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CONSIDERATIONS

ENEWAL 73

EAST-INDIA COMPANY'S

Charter.

BY

WILLIAM SMITH O'BRIEN, Esq. M. P.

Agitur salus sociorum atque amicorum, pro quâ multa majores vestri magna et gravia bella gesserunt; aguntur certissima populi Romani vectigalia et maxima, quibus amissis, et pacis ornamenta, et subsidia belli requiretis; aguntur bona multorum civium, quibus est a vobis, et ipsorum, et reipublica causa, consulendum.—Cicero.

Aspice p. tus

Et plenum magnis trabibus mare, plus hominum est jam

In pelago; veniet classis quocunque vocarit
Spes lucri.—Juv.

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PREFACE.

The object of the following pages is to offer to those who wish to form an opinion upon the expediency of renewing the Charter of the East-India Company, a summary view of the past and existing relations between that body and the public. So much misconception prevails upon the subject, that every attempt, however imperfect, to afford information affecting a question, the decision of which involves the happiness and prosperity of a large portion of the human race, carries with it its own apology.

It has been the habit, of late, to discuss this question solely with reference to the interests of trade; yet it is evident to every disinterested observer, that, of the considerations connected with it, there are many to which that of the extension of commerce is subordinate. This precedence is claimed, in the first place, by a regard to the welfare of the natives of India; in the next, by a care for the security of the British power; and, lastly, by the demand for justice to the East-India Company itself. To recon-

cile and unite these important interests is the duty of a wise and impartial Legislature; and is the end to which all the reasonings and conclusions of this work have been directed.

To form a just idea of the nature of the British dominion in India, it is necessary to be in some measure acquainted with the manner in which it was acquired. A rapid survey has, therefore, been taken of our conquests, accompanied by a general view of the present extent of the British territories in India; a brief outline of the constitution of the East-India Company has been traced, in order that we may determine its aptitude as an instrument of government. After touching upon the controverted questions relative to the Free Settlement of Europeans, and the Freedom of the Press in India, I have proceeded to examine the reality of those dangers which are supposed to menace the stability of our Indian empire. A statement of the territorial revenue and commercial profits of the Company, has been deduced from the accounts and papers which have been laid before Parliament, and a variety of facts respecting the trade of the East have been drawn from the same source, to enable the reader to appreciate the differem arguments used by the advocates and adversaries of a Free Trade.

CONSIDERATIONS,

ETC. ETC.

THE first East-India Company was formed in the year 1600; and invested with a corporate capacity and exclusive privileges by a charter from Queen Elisabeth. In 1609, the charter was renewed, and made perpetual. During the civil wars, the trade became interrupted, and fell into the hands of private unprivileged merchants, who were termed interlopers. In 1661, a new charter was conferred; and, in 1669, Bombay, which had been received from Portugal, as part of the marriage-portion of the Infanta, the wife of Charles the Second, was granted to the Company. The fourth charter was given in 1677, and renewed in 1683 and 1686, with enlarged powers, and a confirmation of former privileges. The next renewal is dated in 1693. The Company having made default in the payment of five per cent. on its capital stock, imposed by the 4 & 5 William and Mary, it became a question whether the charter was not thereby forfeited. The act of 1693 restored the incorporated rights of the Company, and made · several regulations for the internal management of its concerns.

These charters gave the Company power to make peace and war; to conclude treaties; to appoint governors and judges; to coin money; to carry on exclusive trade between the Cape of Good Hope and the Straits of Magellan; and to seize interlopers: in short, all the functions of sovereignty; the sovereignty itself being alone reserved.

In 1698, a new Company was formed, and permitted to trade with the East Indies, in consideration of an advance made by it to Government of two millions sterling, at eight per cent. In 1702, a compromise took place between the new and old Companies; and their union was completed in 1708, by a formal surrender, on the part of the latter, of all its charters. Thenceforward, they became one

Company.

By the 8th Anne, c. 17, their exclusive trade was prolonged till 1726; and, after that time, three years' notice was to be given by Parliament before their privileges could be resumed. This renewal of the charter was purchased by the further advance to Government of £1,200,000, free of interest. These loans to Government formed the foundation of the Company's capital stock, upon which the dividend was made. Various pecuniary arrangements subsequently took place between the Public and the Company, which it would be tedious to enumerate. In 1788, the Company's capital stock amounted to £4,000,000; in 1789, it was increased to £5,000,000; and, in 1793, to £6,000,000, its present amount.

By the 3d Geo. II. c. 14, the exclusive trade was continued till 1736, with three years' notice, as before. The tharter was again renewed in the 17th Geo. II. and continued till 1780. The next renewals are dated in 1781 and 1793. In 1813, the charter was again renewed, upon terms which will be minutely stated hereafter.

During the first century of the Company's existence, its affairs were much mismanaged, both at home and in the East. A few factories on the coast, and in the eastern isles, constituted the whole of its territorial establishment. The Dutch were, at this time, the predominant European power in the East; and, during the inglorious reign of Charles II. harassed the trade, and attacked the settlements of Great Britain. It was not till the middle of the last century that the British power acquired a character of importance in India. The progress of the British arms cannot be clearly understood without a general survey of the political condition of the several native powers at the time when our conquests commenced. The following outline will give an idea of their relative importance.

The authority of the Mogul Emperors had, at this period, sunk into insignificance. The viceroys of the different provinces had thrown off obedience to their nominal head, and established independent sovereignties. Among these, the rabobs of Bengal, of Oude, and of the Carnatic, and the Nizam of the Deccan, were the chief · Mahometan princes who had founded their . power upon the ruins of the ancient monarchy.

In the Peninsula, Hyder Ali was in possession of a large kingdom which had been acquired by usurpation, and extended by conquest. The whole of the western side of the Deccan, with central India, and many of the northern parts of Hindustan had been subjugated, and were governed by the Mahrattas—a race of Hindoo warriors, who had shaken off the Mahomedan yoke and avenged the previous subjection of their country.

The Paishwah, who held the person and exercised the power of the Rajah of Sattarah, the legitimate head of the Mahrattas—and the families of Scindia Holkar, the Guicowar Rajah, and the Rajah of Nagpoor, or Berar, were the most powerful chiefs of this confederacy.

The dissensions of Europe first converted a company of merchants into warriors and conquerors.

The French having formed settlements in the vicinity of the English, the wars which were carried on in Europe between England and France, naturally led to hostile encounters between their subjects in the East. In 1746, Madras was captured by the French. It was restored at the peace in Aix-la-Chapelle. In the succeeding wars of 1756 and 1778, Pondicherry and other French settlements were taken by the British, and the conflict was finally terminated by their total reduction, after the revolutionary war had placed the two nations in hostility to each other. Many of the French, however, entered, the service of the native princes, and, by their intrigues, and by the effective assistance

which they rendered, continued to instigate aggression, and form combinations against the British, and their allies. In an early stage of these contests the native powers had become involved either as the allies or enemies of the contending parties. The Company acquired a permanent influence in the Carnatic by defeating the pretensions of a competitor for the dignity of Nabob, who was supported by the French, and by placing in the government of that province, the Nabob Mahomed Ali, the friend and ally of the British interests. This connection eventually became one of dependence on his part, and of protection on the part of the Com-

The Rajah of Travancore was also an early confederate of the British. In 1765, the northern Circars, a tract of country which extends along the eastern coast, was ceded, by the Nizam, to the Company, with the sanction of the Mogul Emperor. The rancorous and inveterate hatred of Hyder Ali, and of his son, Tippoo Saib, to the European name, threatened, during a long period, the existence of the British power in southern India, and the subsequent fall of this dynasty was among the chief causes of its'extension. From the middle to the close of the last century, war was waged against the Company by these princes, interrupted only by intervals employed in forming new combinations for its more advantageous renewal. After a succession of combats, in which the British suffered frequent reverses, Tippoo's power was at length broken by the vigorous measures of

Lord Cornwallis, and a treaty was dictated under the walls of his capital. This humiliation, however, was not able to extinguish his ambition, or to mitigate his animosity; and it was reserved to Lord Wellesley to complete, in 1799, the overthrow of his power, by the capture of Seringapatam. Since that event, the whole Peninsula has enjoyed tranquillity, under the protection of the British shield. The hereditary princes of Mysore have been restored to their ancient dominions, and the other territories of Tippoo have become the prize of the conqueror. The court of the Nizam had heartily co-operated in the destruction of Tippoo, and, having since remained faithful to its engagements with the Company, still enjoys the independent sovereignty of a very extensive territory.

On the western side of India, the Bombay Government had become involved in hostilities with the Mahrattas, by espousing the cause of Ragobah, whose pretensions were opposed by Scindia and the other Mahratta chiefs, and who was accused of having murdered his nephew, the young Paishwah, with the expectation of succeeding him. The results of the war which followed were the conquest of Salsette, Baroach, and Gualior; but, the Supreme Government having disapproved of the connexion with Ragobah, his cause was abandoned; and a treaty was concluded at Salbye, in 1782, by which these acquisitions were restored, and Madhoo Row, the son of the murdered Paishwah, recognised as his legitimate successor. After the death of Madhoo Row, in 1797, Scindid made him-

self master of the person and influence of Bajee Row, the young Paishwah; but, upon the defeat of Scindia's army, and the capture of Poonah by Holkar, Bajee Row fled to the British for protection. A freaty was concluded at Bassein, in 1802, by which it was stipulated that the Company should undertake the defence of the Paishwah's kingdom, leaving him absolute master of its civil government. A similar arrangement had been formed, in 1780, with the Guicowar, the faithful ally of the British. The ·Company having been forced into a war with Scindia, Holkar, and the Rajah of Berar, the campaigns of 1803 and 1804 reduced the former to submission, annihilated the army of Holkar, and compelled the Rajah of Berar to accept a subsidiary force as a guarantee of his future amity. No further hostilities took place between the Mahrattas and the British till the year 1817. In that year, Lord Hastings having made preparations for the employment of the British army, in the suppression of the Pindarries, a horde of freebooters, whose ravages had spread desolation throughout the whole of the central parts of India, the Paishwah and the Rajah of Berar took this opportunity of breaking their engagements with the Company. They attacked the British subsidiary forces stationed at Poonah and Nagpoor, their respective capitals, and at the same time the Company's troops were drawn into a combat with the army of Holkar, at Maheidpore.

In every instance, the triumph of British skill and valour was complete. The faithless Paish-

wah was deposed, and his dominions now form one of the provinces subject to the direct government of the Company. The power of the Rajah of Berar has been much curtailed; and Holkar has forfeited a considerable extent of territory, and has been deprived of his armed force.

