183 men, in 2 companies, each under a European officer; and the Ganjam Police Sibandí of 155 men, under a Sardár, 2 Jamádárs, etc. Finally there is the Pegu Light Infantry bat., consisting of 1 European officer, 2 European

\* It seems desirable to note here a few of the differences between the Bengal and Madras civil system.

There are no village Munsifs in Bengal.

Munsifs are placed at various towns or large villages in a Bengal district. There may be from 8 to 12 in a district. In Bengal they are of two grades. The lowest can try cases involving property of the amount of 300 rupees, and the highest can go as far as 1,000 rupees.

Sadr Amíns can generally try cases up to 5,000 rupees in value.

Principal Sadr Amíns can try cases in which the amount of the property in dispute is unlimited. Appeals from them go direct to the Sadr 'Adálat.

There are neither Subordinate nor Assistant Judges in any part of the Bengal Presidency. At Madras the e was, till recently, not much more than a verbal difference between an Assistant and a Subordinate Judge—if the post be held by an English covenanted servant. The Assistant Judges have now no criminal or original civil jurisdiction.

A Sarihtadár in Bengal is the head native ministerial officer in a court, whether it be the court of a Civil and Sessions Judge, of a Collector, or of a Magistrate, or even of a Native Judge. He generally sits at the right hand of the presiding officer; reads out the depositions of witnesses; countersigns many of the orders issued from the court; and is generally responsible for the conduct of the details of business.

Few Sarihtadárs in Bengal get more than 100 rupees a month.

non-commissioned officers, and 930 men. This corps is at present very short of its full complement.

In round numbers, therefore, the Madras army may be said to form a grand total of 75,000 men.

#### 4. OBJECTS OF INTEREST TO THE TRAVELLER—NATURAL PRODUCTS.

The western Gháts present the greatest attractions to the tourist in quest of beautiful scenery, as also to the sportsman. Under the head of *Scenery* most worthy of a visit may be classed the *Nilgiri Hills*; the *Animallé Hills*; the province of *Kurg*; the *Falls* of the *Kávéri*; the *Falls* of *Gerseppa*; the *Falls* of *Kutallam* and *Pápanásham*; and the whole *Coast* of *Kanara* and *Malabar*. The *Collectorates* of *S. Arcot*, *Salem*, *Trichinápalli* (*Trichinopoly*), *Tanjúr*, and *Madura* are full of the most interesting remains of *Hindú* architecture, at the same time that they possess remarkable public works, and are rich in natural products.

The finest specimens of *Hindú* architecture are the *Pagodás* of *Conjeveram*, *Mahábalipuram*, *Chelambram*, *Shrirangam*, *Kumbhakonam*, *Tanjúr*, *Madura*, and *Rámeshwaram*; and the *Choultry* of *Trimal Naik* at *Madura*.

The *Hill Forts* of *Vélúr*, *Chitradrug*, *Suvarnadrug*, *Ambúr*, *Nandidrug*, and *Rayakóta*, may be taken as specimens of native fortresses.

The best specimens of *English Cantonments* are that at *Bengalúr* and the *Artillery Cantonment* at *St. Thomas's Mount*.

The *rice cultivation* of *Tanjúr*, the *tobacco* and *cotton* of *Koimbatúr*, the *coffee* plantations of the *Shiva Rai Hills* near *Salem*, the *sandal wood*, *pepper*, and *cardamoms* of certain localities on the *Malabar coast*, the *Teak Forests* of the same coast, the *Pearl Fishery* at *Tutikorin*, and the *Iron Works* at *Bépur*, deserve most attention from those who are disposed to occupy themselves with the resources of the *Presidency*.

The *Chief Public Works* are the *railroad* in progress to *Bengalúr*, under which may be noticed the fine stone bridge across the *Ponnár* at *Trivellam*, near *Arcot*; *Anakatt* across the *Godávari* at *Dauleshwaram* in the *Rájamahéndri* *Collectorate*; the *Anakatt* across the *Ṛiṣhna* river at *Baizwáda* in the *Guntúr* *Collectorate*; the *Grand Anakatt* of the *Kávéri*, 10 m. E. of *Trichinápalli*; *Colonel Cotton's Anakatts*, called also the *Upper* and *Lower Anakatt*, near the same place; the *Bridges* between *Tanjúr* and *Triviár*, and that erected by *Captain Lawford* across the *Kávéri* on the high road from *Trichinápalli* to *Madras*, consisting of 32 elliptic arches, each with a span of 49 ft.; also the bridge erected by the same officer on the same road across the *Kolerun*,—this truly noble bridge is half-a-mile in length, and has 32 elliptic arches, each with a span of 60 ft.; it cost £15,000: and the *Great Tanks*, of which the following are the most remarkable specimens:—The *triangular Lingamprithi tank* in the *Rájamahéndri* *Collectorate*, 2½ m. long and 1 broad at base, constructed 170 years ago by a *Zamíndár* of *Peddapur*; the *Bápétla tank* in *Guntúr*, 8 m. in circumference; the *Bhúsrapatanam tank*, 13 m. in circumference; that of *Gurgí*, 12 m.; those of *Shengamnalla* and *Dharmaveram*, each 11 m. in circumference; and that of *Daróji*, 9 m., in the *Ballári* *Collectorate*. The *Kávéripák tank*, 10 m. E. of *Arcot*, the dam of which is 4 m. long; that of

Chambrambákam, in the same Collectorate, 20 m. in circumference, and watering 68 flourishing villages; and the Viranam tank, also in the same Collectorate, which is the largest in S. India, its band or dam being 12 m. in length. This last tank is, however, both as to supply of water and embankment, not in good order.

The magnificent *barracks* at Trimalgañi, the new cantonment at Sikandarábád, which cost about £120,000; and those at Jakatalla, near Kunúr, on the Nílگیرis, which cost £140,000, especially deserve notice.

## 5. ARCHITECTURAL TOUR.

MADRAS TO RÁMNÁD AND MADURA AND BACK BY SALEM AND ÁRNÍ.

815 M. 4 P. 40 DAYS.

PRINCIPAL PLACES.	M. P.	DAYS.	
		Arr.	Dep.
Madras.			
Sadras (7 Pagodas) .....	40 4	1	3
Pondicheri.....	88 1	3	5
Kudalúr.....	100 5	5	6
Chelambram (Pagoda, and Porto Novo and Devikota, time allowing) .....	125 0	7	9
Kumbhakonam (Pagoda and Lower Anakatt) .....	172 6	10	11
Tiruvadiár (Tanjúr and 4 bridges on road thither) .....	193 3	11	13
Kovalidi (Grand Anakatt) .....	213 6	13	14
Trichinápalli (Fort, Pagodas of Shrirangam, Upper Anakatt) .....	225 2	14	17
Tirupatiúr (Pudukóta, capital of Tondiman Rájá) .....	277 6	18	19
Rámnád (Pagodas) .....	339 4	20	21
Rámeshwaram (Pagoda) .....	376 7	22	23
Madura (Pagodas, Palace and Choultry of Trimal Naik)... ..	482 3	24	27
Dindigal (Fort, Pagoda) .....	522 2	28	29
Kárúr (Station) .....	567 5	29	30
Namkal (Fort) .....	588 5	30	31
Salem (Station, Shiva Rai Hills) .....	620 1	31	35
Arní (Fort) .....	732 5	36	38
Conjeveram (Pagodas) .....	768 2	38	39
Madras .....	815 4	40	

By proceeding to Madura direct from Trichinápalli 6 days may be saved, and the route may be still further reduced 5 days by going direct from Trichinápalli to Salem, and a very interesting tour will still be made, sufficient to give the traveller a good acquaintance with the best structures of the Hindús.

## PICTURESQUE TOURS.

MADRAS TO BENGALÚR BY SERINGAPATAM, MAISÚR (MYSORE), KURG, AND THE NÍLGIHI HILLS, RETURNING BY KOIMBATÚR AND SALEM. 943 M. 5 P.

PRINCIPAL PLACES.	M. P.	43 DAYS.	
		Arr.	Dep.
Rájá Chattram (Conjeveram Pagodas) .....	39 6	1	2
Arcoť (Fort and Station) .....	70 5	3	4
Vélúr (Fort and Station).....	84 3	4	5



PRINCIPAL PLACES.	M. F.	42 DAYS.	
		Arr.	Dep.
Hosúr (Remount Dépôt).....	188 3	6	7
Bengalúr (Station) .....	212 6	7	8
Shiva Samudram (Falls of the Kávéri).....	290 0	9	10
Maisúr (Seringatam) .....	329 7	10	12
Hunsúr (Government Farm) .....	357 2	12	13
Merkára (Picturesque Scenery of Kurg) .....	403 0	14	15
Kannanúr .....	475 7	16	17
Utakamand (Nilgiri Hills) .....	605 1	19	27
Koimbatúr (Pagodas, tobacco and cotton culture, also Animallé Hills) .....	652 3	28	33
Salem (Shiva Rai Hills, coffee plantations, and Indian steel manufacture) .....	751 0	34	38
Arni (Fort) .....	863 4	40	41
Madras .....	943 5	42	

By going direct from Maisúr to Utakamand, and leaving out the Kurg country, this tour may be shortened 6 days.

#### COAST OF MALABAR AND KANARA.

A tour along this coast may be made in a palanqueen or on horseback; or a native vessel may be hired for from £10 to £15 a month, and the chief places conveniently visited. The names of the principal places worthy of a visit are as follows, in their order from S. to N. :—

Cochin (Jew Colony, Animallé Hills).	Mangalúr (Pagodas).
Kalikodu (Calicut).	Karikal (Jain Temple and Gigantic Statue).
Mahe and Tellicheri (French Settlement).	Bárkúr (Ruined Temples).
Bépur (Iron Works).	Kondapur (Fishery).
Kannanúr (Cantonment).	Honáwar (Falls of Gerseppa).

## CENTRE DIVISION.

*Preliminary Information.*

1. BOUNDARIES AND GENERAL ASPECT OF THE DIVISION—SUB-DIVISIONS AND CHIEF TOWNS.—2. HISTORICAL SKETCH—CASTES—EMPLOYMENTS OF THE NATIVES.

1. BOUNDARIES AND GENERAL ASPECT OF THE DIVISION—SUB-DIVISIONS AND CHIEF TOWNS.

This division, lying between  $11^{\circ} 30'$  and  $16^{\circ} 30'$  N. lat., and  $78^{\circ} 30'$  and  $81^{\circ}$  E. long. is in length about 400 miles, and in breadth from 50 to 100 miles. The river Krishna bounds it on the N., and separates it from the Collectorate of Machlipatanam; while the Kolerun branch of the Kávéri forms its S. limit, and divides it from Trichinápalli and Tanjúr. On the W. it borders on Salem, Kadapa, and the Nizám's territory, and on the E. it is washed by the ocean.

The general aspect of the country towards the coast is low and sandy, with occasional patches of stunted jungle and long lines of cocoa nut and Palmyra trees. Inland the soil is richer and more productive, the inferior kind being red and gravelly, and the best land dark loam.

There is a gradual rise towards the W., until the scattered hills, growing more numerous, form a continuous line with the E. Gháts, which separate Nellúr from Kadapa.

The Ponnár (or Pennár) and Pálar rivers divide this whole extent of country into three nearly equal portions.

The *Sub-Divisions* of the Collectorates comprised in this division and their *Chief Towns* are as follows:—

## GUNTÚR (INCLUSIVE OF THE HILL DISTRICT OF PALNÁD).

Táluka or Sub-divisions from N.W. and N. to S. and S.E.	Chief Towns.*	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Guntúr.
1 Timmarakota	Timmarakota		78
2 Dáchépalli	Dáchépalli		49
3 Kondavid or Kondúr	Kondavid		14
4 Mangalagadi	Mangalagadi		12
5 Guntúr	Guntúr	247	„
6 Répalli	Répalli		29
7 Márutúr	Márutúr		35
8 Sattinapalli	Sattinapalli		21
9 Prattepád or Parlapádu	Prattepád		12
10 Innakonda or Vinukonda	Vinukonda		50
11 Narsaravupét	Narsaravupét		27
12 Ponnúr	Ponnúr		17
13 Kamalpád or Kurapád	Krosúr		26
14 Bápétla	Bápétla		32

\* There are no direct routes from Madras to most of the chief towns above mentioned. It will be necessary for travellers, nearly in all cases, to go to the chief town of the District first, and then wend their way to the place to which they wish to go.

Taluks or Sub-divisions from N.W. to S.E.		NELLÚR. Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Nellúr.
1	Chendalúr	Addinki		95
2	Inámanamellúr	Inámanamellúr		82
3	Vangavolu (Ongole)	Vangavolu		77
4	Davagudúr	Ponnalúr		75
5	Badapudi	Kandukúr		53
6	Saidapur	Saidapur		25
7	Wudiargadi	Wudiargadi		36
8	Káligadi	Káligadi		36
9	Ravúr	Devarayapatti		40
10	Gundavolu	Rapur		33
11	Punalatalpur	Todaru		13
12	Kavalli	Kavalli		33
13	Sangam	Sangam		20
14	Talamanchi	Allúr		17
15	Nellúr	Nellúr	108	"
16	Kóta	Kóta		28
17	Sarvapalli	Gudúr		23

## CHENGALPATT.

Taluks or Sub-divisions.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Chengalpatt.	
1	Nayár	20	60	
2	Peddapalliam	30	35	
3	Punamalli	13	28	
4	Saidapét	7	30	
5	Tiruparúr	28	15	
6	Monimangalam	Shrí Perumbudúr	26	22
7	Chengalpatt	Tirukáshikonam	44	8
8	Kánchiveram (Conjeveram)	Kánchiveram	46	22
9	Uttaramallúr	Uttaramallúr	54	18
10	Karungal	Madrantikam	51	15

## MADRAS COLLECTORATE.

## Sub-divisions.

1	Muttial Pét	} Black Town	9	Vepery
2	Peddu Naik's Pét		10	Parsawákam
3	Chintádrípét		11	Nadumbare
4	St. Thomé		12	Chetpatt
5	Triplicane		13	Perumbúr
6	Komaléshwaram Kovil		14	Vaisarpádi
7	Nangambákam		15	Erungundam
8	Elambúr		16	Tondiarpét

(See under Madras for explanation of names).

## N. ARCOOT.

Taluks or Sub-divisions.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Arcot.	
1	Chittúr	98	29	
2	Tirupati	80	67	
3	Káveripák	Wálájáhpét	42	36
4	Sholingad	Sholingad	62	15
5	Tiruvelam	Tiruvelam	78	8

Táluks or Sub-divisions.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Arcot.
6 Sátgad	Guriattam	104	34
7 Kadapanattam	Palmanér	124	54
8 Arcot	Arcot	70	"
9 Vélúr	Vélúr	84	14
10 Tiruvatúr	Tiruvatúr	65	25
11 Polúr	Polúr	96	34
12 Wandiwash	Wandiwash	72	38
13 Satw: id	Nágapuram	42	50
14 Penmarri	Penmarri	88	36
15 Venkatagadi Kót	Palmanér	124	54*

## B. ARCOT.

Táluks or Sub-divisions.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Gúdalúr.
1 Tindevanam	Tindevanam	76	40
2 Tiruvadi	Tiruvadi	110	14
3 Villapuram	Villapuram	98	28
4 Bhawangadi	Bhawangadi	124	22
5 Manárgadi	Manárgadi	140	37
6 Chelambram	Chelambram	129	24
7 Trinomalli	Trinomalli	"	70
8 Verdachelam	Verdachelam	"	37
9 Ellavansúr	Ellavansúr	"	48
10 Tirukallúr	Tirukallúr	"	46
11 Kallakurchi	Kallakurchi	"	66
12 Chaitpét	Chaitpét	"	72
13 Gúdalúr (Cuddalore)	Manjakuppam† or New Town	"	3

The distances given above *from Madras* cannot be depended upon, as they vary according to the route that may be taken to reach the place.

## 2. HISTORICAL SKETCH—CASTES—EMPLOYMENTS OF THE NATIVES.

Of this Division the Collectorate of Chengalpat̄ has been longest in the possession of the English, having been ceded to them by the Núwáb of Arcot in 1763, in return for services rendered to him; and his grant was confirmed by a *sanad* or imperial rescript from the King of Delhi in 1765. Previous to this, the possessions of the Company were confined to the narrow slip which is now covered by the City of Madras and its suburbs, forming the Madras Collectorate. Chengalpat̄ was formerly called the 'Jágir' or Fief, a name which is still often used. The Company at first preferred leasing their new acquisition to the Núwáb to taking charge of it themselves, which they did not do till 1780. In that year, and previously in 1768, it was desolated with fire and sword, by Haidar 'Ali. In 1783, the Company let it out in 14 large farms, on leases of 9 years; and in the following year they appointed a Resident to superintend the revenue. In 1786 a superintendent was appointed, who shortly after assumed the sole charge; but 2 years after the Jágir was divided into 2 Collectorates, and next year into 3, when the office of superintendent was abolished. In the same year (1789) the land was re-let in smaller portions. In Nov., 1794, Mr. Lionel Place was appointed sole

\* The Kadapanattam and Venkatagadi Táluks are under the same Tahsildár; hence the same town is the chief town of both.

† Manjakuppam was formerly the chief town of the Táluk; but Cuddalore is now the residence of the principal officers.

collector, and introduced great reforms and improvements. In 1802 a permanent assessment was introduced, and the Collectorate was divided into 64 Mutas or estates, paying from 7,000 to 16,000rs. each per annum. All these were subsequently bought up by Government, the proprietors having fallen into arrears, so that the system is now that of ryotwár. The ancient Tamil Mirásí tenure exists here, as also in N. and S. Arcot, but not so fully as in Tanjúr. The proprietors of such lands have exemptions from assessment, and also enjoy certain fees from the other cultivators.

N. and S. Arcot were acquired by the Company with the rest of the Karnatak, on the death of Umdatú 'l-Umará, the last reigning Núwáb, who expired on the 15th of July, 1801. His eldest son, Ali Husain, was set aside, and the title of Núwáb conferred on another son, Azimu-'d-daulat, on condition of his ceding his territories. At that time there were in N. Arcot several independent vassals, whose fiefs have all lapsed, with the exception of Kallúr and Pulicherla, in the Chandragadi Táluk; of Venkatagadi, Tumba, and Narguntí, in that of Chittúr; and of Karkambaddi and Krishnapuram near Tirupati, which last were granted 500 years ago for protecting the pagoda of Tirupati and the pilgrims. The Chittúr Pálegárs, or barons, claim descent from functionaries of the Rájás of Vijayanagar. Arní is also a fief in the family of a Marátha Bráhma. There are also 2 great Zamíndáris of Kálástrí (part of which is in Nellúr) and Kavetnagar, paying 190,393, and 187,663rs. tribute respectively.

Nellúr was ceded to the English by the Núwáb of the Karnatak at the same time as Arcot. There are in it three great Zamíndáris—Venkatagadi, Chundi, and Mutiálpád. The portion of the Kálástrí barony which is in Nellúr, contains copper mines, which were worked from 1801—1806.

Guntúr, formerly called Murtazanagar, was granted to the Company by the sovereign of Delhi, in 1765, in a decree obtained by Clive, then governor of Bengal. The Madras Government, however, ceded it as a Jágír to Basálat Jang, elder brother of the Nizám, contrary to the wishes of the Supreme Government, who restored it to the Nizám in 1780, and thus detached him from an alliance with Haidar 'Ali. Basálat Jang died in 1782, and in 1788 the Company took possession of the Collectorate. The Bengal revenue system was introduced in 1801. In 1816 the Pindáris made a most destructive inroad into Guntúr, in which they plundered 339 villages, killed 182 persons, wounded 505, and tortured in different ways 3,603. Guntúr was formerly reckoned one of the N. Sarkárs, and formed part of the ancient Kalinga, as did Nellúr. The other Collectorates of the C. Division were the ancient Drávida.

The early history of these provinces is veiled in obscurity. Guntúr and Nellúr were, it is supposed, anciently included in the province of Andhra (see N. Div.) The rest of the Centre Division formed part of the ancient province of Drávida Proper. Wilks states that this territory was ruled before the Christian era by the Chalukia dynasty, to which the Kadamba succeeded, and this line of princes, again, terminated in the 2nd century, A.D. The next rulers of this province appear to have been the Rájás of Káncí or Conjeveram, who were conquered by the Chola Princes about the 8th century. In the 15th century the country became subject to the Rájás of Vijayanagar, whose empire was crushed by the confederate Muhammadan kings of the Dakhan, at the fatal battle of Tellikóta in 1564, when Rám Rájá, the 7th monarch of the house of Narsingh, with all his principal officers, fell. His descendants, however, though driven from their possessions near the Tunga Bhadra, continued to maintain themselves with varying fortune in the districts which form the present Centre Division of the Madras Presidency. They fixed their head-quarters sometimes at Chandragadi, sometimes at Vélúr, and again at Chengalpat, until the Maráthas—and, shortly afterwards, the Europeans—came upon the stage.

The bulk of the population in this Division consists of the descendants of the Aboriginal Ugrian race, on which, in remote ages, the pure Hindús or Aryans grafted themselves. Some tribes of this type still exist in their original savage state, differing little from the beasts of the forests. Such are the Chenchús, near the Pallikat lake. They have high cheek bones, flat noses, and altogether a Scythian physiognomy. They go nearly in a state of nudity, and have no knowledge of a God, or belief in a future state.

Other castes are such as are usually met with in other parts of India, the great bulk of the people being Hindú, and a very small portion Muhammadans. The jealousy of caste is carried to a great height, particularly of those 2 sections of traders and artificers called the right-hand and left-hand castes (See Buchanan, vol. i., p. 77). Even of late years blood has been shed in these caste disputes; and at Vélúr on one occasion so serious an outbreak took place on this account that only European troops and artillery could stop the struggle.



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## ROUTES.

### ROUTE 1.

#### LONDON TO MADRAS.

**SOUTHAMPTON TO MADRAS.**—The journey from England to Madras occupies about 40 days.—See *Introduction*.

**MADRAS.**—1. *Arrival at Madras.*—2. *Servants.*—3. *Hotels at Madras—Madras Club.*—4. *Plan of Madras.*—5. *Sights of Madras—Fort St. George—Arsenal—St. Andrew's Church—The Mint—Statue of Sir T. Munro—Government House—Palace of the Nizamb—University and Central Museum—Cathedral—St. Thomas's Mount—List of Churches and Institutions.*

**Madras.**—All writers agree that a worse site was never chosen for a great city than in the case of Madras. The roadstead is open to all winds, except from the west; and, in case of a sudden gale, there is no security for vessels, save in slipping their cables and putting out to sea. There is no navigable river to bring down the wealth of the interior; the soil, a sandy clay, is but moderately productive; and the heat is so intense that, during the hottest months, the thermometer, in a well-appointed room, often rises to 96°. Yet, so attractive is every place in which Government centres, that though Fort St. George, as the Fort of Madras (said by some to be Mandir-rāj, "Central government," but *prop.* Mandrāj, \* of unknown etymology,) is called, dates no

\* The Rājā of Chandragadi, a descendant of the Rājās of Bijanagar, who granted the English permission to remove to Madras, and to erect a fort there, expressly stipulated that the new town was to be called by his name, *Sarī-Ranga-Rājā-patanam*; but the local governor or Naik, Damaris Venkatadri, through whose instrumentality the grant had been procured, had previously intimated that he would have the new settlement founded in the name of his father, *Chennappa*; and this

earlier than 1639 A.D.; and the English, under their Factory Chief, Mr. Francis Day, then first removed thither from Armagon, † 36 m. to the N. of Pulicat, which had been their earliest settlement on the coast of Coromandel (*prop.* Cholamandal, "Territory of the Cholas," or from Cholum, a kind of grain "Holeus Saccharatus"), ‡ the population had, notwithstanding, risen in a century to a quarter of a million, and is now officially given at 720,000.

1. *Arrival at Madras.*—The danger of crossing the surf has, no doubt, been somewhat exaggerated. In calm weather this foaming barrier may be passed in the *massulāh*, § or "fishing-boat," without risk. But when a red and white chequered flag is hoisted at the Master attendant's flagstaff (as it is during storms, and from the 15th Oct., when the N.E. Monsoon commences,

name, having probably been given before the execution of the Royal grant, was never superseded, and *Chennappatanam*, "the city of Chennappa," is the word still in general use among the natives in speaking of Madras.

† The word Armagon itself is properly *Ar-mogam* (Tamil *ār*, "six," and *mogam*, for Skr. *mukhām*, "face"), the "six-faced," an epithet of Kārtikēya, the God of War; from whom many Hindūs are named Shanmogam, "Six-faced." The name Armagon was given by the English to Durgarāzāpatanam, a small port 36 m. N. of Pulicat, when they began to trade in 1625. They gave it this name in honour of Armogam Mudelār, the chief man of the locality.

‡ Such is the popular etymology; but the real origin of the word Coromandel is as follows:—There is a small fishing village a few miles S. of Pulicat, called *Kāri-masāl*, "black sand," which to this day is called in advertisements "Coromandel." The Dutch who first landed at this village corrupted the word, and by a strange fate this insignificant place has given a name to the whole coast.

§ These boats are made of planks sewed together with coir twine, without any nails or iron clamps. Thus constructed, they yield to the force of the waves, and are saved from being broken up by their elasticity. The word *massulāh* is derived from *maccāh*, "a fish."

till the end of Dec.),\* as a warning not to cross, those who are, nevertheless, resolved to make the attempt, must prepare for some trial of their nerves. Captains of ships, and others whose business is urgent, do often come through, even when the warning flag is flying, and not unfrequently bring with them boxes and other lumber, by which the danger is much increased. In those cases the adventurous *mossulah* is followed by one or more catamarans (the word is derived from the Tamil words *kadu*, "forest," and *maram*, "tree," "a log from the jungle;" or *kaffu*, "to tie," and *maram*, "tree"), a sort of raft, consisting of three logs tied together, with three spreaders and cross lashings. The logs are from 20 to 25 ft. in length, and 2½ to 3½ ft. in breadth. The centre log is much the largest, with a curved surface at the fore end, which finishes upwards to a point. The side logs are similar in form, but smaller, having their sides straight and fitted to the centre log. There is also a smaller catamaran, consisting of a single log about 8 ft. long. These rafts have a small sail, and are paddled by one or two men, who speculate on the chance of a reward in case of rescuing the victims of an upset. In fine weather the surf breaks about 300 ft. from the shore, in squally weather about 450 ft., but during gales from the E. nearly 1,000 ft. In calm weather the surf wave is about 3 ft. high, in squally about 6 ft., in storms 14 ft. It is more dangerous to come on shore in a heavy surf than to go off to sea, as it is more difficult to keep the boat end on. There are two lines of surf, between which it is possible for a boat to keep its position without crossing either barrier. The outer wave, called the male surf, is much the more formidable; and when the storm-flag is up, boatmen sometimes wait many minutes, watching a good opportunity to pull in. It is then that they make a demand for a *douceur*, which, under the unpleasant circumstances of the case, is but seldom refused. The great art is to ride in on

\* During this period sea insurances are doubled.

one wave, keeping the boat straight, and then pull away from its successor, so as to avoid being pooped, in which case the boat would be inevitably swamped. Nor is the result less disastrous should the boat turn broadside on, for then, too, it is certain to be struck and upset. In such a catastrophe there would be but small chance of escape for European passengers, for only the most consummate skill in swimming could save life, even were the ever-watchful sharks eluded. The rowers of the catamarans, indeed, are continually washed off and regain their logs, but their powers of natation are matchless, and their dark skin does not so readily betray them to the shark: yet, in spite of these advantages, they often perish, and of late, especially, several fatal cases have occurred. As soon as the boat is resigned to the surf, it is hurried along with great rapidity, and at last tossed up astern, till it is almost perpendicular. The sensation is like that experienced when taking a leap on horseback. The instant the first surf has broken, the boatmen pull furiously to escape the next, shouting "Hillea, hillea," "Pull, pull." Sometimes their cry is "Javier, Javier," an appeal to the celebrated St. Xavier, who visited the fishermen all along this coast, from Cape Komorin, converted many, and is still revered by them. The second surf carries the boat to the shore, and at such stormy times the prow impinges with great force, so as not rarely to split, and bestow more water than is pleasant on those about to land. A number of men, however, stand ready to catch the boat and drag it clear of the reflux, and of danger from the next surf.

2. *Servants*.—As soon as landed, strangers are surrounded by a tribe of most importunate native servants of all kinds, who keep up a distracting hubbub of broken English, to which it is a pitiable thing to listen. Servants who speak English may be hired for 10rs. a month—palankeen bearers 6rs. a month—per man.

3. *Hotels at Madras*.—The best thing, of course, to be done, if no friends come

to meet one, is to get into a palankeen and be carried to the club, if a bachelor; or, if travelling with ladies, to some friend's house. There are, indeed, hotels which may be repaired to as a *dernier resort*. These are Valu Mudeliár's Family Hotel, Myrtle Grove House, near the Club, which is tolerable; Iyah Mudeliár's (The Elphinstone) 35, Mount Road; and the Clarendon Hotel, more indifferent, but conveniently situated for travellers on the Esplanade, near the beach and Black Town. But it cannot be too often repeated that, to one ignorant of the languages and customs of the country, or to the lover of comfort, cleanliness, and economy, a friend's house is the best resting-place in India.

The *Madras Club* is situated near the Mount Road, in the district of Púdupák, about 2½ m. from the landing-place. It was founded in 1832, and is admirably managed. It possesses a good library, which is also well supplied with periodicals, and the charges for living are moderate. Members of the Bengal and Bombay clubs, are *de facto* honorary members of the Madras Club, and *vice versa*. Strangers and travellers who have friends in the Club can easily secure their election through their intervention. The accounts of honorary members are settled weekly. There are sleeping apartments for bachelors, and a separate building for married people has been proposed. The charge for a bedroom and bath-room is half a rupee a day, and the rooms must be vacated after a month if required by other and more recent visitors; but this is not likely to happen. Daily expenses need not exceed from 4 to 7 rupees (8s. to 14s.) a head. The Club is open from 6 a.m. to 12 p.m.

4. *Plan of Madras*.—Madras, with its numerous suburbs, now extends from N. to S. along the coast, from the village of Attapolam to the mouth of the Adyár river, nearly 9 miles, with an average breadth of 3½ miles. The flag-staff of the Fort is by the best calculations made to be in N. lat. 13° 4', and E. long. 80° 16' 45", and may be taken as the centre of the ground built over from N. to S. A little to the N. of it

is the landing-place, opposite to a line of buildings well finished, having colonnades to the upper stories, supported on arched bases, and plastered with shell mortar, forming a hard, smooth, and polished surface, resembling white marble when recently laid on. Of these the following are the principal, succeeding each other in a line from S. to N.:—Messrs. Parry and Co.; Granary; Bainbridge and Co.; Arbuthnot and Co.; Supreme Court; Sea Custom House; and Town Police. Behind these buildings is the most populous part of Madras, extending about 1½ m. in a W. direction, and a mile N. and S., called Black Town. This is bounded to the W. by Cochrane's (formerly Lord Clive's) canal (on which a steamer is now established), and is enclosed on the N. and W. by a strong wall, once fortified. Still farther to the N. lie the suburban villages of Rayapuram,\* Attapuram, and Tandiauvudu; and beyond Cochrane's canal to the W. are the districts called Vepery (from Skr. *Vyápir*, "trade," as "the trader's resort,") and Parsawákam, and to the N.W. of these, and separated from them by a canal, are the villages of Vasarvalli and Perumbúr, in each of which is a large tank named after the village. To the S.W. of the Fort is a piece of ground about ¾ of a mile long, and half-a-mile broad, which, as being surrounded by the Kúam river, is called the Island. Still further to the S. the Mussulman quarter, Triplicane (*prop.* *Tiru-valli-kedi*, "the lake of the sacred lamp," a Tamil name), and the Chepák Gardens, where is the palace of the former Núwábs of the Karnatak, a large building with some good rooms. Close to this, in a N.W. direction, is Government House; and still further W. are the districts of Chintádrípét and Egmore (formerly Ellembúr, and *prop.* in Tamil, *Yalam-búr*), to the W. of which is a large tank, called the Spur tank. W. of Triplicane lie the districts of Púdupák

\* *Ráyi*, in TAMIL, signifies "a stone;" hence *Ráyappa*, a common name for men among Tamil Christians, equivalent to "Peter." Hence *Ráyappa-param*, "Peter's town;" the Catholic Church there being *Ráyappa-kooli* "St. Peter's Church."

"New Town" and Nangambákam, separated from Egmore and Chetpatt by the Kúam river. S. of Triplicane is the district Kishnahpéta, and W. of this Royapéta and Parcheri ("Place of the Pariahs"); and S. of these, St. Thome, Quibble (*kovil*, "a church" in Tamil) Island, and Alvárpéta (Alvár, 12 saints adored by the worshippers of Vishnu), bounded finally on the S. by the Adyár river, and on the W. by the Nangambákam tank and Long tank, the latter 2 m. long from N. to S., and  $\frac{1}{2}$  m. broad, while to the extreme S.W. is the Artillery Station, called the Mount, more than 8 m. from the Fort. From this cantonment to the Fort runs a fine road, called the *Mount Road*, lined with beautiful villas along most of its course, and shaded by magnificent banyan and tulip trees. The Adyár river to the S., the Nangambákam tank to the W., and the village of Tondiárpét to the N. form the limits of the district controlled by the Supreme Court of Judicature and of the Madras Collectorate. The Ábkári or Liquor Revenue limits extend 8 m. beyond this boundary, and the revenue from this item exceeds £60,000 a-year, and forms about 1 moiety of the revenue of the Madras Collectorate. Within these limits no one can sell arrack without a Government license. The licenses are put up to auction, and those who offer to take most arrack, specifying the quantity per day, obtain them. Government imports Colombo arrack at 10a. per gal. and sells it at 3r. 6a. 10p. It manufactures paṭṭa or bark arrack at 8a. per gal. and sells it at 2r. 15a. 11p.

5. *Sights of Madras.*—The sights of Madras are not numerous, and may very well be exhausted in 4 days. The first evening may be spent in a survey of *Fort St. George*, which is not devoid of historic recollections. Here, on the 10th of Sep., 1746, M. de la Bourdonnais marched in and received the surrendered keys in the name of the French King, to be restored once more to the English, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. Here again, on the 14th of Dec., 1758, a French besieging army made its appearance under M. Lally; to retreat, baffled and discomfited, on the 16th of

Feb., 1759, leaving behind them 52 pieces of cannon, and many of their wounded. The enemy then made their approaches on the N. side, and their principal battery, called Lally's, after their general, must have been somewhere near where the house of Parry and Co. now stands, as it was close to the beach, and about 580 yards from the Fort. Another battery was at the native Burying-ground in Black Town, and a third about 400 yards to the S.W. Here again, in April, 1769, while the English forces were far away, were suddenly beheld the cavalry of Haidar 'Ali, who dictated to the governor the terms on which he would spare the defenceless territory. Once more, on the 10th of Aug., 1780, and again in Jan., 1792, the Maisúr horsemen alarmed the garrison of Madras. Here, in Writers' Buildings, Bob Clive, an idle and discontented clerk, twice snapped a pistol at his own head. From this Fort, too, he marched to his earliest triumphs, and hence went forth the host which, on the 4th of May, 1799, overthrew the stronghold of Tipú. In shape, the Fort is an irregular polygon, approaching to a semi-circle, of which the sea-face is nearly a diameter running N. and S., and presenting a clear front on that side of 500 yards. The sea flows to within a few yards of the ramparts, which are fenced by an artificial barrier of stone work from the destructive violence of the surf and tides. The foundation of the works on the sea-face contains a series of cisterns, which are filled with fresh water from the "Seven wells" at the N. extremity of Black Town. These wells were originally 10 in number, but only 2 are now in use, the others being choked up. These two yield 264,000 gals. in 24 hours. The fortifications on the land side consist of three full and two demi bastions, which latter rest on the line wall which runs *en crémaillères* along the beach. The curtains are covered by cavaliers and lunettes. The ditch is wet except between the curtain and ravelin of the north face, which are connected by a strong *caponnière*, while the curtain is covered by a *tenaille*. The counterscarp is faced with a revetment,

and defended by a palisaded covert way and a glacis, which is mined. Within the Fort is a terraced two-storied barrack for European troops, running N. and S., at the N. and W. extremity of the Fort; the upper story being occupied by the officers, the lower by the men. In this barrack there is said to be accommodation for 1,000 men. The garrison for years has consisted of 1 regt. of H.M. Infantry and 2 companies of Artillery. Outside the Fort there are usually 3 regts. Native Infantry stationed at Madras, one of which is the Veteran Battalion in Black Town. Of the other 2 native corps one is huted at Vepery, the other at Perambúr. Fort St. George also contains the following Government offices: the Council House, where the members of the Government meet for the transaction of business; Adjutant-General's Office; Quarter-Master General's Office; Military Auditor-General's Office; the Accountant-General's Office, in *Charles and James Street*; the Board of Revenue, *Old Exchange*; Civil Auditor's Office, *St. Thomé Street*; General Treasury, *Portuguese Square*; Stamp Office, *St. Thomé Street*; Stationery Office, *Arsenal*, and various Military offices.

The *Arsenal* is well stocked and adorned with 2 of Tipú's guns, the muzzles of which are carved to represent a tiger's head. *St. Mary's Church* is nearly a century old, and possesses some good monuments, particularly one, executed by Bacon for the E. I. Company, to the Missionary Schwartz, who was buried, however, at Tanjúr. In the centre of the Fort, on the parade-ground facing the Council House, is a marble statue of *Lord Cornwallis*, under a stone canopy. It stands upon a circular pedestal, on which is sculptured, in *alto rilievo*, the surrender of Tipu's children. After visiting the Fort, the fine *Light-house* may be inspected. It stands on the Esplanade, close to the N. face of the Fort, and is 128 ft. above the level of the sea. Its light, one of the most brilliant in the world, is a flashing one, the duration of the flash being to that of the dark interval as 2 to 3, and was first shown on the 1st of

Jan., 1841. It is exhibited from the top of a Doric column of granite, standing on a cubic pedestal, also of granite, with massive steps. The lantern consists of a 12-sided polygon, framed in gun-metal, with 9 glass and 3 blank faces. The interior diameter of the lantern is 9 ft., and its height  $4\frac{1}{2}$  ft. The traveller may then enjoy the sea-breeze for a little, and watch the surf rolling, if the wind be high, in thunder to the shore.

Another day may be devoted to St. Andrew's Church, the Mint, Black Town, Government House, the Nuwáb's Palace, and Pacheappa's School (with Branch Schools at Conjeveram and Chedambam), founded 1842, which has a Debating Society attached. The debates take place once a week, and are numerously attended. Travellers are allowed to be present; the School House is on the Esplanade.

