CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION.

Government revenue with Customs and Post Office receipts—Government debt— Technical education—Trade and traders—Important trade centres—Agents and commercial travellers—Commercial associations—Consuls—Advertising mediums—Suitability of goods and packing—Openings for capital—Works of reference.

Government Revenue.—The gross revenue of the Government of India has been as follows during the last five years:

		£	\$
1896-7	• • •	62,622,000 =	313,110,000
1897-8		64,257,000 =	321,285,000
1898-9		67,567,000 =	337,835,000
1899-1900	•••	68,637,000 =	343,185,000
1900-1	•••	75,166,000 =	375,830,000

About one-fourth of the total is derived from land revenue, and about one-fourth from railways and irrigation works, the other chief heads being opium, salt, stamps, excise, and customs. The gross receipts from customs and post office have been as follows:—

		Customs.	Post Office.
		£ \$	£\$
1896-7	•••	2,994,000 = 14,970,000	0 1,189,000 = 5,945,000
1897-8	• • •	3,094,000 = 15,470,000	0 1,253,000 = 6,265,000
1898-9	• • •	3,201,000 = 16,005,000	0 1,276,000 = 6,380,000
1899-00	•••	3,134,000 = 15,670,000	0 1,308,000 = 6,540,000
1900-1		3,324,000 = 16,620,000	0 1,354,000 = 6,770,000

The receipts from the Post Office exceeded the expenditure in 1900-01 by about £125,000.

Government Debt.—The debt of the Government of India consists of rupee loans raised in India and sterling loans raised in England, together with miscellaneous obligations. It has been

estimated that about 42 per cent. of the rupee debt is held by natives of India. The following table gives particulars of the permanent debt in India and England for the five years ended 1900-01, with the amount incurred or discharged (by redemption) in each year:

Power		nent	Debt in England.		
Year.	Permanent Debt in India.		Per- manent.	Un- funded (India Bills).	Total.
1896-7	Rupees. = 109,11,50,530	= £ 72,743,369	£ 113,883, 2 33	£ 1,000,000	£ 114,888,233
1897-8	111,69,56,340	74,463,756	117,274,680	6,000,000	123,274,680
1898-9	112,65,46,980	75,103,132	119,768,605	4,500,000	124,268,605
1899-00	112,47,47,010	74,983,134	119,644,401	4,500,000	124,144,401
1900-1	115,33,19,058	76,887,937	128,435,879	5,000,000	183,485,879

		on of Perma lia and Eng			
Year.	Railways.	Irriga- tion.	Other Purposes.	Net Amour (— Disc	
1896-7	£ 96,257,842	$_{21,264,761}^{\pounds}$	£ 69,103,999	Rupees. 5,32,61,250	£ —1,020,499
1897-8	98,679,216	21,759,869	71,299,351	2,58,05,810	8,391,447
1898-9	102,045,917	22,212,915	70,612,905	95,90,640	993,925
1899-00	104,485,985	22,840,866	67,300,684	17,99,970	124,204
1900-1	111,676,000	23,461,300	70,186,016	2,85,72,048	8,290,978

Part of the increase in 1900-01 is due to the inclusion of £6,000,000 of debenture stock issued by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company, and taken over by Government when it acquired the line.

The net amount required for the service of the permanent debt and minor obligations in 1900-01 was £6,816,400 (\$34,082,000).

It will be observed that the greater part of the debt of India has been incurred for productive purposes, more than one-half being for railways.

For more than forty years there has been no disturbance of the general peace in India. Merchants and others are able to rely on adequate police protection for their persons and property, as well as on the due enforcement of legal obligations by the courts of justice. The low rates of interest on the Government debt furnish ample evidence of the confidence everywhere felt in the stability and permanence of British rule. The latest price quotations of Indian stocks on the London Stock Exchange (February 17th, 1902) are:—

Loans.	Price.	Yield to Buyer.
$3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., sterling.	108	$3\frac{1}{4}$
3 ,, ,, ,,	101	3
$2\frac{1}{2}$,, ,,	86 1	3 (nearly)

