

The Examiner.

A WEEKLY JOURNAL OF POLITICS, LITERATURE AND NEWS.

EDWARD WHELAN]

This is true Liberty, when Free-born Men, having to advise the Public, may speak free.—EURIPIDES.

[EDITOR AND PUBLISHER.

Vol. VI.

CHARLOTTETOWN, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, MONDAY, FEBRUARY 16, 1857.

No. 32.

For Sale,

THAT valuable piece of PROPERTY fronting on Kent Street, and nearly opposite the residence of the Hon. George Coles. Application to be made early to Mr. BENJAMIN DAVIS, or to the subscriber, Charlottetown, Feb. 9. 3w CHARLES WELSH.

TO LET, the HOUSE and premises now occupied by Robert A. Strong, corner of Great George and Kent Streets. Possession will be given on the 1st of May next. Apply to THOMAS DAWSON. Feb. 9, 1857.

For Sale,

THE leasehold interest in a FARM of 100 acres of land, on Township No. 22. There is a good Dwelling House and Barn, with other out-houses on the premises. About 35 acres of the above are cleared and in a high state of cultivation; the remainder is thickly covered with Firewood and Fence Poles. Near the house is a beautiful Spring and a capital Well of water. Any quantity of Marsh Mud for manure can be obtained on the front of the farm.

Apply to JOHN or ANDREW BELL, New Mills, Hope River. Feb. 2, 1857. 4i ANDREW BELL.

Business Stand at Summerside for Sale.

THE subscriber offers for sale his present property situated at the above place, near the public wharf. As a Business Stand it is unsurpassed by any that may be offered to the public for some time to come. It is pleasantly situated, and commands a splendid prospect of the beautiful harbor of Bedoune, the Straits of Northumberland, and the Province of New Brunswick in the distance. Much might be said of this property in regard to business facilities, being within four or five hours sail of Shediac—the terminus of the Railway, which will be in operation early next Spring—and connected with the latter port by means of regular Sailing Packets, and with Charlottetown by mail and stage conveyance, makes it one of the best business stands now offered to the public. It will be sold in one, two, or three lots to suit purchasers. Early application is necessary. Apply to the Hon. P. WALKER, Charlottetown, or to the subscriber on the premises. Summerside, Feb. 2, 1857. P. M. POWER.

GREAT BARGAINS.

TO BE SOLD, that very desirable and beautifully situated COTTAGE, nearly opposite the Hon. C. Young's residence, and now occupied by W. E. Clark, Esq., having a front on Fitzroy-street of 84 feet, and 75 feet on Prince-street, with a large BACK BUILDING, now used as a Cabinet-maker's shop. This property, if not sold by the First of March next, will then be sold in Lots to suit purchasers.

ALSO, TO LEASE,

For a number of years, as may be agreed upon, that large new two story DWELLING HOUSE with SHOP complete, situated in Water-street, opposite the residence of R. Longworth, Esq., and now occupied by the subscriber. Possession given on the first day of May next. For further particulars apply to the subscriber on the premises. February 2, 1857. THOMAS WILLIAMS.

Wheat County!

FOR SALE, a FARM at Nail Pond, Lot 1, consisting of 50 acres, more or less, fronting on the Gulf shore, with the exception of 10 acres all under cultivation, and well fenced with cedar fencing all round. There is a public road runs through the centre of the farm, and a good Dwelling House on the premises; with a brook of water running through the property, a short distance from the House. Possession given immediately. It is under lease for 999 years at the rate of 1s. per acre. Application to be made to CHAS. PALMER, Esq. or to Casseque, Nov. 10, 1856. G. M. RYDER & Co.

Dwelling House and Land near Charlottetown for Sale.

FOR SALE, the newly built and commodious Dwelling House in Charlottetown, late the residence of the Hon. Charles Hensley, together with eighteen acres of Land adjoining. The Dwelling House contains—Dining Room, Drawing Room and Study; two Kitchens, with Store-rooms, &c.; and Nine Bed rooms. There is also Stables, Coach-house, Root-house, Pump, &c., on the premises. The distance from Charlottetown is rather less than one mile.

Also to let from year to year, or for a term of years, as agreed upon, several Pasture Lots in Charlottetown, near the above Dwelling House. For Terms of Sale and Lease apply to the subscriber at the Attorney General's Office, Colonial Building, Charlottetown. July 20. JOSEPH HENSLEY.

