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CHAPTER VII.

HISTORY.

THE early history of Ahmadnagar centres in Paithan, or Pratishtán, on the left bank of the Godávári, in the Nizám's territory, about two miles east of the Ahmadnagar frontier and about fifty miles north-east of Ahmadnagar. The earliest reference to Paithan appears to be in the fourteenth rock edict of the great Mauryan emperor Ashok (B.C. 240) where mention is made of the Ptenikas probably the people of Paithan.¹ Two inscriptions in the Pitalkhora caves in Khándesh, almost as old (B.C. 240) as Ashok's edicts, record gifts of two pillars built in the caves by two men from Paithan one of whom was a king's physician.² Paithan is the scene of the miracles worked by Sháliváhan the mythic founder of the Shak era which begins in A.D. 78.³ About A.D. 150 the Egyptian geographer Ptolemy notices Bathana the capital of Siri Polemios probably Shri Pulumáyi the Shátakarni or Ándhrabhritya king whose inscriptions have been found at Násik and Kárlé in Poona.⁴ About A.D. 247 the Greek author of the Periplus notes Plithana as one of the two chief trade marts in Dakhinabades or the Deccan, the other mart being the unidentified city of Tagar probably somewhere in the north-east of the Nizám's territories.⁵ The chief trade of Paithan was in onyx stones and fine muslins. To this day in the Bombay Presidency Paithan has preserved its name for silks, Paithani that is of Paithan being a common name for a rich silk robe and for the finest kind of turbans. The Ándhrabhrityas, whose power is believed to have lasted from about B.C. 90 to about A.D. 300, at one time ruled over the whole breadth of the Deccan from the mouth of the Krishna to Sopára in North-Konkan.⁶ With their capital at Paithan they always appear to have held the Ahmadnagar district. Probably also during the four hundred years ending with 670 the district was held by an early Ráshttrakuta dynasty (A.D. 400), whose coins have been found in Báglán in Násik and by the early Chalukya and western Chalukya kings (550-670) who were in great power in the Karnátak.⁷ The Bráhmancial Dhokeshvar caves in Párner, which Dr. Burgess places in the middle of the sixth century,

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B.C. 240 - A.D. 1294.

¹ Indian Antiquary, X. 272; Bhándárkar's Deccan Early History, 9.² Archaeological Survey of Western India, Separate Pamphlet, X. 39, 40; Deccan Early History, 9.³ Archaeological Survey of Western India, III. 55-56.⁴ Bertius' Ptolemy, 2-5; Arch. Sur. Sep. Pamph. X. 36; Bombay Gazetteer, XVI. 620-623.⁵ McCrindle's Periplus, 126.⁶ Bombay Gazetteer, XIII. 412.⁷ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 17-31.

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fall in this period.¹ The Ráshtrakuta kings (670-973) whose inscriptions have been found chiefly in the Bombay Karnatak and in smaller numbers in the Konkan, Gujarát, Khándesh, and Násik appear also to have held Ahmadnagar. Govind III. (785-810), perhaps the mightiest Ráshtrakuta king whose rule stretched from Márwár and Rajputána in the north to, at least, the Tungbhadra river in the south, in A.D. 808 from Morkhanda fort in Násik granted the village of Rátájuna in Ahmadnagar. The village is mentioned as lying in the Rásiyana sub-division and is apparently the present village of Rátájan about twenty miles north of Rásin in Karjat.² Of the Western Chálukyas (973-1190) who followed the Ráshtrakutas no trace appears in Ahmadnagar. To this period belong the caves and temple at Harishchandragad in Akola which from their style and from fragments of inscriptions, Dr. Burgess places in the tenth or eleventh century.³ After the Western Chálukyas, Ahmadnagar probably passed to the Devgiri Yádavs (1170-1310) who reigned for about a hundred years from Devgiri or Daulatabad about seventy-four miles north-east of Ahmadnagar. The twenty-six Hemádpanti temples and wells with their three undeciphered inscriptions which are scattered throughout the length and breadth of the district, belong chiefly to the Devgiri Yádavs whose ninth king Rámchandra's (1271-1310) minister was Hemádri the reputed builder of these temples. An interesting record of Rámchandra is preserved in the Dnyáneshvari a Maráthi work on theogony and metaphysics written in 1290 by the great Alandi Bráhman saint. Dnyáneshvar 'at Nivás, in which there is a ruler of the earth Rámchandra, who is an ornament to the Yádav race, the abode of all arts and the supporter of justice.'⁴

MUSALMÁNS.

The first Musalmán invasion of the Deccan took place in 1294, but the power of the Devgiri Yádavs was not crushed till 1318.⁵

¹ Fergusson and Burgess' Cave Temples of India, 403.

² Ind. Ant. VI. 71. The boundaries of the village as given in the grant leave no doubt that the village is Rátájan. To the east is the river Sinha the present Sina, to the south Vavulála the present Bábhulgaon, to the west Miriyathán the present Mirajgaon, and to the north Vadaha probably a village in the Nizám's territories beyond the Sina.

³ Cave Temples of India, 478.

⁴ Ind. Ant. IV. 354; Deccan Early History, 90. Nivás is Nevása thirty-five miles north of Ahmadnagar.

⁵ Briggs' Ferishta, I. 304. In 1294 Rámdev the ruling king of Devgad was surprised in his capital by Alá-ud-din Khilji the nephew of the Delhi emperor Jalál-ud-din Khilji, and forced to pay tribute. In 1297, Rámdev gave shelter to Rái Karan the refugee king of Gujarát, and neglected to pay tribute for three years (Ditto, I. 365). In 1306 Malik Káfur, Alá-ud-din's general, reduced the greater part of Maháráshtra, distributed it among his officers, and confirmed Rámdev in his allegiance (Ditto, I. 369). In 1309 Malik Káfur on his way to Telingan was received with great hospitality at Devgad by Rámdev (Ditto, I. 371). In 1310 Rámdev was succeeded by his son Shankardev. As Shankardev was not well affected to the Musalmáns Malik Káfur on his way to the Karnatak left some officers with part of the army at the town of Paithan on the left bank of the Godávári. (Ditto, I. 373). In 1312 Malik Káfur proceeded for the fourth time into the Deccan, seized and put Shankardev to death, laid waste Maháráshtra, and fixed his residence at Devgad (Ditto, I. 379), where he remained till Alá-ud-din in his last illness ordered him to Delhi. During Malik Káfur's absence at Delhi, Harpáldev the son-in-law of Rámdev stirred the Deccan to arms, drove out many Musalmán garrisons, and, with the aid of the other Deccan chiefs, recovered Maháráshtra. In 1318 Mubárk Khilji, Alá-ud-din's son and successor, marched towards the Deccan to chastise Harpáldev who fled at the approach of the Musalmáns, but was pursued, seized, and flayed alive. Mubárk

From 1318 Mahārāshtra began to be ruled by governors appointed from Delhi and stationed at Devgiri. In 1338 Muhammad Tughlik emperor of Delhi (1325-1351) made Devgiri his capital and changed its name to Daulatabad or the Abode of Wealth. In 1341 Musalmān exactions caused a general revolt in the Deccan, which, according to Ferishta, was so successful that in 1344 Muhammad had no part of his Deccan territories left him except Daulatabad.¹ In 1346 there was widespread disorder, and the Delhi officers plundered and wasted the land.² These cruelties led to the revolt of the Deccan nobles under the able leadership of an Afghān soldier named Hasan Gangu. The nobles were successful and freed the Deccan from dependence on Northern India.³ Hasan founded a dynasty, which in honour of his patron, a Brāhman, he called Bahmani that is Brāhmani, and which held the command of the Deccan for nearly 150 years. The Bahmani capital was first fixed at Kulbarga about 185 miles south-east of Ahmadnagar, and in 1426 was moved to Bedar or Ahmadabad-Bedar about 100 miles further east. By 1351, Alā-ud-din Hasan Gangu Bahmani, by treating the local chiefs and authorities in a liberal and friendly spirit, had brought under his power every part of the Deccan which had previously been subject to the throne of Delhi.⁴

In the troubles which ended in the establishment of the Bahmani dynasty the Kolis of the western Ahmadnagar hills gained a great measure of independence. One of them Papera Koli in 1346 was made chief of Jawhār in the North Konkan by the Bahmani king.

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Delhi Governors,
1318-1347.

Bahmanis,
1347-1490.

Kolis

appointed Malik Beg Laki, one of his father's slaves, to govern the Deccan, and returned to Delhi. Ditto, I. 389.

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, I. 426-427. This statement seems exaggerated, as in 1346 there were Musalmān governors at Raichur, Mudgal, Kulbarga, Bedar, Bijāpur, Ganjauti, Rāybag, Gulhari, Hukeri, and Berār. Ditto, 437. ² Briggs' Ferishta, I. 432-433.

³ Briggs' Ferishta, II. 285-291. Hasan Gangu, the first Bahmani king, was an Afghān of the lowest rank and a native of Delhi. He farmed a small plot of land belonging to a Brāhman astrologer named Gangu, who was in favour with the king. Having accidentally found a treasure in his field, he had the honesty to give notice of it to his landlord. The astrologer was so struck with his integrity that he exerted his influence at court to advance his fortunes. Hasan rose to a great station in the Deccan, where his merit marked him out among his equals to be their leader in their revolt. He assumed the name of Gangu in gratitude to his benefactor, and from a similar motive added that of Bahmani or Brāhmani by which his dynasty was afterwards distinguished. Briggs' Ferishta, II. 284-5; Elphinstone's History of India, 666. The dynasty consisted of the following eighteen kings, who were supreme for nearly 150 years (1347-1490) and continued to hold power for about thirty years more :

Bahmanis, 1347-1526.

NAME.	Date.	NAME.	Date.
Alā-ud-din Hasan	1347-1358	Humāyun	1457-1461
Gangu	1358-1375	Nizām	1461-1463
Muhammad I.	1375-1378	Muhammad II.	1463-1482
Muḥshid	1378	Māhmud II.	1482-1518
Dānd	1378-1397		
Māhmud I.	1397	<i>Nominal Kings.</i>	
Ghāṭās-ud-din	1397	Ahmad II.	1518-1520
Shams-ud-din	1397-1422	Alā-ud-din III.	1520-1522
Firoz	1422-1435	Vali	1522-1526
Ahmad I.	1435-1457	Kalip	1526
Alā-ud-din II.*			

* Briggs' Ferishta, II. 291-292; Grant Duff's Marāthās, 25.

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Bahmanis,
1347-1490.

Kolis.

The Jawhár territories at first included a considerable part of the Ahmadnagar district.¹ They had twenty-two forts and a yearly revenue of £90,000 (Rs. 9 *lákhs*).² So long as they remained quiet the Bahmani kings seem to have left the Kolis practically independent under their own chiefs. Western Ahmadnagar and Poona were divided into Fifty-two Valleys or Bávan Mávals, each under an hereditary Koli chief or *náik* with the rank of a *sardár* or noble in the Bahmani kingdom. The head of the Fifty-two Valleys, with the title of Sar Náik or Chief Captain, was a Musalmán whose head-quarters were at Junnar in Poona.³

In 1357, Alá-ud-din divided his kingdom into four provinces or *tarafs*, over each of which he set a provincial governor or *tarafdár*. Ahmadnagar formed part of the province of Maháráshtra, of which Daulatabad was the centre and which included the country between Junnar, Daulatabad, Bid, and Paithan on the north, and Poona and Cheul on the south. This was the chief province of the kingdom, and was entrusted to the charge of the king's nephew.⁴ In 1366, in the reign (1358-1375) of Alá-ud-din's son and successor Muhammad Sháh Bahmani a false report of the king's death got abroad, and led several adventurers to cause disturbances. Among them was Bairám Khán Mázindaráni whom the king's father had honoured with the title of Son. Finding the country empty of troops, he appropriated to his own use the Daulatabad treasures, gathered followers, and combined with Govindadev a Marátha chief to raise the standard of revolt. Some of the Berár chiefs and also the Rája of Báglán in North Násik secretly sent troops to aid him. Most of the towns and districts of Maháráshtra fell into his hands, which he divided among his adherents, and in a short time gathered nearly ten thousand horse and foot. Muhammad Sháh wrote to Bairám Khán, promising, if he returned to his allegiance, to pardon him and his adherents. Bairám Khán paid no attention to this offer of pardon and increased his preparations for war. Muhammad Sháh sent Masnad Ali and Khán Muhammad, with the bulk of his army, in advance, intending to follow shortly after. Bairám Khán and his colleagues moved to Paithan where a great host of needy adventurers gathered round him. Masnad Ali, a veteran of much experience, halted at Shevgaon about forty miles north-east of Ahmadnagar. Bairám Khán attempted to surprise his camp, but was forced to retreat without effecting his object. Taking advantage of this success Masnad Ali was in the act of engaging the rebels, when the king, who was on a hunting expedition with only three hundred men, joined him. At this crisis the Báglán chief deserted the insurgents, and they hurriedly sought shelter in the fort of Daulatabad which next day was besieged by the king's troops. Bairám Khán and Govindadev made their escape, and the rebellion was at an end. Under the excellent rule of Muhammad Sháh Bahmani the banditti

Bairám Khán's
Revolt,
1366.

¹ The Jawhár chief held Ratangad fort in Akola in 1760. Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. I. 244.

² Mackintosh in Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. I. 240.

³ Mackintosh in Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. I. 238. This arrangement was continued by the Ahmadnagar kings and by the Moghals. The last head captain at Junnar was Muhammad Latif about 1670. Ditto.

⁴ Briggs' Ferishta, II. 295.

which for ages had harassed the trade of the Deccan were broken, and the people enjoyed peace and good government.¹ This period of prosperity was followed by the awful calamity of the Durga-Devi famine, when twelve rainless years (1396-1407) are said to have reduced the country to a desert. In the first years of the famine Máhmud Sháh Bahmani (1378-1397) is said to have kept ten thousand bullocks to bring grain from Gujarát to the Deccan, and to have founded seven orphan schools in the leading towns in his dominions.² No efforts of any rulers could preserve order or life through so long a series of fatal years. Whole districts were left without people, and the strong places fell from the Musalmáns into the hands of local chiefs.³ Before the country could recover it was again wasted by two rainless years in 1421 and 1422. Multitudes of cattle died and the people broke into revolt.⁴ In 1429 Malik-ul-Tujár the governor of Daulatabad, with the hereditary officers or *deshmukhs*, went through the country restoring order. So entirely had the country fallen waste that the old villages had disappeared and fresh villages had to be formed which generally included the lands of two or three of the old ones. Lands were given to all who would till them, free of rent for the first year and for a horse-bag of grain for the second year. This settlement was entrusted to Dádu Narsu Kále, an experienced Bráhmañ, and to a Turkish eunuch of the court.⁵ In 1460 over the whole of Southern India a failure of rain was followed by the famine known as Dámájipant's famine.⁶ Twelve years later a two years' (1472 and 1473) failure of rain so wasted the country, that, in 1474, when rain fell scarcely any one was left to till the land.⁷ The power and turbulence of their provincial governors was a source of weakness and danger to Bahmani rule. To remove this evil Máhmud Gáwán, the very learned and able minister of Muhammad Sháh Bahmani II. (1463-1483), framed a scheme under which the territories were divided into eight instead of into four provinces; in each province only one fort was left in the governor's hands; all others were entrusted to captains and garrisons appointed and paid from head-quarters; the pay of the captains was greatly increased and they were strictly compelled to keep their garrisons at their full strength.⁸ This scheme for reducing their power brought on Máhmud Gáwán the hatred of the leading nobles. They made false charges of disloyalty against him. The king was weak enough to believe the charges and foolish enough to order the minister's execution, a loss which Bahmani power never recovered (1481).

Máhmud Gáwán was succeeded in the office of Bahmani minister by Nizám-ul-mulk Bhairi,⁹ and about the year 1485 Bid

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Bahmanis,
1347-1490.*Durga Devi*
Famine,
1396-1407.¹ Briggs' Ferishta, II. 319-326.² Briggs' Ferishta, II. 349, 350. These towns were Cheul, Dábhól, Elichpur, Daulatabad, Bedar, Kulbarga, and Kándhár. ³ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 26.⁴ Briggs' Ferishta, II. 405-406.⁵ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 26.⁶ Lieut.-Colonel Etheridge's Report on Famines in the Bombay Presidency (1868).⁷ Briggs' Ferishta, II. 483, 493, 494.⁸ Briggs' Ferishta, II. 503, 504.⁹ Nizám-ul-mulk Bhairi was the son of the Bráhmañ *kulkarni* or village accountant of Páthri to the north of the Godávari. His original name was Timápa the son of

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Bahmanis,
1347-1490.*Ahmad Nizám,*
1485.

and other districts including Ahmadnagar were added to his estates. The management of part of these lands was made over to the minister's son Malik Ahmad, the future founder of the Nizám Sháhi dynasty of Ahmadnagar (1490-1636), who made Junnar in Poona his head-quarters. By the capture of Shivner the hill fort of Junnar, which contained five years' revenue of Maháráshtra Malik Ahmad was able to secure all the places of the greatest strength in west and south-west Poona. Nizám-ul-mulk, to strengthen his party, also raised to high rank Malik Waji and Malik Áshraf, two brothers formerly dependents of Máhmud Gáwán, appointing Malik Waji governor of Daulatabad and Malik Áshraf his deputy, at the same time exacting from them promises of attachment and fidelity to his son Malik Ahmad.¹ In 1486, Nizám-ul-mulk was assassinated at the Bedar court and Malik Ahmad assumed his father's titles under the name of Ahmad Nizám-ul-mulk Bhairi. When the time of mourning was over Ahmad Nizám devoted himself to improve the management of his country. Malik Ahmad's character as a general stood so high that no officer of the Bahmani government was willing to march against him though the court was anxious to reduce his power. The king sent repeated orders to Yusuf Adil Khán the governor of Bijápur to unite with Khwája Jahán Dakhani and Zain-ud-din Ali Tálsh the governor of Chákan in Poona to march against Ahmad Nizám at Junnar. Yusuf Adil Khán, who like Ahmad Nizám had determined to assume independence, evaded the duty, and told Ahmad Nizám of his danger. Ahmad Nizám appointed Zarif-ul-mulk Afghán his Chief of the Nobles or Amir-ul-Omra and to Nasir-ul-mulk Gujaráti he assigned the office of Mir Jumla or finance minister. Shaikh Movallid Arab one of the Bahmani generals volunteered to reduce Ahmad Nizám and reached Paránda on his way to Junnar.² Ahmad Nizám left his family in the fort of Junnar and marched to meet the royal army, but feeling unequal to face so numerous a force in open battle, he hovered round the king's camp with his cavalry and cut off their supplies. While the main body of the Bahmani troops continued their advance, Ahmad, by a sudden countermarch, took Chákan eighteen miles north of Poona. Meanwhile Nasir-ul-mulk, who was left with the main army to watch the Bahmani troops, ventured to attack and was twice defeated. Hearing of these reverses Ahmad Nizám rejoined his army and made a night attack on the enemy. The Bahmani troops were routed, and Ahmad Nizám taking all the heavy baggage,

Bhairu. He accompanied his father to the Karnátak during a famine in the North Deccan. While living in the Karnátak the Bráhman boy was taken prisoner by the Muhammadan troops in one of Ahmad Sháh Bahmani's expeditions (1422-1435) and brought as a slave to that monarch by whom he was named Malik Hasan. The king was so struck with his abilities that he made him over to his eldest son prince Muhammad as a companion, with whom he was educated and became an excellent Arabic and Persian scholar. From his father's name, Hasan was called Bhairu, and this the prince changed to Bhairi, the Falcon, or according to some accounts, the Falconer, an office which he is said to have held. When Muhammad succeeded to the throne he made Hasan a commander of a thousand horse. Briggs' Ferishta, III. 189-190.

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, II. 529.

² Paránda is in the Nizám's country about seventy-five miles south-east of Ahmadnagar.

elephants, and tents returned to Junnar and devoted himself to the civil management of his territories. Another Bahmani army of 18,000 men was despatched, but Ahmad Nizám as before avoided a battle and moved to the hills close to the present town of Ahmadnagar. When the Bahmani troops reached the Muri pass, forty miles south-west of Ahmadnagar, Ahmad Nizám with 3000 horse pressed towards Bedar, and, seizing the women of all the officers who had marched to attack him, moved with them towards Paránda taking care to treat them with proper respect. The officers of the Bahmani army sent him word that as he had treated their families so well they would not fight against him. On this assurance Ahmad sent the families back to Bedar and marched to Paránda. As his officers complained against the Bahmani general, a distinguished officer Jahángir Khán the governor of Telingan was sent to take his place. Meanwhile Khwája Jahán the governor of Paránda, unwilling to oppose Ahmad Nizám, sent his son Azim Khán to join him and himself retired into his fort. Ahmad Nizám applied for aid to Imád-ul-mulk Gávalli the ruler of Berár and fell back on Junnar. As Jahángir Khán the new Bahmani general occupied Paithan, Ahmad Nizám approached the Jeur pass where he was reinforced by Nasir-ul-mulk Gujaráti with a body of troops from Jálna and a convoy of provisions. He secured the Jeur pass and remained among the hills. Jahángir Khán, crossing the hills by the Devalgaon pass near Tisgaon, encamped at Bhingár about two miles north-east of the future site of Ahmadnagar, and both armies remained within twelve miles of each other inactive for nearly a month. This movement of Jahángir Khán effectually turned Ahmad Nizám's position and cut him off from any aid from Paránda. During the rains, fancying himself secure, Jahángir Khán gave himself to comforts and pleasures, an example which soon spread through his army. Ahmad Nizám, who had good intelligence of the state of the enemy, made a night attack on the 28th of May 1490, accompanied by Azim Khán of Paránda. They entered the enemy's camp as day broke and falling suddenly upon them completely routed the Bahmani troops. All officers of distinction were slain; others were taken prisoners and, mounted on buffaloes, were led about the camp and afterwards sent to Bedar. This victory was called the Victory of the Garden because on that spot Ahmad Nizám built a palace and laid out a garden.¹ Ahmad gave public thanks to God for his victory, granted a village near the spot as a residence for holy men, and returned victorious to Junnar. After this battle, by the advice of Yusuf Adil Sháh of Bijápur, who had already assumed independence (1489),² Ahmad

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Bahmanis,
1347-1490.*Ahmad Nizám,*
1485.