It remains to take a review of the acquisitions of the Company in the presidency of Bengal. In the reign of William III., Calcutta, which now, probably, contains 600,000 persons, was a small village; and, until the year 1756, the land annexed to it, scarcely extended beyond the limits of the town. In that year it was taken by Surajah Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal; and its capture is memorable, as well on account of the cruel fate of the English who suffered on that occasion, as of the important consequences to which it gave rise, and the severe retaliation which it provoked. In the following year, 1757, Lord Clive fitted out an expedition at Madras, retook Calcutta, and, at the battle of Plassev, totally defeated the forces of the Nabob, who lost, at the same time, his throne and his life. Meer Jaffier, having purchased the aid of the British, by a large gift of treasure and territory, was appointed his successor; but not being found sufficiently pliant, he was deposed in favour of his son-in-law, Cossim Ali. The new Nabob, after a protracted dispute with the Company's servants, respecting the internal trade of his dominions, attempted, but without success, to disengage himself from his imperious allies. Being defeated at the battle of Gerfah, he was

compelled to fly for protection to the Nabob of Oude; who, taking up arms in his defence, was himself defeated at the battle of Buxar. Meer Jaffier was reinstated in his pageant dignity; till at length, in 1765, the Dewannee, or entire administration of the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, was surrendered by the Nabob, and granted by the Mogul Emperor to the Company. Since that time these provinces have remained unmolested in possession of the Company.

After the defeat of the Nabob of Oude, the Company continued to exercise a commanding influence at the court of that prince, and a corps of British troops was entertained for the defence of his kingdom. Among other arrangements, the principality of Benares, which had been tributary to Oude, was transferred to the British government. The Rajah of Benares was soon after driven into a revolt, by the exactions of Mr. Hastings, deposed, and his territories converted into a province, directly subject to the Company. Rohilcund, Corah, and Allahabad were, about the same time, conquered by the British, and sold to the Nabob of Oude; but were resumed in 1801, under a new arrangement of Lord Wellesley. The Nabob has since taken the title of King, and retains the civil government of his dominions, but is dependent upon the Company for military protection. The victories of 1803 released the Mogul Emperor from the hands of Scindia, and gave to us the province of Delhi, with the care of the Emperor's person.

The aggressions and encroachments of the warlike Ghorkas, who possess the kingdom of Nepaul, on the northern frontier of Hindustan, compelled Lord Hastings to take up arms in defence of the honour and safety of the Company's dominions. In 1814, a British force entered Nepaul; and, in 1815, a sharply-contested campaign terminated in the total defeat and entire submission of the Ghorka government. This success was followed by the cession of a large tract of country.

The last enlargement of our empire had its origin in a similar cause—the unprovoked hostility of ambitious neighbours. After a succession of injuries on the part of the Burmese, for which, notwithstanding urgent and repeated complaints, no redress could be procured, it became evident that this warlike nation meditated nothing less than the invasion of Bengal. Rangoon was, in consequence, occupied by a British force; and, in 1826, after a protracted warfare, the Burmese submitted to the terms imposed by the conquering army; by which the Company has become possessed of nearly the whole line of sea-coast which previously belonged to that empire.

The following, then, is a succinct review of the political relations existing between the Gompany and the several native powers of India. Of the Mahratta Chiefs, Scindia, alone, retains the full military, as well as civil government of his territories. The courts of Holkar, of the Guicowar, the Rajah of Berar, and of the smaller

principalities, still enjoy all the functions of royalty, except the possession of an armed force. They have each, by the cession or conquest of a part of their territories, purchased military protection from the Company. The Rajpoot Chiefs, who occupy the north-west frontier of Hindustan, are tributary, either to the Company, or to the States of Scindia and Holkar. Of the Mahomedan Governments, the King of Oude, the Nizam, the Rajahs of Mysore and Travancore, and the Nabob of Bhopaul, are the principal states whose civil independence is still recognised by the Company. From their defenceless condition, however, they are virtually dependent upon the British Government, and have no other security for the continuance of their sovereignties, than its equity and forbearance.

The territories over which the Company exercises direct and absolute sway, are, in the presidency of Calcutta, the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, Orissa, Benares, Allahabad, Delhi, Agra, and the districts ceded by the Kings of Oude and Nepaul, and by the Nabob of Ferruckabad. In the presidency of Madras, the Circars, the Carnatic, Malabar, and the countries ceded by the Nizam. In the presidency of Bombay, all the dominions of the Paishwah, except that part which has been granted to the Rajah of Sattarah, with the cessions from the other Mahratta Chiefs in the Deccan, Malwah, Guzerat, and Cutch. The provinces ceded by the Burmese are, Arracan and Tenasserim, with their dependencies. The Island of Penang, or Prince of Wales's Island, forms an incorporated settlement, subordinâte to the East-India Company.*

The only colonies which now belong to other European nations, are, Pondicherry and Chandernagore, to the French; Goa, to Portugal; Tranquebar and Serampore, to the Danish Government; and Chinsurah, to the Dutch.

The population of the territories directly subject to Great Britain has been estimated at 80,000,000 of souls; while the population of those states which enjoy civil independence, but have been deprived of a military force, has been computed to amount to 40,000,000. The British territory extends over an area of 585,000 square miles; and the total territory dependent, directly or indirectly, upon the Company, amounts to about 1,180,000 square miles. Such is the mighty empire, for the government and interests of which Parliament is now called upon to legislate. Our first obvious duty is, to inquire into the administration and capacity of that body, under whose auspices it has swelled into such vast dimensions. If the Company has performed well the trust reposed in it, justice requires that its functions should be continued; and, unless it can be made clearly evident, that a change would ensure improvement, it would be alike inexpedient and unjust, to transfer them elsewhere.

That the extension of our dominions in the East was not a work of deliberate design, on the

^{*} The British Colonies of Ceylon, and the Mauritius, being subject to the administration of the Colonial-office, an account of their conquest does not fall within the scope of this work.

part, either of the Company, or of the Government at home, is testified by the language of every despatch, and of every code of instructions which were forwarded to the local administration in India.* But at such a distance, control was necessarily imperfect; and necessity, justice, or expediency, were never wanting as pretexts or excuses for disobedience.

Invested with power, almost unlimited, the Governors and Commanders in India listened too often to the suggestions of avarice, of glory, or of their zeal for the interests of the Company; and whatever might have been the previous wishes or instructions of the Directors, they seldom failed to approve the successes which brought wealth into their coffers,-enriched their dependants, and enlarged their possessions and influence in India. Still, however, although the course of our progress was occasionally stained by acts of oppression and injustice, yet in the general character of our proceedings, there was neither a want of fidelity to engagements, nor an inordinate desire of usurpation; our situation became like that of ancient Rome, and the remark of the historian exactly describes it :-Augendæ dominationi causam atque materiam præbuit, potius inconsulta hostium atque emulorum pravitas, quam illius ambitio. Our march towards supremacy was such as must always take place

^{*} The following remarkable declaration forms part of the preamble to the enactments of Mr. Pitt's bill, in 1784—"To pursue schemes of conquest and extension of dominion in India, are measures repugnant to the wish, the honour, and the policy of this nation."

when strength comes into collision with weakness, and skill with ignorance. Wantonly attacked, the Company defended itself, formed alliances with native powers, was victorious, and added to its acquisitions, or divided amongst its allies, the territories of the conquered. In other instances it occurred that feeble states, with which the Company had formed engagements, being assailed by their more powerful neighbours, called upon it for assistance, and agreed to assign portions of their revenues for the support of British subsidiary troops, in lieu of their own armies. The danger being passed, they repent their dependance, a revolt takes place, European discipline and energy are again victorious, and the revolted people are converted from dependant allies into subject provinces.

In 1773 an act was passed for defining and regulating the powers of the governments in India, on such terms as were rendered necessary by the great extension of dominion which had recently taken place; but it is not until Mr. Pitt's act, in 1784, that we can date the first great improvement in the management of the affairs of India. By that act the Board of Control was created, and such a system of check introduced, as to render mis-government almost impossible, except with the concurrence of the ministry at home. The present constitution and duties of the Board of Control, as modified by acts for the renewal of the charter in 1793, and in 1813, may be described as follows: - His Majesty appoints Commissioners for the affairs of India, of whom two Secretaries of

State, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer are ex-officio members-the President is the responsible officer of the Board, but the assistance of two other Commissioners is necessary to render its proceedings valid. The Board is invested with a control in all matters relating to the government of India, whether civil, military, or financial. It has access to all records and may require abstracts and statements respecting all affairs not strictly commercial. No despatches relating to government or revenue can be forwarded to India without its approval. It may even originate instructions, and the Court of Directors, though they may remonstrate, can-not alter them. All despatches received from India must be immediately submitted to, the Board; nor can any public disclosure of their contents take place, except under its, authority. No war can be undertaken in India without its sanction. It may grant licenses to individuals to reside in India, and to ships to trade, when such licenses have been refused by the Directors. So extensive, indeed, have been the powers committed to it that whatever may have been the completion of the Company's measures in India, their responsibility is shared by the Board of Control, and through it by the king's ministers at home.

The following is a brief analysis of the constitution of the Company in London and in India. The Directors are elected by the General Court of Proprietors, who meet four times a year, and to whom it belongs to declare the dividend; to appoint a committee to frame by-laws, to con-

trol all grants above a certain amount; and to receive reports from the Directors respecting the general state of the Company's concerns. No proprietor is entitled to a vote unless he be possessed of £1000 East-India stock; and the qualification for a Director is £2000 stock. There are twenty-four Directors, six of whom go out annually in rotation, so that four years is the period of service for each Director; no Director can be re-elected until he has been out of the direction for at least one year; thirteen Directors form a Court, and the presence of that number is necessary to give effect to all orders and instructions which do not emanate from the secret committee. The business of the Company is chiefly conducted by committees and sub-committees, to which are permanently allotted certain defined duties, and which are composed of Directors appointed in the order of their seniority.

