

nourish their languishing crops for it is a pity to see a pool of filthy water polluting the neighbourhood with its stench, while, within a few yards of it, the vegetables of a garden are dying of starvation.—*Peter Mackenzie.*

From Blackwood's Magazine.
THE DOURRAUNEE, OR AFFGHANISTAN EMPIRE.

What is the meaning of the word *Dourraunee*? Why is the Affghan territory denominated by its present ruler, the Dourraunee empire! That question is soon answered. The Dourraunee happen to be the ascendant tribe amongst the Affghans, and have been so for a century; and Affghania is called after them by the same synecdoche under which Great Britain is called England. The contest for supremacy lies, and has always lain, between the Dourraunees and the Ghiljies. In the reign of our Queen Anne, and early in that of George I., this latter tribe predominated; they made a conquest of Persia; and it required nothing less than a sanguinary Napoleon like Nadir Shah, himself an usurper, to terminate the Affghan possession of the Persian throne. This man, a mere adventurer but who had prudently married a Persian princess, fiercely retaliated: Affghania itself, Dourraunees and Ghiljies alike, conquerors, and conquered, all crouched beneath his iron mace. But in the year 1747 he was assassinated; and after the Asiatic fashion, where all depends on personal qualities, every thing from India to the frontiers of Turkey recoiled into its former insulation, and Affghania sprang back into sudden vigour. But the Affghan contingent in Nadir's army, whose dangerous superiority in their master's favor had in fact caused his assassination, happened to be so composed as to throw a great overbalance into the Affghan tribe of Dourraunees. This good fortune was improved by the incident, that a young chieftain at that time commanded them, who far outran all his African competitors in talents and the spirit of enterprise. He fought his way through the mutinous Persian camp; marched back to Affghania; by singular and critical good-luck intercepted a treasure convoy then on its road from Delhi to Nadir; caused himself to be crowned king at Candahar; fought two of the most memorable battles in the annals of Hindostan against that great Marhatta confederacy which in a dozen years after, became the capital enemy of British India; left the Affghan throne to his son; and by succession from him, to a grandson, whom the English for thirty years have feared as a menacing enemy, supported as a suppliant, and restored as a sovereign. The result is, that from his coronation in 1747 to this day, short of a century by little more than six years, there has never been wanting a Dourraunee kingdom four times as large as France, nor a great king bearing the title of the Dourraunee Shah, who is by much the most potent monarch in Southern Asia.

Let us now take a flying view of this great Dourraunee kingdom, under the two heads of Geographical Position, and Quality, and General Condition of its Population.

The best way of impressing on the mind a general idea of Southern Asia, in the distribution of its great Empires, both as to succession and proportion, is to conceive the entire continent, from the Mediterranean shore of Asia Minor, to the Eastern shore of China, bisected into two great chambers pretty nearly equal. And by what bisector? By the river Indus; in all respects, except breadth of diffusion and popular sanctity, the mightiest of Indian rivers. In a gross general way, each of these two halves or bisections may be taken as measuring across, from west to east, about three thousand miles, and each may be subdivided into three realms. Of the eastern half we need not say more than this—that, reserving 1200 miles for Hindostan, there will remain 1800 unequally divisible between the Burmese regions and China. But the western half, the *cis-Indus* half, admits of a pretty equal subdivision into three great empires, of a thousand miles each if measured from east to west, viz.—Asiatic Turkey in the first place, Persia next, and thirdly, Affghania. Traversing these empires in the latitude of Constantinople, from which we will suppose the measurement to start—that is, from about 40° of north latitude—it will be found that the distance across is about nine hundred miles for each empire. In a more southern latitude,

where the degrees of longitude expand, the distance will of course be more. And if we were to take Major Rennell's allowance of one sixth additional for the winding of roads, the result would be still farther increased. But we will confine ourselves to the latitude we have mentioned, and to the mere horizontal distance, 'as the crow flies.'—First, then, to begin with Asiatic Turkey, we will find that Mount Ararat—which is but about twenty-five miles to the east of the boundary, and which is so near to the latitude of Constantinople as in a gross popular way to be coincident with that latitude—as in the longitude of 44 E., while Constantinople is in 29. This gives a difference of 15 degrees of longitude as the distance between Constantinople and Ararat, and, consequently as the breadth of Asiatic Turkey in that part where it is narrowed.—II. Starting from Ararat in longitude 44, we shall find that the longitude of 59 coincides with the bisecting line of that desert which forms the western frontier of Affghania, and for that reason, the eastern frontier of Persia. This again gives fifteen degrees of longitude to the breadth of Persia.—III. As the Indus, which forms the true natural eastern boundary of Cabul or Affghania, lies chiefly in the longitude of 72, this will give about 13 degrees to Affghania. But if we were to include Cashmere, and other places to the east of the Indus, which have been repeatedly united with Affghania in a political sense by conquest, the total extent from east to west would be from 15 to 16 degrees. But this arrangement we reject, both for political considerations of the future, which make the resumption of Cashmere impossible, (unless by British concession,) and because we began by adopting the river Indus as the capital bisecting line for the two great chambers of South Asia; and, as a consequence of that adoption, we assumed it to be the eastern boundary for Affghania. It is true, that this breadth of 13 degrees applies to the northern part of Affghania, through a space of 400 miles. But as this excess does no more than compensate the defect still further to the south, where Kerman usurps upon Affghania in its provinces of Sweetsaun and Beloochistan, (the Gedrosia of Alexander,) we shall assume that, when integrated, by applying its excesses and salient parts to the filling up of its recedant angles. Affghania presents us even now, when shorn of its eastern conquests, with a solid quadrangular mass measuring 850 miles across in any direction whatever. Cashmere, and the other Indian dependencies of Affghania to the south of Cashmere, constituted, not perhaps quite one third part, but certainly three eleventh parts of the Dourraunee empire. These are gone. But Bulkhan to the north, and Beloochistan to the south, are not gone. They are permanent dependencies of the Affghan throne. So that north and south, this vast extent of Affghania remains unimpaired; whilst east and west, reckoning upon forty or fifty miles of the desert, which every where runs down the western frontier of Affghania, (and which from the position of Herat, is so much nearer home for the armies of this land than of its enemy Persia.) we are upon the whole, entitled to assume a territory of 900 miles square as still composing this great Affghan empire the third in succession of those vast Mahometan states which fill the western chamber or bisection of Southern Asia.

