

private schools in 1871, was 15,290, with 18,318 teachers, and 333,197 pupils.

The cheapness of labour, as compared with European countries, enables the Government to perform its other functions at an equally small cost. It has brought courts very near to the door of the peasant, and established a system of registration by which proprietary rights and transfers are cheaply and absolutely ascertained. A great department of public works has spread a network of roads over the country, connecting Bengal by railways with other parts of India, and, in districts which specially require it, is endeavouring to exercise some degree of control over the rivers and the natural water-supply, on which the safety of a tropical people depends. An organised system of emigration watches over the movements of the landless classes, from the overcrowded or unfertile districts of the west to the rich under-populated territories on the east,

and to colonies beyond the seas. Charitable dispensaries and a well-equipped medical department struggle to combat the diseases and epidemics which from time immemorial have devastated the Delta, and place the operations of European surgery within the reach of the poorest peasant. The whole cost of civil administration for the 66½ millions of Bengal amounts, as already stated, to £6,338,968, or under 1s. 11d. per head. An unfettered vernacular press makes known the views of the people to their rulers, and municipal institutions are developing the ancient Hindu capacity for self-government from the village to the municipal stage of human society.

LOCAL DIVISIONS.—The following table exhibits the four provinces at present under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, along with Assam, which until February 1874 was within it.

Area, Population, and Languages of the Five Provinces of Lower Bengal (including Assam) in 1872.

Provinces.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Average population per sq. mile.	Percentage of entire area.	Percentage of whole population.	Languages.
Bengal,	94,539	36,769,735	389	38·08	55·00	Bengali and Hindustani.
Behar,	42,417	19,736,101	465	17·09	29·52	Hindustani and Hindi.
Orissa (including the Tributary States),	23,901	4,317,999	181	9·63	6·46	Uriya, and aboriginal tongues and patois.
Chota Nagpur,	43,901	3,825,571	87	17·69	5·72	Bengali and aboriginal tongues.
Assam (separated in 1874),	43,473	2,207,453	51	17·51	3·30	Assamese, Bengali, and aboriginal tongues.
Total,	248,231	66,856,859	* 269	100·00	100·00	

The word BENGAL is derived from Sanskrit geography, and applies strictly to the country stretching southwards from Bhagalpur to the sea. The ancient Banga formed one of the five outlying kingdoms of Aryan India, and was practically conterminous with the Delta of Bengal. It derived its name, according to the etymology of the Pandits, from a prince of the Mahabharata, to whose portion it fell on the primitive partition of the country among the Lunar race of Delhi. But a city called Bangala, near Chittagong, which, although now washed away, is supposed to have existed in the Muhammadan period, appears to have given the name to the European world. The word Bangala was first used by the Musalmans; and under their rule, like the Banga of old Sanskrit times, it applied specifically to the Gangetic delta, although the latter conquests to the east of the Brahmaputra were eventually included within it. In their distribution of the country for fiscal purposes, it formed the central province of a governorship, with Behar on the N.W., and Orissa on the S.W., jointly ruled by one deputy of the Delhi emperor. Under the English the name has at different periods borne very different significations. Francis Fernandez applies it to the country from the extreme east of Chittagong to Point Palmyras in Orissa, with a coast line which Purchas estimates at 600 miles, running inland for the same distance, and watered by the Ganges. This territory would include the Muhammadan province of Bengal, with parts of Behar and Orissa. The loose idea thus derived from old voyagers became stereotyped in the archives of the East India Company. All its north-eastern factories, from Balasor, on the Orissa coast, to Patna, in the heart of Behar, belonged to the "Bengal Establishment," and as our conquests crept higher up the rivers, the term came to be applied to the whole of Northern India. The Presidency of Bengal, in contradistinction to those of Madras and Bombay, eventually included all the British territories north of the Central Provinces, from the mouths of the Ganges and Brahmaputra to the Himalayas and the Panjab. The term Bengal continues to be officially employed in this sense by the military

department of the Government of India. But during the last forty years the tendency to a more exact order of civil administration has gradually brought about a corresponding precision in the use of Indian geographical names. The North-Western Provinces date their separate existence from 1831. Since that year they stand forward under a name of their own as the North-Western Provinces, in contradistinction to the Lower Provinces of Bengal. Later annexations have added new territorial entities, and the northern Presidency is now mapped out into four separate governments—the North-Western Provinces, Oudh, Panjab, and Lower Bengal. Three of the provinces of the present Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal—namely, Bengal proper, Behar, and Orissa—consist of great river valleys; the fourth, Chhotá or Chutiá Nagpur, is a mountainous region which separates them from the Central India plateau. Orissa embraces the rich deltas of the Mahanadi and the neighbouring rivers, bounded by the Bay of Bengal on the S.E., and walled in on the N.W. by tributary hill states. Proceeding westward, the province of Bengal proper stretches along the coast from Orissa to British Burmah, and inland from the sea-board to the Himalayas. Its southern portion is formed by the united deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra; its northern consists of the valleys of these great rivers and their tributaries. Behar lies on the north-west of Bengal proper, and comprises the higher valley of the Ganges, from the spot where it issues from the territories of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. Between Behar and Orissa, but stretching further westward and deep into the hill country, lies the province of Chhotá or Chutiá Nagpur.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.—For administrative purposes, the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, excluding the recently separated province of ASSAM (see under that heading), is divided into 47 districts. The details of the area and population of these, presented in the following table, are taken, with few exceptions, from the census returns of 1872:—

