

that number; and the low rates of wage, with the natural aptitude of the native for textile work, enables the Bombay mill-owners to compete with the Lancashire manufacturers, notwithstanding the heavy cost of importing machinery and of European supervision. Several of the mills have a capital of some hundreds of thousands sterling invested in them; and their superior reputation for turning out unglazed and genuine goods has almost driven the lower qualities of Manchester fabrics from the market. In 1873 fifteen mills were at work in the town and island of Bombay, and five in other parts of the Presidency. Most of them have both spindles and looms, and their yarn and piece goods find a ready market. In Ahmadábád, Surat, Yeolá, Násik, and Bombay, considerable quantities of silk goods are made, the silk being imported from China either in the cocoon or in skeins. Gold and silver thread enter largely into the manufacture of silk and cotton fabrics. The *kinkháb* (kincoob), the richest kind produced, is either gold thread and silk, or silver, gold, and silk. Embroidery in silk cloth and cotton, and in gold, silver, and silk thread, is carried on to some extent in Haidarábád, in Sindh, principally for European markets. Fibres are used for the manufacture of paper in Ahmadábád, Baroda, Surat, Násik, Bombay, and Kolhápúr. Mats, beds, &c., are manufactured from cocoa-nut fibre. Leather is worked into a variety of articles throughout the Presidency. The manufactures of minor importance consist of pottery, brass, and copper utensils, cutlery, and agricultural implements, gold and silver ornaments, carved wood, ivory work, &c.

**TRADE.**—The total value of the external trade of the Presidency for 1872-73 was as follows:—Bombay Port—imports, £17,388,953; exports, £19,117,081; re-exports, £5,140,924; total, £41,646,958. Minor ports—imports, £395,238; exports, £729,028; re-exports, £13,368; total, £1,137,634. Sindh ports—imports, £1,677,399; exports, £1,991,556; total, £3,668,955. Aden—imports, £1,407,102; exports, £834,087; total, £2,241,189. Total of the Presidency—imports, £20,868,692; exports, £22,671,752; re-exports, £5,154,292; total, £48,694,736. In the same year 5314 ships, having a tonnage of 902,157 tons, cleared from Bombay harbour, and 5208 ships, of 161,907 tons, from the minor ports. Principal articles of commerce—cotton, cotton piece-goods, wool and woollen piece goods, machines and machinery, oils, tea, wines and spirits, metals, coal, candles, jute and gunny cloths, apparel, sugar and sugar-candy, twist, hides and skins, grain and pulse, bullion, &c. In 1872-73 upwards of 55,300 tons of cotton were imported into Bombay in the shape of Manchester goods, and 143,017 tons of raw cotton exported from it.

**REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.**—The total revenue of the Presidency for the year 1872-73 amounted to £9,980,043, and the expenditure to £8,027,040. The principal heads of revenue are as follows:—Land revenue, £3,751,050; tributes and contributions from native states, £92,337; forests, £114,640, excise, £418,746; assessed taxes, £110,098; customs, £667,825; salt, £885,013; opium, £2,614,897; stamps, £527,382; law and justice, £29,677; marine, £64,475; interest, £103,209. The settlement of the land revenue is usually made for thirty years. A revision of the thirty years' settlement of Poona, Násik, and Sholápur districts, is now (1874) in progress.

**STATISTICS OF PROTECTION.**—The military strength of the Bombay Presidency consists of 1250 European commissioned officers, 11,067 European non-commissioned officers and rank and file, 27,002 Native commissioned and non-commissioned officers and rank and file; total, 39,319. The whole are under the control of a separate commander-in-chief for Bombay. Ten ships constitute the strength of the Bombay marine. The regular police of Bombay con-

sisted in 1872-73 of 18,166 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £305,810; the average being 1 man to every 6·8 square miles of the area, and to 900 of the population.

**EDUCATION.**—The University of Bombay, established in 1857, is a body corporate, consisting of a chancellor, vice-chancellor, and fellows. The Governor of Bombay is *ex-officio* chancellor. The Educational Department is under a director of public instruction, who is responsible for the administration of the department in accordance with the general educational policy of the state. In 1872-73 the number of schools and colleges aided by the state or under its inspection was as follows:—7 colleges, attended by 544 pupils; 4 professional schools, with 275 pupils; 41 high schools, 7167 pupils; 176 middle class schools, 16,612 pupils; 3595 lower class schools for boys, 182,147 pupils; 253 lower class schools for girls, 10,885 pupils; 12 normal schools, 602 pupils; total, 4088 schools, 218,466 pupils. The total cost for the schools was £285,650, of which the state contributed £99,600; the balance being obtained from school fees, local contributions, private endowments, &c.