*St. Andrew's*, the Scotch Church, stands about equi-distant from the Club and the Esplanade, in the angle between Vepery and Chintádrípéta, near the Kúam river. The first stone of this fine church was laid on the 6th of April, 1818. The edifice was completed in about 2 years at a cost of £20,000, and reflects great credit upon the architect, Major Fiott de Havilland. The Madras stucco, or chunam, has been most skilfully applied in the interior of the church, and gives to the pillars all the whiteness and polish of the finest Parian marble. The steeple rises to the height of  $166\frac{1}{2}$  ft. above the pavement, and the whole edifice is remarkable for the complete substitution of masonry for timber, which would be soon destroyed by the white ants. Bishop Heber complains that the form of the church is singular, and injudicious for the purpose of hearing, though he praises the stateliness of the structure. The foundation, however, is the most curious part to the English traveller, consisting as it does of wells, which have been formed over the whole area of the edifice, except in a space in the centre of about 30 ft. in diameter. These wells of masonry are sunk 9 ft., the foundations being raised  $13\frac{1}{2}$  ft. above them, and the basement

being 4 ft. more, making the whole depth below the pavement 26½ ft. In spite of the nature of the soil—which is, first, vegetable mould for 10 in.; then a foot or two of alluvial earth; then 8 or 10 ft. of black, soapy, salt mud; and then sand, which a few ft. downwards becomes a veritable quicksand—these brick wells, filled with rubble, present a solid support to the vast superincumbent weight. These wells, like all others in the country, are built to a convenient height above ground, and then made to subside by scooping the earth from the basement. As the water rushes in the men are obliged to work beneath it, their bodies being completely immersed; and it is surprising how long they continue under water. This labor, however, is so exhausting that they are obliged to relieve one another unceasingly. The well-diggers are a distinct caste by themselves, and will not intermarry, even with their tank-digging brethren. The bridge over the Kúam river, near the church, is called St. Andrew's bridge, after the church, and was erected by the same architect in 1817, at a cost of £8,000.

The *Mint* is situate not far from the wall, at the N.W. angle of Black Town. Here some ingenious contrivances, invented by the able manager, Major Smith, and specially an instrument for testing the weight of coins, which gained one of the great prizes at the Exhibition of 1851, may be inspected. In a line with it to the sea are the barracks of the N. Vet. Bat., Black Town chapel and school, and the Supreme Court jail; at the S.E. angle are the Roman Catholic cathedral, Church Mission chapel, and Armenian church.

*Black Town* itself lies very low, being in some places only six inches above the level of the sea at spring-tides, against the inroads of which it is protected by a strong bulwark of stone. Three broad streets, running N. and S., intersect the town, dividing it into four nearly equal parts. These streets are well built, and contain many terraced houses and European shops. Near the N. wall is the enclosure known by the name of the Seven Wells, the water of which is

highly valued for its purity, which it is said by sea-faring people, to preserve for a length of time at sea. Public water-works have been erected in this enclosure by Government, and two reservoirs have been constructed—one in the Fort, the other midway between the Fort and the town, which are daily filled from the wells by means of metal pipes. The shipping, and all the inhabitants who choose to send for it, are supplied from these sources. The purity and wholesomeness of the water seem owing to its being filtered through a bed of fine sand, consisting almost entirely of quartz, which extends several miles in length in a N. direction, but is not more than 300 or 400 yards in breadth—its depth varying from 1 to 15 ft. The fine polish of the Madras chunam, or plaster, is obtained by the admixture of this pure sand with shell lime.

In the centre of the island between the Fort and the Governor's garden stands the bronze equestrian statue of Sir T. Munro, by Chantrey, erected by public subscription at a cost of £9,000. This able statesman died Governor of Madras at Pattikonda, in the Ceded Districts, on the 6th of July, 1827, of an attack of cholera. His body was interred at Gúti, where the Madras Government erected a stone monument to his memory, and the people of the Ceded Districts built a choultry in honor of him, to which Government added a tank, and provided an establishment of servants to keep it in repair.

*Government House* is much inferior to the stately viceregal palace at Calcutta, and even to the smaller but very pleasant residence of the Governor of Bombay at Parell. The house is fronted by a handsome colonnade and stands in a park, at the end of which, on the sea-beach, is the Marine Villa, where the Governor resides in the hot weather. There is one immense banquetting-room detached from the other rooms and containing some portraits of Coote, Cornwallis, Meadows, and other heroes, of most indifferent execution; and one of Sir R. Strange, which possesses more merit. Two good pictures of Sir T. and Lady Munro, which were originally here,

have been restored to their places from the College. Any gentleman can attend the Governor's public breakfasts, and, by putting down his name, obtain an interview, if he feels so inclined, with the Viceroy, when he will probably be invited to dinner. The Governor's body-guard are a remarkably fine body of men, consisting of 2 troops of 80 men each, superbly dressed, and commanded by an officer of the Light Cavalry, assisted by an adjutant from the same branch of the service. Their cantonment is on the island opposite the Governor's gardens.

The *Palace of the Nūwāb* of the Karnātak, at Chepāk, was formerly visited by those who wished to see a specimen of a Muḥammadan chieftain's court in India. H. H. Amīru'l-Hind, Wālājāh, 'Umdatul-'Umarā, Mukhtāru'l-Mulk, Sirājū'd-Daulah, Ghulām Muḥammad Ghaṣṣ Khān Bahādūr, Bahādūr Jang, the last Nūwāb, died in November, 1855. He was born on the 25th of Aug., 1824, and installed as Nūwāb on the 25th of Aug., 1842. By his death a large pension has reverted to Government. The Nūwābs of the Karnātak were originally deputies of the Sūbahdār of the Dakhan, under the Mughul Emperors, and their office does not date from a time earlier than the close of the 17th century, when Aurangzīb made himself master of the Karnātak, which had previously belonged to the States of Golkonda and Bijapur, and before that to the Rājās of Bijanagar. The Darbār, or reception-room, is large and handsome, and adorned with pillars. There is a picture of George the Fourth as Prince of Wales, by Hoppner.

A third day may be given to the Military Orphan Asylum, the Madras University, the College, the Observatory, the Horticultural Society's Gardens, St. George's Cathedral, and the Mount.

The *Military Male Orphan Asylum* was founded in 1788, at Egmore. It was here that, in 1789, the Madras system, as it has been called, of Education was first tried under the English Government, by Dr. Bell. Thence it was imported into England, and,

under Bell and Lancaster, effected a very great alteration in educational establishments, being received not only into the national schools and places of instruction for the lower classes, but also into some of the great public schools, such as Rugby and Charter House. The whole novelty consists in employing the more advanced scholars as monitors to instruct the younger boys, or those who have made the least progress.

*Madras University* stands in Pantheon Road, in the district of Pudupēta, close to St. Andrew's Bridge, about a mile from the club. Here are three European professors, and a large establishment of European and native teachers; and those who wish to test the abilities of the native students may find ample means of forming an opinion by inspecting the establishment. It consists of a College department, a primary and a high school, of which the first two were opened in 1833, the latter in 1841. The College—which has ceased to exist as a College, though the civilians' examinations are still held in it—is close to the S. side of the Kūam river, in a line with the Egmore Tank. The library of the Literary Society—a branch of the Royal Asiatic Society—is here. Amongst the volumes, the Mackenzie MSS., in upwards of sixty gigantic folios, contain a large mass of historical and legendary lore respecting India. There is also a very beautiful folio Virgil; and a portrait of the well-known French missionary, the Abbé Dubois, in a native dress, who lived 25 years in Maisūr to little profit, if we may believe himself. The building likewise contains the Government Central Museum, where an admirable collection of the natural products of the Presidency is exhibited, which is well worthy of inspection, if for the marbles alone. It is open to the public daily, from 6 to 9 a.m., and 12 to 6 p.m. The Observatory, erected in 1793 by Michael Tapping, under the Court's orders, is now under the charge of Captain Jacob, late of the Bombay Engineers; it is not far from the College, and close to the Kūam river. About a mile thence, in Mount Road, in a southerly direction, are the Horticul-

tural Gardens, and St. George's Cathedral, contiguous to each other.

The *Cathedral* may be ascended for a general panoramic view of the city and its environs, and as there are only low and detached hills for a space of thirty miles, the prospect is extensive. This church possesses several monuments by Chantrey;—one of Bishop Heber represents him in a half-kneeling posture, in the act of blessing a kneeling Hindú female. There is also an exquisite figure by Flaxman to the memory of Arch-deacon Mously; it represents Religion in pilgrim garb, with face upturned to heaven, and holding a cross. The visitor may also remark a tasteful device to the memory of Mr. Chamier, and a slab to the unfortunate 37th Regiment N.I., the greater part of which perished in an unseaworthy transport which was conveying them to China.

The general hour for Church Service is 11 a.m., and half-past 6 p.m. on Sunday, and on Wednesday half-past 6 p.m. and a quarter-past 6 p.m. in winter.

From St. George's to the *Little Mount*, where tradition says St. Thomas, the Apostle of India, was martyred,\* is a distance of about two and a half miles from the Mount Road, and across the Adyar river by Marmalong† Bridge. This mount is a small rocky knoll, with a Roman Catholic church on it, in the suburb of Mailapur,‡ and "City of Peacocks," as St. Thomé is called by the natives. There are some relics here, exhibited to the pious or the curious. According to some, the bones of St. Thomas were interred at this Mount. From Marmalong Bridge to the larger Mount the approach is by a beautiful

\* It is now decided that the St. Thomas from whom the Mount is called, is no other than St. Thomas Aquinas, and that the story of the martyrdom is pure fiction, though Heber conceded his belief to it.

† Properly Mánill-amma, "Our Lady of the Mangoes." This bridge is an interesting object. Its extreme length, including the causeway, is 410 yards, and it has 29 arches.

‡ Or, Tamil, Mayilúr, from *mávil*, "a peacock," *úr*, "city." Here again is a trace of the almost universal worship of Kártikéya on this coast. The peacock is the bird on which he is supposed to ride. Some say, however, that the jungle round this suburb, 60 or 70 years ago, abounded with peacocks, whence the name

and well-kept road, lined with rows of the *Ficus Indica*, or "Banyan Tree," forming a beautiful avenue,—the refreshing shade of which enables the traveller to pass on without suffering even from the noonday sun. There is a gradual ascent to the foot of the Mount, which is an isolated cliff of greenstone and syenite, about 300 feet in height. The summit is crowned by an old church, called the church of "the Expectation of the Blessed Virgin," measuring 109 feet by 78, built by the Portuguese in 1547,—a picturesque little building, the property of the Roman Catholic Armenians. The view from the top is a fine one, ranging over the cantonments and noble parade-ground of the artillery, and the surrounding district. About 2000 men have been quartered here on an average. The native population exceeds 20,000. The traveller may remark at the Mount the *Adansonia digitata*, a native of Senegal, which grows in Africa to the enormous size of 100 feet in girth. There is one specimen at the mount, the circumference of which is 30 feet. A curious account of the destruction of a tree of the same species at Kolába, in Bombay, which was 44 feet in circumference, by the *Lorina sentis* beetle, is given in the Bombay Asiatic Society's Journal for 1844, p. 136. The fruit is occasionally used by the natives in curries; the leaves dried and reduced to powder are useful to diminish excessive perspiration, while the expressed juice, mixed with sugar, is valued as an antiseptic drink. In the gardens here may also be seen the *Sapodilla*, a rare shrub, native of the Celebes; it bears a wholesome oval-shaped fruit, in taste like a medlar.

The traveller pressed for time may pass his fourth day in visiting Ennúr and the Red Hills, the Highgate and Hampstead of Madras. He may take boat at the basin, close to the Mint, and for the moderate sum of 4 rs. be conveyed in as many hours to Ennúr, along Cochrane's Canal, or still more expeditiously by the steamer. He will thus see the garden-houses of the wealthy inhabitants; and three hours' drive in a buggy will bring him thence by the



Red Hills back to Madras. As the *Madras Snake Charmers and Jugglers* are perhaps the most famous in India, he should not omit seeing a specimen of their performances. One of the most curious of their tricks is the stringing a basket of eggs thus: the juggler, while spinning round with wonderful velocity, inserts a number of eggs, one by one, into the loops of string fastened to his head-dress, and keeps them all in rotatory motion, without any collision or fracture.

The traveller must not forget that the luxury of ice is procurable at the ice-house, established 1845, at South Beach. It is open at dawn and sunset, except on Sundays, when it closes at 8 a.m. Charges, 1 áná per lb. for cash, and 1 áná 3 pice for credit. Branch house at No. 24, Second Line Beach.

The garrison band plays every Tuesday evening, at the Gardens of the Horticultural Society.

The best confectioners are Laybourne and Co., Mount-road. Pharoah and Co., and J. Higginbotham, 123, Mount-road, are the principal booksellers. The former keeps also a general European warehouse. Deschamps in Mount-road is a very superior cabinet-maker and upholsterer. He gained a prize at the Great Exhibition; and his carving in ebony, rose-wood, and satin-wood furniture, is not inferior to Paris work. He has sent large orders to Australia. There are nine weekly newspapers, of which the *Athenæum*, published by Pharoah and Co.; the *Spectator*, a semi-Government Journal; and the *Examiner*, by J. J. Craen, are the chief.

## EXCURSIONS.

### ROUTE 2.

MADRAS TO ENNŪR BY TRIVATŪR.

11 M. 3 P.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer commanding Centre Division—*Madras*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—Collector of Chengalpat̄t̄—*Pallikarni*.

PLACES.	M. F.	M. F.
From St. George's Gate of the Fort to Market in Black Town .....	0	5½

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.
Black Town Gate .....	0	7½
Monegar Cháwadi .....	0	1
Tandiárvud .....	1	1
Wanárpét .....	1	1
TrivatŪr begins .....	1	2
„ ends, Horse Stables ..	0	6 6 0
(a) Yena-úr, called EnnŪr ..	2	0
A Dwelling-house called "the Retiro" .....	0	2
Kattipákam .....	1	3
Mr. Wellington's house ..	0	6
The Club House .....	0	2
Mr. Minchin's house .....	0	2
The NŪwáb's house .....	0	1½
Binny and Co's house and banglá .....	0	2½ 5 3

11 3

There is a good road the whole of the way from Madras, lined on each side, as far as TrivatŪr, by the garden-houses of wealthy natives. After passing TrivatŪr the cultivation ceases, and a sandy plain commences, flat and barren. If the traveller prefers water carriage, he may proceed to EnnŪr by Cochrane's canal, full particulars of which Route will be found in Route 4—*Madras to Palikat*.

(a) *EnnŪr*.—The name EnnŪr, which is properly written Yena-úr, "What town?" is said to have arisen from some European asking the name of the place in not very intelligible Tamil. The native he interrogated misconceiving his question, replied by another question, "Yena-úr?" "What town?" and the questioner put down the words as the name of the place, Anglicising their sound to EnnŪr. Near EnnŪr are the great *Salt pans*, in which upwards of 36,000 tons of salt are annually manufactured for the consumption of the city of Madras and its environs. The salt is sold at 120 rs. per garisha = 4.4 tons, or 3½ lbs. for 1d. A revenue of nearly £60,000 a year is raised from it.

The soil in which the salt is manufactured is of two kinds, red and brown. The former produces the finest and whitest salt; the latter a coarse inferior kind. The manufacture begins in January, as soon as the rains are

over, and the weather begins to grow warmer. The pans, which, including their reservoirs, are each about two-thirds of an acre in extent, are first cleansed from the mud accumulated in them during the monsoon. Next day they are moistened with a little water, and ridges are raised between the pans. On the third day the pans are dug 1½ inches deep with a kind of spade, and, in the evening, an inch of water is let in. From the fourth to the ninth day they are trod down crossways. On the ninth day an inch of water, already well heated by the sun in the reservoirs, is admitted. In the course of 4 days a little inferior salt is produced, mixed with brackish water. The pans are again well trodden down for 4 days, and water is admitted, which, in 4 days more, will produce good salt. From the 23rd to the 25th day the pans are pounded with rammers till the salt is quite destroyed, when an inch of water is again admitted. On the 29th day, when the water is a quarter of an inch deep, the salt is fit to be taken out. It is then strewed on the banks to dry for 6 hours, when it is placed on platforms in heaps of 60 tons each, and thatched with straw to prevent damage from rain.

There is a small salt-water lake at Ennúr, where the Madras gentry enjoy the diversion of boating, which is impossible at Madras itself, on account of the surf. This lake contains excellent fish and oysters, and there is a clubhouse, with all the *agrémens* of billiard tables, card-rooms, etc. Here, therefore, the traveller may pass a day very pleasantly.

### ROUTE 3.

MADRAS TO MAHÁBALIPURAM,  
OR "SEVEN PAGODAS," BY SADRAS  
40 M. 4 P.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer commanding Centre Division—*Madras*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—Collector of Chengalpatt—*Pallikarni*.

PLACES.	M. F. M. F.
From Wálájáh Gate to Rayapéta .....	2 4
Mailapur Tank .....	1 3
Elphinstone Bridge .....	1 5

PLACES.	STAGES.
	M. F. M. F.
Pápan Cháwadi.....	1 3
Mutukáren Cháwadi.....	4 4
× an Inlet .....	0 5
SHOLANGANELUR.....	1 1 13 1
Chinnancheri.....	3 1
(a) Wánien Cháwadi (Kovilam is near this), <i>δ</i> .....	2 4
Padda-úr .....	1 5
Changamaliserenkovil .....	2 2
TRIPALUR, <i>t. o.</i> .....	3 5 13 1
Alatúr .....	2 3
Pyanúr, <i>t. o.</i> .....	3 1
Paulakaran Cháwadi.....	1 5
Kilkanni .....	3 2
Direct <i>rd.</i> to Vapencheri....	0 2½
( <i>δ</i> ) SADRAS FORT (Mahábalipur is near this), <i>δ</i> . and <i>t. o.</i> .....	3 4½ 14 2
	40 4

About 35 miles S. of Madras, and a few miles from Sadras, are the remarkable temples of *Mahábalipur*, "The city of Great Bali," or as it is called by the natives, Mahvellipur; though, as Mr. Babington informs us, the real name is Mahámalaipur, "City of the Great hill," while to Europeans the spot is best known by the title of "The Seven Pagodas." As these remains are among the most curious in India, they deserve from the traveller more than a hurried visit. If provided with tents, the traveller may leave Madras by palanquin at night, and reach the pagodas early next morning, and so spend a day or two in investigating the ruins. Otherwise, it will be as well to proceed to Sadras, which is but a few miles distant from Mahábalipur, and possesses a good *banglá*, at which head quarters may be fixed.

There is nothing deserving of note between Madras and Sadras, except the large and very sacred pagoda at Tripalúr, where there is also a handsome Cháwadi (choultry). An undertaking of no little local and even general importance is, however, now under prosecution, which cannot but tend greatly to develop the resources of the S. districts. Funds have

been allotted for the formation of a navigable canal, connecting the Adyár and Pálar rivers respectively at Madras and Sadras; and it is intended to form a section of the "E. Coast Canal," commencing at Tuní in the Vishákpatanam District, and terminating either at Tutikorin or extending even to Cape Kumári (Komorin), in the Tinneveli collectorate. Much has already been accomplished in various separate portions of this important commercial and social enterprise; but its present character of one uninterrupted navigable canal, available for transit and traffic at all seasons, is chiefly to be ascribed to the enlightened views of Lord Harris. The total length of the Coast Canal will not be less than 800 miles; and the average outlay, including locks and bridges, is £1000 per mile. Thus, for less than £1,000,000, benefits may reasonably be expected much greater in proportion than from an equal outlay upon the lines selected for the Indian railways. These are, perhaps, of more political importance in consolidating the powers of Government, than of commercial value in improving and developing the resources of the country.

(a) *Kovilam*.—At 4 miles S.E. of Wanien Cháwadi is Kovilam (Cove-long), a small town, between which and Mahábalipur is a dangerous reef, where the Rockingham was lost in 1775. At this place, called by the Muhammadans Saádat Bandar, a fort was built near the ruins of one erected by the Ostend Company, by Anwaru'd-din Khán, Núwáb of the Karnátak. The French took it in 1750 by a singular stratagem. A ship anchored in the roads with a signal of distress flying. On the Núwáb's people coming on board, they were told nearly all the crew had died of scurvy, and that the rest would perish too if not suffered to land. Accordingly 30 marvellously ill-favoured Frenchmen were suffered to come ashore, and admitted into the fort, counterfeiting a variety of ailments. These had arms concealed under their clothes, and in the night rose on the garrison and overpowered them. Clive took the place in 1752 with a few hundred recruits, whom

he animated by his daring. He found there 50 cannon of the largest calibre, which had been captured by the French at Madras. The commandant surrendered on condition of carrying off his own property, which turned out to be turkeys and snuff, in which articles he dealt.

(b) *Sadras* itself is a large decayed place, once a Dutch settlement, and frequented by the Dutch so long back as 1647; it was annexed by us in 1795, restored in 1818, and finally ceded to the British in 1824, together with all other Dutch settlements on the continent of India, in exchange for certain possessions situated chiefly in Sumatra.

The spot on which the temples are situated is insulated by an arm of the sea, one mouth of which is near Sadras, and the other at *Kovilam* ("church," in Tamil), not far from Madras. This streamlet is always fordable. Proceeding from Sadras, the first sight reached is the five Rathas, or "sacred cars," as they are called, though they were obviously not intended as imitations of those wooden vehicles on which the images of the Gods are moved on festivals. They were probably carved for temples; but have been left unfinished, being blocks of pale granite, highly ornamented on the outside, and covered with figures, but, with one exception, not hollowed out. They stand in a grove of Palmyra trees, and are partly covered with sand. The one most to the N. is plain, square, and hollowed, 10½ feet long, and 17 feet high. The next is square, and much ornamented, 26 feet 2 in. long, and 25½ feet high. The largest of all is the third, being 47 feet long, and 25½ feet high. Round the lower part, on three sides, are galleries. The whole is cracked through, and a large fragment broken off in front. The fourth is three-storied, adorned with galleries and figures, and terminates in a dome. It is 27 feet long, and 36 feet high. These four are in a line from N. to S. The fifth is a little to the W., and is perhaps the most elegant of all. It is shaped like a horse-shoe, with a portico at the flat end. It has a double row of pilasters,

and has three stories, besides the roof, which is round. Opposite the Rath most to the N., is the figure of a lion, 6½ ft. long. The head is 6½ ft. from the sand, which has risen to the middle of the legs. Behind the lion is a large elephant, and the bull of Shiva, nearly buried in sand. On these Raths are inscriptions in ancient Tamil characters, which have been explained by Mr. Babington, and which show that the figures are of Viṣṇu in his various Avatāras.

About a mile to the N. of the Raths is the village of Mahavalivaram (Mahavellipur), where about 400 brāhmins still reside. In the centre of this village is a canopy of stone, called the Dólotsava Maṇḍapam, remarkable for its lightness and elegance. It is of granite, and is supported on 4 columns, which rise from a platform elevated by 3 steps. The shafts of the columns, with the base, are hewn from a single stone, and, including the capital, are 27 ft. in height. This Maṇḍapam stands in front of an unfinished building called Gopuram or "gateway." Through these Gopurams the idol is wont to be brought at Hindú festivals to the Maṇḍapam to receive the adoration of the people, who are not permitted to enter the great temple. Behind this gateway is a temple to Viṣṇu, highly ornamented with elaborate carving. But the most remarkable object is a large rock close to the village, in which is hewn a pagoda about 26 ft. in length and height, and 13 ft. in breadth. Within is the Lingam and a long inscription on the wall. Near this, the surface of the rock, for about 90 feet in length, and 30 ft. in height, is covered with figures. Of these the principal are Arjun, the third son of Prithá, and Páṇḍu, performing ascetical worship to obtain from Viṣṇu a celestial weapon which will give him power over all his foes. He stands on the tip of his great toe, with his hands above his head, and eyes and face upturned. On his right is the four-armed figure of Viṣṇu, and on either side are innumerable figures of men and deities, as well as animals, particularly lions and apes. Below, on the left, is a group of ele-

phants; and, on the right, a temple with figures. A few paces onward is a spacious excavation called the Kriṣṇa Maṇḍapam, where the god is represented as tending the herds of Nanda. The execution is coarse, and the design rude. Up this rock the brāhmins will conduct the traveller, and on the way it is necessary to pass under a prodigious circular stone 27 ft. in diameter, so placed on a smooth and sloping surface that there seems danger of its crushing those who pass beneath. The top of the rock is strewn with fragments of brick, said to be the remains of an ancient palace. A rectangular polished slab, about 10 ft. in length, is shown as the couch of Dharma Rájá, the eldest brother of Arjun. A rough stone excavated is also pointed out as the ladies' bath.

Descending over immense beds of stone, you arrive at another spacious excavation, a temple of Shiva, who is represented, in the middle compartment, of large size, with four arms; while a small figure of Bráhma stands on his right, and one of Viṣṇu on his left. At one end of the temple is a gigantic image of Viṣṇu sleeping on the Shesh-nág, or thousand-headed snake; its heads forming his canopy. Opposite is Durgá mounted on a lion, attacking Maheshásur, or the buffalo-headed demon. This is said by Babington to be the most spirited piece of Hindú sculpture he ever beheld.

At a considerable elevation above this excavation is a smaller temple wrought out of a single mass of rock. The situation is so picturesque, and its sculpture so rich, that it is in the highest degree worthy of examination. It is in form a parallelogram, open on one of the longer sides. It contains four large compartments, one at each end, and one on each side of the central recess, opposite the entrance. At the left end, is a representation of Viṣṇu in the Varáha Avatára, or Boar Incarnation, the third of that God. He holds in one hand the goddess Lakṣhmí, in the other his usual characteristics. Adoring figures surround him. At the opposite end is another figure of Viṣṇu, with 8 arms, holding various weapons. On the right

and left of the central recess are female deities with attendants.

About half-a-mile to the E. of the village, and washed by the sea, is the celebrated pagoda which forms so conspicuous a mark for navigators. The surf dashes its spray over this temple, and would, perhaps, ere now have swallowed it up, but for a defence of large stones in front. Numerous rocks stretch for a long distance into the sea, and on the nearest of these, standing in the very spray of the sea, is a pillar such as is ordinarily erected in front of the Hindú temples of celebrity. It would seem that 4 or 5 other pillars once stood on this rock, for the mortices for them remain. The position of this temple, the pillars in the sea, and the masses of rock visible at low water, may have given rise to the legend of the submerged city of Bali having existed here, a story which may fairly be classed among the wildest Hindú fictions, though Southey has immortalised it in his "Curse of Kehama," and Mr. Goldingham's bráhmañ assured that gentleman that his grandfather had seen the gilt tops of 5 pagodas among the breakers. It would have been strange indeed, if, in a place so destitute of every capability for supporting human life, there had once been a great city, whose

golden summits in the noon-day light  
Shone o'er the dark green deep thus rolled between,

For domes, and pinnacles, and spires, were seen  
Peering above the sea . . . a mournful sight!  
Well might the sad beholder ween from thence  
What works of wonder the devouring wave  
Had swallowed there, when monuments so  
brave

Bore record of their old magnificence.  
And on the sandy shore, beside the verge  
Of Ocean, here and there a rock-hewn fane  
Resisted in its strength the surf and surge  
That on their deep foundations beat in vain.  
In solitude the ancient temples stood,  
Once resonant with instrument and song,  
And solemn dance of festive multitude;  
Now as the weary ages pass along,  
Hearing no voice save of the ocean flood,  
Which roars for ever on the restless shores;  
Or visiting their solitary caves,  
The lonely sound of winds, that moan around  
Accordant to the melancholy waves.

The situation of the temple, however, in so wild and desolate a spot, with the hoarse roar of waters heard around it, as well as its own extreme beauty, justly entitle it to a legend, and one "married to immortal verse." Mr. Fergusson, in

his "Ancient Architecture of Hindostan," declares it to be with the single exception of the Pagoda at Tanjúr, the finest and most important Vimána in the S. of India. It is small, being not more than 30 ft. square at base, and 60 ft. high, but it is free from all surrounding walls and gateways, which so detract from the grandeur of other pagodas. A spirited view of it will be found in the work above referred to. The same authority assigns the edifice to the 11th century, and the neighbouring excavations to the 13th or 14th. It is to be regretted that the inscriptions, as yet deciphered, furnish no clue to the date or history of these remarkable structures; though Dr. Babington explains one line as conveying the name of the founder, "Atirapachanda ('he who in battle is very furious'), Lord of Kings, built this place called Atirapachandeshwara." It is equally a matter of doubt to what deity the seaside pagoda was originally dedicated. In the chamber next the sea is a gigantic Lingam of black polished stone, which would lead us to suppose it a temple of Shiva. On the other hand, there is a gigantic figure of Viṣṇu, in a recumbent posture, in one of the verandahs. The uncertainty on all these points may, perhaps, heighten the zest of inspection.

ROUTE 4.

MADRAS TO PALIKAT (PULICAT), COROMANDEL, SULÚRPÉT, AND DURGARÁZÁPATANAM OR, ARMEGON. 62 M.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer commanding Centre Division—*Madras*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—To Coromandel: Collector of Chengalpatṭ—*Pallikarni*. Thence to Durgarázápatanam: Collector of Nellúr—*Nellúr*.

PLACES.	STAGES.		
	M.	P.	M. P.
From Walájáh Gate of Fort			
St. George to Mint Gate	2	0	½
Náráyan Cháwadi	1	5	½
Road to Trivatúr or Tirupatiúr			
.....	1	7	
× n. to Chírúmacheri	2	7	
× 2 n. and Korteliár r. to Velivya Cháwadi	3	1	
VE'LU'R t. o.	2	0	13 5

PLACES.	STAGES.		
	M. F.	M. F.	M. F.
Mailúr .....	0	4	
Minjúr .....	1	7	
Medddavogel .....	1	4	
Voyalúr .....	1	1	
Tiruvanavoyel .....	1	5	
× n. to Vellaima Cháwadi	1	7	
Yeddaiyen Cháwadi .....	2	7	
(a) × n. to Palikat (Pulicat)			
<i>b. f. o.</i> .....	1	3	
(b) KARIMANAL (Coro- mandel) .....	0	5	13 3
SULURPET .....	29	3	29 3
(c) DURGAZAPATA- NAM .....	5	5	5 5
			62 0

Several things make this route interesting to the traveller, though there are little or no attractions of scenery. In the first place it leads to the most ancient settlements of the British in India, whose colonization even precedes that of Madras in the history of the Anglo-Indian empire. Further, the whole distance between Madras and Durgarázapatanam is a portion of a gigantic series of canals now in progress, which will connect Nágapatanam (Negapatam) in the Collectorate of Tanjúr with Tuní on the N. boundary of Rájamahéndri, a distance of 710 miles. To this it is expected a canal from Nágapatanam to Tutikorin, in the Tinneveli Collectorate, an extension of 204 miles more, will be added. The benefits of such a vast system of communication will be incalculably great, since all coarse and bulky merchandise will be thus transmitted even more cheaply than by rail.

The land route to Coromandel has been given above, but the best mode of travelling is by boat. The hire of boats from Madras and *back again* is as follows:—

1st size Bajrá, or cabin boat (spelled by the English Budget-row), with crew of 5 men, to Sulúrpét.....	R. A.	15 0
Ditto, to Coromandel, or Pulicat		6 0
Ditto, to Ennúr.....		4 0
2nd size ditto, with 4 men, to Sulúrpét.....		10 8
Ditto, to Coromandel or Pulicat		3 8

2nd size Bajrá, to Ennúr .....	A. R.	2 8
Pulicat top boat ( <i>i.e.</i> with tarpaulin cover), with 2 men, to Sulúrpét .....		3 8
Ditto, to Coromandel or Pulicat		1 8
Ditto, to Ennúr.....		1 0
Northern lighter of any size, with 2 men, to Sulúrpét .....		3 8
Ditto, to Coromandel or Pulicat		1 12
Ditto, to Ennúr.....		1 4

If a boat be kept a full day, an extra allowance, called *bhátá*, of 1 fanam, or  $1\frac{1}{4}$  áná, should be given to each man. Should the traveller wish to retain the boat longer the following are the charges for each additional day, including *bhátá* :

1st size cabin boat, per diem...	R.	$3\frac{1}{2}$
2nd ditto .....	"	2 $\frac{1}{4}$
Pulicat top boat .....	"	1
Northern lighter .....	"	1 $\frac{1}{4}$

The boats are private property, and the passenger must make his own agreement with the men, but the above are the usual charges. Formerly a toll was charged at the toll-office on palankeens and baggage at the rate of  $3\frac{1}{2}$  áná for each palankeen, and 1 áná for a kull's load, or running porter's load, of baggage; but the toll on goods has now been abolished, and in lieu of it a tax is levied on boats coming into the basin, at  $\frac{1}{2}$  áná per ton, according to the tonnage of the boat. The canal is now under the charge of a Superintendent (an Engineer officer), and is being extended both to the N. and S. The point of embarkation is at the basin, close to the Mint. Thence to Ennúr is about 10 m., to Pulicat 30, and to Sulúrpét 60. A cabin boat of the 1st size will go to Sulúrpét with a N. wind in about 24 hours, with a S. wind in about 18, and to Ennúr or Pulicat in a proportionably shorter time. It will take 4 passengers with 5 *kárádi* (such as are carried by kulls on slings) boxes comfortably. One of the 2nd size will take 2 passengers and 2 boxes. A top boat will take 4 passengers and 2 boxes; or a palankeen and 6 bearers; it sails even better than a cabin boat. A 1st class lighter will take ten cart loads of bag-

gage or goods; a 2nd class lighter 6 cart loads.

*Ennār* has been already described.

[R. 2.]

(a) *Palikat* or *Palvēlakātu* (Pulicat), "The ancient forest of Vāl trees;" from *pal*, "old;" and *vel*, "a tree;" and *kātu*, "a forest" (according to Baldwin, *Palaiya Kōth*, "Old Fort;" according to Graul, *Pala vēr Kātu*, "Old Mimosa Jungle") is a town on an island at the S. extremity of the large lagoon, or salt water lake, of the same name. The lake is about 37 miles in length, and from 3 to 11 in breadth, and contains several islands. It was no doubt formed at no very distant period, by the sea breaking over the low coast during a storm. The extensive shoal which extends along the coast in this direction seems to point to a still more ancient catastrophe of the same sort. Thus, in the memorable hurricane of the 10th of Dec., 1807, the sea inundated the whole of Black Town in Madras, and the bottom of a ship of 800 tons, supposed to have been burnt 10 years before, was washed high and dry, close to Parry's office. Such a storm would greatly damage the canal from Madras to the S. limit of Guntūr, which runs close to the coast, though embankments covered with binding grasses might obviate the danger. Pulicat is generally considered the S. limit of the Telugu language, separating it from the Tamil. It was occupied by the Dutch in 1609, who built a fort there, which they called Geldria. After the loss of Nāgapatanam they transferred the government of their settlements on the Coromandel coast to this place. It was subsequently occupied by the English in 1795.

(b) Close to Pulicat is the village of *Kārimanal*, which, being corrupted by the Dutch and English to Coromandel, gave its name to the whole coast. (See under Madras.)

(c) *Durgardzapatānam*, or Armegon, is now a small village, chiefly inhabited by salt manufacturers. It was the first place occupied by the British, who erected a factory here in 1625. The native legend is thus given:—In the time of Guruva Naidu, great great grandfather of Rājā

Gopāl Naidu, some English gentlemen came to the port and sent for the chief men of the place, Guruva Naidu and the Accountant, one Patnaswāmula Armogam Mudeliār, and said they wished to build a fort there. They then landed a cannon, and fired a shot in a W. direction, and asked for as much land as was included in the space the shot traversed. The land belonged to the Venkatagadi Rājā, who was induced by Guruva and Armogam to allow the strangers to occupy the spot called Chenva Kuppam. Accordingly they built a fort there, and called the place Armegon, in honor of Armogam Mudeliār.

### ROUTE 5.

#### MADRAS TO ARCOT AND VĒLŪR, BY RAIL.

STATIONS.	DISTANCE FROM MADRAS.
	Miles.
Madras.	Dep.
Perumbudūr (Perumbūr) .....	3½
Red Hills.....	7½
Avadi .....	13
Tinnanūr .....	18
Tiruvallūr (Trivellore).....	26
Kadambatūr .....	29½
Chinnamapēt .....	36½
Companypēt .....	45¾
Banavaram.....	56
Arcot.....	65½
Tiruvelam (Trivellam).....	73½
Vēlūr .....	80½

The terminal station, at Madras, is on what is called the Black Town Esplanade, just outside the wall, N., and lying between it and the village of Rayapuram. It is close to the beach, to which a line of rails has been laid down. The transport of the heaviest engines across the surf, all of them having, in the first instance, been sent out from England, was a great feat of dexterity. The principal workshops are at Perumbudūr, which is the first station on the list (see above). The traveller who is pressed for time may, by the rail, make a flying excursion to Vēlūr, and return the same day or next morning. This railroad will connect Madras with the West coast, passing—by Arcot, Vēlūr, Salem, and Koimbatūr—to Bēpur, a distance of 400 miles. A line to Bengalūr will diverge at Vaniambaddi, an

additional distance of 80 miles; and a branch will connect the Nilgiri hills with the main line.

Eventually Madras will be connected by rail with Bombay, passing through Ballári and Pána, a distance of about 800 miles.

## ROUTE 6.

MADRAS TO ÁRNÍ, BY SHRÍ-PERUMBUDÚR AND WÁLÁJÁHBÁD, 83 M. 6 F.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer commanding Centre Division—*Madras*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—To left bank of Pálar river: Collector of Chengalpatt—*Pallikarni*. From right bank of Pálar river: Collector of N. Division, Arcot—*Chittár*.

PLACES.	STAGES.		
	M. F.	M. F.	M. F.
Chaitpét.....	4 0		
Kúam river.....	0 1		
Koimbaidu.....	1 7		
Vailappen Cháwadi.....	4 2		
(a) PUNAMALLÍ, <i>b. &amp; t. o.</i>	2 2	12 4	
Paité Chattram.....	2 4		
<i>Rd. to Nagari</i> .....	0 2		
× <i>c.</i> ".....	1 7		
Tandalam.....	3 1		
Iringádkoté.....	1 6		
(b) × 2 <i>n.</i> to SHRI-PER- UMBUDUR, <i>b. &amp; t. o.</i> ...	3 4	13 0	
Arcot <i>rd. joins</i> .....	1 3		
Ární.....	2 6		
Sirumángád.....	2 7		
KUNAM.....	1 6	8 6	
Iyengeri.....	1 4		
Tenneri.....	1 3		
× 3 <i>n.</i> to Chairikádú.....	4 2		
(c) WALAJÁHBÁD, <i>b. &amp; t. o.</i>	0 4	7 5	
Rájampéta.....	2 4		
Iyempéta.....	2 0		
(d) LITTLE CONJEVE- RAM, <i>b. &amp; t. o.</i> .....	2 0	6 4	
Chaiwaddimádú.....	3 0		
Pálar <i>r. l. b.</i> .....	0 7		
Ditto, <i>r. b.</i> .....	0 4½		
(e) AYENKOLAM.....	1 0½	5 4	
Mandal.....	2 4		
× <i>n.</i> to Vambákam.....	2 4		
Tripanamúr.....	1 5		
PERINGATUR.....	3 6	10 3	
Pilibákam.....	2 3		
Erramberti.....	1 0		
Marudam.....	4 4		
× 2 <i>n.</i> to MAMBÁKAM...	3 3	11 2	

PLACES.	STAGES.		
	M. F.	M. F.	M. F.
Mamandúr.....	3 6		
Naguram.....	1 7		
× Chíár <i>r.</i> .....	1 4		
(f) ARNÍ FORT, N.E. angle, <i>t. o.</i> .....	1 1	8 2	

83 6

Leaving the Wálájáh gate of the fort, and passing over the bridge of the same name, and then over St. Mary's bridge, you proceed for the first 4 miles through the town and suburbs to Chaitpét. About half-a-mile before reaching this place, the Military Female Orphan Asylum is passed on the right hand.

