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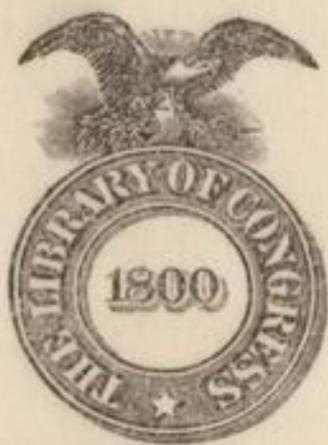
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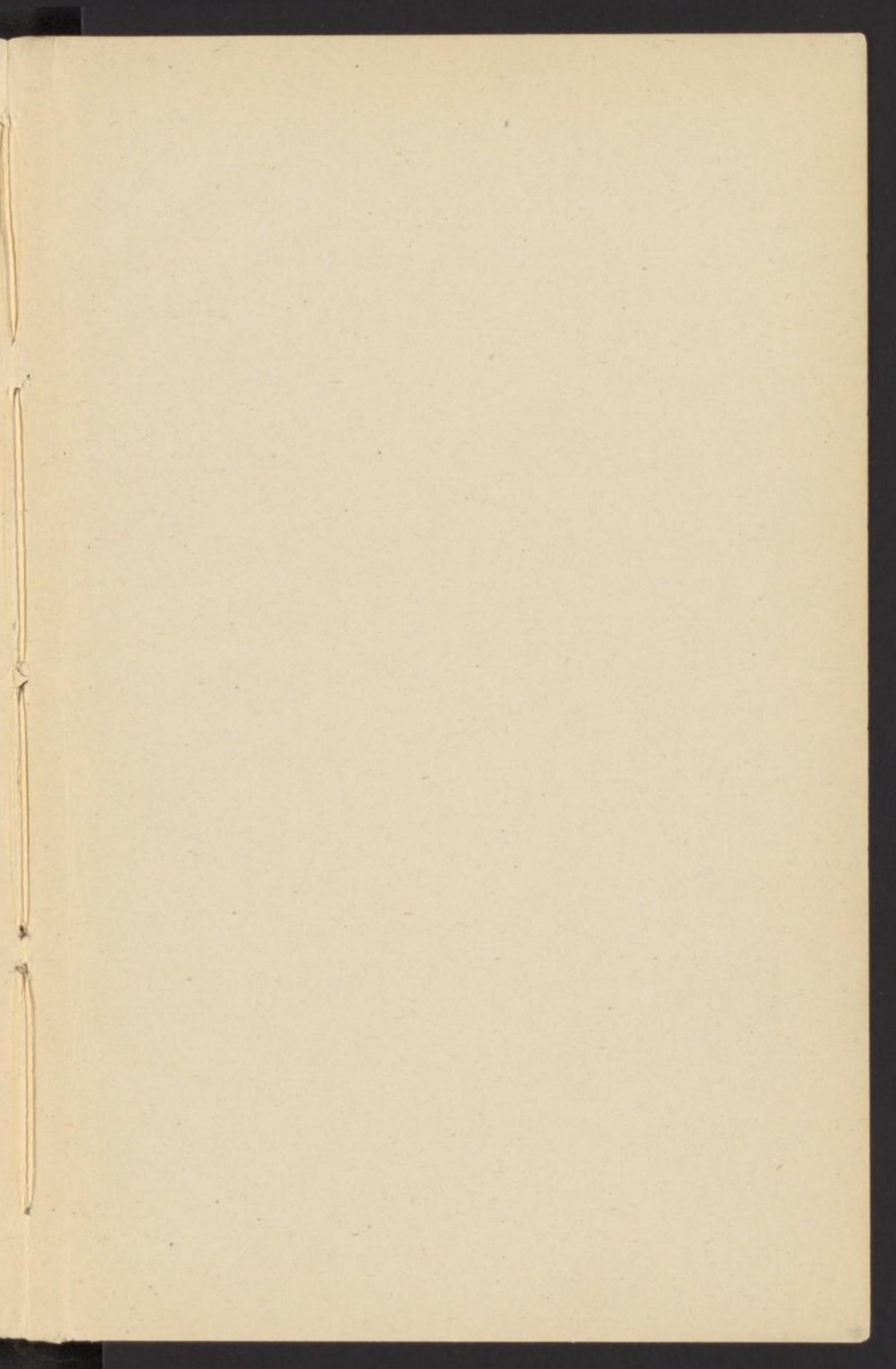


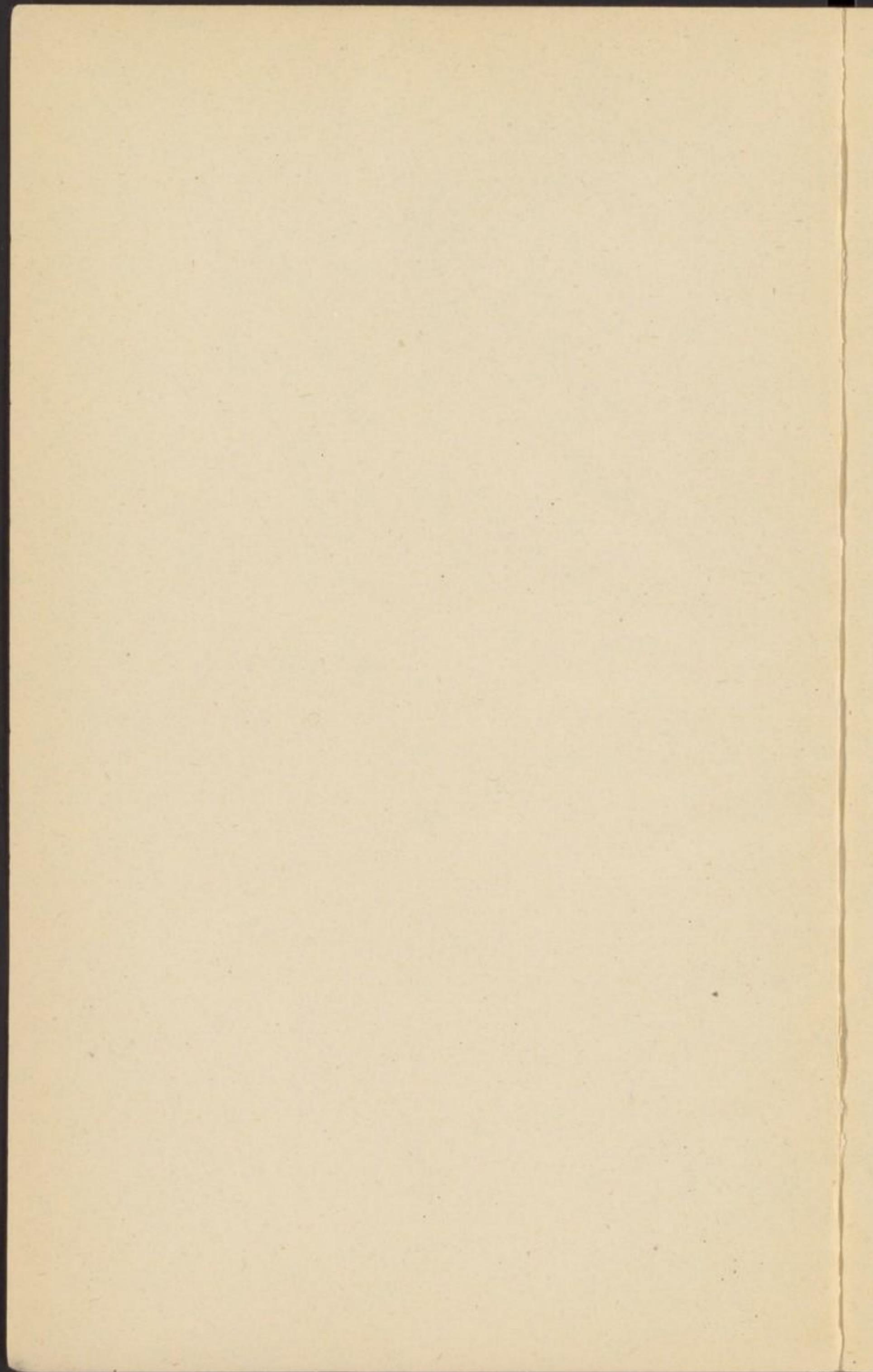
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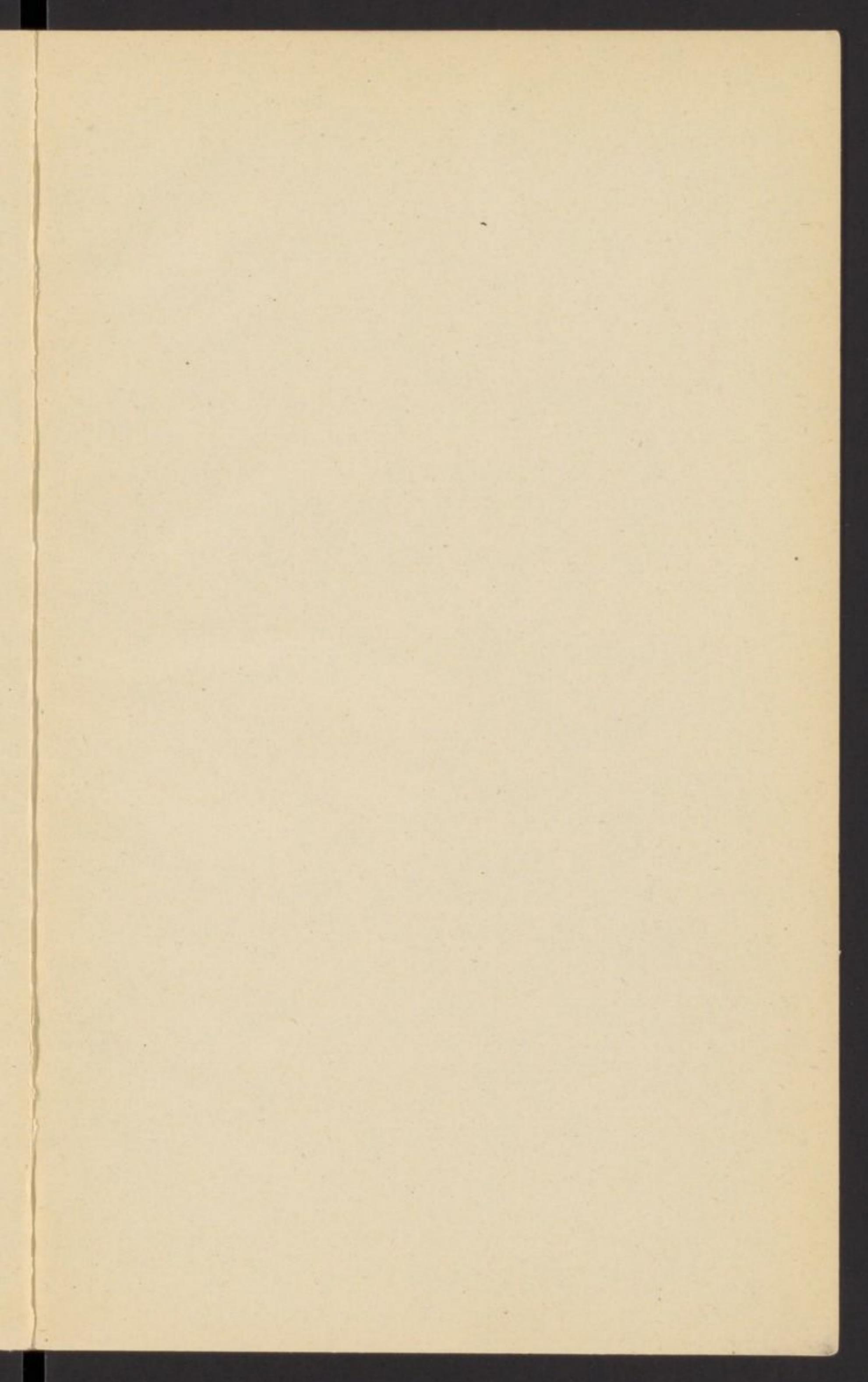