**HISTORY.**—The territories now comprising the Presidency of Bombay formed in ancient times several separate Hindu kingdoms, among which Maháráshthra, Gujaráshthra, Sindh, were the most important. As in other parts of India, the great majority of the people are Hindus, with more recent accretions of Muhammadans, and a sprinkling of hill-tribes practising non-Hindu rites, and representing the pre-Aryan races. The first Muhammadan invasion of which we have authentic accounts is that of Mahmúd of Ghazni, who, in 1024 A.D., invaded Gujarát with a large army, destroyed the national Hindu idol of Somnáth, and carried away an immense booty. Muhammad Ghorí also invaded Gujarát, and left a garrison in its capital. But it was not till after the Musalmán power was firmly established in Northern India that the Muhammadan sovereigns of Delhi attempted the conquest of the south. In 1294 the Emperor Alá-ud-dín first invaded the Dakhín (Deccan), and in 1297 he conquered Gujarát. In 1312 the Muhammadan arms were triumphant through the Marhattá country; and seven years later the whole of Malabar fell a prey to the invaders. In the middle of the 14th century the weakness of the Delhi sovereigns tempted the governors of provinces to revolt against their distant master, and to form independent kingdoms. In this way the Báhmíní kingdom was established in the Dakhín, and embraced a part of the Bombay Presidency. Ahmadnagar and Gujarát also became the seats of a new kingdom. In 1573 Akbar conquered Gujarát and reannexed it to the empire, and in 1601 he effected the reconquest of Ahmadnagar and Khándesh. From this time the country was never tranquil, and Ahmadnagar became the focus of constant rebellions. During the latter part of the 17th century the Marhattás rose into power, and almost every part of the country now comprising the Presidency of Bombay fell under their sway.

As early as 1532 A.D. the island of Bombay was occupied by the Portuguese. The Dutch and English made an unsuccessful attempt to gain possession of the island in 1627, and in 1653 proposals were suggested for its purchase from the Portuguese. In 1661 it was ceded to the English Crown, as part of the dower of the Infanta Catherina on her marriage with Charles II. So lightly was the acquisition esteemed in England, and so unsuccessful was the administration of the Crown officers, that in 1668 Bombay was transferred to the East India Company for an annual payment of £10. The population at that time did not exceed 10,000 souls, and so unhealthy was the climate, that three years were regarded as the average duration of the life of its European inhabitants. At the time of the

transfer, powers for its defence and for the administration of justice were also conferred; a European regiment was enrolled; and the fortifications erected proved sufficient to deter the Dutch from their intended attack in 1673. In 1687 Bombay was placed at the head of all the Company's possessions in India; but in 1753 the Government of Bombay became subordinate to that of Calcutta. The first English settlement in the Bombay Presidency was in 1618, when the East India Company established a factory at Surat, protected by a charter obtained from the Emperor Jahángír. After the termination of the second Marhattá war in 1803, the East India Company obtained the districts of Surat, Broach, Kairá, &c.; and on the overthrow of the Peshwá in 1813, they annexed Púná, Ahmadnagar, Násik, Sholápur, Belgám, Kálaágí, Dhárwár, &c. Sindh was conquered in 1843, and became a part of the British empire. The native states under the supervision of the Government of Bombay are divided, historically and geographically, into two main groups. The northern or Gujarát group includes the territories of the Gaikwár, with the smaller states which form the administrative divisions of Kachh, Páhanpur, Rewá Kánta, and Máhi Kánta. These territories, with the exception of Kachh (Cutch), have an historical connection, as being the allies or tributaries of the Gaikwár in 1805, when final engagements were concluded between that prince and the British Government. The southern or Marhattá group includes Kolhápúr, Akalkot, Sawantwári, and the Sátará and southern Marhattá Jágírs, and has an historical bond of union in the friendship they showed to the British in their final struggle with the power of the Peshwá in 1818. The remaining territories may conveniently be divided into a small cluster of independent zamíndáris, situated in the wild and hilly tracts at the northern extremity of the Sáhyádrí range, and certain principalities which, from their history or geographical position, are to some extent isolated from the rest of the Presidency.