(a) *Punamalli* is the depôt for H. M. troops. Orme mentions the fort as having been built by the Moors. It lies to the east of the cantonment about 400 yards from the barracks; it is square, 175 yards long, 142 broad, and is surrounded by a rampart 18 feet high. Within are a magazine, and ranges of store-rooms for the clothing and arms of H. M. troops. The barracks can contain about 500 men. A chaplain is stationed here. The native population is about 7000, exclusive of about 200 Sipáhís and their families. Recruits generally arrive from England in September and October, and remain at the depôt until after the N.E. monsoon, which is the most unhealthy season. Invalided men are brought down about the end of the year, for the purpose of being sent home. It is remarkable that this place, Palaveram, and St. Thomas's Mount, have been exempt from epidemic cholera for a number of years. Specimens of gray ball clay and magnesian clay were sent from hence to the Great Exhibition. There is a tank and a made road. The country around is flat and well cultivated; the soil red. A mile east of the cantonment there is ground for a force to encamp. The place lies in N. lat. 13° 2', E. long. 18° 10'. Half-way between Punamallí and Shrí Perumbudúr (Streepermadoor), at a short distance from the road, is the noble tank of Chambrambákam, which is not less than 16 miles in circumference. It has been formed by banking up the Chír-nadi river and other streams



by a vast mound of earth, which has been made to connect two natural ridges. This sheet of water is said to be sufficient for the support of 32 villages during a time of drought.

(b) *Shri-Perumbudūr* (*Streepmadoor*, and by Buchanan called *Sri-Permatura*). This town is celebrated as the birth-place of Rāma Anuja Achārya, the great brāhman saint and reformer, and the founder of a sect. He is supposed to have been born in A. D. 1016. Before his time Buddhists and Jains were the prevalent sects in these parts. Both have now disappeared. There is a large temple here, and between it and the spot where Rāma Anuja was born, over which a stone chamber is erected, there is a remarkably fine *mandapam*, or portico. This is also a large place, with the same soil and cultivation as at Punamallī. Kūnam is a village of 20 houses and a bazar.

(c) *Wālājāhbād*, otherwise called *Shīwāram*, and very commonly *Wālājāhpēt*, is a military station. Formerly, one of H. M.'s regiments, with one or two corps of native troops, were stationed there, but the mortality was found to be so great that it obtained the mournful soubriquet of "the grave of Europeans." The only troops now located there are the head-quarters of a Native Veteran Battalion, which occupy the former European barracks; the drum-boy establishment; and details of the native sick arriving from the Eastern settlements. The cantonment stands 500 yards on the north, or left, side of the Pālār river, having the village of *Wālājāhbād* half a mile to the S. E. *Wālājāhbād* has long been a great emporium for the trade between the coast and the interior. It possesses, also, an extensive manufacture of chintz, much of which is exported to the eastward; a good deal of cloth is also woven there. The country is flat and open. Along the road may be observed a number of resting-places, built by charitable persons for porters, who here carry all their burdens on their heads. These resting-places are walls four feet high, on which the loads can be placed and taken up again without assistance. *Chāwadis*

(choultries), or native inns for travellers, are also very numerous. The river Pālār, on which stands *Wālājāhbād* (so called from the Nūwāb of the Karnātak, Muḥammad 'Alī, who assumed this title of *Wālājāh* in 1776), rises near Nandidrug, in Maisūr, bisects the collectorate of N. Arcot, and then, entering that of Chengalpatt, disembogues at Sadras. The word "Pālār," in the native dialect, means "milk-river;" *pāl*, "milk," *ār*, "a river;" and, in Sanskrit, is *kshir-nadi*, which has the same meaning. The channel, when crossed at *Wālājāhbād*, is about half a mile wide, but has but little water, save in the rainy season, that is, when the rains prevail on the coast of Coromandel, when it rises highest. It flows by the city of Arcot, *Vēlūr*, *Vaniambaddī*, and other places of importance; and in this dry and sun-scorched region its waters are of inestimable value. An *Anokatt* (prop. *adda-katta*: *addamu*, "across," *katta*, "mound," or "dam," in Telugu), or dam, has been constructed across the *Chīār*, one of its affluents; and one is now being constructed across the main river near Arcot, from which a channel is to be cut, terminating in the *Adyār* above the cantonment of Palaveram. Another is to be built across the *Poiné*, which falls into the Pālār above Arcot.

(d) *Little Conjeveram* is about 2 miles distant from *Great Conjeveram*, one of the seven sacred cities of the Hindūs, by whom it is called *Kānehi-puram*, or "the golden city," (from the Skr. root, *kāsh*, "to shine," and *puram*, "city.") It is situated on the *Wegawati*, a stream which is dry in the hot season. It contains a population of about 20,000 persons, and some celebrated pagodas,\* sacred to *Ishwar*, or *Shiva*, of the same pyramidal form as that at *Tanjūr*. (*Vide* Route 32). The largest of these

\* It may be noted here, as a remarkable fact, that generally in the temples sacred to *Shiva*, throughout the provinces of Arcot, *Tanjūr*, *Trichināpalli*, *Madura*, and *Tinneveli*, the high-priest, who has the entire direction of the revenues, is a *Pandaram*, or *Lingāyat* priest of the fourth or *Shudra* caste, and that the brāhmins who officiate in the ceremonial look up to this man of an order so inferior, and show him great reverence.

pagodas, sacred to Shiva, has an inscription on the great tower over the grand entrance, which sets forth that the building was erected by Kṛiṣṇa Rayalu Rájá of Vijayanagar, who began to reign A.D. 1509. This building is said to be the highest of the kind in India, though Caunter assigns the first place to the pagoda at Tiruvannamallé. F. Buchanan speaks of the carving as clumsy, though he praises the wooden *raths* or cars on which the idols are borne in procession. These, indeed, are of great size, and highly ornamented. From the top of the principal pagoda (that of Shiva, called Ekambara Swámi, "Lord of the One Æther"), which is reached by 9 flights of steps (3 of stone and 6 of wood, all uncommonly steep), there is a fine view over extensive woods, intersected by a large sheet of water, the distance being closed by a magnificent range of hills, among which that of Tiruvannamallé (Trinomalee) may be faintly seen. The town is of considerable size, and very regularly built, with tolerably wide and clean streets, which cross one another at right angles. More than 100 families of bráhmans reside in it, belonging to the two principal pagodas, one of which is dedicated to Ishwar, the other to his wife, Kámachuma (prop. Kámakshi-amma) or Kámakshi, "fair-eyed," i.e. Párvatí. Besides these temples there is a mosque of neat structure, which the Hindús say was once a pagoda, and a very large temple at Lesser Conjeveram to Viṣṇu, who pays a visit to Shiva twice a year, receiving one visit back. The yearly offerings to Viṣṇu's temple are said to be worth about 12,000 rs., those of the two Shiva temples not more than from 3000 to 4000 rs. The Viṣṇu temple, especially in the ornamentation of its hall of 1000 pillars, resembles that at Shrí Ranga (Seringham); it is more rich in architectural embellishment than the temples at Great Conjeveram, and cannot but excite the wonder and admiration of the visitor. Among the jewels of the god, the priests shew some which they say were contributed by Clive and by Mr. Glass. Mr. Glass also bestowed a large garden on the temple.

As these temples are among the most sacred in all S. India, they deserve examination. There is also a separate place of worship for the Jangams, or wearers of the Lingam, of whom about 100 families live in the town itself, and others in the vicinity. (For a notice of their creed and customs see the learned Essay of C. P. Brown, Esq., *Madras Literary Journal*, Jan. 1840, p. 143). Some mutilated figures of Buddha may still be seen lying about, contemned and defaced, but bearing testimony to a time when the religion of the Quietists was the prevalent one in this celebrated city. Every year, in Vaishákh or May, there is a festival, attended by vast numbers of people. The town was burned by the French in 1757. Conjeveram is most memorable, however, for the defeat of Colonel Baillie, when that gallant but unfortunate officer, with about 200 Europeans, the remnant of his force, was taken prisoner by Haidar 'Alí. This victory, almost the greatest ever obtained over the English arms in India, was gained by the Maisúr Prince, Sept. 9, 1780. Baillie had with him originally 150 Europeans and upwards of 2000 Sipáhs. With these troops he repulsed an attack made on him by Tipú Šáhib, with prodigiously superior numbers, at Perambákam. On the 8th he was joined by Colonel Fletcher, with the flank companies of the 73rd Regiment, two companies of European Grenadiers, one company of Sipáhi Marksmen, and 10 of Sipáhi Grenadiers, detached to his support by Gen. Munro, who lay with the main army at Conjeveram. Baillie's orders were to effect a junction with Munro; and, marching at 5 a.m., he had so nearly succeeded in this, in spite of a furious attack made upon him by Tipú, that the pagoda of Conjeveram was already in sight, when Haidar's main army, with upwards of 60 pieces of cannon, and an immense number of rockets, came up, and poured in a fire which was irresistible. To add to the misfortunes of the English, at half-past 7 a.m., two of their tumbrils blew up. Notwithstanding this they stood their ground till past 9; and, after the Sipáhis were almost all destroyed, Colonel Baillie,

although severely wounded, formed a square with the surviving Europeans, and gained a little eminence, where, without ammunition, and almost all wounded, they repelled 13 attacks of the enemy. At last, to save the lives of the remainder, Baillie hoisted a flag of truce, but nothing but the strenuous intervention of Lally and the French officers prevented the Maisúreans from massacring their prisoners. Some paintings on the walls of Tipú's palace, at Seringapatam, though now half defaced, still commemorate this triumph, and represent Baillie and his soldiers in the hands of their captors. The Swiss Count De Boigne, afterwards so celebrated as Sindhya's General, and who raised and disciplined for that Prince the regular battalions that, after many victories over native troops, were crushed by Wellesley at Assaye, and Lake at Laswari, was a subaltern in the 6th Regt., part of Baillie's force. Being detached with 2 companies on escort duty, he escaped the massacre of his corps. There is an excellent and well-attended school of the Scotch Free Church Mission at Conjeveram.

(e) *Ayenkolam* (or *Ayengolam*) is a village of 40 houses. There is a tank, and at no great distance another very large one, called Mámúdr Tank. Beyond the village, on each side of the road, there is ground for troops to encamp. The road is good, the soil sandy; the country flat, open, and cultivated. Peringatúr is a large weaver's village, very populous. There are 15 streets of shops and an ample and unfailling supply of water from tanks. The road is very good, over hard red soil, except near Peringatúr; the country is flat and open, and well calculated for encamping. Mámákam is a village of 70 houses. There is encamping ground E. and W. of it; but water is not always to be had from the tanks. The road is good, over red soil, passing by Palmyrah topes. The country is flat and open.

(f) *Arni*, in N. lat. 12° 40', E. long. 70° 21', was, in the days of Haider 'Alí, a strong fort, but its defences are now much dilapidated. Clive gained a victory here in 1751, over Rájá Šáhib. In June,

1783, Sir Eyre Coote made an unsuccessful attempt to invest it, as Haider had deposited his treasure there. Attacked by the Maisúreans, the English General retired in the direction of Madras, and in his retreat lost a regiment of European cavalry, which he called his grand guard, and which, being drawn into an ambuscade, was entirely cut to pieces or made prisoners. There is now a cantonment for European troops within the fort, which is only occasionally occupied, and which serves as a temporary depôt for corps proceeding up country, or previous to embarkation from the Presidency. The officers' quarters are in two bomb-proof ranges of buildings; and about 300 yards in rear of them are the barracks, which can accommodate one regiment, but which are now garrisoned by a detachment of invalid Sipáhis. The barracks are also bomb-proof, and are spacious and commodious, forming a square, of which one side is a wall with a gateway. The fort is elevated 400 feet above the sea. There is a town of the same name adjacent, the site of which is rather low, but slopes down a quarter of a mile to a river, in which is a constant supply of excellent water. The country around is flat and open, the nearest hills, which are granite, being 6 miles off. Vegetation is scanty. The soil is disintegrated granite, with sand and clay impregnated with impure saline matter.

## ROUTE 7.

MADRAS TO ARCOT (70 M. 5 F.), VELÚR (84 M. 3 F.), AND THE KURAMBAPATTI PASS, 164 M. 7 F.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer commanding Centre Division—*Madras*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—Collector of Chengalpat̄—*Pallikarni*, as far as boundary between Dámál and Sangrambaddi Chattram. Thence to Pálár *r. l. b.*, after Udiendram: Collector of N. Div. of Arcot—*Chittúr*. Thence to Kurambapatti Pass: Collector of Salem—*Salem*. STAGES.

	PLACES.	M. F.	M. F.
}	PUNAMALLI*	12 4	25 4
	SHRI PERUMBUDÚR,	13 0	
	Venkatarangapilli Cháwadi	1 4	

\* For Remarks, *vide* Route 6.

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.
Mámbákam Chattram.....	2 7	
Rámáká Chattram .....	3 0	
(a) Pillé Chattram .....	2 7	
(b) × 2 n. to RAJA CHAT- TRAM, <i>b.</i> .....	4 0	14 2
Rámanappa Chetti Chat- tram.....	3 2	
Pass between Two Tanks to Káklam Chattram.....	2 6	
Surappen Chattram.....	2 1	
(c) BÁLCHETTI CHAT- TRAM, <i>b.</i> .....	2 1	10 2
(d) Dámal .....	2 0	
Boundary .....	1 3	
Sankrambaddi Chattram ...	0 5	
× <i>s.</i> to Awalúr.....	1 4	
UCH-CHERI (WOCHE- RI) CHATTRAM, <i>b.</i> ...	2 4	8 0
(e) Kávéripák, <i>b. &amp; t. o.</i> ...	3 0	
× <i>n.</i> to Vaniam Chattram..	3 0	
Karrapen Tángal.....	2 0	
Wálájáhpét begins <i>b.</i> .....	1 4	
Ditto ends.....	0 7	
(f) ARCOT (Church) <i>b. &amp; p. o.</i> .....	2 2	12 5
Karay .....	0 5	
Tengal .....	2 5	
Pálár <i>r. t. b.</i> .....	0 1½	
Ditto <i>r. b.</i> .....	1 3½	
Arramailámangapuram ...	4 7	
Vélúr begins .....	3 1	
Chittúr <i>rd.</i> joins.....	0 5	
(g) VELÚR FORT <i>b. &amp; t. o.</i>	0 2	13 6
Abdullapuram.....	3 1	
Satyamangalam.....	2 5	
Verinchipuram.....	1 3	
<i>Rd.</i> to Kanyambaddi.....	2 3½	
<i>Rd.</i> to Gúriattam.....	3 0½	
(h) PALLIKONDA, <i>b. &amp; t. o.</i>	0 2	12 7
× Ugram <i>r.</i> 200 yards wide	2 0	
Kutambákam.....	3 0	
(i) TOTALAM.....	2 7	7 7
Paittinámkuppam .....	3 7	
Pachakuppam .....	1 5	
Gomeshwaram.....	1 6	
AMBURPET, <i>b.</i> .....	2 5	9 7
Pálár <i>r. r. b.</i> .....	0 3	
Ditto <i>t. b.</i> .....	0 2	
Daivalapuram.....	0 1	
Virakuppam .....	2 6	
Vaddagaray.....	1 4	
Waddicheri .....	1 5	
Udiendram .....	2 5	

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.
Pálár, <i>r. t. b.</i> .....	0 3	
Ditto <i>r. b.</i> .....	0 2	
(k) VANIAMBADDI, <i>b. &amp; t. o.</i>	0 5	10 4
× branch of Pálár <i>r.</i> to Gowindapuram.....	0 5	
× the Kallár <i>n.</i> to Nekundi	2 1	
Kaitondapattú .....	2 4	
× <i>n.</i> to Pallatúr .....	2 4	
× KALLAR <i>n.</i> to NATA- RAMPALLI, <i>b.</i> .....	2 0	9 6
Katkawúr .....	1 2	
× <i>n.</i> to Mallapalli .....	2 4	
× 2 <i>ns.</i> to Nandibandi.....	1 5	
× 4 <i>ns.</i> to Kishnampatti...	3 2	
(l) MALLAPADDI, <i>b.</i> .....	1 7	10 4
Banglá .....	0 5	
× Bargúr <i>r.</i> to Bargúr ...	0 3	
Maudaipalli .....	1 4	
× 3 <i>ns.</i> to Kandikuppam...	2 0	
× 2 <i>ns.</i> to Worapam.....	2 0	
Kátanampatti .....	3 0	
(m) KRISHNAGADI, <i>b. &amp; t. o.</i>	1 6	11 2
Rayakóta <i>rd.</i> .....	0 2	
Allinagaram.....	2 6	
Bandarapalli .....	1 6	
Kolpatti .....	0 7	
× CHIKKAHOLLA <i>r.</i> to		
(n) KURAMBAPATTI, <i>b.</i>	2 2	7 7

164 7

As far as Vélúr, the road from Madras is excellent; but in the next stage, to Pallikonda, it becomes heavy.

(a) *Pillé Chattram*, or the inn of Virapermalpillé, is the first place to be noticed after passing Shri Perumbudúr. This *Vira Permal Pillé* was the *dubásh*, or head servant of Sir Charles Oakley, who, on the 1st of August, 1792, succeeded Gen. Meadows as Governor of Madras. The inn consists of two square courts, enclosed by low buildings, and divided into small apartments for the accommodation of travellers. The buildings on the outside are surrounded by a colonnade, and are constructed of well-cut whitish granite, brought from the distance of 20 miles. The inn is said to have cost 15,000 pagodas, or 5,515*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.* The country here greatly lacks trees. Among the few that grow spontaneously are

the *melia azadirachta* and the *robinia mitis*.

(b) *Rájd Chattram* is a large place with sixteen shops. There is extensive encamping ground 100 yards E. of the village. The water is from a tank. The country is flat, and in general cultivated, with a red soil.

(c) *Bálchetti Chattram*, said by Graul to be prop. *Pal-Chetti Ch.*, "Lodging-house of the milk-merchant," has fifteen shops. There is ample ground for encamping 100 yards W. of the village. Water from two tanks is close at hand. The country is flat, open, and generally cultivated.

(d) *Dámal* is the last village of what was the *Jágir*, or estate granted by the *Núwáb* of the *Karnátak* to the English, in 1750, and confirmed in 1762. The canal that runs between this place and *Awalúr* waters much valuable rice land. At *Awalúr* (or *Ulúr*) the soil is good; but, as a general rule throughout the collectorates of *Chengulpat* and N. and S. Arcot, irrigation by artificial means is required to produce fertility. From this stage, however, to *Káveripák*, water is abundant for irrigatory purposes, from the noble tank at the latter place. The country, consequently, has a fertile and refreshing appearance. *Woheri Chattram* is a village with eight shops. There is here a very handsome tank, formed by digging a square cavity in the soil. The sides are entirely lined with cut granite, in the form of stairs. Such a tank, when intended for the accommodation of travellers, or the people near, is called in Tamil *Kolam*; in Kanarese, *Kunté*; and in Telugu, *Gunta*. The same remarks apply to it with respect to soil, encamping grounds, road and cultivation, as have been recorded of the preceding stages.

(e) The tank at *Káveripák* is nearly 8 miles long and 3 broad, and is, in fact, one of the most magnificent in the S. of India. It is not an excavation, but formed by mounding streams. Near it a vast extent of land may be seen under luxuriant crops, in every stage of growth, throughout the year, even in the height of the hot season, affording a striking contrast to the unirrigated country around, in which the crops often perish,

even in the monsoon season; while in the hot weather not a blade of vegetation is visible.

Hence to Arcot the country is more barren.

(f) *Arkát* (Arcot); in Tamil, *Aru-Kádu*, "6 wildernesses," from 6 *Rishis*, or Saints, who are said to have dwelt there), in N. lat. 12° 54', E. long. 79° 24',—formerly the capital of the *Núwábs* of the *Karnátak*, and of *Payin Ghát*, or the country below the *Maisúr* hills, and still the principal place in the N. division of the Collectorate of the same name, though the residence of the British Collector is 28 miles distant, at *Chittúr*,—is a city with 54,000 inhabitants, on the right side of the *Pálar* river, which is here, during the rains, half a mile wide. The town stands on an eminence, which slopes down to the river's bank; but in spite of this advantage, it is one of the hottest places in India. The neighbouring hills are of granite, and being utterly destitute of vegetation, add to the intense heat. On the N. side of the *Pálar*, which divides it from old Arcot, is the cantonment, called by the natives *Ránpét*, where is accommodation for 1 European and 2 native cavalry regiments. At present there are no troops at this station, except the headquarters of a Native Veteran Battalion. The European barrack is built of brick, with lime-mortar. Adjoining are three hospitals and a church. The ruins of the *Núwáb's* palace are still to be seen. Two miles to the E. is extensive ground for encamping, with abundant water. The country is slightly undulating. Arcot is a place of no great antiquity; indeed, according to Wilks, there are no means of tracing its existence higher than 1716; far less can it be identified with the *Arcati regia Sora* of Ptolemy. In one of the Mackenzie MSS., however, mentioned in the *Madras Literary Journal*, of January, 1838, two chiefs—*Nala Bomma-nayadu* and *Timma-nayadu*—are said to have built a stone fort there some centuries back. Nothing more is heard of it till, in 1698, *Zu'l-fakár Khán*, *Aurangzib's* general, took the hill fort of *Jinji*, when Arcot received one of his lieutenants. It was not till 1712

that a Muhammadan Governor of the Karnátak, Sáddu'lláh Khán, the first who took the title of Núwáb, removed to Arcot from Jinjí. It is chiefly celebrated as the place where Clive, then a captain, laid the foundation of his renown; and it may truly be said that none of his subsequent exploits, brilliant as they were, eclipsed his capture and defence of this town. In July, 1751, he had been promoted from lieutenant to captain, and in the beginning of August of the same year, the Company's affairs then being in a wretched position, he volunteered to lead an expedition against Arcot, with the view of diverting the attention of Chanda Şáhib and the French from the siege of Trichinápalli. With 200 Europeans, 300 Sipáhís, and but three officers, he advanced against this strong fort, garrisoned by 1,100 men. In spite of a terrific storm of thunder, lightning, and rain, he marched on with perfect unconcern, and the garrison were so terrified at his composure that they deserted the fort. As soon as Clive had entered it he was menaced by the enemy in still greater numbers, and at last besieged by an army of 10,000 men, under the command of Rájá Şáhib, son of Chanda. After repeated daring sallies, in one of which he inflicted great loss on the enemy, Clive with his little garrison, diminished by war and sickness to 80 Europeans and 120 Sipáhís, finally repulsed his assailants in a furious attempt to storm the place by two practicable breaches, one of which was 30 yards wide. The assault was made on the 14th of November, on the festival of the Mu-harram, when the fanaticism of the Muhammadans was inflamed to madness; yet, though the enemy attacked in 4 strong columns at as many different points, they were totally defeated and driven back, with the loss of twice as many men as formed the whole English garrison. It was during this siege that the Sipáhís gave that touching instance of devotion to their young commander, which Macaulay ranks above anything recorded of the 10th Legion, or Napoleon's Old Guard. They came to Clive and besought him to give the grain rations to the Europeans, who needed

more support than Asiatics, while they would content themselves with the thin gruel strained from the rice.

After this success, Clive was joined by 300 English and 700 native soldiers, upon which he hastened after Rájá Şáhib, and gained a complete victory over him, capturing his military chest. The consequences of this battle were most important to the British. Several of the neighbouring forts surrendered without a blow, and many of Chanda Şáhib's allies deserted him.

In 1758, Lally obtained possession of the fortress by bribing the native governor; but in 1760 it was recaptured from the French by Colonel Coote. In 1780, Haidar 'Alí, after his victory at Conjeveram, made himself master of Arcot, and greatly strengthened the fortifications; but in the beginning of 1783, Tipú abandoned the place, and ordered two sides of the wall to be thrown down. Subsequently it passed into the hands of the British, along with the other possessions of the Núwábs of the Karnátak.

It will be seen that the Pálar river is not crossed at Arcot, the banglá being on the left bank, nor till somewhat more than three miles further on. The road to Velúr now coasts the chain of hills which command that place, and winds among masses of rock and groves of wild date (*Elate Sylvestris*), and the palmyra.

(g) *Velúr* (Vellore), built by Narsingh, Rájá of Vidyanagar, afterwards Vijayanagar (or Beejanuggur), about the year 1500 A.D., for an occasional residence, has been considered one of the strongest places in India, though it is completely commanded from the neighbouring hills. On the three loftiest summits are forts, of which one only is supplied with water. These still bear the Marátha names they received from Sháhjí, the father of the celebrated Sivaji.

In 1677, Sivaji took Velúr from the king of Vijayapur, in whose possession it had been 31 years; the siege lasted four months and a half. Its importance is at an end now the whole country is in possession of the English. One native regiment is stationed here, but there are barracks, hospitals, maga-

zines, and accommodation for a considerable garrison. The ramparts are built of very large stones, and have bastions and round towers at short distances. A *fausse-bray* lines the wall between them, and with its embattlements and small over-hanging square towers produces a striking effect. A deep and wide ditch, chiefly cut out of the solid rock, surrounds the whole fort, except at one entrance, where there was a causeway, according to the Indian system. The whole much resembles the architecture of the ancient English baronial castles. The ditch is filled with large alligators.

Lord Valentia mentions that a sergeant of the Scotch Brigade encountered these monsters for a small wager. He entered the water, and was several times drawn under by these ferocious animals; but escaped at last with several severe wounds.

Tipú's children were formerly confined here; and in the public square, in which are the palaces they once occupied, is a very beautiful *pagoda*, built, about 4 centuries ago, by a Hindú chieftain, and especially deserving of a visit. In front is a lofty gateway, with four armed statues of *Kṛiṣṇa*, of the blue color, which is his usual characteristic. Within is a noble apartment, supported by pillars, each formed of a single stone, and carved with astonishing elaborateness. The pillars in front represent figures on horseback, and are very spirited. On the others are carved the adventures of *Kṛiṣṇa* with the *Gopis*, or Cow-herdesses, among whom his youth was passed in *Vṛinda-van*, near *Mathura*. In some places he appears treading on the great serpent's head,—a corruption, no doubt, of the tradition derived from the prophecy in *Genesis*. Facing the gateway are several *pagodas*, of the *Tanjúr* style of architecture.

Vélúr is a place of intense heat, increased by radiation from the hills, yet it is accounted healthy. In the dry weather, the crossing the channel of the *Pálar* river is a very tedious operation, owing to the deep sand. The locality acquires a painful interest for

the English traveller, from the recollection of the dreadful *mutiny* of native troops, which took place here on the morning of the 10th June, 1806, when Col. Fancourt and 12 other European officers, several European conductors of ordnance, and about 100 soldiers were killed, and a great number of officers and men wounded. This outbreak took place partly from religious excitement among the *Sipáhís*, owing to the innovations made in their dress, and partly from the presence of Tipú's family, his twelve sons and six daughters being confined in the Fort, along with several hundreds of their connections and followers. As the *Sipáhís* fortunately lacked a daring and skilful leader, the mutiny was soon quelled by Colonel Gillespie and a squadron of the 19th Dragoons from the neighbouring station of Arcot, and about 400 of the mutineers were put to death. Subsequently, 3 native officers and 14 non-commissioned officers and privates were executed, according to the sentence of court martial, and the numbers of the guilty regiments, the 1st and 23rd, were erased from the Army List.

(h) *Pallikonda*.—At *Verinchipuram* is a large temple, and another at *Pallikonda*, within the fort. The name of the latter signifies, in Tamil, "sleeping," and is borrowed from an image in the *pagoda* there, of *Raghunáth*, one of the forms of *Vishṇu*, in a sleeping posture. The country between Vélúr and *Pallikonda* exhibits no variety of geological structure, but is interesting, from the singularly wild and beautiful character of its mountain scenery. On the summits of the hills masses of *syenite* are grouped in the most varied forms, sometimes shooting up like spires, anon strewed around like the ruins of some great edifice, or standing square and solid like the massive walls and *donjon* keep of some robber chieftain's tower. The valleys are covered with similar blocks piled in the wildest confusion, and seeming to tell of mighty convulsions in the by-gone ages of the world. *Pallikonda* is a large place, with 20 shops, half a mile to the right of the road. There is ground to the E.

of the *banglā* sufficient for two corps to encamp. The water is from a *nālah* and channels from the river. The *nālahs* are bridged. The country is open and level, with hills in the distance.

(i) *Totalam* is a place with 40 houses, two *bāzārs*, and with but indifferent encamping ground E. of the village. The water is from the river; the country is open and cultivated. *Ambūrpēt* is a town with 1000 houses and 40 shops. It is a place of very active trade, and inhabited by a number of wealthy and enterprising merchants of the *Labbi* class, who collect the country produce—sugar, clarified butter, chillies, etc., and transport it to Madras. Near the town is a lofty isolated mountain, on which are the ruins of a fort, once deemed impregnable. The flat ground on the summit is so extensive as to have been formerly under cultivation; and there are two tanks near where the barracks stood when the English kept a garrison there. The view from the summit is a noble one. The best ground for encamping is N.E. of the town, on sandy soil, and sufficient for one corps. The supply of water is from the river and a tank. The road improves here. The country is hilly and picturesque. The travellers' *banglā* is a most excellent one. Indeed, all along this road the *banglās* are worthy of all praise. The beautiful *chunam*, well-kept compound and hedge, excellent stabling, and respectable well-behaved peons, leave nothing to be desired. It is true that crockery and hardware are not supplied as in the *banglās* on the Bombay side, a circumstance which enables the traveller to dispense with some articles of his canteen; but then no charge is made, whereas in Bombay every comer must pay for the use of the room.

(k) *Vaniambaddi* is also a very considerable town, with 1000 houses and 150 shops. There is encamping ground for one corps E. of the town. The *Pālār* river is wide and shallow, and flows on each side of the town. The country is open, with hills in the distance; at first thickly studded with palm trees, and, further on, well-cultivated. There is a good road hence to *Tripatūr*. In *Vaniambaddi* are two

temples of great note. At that of *Ishwara* are about twenty inscriptions on stone, some of which are fabled to be as old as *Vikramāditya*—that is, in the century before Christ. At the temple of *Viṣṇu*, under the name of *Allaba Perumal*, are six inscriptions of the date of 1466, commemorating the grants of villages to the temple by *Hindú Rājās*. The *nālah* to be crossed before reaching *Nátarampalli* is that of a stream which flows into the *Pālār* river, and must be a difficulty in the rains, but at other seasons it is almost dry. *Nátarampalli* has 60 houses and 4 shops. There is encamping ground for two corps a little off the road to the N., and on the bank of the river. The road is sandy, but made; the country is well-cultivated, and generally level, with hills in the distance.

(l) *Mollapaddi* is a good-sized village. There is indifferent encamping ground E. of the town, in front of the *banglā*, on sandy soil, and with space sufficient for one corps. Water is got from the river. The road is made, but sandy. The country is tolerably level, with occasional hills.

(m) *KṚiṣhṇagadi* (or *Kiṣhṇagherry*) is a large place, with extensive encamping ground  $1\frac{1}{2}$  mile E. of the village, on hard, sandy soil. There is water from a tank close at hand, and from the river at a distance. The road is made. The country is in general level, with abrupt rocky hills. Much of the plain is rice-ground; but the soil, though well watered, is poor. The *Fort* of *KṚiṣhṇagadi* is situate on a rock 700 feet in perpendicular height, and remarkably bare and steep. The road passes through the jungle. No tigers, the inhabitants say, are heard of here now-a-days.

(n) *Kurambapatti* is a village of 30 houses. No good encamping ground. Water is procurable from the river, and from wells. The road is made, but sandy. The country is cultivated throughout; and for a mile round the village is level with small abrupt rocky hills. At the little village of *Kurambapatti* the road begins to ascend the Eastern *Ghāts*, which divide the table-land of *Maisūr* from the *Karnátak*.



ROUTE 8.

MADRAS TO CHENGALPATŦ AND KARANGULI. 48 M.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer commanding Centre Division—*Madras*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—Collector of ChengalpatŦ—*Pullikarni*.

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. P.	M. P.
From Wálájáh Gate of Fort St. George to Tanampét.....	3	1
Mámill-amma (Marmalong) bridge begins ... ..	2	6½
Ditto ends .....	0	2
(a) ST. THOMAS' MOUNT (Church) .....	2	2½
Minambákam <i>ð</i> .....	2	0
Palaveram (Cantonment) <i>t. o.</i>	1	5½
Gulán Cháwadi .....	1	3½
Kadapairi Cháwadi.....	1	6
Irambuliyúr.....	1	5
Vandalúr, <i>ð</i> .....	2	3
GUDUVANCHERI, <i>ð</i> ...	3	3
Katankolatúr .....	3	2
Chingaperumal Kovil .....	3	6
Kazzakolipéta .....	3	5
ChengalpatŦ (Fort).....	0	6
( <i>ð</i> ) CHENGALPATŦ, <i>ð. p. o.</i>	0	6
Ditto ends .....	0	5
Vaimbákam.....	1	7
Pálar <i>r. l. ð</i> .....	1	2½
Ditto <i>r. ð</i> .....	0	5
Mámandúr .....	0	5½
Pukaturé .....	1	6
× <i>n.</i> to Paráyanúr .....	0	6
Waluapákam .....	2	2
( <i>c</i> ) KARANGULI, <i>ð. t. o.</i>	3	2

48 0

(a) *The Cantonment of St. Thomas' Mount* has already been partially described (see *Madras*). On the 9th of Feb. 1759, a battle took place here between Capt. Calliaud, advancing with 5,000 men (chiefly irregulars) and six 3-pounders to the relief of *Madras*, and the French besieging force under Lally. A deserted temple, still standing at the N.E. corner of the present parade ground, and *Carvalho's* garden were the two points on which *Calliaud's* force rested. The latter post was carried at the close of the day by the enemy after the action had lasted from 5 a.m., with great spirit.

In spite of this success, Lally drew off his troops just as *Calliaud's* ammunition was almost exhausted. Upon this the English commander retreated to *ChengalpatŦ*, with the loss of 220 killed and wounded, of whom 20 were Europeans. On the 2nd of April, 1769, a treaty of peace was signed at the Mount between *Haidar 'Ali* and the *Madras Government*; and, in 1774, at the suggestion of Colonel James, commanding the artillery, the Mount became the head quarters of that corps. Previous to this, the artillery practice was carried on on the shore, the firing being directed into the sea. In 1780, the 73rd Highlanders, with 400 other Europeans, about 1,200 in all, encamped here, intending to join *Baillie's* force in his attack upon *Haidar 'Ali*. After the destruction of *Baillie's* division, which they had been too late to join, they retreated again to the Mount, and to protect themselves against the *Marátha* horse, threw up works, the remains of which may be still seen crossing the *Palaveram* plain from E. to W. and S. of the Mount. The excavation still bears the name of the *Marátha* ditch.

The *Cantonment* is of a very irregular shape, about 1 mile long, and of varying width. Directly under the Mount, and to the S. of it, are barracks for 2 battalions of artillery; and *St. Thomas' Church*, erected in 1825, with sittings for 500 persons. Here is a marble bust, by *Chantrey*, of Col. Noble, C.B. Tablets to the memories of Col. *Darville*, Major *Oakes*, Capt. *Byam*, and an obelisk in the churchyard to Gen. *Sydenham*, may also be noticed. At the foot of the Mount steps is a neat Wesleyan Chapel, and 200 yards to the N. of it a Roman Catholic Chapel; E. of these lies the Parade ground, which is very extensive; and still further in the same direction is the native town. At a short distance to the W. of *St. Thomas' Church* is the *Dépôt for Instruction*, where is a model-room and a percussion-cap manufactory, which supplies the whole army of this Presidency. Still to the W. is the Artillery mess-room, which is allowed to be the finest in India. It is built in the form of a double "T," the S. cross containing an excellent library, the N. a

ball-room. In the dining-room, which can accommodate 80 persons without inconvenience, are two good portraits of Gen. Montgomerie, C.B., and Col. Noble, C.B. Proceeding still further W., the visitor comes to the Horse Artillery lines. On the shoulder of the Mount, overlooking them, is a granite column erected by the men of the H. Artillery to Col. Noble.

(b) *Chengalpatt*, the capital of the Collectorate of the same name, and a Zila-court station, was formerly a place of some strength, and is still surrounded by a rampart and deep ditch, 2 miles in circumference, though the wall is much dilapidated and the ditch dry in the hot season. Orme makes the wall 18 feet high, and the ditch 60 feet wide.

The Fort is situated on the N. extremity of a valley upwards of a mile long, and is bounded on the E. and part of the N. face by an artificial lake 2 miles long and 1 broad, which supplies the ditch with water. The Fort is 400 yards long from N. to S., and 280 broad from E. to W. It is divided into 2 parts by a rampart and a ditch; the E., which is called the inner fort, being considerably elevated. The W. face and part of the N. are bounded by rice fields irrigated from the lake, the water of which is pent in by an embankment 1000 yards in length, on the top of which runs the high road leading S. from Madras. Small, rocky, bare hills lie S. and N. of the Fort, but the country is in general level and open. This fort was taken from the French by Clive in Oct. 1752, after a resistance of some days.

The Town of *Chengalpatt* lies  $\frac{1}{2}$  mile to the S.E. of the Fort, and consists of 1 long street. The Pálar river runs about a mile to the W. of it. There was a manufacture of pottery here, which attracted the attention of Government in 1841, and received a grant of 2,000 rupees per annum for 2 years. It has now been removed to Madras.

The Gaol, Place of Arms, Hospital, and Court House are within the Fort. The station is considered healthy.

(c) *Karanguli* is a village of about 200 houses. N. of it there is extensive and excellent ground for encamping, with a tank close by. To the W. of

this, at the distance of about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles, is the travellers' *banglá*. From this place there are two main roads, one to Trichinápalli and the other to Pondichéri; the principal stations being as follows:—

KARANGULI TO TRICHINÁPALLI.  
150 M. 3 F.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer commanding Centre Division—*Madras*, as far as Tulu-úr. Thence to Trichinápalli: Officer commanding S. Division—*Trichinápalli*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—Collector of Chengalpatt—*Pallikarni*, as far as boundary after Acherapákam. Thence to Tulu-úr: Collector of S. Arcot—*Gúdálúr*. Thence to Trichinápalli: Collector of Trichinápalli—*Trichinápalli*.