For Sale,

THAT valuable Building in Queen-street, known as the CITY DRUG STORE, together with the land upon which it is erected. The premises are at present leased from year to year, and will be sold subject to such lease. This valuable property is too well known to need further description.

—ALSO—

Five hundred acres of valuable WILDERNESS LAND, in one block, situate on Township No. 49. This tract is situate on the boundary line of the Township, and runs to the Pisiquid River—is well watered and covered with timber trees, principally hardwood, and worthy the attention of speculators. For particulars, apply to W. H. POPE. Charlottetown, Dec. 15, 1856. (all papers 1/2).

Liverpool to Charlottetown direct.

REGULAR TRADER, A 1/2 Clipper Ship "MAJESTIC," thoroughly repaired and newly metalled under the inspection of the owner at Liverpool; E. NOWLAN, Commander; ready for Freight the 15th February—will be despatched the 1st April. Has superior accommodations for Cabin Passengers. A continuance of patronage solicited.

For particulars please apply to Messrs. D. CANNON, SOX & Co., 52 South Castle-street, Liverpool; or W. W. LORD & Co., Charlottetown, P. E. I. Feb. 2, 1857. HG. 5i.

London to Charlottetown direct.

As usual, a first class SHIP will sail as above on the 1st of April, 1857. For Freight, &c., apply to KEAL & ROBERTS, 3, Road Lane, London; or to DANIEL J. ROBERTS, Ch. Town. Feb. 2, 1857. G.



"Alliance Life and Fire Insurance Company" of LONDON ESTABLISHED BY ACT OF PARLIAMENT 1824. Capital, Five Millions Sterling. April 11. CHARLES YOUNG, Agent for P. E. I.

Literature.

BLUE-EYED FLORENCE.

Blue-eyed Florence! where art thou?
With thy radiant baby-brow,
And thy voice of silvery tone,
And thy smile—an angel's own?
Place upon thy father's knee
Well I know was dear to thee;
He is toiling far away,
And hath vanished many a day
Since he crossed home's cottage-hill;
Is his love remembered still?

Blue-eyed Florence! it was bliss
Every morn to claim thy kiss;
Feel from my world-weary heart
Dross and earthlyness depart.
Sharer in thy love so bright,
With a flash of heavenly light;
Listen while thy mother smiled,
To thy questions, darling child!
Puzzling to the wisest brain;
Will that bliss return again?

Brightest of the rosy band
In sweet childhood's fairy land!
Does remembrance ever stray
To thy father, far away?
Dost thou, when a thought of him
Comes thy sunny joy to dim,
Sometimes with a moistening eye,
Throw thy doll and play-things by?
Is his name upon thy tongue
When the morning hymn is sung?

Ah! it is a grievous wrong
We should parted be so long;
That thy carol, like a bird,
Must by other ears be heard,
Singing some quaint nursery air,
In thy little rocking-chair.
Others mark thy budding charms,
Others toss thee in their arms;
While thy father, sad and lonely,
Sees thee in a night-dream only.

Blue-eyed Florence! when I meet
Little children in the street,
Closely do I hunt for traces
Of thy beauty in their faces;
For thy gladness of sunny beam,
And thy hair of golden gleam;
For thy burst of mirth unbounded,
And thy temples, fair and rounded,
For thy motion, like a linnet,
And thy laugh, with music in it;
And I bless them if I find
Aught recalling thee to mind.

(From Blackwood's Magazine for December, 1856.)

OUR INDIAN EMPIRE.

(Continued.)