District.	Area—square miles.	Population.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Christians.	Others.	Population per square mile.	Land Revenue.
BENGAL PROPER.								
1. Bardwan,	3,523	2,034,745	1,679,363	348,024	890	6,468	578	£306,454
2. Bankura,	1,346	526,772	457,736	13,500	70	25,416	391	45,065
3. Birbhum,	1,344	695,921	576,908	111,795	249	6,969	518	73,223
4. Midnapur,	5,082	2,540,963	2,285,568	157,047	613	97,735	500	203,409
5. Hugli with Howrah,	1,424	1,488,556	1,186,435	299,025	2,583	513	1,045	144,848
6. 24 Parganas,	2,788	2,210,047	1,307,087	887,853	13,767	1,340	793	2,440
7. Calcutta,	8	447,601	291,184	133,131	21,356	1,920	55,950	170,287
8. Nadiya,	3,491	1,812,795	821,032	984,106	5,977	1,680	530	105,080
9. Jessor,	3,658	2,075,021	915,413	1,151,936	1,142	6,530	567	103,184
10. Murshidabad,	4,126	1,353,626	733,056	603,564	537	16,469	525	135,883
11. Dinajpur,	4,126	1,501,924	702,235	793,215	270	6,203	364	175,566
12. Maldah,	1,813	676,426	356,298	310,890	43	9,195	373	32,414
13. Rajshahi,	2,254	1,310,729	286,870	1,017,979	103	5,777	587	102,681
14. Rangpur,	3,476	2,149,972	857,298	1,291,465	73	1,136	619	96,662
15. Bogra,	1,501	689,467	130,644	556,620	22	2,181	459	44,160
16. Pabna,	1,966	1,211,594	361,314	847,227	98	2,955	616	24,066
17. Darjiling,	1,234	94,712	69,831	6,248	556	18,077	77	6,376
18. Jalpaiguri,	2,906	418,665	182,375	144,980	36	594	144	26,547
19. Kuch Behar,	1,307	532,565	493,252	39,313	—	—	407	—
20. Dacca,	2,897	1,852,993	793,789	1,050,131	7,844	1,229	640	48,996
21. Faridpur,	1,496	1,012,589	420,988	588,299	463	2,839	677	32,764
22. Bakarganj,	4,935	2,377,433	827,893	1,540,965	4,852	4,223	482	151,128
23. Maimansingh,	6,293	2,349,917	817,963	1,519,635	124	12,195	373	84,955
24. Silhet,	5,853	1,719,539	853,234	854,131	159	6,015	319	48,311
25. Chittagong,	2,498	1,127,402	301,138	795,013	1,084	30,169	451	76,089
26. Noakhali,	1,557	713,934	180,253	533,053	552	76	459	56,161
27. Tipperah,	2,655	1,533,931	540,156	993,554	146	65	578	100,322
28. Chittagong Hill Tracts,	6,882	69,607	598	1,378	31	67,600	10	—
29. Hill Tipperah State,	3,867	35,262	—	—	—	—	9	—
Total,	84,198	36,564,708	17,972,219	17,534,774	63,641	335,567	438	£2,113,002
BEHAR.								
29. Patna,	2,101	1,559,633	1,363,291	192,988	2,700	659	742	£145,050
30. Gaya,	4,718	1,949,750	1,729,899	219,332	263	316	413	136,261
31. Shahabad,	4,385	1,723,974	1,590,643	132,671	461	199	393	174,591
32. Tirhut,	6,343	4,384,706	3,854,991	528,605	716	394	691	176,702
33. Saran,	2,654	2,063,860	1,822,048	241,590	207	16	778	211,936
34. Champaran,	3,531	1,440,815	1,240,264	199,237	1,307	7	408	51,578
35. Monghir,	3,913	1,812,986	1,613,546	182,269	1,142	16,029	463	81,015
36. Bhagalpur,	4,327	1,826,290	1,639,949	169,426	532	16,383	422	67,925
37. Purniah,	4,957	1,714,795	1,022,009	690,149	403	2,234	346	127,693
38. Santal Parganas,	5,488	1,259,287	650,210	79,786	392	528,899	229	12,154
Total,	42,417	19,736,101	16,526,850	2,636,053	8,963	565,135	465	£1,184,905
ORISSA.								
39. Cattack,	3,178	1,494,784	1,430,040	40,013	2,314	22,417	470	£83,416
40. Puri,	2,473	769,674	739,636	11,586	576	17,876	311	45,862
41. Balasor,	2,066	770,232	738,396	18,878	530	12,428	373	40,424
42. Tributary States,	16,184	1,283,309	879,655	3,995	303	399,356	79	—
Total,	23,901	4,317,999	3,787,727	74,472	3,723	452,077	180	£169,702
CHHOTÁ NÁGPUR.								
43. Hazárbágh,	7,021	771,875	647,991	72,338	1,573	49,973	110	£7,041
44. Lohárdágh,	12,044	1,237,123	741,952	58,211	12,781	424,179	103	9,732
45. Singhbhum,	4,503	415,023	209,632	2,487	852	202,052	92	5,934
46. Mánbhum,	4,914	995,570	827,936	33,622	592	133,420	203	6,562
47. Tributary States,	15,419	405,980	139,781	2,348	—	263,851	26	—
Total,	43,901	3,825,571	2,567,292	169,006	15,798	1,073,475	87	£29,279
Grand Total,	194,417*	64,444,379	40,854,088	20,414,305	91,225	2,426,254	331	£3,796,888