PLACES	M. F.
Acherapákam, <i>δ. t. o.</i> .....	10 6
Konarikkuppam*.....	8 4
Tindevánam.....	8 0
Wallangambaddi.....	8 0
Vikravandi, <i>δ.</i> .....	7 7
Villapuram, or Belpur, <i>δ. t. o.</i> ...	7 1
Arrisúr.....	9 3
Ulandúrpét, <i>δ. t. o.</i> .....	13 7
Assanúr, <i>δ.</i> .....	8 0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Kydi-úr, <i>δ.</i> .....	10 7
Tulu-úr, <i>δ.</i> .....	9 4
Valkundapuram, <i>δ.</i> .....	8 1
Turaimangalam, <i>δ.</i> .....	6 4
Pádalúr.....	10 3
Samiaveram, <i>δ.</i> .....	13 0
Trichinápalli Cantonment.....	10 3 $\frac{1}{2}$
	150 3

KARANGULI TO PONDICHERI.  
48 M. 7 F.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer commanding C. Division—*Madras*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—Collector of Chengalpatt—*Pallikarni*, as far as boundary after Acherapákam. Thence to Yeranjen Cháwadi after Killianúr: Collector of S. Arcot—*Gúdálúr*. Thence to Pondichéri: French Government—*Pondichéri*.

\* The old line, given in the Road-book through Wallakúr has been abandoned.

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M.	F.
Acherapákam, <i>δ. t. o.</i> .....	10	6
Yaipákam.....	11	0
Killianúr.....	13	5
Pondicheri, <i>δ. p. o.</i> .....	13	4

ROUTE 9. 48 7

MADRAS TO CHITTUR AND PALMANER.

124 M.  $\frac{1}{2}$  F.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer commanding Centre Division—*Madras.*

CIVIL AUTHORITY—To Dámál, beyond Balchetti Chattram: Collector of Chengalpat̄—*Pallikarni.* From Dámál to Palmanér: Collector of N. Arcot—*Chittúr.*

PLACES.	STAGES.*	
	M. F.	M. F.
Punamalli, <i>δ. &amp; t. o.</i> .....	12	4
Shri Perumbudúr, <i>δ. &amp; t. o.</i> .....	13	0
Rájá Chattram, <i>δ.</i> .....	14	2
Bálchetti Chattram, <i>δ.</i> .....	10	2
Wochei Chattram, <i>δ.</i> .....	8	0
Arcot (to church), <i>δ. &amp; p. o.</i> .....	12	5
<i>rd.</i> to Chittúr.....	1	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
× 3 n. to Narsingapuram...	3	0
× Poiné <i>r.</i> 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ furlongs wide, to Trivellam, <i>δ.</i> .....	1	3
Pudumotúr.....	3	3
SAIRKAD.....	1	1 9 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mustárkuppa.....	1	6
Chinna Bomasamudram....	1	4
× n. to Timyapalli.....	1	2
× 4 n. to NÁRHARI-PETA, <i>δ.</i> .....	3	4 8 0
Chímálapalli.....	1	0
Mutkúrpalli.....	1	0
× Dumagunta Ghât to Annapapilli.....	3	0
Gangaságaram.....	0	5
Reddigunta.....	1	0
Greenpéta.....	1	5
(a) CHITTUR, <i>δ. t. o.</i> ....	1	2 9 4
Sangarpalli.....	0	6
Veruwáram.....	1	3
× Newna <i>r.</i> 110 yards wide to Varagapalli.....	1	1
Mudureddipalli.....	0	5
BAIRIPALLI.....	3	0 6 7
Gunalkattamanji.....	0	7
Nallasantapalli.....	0	3
× 3 n. to Danduwaripalli..	4	0

\* See Route 7 for the first six places mentioned.

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.
× n. to Bangarázupálliam..	1	6
VENKATAGADI, <i>δ.</i> .....	0	6 7 6
× n. to Balamagulapalli ...	1	5
Balijaipalli.....	1	1
Mugli, <i>δ.</i> .....	1	6
× n. to Mugli Pass begins	0	3
Ditto ends... ..	4	4
Yellampalli.....	0	6
Madigapalli.....	0	1
( <i>δ.</i> ) PALMANER, <i>δ. &amp; t. o.</i>	1	1 11 3

124 0  $\frac{1}{2}$

The route, as far as Arcot, has been already described (see R. 7). From that city it takes a N.W. direction, passing, at the distance of 5  $\frac{1}{2}$  miles from Arcot, the Poiné river, called, by Thornton, "Puni," and by Wilks, "Poony," an affluent of the Pálár. This stream, during the monsoon, is more than a quarter of a mile broad, but in the dry season sinks to a rivulet. A large bridge across it at Trivellam is just completed. Passing Sairkád, a small village with 10 wells and a tank, and Narharipéta, a cluster of two or three villages together, the traveller reaches *Chittúr*, which may be regarded as the capital of N. Arcot, inasmuch as it is the residence of the chief civil functionaries, and contains the "Subordinate Court" and "Civil Court," which latter is a Court of Appeal, substituted by Art. VII. of 1843, of the Government of India, for the one Provincial Court which formerly existed here. About 200 Sipáhís are quartered there, and both the civil and military officers reside in commodious houses on the S.E. and S.W. sides, in compounds thickly planted with trees.

(a) *Chittúr* lies in a valley said to be 1,100 feet above the sea, shut in on all sides but the E. by hills composed of coarse granite, gneiss and greywacke, and veined occasionally with iron ore. The native town is ill-drained, and the exhalations make it very unhealthy. Elevated a little above it is the lower fort, containing the old palace of the former Páligárs or chiefs of the place, and a reservoir supplied from a tank above with a perpetual stream of fine water. From this is the ascent of the *Drug*, or upper

fort, under six successive gateways, at different heights, and traversing a labyrinth of fortifications, all of solid masonry, and winding irregularly up from rock to rock, to the summit. The ascent is partly by steps and partly by almost superficial notches, cut in the steep and smooth surface of the rock, and to be scaled only with great difficulty. The fort contains two beautiful tanks, various temples, and a deep magazine, well sunk in the rock. There is not much historical interest about Chittúr; the English suffered a reverse here, when the fort was taken from them on the 11th of Nov., 1781, by Haidar 'Ali, and the garrison, consisting of 1 battalion, destroyed. The gaols, which can contain 800 prisoners, and are well managed, may be inspected by those to whom such matters are of interest.

About 3½ miles to the E.N.E. of Chittúr are the ancient sepulchres of Pánduvaram Déwal, which are well and minutely described by Capt. Newbold in his paper, Art. IV. Vol. XIII., of the Roy. As. Soc. Journal. These tombs cover an area of more than a square mile. The majority of them have been thrown down chiefly by the Wadras, the Indian stonemasons. Some few, however, are still standing, and present a striking similarity to the cromlechs of Wales, such, for instance, as those at Plas Newydd, in Anglessa, and to the ancient tombs in Circassia. There is, first, a Druidical circle of upright stones. Within this is the tomb, like a huge box, composed of 4 slabs, and, of these, that which forms the roof projects about 18 inches beyond the sides. The roof-slab of one tomb is 13 ft. by 12 ft., and averages 4½ in. thick. Through one of the side slabs is cut a hole about 18 in. in diameter. The *terra cotta* sarcophagi containing the bodies are placed on the floor-slab, and are covered to the depth of 3 or 4 ft. with earth. They are filled with bones and hard earth; and elegantly-shaped earthen vases are found near them. Iron spear-heads and swords are sometimes met with. Similar tombs are found at the Nilgiris and other places, but nowhere in such numbers as at this spot. All account of their origin is lost in the dimness of antiquity.

From Chittúr, the road passes due W. through Bairípalli, an insignificant village of 30 houses, and through the town of Venkatagadi to that of Palmanér.

(*b*) *Palmanér*.—About 2 miles before this, an ascent commences at the Mugli Pass, and *Palmanér* is 1,200 ft. above Chittúr, being no less than 2,312 ft. above the marine surface. This great elevation gives to *Palmanér* a climate far superior to that of Chittúr, to which it serves as a sanatorium. The temperature is 8° less, and the nights are always pleasantly cool, while the freshness of the morning air invites to exercise.

At 1 m. 2 f. distance from *Palmanér* W. is the village of Nellagutalpalli, which forms the boundary of the Centre D. The road to Bengalúr then passes into the Maisúr D.

## ROUTE 10.

MADRAS TO GUNTÚR, BY SULÚRPÉT,  
NELLÚR (NELLORE), ANGULA (ONGOLE);  
GUNTÚR (251 M. 4 F.), AND RAIZWÁRA,  
271 M. 4 F.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—To Kṛiṣṇa r., after Mangalagadi, Officer commanding Centre Div.—*Madras*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—To Salt-water Inlet after Puduwoil: Collector of Chengu-patt—*Pallikarni*. Thence to Pudi after Arambák: Collector of N. Arcot—*Chittúr*. To Boundary after Dudukúr: Collector of Nellúr—*Nellúr*. To Kṛiṣṇa r. after Mangalagadi: Collector of Guntúr—*Guntúr*.

PLACES.	STAGES.		
	M.	F.	M. F.
From Wálájáh Gate of Fort St. George; × 3 n. to Mádaveram .....	7	0	
× 2 n. to Kárkhánah or Puli line .....	3	2	
PALWAI CHATTRAM, <i>δ</i> . Chambeliwáram .....	1	4	11 6
Cholawáram .....	0	7	
Korteli-ár, r. r. <i>δ</i> .....	1	2	
Ditto l. <i>δ</i> .....	0	1½	
Neduvárambákam .....	1	0½	
PUDUWOIL, t. o. ....	3	7	10
× Arni, r. ....	0	5	
Kávérípét .....	1	6	
Páta Gumudipundi, <i>δ</i> .....	3	1	
Wobalapuram .....	2	6	
× Salt-water Inlet .....	2	4	

PLACES.	STAGES.		PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.		M. F.	M. F.
Rámapuram.....	2	7	× Salt-water r. to Chauki- cherla.....	4	6½
(a) ARÁMBÁK, <i>δ</i> .....	1	1 14 6	Subharayan Chattram.....	1	1½
Pudi.....	2	7	× Maneru <i>n</i> .....	2	0½
Tada Chattram.....	2	3	Manatukót.,.....	2	5½
Bolingampádu.....	0	7½	× Maneru r. 200 yds. broad	1	0
× 4 <i>n</i> . to Akampét.....	3	1	× 2 <i>n</i> . to SINGHARAI-		
× 2 <i>n</i> . and Kalangi, <i>r</i> .....	3	2	KONDA, <i>δ</i> .....	1	5 13 3
( <i>b</i> ) SULURPET, <i>δ</i> .....	0	7½ 13 4	Somarájapalli.....	1	3
× 4 <i>n</i> . to Uparapálliam....	3	5	Naravaripálliam.....	1	5½
× 3 <i>n</i> . to Akarapákam.....	4	0	Betrugunta.....	2	4
DHORAWARI, or NAIDU			Pálar <i>r</i> . <i>r</i> . <i>δ</i> .....	0	7½
CHATTRAM, <i>t</i> . <i>o</i> .....	1	5 9 2	Ditto, <i>l</i> . <i>δ</i> .....	0	1½
Nalabali.....	3	7	TANGATUR, <i>δ</i> .....	1	1½ 7 7
Beradavada.....	1	6½	× <i>n</i> . to Musi r. 200 yds. wide	2	5
× 3 <i>n</i> . to Naidupét, <i>t</i> . <i>o</i> ....	2	4½	Naidupálliam.....	0	4½
× 3 <i>n</i> . to Suwarnamukhf,			× <i>n</i> . to Ulár.....	2	5½
<i>r</i> . <i>r</i> . <i>δ</i> .....	2	4	× <i>n</i> . to Belúr.....	2	3
Ditto, <i>l</i> . <i>δ</i> .....	0	3	( <i>d</i> ) × <i>n</i> . to ANGULA (On- gole) to N. of Fort, <i>δ</i> . <i>t</i> . <i>o</i> .	3	6 12 0
× 4 <i>n</i> . to WUJELLI, <i>δ</i> ....	4	0 15 1	Potarájá <i>n</i> .....	0	5
Rájupálliam.....	1	7	Muktanulalah.....	2	1
Putraguntah.....	1	6	× 2 bridged <i>n</i> . to Trovagunta	0	6
Pudalam.....	1	5	Maderalápád.....	3	2
Writer Chattram.....	2	4	× Adda Vágu <i>n</i> . to <i>r</i> . <i>δ</i> . of Gundlakamma <i>r</i> .....	0	5
× 4 <i>n</i> . to Chelakur.....	1	6½	CHEDELWADA.....	1	0 8 3
× 3 <i>n</i> . to GUDUR, <i>δ</i> .....	1	4½ 11 1	Nágulupalápád, <i>δ</i> .....	2	4
× 11 <i>n</i> . to Manubol.....	3	7½	Tank.....	1	7
Krishnamáchári Chattram	3	1½	× Kongalavágu <i>n</i> .....	0	5
× 4 <i>n</i> . to Govindapudi.....	2	4	× Rallavágu <i>n</i> . to Ráchapudi	3	2
× 2 <i>n</i> . to VENKATACH-			A Tank.....	2	4
ELAM'S CHATTRAM, <i>δ</i> .....	4	3 14 0	DUDUKUR.....	0	2 11 0
× 2 <i>n</i> . to Chamadugunta....	3	1	× Parakadivágu <i>n</i> . to Koneki	2	6
Commandant's Chattram....	1	3	× Konekivágu <i>n</i> . to Ganga- veram.....	1	2
( <i>c</i> ) × <i>n</i> . to NELLUR,			Attiyáru <i>n</i> .....	1	3½
<i>δ</i> . <i>p</i> . <i>o</i> . (enter).....	4	0½ 8 4½	Small Tank, Boundary ...	0	3½
Ditto leave.....	1	1½	INKULA, <i>δ</i> . <i>t</i> . <i>o</i> .....	0	2 6 1
Ponnár, <i>r</i> . <i>r</i> . <i>δ</i> .....	0	3	Allayáru <i>n</i> .....	1	6
Ditto, <i>l</i> . <i>δ</i> .....	0	4½	Dagupád.....	1	5
× 6 <i>n</i> . to Kovúr (centre)....	2	1½	× <i>n</i> .....	2	4½
× 7 <i>n</i> . to KODAVELUR, <i>δ</i> .....	4	6 9 0½	Vankayalápád.....	0	2½
× <i>n</i> . to Damaigunta.....	3	4	Nutulapád.....	1	7
× 3 <i>n</i> . to Mopur Chattram	2	7	× NÁKKAKALVA <i>r</i> . to PARCHUR, <i>δ</i> .....	3	7 12 0
ALLUR, <i>δ</i> .....	2	5 9 0	× bridged <i>n</i> . to Podaváda	2	3
× 3 <i>n</i> . to Sidhanapálam....	6	4	× Sakikalva <i>r</i> . to Adusu- mallé.....	2	3
× 2 Salt-water inlets to Koladenna.....	3	6	Chinnameddipád.....	1	2
× <i>n</i> . to MAVILADO-			Nalamada <i>n</i> . (bridged) ...	1	6½
RUVU, <i>δ</i> .....	4	3 14 5	NANDIPAD.....	0	4½ 8 3
× <i>n</i> . to Kóta Chattram.....	4	3	Buragavágu <i>n</i> . (bridged)...	0	7
Chinnapálliam.....	3	1			
× Salt-water inlets to Rahvúr.....	2	5			
RAMYAPATANAM,					
<i>δ</i> . <i>t</i> . <i>o</i> .....	1	5 11 6			

PLACES.	STAGES.		
	M. F.	M. F.	M. F.
Waragáni.....	0	2	
× 4 n. to Abbareddigunta- pálliam.....	3	3	
× n. four times to PRATI- PAD, <i>b. t. o.</i> ....	4	0	8 4
Luvavágu n.....	1	0½	
Takkareddipálliam.....	0	4½	
× Valagalakalwa to Koia- waripálliam.....	1	5	
Kurunutula.....	1	7	
× n. (bridged) to Yatukár (e) GUNTUR, <i>b. t. o.</i> ....	2	4	11 3
× 2 n. (bridged) to Akatar- pádu.....	2	3	
Kákani.....	2	1	
Káza.....	5	0	
Kukakákeri.....	1	3	
MANGALAGADI, <i>b. t. o.</i>	2	1	13 0
Yerrapálliam.....	1	5	
Tádapalli.....	3	0	
× n. (bridged) to Sitána- garam.....	1	1	
Kṛiṣṇa r. r. <i>b.</i> .....	0	1	
Ditto, <i>l. b.</i> .....	1	0	
BAIZWARA, <i>b. t. o.</i> .....	0	1	7 0

271 4

As soon as the traveller has left the suburbs of Madras, with their numerous garden houses and park-like enclosures, behind, his first feeling will be one of surprise how such verdure and so pleasant a habitation for man, as these suburbs are, could have been created in the bare and sandy waste into which he is emerging. There is no good halting place until Arambák is reached. At *Mádavaram*, a small village, whence the Tamil Vaishnavas bring quantities of firewood for sale into Madras, the old road ceases to be practicable for horses. On this account, a new road was opened last year by the *Red Hills*, where is the first station, distant 9 m. 6f. from the capital, and thence to Chamblivaram, where the old road is joined, is 4 m. 2f. While at the Red Hills station, the traveller, if curious in such matters, may inspect some ancient tombs about 2 m. W. of the lake at that place, and 11 m. N.W. of Madras. They are similar to the tombs described in R. 9, at Pánduváram Déwal, near Chittúr,

but smaller. For a further account of them see *Madras Journal*, vol. viii., p. 346 (No. 6). The roads in this quarter till within a very late period were, indeed, execrable, but the Trunk Road from Madras to Ganjam is now complete the whole way from the Presidency town to Angula. Every stream, too, between Madras and Nellúr has been bridged except the Suwarnamukhí. Carriages can drive the whole distance at any speed that may be desired.

From the desolate-looking banglá at Gumadipundi not a tree is to be seen. Between Gumadipundi and Arambák, a vast plain, in parts overflowed with salt water, and unclothed with even a single shrub, stretches on, and on, before the eye. Only, on the left, a distant rim of cocoa nut trees breaks the monotony, above whose tops rises a faint blue line of hills. The strong and peculiar saline smell, and the desolation, remind the traveller of the Dead Sea. Towards Arambák, rice fields begin to appear, and then a few clumps of trees and scattered hamlets.

(a) *Arambák* itself is an oasis of shady tamarind trees in the bare plain just described. In front is seen the bright mirror-like surface of the creek of Palikat; behind, the spurs of the Gháts run down closer and closer upon the road. The banglá here is small but comfortable. Though the country would be, but for man's labour, a vast salt desert, still it must be owned, improvements are made every year. The consumption of fuel is so great at Madras that the low jungle is all cut and carried off thither, and in its stead rice fields gain ground daily. Numerous wells are being sunk every year; and at the village of Tada, between Arambák and Sulúrpét, where a few years back scarce a well was to be found, there are now a considerable tank and a still larger lake, both artificial.

(b) *Sulúrpét* is a considerable village. Hence there is water carriage to Madras. (See R. 4). The Kalangí river, which is crossed before reaching it, is about 150 yards broad. Hence the stage is often continued to Nallaballi, in preference to halting at Dhorawári.

The *Suwarnamukhí* river, which must

be crossed between Nalabali and Wujelli, rises in lat. 13° 26', long. 79° 11', and falls into the sea in lat. 14° 8', long. 80° 11', after a course of 99 miles.

*Gudúr* is a very considerable village, or rather small town, 20 m. from the sea. The banglá is S. of it, and  $\frac{1}{2}$  a m. W. from the road. It stands close to an extensive artificial lake, which supplies good fish to the traveller. All round this place there is much verdure and cultivation, but the sand and jungle commence again at Manubol.

(c) *Nellúr*, capital of the collectorate of the same name, is situate on the right bank of the N. Ponnár, and about 18 miles from the place where that river enters the sea. It has a population of about 24,000, and there are more Muhammadans here than are usually found in the towns of the Madras provinces to the north. Here are the residences of the collector and the chief civil authorities. The town stands well, on tolerably high ground, with a red and lateritious soil, and is green with clustering foliage, being well irrigated from tanks and numerous wells. On the W. is a very large tank supplied with water by the river, and to the E. are extensive rice fields, also copiously irrigated from tanks and canals cut from the river. The houses of the English residents are S. of the town, on the E. bank of the lake.

To the S.E. of the town is a jail which can receive 800 persons. The town itself has some good streets, but in general it is cramped and crowded, and very irregularly built. The old fort and rampart which surrounded the town have fallen to ruins. In 1753, *Nellúr* was taken from *Najibu'lláh*, the brother of the *Núwáb* of the *Karnátak*, by *Muhammad Kamál*, an adventurer, and held for a year. After this, *Kamál*, in an attempt upon *Tripetti*, being defeated by the joint forces of the English and of the *Núwáb*, was taken prisoner and instantly beheaded. On the 2nd of May, 1757, *Colonel Forde*, with a large body of auxiliaries furnished by the *Núwáb*, attempted to recover that place from *Najibu'lláh*, who was in rebellion against his brother. *Najibu'lláh* himself de-

serted *Nellúr*, but left a gallant officer in charge of the fort, who defended it most valiantly, and repulsed the storming parties of the English, killing and wounding nearly 100 of them. At that time, the walls extended 1,200 yards from E. to W., and 600 from N. to S., and were of mud; only the gateways and a few towers being stone.

In 1787, a peasant who was ploughing near *Nellúr*, found his plough stopped by some brickwork. On digging at the spot, he discovered the remains of a small Hindú temple, and from beneath the masonry he took out a pot, containing Roman coins and medals of the second century, A.D. These he sold as old gold; and the larger number were melted down, but about 30 were saved from the fusing operation. They were all of the purest gold, and many of them quite fresh and beautiful. Some, however, were defaced and perforated as if they had been worn as ornaments. They were most of them of the time of *Trajan*, *Adrian*, and *Faustina*.

In 1801 several copper mines were discovered in the collectorate of *Nellúr*, in the *Zamíndári* of *Kálástrí*, 50 miles N.W. of the town of *Nellúr*, and 30 from the sea. Specimens were sent home and tried in the Tower mint. One specimen of 20 cwt. yielded 9 cwt. of pure copper. The specimens were declared to be remarkably fusible, very free from iron, and consequently well adapted for sheathing. The mines were leased to a contractor for 5 years, but proved a failure, probably on account of the want of fuel, and are given up.

Besides the great N. road leading to *Ganjám* and the frontiers of *Bengal*, there are two principal roads from *Nellúr* into the interior, the one leading to *Kadapa*, in the *Ceded Districts*; and the other by *Kammam* to *Haidarábád*, the capital of the *Nizám's country*, and to the military station of *Sikandarábád*.\*

\* A first-class road has also been made from *Nellúr* to the coast at *Krishnapatanam*; of great value for the traffic in salt with the interior. Other roads traversing these districts from E. to W. are in course of formation.

The distances and routes are as follows:—

1.—NELLÚR TO KADAPA, 112 M. 1 F.	
PLACES.	STAGES.
Nellúr Fort Gate to Duvúr.....	12 5
Kolagotla.....	11 0
Pattépádu.....	5 5
Iska Dewapalli.....	10 3
Upalpád.....	8 1
Guntanelpár.....	11 6
Gopawaram.....	11 2
Budawél, <i>t. o.</i> .....	4 4
Uttimarragu.....	9 6
Nandialampét.....	8 2
Kázipét.....	6 0
KADAPA.....	12 7

112 1

The only town on this road is *Budawél*, which is the capital of a *Taluk*. From Upalpád there is a road to Kadapa, nearer than the above by 18 m. 3½ f.

The stages are—	M. F.
Yepperál.....	8 4
Kótapád.....	11 3
Sidhāwat.....	11 3
KADAPA.....	10 2½

41 4½

This road, at present bad and impracticable for wheel traffic, it is in contemplation to improve.

2.—NELLÚR TO HAIDARÁBÁD AND SIKANDARÁBÁD, BY KAMMAM.

311 M. 3½ F. STAGES.

PLACES.	M. F.	M. F.
From Nellúr Fort N. Gate to Duvúr.....	12 7	
Chirumana.....	13 7	
Kalligaḍi, <i>t. o.</i> .....	11 0	
Bāmanpalli.....	10 6	
Iyankóta.....	13 4	
Cherlupalli.....	10 2	
Durgam, or Kannagaḍi... ..	11 1	
Pátapádu.....	11 2	
Kālahuvalapád.....	11 5	
Tarlapádu.....	10 6	
KAMMAM FORT, <i>t. o.</i> .....	10 0	127 0
× Gundlakamma <i>r.</i> to Encamping Ground.....	8 2	
Markapur, <i>t. o.</i> .....	7 7½	
Kacherlakóta.....	8 0½	
Dupar Fort.....	6 5½	
Komarol.....	13 6	

## PLACES. STAGES.

M. F.	M. F.	
An open space.....	13 0	
Kandalgunta.....	11 6	
Gopanúr.....	8 7	
Yeshwaram.....	10 1	
Suryaropéta.....	10 1	
Peruwálá.....	9 0	
Dewakunda.....	9 5	
Mallareddipalli.....	8 6	
Kurumpalli.....	9 2	
Gurkonda.....	7 2	
Yāchewaram.....	8 2	
Peddagangaram.....	13 6	
Nizāmnagar.....	11 1	
Haidarábád Residency, <i>p. o.</i> .....	4 0	
SIKANDARÁBÁD, <i>p. o.</i> .....	4 7	311 3½

Between Nellúr and Kammam the only places of any size are Duvúr, Kalligaḍi and Tarlapádu, all very large villages, and the second the residence of a *Tahsildár*. From Kunnagaḍi to Kammam there is a more direct but not easy road by the following places:—*Dodichintla*, 8 miles; *Yémalpád*, 8; pass the *Yémalpád Ghát* to *Nāgalmarragu*, 7 m. 3 f.; *Kammam*, 11 m. 2 f.; total, 34 m. 5 f. From Kammam to Dewakunda the road is very bad, in some places a mere footpath through thick jungle. However, on horseback or in a palankeen, the traveller may proceed very well, and find excellent shooting at several of the stages. The only places of any size and importance are Markapur, Kacherlakóta, and Dewakunda itself, where there is a detachment of the *Nizám's* troops.

The Pennár or Ponnár river, through all its long course of 300 miles, has been made little use of for irrigation until it reaches Nellúr, where an *Anakatt* is now constructed, which renders an increased supply of water available for the canals, which already irrigate the E. part of the collectorate. This *Anakatt* was finished in August, 1855, at an expense of £8,000. The subsidiary channels, however, have still to be laid down, the irrigation being now carried on by the old channels from the river, but their capacity is insufficient.

After leaving Nellúr the first town is *Kovúr*, which has about 600 houses. *Kodavelúr* is about 200 yards to the E. of



the road. The road, though sandy in places, is upon the whole good to Ongole.

(d) *Vangaolu*, or according to Hamilton, *Angula*, corrupted by the English into *Ongole*, is a considerable town, and a military station. The *Road Book*, probably by a typographical error, states the number of houses to be only 200. It formerly belonged to Kadapa, but was transferred to the Nŭwáb of the Karnátak, and from him acquired by the English in 1801. The great road to Haidarábád passes through this station. (See Route 18).

The *Gundlakamma* river, which is crossed between Angula and the next stage, is 385 yards wide, and always contains water sufficient for a large force. The 2 n. in the next stage are an obstruction in the rainy season. There is no place of importance until Guntúr is reached.

(e) *Guntúr* is a town with about 26,000 inhabitants, and the capital of the collectorate of the same name. It is situate about 40 miles from the sea, and 18 from the river *Kriřṇa*. Towards the coast the country is flat and open, but a few miles towards the N.W. a range of hills commences. The houses of the collectors and the other officials and the Courts of Justice, are to the N. and W. of the town. The town is divided into the old and new town. It has been much improved of late, and is considered remarkably healthy. In 1816 it was pillaged by the Pindáris.

The next station, *Mangalagadī* is a very large village. An account of the *Kriřṇa* river, and of the town of *Baizwára* will be found in Route 15, N.D.

ROUTE 11.

MADRAS TO PUDUCHERI (PONDICHERY) (88 M. 1 P.), GÚDALŪR (CUDDALORE), (100 M. 5 P.), AND PORTO NOVO, 125 M. 3 P.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer commanding Centre Division—*Madras*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—From Sadras to Inlet after Pallikarni: Collector of Chengalpaṭṭ—*Pallikarni*. Thence to Kandapa Cháwadi: Collector of S.

Arcot—*Gúdalŭr*. Thence to Kynea Kovil: *French Territory*. Thence to Porto Novo: Collector of S. Arcot—*Gúdalŭr*.

PLACES.	STAGES.		
	M.	F.	M. F.
Madras to SADRAS, <i>b. t. o.</i>			
(See Route 3).....			40 4
× an Inlet .....	1	2	
× ditto.....	1	0½	
Vailŭr .....	1	3½	
Pálar <i>r. l. b.</i> .....	0	5	
Ditto, <i>r. b.</i> .....	0	6	
Vapenecheri .....	0	1	
× n. to Gúdalŭr (Cuddalore)	1	0	
× n. to Arrayalancheri ...	0	2	
Kowatŭr .....	1	2	
Ténpatnam .....	1	7	
Mogayŭr .....	1	3	
× an Inlet to CHIKANAKUPPAM.....	2	3	13 3
Linga Chetti Cháwadi.....	1	3	
× an Inlet 5½ furlongs broad	0	7	
Mutakádu .....	0	1	
Muniapállé Cháwadi .....	2	6	
Paniŭr Chattram.....	1	1	
ALAMPARVA, <i>b.</i> .....	2	4	8 6
Ténpákam .....	2	6	
× an Inlet to Nŭwáb's Cháwadi .....	2	0	
Komati Cháwadi.....	4	2	
KUNIMODE.....	4	3	13 3
Ranganadapuram Cháwadi	1	1	
Putupallu Cháwadi.....	1	4	
Rangapilli Cháwadi.....	3	6	
Bammanapálliam.....	1	0	
Kandapa Cháwadi .....	0	6	
Kotta Kuppam.....	1	3	
Mattalpéta .....	0	5	
Puducheri, Madras Gate....	1	0	
(a) PUDUCHERI, Gúdalŭr Gate, <i>b. &amp; p. o.</i> .....	1	0	12 1
Mudeliárpét.....	0	7	
× <i>r.</i> 135 yards wide to Aryakuppam .....	1	7	
Chunambam <i>r.</i> .....	1	0	
× ditto 440 yards wide to Taulakuppam .....	1	2	
Vánakára Cháwadi.....	0	6	
Mullatŭr <i>r.</i> .....	0	5	
Reddi Cháwadi .....	0	5	
Kynea Kovil .....	2	4	
Ponnár Cháwadi.....	1	6	
× ford 681 yards wide to MANJI KUPPAM, <i>b. &amp; p. o.</i>	0	5	11 7

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.
(b) Gúdalúr [ <i>Chief's house</i> <i>New Town</i> ].....	0	5
Chonian Cháwadi, <i>b.</i> ....		9 1
Pudu Chattram, <i>b.</i> ....		6 7
(c) PORTO NOVO, <i>b.</i> .....		8 6

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125 3

(a) *Puducheri*. — There is nothing remarkable on the road between Sadras and Puducheri. The small town of Alamparva, which is passed on the way, has some wells of fine water, the best on the coast. There is a good hotel, at Puducheri, as well as a traveller's *banglá*. The charge at the hotel is 5 francs a day for board and lodging; whereas it is 5 rupees at English hotels at Madras, etc.; moreover, the French cuisine is superior, though the apartments are not so good. In the same way, the wages of servants are only half what is given in the English settlements; being, at Madras, 7 rupees; at Puducheri, 3½. Puducheri itself—though a handsome town, with avenues of fine trees—has declined from its former flourishing condition, when it was reckoned one of the finest towns in India. This was before it was taken by Colonel (afterwards Sir Eyre) Coote, who leveled its fortifications, and injured it to such an extent that it never afterwards entirely recovered. Nevertheless, Lord Valentia, in 1804, pronounced it the handsomest town he had seen in India, except Calcutta. The proper name is *Puducheri*, “new village,” though the English, with their usual cleverness, have metamorphosed it into Pondicherry; it is situated in a sandy plain, not far from the sea shore, where only palm trees, millet, and a few herbs are produced. The Aryakuppam river flows into the sea, close to the S. side, and forms there a small isle called “Cocoa-nut Island.” This river is only deep enough to admit coasting craft of small burden; but it adds to the strength of the place. On the N.W. are hills, the chief of which is called the Red Hill. From the N. to the Aryakuppam river the town was defended, in addition to its other fortifications, by a bound hedge, which enclosed

seven square miles of ground, and was a very formidable obstacle to a besieging force. The surf, though somewhat less dangerous than that of Madras, is still impracticable for European boats. Ships, in fine weather, may anchor abreast of the town, within three-quarters of a mile of the shore, in 6 fathoms; but at stormy seasons, it is wiser to lie in 14 fathoms in the outer roads. The town is regularly built, and is divided by a canal into two parts, the White Town to the E. near the shore, and the Black Town to the W. In the centre of White Town is a handsome square, of which Government House forms one side. This and the Church of Foreign Missions; the bazar, built in 1836; and a lighthouse, which shows a light 89 ft. above the sea, are the most remarkable buildings. There are two missions—that of the Jesuits, and the Missions Etrangeres. The latter have Bishops at Madras, Puducheri, Trichinápalli, Koimbatúr, and Bengalúr.

Puducheri is the capital of the French possessions in India, and the seat of the supreme government. The places under its authority are Karikal on the Coromandel coast; Yánám, and the lodge of Machilpatanam, on the Orissa coast; Mahe, and the lodge of Kolikod (Calicut), on the Malabar coast; and Chandranagar, in Bengal, on the Hugli. Of these, the first is 47 miles distant from Tanjúr to the E., and contains an area of 63 square miles, with a population of 49,307 persons, of whom 43 are Europeans; Yánám is in the province of Rájamahéndri, 9 m. from the embouchure of the Godávarí, and has an area of 8,147 acres, with 6,881 inhabitants; Mahe, 7 miles S.E. of Tellicheri, has an area of 2 square miles, with 2,616 inhabitants; and Chandranagar, with 2,330 acres, has 32,670 inhabitants, of whom upwards of 200 are Europeans. Puducheri itself has an area of 107 square miles, with a population of 79,743 persons, of whom 790 are white. The town contains about 30,000 inhabitants. The establishment is divided into—1. Executive and legislative, including the governor, council of administration, and council general. 2. Judicial, including the royal court, the

tribunal of first instance, and the tribunal of peace and of police. 3. Public instruction. 4. Marine. 5. Military. The Governor-General receives 1,333 rupees a month; the Attorney-General, 400; and the four senior Judges, 200; about the same as an ensign in the Company's service.

In 1672, Puducheri, then a small village, was purchased by the French from the King of Vijayapur, 71 years after the first arrival of French ships in India. In 1693, the Dutch took Puducheri, but restored it, with the fortifications greatly improved, in 1697, at the peace of Ryswick. On the 26th of Aug. 1748, Admiral Boscawen laid siege to it, with an army of 6000 men, but was compelled to raise the siege on the 6th of Oct., with the loss of 1065 Europeans. M. Dupleix was the Governor, and had under him a garrison of 1800 Europeans and 2000 Sipáhis. On the 29th of April, 1758, M. Lally landed at Puducheri, and commenced a vigorous war, which ended ruinously for the French.

In the beginning of July, 1760, Col. Coote, with 2000 Europeans and 6000 natives, began to blockade Puducheri. On the 17th a detachment of his army under Major Moore attacked a French convoy, which had with it 4000 Maisúrean horse, 1000 Sipáhis, and 200 Europeans. Moore had 1600 native cavalry, 1100 Sipáhis, and 230 Europeans, and was entirely routed, losing 105 Europeans, killed or wounded, and a great number of natives. Nevertheless, the English army having received reinforcements, on the 9th of Sept., 1760, carried the bound-hedge and two of the four redoubts which defended it, with the loss of 115 Europeans, and about the same number of Sipáhis. On the 27th of Nov., M. Lally, finding the garrison hard pressed by famine, expelled all the native inhabitants from the town, 1400 in number. These being driven back by the English, attempted to re-enter the fort, but were fired on by the French, and some of them killed. For 8 days these unfortunates wandered between the lines of the two hostile armies, subsisting on the food which they had about them, and the roots of grass. At

last, finding Lally inexorable, the English suffered them to pass.

On the night of the 30th of Dec., while an English fleet of 8 sail of the line, 2 frigates, a fire ship, and a transport were at anchor in the roads, a terrific storm arose. The Newcastle, the Queenborough frigate, and Protection fire-ship were driven ashore 2 miles to the S. of Puducheri, but only 7 men of their crews were lost. More dreadful was the fate of the Duke of Aquitaine, the Sunderland, and the Dido transport, which foundered with 1100 Europeans on board. Only 14 men were saved, being picked up next day as they were floating on pieces of the wreck. All the other ships, with the exception of the Admiral's, were dismasted. The disasters on shore were likewise great. The sea overflowed the country as far as the bound-hedge; all the batteries and redoubts which the English army had raised were utterly ruined; the tents and huts of the soldiers were blown to atoms; all the ammunition was destroyed, and the men were compelled to throw away their muskets and seek shelter where they could, whilst many of the camp followers perished. The hopes of deliverance which this storm had raised in the minds of the French were, however, soon dispelled by the arrival of fresh men-of-war from Ceylon and Madras, so that the blockading fleet was again raised to 11 sail of the line. On the 5th of Jan., 1761, the French obtained a trifling success over a detachment of 170 men who were in the St. Thomas's redoubt, at the mouth of the Aryakuppam river. These were all killed or taken; but Lally having no means of feeding his prisoners, sent them to Coote, with a demand that they should not be allowed to serve again against him during the siege. On the 16th, the town surrendered, as the garrison was reduced to 1100 men of the line fit for duty, and these enfeebled by famine and fatigue, with but two days' provision left. Altogether 2453 Europeans, including civilians, were made prisoners, and 500 guns, with 100 mortars and howitzers were taken, with a proportionate supply of stores.

In 1763, Puducheri was restored to the French. On the 9th of Aug., 1778, Sir Hector Munro, with an army of 10,500 men, of whom 1500 were Europeans, again laid siege to it. On the 10th, Sir E. Vernon, with 4 ships, fought an indecisive battle in the roads, with 5 French ships under M. Tronjolly, who, some days after, sailed off at night, and left the town to its fate. Puducheri, after an obstinate defence, was surrendered in the middle of October by M. Bellecombe, the Governor, and shortly after the fortifications were destroyed. In 1783, it was re-transferred to the French; and on the 23rd of Aug., 1793, retaken by the British. The treaty of Amiens, 1802, restored it to its original masters; whereupon Buonaparte sent thither General de Caen, with 7 other generals, 1400 regulars, a body guard of 80 horse, and £100,000 in specie, with a view, doubtless, to extensive operations in India. His intentions, however, whatever they may have been, were defeated by the re-occupation of Puducheri in 1803. Puducheri was then attached to S. Arcot, and yielded a yearly revenue of about 45,000 rs. In 1817, it was restored to the French, and has remained ever since under their rule.