¹ This garden was improved by Ahmad's successor Burhán Nizám who walled it and called it Bāgh Nizám.

² Yusuf Adil Sháh of Bijápur was a Turk, a son of Amuráth (1421-1451) Sultán of Constantinople. He founded the family of the Adil Sháhi rulers of Bijápur consisting of nine sovereigns whose rule lasted nearly 200 years. See Bijápur Statistical Account. At the same time the Kutb Sháhi dynasty (1512-1609) was established under Sultán Kutb-ul-Mulk at Golkonda and the Berid Sháhi (1492-1609) under Kásim Berid at Bedar. Though kings, nominally supreme, continued to rule as late as 1526, the supremacy of the Bahmanis may be said to have ceased from the time when the Ahmadnagar (1490) and Bijápur (1489) governors threw off their

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Bahmanis,
1347-1490.*Ahmad Nizám*
assumes
Independence,
1490.

inserted his name in the public prayers and assumed the white canopy of independent rule. Khwája Jahán and other officers remonstrated, and Ahmad left his name out of the prayers and said the canopy was only to screen him from the sun. On this some of his officers began to use canopies and Ahmad allowed them, only insisting that no canopy but his should be lined with scarlet. Soon after his officers insisted that he should adopt the signs of a king and have his name read in the public prayers. Ahmad agreed, declaring it was only because they wished him. In the same year (1490) after a long siege Ahmad Nizám Sháh reduced Danda Rájápur, the land fort of Janjira in the central Konkan. He thus secured unbroken communication between his Deccan territories and the coast which the Ahmadabad kings held as far south as Oheul and the Bijápur kings held as far north as Bánkot, and possession of a large portion of that province. The two brothers Malik Waji and Malik Ashraf whom Ahmad Nizám's father had appointed to Daulatabad had kept on terms of friendship with Ahmad Nizám Sháh. To make their alliance closer, after the victory of the Garden, Ahmad Nizám Sháh gave his sister Bibi Zinat in marriage to Malik Waji. In due course a son was born. Malik Ashraf, who was anxious to found a kingdom for himself, assassinated both father and

allegiance and established themselves as independent rulers. According to Colonel Meadows Taylor, except Humáyun Sháh (1457-1461), the Bahmani kings protected their people and governed them justly and well. Among the Deccan Hindus all elements of social union and local government were preserved and strengthened by the Musalmáns, who, without interfering with or remodelling local institutions and hereditary offices, turned them to their own use. Persian and Arabic education was extended by village schools attached to mosques and endowed with lands. This tended to the spread of the literature and faith of the rulers, and the effects of this education can still be traced through the Bahmani dominions. A large foreign commerce centred in Bedar, the capital of the Deccan, which was visited by merchants and travellers from all countries. The Bahmani kings made few public works. There were no water works, no roads or bridges, and no public inns or posts. Their chief works were huge castles which after 500 years are as perfect as when they were built. These forts have glacis and counterscarps, covered ways, traverses, flanking bastions with curtains and intermediate towers, broad wet and dry ditches, and in all plain fortresses a *faussebraye* or rampart mound with bastions and towers in addition to the main rampart. No forcible conversion of masses of Hindus seems to have taken place. A constant stream of foreigners poured in from Persia, Arabia, Tartary, Afghanistan, and Abyssinia. These foreigners, who served chiefly as soldiers, married Hindus and created the new Muhammadan population of the Deccan. Architecture of Bijápur, 12-13. The names and dates of the Ahmadnagar, Bijápur, and Golkonda kings are :

Ahmadnagar, Bijápur, and Golkonda Kings, 1489-1872.

AHMADNAGAR.		BIJÁPUR.		GOLKONDA.	
Name.	Date.	Name.	Date.	Name.	Date.
Ahmad I. ...	1490-1508	Yusuf ...	1489-1510	Sultán Kul ...	1512-1543
Burhán ...	1508-1553	Ismáel ...	1510-1534	Jamshid ...	1543-1560
Husain ...	1553-1565	Mallu ...	1534	Ibráhim ...	1560-1581
Murtaza I. ...	1565-1588	Ibrahim I. ...	1534-1557	Muhammad ...	1581-1611
Mirán Husain ...	1588	Ali I. ...	1557-1580	Abdullah ...	1611-1672
Ismáil ...	1588-1590	Ibrahim II. ...	1580-1626	Abu Hasi ...	1672-1687
Burhán II. ...	1590-1594	Máhmud ...	1626-1656		
Ibráhim ...	1594	Ali II. ...	1656-1672		
Ahmad II ...	1595	Shikandar ...	1672-1686		
Bahádur ...	1595				
Murtaza II. ...	1605-1631				

son, and assumed independence at Daulatabad. Bibi Zinat sought her brother's protection and he in 1493 marched against Daulatabad. On his way he received letters from Kásim Berid, the minister of the Bahmani king Máhmud II. praying for aid against Yusuf Adil Khán who had besieged Bedar. Ahmad marched to Bedar, relieved it, and returned to Daulatabad which for two months he blockaded without success and then withdrew towards Junnar. On reaching Bhingár the site of his great victory over Jahángir Khán, midway between Junnar and Daulatabad, Ahmad resolved to found his capital there and from it determined to send an army every year to lay waste the country round Daulatabad till he reduced it. In 1494 he laid the foundation of a city close to the Bágh Nizám upon the left bank of the Sina river and called it after himself Ahmadnagar. In two years the city is said to have rivalled Bagdad and Cairo in splendour. After this the Ahmadnagar army took the field twice a year at the time of the early and the late harvests, to plunder the country near Daulatabad in order if possible to reduce the fort by famine. In 1495, Ahmad induced Khwája Jahán of Paránda to march to the aid of Dastur Dinár who held the country between the Bhima and Telingan and was anxious to establish his independence. He afterwards himself marched to join him, but hearing that peace was made between Dastur Dinár and the Bahmani king he returned to Ahmadnagar.¹ In 1498 as Yusuf Adil Sháh of Bijápur had marched against Dastur Dinár, Ahmad Nizám again went to his aid and caused Yusuf to retire. In the same year Ahmad Nizám Sháh, Yusuf Adil Sháh, and Imád-ul-Mulk of Berár resolved that they should divide the Deccan among them and that Ahmad Nizám should have Daulatabad, Antora, Gálna, and the country beyond those forts as far as the borders of Gujarát.² In 1499 Malik Ashraf the governor of Daulatabad prayed Máhmud Begada, the greatest of the Ahmadabad kings (1489-1511), who was on his way to Khándesh, to come to his aid. At the same time as Adil Khán Fárúkhi, the Khándesh king (1457-1503),³ requested Ahmad Nizám to meet the Gujarát king, Ahmad Nizám raised the siege of Daulatabad and repaired with 15,000 cavalry to Buráhánpur. Ahmad Nizám Sháh's general Nasir-ul-Mulk Gujaráti was sent to the Gujarát camp as ambassador. While he was there, at his master's instance, he bribed the Gujarát elephant-keepers at a fixed time to let loose a mad elephant. Ahmad Nizám Sháh at the head of 5000 infantry and 5000 cavalry made a night

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Ahmadnagar
Founded,
1494.

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 15-17.

² Briggs' Ferishta, III. 19.

³ The Khándesh family was founded by Malik Rája Fárúkhi a distinguished Arab officer in the Delhi army in 1399. Eleven successions lasted over nearly 200 years. The details are :

Khándesh Kings, 1399-1596.

NAME.	Date.	NAME.	Date.
Malik Rája (Nasir Khán)..	1399	Mirán Muhammad Sháh..	1520
Mirán Adil Khán	1437	Mirán Mubárik	1535
Mirán Mubárik	1441	Mirán Muhammad Khán..	1566
Adil Khán I.	1457	Rája Ah Khán	1576
Dáud Khán	1508	Bahádur Sháh	1596
Adil Khán II.	1510		

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attack on the Gujarát camp, and as the mad elephant was set free at the same moment, a panic seized the Gujarát troops, and Máhmud Begada with a few attendants fled for six miles. Soon after Ahmad Nizám made peace with Máhmud Begada and returned and laid siege to Daulatabad. Áshraf Khán once more applied for aid to Máhmud Begada, promising, if he would relieve him, to read the public prayers in his name and pay him tribute. On Máhmud Begada's approach with a large army, Ahmad Nizám Sháh raised the siege and retired to his capital. Áshraf Khán read prayers at Daulatabad in Máhmud Begada's name, went to his camp, and made him valuable presents, which he agreed to renew every year as his vassal. Máhmud Begada levied tribute from Khándesh and returned to Gujarát. No sooner had Máhmud left Khándesh than Ahmad Nizám Sháh again marched to Daulatabad, where the Marátha garrison, indignant at becoming tributary to Gujarát, sent offers of submission to Ahmad who surrounded Daulatabad with 30,000 men. When Malik 'Áshraf heard that his troops had lost respect for him, he fell ill and died in five days, and the garrison handed the fort to Ahmad Nizám. Ahmad gave orders for the repair of the fort, established a garrison of his own, returned to Ahmadnagar, raised a wall round the Bágh Nizám and in it built a palace of red stone. In the same year (1499) he reduced the forts of Antur and other places in Khándesh and forced the chiefs of Báglán and Gálna to pay him tribute. About 1502 Yusuf Adil Khán, having proclaimed the public profession of the Shia creed in Bijápur, Ahmad Nizám entered into a religious league with Amir Berid and the king of Golkonda. Amir Berid took Ganjauti, and Ahmad Nizám sent ambassadors to Bijápur demanding the surrender of Naldurg. Yusuf sent back an angry answer and recovered Ganjauti. Amir Berid now sent his son Jahángir Khán to Ahmadnagar with such urgent remonstrances that Ahmad was induced to march with 10,000 horse and a train of artillery which, with the troops of the other allies, formed a large force. Yusuf to turn the war from his own territory marched north and wasted Ahmad Nizám's territory near Bid. Being pursued by the allies he passed into Berár, and by the advice of the Berár king, recalled his edict in favour of the Shia faith and Ahmad Nizám was persuaded to detach himself from the league.¹ In 1507 Ahmad Nizám Sháh went with a large force to aid Alam Khán whose claim to the throne of Khándesh was disputed by his nephew Mirán Adil Khán. At Thálner, twenty-eight miles north-east of Dhulia, hearing of the approach of Máhmud Begada with a large force to help Mirán Adil Khán, with Alam Khán's consent he left 4000 cavalry with him and himself fell back on Gávalghar. The Ahmadnagar troops deserted Alam Khán and he shortly after joined Ahmad Nizám and craved his protection. Ahmad Nizám advanced to the Gujarát frontier and urged Máhmud Begada to grant Alam Khán a share of Khándesh. His ambassadors were treated with indignity, but Ahmad was not strong enough to

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 22-29: After the close of the war Yusuf re-established the public profession of the Shia faith and from that date till his death in 1510 no attempt was made to disturb his religion. See Bijápur History.

contend with the great Gujarát king, and returned quietly with Alam Khán to Ahmadnagar. He died in 1508 after naming as his successor his son Burhán, a child of seven years.

Among Ahmad's great qualities were continence and modesty. When any of his officers were backward on the day of battle it was his custom to reward instead of reproaching them. One of his courtiers asked the cause of this unusual conduct and Ahmad replied that princes like masters of the hunt alone know how to train for the chase. He was famous for his skill as a swordsman, and established schools for single stick and wrestling in all quarters of the city of Ahmadnagar. In all quarrels he who gave the first wound was considered the victor. In consequence of this encouragement, a crowd of young men assembled every day at the palace to show their skill as swordsmen, till at last a day seldom passed in which one or two combatants were not killed. This custom, so congenial to the Deccan Maráthás, spread far and wide, and, according to Ferishta, in his time (1588) learned divines and philosophers, as well as nobles and princes, practised duelling. Those who showed any backwardness were considered wanting in spirit.¹

²As Burhán Nizám Sháh was a child of seven Mukamil Khán Dakhani, an able statesman and general, was appointed Vakil or Protector, and his son, under the title of Aziz-ul-Mulk, received the office of Sar Nobat or Commander of the Household Troops. So much attention was paid to the education of the young prince, that, in his tenth year, he read poetry with ease and with proper emphasis and wrote exceedingly well.³ During the next three years the pride of Aziz-ul-Mulk, who, with his father had gained complete control over all the affairs of government, grew so unbearable that the other nobles strove to overthrow his influence, depose Burhán the young king, and raise Rája-ju his younger brother to the throne. Bibí Aisha, who had been nurse to the young king's mother, dressed Rája-ju in girl's clothes, and took him in her litter towards the city. Before she reached the city she was overtaken by the palace servants and brought back. Her object was discovered and the princes were closely watched. Soon after this the protector's enemies were persuaded to quit Ahmadnagar with eight thousand followers. They entered the service of Alá-ud-din Imád-ul-Mulk, ruler of Berár, and excited him to attack Burhán Nizám's dominions. Imád-ul-Mulk marched with a large army. At Ránuri near the frontier he was met by the protector, aided by Khwája Jahán Dakhani of Paránda, and totally defeated (1510). He fled without halting till

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*Burhán Nizám
Sháh,
1508-1553.*

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 208. Syeds Murtaza and Hasan, two old and respected courtiers, had a trifling dispute with three Dakhani brothers also men of age and position. The parties met in a street at Bijápur in Ferishta's presence and fought with fury. First the son of Syed Murtaza, a youth of twenty was killed by one of the Dakhanis. The father and uncle engaged the other two Dakhanis but they also were killed. Before their bodies were removed the three Dakhanis had died of the wounds they had received. Ditto.

² Briggs' Ferishta, III. 210-236.

³ Ferishta mentions seeing in the royal library at Ahmadnagar a treatise on the duties of kings copied by Burhán Nizám at the age of ten.

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he reached Elichpur leaving his baggage, horses, and elephants. Through the intercession of the king of Khándesh he concluded a peace with Mukamil Khán. Burhán, who accompanied the forces, on account of his tender age, was seated on the same saddle with his tutor Ajdar Khán. Some time after this Burhán Nizám Sháh's Hindu relations, the accountants of Páthri in Berár expressed a wish to recover their ancient rights in the village. Mukamil Khán wrote to Imád-ul-Mulk, requesting him as a favour to Burhán Nizám Sháh to give up Páthri and receive another district in its stead. Imád-ul-Mulk refused the exchange and built a fort at Páthri. Some time after Mukamil Khán, going on a pleasure party to Elura, made a sudden march against Páthri, carried it by assault, and left the fort in charge of Mián Muhammad Ghuri who distinguished himself on the occasion, and was honoured with the title of Kamil Khán. When the young king reached manhood he married a dancing girl called Amina and placed her at the head of the palace. He also learnt to drink wine. Mukamil Khán the protector, aware that his influence was failing, approached the throne, laid the seals of office at the king's feet, and called upon the king as he was able to conduct state affairs to excuse him from interfering in public business. Burhán agreed to Mukamil's request, raised his sons to high rank, and from this time Mukamil led a retired life till his death.

Barbosa,
1510.

Of the kingdom of Ahmadnagar in the early years of the sixteenth century Barbosa the Portuguese traveller writes¹: On coming out of Gujarát towards the south and in the inner parts of India is the kingdom of the Dakhani king. The king is a Moor and a large part of his people are Gentiles. He is a great lord and has many subjects and a large territory which stretches far inland. It has very good sea ports of great trade in the goods used on the mainland, the chief being Cheul in Kolába about thirty miles south of Bombay.

In 1523, Bibi Mariam, the sister of Ismáel Adil Sháh of Bijápur, was given in marriage to Burhán and the nuptials were celebrated with great splendour. Asad Khán of Belgaum, the Bijápur envoy in his master's name had promised to give Sholápur as the princess' dowry. Ismáel Adil Sháh afterwards denied that he had authorised the cession of Sholápur, and Burhán was induced to drop the demand and to return to Ahmadnagar. As Amina the favourite queen, assumed superiority over her, the Bijápur princess complained to her brother of the affront offered to her. The Bijápur monarch remonstrated with the Ahmadnagar ambassador and the quarrel led to lasting ill feeling. In 1524 Burhán Nizám Sháh, aided by Berid Sháh of Bedar and Imád Sháh of Berár, marched against Sholápur. Ismáel Adil Sháh moved with 9000 bowmen to defend the place. In the engagement that followed the Ahmadnagar troops were defeated by Asad Khán, Imád Sháh fled to Gávalghar, and Burhán, overcome with the heat, was conveyed by his troops to Ahmadnagar. In 1527,

¹ Stanley's Barbosa, 69.

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Imád Sháh of Berár led an army against and took Páthri, but it was soon after recovered by Burhán Nizám after a close siege of two months. On taking Páthri Burhán razed the works to the ground and gave the district in charity to his Bráhmán relations in whose hands it continued till the reign of the Emperor Akbar (1556-1605). After destroying Páthri, Burhán marched to Máhur, and from Máhur to Elichpur. Imád Sháh fled to Burhánpur and with the Khándesh king marched back against Burhán. The allies were totally defeated, losing 300 elephants and all their baggage. In 1529, at the request of the allies, Bahádur Sháh of Gujarát (1525-1535) marched to their aid. Alarmed at this addition to their strength Burhán sent letters of congratulation to Bábar on his elevation to the throne of Delhi, and also addressed Ismáel Adil Sháh of Bijápur, Amir Berid Sháh of Bedar, and Sultán Kuli Kutb Sháh of Golkonda. Of these only Amir Berid Sháh marched to join him with 6000 foreign horse. Bahádur Sháh marched towards Burhán Nizám Sháh's army and encamped near Bid, where he was completely cut off between Pathan and Bid by Amir Berid Sháh. About 3000 men were killed and upwards of seventy camels laden with treasure fell into the assailants' hands. To avenge this disgrace Bahádur Sháh sent 20,000 horse under Khudávand Khán, but this division was also defeated. As a third detachment under Imád Sháh followed Burhán Nizám fell back first on Paránda and then on Junnar. Bahádur Sháh marched on Ahmadnagar and lived for forty days in Burhán Nizám's palace. He then left Imád Sháh to conduct the siege of the fort and marched to Daulatabad. Burhán Nizám Sháh, who meanwhile hovered about the Gujarátis cutting off their supplies, wrote to Ismáel Adil Sháh praying him to march in person to his relief. Ismáel, who was engaged with Vijaynagar, was unable to come, but sent 500 chosen horse under his general Haidar-ul-Mulk Kazvini. Burhán Nizám Sháh, disappointed in his hopes, deprived Shaikh Jáfar, who had become very unpopular among all classes of people, of the office of minister or Peshwa, and bestowed it on one Kávar Sain a Bráhmán, a man endowed with wisdom, penetration, and integrity. By Kávar Sain's advice Burhán marched with all the troops he could gather from Junnar to Ahmadnagar and shortly after succeeded in gaining a position in the hills near Daulatabad and within eight miles of the Gujarát army. For three months he harassed the enemy by skirmishes and night attacks, but, being afterwards defeated in a general action, he sued for peace through the Khándesh and Berár kings, to whom he promised to return the forts and elephants he had taken in war. These two princes accordingly represented to Khudávand Khán that they had called in the Gujarát king only to recover Máhur and Páthri, but that he now seemed to have extended his views to the possession of their country. Khudávand remarked that this was their own fault, and they resolved to break the league. When the league was broken and representations made to the Gujarát king, Imád Sháh agreed to pass provisions to Daulatabad and retired to Elichpur. Burhán acknowledged the Gujarát king's superiority by causing the public prayers to be read in his name and Bahádur Sháh returned to Gujarát. The Khándesh king's elephants were restored to him, but when the forts of Máhur

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and Páthri were demanded, Burhán sent an evasive answer and refused to give them up.