**ADMINISTRATION.**—The Government of Bombay is administered by a Governor in Council, the latter consisting of the Governor as president, two ordinary civil members, and, as a rule, the commander-in-chief of the Bombay army. These are the executive members of Government. For making laws there is a legislative council, consisting of the Governor and his Executive Council, with certain other persons, not fewer than four or more than eight in number, nominated by the Governor to be members of council for legislative purposes only, and intended to represent the non-official European and Native communities. Each of the members of the Executive Council has in his charge one or two departments of the Government; and each department has a secretary, an under-secretary, and an assistant secretary, with a numerous staff of clerks. The political administration of the native states is under the superintendence of British agents placed at the principal native courts; their position varies in different states according to the relations in which the principalities stand with the paramount power. The administration of justice throughout the regulation districts of the Presidency is conducted by a High Court at Bombay, consisting of a Chief Justice and seven Puisne judges, along with district and assistant judges throughout the districts of the Presidency. The revenue administration of the regulation districts is carried on by two revenue commissioners, seventeen collectors, twenty assistant collectors, and a varying number of supernumerary assistants. (w. w. H.)

#### BOMBAY CITY AND ISLAND.

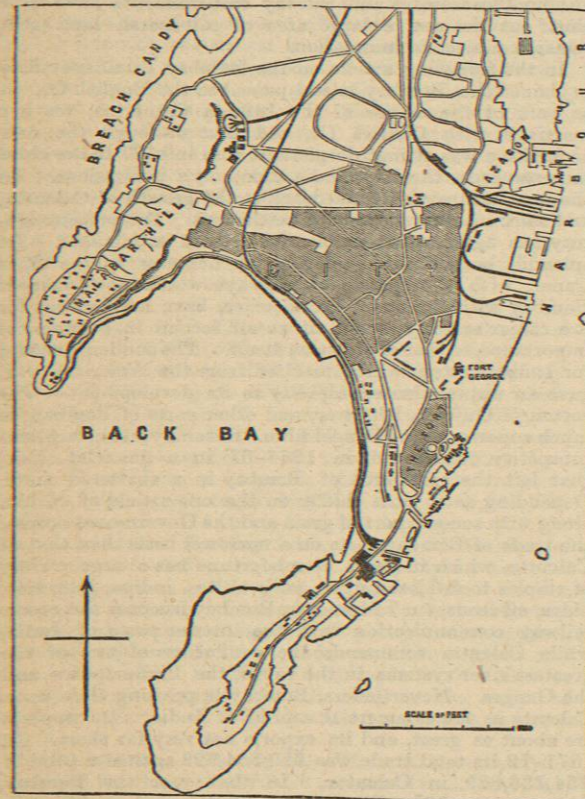
The Island of Bombay, with an area slightly in excess of 22 square miles, is situated in 18° 53' 54" N. lat., and

72° 52' E. long. It consists of a plain about 11 miles long by 3 broad, flanked by two parallel lines of low hills. A neck of land stretching towards the south-west forms the harbour on its eastern side, sheltering it from the force of the open sea, and enclosing an expanse of water from 5 to 7 miles wide. At the south-west of the island, Back Bay, a shallow basin rather more than 2 miles in breadth, runs inland for about 3 miles between the extreme points of the two ranges of hills. On a slightly raised strip of land between the head of Back Bay and the harbour is situated the fort, the nucleus of the city of Bombay. From this point the land slopes westward towards the central plain, a low lying tract, which before the construction of the embankment known as the Hornby Velard, used at high tide to be submerged by the sea. To the north and east, although causeways and railway embankments have now shut out the sea, a large area of salt-marsh land still remains subject to inundation.