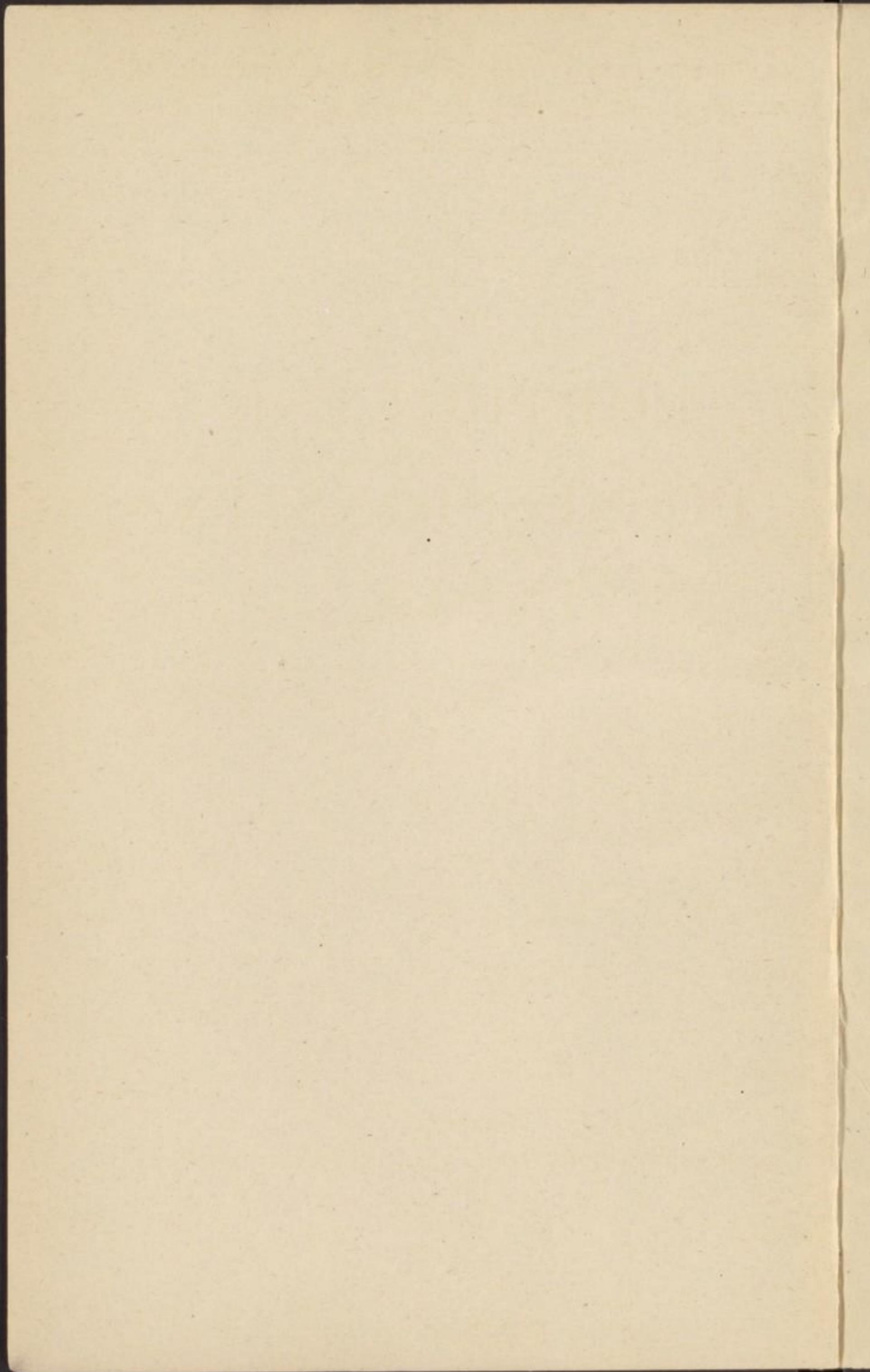
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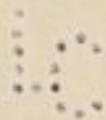


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PORTUGUESE
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EDITORIAL NOTE

IN the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connexion with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious, and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous inquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics, and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes ; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense ; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date. •

G. W. PROTHERO,

*General Editor and formerly
Director of the Historical Section.*

January 1920.

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE possessions of the Portuguese in India, known to them as the 'State of India', fall into three main divisions, all on the west coast: Goa, Damão (or Daman), and Diu.

Goa is a territory with an area of 1,301 square miles, lying between the Western Ghats and the sea, with an extreme length of 62 miles from north to south and an extreme breadth of 40 miles. It is situated about 250 miles south by east of Bombay, roughly midway between the southern extremity of India and the Gulf of Cambay. On the north it marches with the state of Savant Vadi, on the east with the British districts of Belgaum and North Kanara, on the south with North Kanara. The northern frontier is the River Terekhol, the south the hilly country of Polem.

The territory is divided into the Old and the New Conquests (*Velhas* and *Novas Conquistas*). The Old Conquests include (1) *Ilhas*, i. e. the islands between the estuaries of the Mandavi and Juari, especially the island of Goa; (2) the coastal provinces of Bardez and Salsette, respectively north and south of the islands; (3) the island of Anjediv, 5 miles southwest of Karwar and about 2 miles from the mainland. The New Conquests include the province of Pernem in the extreme north of the territory; the rest lie east and south of the Old Conquests, being divided into the provinces of Sanquelim, Ponda, Sanguem, Quepem,

Canacona, and the military district of Satari. These divisions are known as *concelhos*.

Damão (or *Daman*), with an area of a little over 148 square miles, is situated within the British district of Thana in Bombay Presidency (Gujarat), about 100 miles north of Bombay city, at the east side of the entrance of the Gulf of Cambay.

The territory consists of three detached portions: (1) *Damão* proper, divided by the Damanganga River into the *parganas* of Naer or *Damão Grande* (Great *Damão*) and Calana Pavori or *Damão Pequeno* (Little *Damão*); (2) Dadra, a very small enclave; (3) the *pargana* of Nagar Haveli, which constitutes the bulk of *Damão* territory (112 square miles). These last two portions are separated from *Damão* by a strip of British territory 5–7 miles wide, through which passes the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, with a station, Daman Road. The territory is bounded on the north by the Bhagwan River and on the south by the Kalem. *Damão* and Nagar Haveli form two *concelhos*.

Diu is an island separated from the southern extremity of the peninsula of Kathiawar (Bombay Presidency) by a narrow swampy boat-channel. It lies 5 miles west of Nawabandar, and measures 7 miles from east to west, its extreme breadth being 2 miles from north to south. The total area of the territory is about $20\frac{1}{4}$ square miles. This includes, in addition to *Diu* island, (1) the village of Gogola (Gogla) on the mainland opposite *Diu* town, with a tract outside it about $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile in length; (2) the fort of Simbor, on an islet 14 miles from *Diu* town.

(2) SURFACE, COASTS, RIVERS, AND ISLANDS

Goa.—The surface of *Goa* slopes steeply in the east, more gradually near the coast, from the heights of the Western Ghats (Sahyadri Mountains), which throw

off numerous spurs and subsidiary ridges across the territory. The chief heights (3,400–3,800 ft.) are in the mountainous plateau of Satari. The mass of Sidnato in Ponda divides the two marked depressions of the Juari and Mandavi basins. The southern heights do not exceed 2,020 ft. The Ghats resemble an elevated sea-coast with promontories and spurs, like the fjord-coast of Norway.

Below the mountains the country is wooded and broken up, a region of steppe with short grass; then for about 20 miles from the coast there is a well-cultivated belt in the centre of the country, marked by very few hills and those of but low elevation. In the north Pernem is hilly, in the south in Canacona the Ghats approach nearer the sea. The plains of the Old Conquests are of recent formation. In the south of the New Conquests are small irregular valleys and narrow plains, descending unsymmetrically to the sea. The country is drained entirely into the Arabian Sea, many streams taking their rise either within or at no great distance outside the territory. Along the banks of the rivers are many marshes.

The chief towns and the densest rural population are found in the lower parts of the basins of these streams, where there is the greatest extent of cultivable land, and where the rivers, being navigable, serve as important means of communication. The fact that the Ghats in this part are not of great height and can be crossed at many points made Goa in earlier times a natural outlet for the Deccan, and it has been thought (by Silva Telles, for instance) that the ancient importance of Goa depended to a great extent upon this; but the export trade of the interior is not greatly attracted to a coast that suffers so much from the monsoon as does the Malabar coast.

The soil is chiefly argillaceous, but also contains light sand and more or less decayed vegetable matter; in many parts it is gravelly or stony, and its fertility varies in different localities.

The coast of Goa, generally speaking, consists of sandy bays fringed with coco-nut trees, separated by several rocky capes. The flattest part is between Colla Bay and the Sal River, where there is low, cultivated land with small hills.

The mouths of the Mandavi and Juari, separated by Cabo Point at the extreme west end of Goa Island (Tissuadi), form the two harbours of Aguada (Panjim) to the north and Marmagão to the south. Outside the river estuaries there are two bays which afford protection against the north-east wind—Colla Bay, 14 miles north of the Sal River, and Canacona Bay, $1\frac{3}{4}$ miles north of the Talpona.

The rivers of Goa are all navigable for small craft; and the channels between the Juari and Mandavi give a good system of intercommunication. There are but few bridges; more will be required if the number of secondary roads is to be increased.

Damão.—In Damão the only hills are in the *pargana* of Nagar Haveli, and do not exceed 800 ft. in height. The principal range forms the southern boundary of the Portuguese possessions. Most of the soil is alluvial; it is fertile, and its forests are famous.

The coast-line is very limited in comparison with the size of the territory, extending about 6 miles from the mouth of the Kalem to that of the Bhagwan. Only small boats can enter the mouths of these two rivers; but the Damanganga (or Sandalcalo), at the mouth of which is the town of Damão, provides indifferent anchorage, and is navigable for small boats up to Calacaxigão, about 3 miles from its mouth. The coast is low.

In Damão the only important river is the Damanganga. There are no bridges over the rivers in Nagar Haveli, but the want would be felt only in the rainy season, and the expense of erecting them would not be warranted by the circumstances of the province.

Diu.—The island of Diu has hills about 100 feet high. Coco-nut groves are scattered about the island. Its marshes render it unhealthy; the land is rather barren, and water is scarce. Rain-water is collected in cisterns.

The southern face of the island is a sandstone cliff, with deep water below it; the channel separating the island from the mainland becomes at its eastern end the harbour of Diu.

Anjediv.—The island of Anjediv is about three-quarters of a mile long, with an area of rather more than half a square mile. Its seaward side is abrupt, barren, and rocky, and the island rises at some points to 200–300 ft. The landward side slopes more gently and is sheltered and fertile; and on this side there is a good but little-used anchorage. The island is unhealthy; the buildings have fallen into decay; the population declined from 527 in 1872 to 50 in 1900.

The two islands of *St. George* (west and east), lying off Cape Ramas, are nearly connected at low water by a narrow neck of shingle and rock. Together they are $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length.