In the same year (1529) Burhán Nizám Sháh sent Sháh Táhir, a distinguished saint and scholar of the Shia faith, with presents of cloth, elephants and horses to Bahádur Sháh. Bahádur delayed giving him an audience, as Burhán had discontinued reading the public prayers in his name. At length through the mediation of the Khándesh king Bahádur received Sháh Táhir. For some time he treated him with much consideration, but at length his great talents and learning won for him Bahádur's esteem, who at the end of three months dismissed him with honour. In 1530 Burhán again sent Sháh Táhir with Nizám Pandit to congratulate Bahádur Sháh on his conquests in Málwa. They were introduced at Burhánpur to the Gujarát king by Muán Muhammad Khán of Khándesh. As about this time Humáyun of Delhi was beginning to spread his conquests south towards Málwa and Gujarát, according to the Khándesh king, it was politic for Bahádur Sháh to make a friend of Burhán Nizám. Bahádur was a prince of great ambition and claiming equality with the sovereigns of Delhi conferred many favours on Sháh Táhir, who was sent hurriedly to Ahmadnagar to induce his master to have an interview with Bahádur Sháh at Burhánpur. Burhán Sháh, though he at first declined, was induced by Sháh Táhir and Kávar Sain to agree to the proposed meeting. He left prince Husain Nizám in charge of the government with 7000 horse and started for Burhánpur. Hearing on the way that all except holy men were required to stand before the throne of Bahádur, Burhán declined to move further, but at the intercession of Sháh Táhir, who undertook that his honour should in no way suffer, agreed to accompany him to the Gujarát king's court. When the Ahmadnagar king arrived at the royal tents, Sháh Táhir accompanied him carrying on his head a Kurán in the handwriting of the prophet Ali. The Gujarát king on learning this instantly descended from the throne, kissed the Kurán, and with it touched his eyes and his forehead. He then received the compliments of Burhán and reascended the throne. He desired Sháh Táhir, who was a holy man of the first rank, to be seated. Sháh Táhir excused himself saying that he could not sit while his master was standing. Bahádur accordingly asked Burhán Nizám also to be seated. After compliments, Bahádur taking from his waist a sword and jewelled dagger girded them on Burhán, and gave him the title of Sháh. He also presented him with the canopy or *chhatra*, which Bahádur had taken from the Málwa king, and ordered his minister and the Khándesh king to conduct him to the tent which was pitched for his reception. In an entertainment on the following day Bahádur seated the Ahmadnagar and Khándesh kings on chairs of gold in front of the throne, and presented Burhán with five horses, two elephants, and twelve fighting deer. The two kings then played together at *chaugán* or polo. Burhán Sháh also made offerings to the Gujarát king, but he accepted only a Kurán, a sword, and four elephants and two horses. Bahádur then conferred all the Deccan' country on Burhán. On his return Burhan visited Daulatabad, and, paying his

devotions at the shrines of the holy men who were buried there, encamped at the Hanzi Kutlu where he was met by his son and minister as well as by ambassadors from Bijápur and Golkonda, who had come to congratulate him. Khwája Ibráhim and Sambháji Chitnavis who had preceded the king to Burhánpur to arrange for his reception were honoured with the titles of Latif Khán and Pratáp Ráy and were henceforward admitted as confidential officers.

Burhán having now leisure to attend to the management of his dominions, by the wise policy of Kávar Sain, reduced thirty forts belonging to Marátha chiefs who had not paid allegiance since Ahmad Nizám Sháh's death. In 1531, Amir Berid Sháh having prayed for aid against Ismáel Adil Sháh who was planning the conquest of the forts of Kalliáni and Kándhár, Burhán Nizám Sháh wrote an imperious letter to Ismáel Adil Sháh requiring him at once to desist. Ismáel reminded Burhán of his late condition at Ahmadnagar, and warned him not to pride himself on honours and titles conferred by a Gujarát king, since he himself derived his lineage from a race of sovereigns and had been styled a sovereign by the kings of Persia the descendants of the Prophet. Burhán Nizám Sháh, though ashamed of his conduct, at once marched to Umrampur, from which, after remaining some days to gather his forces, he crossed into Ismáel Adil Sháh's territory. In the battle which followed Burhán Nizám was totally defeated and retreated to Ahmadnagar with the loss of all his baggage and nearly 4000 men. In 1532 at a meeting of Burhán Nizám Sháh and Ismáel Adil Sháh it was decided that Burhán should invade Berár and Ismáel should invade Telingan and that they should divide the Deccan between them. This project came to nothing as Ismáel Adil Sháh died in 1534. In 1537, at the instigation of Sháh Táhir who was a Shia, Burhán substituted the names of the Imáms for those of the Sáhibas¹ or Kaliphás in the public prayers, and changed the colour of his canopy and standards to green. He also settled pensions on persons to revile and curse the three first Kaliphás and their followers in mosques and in the streets. This caused much discontent and a number of the disaffected under one Mulla Pir Muhammad, a furious Sunní, besieged the palace. The leader was imprisoned, and the tumult subsided. The kings of Gujarát, Bijápur, and Khándesh enraged at the insult offered to the Sunnis, combined and agreed to divide the Ahmadnagar dominions between them. Burhán offered his services to the Emperor Humáyun to aid in an invasion of Gujarát but the rebellion of Shir Sháh prevented his offer being accepted. Burhán found means to satisfy the Gujarát and Khándesh kings, and, engaging all the Shia foreigners disbanded by Ibráhim Adil Sháh, marched against Bijápur, and captured one hundred elephants and some pieces of cannon. In 1542, Burhán Nizám Sháh, taking advantage of the dissensions at

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¹ The three Kaliphás are Abu Bakar, Umar, and Othmán the immediate successors of the prophet Muhammad.

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Bijápur between Ibráhim and his minister Asad Khán of Belgaum invited Amir Berid Sháh of Bedar to join him. At the same time he caused a false report to be spread that Asad Khán, who was a staunch Shia, had invited the two monarchs to Bijápur and promised to give up Belgaum. Having thus poisoned the Bijápur king's mind against his minister, Burhán Nizám Sháh marched on Sholápur, seized its five and a half districts, and made them over to Khwája Jahán Dakhani. He then marched to Belgaum, took possession of the fort, and plundered the towns that did not submit. In spite of Asad Khán's prayers Ibráhim Adil Sháh, who feared treachery, refused to march against Burhán. Asad Khán, seeing no security but by going over to the enemy joined the allies with 6000 troops and Burhán Nizám marched on Bijápur. Ibráhim Adil Sháh deserted his capital and took shelter at Kulbarga. Though he had joined the enemy Asad Khán's sympathies were entirely with his master Ibráhim. He wrote to Imád Sháh of Berár explaining his position, and, on the arrival of a reinforcement from Berár, he quitted Burhán's camp and joined the Berár troops. Burhán, who was no match for this combination, retreated towards Ahmadnagar pursued by the Berár and Bijápur army. Being forced to leave his capital a prey to the invaders, Burhán took post in the strong fortress of Daulatabad, where, as his ally Amir Berid Sháh of Bedar died, he concluded a peace, and restored to Ibráhim Adil Sháh the five and a half districts of Sholápur. Next year (1543) Burhán Nizám Sháh sent Sháh Táhir to the court of the king of Golkonda to congratulate him on his coming to the throne, and to make private overtures to join in a league with Rám Rája of Vijaynagar against Bijápur. In 1546, at the instigation of Rám Rája, Burhán Nizám Sháh again moved to reduce Kulbarga, and Ibráhim Adil Sháh marched from Bijápur to oppose him. Burhán took a strong position on the left bank of the Bhíma, and Ibráhim, finding it impossible to cross the river during the rains, encamped on the right bank. Both armies lay inactive for three months in sight of each other, till, at last, tired of delay, Ibráhim Adil Sháh crossed the river, attacked the Ahmadnagar troops, and totally defeated them with the loss of 250 elephants and 170 cannons and tumbrils. Burhán Nizám Sháh now sent his trusty minister Sháh Táhir to beg the aid of Ali Berid Sháh of Bedar, but his mission failed. In consequence of this refusal of aid, Burhán next year marched with an army against Bedar. He began operations by laying siege to Ausa. The Bijápur troops joined the Bedar forces at Kalliáni which was promised as a reward to Ibráhim Adil Sháh. The allies raised the siege, but in an action which took place within four miles of Kalliáni they were defeated with considerable loss and Ausa shortly afterwards fell to Burhán. Burhán then marched against Udgir which also he reduced, and from Udgir went against Kándhár. Here the allies made another effort to raise the siege and were a second time defeated with the loss of their heavy baggage. Kándhár shortly after fell, and Burhán Nizám Sháh returned towards his capital (1548). On his way home he was met by deputies from a party in Bijápur, who, oppressed by the cruelty and bad government of Ibráhim, were anxious to set his younger brother on the throne. Burhán and the

king of Golkonda, who had also agreed to join the league, moved towards Bijápur. Burhán made an unsuccessful attempt to take Belgaum from Asad Khán and was compelled to retreat. Shortly after Sháh Táhir died and Burhán fell back on his capital and made over the seals to Kásim Beg Hakim and Gopálráv a Bráhmaṇ. As Asad Khán of Belgaum died about the same time (1549) Burhán Nizám resolved with the aid of Rám Rája of Vijaynagar, to make another attack on Bijápur. At Rám Rája's desire Burhán moved at once from Ahmadnagar and surrounding Kállíani effectually blocked all communication. Ibráhim Adil Sháh marched to relieve it. Burhán fortified his lines, and was shortly after fortunate in surprising the Bijápur army so completely that Ibráhim had scarcely time to make his escape and fly towards Bid and Paránda, while his troops fled leaving their tents, baggage, and artilléry in Burhán's hands. Kallíani surrendered without further opposition. As he fled through the enemy's country, Ibráhim came suddenly before Paránda, and taking possession of it, gave it in charge to one of his Dakhani officers. He laid waste the surrounding country and levied heavy contributions, but hearing of Burhán's approach retreated towards Bijápur. Before the Ahmadnagar troops had arrived within forty miles, Ibráhim's governor at Paránda, who mistook the buzzing of a gnat for the sound of Burhán's trumpets, fled, and, on the third day after his flight, the fortress was occupied by Ahmadnagar troops. Burhán restored Paránda fort to Khwája Jahán Dakhani and marched back to Ahmadnagar. In the same year (1549) Burhán without opposition marched his army through great part of the Bijápur territory, and, as arranged with Rám Rája of Vijaynagar, he besieged Sholápur, and, after a blockade of three months, carried it by assault. He was about to advance to Kulbarga, when, hearing that Rám Rája after reducing Ráichur and Mudgal had returned to Vijaynagar, he also returned to Ahmadnagar. In 1553 Burhán again formed an alliance with Rám Rája and marched towards Bijápur, and Ibráhim, unable to cope with him, retired to Panhála near Kolhápur. Bijápur was besieged. But Burhán fell suddenly sick, returned to his capital, and soon after died, at the age of fifty-four, after a reign of forty-seven years. His body was embalmed and entombed at Karbela in Persia, near the burial place of Hasan the son of Ali the Prophet. He left two sons Husáin and Abdul Kádar by his favourite wife Amina, and two others Sháh Ali and Mirán Muhammad Bákar by Bibi Mariam the daughter of Yusuf Adil Sháh. He had also another son Sháh Haidar married to the daughter of Khwája Jahán Dakhani.¹

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¹ According to the Portuguese chronicles of the time, Burhán Nizám was endowed with great national and political sagacity, and his court was a hospitable resort of the best men of the time. Among his courtiers he had a Portuguese Simao Peres, who had embraced Muhammadinism and was held in such high esteem that the king appointed him minister and general of his army. Notwithstanding his change of faith, Peres was always friendly to his countryman and entertained no respect for those who imitated him, in forsaking their own religion. The king on his death-bed recommended his successor to the good offices of this faithful servant, and, Peres executed with fidelity all the duties with which he was charged. Soon after the death of the king, the young prince had an unpleasant affray with Adil Khán in

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*Husain Nizám
Sháh,*
1636-1665.

¹ Husain Nizám Sháh succeeded his father in the thirteenth year of his age. Two parties were formed, the Abyssinians embracing Husain Nizám Sháh's cause, and the Dakhanis both Musalmáns and Hindus that of his brother Abdul Kádar, who at length being deserted by his party took refuge with Imád-ul-Mulk of Berár. The other brothers Sháh Ali and Mirán Muhammad Bákar fled to their uncle at Bijápur. Sháh Haidar went to his father-in-law at Paránda and laid claim to the throne. Husain marching against him, he with his father-in-law the governor, fled to the Bijápur court, and Paránda fell to the Nizám Sháhi forces. Ibráhim Adíl Sháh openly espoused the cause of the refugees, and marched against Sholápur which had been taken during the last reign. Husain received from Imád Sháh of Berár a reinforcement of 7000 cavalry and moved to raise the siege. Saif Ain-ul-Mulk, who had left the Nizám Sháhi service and had gone over to Bijápur, and who was known throughout the Deccan for his courage and for the efficiency of his horsemen, being driven from the Bijápur kingdom, was allowed to return to Ahmadnagar, and was subsequently treacherously put to death. His family was conducted in safety by one of his chief dependents Kabul Khán to Gokonda where Kabul Khán was received into the service of Ibráhim Kutb Sháh. At this time Husain Nizám Sháh, in concert with Ibráhim Kutb Sháh, marched to invade the Bijápur country. But as Kutb Sháh returned to his capital Husain Nizám Sháh was compelled to fall back on Ahmadnagar. In the same year Husain detached Muhammad Wastád Nishápurí and Chulbi Rumi Khán² against Revdanda, and the Portuguese who had built the fort promised not to molest Ahmadnagar subjects. Husain also carried his arms into Khándesh and took the fort of Gálna. In 1559 Ali Adíl Sháh the new king of Bijápur formed an alliance with Rám Rája and Ibráhim Kutb Sháh, while Husain Nizám Sháh made fresh overtures to Imád-ul-Mulk of Berár who received Husain's daughter in marriage. The allied sovereigns reached Ahmadnagar with an army of 900,000 infantry. Husain Sháh fled to Paithan and asked the Berár, Khándesh, and Bedar kings to march to his aid. Khán Jahán the brother of the Bedar king, now in the Berár service instead of rendering assistance, marched with 6000 horse to the Ahmadnagar frontier to attack Husain Nizám Sháh, but being defeated joined the Bijápur troops. The allies laid siege to Ahmadnagar. But Ibráhim Kutb Sháh, jealous of the Bijápur king's power, connived at supplies passing to the garrison, and one of his generals kept communication both with Husain Nizám Sháh at Paithan and with

which the old minister lost his life and the new Nizám-ul-Mulk was left to his whims unguided alike by the advice of his sober minister and the example of his wise father. According to Diogo do Conto, the deceased king being affected by leprosy or St. Lazarus' malady as he calls it, and all medical efforts to cure him having failed, was recommended by one of his court physicians to try as a last resource the effect of bathing in children's blood. Large cisterns were filled with blood but the blood prescription was not successful. Da Cunha's Chaul, 44-45.

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 237-249.

² This officer cast the Malik-i-Maidán or Lord of the Plain the famous brass gun now at Bijápur. His tomb at Ahmadnagar has been lately converted into an English officer's residence. The mould in which the gun was cast may still be seen in the garden.

the besieged. When Rám Rája demanded an explanation Kutb Sháh marched during the night for Golkonda, while his general finding his way into the fort joined Husain Nizám Sháh at Paithan. Imád-ul-Mulk by way of reparation for Khán Jahán's conduct sent a large force to join Husain. This division being employed to cut off the besiegers' supplies compelled the allies to raise the siege which they meant to renew after buying provisions from Paránda and Ausa. Meanwhile Husain Nizám Sháh concluded a peace with Rám Rája. Under the terms of this treaty he ceded the fortress of Kalliáni to Bijápur, put to death Jahángir Khán the Berár general who had been extremely active against the enemy, and paid Rám Rája a visit and acknowledged his superiority.

On his arrival at Ahmadnagar he caused the fort, which was originally built of mud, to be rebuilt with stone and to be surrounded by a deep ditch. In 1562, after the celebration in the neighbourhood of Kalliáni of the marriage of Husain's daughter Bibi Jamáli with Ibráhim Kutb Sháh, both princes laid siege to that fortress. They were attacked by Rám Rája and Ali Adil Sháh aided by the Berár and Bedar kings. Sending his family into the fort of Ausa, Husain Nizám Sháh accompanied by Kutb Sháh marched with 700 guns and 500 elephants to within twelve miles of the enemy. A violent storm blew down his tents, and, in the heavy black clay in which he was encamped, the rain made his cattle and guns almost useless. Kutb Sháh's army fled without resistance and Husain began his retreat taking with him only forty out of 700 guns.¹ On the third day Husain was forced to quit even these forty guns and to fly to Ahmadnagar. Attended only by a thousand horse he made his way through 6000 of the enemy, still keeping the umbrella of state over his head.² The enemy, deeming it unnecessary to follow him further, gave over pursuit. Husain threw supplies into Ahmadnagar and retired to Junnar. The allies again laid siege to Ahmadnagar, Rám Rája's followers committing every species of cruelty. By Ali Adil Sháh's advice Rám Rája raised the siege and pursued Husain Nizám to Junnar, who retired among the hills in the neighbourhood. Husain Rustam Khán Dakhani, Adham Khán Habshi, and Sábáji Koli so effectually laid waste the country as to prevent the enemy's advance. At Kánhur, Husain Rustam Khán, during the absence of Ali Adil Sháh on a hunting party, fell suddenly on the Bijápur army. The uncle of Adil Sháh was killed, but the Bijápur troops rallied and in the end slew Rustam Khán and two thousand of his followers. At the approach of the rainy season the allies returned to the siege of Ahmadnagar. Rám Rája's army encamped to the south of the fort on the bank of the Sina. Heavy rain fell in

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Nizám Sháh's,
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¹ The great gun at Bijápur weighing forty tons is supposed to have been captured on this occasion. It was made in the reign of Burhán Nizam Sháh and is the largest piece of cast brass ordnance in the world. Details are given in the Bijápur Statistical Account.

² Husain, who strictly kept the rules about prayers, one afternoon, when closely pursued, is said to have dismounted to pray. The enemy struck with his dauntless courage stopped at some distance. After finishing his prayers, observing that he had on a girdle of gold, he remembered it was unlawful to pray in gold, cast it off, and repeated his devotions.

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the hills and the river rose so suddenly during the night that 300 of Rám Rája's horses and a vast number of carriage cattle were drowned; and twenty officers of rank and upwards of 25,000 men were swept away in the torrent. Rám Rája raised the siege and moved towards the Karnátak, and Ali Adil Sháh followed his example. The Bijápur officers made frequent incursions into the Sholápur district belonging to Husain Nizám Sháh who sent 1000 bullock-loads of grain under a strong escort to Sholápur to provision the fort for a siege. Murtaza Khán a Bijápur officer learning of this convoy marched and defeated the Nizám Sháhi detachment between Paránda and Sholápur, and began to plunder and spread over the country. About 150 elephants were captured and sent to Bijápur. Meanwhile the Nizám Sháhís collected about 2000 horse and pursuing the Bijápur troops came suddenly upon Murtaza Khán who had retired to Naldurg, took him prisoner, and sent him to Ahmadnagar.* Husain marched in person at the head of his army and carried with him to Sholápur 30,000 loads of grain. In 1564 Husain entered into a league with the three Muhammadan kings of Bijápur, Bedar, and Golkonda against Rám Rája of Vijaynagar. The united armies marching south crossed the Krishna and encamped on the Hukeri river, near which was Rám Rája at the head of 70,000 cavalry and 90,000 infantry chiefly matchlockmen, besides archers and artillerymen. The allied kings conceiving themselves unequal to cope with this formidable army made overtures for peace. But as Rám Rája refused to listen to their proposals, the Muhammadan kings resolved to fight till death. The Bijápur king was on the right, Husain Nizám Sháh in the centre, and the Golkonda and Bedar kings on the left. Husain Nizám Sháh's front was covered by 600 guns placed in three lines, heavy, middle-sized, and small, the whole commanded by the famous artillery officer Chulbi Rumi Khán. Two thousand foreign archers in front of the guns kept a heavy discharge on the enemy as he approached. The archers fell back as the Vijaynagar troops advanced till they were close to the heavy battery which opened on them with such effect that they retreated in confusion with dreadful loss. Chulbi Rumi Khán had provided bags of copper money to load with should the enemy close and these proved so destructive that upwards of 5000 Hindus were left dead close to the muzzles of the guns. Kishwar Khán, an officer of the Bijápur army,* pursued the enemy with 5000 cavalry into the centre of Rám Rája's line, where, in attempting to make his escape on foot, Rám Rája was overtaken by one of the Nizám Sháhi elephants which seized him in his trunk. On being brought to Husain, Rám Rája was beheaded and his army fled to Vijaynagar.¹ Husain returned to Ahmadnagar where he died shortly after of a disorder brought on by excess. He left four sons and four daughters.

*Murtaza
Nizám Sháh,
1565-1588,*

²Murtaza Nizám Sháh, Husain's son, commonly called the Divána or madman, ascended the throne when he was a minor. His mother

¹ Further and somewhat different details are given in the Bijápur Statistical Account. The records seem to agree that the honour of winning this great battle rests with Husain Nizám and the Ahmadnagar troops. ² Briggs' Ferishta, III. 250-270.