Technical Education.—The whole subject of education in India is at present under discussion, and there is a tendency to devote more attention to primary and technical education. Already, in fact, a movement in the direction of a more practical education has been visible in the more important position allotted to agriculture, mensuration, sanitary science, and drawing in the primary schools. The science side in secondary schools and arts colleges has increased in popularity, while there has been a steady growth of engineering colleges, art institutions, and industrial schools. instruction is given at Rurki (Roorkee) in the North-Western Provinces, at Sibpur College in Bengal, and at colleges in Madras, Bombay, and Nagpur. There are schools of art in Calcutta, Lahore (Mayo School), Bombay, and Madras, and the last especially has made considerable progress. Madras possesses the Victoria Technical Institute, while Bombay has the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, including the Ripon Textile School. There are agricultural colleges or schools at Saidapet in Madras, at Nagpur, and at Cawnpore. The Poona College of Science gives instruction in science, engineering, and agriculture. Bombay has a veterinary college. In all provinces are industrial schools, and technical training is given in many railway workshops. In 1899-1900 over 800 students were attending the four engineering colleges, while there were 1,150 at thirty engineering and surveying schools, nearly 1,600 at various schools of art, and 3,700 at industrial schools.

Trade and Traders.—Improved communications have greatly developed both the foreign and the internal trade, cheapening transport, equalizing prices, and extending the cultivation of export staples. While Calcutta trade is largely in the hands of Europeans having extensive agencies for the disposal of Indian produce, Bombay trade is more equally shared between European and native merchants. Most of the internal trade of India is in native hands, though Europeans mainly control the foreign shipping business, and have a share in the business of collecting the chief export staples, such as cotton, jute, wheat, and oil-seeds. The export staples are generally sold by the cultivators to travelling brokers, who resell to larger dealers, till eventually the merchandise reaches the agents of the great shipping houses at the central marts. The work of distributing goods and adapting them to the needs of consumers also falls mainly to natives. The Parsees take the lead among native Indians for enterprise in industry and commerce, and they occupy an especially important position in Bombay. Among other trading classes may be named the Baniyas of Gujarat and the Bhattias (Hindus), and the Bohras of Cutch and Kathiawar, who are Mohammedans prominent in the trade of Bombay. The Bhattias deal in most of the leading articles of export, especially cotton and oil-seeds, and they import all kinds of textile goods. In the Deccan are found the Lingayats, while in Bengal and in Bombay the Marwaris of Rajputana occupy an important commercial position. Local trade is centred mainly in the permanent bazaars of the great towns, while business is also done at weekly markets in the villages, at periodical religious gatherings, at annual fairs, and through travelling agents or brokers. In each village may be found at least one resident trader, who usually combines the functions of money-lender, grain-dealer, and cloth-seller.

Important Trade Centres.—In India there are thirty towns with over 100,000 inhabitants, most of which are important commercially or industrially. A few words are necessary on the chief

of these, and on some smaller trade centres. The great port towns have already been dealt with. Howra is the manufacturing suburb of Calcutta. It has jute and cotton mills, factories and foundries. Patna, in Bengal, at the junction of several railway and river routes, is an entrepot for rice, wheat, oil-seeds, opium, and indigo. Allahabad, at the confluence of the Ganges and Jumna, is a great corn and cotton market. Cawnpore is in the forefront of manufacturing enterprise in Upper India, being especially famous for leather goods. It is also an important grain market. Delhi is a large wheat and produce mart, and a great centre for the distribution of foreign goods. Buyers congregate there from the North-West and from other parts of India. It has many banks, European and native, and a large number of merchants, who buy direct from Europe or through Calcutta and Bombay. Moreover, Delhi is a leading railway and industrial centre. Meerut is also an important railway and manufacturing centre. Of towns in the Central Provinces, Nagpur has a cotton industry and a trade in produce, while Jubbulpore, on a trunk railway to the coast, is an important wheat and cotton market. Bangalore, a great military station, has manufactures of silk and cotton goods. Poona, another military station, is important industrially. Shikarpur, in Sind, has a large merchant population carrying on trade with Afghanistan, Persia, etc. The development of the new Nushki route from Quetta to Seistan in Persia should benefit Shikarpur. Hubli and Sholapur in Bombay have set up large cotton factories and railway works, while Ahmedabad has also rapidly developed owing to its cotton industry. Most of these great commercial and industrial towns have grown up through the agency of British capital administered by Englishmen. But the enterprise of the latter has been imitated very successfully by many natives, who are tending more and more to invest their own capital in trade and industry.