The revenues of every country fluctuate from year to year, both in the mass and in detail; and this is especially the case with India at present, owing to the recent acquisitions of territory there. Accordingly, in our exposition of its finances, we have not adhered to the exact items of any particular year's budget. Our figures are approximate merely, being designed to convey to the reader a general idea of the Indian finances, without plunging him into a host of wearisome and perplexing details. What cannot fail to strike the mind, and perhaps excite the curiosity of even a cursory reader of the preceding statement, is the widely different nature of the Indian taxes from those customary in Europe. A land-tax, for instance, yielding more than half of the entire revenue, is something strange to us in Europe,—so is a salt-tax yielding three millions, and an opium tax yielding four and a half millions; while the trifles derived from the customs and excise (not two millions in all), and the total absence of income-tax, house-tax, &c., are arrangements equally novel and enviable. To understand these peculiar features of Indian finance, one must understand the people and country. When we find the great mass of the people eating nothing but maize or rice, and wearing nothing but a cotton rag round their middle, the impotency of excise or customs will be apparent, and the regrettable necessity for a salt-tax will be better understood. When we find throughout India a general absence of large fortunes and a wealthy middle-class, it becomes obvious that a tax on property would be out of place. And, finally, the remarkable adherence of the people to ancient practice, and their unconquerable aversion to direct taxation, are facts which solve the rest of the mystery, and show that in continuing the taxative system which we found in operation in India, we acted not only from necessity, but on the whole for the best. In succeeding to the empire of India, we found no *tabula rasa* whereon to write what we pleased, but a taxative system which in its general features had been in operation for two thousand years. The very slowness of our progress to supremacy,—incorporating at intervals here a district and there a province—prevented the adoption of any comprehensive scheme founded on European notions of administration. And in this fact lies the key to our success. For had we, instead of falling in with the customs and spirit of the country, presumptuously introduced a new system fabricated according to our English ideas of administrative perfection, we should have shocked so many prejudices, and infringed so many rights, that the empire of India would have crumbled under our grasp.

When the British first began the work of administration in their Indian territories, the most novel and perplexing feature that presented itself to them was the relation of the Government and people to the soil. The great mass of the population are entirely dependent for support upon the land. The means of existence are easily procurable in India: the warmth of the climate, the fertility of the soil, and the simple wants of the people, combine to make living a much easier thing there than with us. There are here no poor-rates, by which with us the prosperous are made to support the destitute; but the land, to the cultivation of which the masses have from time immemorial devoted themselves, is (speaking generally) regarded as a vast raw material for the manufacture of which into the means of support every facility is given. The common law or usage of India has from the most ancient times established a species of Tenant-right, in virtue of which no peasant can be dispossessed of his ground as long as he pays the rent—and this rent is no arbitrary thing, but is regulated by what is called "Pergunnah rates," or rates usual in the district. Thus land is

not such an absolute property there as with us. In truth, landed property in India confers a right rather to the rent than to the soil itself; and any sale of land, while transferring the rent, cannot dispossess the cultivators. As long as the cultivators pay the rent, there can be no "evictions," neither can the proprietor interfere to defraud the tenant of the benefit of the improvements he has effected. This is the general rule, and is what *should* be universally; unfortunately in some districts, especially Lower Bengal, our ignorance of Indian usages led us to establish an order of things by which the rights of the people have been permitted to be infringed to a most regrettable extent. So much for the relation of the cultivators to the soil. The relation of the Proprietors to the land opens to us fresh novelties. There are different kinds of proprietorship. First, there is the Zemindaree tenure, or large-property system, where a large extent of ground is owned (or rather its rents drawn) by a single individual,—or by two or three joint-owners, who make no division of the estate, but simply draw fractional portions of the rent; and these Zemindars hold their properties on condition of paying a certain amount of land-revenue to the Government. Secondly, there is the Ryotwarree system, by which the cultivator is likewise the proprietor; or rather, under which there is no middleman or quasi-proprietor between the peasant and the Government, and the former pays rent in the form of land-tax directly to the latter. Thirdly, there is the Pottedaree or village-community system,—the most interesting of all, but which requires a word of explanation. Although the people of India are almost entirely devoted to agriculture and (but in a much lesser degree) to pastoral pursuits, there is not a rural population in our sense of the word. The inhabitants are not scattered over the face of the country, but are always massed together in towns and villages; and to each village a certain district is attached. This circumjacent district is owned by and allotted amongst the members of the village-community,—not now equally, indeed; for under every form of society, save those supposed to exist in Utopia, it is found that perpetual equality is impossible, and that land, like everything else, tends to accumulate in the hands of the able and industrious, and to melt away from the lazy or stupid. Moreover, in many of these village-communities, there exists a species of oligarchy, composed of one or more leading families, evidently the descendants of conquerors or dominant interlopers in ancient times, who are now the quasi-proprietors, and draw the rents of the village-lands. In these Pottedaree districts, the owners, though themselves cultivators, seldom cultivate the whole of their respective portions; the remainder, parcelled into allotments, is let to the "common herd" of ryots resident in the village,—and partly also to ryots who belong to other villages, and who (unlike the resident ryots) are mere tenants-at-will, because having no "settlement" in that community. Each cultivator bears his share in the Government assessment of the village-district, which is collected by the Potal or head of the community, with whom alone the Government deals,—the community being ultimately liable for the default of any of its members.