* The census of the Duars of Jalpaiguri was taken in 1869-70, at the time of the land settlement, and the details of the population, according to religion, were not ascertained for this part of the district. The details, therefore, do not agree with the total population.

† Census taken at the time of settlement. Details not ascertained.

‡ This area is exclusive of 5341 square miles of unsurveyed Sundarbans, and one or two minor tracts; total area of all Bengal, 203,473 square miles.

PRINCIPAL CROPS.—The chief products of the province have been already enumerated. The great staple crop is rice, of which there are three harvests in the year,—the *boro*, or spring rice; *áus*, or autumn rice; and *áman*, or winter rice. Of these the last or winter rice is by far the most extensively cultivated, and forms the great harvest of the year. The *áman* crop is grown on low land. In May, after the first fall of rain, a nursery ground is ploughed three times, and the seed scattered broadcast. When the seedlings make their appearance another field is prepared for transplanting. By this time the rainy season has thoroughly set in, and the field is dammed up so as to retain the water. It is then repeatedly ploughed until the water becomes worked into the soil, and the whole reduced to thick mud. The young rice is then taken from the nursery, and transplanted in rows about 9 inches apart. If, by reason of the backwardness of the season, the nursery ground cannot be prepared by the sowing-time in April or May, the *áman* rice is not transplanted at all. In such a case the husbandmen in July or August soak the paddy in water for one day to germinate, and plant the germinated seed not in a nursery plot, but in the larger fields, which they would otherwise have used to transplant the sprouts into. It is very seldom, however, that this procedure is found necessary. *Áman* rice is much more extensively cultivated than *áus*, and in favourable years is the most valuable crop, but being sown in low lands is liable to be destroyed by excessive rainfall. Harvest takes place in December or January. *Aus* rice is generally sown on high ground. The field is ploughed when the early rains set in, ten or twelve times over, till the soil is reduced nearly to dust, the seed being sown broadcast in April or May. As soon as the young plants reach 6 inches in height, the land is harrowed for the purpose of thinning the crop and to clear it of weeds. The crop is harvested in August or September. *Boro*, or spring rice, is cultivated on low marshy land, being sown in a nursery in October, transplanted a month later, and harvested in March and April. An indigenous description of rice, called *urí* or *jarulhán*, grows in certain marshy tracts. The grain is very small, and is gathered for consumption only by the poorest. No tabulated statistics of cultivation exist; but in 1872-73 the quantity of rice exported from Bengal to foreign ports amounted to 288,955 tons, of the value of £1,685,170. Oil-seeds are very largely grown over the whole of Bengal, particularly in the Behar and Assam districts. The principal oil-seeds are *sarisha* (mustard), *tíl* (sesamum), and *tisi*, or *masina* (linseed). Exports of oil-seeds are principally confined to linseed, of which 107,723 tons were exported in 1872-73, of the value of £1,077,348. Jute (*pat* or *kosta*) now forms a very important commercial staple of Bengal. The cultivation of this crop has rapidly increased of late years. Its principal seat of cultivation is Eastern Bengal, where the superior varieties are grown. The crop grows on either high or low lands, is sown in April, and cut in August. In 1872 the area under jute cultivation in Bengal was estimated at 925,899 acres, and the yield at 496,703 tons. Jute exports from Bengal amounted in 1872-73 to 353,097 tons, value £4,127,943. Jute manufactures, in the shape of gunny bags, cloth, rope, &c., were also exported to the value of £187,149. Indigo cultivation and manufacture is principally carried on with European capital. In Bengal proper the industry has languished of late years, and the area under indigo cultivation greatly fallen off. In Behar, on the other hand, the area of indigo lands has increased. The annual out-turn for all Bengal is estimated at about 75,000 maunds, valued at nearly two millions sterling. Two crops of indigo are raised in the year: one sown in April or May before the setting in of the rains, and cut in August or September; the other sown in October as the waters