Agents and Commercial Travellers.—Business in foreign goods can be transacted most satisfactorily by the establishment of local branches or by the appointment of local agents, who can devote themselves specially and regularly to furthering sales. It is difficult for the foreign manufacturer or merchant to do business directly with native dealers, as experience has often shown. At present trade is mainly carried on by commission agents, who send indents or lists of orders to their principals in Europe or

America. It would doubtless be too expensive to have local agents in all the chief towns, but in the chief ports and in Delhi, Cawnpore, or other great distributing centres, direct representation is highly desirable. The rich native merchants in the bazaars can thus be made acquainted more thoroughly with the prices and qualities of the goods for sale, expenses can be reduced, and articles sold at lower prices. Commercial travellers are not so useful in India as in countries with a more temperate climate. Their operations are practically restricted to the cold season, from the beginning of November to the middle of March, when business is most active in the chief commercial cities. Travellers who desire to do business with the natives should have a good acquaintance with their habits, their methods of bargaining, and their peculiarities, besides some knowledge of native languages. Hindustani will be found a useful language. English, however, will in most cases serve, and catalogues should be printed in that language, though prices should be shown in rupees, annas, and pies. There are no regulations either in British India or in Native States specially affecting commercial travellers, and they are not required to take out licences; moreover, travellers resident in Calcutta are not called upon to pay the municipal licence tax. In Kashmir, however, all Europeans, other than civil and military officers of the British Government, whether they are commercial travellers or not, are required to provide themselves with a pass from the British Resident before entering the Maharaja's territory; and in Nepal the general prohibition against Europeans visiting Nepal without the permission of the Durbar applies to representatives of European firms. With regard to the treatment of commercial travellers' samples and patterns, there are no special regulations in British India; but it may be said generally that import duty is charged on importation and refunded on re-exportation to the extent of seven-eighths, and that samples of no marketable value are exempted from all payment. Wherever octroi is levied, whether in British or in Native India, on merchandise brought into towns, the duty applies to samples of merchandise as to goods generally, if the samples are of taxable value. As regards the treatment accorded to samples of merchandise in Native States, no duty is levied in Gwalior when samples are imported and exported again unsold, and it appears that, generally speaking, the same rule prevails in all the States of Central India. In cases where the concession is not provided for by existing regulations, it could probably be secured without difficulty by application to the political officer of the State in question. There appear to be no rules for the treatment of commercial travellers' samples in the other Native States of India. The Government of India possesses a discretionary power to prevent any foreigner from residing, or sojourning in, or travelling through, India, including Native States, without its consent, and a proviso reserving such power is attached to commercial treaties to which the Government adheres.

Commercial Associations.—There are Chambers of Commerce in the ports of Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi, Madras, Rangoon, and Cochin. Their schedules of commission charges for various services can be obtained on application. There is also a Chamber of Commerce in the Native State of Kathiawar. The Upper India Chamber of Commerce is located at Cawnpore.

The following list of other commercial associations may be useful for reference. Calcutta: Royal Exchange; Bengal Bonded Warehouse Association; and Calcutta Trades' Association. Bombay: Bombay Cotton Trade Association; Bombay Mill Owners' Association; and Bombay Underwriters' Association. Madras: Madras Import Freights Association; Madras Trades' Association. Rangoon: Rangoon Trades' Association.

Consuls.—The interests of India in foreign countries are represented by British Consuls. England, being the paramount power in India, has no consular representation there. The United States has the following consular officers: Calcutta—Consul-General and Deputy-Consul-General, Esplanade Road. Bombay—Consul, Apollo Bunder. Rangoon—Consul. There are also American consular agents at Madras, Karachi, Moulmein, and Chittagong. The appointment of foreign Consuls is restricted to the seaport towns of the provinces under the direct administration of the Government of India, and a stipulation attached to commercial treaties provides for this.