Pursuing our course to the east, about 560 miles beyond the easternmost angle of the Caspian we come to a desert. This desert runs down from north to south, so as to form a most effectual boundary line for the third region of South Asia, Affghania. In one part upon its northern quarter, this desert is traversed by a narrow isthmus of cultivated land, connecting it with northern Persia. But generally speaking, there cannot be a more regular boundary line than the desert forms for Affghania on the west. On the east, the boundary is equally determined; viz. the river Indus. Affghania, along its whole extent from north to south, is accompanied by this vast river, which of late years was found to throw a body of water into the sea equal to four times the delivery of the Ganges, under corresponding circumstances as to rain. In a political sense—that is, taking the word Affghania to represent not the region native to the race called Affghans, but the aggregate kingdom formed out of this region, on its conquest—in that sense, Affghania, at the end of the eighteenth century, has become an immense monarchy. Early in this Century, and in particular at the time of Mr. Elphin-

stone's visit in quality of English Envoy, it was by much the most potent of all Asiatic states; and, if we except China, the largest under one sceptre. Mr. Elphinstone in those days, computed its breadth from north to south at nine hundred and ten miles, its length from west to east at nearly twelve hundred. And when we add, that in the whole world there is not so compact an empire, it will be easy to judge how potent a neighbour we have in all time coming. It is now shorn of its latest conquests; it is therefore diminished in magnitude, and by nearly one third; but by that very misfortune its compactness is improved.

At present, no doubt, Affghania has retired within her natural limits; nor will she ever again overflow these limits, in consequence of having been at length brought face to face with a great power at the summit of civilization. But it marks strongly the trivial interest directed until lately to Asiatic affairs, and the consequent vagueness of the ideas applied to such questions as matters of geographical or historic knowledge, that until recently, for the whole world of Christendom, Affghania had no separate existence. In the popular mind there was no distinct place assigned to this country, as there was to its neighbours right and left. And it is an undeniable fact, that a great empire, equal (as we repeat) to France four times over, had not any one aggregate name in our geographies, nor any recognized existence, in our political speculations.

The Affghan nation has given great rulers to India in past ages, and bold leaders in every age. They have always been a name of power amongst the feeble Hindoos. We ourselves have found some of our earliest opponents amongst princes of Affghan blood. It is natural on every account—interest for the future, or great remembrances for the past—that their minds should turn to India, and in that proportion should be alienated from those who now thwart their communication with India. Yet thwart them we must; our mutual emotions will never again suffer us to dismiss them from our inspection, nor in some measure from our control.

THE HEAD AND THE HEART.

By Mrs. Barry Cornwall Wilson.

'Please, my lady, buy a nosegay or bestow a trifle,' was the address of a pale, emaciated looking woman, holding a few withered flowers in her hand, to a lady who sat on the beach of Brighton, watching the blue waves of the receding tide. 'I have no half pence my good woman,' said the lady, looking up from the novel she was perusing with a listless gaze; 'if I had I would give them to you.' 'I am a poor widow with three helpless children depending on me; would you bestow a small trifle to help us on our way?' 'I have told you I have no half pence,' reiterated the lady, somewhat pettishly. 'Really,' she added, as the poor applicant turned meekly away, 'this is worse than the streets of London; they should have a police on the shore to prevent such annoyances,' were the thoughtless dictates of the head. 'Mamma,' said a blue eyed boy who was lying on the beach at the lady's feet flinging pebbles into the sea, 'I wish you had a penny, for the poor woman does look hungry, and you know we are going to have a nice dinner, and you have promised me a glass of wine.' The heart of the lady answered the appeal of her child; and with a blush of shame crimsoning her cheek at the tacit reproach his artless words conveyed, she opened her reticule, placed half a crown in his tiny hands, and in another moment the boy was bounding along the sands on his errand of mercy. In a few seconds he returned, his eyes sparkling with delight, and his countenance glowing with health and beauty. 'Oh! mamma, the poor woman was so thankful,—she wanted to turn back, but I would not let her, and she said, God bless the noble lady, and you too, my pretty lamb, my children will now have bread for these two days and we shall go on our way rejoicing.' The eyes of the lady glistened as she heard the recital of her child, and her heart told her that its dictates bestowed a pleasure the cold reasoning of the head could never bestow.