(3) CLIMATE

Goa.—The climate of Goa, hot though it is, is regarded as less unsuitable for Europeans than that of any Portuguese colony except Macao, and is certainly healthier than that of Diu. The transition from the cool to the hot season takes place in March; and the highest mean maximum temperature for any month is

90° F. (32° C.) in April and May. In May the south-west monsoon begins to set in; and in June and July the monsoon rains are heaviest. They slacken in August; but in the period June–August 80·74 inches out of a total average rainfall of 100·06 inches are recorded at Marmagão. The heavy rains may cause partial inundations in some districts, e. g. the valley of the Sal, but great floods are rare. On the other hand, the rains seldom fail so completely as to cause distress. The south-west monsoon, which at its height prevents coastwise navigation, usually weakens sufficiently to permit the general resumption thereof about the middle of August, though not in Aguada Bay (cf. p. 30). The temperature and rains decrease in September and October, in which month, at the turn of the seasons, mists on the mountains are prevalent. Normally the north-east monsoon, known from its direction as *terral*, begins in November; it usually blows from sunset till morning. The lowest mean minimum temperature, 70°–71° F. (21° C.), is recorded in December–February, a period which is practically or wholly rainless. The August rains are thought to have especially valuable qualities for the palm-trees; during the rains of the second half of May the *serodio* crop of rice (see p. 36) is sown.

Damão.—The seasonal variations in Damão are much the same as those in Goa, the rainy and dry periods being practically identical. The prevailing winds in the dry season are in the morning ESE. to NNE., in the afternoon NW. to WNW.; during the rainy season they are SSW. to W. Nagar Haveli seems to be more healthy than Damão proper.

Diu.—The climate of Diu is hot, dry, and trying; and the place is made unhealthy by marshes and bad sanitation.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The accounts of the healthiness of Portuguese territory in India differ considerably. The most general causes of disease are bad housing, insufficient water-supply, poor drainage, and the existence of marshland. On the whole it may be said that, in Goa, Salsette and the New Conquests are healthy, but that along the margins of some of the rivers the conditions are unfavourable. Old Goa suffered so much from intermittent fever and plague that it became necessary to transfer the seat of government to Panjim (see p. 10). The climate in Damão is said to be generally healthy, but one reformer advocates the demolition of the walls both of this city and of Diu in order that breezes may more easily circulate in the streets of the town. Diu is the least healthy part of all; the marsh through which the channel flows that separates the island from the mainland propagates fever; and tuberculosis has devastated the village of the Deres (see p. 8).

The diseases that prevail in these countries are remittent and intermittent fever, diarrhœa, dysentery, measles, small-pox, and occasionally plague and cholera. There was a serious visitation of plague in Damão in 1896-7.

There were in 1904 three hospitals with 2,631 in-patients, as well as three military hospitals, in Goa, Damão, and Diu.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The information supplied by Portuguese authorities on the native inhabitants is singularly scanty and inadequate. The native race of Goa is a branch of the Mahrattas. Damão, just at the north of the

Mahratta country, has a certain infusion of Gujaratis, who are largely nomadic. Diu has a large proportion of Gujaratis among its scanty population, including the traders of that race who are called Banyans; the word is a functional designation, and is applicable to a number of castes of diverse origin, customs, and social status. It is used generally of any Hindus engaged in trading. The lowest element in the Diu population is called *Deres*. The other elements in the population include Parsees and Mohammedans and a great number of 'descendants', that is, persons whose ancestry includes a European of either sex.

The two main languages spoken are Marathi and Gujarati. The latter is spoken not only by the Hindu, but also by the Parsee inhabitants. The Marathi spoken in Goa is the Konkani dialect; as spoken in Goa, it has some admixture of Portuguese words. Gujarati is written in a script resembling the Nagari alphabet. Portuguese is the official language, and is spoken in the towns and by educated people. Twelve or more periodicals are issued by natives in the Portuguese language. There are a few public libraries, including one of some merit at Panjim.

In general the natives of Goa are hospitable, courteous, and intelligent, though not progressive. Woman, however, has little chance of development. She is dependent in turn upon her father, husband, and sons; and, although suttee has been formally abolished, it has really only been commuted to perpetual isolation. The Portuguese give every protection to a widow who does remarry. In 1900 widows and widowers formed 12.6 per cent. of the population. Among the natives not many remain unmarried.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

According to official returns (which are not always mutually reconcilable) the population of Portuguese India in 1910 was 548,472, of which Goa had 486,752, Damão, 47,550, and Diu, 14,170. The population of the Old Conquests was greatly in excess of that of the New Conquests, the largest figures being those of Salsette, 119,038, and Bardez, 111,192. The density of population ranges from less than 64 per square mile in Sanguem, and 105 in Satari, to 1,003 in Ilhas, and nearly 1,280 in Bardez. Sanguem owes its low population to its marsh-land and small supplies, though it has a good soil and might be made productive. Ponda is more thickly populated than the other provinces of the New Conquests, and with its fertile soil and good supply of springs and the more industrious nature of its inhabitants, partakes of the characteristics of the Old Conquests.

The following figures, which show the relations of natives to other population, are taken from the census of 1900. These give the Asiatics as 531,330, the Europeans as 246, the Africans and their descendants as 212, and leave 10 unaccounted for. Of this population 521,397 were Portuguese subjects, 10,394 British, 3 French, 3 Italian, and 1 German.

Movement

Taking the territory as a whole, the population is increasing. In 1900 the figures given were for Goa, 475,513; for Damão, 41,671; for Diu, 14,614; so that in the following ten years there was an increase in Goa of 11,239, in Damão an increase of 5,879, and in Diu a decrease of 444. Statistics published for 1913

showed that in that year the births exceeded the deaths by 1,846. The only *concelhos* in which there was a decrease were Satari and Damão.

Towns

Goa.—The only towns of any size are in the Old Conquests. *Old Goa* is for the most part ruined and overgrown with trees, but contains the shrine of St. Francis Xavier, which gives the town such importance as it still possesses. At the periodical exposition of his relics the place is thronged; in 1859 there were said to be 200,000 pilgrims in the place, and in 1878 between 30,000 and 40,000. There are also three convents. The small population is very poor.

*Panjim*¹ (or New Goa; population 9,325 in 1900) is the seat of Government. It includes the old city within its municipal bounds, as well as the suburb of Ribandar, which lies between them and is the place of residence of the officials and richer men. It lies about three miles above the mouth of the river in a picturesque situation, and has wide streets with good houses and several handsome public buildings. The site has in great part been reclaimed from marsh, and is not altogether healthy. In the poorer houses cattle and human inhabitants live together; and there is no separation of quarters for Europeans and natives. Panjim suffers from great scarcity of water; the drainage system is inadequate; and piles of refuse rot along the sea-shore.

*Marmagão*² (Mormugão) is the name of the port at the eastern extremity of the peninsula of that name in Salsette province, five miles south of Panjim and on the left bank of the Juari River. About 1684–1712 various preparations were made to transfer the capital

¹ See also below, p. 29.

² See also below, p. 28.

from Goa to Marmagão ; this step was alternately ordained and countermanded, and now the Government buildings are in ruins. The site is healthy.

Margão (population 12,216 in 1900), in Salsette province, lies in a fine plain on the Sal River, about 16 miles south-east of Panjim ; it is a modern town with rectangular streets, and has a number of good buildings. It is a station on the West of India Portuguese Railway. Unfortunately its drainage is not good, and its water-supply is unsatisfactory, coming from surface wells.

Mapuça (population 10,733 in 1900) is the chief town of Bardez district, about eight miles north of Panjim. It is a commercial centre of some importance, and possesses a public library and other institutions. It contains a church founded in 1594, dedicated to Our Lady of Miracles, whose festival is celebrated not only by Christians but by Hindus ; a great fair is held on this occasion. The same censures may be passed on its drainage and water-supply as on those of the other towns mentioned, with additional strictures on the big manure-heaps that abound in it.

*Damão*¹.—In Damão the chief town, which gives its name to the province, is at the mouth of the Damanganga and is situated on both banks. It has two forts (in one of which are the Governor's palace and Government buildings), private residences, and ecclesiastical buildings. The whole population is Christian. The chief town of Nagar Haveli used to be Dadra ; it is now Paço d'Arcos (formerly Silvassa). About four miles from this is Naroli, a small centre of commerce, to which native products are brought.

*Diu*².—The town of Diu, with its fortress and citadel at the east of the island, presents an imposing appear-

¹ See also below, p. 30.

² See also below, p. 30.

ance with its massive walls. It used to be very flourishing, having a population of 50,000, but has greatly declined in prosperity.

Villages

Goa.—In Goa there are 407 villages, of which 134 are in the Old Conquests. In the less cultivated parts the population is concentrated in small villages; thus among the provinces of the New Conquests Satari, which has the smallest population (17,982), has most villages (85).

Damão.—Some of the population of Damão consists of nomadic Gujaratis. Such Parsees as live in Nagar Haveli do not as a rule reside there permanently, but have their homes in Damão; they act in Nagar Haveli as lessors of land, usurers (*saucars*), and traders in agricultural produce.

Diu.—There are on the island three large villages. The fort of Simbor, to the east of Diu, along the coast of Kathiawar, has a population of about 1,900; but this is a fluctuating population composed of fishermen and strangers who are only there for a few months in the year.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1510. Old Goa taken by d'Albuquerque.
- 1535. Fort built at Diu.
- 1538. First siege of Diu.
- 1543. Salsette and Bardez acquired by Portugal.
- 1546. Second siege of Diu.
- 1559. Damão and Dadra captured by the Portuguese.
- 1759. Seat of government moved from old Goa to Panjim (New Goa).
- 1780. Nagar Haveli ceded to Portugal by the Mahrattas.
- 1843. Government formally established at Panjim.

THE Portuguese possessions in India consist now of three detached territories lying embedded in the Bombay Presidency of British India. It is somewhat misleading to describe them, as is sometimes done, as the surviving fragments of a colonial empire. Even in their palmyest days the Portuguese only administered a very small area, and their influence extended but little beyond the ground their arms commanded. They have ruled the island of Goa for over 400 years, but generally they preferred to occupy commercial centres commanded by their fleets and to look for their income to the receipts from the customs. On the whole the relations of Portuguese India with British India have remained friendly.

Goa.—Of the Old Conquests (see p. 1), Goa proper was conquered by Albuquerque in 1510, and Salsette and Bardez were obtained in 1543. The New Conquests were acquired in the general scramble at the end of the eighteenth century.

Within historical times the town of Goa has occupied three sites. There are no remains of the first Goa, which was captured from the Hindus by the Mohammedans in 1479. The Mohammedans founded the second Goa, which was taken from them by Albuquerque in 1510; it lies five miles north of the first. It began to decline early in the seventeenth century with the long-drawn-out Dutch war, when its outlying colonies were taken and its commerce seriously crippled. While enemies attacked it from without, epidemics of unexampled violence, due largely to the neglect of simple sanitary precautions, ravaged it within. For many years the appearance of wealth was maintained, but towards the end of the century, when the incursions of the Marhattas (though they never attacked Goa itself) added to the general misery, the marks of decay were unmistakable. In 1684 the Viceroy, supported by the votes of the leading inhabitants, proposed to abandon the city and found a new one on the Marmagão peninsula. The Home Government agreed, but there arose a sharp division of opinion in Goa, headed by the priests in opposition to the hierarchy.¹ After several changes of opinion and an expenditure of £25,000, the idea was dropped. Driven away, however, by its unhealthiness, the inhabitants continued to forsake the place; and the Count of Sandomil (Viceroy 1732-41) reopened the question and suggested another site on the Mandavi, near the second Goa. In 1759 the Viceroy moved thither. The expulsion of the Jesuits (who were traders as well as religious) was the final blow to the second Goa; and in 1775 the population of the city, which had been estimated at about 200,000 early in

¹ See *O Oriente Portuguez*, vol. vii, p. 34. The Count of Alvor (Viceroy 1681-6) is said to have found his position so difficult that he placed the emblems of his office on the body of St. Francis Xavier, trusting that the saint would find a way out.

the seventeenth, and at 30,000 early in the eighteenth century, had sunk to 1,600 souls. The Home Government pressed the rebuilding of the old city, but the facts were too strong, and the officials and *fidalgos*, when ordered to repeople Goa, obeyed by living there during the day, and joining their families in healthier surroundings at night. During the French wars the Home Government paid little attention to India; and the change of site to New Goa became firmly established. It was formally accepted by Portugal in 1843.