Advertising Mediums.—As English is universally taught, a large number of natives read the papers printed in that language, and therefore the numerous dailies in English are useful for appealing not only to Anglo-Indians, but also to educated natives. The leading organs are as follows:—

Calcutta: Englishman, Indian Daily News, and Statesman and Friend of India.

Bombay: Times of India and Bombay Gazette. Madras: Madras Mail and Madras Times.

Allahabad: Pioneer.

Lahore: Civil and Military Gazette.

Rangoon: Rangoon Gazette and Rungoon Times.

Advertisements in native papers may serve to bring foreign manufacturers into direct connection with Indian dealers, and so facilitate the introduction of foreign goods.

Among special journals are: Calcutta—The Indian Agriculturist, The Indian Planters' Gazette, The Indian Engineer, Indian Engineering, and Capital. Bombay—The Indian Textile Journal and Indian Import and Export Trades Journal. London—British-Indian Commerce.

Suitability of Goods and Packing.—It is of great importance that goods sent to India should be adapted to native requirements in quality, shape, colour, style, pattern, and price. They must also be adapted to native prejudices. Cheapness is a prime necessity in most articles of general consumption. Many articles made on the continent of Europe (hardware and cutlery, glass and glassware, etc.) have secured a sale owing to their cheapness. In consequence of wide variations in temperature and rainfall, good packing is essential to resist heat, damp, and vermin. Goods liable to injury from these causes, such as textile fabrics, hardware and cutlery, leather goods, furniture, etc., should not be stored for a long period in India. It is advisable that machinery should be imported in the dry season.

Openings for Capital.—Fluctuations in exchange long hindered the free investment of capital in India; but now that the rupee is fairly established at the rate of 15 rupees to the pound sterling, India has become entitled to the serious attention of capitalists who desire sound industrial investments and not mere speculative business. The cotton and jute manufactures, already conducted on a large scale, offer scope for still further development. Sugar and tobacco are produced in large quantities, but both require the application of the latest scientific processes of cultivation and manufacture. Oilseeds might be crushed in India instead of being exported, while cotton-seed, as yet imperfectly utilized, can be turned to good account. Hides and skins, now largely exported raw, might be

more largely tanned or dressed in India. Again, the woollen and silk fabrics manufactured in India are mostly coarse fabrics, and there is scope for the production of finer goods. Although railways make their own rolling-stock, they have to import wheels and axles, tyres, and other ironwork. At present steel is manufactured on a very small scale, and the number of iron foundries and machine shops, although increasing, is capable of greater expansion. Machinery and machine tools have for the most part to be imported. Millions of agriculturists and artisans use rude tools, which might be replaced by similar articles that are more durable and of better make. Improved oil-presses and hand-looms should find a profitable market. Paper mills and flour mills might be established in greater numbers. There are openings also for the manufacture of sewingmachines, fireworks, rope, boots and shoes, saddlery and harness, clocks and watches, aniline and alizarine dyes, electrical appliances, glass and glassware, tea-chests, gloves, rice, starch, matches, lamps, candles, soap, linen, hardware, and cutlery.

WORKS OF REFERENCE.

Official:

Annual Statement of the Trade and Navigation of British India: Vol. I., Foreign Trade. Price about 4s. 6d. (Vol. II. relates to Coasting Trade.)

Review of the Trade of India (annual), about 4d.

Tables relating to the Trade of British India (annual), about 1s. Statistical Abstract relating to British India (annual), about 1s. 6d.

(These three volumes are issued in London as Parliamentary Blue-books.)

The Sea-Customs Act, about 2s.

The Indian Merchandise Marks Act, about 7d.

The Petroleum Act, about 8d.

Dictionary of the Economic Products of India, by Dr. G. Watt, C.I.E., 9 vols. with index, £3 6s.

(All the above may be obtained from Messrs. P. S. King and Co., Westminster, London, S.W.)

Non-Official:

Thacker's Indian Directory (Calcutta).

Times of India Directory (Bombay).

Asylum Press Almanack (Madras).

Burma Directory and Diary (Rangoon).