Khunza Sultána for six years acted as regent. She raised her three brothers Ain-ul-Mulk, Táj Khán, and Etibar Khán to the first rank of nobility, and appointed Mulla Ináyat Khán to the office of minister or Peshwa. She sat daily in court, transacting business behind a curtain. Rám Rája's brother Venkatádri, pressed by the Bijápur troops, applied for relief to Khunza Sultána, who, marching against Bijápur at the head of an army accompanied by her young son Murtaza, forced Ali Adil Sháh to retire from Vijaynagar to defend his own country. Peace was soon after concluded between the two powers and a league was subsequently formed against Tufál Khán who, as prime minister, had usurped authority in Berár. Both the Bijápur and Ahmadnagar troops entered that country, plundered it, and marched back before the rains. On their return Ali Adil Sháh tried to seize the young king of Ahmadnagar, but his mother, the regent, being warned fled through the night and escaped to Ahmadnagar. In 1567, Ali Adil Sháh invaded the Nizám Sháhi dominions and took several places. Khunza Sultána, by the extreme honour she showed to her relations, gave offence to some of the nobles, who complained to the king. With the king's permission they gained over some of the chief nobles and attempted to overthrow the queen's authority. They some time after repaired to the palace, but the childish fears of the king made him conclude the secret was betrayed. To save himself he revealed the plot to his mother who instantly caused the principal conspirators to be secured. In 1569, the queen marched with her son to oppose the encroachments of Kishwar Khán the Bijápur general. At Dhámangaon, Murtaza gained over the principal nobles and sent Habash Khán to tell the queen that she should no longer take part in public affairs. Enraged at this message she summoned her supporters and made a show of resistance, but was soon seized and her attendants fled. The king, assuming charge of the government, marched at the head of the army. On nearing the enemy's camp he received an insulting letter from the Bijápur general, and swore that he would not rest till he had entered the Dhárur fort. He put on his armour and succeeded in reaching the gate, where amidst showers of shot, arrows, and rockets poured from the fort walls he escaped unhurt, though many of his men horses and elephants were killed. As the enemy's fire suddenly ceased the Ahmadnagar troops entered unopposed and found the fort empty. An arrow had pierced the heart of Kishwar Khán and the garrison had fled. Murtaza cut off Kishwar Khán's head and hung it over the battlements, and marched on to invade Bijápur. Ibráhim Kutb Sháh of Golkonda, who at first acted in concert with him, was treated in an unfriendly way by Murtaza and was forced to make his escape, leaving his camp to be plundered by the Nizám Sháhi. Murtaza concluding a treaty with the Bijápur king, returned to Ahmadnagar, and appointing Jalál-ud-din Husain his prime minister marched against the Portuguese fort of Revdanda in the Konkan. Owing to the bravery of the Portuguese, aided according to Musalmán accounts by the treachery of Murtaza's officers who

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were bribed by presents of Portuguese wine, he was obliged to raise the siege and return to Ahmadnagar. He displaced several of his ministers, and conferred the office of agent or *wakil* on Changiz Khán a nobleman of great abilities who restored public affairs. His address effected an alliance with the Bijápur king who agreed to allow Murtaza to take Berár and Bedar. In 1572, Murtaza marched to Berár, and by the gallantry and good conduct of his general Changiz Khán drove Tufál Khán and his son from Elichpur to the hills and took their heavy baggage and 200 elephants. Tufál Khán after wandering for six months in the hills fled to Burhánpur, where the Khándesh king for fear of Murtaza's anger refused to give him protection. Tufál returned to his fort of Narnála and applied for aid to the emperor Akbar who, pleased with the opportunity of mixing in Deccan affairs, required Murtaza at once to retire from Tufál's territory. Murtaza took no notice of Akbar's message. He captured Narnála and all the chief Berár forts, seized and placed in confinement Tufál Khán, his master Burhán Imád-ul-Mulk and his family, who shortly after died, it was said, by poison.¹ Murtaza on Changiz Khán's advice marched to Bedar. But hearing that a force of 3000 horse and seven or eight thousand infantry, despatched by the Khándesh king Mirán Muhammad to support a pretender to the throne, had driven out several of his posts and held a great portion of the country, he returned with the greatest expedition and sent in advance Syed Murtaza one of his generals, before whom the pretender was forced to fly and his followers scattered. Murtaza Nizám Sháh entered Khándesh by the Rohankheda pass and ravaged the country to Burhánpur, Mirán Muhammad the Khándesh king retiring to the fort of Asir. Murtaza Nizám marched in person to Asir and from it sent parties who wasted the country round, so that Mirán was obliged to purchase the retreat of the Ahmadnagar troops. Shortly after this Ibráhim Kutb Sháh, through his ambassador, offered Changiz Khán a large sum to prevent the intended attack on Bedar. Changiz Khán refused the money with indignation, saying that the Nizám Sháhi treasures were at his disposal. The ambassador now endeavoured to effect his purpose by bringing over to his design Sáhíb Khán, a favourite of the king, who had been ill-treated by Changiz Khán. Sáhíb Khán entered into the plot and informed the king that he heard that Changiz Khán intended to assume royal titles in Berár. The king did not believe the story, but as Sáhíb Khán persisted that it was true, he resolved to wait for proof. It happened soon after that Changiz Khán suggested that he ought to stay with an army in the conquered country in order to gain the goodwill of the people. The king thought this suggestion a striking confirmation of Sáhíb Khán's story and showed marked displeasure. Changiz Khán alarmed for his safety staid away from the court feigning sickness. This conduct satisfied the king that his suspicions

¹ The Moghal historian writes: Mir Murtaza and Khudavand Khán, ruler of the country of Berár in the Deccan, marched to attack Ahmadnagar. They were defeated in battle by Salábat Khán, the *wakil* of Nizám-ul-Mulk and then came complaining to the Imperial court. *Tabkát-i-Akbari* in Elliot and Dawson, V. 441.

were well founded. He directed Changiz Khán's physician to administer a poisoned draught as medicine to Changiz Khán. Changiz Khán discovered what had happened, and quietly submitted to his fate, requesting the king to send his body to Karbela, to show favour to some officers whom he named, and to entertain his foreign servants among his guards. Murtaza too late convinced of the uprightness and the attachment of his minister, regretted his death with unfeigned sorrow. On his return to Ahmadnagar, disgusted with his folly, he appointed Mir Kázi Beg his representative in the government, and retired to an apartment in the palace of Ahmadnagar called Bagdád, where no one was admitted to his presence but Sáhíb Khán. In 1576, as the emperor Akbar advanced to the Deccan frontier to hunt, the king moved to the north with a few troops in a covered litter. He wished to march to attack the emperor, but at the request of his nobles, remained on the border till, after Akbar's return to his dominions, he again retired to his privacy in Ahmadnagar. In the rainy season while visiting the tombs of saints in Daulatabad, he was seized with religious enthusiasm. One day he was seen withdrawing from his apartment and going alone on foot towards the tomb of Imám Raza and was with difficulty prevailed on to return. After his return from Daulatabad he made his residence in the garden of Hasht-i-Behisht.¹ At this time the favourite Sáhíb Khán and his associates, about 3000 scoundrel Dakhanis, committed the worst of crimes. Children were forced from their parents for evil purposes and among others Mir Mehdi was killed in defending the honour of his family. The regent was afraid of the favourite's influence, till at last he became so insolent as to order a nobleman to change his name, because it happened to be the same as his own. The nobleman refused and the favourite resolved to destroy him, but was prevented by Salábat Khán who informed the king. Sáhíb Khán was forced to quit the court, but the king, who missed his society, followed him to Bedar, and, agreeing to displace Salábat Khán from his office and taking for him the city of Bedar which he besieged, persuaded him to return. Burhán Nizám the king's brother, escaping at this time from the fort of Junnar and raising an insurrection, Murtaza was obliged to return suddenly to Ahmadnagar and to recall Salábat Khán. Burhán was defeated and fled to Bijápur. Sáhíb Khán leaving the king a second time was put to death by the nobles who were sent to effect a reconciliation. Salábat Khán became minister without a rival and continued in power for several years to the satisfaction of the people. Since the reign of Muhammad Sháh Bahmani (1358-1375) the country had never been so well governed. In 1580, Salábat Khán taking advantage of the minority of the Bijápur king, sent an army under Behzád-ul-Mulk to invade his dominions, but it was defeated with the loss of all its elephants. In 1584, the marriage of the king's son Mirán Husain with the Bijápur king's sister was arranged and the princess was brought to Ahmadnagar with great pomp. About this time several nobles combined to attempt to displace Salábat Khán but their attempt came

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¹ This garden remains under this name. See Places, Ahmadnagar.

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to nothing. Shortly after a discontented faction brought Burhán the king's brother to Ahmadnagar in the guise of a holy man with the object of placing him on the throne. On the day the attempt was to be made, Salábat Khán discovered the plot and Burhán fled to the Konkan, and thence to the court of the emperor Akbar from whom he some time after procured a force under Mirza Aziz Koka to attack his brother. An army of 20,000 men under Mirza Muhammad Takí marching on the frontier and acting in concert with Rája Ali Khán of Khándesh forced Mirza Aziz Koka to turn towards Berár where he was attacked and pursued and forced to return to Málwa.¹

At this time one Fattedh Sháh, a dancer who succeeded Sáhíb Khán in the king's favour began to abuse his power by obtaining large grants of land and gifts of royal jewels. At last as the king ordered the two most valuable necklaces taken from Rám Rája's plunder to be given to the favourite. Salábat Khán, unwilling that such priceless gems should be lost to the royal family, substituted two strings of mock jewels in their place. When the king heard of this he ordered all his jewels to be laid out for inspection, and seeing the two jewels were still missing threw them all into a large fire. From this time the king was considered mad. Taking into his head that his son had a design to dethrone him, he attempted to put him to death, but Salábat Khán watched over the safety of the young prince. Salábat Khán at this time having refused, unless the Sholápur fort was delivered, either to celebrate the Bijápur princess' marriage or to return her to her brother, Ibráhim Adil Sháh declared war and laid siege to the fort of Ausa. Murtaza Nizám Sháh, offended at the conduct of his minister, upbraided him with treachery and declared himself weary of his control. Salábat Khán begged the king to appoint any place for his confinement, and on his naming Danda Rájápur, in spite of the remonstrances of his friends, immediately submitted himself to the king's guards and was carried

¹ Burhán-ul-Mulk was the younger brother of Murtaza Nizám-ul-Mulk. When Husain Nizám-ul-Mulk died, the Nizám-ul-Mulki kingdom descended to his eldest son, but in reality the government fell into the hands of the young prince's mother. Murtaza like his father preferred Burhán to all his friends. In course of time designing persons stirred up strife between him and his relations, so that he seized and sent to a fortress both his mother and his brother. His ignorance and vicious propensities kept him aloof from the loyal and good and threw him into the company of evil persons whose bad advice perverted his mind. He raised a low fellow, a cockfighter named Husain to be his companion and foolishly gave him the title of Asaf Khán. This low-born fellow stirred a war against Bedar and a fierce struggle went on in Kándhár sixty miles north of Bedar. The news of these foolish proceedings soon spread abroad and Burhán having escaped from prison by the aid of his keeper, began to raise disturbances; but his mind was in fetters and his fortune asleep. He cast his eyes upon the wealth of others and began to oppress them. When Murtaza was informed of this outbreak, he hastened back and reached Ahmadnagar on the day he desired. Numbers of men deserted Burhán, and he was obliged to fly without fighting. He then went to Adil Khán at Bijápur. Not being able to effect anything there he went in the disguise of a *jogí* or mendicant to Ahmadnagar. There he lived in secret and endeavoured to raise a party among the evil-disposed. Being discovered he hastened to the governor of Báglán in Násik and not being able to effect anything there he went to Kutb-ud-dín Khán at Bedar. From thence he proceeded to the Imperial court where he met with a gracious reception. Abu-l-Fazl's Akbarnáma in Elliot and Dowson, VI, 70-71.

to his prison. He was succeeded by Kásim Beg Hakim as regent and by Mirza Muhammad Taki as minister. Peace with Ibráhim Adil Sháh being concluded at the king's command, the marriage of prince Mirán Husain with the Bijápur princess was celebrated with great splendour. Not long after this the king again becoming suspicious of his son resolved to destroy him, and while the youth was sleeping in his chamber set fire to his bed clothes and fastened the door upon him. The prince's cries for help brought to his aid his father's favourite Fattéh Sháh who secretly carried him off to Daulatabad. When the king heard of this he confined all his ministers and appointed others, and, as they also refused to kill the prince, they were displaced and the regency was given to Mirza Khán. Mirza Khán, seeing the disordered state of the king's intellect, pretended acquiescence with the king's commands, and wrote privately to Bijápur that if a detachment were sent to the borders he would make it a pretext for raising troops and would then openly espouse the prince's cause. The Bijápur regent complying with the request, Mirza Khán, by the king's order, collected troops and marched from Ahmadnagar and encamped near the town of Ránuri. Mirza Khán did not move onwards. Ferishta the historian was sent to enquire the cause.¹ Mirza Khán, knowing Ferishta's attachment to the king, bribed Fattéh Sháh the king's favourite to obtain the king's order for his recall and for the immediate advance of the army. Ferishta getting timely notice of Mirza Khán's orders to prevent his return from the camp, made his escape in the night. Mirza Khán meanwhile marched to Daulatabad to bring the prince and seat him on the throne. The king being too ill to mount a horse, by Ferishta's advice sent orders to release Salábat Khán and prepared to go himself in a litter to meet him. But learning from Fattéh Sháh that the guards would seize and imprison him, he resolved to wait in the palace for Salábat Khán's arrival. The troops perceiving the king's imbecility deserted in crowds to Daulatabad, whence Mirza Khán hastened to

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1490 - 1636.

¹ Muhammad Kásim Ferishta was born at Astrabad on the border of the Caspian Sea. He was the son of Ghulám Alí Hindu Sháh a learned man, who, quitting his native country travelled into India and eventually reached Ahmadnagar during the reign of Murtaza Nizám Sháh. Ferishta had only attained his twelfth year when he reached Ahmadnagar and was a fellow-student with the young prince Mirán Husain whom Ferishta's father, on account of his learning, was chosen to instruct in Persian. His father dying soon after his arrival Ferishta was left an orphan in his youth. But the introduction which his father's acquirements had procured him at court secured to the son the patronage and favour of the king, so that on the day his royal master was dethroned he held the office of captain of the guard. The new king was himself deposed and murdered in less than a year. Ferishta, then aged seventeen, appears to have taken no part in the revolutions which succeeded the death of his patron. His affection for the Shia faith prevented his having many friends among the stronger party at court and this made him anxious to avoid the scenes which were likely to follow, so that not long after (1589) he left Ahmadnagar and settled at the neighbouring court of Bijápur where he was kindly received by the minister and regent Diláwar Khán who introduced him to the king Ibráhim Adil Sháh II. From the station Ferishta filled in Ahmadnagar it seems likely that he entered the Bijápur service in a military capacity. Afterwards in an engagement with Jamál Khán he was wounded and taken prisoner, but made his escape. At Bijápur he began and finished his famous history in furtherance of which he observes, that his patron Ibráhim Adil Sháh spared no expense to procure the most ample materials. Briggs' Ferishta, I. xxxix. - xlviij.

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the capital accompanied by the prince so that he might arrive before Salábat Khán. At the time he came Ferishta was head of the palace guard, but being deserted by his people, and as no one was left with the king but Fattéh Sháh and a few domestics, opposition was vain. The prince and Mirza Khán rushed into the fort with 40,000 armed men and put to death all they found except Ferishta who as he had been the prince's school-fellow was spared. The prince both in word and action treated his father the king with every possible insult. Murtaza looked on him with silent contempt, and when his son drew his sword and passed the bare blade across his breast, threatening to kill him, the king only sighed. The prince caused the king to be put into a warm bathing room and closing the doors and windows lighted a great fire underneath, and the king was speedily suffocated (1588). The deceased king was buried with due ceremony in the Roza garden, and his bones were afterwards taken to Karbela and buried near those of his father and grandfather.

Cæsar Frederic, l.
1586.

In 1586, according to the Venetian traveller Cæsar Frederick, the Moor king Zamalluco, that is Nizám-ul-Mulk, was of great power with 200,000 men of war and a great store of artillery some of them made in pieces because the whole gun was too great to carry. Though they were made in pieces the guns worked marvellously well. Their shot was of stone and some of the stone shots had been sent to the king of Portugal for the rareness of the thing. The city where king Zamalluco had his being was Abueqer, that is Ahmad-nagar seven or eight days inland of Cheul.¹

Mirán Husain
Nizám Sháh,
1588.

² Mirán Husain Nizám Sháh, who was headstrong and 'cruel, began his reign by tyranny and oppression. He appointed Mirza Khán prime minister but paid little regard to his advice. He promoted several youths to high rank and made them the companions of his pleasures and excesses. He one day confined his minister on a suspicion of his having privately brought from Junnar and concealed in his house Sháh Kásim the king's uncle. Next day finding he was mistaken he restored the minister and gave him his full confidence. To prevent future suspicions Mirza Khán advised the king to put to death the surviving males of the royal family, and fifteen princes were murdered in one day. As Mirza Khán's power became irksome to the king's companions they accused him of treachery, and the king in his drunken hours declared that he would behead Mirza Khán or have him trod to death by elephants. Mirza Khán resolved to ensure his safety by deposing the king who was trying every means in his power to ruin him. On the 15th of March 1588 in order to assassinate Mirza Khán the king sent for him to partake of a banquet in the house of his favourite Bangash Khán. Mirza Khán excused himself, on the plea of sudden illness, and sent his friend Ágha Mir to make his excuse. When Ágha Mir had eaten some of the dinner he pretended to be seized with violent pains, and declaring that he was poisoned left the house. Mirza Khán sent a message to the king that the Ágha was dying and entreated to see him. The king went

¹ Hakluyt's Voyages, II. 345.

² Briggs' Ferishta, III. 270-275.

with a few attendants and was seized by the minister and made prisoner. Mirza Khán sent for the king's cousins Ibráhim and Ismáel who were confined at Lohogad in Poona, and meanwhile kept the king's imprisonment a secret. When the princes came from Lohogad Mirza Khán summoned several of the leading nobles into the fort, and declared to them that the king was deposed, and that Ismáel Nizám, the younger of the two brothers then only in his twelfth year was appointed his successor. While the assembly was saluting the new king, Jamál Khán, a military leader, with several other officers and soldiers, chiefly Abyssinians and Dakhanis, assembled at the gates of the fort demanding to see Mirán Husain their lawful sovereign. Jamál Khán sent persons to proclaim through the city what had been done by Mirza Khán and to warn the people that if Mirza Khán were allowed to act thus uncontrolled, the native nobles and people of the country would soon be slaves to foreign adventurers. The Dakhani troops and the inhabitants flew to arms and in a short time about 5000 horse and foot with a numerous mob joined Jamál Khán who was also supported by all the Abyssinians. Mirza Khán commanded the king's head to be cut off, and, placing it on a pole, planted it on one of the bastions of the citadel. At Jamál Khán's instance the mob heaped piles of wood and straw against the gates of the fort and set them on fire. The gates were burnt and Mirza Khán and his friends rushed from the fort. Numbers were slain but Mirza Khán made good his escape. The troops and the mob put to death every foreigner they found in the fort and in the city. Mirza Khán was seized near Junnar and brought back to Ahmadnagar. He was first carried through the city on an ass and his body mangled. The massacre continued for seven days, and nearly a thousand foreigners were murdered, a few only escaping under the protection of Dakhani and Abyssinian officers. Mirán Husain's reign lasted ten months and three days.

¹ Jamál Khán now acknowledged Ismáel Nizám Sháh as king. Being of the Mehdvi² sect he persuaded the king to embrace the same tenets and to commit the power of government into the hands of his followers. He seized the property of the few foreigners who had escaped the massacre and forced them to quit Ahmadnagar. Most of these, including the historian Ferishta, obtained service with the king of Bijápur. Among the discontented nobles was the chief of Berár, who, being at some distance from the capital, released Salábat Khán who had long been confined in the fort of Kehrla on the Berár frontier. Several discontented nobles joined his standard to oppose the Mehdvis, and, resolving to expel them from Ahmadnagar, Salábat

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1490-1633.

Ismáel Nizám
Sháh,
1533-1590.

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 276-281.

² The Mehdvis or Mahadis are a sect of Muhammadans. They assert that in the year 1550 (H. 960) a person of the Hanefi school who styled himself Syed Muhammad was the promised Imám Mehdvi. The sect is fairly numerous in the Deccan, and is chiefly confined to the descendants of certain Afghan tribes. Further details are given in the Population Chapter.