Damão proper, with Dadra, was captured by the Portuguese in 1559. Nagar Haveli was ceded to them by the Mahrattas in 1780.

In the island of *Diu* the Portuguese first got a footing in 1535. The interest of Diu to the Portuguese centres in the two great sieges it endured in 1538 and 1546 and the important battle won by D. João de Castro that terminated the second.

On the island of *Anjediv* stood the first fort the Portuguese built in India, and it has its corner in English history. The troops sent to receive the cession of Bombay were encamped here and lost very heavily while waiting on the dilatory proceedings of the Portuguese authorities.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

DIFFERENCE of race goes with the differences of the four main classes (*varna*), Brahmans, Kshatriyas (Charados), Vaisyas, and Sudras, under which the Indian castes are grouped. It is a tenable theory that the conquering, fair-skinned people, when they first came in contact with the conquered black aborigines, though they despised them, took wives from among them. At a later period they closed their ranks to further intermarriage; and the amount of intermarriage had been greatest in the lowest degrees of the social scale. Thus we find, as we should expect to do, among the Mahrattas of the Brahman class a type differing widely from the Sudras. The bulk of the Goanese are Sudras, members of the lowest of the four classes, showing a far larger amount of Dravidian blood.

There is now no intermarriage between the various castes; the offspring of such a union is a *pariah*, and has no caste. There are forty castes and sub-castes in Portuguese India. Caste distinctions are retained for social purposes; and even native Christians adhere to them, claiming to be Brahmans, Charados, Vaisyas, or Sudras. The Portuguese laws take no account of caste or religion in regard to admission to any public office; but, except as a doctrine of political rights, this idea of equality does not prevail. There is one caste of Sudras, found in Satari and Nagar Haveli, of a very uncivilized character.

About one-half of the people are Christian—the result not of recent Christian missions, but of their evangelization in the sixteenth century. This has meant a very considerable modification of manners and customs on the part of the Christian portion of the population. European dress is largely adopted. It is said that Christianity has not improved the industry of the inhabitants; they have caught the Mediterranean love of festivals and religious services. Nevertheless many of the Christian natives have distinguished themselves in high posts.

Observance of the rules of that congeries of religious systems which we vaguely call Hinduism varies very much. Thus there are Rajputs in Damão, who claim to be the representatives of the second class, the Charados, the military caste; they eat flesh and drink spirituous liquors, and neglect many of the precepts of their caste. The rules that they are most scrupulous in observing are (1) that they should not kill cows, and (2) that widows should not re-marry. This last rule is a considerable check on the growth of Hindu populations, especially as it is coupled with child-marriage. The nominal bride is often a widow before she is really married, and is secluded for the rest of her life even from her relatives.

The population is almost equally divided between Roman Catholics, who are 49·3 per cent., and Hindus, who are 49 per cent., the former largely predominating in the Old Conquests, the latter in the New. Of the other religions (in 1900) there were 8,431 Mohammedans, 417 Parsees, 143 Jains, 2 Buddhists, and 13 Protestants.

The only Hindu temples remaining in all Goa are those in the New Conquests. In the Old Conquests every means, from wholesale bribery on the one hand to terror on the other, had been used in the sixteenth

century to spread the orthodox faith, with the result that over 90 per cent. of the whole population professes the Christian religion; but the memory of the old social order remains so far potent that the old caste distinctions are still remembered and govern marriage arrangements.

Religious orders are now abolished; and Church and State were separated in 1911. Persecution for religious reasons is a thing of the distant past; and it would make the old inquisitors turn in their graves to learn that succession to the headship of Hindu shrines is a subject of investigation and decision by the Portuguese civil courts.¹

(2) POLITICAL

The three detached territories, Goa, Damão, and Diu, are all under the Governor-General in Goa, who is appointed from Europe for a period of five years. Partial local self-government was introduced in 1914.

The powers of the Governor-General are circumscribed both by his warrant of appointment and also by the councils, whose assistance he must invoke, especially in financial matters. The most important council includes the chief ecclesiastical, civil, and legal officials; and there are five other standing councils dealing with different departments. With regard to local government, there are in the Old Conquests three municipalities; the rest of the area, together with that of the New Conquests, is divided into parishes. The parish is the unit of administration, and in each there is a local council presided over by a magistrate called a *regedor*, who directs the local police, supervises liquor shops, &c. The parish councils work in subordination to the district councils, of which there are three in the Old

¹ See decree dated February 9, 1901, in *O Oriente Portuguez*, vol. iii, p. 441.

Conquests and seven in the New. To each district the Governor-General nominates an official who has certain duties connected with public safety and health, and is also the tax collector.

The Governors of Damão and Diu are subordinate to the Governor-General. The apparatus of local government is the same as that in Goa.

Goa, Damão, and Diu, with Mozambique, Macao, and Timor, form a judicial district. This district is divided into *comarcas*, which are further divided into *julgados*, each of which contains a certain number of parishes. The *regedor* already mentioned has certain civil and magisterial duties in petty cases; and from his decisions an appeal lies to the officer in charge of the *julgado*, who again is subordinate to the judge of the *comarca*, whose duty it is to go on tour in the area subordinate to him. From his decision, in important cases, an appeal lies to the Goa High Court (*Tribunal da Relação*). This court consists of a chief and four judges; and from their decision, in certain cases, a further appeal lies to the Supreme Court in Portugal. Judges of the High Court and *comarcas* are Europeans; those of the subordinate courts are natives of the country.

(3) MILITARY ORGANIZATION

After a mutiny in 1871 the native troops were disbanded and have not been revived as a distinct organization. In 1895 there was trouble with the European troops, who refused to obey orders and embark for Mozambique; this trouble was settled with difficulty. There were further disturbances in 1901 and 1911, in which some of the civil population joined. The present force consists of a company of infantry and a few artillery (Europeans), and five companies of native troops. There are also some civil police.

(4) PUBLIC EDUCATION

About the beginning of the present century the state of education was reported to be very unsatisfactory. School buildings were generally few, small, dirty, and unsuitable, and little attempt was made to acquaint the natives with the language, history, &c. of the ruling power. In 1900 only 10 per cent. of the total population was literate. Recently, it is said, some progress has been made.

At Panjim there is a national college or lyceum, which professes to give instruction in Portuguese language and literature; French, English, Latin, and Marathi; elementary mathematics, science, and philosophy; drawing; the principles of political economy and civil government. There is also a school of commerce at Panjim, and there are several other secondary schools. There are municipal lyceums at Margão and Mapuça. A medico-surgical college at Panjim is under State supervision. Official public instruction consists of primary education of two grades, elementary and complementary, separate or united, according to the numbers and needs of the school-going population in the different localities. There are also schools under the authority of the Roman Catholic Church. In all, the returns for 1914-15 show a total of 142 schools in Portuguese India with 9,546 pupils (6,066 boys and 3,480 girls). In 1908 there were only 101 schools, of which 84 were Portuguese, 7 Marathi, and 10 Gujarati.

NOTE ON THE VILLAGE COMMUNITIES

It is fortunate for the historical student that the record of the customs of the Goa villages was made in 1526, but the effect on the villages themselves has been

disastrous. The record became part of the law of the land, and as such was liable to interpretation like any other law. Had there been no record, the villages might perhaps have been allowed to work out their own future; and, by escaping the eye of the jurist trained in the canon law, the peculiarities which he would consider anomalies would not have invited interference. The confiscation of the rent-free grants to village servants in 1541 was but one of many exactions; and it is significant that in 1735 the Governor had to determine that ecclesiastics could not collect 'alms' (*esmolas*) for the Church by either imprisoning the villagers or distraining their goods.

By the record of 1526 the Gawnkars were the sole administrators of the village; and, as they had to submit to continual demands either from the State or the Church, and had no power to sell land, they were compelled to sell fractional shares of the profits, in order to pay their way at all. An ineffectual attempt to prevent these sales was made by the Viceroy in 1604. It is impossible to see on what basis these fractional shares were calculated. In northern India either the *bigha* or the rupee is the unit; in the former case the shares are either *biswas* ($\frac{1}{20}$ th) or *biswansis* ($\frac{1}{400}$ th); in the latter, *annas* ($\frac{1}{16}$ th) or *pice* ($\frac{1}{192}$ nd). In Goa there was no uniformity; the number of *tanga* shares varied in each village. The account of these *tanga* shares given in *Oriente Conquistado* (vol. i, p. 171) is too childish to quote. Other authorities either do not refer to the question or say frankly they are ignorant of how the number of shares was originally determined. It would almost seem as if shares in certain definite things and not in the whole village were sold, as some papers mention *tangas de gutega* and *tangas de raxi* (the latter to include *recamo, vantem,*

serodio, &c.), but the meaning of these words is obscure.

The Khuntakars, as the purchasers of fractional shares were called, had no voice in the management of the villages; and a long and bitter struggle began between them and the Gawnkars, a struggle to which the Kulacharis (holders of land on perpetual rent or on lease) were not parties, though they eventually profited by the result. The rights of collection were sold annually by auction to the highest bidder among the Gawnkars; the position of bailiff (*sacador*) was similarly sold to the lowest bidder without such distinction. Down to 1735 the Khuntakars, as such, had no rights at all; but thirty years later they and the Gawnkars were admitted to the auctions on equal terms. Still it was not till the middle of the nineteenth century that the Khuntakars were allowed a share in the management of the village. Matters had been reduced by that time to an absurdity. Thus there was a village owned entirely by one Khuntakar, who had no voice in the management, this being in the hands of a hereditary Gawnkar who had no share in the proceeds; while in others there was a body of several hundred Gawnkars and as many Khuntakars, and any one of the former could veto any suggested arrangement. The last appearance of the Gawnkars as a body was in 1858, when they petitioned for a restoration of their former position. Their case was hopeless, and they gradually dropped out of the records; and the more recent papers contain no reference to them. From 1840 to 1897 various attempts were made to create communities out of the owners of the different rights—a very miscellaneous body, for some received an annual fixed pension, others shared in the profit and loss, while others again were

perpetual lessees. The most curious experiment was that of 1882, when a law was made to create in each village for agricultural purposes a sort of joint stock company. Some of the beneficiaries received pensions, and the rights of others were transmuted into 10-rupee shares. This law did not work, and in 1897 another was passed, allowing any village to go into liquidation, when the field boundaries were to be demarcated, a cadastral survey made, and the village lands sold off by auction.