Such is the constitution of the Court of Directors, who, in concert with the Board of Control, enjoy an unlimited command over all proceedings in India. The administration of each of the presidencies of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay is vested in a Governor and Council, consisting of three members. The Commander-in-Chief may be a Member of Council, without regard to the term of his residence; but no civil servant of the Company can become Member of Council until he has served ten years in India. The Government of Calcutta is supreme over the other governments in matters relating to peace, war, and revenue. Under the Act of 1773, all measures were decided in Council by

a majority of votes; but, during the administration of Warren Hastings, so much inconvenience was found to arise from difference of opinion between the members, that it was enacted, by the 26 Geo. III: c. 16, that, in future, the Governor-General should be allowed to act upon his own responsibility, in extraordinary cases, without the concurrence of his Council. All the proceedings of the governments in India must be recorded by minutes, with a statement of the reasons upon which they have been .founded: and it may be supposed that this practice acts as a very useful check upon maladministration. The governments of India are entrusted with the entire control over the army, and with the imposition of taxes, in all the dominions of the Company, except the towns of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay; and their regulations have the authority of law until reversed by instructions from home. The Governor-General is empowered to apprehend all suspected persons, and either to send them home, to be tried in England, or, having forwarded copies of all depositions in their case, to retain them for judgement in India. Except in case of invasion, or of the most urgent necessity, the Governor-General is restrained from declaring war until the sanction of the Directors and of the Board of Control has been received. The commercial and financial concerns of the Company in India are superintended by a Board of Trade and a Board of Revenue. The collection of the revenue is conducted by British collectors, aided by British assistants; but all the inferior business of this department is transacted by natives.

There are three different classes of Courts of Justice in India. In the first, are the King's Courts, or Supreme Courts of Judicature, whose jurisdiction extends to all British-born subjects residing in the provinces, but, in suits between natives, is limited to the immediate vicinity of the presidencies. The Courts which administer justice in those cases in which the natives are concerned, are of two kinds,-civil and criminal. The Supreme Civil Court is called the Sudder Dewannee Adawlut. The Courts of Circuit are the next in gradation; and the lowest Courts in which Europeans preside are the Zillah, or District Courts, including the Court of the Register, who is also an European. The inferior civil, judges are natives, under the titles of Sudder Ameens and Moonsiffs; and their jurisdiction is limited to a certain amount, with an appeal to the European judge. The Supreme Criminal Court is the Nizamut Adawlut, and the Criminal Circuit Courts are called Fouzdarry Adawluts. The next in gradation is the Zillah, or European Magistrate's Court, and the lowest Court of Criminal Justice is that of the Daroga, whose functions resemble those of a police officer. In these Courts, justice is administered according to the Mahomedan law, modified by a regard to Hindoo usages, and by the regulations of the British Government. The natives have lately been rendered capable of sitting on juries, and it may be hoped that the introduction of this institution will be attended with the happiest effects, in curbing that disposition to pervert justice which is the great political vice of the East, and in supplying the deficiencies, under which an

European judge must always labour, in weighing the evidence of a people with whose habits and ideas he can be only partially acquainted. It is an institution by no means alien to the practice of Indian justice, as there is a slight though very imperfect resemblance to our jury trial in the native Punchayet Courts.

The whole patronage of India, civil and military is vested in the Court of Directors, with the exception of the appointments of bishops, and of the judges of the Supreme Courts of Judicature. The Governors in India, and the Commander-in-Chief, are named by the Company, but their appointment must be sanctioned by his Majesty. The King also possesses the power of removing

any civil servant from his office in India.

Having thus become acquainted with the history and constitution of the East-India Company, we may proceed to inquire into its adequacy as an organ of government. And, in the first instance, it is but justice to premise that the concurring testimony of all writers, whether hostile or friendly to the Company, bears witness that no part of the empire has produced more able statesmen, or more skilful generals,and that no where have public functionaries during the last fifty years been less guilty of abuse of the powers committed to them, or have been less open to the imputation of corrupt or unworthy motives. The whole of those volumious records which have been laid before Parliament testify the very general desire which has existed, as well on the part of the Directors at home, as of their servants in India, to frame

such a system of judicial, financial, and political arrangements, as should secure the happiness of the people entrusted to their charge. It is a poor enconium upon the Company's government to say that it excels those which it has supplanted; but, on the other hand, it is not less unreasonable to condemn it, because it has not yet attained that standard of perfection to which it is the desire of all, and of none more than of public men in India, to exalt it. Though not strictly in the way of argument, yet, as an illustration of the spirit which animates the Indian administration, it may be not uninteresting to transcribe a government notice, which appeared, last February, in all the Calcutta papers, signed by the Governor-General's private secretary. Notice, "The Governor-General invites the com-" munication of all suggestions tending to pro-" mote any branch of national industry,-to im-" prove commercial intercourse by land and " water,-to amend any defects in existing es-" tablishments,-to encourage the diffusion of " education and useful knowledge, and to ad-" vance the general prosperity and happiness of the British empire in India. This invitation is addressed to all native gentlemen, landholders, merchants, and others; to all Europeans, both in and out of the service, including that useful and respectable body of men, the Indigo planters, who, from their uninterrupted residence in the Mofussil, (interior,) have peculiar opportunities of forming an opinion upon some of these subjects. The Governor-General, after his feturn from his

" intended voyage, will give private audiences to native gentlemen, and natives of respecta-

" bility, who may wish to see him."

The present constitution of this sovereign power wears, undoubtedly, a most anomalous appearance, yet it may be doubted whether it would be possible to devise any other system better qualified to answer all the ends of good government. There are many weighty objections against transferring to the King's Ministers the functions at present performed by the Court of Directors. Cabinet arrangements are so fluctuating and uncertain, that if the government of India were immediately and solely dependant upon a ministerial office, there would be some reason to fear that its administration would want uniformity and consistency. The total dissimilarity of Indian institutions to those of England requires a peculiar education, and a long course of study and experience, which it would be scarcely fair to expect, and certainly most difficult to find, in any but a body specially and permanently appointed as the guardians of that empire. Again, there is the constitutional question, whether the power of the Crown can be safely increased by the vast patronage of India, or whether, if vested in the Crown, less regard might not be paid to merit and capacity than to connection and parliamentary influence. The scene is so remote, and so much beyond the range of public opinion, that neglect, if not mismanagement, might possibly be the consequence of the absence of any check or restraint: on the other hand, the very tenure by which the East-

India Company holds the sovereignty of India is itself no trifling security against this misrule. The period returning, after short intervals, at which it must render an account of its stewardship, and when its delegated authority may be resumed, it naturally endeavours to establish such a character as may found a claim for the renewal of its trust. The Directors are persons recommended to their situation by large connection with India, or by having distinguished themselves in the various departments of Indian adventure. They bring to the execution of their office the experience of a life. In the distribution of patronage they are naturally actuated by the same motives which influence the rest of mankind, but such is the delicate nature of Indian administration, and so responsible is the character with which they are invested, that abilities and integrity form a first and essential requisite, and are recommendations paramount to all other claims.

To the Court of Directors the Government of India is a primary object. To the Ministry it would be a secondary. The whole undivided attention of the Directors is engaged by the empire which they govern. They stand, in fact, in the same relation to India that the colonial legislatures hold to the other British dependencies, with the superior advantage of being exempt from local influence, and of enjoying a more rapid and direct communication with the general government at its fountain-head. Many years must elapse before there will exist in India materials fitted for the construction of represen-

tative assemblies, whose duty it would be to provide for local wants, appropriate the revenues, and check the possible abuses of the executive authority; and, until this time shall arrive, we shall find it difficult to discover a better substitute than the Court of Directors. Whether, therefore, we regard abstractedly the constitution of the East-India Company, or measure the probability of obtaining a better instrument of government, or look to its past conduct and character, I think we shall be brought to the conclusion that it would be alike unwise and unsafe to divest it of an authority which it has exercised so much to the advantage both of Great Britain and of India.

Among the prerogatives with which the Company is at present invested, there is none which has been considered more objectionable than the power of denying to British subjects permission to reside in India. By the 53d Geo. III. c. 155, heavy penalties are imposed upon any British subject who shall proceed to India without license from the Directors or Board of Control. The local governments are also empowered, if they see fit, to send home any European residing in that country, even though in possession of a license. It is also enacted that no British subject shall reside in the interior, at a greater distance than ten miles from the presidencies, without a certificate of leave from the local authorities. Till a very late period, no European was allowed to hold lands either as proprietor or upon lease. By a recent regulation, however, of the present Governor-General, the indigo-planters have been permitted to take leases of lands from the natives for the cultivation of that plant. The following is a summary of the arguments used by the advocates for the Free Settlement of Europeans in India:—

It is said that nothing can be more alien to the principles of natural liberty than to shut out the whole of a vast region from the enterprise and industry of persons who own allegiance to the same crown as that to which it is subject. That the whole European community in India, exclusive of those who are in the service of the Company, does not exceed three thousand persons, and that the number of British settlers must, under any circumstances, be so small, that it is perfectly ridiculous to apprehend any danger from a body which bears so trifling a proportion to the mass of the population. That the individuals who would be likely to settle in India would be of the most respectable class, as none others would either find it their interest to proceed to a country in which all the lower departments of labour are paid at a rate much inferior to that of England, or, if so inclined, would not be able to bear the heavy expenses of such a distant voyage. That the English settler, mingling with the inhabitants on terms of familiarity, which the dignity of office will not allow to the Company's servant, and establishing a mutual dependence in the business of life, would accustom them to English habits, and gradually introduce the advantages of western civilization. That more particularly the languishing trade and imperfect cultivation which now render the productions of India,—its silk, cotton, tobacco, and other staples,—inferior to those of other countries, would be invigorated and improved by the application of British skill, capital, and energy. In support of this position, they appeal to the success of the experiment in the case of indigo, which, since its production, has been aided by British capital, has been raised to a quality superior to that of any other that is grown elsewhere, and has become a source of great wealth both to the natives and to the European planters.

On the other hand, it is contended that the free admission of settlers would be inimical both to the safety of the empire and the interests of the Hindoos. That Englishmen, wherever placed, clamour for rights, which it would be impossible to extend to the natives, and that thus either a spirit of disaffection would be raised, or civil distinctions, and an ascendancy engendered, which it might be most difficult, at a future period, to counteract. That the Hindoos are a timid race, who would bend before the oppressive and domineering spirit of an European settler; and that, even if they resisted, the courts of justice are, from necessity, so framed, that a native cannot procure adequate redress against an European without great expense and difficulty. That they are tenacious of a thousand observances, and entertain a variety of prejudices connected with religion and caste, which are respected by the Company's responsible servants, but which might be trifled with and insulted by men who have no interest in the preservation of the country beyond the period of a temporary speculation, and that thus the minds of the natives might be alienated from our rule.

It is difficult, perhaps, to determine, with confidence, a question which requires a knowledge of the native character and of the practical operation of our government, to be obtained only by a long residence in India; but I confess it appears to me that these fears are imaginary, and that no necessity, sufficiently urgent, has been shown for depriving men of their natural right to seek their fortunes in whatever country offers the fairest prospect to their enterprise. At the same time it may be doubted whether, in the existing state of India, the government can be safely divested of the power of deportation. There is a certain description of conduct which, though not actually within the cognizance of the English law, might produce the greatest danger to an empire constituted as ours is in India. This prerogative would be a restraint upon turbulent and seditious characters, whilst the outery which would follow any abuse of it, both in Parliament and in the country, would operate as a sufficient check upon its capricious exercise.