subside, and cut in the following July. The crop of 1872 was considerably above the average, the total exports amounting to 5962 tons, of the value of £2,704,080. Tea cultivation is the other great industry carried on by European capital. The cultivation is principally confined to Assam, which province was recently separated from the Lieutenant-Governorship, and to the northern Bengal district of Dárljiling. In the other localities in which tea is grown, Chhotá Nágpur and Chittagong, cultivation is at present only carried on on a small scale. Tea cultivation has enormously extended of late years, and the gardens are, as a general rule, well filled with plants, highly cultivated and carefully managed. Including Assam, the total area held under the Waste Land Rules by persons connected with the tea industry, amounted in 1872 to 804,582 acres. Of this area 70,341 acres are returned as actually cultivated with tea, but this is probably too low an estimate. The exports of tea in 1872-73 amounted to 17,641,070 lb, valued at £1,567,561. Besides what is exported, there is an increasing local consumption of Indian tea. In 1860 the total out-turn of tea did not exceed one million lb. The cultivation of opium is a Government monopoly; no person is allowed to grow the poppy except on account of the Government. The manufacture is carried on at two separate agencies,—that of Benares in the North-Western Provinces, of which the head station is at Gházipur; and that of Behar, with its head station at Patná. Annual engagements are entered into by the cultivators, under a system of pecuniary advances, to sow a certain quantity of land with poppy, and the whole produce in the form of opium is delivered to Government at a fixed rate. The area under poppy cultivation in the Behar agency, situated entirely within Bengal, in 1872, amounted to 330,925 acres; in the Benares agency to 229,430 acres, total, 560,355 acres. The number of chests of opium sold at the Government sales in Calcutta in 1872, was 42,675, the amount realised was £6,067,701, and the net revenue, £4,259,376. The cultivation of the cinchona plant in Bengal was introduced as an experiment about 1862, in a valley of the Himalayas in Dárljiling district, and the enterprise has already attained a point which promises success. There are now (1874) about 2000 acres of Government cinchona plantations in Dárljiling.

MINERAL PRODUCTS.—A brief statement has already been given of the principal minerals of Bengal. The coal mines of Rániganj, within Bardwán district, however, demand somewhat more special notice. In this field there were, in 1872, altogether 44 mines worked, of which 19 turn out more than 10,000 tons of coal per annum apiece. In the larger and better mines, coal is raised by steam power from pits and galleries; and in the smaller mines or workings, by hand labour from open quarries. In the Rániganj coal-field alone, 61 steam engines, with an aggregate of 867 horse-power, are at work. Only one seam or set of seams of less thickness than 8½ feet is worked, and the average thickness of the seams at the Rániganj mines is about 15 or 16 feet. The pits are mostly shallow, very few are more than 150 feet deep. The Bengal Coal Company, with its mines at Rániganj and westwards, is able to raise from them 220,000 tons of coal annually. Salt manufacture was formerly a Government monopoly, principally carried on along the sea-coast of Orissa and in Midnapur district. An account of the manufacture of salt by means of evaporation by fire is given in the account of BALASOR (*q.v.*) The process of manufacture by means of solar evaporation will be described in the account of PURI district. Government abandoned its monopoly of salt manufacture many years ago, and it is now carried on by private parties on their own account, subject to a Government duty in Bengal of 8s. 8d. a cwt. levied at the place of production. Salt duties

vary in different parts of India, necessitating the maintenance of expensive and cumbrous customs lines. This year (1874) an attempt has been made towards the abolition of the Orissa customs line, by means of a graduated scale of salt duty within Orissa, rising by degrees from the Madras duty of 4s. 10d. a cwt. in the extreme south of the province, to the Bengal duty of 8s. 8d. a cwt. in the extreme north. At the present day the greater quantity of salt consumed in Bengal is imported by Liverpool ships from the Cheshire mines. In 1872 the Bengal salt duty yielded a net revenue of £2,610,286.

TRADE.—No complete statistics of the internal trade of Bengal exist. The Ganges, the Brahmaputra, and on a much smaller scale, the Mahánadí in Orissa, with the Eastern Bengal Railway and the great East Indian Line, form the main arteries of commerce. From these main channels a network of minor streams, and a fairly adequate although not yet complete system of raised roads, radiate to the remotest districts. The chief articles of internal traffic are the vegetable and mineral productions enumerated above. The larger transactions of commerce are conducted in the great cities, such as Calcutta and Patna, and in a number of purely market centres, such as Nawárganj and Sirárganj, which have recently grown up under British rule. The smaller operations of trade are effected by means of village markets and countless *háts* or open air weekly bazárs in every district. The external trade of Bengal is practically confined to Calcutta. There are about ten other ports on the Bay of Bengal, the most important of which is the rice port of Chittagong. But for general purposes the foreign and interport commerce of Calcutta may be taken to represent that of the province. In 1871-72 it stood thus: exports from Calcutta, £32,771,152; imports, £21,365,677; total, £54,136,829. The chief articles of export are rice, opium, indigo, jute, tea, oil-seeds, silk, cotton, and fibres. Chief imports, Manchester goods, woollens, salt, coal, iron, metals, liquors, and oilmen's stores.