In 1870 the communities numbered 426, of which 145 were in the Old Conquests, 281 in the New; in the New Conquests the *panchayat* or meeting composed of one or more members of each clan (*vangor*) had a more prominent position. The community undertakes various duties in regard to the maintenance of religious services, schools, roads, &c. It is responsible to the Government for territorial taxes, and makes its own levy on individual members. It is under Government supervision, and can spend no money without Government sanction.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads*

Goa.—There are many roads in Goa, but few of importance, and they are not well kept up. The most important were made in the latter half of the nineteenth century. The best is one that starts from the village of Donna Paula and goes by Panjim and Ribandar to Old Goa. The last two miles of this are a causeway built over swamp. From Panjim an important road (21 miles) goes north; starting at Velim, a village in Bardez facing the city, it goes by Mapuça, a centre of many small roads, and Assonora to Cansarvale, where it is linked up with the good metalled road that runs through the British district of Manari. From Assonora a road runs south-east to Bicholim, whence one road goes up to the frontier, and another, passing through Sanquelim, crosses the province of Satari to Massordem. At Sanquelim a road branches south-east to the valley of the Mandavi and continues up it to Usgão, whence it goes to the Tinem Ghat and joins the high road to Dharwar; this road is incomplete, but, if properly constructed, might be of great importance by opening connexions between the port of Goa and the British provinces in the interior. In a map compiled in 1915 from surveys taken between 1884 and 1895, a good metalled road is marked from Goa to Ponda (10 miles) and for nearly another 10 miles

east of Ponda, after which it ceases to be metalled. In the south an important road runs from Panjim to São Lourenço, and then on the other side of the Juari by Margão and Canacona to the southern frontier. Another centre of roads is Sanvordem, on the railway, whence roads run south-west and south-east to Quepem and Sanguem respectively. When the road system is developed, a great number of bridges will be wanted for roads of the second and third order.

Damão.—In Damão the roads have been badly neglected. The chief road in Damão proper is the road from Damão Pequeno to Vapi ($6\frac{1}{2}$ miles long), the Portuguese and British parts being almost equally divided. There is also the municipal road of Satvara running from Damão to the village of Varacunda, but this has hardly been kept up at all. In Nagar Haveli roads are almost non-existent. There was a road, four miles in length, from Paço d'Arcos to Naroli, but it has been neglected and is almost impassable. A writer in the *Boletim da Sociedade de Geographia de Lisboa* (1911) presses for more roads in this district, especially from Paço d'Arcos to Cadoli and to Mandonim, with a branch from Dapara to Patti; from Naroli by Luari and Chikli to Dapara; and from Mandonim by Vansda, Corchonde, Dindonim, Ambabari, Meru, and Vagchora to Cota—a network of approximately 36 miles.

Diu.—Diu has one road from end to end of the island—from the town of Diu to Brancavara ($7\frac{1}{2}$ miles); from it radiate three branch roads, the longest of which measures only about half a mile. A road is projected from Gogola harbour to the frontier, $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles long; this is important, as Gogola is said to be the least decadent part of the colony of Diu.

(b) *Rivers and Canals*

A special feature of Goa is the network of navigable channels in the lower part of the course of the Mandavi and the Juari. The Mandavi is navigable up to Usgão (about 18 miles) for vessels which do not demand more than 6 ft. of water. Its tributary, the Volvota, is navigable for 2 or 3 miles above its confluence. Its other confluents, roughly speaking, are tidal and navigable up to the places whose names they bear, viz. Gangem, Bicholim, Assonora, Tivim, and Mapuça. The Juari (Zuari) is navigable to Rachol, 11 miles above the fort of São Lourenço. Reference is made to a 'steamer-service' in connexion with the station of Sanvordem, which is even higher up, but these must be very small vessels. Ordinarily the vessels that navigate these rivers are the *patamarin* and *tona*. Only the mouths of the two rivers are navigable for big vessels. This network of navigable rivers, including their branches and tributaries, is estimated at 134 miles in length.

Of the other rivers the Terekhol is navigable for about 12 miles; big *tonas* proceed up to the *cassabé* (settlement or chief town) of Pernem; above that small *tonas* go up to Uguem; *patamarins* enter the harbour. The Chapora is navigable for big *tonas* up to Macazana, 9 miles above the mouth; small canoes proceed up to the old fort of Alorna. The Sal, into which the Betul flows at its mouth, is navigable to near Margão (about 8 miles). The Talpona is navigable for a short distance. All these rivers, except the Juari, are exposed at their mouths to the south-west monsoon, so that during the months when that wind is blowing they are not easily accessible from the sea.

A scheme is on foot for deepening the Mapuça from the village of Aldona up to Mapuça, so that steamers

may go to that town from Panjim. The cost of this is estimated at 15,200 *escudos*, or about £3,300.

Canals.—There are no navigable canals in Goa; the only existing canals are for the purpose of irrigation. One canal would be very valuable, viz. from the mouth of the Tivim connecting the Mapuça river with the Chapora. This would add to the system of internal navigation the Chapora itself, and in a certain measure the Terekhol, which flows out only 8 miles north of it. The land that lies between is not high, and the capital expenditure necessary ought to be repaid by the economic results. The cost is estimated at 55,700 *escudos*, or about £12,000.

(c) *Railways*

The only railway is in Goa. It runs from Marmagão harbour to the British frontier, 4 miles west of Castle Rock, where it connects with the Southern Mahratta system. There are 12 stations, of which the chief are Marmagão, Vasco da Gama, Margão, Sanvordem, and Collem. The line is 51·10 miles long, and its gauge is 3 ft. 3 $\frac{3}{8}$ in. The ruling gradient is 1 in 100, with 1 in 40 in the Ghat section, where the line reaches an altitude of 3,000 ft. The line is single for 38 miles, but for the 13 miles in the Ghats it is double. There are 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles of sidings. A viaduct crosses the River Sonaulim at Dudsagor, close to the great waterfall. There are 12 tunnels.

The rolling stock consisted in 1916 of 18 locomotives, 48 carriages for travellers, 2 luggage vans, 1 horse-box, 119 covered goods wagons, 34 low-sided wagons, 9 platform wagons, 10 timber trucks, 9 brake vans, 1 travelling crane. The coaching traffic in 1916 showed an increase of 2·77 per cent. and the goods traffic 12·78 per cent. on the previous year, mainly owing to improved traffic in oil-seeds, cotton, manganese ore, and

salt. There were carried 417,744 passengers and 262,213 tons of goods.

The line, which is the property of the West of India Portuguese Railway Company, is maintained and worked by the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company as part of the latter's undertaking, except as to further capital expenditure, which is provided by the Portuguese Government.

Projected Lines.—A branch line (3 ft. 3 $\frac{3}{8}$ in. gauge), from Margão to Bicholim, has been sanctioned for survey with a view to developing the working of mines.

Negotiations have been opened with the British Government for a railway to link Port Karwar with Marmagão.

Some Portuguese writers strongly desire to bring a railway down to Gogola with a view to resuscitating the commerce of Diu, but there is no chance of such a line becoming remunerative.

(d) *Posts and Telegraphs*

The head post office of Goa is at Panjim; there are branch offices at Margão, Mapuça, Ponda, Bicholim, Chinchinim, and Pernem.

A telegraph office at Panjim is maintained by the British and Portuguese Governments jointly, and is connected with the Indian cable. For inland communications there are 12 Government telegraph stations and 12 railway telegraph stations, and a total length of line of 224 miles.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) *Ports*

The chief ports in Goa are Marmagão and Panjim; those at Damão and Diu are much smaller.

Marmagão,¹ the terminus of the West of India Portu-

¹ See also above, p. 10.

guese Railway, lies on the left bank of the River Juari near its mouth. It is sheltered from the south-west monsoon, an advantage which is shared by no other port on that coast. The breakwater which protects the harbour is 1,500 ft. long. East of it, good anchorage may be obtained in a depth of 4 fathoms. Small vessels may anchor in $3\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms farther east. The port appears adequate for its needs as a terminus of the railway, considerable improvements having been recently made in the harbour. The breakwater has been extended to its present length; and the quay, which is of the same length, is being extended. The extension was almost completed in 1916, except certain parts which have been purposely postponed. A steam suction dredger has been established to meet Lloyd's requirement. There is one 25-ton steam-crane on the quay, and several smaller ones for loading. The railway company keep a small stock of coal, and will supply British ships when possible.

Coasting steamers call daily. In 1907, 1,080 vessels, of which 874 were British, with aggregate tonnage of 312,820, entered the port. In 1912, 75 ocean-going vessels, with a tonnage of 174,020, visited the port, of which 46 were British with a tonnage of 112,076 and 23 were German with a tonnage of 46,985; the other 6 vessels (3 Austrian, 1 Swedish, 1 Norwegian, 1 Dutch) had an aggregate tonnage of 14,849. The chief exports are caju-nuts, coco-nuts, fruit, salt, manganese ore, and cotton seed; the chief imports are coal, grain, pulse, cotton fabrics, kerosene oil, paper, tobacco. A good deal of the trade is in British hands. Marmagão is about 280 miles south of Bombay, 6,060 miles from Lisbon. It is the only port in Goa possessing railway connexions.

Panjim,¹ the capital of Goa for a century and a half,

¹ See also above, p. 10.

is on the island of Tissuadi, lying on the left bank of the River Mandavi, a little above the entrance of Aguada Bay. It is only available as a harbour for half the year, despite its deep water, because of its exposure to the south-west monsoons. There is anchorage for large vessels in 9 fathoms outside the harbour, and closer inshore by Aguada Head at three-quarters of a mile in $4\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms. There is a sea-wall and quay, alongside which boats can lie at all states of the tide. The channel is buoyed, and a Government pilot is obligatory. The port is connected with Marmagão by a coasting steamer which rounds Cabo Point; Indian coasting steamers call daily. The trade is insignificant, but the town contains good artisans (see pp. 32, 42). The chief export is salt; other exports are cajú-nuts, coco-nuts, fruit, spice, salted fish, gum, and coir-work; the chief imports are rice, cloth, sugar, wine, tobacco, and hardware. In 1903-4 the total number of ships entered was 2,874, and cleared 2,814.

Damão,¹ on both banks of the Damanganga, is of little importance as a port. It is unwise to enter it without a pilot, but vessels up to 500 tons sometimes moor abreast the forts. Anchorage can be obtained in 5 fathoms in Damão roads about 4 miles west of the lighthouse. Damão is a good place for small vessels to make necessary repairs. Many vessels of from 500 to 900 tons burden have been built in the Damanganga.

*Diu*² harbour is formed between the mainland and the eastern end of the island. It is exposed to the east, the holding-ground is indifferent, and vessels should not anchor there in strong easterly winds. There is anchorage in 3 to 4 fathoms about 1 mile east of Gogola.

¹ See also above, p. 11.

² See also above, p. 11.

(b) Shipping Lines

Most of the navigation from these ports is local, and coasting steamers are almost their only visitors. The railway company states that 13 ocean-going vessels made use of the port of Marmagão in 1915, and 9 in 1916. There is no Portuguese line between the mother country and any of these ports. From Bombay steamers of the British India Company and Shepherd's Company reach Marmagão in 26 hours. In normal times vessels of the Royal Dutch and Rotterdam Lloyd Lines called regularly at Lisbon, and transhipped passengers and goods for Goa at Colombo. The Strick Line had monthly callings at Marmagão, and there were occasional callings by the Spanish Transatlantic Company, principally for cargo. The German East African Company used to call once a month on the voyage between Bombay and Africa, carrying cargo and passengers.

(c) Telegraphs

There is connexion with the Indian cable, and so communication with Lisbon, the cost of telegraphing being 55 *centavos* (about 2s. 5d.) a word. The submarine cable is laid in the Mandavi River.