A traveller may pass some time very agreeably here. The people are hospitable and gay, though poor; and very many officers in the Company's service have found wives at Puducheri. It is perfectly allowable for gentlemen to enter any *ré-union* that may be taking place, uninvited; a privilege, for the non-abuse of which, the scant supply of strangers is a sufficient guarantee.

(b.) *Gúdalúr*. — There is nothing worthy of note on the way from Puducheri to Gúdalúr (Cuddalore). This town, the capital of S. Arcot, and the place of residence of the civil authorities, is situated in lat.  $11^{\circ} 43'$ , long.  $79^{\circ} 50'$ , about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles to the S. of the ruins of Fort St. David, and a mile from where one branch of the S. Ponnár (or Pennár) enters the sea. This branch is called the Guddalam river. It is strictly speaking a separate stream, though an arm of the Ponnár flows into it at Tiruvamár, as it approaches the coast,

takes a sweep to the N., and bends again to the S., close to and on the W. of Fort St. David, and, running parallel to the beach for 3 or 4 miles, is separated from the sea only by a bank of sand, in some places but a few hundred yards in breadth. It is joined at its embouchure by the Karanguli river (usually termed the Cuddalore river), a considerable stream, which comes from the S.

The place where the Ponnár turns N. is called Venkapét; and there a branch is given off from it, which runs E. and joins the main river again in its S. course, thus enclosing a semi-circular tract of land, on which stands the new town of Gúdalúr, the old town being on its opposite or S. side. The tide flows several miles up the river, which may be said, during the dry months, to be more an inlet of the sea, or back water, than a fresh water river. Its depth is about 6 ft. when the tide is low; and a muddy bank of considerable extent is exposed, from which fætor arises, especially in the hot season. The site of the town and its vicinity is not more than 5 ft. above the level of the sea, the soil being sandy and mixed with clay. From this lowness of situation it might be expected to be unhealthy; but so far is this from being the case, that it enjoys a remarkable immunity from disease, and the New Town and Fort St. David in particular, are proverbially healthy. In fact, sick officers and convalescents not unfrequently resort to Gúdalúr for change of air, and several banglás have been erected in New Town for their accommodation, which are procurable at moderate rents. The climate is as equable as that of Madras, and cooler.

In other respects, it has incontestable advantages over both Madras and Puducheri, for an emporium, as it is the natural port of Salem, from which it is but 118 miles distant, even by the present circuitous route. Yet cotton is sent from Salem to Madras, nearly double the distance, because the road to Gúdalúr is impassable for carts. The bar of sand, too, which, owing to the slowness of the current, the surf has thrown up across the mouth of the river, might easily be removed; in which case

the stream would be navigable for vessels of considerable size: as it is, the trade of the place is decaying. There are no roads, but a pleasure drive on the beach  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles in extent; and another from the town to the civilians' house, 3 miles. Of seven sugar refineries, six lie in ruins. The collector's house was built by Mr. Place, at the beginning of the present century, and was occupied till 1820 by the Governor; after that, by the different collectors. Prior to 1690, the E. I. Company had a factory here; which, on account of the increasing trade, was, in 1702, rebuilt and fortified. In 1746, after the capture of Madras by De la Bourdonnais, the English functionaries betook themselves to Fort St. David and Gúdalúr. Both these places were then attacked by the French without success. On the 13th of April, 1749, a dreadful storm took place, which destroyed the British encampment at Gúdalúr; and several ships foundered with all their crews, among which was the Apollo transport, the Pembroke of 60 guns, and the Namur of 74. This last was considered the finest ship then in the English navy of her size, and carried 750 men, not one of whom escaped.

In 1758, M. Lally got possession of both Gúdalúr and Fort St. David, and forthwith destroyed the fortifications of the latter. In 1760, Col. Coote recovered these places; and on the 1st July, 1781, gained between this place and Porto Novo a great victory over Haidar 'Alí, who is said by Wilks to have lost 10,000 men; but on the 8th of April, 1782, Gúdalúr surrendered to the combined French and Maisdrear armies. The French then greatly strengthened the works, and threw in a powerful garrison under command of the Marquis de Bussy. On the 13th of June, 1783, the place was attacked by General Stuart, with an army of 10,000 men. Hereupon ensued a siege, remarkable in the annals of Indian warfare for many memorable circumstances. In the first place, while the armies were contending on the shore, a British fleet of 17 ships, with 1,202 guns, under Sir Edward Hughes, was engaged with a French fleet of 15 ships, carrying 1,018

guns, under M. Suffrein. On the 20th, a battle was fought between these armaments, in which the English fleet lost 532 men, and was completely outmanœuvred by the enemy, who succeeded in crippling the British vessels, and returning to its anchorage off Gúdalúr, at which place it landed 2,400 men to aid in the defence of the town. This naval engagement had been preceded by a desperate encounter between the two armies, in which the English got possession of 13 guns, and carried some outworks, but with a loss of 1,016 men, of whom 500 were Europeans; the greatest loss, particularly in officers, that had been ever yet sustained by them in any action fought in India. On the 25th, a sortie of the garrison was repulsed, with the loss to them of 600 men.

Among the wounded French prisoners was a young sergeant, who, by his noble appearance, attracted the attention of Col. Wangenheim, the officer commanding the Hanoverian troops in the English service, to such a degree, that he ordered the young man to be conveyed to his own tent, where he was kindly treated until his recovery and release. Many years after, when the French army, under Bernadotte, entered Hanover, Wangenheim, among others, attended the victor's levee. Bernadotte asked him if he had not served in India, and at Gúdalúr? and on his replying in the affirmative, inquired if he remembered a wounded sergeant to whom he had been kind. The Hanoverian said he recollected him well, that he was a fine gallant fellow, and he should like much to know what had become of him. "Behold him in me!" exclaimed Bernadotte, and added that nothing should be wanting on his part to testify his gratitude.

On the 27th of June, two days after the garrison had made their desperate sally, the Medusa frigate arrived from Madras, bringing news of the peace between France and England.

The *Fort of Gúdalúr* is an unequal-sided quadrangle with an indifferent rampart and ditch, and no outworks, excepting one advanced from its N.E. angle. A bastion covers each of the other angles, and the curtains are fur-

nished with the imperfect kind of flanking defence obtainable by means of a succession of bastions, placed in a prolongation of one and the same straight line. The place, however, is naturally strong, being defended by rivers on the N. and E. Lord Valentia praises the factory-house as a chaste piece of architecture, built by his relative "Diamond Pitt," and possessing a noble portico. The terraced roof was so much to the fancy of M. Lally, that he carried it away to Pudukheri.

(c) *Porto Novo*.—Five hours' journey in a palankeen, brings the traveller to *Porto Novo*, which stands on the N. bank of the river Vélúr, close to the sea, and is called by the natives Mahmúdd Bandar and Firingipét. At this place, and at Bépúr in Malabar, are the works of the Indian Iron Company, which obtained its charter in 1854. In 1835, Mr. Heath, of the Madras Civil Service, commenced making iron at *Porto Novo*; intending first to make wrought iron by charcoal alone, with fires and chaferies as in Sweden. Owing to the nature of the fuel, this experiment failed. Puddling was then tried, using, instead of coal, billets of wood, dried and half charred. This also failed from the difficulty of getting up the heat with such material; and the wood being impregnated with nitre and salt, owing to the soil, the ashes were so alkaline as to act as a powerful flux on the bricks. Further experiments were also rendered abortive, by the character of the fuel, which generates volumes of nitro-muriatic acid; and in 1846-47 coals were tried unsuccessfully.

The *Porto Novo* works are now at a stand. Every one will admit, more particularly at a time when railways

and steam engines are being introduced into India, that the problem of rendering the vast quantities of iron ore, which strew the surface of the ground in the collectorates of Salem and Koimbatúr, available for manufacture, is one of the highest interest. It seems, however, that *Porto Novo* was ill-chosen as a site for works. The ore-ground is at the distance of 80 miles, 30 of which must be traversed by an execrable road, and the remainder by tortuous canals, navigable only during 4 months in the year. Moreover, the wood fuel has the pernicious qualities already stated, the supply is much too scanty, and is continually diminishing as the jungles are brought under cultivation every year, in consequence of the extension of irrigation. Add to these disadvantages the circumstance that the works at *Porto Novo* have been built on ground but 18 inches above the level of the river, and close to it, so that deep castings cannot be attempted, from the danger of explosions.

Nevertheless, the ore is good, yielding on an average 65 per cent.; labour is cheap, and there is an unlimited demand. It may be that, after all, the simple method of the natives would prove the best for the manufacture of iron. A native furnace costs £56, in which all expenses for working it for one year are included, and returns £20 annually; so that the first outlay is covered in 3 years, and after that, a regular profit sets in.

The governorship of *Porto Novo* was the bribe, in addition to a sum of money, for which, in 1693, Dr. Blackwell, the garrison surgeon of Fort St. David, covenanted to surrender that place to Zulfikár Khán, then besieging the Rám Rájá in Jhínjí.

## SECTION II.

### NORTHERN DIVISION.

#### *Preliminary Information.*

#### 1. BOUNDARIES AND GENERAL ASPECT OF THE DIVISION—SUB-DIVISIONS AND CHIEF TOWNS.—2. HISTORICAL SKETCH—CASTES—EMPLOYMENTS OF THE NATIVES.

#### 1. BOUNDARIES AND GENERAL ASPECT OF THE DIVISION—SUB-DIVISIONS AND CHIEF TOWNS.

This division, lying between 16° and 20° N. lat., is a narrow slip of country about 350 miles in length, and from 60 to 10 miles in breadth.

It is bounded on the N. by the Chilka Lake and the territory of the Gumsúr Rájá; on the S. by the river Kṛiṣṇa; on the E. by the Bay of Bengal; and on the W. by the Gháts, which separate it from the Niṣám's country and that of Nágpur.

The *general aspect of the country* from the Kṛiṣṇa as far as the frontier of Vishákpatanam (Vizagapatam) is a flat alluvial plain rising gradually towards the Gháts. From that point northward it is more hilly. In the tract between the sea and the Gháts the climate, though hot, is generally salubrious; but the Gháts themselves, with a colder temperature, are very unhealthy, fever being the prevalent disease.

The *Sub-divisions and Chief Towns* of the four Collectorates comprised in this Division are as follows:—

GANJÁM.		
Táluks or Sub-divisions from N. and N.W. to S. and S.E.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Ganjám.
1 Gumsúr	Nauga'on	55*
2 Moherri	Burhánpur	19
3 Ichchhápur	Ichchhápur	33
4 Surada	Surada	53
5 Pálatalagam	... ..	...
6 Kantálavala	... ..	...
7 Kodúr	... ..	...
8 Pubakonda	Prashutpur	16
9 Wadada	Bairí	110

#### VISHÁKPATANAM (VIZAGAPATAM).

Táluks or Sub-divisions from N. to S.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Vishákpatanam.
1 Pálkonda	Pálkonda	86
2 Sarvasiddhi	Sarvasiddhi	38
3 Golkonda	Narsapatnam	54

\* Owing to the intersections in the Delta, the distances here given cannot in some cases be depended upon as quite correct.

## RÁJAMAHÉNDRI.

Táluka or Sub-divisions from N. to S.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Rájamahéndri.
1 Andrangi	... ..		...
2 Uppáda	... ..		...
3 Lingampuru	Lingampuru		33
4 Kattapilli	Kattapilli		24
5 Peddapur	Peddapur		27
6 Bikkaval	Bikkaval		20
7 Kóta Rámchandrapuram	Rámchandrapuram		22
8 Rájamahéndri	Rájamahéndri	365.6	...
9 Kapáveram	Kapáveram		12
10 Rálli	Rálli		19
11 Amlápur	Amlápur		40
12 Nagaram	Nagaram		42
13 Tádimallé	Tádimallé		14
14 Tannaku	Tannaku		19
15 Undi	Undi		38
16 Magaltúr	Magaltúr		46

## MACHLÍPATANAM (MASULIPATAM).

Táluka.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Machlipatanam.
1 Elúr	Elúr		48
2 Kaikalúr	Kaikalúr		30
3 Tirvúr	Tirvúr		85
4 Gudewáda	Gudewáda		23
5 Padana	Padana		8
6 Machlipatanam	Bandar or Mach- lipatanam	315.2½	...
7 Divi	Divi		16
8 Jaggiapéta	Jaggiapéta		90
9 Nandigáma	Nandigáma		74
10 Baizwáda	Baizwáda, or Baizwára		44

## 2. HISTORICAL SKETCH—CASTES—EMPLOYMENTS OF THE NATIVES.

The ancient name of the N. Sarkárs was Kalinga, by which this country was known also to the Romans. It is probable, however, that Orissa is the Calinga spoken of by Pliny as a powerful and civilised kingdom, for according to the evidence of the Chinese traveller, Hiuan Tshang, a desert forest extended for 500 miles from Kánci (that is, from near Madras), towards the frontiers of Ganjám in the early part of the 7th century, A.D. The name Kalinga has survived to the present day under the corruption Keling, or Kling, among the inhabitants of the E. islands, who have for ages carried on a trade with this coast. Of the kings who anciently ruled over this territory we know nothing. A king of Andhra, Andhraráyudu, son of Suchandra, is spoken of as reigning at Shrfákólam, on the Kṛishna, and is said, after the death of his father, to have transferred his residence to the banks of the Godávarí, perhaps to Rájamahéndri. At his suggestion, the sage Kanwa, the earliest of the Telugu grammarians, prepared a treatise on Telugu grammar. A dynasty of Chalukia princes, and afterwards a Kadamba dynasty, is said to have reigned subsequently at Rájamahéndri. The Ballál kings of Warangol or Orankal appear to have succeeded; but in 1323 A.D. their capital was taken by the Patháns. In 1471 A.D. the Muḥammadáns of the Dakhan began to interfere in the affairs of this province. There being a disputed succession in the family of the Rájá of Ganjám, Muḥammad Sháh, of the Bahmaní dynasty, installed one of the claimants as Rájá on condition of his paying tribute; and in



1480 made over to him also the countries of Kondapilli, E'lúr, and Rájamahéndri. To these provinces, in 1490, Muḥammad's successor, Maḥmúd, added Machlípatanam and Guntúr. In 1512, the Bahmaní dynasty came to an end, when the N. Sarkárs, at least that part S. of the Godávarí, fell to the Kuṭb Sháhí kings, who reigned at Golkonda or Haidarábád. The N. part was retained by Viṣṇu Dev, who reigned at Rájamahéndri till 1571. In 1687, Aurangzáb took Golkonda, and made himself master of the Kuṭb Sháhí dominions. A period of anarchy followed, as the Muḥammadans were too much engrossed with the Maráthas to settle their outlying provinces. However, in 1713, Nizámu'l-Mulk, Súbahdár of the Dakhan, appointed Anváru'd-dín, the future Núwáb of the Karnátak, to the government of Shrikákolam, and Rustam Khán to that of Rájamahéndri and the more S. portions of the Sarkárs. In those days the names and boundaries of the Sarkárs were different from what they are now. *Guntúr* alone had the same boundaries, but was also called Murtaẓanagar or Kondavir. To this succeeded, in a N. direction, *Kondapilli*, being the country between the Kriṣṇa and the town of E'lúr and the Kolar lake. *E'lúr*, the next Sarkár, lay between Kondapilli and the S. branch of the Godávarí. Thence *Rájamahéndri* extended N. to the river Sattiveram, which enters the sea at Kákináda (Cocanada). The rest of the present Collectorate of Rájamahéndri, and the whole of Viṣhákpatanam and Ganjám, were included in the large Sarkár of *Shrikákolam*, the ancient name of which was Kaling, whence Kalingapatanam. There was also a distinct government called the Machlípatanam *Havelí*, extending from Mutapilli to Point Gudewaré. Machlípatanam was looked upon as the chief fortress in the N. Sarkárs. In 1750 it was made over to the French by Muẓaffar Jang on his becoming Súbahdár of the Dakhan; and his successor, Šalábat Jang, added to this grant the whole of the N. Sarkárs. M. Bussy was appointed Governor on the part of the French; and in 1757 he reduced several refractory chiefs, and expelled the English from their possessions in the province, and took their garrison at Viṣhákpatanam prisoners of war. Soon after Bussy was called to Madras to assist M. Lally in the siege of that place; and the native Governor he left to act for him, Anandráz Gajapati, made overtures to the English. Clive detached Col. Forde to co-operate with him, who completely defeated Confians, the successor of Bussy, at Peddapur. In this battle the English had 470 Europeans and 1,900 Sipáhís, with about 5,000 auxiliaries under Anan Iráz, who were of little use. Confians had 500 Europeans, 500 horse, and 6000 Sipáhís. He lost 30 pieces of cannon, his camp with all its equipage, and 18 officers and 170 Europeans killed, wounded, or prisoners, besides Sipáhís. Next year Forde stormed the fortress of Machlípatanam, and made prisoners of a force which exceeded his own in number. Upon this a treaty was concluded with Šalábat Jang, Súbahdár of the Dakhan, by which Machlípatanam and the territory dependent on it, about 8 miles long and 20 broad, was ceded to the English, and the expulsion of the French was agreed to. In 1762, Nizám 'Alí, who had superseded his brother Šalábat Jang, offered the Sarkárs, except Guntúr, the fief of Basálat Jang, to the English on condition of their aiding him with troops; but the offer was declined. Three years afterwards Clive obtained a grant of the Sarkárs from the King of Delhi; and on the 12th Nov., 1766, the Nizám signed a treaty at Haidarábád agreeing to this grant. The Company did not, however, take possession of their new provinces till 1769, and it was not till 1778 that they assumed charge of Guntúr, having then obtained a lease of it from Basálat Jang. (See C. Division, *Preliminary Information*).

The most interesting castes peculiar to the N. Sarkárs are the *Rátsas* and *Velamas*. The *Rátsas* are the Rájputs of the south, and possess all the high sense of honour of that chivalrous people. Ignorance of their prejudices, or a rude way of dealing with them, has more than once led to fatal results. *Rátsas* have stabbed themselves in our courts of law when an attempt has been made to deprive them of their weapons; and others, when cited to appear before our judges, have

destroyed themselves and their whole families. Orme (vol. ii. p. 258) records a remarkable instance of the unyielding courage of these men in the defence of Bobilli, a fortress in the N.W. part of the Sarkár of Vishákpatanam (lat 18° 35', long. 83° 25'). The chieftain of this place, Rangarao, was at feud with Vijaya Rám Ráz, the deputy of M. Bussy, who was persuaded to attack the fortress, situate in an almost impenetrable forest. The French troops, after penetrating through the jungle with much difficulty and some loss, stormed the fort on the 24th of Jan., 1757. While the action was at its height, a select band of Rátsas put all their women and children to death, and then returned to die upon the walls without giving or receiving quarter. Of the whole clan but 6 men survived, the tutor of Rangarao's son, who preserved the young chieftain contrary to his father's commands, and 4 warriors, who pledged themselves to slay Vijaya Rám, the originator of the war. On the third night after the storm two of these men penetrated into Vijaya Rám's tent, and stabbed him to death, inflicting 32 wounds on his body. They then calmly awaited their fate, exclaiming to their assailants, "Look here! we are satisfied!" Had they failed, the attempt would have been renewed by their two remaining comrades.

The Velamas are likewise chieftains, and resemble the Rátsas in their pride and war-like spirit. They are said, however, by Campbell to be Shúdras.

Many of the principal Zamindárs are descended from the family of the Rájás of Jagannáth in Orissa, who, some centuries ago, conquered the ancient Sarkár of Shrikákolam. They still maintain large bodies of armed retainers. The principal Zamindárs in Ganjám are those of *Parlah Kímédi*, *Pedda Kímédi*, or *Vijayanagar*, and *Chinna Kímédi*, or *Pratápgadi*. The town of Parlah Kímédi is in lat. 18° 50', long. 84° 10'. In 1829 the country was attached on account of its disturbed state; and in 1833 troops were employed to put down the refractory, among whom was a clan of highlanders, whose chiefs were called Bisais. The peshkash, or tribute, paid by the Zamindár is 82,529 rs. per annum. The Zamindár claims descent from the royal families of Orissa.

Pedda Kímédi lies due N. of Parlah Kímédi. The Rájá, or Zamindár, whose family formerly lived at Vijayanagar, now resides at Digapudi. The peshkash is 23,000 rs. per annum, Pratápgadi is the most N. of the three Kímédís. The Rájá lives at Pudamari, and pays 20,000 rs. per annum. The large Zamindári of Gumsúr, lying between 29° 40' and 20° 20' N. lat., and 80° 10' and 85° 5' E. long., was entered by our troops in 1835, in consequence of the Rájá having refused to pay his arrears of tribute. An army of 7000 men was employed under the direction of Mr. Russell, and in two campaigns succeeded in penetrating all the passes, and reducing the country. It was at this time that the town and cantonment of Russell-Konda (Russell-hill), called from the Commissioner, was founded, in lat. 20°, long. 84° 40', 50 miles N.E. of the town of Ganjám, and 6 N.N.W. of the fort of Gumsúr. This station is about 150 feet above the level of the sea; but within a short distance are the Gháts, from 500 to 2000 feet high, thickly clothed with jungle. Gumsúr may be divided into two tracts, Upper and Lower Gumsúr. Lower Gumsúr is overspread with thick jungle full of poisonous malaria; and here our troops, in the campaigns of 1835-36, suffered greatly from fever. The Upper country is more open, and is comparatively healthy. The *Khonds*, a wild people who inhabit Gumsúr, had for ages been addicted to the barbarous custom of female infanticide and human sacrifices. It was usual to kidnap or purchase children of both sexes, and feed them up as richly as the resources of the inhabitants would allow, indulging them at the same time in all their wishes, until the day of offering the *Meria*, or sacrifice, arrived. A solemn convocation was then held, and the victim was led with music and rejoicings to be butchered. The sacrifice was supposed to obtain good crops and other blessings for the offerers. By the well-sustained efforts of the English Government, this horrible custom, as well as that of infanticide, have been suppressed (see *Journal of Royal Asiatic Society*, vol.

xiii., art. xii., by Capt. Macpherson). About ten miles S. of Gumsúr, is the small town and Zamindári of Aska, which yields 4700 rs. The sugar factories of Messrs. Binny and Co., which are close to the town, are worked by steam, and are fitted with machinery of the best and most modern description.

In the Collectorate of Vishákapatanam there is the great *Zamindári of Vijayanagaram*, which pays 6 lacs of rupees, or £60,000, a-year to Government. This Zamindári, one of the largest in India, is divided into 11 Táluks, and has a population of 561,748. The present Zamindár, Vijaya Rám Gajapati Ráz is 30 years of age, and has just assumed charge of his country, which, at his own request, was placed for 3 years after his accession, under an English Superintendent. He is the representative of that Vijaya Rám who induced M. Bussy to destroy the Chief of Bobilli, and who in 1712 erected the present fort of Vijayanagaram. On his assassination he was succeeded by his nephew, Ananda, who aided Col. Forde in the siege of Machlipatanam, in 1759, and died shortly afterwards at Baizwáda, on his way to obtain the recognition of his title from the Nizám. The names of the Táluks in this Zamindári are as follows:—

Táluks.	No. of Villages.	Chief Town.	Population.
1. Vijayanagaram	213	Vijayanagaram	95,985
2. Gudiváda (E. of Vijayanagaram)	180	Venkatapur	65,553
3. Bonanghi (W. of ditto)	98	Kóttiam	48,410
4. Kumáram (N. of ditto)	319	Chípupuralli	91,520
5. Gajapatinagaram (ditto)	167	Gajapatinagaram	46,301
6. Pádagádi (S.E. of ditto)	226	Padagádi	67,656
7. Vápáda (S.W. of ditto)	90	Lákavárapukóta	34,029
8. Alamanda (S. of Vápáda)	48	Gávárávasam	31,223
9. Chodáránen (S. of Alamanda)	123	Chodáránen	40,684
10. Nellimuku (S. of Vishákapatanam)	84	Nadpur	20,980
11. Shríkurmam (N. of Shríkákólam)	53	Shríkurmam	15,547

This Zamindári is bounded to the W. by the Káshipur Hills, which rise to the height of 3000 feet. In this range excellent plumbago is found, and other minerals.

There are no Zamindáris deserving particular notice in the Collectirates of Rájamahéndri or Machlipatanam.

## ROUTE 15.

MADRAS TO GANJÁM.

673 M. 4 P.

For the particulars of this Route as far as the Kṛiṣṇa river, see Route 10. Thence proceed as follows:—

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer commanding Northern Division—*Walter*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—From Baizwára, or Baizwáda, to Yernagudiam: Collector of Machlipatanam—*Machlipatanam*. Thence to Tuní: Collector of Rájamahéndri—*Rájamahéndri*. Thence to Shríkáólak: Collector of Vishákpatanam—*Vishákpatanam*. Thence to Ganjám: Collector of Ganjám—*Ganjám*.

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. P.	M. P.
(a) BAIZWÁDA, <i>δ. t. o.</i>	271 4	271 4
Machaveram .....	2 6	
Rámavaráhupádu .....	2 3	
Yánikapádu .....	1 6	
Nedumanáru .....	0 7	
× Bodaman Channel to Kasarapalli .....	4 1	
GANNAVARAM, <i>δ. t. o.</i>	2 0	13 7
Átukúr .....	4 4	
Ampapuram .....	3 3	
Viraválli .....	2 0	
Narsanapálam .....	1 7	
RAMACHANDRA APPARAOPEṬ, <i>δ.</i>	2 3	14 1
× Rámileru <i>n.</i> to Bomulár .....	1 7	
Kálámáruvu .....	1 4	
× 4 <i>n.</i> to Tamelér, <i>r.</i> .....	5 3½	
Élúrpét, enter .....	0 7½	
( <i>δ</i> ) ÉLUR ends, <i>δ. t. o.</i>	1 3	11 1
× Tamelér <i>r.</i> to Pálgudiam .....	2 2	
Dandalúr .....	2 5	
Gundugolovu .....	4 1	
BHIMADOL, <i>δ.</i> .....	3 7	12 7
Gopálpuram .....	3 1	
Náráyanpuram .....	1 2	
Ghantavárigudiam .....	3 5	
Dubachéría .....	0 5	
NALLACHE'RLÁ, <i>δ.</i>	4 1	12 6
Achanapálliam .....	1 6	
Anantapalli .....	1 5	
× Yerrakalva, <i>r.</i> .....	0 2	
× <i>n.</i> .....	0 6	
YERNAGUDIAM, <i>δ. t. o.</i>	3 6	8 1
Kṛiṣṇampálam .....	1 6	

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. P.	M. P.
Daivarapalli .....	2 4	
Bandapádu .....	1 5	
Dudukúr .....	1 0	
Gauripatnam .....	1 6	
PEDDAPANGEDI, <i>δ.</i>	2 5	11 2
× a channel .....	0 6	
Domairu .....	1 6	
Kauúr .....	3 1	
Godávari <i>r. r. δ.</i> .....	1 0½	
Ditto, <i>t. δ.</i> .....	2 1½	
(c) RAJAMAHE'NDRI, <i>δ. t. o.</i> (Fort) .....	1 2	10 1
Divánjichervu .....	5 1½	
Viranáthnipandal .....	2 3½	
× <i>r.</i> to RAJANAGARAM, <i>δ. t. o.</i> .....	2 4½	10 1½
Gonagudem .....	1 3½	
Murári .....	2 2	
Gandapalli .....	2 2	
Mallapalli .....	2 7	
Tálúru .....	2 3	
JAGAMAPET, <i>δ. t. o.</i>	2 3	13 4½
Rámaveram .....	1 6	
Somaveram .....	2 6	
× Yaleru <i>r.</i> to Yeravaram .....	0 2	
Govindapuram .....	3 3	
Pattipádu .....	1 7	
DHARMAVERAM, <i>δ.</i>	2 2	12 2
Chendúri .....	4 2	
Robertsonpéta .....	0 4	
Kattipundi .....	2 5	
Tamyapéta .....	3 2	
Bendapudi .....	1 2	
ARAMPUDI ANNAVERAM, <i>δ.</i> .....	2 1	14 0
× 3 <i>n.</i> to Tátagunta ...	3 6	
× 4 <i>n.</i> to TUNÍ, <i>δ. t. o.</i>	7 4	11 2
× Tondava <i>r.</i> to Paikaraopéta, <i>t. o.</i> .....	0 4	
Nauvaram .....	3 1	
Kodechirla .....	2 0	
Udantapuram .....	1 2	
Kaité .....	2 7	
NAKKAPALLI, <i>δ.</i> ...	2 3	12 1
Tinmasapuram .....	2 6	
Gokalapádu .....	1 4	
Penugol .....	1 3	
× Pandayáru, <i>r.</i> .....	0 1	
Pulaparti .....	1 3	
Rangapálliam .....	3 0	
YELLAMANCHILLI <i>δ.</i>	3 4	13 5
× <i>n.</i> to Narsanapalli ...	4 3	

PLACES.	STAGES.		PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.		M. F.	M. F.
× large <i>n.</i> to Tallapá- liam.....	1	7	A Masjid and Tank ...	3	7
Unkniálliam.....	1	1	Agraháram.....	1	4
Puyawáram.....	3	0	× <i>n.</i> to GARRAH.....	3	4
KÁSINKO'T, <i>b. t. o.</i> ...	1	4	Konf.....	0	7
× Sarada, <i>r.</i> .....	2	6	( <i>f</i> ) Kalingapatnam.....	2	3
Ankapalli (Fort).....	1	1	× Vangśédhára, <i>r.</i> .....	0	6
Marripálliam.....	6	0	Govindapuram.....	0	2
Jangalpálliam.....	0	6	Nandigáon.....	1	2
Askapalli.....	3	0	Dandulachmipuram ...	3	2
SUBHARAM, <i>b.</i> .....	1	6	PERIA AGRAHARAM	0	1
× large <i>n.</i> ....	1	4	Vánistapuram.....	3	2
Kulupalli.....	1	7	Bhorbhadra.....	3	0
Santapálliam.....	2	1	× <i>n.</i> to Wutebhára.....	1	4
× 2 <i>n.</i> to KO'TAWAL- SA, <i>b.</i> .....	3	1	Antulaveram.....	1	2
Sungaripálliam.....	4	0	× 2 <i>n.</i> to GOPALPURAM		
Kandagupalli.....	0	6	<i>b. t. o.</i> ....	2	6
Kátikapalli.....	1	0	Tálagáon.....	3	4½
Nerikattu.....	1	0	Chinnarogandlapalli ...	1	3½
ALAMANDA, <i>t. o.</i> .....	2	2	Lingalapádu.....	1	1
× <i>n.</i> ....	1	0½	× 2 <i>n.</i> to Daiváda.....	3	1
Kodikammo.....	0	6½	PANTA TEKELLI, <i>b.</i>	1	5
Chinnapálliam.....	2	0	Govindapuram.....	1	6
× <i>n.</i> to Bhámsinghi, <i>b.</i>	1	5	Murlapádu.....	0	7
× Krostang, <i>r.</i> .....	0	5½	× <i>n.</i> to Kóvité Agrah- áram.....	2	2
× 2 <i>n.</i> to Saraki.....	5	0½	× 3 <i>n.</i> to Cross Road...	2	0
( <i>d</i> ) VIJAYANAGARAM			× 2 <i>n.</i> to Chinna Pádám	0	7
(Fort), <i>b. t. o.</i> .....	4	1	KASIBUGA, <i>b.</i> .....	1	3
Dasanapéta.....	1	0	Padmanapuram.....	1	2
× 3 <i>n.</i> to Peddatádiváda	1	7	× <i>n.</i> to Makkárájola...	5	1½
Chinnatádiváda.....	1	2	Páligáon.....	2	1½
Bhogapuram.....	4	0½	Haripuram, <i>b.</i> .....	0	2
× Konáda, <i>r.</i> .....	3	4	× <i>n.</i> to AMBUGAON .	1	4½
KONADA, <i>b. t. o.</i> .....	0	5½	Parterunipalli.....	1	6½
× <i>n.</i> to Yelladúr.....	1	2	× <i>n.</i> to Mahéndratanya <i>r.</i> and Shásanam on the left.....	0	6
× 3 <i>n.</i> to Chinnapá- váda.....	3	5	× <i>n.</i> to Hukmpéta.....	2	0½
Karpuchintapalli.....	1	4	× 2 <i>n.</i> to BHURGAON	2	6½
× Yeddalgáda, <i>r.</i> .....	1	6	Kancherlagudiam, <i>b.</i> ...	2	4
× <i>n.</i> to Takelli.....	2	6	Jádupudi.....	3	4½
KO'TAPALLIAM, <i>b.</i> ...	2	5	Jam'adárputi.....	2	2½
Sundarapálliam.....	2	7	× <i>n.</i> to Savaradaivupéta	3	4
Kálikosakalla.....	1	0	× 3 <i>n.</i> and Lotabuti, <i>r.</i>	1	4½
× <i>n.</i> to Kótapéta.....	0	5	( <i>g</i> ) ICHCHHAPUR, <i>b. t. o.</i>	1	1½
× <i>n.</i> to Kupelli, <i>b. t. o.</i> ...	1	5	Suváni.....	3	3
× 2 <i>n.</i> to Mutáda.....	5	6	Jatipadra.....	1	7
× Nágulu, <i>r.</i> .....	4	1	Chimmeripalli.....	1	3
( <i>e</i> ) SHRIKAKOLAM,			Jagannáthapuram.....	0	7
(Chicaole), Place of			MONTREDDI.....	0	7
Arms, <i>t. o.</i> .....	0	3	Pannapalli.....	2	2
Arasalli.....	1	5	Indrarájápuram.....	0	7
Upakki.....	2	0	Tirthapuram.....	2	2½

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.
× Salt-water Inlet.....	1 0½	
Bokaspalli .....	2 7½	
Gopálpuram .....	1 3	
× r. to MANSURKÓTA	1 5½	12 4
Konamanna .....	4 4	
Partachattapuram .....	1 6	
Chhatrapur, t. o. ....	1 6½	
Rīshikulia, r. r. b. ....	3 0	
" l. b. ....	0 3½	
(A) GANJAM(enter), t. o.	0 2	11 6

673 4

(a) *Baizwáda*.—The *Kṛiṣṇa* river, where the great north road crosses it at Baizwáda, is 1160 yds. broad, and its velocity 5 m. an hour. It is said to discharge more water in *one hour* than the Clyde at Glasgow in one year. The river begins to rise in June, and freshes continue till the end of October. After this the stream gradually subsides, but is not fordable till about the end of January. When the rise attains the height of 22 ft., the water enters the ducts for irrigation; when it reaches 32 ft. the banks are overflowed. In 1851-52-53 it rose to 35 ft., and caused some damage. At Baizwáda there are three large ferry boats belonging to natives, and some others are obtainable from other ferries when required for the passage of troops. Government has sanctioned the outlay of £20,000 for a timber bridge, the stanchions of which are to be imbedded in the masonry of the Anakatt. This work is now under construction with teak obtained from Pegu. The banks of the river are plentifully clothed with the *Babúl* tree, the *Mimosa Arabica*, which yields a quantity of valuable gum, the collection of which gives employment to many persons. This gum is used by cloth painters, toy-makers, paper fitters, and others. The seeds of the *Babúl* are used by the peasants for feeding their cattle during the dry season.

The *Kṛiṣṇa* is one of the principal rivers in India. Rising in the W. Gháts at Mahábaleshwar in lat. 18° 1' long. 73° 41' on the E. brow of the Gháts, 4,500 ft. above the sea, it flows almost due E. into the bay of Bengal, bisect-

ing, as it were, the Dakhan. It does not divide till within 23 m. of the sea, and the Delta it forms is insignificant. Its whole course is not less than 800 m., but, unhappily, from the rockiness of its channel, and the rapidity of the slope, it is useless for purposes of navigation; being, indeed, crossed for the most part only with wicker vessels lined with hides. At the same time the great height of its banks (which average from 30 to 50 ft.) prevents its being made available for irrigation. However, after it emerges from the E. Gháts at Baizwáda and Sítánagaram, several canals have been carried from its banks, and on the rise of the river in June these are filled. The principal canal is the Tungabhadra, excavated in 1842, by which the Sandol, Kammanúr, Bápétla, and other tanks are supplied. The Velatúr canal feeds the important tank of Allúr.

But the great work which spreads the fertilizing waters of the *Kṛiṣṇa* over the adjacent lands in both the Guntúr and Machlipatanam provinces is the gigantic *Anakatt*, or embankment, now carried across the river from Sítánagaram in Guntúr to Baizwáda on the opposite shore. This Anakatt supplies water to a million acres. It is situate close to the Great N. road, where two lofty hills, one on either bank, reduce the river's breadth from 2,000 to 1,350 yds. The velocity of the river is augmented by its being thus narrowed, and hence additional strength is required in the Anakatt, which consists of a wall 19 ft. high above the deep bed, and resting on wells of masonry from 7 to 8 ft. deep. This wall is 10 ft. broad at bottom, and 4 at top. It is supported in rear by a backing or apron of loose stone extending to more than 90 yards in breadth, with a second retaining wall or revetment also based on wells. The first part of this is covered with rubble masonry and hewn stone carried to a level with the top of the wall, so as to form a flat breadth of 20 ft. This cut stone is continued in an inverted curve 30 ft. further, after which the loose stone commences, and slopes down gradually to the sandy bed of the river.

At each end of the Anakatt is a large sluice, with 16 vents to keep the bed of the river clear of deposits, in front of the head sluices of the great canals. At each head sluice there is a lock to pass boats between the river and the canal, with a chamber 50 yds. long and 20 ft. wide.

Length of the Anakatt, or dam, is	3750 ft.
Two under sluices at E. and W. extremities (each, between the abutments) .....	132 "
Two head ditto (ditto) .....	132 "
Two locks on E. and W. canals (each, between the gates).....	150 "
Depth of foundation walls .....	7-8 "
Height of wall .....	19 "
Breadth of do. at crown .....	20 "
Do. curved slope.....	50 "
„ first part of loose stone ...	50 "
„ second „ „ „ .....	180 "
Crown of Anakatt, above summer level .....	14 "
Head sluice, flows above ditto...	9½ "
Under „ „ at Sitánagaram	6 "
„ „ Baizwáda .....	6½ "
Summer level above deep bed...	5 "
Deep bed above high water mark, at Machlipatanam.....	23 "

The cost of the work, which was finished in 1855, is estimated at about £78,000, exclusive of the irrigating canals, which will be all navigable. Up to the present time rice in large quantities has been imported into the collectorate of Machlipatanam from Bengál, but the *Anakatt* will probably supply water enough to enable the inhabitants to grow this important article for their own consumption, and even admit of considerable export.