In the foregoing article on the Bombay Presidency it is explained that Bombay Island passed to the English Crown as part of the dower of the Infanta Catherina, on her marriage with Charles II., and that although the new acquisition was at first despised, it rose in 1687 to the chief importance in the East India Company's possessions. In the next century it declined before the growth of Calcutta, and sank into a subordinate settlement. The present century has again witnessed a revolution in its fortunes. Its splendid harbour and comparative nearness to the Suez Canal, with the system of railways which now connect Bombay with the other Presidencies, have marked out for it a career scarcely second, if at all second in commercial importance, to that of Calcutta itself. The sudden demand for Indian cotton, which resulted from the American war, gave an unprecedented rapidity to its development. The cotton of Gujarát, Dhárwár, and other parts of Bombay, is much superior to the Bengal fibre. Several years of brilliant prosperity culminated in 1866-67 in a financial crisis, that left the commerce of Bombay in a shattered state. Depending as it does chiefly on the one article of cotton, along with some export of grain and the Government opium, the trade of Bombay rests on a narrower basis than that of Calcutta, which in years of misfortune has a large variety of staples to fall back upon, such as tea, indigo, jute, rice, hides, oil-seeds, &c. Moreover, Bombay has only the costly railway communication with the interior parts of India, while Calcutta commands the confluence of two of the greatest river systems in the world, the Brahmaputra and the Ganges. Nevertheless, Bombay is pressing close upon Calcutta as the commercial capital of India. Its imports are about as great, and its exports not very far short. In 1871-72 its total trade was £50,384,929 against a total of £54,136,829 in Calcutta. In that year the Bombay imports were 22½ millions sterling; the exports, 23½ millions, and the re-exports, 4½ millions: total, 50½ millions sterling.

In natural scenery and in the sanitary advantages of its position Bombay ranks first among the cities of India. The Bombay Island, or, as it ought to be more correctly called, the Bombay Peninsula, is now connected with the mainland by the railway causeways. It stands out from a coast ennobled by lofty mountains, and its harbour is studded by rocky islands and precipices, whose peaks rise to a great height. The approach from the sea discloses one of the finest panoramas in the world,—the only European analogy being the Bay of Naples. The town itself consists of well-built and unusually handsome native bázárs, and of spacious streets devoted to European commerce. In the native bázár the houses rise three or four stories in height, with elaborately carved pillars and front work. Some of the European hotels and commercial

buildings are on the American scale, and have no rival in any other city of India. The private houses of the European residents lie apart alike from the native and from the mercantile quarters of the town. As a rule, each is built in a large garden or *compound*; and although the style of architecture is less imposing than that of the stately residences in Calcutta, it is well suited to the climate, and has a beauty and comfort of its own. The favourite suburb is Malabar hill, a high ridge running out into the sea, and terraced to the top by handsome houses, which command one of the finest views in the world. To the right of this ridge, looking towards the sea, runs another suburb known as Breach Candy, built close upon the beach and within the refreshing sound of the waves. To the left of Malabar hill the island forms a spacious bay, with a



Ground-Plan of Bombay.

promontory at the other side, which marks the site of the old Bombay Fort. The fort is now a mere garrison, with small pretensions to defensive capabilities. Its walls are demolished, and its area is chiefly devoted to mercantile buildings. Further round the island, beyond the fort, is Mazagon Bay, commanding the harbour, and the centre of maritime activity. The defences of the port consist chiefly in ironclad "Monitors" anchored off the town, with one or two fortified islands, and the guns which still line a portion of the old fort walls that have been left standing towards the sea. The census of 1872 disclosed a population of 644,405 souls; of whom 408,680, or 63.42 per cent., are Hindus; 138,815, or 21.54 per cent., Muhammadans; 44,091, or 6.84 per cent., Parsis; 15,121, Buddhists and Jains; 34,705, or 5.39 per cent., European, African,

Eurasian, and Native Christians, with 2993 classified under the head of "others." Dyeing, tanning, and working in metals may be noticed as specially active trades, but the most progressive and important industry is the manufacture of yarn and cotton cloth. In 1873 there were 5 steam spinning and weaving mills in Bombay, giving employment to about 11,000 hands. In these factories 380,000 spindles and 5000 looms were at work. A considerable section of the population is supported by the cultivation of cocoa-nut trees and the preparation of intoxicating drinks from the juice of the different species of palm. Rice is the chief agricultural product, but many varieties of garden vegetables are profitably cultivated. Of these the most common are onions, "bhendis" (*Abelmoschus esculentus*), and gourds of different sorts. The imperial revenue from the town and island of Bombay is derived from two sources,—the one supervised by the collector of Bombay, the other by the commissicner of customs. The total receipts for the past year, under the first head, amounted to £148,287, of which £23,131 was derived from land, £17,250 from excise, and £107,906 from stamps. The total amount collected by the commissioner of customs was £3,252,714, of which the customs yielded £609,630, and the export duty on opium £2,643,084. Owing to the difficulty of procuring colonists in the early days of the settlement, the land is generally held on easy terms,—the payment to Government being in most cases of the nature of a quit rent, free from enhancement or resettlement as long as the land is used for cultivation only. Of the whole area, 13 miles are returned as cultivated, and 9 as unculturable. During the year 1872 there were 101 schools in Bombay, attended by 11,351 scholars, or 1 to every 56 of the entire population. The total strength of the local police force in 1872 was 1402, or 1 policeman to every 459 inhabitants. Of the entire number, 1124 are municipal, and 278 Government police. Of the former, 35 are European, and 13 are mounted Native police. The Government police are employed on harbour duty and as guards for Government offices. Eight of them are Europeans.