(B) INDUSTRY**(1) LABOUR***(a) Supply*

The Goanese are well known as servants, and are so employed to a great extent in British India. Those who employ them are apt to make qualifications in their testimonials to character. In industry and application in the fields they differ to some extent in various parts of the country; those who live in

Ponda have the best name for diligence, but they are conservative in their methods. The same defect marks their work as artisans; they are able to supply local needs in sandal-making, but the work could be greatly improved by teaching.

(b) *Emigration and Immigration*

Emigration is mostly into British India and mostly from the Old Conquests. The numbers grew from 42,454 in 1906 to 47,430 in 1910. The emigrants are of various classes, most going as cooks, servants, and clerks, but some as doctors and lawyers. The money that they earn is sent back to Goa. They mostly retain Portuguese nationality, and do not naturalize themselves in British India, because they are Roman Catholics. Various causes have led to emigration in special localities. In Damão extreme poverty and a feeling that not only liberty but religious convictions were thwarted by various restrictions led to emigration into British territory. In Sanguem the locusts have made such depredations that whole families have migrated into British India.

The other chief objective of emigrants is Portuguese East Africa, where the Goanese clerk and the Banyan trader are familiar figures. From Diu some of the inhabitants migrate to East Africa, and return when they have made sufficient money.

There is little immigration. As has been seen above, there is a mere handful of Europeans in the country; in Diu there are only three. The Portuguese come to Goa either as soldiers or sailors, and do not bring their wives. There is great mixture of races, even in the army. The Europeans do not keep apart from the Asiatics, or even the Africans; their habitations are not even in different parts of the towns.

Travellers are greatly impressed with the distinction between Portuguese and British India in this respect.

Another very different kind of immigrants are the Banyans, a Gujarat caste of traders, who live in Diu, and whose ability in petty commerce is familiar alike in Asia and Africa. The Parsee usurers of Nagar Haveli have already been mentioned (p. 12).

(2) AGRICULTURE

The condition of agriculture is not satisfactory. Considering the fertility of the soil and the possibilities of irrigation, much might still be done to develop the country. It suffers much from lack of transport. Beyond the radius of the navigable rivers there is little or none, and some parts, like Nagar Haveli, are practically devoid of means of communication; the railway serves much more to connect the British possessions of the interior with the sea than to open up Goa itself. No general figures of the agricultural output can be given, but the figures for particular districts and the table of exports serve in some degree to illustrate the actual position of affairs.

(a) *Products of Commercial Value.*

Vegetable.—Goa falls into three zones: the wooded slopes of the Ghats; an intervening steppe region with short grass; and the lowlands up to the sea-shore. It is the last region which contains most of the cultivated crops. On the whole the land is fertile, but it has not been adequately developed. Only one-third of the total area is under cultivation, and of this only one-tenth will bear crops all the year round; the remainder is dependent wholly on the rains.

There are fine *forests* in the New Conquests, with a

total area of 116 square miles ; the best are in Pernem, Satari, Embarbacem, and Canacona. Even more extensive are the forests of Nagar Haveli, which are the property of the State. The principal timber is teak, which constitutes two-thirds of the Nagar Haveli forests ; there are four varieties of this, the hardest of which is *chicatia*. Teak is much used in boat-building ; the teak of Damão is better than that of Goa. The next commonest tree is that which is called *sadra* in Damão, and *mareta* in Goa (*Terminalia tomentosa*) ; its wood is of poor quality, but its leaves are used for feeding silk-worms and its bark for tanning fishing-nets. The jack (*Autocarpus integrifolia*) is next best to teak for its timber ; it is of value also for its fruit. Other trees of valuable timber are the *jumba* (*Inga xylocarpa*) ; *nanon* (*Lagerstroemia microcarpa*) ; *ker* or *pau ferro* (*Acacia catechu*, iron-wood), which is not attacked by insects ; *Bassia latifolia*, the well-known Mahawa tree ; *lal ker* (*Acacia sundra*), *babul* (*Acacia arabica*), and *sisso* (*Dalbergia sissoides*). The *babul* is not found much in the forests, but is usually solitary or dispersed in little groves over the plains. The *sisso* or rose-wood has suffered greatly from the reckless way in which the woodland has been treated.

Besides trees valuable for their timber, *fruit-trees* are numerous. Several kinds of palms grow in the territory, the most valuable of which are the coco-nut and the areca or betel palm. The coco-nut, which grows all along the coast and on ground not hilly nor used for rice, produces timber, fibre from its coir, leaves for thatching houses, copra, and the juice called *sura*, from which are produced a vinegar called *sirco*, a spirit called *cajulo*, and another alcoholic distillation called *finim*. A coco-nut tree can produce $94\frac{1}{2}$ gallons of *sura* in a year ; one palm will produce 100 coco-nuts a year, and the *sura* can be extracted every

day. The value of coco-nuts, together with copra and coir, is very considerable. In 1905-6 it amounted to 300 *contos*¹ (£66,000), but against this must be set the fact that at the same time the deficit in cereals was just double that figure. The methods, also, of cultivating coco-nut are costly, as more is taken out of the soil than is returned to it in the form of manure.

The areca-palm (chiefly grown in irrigated lands in the New Conquests) produces seeds which are eaten with the leaves of the Piper Betel and hence commonly known as betel-nuts. In Ponda the yield of the areca is 80 rupees per acre, in Ilhas 59 rupees. But the export of betel-nuts is not what it used to be. From *caju*, a valuable fruit-tree, is derived *jagra* or jaggery, the coagulated juice which serves as a rough sugar. *Caju*, of which the export is on the average valued at 27,000 *escudos* (i. e. £6,000), is very important, but the trade might be considerably developed with more careful cultivation and better means of transport.

Other varieties of palm are the Palmyra palm, from which arrack is derived; the wild palm (*Caryota urens*), which also supplies jaggery, and the date-palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*), which supplies the edible date.

Among the other chief fruit-trees is the mango, which flourishes in Ilhas (where it yields 150 rupees per acre) and Sanguem, and supplies good timber as well as fruit. The jack has already been mentioned; the fruit is appreciated by natives but not by Europeans. The tree yields dye, fibre, fruit, timber, and spirit. The banana, of which there are three varieties, is grown especially in Bardez, where it has proved profitable. The tamarind must also be mentioned; and oranges and guava grow in Sanguem.

The *bamboo* grows in all parts of the country—there

¹ The word *conto*, originally *conto de reis* (i. e. 1,000,000 *reis*), is retained for 1,000 *escudos* (i. e. *milreis*).

are five varieties of it, out of the total of 117 to be found in India—and is invaluable for the number of things made from it. It grows entirely wild, and nothing is done to stimulate or control its production. *Tobacco* is grown in various parts of the territory.

The principal crop is *rice*, of which there are 32 varieties in the territory. It is grown in lowlands near the banks of rivers, on slopes of hills (*mollas*), in stiff grounds (*dulpan* or *dulip*), and in sandy soils. There are two crops in the year—one, called *serodio*, being sown in May and reaped in September, and another, called *vangana*, sown in December and reaped in March. The latter crop is in great part irrigated from rain-water reservoirs and wells. Some lands will bear both crops, especially reclaimed dune-land, which retains its moisture till the period of the rains; but the bulk is used for *serodio* only, owing to lack of manure and proper irrigation.¹ In spite of the double crop, the yield per acre is only 40 rupees. In Satari it is only 8 rupees. It is suggested that there should be more rotation of crops, that other products which are successful in the neighbouring parts of British India should be grown instead, and that, even if rice is cultivated to its present extent, varieties of rice that require less water should be grown.

Other *cereals* are grown on the hilly and inferior tracts, especially *bajra* (spiked millet), *kodra* (eleusine), *tori* (Indian rape), *gergelim* (sesame), two kinds of bean, *mung* (the Rangoon bean), and *urd*, a pulse held in high esteem, of which the green pods are eaten as vegetables. *Nachinim* and *kulti* (horse gram) are grown in similar soils. *Chola* (chick-pea) is a very subordinate crop.

¹ In times of drought supplies of rice must be obtained, at great cost, from British territory; it is only when there is famine beyond the frontier that there is extreme distress in Goa.

In the villages are grown potatoes, radishes, yams, melons, cucumbers, and in some cases chillies, turmeric, ginger, and *brinjal* (egg-plant), which is used in curries, and eaten both by Europeans and natives when prepared in special ways.

Sugar-cane is grown in Goa, but not enough for the needs of the population. It has been argued from the analogy of similar parts of British India that sugar-cane might give 120 rupees per acre, but at present Goa imports the bulk of its sugar. *Wheat* requires a higher elevation than the cultivated lands of Portuguese India. Not enough has been done with *maize*; it will grow well in the Old Conquests and might be substituted for rice in certain parts, as it requires much less water and supplies more food for cattle. In Satari, besides the fields of cereals, there are plantations of cotton, cocoa, coffee, and cinchona. Some experiments have been made with *rubber*; there is the nucleus of a *hevea* plantation in the neighbourhood of Ponda; and individual proprietors have of late put down small experimental plots of both *hevea* and *castilloa*. It has been thought that *Hancornia speciosa* (which yields a third-grade rubber), approximating as it does so closely to *caju*, would grow wherever *caju* is found growing wild, and that it might well be planted in such places as the lower hills and table-lands of Ilhas, and in Bardez, north of the Mapuça River.

In Nagar Haveli, where at present rice and inferior cereals and vegetables are the principal products, and those grown by very rudimentary methods of cultivation, it is said that not only sugar-cane, but tobacco, *gergelim* (sesame), the castor-oil plant, wheat, hemp, flax, and millet could be grown. *Capim*, a hay-grass of these regions, might become valuable for its straw. At present, in Damão as a whole, only one-twentieth of the available land is under cultivation.

Animal.—The Portuguese authorities are vague in their description of the animals of this country. The fauna is said to be varied and the hunting abundant.

The domestic animals are horses, donkeys, goats, cattle, sheep, pigs, and domestic fowls. There is practically no cattle-breeding; and, whether for slaughter or labour, the cattle are imported. In 1906 there were imported for slaughter 8,363 head of cattle, with a total value of 66,904 *escudos* (£14,860); in the same year the goats, sheep, and pigs imported cost 7,400 *escudos* (£1,640). Also in the same year the value of the imported Indian butter was 18,000 *escudos* (£4,000). And yet the imports came from neighbouring lands enjoying no natural advantages over the Portuguese colonies, so that it would seem that enterprise in these directions would secure a legitimate reward.

(b) *Methods of Cultivation*

The Goanese is not a good labourer, and his work is not remunerative. As a rule he works the ground with his hands; only when the soil is very hard does he use the hoe; and the spade is unknown to him. The machinery, methods of irrigation, &c., now in use are primitive. The plough consists of a curved piece of wood, sometimes worked by hand, sometimes by oxen. It turns the earth to a depth that seldom amounts to more than 5 inches. The Old Conquests are usually better cultivated than the New.

The cultivated area does not produce sufficient to support the population. The deficit is made good by the earnings of the 25,000 to 30,000 residents who migrate to British India for work, remitting money to their families and returning to Goa when they have saved a competency.

Artificial fertilizers are unknown among the natives,

and the sanctity of the cow has hindered even the adequate use of cow-dung. Ashes, salt, and fish are the chief manures. The ashes are largely procured from the cutting down of trees and the lopping of their branches, which has proved so detrimental to the forests of the country. It may be added that agriculture suffers much from locusts and mosquitoes. The former have produced great impoverishment in Sanguem, causing the emigration of entire families into British India. The latter infest the marshy districts, especially those near the forests.