Another work of great utility, would be a canal to join the Kṛishṇa and Godávari rivers. This work is, indeed, already in progress, by a high level channel from the Godávari to Élúr, where it will be locked into the high level channel from the Kṛishṇa, the waters of which have an elevation of 8' above those of the Godávari. A glance at the map will show the facility with which such a work might be accomplished. The Kolár lake, which, during the rains, covers upwards of 100 sq. m.,

lies directly between Baizwáda and Rájamahéndri, on the Godávari; and into this lake the river Budwár (which passes within a mile or two of Baizwáda) flows. It must be noted, however, that the Kolár lake will be greatly reduced in area by drainage and embankment. Already some thousands of acres have been reclaimed, and are bearing heavy crops of rice.

Baizwáda itself is a large and rapidly-improving place. A great festival is held here on the banks of the Kṛishṇa, about February, in honor of Shiva. At that time sin is supposed to be removed by bathing at certain famous spots; for the river is held to be most sacred. There are two other festivals, one at Kallapilli in honor of the same God, and another six weeks later in honor of Viṣṇu, celebrated at Shrkákalam, between Kallapilli and Baizwáda. In the hills close to Baizwáda there is good bear shooting; and tigers, hog, and bison are to be met with.

(b) *Élúr*, called *Upper Élúr*, is a very populous town, and has been occasionally the station of a native regiment. At present the cantonment is occupied only by a detachment, or by recruiting parties. The *Tammeler*, a small shallow river, the bed of which is dry during the greater part of the year, divides the town into two parts. On the right bank are the remains of an old fort, distant 1½ miles N.E. from the barracks. The officers' houses are on the opposite side, 1 m. W. of the barracks. The lines are well situated, dry and commodious, and the houses of the town are of a better description than is usually seen. In the great Kolár lake, which is close to the town, there is abundance of fish, and wild fowl may be shot *ad libitum*.

Sixteen miles S.W. of Élúr is the village of *Mallavelli*, one of the 7 places in this province at which *diamonds* are found. The names of the other 6 places are *Partal*, *Alkár*, *Parthenipádu*, *Prattalla*, *Wastapilli* and *Kodavetti Kallu*. The hollow flat, where the diamond pits are, is a low, dry, gravelly plain, but which has the appearance of having once been a lake. Through this plain no stream flows, and the pools, in its

lower part, dry up in March, when the excavation may be commenced, and not before. The pits are in general excavated at the N. end of the bank, that surrounds the hollow. The deepest are not more than 12 ft., and, whatever the depth, a hard mass of rock is never reached. The strata penetrated are—first, a grey, clayey, vegetable mould, about a foot or two thick; below this an alluvium of the following pebbles, rounded by attrition: sandstone, quartz, siliceous iron hornstone, carbonate of iron, felspar, conglomerate sandstone, and a prodigious quantity of concretionary limestone. The diamond is never found imbedded, or in any way attached to any of the pebbles, but always loosely mixed with the other little stones. The detritus, forming the diamond stratum, must have proceeded from the hills to the N., the only hills, in fact, near the place. They are the continuation of the sandstone range, which extends E. from Banganapilli, Kondapilli and Mallavelli, in all of which localities the matrix of the diamond is a conglomerate sandstone.

From E'lúr, a heavy, sandy road leads to *Rájamahéndri*, the next place of importance. The Yerrakalva river in the third stage is for a few days every year unfordable, and must be crossed on rafts, for there are no boats to be had.

(c) *Rájamahéndri*, the capital of the Collectorate of the same name, is a town with a population of about 15,000 persons, of whom about a fourth are bráhmans. The Muḥammadans are few in number, and are comparatively poor. The mosques, however, which are still standing, show that formerly the followers of the Prophet at this place must have been both numerous and wealthy. *Rájamahéndri* is built on the N. bank of the Godávari, in lat.  $16^{\circ} 15'$ , long.  $81^{\circ} 53'$ , on somewhat elevated ground, and consists of one principal street half-a-mile in length, running nearly due N. and S., where is the chief bázár. The houses on each side are generally of mud, one story high, and tiled. Several narrow lanes run E. and W. from the principal street. Those to the W. pro-

ceed to the bank of the river, and consist of mean houses, with here and there large two-storied dwellings belonging to the Zamíndárs of the district, or wealthy bráhmans. The streets on the E. side are more narrow and irregular, and have fewer houses of the respectable classes.

The Fort is N. of the town, and is square, with high round walls and a ditch, now partially filled up. It is usually garrisoned by two companies of the native regiment, stationed at Samarlakóta, a town not far from the sea, and 29 m.  $6\frac{1}{2}$  f. from Rájamahéndri. The barracks, hospital, jail, magazine, and lines of the detachment are in the Fort.

The Rájás of this place are mentioned by Farishta as independent princes, when the Dakhan was invaded by Alláhu'd-dín, A.D. 1295. In 1471, A.D., it was subjected by the Báhmaní sovereigns of the Dakhan.

The Godávari (Skr. *Go*, "water," *d*, "that gives"), which washes the town, is the third river of India in length, its whole course being 898 m., and it is probable that its navigation may soon become of corresponding importance. Its floods rise from 30 to 100 feet above the summer level, and its discharge varies from 200 millions of cub. yds. per hour in extreme floods, to about 300,000 yds. in the hottest weather. It rises in lat.  $19^{\circ} 58'$ , long.  $73^{\circ} 30'$  in the W. Gháts, at an elevation of about 3,000 ft., near *Trimbak Násaak*, in the Collectorate of Ahmadnagar. The place where it is supposed to have its source is considered by the Hindús one of the most sacred in India, and vast crowds of pilgrims throng to it at the time of festivals. After a S.E. course of 100 m., the Godávari reaches the W. frontier of the Nizám's territory at Phultamba, in lat.  $19^{\circ} 48'$ , long.  $74^{\circ} 40'$ , and during the next 90 m. forms the boundary of the Ahmadnagar Collectorate and the country of the Nizám, which latter it enters 10 m. below Manjí, and flows in a winding E. course 160 m. to Lasona, receiving on its way the Dúdhná, a considerable stream. Eighty-five miles further it receives the Manjara, a large river from



the S., and again after 170 m. near the town of Vil Ságar, the Maner. Thence it flows about 20 m. to Káleshwar, in lat. 18° 52', long. 79° 55', where it joins the *Wain Gangá*, there called the *Pránhita*, a very large river, which brings down the great drainage of the S. side of the *Vindhya* mountains. At Kotúr, 170 m. further, the Godávarí crosses the Nizám's frontier into the Collectorate of Rájamahéndri, through a deep chasm in the E. Gháts, with, however, so gradual a slope as to present no difficulties of importance for navigation. At Devipatanam the river emerges from the hills, and passes Rájamahéndri to Dauleshwaram, about 6 m. off, where is the largest Anakatt in India. Here, too, commences the delta of the Godávarí, which divides into two streams, the E. or Gautami, which flows by Nislapilli and the French settlement of Yánám into the sea, 2 miles S. of Korangi (Coringa); and the W. or Vasishtha, which debouches 4 or 5 miles S. of Narsapur. The Vasishtha has also a smaller branch, called the Vainatyen, flowing E. to the sea near Bandamúrlanka.

As the Godávarí, were it navigable above the Gháts, would open up the commerce of the vast provinces of Haidarábád and Nágpur, including the productive cotton fields of Berár, it will be seen at once that there is no question connected with Public Works in India of equal importance with the problem of how to render its navigation practicable. The difficulties have been ably stated by Lieut. Haig, and are as follows. It must be premised, that near Siruncha, the *Wain Gangá*, or *Pránhita*, meets the Godávarí, and that the navigation from thence proceeds N. up the *Wain Gangá*, not W. by the Godávarí, where, indeed, the water is much too shallow in the dry season to admit of vessels passing.\* The course of the river then, to Chanda, a considerable town, favorably situated on the Erái and Jarpatti rivers, which flow into the *Wain*

*Gangá*, and but 80 m. from Nágpur, may be divided into 7 portions:—

	MILES.	AVERAGE RISE. FEET.
1. From Dauleshwaram to <i>Sintral barrier</i> ...	108	10½
2. The <i>Sintral barrier</i> ...	4	
3. From <i>Sintral barrier</i> to <i>Enchané palli</i> .....	76	10½
4. <i>Enchané palli barrier</i>	12	
5. <i>Enchané palli barrier</i> to <i>Dewalamarri</i> .....	100	8½
6. <i>Dewalamarri barrier</i>	40	
7. <i>Dewalamarri barrier</i> to <i>Chánda</i> .....	72	4½
Total.....	412	

1.—At Dauleshwaram, the Anakatt dams back the water more or less above its natural summer level for 10 m. to the village of Komáradavam, where the natural slope of the bed commences and continues to Devipatanam, where the river emerges from the hills. Thence to Koyendé, 30 m., the stream is for the most part pent between hills, which at one place run sheer down to the water's edge, being not more than 250 yards apart. Owing to being thus narrowed, the river is deeper, and has a greater rise and velocity during floods; but for half the year, when the water passing down is only from 400,000 to 1½ millions of cub. yds. per hour, the great depth to which the bed has been excavated in the freshes gives a section, which requires scarcely any fall in this 30 m. to discharge the water. Hence from Devipatanam to Koyendé the water is nearly still, for some months in the year. From Koyendé to Bhadrachélam, about 46 m., the rise in the bed is 63 ft., or at the rate of 1½ ft. per mile. This slope is not, however, uniformly distributed. When the river is low, the shoals of sand which are constantly in motion form bars at intervals, the fall over which is somewhat above the average. This remark applies to every portion of the river bed, when there is no great body of water coming down. Just above the Bhadrachélam the first rocks appear. They extend 4 miles, but are thinly scattered, and may be so easily removed, that a small party of Sappers

\* Siruncha is remarkable as the place near which the late Dr. Bell dug for coal, it is said with success. That it exists there can be no doubt, as black shale is found in great quantities.

cleared a good passage right through, with the expenditure of only 100 lbs. of powder. During floods these rocks are covered, and offer no impediments to boats.

The *Sintral barrier* consists of two separate masses of rock, 1 and 2 m. in length, with a chasm three quarters of a mile long, tolerably free from rock, between them. In the summer, the difference of level between the water immediately above this barrier and that below, is 36 ft. When full the stream passes clean over the whole of the rocks, and, though the current is great, boats can ascend. But in summer the tops of the rocks are uncovered, and the river passes through 2 channels varying from 20 to 30 yds. in width, and from 10 to 20 ft. in depth. The width of the stream when full varies from 600 yds. at the lower end to 1000 yds. at the upper.

3.—In the next 76 m. a few detached rocks occur. A little below Enchané-palli, the second barrier begins. The river turns sharp to the E., and near the village of Talagudim rocks begin, and at Enchané-palli almost shut the stream, the only passage being a narrow winding one, 30 yds. wide and 25 deep, smooth as though hewn by man. Above it the rocks continue, but more thinly, for 4 m., where a narrow ledge, over a low part of which the water falls 2 feet in summer, crosses the river. At the village of Damúr, 5 m. higher, the principal barrier commences. Here a solid mass of rock runs completely across, rising from 18 to 25 ft. above the summer level, the water falling over it in the most picturesque manner. This barrier is a few hundred yds. broad, and then there are no rocks for  $1\frac{1}{2}$  m. to Pankhina, where there is another fall of 6 ft. over a narrow ledge. The difference of level between the water above the rocks at Pankhina and that at Enchané-palli is 50 ft. The rock is mostly slate; the width of the river is from 300 to 500 yds., and the banks are from 60 to 70 ft. high above the summer level.

5.—The third and most formidable barrier, of solid rock, commences 1 m. above the village of Dewalamarri, and extends 40 m. When the stream is

high, that is for 4 months in the year, the total fall being only 142 ft., or  $3\frac{1}{2}$  ft. per m., this barrier is less of an obstacle than the two preceding, but in dry weather it is at present quite impassable to boats. It is proposed to connect the two points of the river above and below this barrier by a canal with locks, and thus avoid this barrier altogether. Owing to the stream taking a great bend precisely at this spot, it is thought that two points, at present 96 m. distant, may be joined by a canal 35 m. long, thus saving 61 m. transit. The estimate for this work, and for passing the other two barriers by means of locks, is £300,000.

The *Great Anakatt* at *Dauleshwaram* crosses the Godávari, where the river is 4 m. wide, but 3 small islands form, as it were, *points d'appui*. The first wall from Dauleshwaram on the E. side, to the island called Pichika Lanka, is 1624 yards long; the second from Pichika Lanka to Ráli Island, is 954 yards; the third to Mahúr Lanka is 516 yds.; and the fourth, to the village of Vijeshwaram, on the W. bank, is 862 yds. long. From the Dauleshwaram, or head sluice, two canals have been cut leading E., the Samarlakóta, and Tulia Bâgha. The latter runs 30 m. to Kákínáda, on the sea coast, and the traffic upon it is very considerable. Besides these there are the Ráli canal, watering the Delta proper; the Gannaveram, which irrigates the Nagaram district; and the Palkol, Kakarparru, Venkia, Nakkala, and Yelemanchilli canals, which water the W. districts and part of Machlipatanam. The cost of the Great Anakatt was about £95,000, and that of the canals for traffic and for irrigation, £150,000. Besides these artificial ducts there are in the Delta the Tulia, Waiyáru, and Gosta Nadí rivers, of which the two first have been furnished with locks and embankments. The Waiyáru, with the aid of the Venkia canal, has been rendered navigable to within 18 m. of the town of Machlipatanam, and boats can pass from above the Anakatt, by the salt river, which debouches between Chinna Golapálam, and Samarladeví to the sea.

The native population of Daulesh-

waram is about 4,000. The head quarters of the Civil Engineer's division are there, the officers' houses being on a rocky hill, about a mile from the river. A steam engine is constantly employed at the Government Workshop and Foundry, and a great number of men are engaged at the Quarry and other neighbouring works, so that with the steamers on the river incessantly plying to and fro, a scene is daily exhibited which realizes somewhat of the bustle of our Western marts. Between Dauleshwaram and Rājamahēndri is the sugar factory of Arbuthnot and Co., which has been established some years, and contributes much to the prosperity of the district. The expenditure at this factory is said to be between £40,000 and 50,000 a year.

The cloths made at Rājamahēndri were once in high repute in the English market; and napkins, table cloths, and drills are still largely manufactured. Fine muslins are made at Upāda, near Kākināda.

The lively authoress of the "Letters from Madras" (p. 42), describes Rājamahēndri as "a most lovely spot, on the banks of a magnificent river, with fine hills in the distance." The Godāvāri is, indeed, a noble stream at this place, being nearly 2 miles wide, and the passage of it was a business of time until lately, when a steam ferry was established, conducted by a joint-stock company, of which the members are chiefly natives. The hills teem with game of the nobler kind, such as tigers, bears, wild hogs, and leopards. Antelopes, spotted deer, and elk, are numerous in the plains, and bison are occasionally found. Florican, and all sorts of wild fowl are in inexhaustible abundance—as are hares, pigeons, and peacocks. On the other hand, the heat is intense during the dry weather, and the plague of snakes, centipedes, flying bugs, and a thousand other reptile and insect torments is so great as to mar what would otherwise be the Sportsman's Paradise.

The road is excellent as far as Tūnī, after which it is not so good, and in the rains it is excessively heavy and bad.

(d) *Vijayanagaram* is the capital of a Zamīndāri of great extent, which has been already noticed (see *Prely. Inf.*) It is 12 miles from the sea, situate on ground sloping gently to the N. The climate is so salubrious from September to March, that the Europeans at Vishākpatanam resort hither for change. In the adjacent hills, however, a spur of the Ghāts, which come down to within 6 miles of Vijayanagaram, fever is endemic. Vijayanagaram is the station of a native corps, and a detachment of foot artillery. A large tank divides the cantonment from the town. A church which holds 150 persons has been erected, and is visited by the Chaplain of Vishākpatanam once in 3 months. A square stone fort, with 4 enormous round bastions, incloses the Rājā's palace, which has an open square in the centre, an arcaded hall of audience, and fountains. The town, which has a population of 15,000 persons, exclusive of the garrison, is connected with the seaport of *Bhimani-patanam* (or *Bimlipatanam*), by an excellent road. The country around is very rich, and it is altogether a thriving place. *It is remarkable that the cholera has never been epidemic in this cantonment.*

From Vijayanagaram the road turns almost at a right angle down to the sea coast, the next station, *Konāda*, being a seaport. At *Kōtapālliam* the water is brackish, and rather insufficient.

(e) *Shrīkākōlam* (*Chicacole*) is the chief civil station in the Collectorate of Ganjām. The judge and sub-collector reside there. It is about 4 miles from the sea on the N. bank of the river Nāgula, which rises in the mountains of Gondwāna, near Polkonda, and over which a bridge of masonry has been completed. The population is said to be 50,000 by some authorities (*Statistical Report*, Madras, 1844), but according to the census of 1851, it appears to have been then only 12,800, of which 1,287 were Muḥammadans. There are also about 150 native Christians. Shrīkākōlam was anciently the capital of a Hindū kingdom, and subsequently of a Sarkār or province, but there are no remains of its greatness. There is, how-

ever, a mosque of some sanctity, built by Shekh Muḥammad Khān, A. H., 1051. The town is ill-built and straggling. Owing to the flatness of the surrounding country, the streets are frequently almost impassable after rain. To secure dry flooring, the houses are all raised from 2 to 4 ft. from the ground. There are several very large tanks about 5 or 6 miles off, covered with rank vegetation, and in the dry season these are productive of malaria. In the bed of the river are a number of granite rocks. A large one about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  mile S.E. of the town is called the Black Rock, between which and the town were formerly the palaces and gardens of the Nūwābs of Shrikākōlam. A detachment from the native corps stationed at Burhānpur, or Russellkōnda, garrisons Shrikākōlam. The barracks, hospital, magazines, and residences of the officers, as well as the post-office, treasury, and office of the assistant-collector, are all within the precincts of an old mud fort, to the N. of the town, which is in such a ruinous condition that its walls are hardly to be traced. The court-house and jail are near the river, about half-a-mile from the cantonment. A beautifully fine muslin is made at Shrikākōlam, similar to that of Dhāka (Dacca).

(f) *Kalingapatnam* (Kalinga city), in the name of which the ancient appellation of the whole province of Ganjām is preserved, is a seaport on the S. bank of the *Vangśédhāra* or *Vanshadāra* river, which is 1,180 yards broad, with a sandy bed. Under Muḥammadan rule it was a place of much trade, as is testified by the remains of a large town, with numerous mosques and burial places. It is now recovering its importance as a harbour, being, except Karanga (Coringa), the safest place to anchor in, during the S.E. monsoon, on the whole coast. The *Garra* hill, near the station of that name, is a good sailing mark for vessels bound to this port.

There is nothing to be noticed respecting the stations between *Kalingapatnam* and *Ichchhāpur*, except that excellent fish, particularly oysters and whiting, are procurable at some of them. The traveller therefore may note the tide,

and give strict injunctions for a fish repast. Water is scarce and bad at *Ambugrām*, and bad and muddy at *Burgrām*. The small well in the village is brackish.

(g) *Ichchhāpur* ("Wish-town") has a large native population, and is the station of a Ṣadr Amin. Hence there is another road to Ganjām, as follows:—Burhānpur, 16 m.; Chhatrapur, 14 m. 3 f.; Ganjām, 4 m. 5 f. Total from Madras to Ganjām, 675 m. 5 f. *Burhānpur* (Berhampore) is the chief military station in the collectorate of Ganjām, having been selected for that purpose 41 years ago, when Ganjām was abandoned in consequence of a dreadful fever which raged there. Burhānpur stands on a rocky ridge surrounded by a well-cultivated plain, which is bounded on the W. and N. by a range of hills, at from 8 to 10 m. distance, and is open to the S. and E. The W. hills are high, and covered with jungle to their very summits, where are great numbers of bears, leopards, and chitās, as well as hyænas, tiger cats, jackals and hares.

The native town, which has a population of 20,000, lies near the N. side of the cantonment. It is famous for its silk manufacture. A macadamized road to Russellkōnda is under construction. It is to cost £14,224. The cantonment is properly called *Baupur*, to distinguish it from the town.

The town of *Askā*, which is but 24 m. 1 f. distant from Burhānpur is worthy of a visit, in order to see the flourishing sugar factory of Messrs. Baring and Co. All the latest improvements in machinery have been introduced from England, and, by its operations, this factory circulates no less a sum than £50,000 per annum in the district.

*Chhatrapur* is the place where the Collector resides.

The two stations between *Ichchhāpur* and Ganjām require no particular notice. *Mansūrkhōta* is a very large and flourishing village.

(A) *Ganjām*, in lat. 19° 23', long 85° 7', was deserted in 1815, both as a military and civil station, in consequence of a fever, which in 8 weeks carried off

700 persons. The public buildings and the houses and gardens of the civilians were on a scale of grandeur, surpassing all others in the Madras Presidency. The principal arm of the Rishikulia river is about one-third of a mile broad, and, though fordable at most seasons, is at all times difficult for cattle and carts. Another more narrow but deeper branch is crossed by a wooden bridge.

The Route hence to Calcutta is as follows:—

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.
Pryági, <i>t. o.</i> .....	11 7	
Maulod.....	9 2	
Míthakúá.....	12 2	
Mánikapatnam .....	10 1	
Narsingapatnam .....	12 3	
JAGANNATH, or PURI, <i>t. o.</i> .....	7 6	63 5
Amritapur .....	12 0	
Pípalgáon, or Pípalli .....	12 0	
Balibanda, or Balwanta ...	14 1	
KATAK (Cut tack), <i>p. o.</i> ..	11 5	113 3
Tangf .....	10 0	
Chattia.....	6 0	
Sankrádhf .....	11 2	
Kundita .....	7 4	
Akúapadda .....	8 2	

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.
Báripur .....	10 0	
Bhadrak .....	7 6	
Simlia .....	8 2	
Soroh .....	11 2	
Khuntapára, or Nayá Sarái	12 0	
Baleshwar (Balasore) .....	10 6	
Haldípadda .....	8 6	
Bastah .....	7 3	
Jaleshwar (Jellasure) .....	11 4	
Dantun.....	12 4	
Bailda .....	10 0	
Makrampur .....	10 0	
Karakpur.....	9 5	
MIDNAPUR . .....	6 4	292 5
Munibgarh .....	8 0	
Debra .....	8 0	
Right <i>b.</i> of Khatan, or Kossáf <i>r.</i> at Pánchkura Ghát.....	9 0	
Ditto Rupanárayan <i>r.</i> at Koyelá Ghát .....	11 0	
Ditto Damuda <i>r.</i> .....	7 6	
Ulabareah .....	7 5	
Budge Budge .....	5 0	
Calcutta .....	12 0	
Total .....		361 0

# HAIDARÁBÁD.

## *Preliminary Information.*

### I. BOUNDARIES AND GENERAL ASPECT OF THE PROVINCE—SUB-DIVISIONS AND CHIEF TOWNS.—2. HISTORICAL SKETCH—CASTES.

#### 1. BOUNDARIES AND GENERAL ASPECT OF THE PROVINCE.

The large Province of Haidarábád, so called from the capital (Arabic *Haidar*, a proper name, lit. "a lion," and Persian *ábád*, "populated") occupies the whole centre of the Dakhan. Its shape is that of a trapezium, the base or S. side of which, from Hampaságar, in lat.  $15^{\circ} 10'$ , long.  $76^{\circ}$ , on the extreme W. to Malkalgádi, in lat.  $17^{\circ} 49'$ , long.  $81^{\circ} 30'$  on the E., is 420 miles long. The E. side of the province is 390 miles long from Malkalgádi to Mail Ghát, in lat.  $21^{\circ} 40'$ , long.  $77^{\circ} 15'$ ; the N. side 220 miles from Mail Ghát to Phultamba, in lat.  $19^{\circ} 47'$ , long.  $74^{\circ} 40'$ ; and the W. side 330 miles from Phultamba to Hampa Ságar. This province is now, on all sides, surrounded by British territory; on the E. by the lately acquired province of Nágpur, on the N. by the Ságar D.; on the W. by districts belonging to the Bombay Presidency; and on the S. by the Ceded Districts, and part of Guntúr and the N. Sarkárs.

The *general aspect of the province* is that of a vast table land, dotted with occasional hills, but corrugated by very few mountain ranges, and with a general elevation of from 700 to 800 feet above the sea. The hills consist chiefly of dark coloured granite, found in most places in large detached blocks, and in others pervaded by dykes of green stone. The soil between the granitic hills is extremely fertile, and when capable of being irrigated, produces rich crops of rice. In general, the fertility is in inverse ratio to the height above the level of the sea. There are but few forests, and no natural lakes, except the great one of Pákhál, 120 miles N.E. of Haidarábád. Artificial lakes or tanks, however, are very numerous.

The Godávarí river almost bisects the province of Haidarábád, and the Varada (Wurda) bounds it on the N.E., and separates it from Nágpur, until it joins the Wain Gangá. The boundary is then continued by the united rivers, under the name of Pránhita, until they fall into the Godávarí, near Sirunch. After this, the Godávarí may be said to form the E. limit, although a small strip on its E. bank belongs to Haidarábád. In the same manner the Tunga Bhadra forms the S. limit, until it joins the Kṛishṇa, whence that river continues the boundary to the E. Gháts. The drainage of this large country is entirely from W. to E.

The Nizam's territory is divided into four great provinces—Haidarábád, Aurangábád, Elichpur, and Bidar.

The *Sub-divisions and Chief Towns* are as follows:—

Tálas or Districts.	HAIDARÁBÁD.		
	Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Haidarábád.
1 Pángal	Pángal	308	98
2 Idgarh	Idgarh	"	120
3 Ghanpur	Ghanpur	332	64
4 Dawarkonda	Dawarkonda	376	112

Táluks or Districts.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Haidarábád.
5 Nalgunda	Nalgunda	334	64
6 Kammamet	Kammamet	335	160
7 Warangol	Anamkonda	410	112
8 Bongarh	Mutakurúr	374	48
9 Golkonda	Fort Golkonda	395	6
10 Koilkonda	Koilkonda	350	76
11 Malkár	{ Malkár, or Muẓaf-farnagar }	"	88
12 Maidak	Maidak	445	60
13 Kaulás	Kaulás	483	90
14 Elgandal	Elgandal	460	64
15 Malangarh	Aknúr	"	104
16 Rámgarh	Chinnú	490	192

AURANGÁBÁD.

Táluks or Districts.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Haidarábád.
1 Baglána	"	"	"
2 Daulatábád	Daulatábád	706	300
3 Jálnapur	Jálnah	656	240
4 Bhír	Bhír	640	234
5 Fathábád	Fathábád, or Dharúr	597	180
6 Perainda	Perainda	590	200

BIDAR (BEEDER.)

Táluks or Districts.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Haidarábád.
1 Kulbarga (Calberga)	Kulbarga	430	120
2 Naladurga (Naldrug)	Naladurga	561	160
3 Akalkót	Akalkót	"	160
4 Kaliyáni	Kaliyáni	510	100
5 Bidar	{ Bidar, or Muẓammadábád }	469	80
6 Nanchira	"	"	"
7 Pahtarí	Pahtarí	600	212

BERÁR.

Táluks or Districts.	Chief Towns.	Distance from Madras.	Distance from Haidarábád.
1 Baitálbári (Ajayantí)	Songaon	"	300
2 Nernala	Fort Nernala	"	346
3 Gá'algarh (Gáwelghur)	Fort Gáwel	"	360
4 Maikar (Maikher)	Maikar	646	240
5 Wásim (Waussim)	Básim	625	320
6 Mahvar (Mahore)	Mahúr	650	260
7 Kalam (Kullum)	"	"	350

2. HISTORICAL SKETCH—CASTES—EMPLOYMENTS OF THE NATIVES.

The history of the country now ruled by the Nizám is mere conjecture until the year 1292 A.D., 692 A.H. In the most ancient times this region seems to have been divided into two kingdoms, called *Chanderi* and *Vidaróha* (Skr. vi, "not," *daróha*, "the sacred grass, *Poa Cynosuroides*," because a saint is said to have imprecated that no such grass should grow in the land, his son having been killed there by a blade of it), and *Kundinan* or *Kundalpur* was the capital. *Krishna's* first wife is said to have been a daughter of *Bhishmak*, King of *Kun-*

dalpur. Afterwards mention of the realm of Vidarbha is made in the Mahá-bhárat, but from that time to the end of the 13th century its history to us is a blank. The astonishing works, however, of Hindú industry remaining to us in the caves of E'lúr (Ellora) and Ajayantí (Ajunta) show that a considerable population must have existed in these regions in very early times. If it be true, too, that Daulatábád or Kulbarga (as some German writers affirm), is the ancient *Tárapa*, we must believe that 20 centuries ago the Dakhan was but little, if at all, less populous than at present.

In 1292 A.D., or, according to Briggs, in 1294 A.D., Alláhu'd-dín Khiljy, nephew of Jalálu'd-dín Firúz, Emperor of Delhi, and Governor of Mánikpur, in Awadh (Oude), obtained permission to invade the territories of the Hindú Rájás to the W. of his province. With 8000 chosen horse he advanced with rapid marches against Rám Dev, Rájá of the Dakhan; or, more properly, of Devagadh, now Daulatábád. On his way he took and sacked the considerable town of Elichpur. He then defeated the Rájá's son, and compelled the Rájá to purchase his safety with prodigious sums. Flushed with this success, he determined to seize the throne of Delhi, which he effected by the murder of Firúz. After his accession to supreme power, Alláhu'd-dín sent his generals into the Dakhan, and reduced various provinces to subjection. In 1303, he despatched a body of horse to besiege Orankal (Warangol), an expedition attended with indifferent success. In 1306, Malik Káfúr was sent with 100,000 horse to subjugate the Dakhan. The first fruits of this inroad was the capture of the beautiful Princess Dewal Deví, daughter of Rájá Karan Rái, who was subsequently married to Khizr Khán, eldest son of Alláhu'd-dín, and whose loves are sung in a celebrated poem by Amir Khusráu. In 1309, Malik Káfúr took the town of Orankal, but the Rájá purchased his retreat before the fort was stormed.

Two years after, the same general carried his conquests even to the sea, and built a mosque at Ráméshwaram, which some suppose to be Cape Ramas, in Kanara, and not the island opposite Rámnád. In 1321, Alif Khán, the eldest son of the Emperor Ghiyásu'd-dín Tughlak was obliged to retreat from the siege of Orankal, with the loss of nearly all his army. Next year, however, he returned with renewed forces and took Bidar, and afterwards (in 1323) Orankal itself, the name of which he changed to Sulṭánpur, a designation which was soon lost. Orankal had been founded in 1067. The Rájás of Telingána and of the Karnátak revolted. In the same year the city of Vijayanagar was founded, and became the capital of a powerful state. In 1339, Alif Khán, now the Emperor Muḥammad Tughlak, caused the population of Delhi to emigrate to Devgarh, in the Dakhan, which he fortified and adorned, changing its name to Daulatábád. He had before subjugated nearly all the Dakhan; but, in 1343, Bilál Dev, Rájá of the Karnátak, or, according to Wilks, two refugee nobles from Orankal, founded the city of Vijayanagar, on the Tunga Bhadra, and revolting against Tughlak, expelled the Muḥammadans from all their possessions in the Dakhan except Daulatábád.

On the 12th of August, 1347, A.D., Ḥasan, a native of Delhi, who had been surnamed Zafar Khán, ascended the throne of Kulbarga, thence called Aḥsanábád, and was proclaimed the first Muḥammadan king of the Dakhan, by the title of Alláhu'd-din Ḥasan Sháh Gangú Báḥmaní. He had been the servant of a bráḥman astrologer, high in favor with Muḥammad Tughlak; and when Náṣiru'd-dín rebelled against that Emperor, and assumed the title of King at Daulatábád, Ḥasan, who was then called Zafar Khán, greatly distinguished himself in action with the Imperial troops. Afterwards, having defeated and slain 'Imádu'l-Mulk, the Emperor's son-in-law, in a great battle, Náṣiru'd-dín resigned the crown of the Dakhan in his favor. He soon extended his dominions; and, appointing the astrologer Gangú, who had predicted his success, prime minister, reigned with



great wisdom. It is said that Gangú was the first bráhmaṇ who took service under a Muḥammadan Prince.

Muḥammad Sháh, the second king of the Báhmaṇi dynasty, in 1366 defeated Bhoj Mall, the general of Kṛiṣṇa Rái of Vijayanagar in a great battle, in which it is said 70,000 Hindús were slain. From that time the Rájás of Vijayanagar and Telingána paid tribute to him.

In 1378, Maḥmúd Sháh became king; and so great was then the renown of the Báhmaṇi Court, that the celebrated Persian poet Háfiz determined to visit it. He embarked at Ormus, but the vessel encountered a tempest, and the Iranian Horace at once abandoned the voyage, and despatched an ode to Maḥmúd as his apology. It was under this reign, and that of his successor, Fírúz, that the Muḥammadan sovereignty of the Dakhan reached its culminating point. Maḥmúd's reign lasted 20 years, and in all that time he had occasion to unsheath the sword but once either against foreign or internal enemies. At his death, some short troubles ensued for a few months, during which Ghíyáṣu'd-dín and Shamsu'd-dín were crowned and deposed. Fírúz Sháh then mounted the throne in 1397, and obtained great successes over the Rájás of Kehrla and Vijayanagar. In 1401 he sent an embassy to the great conqueror Tímúr Lang (Tamerlane), who conferred on him the sovereignty of Málwah and Gujarát in addition to his former dominions. Fírúz was never able, however, even to attempt the reduction of these kingdoms. On the contrary, the close of his reign was disastrous; his armies were defeated by Dev Rái of Vijayanagar, and he was at last deposed, and it is said strangled by his own brother. Fírúz died in 1422. He was a great patron of astronomy, and in 1407 built an observatory on the summit of the Daulatábád Pass, the ruins of which are still to be seen. In the early part of his reign the Dakhan was wasted by the dreadful famine called Durga Deví, which, commencing in 1396, lasted 12 years, and exceeded everything of the kind of which the Hindús have any record. Aḥmad Sháh, the brother and successor of Fírúz, was a warlike and able monarch. He entered the territory of the Rájá of Vijayanagar, and compelled him to sue for peace. The King of Málwah, Sultán Húshang, having invaded Telingána, Aḥmad Sháh marched to the aid of the Rájá of Orankal, and overthrew Húshang in a great battle. In 1428 he sent his General, Maliku't-tujjár, into the Konkan, who overran that province, and occupied the island of *Mahim* or *Bombay*, then belonging to the King of Gujarát. That monarch despatched his son with an army to encounter the invaders, and a desperate battle took place, in which the brother of Maliku't-tujjár and two other officers of high rank were slain, and the Dakhan army suffered a total defeat. To avenge this disaster, Aḥmad Sháh Báhmaṇi marched towards Gujarát, and fought near the Taptí an indecisive action, which lasted, with great carnage, all day. After this he retired into his own country. In 1432 he finished the fort of Aḥmadábád, at Bidar, and restored that ancient city, which, more than 2000 years before, had been the capital of the Hindú Rájá Bhim Sen, the loves of whose daughter Daman with Rájá Nal of Málwah are sung to this day throughout Hindústán, and were translated from Sanskrit into Persian verse by Faizí at the command of the Emperor Akbar.

In the reign of Alláhu'd-dín Sháh, the son and successor of Aḥmad Sháh, a sanguinary war with Vijayanagar was concluded successfully by the Báhmaṇi King. His General, Maliku't-tujjár, likewise defeated the King of Khandesh, and subjugated the greater part of the Konkan. But, in 1453, he was led with his army by Sirké, a Marátha chief, into a difficult pass, where he, with 500 noble Saiyids of Madinah, and nearly 10,000 men, were slaughtered by the Maráthas, led by the chief of Vishálgarh. Alláhu'd-dín's son, Humáyún Sháh, was only remarkable for his cruelties, whence he was called Zálím, "the tyrant." He caused his brother, Hasan Khán, to be cast to a tiger, which devoured him in his presence; and from a balcony glutted his eyes with watching the tortures of 7000 persons, male and female, who were by his command hewn in pieces, flayed,

boiled in oil, or otherwise destroyed with every refinement of cruelty. In 1461, Nizám Sháh, the son of Humáyún, being but a child, the Rájás of Orissa and Telingána invaded his territories with a great army, but were repulsed. They, however, soon took the field again; and, at the same time, Sulţán Maĥmúd of Málwah entered Nizám Sháh's dominions, and after defeating him in a great battle, occupied the city of Bidar. But the citadel resisted his efforts; and soon after, the King of Gujarát advancing to the aid of Nizám Sháh, Maĥmúd was obliged to retreat through Gondwána, where the greater part of his army miserably perished.

Nizám Sháh died A.D. 1463, exactly two years and one month after his accession to the throne, on the very night of his nuptials with a Princess of his own family; and was succeeded by his next brother, Muĥammad Sháh, who was then in his ninth year. In 1470, his general, Khwájah Maĥmúd Gáwán, took Vishálgarh, and signally avenged the death of Malik'u-t-tujjár. He also reduced other strongholds of the Maráthas, and took the port and island of Goa from the Rájá of Vijayanagar. Next year, another of Muĥammad Sháh's generals, Malik Hasan Bahrí, called Nizámu'l-Mulk, reduced Rájamahéndri and Kondapalli (see Preliminary Information, N.D.) At the same time, Yúsuf 'Adil Khán, Muĥammad's deputy in Berár, made various conquests in that direction. In 1472, Muĥammad himself stormed the fort of Belgám, and annexed the town with all its dependencies to his empire. In 1477, he invaded Orissa, the Rájá of which country had stirred up a revolt in Rájamahéndri, and took the capital, compelling the Rájá to pay tribute. He then remained three years in Rájamahéndri, settling his newly-conquered territories. He likewise invaded the Karnátak, and sacked the city and temples of Conjeveram, where he obtained prodigious spoils; and subjugated the province of Machlípattanam, and several districts bordering upon it. All these triumphs, however, were tarnished and embittered by the slaughter of his faithful general and minister, Maĥmúd Gáwán, whom he caused to be put to death on a false accusation of treachery. From this event may be dated the dissolution of the Báhmaní empire, as Muĥammad Sháh's other great generals made it the pretext for retiring to their respective governments, where they soon rendered themselves independent. Muĥammad had previously (1478 A.D.) divided his dominions into eight provinces, and assigned them as follows:—1. Vijayapur, to Khwájah Gáwán, and at his death to Yúsuf 'Adil Khán. 2. Aĥsanábád, which included Kulbarga, Naladurga, and Sholapur, to the Abyssinian eunuch, Malik Dínár. 3. Daulatábád, to Yúsuf 'Adil Khán, and after him to Malik Hasan Nizámu'l-Mulk. 4. Junír, with the Konkan, to Faĥru'l-Mulk. 5. Telingána, including Rájamahéndri, Machlípattanam, &c., to Nizámu'l-Mulk, who governed these through his son Malik Aĥmad. 6. Orankal, to 'Azim Khán. 7. Gáwel and Berár, to 'Imádu'l-Mulk. 8. Mahúr, to the Abyssinian, Khudáwánd Khán.