HISTORY.—The history of so large a province as Bengal forms an integral part of the general history of India. (See INDIA.) The northern part, Behar, formed a powerful kingdom in Sanskrit times, and its chief town, Patná, is identified as the *Palibothra* of the Greeks. The Delta or southern part of Bengal lay beyond the ancient Sanskrit polity, and was governed by a number of local kings belonging to a pre-Aryan stock. The Chinese travellers, Fa Hiang in the 5th century, and Hiouen Tshang in the 7th century, found the Buddhist religion prevailing throughout Bengal, but already in a fierce struggle with Hinduism—a struggle which ended about the 9th or 10th century in the general establishment of the latter faith. Until the end of the 12th century Hindu princes governed in a number of petty principalities, till, in 1199, Muhammad Bakhtiyar Khilji was appointed to lead the first Musalmán invasion into Bengal. The Muhammadan conquest of Behar dates from 1200 A.D., and the new power speedily spread southwards into the Delta. From about this date until 1340 Bengal was ruled by governors appointed by the Muhammadan emperors in the north. From 1340 to 1539 its governors asserted a precarious independence, and arrogated the position of sovereigns on their own account. From 1540 to 1576 Bengal passed under the rule of the Pathán or Afghán dynasty, which commonly bears the name of Sher Sháh. On the overthrow of this house by the powerful arms of Akbar, Bengal was incorporated into the Mughul empire, and administered by governors appointed by the Delhi emperor, until the treaties of 1765, which placed Bengal, Behar, and Orissa under the administration of the East India Company. Until 1854 Bengal remained under the Governor-General of India as governor, his place being supplied, during his absence in other parts of India,

by a deputy-governor from among the members of his council. By the statute 16 and 17 Vict. cap. 95, these two great offices were separated, and Bengal erected into a Lieutenant-Governorship. The first lieutenant-governor was appointed in 1854, and the constitution of the Government of Bengal still continues on this basis, except that the lieutenant-governor is now appointed subject to the approval of Her Majesty. In a brief sketch like the present it is impossible to attempt further historical details beyond a bare list of the successive rulers, and the dates of their accession.

FIRST PERIOD.

Early Muhammadan Conquerors of Bengal.

A.D.	A.H.	Governors of Bengal.	Emperors of Hindustan.	Kings of England.
1204	600	Bakhtiyar Khilji	Kutab	John
1206	602	Muhammad Sherán	Do.	Do.
1208	605	Alí Mardán	Do.	Do.
1212	609	Ghyas Uddín	Altamsh	Do.
1227	624	Nasir Uddín	Do.	Henry III.
1230	627	Alí Uddín	Do.	Do.
1237	634	Tughan Khán	Sultáná Riziá	Do.
1244	642	Taimur Khán	Bahram II.	Do.
1246	644	Saif Uddín	{ Nasir Uddín }	Do.
			{ Muhammad }	
1253	651	Mulk Uzbek	Do.	Do.
1257	656	Jalál Uddín	Do.	Do.
1258	657	Irsilan Khán	Do.	Do.
1260	659	Tatar Khán	Do.	Do.
1277	676	Tughral Khán	Balin	Edward I.
1282	681	Nasir Uddín	Do.	Do.
1325	725	Kadr Khán	Muhammad III.	Edward II.

SECOND PERIOD.

Independent Muhammadan Kings of Bengal.

1340	741	Fakhr Uddín	Muhammad III.	Edward III.
1343	743	Ilyas Sháh	Do.	Do.
1358	760	Sikandar Sháh	Firuz III.	Do.
1367	769	Ghiyas Uddín II	Do.	Do.
1373	775	Sultán Asalátu	Do.	Do.
1383	785	Sams Uddín	Do.	Richard II.
1385	787	Rájá Ganes	Do.	Do.
1392	794	Jalál Uddín	Muhammad IV.	Do.
1409	812	Ahmad Sháh	Mahmud III.	Henry IV.
1426	830	Nasir Sháh	Mubárik II.	Henry VI.
1457	862	Barbek Sháh	Beloli Ladí	Do.
1474	879	Yusaf Sháh	Do.	Edward IV.
1482	887	Fathi Sháh	Do.	Do.
1491	896	Sultán Sháhzáde	Sikandar	Henry VII.
1492	897	Firuz Sháh	Do.	Do.
1494	899	Máhmud Sháh	Do.	Do.
1495	900	Muzaffar Sháh	Do.	Do.
1499	905	Husain Sháh	Do.	Do.
1520	927	Nasirát Sháh	Ibrahim	Henry VIII.
1533	940	Máhmud Sháh	Humáyun	Do.

THIRD PERIOD.

Bengal under Afghan or Pathan Dynasty. (under Sháh.)