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Khán marched towards the capital, while Diláwar Khán the Bijápur regent also approached from the south. Jamál Khán first moved against Salábat Khán whom he totally defeated at the town of Paithan and forced to retreat to Burhánpur. He then marched against the Bijápur army. For fifteen days the two armies halted at Ashta in Sholápur, without making any hostile movement. At length a peace was concluded. Chánd Bibi the widow of the late Adil Sháh of Bijápur and the aunt of the present Ahmadnagar king was to be sent to the Bijápur camp and the Nizám Sháhi government were to pay £850,000 (270,000 *huns*) to defray the war expenses.¹ In 1589, Salábat Khán, who was now in his seventieth year, was allowed to retire to Talegaon, twenty miles north-west of Poona, a town which he had founded. He died before the close of the year and was buried in a tomb which he had built during his ministry on a hill six miles east of Ahmadnagar.²

Learning of the commotions at Ahmadnagar the emperor Akbar recalled Burhán Nizám from the estates which had been granted him in the north of India, allowed him to start for the Deccan, and allotted the frontier district of Hindia for his support till he should regain his authority from his son. He also wrote to Rája Ali Khán of Khándesh to support him. Having received overtures from many of the nobility, Burhán Nizám marched against his son, but was defeated. On renewing his attempt he was joined by a vast number of the Nizám Sháhi troops as well as by an army from Bijápur. Jamál Khán, having ordered Syed Amjad-ul-Mulk of Berár to oppose Rája Ali and Burhán Nizám on the northern frontier, himself marched with his troops, among whom were 10,000 Mehdvis, against the Bijápur army. At Dárásan where the two armies met, the Bijápur troops were defeated with the loss of 300 elephants. Soon after, learning that the Berár troops had gone over to Burhán Nizám, Jamál Khán marched his victorious army towards Berár, while the Bijápur king despatched the whole of his Marátha cavalry to follow Jamál Khán and cut off his supplies. Deserted by his other troops, Jamál Khán relied on the Mehdvis whose existence was identified with his welfare. An action near the frontier, though his troops suffered from want of water, was nearly ending in his favour when Jamál Khán was killed by a chance shot. His death was the signal of the king's defeat. His army fled, accompanied by Ismáel Nizám Sháh, who was taken in a village and confined by his father after a reign of two years.

Burhán Nizám
Sháh II.,
1630-1694.

³ Burhán Nizám Sháh II., who was advanced in years, on ascending the throne gave himself to pleasure. His first act was to annul the orders in favour of the Mehdvi doctrines, and, by threatening with death those who persisted in the heresy, drove the sect out of his dominions. The Shia religion was restored, and many of the foreigners who had been driven out in consequence of Mirza Khán's

¹ This is called *nálbáha* or the price of horse-shoes. Since then the tax has been frequently levied by the Maráthás.

² Salábat Khán's tomb which is the most notable object near Ahmadnagar is now used as a health resort for Europeans stationed at Ahmadnagar. Details are given under Places, Ahmadnagar.

³ Briggs' *Ferishta*, III. 232-237.

rebellion, returned. The Bijápur regent Diláwar Khán, who had been compelled to fly from Bijápur to Bedar, came to the Ahmadnagar court and was honourably received. Ibráhim Adil Sháh remonstrated and Burhán sent an insulting letter which brought on war.

¹ In 1592, at Diláwar's instigation Burhán marched towards the Bijápur frontier. On arriving at Mangalvedha, about thirteen miles south of Pandharpur, seeing that no army was sent to oppose him, he became suspicious of some stratagem to draw him into the heart of the enemy's territory, and would have retreated, had not Diláwar Khán prevailed on him to continue his advance as far as the Bhima. Here he halted, and, finding a ruined fortress, ordered it to be repaired. For some time the Bijápur king acted as if he was ignorant that an enemy was in his country. At length finding matters ripe for the execution of his design, he sent a messenger to Diláwar Khán, requesting him to return and again take the charge of his affairs. Diláwar, overjoyed at obtaining once more absolute power over the king, obtained his dismissal from Burhán Nizám Sháh who in vain represented to him that he was hastening to his destruction. On reaching Bijápur Diláwar Khán was blinded and sent as a prisoner to the fortress of Sátára. Then Ibráhim sent 10,000 horse under Rumi Khán Dakhani and 3000 of the household troops under Elias Khán. As the Bijápur Marátha cavalry defeated several of his detachments, Burhán Nizám Sháh went against them in person and drove them across the Bhima, which shortly after became so flooded that the Ahmadnagar troops could not cross in pursuit. Famine and pestilence caused such loss in Burhán's camp, that he was forced to retire some marches towards Ahmadnagar, where, as he received supplies of provisions and as the pest had somewhat abated, he moved again towards Sholápur, but was defeated with the loss of 100 elephants and 400 horses. His troops wearied by the long and fatiguing campaign deserted him, and as he found out a conspiracy among his officers to place his son on the throne, he began his retreat towards Ahmadnagar. Being harassed on his march he was obliged to sue for peace. Ibráhim Adil Sháh for nearly a month refused to listen to any proposals. But at last agreed to peace on condition that Burhán destroyed the fort which he had built in Bijápur territory. Burhán agreed and retired to Ahmadnagar mortified with the result of his campaign. In the same year Burhán marched against Revdanda, and, despatching a large force to Cheul, built the Korla fort to command the harbour. The Portuguese in Revdanda obtained reinforcements from many ports, and made two night attacks on the Muhammadans, killing on each occasion between three and four thousand Dakhanis.² Burhán sent a reinforcement of 4000

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¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 170-172.

² The Portuguese historian states that 300 men came from Bassein and 200 from Sálsette, making in all, with the garrison, 1500 Europeans and as many native soldiers who attacked the Muhammadans and slew 10,000 men. Furrád Khán the governor and his family were taken prisoners. He and his daughters became Christians and went to Portugal. Seventy-five guns were captured on this occasion. Faria-e-Souza, III. Part I. Chapter 8 in Briggs' Ferishta, III. 285 foot.

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men under Furhád Khán to Korla. And as other Portuguese troops were expected from Daman and Bassein, he appointed Bahádur Giláni, at the head of all the foreign troops, governor of Korla, to blockade Revdanda. The Muhammadans being now on their guard, the Portuguese lost in an attack on Revdanda 100 Europeans and 200 native Portuguese. After this Revdanda was so closely besieged that no aid could reach it by sea. The Portuguese were on the point of capitulating, when the tyranny of the king at Ahmadnagar induced many of the officers to quit the camp and proceed to court. At this time a fleet of sixty vessels full of men and stores, passing close to Korla, under cover of the night, anchored in the harbour of Revdanda where they landed 4000 men, and on the following morning proceeded to attack Korla. Many of the Muhammadans fled in confusion to the fort, where being pursued they were massacred by the enemy. Upwards of 12,000 Muhammadans fell and the fort was reduced to ashes. The destruction of the Dakhanis enabled Burhán Nizám Sháh to raise foreigners to the chief stations in the kingdom. In 1594, to assist Ismáel in deposing his brother Ibráhim Adil Sháh of Bijápur, Burhán marched from Ahmadnagar to Belgaum. But at Paránda, hearing that Ismáel had been taken and put to death, he returned to his capital where he shortly after fell dangerously ill. Ibráhim Adil Sháh to punish Burhán for supporting Ismáel ordered his army to lay waste the Ahmadnagar frontier. On this Burhán entered into an alliance with Venkatádrí of Penkonda who agreed to invade Bijápur on the south, while from the north Burhán sent an army to reduce Sholápur. This expedition ended in disaster. Uzbek Bahádur the Ahmadnagar general was killed and his force defeated under the walls of Sholápur. This news increased Burhán Sháh's disorder. Passing over Ismáel, who was known to be an enemy of the Shiás and a strict Mehdvi, he appointed Ibráhim his successor. In spite of this appointment a report spread that Ismáel was to succeed his father, and all the foreigners fled to Bijápur. Yekhlás Khán Muvallid a partisan of Ismáel raised a force and marched to Ahmadnagar. Burhán Sháh though sick nearly to death was carried in a palanquin at the head of his troops to Humáyunpur, and there defeated the prince who fled to Paránda. The march greatly weakened the king who died on the day after his return to Ahmadnagar (15th March 1594), after a reign of four years and sixteen days.

*Ibráhim Nizám
Sháh,
1594.*

¹ By his father's advice Ibráhim Nizám Sháh appointed Mián Manju Dakhani his tutor to be his prime minister. Yekhlás Khán was pardoned, but he no sooner arrived at Ahmadnagar than he began to collect Abyssinians and Muvallids, and in a short time there were two parties, one headed by the minister and the other by Yekhlás Khán. Affairs fell into confusion and civil war seemed inevitable. As both parties behaved insolently towards Mir Safvi the Bijápur ambassador who had come to condole and congratulate, Ibráhim Adil Sháh declared war and marched to Sháhdurg to help the Ahmadnagar king who had now entirely lost his

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 288-291.

authority. Yekhlás Khán was for war while Mián Manju proposed to conclude a peace with Bijápur that the whole forces of the Deccan might join to meet Akbar's intended invasion. Yekhlás Khán, not to be turned from his purpose of attacking Bijápur gained the king's consent and sent an army to the frontier. Ibráhim Adil Sháh had yet made no attack on Ahmadnagar and Mián Manju again proposed to make overtures of peace. But the king would not hear of retreating, passed the frontier, and levied contributions on the Bijápur villages. Hamid Khán the Bijápur general opposed him, but, at Mián Manju's intercession, who represented the king's conduct as the result of his vicious habits and the evil practices of designing and wicked men, he avoided the Nizám Sháhís and encamped at a distance of two miles. The king who was given to drinking, persisted in an attack on the Bijápur army, and was shot in the head in the action which followed. His troops fled to Ahmadnagar with his body. His reign lasted only four months.

¹ On reaching the capital Mián Manju took possession of the treasury and the fortress and sent for Yekhlás Khán and other officers into the fort to consider the best means for conducting the government. Most of the Abyssinians proposed that the king's only son Bahádur an infant in arms should be proclaimed under the regency of Chánd Bibi his father's aunt. As Mián Manju was opposed to this and instead under his advice it was agreed to bring Ahmad, the son of a certain Sháh Táhir² who had claimed to be the nephew of Husain Nizám Sháh, a boy twelve years of age who was imprisoned at Daulatabad, Ahmad was crowned on the 6th of August 1594 and the prayers were read in the name of the twelve Imáms. The chiefs divided the kingdom among themselves, and removing Bahádur the late king Ibráhim's son from the charge of his aunt, sent him by force to the fortress of Chávand. Shortly after, as it was discovered that Ahmad Sháh was not of the royal family, Yekhlás Khán, with the Muvallids and Abyssinians, deserted his cause. Mián Manju with the Dakhanis encamped in a large body on the plain of the Kála Chabutra near the fort. He despatched his son Mián Hasan with 700 horse to disperse the mob under Yekhlás Khán and himself accompanied by Ahmad went upon a raised ground from whence they could see the result. The two parties engaged and the struggle was long doubtful till a shot from the insurgents struck the king's canopy and caused great confusion in the fort. A report was spread that the king was dead, and

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*Ahmad II.,
1594-1595.*

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 292-304.

² When Husain Nizám Sháh came to the throne (1553) his five brothers Muhammad Khudábanda, Sháh Ali, Máhmud Bákar, Abdul Kádar, and Sháh Haidar thinking they should fall victims to the jealousy of the king, fled from the kingdom. In the latter end of Murtaza Nizám Sháh's reign a person calling himself Sháh Táhir arrived at Daulatabad giving out that he was the son of Muhammad Khudábanda who had died in Bengal, and, that being reduced to distress, he had come into the Deccan. The facts were not then satisfactorily cleared owing to the distance of Bengal and the time which had passed. But as Sháh Táhir claimed royal descent and might one day set up pretensions to the throne he was confined in a fortress. Burhán Nizám Sháh II., who was for some time at Ágra before he came to the throne, wrote refuting Sháh Táhir's story by stating that Khudábanda his uncle died in his house and that his family were still living with him. Sháh Táhir, not to give cause for future trouble, was imprisoned for life. He died some years afterwards leaving a son whose name was Ahmad.

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*Moghals near
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*Chánd Bibi's
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Mián Hasan took to flight and threw himself into the fort. Yekhlás Khán's party advanced and laid siege to the place both by a close blockade and regular approaches. Nehang Khán the Abyssinian and Habash Khán Muvallid, who had been in close confinement at Daulatabad ever since the reign of Burhán Nizám Sháh II. were at once released by Yekhlás Khán's order, but the governor of Chávand refused to comply with his order for the delivery of Bahádur into his hands without the express command of Mián Manju. Yekhlás Khán in the meantime, procuring a child of the same age, proclaimed him as the descendant and lawful heir of the late Ibráhim Nizám Sháh and by this means collected between ten and twelve thousand cavalry. Mián Manju, in a fit of desperation, wrote a letter to Prince Murád Mirza, Akbar's son, who was then in Gujarát, to march to his assistance, promising to give him the Ahmadnagar revenues. Murád, who had been sent to Gujarát with the object of taking advantage of the first opportunity to invade the Deccan, promptly accepted this invitation. Before the letter reached Murád, the Abyssinian chiefs fell out about the distribution of places, and a mutiny took place in Yekhlás Khán's camp. A large body of the Dakhanis deserted him and joined Mián Manju in the fort, who, on the following day (18th September 1595), marched to the neighbourhood of the Idgáh where he attacked and completely routed the Abyssinians. Among the prisoners was the boy whom Yekhlás Khán had created king. About a month after (14th December) prince Murád, at the head of 30,000 Moghal and Rajput horse, accompanied by Rája Ali Khán of Khándesh and Khán Khánán one of Akbar's generals appeared to the north of Ahmadnagar. On reaching the Idgáh a few shots passed between his line and the fort, and the Moghal army encamped in the Hasht-i-Behisht gardens about four miles to the north-west of the fort. Mián Manju, who was in a fair way of settling matters according to his own wishes, repenting of his overtures to Murád, prepared to resist any attempt on the capital. Having supplied it with provisions for a long siege and leaving Ansar Khán one of his adherents to defend the place and Chánd Bibi as regent of the kingdom, he, with the young king Ahmad Sháh, took the route to Ausa to implore the assistance of the Bijápur and Golkonda sovereigns. Chánd Bibi directed all the operations of the siege, and in a few days procured the assassination of Ansar Khán and proclaimed Bahádur Sháh king of Ahmadnagar. Aided by Muhammad Khán, she took the whole management of affairs into her hands, and induced Shamshir Khán Habshi and Afzul Khán Borishi with many of their adherents to join her in the fort. Besides the government in the fort, the Nizám Sháh's were divided into three other parties; Mián Manju and his nominee Ahmad Sháh who were encamped on the Bijápur borders praying for aid to Ibráhim Adil Sháh; Yekhlás Khán near Daulatabad, who had declared another child called Moti to be the rightful heir to the crown; and Nehang Khán the Abyssinian who went to the Bijápur territories induced Sháh Ali the son of Burhán Nizám Sháh I. then upwards of seventy years of age, to leave his retirement and assume the royal canopy. Prince Murád immediately sent off a strong guard to protect the inhabitants of Burhánabad, which had been founded by Burhán Nizám Sháh II. in the neighbourhood of Ahmadnagar, with directions to treat them

with lenity. The troops were also ordered to proclaim protection to all natives, so that they relied entirely on the good disposition of the Moghals towards them. On the second day the prince in person went out, and with the advice of his engineers marked out the ground for the trenches against the fort and allotted to each division of the army its separate post round the garrison. On the 27th Sháhbáz Khán one of the Moghal generals, who was notorious for tyranny and cruelty, under pretence of hunting sallied forth towards Burhánabad, and, in spite of the prince's orders, encouraged his men to plunder, himself setting the example. In the course of an hour the towns of Ahmadnagar and Burhánabad were completely sacked. As soon as the prince heard of these disorders he hanged in front of the lines several men taken with plunder. But the people no longer trusted his promises and during the night both towns were deserted. Yekhlás Khán with a force of 12,000 men, was on his march to the capital, when Daulat Khán Lodi with a body of 6000 Moghal cavalry attacked and totally defeated him on the banks of the Godávári; and thence following up his success, arrived at the flourishing town of Paithan, and sacked it scarcely leaving the people enough to cover themselves.

Though she had proclaimed Bahádur Nizám Sháh, yet as he was still in confinement at Chávand, and as Mián Manju with the present king was also in force on the Bijápur frontier, Chánd Bibi thought it advisable to make overtures to Nehang Khán and Sháh Ali to join her in the fort. Nehang Khán put his force of 7000 men in motion and arrived within twelve miles of Ahmadnagar. He was told that the east face of the fort was not invested and that it was the only road by which he could make his entry. He marched during the night, but when he came within about three miles of the place he found part of the Moghal camp on the direct road pointed out for his entry. This division consisted of a picket of 3000 men under Khán Khánán who had been set there only the morning before as the prince had noticed that this part of the fort was not invested. Nehang Khán resolved to force his way, and coming on the party unexpectedly cut off a number of the Moghals. The post was reinforced but with a few followers he dashed on into the fort. Sháh Ali was less successful and in attempting to retreat 700 of his men were cut off by the Moghals under Daulat Khán Lodi. The Bijápur king hearing of this defeat despatched the eunuch Sohail Khán with 25,000 horse to Sháhdurg on his frontier to await orders. Sohail Khán was here joined by Mián Manju and Ahmad Sháh as well as by Yekhlás Khán, who for the present had laid aside every private consideration, in the hope of saving the government by forming a union. This army was soon after joined by Mehdi Kuli Sultán Turkomán with 6000 Golkonda horse sent express from Haidarabad. Prince Murád, hearing of the assemblage of this force at Sháhdurg, called a council of war and resolved that the fort should be attacked before the allies could relieve it. In a few days five mines were carried under the bastions on one face of the fort. All were charged with powder and built with mortar and stones, excepting where the train was to be laid, and it was

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resolved to fire them on the following morning (20th February 1596). During the night, Khwája Muhammad Khán Shirázi, admiring the resolution of the besieged and unwilling that they should be sacrificed, made his way to the walls and informed them of their danger. At the instance of Chánd Bibi, who herself set the example, the garrison immediately began to countermine. By daylight they had destroyed two of the mines and were searching for the others when the prince, without communicating with Khán Khánán, ordered out the line and resolved to storm without him. The besieged were in the act of removing the powder from the third and largest mine when the prince ordered them to be sprung. Many of the counterminers were killed and several yards of the wall fell. When the breach was made several of the leading officers of the garrison prepared for flight. But Chánd Bibi, clad in armour and with a veil thrown over her face and a drawn sword in her hand, dashed forward to defend the breach. The fugitives to a man returned and joined her, and, as the storming party held back for the springing of the other mines, the besieged had time to throw rockets, powder, and other combustibles into the ditch, and to bring guns to bear on the breach. The Moghals at length advanced to storm. The defence of the foot of the breach was obstinate and the assailants suffered severely from the fire of the besieged. The ditch was nearly filled with dead bodies. From four in the evening till night-fall party after party forced their way into the breach but all were repulsed. Both camps were filled with admiration of the heroic leader of the defence whose title by common consent was raised from Lady Chánd to Queen Chánd. After midnight when the attack slackened, the queen in person superintended the repairs of the breach, and by dawn the wall was built seven or eight feet high. Next day she despatched letters to the allied armies at Bid to hasten their approach, representing the distress of the garrison for supplies. These despatches fell into the enemy's hand who forwarded them to their destination with a letter from prince Murád inviting them to hasten as he was anxious to meet them, the sooner the better.¹ The allies marched by the Mánikdaund hills to Ahmadnagar. The Moghal camp which was much distressed for provisions became still more straitened by the approach of the allies. The prince thought it advisable to make overtures to the fort, and agreed to quit the

¹ Chánd Bibi is the favourite heroine of the Deccan and is the subject of many legends. Even Kháfi Khán mentions her having fired silver balls into the Moghal camp. The common tradition at Ahmadnagar is that when her shot was expended, she loaded her guns with copper, with silver, and with gold coin, and that it was not till she had begun to fire jewels that she agreed to make peace. Elphinstone's History, 456. According to the late Colonel Meadows Taylor, C.S.I., the character and deeds of no Muhammadan princess of the Deccan live so brightly at Ahmadnagar and Bijápur as those of Chánd Bibi. Of all their tales the people love none more than the story of the queen's defence of Ahmadnagar. She is one of several instances in Indian history of a lady of rank, at a crisis of extreme danger, showing great political wisdom, and the highest fortitude and self-reliance. A portrait of her at Bijápur, apparently painted by a Persian artist, a work of art and probably a true likeness, shows her in profile very fair, with blue or gray eyes, a thin aquiline nose and other refined features, a resolute womanly air, and a light graceful figure. Architecture of Bijápur, 36.

country on condition of receiving a grant for the cession of Berár, the sovereignty of which he required Ahmadnagar formally to renounce. Chánd Sultána at first refused these terms, but reflecting that if the allies were defeated she might not obtain even these conditions she signed the treaty in the name of Bahádur Sháh.¹ The Moghals retreated by the route of Daulatabad. Three days after the raising of the siege the allies arrived, Mián Manju expected allegiance to be paid to Ahmad Sháh. To this the nobles in the fort would not agree; Nehang Khán shut the gate of the fort against him and sent a force to bring Bahádur Sháh from his confinement in Chávand. Chánd Sultána now asked the aid of her nephew, the Bijápur king, to quell the internal commotions of the Ahmadnagar kingdom. Ibráhim Adil Sháh sent Mustafa Khán with a body of 4000 men to her aid, and wrote to Mián Manju requiring him to desist from pressing the claims of Ahmad Sháh and to repair to Bijápur. On his arrival at Bijápur, Ibráhim Adil Sháh having clearly ascertained that Ahmad Sháh was not a lineal descendant of the Nizám Sháhi family, gave him a handsome estate for life and enrolled Mián Manju among the nobles of his own kingdom. On his arrival at Ahmadnagar Bahádur Sháh was proclaimed king, and Muhammad Khán, Chánd Sultána's friend and adviser, was appointed Peshwa or minister. Shortly after establishing his authority Muhammad Khán promoted his own adherents and relatives to the chief offices of the state. Thinking that those who had distinguished themselves in the war would not tamely submit to be passed over, Muhammad seized and confined Nehang Khán and Shamshir Khán the two Abyssinian generals, and the rest of the chiefs fearing a similar fate, fled the kingdom. Muhammad Khán's influence at the capital was unrestrained, and Queen Chánd foresaw her approaching loss of power. She wrote to her nephew, Ibráhim Adil Sháh, begging his interference, and asking that a considerable force might be sent to reorganise the government, now usurped by Muhammad Khán. Sohail Khán was again despatched for this purpose with an army to Ahmadnagar with instructions to regulate his conduct according to the wishes of Queen Chánd. In the beginning of 1596, Sohail Khán arrived, and, as Muhammad Khán opposed his entry, he invested the fort, and blockaded it for four months. Muhammad Khán, finding a strong party against him, wrote to Khán Khánán the Moghal commander-in-chief in Berár, promising if he came to his help that he would hold the country as a vassal of the Delhi emperor. Hearing of this treachery the garrison seized Muhammad Khán and delivered him to the queen. This change at once restored her authority. She released Nehang Khán the Abyssinian and appointed him minister. On his way to Bijápur Sohail Khán sent word to Bijápur that the Moghals had laid hands on the town of Páthri

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*Treaty with
the Moghals,
1596.*

*Bahádur Nizám
Sháh,
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¹ Briggs' *Ferishta*, III. 303, 304. After the annexation of Khándesh, the Khán Khánán set out on his expedition to the Deccan. His first step was to lay siege to Ahmadnagar. Chánd Bibi who was at that time ruler of that province made peace under which the territory of Berár was surrendered to Akbar. *Maásir-i-Rahimi* in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 241. The fortress had long been defended by Chánd Bibi the sister of Nizám-ul-Mulk and when besieged dissensions among the Imperial armies averted its capture. Faizi Sirhindí's *Akbarnáma* in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 144.