The question of a free press is, also, one which has produced much discussion. By those who are best acquainted with India, it seems to be considered incompatible with the nature of our dominion in that country, and even those statesmen who have gone out with the strongest prejudices in its favour have been compelled to allow the necessity of curbing its excesses. If it be admitted that we hold the

sceptre of India, on the basis of absolute power, and that our sway is still endangered by adverse interests and hostile prejudices, which it will require time to conciliate, the arguments against a free press seem to preponderate. The press, if unrestrained, is a power superior to that of any government, and where the embers of discontent exist, it never fails to fan them into a flame. In England, the press controls the government, but the interests of the ruling authorities are so much blended with those of the people, that its operation is scarcely perceived. But, in India, it would be otherwise. All the ancient authorities which have been displaced may be supposed hostile to our power. The natives are at present excluded from all the higher situations in the army, in the collection of the revenue, and in the administration of justice. That this exclusion is beneficial to the mass of the people will not be doubted by those who know the universal corruption, extortion, and oppression which characterise eastern functionaries; but, in a country so situated, it is evident that there must be a strong current of feeling opposed to the executive authority, which, if aided by the great accession of force derived from a disaffected press, might overwhelm' the bulwarks of our power.. It will be said, perhaps, that the ruling body of every country ought to be responsible to the people subject to its sway; that, if it studies their welfare, it will be supported by their affection, and that, when it fails in this duty, their allegiance is justly weakened or withdrawn. But, with the notions of liberty prevalent in the east, it is idle to talk of responsibility to the people. They are not in a condition to exact it. At the same time, though it may be necessary to reserve the power of restraining the press, a wise and liberal government will be lenient in the exercise of it.

As the uncertainty and instability of our power in India is the common basis of every argument against the introduction of change and improvement in the moral, social, or political condition of that country, it is of some importance to examine upon what foundation this alarm rests. With that class of politicians who look upon colonies and dependencies as a burden instead of an advantage, and would circumscribe our national greatness within the precincts of our own isle, this is not a fit occasion to contend. But many, who admit the advantage which Great Britain derives from administering the affairs of a great empire, still think that it is folly to trouble ourselves about a country which we cannot hope to preserve. The supposed danger presents itself under the twofold form of external invasion, and internal revolt. As to the former, it is impossible to predict what events are in the womb of time; but it is not too much to say that there seems, in the circumstances with which India is surrounded, less reason to apprehend its subjugation, by foreign arms, than to expect the conquest of Great Britain itself. With regard to internal revolt, the whole course of history proves with how much difficulty and reluctance the links are broken which bind together subjects and their rulers. A long course of misgovernment, or a complete decay in the political body,

are the only causes which produce the internal dissolution of empires. Of neither of these diseases does the British Government offer any symptom. In India, the desire of conquest is considered the legitimate ambition of an enterprising prince; and the title which is founded in conquest has so often been recognized by nations who have frequently changed their masters, that submission is less tardy and reluctant than our experience in Europe would lead us to believe. The condition of the natives, under their own governments, was so wretched that the great mass of the people yield an obedience founded upon gratitude for the blessings of our rule. They are now protected from foreign enemies, and secured from internal rapine. Formerly, extortion was not limited to ministers or favourites, but was practised by every subordinate agent of government. The taxes are now defined and certain. Formerly, the interference of the judge was only to be procured by bribes; at present, the administration of justice is pure and impartial at its fountain-head, if not in all its minor ramifications. The government is mild, beneficent, and humane, anxious to promote the extension of such habits and principles as shall qualify the natives to exercise the privileges of British citizens. Even that portion of the community who seem to suffer most from our ascendancy have every cause for gratitude. Those Nabobs and Rajahs who, in mercy to their subjects, have been deposed, would have been long ago swept away by the invaders and usurpers against whose intrusion they sought refuge under .

the Company's protection. They now enjoy splendid incomes, sufficient to support a state similar to that which is maintained by the first class of English noblemen. From those native princes who still possess independent sovereignties little is to be feared, for they have all been disarmed, and the success of their past attempts has not been such as to encourage a rash effort to regain their power to injure us. The dependence of the British sway upon a native army is another source of anxiety and alarm. Without dwelling too much upon that singular fidelity which has been so uniformly exhibited by the soldiers of India, and which has shone most conspicuous upon the most trying occasions, it is to be remembered that that army is composed of men differing with each other in language, manners, interest, country, and religion. It is said that above thirty nations contribute to the supply of our native military force, and it is almost impossible that any considerable portion of an army, so composed, should be engaged in a common design, or conducted by a common leader. All the superior officers are British, and we know how little formidable is even an armed force when deprived of those to whom, it has been accustomed to look for direction and command. The religious prejudices of the Hindoos form, in the opinion of many, an insuperable of impediment to the introduction of change. Yet it appears, from the testimony of those who have recently visited India, that the distinctions of caste are rapidly disappearing, that a very general desire of knowledge prevails, that European

manufactures are freely consumed, (a thing once pronounced very improbable,) and that there is a striking disposition in the natives to conform to all the habits and even fashions of their European rulers. This is, in fact, the natural progression of an intelligent people, under a mild and enlightened government. Nor can it be a matter of doubt that, as education becomes generally diffused, the impure rites and extravagant doctrines of a debasing creed will give place to the pure morality and exalted spirit of Christianity. Let us proceed boldly, but not rashly. Whatever may be the dangers of our present situation, ignorance and slavery will form no security. To take away that foreign character which our government wears, and to plant it in the affections of our eastern subjects, we must teach them to feel as British citizens, by extending to them the rights and immunities of the English constitution. Above all things, education will tend to perpetuate our reign. In learning our language, and reading our books, the natives of India will imbibe their spirit, and exchange the feelings and ideas of Asia for the juster notions and more elevated principles of Europe.

In drawing up a statement of the Finances of the Company it may be useful to recapitulate the following provisions of the 53 Geo. III. c. 155, which regulate the appropriation of its territorial revenues and commercial profits: Section 55. The revenues arising from territorial acquisitions in India are to be applied—

•1. In maintaining forces.

2. In payment of the interest of debt.

3. In defraying the expenses of establishments, civil and commercial.

4. In liquidation of the territorial debt, and of the bond debt at home; or, for such other purposes as the directors and board may think fit.

Section 56. A sum equal to the payments made in England from the commercial funds, on account of territorial charges, may be advanced out of the revenue in India, for the expenses of the investment.

Section 57. The commercial profits of the Company are to be applied—

1. In paying bills of exchange accepted.

2. In providing for the current payment of other debts, (the principal of the bond debt excepted,) with their interest, and of the commercial outgoings, charges, and expenses.

3. In payment of a dividend of $10\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

4. In reduction of Indian debt, or bond debt at home.

Section 58. The profits are not liable to territorial charges, till after the dividend has been provided for, except to bills and certificates for value received in India. If the home funds, are insufficient, after the dividend has been paid, to discharge the bills drawn for interest of Indian debt, the deficiency is to be paid as Parliament shall direct. If in any year the commercial profits are insufficient, the dividend may be made good out of the surplus territorial revenue.

The gross revenue received from the territorial possessions in India amounted, in the year 1826-1827, to £23,383,497. Supposing the population, from which this revenue was levied, to exceed 80,000,000 of persons, the average amount of tax paid by each individual, would be little more than five shillings. In England each person pays, on an average, in government taxes alone, nearly £4. The principal source of revenue is a tax of about one-fifth of the gross produce of the land. This tax was, in its origin, a sort of rent, the property of the soil being supposed, under the Hindoo and Mahomedan monarchs, to belong to the sovereign; and the Zemindars, who have been considered, by our regulations, as the proprietors, being originally nothing more than collectors of the revenue. Besides the landrevenue, there are customs, or transit duties, stamps, licenses, and judicial fees. The monopoly of salt and opium is also a productive source of revenue. It has been our policy to frame the revenue system as much as possible in conformity with the ancient practice, in every thing except uncertainty and extortion.

The expenditure amounted, in the same year, to £21,574,111, exclusive of £1,749,068 paid for interest on the debt. Of the items which compose this charge, the expense of the military establishment is by far the most considerable. The judicial charges are, also, very great; and the stipends paid to deposed princes amount to a very large sum.

The total amount of territorial debts in India was, in the same year, £42,870,876, of which.

not more than £34,796,836 bears interest. The total territorial assets were not less than £21,562,989; so that the excess of debts above assets was only £21,307,887, a sum trifling when compared with the revenue, and which, in a political view, may be of great utility, in rendering a large class of persons interested in the continuance and stability of the British power.

There is always, according to one of the provisions above cited of the act of 1813, a floating account between the Company at home, and the territorial branch in India, in consequence of the advances furnished by the latter for the purchase of the investment, and of the payments at home for purposes chargeable on the territorial revenue. These purposes are—payment of bills of exchange from India, for principal and interest of India debt-purchase of military stores-pay of officers on furlough and retired-freight and demurrage on political account-payments on account of King's troops serving in India, which are maintained at the Company's expense; with other political charges. The total balance due to the commercial branch of the Company's affairs for payments of this description, since 1814, after setting off the advances in India from the territorial revenue, on account of the investment, was estimated to amount, in May, 1829, to the sum of £4,731,230. Within the same period there had also been set apart, from the surplus commercial profits in England, the sum of £4,923,020, towards the liquidation of India debt, in conformity with the provision above cited, for the appropriation of the commercial

profits. Without including either of the above advances, the commercial assets of the Company at home are computed to amount to £12,521,153. The commercial debts at home are £1,284,533, exclusive of the home bond debt, amounting to £3,795,892, at 3 per cent., which has not been specifically charged to either branch of the Company's affairs, it not being determined to what extent the debt had its origin in political causes. -The commercial assets in India are estimated at £2,827,779; while the commercial debts amount to only £113,655; so that, if the Company, as a commercial concern, were to be immediately dissolved, there would remain surplus assets to the amount of £13,940,744, to cover the capital stock.

The commercial profits of the Company are chiefly derived from its monopoly of the trade in tea. The following statement shows the difference between the prime cost of tea at Canton and its price at the East-India sales in London, from which an estimate may be formed of the profit on this article.

Tea purchased at Canton.*

^{*} All the numerical statements given on this and future occasions are taken from returns and accounts which have been laid before Parliament.

Sales in England.