1539	946	Khizir Khán	Sher Sháh	Henry VIII.
1545	952	Muhammad Sur	Salim Sháh	Do.
1555	962	Bahádur Sháh	Muhammad Adil	Mary
1560	968	Jalál Uddín	Do.	Elizabeth
1564	971	Sulaiman Kerání	Do.	Do.
1573	981	Daud Khán	Akbar	Do.

FOURTH PERIOD.

Governors of Bengal under the Mughul Dynasty.

1576	984	Khán Jahán	Akbar	Eli abeth.
1579	987	Muzaffar Khán	Do.	Do.
1580	988	Rájá Todarmal	Do.	Do.
1582	990	Khán Azim	Do.	Do.
1584	992	Sháhbaz Khán	Do.	Do.
1589	997	Rájá Mánsinh	Do.	Do.
1606	1015	Kutál Uddín Kokaltásh	Jahángir	James I.
1607	1016	Jahángir Kuli	Do.	Do.

FOURTH PERIOD—Continued.

A.D.	A.H.	Governors of Bengal.	Emperors of Hindustan.	Kings of England.
1608	1017	Shaikh Islám Khán	Jahángir	James I.
1613	1022	Kasim Khán	Do.	Do.
1618	1028	Ibrahim Khán	Do.	Do.
1622	1032	Sháh Jahán	Do.	Do.
1625	1033	Khanazád Khán	Do.	Charles I.
1626	1035	Mukarram Khán	Do.	Do.
1627	1036	Fidai Khán	Do.	Do.
1628	1037	Kasim Khán Jabuni	Sháh Jahán	Do.
1632	1042	Azim Khán	Do.	Do.
1637	1047	Islam Khán Mushedí	Do.	Do.
1639	1049	Sultán Shuja	Do.	Do.
1660	1070	Mír Jumlá	Aurangzeb	Charles II.
1664	1074	Shaistá Khán	Do.	Do.
1677	1087	Fidai Khán	Do.	Do.
1678	1088	Sultán Muhammad Azim	Do.	Do.
1680	1090	Shaista Khán	Do.	Do.
1689	1099	Ibrahim Khán II.	Do.	William III.
1697	1108	Azim Ushán	Do.	Anne
1704	1116	Murshid Kulí	Do.	George II.
1725	1139	Shujá Uddin Khán	Muhammad Sháh	Do.
1739	1151	Sarfaraz Khán	Do.	Do.
1740	1153	Ali Vardi Khán	Do.	Do.
1756	1170	Siraj Ud Daulá	Aiamgir	Do.

The above chronology is taken from Stewart's *History of Bengal*.

FIFTH PERIOD

Governors of Bengal and Governors-General of India under the East India Company, 1765–1854.

1765, Lord Clive; 1767, Harry Verelst; 1769, John Cartier; 1772, Warren Hastings; 1785, Sir John Macpherson; 1786, Marquis Cornwallis; 1793, Sir John Shore (Lord Teignmouth); 1798, Sir Alured Clarke (*pro tem.*); 1798, Marquis Wellesley; 1805, Marquis Cornwallis; 1806, Earl of Minto; 1813, Marquis of Hastings; 1823, John Adam (*pro tem.*); 1823, Earl Amherst; 1828, Lord William Cavendish Bentinck; 1835, Sir Charles Metcalf; 1836, Earl Auckland; 1842, Earl of Ellenborough; 1844, Viscount Hardinge; 1848, Marquis of Dalhousie.

SIXTH PERIOD.

Bengal under Lieutenant-Governors, 1854–1874.

Sir Frederic Halliday; Sir John Peter Grant; Sir Cecil Beadon; Sir William Grey; Sir George Campbell; Sir Richard Temple.

English connection with Bengal.—The East India Company formed its earliest settlements in Bengal in the first half of the 17th century. These settlements were of a purely commercial character. In 1620 one of the Company's factors dates from Patná; in 1624–36 the Company established itself, by the favour of the emperor, on the ruins of the ancient Portuguese settlement of Pippli, in the north of Orissa; in 1640–42 the patriotism of an English surgeon, Mr Gabriel Boughton, obtained for us establishments at Balasor, also in Orissa, and at Húglí, some miles above Calcutta. The vexations and extortions to which the Company's early agents were subjected more than once almost induced them to abandon the trade, and in 1677–78 they threatened to withdraw from Bengal altogether. In 1685, the Bengal factors, driven to extremity by the oppression of the Mughul governors, threw down the gauntlet; and after various successes and hair-breadth escapes, purchased from the grandson of Aurangzeb in 1696, the villages which have since grown up into Calcutta, the metropolis of India. During the next fifty years the English had a long and hazardous struggle alike with the Mughul governors of the province and the Marhattá armies which invaded it. In 1756 this struggle culminated in the great outrage known as the Black Hole of Calcutta, followed by Clive's battle of Plassey and capture of Calcutta, which avenged it. That battle, and the subsequent years of confused fighting, established our military supremacy in Bengal, and procured the treaties of 1765, by which the provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa passed