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which had not been included in the Berár cessions. In reply he was ordered to march against the invaders. Muhammad Kuli Sultán, with a force from Golkonda, was directed to co-operate with Sohail Khán, who was also joined by 20,000 Nizám Sháhi troops from Ahmadnagar. He marched towards Berár with an army of nearly 60,000 horse and camped at the town of Sonpat. Khán Khánán, the Moghal general, joined by Rája Ali Khán of Khándesh, Rája Jagannáth and several other officers of distinction, halted on the banks of the Godávári, and, taking a position close to the enemy, intrenched his camp. For fourteen days beyond partial skirmishes no action took place. In a general action on the 26th of January 1597, though Rája Ali and Jagannáth were both killed, Sohail Khán was compelled to retreat to Sháhdurg, and the Nizám Sháhis retired to Ahmadnagar. Nehang Khán, the minister, gaining unlimited power devised a scheme for seizing Queen Chánd and taking on himself the management of the orphan king and the government. Learning his intentions the queen shut the gates against him, and, securing the person of the king, refused Nehang Khán admittance, saying that he might transact business in the town but not in the fort. Nehang Khán submitted quietly for some days. He then openly attacked the fort and several skirmishes took place. Ibráhim Adil Sháh made overtures to effect a reconciliation, but both parties rejected his offers, as nothing less than complete submission of their rivals would satisfy either. Nehang Khán taking advantage of Khán Khánán's absence and of the rainy season, sent a detachment, and retook the town of Bid from the Moghals. The governor of Bid marched out twelve miles to meet the Ahmadnagar force, but being wounded and defeated, he with great difficulty reached Bid, which was soon invested. Akbar despatched prince Dányál Mirza and Khán Khánán (1599) to the governor's relief, when Nehang Khán immediately raised the siege and marched with 15,000 horse and foot to seize the Jaipur Kotli pass and there meet the Moghals. The prince learning of this movement marched round by the village of Manuri and avoided the pass. Nehang Khán finding himself outmanœuvred and unable to withstand the Moghal force set fire to his heavy baggage and retreated to Ahmadnagar. He wished to compromise matters with the queen but she refused to listen to him and he fled to Junnar. The Moghal forces reached the fort without opposition and having laid siege to it began mining. The unfortunate Queen Chánd placing no trust on those around her, applied for advice to Hamid Khán, an eunuch, and an officer of rank in the fort. Hamid Khán recommended that they should fight and defend the place against the Moghals. The queen declared that after what she had seen of the conduct of officers she could place no trust in them. She thought it advisable to agree to give up the fort, if the safety of the garrison and of their property were secured and then to retire to Junnar with the young king. Hearing this Hamid Khán ran into the streets, declaring that Chánd Sultána was in treaty with the Moghals for the delivery of the fort. The shortsighted and ungrateful Dakhanis, headed by Hamid Khán, rushed into her private rooms and put her to death. In the course of a few days the mines were sprung and several breaches made. The Moghals

*Chánd Bibi's
Murder,
1599.*

stormed and carried the place, giving little or no quarter. Bahádur Sháh and all the children of the royal family were taken prisoners, and the unfortunate king, with the regalia and jewels, was sent to the emperor Akbar at Burhánpur and afterwards confined in the fort of Gwalior.¹ His reign lasted for three years. As the great fort of Asirgad fell at the same time, Akbar made over Khándesh and the Ahmadnagar Deccan to prince Dányál.

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Nizám Sháhís,
1490-1636.*Fall of*
Ahmadnagar,
1599.

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 312. The following are Moghal accounts of the fall of Ahmadnagar. On the second occasion when Khán Khánán attacked Ahmadnagar Sohai the Abyssinian was appointed by Adil Sháh to the command of the army and the armies of Nizám-ul-Mulk, Adil Sháh, Kutb-ul-Mulk, and the Berid Sháhi chief being placed under his command. He came out in considerable strength and confidence. The Khánán with the small force at his command obtained a complete victory over Sohai. He then proceeded to the siege of Ahmadnagar which he reduced, and brought the whole province of the Deccan under the rule of the Delhi emperor, Maásir-í-Rahimi in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 241-2. The operations against Ahmadnagar were protracted, and the royal army was in difficulty about supplies. Evil-disposed persons in all parts began to move. So Mirza Rustam was sent to Prince Dányál with a *lákh* of *mohars*. Násik fell into the hands of the Imperial officers about this time. After the rains Akbar set his heart upon the reduction of Ahmadnagar. He sent directions for using every effort, and he himself proceeded to Burhánpur. Chánd Bibi was for keeping the treaty which she had made with Abu-í-Fazl the writer of this work; but Abhang, that is Nehang Khán, at the head of a large force of Abyssinians and Dakhanis was fighting against her. On the 26th of *Farwardin*, the royal army arrived and suspicion seized upon the Dakhani forces. One man whispered to another that their leaders had made terms with the Imperial army; so this force of Abhang's lost heart and dispersed without making any resistance. On the 2nd *Urdibshust* the various intrenchments were assigned to the various *amirs*. Chánd Bibi was for abiding by the treaty. Several of the leading men on the fortress then took matters into their own hands, and made several unsuccessful sorties. Under the direction of the Prince, great efforts were made to form a *khák-rez* that is to fill the ditch which was thirty to forty *gaz* broad and seven *gaz* deep (*zarpha*). The wall was of bluish stone and twenty-seven *gaz* high. Mines were formed from the trenches of the prince and Mirza Yusuf Khán; but the besieged broke into them and filled them. They even formed a countermine from the inside and exploded it; but it was smothered by the *khák-rez*, and did no damage. The shock split a bastion of the fortress. When this was discovered, efforts were made to clear out the chasm and this being effected, 180 *mans* of gunpowder were placed therein. On the sixth *Sháhryur* it was exploded. The bastion and thirty *gaz* of the wall was blown into the air. The garrison suffered from the falling stones; but not a particle of stone fell on the besiegers. Through the breach rushed the assailants and another party made their way in from the intrenchments of Mirza Yusuf Khán. Fifteen hundred of the garrison were put to the sword; the rest were saved by the solicitations of their friends. Bahádur son of Ibráhim and grandson of Burhán who had been set up as Nizám-ul-Mulk was taken prisoner. Very valuable jewels, embossed arms, a splendid library, fine silks, and twenty-five elephants were among the booty. The guns and ammunition exceeded all compute. The siege was carried on during the rainy season, but by great good fortune there was no flooding to interrupt the construction of the *khák-rez*. The day after the victory heavy rain set in. The siege lasted four months and four days. Abu-í-Fazl's Akbarnáma in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 99-101. Another description of the siege runs as follows: Prince Dányál aided by some of the great *amirs* took the fort of Ahmadnagar by assault. The siege had been carried on for nearly six months and constant fire had been kept up without effect. Khán Khánán thought that mining must be resorted to and as the other nobles agreed with him a mine was formed. It was charged with 180 *mans* of gunpowder and was exploded on the 20th *Sháhryur* in the 45th year of Akbar's reign. A bastion was blown up with seventy or eighty *gaz* of the wall. Khán Khánán, Rája Jagannáth, and the other *amirs* exerted themselves to incite their troops and gave order that the troops were to rush in and finish the work directly after the explosion. This order was duly executed; and in another place a force under Yusuf Khán scaled the wall by means of a mound or *khák-rez*. The assailants pressed on and after a severe fight in which 1000 of the besiegers fell the fortress was captured. The grandson of Nizám-ul-Mulk was taken prisoner and carried to the emperor. Faizi Sirhindi's Akbarnáma in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 144-5.

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MUSALMÁNS.

Nizám Sháhís,
1490-1636.*Nizám Sháhí
Institutions.*

The Ahmadnagar dominions extended over the greater part of Berár and the whole of what was afterwards included in the *subha* of Aurangabad, Gálna, and some other districts in Násik and Khándesh and the district of Kalyán in the Konkan from Bánkot to Basscin. Under the Ahmadnagar kings, though perhaps less regularly than afterwards under the Moghals, the country was divided into districts or *sarkárs*. The district was distributed among subdivisions which were generally known by Persian names, *pargana*, *karyát*, *sammat*, *mahál*, and *táluka*, and sometimes by the Hindu names of *pránt* and *desh*. The hilly west, which was generally managed by Hindu officers, continued to be arranged by valleys with their Hindu names of *khora*, *mura*, and *mával*. The collection of the revenue was generally entrusted to farmers, the farms sometimes including only one village. Where the revenue was not farmed, its collection was generally entrusted to Hindu officers. Over the revenue farmers was a government agent or *amil*, who, besides collecting the revenue, managed the police and settled civil suits. Civil suits relating to land were generally referred to juries or *pancháyats*. Though the chief power in the country was Muhammadan, large numbers of Hindus were employed in the service of the state. The garrisons of hill forts seem generally to have been Hindus, Maráthás, Kolis, and Dhangars, a few places of special strength being reserved for Musalmán commandants or *killedárs*. Besides the hill forts some parts of the open country were left under loyal Marátha and Bráhmañ officers with the title of estateholder or *jágirdár*, and of district head or *deshmukh*. Estates were generally granted on military tenure, the value of the grant being in proportion to the number of troops which the grant-holder maintained. Family feuds or personal hate, and, in the case of those whose lands lay near the borders of two kingdoms, an intelligent regard for the chances of war, often divided Marátha families and led members of one family to take service under rival Musalmán states. Hindus of distinguished service were rewarded with the Hindu titles of *rája*, *náik*, and *ráu*. Numbers of Hindus were employed in the Ahmadnagar armies.¹

Marátha Chiefs.

The Marátha chiefs under Ahmadnagar were Ráv Jádhav, Rája Bhonsle, and many others of less note. Jádhavráv, Deshmukh of Sindkhed is supposed, with much probability, to have been a descendant of the Rájás of Devgad. Lakhji Jádhavráv in the end of the sixteenth century held an estate or *jágir* under the Nizám Sháhi government for the support of 10,000 horse. The respectable family of the Bhonslás, which produced the great Shiváji, first rose to notice under the Ahmadnagar government. They are said to have held several *pátílships*, but their principal residence was at the village of Verul or Elura near Daulatabad. Bhosáji who is said to have been the first of the family to settle in the Deccan, and from whom the name Bhonsla is sometimes derived, claimed descent from a younger or from an illegitimate son of the royal family of Udepur in Rájputána. Máloji Bhonsla married Dipábái the sister of

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 36, 38.

Jagpálráv Náik Nimbálkar the *deshmukh* of Phaltan. At the age of twenty-five, in the year 1577, by the interest of Lukhji Jádheváv he was entertained in the service of Murtaza Nizám Sháh with a small party of horse of which he was the proprietor. Máloji was an active *shiledár* or cavalier, and acquitted himself so well in various duties entrusted to him that he began to rise to distinction. He had by some means made an addition to his small body of horse and was always much noticed by his first patron Jádheváv. The story told of his rise to power in the Ahmadnagar court is, that in 1599 at the time of the *Holi* festival in March-April, Máloji took his son Sháháji, a remarkably fine boy of five, to pay his respects to Lukhji Jádheváv, Máloji's patron. Lukhji Jádheváv, pleased with the boy, seated Sháháji near Jiji his daughter a child of three or four. The children began to play, and Lukhji joking said to the girl, 'How would you like him for a husband.' The guests laughed but Máloji rose and solemnly accepted Lukhji's offer of marriage. Lukhji and his wife were furious, but Máloji was unshaken.

He retired to his village, where, it is said, the goddess Bhaváni appeared to him and discovered a large treasure. At all events he and his brother Vithoji became possessed of money in some secret manner, which Grant Duff suspects was by robbery. Their agent or their receiver was a banker of Chámbhargonde or Shrigonde about thirty miles south of Ahmadnagar, named Shesho Náik Punde, in whose hands the cash was placed.¹ According to Marátha legends, the discovery of this treasure was the means provided by the goddess for carrying out her promise, that one of the clan would become a king and found a family which would reign for twenty-seven generations. Máloji spent his money in buying horses, and in the popular works of digging ponds and wells and endowing temples. He still clung to his favourite scheme of being connected with the family of Jádheváv. Jagpálráv Naik Nimbálkar of Phaltan, the brother of Dipábái Máloji's wife, warmly interested himself to promote the proposed marriage of his nephew. Wealth and power at a falling court like that of Ahmadnagar could procure anything. As Jádheváv's chief objection was Máloji's want of rank, this difficulty was removed by raising him to the command of 5000 horse with the title of Máloji Rája Bhonsle. The forts of Shivneri and Chákan in Poona with their dependent districts were likewise placed in his charge; and the sub-divisions of Poona and Supa were made over to him as estates. Jádheváv had no longer any excuse for not performing what he was urged to by his sovereign (1604). The marriage of Sháháji to Jijibái was celebrated with great pomp, and was honoured by the presence of the Sultan.²

On the fall of Ahmadnagar (1600) the emperor Akbar conferred the government of the country on Khwája Beg Mirza Safawi a relation of Sháh Tamasp of Persia and Mirza Muhammad Sálh,

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¹ It is remarkable, as it bespeaks a connection maintained, that Shiváji's treasurer in 1669 was the grandson of Shesho Náik Punde. Grant Duff's *Maráthás*, 106.

² Grant Duff's *Maráthás*, 40, 42.

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Nizám Sháhi,
1490-1636.*Murtaza Nizám
Sháh II.,
1599-1631.*

who lived in the country, and, according to the Moghal historian, conferred many kindnesses, obligations, and comforts on the people.¹ The officers of the Ahmadnagar kingdom refused to admit that the fall of the capital carried with it all hope of independence. They declared Murtaza the son of Sháh Ali king and made Paránda about seventy-five miles south-east of Ahmadnagar their capital. Of these officers Malik Ambar an Abyssinian and Mián Ráju Dakhani,² in spite of the Moghal forces, for more than twenty years held almost the whole of the Nizám Sháhi dominions. Malik Ambar's rule extended from the Kutb Sháhi and Adil Sháhi borders within two miles of Bid and eight of Ahmadnagar, and from sixteen miles west of Daulatabad to within the same distance of the port of Cheul. Mián Ráju held Daulatabad and the country north and south from the Gujarát frontier to within twelve miles of Ahmadnagar. Both officers professed allegiance to Murtaza Nizám Sháh II. whom they kept in the fort of Ausa about 130 miles south-east of Ahmadnagar and gave the revenues of a few surrounding villages for his subsistence. Malik Ambar and Mián Ráju were bitter rivals and their rivalry often broke into open hostility. Khán Khánán, the Moghal governor of Ahmadnagar, learning of their rivalry, sent a party from Berár to take a small district belonging to Malik Ambar on the Telingan boundary. Malik Ambar started to relieve his district with a detachment of six to seven thousand horse and succeeded in defeating the Moghals and recovering the land. Mirza Airich, the son of Khán Khánán, was at once sent to attack him with a picked force of 5000 horse. In a severe battle at Nánder about 200 miles east of Ahmadnagar many were slain on both sides and in the end the Dakhanis were beaten and Malik Ambar who lay wounded on the field was saved from falling into the enemy's hands only by the devoted gallantry of his attendants.³ Málík Ambar recovered from his wounds, and gathered fresh troops. Khán Khánán, fearing his popularity and enterprise, made overtures for peace. Malik Ambar, who suspected the late attack was due to Mián Ráju's enmity, gladly accepted the offer, and a treaty was concluded under which Malik Ambar was confirmed in the possession of his territory. Ever after this Khán Khánán and Malik Ambar continued on the most friendly terms.

Not long after this Venkatráv Koli, Farhád Khán Moʻallid, Malik Sandal, and other officers deserted Malik Ambar and joined Murtaza Nizám Sháh II. at Ausa. Málík Ambar marched against the malcontents and defeated them under the walls of the fort. Venkatráv was taken prisoner, but the other chiefs fled with the king into the fort and came to terms. As Malik Ambar was anxious to gain Paránda he took the king with him to that fortress. The governor refused

¹ Anfa'u-l-Akhbár in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 247.

² Of Malik Ambar's origin the stories vary. The most consistent of them is that in his youth he was a personal adherent of Changiz Khán, the too loyal minister of Murtaza Nizám Sháh I. and from this able patron acquired the knowledge for which he was afterwards famous. Elphinstone's History of India. According to Grant Duff Mián Ráju was a Hindu; according to Briggs he was a Musalmán.

³ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 315.

to surrender to Malik Ambar, who, he said, belonged to the Moghal party. Malik protested that he was a true and loyal servant of the Nizám Sháhi family and was ready to support his king with his last breath. Still the commandant refused to admit him into the fort, the garrison were strengthened by Farhád Khán and Malik Sandal, and, to prevent the king from joining the Paránda governor, Malik Ambar was forced to keep him a state prisoner. After a month's siege the people of the town rose and slew the governor's son who had been guilty of some cruelty and forced the father, Farhád Khán, and Malik Sandal to fly to Bijápur. The garrison still held out, but Malik Ambar, freeing Murtaza from restraint, was allowed to introduce the king into the fort while he himself remained encamped outside.¹ In 1604 Prince Dányál, the Moghal governor of the Deccan, whose head-quarters were at Burhánpur on the eastern borders of Khándesh, came to Ahmadnagar to receive his bride the Bijápur king's daughter. The prince expected that, as Malik Ambar had done, Mián Ráju would meet him and acknowledge his authority in the Deccan. Mián Ráju was asked to the Moghal camp, but, instead of attending, so harassed Dányál's army with 8000 light cavalry, that Khán Khánán had to march against him with 5000 cavalry from Jálna. After the marriage which was celebrated at Paithan; the prince returned to Burhánpur and Khán Khánán to Jálna.²

The French traveller Francois Pyrard, who was in India between 1601 and 1608 writes: The reigning prince of Cheul is called Melique that is Malik and is a vassal of the great Moghal. The Malik, he adds, has a large number of elephants. When he dines he sends for many handsome women who sing and dance during the meal. Then some of them cut a piece of cloth called taffety into bits so minute that they have no other use than that of being carried away by the spectators, who stick them on to their breasts, as if they were so many medals. When the spectacle is over, the king remains alone in his palace, his mind absorbed in the contemplation of the vanity and uncertainty of life until he goes to sleep.³

Meanwhile Murtaza complained to Mián Ráju of the treatment he received from Malik Ambar. Mián Ráju marched to Paránda without opposition, conferred with the king, and promised to reduce Malik Ambar. When Malik Ambar heard of Mián Ráju's approach, he marched to meet him. For about a month the two forces were camped near Paránda. Several skirmishes ended so favourably for Mián Ráju that Malik Ambar asked Khán Khánán for help. Mirza Husain Ali Beg, the Moghal governor of Bid, was at once sent to Malik's aid, with 3000 cavalry. Mián Ráju was defeated, and fled to Daulatabad. After this the death of Prince Dányál and the absence of Khán Khánán from Jálna gave Malik Ambar an opportunity of spreading his power. Gathering an army he marched to Daulatabad, and defeated Mián Ráju, who applied to Khán Khánán for aid.⁴ Khán Khánán came and for six months

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1490-1636.