**MUNICIPAL STATISTICS.**—The limits of the Bombay municipality extend over the whole of the island of Bombay, including, as stated above, a population of 644,405 souls. The total municipal revenue for the year 1873 amounted to £314,645, of which £223,041 was raised by taxation, £59,958 on account of services rendered, and £31,646 from municipal property and miscellaneous receipts. The following are the main items under the head of taxation proper:—House rate, £73,587; police rate, £24,189; lighting rate, £21,179; wheel taxes, £23,197; tobacco and liquor duty and licenses, £28,690; town duties, £45,200; and additional rates from Port Trust, £4000. Under the head, Service rendered, are included the Halalkar cess and the water rate, yielding respectively £20,392 and £39,566. The returns under the third head are chiefly receipts from the Crawford markets. The total expenditure was £312,268. Of this amount £25,325 was spent on general supervision, £36,041 in supporting the police and fire brigade. Under the head of public health, £87,574 was spent, and £84,835 on public works. The interest and sinking fund on the police debt consumed £74,496. The incidence of municipal taxation per head of the population is 6s. 9d. It is estimated that the gross annual income of the city is about 855 lakhs of rupees, or upwards of 8½ millions sterling, on which sum the municipal taxation proper amounts to about 2.57 per cent., and the total municipal income and expenditure to about 3.64 per cent. The municipal debt at present amounts to about £790,000, or nearly 2½ years' income. (W. W. H.)

BONALD, LOUIS GABRIEL AMBROISE, VICOMTE DE, philosopher and politician, was born at Monna, near Milhand, in Rouergue, France, on the 2d October 1754. He served for some years in the king's musketeers, and after his marriage was made mayor of his native place. Dissatisfied with the revolutionary principles then being acted upon, he emigrated in 1791, and joined the army of the Prince of Condé. Soon afterwards he settled, with his family, at Heidelberg, where he wrote his first important work, *Théorie du pouvoir politique et religieux dans la Société civile*, 3 vols., 1796, in which his conservatism and reactionary views are fully expounded and illustrated. In this work, too, he predicted the certain return of the Bourbons to France. The book was condemned by the Directory, and in France very few copies escaped detection. Naturally, on his return to his native country, M. de Bonald found himself an object of suspicion, and was obliged to live in retirement. He still continued to publish works of the same tendencies,—his *Essai analytique sur les Lois naturelles de l'ordre social* appearing in 1800, the *Législation primitive* in 1802, and the treatise *Du Divorce considéré au XIX<sup>e</sup> Siècle* shortly after. In 1806 he was associated with Chateaubriand and Fiévée in the conduct of the *Mercur de France*; and two years later, after great persuasion, he allowed himself to be appointed councillor of the Imperial University, which he had often attacked. After the Restoration he was made member of the Council of Public Instruction, and from 1815 to 1822 he sat in the chamber as deputy. His speeches and votes were invariably on the extreme Conservative side; he even advocated a literary censorship. In 1822 he was made minister of state, and presided over the commission in whose hands the censorship rested. In the following year he was raised to the rank of peer, a dignity which he lost through refusing to take the oath in 1830. From 1816 onwards he had been a member of the Academy. He took no part in public affairs after 1830, but retired to his country-seat at Monna, where he died on the 23d November 1840.