under our administration. To Warren Hastings (1772–85) belongs the glory of consolidating our power, and converting a military occupation into a stable civil government. To another member of the civil service, John Shore, afterwards Lord Teignmouth (1786–93), is due the formation of a regular system of Anglo-Indian legislation. Acting through Lord Cornwallis, then Governor-General, he ascertained and defined the rights of the landholders in the soil. These landholders under the native system had, for the most part, started as collectors of the revenues, and gradually acquired certain prescriptive rights as quasi-proprietors of the estates entrusted to them by the Government. In 1793 Lord Cornwallis declared their rights perpetual, and made over the land of Bengal to the previous quasi-proprietors or *samíndárs*, on condition of the payment of a fixed land tax. This great piece of legislation is known as the Permanent Settlement of the Land Revenue. But the Cornwallis code, while defining the rights of the proprietors, failed to give adequate recognition to the rights of the under-tenants and the cultivators. His Regulations formally reserved the latter class of rights, but did not legally define them, or enable the husbandmen to enforce them in the courts. After half a century of rural disquiet, the rights of the cultivators were at length carefully formulated by Act X. of 1859. This measure, now known as the land law of Bengal, effected for the rights of the under-holders and cultivators what the Cornwallis code in 1793 had effected for those of the superior landholders. The status of each class of person interested in the soil, from the Government as suzerain, through the *samíndárs* or superior landholders, the intermediate tenure holders, and the under-tenants, down to the actual cultivator, is now clearly defined. The Act dates from the first year after the transfer of India from the Company to the Crown; for, meanwhile, the mutiny had burst out in 1857. The transactions of that revolt chiefly took place in Northern India, and will be found under the article on the North-Western Provinces; the uprising, although fierce and for a time perilous to our supremacy, was quickly put down. In Bengal it began at BARRACKPUR (*q.v.*), was communicated to Dacca in Eastern Bengal, and for a time raged in Behar, producing the memorable defence of the billiard-room at Arrah by a handful of civilians and Sikhs,—one of the most splendid pieces of gallantry in the history of the British arms. Since 1858, when the country passed to the Crown, the history of Bengal has been one of steady and peaceful progress. The two great lines of railway, the East Indian and the Eastern Bengal, have been completed; and a third, the Northern Bengal Railway, is now in progress. Trade has enormously expanded; new centres of commerce have sprung up in spots which not long ago were silent jungles; new staples of trade, such as tea and jute, have rapidly attained importance; and the coal-fields and iron ores are beginning to open up prospects of a new and splendid era in the internal development of the country.

The best account of Bengal as at present constituted is to be found in the administration reports of Sir George Campbell, K. C. S. I., when Lieutenant-governor of Bengal, in 1871–72 and 1872–73. These reports are of an official character, and embody the results of the census of 1872. Among non-official works Colonel Dalton's great volume on *The Ethnology of Bengal* holds a conspicuous place. This splendid quarto condenses the personal observations of a long career spent among the people. Stewart's *History of Bengal*, a work which was admirable when first published, is now fifty years out of date, and stands in much need of re-editing. The journals of the Asiatic societies in London, Paris, and especially Calcutta, are still the great storehouses for original research. The *Calcutta Review* contains many valuable articles, which the index to its first fifty volumes renders easily available. The present writer has endeavoured in his *Annals of Rural Bengal*, and in his two volumes on *Orissa*; or, *The Vicissitudes of an Indian Province under Native and British Rule*, to present to the general reader the result of his researches with regard to this part of India. (W. W. II.)

BENGAZI, a seaport town on the northern coast of Africa, and capital of the province of Barca, is situated on a narrow strip of land between the Gulf of Sidra and a salt lake, in 30° 7' N. lat. and 20° 3' E. long. Though for the most part poorly built, it has one or two buildings of some pretension—an ancient castle, a mosque, a Franciscan monastery, Government buildings, and barracks. The wells in the town being brackish, drinking water has to be brought from the village of Sowani. The harbour is almost rendered useless by accumulations of sand, and ships have to discharge by means of lighters. Legitimate trade has recently been neglected by the inhabitants, who find it more profitable to furnish slaves to the Alexandrian market. The exports, which consist chiefly of sheep, wool, barley, wheat, butter, and salt, amounted in 1874 to £279,000, while the imports, of which the most important item is cloth goods, were valued at £162,600. Consuls are maintained at Bengazi by England and Italy, and France is represented by a vice-consul. The population, estimated in 1862 at 6000 or 7000, has since undergone various fluctuations, and suffered especially from an epidemic in 1872.