Irrigation.—In 1899, under the guidance of Governor Machado, a department of hydraulic services was created, and various schemes for irrigation, drainage, and the improvement of river navigation have been proposed, some of which (but none of great magnitude) have been carried out. The chief need has been for permanent reservoirs; at present the tanks (*lagoas*) which are constructed are filled for only a portion of the year, with the exception of very few, among which is that on the estate of the Conde de Malem. This tank measures 700 by 150 metres. Sr. Castelbranco has made a tour through the whole country, and points out the great possibilities of storage and irrigation canals that it possesses. One work of great importance has been partly executed—the irrigation canal of Paroda, through a rice-growing district. It is to be nearly 10 miles long and is to have branches that amount to another $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles; it was expected that it would be nearly half finished in 1912. Eight reservoirs were to be constructed, and there is a project for a big reservoir in Sanquelim that will involve the removal of the little village of Quelim from its present site. At present the land has an elementary arrangement of dams that make a system of locks.

(c) *Forestry*

There is no scientific forestry, and the woods have suffered from the practice of *kumri* or shifting cultivation, when new land is cleared to replace old exhausted land, and *colvão*, where rights are conferred of lopping trees at a certain height. In the neighbourhood of the railway the woods have suffered material loss through the amount of timber which has had to be supplied to the company. In 1903-4 the revenue derived from forests, apart from timber supplied for State works, was £1,600, while the expenditure was £700. The forests of Nagar Haveli are not preserved, and their exact proportions are unknown.

(d) *Land Tenure*

It was stated in general terms at the beginning of the present century¹ that the condition of the agricultural classes in the Old Conquests had on the whole improved during the latter half of the nineteenth century, but that in the New Conquests there were many instances of severe oppression by the landowners and usurers (called *alcistas* in Goa and *saucares* in Damão). These latter obtain 75 per cent. of the earnings of the tenant as interest for the money that he borrows for purchase of food, seeds, cattle, and agricultural implements. The land is owned by the Government, the 'communities', other authorities (called generally *confrarias*), and private individuals. Governor Machado established a cadastral survey department because of the constant difficulties that arose between these various owners about the boundaries of their respective properties.

The communities (*comunidades*) were found by the

¹ See José de Nascimento Pinheiro, *Boletim da Sociedade de Geographia de Lisboa*, 1902.

Portuguese already existing, and are a very ancient institution, which may have been even earlier than the coming of the Mahrattas.¹

Properties are small. Throughout Goa a holding of 15 or 16 acres is regarded as a good-sized farm; most are smaller. In the Old Conquests most properties are owned by private individuals; as property-holders the 'communities' come next, then other associations, and lastly the State. In the New Conquests the State owns about two-thirds, and is the owner of all land in Nagar Haveli and of a great deal in Diu.

(3) MINERALS

Goa.—The territory is probably not rich in minerals, but it has been very little surveyed. The laterite which occurs in the chief geological formations of the country contains a certain amount of iron. It is found in Bardez, Satari, and Pernem, but especially in Embarbacem and Astagrar, where a great amount is extracted. More important is the extraction of manganese. In 1906 deposits of it were discovered near Marmagão, and there are six companies with about twenty mines at work.

Damão.—There are no useful minerals in Damão.

Diu.—In Diu there is clay for making tiles and other objects. Stone is extracted for building, but it is of poor consistency and easily crumbles.

Salt is the only commodity of which more is produced than is required by the inhabitants. The export is considerable; in 1911 it was valued at £7,494, in 1912 at £8,003. There are in these colonies 501 salt-works. Of these 171 are in Ilhas, 234 in Salsette, 73 in Bardez, 23 in Pernem; the number of men employed is 1,968. In Damão there

¹ For the curious history of these communities, see above, p. 20.

are 11 salt-works, employing 576 men; in Diu 8, employing 132. The total output is about 12,000 tons, and may be valued at 276,435 *escudos* (£61,430). Salt is used for salting fish (one of the other local industries); the inferior kinds serve for manure. Unfortunately the methods of production are very primitive; the salt-pans do not furnish as much as they might, and what they do produce is none too clean in appearance. Insufficient attention is paid to the channels that bring in the water.

(4) MANUFACTURES

Manufacturing industries are few. Some cloth is woven on hand-loom for local consumption. Formerly Damão did a great trade in cotton fabrics, opium, dyeing, and weaving. There is still some weaving done by wives of Mussulman sailors; piece-goods made from a mixture of English and country twist are exported to Goa, Diu, and Portuguese East Africa. The principal industry of Damão is mat- and basket-making from palm leaves and bamboo. Its other principal industry is deep-sea fishing, chiefly on the coast of Kathiawar, the fish being cured on board. Owing to the good timber of the neighbourhood, rough agricultural implements and carts are made here.

Among other industries of the Portuguese Possessions are the extraction of vegetable oils, the distillation of various kinds of spirits, the extraction of sugar from the small amount of sugar-cane which is cultivated, and of jaggery from palms, coir-making, tile-making and pottery (especially in Damão), rough agricultural implements, and a little copper- and other metal-working. In some villages there are carpenters, iron-workers, goldsmiths, sandal-makers, and tailors. Sandal-making has developed most among these indus-

tries, and is sufficient to meet the needs of the population. The art of the goldsmiths is rudimentary, but characteristically Indian. A man is a goldsmith, not because he has any special aptitude for that work, but because all his ancestors have been goldsmiths and he belongs to the goldsmiths' caste.

The occupations of Diu were formerly dyeing and weaving, and it was of commercial importance and populous, but it has sunk to insignificance, and its chief occupation now is fishing.

(5) POWER

The only waterfall capable of affording a regular supply of power is that of Dudsagor in Embarbacem, which it has been proposed to use in order to supply power for a spinning and weaving factory; but complaint is made that the amount of water is insufficient, because in British territory the stream is used for irrigation purposes.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

The towns, few in number, act as centres for their districts; in the absence of good roads across the frontier, and of any means of transport away from the railway and river estuaries, they naturally have a restricted radius. Occasionally a fair of importance, as at Mapuça, makes a town a commercial centre for a certain period in the year. Other places, like Naroli, are centres for the agricultural products of the neighbourhood.

(2) FOREIGN

The figures given below apply to the whole of Portuguese India, but are almost exclusively concerned with the two ports of Marmagão and Panjim and with the railway, the trade of Damão and Diu being almost negligible.

(a) Exports

Quantities.—The last years for which the figures are given completely are 1912 and 1913. A comparison of those items for which the bulk is given shows how greatly the trade fluctuates from year to year. The principal export is coco-nuts, of which the number and not the weight is given. In 1912, 34,335,635 were exported from Portuguese India; in 1913, 36,180,230. With this trade are connected copra and coir. Of the former, 309½ tons were exported in 1912, 92½ tons in 1913; of the latter, 37½ tons in 1912, 17½ tons in 1913. Of rice, 878½ tons were exported in 1912, and 4,946 tons in 1913. Dried and salted fish remained more stationary, being 1,418 tons in 1912 and 1,355 tons in 1913. Caju-nuts amounted to 1,574½ tons in 1912 and 2,070 tons in 1913. In Damão the exports are valued at about £2,700 annually.

Values.—The average annual value of exports for the years 1910–14 was 953,696 *escudos*, which, reckoning 4½ *escudos* as =£1, would represent a value of about £211,932 (but the rate of exchange varies). The total value of exports in 1913 was 1,020,402 *escudos* (£226,756), and in 1914, 898,016 *escudos* (£199,559). The principal exports in 1913 were :

Coco-nut, 498,297 *escudos* (£110,732).

Copra, 51,348 *escudos* (£11,410); with coir, 6,919 *escudos* (£1,548).

Caju-nuts, 76,924 *escudos* (£17,094).

Fruits, 69,276 *escudos* (£15,506).

Rice, 51,350 *escudos* (£11,411).

Dried and salt fish, 68,871 *escudos* (£15,305).

Salt, 39,814 *escudos* (£8,848).

The other exports included minerals and live stock. Of the exports, caju-nuts, copra, coir, salt, fruit, and fish had shown an increase ; rice was nearly stationary, coco-nuts had decreased. Most exports are free of duty, but there is a small tax on caju-nuts, coco-nuts, and minerals. The export of betel-nuts has diminished in importance.

Countries of Destination.—Most of the trade is with British India, especially Bombay. The trade with Portugal itself is very limited. In 1911 and 1912 the value of exports was estimated as follows :

<i>To</i>	1911. £	1912. £
British India . . .	166,734	148,611
Austria-Hungary . . .	2,726	160
Portugal . . .	649	137
Portuguese East Africa . . .	143	
Other countries . . .	560	

In 1916 the shipments direct to Europe amounted to 15,266 tons.

The trade is chiefly transit. The harbour of Margão and the railway from Castle Rock are the channel of nearly all the imports and exports. The amount of transit trade has depended mainly on the conditions made for the working of the railway. In 1892 the Portuguese repudiated the treaty of December 26, 1878, under which freedom of commerce, navigation, and transit between the territories of Great Britain and Portugal was established. But, although the Portuguese derived some financial advantage from this step owing to the freedom from treaty obligations, it seems to have been unwise to break away from commercial co-operation with British India.

(b) Imports

Quantities.—No recent figures are available.

Values.—The value of imports averages more than three times that of exports. But the effect of this large excess, which might be expected to react unfavourably upon the financial position of the colony, is said to be counteracted in great measure by the money remitted by emigrants from Goa into British India, where they accumulate savings.

In 1910–14 the average annual value of imports was 2,880,639 *escudos* (about £640,142, reckoned on the same basis as the exports); the total for 1913 was 2,984,651 *escudos* (£663,256), and for 1914, 2,802,100 *escudos* (£622,688). The principal items in 1912 were :

	<i>Rupees</i> ¹	£
Grain and pulse	26,05,173	173,678
Sugar	7,23,814	48,254
Cotton fabrics	7,16,618	47,774
Stamp-paper and stamps	2,49,963	16,664
Tobacco	2,36,170	15,745
Kerosene oil	2,12,781	14,185
Live-stock (oxen)	1,88,098	12,540
Drugs	1,26,795	8,453
Wines and spirits	1,15,626	7,708
Jaggery	1,10,814	7,387
Building material, tiles, &c.	1,05,713	7,047

Countries of Origin.—The principal contributor to the imports of Portuguese India is British India, the imports from which in 1912 were Rs. 65,55,320 (£437,021). The imports from Portugal fluctuate greatly. In the same year (1912) they were Rs. 3,45,787 (£23,052), which was more than twice as much as they had been the year before. The imports from Portuguese East Africa were valued at Rs. 7,406 (£494), and from

¹ In this table the value of the rupee is taken at $\frac{1}{15}$ of the £, but it fluctuates very much for the purposes of foreign exchange.

the other colonies of Portugal at Rs. 10,461 (£697). Imports from the other countries in 1912 were as follows :

<i>From</i>	<i>Rupees</i>	<i>£</i>
United Kingdom	93,031	6,202
Germany	28,220	1,881
France	24,015	1,601
Netherlands	10,339	689
British East Africa	8,294	553
China	7,763	517
Norway	5,808	387
Other countries	3,646	243

The total showed a decrease of about two lacs of rupees compared with the year before.

Duties to the amount of about 220,000 *escudos* (£48,800) annually are levied on imports.