Years.	lbs.	Sale price.	Average price per lb. °
1825-26	27,803,668	.3,872,685	2s. 10d. nearly.
1826-27	27,700,978	.3,485,092	2s. 6d. ,,
1827-28	28,120,354	.3,358,955	
1828-29	28,230,383	.3,286,272	

It may be proper here to state that the Company is bound to keep a stock of tea in its warehouses equal to one year's consumption, estimated on the sales of the preceding year. There are, also, regulations with regard to the quantity to be put up for sale annually, in order to prevent the market from being under-stocked. The quantity put up for sale, and refused by the buyers, in 1828, was 1,317,920 lbs. The Company's exports to China consist almost entirely of woollens; and it is said that this branch of its trade is wholly unproductive of profit. The invoice value of imports into China from England was as follows in the undermentioned years:—

Years. £
1824–25·····688,059
1825–26·····912,939
1826–27·····764,418
1827–28·····709,261·

The Company has lately sent little merchandize to India except military stores, which, being charged to the territorial account, do not enter into a statement of the commercial profits. It imports, however, to a considerable amount, from that country, raw silk, indigo, and other articles. The following is return of the prime cost of all cargoes purchased by the Company in India and

shipped for Europe, in the undermentioned years:—

Years. 1824–25......1,637,794 1825–26.....1,646,590 1826–27.....1,822,924

It is also said that, by this branch of trade, the Company gains nothing. The accounts laid before Parliament are drawn up in such a manner that it is difficult to determine, accurately, the

profit or loss.

In addition to the profits on its trade, the Company is entitled to a certain duty upon goods imported by the private and privileged trade, warehoused and sold, through its medium. From the gross profits arising from the trade a large deduction is to be made for the expenses of freight and demurrage. The commercial freight and demurrage amounted, in the following years, to the undermentioned sums:—

Years. £
1826-27 · · · · · 692,817
1827-28 · · · · · 783,759
1828-29 · · · · · 662,964

After paying all the other expenses of the commercial establishment, interest on the bond debt. &c. the dividend remains to be provided for. The capital stock of the Company is £6,000,000; so that, at $10\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. it requires a net profit of £630,000 per annum to pay the dividend. In the Appendix will be found an official statement of the Company's finances, territorial and commercial, brought down to May, 1829.

By the Act 53 Geo. III. c. 155, the trade to

India (exclusive of China) was thrown open to private merchants, but was still, in some measure, impeded by enactments which required that all ships passing to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope should exceed 350 tons of burthen, and which rendered it necessary to procure a license to trade from the Court of Directors, or, upon their refusal, from the Board of Control. This act also provided that certain articles of Indian produce should be brought to the port of London alone. British ships were still prevented from trading between ports without the kingdom, and places within the limits of the East-India Company's charter. These restrictions have been much relaxed by the 4th of Geo. IV. c. 80. The export of military stores to India, the monopoly of tea, and the exclusive trade to China, are still reserved to the Company, but ships without limitation as to burthen may clear out, without license, for any place eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, except for minor ports between the Indus and Malacca. A license is still necessary to proceed to any other except the four principal settlements-Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and Prince of Wales's Island, within these limits. Vessels returning from India may now be admitted to entry in any of the warehousing ports of Great Britain, and trade is permitted between foreign ports, and places within the limits of the Company's charter. This Act does not, however, repeal the provisions of the Act of 1813, respecting the resort of individuals to India without license, or residence in that country without a certificate of leave.

The effect of opening the trade to India has been greatly to increase its amount. The highest value of goods exported to India in any year between 1792 and 1811 did not exceed £2,475,987 (the exports of 1808). It will be seen, hereafter, that this amount falls very short of the annual value of the present exports. The increase has chiefly taken place in the export of cotton-manufactured goods. Previous to 1813, the amount of cotton goods exported to India was very trifling. They now fall very little short of £2,000,000 in value annually. This augmentation may, however, in great measure be attributed to the extraordinary improvement which has taken place in our manufactures, attended by a great reduction of price, and to the extension and consolidation of the British power in India. Of the operation of the former of these causes, we shall be enabled to judge by comparing the prices of British calicoes in 1813, with their prices in 1828.

Prices in October, 1813.	Prices in October, 1828.	
8.	d. s. d.	
4 Cambrics 12 yards · · 20	0 per piece · · 8 6 per piece	-
. Do27	0 do	
Do39	0 do16 6 do.	
9 Shirting · · · · · · 1	2 per yard · · 0 6 per yard	
Do 1	11 do 0 10 do.	
	4 do 1 2 do.	
	28 are ten per cent. better.	

It is but fair to state, however, that it was doubted by many of the most enlightened of the Company's servants whether the natives of India would ever be brought to consume largely Euro-

pean manufactures, and that the Company's exports to China have declined rather than increased under the same favourable circumstances.

The following statement shews the amount of the exports to India and China from England.

Years.	Total to India and China.	By the Free Trade to I and Privileged Tra China.
	£	£
1825	3,918,071	2,574,660
	4,468,883	
	5,201,599	
	5 919 959	

Exports, by the East-India Company, to India and China.

Years.	Merchandize for sale.	Stores.	Total.
	£	£	£
1825-26	754,832	. 501,518	1,256,350
1826-27	826,055	. 907,833	1,733,888
	494,922		
1828-29	636,441	. 462,369	1,098,810

The greater part of this merchandize was sent to China, the stores to India.

It remains to the exhibit the state of the import trade, and it is to be observed that the increase of the imports produced by the opening of the trade to India has not been quite proportioned to that of the exports.

Imports into Great Britain from the East Indies and China.

Years.	Produce of India.	Produce of China.	Total.
	£\	£°	£
1825	6,118,48	4,435,949	. 10,554,417
1826	6,394,28	4,294,582	• 10,688,869
		5,110,459	
1828	6,923,908	4,296,668	11,220,576

The following statement shews the proportions respectively imported by the Company and the Private Trade.

Years.	By the Company.	y the Free and Privi leged Trade. £	Total.
1825	5,375,492	5,178,925	10,554,417
1826	5,076,360	5,612,509	10,688,869
1827	6,148,077	4,514,661	10,662,738
1828	5,576,905	5,643,671	11,220,576

It will be seen, from the above returns, that not only is the trade to India free, but that the export trade to India is almost wholly conducted by private merchants, and that of the import trade a much larger proportion is carried on by private traders than by the Company.

This survey of our Eastern trade will not be complete without noticing the commerce called the country trade, which is carried on between the different ports of India and China. The following is an account of the quantity of tonnage, employed annually in the country trade, between the different Ports of India and Canton.

Exported from the Ports of British India for Canton.

Years.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1824-25.	Ships	37,870
	48	
1826-27	75	49,113

Imported from Canton to the Ports of British

Years.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1824-25	46/	20,074
1825-26		
1826-27		

The value of the cargoes imported into Canton on the tonnage employed in the country trade was as follows:—

Years.	Dollars.
1824-25	11,024,559
1825-26	15,700,878
1826-27	15,709,232
1827-28	15,845,643

Note.—The privilege trade of the commanders and officers of the Company's ships is included in this statement.

The above cargoes consisted chiefly of opium and cotton. The value of the opium imported into China in 1827–28 was not less than 11,243,496 dollars, (10,271, chests). The value of the cotton was 3,480,083 dollars.

The trade of the United States with India is inconsiderable. The ships and tonnage which cleared out from ports in India for America were as follows, in the undermentioned years:—

Years.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1824-25	11	3,087
1825-26	20	5,743
1826-27	8	2.389

The Island of Sincapore, with the adjoining country of Malacca, was ceded to the Company in 1824, by the Dutch, in exchange for Berccolen. It was incorporated with Prince of Wales's Island and has become a most Rourishing settlement. The value of its imports and exports, in 1827–28, amounted to little less than £3,000,000.

We now come to the consideration of the exclusive trade to China, that part of the Company's privileges which is supposed to be most

injurious to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain.

The following are the arguments most commonly used in favour of a free trade with China: That the present monopoly of the tea-trade enhances the price of tea to consumers in England to a very great extent, and that a heavy tax is thus levied upon one of the most essential necessaries of life. That while the exports to India have gradually increased since the liberation of the trade, there has been no corresponding increase, but on the contrary, a considerable diminution in the amount of merchandize exported by the Company to China. That our experience with regard to India, assures us that the consumption of British merchandize, by the Chinese, may be augmented to a much greater amount than it has yet reached, when the activity and enterprize of private adventure shall have succeeded in opening new channels of intercourse, and when competition shall have reduced the price of commodities in their market. That at present the markets of Europe and of the world are supplied by other commercial nations with tea, 'and all articles of Chinese production, and that the Americans even export to China British manufactures to a considerable amount, which might be exported with greater profit and advantage by British merchants, if they were not excluded from this trade. To these arguments it is replied, that the monopoly of the tea-trade is, in fact, the only peculiar advantage which the Company, as a commercial body, enjoys, and that, without the profit arising from this mono-

poly, it would be impossible to provide for the payment of the dividends. That these dividends have repeatedly received the guarantee of Parliament, and that it would, consequently, be a breach of faith to take away the only source from which their payment is derived. That the tax imposed upon the consumer by the monopoly is in fact insignificant, and that the reduction of the price of tea, if any should take place, would be scarcely felt, inasmuch as the high price of that article is chiefly owing to the enormous duty levied upon it by Government. That the consumption of tea in all parts of the world, except Great Britain, its colonies, and the United States of America, is inconsiderable; that although it is true, that in some parts of Europe, tea has been sold at a price below that of the teas sold by the Company, still this is by no means universally the case; and that on many parts of the Continent, and particularly in Russia, teas are sold at a much dearer rate than the teas of the same quality in England: and, lastly, That, from a comparative view of the American trade with China, it does not appear, although the trade is perfectly unrestrained, that there has been any such increase of the exports and imports as is predicted to be one of the infallible consequences of throwing open the trade to China; and that with respect to the export of British goods by Americans, it would clearly be their interest, under any circumstances, to carry out English productions rather than to go out with empty vessels, and that such an export is highly advantageous to British manufacturers.

The following facts are brought forward in support of the preceding arguments:—

The duty upon tea amounts to 96 per cent. on its sale price, if sold under 2s. per lb.; and 100 per cent. upon all tea sold at 2s. per lb. and upwards. The total amount of revenue received upon the article of tea, in the year 1828, was no less than £3,448,814, and in former years this receipt has been exceeded. A pound of tea, therefore, bought at the India sales at 2s. 6d. per lb. (the orninary price for good black teas,) becomes immediately taxed with a duty of 2s. 6d. and, if to this sum be added the charges of brokerage, and the retail profits, the pound which was sold by the Company at 2s. 6d. can now scarcely be sold under 6 or 7 shillings. It is evident that nothing can be more unjust than to charge to the East-India Company the difference between this price and the price of the same article in a neighbouring country, which, but for the tax, would probably vary little from the original cost at the East-India sales. From the following returns we shall be enabled to perceive the proportion which the foreign trade in tea of the Americans bears to the supply afforded to foreign countries through the East-India Company. The quantity of tea re-exported from Great Britain was as follows, in the years 1826, 1827, and 1828.