Such are the three modes of Land-settlement in India. The Ryotwarree system prevails in Madras and Bombay, the Zemindaree in Bengal Proper, and the Pottedaree in the north-western provinces. Each has its peculiar defects and advantages. The defect of the Ryotwarree system is, that when bad seasons or other calamities visit the lands, then remission, and not only remission, but actual assistance from the Government, becomes necessary to keep the ryot from ruin, and to enable him to labour effectively for the future: all which requires an amount of minute superintendence, by upright and zealous men, such as it is impossible for any Government to afford. Otherwise the Ryotwarree system would be the most perfect of any. The other two systems, while not possessing some of the advantages of the Ryotwarree tenure, at least escape its great defect; because they bring into play an intermediate class, having a permanent interest in the soil, whose profits enable them to accumulate capital and lay it out in aid of the ryots when necessary. Such a class is the Zemindars, and also the Potal and members of the village-communities. The latter or Pottedaree system, though not universally adoptable, appears to us the best; for, while relieving the Government of much trouble, and leaving each community to manage its own affairs, under it the right of the cultivator is recorded and respected, so as to prevent rack-renting on the part of the proprietors. The Zemindaree system has not prevented rack-renting; and moreover, the valuation of land having been permanently fixed in Bengal, and not liable to revision at intervals of years as it is the case elsewhere, the Government unduly loses thereby. It must be allowed, however, that a much greater extent of land has been brought into cultivation under the Zemindaree system than under the others; so that if the Government has been a loser, there has at least been an important accumulation of capital in private hands. Every traveller is struck with the thriving aspect of the Bengal districts where this system prevails. The jungle has entirely disappeared; and a man may go for miles in any direction east and north of Calcutta, and see plains succeeding to plains where there is not one *bigah* of unproductive soil. And it has been asked—"Is it fair to say that all these results are independent of the Perpetual Settlement?" Not all of them, certainly, but many of them are so; for the provinces where that settlement was introduced were the most thriving in India—they have enjoyed nearly a century of unbroken peace—their natural fertility is remarkable, and they can dispense with the costly system of artificial irrigation.

The great moot point respecting the Zemindaree system is the manner in which it affects the ryots or peasantry. Some able men maintain that the peasantry of Bengal "cannot be said to be more miserable than the peasantry of any other part of the world;" while others, with at least equal show of reason, maintain the reverse. These latter urge, "that although many classes in Bengal, more especially artisans, shopkeepers, gardeners and money-dealers, have prospered under our rule, the peasantry have been raised but little from their ancient state of degradation; and in some districts they have been reduced to a condition which is practically pauperism." One of the latest and most competent writers on this point takes this latter view, and adds—"The low condition of the cultivators is borne out by the continued prevalence of the crime of dacoity, or robbery by gangs, with open violence, in spite of great improvements in the police, and constant attention to it. Now, this crime has entirely disappeared in the North-west Provinces since the new settlement, which secured to the cultivating ryots moderate and fair rents. It is evident that where there is a regular

government and police, and yet predatory crimes cannot be checked, the cause must lie in the misery and desperation of a large class of the community. At least this must be evident to men familiar with, and accustomed to analyse, the workings of Government." We observe from the last Overland mail that the missionaries in Calcutta have petitioned the Governor-General for a commission of inquiry into the matter; and as the missionaries have a profound acquaintance with the people, and are the only class to whom the peasantry will speak openly, and also as they are, as a rule, strong supporters of the Government, we anticipate that their prayer will be granted. No Government can part with the obligation to secure right and justice for its subjects. And certainly, if there be oppression, it exists in opposition to the wish, and even to the enactments, of the Indian Government. The "perpetual settlement," as made by Lord Cornwallis, provided that the ryots should not pay higher rents than the Pergunnah rates,—i. e. the customary though variable rates of rent on particular soils and produce, prevailing in the district,—and that beyond the rent they should pay nothing. "These laws," says Mr. Robinson, "are still on the statute-book, though, to the great detriment of the country, they have not, from the want of sufficient machinery, and sufficient knowledge in the early administrators, been carried out." In truth, in the early part of our Indian administration, we were but groping. And it could not be otherwise; for the country, the language, and the habits of the people were alike strange to us; and, moreover, owing to the long prevalence of adverse circumstances, we found the native municipal institutions and territorial usages in some measure obscured, and the population themselves in an abnormal condition.