From the Northern Light.

BRITISH INDIA.

British India is nearly equal in territory to the United States, and is bounded north by the Himalaya mountains, east by China, and south by the Bay of Bengal; west by the river Indus and the India ocean. It includes Hindostan, Chinese India and the Island of Ceylon, and numbers over 150,000,000 of inhabitants. It will be understood, that the

East India company have exclusive control of this vast empire, which is one and a half million square miles. Ever since the incorporation of the company, their jurisdiction has been gradually increasing. Their privileges, or rather their monopoly, is the production of a series of renewals and extensions from parliament for the last 200 years. The powers of the company have been enlarging and consolidating to so great a degree as to become a part of the English government itself.

The wealth of India is familiar to the readers of eastern romance. The Arabian Nights Entertainments paints its riches with a pencil of gold. And the splendor of Asiatic pomp and magnificence are not ideal. The silks and lace and cloths of curious workmanship, the shawls, robes and carpets, the gems and spices and fruit—and above all, the precious minerals—the product of the toil, ingenuity and peril of the East Indian have for centuries teemed into the cities and palaces of Europe. The far-famed mines of Golconda with their costly diamonds, are familiar words to all.

The soil is one of unbounded luxuriance. The valley of the Ganges, which is 1,000 miles long, and 250 broad, is an alluvial soil, surpassing the banks of the Nile in fertility. This tract of country alone, it is said, can produce sugar enough to supply the whole world. The cost of the production of this article in India is but a penny per pound, and the amount produced there has trebled within the last nine years. Cotton, rice, tobacco and indigo may also be raised without any difficulty in the greatest abundance. The climate being mild, the wants of the people are consequently lessened. Six pence per day is the ordinary price of labor. The fertility of the soil is owing to the periodical rains and the intense heat of the sun in that latitude, which acting together, form a mould or soil six feet deep over most of the peninsula of Hindostan. Besides the noble Ganges—whose waters the natives believe will purify them from every moral transgression—the country is traversed by the Indus. The wind blowing alternately north and south for six months, each over a part of the territory, and over another part along the coast for four months every year in periods of twelve hours, each from the sea and from the land, gives a salubrity to the climate. Though in some seasons unhealthy for foreigners, it is not so to old residents or natives—if we except the ravages made by those terrible scourges of mankind, the plague and cholera, the latter of which is said to have found its birth in this part of Asia. And well has poor India paid for the cradling of this pestilence. Fifty million of persons are said to have fallen victims to it there!

The inhabitants are divided into several grades or castes—the lines of separation between which are impassable. In person they are handsome, especially the females, who are delicate and graceful. The upper and middling castes have all the industry, the intelligence and honesty necessary to form them into an educated and enlightened people. But they are groaning under a load of oppression. In 1833, the starvation was so great in some provinces, that the granaries of the East India company were plundered, and a general conspiracy to murder their masters was discovered. In Madras the famine was beyond description. Thousands have annually perished, while the store houses of their rulers have overflowed with grain. In 1837, it is computed that half a million were swept off by hunger alone. In India, parents are permitted to sell their children for bread. The worst slavery is thus legalized, and the strongest instincts of nature paralyzed by the strong arm of law.

This system of things obliges the government—by which will now be understood the East India company—to keep up a standing army. This army is now about 250,000 strong, about 30,000 of whom are troops imported from Europe. The natives all prefer agriculture to military life, but like the conscription of Ibrahim Pacha in Western Asia, thousands have been seized, dragged into camp, and forced to fight their countrymen.

The vast income or revenue of the East India company it is difficult to ascertain with precision. In 1829, it was estimated at 23,000,000 pounds sterling—a sum greater than the revenue of any European kingdom, if we except France and England. Although the profits of the company are very great, and although the officers and agents in their employ amass extensive fortunes, and return to England laden with wealth, yet it must not be understood that the consumption of foreign articles in India, or the growth of home products, is by any means as large as they would be under the operation of just and liberal views of policy. The vast and fertile plains of Hindostan are sufficient to furnish tropical productions for all Europe at the cheapest price and in the greatest abundance. Yet, with all her abundant resources, such has been the foreign policy of England with Hindostan, that she has not been able to buy annually but six pence worth per head of British manufactures. By an examination of the amount of goods imported from England into her other colonies, and especially into her West India islands, it will be found that there is a difference of 1,600 per cent. between their import and that of India—the average of the former being about four pound per head per annum.

The duties levied upon British goods sent into Calcutta, Madras, Bombay and other