Years. . lbs. 1826 ····· 279,070 1827 ···· 254,944 1828 ···· 259,493

Exclusive of this export, the Company sup-

plied the Cape of Good Hope and the North American Colonies with the following quantities:—

North American Colonies. Cape of Good Hope. Years. lbs. £ lbs. £ $1825-26\cdot\cdot512,314\cdot\cdot74,085$ — $120,172\cdot20,033$ $1826-27\cdot\cdot723,081\cdot\cdot82,645$ — $-194,545\cdot\cdot17,361$ $1827-28\cdot\cdot941,794\cdot\cdot109,635$ — $90,538\cdot\cdot14,573$

The value and amount of tea re-exported from the United States in 1826 and 1827, were as follows:—

Years. Dollars. lbs. 1826....1,308,694....2,804,753 1827.... 772,443....1,626,417

But, as it is probable that much tea was carried directly from China to the foreign market, we must refer to another statement, which shows the amount destined for European consumption, upon its export from China. By consulting this account we find that there has been a gradual decline in the amount of tea exported from Canton by the Americans, with a view to foreign consumption.

It was in 1819–20····3,318,156 lbs.
1825–26···1,360,800
1826–27···· 357,966

The returns given in the Appendix will show how great a decline there has been in the total exports and imports of the United States to and from China. These facts are stated not with the intention of denying that a considerable increase of trade might result from the destruction of the Company's monopoly, or that some reduction might take place in the price of tea; but, in order to show that the experience of the United States justifies no very sanguine expectation of an extended commerce.

The papers relating to the trade with India and China, which were laid before the House of Commons, in the last session, contain much curious 'information, collected by the consuls abroad, respecting the consumption of tea and its price, in the different countries of Europe. It all tends to show that the difference between the prices of tea, on the continent and in England, is not so great as is commonly imagined, and that the whole consumption of Europe, in this commodity, is so inconsiderable as to make it a very unimportant article of trade.

It appears, from these papers, that the whole annual consumption of Russia is about 5,187,496lbs. which is entirely supplied by overland trade from China; its import is prohibited in all the Russia ports in Europe, except Odessa. The following is given as a list of ordinary prices at St. Petersburgh:—

Black Teas.

Common Tea (lowest price) 5s. 10d.	per lb.
Bohea 6s. 9d.	"
Losana ososka	"
Rose Tea29s. 2d.	• "

Green Teas.

The consumption of Hamburgh, which is the great emporium for this article in the north of Germany, is not supposed to exceed, annually,

1,650,300lbs.; and it is stated that the prices have been much reduced in Consequence of the market being overstocked. The following is a list of prices; they are certainly much lower than the price of corresponding teas in England, and it is said lower, in some instances, than the cost price at Canton:—

```
Bohea .....0s. 5d. to 0s. 7\frac{1}{8}d. per lb. Souchong ....0s. 5d. ,, 1s. 3\frac{1}{2}d. ,, Young Hyson...0s. 9d. ,, 1s. 4\frac{2}{4}d. ,, Pekoe....2s. 10\frac{2}{4}d. ,, 4s. 7d. ,, Gunpowder ....2s. 4\frac{1}{2}d. ,, 2s. 9\frac{3}{4}d. ,,
```

The consumption of tea, in France, averages, annually, only 220,053lbs. The prices current are nearly the same as at the Company's sales; but the comparison is somewhat in favour of the cheapness of tea in France. The quantities of tea imported into Italy and Trieste are perfectly insignificant:—

```
Tea imported into Naples, 3,419lbs. yeav 1827
,, ,, Venice, 2 cwt. per annum.
,, ,, Trieste, 5 cwt. ,,
,, ,, Leghorn, 353 chests ,,
```

Prices at Dantzic are as follow:-

```
Congou .....2s. 6d. to 3s. 4\frac{1}{2}d. per lb. Hyson .....3s. 10d. ,, 4s. 10d. ,, Gunpowder ....7s. 8\frac{1}{2}d. ,, 9s. 8d. ;, Pekoe .....7s. 8d. ,, 13s. 6d. ,
```

These prices are much higher than the current price at the Company's sales. The price of tea, at Frankfort, is also greater than its price in Lendon. The consumption was, in 1828, 112cwt.

The yearly consumption of tea, in Denmark, is about 129,000lbs. The quantity of tea imported, annually, into the United States, is very considerable:—

It is entirely imported in American vessels.

The annual consumption of tea, in the Netherlands, is computed to amount to about 2,500,000lbs. The following is given as a list of prices at Rotterdam:—

```
Bohea ...... 0s. 8d. to 1s. 7d. per lb. Congou ..... 1s. 1\frac{1}{2}d. ,, 1s. 11\frac{1}{2}d. ,, Southong .... 1s. 1\frac{1}{2}d ,, 3s. 3\frac{1}{2}d. ,, Hyson .... 2s. 5d. ,, 3s. 2d. ,, Gunpowder ... 3s. 0d. ,, 4s. 6d. ,, Pekoe .... 3s. 11d. ,, 6s. 0d. ,,
```

As the duty is very trifling, a comparison may be made between these prices and those of the India sales. The following is the price current of the September sales in 1829:—

After balancing the conflicting arguments, and the facts by which they are supported, I think we may conclude, that the liberation of the trade to China would be an undoubted advantage to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain. Except in the article of tea, the Company would suffer little from the participation of private merchants in the commerce of China, as its import of other commodities is very inconsiderable. With respect to tea, it is a question of convenience alone, whether the Company shall still retain the monopoly.

To its capacity as a sovereign body, the commercial department of the Company's affairs has, evidently, become subordinate; and it is probable, that its establishments are on a more costly scale than becomes the frugal character of private trade. For this reason, a slight reduction might be expected in the price of tea, if the trade were carried on by private merchants. At the same time, it is necessary to consider, whether any better resource can be found for the payment of the dividend on India stock, and of the interest on the India bonds. The public faith is as clearly engaged in the discharge of these obligations, as in that of any other of the public funds; for, from the time that Parliament interfered in the commercial concerns of the Company, and fixed the dividends at a certain rate, it virtually, and in equity, became guarantee of their eventual payment. It has determined, that the surplus commercial profits shall be applied to purposes with which the Company, as a commercial body, has no concern; and it has also provided, that, even on failure of sufficient profits, there shall be no

diminution in the rate of the dividend. The present holders of East-India stock, therefore, have purchased it, at a price computed upon the certainty of its producing a perpetual interest, equal to that which it at present bears. Under these circumstances, it becomes a question, whether it is not better to provide for this charge, by a slight enhancement of the price of tea, than by throwing it upon the other public burthens. Add to this consideration, the great loss and inconvenience to be sustained in breaking up an old commercial concern, involving a thousand vested interests, for which it will be necessary to provide compensation; and, I think, we shall find, that the balance will be found to preponderate in favour of the expediency of continuing this monopoly in the hands of the Company.

In conclusion. The reader will perceive, that the opinions to which he has been conducted, by the reasoning and facts set forth in this book, may be recapitulated as follows: that it would be highly impolitic to disturb the present system of governing India, as that system is, upon the whole, better qualified to promote the happiness of our Indian subjects, than any other which we could substitute: that the free settlement of Europeans should be encouraged, without, however, depriving the Government of the power of removing turbulent and seditious individuals; that the strictures of the press upon political questions should be restrained, but not silenced: and, lastly, that the trade to China, except in the article of tea, should be thrown open to private merchants, and liberated from all unnecessary restrictions and impediments.

In contemplating this vast empire, won by the most undaunted valour, and the most consummate skill, aided by a course of uninterrupted good fortune, which has no parallel in the history of any country, it is impossible not to glow with exultation at the glorious prospects which its acquisition has opened to Great Britain. To the statesman, it presents a field, in which the happiness of one-tenth of the whole human race may depend upon his exertions. To the merchant it has afforded a wide scope for commercial enterprise, and pours a rich tide of wealth to swell the resources of his country. The scholar has been furnished with a new and unopened source for the pleasures of scientific research and gratification of literary curiosity. It invites with an irresistable call the missionary labours of the Christian philanthropist, and holds out as the reward of his pious endeavours, the dethronement of a benighted religion, and the propagation of a pure and sublime faith. Fortunately we live in times in which there is little to obstruct the realization of the most sanguine hopes. There is now no combat to be fought with bigotry, or prejudice or self-interest. Even those whose power and interests are at stake, ask no more than impartial inquiry, and a just award. We may feel assured, that they will receive an equitable decision from the verdict of an enlightened public, at the tribunal of a firm administration, and an intelligent Parliament. Whilst, on the other

hand, as much concession will be made to the commercial spirit and liberal policy of the age, as is consistent with the security of the British empire in India, and the well-being of its immense and varied population.

Company Charles Comment

APPENDIX.

General Abstract View of the Actual Revenues and Charges of India for Three Years, according to the latest Advices.

Amount	paid	for	Interest	
	on D			

0		REVENUES	3.		CHARGES.	· 90 97 926			690 B B
•	1824-5.	1825-6.	1826-7.	1824-5.	1825-6.	1826-7.	1824-5.	1825-6.	1826-7.
Bengal	£ 13,479,192 5,440,743 1,785,217 38,220	£ 13,119,658 5,714,915 2,262,393 31,422	£ 14,757,089 5,981,681 2,588,983 55,744	£ 11,394,496 5,737,035 3,279,398 113,331	£ 12,634,516 5,704,829 4,007,020 135,294	£ 11,891,536 5,557,947 3,975,411 149,217	£ 1,225,683 214,757 19,993	£ 1,338,983 212,637 24,068 253	£ 1,513,616 213,570 20,610 1,272
£	20,743,372	21,128,388	23,383,497	20,524,260	22,481,659	21,574,111	1,460,433	1,575,941	1,749,068
				Expe	nses of St. H	elena £	109,449	110,413	114,500

State of the Company's Affairs in respect of Assets and Debts in India.