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 316.

² Da Cunha's Chaul, 63.

³ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 317.

⁴ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 318.

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Nizám Sháhis,
1490-1636.

*Malik Ambar's
Regency,
1607-1626.*

prevented the rival chiefs from attacking each other; in the end Malik Ambar, perceiving that Khán Khánán was rather well disposed to Mián Rájú, deemed it politic to yield to his wishes and make peace. On his return to Paránda, finding Murtaza constantly intriguing and raising factions against him, Malik thought of deposing him and choosing a less independent successor. Before taking action Malik consulted Ibráhim Adil Sháh of Bijápur, and as he was strongly opposed to the scheme, Malik Ambar gave it up. In 1607 Malik made Murtaza's position easier and more dignified, and mutual confidence was established. In the same year at the head of 10,000 cavalry they marched together against Junnar and made it the seat of Murtaza's government. From Junnar Malik despatched an army to Daulatabad. Mián Rájú was defeated and taken prisoner and his territory became part of Murtaza's dominions. In the following years Malik Ambar's power increased. He founded a new capital at Khadki, whose name Aurangzeb afterwards (1658-1707) changed¹ to Aurangabad, and, profiting by dissensions between Khán Khánán and the other generals, repeatedly defeated the Moghal troops, and invested the town of Ahmadnagar. Every effort was made to defend the place and Khán Khánán and the other Moghal nobles who were with Prince Parvez at Burhánpur marched to relieve it. Through the jealousies and dissensions of the leaders, and from want of supplies, the army was conducted by roads through mountains and difficult passes, and shortly became so disorganized and so badly supplied with food that it was forced to retreat.² In spite of the efforts of the commandant Khwája Beg the Ahmadnagar garrison was so disheartened by the retreat of the relieving force that Khwája Beg capitulated and retired to Burhánpur. As Khwája Beg had acted with skill and bravery, he was promoted to the command of 5000. At the same time he was removed and Khán Jahán Lodi was sent in his place.³ In 1612 to restore success to their arms in the Deccan, Jahángir organised a combined attack on Malik Ambar. At the same moment Abdulla Khán, the viceroy of Gujarát, was to advance from Gujarát and Prince Parvez and Khán Jahán Lodi, reinforced by Rájá Mánasing, were to advance from Khándesh and Berár. Before the time agreed on, Abdulla Khán arrived from Gujarát and Malik Ambar hurried to attack him before the Khándesh and Berár armies could take the field. The neighbourhood of the European ports enabled Malik to have better artillery than the Moghals, and his artillery afforded a rallying point on which he could always collect his army. But under ordinary circumstances, like the Maráthás after him, Malik trusted more to his light cavalry than to his artillery. His light horsemen cut off the Moghal supplies and harassed their march, hovered round their army when they halted, alarmed them with false attacks, and often made incursions into the camp, carrying off booty and causing constant disorder and alarm. These tactics were applied with unusual vigour

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 483.

² Elphinstone's India, 480.

³ Wakiat-i-Jahángiri in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 324.

and success to prevent the advance of the Gujarát army. Abdulla Khán, the viceroy of Gujarát, who had advanced well into Khándesh was so worn by this warfare that he determined to retire. His rear-guard was cut to pieces, and his retreat had nearly become a flight before he found refuge in the hills and forests of Báglán, whence he passed in quiet to Gujarát. By this time the Khándesh and Berár armies had taken the field, but disheartened with the failure of the plan of the campaign they feared to risk a battle and centred their forces at Burhánpur. In spite of the success with which he guarded the Deccan from the advance of Moghal power Malik Ambar had the greatest difficulty in keeping his confederates and even his own officers loyal to him. In 1620, chiefly owing to the rivalry of other Musalmán officers, Malik Ambar was defeated in a great battle with the Moghals near the northern boundary of Ahmadnagar. Though apparently no share of the shame for this defeat attached to the Maráthás in Malik Ambar's service, for Sháháji Bhonsla who had succeeded his father Máloji, Lakhji Jádhavráv, and one of the Náiks of Phaltan all fought with distinguished bravery, the result of the battle so disheartened them, that in 1621 several Maráthás went over to the Moghals. The most important of the chiefs who deserted Malik Ambar was Lakhji Jádhavráv Deshmukh of Sindkhed the chief Marátha estateholder under the Nizám Sháhi government. The very high importance which the Moghals attached to the Marátha leaders is shown by the fact that Lakhji Jádhavráv was given a command of 24,000 with 15,000 horse and that his relations were raised to high rank.¹ After the desertion of the Marátha chiefs Malik Ambar suffered a second defeat which so discouraged the allies, that Prince Sháh Jahán who was sent to the Deccan found little difficulty in detaching the king of Bijápur from the confederacy. Malik Ambar, entirely deserted, was forced to tender Murtaza's submission and to restore the fort of Ahmadnagar and all the territory he had won back from the Moghals. Soon after Sháh Jahán retired to Delhi. In his absence Malik Ambar renewed hostilities, overran the open country, and forced the Moghal commander into Burhánpur. Sháh Jahán was ordered to march against him and was supplied with a powerful army and great treasures. Sháh Jahán, who conducted this and his other Deccan campaigns with great ability, taking his brother Prince Khusru with him, started for the Deccan. Before he reached Málwa a detachment of Malik Ambar's had crossed the Narbada and burned the suburbs of Mándu, but they were driven back as the prince advanced. Malik Ambar as usual cut off supplies and detachments, hung on the line of march, and attempted by long and rapid marches to surprise the camp. He found Sháh Jahán always on his guard and at last was forced to risk the fate of the campaign in a general action, in which he was defeated with considerable loss. King Murtaza moved to Daulatabad and the imperial forces destroyed Khadki, and advanced to Paithan on their way to relieve Ahmadnagar which was besieged by a force

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¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 43.

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of Malik Ambar's. Feeling further resistance hopeless Malik Ambar sent envoys to express repentance and ask forgiveness. He promised ever afterwards to remain loyal and to pay tribute, and in addition to furnish a war indemnity. A great scarcity of provisions in the imperial camp made Sháh Jahán anxious to accept Malik Ambar's submission.¹ Khanjar Khán, the commandant of Ahmadnagar, was strengthened by fresh troops and treasure, and it was agreed that about thirty miles of territory near Ahmadnagar should be ceded to the Moghals and £500,000 (Rs. 50 *lákhs*) paid into the Imperial treasury.²

In 1624 in the hope of gaining the management of the Deccan, Malik Ambar who was then at war with Ibráhim Adil Sháh of Bijápur, sent an envoy to Mohábat Khán the Moghal commander-in-chief in the Deccan to express obedience and devotion. Ibráhim Adil Sháh about the same time made similar offers and his offers were accepted. Malik Ambar, vexed and disappointed, sent his children with his wives and attendants to the fortress of Daulatabad³ and marched with the king from Khadki to Kándhár on the borders of Golkonda to receive his fixed payments or *zar-i-mukári* which were two years in arrear. After receiving the tribute and securing himself on that side by a treaty and oath Malik marched to Bedar, surprised and defeated Ibráhim Adil Sháh's forces, and plundered Bedar. From Bedar he marched against Bijápur. As his best troops and officers were at Burhánpur; Ibráhim Adil Sháh avoided a battle and took shelter in Bijápur. When they heard of Malik Ambar's success, Lashkar Khán and all the Deccan nobles, together with Muhammad Lari the commander of the Moghal troops, marched from Burhánpur towards Bijápur. Malik Ambar wrote to the Imperial officers stating that he was not less loyal to the Imperial throne than Ibráhim Adil Sháh and asking that Nizám-ul-Mulk and Adil Sháh might be allowed to settle their old standing differences without interference. To this remonstrance the Moghal officers paid no attention. As they continued to advance Malik Ambar was forced to raise the siege of Bijápur and retire into his own territories. Even here he was followed by the Moghal army, and, in spite of most humble offers, Muhammad Lari the Moghal commander persisted in hunting him down. At last, driven to desperation, and taking advantage of the carelessness which their belief in his powerlessness had brought on the Moghals, Malik suddenly fell on their camp ten miles from Ahmadnagar. At the first onset Muhammad Lari the Moghal commander was killed. His fall threw the Bijápur forces into confusion. JádHAVRÁV and Udárám fled without striking a blow, and the defeat ended in a rout. Ikhlás Khán and twenty-five of Adil Sháh's leading officers were taken prisoners. Of these Farhád Khán who had sought Malik Ambar's death was executed and the others imprisoned. Lashkar Khán and other Imperial chiefs were also made prisoners. Khanjar Khán by great exertions escaped to Ahmadnagar and prepared the fortress for a siege, and Ján Sipár Khán

¹ Elphinstone's History of India, 562, 563.

² Wákiat-i-Jahángiri in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 380.

³ Ikbál Náma-i-Jahángiri in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 411-412.

reached Bid and set the fort in order. Of the rest who escaped some fled to Ahmadnagar and some to Burhánpur. Malik Ambar, successful beyond his hopes, sent his prisoners to Daulatabad and marched to lay siege to Ahmadnagar. As, in spite of every effort, he made no impression on Ahmadnagar, Malik left part of his army to maintain the investment and himself marched against Bijápur. Ibráhim Adil Sháh took refuge in the fortress and Malik Ambar occupied his territories as far as the frontiers of the Imperial dominions in the Bálághát. He collected an excellent army and laid siege to and took Sholápur. So complete was his success that the Moghal officers received strict orders from Delhi to keep within the forts they held and attempt no operations until reinforcements arrived.¹

Malik Ambar died in 1626 in the eightieth year of his age. Great as was his success as a general, Malik Ambar is best known by his excellent land system. He stopped revenue-farming, and, under Musalmán supervision, entrusted the collection of the revenues to Bráhman agents. He renewed the broken village system, and, when several years of experiments had enabled him to ascertain the average yield of a field, took about two-fifths of the outturn in kind, and afterwards (1614) commuted the grain payment to a cash payment representing about one-third of the yield. Unlike Todar Mal, Akbar's (1556-1605) famous minister by whom the lands of North India were settled, Malik Ambar did not make his settlement permanent, but allowed the demand to vary in accordance with the harvest. This system was so successful that, in spite of his heavy war charges, his finances prospered and his country thrived and grew rich.²

Malik Ambar left two sons Fattéh Khán and Changiz Khán, of whom Fattéh Khán the eldest succeeded him as regent of the Nizám Sháhi kingdom. As, after Malik Ambar's death, Nizám-ul-Mulk in concert with Fattéh Khán continued the war against the Moghals, Khán Jahán placed Lashkar Khán in charge of Burhánpur and marched to Khadki. Nizám-ul-Mulk, who was in the fortress of Daulatabad, made Hamid Khán an able Abyssinian slave his commander-in-chief, and delivered over to him the management of his state. According to the Moghal historians Nizám-ul-Mulk was kept under control out of doors by the Abyssinian and indoors by the Abyssinian's wife.³ When Khán Jahán drew near to Daulatabad, Hamid Khán took £75,000 (3 *lákhs* of *huns*) and went to meet him. The Abyssinian's wiles and a love of money led Khán Jahán astray. He took the £75,000

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Nizám Sháhi,
1490-1636.

*Malik Ambar's
Death,
1626.*

*Fattéh Khán's
Regency,
1626-1632.*

¹ *Ikbál Náma-i-Jahángiri* in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 414, 417.

² Grant Duff's *Maráthás*, 43; Elphinstone's *History of India*, 553. In warfare, in command, in sound judgment, and in administration Malik Ambar had no equal. He well understood the predatory or *kuzzáki* warfare which in the language of the Deccan is called *bárgigiri*. He kept down the unruly, maintained his high position to the end of his life, and closed his career in honour. History records no other instance of an Abyssinian slave rising to such greatness. *Ikbál Náma-i-Jahángiri* in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 423-429.

³ Hamid Khán the Abyssinian married a poor woman who served in Nizám-ul-Mulk's palace. She made herself so useful in supplying the king with wine and women that she was as much mistress inside the palace as her husband was master outside. *Ikbál Náma-i-Jahángiri* in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 433.

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Nizám Sháhís,
1490-1636.

and agreed to restore to Nizám-ul-Mulk all the Bálághát as far as Ahmadnagar. He wrote to the commandants of the different posts ordering them to give up the places to the officers of Nizám-ul-Mulk and to return to court. Sipahdár Khán the commandant of Ahmadnagar received one of these letters, but when Nizám-ul-Mulk's officers reached Ahmadnagar the Khán said : Take the country ; it is yours ; but without the Emperor's order I will not surrender the fort. The representatives of Nizám-ul-Mulk did their utmost to persuade him, but in vain. Sipahdár Khán never swerved, and busied himself in laying in provisions, and putting the fortress in a state of defence. The other officers weakly surrendered at the command of Khán Jahán and repaired to Burhánpur.¹ Khán Jahán was recalled and soon after made his escape to Gondvan.

In 1629 Murtaza Nizám Sháh II. came of age. He was wanting in ability, vindictive, flighty, and unfit to meet the difficulties by which he was surrounded. His first care was to reduce the regent's power a task which Fattéh Khán's violent and inconsistent conduct made easy. With the help of an officer named Takkarib Khán Murtaza seized Fattéh Khán and threw him into confinement. He managed his state with so little ability that it became a scene of faction offering every advantage to his foreign enemies. Sháháji Bhonsla broke his connection with Murtaza and went to the Moghals who confirmed him in his estates, gave him the command of 5000 horse and a dress of honour, and £20,000 (Rs. 2,00,000) in cash.² Judging the time suitable for a further advance of his power Sháh Jahán, now Emperor of Delhi, marched into the Deccan at the head of a great army and took the field in person. By the time Sháh Jahán reached the Ahmadnagar country, the Moghal force was aided by a movement from Gujarát. Khán Jahán, after some unavailing attempts to make head against this great force, retired to the south, and, by rapid movements, eluded the Moghal detachments. Failing to persuade the Bijápúr king to take up his cause, he was once more obliged to enter the Ahmadnagar dominions. Murtaza Nizám Sháh, in spite of the desertion of JádHAVRÁV and Sháháji Bhonsla, had sufficient confidence to try a decisive battle. He assembled his army at Daulatabad and took post in strong ground among the neighbouring passes. But the strength of the Imperial troops was too great for him, and he was forced to seek safety in his forts and in desultory warfare. Khán Jahán, overwhelmed by the defeat of his allies, the destruction of their territory, and the additional calamities of famine and pestilence, retired from the country. The flight of Khán Jahán did not end the war with Nizám Sháh. At this time the Deccan was wasted by famine. The rains of 1629 failed and the sufferings were raised to a terrible pitch by a second failure of rain in 1630. Vast numbers remained in their homes and died, and, of the thousands who left their homes, many perished before they passed beyond the limits of the famine-

*Famine,
1629-30.*

¹ Ikbál Náma-i-Jahángiri in Elliot and Dowson, VI. 433, 434, 437.

² Bádsháh Náma in Elliot and Dowson, VII. 15. The details of Sháháji's command or *mansab* vary from 5000 to 15,000 horse. Ditto and footnote.

stricken country. Large tracts fell waste and some did not recover at the end of forty years. Besides of grain there was a total failure of forage and all the cattle died. To complete the miseries the famine was followed by a pestilence.¹

In the midst of these horrors Ázam Khán, the most active of Sháh Jahán's officers, continued to press Murtaza Nizám Sháh, who, ascribing his disasters to the misconduct of his minister, removed him from his office, released Fatteh Khán from prison, and restored him to power. Foreseeing the ruin of the Nizám Sháhi government and the consequent danger to himself the Bijápur king brought a reasonable relief to the weaker party by declaring war against the Moghals. This aid came too late to save Murtaza Nizám Sháh from his own imprudence. Fatteh Khán, more mindful of former injuries than of recent favours and ambitious of recovering his father's authority, turned all his power to Murtaza's destruction. Aided by Murtaza's weakness and unpopularity he was soon strong enough to put him and his chief adherents to death and to take the government into his own hands (1631). At the same time he sent an offer of submission and a large contribution to the Moghals, and set an infant on the throne openly professing that he held his dignity from the Emperor. His terms were at once accepted and Sháh Jahán turned his whole force against Bijápur. Fatteh Khán evaded the fulfilment of his promises, was again attacked by the Moghals, and once more joined his cause with that of the Bijápur king. He was afterwards reconciled to the Moghals, and during the progress of the war made several more faithless and shifty changes.

In 1632, Sháh Jahán returned to Delhi, leaving Mohábat Khán in command of the Deccan. After some time Mohábat Khán succeeded in shutting Fatteh Khán in Daulatabad where he defended himself with occasional aid from the king of Bijápur. The fate of the Nizám Sháhi monarchy was at last decided by a general action in which the combined attempt of the Dakhanis to raise the siege was defeated. Fatteh Khán soon after surrendered and entered the Moghal service, while the king whom he had set up was sent prisoner to Gwalior. In 1634, Mohábat Khán was recalled and the Deccan was divided into two commands under Kháni Daurán and Kháni Zamán. This change weakened the Moghals. The Nizám Sháhi monarchy, which, on the surrender of Fatteh Khán seemed to have come to an end, was revived by Sháháji Bhonsla, who, disgusted by the Moghals' treatment of him, had gone to Bijápur and had fought against them. After the fall of Daulatabad Sháháji aspired to the regency and accordingly proclaimed another prince as the lawful heir of Nizám Sháh. With the aid of some Bráhmans he began to manage the country, seized the forts, occupied the districts in the name of the new king, and gathered troops from all quarters. Except a few forts he succeeded for a time in overrunning the whole of the Ahmadnagar Konkan and the country as far east as Ahmadnagar from the Nira river on the south to the Chándor range on the north.²

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MUSALMÁNS,
Nizám Sháhis,
1490-1636.

*Murtaza Nizám
Sháh Murdered,
1631.*

*Fall of
Daulatabad,
1632.*

*Sháháji Bhonsla
proclaims himself
Regent,
1632.*

¹ Elphinstone's History of India, 507. See also Badsháh Náma in Elliot and Dowson, VII. 24-25.

² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 50.

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*End of the
Nizám Sháhí
Dynasty,
1636.*

Sháh Jahán marched from Ágra and reached the Deccan in November 1635. A force was at once sent to recover the kingdom of Ahmadnagar. When he had driven Sháháji from the open country and reduced many of his leading forts, Sháh Jahán turned against the Bijápur king, who, in 1636, after a long struggle agreed to pay Sháh Jahán £700,000 (Pagodás 20 *lákhs*) a year, and in return received the south and south-east portions of the Nizám Sháhí dominions. Sháháji held out for some time. At length he submitted, gave up his pretended king, and with Sháh Jahán's consent entered the Bijápur service. Sháh Jahán returned to Ágra and the kingdom of Ahmadnagar was at an end.

Moghals,
1636-1759.

After the peace of 1636 Sháh Jahán endeavoured to improve the conquered territory. The two governments of Ahmadnagar and Khándesh were united, and prince Aurangzeb, who remained for only a short time, was appointed viceroy. The chief change which followed Sháh Jahán's conquest of Ahmadnagar was the introduction of the revenue system of Akbar's great financier Todar Mal. Under Todar Mal's settlement the lands were first assessed with reference to their fertility, in a proportion varying from one-half to one-seventh of the gross produce, according to the cost of tillage and the kind of crop grown. The government share was then commuted for a money payment, and in time when the land was measured, classed, and registered the assessment was fixed at a fourth of the yearly produce of each field. This system was introduced in the districts north of the Bhima under the superintendence of Murshed Kuli Khán an able officer who for nearly twenty years was engaged on the settlement. Murshed's system differed from Malik Ambar's chiefly in being a permanent settlement, while Malik Ambar's varied from year to year.¹ The Moghal system is known as the *Tankha* settlement a name taken from the silver coin which took the place of the old copper *Takka*. Another Moghal change was the introduction of the *Fasli* or harvest year into the Deccan. The *Fasli* or harvest year, which was started by Akbar (1556-1605), was a solar year and began from the *mrig* or opening of the south-west monsoon early in June. As no attempt was made to reconcile the *Fasli* or solar Musalmán year with their lunar year, the *Fasli* differed from the regular lunar Musalmán year more than three years every century. The measuring of their lands and the fixing of their rents proved very distasteful to the Kolis of West Ahmadnagar. Their head chief or *sarnáik*, Kheni, persuaded the chiefs to promise on the first chance to rise and free themselves from Moghal rule. The successes of the young Shiváji (1627-1680), son of Sháháji Bhonsla and the founder of the Marátha empire, seemed to the Kolis the chance they were waiting for. The whole country rose and the rising was not put down without extreme severities, among which the destruction of the whole of the Koli *sarnáik's* family and the pyramid of Koli heads at the Black Platform or *kála chabutra* in Junnar were still remembered by the Ahmadnagar Kolis in 1830.²

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 56-57.

² Captain Mackintosh in Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. I. 241-242.