Out of these eight principalities arose (after Muĥammad Sháh's death, which took place in 1482) the five kingdoms into which, in the year 1516, when Bábar conquered Delhi, the Dakhan was divided:—1. The 'Adil Sháhi, Kings of Vijayapur. 2. Kuţb Sháhi, Kings of Golkonda. 3. 'Imád Sháhi, Kings of Berár. 4. Nizám Sháhi, Kings of Aĥmadnagar. 5. Barid Sháhi, Kings of Bidar. The last Kings of the Báhmaní dynasty, Maĥmúd Sháh II., Aĥmad Sháh II., Alláhu'd-din II., Walíu'lláh Sháh, and Kalímu'lláh Sháh were mere cyphers in the hands of the great chiefs, who founded the five new kingdoms. (*For the dynasties of these Kings, see "Chronological Tables."*)

After the reduction of the Dakhan by Aurangzib, it was governed by Zu'lĥákar Khán as Viceroy, with Dáúdd Khán as second in command. Kám Bakhsh, the Emperor's youngest son, had Vijayapur, but on his father's decease, he engaged in an absurd contest with his elder brother, Sulţán Mauzúm, and, riding out with a few hundred horse to encounter the whole Mughul army,

was cut to pieces with his followers. In 1765, at Mauzám's death, Mír Kamru'd-dín, whose title was Chain Kulich Khán, was appointed Viceroy, and raised to the still higher title of Nizámu'l-Mulk, or "Regulator of the Realm." He was of Tátár descent, and consequently of the Sunní faith. His ancestor, Bahá'u'd-din Nakshbandi, of Samarkand, founded in the 14th century the order of Nakshbandi darveshes, which still exists in Tátary and Turkey. 'Abid Khán, the grandfather of Nizámu'l-Mulk, was the first of the family who settled in India, and while with Aurangzib's army, was killed by a cannon shot, at the siege of Golkonda, in 1686, falling before the very fortress of which his grandson was to become the sovereign. 'Abid's son, Gháziu'd-din, had been appointed by Aurangzib to act under his son, Kám Bakhsh, but when that prince resolved to oppose his elder brother, he accepted the Súbahdárship of Gujarát.

At this time, Nizámu'l-Mulk remained only a year and a few months at Haidarābād. His government was then changed for that of Málwah; but in 1720, the first year of the reign of the Emperor Muḥammad Sháh, he incurred the suspicion of the two Saiyids, who were then supreme at court. They desired to remove him again, and offered him his choice of Multán, Khandesh, Agra, and Allahábád. To this proposal he returned a haughty reply; and, crossing the Narmadá, soon made himself complete master of the Dakhan. Husain 'Ali Khán, one of the Saiyids, then advanced with a great army to reduce him to obedience, but was assassinated on his march. This was followed by the defeat and death of his brother, Saiyid 'Abdu'lláh, and the Vazirship was then offered to Nizámu'l-Mulk, accepted, and held by him for a short time; but, on some disgust, he withdrew from Delhi, and added to his other possessions in the south, Gujarát and Málwah. Of these, however, he was soon dispossessed. After the retreat of Nádir Sháh from Delhi, Nizámu'l-Mulk obtained the Vazirship for his relation and partizan, Kamru'd-din, and the high post of Amíru'l-'Umará for his eldest son, Gháziu'd-din. He himself returned hastily to the Dakhan to defeat the projects of his second son, Názir Jang, then aiming at independence. Him he defeated near Ahmadnagar; and the Súbahs of Haidarābād, Aurangábád, Elichpur, Bidar, Ahmadnagar, and Vijayapur, were permanently settled under his rule. But though in reality independent, he acknowledged himself in form the delegate of the Emperor, as his descendants have continued to do. Coins at Haidarābād are stamped with the name of the Emperor of Delhi, and his name, not that of the Nizám, is mentioned in the public prayers. The state seal of the Nizám bears on it "servant of the Emperor;" and though he confers titles on his own subjects, he receives his own from Delhi. The government of Nizámu'l-Mulk, though on the whole prosperous, was one continued struggle with the Maráthas, and at times he was reduced to great straits. He died at Burhánpur on the 19th of June, 1740, in his 104th year. This remarkable age was even exceeded by that of one of his officers, Anváru'd-din, Núwáb of the Karnátak, who was killed in his 107th year, in a sanguinary action fought at Ambur, with the French and Chanda Sáháb, about this same time. Nizámu'l-Mulk left six sons, Gháziu'd-din, Názir Jang, Salábat Jang, Nizám 'Ali, Muḥammad Sharif, and Mír Mughul. The eldest being at Delhi, Názir Jang succeeded his father; and on the 5th of December, 1750, was treacherously shot near Arcot, by Muḥammad Khán, the Pathán Núwáb of Kadapa, when on an expedition into the Karnátak. This event was brought about by the intrigues of M. Dupleix. Názir was destitute of his father's prudence, but had many of the qualities which go to form a gallant knight and an accomplished gentleman. The vice-royalty of the Dakhan was now assumed by Hidáyat Máhiu'd-din Khán, grandson of Nizámu'l-Mulk, and better known by his title of Muḡaffar Jang. He was supported by the French under Bussy, but in the end of January, 1751, he too, was slain in action. Šalábat Jang was now elevated to the Nizám-

ship by the French, while the Peshwá supported the elder brother, Gházíu'd-dín. The latter advanced towards the Dakhan with an army which has been computed at 150,000 men, and would, doubtless, have been successful in his aims, but accepting an invitation at Aurangábád, he was poisoned by the mother of Nizám 'Ali. Šalábat Jang was now left in undisputed possession of the Dakhan. In 1756 he appointed his brothers governors of provinces, Nizám 'Ali of Berár, and Basálat Jang of Vijayapur. They soon conspired against him, having the minister Sháh Nawáz Khán and the Maráthas as confederates; but the arrival of Bussy with 200 European cavalry, 500 European infantry, 5000 sipáhis, and 10 field pieces, disconcerted all their schemes. Bussy's Diwán, Haidar Jang, imprisoned Sháh Názáz, and was meditating the imprisonment of Nizám 'Ali also, when he was murdered by the latter, who then fled to Burhánpur. In the tumult that ensued, Sháh Názáz and his son were put to death by Lakshman, a Sábahdár of French Sipáhis, with whom Haidar Jang was very popular. This tragedy took place on the 11th of May, 1757. Bussy was soon after recalled by the peremptory order of Lally, and left Haidarábád at the moment when he might have consolidated the French power in the Dakhan, and, perhaps, changed the destiny of Hindústán. The English now began to court Nizám 'Ali, as his rupture with the French was irreconcilable. This compelled Šalábat Jang to conclude the treaty with Colonel Forde in 1759, by which he ceded Maclipatanam and the adjacent districts to the English. He also restored the office of Diwán to Nizám 'Ali. Next year Ahmadnagar was treacherously given up to the Maráthas by Kawi Jang. This led to an immediate war, in which the Nizám's forces were completely defeated near Dharúr, and the Nizám, in consequence, was obliged to cede, not only Ahmadnagar, but also the forts of Daulatábád, Sewnarí, Asrgarh, Vijayapur, and the province of Aurangábád, except the city and two parganahs. On the 18th of July, 1761, Šalábat Jang was imprisoned by Nizám 'Ali, and having been recognized as Nizám in the treaty of Paris of the 10th of February, 1763, and being thereby rendered an object of jealousy to his ambitious brother, was by his order murdered in September of that year. In 1766, General Calliaud, the first British Envoy that ever visited Haidarábád, arrived in that city, and negotiated a treaty, by which Nizám 'Ali ceded the N. Sarkárs to the English. In the same year he pushed the Maráthas hard, and burned Pánah, their capital. In the preceding campaign he had recovered Daulatábád. In 1790 he subsidized two battalions of English sipáhis and one artillery corps, consisting of six guns manned by Europeans, and joined Lord Cornwallis in the war with Tipú. He was subsequently engaged in 1799 in Lord Wellesley's war with the same prince, and the English troops serving with his contingent on that occasion were the first brigade which the Duke of Wellington, then Colonel Wellesley, ever commanded. Sir John Kennaway, who was appointed Resident in 1788, was the first permanently accredited English minister at this court. In 1798, the French force at Haidarábád, of 14,000 men, with 124 European officers, was disbanded by command of the Bengál Government. On the 12th October, 1800, the Nizám's subsidized force was fixed at eight battalions of sipáhis, two regiments of cavalry, with the usual complement of guns. For the payment of this force the territories acquired by Nizám 'Ali by the treaty of Seringapatam on the 13th of March, 1792, and that of Maisúr on the 2nd of June, 1797, with a revenue of £874,000, were given back to the Company. On the 6th of August, 1803, Nizám 'Ali died at Haidarábád, and was succeeded by his son, Mírzá Sikandar Jáh. He was less well disposed to the English than his predecessor, and held aloof during the war with the Maráthas. He died on the 20th of May, 1828, aged 59, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Náziru'd-daulat. Náziru'd-daulat died on the 16th of May, 1857, and was succeeded by his son Afzálu'd-daulat. His titles are Muzaáfaru'l-Mamálik, Nizámu'l-Mulk, Mír Farkhúndah 'Ali Khán Bahádúr Faḥ Jang.

There are few provinces in India where aboriginal races are so scant as in the Nizám's dominions. The Bedars, however, are a warlike aboriginal tribe, who have distinguished themselves much in the wars of the Dakhan. Briggs says (*Journal Royal Asiatic Society*, vol. xiii., p. 294), "The Rájá of Sorapur, in the heart of the Nizám's country, still holds his patrimonial appanage, surrounded by his faithful tribe, claiming a descent of more than 30 centuries; and, up to the middle of the last century, and even till the end of it, Bedar chiefs, with their clans around them, retained considerable power in Mysore and the districts east of it." On the other hand, Paṭhán, *i. e.* Afghán, Turkish and Tátár families are very numerous, and some of them are of very ancient descent. Mughuls and Persians are also numerous, and among all these Muḥammadans a deep feeling of regret for their former greatness, and of dislike to the advances of a more civilized government, prevails. Of the curious sect of Mahdi mention has already been made (see Nizám Sháhi dynasty). Notice of the Marátha tribes, which made so prominent a figure in the wars of the Dakhan, will fall more properly under the Preliminary Information to the Bombay Presidency. Of all places in India, Burhánpur, in Berár, is most famous for its Nách girls, who there seem to form the greater part of its female population. They are renowned for their beauty and accomplishments, and some of them, in the olden time, have risen even to sovereign dignity. Thus Aminah, a Nách girl, was married by Burhán Nizám Sháh, and continued to be his queen and favourite wife even after he had espoused a princess of Vijayapur.

## ROUTE 18.

MADRAS TO HAIDARÁBÁD AND SIKANDARÁBÁD, BY SULÚRPÉT, NELLÚR, ANGULA, NAKRIKAL, AND HAITIPÁMLA. 391 M. 5 P.

For this Route, as far as Angula, see Route 10, Centre Division.

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer Commanding Centre Division—*Madras*, as far as Krish̄ṇa r.r.δ. after Pondigal. Then Officer Commanding Haidarábád, subsidiary force—*Sikandarábád*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY—Collector of Chengalpatt—*Pallikarni*, to Salt-water Inlet, after Wobalapuram. Thence to Chontupálliam, after Ardinghi: Collector of Nellúr—*Nellúr*. Thence to Krish̄ṇa, r.r.δ. Collector of Guntúr—*Guntúr*. Thence to Sikandarábád—British Resident at *Haidarábád*.

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. P.	M. P.
ANGULA (Ongole).....	185 6	185 6
× n. to Iingamgunta.....	3 5	
× 2 n. to Tudavapádu....	1 7½	
× n. to YELLAMPALLI,δ.	4 0½	9 5
Gundlakamma, r. r. δ....	0 1	
Ditto, l. δ.....	0 0½	
Guntalgapalla.....	0 6	
× n. to Timmanapálliam,	2 7½	
Boluvárupálliam.....	4 1	
Ardinghi, δ. t. o.....	4 4½	12 4½
Bhavanáshí náld.....	4 1½	
× 5 n. to Chontupálliam,	2 5	
× n. to KOPPERAPAD,	2 3	9 1½
× 3 n. to Tankáralingam-		
gudepádu.....	2 6	
Kammalpád, δ.....	3 5	
× 4 n. to VELLECHUR,	4 0	10 3
× 2 n. to Putuváripálliam	3 5	
× n. to <i>Tarumella</i> .....	2 1	
× n. and road.....	0 6½	
ROMPECHIRLA, δ.....	2 7½	9 4
× 2 n. to Santagudipádu,	3 3	
Báraváripálliam.....	3 0	
Gorgaya náld to <i>Vippar-</i>		
<i>lah</i> .....	0 4	
Tallagandla.....	4 0	
NAKRIKAL, δ.....	1 1	12 0
× n. to Tripurapuram....	2 3	
Navalepuri.....	2 5	
Pillaruvágu náld.....	0 2½	
Kotanamalepuri.....	0 7½	
Yerravágu náld.....	1 6	
PEDDIGURAL, δ.....	1 1	9 1

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. P.	M. P.
× n. to <i>Bráhmaṇapalli</i> ...	4 6½	
× 2 n. to Tammalachervu	2 0½	
A Tank.....	2 2½	
DACHAPALLI, δ. t. o....	4 3	13 4½
× Nágalar, r.....	0 2	
Gaumalpád.....	1 7½	
A tank.....	2 6	
Ditto.....	1 3	
PONDIGAL, δ.....	1 7	8 1½
Krish̄ṇa, r. r. δ....	0 2	
Ditto, r. l. δ.....	0 4	
WARAPALLI, δ.....	0 1	0 7
Dámalerla.....	4 1½	
× 2 n. to <i>Kondrapádu</i> ....	4 4½	
Krish̄ṇapuram.....	3 4	
Gudúr.....	0 7½	
MERIALGUDIAM, δ....	2 7½	16 1
× 2 n. to Yámalpalli.....	4 4	
Kukádam.....	3 2	
Madhugalpalli.....	2 4	
× 2 n. Salarmeagudiam..	2 7	
TIPARTI, δ.....	1 5	14 6
× n. to Indrar.....	3 1	
Gorangilapalli.....	1 4½	
× 3 n. to <i>Nekerakall, t. o.</i>	5 5	
HAITIPÁMLA, δ.....	4 5½	15 0
× 2 n. to Kattangúr.....	3 0	
× n. to Bárangundla.....	4 1	
Lingodam.....	1 5½	
Pusalpádu.....	1 1½	
NARKAILPALLI, δ....	1 5	11 5
Gopalaipalli.....	2 5	
Chittala.....	2 2½	
<i>Kaparti</i> .....	3 4½	
Yellamedu.....	3 4	
GUNDRAMPALLI, δ....	2 3	14 3
Pantanghi.....	1 6½	
× 2 n. to Chautupalli.....	4 4	
rd. to Nallakonda.....	2 7	
Nagaram.....	0 3½	
Kaitarpuram.....	1 4	
MALKAPUR, δ.....	2 2	13 3
× n. to Chiniáiru náláh		
(bridged).....	4 1	
Battasingaram.....	1 0	
Manđupam.....	1 1½	
AMBARIPE'T, δ.....	5 0	11 2½
Guntalúr.....	1 5½	
(a) <i>Haidnagar</i> , 9 m. 6 f.		
from which is <i>Haidar-</i>		
<i>ábád</i> , and (b) <i>Golkonda</i> ,		
7 m. W. of Haidarábád	0 7	
Annáram.....	1 7	

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.
Mathalgudiam .....	1 3	
Musi, r. r. b. ....	0 7½	
Ditto, l. b. ....	0 0½	
rd. to Warangol.....	0 7½	
UPAL.....	0 3	8 1½
Auskanpalli .....	1 4	
Násaram.....	1 5	
Lállapét.....	0 6	
Cantonment Church.....	2 0	
(c)SIKANDARÁBÁD,p.o. and 6 m. to the N. (d)		
(Bóláram) .....	1 2	6 1

391 5

There is no place of importance between Angula and Haidarábád. The country is level and open as far as Poddigal, when it first becomes hilly and jungly. Near Pondigal it is very stony. The road is good to Vellechúr, where it becomes indifferent. At Dáchapalli and Pondigal it is very hard and stony. At Haitipáma it passes through low jungle infested with thieves. From the next station to the end of the route it is generally good, in some parts excellent.

*Yellampalli* is a small village. Water is procured from the Gundlakamma river. *Ardinghi* is a village about four times larger than Yellampalli. The *Bhavanáshí nála* is about 250 yards wide, but offers no impediment to the passage of troops. The next four stations are small villages, and require no particular remark. *Dáchapalli* is a larger place, with about 200 houses. The *Nágálar river* is 50 yards broad, eight deep, and very rapid in the rainy season. At Pondigal there is always a supply of water from the *Krishna*. *Pondigal* itself is a small village. *Warrapalli* presents every convenience for a camp, if a force should require to halt there. From *Haiát-nagar* a road diverges to Haidarábád, as follows:—*Sirwanagar*, 5 m. 4 f. (a good place for a camp); *Gate of the Residency, Haidarábád*, 4 m. 2 f.; *Sikandarábád*, 4 m. Total from Madras, 393 m. 5 f.

(a) *Haidarábád*.—This city was founded by the third son of Ibrahim

Kuṭb Sháh Muḥammad Kuli, who, in 1589, determined to remove the seat of his government from Golkonda on account of its want of water, and consequent unhealthiness. He therefore built a new city on the banks of the Musi river, 10 m. from his former capital, and called it Bhágnagar, "fortunate city," from his favourite mistress Bhágmati, but after her death he named it Haidarábád, "the city of Haidar," though for many years it retained its former appellation. A fine mosque, and the *Chahár Minár*, "four minarets," a college in the centre of this city, were among his public works.

Soon after establishing himself in his new metropolis, Muḥammad Kuli commenced an aggressive war with the neighbouring Hindú Rájás. He took the strong fortress of Gandikóta, and one of his detachments sacked the city of Kadapa. Some of his troops penetrated even to the frontiers of Bengál, and he defeated the Rájá of Orissa, and subjugated the greatest part of the N. Sarkárs. In 1603 an ambassador from Sháh 'Abbás, king of Persia, arrived at Haidarábád with a ruby-studded crown and other magnificent presents. The palace of Dilkushá was allotted to the Envoy, and he remained there six years, receiving from Muḥammad Kuli £2,000 yearly for his expenses. When he returned to Persia, Háji Karam 'Alí, an officer of the Court of Haidarábád, accompanied him, bearing return presents, amongst which was some gold cloth, manufactured at Paitan, which it took 5 years to complete. In 1611 Muḥammad Kuli died, after a most prosperous reign of 34 years. Besides the works already mentioned, he left the following memorials of his magnificence in the vicinity of Haidarábád:—

1. The palace and gardens of Iláhi Maḥall.
2. The Muḥammadí gardens.
3. The palace of Nabát Ghát.
4. The alms-house called the Langar of the 12 Imáms.
5. The Jam'a Masjid, or Cathedral Mosque.

According to the accounts of Mír Abú Tálíb, the king's private treasurer,

£2,800,000 was expended on public works during the reign of Muḥammad Kūfī; and £24,000 was distributed annually to the poor.

Sultān 'Abdū'llāh, the brother of Muḥammad Kūfī, succeeded him. The Mughuls now began to appear on the stage, and soon compelled the king of Golkonda to pay tribute. In 1643, 'Abdū'llāh gave his daughter in marriage to Muḥammad 'Adil Shāh of Vijayapur, but this alliance had no effect in checking the decline of their states. In 1655 Haidarābād was attacked by Aurangzīb, and plundered of great riches, and the yearly tribute was raised to £800,000. 'Abdū'llāh died in 1672, and was succeeded by his son-in-law, Abū Ḥusain, who, in his youth, had been notorious for dissipated habits. He fell entirely under the influence of a Marātha brāhman, named Madhuna Pant, who became his prime minister. In 1676, at the invitation of this man, Sivaji entered Haidarābād with an army of 70,000 men, on his way to the Karnātak, and concluded a treaty with Abū Ḥusain, from which that unfortunate prince derived no advantage. In September, 1687, Aurangzīb stormed the fort of Golkonda, after a siege of 7 months, and Abū Ḥusain ended his life a prisoner in the fort of Daulatābād. An instance of the conqueror's pompous and hypocritical politeness to his captive deserves mention. Abū Ḥusain was so pleased with the performance of a Hindūstānī musician that he exclaimed, "Would that I had a lākh of rupees to bestow upon him!" The wish was reported to Aurangzīb, and he immediately bestowed the money on the performer.

It is very remarkable that such scant descriptions of this celebrated city have, as yet, been given to the public. The brief notice of Hamilton is found repeated with trifling modifications in English, German, and French books. A tour through the Nizām's territory, with a really graphic account of the principal places in it, is altogether a desideratum.

The city of Haidarābād, the capital of the Nizām's dominions, is situate on

the S. side of the Musf or Musah river, which is there between 400 and 500 ft. wide, runs very rapidly in the rains, but has hardly 2 ft. of water in the dry season. The city of Haidarābād is 1,672 feet, and the cantonment of Sikandarābād 1,837 feet above the level of the sea. The population of Haidarābād is unknown. Hamilton reckons it at 200,000, which is probably much under the mark. A late writer (Bevan) describes its Muḥammadan inhabitants as "the most disorderly, turbulent, and ferocious set of ruffians within the limits of India." He adds, "No European can venture to pass through the city unprovided with a suitable escort; were he to make the attempt, he would not escape insult, and perhaps personal injury." There are few manufactories; the principal being silks, with gold embroidery interwoven in the weft, called *Kimkhub*. Turbans also, and some trinkets, are prettily made in the city. The environs have a wild but highly picturesque appearance, being overspread with granite hills and isolated rocks, some of hemispherical form, others cubical or columnar.

Approached from the west, the appearance of Haidarābād is very striking: the palace and numerous mosques, rising above the surrounding buildings, give it an air of grandeur, which is much strengthened by the superb pile of buildings erected as the British Residency. These external attractions, however, as is often the case in the East, fade fast away as the traveller approaches the weak stone wall, which did, indeed, formerly protect the town from the ravages of Marātha horse, but would prove but a slight defence against the battering guns of a European army. Internally the city may claim to be considered as one of the filthiest in India, and, but for the ever-gliding waters of the Musf, it would be fairly intolerable.

In shape the town is a trapezoid, of which the N.W. side, extending along the right bank of the Musf, is 2½ m.; the S.E. side, 2 m.; the S., 1 m.; and the S.W., 1½ m. On the N. side of the Musf is a considerable suburb, built by the Hindū



merchants who supply the city, and called the Baigam Bázár, or "Princess Bázár," because the imports levied there are a perquisite of the Nizám's principal wife. In this quarter is the British Residency, and the communication between it and the palace of the Nizám, is kept up by a noble stone bridge, planned and erected with much skill by Colonel Oliphant, late of the Madras Engineers, long a distinguished officer attached to the Nizám's service, and a director of the East India Company. This fine structure was built in 1831, of squared granite stone. It has eight arches, semi-elliptical, each of 56 ft. span and 18 ft. rise, with piers 10 ft. wide, and a land arch on the N. side of 77 ft. span and 16 ft. rise. The bridge is 24 ft. wide on the roadway. It cost £10,200.

The *British Residency* stands on the site of a villa belonging to a favorite adherent of Nizám 'Alí, and was appropriated to the reception of Sir John Kennaway, appointed Resident in 1788. The house was small and inconvenient; and, in 1803, shortly before Nizám 'Alí's death, and while Aristú Jáh was minister, and Colonel Kirkpatrick Resident, the present Residency was begun. After various interruptions, it was continued and completed during the time that Mir 'Alam and Rájá Chandu Lál were Ministers, and Captain Sydenham and Mr. Russell, Residents. The design was made by Mr. P. Russell, son of the well-known Royal Academician, and then an officer of the Madras Engineers, who also superintended the erection of the edifice, which is remarkable, as well on other accounts as for having been raised entirely by native workmen. The north front looks away from the river Musi and the city. It is adorned with a magnificent portico, supported by six Corinthian columns. According to some, the size of this portico is disproportionately large, compared with the rest of the building. A flight of 22 steps, having on either side a colossal sphinx, leads up to the portico, and from the summit of the steps the gigantic Corinthian columns rise to the top of the upper story of the main build-

ing. They are faced with Chunam of a dazzling whiteness. The three points of the pediment are surmounted by statues, and the Company's arms, in alto relievo, form the centre ornament. The interior of the portico, the cornices, &c., are richly carved; the pavement is an imitation, executed in Chunam, of black and white marble. The building stands in ornamental pleasure grounds, with a circular basin of water in front of the portico, the whole enclosed by a wall with two gateways.

The lower story of the main building is one of arches, and this story, continued with a balustrade, connects the centre with two wings. The second story contains the dining-room, &c., used on ordinary occasions. Three lofty folding doors lead into a very stately hall, spacious and well-proportioned, supported by 32 columns, with architrave and cornices to correspond. Three splendid chandeliers hang from the ceiling; the furniture is of mahogany, manufactured at Calcutta. A smaller saloon adjoins at either end, similarly furnished, where the Residency officers usually take their meals.

The staircase is the grandest in India, each step being a single block of the finest granite; the walls, which are circular, are richly ornamented with stucco work, the niches containing statues of the Grecian divinities. The upper story is used only for State receptions. The apartments blaze with gilding and the richest hangings. The walls are hung with the finest scarlet cloth, bordered with gold; and the mirrors between the windows are of a gigantic size, reaching from the ceiling to the ground. The chandeliers cost a prodigious sum, and the lighting of the Residency on a single reception night, in former times used to cost £1000. On such occasions the crowd was so great, and the number of those who tried to force an entrance so excessive, that swords were often drawn, and blood shed in repelling them. While the male visitors were received by the Resident, their wives were entertained by the Resident's lady, in a superb man-

sion attached to the Residency, called the Rang Maḥall. This was built by Colonel Kirkpatrick, who formerly filled the office of English Minister at the Nizám's Court. He married an Indian Princess, and built this palace for her abode. It was enclosed after the Asiatic manner by high walls, the centre containing a large marble basin filled with water, and fed by numerous fountains, lined with stately cypress trees. The pavilions, galleries, and terraces around were ornamented in the richest style of Oriental architecture, with a profusion of delicate trellis-work, painting, and gilding. As the entertainments were conducted in the Oriental fashion, Nách girls were commonly introduced, splendidly dressed; some of them have been known to wear £30,000 worth of jewels.

There is a large lake a few miles S. of Haidarábád, which supplies the city with water. The dam is of solid masonry, constructed by Captain P. Russell, who built the Residency, whence it is called "Engineer's Lake" by the Europeans, and by the natives the lake of Mir 'Alam, from the minister during whose government it was commenced. It was finished by Muníru'l-Mulk, at a cost of £80,000. The dam is formed of a series of 21 very large granite arches, laid on their sides, with the semi-circular projection opposed to the body of water. These arches are not ranged in a straight line, but form in the aggregate the segment of a circle. Nineteen of them are 150 feet, the other two 250 feet, in the span, with 150 feet of wall at the end, making in all 3,350 feet. When full, this sheet of water is nearly 20 miles in circumference, and covers 10,000 acres. There is a good boat upon it, with both oars and sails, belonging to the minister. On the margin tents may be pitched, and it is an excellent place for a pleasure party.

The *Palace of the Nizám* is badly situated, and is a confined and not over-clean building, without any pretensions to splendour. M. Langlès speaks of the palace of the Nizám, in his time, as more than a league in circumference, and as tenanted by 600 beautiful ladies,

of whom the majority were Georgians and Circassians, with a few Italians. These were under the surveillance of an Amazonian corps, who discharged the duties entrusted to eunuchs by our ally of Constantinople. Like a similar corps in the service of Ranjit Singh, they wore uniforms resembling those of our Sipáhi regiments, and could perform the manual and platoon exercises with great smartness, and deliver a volley with precision. They showed great steadiness in action, and on some occasions returned to the charge, when the Nizám's European force had been driven back.

The finest private residence in the city is the *Palace of the late titular Prime Minister*, Maníru'l-Mulk, called the *Bárah Dari*, "Twelve Doors." It is now occupied by his grandson, Sálár Jang, the present talented minister. The gardens belonging to it are very beautifully laid out.

The *Palace of Shamsu'l-'Umará*, which has been recently erected, is also worthy a visit. He, himself, is the most respectable of all the nobles at the Nizám's court.

The *Old Palaces of the Chahár Maḥall* and *Daíd Maḥall*, or "Hall of Justice," which date from the time of 'Abdu'lláh Kuṭb Sháh, or according to some, Muḥammad Kulí Kuṭb Sháh (see above), may also be noticed. Two parts out of four of the Chahár Maḥall have long since fallen down, and on their cleared sites corn is now sown.

As might be expected in such a stronghold of the Muḥammadan faith, the *mosques* are very numerous. The *Cathedral Mosque* is built of stone, after the plan of that at Makkah, and is called from it. It is large, but devoid of ornament. The minarets, however, are of an extraordinary height, and may be discerned from a very great distance. The pillars within are each of a single piece of granite, highly polished, and surprisingly lofty. The *faḳírs* and other mendicants, who swarm in the vicinity of this mosque, are most extortionate in their demands, and think nothing of seizing the horses of passing gentlemen by the bridle, to

enforce their appeals. The *Mosque of the Prophet* is also of large dimensions. But, perhaps, the most interesting building in the city is the college, called the *Chahár Míndr*, of which mention has been made above. It is built where the four principal streets meet, upon four grand arches, through which the thoroughfares run. Above are several stories of apartments, and in each story a different science was formerly taught. These chambers, alas! are now turned into warehouses. Above, and towering to a vast height, rise the four minarets, whence the building is named.

(b) *Golkonda*.—If the traveller makes a stay at Haidarábád, even of a few days, one day should be given to *Golkonda*. The town is 6 m. 2 f. from the Residency, and 6 m. 4 f. passing the *Husain Ságar* tank from the centre of the cantonment at Sikandarábád. The fort crowns a conical hill, and is deemed by the natives impregnable, every advantage being taken, according to the Indian style of fortification, of the masses of granite heaped together by the hand of nature. It is defended by several enclosures, and the works are strong and in good repair; and, as all the Nizám's treasures are deposited there, a strict guard is maintained. There are, however, within breaching distance (600 yards), several *tombs of the Golkonda kings*—massive buildings, where batteries might be erected which would soon reduce the fortress. These tombs bear testimony to their dangerous vicinity to the fort by the marks of shot fired at them when Aurangzib invested the place. They are all of a uniform character; each mausoleum standing in the centre of a vast quadrangular terrace, approached on all sides by flights of steps, which enter upon a rich arcade, formed of an equal number of pointed arches on each front, and finished with a lofty balustrade, and a minaret at each angle. The body of the building, also quadrangular, rises about 30 ft. above the upper terrace of this arcade, and is also surrounded by a balustrade, flanked with minarets of smaller dimensions than those below.

From the centre of this part of the building springs the kubbah, or dome, which, by its magnitude, adds greatly to the grandeur of the edifice. The principal material employed is grey granite, ornamented in some parts with stucco, and, in others, with porcelain tiles. The colors of the tiles retain their brilliancy to the present day, and the extracts from the Kurán, in white characters, on a polished blue ground, have all the richness of enamel. A mosque is attached to each tomb, which formerly possessed the privileges of a sanctuary; and its revenues, besides supporting a number of priests, afforded a daily meal to the neighbouring poor. The surrounding gardens were beautifully planted, and adorned with fountains, and with their falling waters formed a delicious retreat during any season in the year. Now desolation and silence reign around, and except the echoes which the footstep of the traveller awakes, not a sound is heard. The solitude adds, perhaps, to the impressiveness of these stupendous fabrics. Their vastness and solidity strike at once upon the eye, and produce a greater effect than the most elaborate sculpture. Some of them are said to have cost £150,000. The enamelled work with which they are ornamented, is reported to have been the performance of artists brought from China for the purpose; but there is every reason to believe that these decorations are of native workmanship, similar ornaments being found at Vijayapur and Agra, and in Bengál, Bahár and Sindh.

The country round is remarkable in its character. The plain is heaped with enormous masses of black granite, so fantastically piled together, that the task seems done by art. One huge rock is thrown upon another until a gigantic minaret is raised, the crowning mass being often the largest of all, and apparently requiring but a touch to roll headlong down, and topple all its supporters with it. The natives account for this chaos after their usual strange fashion. They say, "The great Architect of the universe having finished the earthly part of creation, threw the chips and refuse materials on this spot."

(c) *Sikandarábád*.—An excellent road, equal to any in England, leads to Sikandarábád, distant 5 m., and thence to the Nizám's cantonment of Boláram, 5 m. further. On leaving Haidarábád, it crosses the river Musí by the handsome bridge erected by Colonel Oliphant, and then passes, for upwards of a mile, over a gigantic dam (wide enough at summit for 3 carriages to pass abreast), carried across a valley, and built to pen the streams there, into a lake called Husain Ságar, which lies 4 m. N. of Haidarábád, and close to Sikandarábád. This latter place, in lat.  $17^{\circ} 26'$ , long.  $78^{\circ} 32'$ , is the head quarters of the Haidarábád subsidiary force, 6 m. N. of the city of Haidarábád, and 4 from the Residency. The cantonment extends in a direct line from E. to W., nearly 3 m. at right angles to the extremity of the tank; and forms one long curved and irregular street, with the officers' houses ranged on either side. The Madras road to Jálnah forms the N. limit, and beyond them, on the N.W., are the Horse Artillery lines, then a tank, a burial ground, the Foot Artillery lines, and, on the N.E., two very remarkable, large granite hills, of a hemispherical shape, lying about 3 m. asunder, and completely isolated. They are both of considerable height, with the tombs of Fakirs on their summits. The nearer is called Maula 'Alí; the other, named Imám Zámín, is about one-fifth smaller. There are annually great assemblages of pilgrims at them.

The original lines face the N., and behind them is the bázár, commencing at the E. end, and extending three-fourths of the length of the cantonment, and running parallel with it about 2 furlongs in the rear. To the E. of the whole line, is the European Infantry barrack (now condemned), and, preceding W., the hospital and lines of the officers. S. of these European lines are those of a native corps added to the force in 1834; to the W. of these the lines of four Native Regiments. *St. John's Church*, a large handsome building, stands on the highest ground of the cantonment, due N. of the European barrack, and divided from it by the Madras Road.

The Trimalgaði (Trimulgherry) barracks, which have been lately built, beyond the Horse Artillery lines, to the N.W., for the European regiment, consist of ten ranges, eight of which occupy an elevated ridge near the village of Trimalgaði, about half-way between the cantonment of Boláram and Sikandarábád; and the other two occupy a second ridge at a short distance from the others. Each barrack range consists of a principal room or hall, 172 ft. long, 24 ft. broad, and 26 feet high; which being occupied by sixty men, allows each occupant 1788 cubic ft. of space. Extending the whole length of this hall, on each side, is an enclosed, and also an outer verandah; the former being 12 ft., and the latter 10 ft. in breadth, clear: the inner verandahs have each a flat terraced roof, as well as the principal hall; but the outer verandahs are provided with a sloping terraced roof, supported upon masonry columns. Each inner verandah, which includes a space of 32,640 cubic ft. is provided with fittings for 18 men. Thus, 96 men will be the number that can be accommodated in each barrack. Besides this accommodation, each range is furnished with two wings, and each wing contains four apartments, well suited for the non-commissioned officers. The buildings are laid out so as to face N. and S., the wings at each end being respectively opposite to the E. and W.

There are also ten other ranges of buildings to be occupied by the married men of the regiment. Each of these groups contain twelve families, besides a non-commissioned officer. Each married soldier will have two rooms, one of  $16 \times 14$  ft., and the other  $16 \times 10$ , with a private garden in front, and in the back yard a separate cook-room, bath, etc., for each family.

In connection with these, there is an hospital, containing accommodation for 144 men, besides a large number of women. The dimensions of the two principal wards are, 274 ft. by 19 high, and 40 wide, allowing each occupant 1450 cubic ft. of space. The building is 320 ft. long, and 100 broad, externally. The lower and upper stories

will be provided with deep, colonnaded verandahs, and the interior accommodation contains rooms for apothecaries, nurses, medical stores, bath and store-rooms, etc.

The total cost is 11,81,490 rs., of which 5 lákhs are for the barracks, 2½ lákhs for the married men's quarters, 1 lákhs for the hospital, and the remaining portion for the auxiliary buildings.

The whole population of Sikandarábád is about 40,000. A European Regiment, and 5 Native Infantry Regiments, 1 Regiment of Native Cavalry, 1 troop of Horse Artillery, and 4 companies of Foot Artillery, are cantoned there.

(d) *Boláram* lies about twelve miles N. of Haidarábád, and five N. of Sikandarábád. It was first occupied by the Nizám's troops in 1815, and ever since that time it has been famous for its salubrity and exemption from the periodical ravages of fever, to which Sikandarábád is subject. It stands on a granitic ridge, 1,890 ft. above the sea, and about 60 ft. higher than Sikandarábád. This ridge is of considerable extent, six or eight miles in circumference, but is bounded on all sides by rice fields. The gardens produce all kinds of European vegetables, in great perfection. Mangoes, grapes, figs, strawberries, and pine apples are also particularly fine. There are lines for two battalions of infantry, a Risálah, or squadron of 200 irregular horse, and 250 artillerymen. Boláram is so healthy that invalids resort to it from other stations, for change of air. No rank vegetation is permitted to spring up within the limits of the cantonment; the hedgerows are cut down annually to a certain height, and the place is consequently open, and in a great measure free from the noxious exhalations which are the frequent causes of sickness at large military stations.

## ROUTE 19.

SIKANDARÁBÁD TO JÁLNA (265 M. 3 F.),  
AURANGÁBÁD (305 M. 2½ F.), DAULAT-  
ÁBÁD AND THE CAVES OF ÉLÚRA  
(ELLORA) AND AJAYANTI.

322 M. 7 F. TO ÉLÚRA (ELLORA).

MILITARY AUTHORITY—Officer com-

manding Haidarábád Subsidiary Force  
—*Sikandarábád*.

CIVIL AUTHORITY — Resident at  
Haidarábád—*Haidarábád*.