(D) FINANCE

(1) PUBLIC FINANCE

The Budget of the Portuguese colonies in India tends normally to show an expenditure somewhat in excess of the revenue :

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Receipts.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Expenditure.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Deficit.</i>	<i>£</i>
1901-2	1,019 <i>contos</i>	(229,275)	1,028 <i>contos</i>	(231,300)	9 <i>contos</i>	(2,025)
1902-3	957 <i>contos</i>	(215,325)	1,074 <i>contos</i>	(241,650)	117 <i>contos</i>	(26,325)
1903-4	984 <i>contos</i>	(221,400)	1,151 <i>contos</i>	(258,975)	167 <i>contos</i>	(37,575)
1904-5	972 <i>contos</i>	(218,700)	1,110 <i>contos</i>	(249,750)	138 <i>contos</i>	(31,050)

1 *conto* = 1,000 *escudos* (4s. 6d.)

There was an improvement at the end of the first decade of this century, and the figures for 1909-10 were :

<i>Receipts.</i>	<i>Expenditure.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Surplus.</i>
1,079 <i>contos</i>	1,062 <i>contos</i>	(238,950)	17 <i>contos</i> (3,825)

But the estimated revenue for 1916-17 was 1,060,398 *escudos* (£238,589 11s.), and the estimated expenditure

1,423,474 *escudos*¹ (£320,281 17s. 6d.), leaving an estimated deficit of 363,076 *escudos* (£81,692 6s. 6d.).

The sources of revenue are land-tax, customs, postal dues, seal and stamp duties, tobacco licences, taxes on liquor, salt, &c. The revenue from customs is pledged for the payment of interest on the construction of the railway from Marmagão.

(2) CURRENCY AND EXCHANGE

Currency.—The coinage of the mother country was altered by a decree of the Provisional Government on May 22, 1911. The unit is now the gold *escudo*, of 100 centavos, which is equivalent to the 1-*milreis* gold piece, and is worth normally about 4s. 5¼d. (but the rate varies; the average for 1915 was 3s. 0¼d.). The *reis*, which is the thousandth part of a *milreis*, but not coined, is no longer reckoned. A *conto* is the name for 1,000 *escudos*. There are gold coins of 2, 5, and 10-*escudo* pieces, silver coins of 1 *escudo* (0.835 fine) and 50, 20, and 10-*centavo* pieces, bronze and nickel coins of 4, 2, 1, and ½-*centavo* pieces.

The coinage of the colony has also been altered of recent years. It used to possess a silver coinage of *xerafins* and a copper coinage of *tangas*; and, by an arrangement made in 1840, salaries were paid one-third in copper and two-thirds in silver. From then till 1878 the value of money differed greatly in Goa and British India, while in Damão and Diu British coinage circulated in preference to Portuguese. A convention was made in 1878, by which the Portuguese coinage was remodelled on the basis of what circulated in British India. There is now a silver coinage of a rupee (180 grains Troy), ½ rupee, ¼ rupee, and ⅛ rupee

¹ Ordinary expenditure, 1,403,513 *escudos*; extraordinary, 19,961 *escudos*.

(tanga). There is a copper coinage of $\frac{1}{2}$ tanga (200 grains), $\frac{1}{4}$ tanga, $\frac{1}{8}$ tanga, and real or $\frac{1}{12}$ tanga. The name *xerafin* seems to be applied to the silver coin which is worth $\frac{1}{2}$ a rupee, but a *xerafin* of copper is worth $\frac{1}{3}$ of a rupee.

The *escudo* of gold is current in all the colonies of Portugal; the English pound sterling is also current at the rate of 15 rupees or $4\frac{1}{2}$ *escudos*.

Exchange.—The depreciation in the value of silver and the fall in the price of the rupee have been very disconcerting to the business men of these territories. But the difficulty would have been very much greater, if it were not that the bulk of the business is done with British India. The coins of either country can be used in the other's dominions, and the value will be subject to the same fluctuations. The difficulty is considerably increased in the foreign trade, but for that the English pound sterling is largely used. The value of the rupee was fixed at first at 400 *reis*, but this was an exaggerated estimate, and in 1910 it was fixed at 350 *reis*.

By the convention of 1878 the Governor of the Portuguese colony was given full authority to circulate paper money of the face-value of 5 rupees in copper, and 10, 20, 50, 100, and 500 rupees in silver, up to the maximum of 4 per cent. of the value of the money in circulation.

(3) BANKS

There is a branch at Panjim of the Banco Nacional Ultramarino. There has also been established a system of savings-banks (*Caixa Economica Postal*); in these the depositors have the right to interest at not less than 2 per cent., nor more than 5 per cent., per annum. The present rate of interest is fixed at 3 per cent. The smallest amount that can be deposited is 4 *tangas*.

AUTHORITIES

HISTORICAL

THE early stages of the connexion of the Portuguese with India are recorded copiously. Barros (history ends 1526), Conto (history, 1526–1600¹), and Bocarro (history, 1612–17), are official chroniclers. Others are Castanheda (history ends 1538) and Correa (to 1550 ; valuable after 1512).

Osorio (1571) and Maffeus (1574), two ecclesiastics, wrote histories in Latin. Albuquerque's Commentaries, compiled by his son, are valuable, but to some extent superseded by his original letters, published in 1884. Two volumes of papers elucidating these have appeared. Faria y Souza, a rhetorical Spaniard, published a history in three volumes in 1674, but there is no further similar chronicle, and recourse must be had to original documents.

The so-called *Book of the Monsoons*, published by the Lisbon Academy in 4 vols., prints records from 1598 to 1618. The India Office has manuscript copies of documents under the same title from 1616 to 1651 ; and in the same office there are manuscript copies of Portuguese records under the following titles :

Conselho Ultramarino	. . .	1614–1793
Gavetas	. . .	1511–1711
Evora and Pombal Letters	. . .	1572–1806
Noticias da India	. . .	1475–1750
Corpo chronologico	. . .	1500–1630

Nine vols. of original documents from the Goa archives, in 6 series, have been printed in Goa in the *Arquivo Portuguez Oriental*, and 3 vols. of documents in the same manner from the Goa High Court.

Travellers have given us detailed accounts of Goa city and its social life ; the more prominent are M. Dellon, Pietro della Valle, John Fryer, François Leguat, Jean Mocquet, François Pyrard, Ludovico di Varthema, Sir R. Burton.

The contents of the magazine *O Oriente Portuguez*, published

¹ Where untouched, his history is a valuable one, but it has been much mutilated and tampered with by interested persons.

in Goa, are valuable ; and the account of Portuguese India in the Bombay portion of the Indian Gazetteer is important.

The only modern English works dealing with the early history of the Portuguese possessions are R. S. Whiteway's *Rise of the Portuguese Power in India, 1497-1550*, London, 1899, and J. J. A. Campos's *History of the Portuguese in Bengal*, Calcutta and London, 1919.

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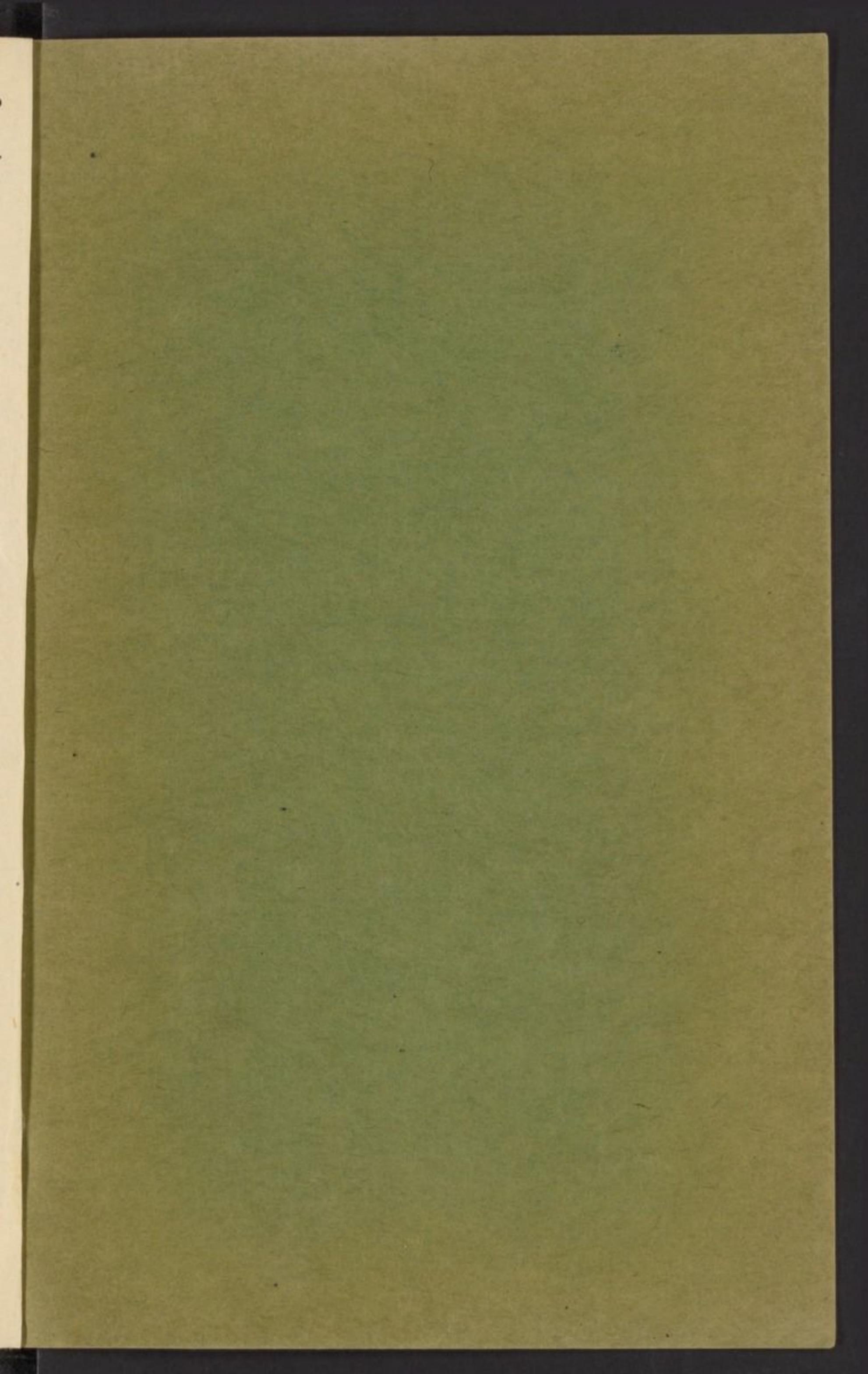
MAPS

The Atlas Colonial Portugues, published by the Ministerio das Colonias in 1914, contains a map of Goa on the scale of 1 : 250,000, and one of the I. de Angediv on that of 1 : 24,000. Provisional issues of sheets 48 E, I, and J of the Degree sheet series, published by the Surveyor-General of India, cover Goa on the scale of 1 : 253,400, and are corrected to 1915.

For Damão there is a map, on the scale of 1 : 250,000, in the Atlas Colonial Portugues of 1914 ; and sheets on the scale of 1 : 63,360, prepared from surveys between 1880 and 1895, are published by the Surveyor-General of India.

For the island of Diu the map in the Atlas Colonial Portugues is on the scale of 1 : 60,000 ; and the sheets on the scale of 1 : 63,360, published by the Surveyor-General of India, are prepared from surveys previous to 1880.

The Possessions are shown in four Naval Staff Intelligence Division Maps : (1) India (general), small scale ; (2) Damão, scale 1 : 500,000 (Ordnance Survey, Jan. 1919) ; (3) Diu, scale 1 : 125,000 (Ordnance Survey, Jan. 1919) ; (4) Goa, scale 1 : 500,000 (Ordnance Survey, Jan. 1919).



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