TERRITORIAL ASSETS AND DEBTS IN INDIA

TERRITORIAL ASSETS AND DEBIS IN I	NDIA.
Cash	€ 6,546,523
Bills receivable	200,856
Stores	3,798,555
Debts	8,357,442
Salt, Opium, Rum, Grain, and Cattle	2,039,613
Total Assets	21,562,989
Bond, Register, and other Debts bearing Interest	34,796,836
Arrears and Debts not bearing Interest	8,074,040
Total Debts 4	249 970 976

COMMERCIAL ASSETS AND DEBTS IN INDIA

Cash Bills		 	 	 	 	 	***	£265,016 22,334
Debts		 	 	 	 	 		887,486
Stores		 	 	 	 	 		7,45
Export	Goods	 	 	 	 	 		1,383,419
Import	Goods	 	 	 	 	 		262,07

Arrears and Debts not bearing Interest £113,655 From the East-India Annual Revenue Account laid before Parliament in May, 1829.

ANNUAL ACCOUNT made up to the 1st of MAY, 1829.

AND TERRITORIAL BRANCH

· POLITI	AL AND TERRITORIAL BRANCH.			
RECEIPTS.	PAYM	IENTS. £	s.	d.
Bills on account of supplies to the public service and bills drawn on India	Bills of exchange from India for terest of India debt	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	14	2
His Majesty's Government in repayment of ad-	Bills of exchange from india for	60,109	3	0
vances in India Unclaimed price-money, 1 & 2 Geo. IV. c. 61, ap-	Freight of stores, &c. chargeable	e to His Majesty's	11	8
plicable to Lord Clive's fund	Spices from the Moluccas, charge	ges set against the 4,204	8	5
ritorial and political accounts	Territorial and Political Charges		.6	1
	Military, marine, and other store Military officers pay and off-re	eckonings on lur-		
	lough and retirement Civil establishments of India, at	300,061	19	10
	and payments on account of Be	ngal Annuity Fund 30,924		
	Passage of military Political freight and demurrage	129,774	6	11
	Carnatic and Tanjore debts, in cated claims, with charges of	commission 95,287	9	0
And the state of t	Charges on account of St. Heler	na 90,57	7	4
	Charges on account of Prince Sincapore, and Malacca			
The state of the s	Political charges and general a Amount paid under the arrang	dvances repayable 518,73.		
A STATE OF THE PARTY OF THE PAR	with Persia	121,11	8	10
	Payments under 4 Geo. IV. c. retiring pay and of King's troo	ps serving in india ov, ou) 0	. 0
19962-12	Paymaster-general of His Maje count of King's troops in Ind	etv's forces on ac-) 9	3
presidential :	05,275 \$ 5 3	£3,067,11	CONTROL CONT	

COMMERCIAL BRANCH.

RECEIPTS.	£	8.	d	
Company's goods	5,146,121			
Charges on private trade, warehoused and sold	-,,			
by the Company	122,152	0	2	
Customs op private trade	1,647			
Freight on private goods imported and exported	6,041			
Charges on spices imported and sold for Govern-	6,652	4	4	
ment	4001			
ment	4,204			
Owners of the feet of	36,226	15	10	
Owrers of ships for advances and supplies fur-				
nished them abroad, &c.	2,375		0	
Private trade goods sold			2	
Fee-funds for the house and warehouse	76,483	16	8	
Widows' funds for officers of the warehouse,				
elders, clerks, &c	17,071	6	7	
Almshouses at Poplar and seamens' wages un-				
claimed	21,792	9	8	
Dividends on stock standing in Company's name	26.544			
Remittances from North American colonies on	20,011		10	
account of proceeds of tea sold there	105,135	9	0	
Bills in favour, by Company's agent at the Cape	10,737			
Produce of bullion received from India under	10,101	10	U	
the arrangement with trustees of Deccan booty		0	0	
Unclaimed prize-money applicable to Poplar fund	372,751 985	0	2	
applicable to Poplariund	985	4	1	
	PO 070 010	0		
	£8,353,316	9	7	

Goods for sale and use, exported and to be exported	PAYMENTS.	£	s.	d.
Goods for sale and use, exported and to be exported	Customs	4.378	13	1
Almshouses at Poplar Capture C	Freight and demurrage			
Commanders certificates and bills of exchange from China and the Cape 121,607 14 9	Goods for sale and use, exported and to be ex-			
121,607 14 9 467,991 6 11 158,124 3 7 1 158,124 3 7 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	ported	471,321	8	5
121,607 14 9 467,991 6 11 158,124 3 7 1 158,124 3 7 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Commanders certificates and bills of exchange			
Charges general	from China and the Cape	121,607	14	
Interest on bond debt	Charges general	467,991	6	11
Dividends on stock 32,189 18 1	Interest on bond debt	158,124	3	1
Dividends on stock 629,070 18 10 Private trade 2,475,773 16 1 Almshouses at Poplar 25,024 12 1 Fee-funds for the house and warehouses 81,092 3 4 Widows' funds for officers of the house, &c. and	Interest on other loans and accounts current			
Almshouses at Poplar	Dividends on stock			
Almshouses at Poplar	Private trade			
Widows' funds for officers of the house, &c. and	Almshouses at Poplar			
Widows' funds for officers of the house, &c. and	ree-lunds for the house and warehouses			
	Widows' funds for officers of the house, &c. and	01,002	0	
for erders, clerks, &c.	for erders, clerks, &c.	18,739	1	2
Trustees of the Deccan booty 74,201 5 1	Trustees of the Deccan booty			

DEBTS and ASSETS-POLITICAL and COMMERCIAL. May, 1829.

POLITICAL AND TERRITORIAL BRANCH.

DEBTS. o Bills of exchange from India, drawn on political account. Warrants passed the Court unpaid	£ 503,794 78,646 54,711 68,287 10,640,172	ASSETS. By exports of military stores, &c. shipped in 1828-9, with the amount remaining upshipped May 1, 1829 Cargoes from England of 1827-8 not arrived in India at the close of the official year 1827-8 What owing from sundry persons for advances repayable in England Bill of exchange drawn on His Majesty's Government for supplies furnished in India, unpaid 1st May, 1829 Value of Carnatic stock belonging to the Company Value of the colleges of Haylesbury and Addescombe Balances in hands of officers of the house	520,618 15,811 42,361 34,037 177,220
			£1 221 152

£1,381,158

£ 23,161,325

COMMERCIAL BRANCH.

\$ DEBTS. To Bills of exchange unpaid	£ 125,054 2,013 240,500 60,890 370,067 245,842 36,713 44,193 971 48,407	ASSETS. By What due from the public to the company, East-India annuities engrafted on the 3 per cents. reduced, per 33 Geo. III. c. 47	£ 1,207,560 1,081,563 891,616 5,597,959 641,984 754,021 92,957
Amount owing for commercial exports	62,992 6,504 10,762	Value of the East-India house and warehouses What owing from sundry persons for advances repayable in England The Territorial Branch, for territorial and political payments made in England between 1st May, 1814, and 1st May, 1829, (including interest)	1,294,768 6,381 10,640,172
)	Stock in the Public Funds standing in the Company's name, valued at the market prices on 1st May, 1829 Due from his Majesty's government, for advances from Commercial Funds at the Cape	760,942 18,203

£ 1,284,533

The amor	unt of the	Company's home bond debt, bearing	. ·
		cent. per annum	
Ditto	ditto	not bearing interest	15,417

£ 3,795,892

Memoranda.—The home bond debt is stated without specific application to either branch of the Company's affairs, it not being determined to what extent the debt had its origin from political causes.

East-India House, 27th May, 1829.

*Memoranda.—This balance is subject to reduction by the amount of the advances in India, from the territorial branch to the commercial branch, in the years 1827-28 and 1822-29; the documents whereby the amount of these advances is to be ascertained, have not been received, but which it is estimated may amount to £5,908,942, which will leave a balance due to the commerce of £4.731.230. including interest.

In the period from 1st May, 1814, to 1st May, 1829, there has also been set apart from the surplus commercial profits in England, the sum of £4,923,020 towards the liquidation of Indian territorial debt, which being a payment under the 4th head of appropriation of the 57th section of the 53d Geo. III. is not held to constitute a claim upon the territorial department for repayment, upon the principle observed in respect to other territorial ad-

vances.

EAST-INDIA TRADE.

RETURN of the Number of Ships cleared out from the different Ports in the United Kingdom, for British India, in each Year, from 1801 to 1828, both inclusive; specifying their Tonnage, the Number of Seamen employed in navigating them, whether British or Indian, and distinguishing* the Ships belonging to or chartered by the East-India Company, from those of Private Merchants.

		cleared o	Number of out from t United Ki	he Ports	Ships belonging to, or chartered by, the East-India Company.			
		Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	
In the Year 18	01	1	19 29	0	32	26,141	2,859	
18					43	34,736	3,852	
18	Control of				50	33,516	3,437	
18	3.00	100000			44	35,403	4,111	
	05	The I	Books con	taining	42	32,216	3,462	
18	No. of Lot		counts for		39	33,668	3,819	
18			, were des		39	28,476	3,062	
18			Fire at t		36	31,737	3,646	
18	09	Custon	n House.		41	32,408	3,300	
18	10				46	37,070	4,108	
18	11				43	35,311	3,82	
18	12				42	34,223	3,731	
18	13]		(29	28 001	2,97	
18	14	52	39,141	4,342	36	34,819	3,524	
18	15	121	79,980	8,610	26	29,177	2,60	
18	16	166	99,936	9,412	26	26,063	2,894	
18	17	195	106,847	8,543	22	22,326	2,30	
18	18	186	104,692	8,210	32	29,245	3,048	
18	19	106	66,525	5,606	35	27,419	2,540	
18	20	109	69,265	5,731	22	23,473	2,42	
18	21	96	68,155	5,811	25	29,468	2,859	
18	22	102	73,102	6,267	• 25	24,928	2,504	
18	23	111	68,468	5,951	24	26,484	2,69	
18		117	79,283	6,973	25	27,580	2,819	
0 18	25	139	81,103	7,095	32	33,205	3,188	
18	10000	150	88,700	7,443	26	28,985	2,67	
18	27	194	98,479	7,929	35	37,699	3,708	
18	28	209	109,155	8,574	39	41,388	3,929	

Note.—The above account includes the trade with China, as vessels whose ultimate voyage is to that country, usually clear out for the East Indies also.

* The distinction in the account is supplied from documents transmitted by the directors of the East-India Company.

Office of Register General of Shipping, Custom-House, London, 5th May, 1829. T. E. WILLOUGHBY, Reg. Gen.

EAST-INDIA TRADE.

RETURN to an Order of the Honourable the House of Commons, dated 6th February, 1829;—for

ACCOUNTS,

Of all Goods exported from Great Britain to the East Indies and China; of the Value of all Articles, being the Growth or Manufacture of the United Kingdom, exported by the East-India Company; of all Goods exported from Great Britain to the East Indies and China, specifying the declared Value of the principal Articles; of all Goods, being the Produce of the East Indies and China, imported into and exported from Great Britain; and of all Goods, the Produce of the East Indies and China, imported into Great Britain, specifying the Value of the principal Articles; for the Year ending 5th January, 1829.