BENGEL, JOHN ALBERT, a celebrated Biblical scholar and critic, was born at Winnenden, in Würtemberg, on the 24th June 1687. His father, who was one of the ministers of that town, having died when Bengel was only six years old, his education was taken in hand by a friend of his father named Spindler, who having afterwards become a master in the gymnasium at Stuttgart, carried the boy thither with him, and superintended his education until he entered the University of Tübingen in the year 1703. While at the university, the works to which, among others, he gave special attention as private studies were those of Aristotle and Spinoza, and so thoroughly did he make himself acquainted with the metaphysics of the latter, that he was selected by one of the professors to prepare materials for a treatise *De Spinosismo* which the professor afterwards published. He himself used to express his "great thankfulness for the benefit which he had derived from the study of metaphysics and mathematics, in respect of the clearness of thought which they imparted, which was of the utmost value to him in the analysis and exposition of the language of Scripture." After taking his degree, Bengel devoted himself to the study of theology, to which the grave and religious tone of his mind, deepened and strengthened by his early training and discipline, naturally inclined him. Like other young men of thoughtful character, before and since, he had to struggle with doubts and difficulties of a religious nature, and he alludes, with much feeling, to the "many arrows which pierced his poor heart, and made his youth hard to bear." It is interesting to know that at this early date his attention was directed to the various readings of the Greek New Testament, and that one cause of his mental perplexities was the difficulty of ascertaining the true reading among the great number of those which were presented to his notice. In 1707 Bengel entered the church, and was appointed to the parochial charge of Metzigen-unter-Urach. Here he remained only one year, and during that time devoted himself to the study of the writings of Spener, Arndt, A. H. Franke, and Chemnitz. The profound impression which the works of these men made upon his mind was never effaced, and may be traced in that vein of devotional, not to say pietistic, feeling which runs through all his religious compositions. In 1708 Bengel was recalled to Tübingen to undertake the office of *Repetent* or theological tutor. Here he remained until 1713, when he was appointed the head of a seminary recently established at Denkendorf and intended as a preparatory school of theology. Before entering on his duties there, he made a literary journey

through the greater part of Germany, to acquaint himself with the various systems of education which were in use, in order to qualify himself for the better discharge of his official duties. In prosecuting the journey he visited with laudable impartiality the seminaries of the Jesuits as well as those of the Lutheran and Reformed Churches. Among other places he visited Heidelberg and Halle, and had his attention directed at the former city to the canons of Scripture criticism published by Gerhard von Mästricht, and at the latter to Vitringa's *Anacrisis ad Apocalypsin*. The influence exerted by these upon his theological studies will be apparent when we come to notice his works upon the criticism and interpretation of Scripture. For twenty-eight years—from 1713–1741—he discharged his important duties as head of the school of Denkendorf with distinguished ability and success, devoting all his energies to the religious and intellectual improvement of his students. It is impossible to read the extracts from his diary and correspondence, which have been preserved, without being struck with the spirit of fervent piety, combined with sagacity and good sense, which characterized his management of the institution. These twenty-eight years were the period of Bengel's greatest intellectual activity, many of the works on which his reputation rests being included within them. In 1741 he was appointed prelate of the cloister of Herbrechtingen, an office which he held for eight years. In 1749 he was raised to the dignity of consistorial counsellor and prelate of Alpirsbach, with a residence in Stuttgart. Bengel henceforth devoted himself to the discharge of his duties as a member of the consistory. A question of considerable difficulty was at that time occupying the attention of the church courts, viz., the manner in which those who separated themselves from the church were to be dealt with, and the amount of toleration which should be accorded to meetings held in private houses for the purpose of religious edification. The civil power (the duke of Würtemberg was a Roman Catholic) was disposed to have recourse to measures of repression, while the members of the consistory, recognizing the good effects of such meetings, were inclined to concede a considerable degree of liberty. Bengel exerted himself on the side of the latter. The admirer of Spener, the founder of the *collegia pietatis*, could not but show himself favourably disposed to meetings held for religious purposes, and while maintaining the rights and privileges of the church, he was an advocate for all reasonable freedom being accorded to those who felt themselves bound on grounds of conscience to withdraw from her communion. The good effects of this policy may be seen at this day in the attitude taken up by those who in Würtemberg have separated from the church. Bengel's public position necessarily brought him into contact with many individuals of celebrity, by whom he was consulted on all important theological and ecclesiastical questions. In a single year he received no fewer than 1200 letters. In the year 1751 the University of Tübingen, his own *alma mater*, conferred upon him the degree of doctor of divinity. Bengel's life was now drawing to a close. He died, after a short illness, in 1752, aged sixty-five years and four months. He himself is reported to have said, "I shall be forgotten for a while, but I shall again come into remembrance;" and his favourite pupil Oetinger remarked of him, "His like is not left in Würtemberg."

The works on which Bengel's reputation rests as a Biblical scholar and critic are, his edition of the Greek New Testament, and his *Gnomon* or *Exegetical Commentary* on the same.

(A.) His edition of the Greek Testament was published in 4to at Tübingen in 1734, and in 8vo at Stuttgart in the same year, but without the critical apparatus. So early as 1725 he had given an account in his *Prodromus Novi Testamenti Græci recte castique adornandi* of the principles on which his intended edition was to be based. In preparation for his work Bengel was able to avail himself of the collations of upwards of twenty MSS., none of them, however,