Having premised these things, let us now behold the Administrative System of British India,—the mighty fabric of power which we have reared upon the Indian plains, and which holds together an empire which extends everywhere from the Himalayas to the sea.

We have seen that one-half of the net revenue of India is absorbed by its military establishments. A vast host of nearly 350,000 fighting men is maintained to guard this empire of a hundred and fifty million souls from internal troubles or external attack. Of this force, forty-four thousand are pure British troops, while the remainder are Sepoys or native troops. The main body of this army is massed in, or ever ready to move towards, the Punjab and north-western provinces, as this is the quarter where offensive or defensive movements will be most required. The British troops are the salt of our vast Indian army. They are to it what Alexander's serried Macedonians were to his more numerous array of spirited but unsteady Asiatics. The most overpowering odds or the most dreadful cannonade will hardly make British troops recoil. They may be excelled as regards flash and *elan*, but for solidity, bottom and a courage that never wavers, they are incomparable. Hence their great value as a nucleus to an Asiatic host, which is constitutionally more liable to sudden panics. But drilled and led as it is by British officers, our Sepoy army is second only to the best European troops. Its composition is remarkable. Natives of all parts of India—of all tribes—of all castes, are to be found in its ranks. The races who most stoutly opposed us—Rohillas, Rajpoots, Sikhs, Mahrattas—now muster most numerous under our banners. Indeed this is a part of our policy; and so, when an enemy is defeated, or a province annexed, the native troops, instead of being permitted to wander about in predatory bands, are furnished with congenial and well paid employment in the service of the Company. Our Indian army, however, is not a mere engine of war. Rightly considered, it will be seen to be a powerful instrument for leavening with European ideas the mass of the people. A permanent body of above 300,000 men, exclusive of the host of camp-followers, all of them with relatives and friends, many of them with families, cannot fail to spread widely the glimmering of new ideas they have acquired from contact with the Europeans, and although such influence may be but feeble, continued from year to year, from generation to generation, it must tell visibly at last upon the native community.

The sword and the pen together rule mankind. Along with the Army must go the Civil Service. This also constitutes a numerous body; and, like the army, its composition presents a spectacle of a large body of natives filling the lower posts and supplying the menial or mechanical agency, headed by a comparatively small number of Europeans. Before describing the Civil Service, we must explain the difference between the Regulation and non-Regulation provinces of our Indian empire. The former, consisting of our older territories, are governed by regularly enacted and published laws, commencing with the Cornwallis code. These provinces are administered exclusively by the Civil Service, and no exceptions can be made in revenue or judicial matters to the strict letter of the law. The non-Regulation provinces are those acquired in more recent times (since the beginning of the century), to which the regular code has not been applied, and which are governed simply by instructions from the Governor-General. Officers of the Army, as well as members of the Civil Service, are eligible for administrative appointments in these latter territories (which include the Punjab, Scinde, Oude, &c.); and in these the spirit of the law is more regarded than the letter, so that exceptional cases are more easily met than in the Regulation provinces. We may also explain that of the two classes of which the Civil Service is composed—namely, the Covenanted and Uncovenanted—the former and much higher class are nominated at first by the Company (i. e. Court of Directors), and are trained in and sent out from England; while the Uncovenanted members are appointed by the Government of India, and consist principally of natives, though containing also a considerable number of Europeans and half-castes.

At the top of the pyramid of the Civil Service stands the Supreme Government, and the subordinate Governments of Madras and Bombay, with their respective councils, secretariats, boards, &c. Then come the judges, magistrates and collectors of the various districts, with their "assistants"—all belonging to the covenanted service, or to officers taken from the army for civil duties; then deputy-magistrates and col-

* An Account of the Land-Revenue of British India. By F. H. Robinson, late Member of the Board of Revenue, North-west Provinces. P. 33. London: 1856.

† Ibid.

‡ The Europeans in the uncovenanted service are of two classes—either adventurers picked up in India, men who have gone out in some other calling, have acquired some experience in the country, and have eventually obtained Government employ; or of another class which has lately begun to seek for those highly respectable and well-paid appointments,—viz. the sons of commissioned officers, who cannot obtain appointments in the Company's regular service. The native uncovenanted servants are principally drawn from the class of individuals or families attached to our service, and who have made it their profession from youth.—Campbell's Modern India, p. 290-1.

* Calcutta Review. † Calcutta Correspondent of the Times, Oct. 13.