An Account of all Goods Exported from Great Britain to the East Indies and China, together with Mauritius, in the Year ending 5th January, 1829.

A CONTROL OF THE PROPERTY OF T	DECLARED VALUE.						
• SPECIES OF MERCHANDIZE EXPORTED.	By THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.	FREE TRADE, including the Privilege Trade.	TOTAL.				
Apothecary Wares Apparel Beer and Ale Books, Printed Brass. 2 Cabinet and Upholstery Wares Carriages Coals. Cochineal Golours for Painters Copper, in Bricks and Pigs, in Sheets and Nails Cordage Wrought Cordage	240 15 0 579 19 1	£ s, d, 10,207 8 6 18,301 17 6 99,077 6 3 21,785 2 6 2,697 0 0 4,502 0 0 16,945 0 0 2,691 11 0 19,506 6 0 13,294 5 0 70,286 12 0 108,204 5 2 13,008 13 6 6,804 0 0	£ s. d 29,282 13 4 31,303 5 11 99,077 6 3 22,587 4 6 3,505 14 6 4,502 0 0 16,945 0 0 2,932 6 0 19,506 6 0 13,874 4 1 70,286 12 0 132,991 2 4 24,505 15 10 12,730 19 2				

· Maria

SPECIES OF MERCHANDIZE EXPORTED,	By THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.	FREE TRADE, including the Privilege Trade.	TOTAL.
Silk Manufactures Soap and Candles Spelter (Foreign) Spirit* (British).	397 0 0	£ s. d. 20,058 0 0 2,561 9 9 59,486 0 6 2,779 15 6 45,337 3 10 44,544 13 3 5,061 18 4 2,439 18 5 891 0 0 195 0 0 7,632 13 10 203,114 18 9 174,040 8 0	£ s. d. 20,058 0 0 2,958 9 9 59,486 0 6 2,779 16 6 45,483 11 9 84,734 14 11 5,489 2 4 2,931 18 7 6,270 3 9 219 0 0 8,947 14 10 204,022 4 2 417,168 1 2 4,006 13 6 2,790 13 4 442,997 1 7 9,325 10 0 1,954 0 0 575 0 0 3,048 0 0 1,419 10 0 2,079 0 0

Woollen Manufactures (Foreign) All other Articles	43,772 12 4	12,726 0 0 265,751 1 6	12,726 0 0 307,523 13 10
Total Value of Exports to the East Indies, China, and the Mauritius, in 1828	£1,126,926 7 7	4,085,426 16 11	5,212,353 4 6
	2006181914	一 相写图	

WILLIAM IRVING,
Inspector General of Imports and Exports.

alue of Exports to China, in 1828:	£
Woollens	618,412
Cotton Manufactures	93,542
Opium	39,987
Lead	27,108
Iron (British)	22,025
All other Articles	62,420
Total Exports to China	863,494
Total Exports to East Indies, with Mauritius	4,348,859
Total	£5,212,353

An Account of all Goods, the Produce of the East-Indies and China, imported into, and exported from Great Britain, in the Year ending 5th January, 1829

in the Year ending 5th January, 1829.				
*	YEAR ending 5th January, 1829.			
SPECIES OF MERCHANDIZE.	IMPORTS into Great Britain from the East- Indies and China, (together with Mauritius.)	Produce of the East-Indies, China, and Mauritius, Re-exported from Great Britain, (exclusive of the Exports to Ireland,)	RATES of VALUATION, according to the Prices at the East-India Company's Sales.	
Borax, refined	35,013 373,428 6,891,321 549,532 337,482 467,597 7,364,707 32,339,282 203,997	124,428 1,063 164,318 1,035,480 366,320 354,536 139,753 5,084,916 12,752,153 215,191 180,897 256 171 754 6,882 50,158 396 48,178 352,162 37,783 37,029	x s. d. 0 0 $4\frac{1}{4}$ per lb. 0 0 4 — lb. 0 1 6 — lb, 0 6 0 — 100. 0 0 $10\frac{3}{4}$ — lb. 0 7 0 — lb. 0 2 0 — lb. 0 0 $4\frac{7}{4}$ — lb. various rates. ditto. 15 0 0 per ton. 18 0 0 — cwt. 3 15 0 — cwt. 0 18 0 — cwt. 0 10\frac{3}{4} — lb. 2 10 0 — cwt. 0 2 9 — lb. 0 0 8\frac{3}{4} — lb. 1 0 0 — cwt. 0 5 10 — lb. 0 3 6 — lb. 0 3 5 — lb.	

HEATING .	CVITIIM		
	62,819,350	\$11,220,576	Total of India and China Produce
	689,727,23 16,16	806,828,923 806,828,4 806,828,4	Egregate Values calculated at the Rates above stated, viz. Produce of India Produce of China
1 15 0 — lb. 0 0 34 — lb. 1 13 4 — piece 0 17 8 — lb. 1 13 4 — piece 0 18 9 — piece 0 18 9 — piece 1 19 4 — piece 1 19 4 — piece 1 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	178,81 608,698 178,75 162,75 162,75 162,75 162,75 162,75 163,75 178,7	708,1 \$20,28 \$20,82 \$10,882	Tin Totalell, rough 1 108 1 10
2 10 0 — cwf. 2 18 0 — cwf. 1 18 0 — cwf. 1 18 0 — cwf. 1 19 0 — cwf. 1 19 0 — cwf. 1 12 0 — cwf. 1 12 0 — cwf. 1 12 0 — cwf. 1 2 0 — cwf. 1 0 3 — cwf. 1 0 3 0 — cwf. 1 0 0 3 0 — cwf. 1 0 0 0 0 — cwf. 1 0 0 0 0 — cwf.	688,522,4 688,522,4 688,522,4 688,522,4 688,522,4 688,522,4 688,711 688,711 688,711	0.02°098 197°991 2.6°0	Oil, Castor Oil, Castor Oil, Castor Oilbanum Pepper Rhubarb Hice, not in the husk, or Paddy Sallower S

Inspector General of Imports and Exports. WILLIAM IRVING,

Custom-house, London, 25th April, 1829. Inspector-General's Office,

Value of all Imports into Great Britain from the East Indies and China, together with Mauritius—Year ending 5th of January, 1829.

China, together with mauritius— rear	enaing Sin	oj Janue	wy, 1829.
	By the	Free Frade,	e
SPECIES OF MERCHANDIZE.	By the EAST INDIA	Privalege Trains.	Total.
	£	£	£.
Borax, refined		315	315
unrefined		583	583
Camphire, unrefined		28,007	28,007
Canes, Rattans not ground		20,674	20,674
Cinnamon		24,614	24,614
Cloves		46,759	
Coffee	65	153,366	46,359 153,441
Cotton Wool	20,587	585,774	606,361
Cotton Piece Goods, viz. White Calicoes and			
Muslins Nanquin Cloths	89,487	9,670	99,157
Dyed Cottons	53,011	92,689 58,945	92,680 111,956
EDONY		5,411	5,411
Elephants' Teeth		16,398	16,398
Galls		5,231	5,231
Ginger		6,067	6,067
Gum, Animi and Copal		7,221	7,221
— Lacdye		3,060 94,765	3,060 94,765
- Shellac		17,528	17,528
Hemp		13,473	13,473
Indigo	629,689	2,194,702	2,824,391
Machan of Bond Shalls manch		7,373	7,373
Mother of Pearl Shells, roughNutmegs		7,738	7,738
Oil Castor		10,897 0 7,562	10,897 7,562
Olibanum		5,522	5,522
Pepper		80,376	80,376
Khubarb		13,183	13,183
Rice		105,215	105,215
Safflower		5,213	5,213
Sago	%	8,388 5,308	8,388 5,308
Saltpetre	43.865	196,821	240,686
Silk, raw	910,389	368,279	1,278,668
Silk Manufactures, viz. Bandannoes, Romals,			
and Handkerchiefs	44,618	107,779	152,397
Crape in pieces Crape Shawls, Scarfs,	0	842	842
Gown Pieces, and Handkerchiefs		13,041	13,041
Taffaties Damasks		160-11	0
and other Silks, in pieces	6,812	• 14,896	21,708
Sugar, unrefined	131,582	718,787	850,369
Tea3	BETTER STATE OF THE STATE OF TH	206,567	3,853,367
Tin Tortoiseshell, rough		6,866	6,866
Turmeric		57,143 11,406	57,143 11,406
Other Articles		181,107	181,107
	0	Î	
from the East Indies, China, and Mauritius, in the Year ending the 5th January,	,576,905	,643,671	11,220,576
1829		1	
		1	
Inspector General's Office, Custom	WILLIAM	RVING	

Inspector General's Office, Custom House, Londov, 25th of April 1829

WILLIAM IRVING,

Total Value of Imports into, and Exports from the Port of Canton by the United States.

At 4s. 4d. per Dollar.	IMPORTS INTO CHINA.			EXPORTS FROM CHINA
Wears.	Sale Value of Merchandize.	Number of Dollars.	Total Value.	Total Value.
1815-16 1816-17 1817-18 1818-19 1819-20 1820-21 1821-22 1822-23 1823-24 1824-25 1825-26 1826-27	Dollars. 605,500 1,064,600 1,475,828 2,603,151 1,861,961 Value 3,074,741 2,046,558 2,217,126 2,437,545 2,050,831 2,002,549	Dollars. 1,922,000 4,545,000 5,601,000 7,414,000 6,297,000 not stated 5,125,000 6,292,840 4,096,000 6,524,500 5,705,200 1,841,168	Dollars. 2,527,500 5,609,600 7,076,828 10,017,151 8,158,961 this 8,199,741 8,339,398 6,313,126 8,962,015 7,756,031 3,843,717	Dollars. 4,220,000 5,703,000 6,777,000 9,041,755 8,182,015 year. 7,058,741 7,523,492 5,677,149 8,501,121 8,752,562 4,363,788

Number of Vessels belonging to the United States which have cleared out from their Ports for Ports beyond the Cape of Good Hope.

Years.	Numbers.	Tons.		
1814 1815 1816	5 73 106	1,995 23,650 35,253		
1817	122 118	39,169 36,586		
1818 1819	76	23,249		
1820	85	25,098		
1821 1822	86	25,905 23,714		
1823	80	24,459		
1824 1825	66 87	20,724 27,322		
1826	67	19,070		
1827	55	17,078		
1828	40	1 1.29117		

THE END.