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.
From Arsenal at Sikandar- ábád to Rasálpur.....	1	2
Baigampéta.....	0	6
× <i>n.</i> to Bálánagaram.....	1	3
KUKATLAPÁLLI.....	2	7
Nizámpét.....	1	6
Miyánpuram.....	2	4
Gangáwaram.....	2	1
× <i>n.</i> to Rámachandrapuram	3	1
PATANCHERU, <i>δ.</i> .....	2	4
× <i>n.</i> to Mutangi.....	2	3
× 2 <i>n.</i> to Rudraram.....	5	1
× <i>n.</i> to Kaulampéta.....	2	2
KANDI.....	2	4
× 2 <i>n.</i> to Potareddipalli....	2	0
× 5 <i>n.</i> to Nandi Kandí.....	6	5
SADASHIVAPETA, <i>δ. t. o.</i>	2	4
× <i>n.</i> to Yempalli and Ná- galpalli.....	3	6
× 3 <i>n.</i> to MUNUPALLI...	3	3
Kammampalli.....	2	3
× to <i>n.</i> to Pedda Chilmaira,	2	7
× <i>n.</i> to Rartanapalli.....	1	2
× <i>n.</i> to Jarralapalli.....	1	6
× <i>n.</i> to Bhorgaon.....	1	1
Bápanpalli.....	1	5
× 3 <i>n.</i> to SANGAM, <i>δ.</i> .....	1	5
× 3 <i>n.</i> to Sitápur.....	3	4
× <i>n.</i> to Dumsalpur.....	1	3
× <i>n.</i> to Rámatirtham.....	3	0
GUNJATTI.....	0	4
× <i>n.</i> to Shamsallápur.....	2	6
Gumea.....	2	7
× 3 <i>n.</i> to Allad.....	2	0
Bidarpéta begins.....	2	0
(a) BIDARPETA ends, <i>δ.</i>		
<i>t. o.</i> .....	1	0
× <i>n.</i> to Naubád.....	3	1
× 2 <i>n.</i> to Kulár.....	2	0
× <i>n.</i> to KANAPUR.....	4	4
× several <i>n.</i> and a Pass to HALBARGA, <i>δ.</i> .....	4	7
Taigampur.....	1	6
× 2 <i>n.</i> to Ahmadábád.....	1	0
× 2 <i>n.</i> to Upalla.....	1	6
× 2 <i>n.</i> to Ambarsingu.....	2	1
× 2 <i>n.</i> to Kótikilwádi.....	1	7
Karrasudal.....	1	3

PLACES.	STAGES.		PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.		M. F.	M. F.
× 'Inaiyatulláh <i>náld</i> to DIWÁN KUPRA.....	2 2	12 1	× Indádi <i>r.</i> twice to Ugar- lamba.....	3 5	
× <i>n.</i> to Manjira <i>r. r. b.</i> .....	3 0		× <i>n.</i> to Babúlgaoñ.....	1 2	
Ditto, <i>l. b.</i> .....	0 1		× 2 <i>n.</i> to MANDAKALLI.....	2 2	10 2
Alsúr.....	0 1		× 2 <i>n.</i> to Balúdi.....	2 7	
× 2 <i>n.</i> to Chandasúr.....	2 5		Saurgaon.....	1 4	
× <i>n.</i> to Digí.....	0 7		× <i>n.</i> to Sahulí.....	1 0	
× Daiú <i>r.</i> to MURGHPET, <i>b.</i> 1 4	8 2		× 3 <i>n.</i> to Utarwádf.....	2 4	
× Chikal <i>n.</i> to Tugarí.....	3 6		× <i>n.</i> to MANWAT.....	2 3	10 2
Sáwargaon.....	1 4		× 3 <i>n.</i> to Karobá.....	3 0	
× 4 <i>n.</i> to Mugah.....	1 0		Karanjí.....	1 4	
Báhmañi.....	1 0		× <i>n.</i> to Pipalgaon.....	2 2	
× 3 <i>n.</i> to Malawádi.....	2 0		× Khajurah <i>r.</i> to Dikarshí.....	1 5	
( <i>b.</i> ) × <i>n.</i> to UDGIR, <i>b.</i> .....	2 6	12 0	SAILÚ.....	3 6	12 1
Somnáthpur.....	1 2		× 2 <i>n.</i> to Ráwalgaon.....	3 2	
× Ghát to Usnakawádi.....	2 6		Ut-gaon.....	1 6	
× Ghát & 6 <i>n.</i> to Kallár.....	2 2		× <i>n.</i> to BARA SATONA.....	2 2	7 2
Isma'ilpur.....	0 4		× 2 <i>n.</i> to Chata Satona.....	1 7	
Yekruka.....	1 3		× 2 <i>n.</i> to Rohna.....	2 7	
× <i>n.</i> to Kinni.....	2 0		× Woarpair <i>r.</i> to Woarpal.....	3 3	
× <i>n.</i> to Sukni.....	1 1		× 2 <i>n.</i> to PARTUR.....	3 7	12 0
× 3 <i>n.</i> to HALLI.....	2 2	13 4	× <i>n.</i> to Mashah.....	2 0	
× Tair <i>r.</i> Anderaguli.....	0 6		× 2 <i>n.</i> to Jaulah.....	2 0	
× 3 <i>n.</i> to Gadaiwádi.....	2 0		× <i>n.</i> to Ramjaní.....	3 3	
Sopalli.....	2 0		× <i>n.</i> to Chitragaoñ & Dúdh- ná, <i>r. r. b.</i> .....	2 6	
× <i>n.</i> to Serúr.....	2 0		Ditto, <i>l. b.</i> .....	0 1	
× Laindi <i>n.</i> and 3 others to Talaigaon.....	3 0		Pipalgaon.....	1 3	
× 2 <i>n.</i> to RAJURA.....	2 4	12 2	× Gundalka <i>r.</i> to KARLAH Wádi.....	2 1	13 6
× 3 <i>n.</i> to Kálegaon.....	2 4		Wargaon.....	5 0	
× Maniár <i>r.</i> and some <i>n.</i> to Sumtána.....	3 0		× <i>n.</i> to Sárwádi.....	1 5	
Khandáli.....	2 4		× 2 <i>n.</i> & Gundalka <i>r.</i> to ( <i>c.</i> ) JALNAH Cantonment, <i>p. o.</i> .....	3 6	13 2
× a hill and 2 <i>n.</i> to SAWAR- GAON.....	4 0	12 0			
Jogalgaon.....	1 4				265 3
× Kallati <i>n.</i> to Potí.....	1 3		× Gundalka <i>r.</i> .....	0 4½	
Khandála.....	2 0		× 3 ravines and a <i>n.</i> to Nar- gawádi.....	3 6	
Kaudgaon.....	1 7		× 2 ravines to Jalgaon.....	4 1	
× Masúl <i>r.</i> .....	0 1		× a ravine to Pándí.....	1 0	
Wádi.....	1 3		× <i>n.</i> to Pádali.....	1 3	
× a hill to GANGAKHAIR, <i>l. o.</i> .....	3 1	11 3	BADNAPUR FORT.....	0 4½	11 3
Godávari, <i>r., r. b.</i> .....	0 2½		Pass through a Péta, and cross <i>n.</i> to Wahaigaon... ..	6 1½	
" <i>l. b.</i> .....	0 1½		Chotá Jalgaon.....	0 4	
Chotá Khair.....	0 1		Karrigaon.....	1 7	
Mulí.....	2 1		× Lohara <i>r.</i> .....	0 6	
× 4 <i>n.</i> to Sonaigaon.....	2 0		Jalgaon Fort.....	0 1	
Jaura.....	1 5		KARUMAD.....	3 5	13 0½
Dondi.....	1 6		× <i>n.</i> to Kunbepal.....	2 7	
Takelli.....	2 3		× <i>n.</i> to Chandrávi.....	1 6	
× 3 <i>n.</i> to PANGRI.....	1 5	12 1			
× 3 <i>n.</i> to Bhorwan.....	3 1				

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. F.
× 3 s. and a ravine to Ján-dah.....	2	5
× s. to CHIKALTHANA	1 4½	8 6½
Pirawádf.....	1 5½	
Pásipur, E. Gate.....	2	2
"    W. Gate.....	0 3½	
(d) " AURANGABAD, E. gate, <i>δ.p.o.</i> .....	0 2	6 5½
Ditto W. Gate.....		2 0½
		305 2½
ÉLURA (ELLORA)....	17 4½	322 7

Along this road there are some very considerable towns, and it passes through a country which, from its rich black soil, ought to be a garden; and, but for long misgovernment, would be as populous as any part of India. The first station, *Kakalappalli*, is a large village; where, however, supplies are but indifferent. The soil here is red, but at the next station becomes black.

*Patan Cheru*, now only a large village, was in ancient times a city, the remains of which are still spread over a great extent of country. It is to be observed that the name *Patan* only applies to cities of considerable size. Fragments of temples of black granite, among which images of Buddha are found, mark the site of the former town. Supplies are here most abundant. *Kandi* is a good-sized village.

*Sadashivapét* is a large and populous town. A market is held here every Wednesday. Supplies are most abundant, except firewood. The next two stations are hamlets. At *Gunjatti* the country assumes quite a different aspect, the road passing now between hills.

(a) *Bidar*, once the capital of the Dakhan, is still a large and populous town, surrounded by lofty walls, and containing about 2000 houses. It stands near the right bank of the Manjira river, on a table land, 2359 ft. above the sea, and about 100 ft. above the surrounding plain. Hamilton states that the E. side alone is on rising ground, and that 300 ft. high. There are the remains of some fine buildings still to be seen. It is noted for the manufacture of Bidari ware, used for

the bowls of *kukkas* and betel-boxes. The material consists of a tutenag, or alloy of 24 parts tin to one of copper. It is colored black, with a mixture of equal parts of muriate of ammonia and saltpetre-earth, made into paste with water. The color is very durable, and is easily restored by rubbing it with oil or butter. It shows off to advantage the silver ornaments with which it is usually adorned. There is a road hence to the large town of *Umnabád* (vulg. *Homnabad*).

The next four stations are small villages. The road, which is tolerably good to *Murghpéta*, becomes stony in places after passing it, and bad in wet weather, particularly at the Manjira river.

(b) *Udgir* (*Udayagiri*) ("Sunrise Mount"), Oudgbeer of the Road Books, and Oudghir of Hamilton. This is a considerable place, containing about 1000 houses. There is a fort also, and a cypress garden. Supplies are abundant. A road branches off hence to Shekhapur. Near *Múgah* there is a small Ghát, which, though not steep, is extremely stony.

The next station—*Halli*—is a small village. The road thence is very rough in places, and crosses some Passes, which are extremely rugged. In wet weather the transport of guns is difficult. *Rajúra* is a large village; *Sáwargaon*, about one-third of its size. *Gangákhair*, or *Khair*, is a town with about 1,000 houses, and a well-supplied market. There is a branch road thence to Akolah and Perli. Before arriving at *Pángri*, there is a *náld*, which it is difficult for carts to cross. The *Godávarí*, which is passed directly after leaving *Gangákhair*, has steep, lofty banks of hard black soil, and its bed is of black sand and mud. It is unfordable from June to October. During the rest of the year the ford is good. *Mandakalli* is a small village; *Mónwat* a petty town. There is nothing particular to be remarked of the other stations, of which *Sailu* and *Partúr* are good-sized towns, the other two places villages.

(c) *Jálnah*, or *Jálnapur*, is a considerable town, or rather assemblage of

three towns: the *Cantonment*; *Kádirábád*, a town on the left bank of the river Gundalka, or Kandula, with 7,000 inhabitants, six furlongs from the cantonment; and old *Jálnah* on the opposite bank, with 10,000, of whom one-fifth are Muslims. *Kádirábád* is surrounded by a high stone wall, and *Jálnah* is defended by a strong well-planned Fort, 1 mile 3 furlongs from the cantonment. There was a flourishing manufacture of silk and cotton about 50 years ago, both at *Jálnah* and *Kádirábád*, which gave employment to 5000 weavers. Now, owing to the great influx and cheapness of English manufactures, the heavy taxation of the Nizám's government, and the rapacity of the officials, the trade has greatly declined, and the weavers are reduced to 400, who are chiefly employed on the coarser muslins and cotton cloths. The cotton raised in the neighbourhood is principally used for home consumption, and is of a superior quality. At *Kádirábád*, a beautiful scarlet dye is prepared, and sent to Bombay, where it is much prized for its brilliancy. The streets in *Jálnah* and *Kádirábád* are very narrow; the houses are tiled, and some of them have 3 or 4 stories ornamented with figures from the Hindú mythology, and with a corresponding number of balconies and verandahs. The ground floor is sometimes of stonework, overlaid with burnt brick and chunam, and the houses, generally, have a cleanly appearance.

The *Cantonment of Jálnah* is situated on a gentle slope, with a small range of hills, from one to two miles distant, to the north, forming an amphitheatre, and with the town of *Kádirábád*, at about an equal distance, to the S.; and just beyond it the river Gundalka, called *Condoolon* and *Koondulka* in the Statistical Reports. There are lines for one troop of European Horse Artillery, one Regiment of Native Cavalry, and 3 of Native Infantry. The barracks were built in 1827. The General Bazar intervenes between *Kádirábád* and the Infantry lines. The Cavalry lines are on the E.; N. of these are the Artillery lines and the general parade.

The river Gundalka rises near *Taperan*

and *Rájúr*, two small villages, 16 m. to the N. In its course it receives several tributaries, and empties itself into the *Dádhná*, a branch of the *Godávari*, 15 miles to the S.E. During the monsoon, it comes down with great violence, and is then 100 yds. broad; but in the dry season it sinks rapidly to 12 feet in breadth, and 1½ ft. in depth. It is generally fordable at all seasons. The water is much esteemed by the natives. When it subsides, deep pools are to be found scattered along its bed, in which are excellent fish. A dam across it, with sluices, would preserve much valuable water through the hot season. The climate is most salubrious, and is well adapted for horticulture; European fruits and vegetables being grown in great perfection. Old people of the ages of 80 and 90 are not uncommon among the natives of *Jálnah*. A recent writer and enthusiastic sportsman, calls it "a most delightful cantonment, situated in an open fertile country;" and speaks much of the pleasures of the chase there. He mentions antelope shooting, and, in particular, coursing. The hares, he says, are astonishingly fine and fleet, so that to run down one is considered the criterion of a good dog. The lines are at present full, with the exception of those of one infantry regiment.

(d) *Aurangábád*, on the left bank of the *Dádhná*, a tributary of the *Godávari*, is a city now in decay, but which still possesses a population of about 50,000, though it once exceeded 100,000. It was formerly called *Khirkí*, and is said to have been founded in the beginning of the 17th century, by *Malik Ambar* (see *Chronological Tables*); but, in 1650, *Aurangzib* fixed his residence there for seven years, after which it was called *Aurangábád* ("Throne-town"), in compliment to him. It is surrounded by a wall rather lower than the defences of native fortified towns in general, but with round towers at intervals, on some of which are heavy guns. From a distance the city has an imposing appearance. Lofty minarets peep out from among groves of trees; the large white domes of mosques with gilded points glitter in the sun, and



contrast well with the abundance of green foliage within the walls; and a number of large, terraced houses rise high above the ramparts. But on entering the gates the scene changes, and it is evident that desolation has done its work on the once imperial city. It is still, however, the capital of the province of Berár, and continued to be the residence of the native Governor, and the head-quarters of the Nizám's forces which occupied that territory, till its cession to the British in 1855. The late Governor, who had resided for some time at Jálnah, moved here in 1811. The streets are broad, and a few of them are paved. The public buildings, mosques, and caravanseras are of a superior description, and Aurangábád is still famous for its manufacture of silks, its gold and silver brocades, and tissues, as well as for its gardens, fruits, and vegetable productions of every kind.

Although the city is built in a plain, with low hills at some distance, its altitude above the sea, which is 1885 ft., assures it a climate of comparative coolness; and it is remarkable for the abundance and excellence of its water, almost every house having its own spring. Indeed, it was the salubrity of the place, the broad stream of the Dúdhná, and the vicinity of the then deemed impregnable fort of Daulatábád, that recommended it to Aurangzib as a residence. The pleasures of the chase, too, may be fully enjoyed, without there being any dense jungle to engender malaria. Wild fowl, partridges, peacocks, quails, hares, foxes, jackals, tigers, wild hogs, deer, and wolves may be found in the neighbourhood. The principal sights are Aurangzib's palace, the Mausoleum of Rabía Durráni, the Jam'a Masjid, and some of the gardens.

*Aurangzib's Palace* is, according to Fitzclarenc and Seely, a ruin, which at the best had never any pretensions to magnificence, and was rather typical of that monarch's parsimony than of his splendor. It stands on the S. side of the Dúdhná, beyond which, and opposite to the palace is the city wall, and beyond that again the tomb of Rabía. The city stretches out to a great extent

either way, and from this point has a very picturesque appearance.

The *Tomb of Rabía Durráni* was built in 1645, after the model of the Táj at Agra, which was reared by Sháh Jahán, Aurangzib's father, to the memory of his favourite Suljánah, Mumtázah Begam, more generally known by her title, Táj Mahall, "Diadem of the Seraglio." Aurangzib's affection was, however, less expensive than that of his parent; for whereas the Táj is said to have cost £700,000, its imitation at Aurangábád was raised for £90,000, and is even meaner than the difference of cost would make us anticipate. The tomb stands within an enclosure of about 30 acres, laid out in gardens; the approach is through a gateway, the doors of which are plated with embossed brass, into a paved avenue, having a piece of water with 13 fountains in the centre, and shaded with orange, lime, pomegranate, peach, and apple trees. At the end of the avenue, within a spacious terraced area, stands the edifice, to which a few steps lead up. The building is a square of 72 ft. From the foundation on the terrace, for five feet upward, the material is white marble. There are here three windows of exquisite trellis-work, so fine that it is inconceivable how the chisel could have done its work without leaving a flaw. Above five feet, the structure is of stone faced with chunam, but the great dome is of marble. There are two smaller domes and four minarets, and at the four corners of the area, four other and still taller minarets. The tomb is in the centre of the building, and you descend to it by 24 steps, like going into a bath. Its top reaches to a level with the terrace. It is enclosed by an octagonal screen of marble trellis-work, exquisitely carved, each face of the octagon being 9 ft. long, 9 ft. high, and but 4 inches thick! The floor within the screen is two inches above the outer aisle, and the tomb itself stands on a terrace 10 inches higher than the floor. The whole of the vault is faced with white marble. A few feet above the tomb, a marble gallery runs round the interior of the edifice, on a

level with the three windows already mentioned. The tomb is covered with a pall of scarlet velvet, fringed with gold, and held down by eight marble knobs. This the attendants, if requested, will remove, but there is nothing to repay curiosity but a plain slab. It must be observed, that the marble used in this edifice was brought from Láhúr, which, according to the travelling in those days, was a four months' journey. Tavernier, in 1645, encountered 300 carts bringing large blocks of marble from Láhúr to Aurangábád.

The detached minarets at the corners of the terrace are 72 ft. high, and are ascended by a spiral stone staircase of 122 steps. At the top is a balcony 31 ft. in circumference. The girth of each minaret at the foundation is 48 ft. The view from the top is very fine, ranging all over the city and the surrounding country. To the left of the Mausoleum, between the gardens and the building, on a raised terrace, is a handsome room open on one side, 62 ft. by 54 ft., and 22 ft. high. The floor is of white marble intersected with streaks of black, but in some parts the marble has been replaced by a chunam imitation of a chocolate color. The open entrance is a Gothic arch well carved. The building is supported by fluted wooden pillars, graduated to the capital, the flutings being green and white alternately. This room is called the *Jam'a Khánah* or assembly room for the priests. At a little distance, and close to a grove of fragrant limes, is a smaller room, once richly adorned with painting and carving. This apartment is interesting as the place where Aurangzib was wont to retire with Rabia and a learned Mullá for devotional studies. From this, too, the Emperor proceeded to his grand hunts, when the country for 20 or 30 m. was surrounded and swept by hunters.

The *Jam'a Masjid* or *Cathedral Mosque* is plain in design. It faces Makkah, and is open on one side. The roof is arched and supported by pillars. This is all that Seely says of it. Langlès gives a view of it which resembles so much the

tomb of Rabia, as represented by Seely, that it is perhaps a copy.

The *gardens of Sháh Saft*, a holy man, who was the *Pir* or saintly adviser of Aurangzib, are well laid out. The Mausoleum is a neat building, which, without the architectural attractions of Rabia's tomb, receives more respect from the Muḥammadans, and is attended by a greater number of pilgrims. The descendant of Sháh Saft in Seely's time (1820) was a gentleman of parts and information. He had travelled to Rome and Palestine, returning by Suez, and had visited many other countries. The gardens where he resided were well worth visiting, and were remarkable for a water-mill, a contrivance then unique in India. These grounds may still attract the traveller. They are adorned by two large pieces of water, filled with innumerable shoals of fish, which are never killed, but constantly fed by the owners.

A splendid future may confidently be anticipated for Aurangábád, now that it has come under the British Government. Its position fits it to be the great emporium for Berár, the valley of the Narmadá, and all the central Dakhan; and a railroad will soon pass through it, or in its vicinity.

The caves of É'lúra are close to Aurangábád, and the fortress of Daulatábád can be visited *en route*.

### SUPPLEMENTARY ROUTE.

FROM AURANGABAD TO É'LÚRA (ELLORA)  
BY DAULATÁBÁD.

PLACES.	STAGES.	
	M. F.	M. P.
From the E. gate of the Fort at Aurangábád, to the Kaum river.....	2	1
Masjid .....	2	6
(a) DAULATABAD.....	4	9 1
Along the Péta Wall.....	1	1
(b) Gampunches or Pipalghát	0	4
To descent of Ghát.....	0	3
Foot of ditto .....	0	1½
Kághazpur.....	0	6
(c) Rauzah .....	2	2
Along the wall.....	0	6
Top of Ghát.....	0	6

PLACES.	STAGES.		
	M. P.	M. P.	M. P.
Descent.....	0	4	
(a) ÉLÚRA b.....	1	2	8 3½
			17 4½

The Kaum river has no water in the dry season. Kághazpur is in the Route Book erroneously called Raguzpoor. It has its name from a paper manufactory, which, as Fitzclarence informs us, was established there in consequence of the advantageous vicinity of some large tanks of spring water.

(a) *Daulatábád*, "City of Wealth."—The route to this celebrated fortress from Aurangábád, lies through a fertile plain intersected with many streams. The fort is built on a huge isolated conical rock of granite about 500 feet high, with a perpendicular scarp of 150 ft. all round. The rock above this scarp is of a sugar-loaf shape, with a sharp point, and the whole may be likened to a compressed bee-hive. At the base is the native town, with now but very few inhabitants. It is defended by a loop-holed wall with bastions, which on the E. side joins the scarp of the fort. At the bottom of the scarp is a ditch, before reaching which, four lines of wall, including the outside wall of the Péta, must be passed. The fosse can be crossed only in one place by a stone causeway, so narrow that only two men can obtain a footing on it abreast, and commanded on the side near the fort by a battlemented outwork. The only means of ascending the rock is through a narrow passage hewn in the solid stone and leading to a large vault in the interior. From this a ramp or gallery gradually sloping upwards, and also excavated in the solid rock, winds round in the interior. The first part of the ascent is easy, towards the end it is difficult. The height averages from 10 to 12 ft., with an equal breadth, and it is so dark that torches are requisite.

In several parts of the ramp are small trap-doors, with flights of steps communicating with the outer ditch. There is an opening near the top of this gallery, in a hollow of the rock, nearly 19 feet square, and, in case of danger, this is

covered with an immense iron plate, on which a vast fire is kindled; and, to make it burn the fiercer, there is a draft-hole 3 ft. in diameter, cut through the rock, through which a constant gush of air acts as a bellows, and enters with such force that a man can hardly stand against it. Above and beyond this, the road to the summit is very steep, and on the top is some scattered and stunted brushwood. On the summit is a platform, 20 feet square, on which a 24-pounder is mounted, and where the Nizám's flag (now replaced by that of England) used to float. Tavernier says this gun was raised here under the directions of a European artillery man, in the service of the Great Mughul, who had been repeatedly refused leave to return to his native land, but was at last promised it on some occasion when the Emperor was passing near, if he could mount the gun on this spot. Stimulated by the promise, he at last succeeded, after great exertions. In a bend of the subterraneous passage are recesses excavated for stores, and there is a cistern which will hold about 40 hogs-heads of water. The road to the summit, after emerging from the ramp, passes through the governor's house, which is a handsome building, surrounded by a verandah with 12 arches, whence it is called the *Duwázdah Darwázah*, or "Twelve-doors." The outer wall of the fort is 5,000 yards in circumference, and is 15 feet thick at the base, and 48 feet high. The space within is divided into 9 fortifications, separated by strong walls rising gradually above one another towards the centre, so that each interior one commands those beyond. The view from the summit is very fine, and the resting place of Aurangzib, at Raugh, may be plainly discerned. Not far from the causeway, which crosses the ditch, is a minaret 120 ft. high, said to have been erected by the Muhammadans, in commemoration of their first capture of the place. At a short distance from this is a tower, on which a heavy brass gun is mounted, which Fitzclarence conjectures would cast a ball of 60 lbs. weight. The best authorities (see Ritter, vol. vi., p. 437), pronounce Daulatábád to be the

same as the ancient *Tagara*, and it seems probable that there must have been a vast population in this region at the time the Élúra caves were excavated; for these works could have been finished only by multitudes, great as those that erected the pyramids. In the year 1293, A. D., Alláhu'd-dín, afterwards Emperor of Delhi, took the city of Deogarh, but the citadel still held out. Subsequently Alláh raised the siege on receiving a ransom, the amount of which may well appear incredible, 15,000 lbs. of pure gold, 175 lbs. of pearls, 50 lbs. of diamonds, and 25,000 lbs. of silver being enumerated among the items. So much, at least, appears certain, that Alláhu'd-dín levied an enormous sum upon Deogarh, and that consequently it must, at that time, have been a very great city and a rich emporium. In 1338, A. D., Muḥammad Sháh Tughlak removed the inhabitants of Delhi to Deogarh, the name of which he changed to Daulatábád. It was this Emperor who dug the ditch round the rock, and made the fortifications so strong. The people, who had been brought from Delhi, soon fled back to their homes, and though the tyrant made a second attempt to establish his capital in the Dakhan, he was finally baffled. Still, we may suppose that Daulatábád received some accession to the number of its inhabitants by these forced migrations, enough to repair in some degree the ravages of the Muḥammadans under Alláhu'd-dín. For the subsequent history of the place, see Preliminary Information, Haidarábád. As the *Kil'adár*, or Governor of the Fort, lives some way off, it will be better to send on before to him the order for admission, or *Aḥkám*, which must be obtained from the officer commanding at Aurangábád.

(b) *Pipalghát*, which is the Ghát above Daulatábád, was paved by one of Aurangzib's courtiers, whose name, and the date when he performed this good work, are recorded on two small pillars, about half way up the hill, which is very steep. No one has thought it worth while to furnish a translation of what is inscribed on these pillars, and Seely remarks that he did not dismount to

inspect them; such is the apathy of Indian travellers. The stones used in paving the Ghát are many of them very elaborately carved, and were probably taken from some ruined building, which, to judge from these relics, must have been of great beauty. On the ascent, as far as the pillars, there are exquisite views of the fortress of Daulatábád, which from hence, indeed, appears truly impregnable. After passing the pillars, the road winds round the hill, and the view of the fort is shut out. At the top, there is an extensive table land to the right, the steep face of which is similar to that of the range of hills overlooking Élúra, with which it is connected by a ridge turning to the N. at right angles. On this table land are many Muḥammadan tombs, some large and of superior workmanship, extending all the way from the road over Daulatábád to Rauzah, about 6 miles.

(c) *Rauzah*, "Garden" or "Paradise," is famous as the burial place of Aurangzib. It is also remarkable for the tombs of several saints revered by the Muḥammadans. Among these worthies lies Burhánu'd-dín, a holy man, who is said to have founded the city of Burhánpur. The doors of the outer wall of his mausoleum are plated with silver, and the tomb is covered with a pall of green velvet, the color being emblematic of his descent from the Prophet. Outside is a *naubat khánah*, and there are many holy men attached to the service of the place. The *Tomb of the Emperor* is comparatively mean and insignificant, being a plain sarcophagus covered with green cloth, in a wooden screen, not even painted. Aurangzib is said by some to have reached the age of 94 years, when he expired at Ahmadnagar. His body, as had been directed by himself, was removed to Rauzah, and Fitzclarence ascribes the simplicity of his tomb to his parsimony, "the ruling passion strong in death;" but, in fact, Aurangzib was a sincere believer in Islam, and a strict follower of its precepts, and, according to these precepts, there should be no ostentation in death. The tomb of a true disciple

of the faith should be a plain *turbat*, rising about two ft. from the ground, and open to receive upon it the dews of heaven. Rauzah is surrounded by a stone wall, with a handsome gate of the same material. There is a fine view from it over Aurangábád and Daulatábád.

(d) *Élúra (Ellora)* is a pretty rural village embosomed in trees, about a mile from the foot of the hill on which Rauzah stands, and consequently from the caves, for these are formed in the face of the hill just mentioned. The best description of the caves is that given by Colonel Sykes, in the 3rd vol. of the Bombay Asiatic Society's Transactions, and is for the most part followed here. The hill in which the caves are is of moderate height, and of a crescent shape, the concavity facing the W., and the horns rising considerably above the intermediate ridge. The slope of the hill is in general easy; but is occasionally interrupted by a disposition to stratification in the rock, which in such places presents a perpendicular face of from 20 to 100 ft. About 200 yards up the hill, which forms the N. horn, are the *Parasnáth* sculptures, and the extreme cave to the S. is the *Dher Wára*. Commencing, then, with the N., the description proceeds S., till it ends with the *Dher Wára*.

*Parasnáth*, or more properly, *Paraswanáth*, "Lord of Purity," is the name of the Jain Deity, and it is here given to an image, about 10 ft. high, of a man in a sitting posture, with the hands in the lap laid one within the other, the fingers extended, and the palms inwards. The hair is curly, and the head is canopied by a seven-headed serpent, whose folds, doubled behind the image, serve it as a prop. From the centre of the seat of the image half projects a wheel, above which an astronomical table is carved. Elephants' and tigers' heads support the seat on either side. There are also 5 sitting figures, and 1 standing figure of attendants, decorated with ear-rings, necklaces, bracelets, and anklets. A banker at Aurangábád, named Naimídás, built a handsome stone porch over this

figure about 140 years ago, and caused a long inscription to be cut in front of the seat. This image is an object of worship to the Gujar Baniyas, and there is an annual pilgrimage to it on the 14th of the light half of the month Bhadra. A similar figure, in the desert of Parker in Kachh, is described by Captain McMurdo. Trans. Lit. Society of Bombay, vol. 1, p. 190.

The next caves are the three called *Indra Sabhá*, "Court of Indra," forming in all a square of 60 ft., the W. face being open, the other three supported by pillars elaborately carved. These caves are two stories high, but the lower story is destroyed by damp, and partially filled up by the earth that has been washed in. The first of these is 61 ft. by 48 ft. The ceiling is flat, and supported by 16 pillars and 12 pilasters. Its height varies from 13 ft. 8 in. to 14 ft. 6 in. There is a recess from this room in which is a figure of Budh, in the usual sitting attitude, with a triple canopy. This image is called *Jagannáth Budh*. In the centre of this recess are three circles, cut in the floor at equal distances. *Indra Sabhá* has its name from two figures, one of *Indra* seated on an elephant, and in that attitude 7 ft. high and 4 ft. 3 in. across the shoulders, and one of *Indra's* wife. A tree, probably the *Kalpa Vriksh*, supposed to grant all wishes, grows out of the head of the deity. *Indráni*, the wife of *Indra*, is seated on a lion, and has also a tree growing from her head. She holds a child in her arms. The room is exquisitely carved, even the floor being covered with ornaments. All round in compartments are figures, seated or standing, which, according to some, represent Budh. It is possible, however, that these are images of the supreme Deity, or *Bhagwán*; otherwise the introduction of Buddhist or Bráhmanical figures into the same temple is inexplicable. The second cave, of the three which compose *Indra Sabhá*, is entered by a narrow passage from the first, which it resembles as regards its sculpture. There is here a figure similar to that above-mentioned, of *Parasnáth*, but it is here called *Parshurám*.

In two compartments, Bhaváni, the wife of Viṣṇu, of whom Parshurám was an Avatára, is represented, in one holding a mirror and flowers, in the other with a tiger by her side. Either, then, the figure of Párasnáth, at the N. extremity of the excavation is modern, or it should be called Parshurám, but probably to flatter the Jains from Gujarát, the bráhmans have conceded to it the name of a Jain deity. If this conjecture be correct, the wheel is perhaps the *chakra*, or discus, with which Parshurám cut off the 1000 arms of Sahasrárjun. The third cave is entered from the second, and is 68½ ft. by 66½ ft., and 15 ft. high. It is supported by 16 pillars and 20 pilasters. There is a cross-legged sitting figure, which Colonel Sykes thinks to be Budh, but the bráhmans call it Ranchor, a name of Kṛiṣṇa. The doorway to the sanctuary is highly decorated with small figures of men and women, in attendance on similar sitting figures. These are said by the bráhmans to be the inhabitants of Dwárka, the city where Kṛiṣṇa reigned, which is another and stronger argument for supposing these seated figures, which Colonel Sykes calls Budh, to be the Supreme Deity, of whom Kṛiṣṇa was the seventh, and most special, incarnation. In the extremities of the front verandah to this cave, are the figures of Indra and Indráni above described.

The front of the Parshurám cave is divided into two compartments, in one of which is the representation of a battle. Colonel Sykes very properly remarks, "that this is a very unusual piece of sculpture for a Budh cave." It may rather be taken as a convincing proof that these are not Budh caves at all.

About 50 paces from Indra Sabhá, is a cave now choked up with earth, which rises three-quarters of the way up the pillars. Some distance further is a temple, in the midst of a large area cut out from the rock, but the rains have washed the earth into it up to the capitals of the pillars, a process which it must have taken ages to complete thus far.

The *Dhumar Lená*, or "Nuptial Palace," according to Colonel Sykes, or *Dumal Lená*, for *Dú Mahall*, "two-mansion cave," according to a very recent traveller, is the next in order, distant about 200 yards from the last, and so called from a group which is said to represent the marriage of Shiva and Párvatí. This is the most extensive excavation under one roof to be found at Élúra, being 185 ft. by 150 ft., and 19 ft. high. There are 28 pillars and 20 pilasters. On the left of the W. entrance is a gigantic eight-armed figure of Shiva, as Virabhadra. With one arm he raises on a sword the head of Gajásur, "the elephant dæmon;" with another he transfixes Ratnásur, "gem dæmon," with a spear; another arm holds the cobra; another a cup; another Rájá Dakṣha; and two arms appear to support the building. The central colonnade leads to the sanctuary, a square room containing the Lingam. It has four doors each of which is guarded by two colossal Dwárpáls, 14 ft. 8 in. high. In the S.E. corner of the Propylæum, is a group of Shiva and Párvatí as principals, with Viṣṇu on Garuda, and Bráhma on his goose, as subordinates, and the skeleton figure of an ascetic which is usually found near Shiva. In the N.E. corner is a figure, said by Colonel Sykes to represent Jum Dhurma, or to write the words more properly, Yama the Rhadamanthus of the Hindús, otherwise called Dharma. He sits on a strange thing, resembling a rake with the teeth pulled out, supported by two nude female figures. He has the Bráhmanical cord, necklace, earrings, bracelets, and a tiara. In his left hand he holds what is perhaps a club. His right hand is held up, with the thumb and two fingers extended, the other two fingers bent down. Close to the *Dhumar Lená*, on the S., the rock has a perpendicular scarp of about 100 feet, over which falls a stream, and forms a beautiful cascade. Ascending the hill here, and following the bank of the stream for about half a mile, the traveller comes to the cave of Deví on the right bank. The excavation is small, and

has no beauty to boast of; the only figure being the mis-shapen, unfinished image of the goddess Devi. There is, however, a yearly Jâtra, or pilgrimage to the spot, and the fame of the miracles of this Deity is great. Consequently, steps have been cut down from the cave to the water, and pools have been dug in the bed of the stream, and among these the water dashes and whirls in a most picturesque manner.

Returning down the stream, several small caves are passed on both banks, each a cube of about 7 ft. In the centre is the Lingam: the right and left walls are devoid of sculpture, but the wall fronting the entrance has the bust of the celebrated Triad represented at Elephanta. The Elephanta bust being mutilated, it becomes possible to restore it from these designs, which are quite intact. The centre figure has a placid face; with one arm it holds the *mâlâ* or rosary, with the other a cocoa nut. On both arms above the elbow there is a twisted ornament, intended probably to represent a snake. In the cap is the crescent moon attached by a braid. On the left side of the cap is a skull. The Jânwâ or Brâhmanical cord, unlike that of the present day, is as thick as a rope. The right hand face of the triad has an impression of fury; the eyes starting, the mouth open, and the brow and cheeks corrugated. The right hand holds a dish, which may refer to Shiva's drinking the poison which was produced when the Gods and Asurs churned the ocean, or it may be the vessel in which Shiva caught the blood of Ratnâsur, every drop of which on touching the earth produced a new demon. In this dish Colonel Sykes supposes rosin was placed and kindled to represent the God breathing fire, a characteristic of Shiva. The left hand holds the *Nâg* or cobra. The left face is smaller and more feminine. The head-dress consists of the *Nâg*, the head of the snake forming the top-knot. Both arms have bangles joined by a longitudinal bar, and like those worn by the women of Gujarât, which thus establishes the female sex of the figure. The right hand holds a mirror, the left a pencil or brush for applying

collyrium to the eyelids. The bust is indubitably intended to represent Shiva, —in the centre face, in his ordinary character; and, in the other two faces, in his quality of Arddha-nârîsha, half male, half female.

Returning to the *Dhumar Leni* and crossing the stream, two caves called the *Janwâsâ* are reached. The word *Janwâsâ* signifies the pavilion assigned by the father of the bride to the bridegroom, when he comes to marry his betrothed. There is nothing remarkable in these caves. The first has Viṣṇu in the Boar-incarnation, and three figures of Brahmâ, Viṣṇu, and Shiva; the second has a few sculptures of Sevakas or attendants. Over the most N. of the two a stream falls, and forms a beautiful cascade.

A little to the S. is the cave called the *Kumhâr Wâra*, "the potter's place." This cave is sacred to Shiva, and Col. Sykes finds nothing to explain the appellation it has received. It may be either that earthenware vessels, so much used by the Hindûs in their culinary and devotional operations, were really made here for the use of the priests and their followers. Or there may be a reference to Shâlivahan, who is said to have been a potter, and to have made figures of men, horses, and elephants, into which he infused life, so that he thus raised a large army, and became master of Hindûstân.

The *Tailî kâ Ghând*, "Oilman's Mill," comes next. A hole sunk in the floor, resembling the mill used by oilmen, has, doubtless, caused the cave to be so designated; but this hole is exactly similar to one in *Râvan kî Khâi*, which is there said to mark the place of sacrifice. The *Tailî kâ Ghânâ* is sacred to Shiva.

Ascending the hill there are three small caves called *Nil Kanth*, "Blue throat," a name given to Shiva from his drinking the poison produced by the churning of the ocean, and which stained his neck blue. These caves have no sculptures, but each has a Lingam, and in one of them the Lingam has a blue stain, whence probably the name given to the caves. This Lingam is a nicely polished stone of a nature different from that of the rock where the cave is formed. The