Bonald was one of the most able and vigorous writers of the theocratic or reactionary school, which comprehended among its numbers such men as De Maistre, De Lamennais, Ballanche, and D'Eckstein. The great bulk of his writings belong to the department of social or political philosophy; but all the results at which he arrives are deductions from a few principles. The one truth which to him seemed, in fact, all-comprehensive was the divine origin of language. In his own somewhat enigmatic expression, *L'homme pense sa parole avant de parler sa pensée*, words and thoughts are inextricably linked together; the first language contained the essence of all truth. From this premise he draws his proof for the existence of God, and for the divine origin and consequent supreme authority of the Holy Scriptures. The infallibility of the church as the exponent of spiritual truth readily follows. While this thought lies at the root of all his speculations there is a formula of constant and significant application. All relations are by him reduced to the triad of cause, means, and effect, which he sees constantly repeated throughout all nature. Thus, in the universe there are the first cause as mover, movement as the means, and bodies as the result; in the state we have power as the cause, ministers as the means, and subjects as the effects; in the family we have the same relation exemplified by father, mother, and children. It is also to be remarked that these three terms bear specific relations to one another, the first is to the second as the second is to the third. Thus, in the great triad of the religious world,—God, the Mediator, and Man,—God is to the God-Man as the God-Man is to Man. It will be readily apparent how Bonald was able from these principles to construct a complete system of political absolutism, for the

sufficiency of which only two things were wanted,—well-grounded premises instead of baseless hypotheses, and the harmony of the scheme with the wills of those who were to be subjected to it. Bonald's style is remarkably fine; ornate, but pure and vigorous. Many fruitful thoughts are scattered among his works, which have been popular with a certain party; but his system scarcely deserves the name of a philosophy.

Besides the above-mentioned works, Bonald published *Recherches Philosophiques sur les premiers objets de Connaissances Morales*, 2 vols., 1818; *Mélanges littéraires et politiques. Démonstration philosophique du principe constitutif de la Société*, 1830. The first collected edition appeared in 12 vols., 1817-19; the latest is that in 3 vols., with introductory notice by the Abbé Migne. See *Notice sur M. le Vicomte de Bonald*, 1841 (by his son), and *Damiron, Phil. en France au XIX<sup>e</sup> Siècle*.

BONAPARTE, or, as it was originally spelled, BUONAPARTE, the name of the Italian family from whom the great Napoleon was descended. The father of the first emperor, Carlo Maria Bonaparte, was born at Ajaccio in 1746. He was a lawyer by profession, and took a vigorous part in Paoli's insurrection. In 1781 he was one of the members of the council of Corsican nobility; he also held the post of assessor of Ajaccio. In 1785 he died of cancer in the stomach at Montpellier, whither he had removed for his health. His wife, Letizia Ramolino, born in 1760, was celebrated for her majestic beauty and resolute courage. She accompanied her husband through the campaigns with Paoli, and in 1793 emigrated with her family to Marseilles, where for a time she lived in great penury. After her son was made first consul she removed to Paris, and, on the establishment of the empire, received the title of Madame Mère. She cared little for display; and her frugal style of living frequently displeased Napoleon. After the battle of Waterloo she took up her abode in Rome, where she continued to reside till her death in 1836. Of her large family of thirteen, eight survived their father and have become known in history. These in order of age are—

I. JOSEPH, the eldest son, born on the 7th January 1768. He was placed, along with his younger brother Napoleon, at the school of Autun, from which the latter was soon afterwards withdrawn. On completing his education he contemplated a military career, but, on the death of his father, devoted himself to the care of his family. He studied law at the University of Pisa, and was received as an advocate in Corsica. He and his brother eagerly embraced the revolutionary side, and in 1793 the whole family were compelled to emigrate to Marseilles. In the following year he married Mlle. Clary, daughter of a rich merchant, whose younger sister afterwards became the wife of Bernadotte. Two years later, when Napoleon was made general of the army of Italy, Joseph accompanied him as commissary-general. In 1797 he was elected to the Council of Five Hundred, and sent as ambassador to the Pope. On the establishment of the consulate he was made councillor of state, and by his suave and courteous manners rendered good diplomatic service. He conducted the negotiations with the United States in 1800, concluded the Treaty of Luneville in 1801, and was similarly engaged at the Treaty of Amiens in 1802. In 1805, after refusing various posts offered by his brother, he was left in charge of the Government during the war in Germany. In the following year, however, he was compelled to take command of the army of Naples, and soon after he set out it was announced to him that he must assume the throne of that kingdom. With considerable reluctance he accepted the post, and soon found that, though nominally king, he was really but the viceroy of his brother. He introduced many reforms, most of which were well conceived, but which did not at all meet the wishes of Napoleon, who looked upon Naples merely as a province of France, and thought it