In 1650, Shiváji preferred a claim on the part of his father or of himself to the *deshmukh's* dues in the Ahmadnagar districts to which he alleged they had an hereditary right. As was probably foreseen Shiváji's agent at Ágra did not succeed in obtaining a promise of the *deshmukh's* share, but he brought back a letter from Sháh Jahán, promising that the claim should be taken into consideration if Shiváji came to court. In the same year (1650) prince Aurangzeb was appointed viceroy of the Deccan for the second time. For several years he devoted his talents to perfecting the revenue settlement and protecting and encouraging travellers and merchants. He established his seat of government at Malik Ambar's town of Khadki, which, after his own name, he called Aurangabad.¹

In 1657 Shiváji, who since 1650 had greatly increased his power, marched by unfrequented roads to Ahmadnagar in the hope of surprising the town. His attempt was partially successful. But while his men were plundering, he was attacked and several of his party were killed by a detachment from the fort.²

During the rains of 1662, under Moropant his minister or Peshwa Shiváji's infantry gained several strongholds north of Junnar, and as soon as the country was dry enough, his horse headed by Netáji Pálkar ravaged the Moghal districts without mercy. Netáji was ordered to plunder the villages and levy contributions from the towns. Exceeding these orders he swept the country close to Aurangabad, moved rapidly from place to place, and spread terror in all directions. Sháiste Khán, who, with the title of Amir-ul-Umráh, had been appointed to succeed prince Muazzam as viceroy, was ordered to punish this daring raid. He marched from Aurangabad with a great force and took the route by Ahmadnagar and Pedgaon to Poona.³ In 1663 while Sháiste Khán was in Poona, Netáji Pálkar again appeared burning and plundering near Ahmadnagar. A party sent to cut him off succeeded in surprising and killing several of his men. The pursuit was hot and Netáji who was wounded would apparently have been taken had not Rustum Zamán the Bijápur general favoured his escape. At the beginning of the rains of 1664 and again of 1665 Netáji was most successful in plundering the country. In August 1665, Shiváji surprised and plundered the town of Ahmadnagar and raided near Aurangabad.⁴

In 1671 at the head of Shiváji's infantry the Peshwa Moropant took several forts, among them Aundha and Patta in Akola. Shortly after this the strength of the Moghals, which, for some time had been short, was increased by an army of 40,000 men under Mohábat Khán who began operations against Shiváji by endeavouring to reduce his forts. He took Aundha and Patta at the setting in of the rains and withdrew to cantonments.⁵ The same year Khán Jahán, the new viceroy, occupied the Sahyádrí passes and several parties of

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Moghals,
1636-1759.*Shiváji's*
Incursions,
1650-1680.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 63. Fatteh Khán, son of Malik Ambar, had before changed the name to Fattahnagar.

² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 74.

⁴ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 87.

³ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 86-87.

⁵ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 92.

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Moghals,
1636-1759.

Marátha horse appeared near Aurangabad and Ahmadnagar. The viceroy went in pursuit of them but without success, and at last cantoned for the rains at Pedgaon on the Bhima where he built a fort and gave it the name of Báhárdurgad.¹ In 1675 some Moghal aggressions under Diláwar Khán gave Shiváji an excuse for breaking the terms of the Purandhar convention (1665). Moropant, who was ordered to act against the Moghals, attacked and retook Aundha and Patta, and Hambirráv the Marátha commander-in-chief plundered the country to Burhánpur.² On his return after crossing the Godávari Hambirráv was hotly pursued by Diláwar Khán and with difficulty brought off the valuable booty he had taken. At the opening of the season of 1675, Hambirráv again passed into the Moghal territory and did great mischief. In the same year Shiváji entered into an agreement with Khán Jahán the Moghal general and for some time Ahmadnagar was free from Marátha inroads.³ In 1679 Shiváji agreed to aid Shikandar Adil Sháh (1672-1686) against Diláwar Khán who was then besieging Bijápur. He attempted to make the Moghals raise the siege but failed. As he found he could do nothing at Bijápur he turned to the north, rapidly crossed the Bhima, and attacked the Moghal possessions with fire and sword leaving the people houseless and the villages in ashes. He continued his depredations from the Bhima to the Godávari. As it was almost certain that Shiváji would attempt to carry his plunder to Ráygad, a force of 10,000 men was collected under Ranmast Khán, who pursued, overtook, and attacked Shiváji near Sangamner on his way to Patta. Part of his troops were thrown into confusion, and Siddoji Nimbálkar one of his best officers was killed. Shiváji, seeing that it was a time for wreckless daring, led a desperate charge, and by great personal exertions retrieved the day.⁴ The Moghal troops were broken, and Shiváji continued his march. He had not gone far when he was again attacked by the Moghals who had been joined by a large force under Kishensing which cut him off from the pass to which he was marching. Shiváji's army was saved by his guide who led them by a short cut unknown to the Moghals, thus gaining several hours and enabling them to reach Patta to which Shiváji in thankfulness gave the name of Vishrámgad or the Castle of Rest. The Moghal troops returned to Aurangabad and Shiváji judged the opportunity favourable for possessing himself of the twenty-seven forts near Patta. He ordered a body of infantry to join Moropant from the Konkan to reduce as many of them as possible and also placed a large detachment of cavalry at the Peshwa's disposal. Shiváji remained at Patta until he received an express from Masáud Khán of Bijápur to return south and make an effort to retrieve Bijápur.⁵

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás 114. Pedgaon continued for upwards of forty years one of the principal stations of the Moghal army. Fryer when at Junnar (June 1673) notices that the head-quarters of the Moghal army were not at Junnar but at Pedgaon.

² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 119.

⁴ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 129.

³ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 123.

⁵ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 129.

In 1684, Aurangzeb issued orders that the *jizia* or tax of £1 6s. (Rs. 13) on every £200 (Rs. 2000) of property held by all except Musalmáns should be exacted as strictly in the Deccan as in North India. At the opening of the fair season (1684) Aurangzeb moved from Aurangabad with more than ordinary magnificence towards Ahmadnagar. His cavalry, collected chiefly from Kábul, Multán, Láhor, and Rajputána, presented an array of mighty men and horses completely armed and accoutred. His numerous infantry included well equipped musketeers, matchlockmen, and archers, besides bodies of hardy Bundelás and Mevátis, accustomed to hill-fighting and robbery, and well able to cope with the Marátha Mávlis. To these were afterwards added many thousand infantry raised in the Karnátak. Besides a number of field-pieces which accompanied the royal tents, several hundred pieces of cannon were manned by natives of Northern India and directed by European gunners, and a great number of miners were attached to the artillery, with craftsmen of every description. A long train of war elephants was followed by a number of the emperor's private elephants carrying the ladies of his palace or such of his tents as were too large for camels. Numerous magnificently harnessed horses were set apart for the emperor's riding. A menagerie accompanied the camp, from which the rarest animals in the world were frequently shown by their keepers before the emperor and his court. Hawks, hounds, hunting leopards, trained elephants, and every requirement for field sport swelled the pomp of his prodigious retinue. The canvas walls which encompassed the royal tents formed a circumference of 1200 yards and contained every description of apartment to be found in the most spacious palace. Halls of audience for public assemblies and privy councils, with all the courts and cabinets attached to them, each hall magnificently adorned and having within it a raised seat or throne for the emperor, surrounded by gilded pillars with canopies of velvet, richly fringed and superbly embroidered, separate tents as mosques and oratories, baths, and galleries for archery and gymnastic exercises; a seraglio as remarkable for luxury and privacy as that of Delhi; Persian carpets damasks and tapestries, European velvets satins and broadcloths, Chinese silks of every description, and Indian musliás and cloth of gold were employed in all the tents with the utmost profusion and the most brilliant effect. Gilded balls and cupolas surmounted the tops of the royal tents; the outside of which, and the canvas walls, were of a variety of lively colours, disposed in a manner which heightened the general splendour. The entrance into the royal enclosure was through a spacious portal, flanked by two elegant pavilions, from which extended on each side rows of cannon forming an avenue at the extremity of which was an immense tent containing the great state drums and imperial band. A little further in front was the post of the grand guard on duty commanded by a nobleman, who mounted with it daily. On the other sides, surrounding the great enclosures, were separate tents for the emperor's armoury and harness; a tent for water kept cool with saltpetre, another for fruit, a third for sweetmeats, a fourth for betel and so on, with numerous kitchens and stables. Besides every tent had its exact duplicate

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MUSALMÁNS.

Moghals,
1636-1759.*Aurangzeb's
March,
1684.*

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Moghals,
1636-1759.

sent on in advance to be prepared against the emperor's arrival. His march was a procession and his entrance into his pavilion was announced by a salvo from fifty or sixty pieces of ordnance. The emperor assumed and maintained every form and ceremony observed at the established residences of the imperial court. The magnificence of these surroundings was in remarkable contrast to the austere plainness of the emperor's habits. The magnificence was intended to strengthen his power by the awe with which it impressed his subjects. As the emperor's state was imitated by his nobles, the grandeur proved a serious encumbrance to the movements of his army, while the devouring expense of such establishments pressed hard on his finances and soon crippled even the most necessary of his military and political arrangements.¹

During the last fifteen years of the seventeenth century the Maráthás continued at intervals to plunder Ahmadnagar territories. In 1699 under Rájárám the combined Marátha troops entered Gangthadi claiming the *chauth* or one-fourth and the *sardeshmukhi* or extra tenth as their established right. All who submitted to these demands were protected, such of the Moghal garrisons who remained passive were not molested, and those who opposed were put to the sword. On this occasion the Marátha exactions were unusually systematic. Where they could not secure ready money they took promissory notes from the heads of villages according to the practice introduced by Shiváji. When he had nearly completed his tour Rájárám left Haibatráv Nimbálkar in Gangthadi to collect what they termed the outstanding balances. Haibatráv when appointed to this duty was styled Sar Lashkar, and received the Jari Patka or golden streamer. After the death of Rájárám (1699) Dhanáji Jádhav spread his horse in every quarter and performed many signal exploits. In 1700 large bodies of Maráthás levied tribute under the various heads of *chauth*, *sardeshmukhi*, and *ghás-dána*. Besides the organized bands of Maráthás, and still more destructive to the country, were the irregular assemblies of several thousand horsemen who having agreed to meet in some lonely part of the country, set off with little provision, no baggage except the blanket on their saddles, and no animals but led horses with empty bags for plunder. If they halted during the night they slept with their bridles in their hands; if by day while the horses were fed and refreshed the men slept with little or no shelter from the scorching heat except a bush or a tree. As they lay their swords were by their sides and their spears were generally at their horses' heads stuck in the ground. When halted on a plain groups of four or five might be seen stretched on the bare earth sound asleep, their bodies exposed to the sun, and their heads in a cluster, under the doubtful shade of a blanket or tattered horse-cloth stretched on spear points. The great object of this class of horsemen was plunder. They generally rendered a partial account to the head of the state but dissipated or embezzled the greater part of their gains. The Ghorpades at this time committed great devastations along the eastern borders south of the Godávári.²

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 146.² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 176.

In 1706, the grand Moghal army under Zulfikár Khán, on its way from Sinhgad ten miles south of Poona towards Ahmadnagar, was attacked by the Maráthás. In spite of a gallant charge led by Khán Alam a great part of the Moghal army was defeated, and had the Maráthás made the most of their advantage, Aurangzeb would have been a prisoner in their hands. On pitching his camp in Ahmadnagar, on the same spot which it had occupied in such splendour twenty-one years before, Aurangzeb said: I have ended my campaigning, my last earthly journey is over. He died at Ahmadnagar on the 21st of February 1707 in the eighty-ninth year of his age. Since his father Sambháji's execution in 1690, when he was a boy of six years, Sháhu had been brought up by Aurangzeb with care and kindness. In the hope that his influence might make the Maráthás less hostile Aurangzeb before his death intending to set Sháhu free, had presented him with Shiváji's sword Bhaváni and also the sword of the Bijápur general Afzul Khán and given him the district of Nevása as a marriage gift. Accordingly Sháhu, on being released by Aurangzeb's son Prince Azam, marched south from the Narbada. At the Godávári he halted to dispel any suspicion that he was an impostor. His army increased to 15,000 men, and, by the advice of Parsoji Bhonsla, the head of the Marátha army in Khándesh and Berár, he moved south without further delay. Dhanáji Jádhav and the Pratinidhi, in the interests of Tárábái, the widow of Rájárám Sháhu's uncle advanced to oppose him. The people seemed inclined to the cause of Tárábái and one village fired on Sháhu's troops. As several of his men were killed Sháhu assaulted the place and made a severe example of the offenders. During the attack a woman, bearing a boy in her arms, rushed towards Sháhu, and threw down the child, calling out that she devoted him to the Rája's service. Sháhu took charge of the child, and, in commemoration of his first success, called him Fattehsing. He afterwards added his own surname of Bhonsla and always treated the child like his own son. This Fattehsing was the founder of the Akalkot family. In 1711, Sháhu thought of moving his capital from Sátára to Ahmadnagar but as it gave offence to Zulfikár Khán, Sháhu gave up the intention.¹

On Aurangzeb's death the dissensions among his sons soon reduced the Moghal power in the Deccan. In 1716 Dáud Khán, the governor of the Deccan, revolted against the Syeds who then ruled at Delhi in the name of the Emperor Ferokshir, but was defeated and slain in a battle in Khándesh by Husain Ali Syed. Husain Ali then sent troops to open communications between Burhánpur and Surat which were stopped by Khanderáv Dábháde a Marátha leader, and the Moghal force was surrounded and cut to pieces. A larger force was sent and a battle was fought near Ahmadnagar; the result was not decisive but the advantage remained with the Maráthás. At last in 1720 after tedious negotiations, through the able management of Báláji Vishvanáth the Peshwa, the Maráthás obtained the grants of the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* of the six provinces of the Deccan including

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MUSALMÁNS.

Moghals,
1636-1759.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 196.

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Ahmadnagar. Shortly after this the fall of the Moghal power in the Deccan was completed by the revolt of Chin Kilich Khán, Nizám-ul-Mulk, the governor of Málwa. Ahmadnagar was one of the parts of the Deccan which became subject to the Nizám and remained in his hands till his death in 1748. The Peshwa took advantage of the disturbances which followed the Nizám's death to attack his successor Salábat Jang. The Peshwa had miscalculated his power as Salábat had the valuable help of his French general Bussy. In 1751 the Nizám advanced from Burhánpur to Ahmadnagar. Bussy repelled the Marátha attacks, and surprised their camp at Rájápur on the Ghod river in Shrigonda. As it advanced the Nizám's army plundered Ránjangaon in Párner and destroyed Talegaon Dhamdhere in Poona. Here a severe action was fought and the Nizám's troops were nearly routed. Still they pressed on to Koregaon on the Bhima in Poona. News arrived that the fort of Trimbak near Násik, had been surprised by the Maráthás and Salábat Jang returned to Ahmadnagar. In 1752, he marched by Junnar to retake Trimbak, but being hard pressed by the Maráthás he agreed to an armistice. Salábat Jang was specially anxious for peace because he was threatened by an attack from his elder brother Gházi-ud-din who advanced with a large army to Aurangabad and promised to cede to the Maráthás the country between the Tápti and the Godávári west of Berár. While at Aurangabad Gházi-ud-din was poisoned, but his brother Salábat confirmed the cession and thus the Maráthás obtained possession of the Gangthadi in Ahmadnagar, besides Násik and Khándesh.

MARÁTHÁS,
1759-1817.

In 1759, the Nizám's commandant Kávi Jang for a sum of money betrayed the fort of Ahmadnagar to the Peshwa.¹ War followed between the Peshwa and the Nizám. The Maráthás began by taking the fort of Pedgaon on the Bhima; they then attacked the Nizám at Udgir about 160 miles south-east of Ahmadnagar and forced him to come to terms (1760). Besides other concessions the Nizám confirmed the grant of Ahmadnagar and Daulatabad and also gave up the greater part of the province of Ahmadnagar. By this treaty the whole of the present district of Ahmadnagar was gained by the Maráthás. Next year (1761), after the great Marátha disaster at Pánipat, the Nizám advanced and burnt the temple of Toka at the meeting of the Pravara and the Godávári in Nevása, and marching on Poona forced the Peshwa to restore some of the districts which had been ceded after the battle of Udgir.²

³ In 1760 the peace of Ahmadnagar was broken by a Koli rising. One of the Koli chiefs Hiráji Bomle whose family had held estates and rank from the time of the Bahmani kings died. Though Hiráji's son Jávji held a post in the Peshwa's service the Peshwa's manager at Junnar refused to give Jávji his father's estates and rank. Jávji, who is described as of slight figure, middle-sized and fair, bold

¹ The descendants of Kávi Jang still hold *indm* villages in the Karjat sub-division. Mr. Loch, C. S.

² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 325.

³ Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. J. 245.

restless and of irregular habits, gave up the Peshwa's service, withdrew to the hills, and organized a series of gang robberies. Jávji was ordered to leave the hills and join an expedition which was starting for service in the Konkan. He feared treachery and fled to Khándesh. His family were seized and troops were sent against him. Jávji had a bitter enemy in Rámji Sávant an officer at Junnar who persuaded the manager of Junnar that Jávji was a man of hopelessly bad character. Rámji seized a party of seven Kolis, among them a brother and a cousin, whom Jávji had sent to get some tidings about his family. Rámji obtained from the Junnar manager an order for the execution of the seven Kolis and they were hurled down the Shivner rock. In revenge Jávji killed Rámji Sávant's brother who was living on a lonely part of the hills with a Gosávi who was performing incantations which were to make Sávant wound-proof. Rámji asked for a body of troops that he might hunt Jávji. The troops were supplied and Jávji broke his band in small parties and spread them all over the country. To have any hope of success against an enemy who were heard of from all quarters at once, Rámji had to follow their tactics and spread his men far and wide in small detachments. The party which he commanded was surprised by Jávji, and Rámji and a young son of his were slain. Rámji's eldest son was put in command of the force but him too Jávji surprised and killed in Junnar. The Poona government now formally declared Jávji an outlaw. He joined Raghunáthráv and did him good service, capturing Sidgad, Bhairugad, Kotta, and other Thána forts, Alang in Násik, and Ratangad and Madangad in Ahmadnagar. Nána Fadnavis sent orders to Dáji Kokáta, who was then one of the leading Koli officers at Junnar to act against Jávji, and warned him that if he failed to seize Jávji he would be dismissed the Peshwa's service. Soon after Dáji and Jávji happened to meet in the forests in the Ghod valley. Dáji represented himself as Jávji's friend. They sat talking together and went to a river near to bathe. While they were bathing one of Jávji's men opened Dáji's bag and found in it an order signed by Nána Fadnavis for Jávji's execution. On his return to camp this man told Jávji what he had seen and Dáji and his three sons had their throats cut during the night. After this the pursuit of Jávji became hotter than ever. He asked help from Raghunáthráv, but Raghunáthráv's cause was now hopeless and he could do nothing. On the advice of his friend Dhondo Gopál, the Peshwa's governor at Násik, Jávji surrendered all his forts to Tukoji Holkar, and through Holkar's influence was pardoned and placed in military and police charge of a district or *subha* of sixty villages in Rájur with powers of life and death over Koli robbers and outlaws. Jávji continued in a position of honour till in 1789 he died from a wound given by one of his own followers.¹ He was succeeded by his son Hiráji Náik. During the latter years of his life Jávji had taken part in quelling a serious rising among

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¹ Mackintosh notices that of Jávji's twelve wives one was a Shimpia and the other a Teln. Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. I. 254.

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the Kolis which was headed by two Koli leaders Kokáta and Shilkunda. One measure taken by the government to prevent the Kolis joining in this rising was to make the headmen of the different villages enter into a chain security or *jámin sánkhli* each becoming surety for the other's good behaviour and the *deshmukh* or district head being security for all. After Jávji was put in charge of the district these leaders remained quiet for more than four years. They again went out, were betrayed, and executed. In 1798 a fresh disturbance took place among the Kolis. The leaders of this outbreak were three Koli brothers Govindji, Manáji, and Váloji Bhángria, popular men round whom a large body of followers quickly gathered. Govindji was soon taken and Manáji fled and died. Váloji was more successful. He led a gang of over a thousand men and with drums and flags raided into the Deccan and Konkan and caused widespread terror and misery. He was at last taken by Hiráji Náik, Jávji Bomle's son and was blown from the mouth of a cannon at Rájur. After Váloji's death his nephew Rámji, who was an abler and more daring leader even than Váloji succeeded in baffling all the efforts of the Government officers to seize him. As force seemed hopeless the Government offered Rámji a pardon and gave him an important police post in which he did excellent service.¹

In 1762, to gain the Nizám's help in his quarrels with his nephew Mádhavráv Peshwa, Raghunáthráv agreed to restore the rest of the districts which had been ceded under the Udgir treaty in 1760. A treaty to this effect was passed at Pedgaon, but as the quarrels in the Peshwa's family were settled Raghunáthráv's promise was not carried out. In revenge, in 1763, the Nizám marched on Poona and burnt it. As he retired he was overtaken by the Maráthás, part of his army was attacked at Rakisbon on the Godávári and cut to pieces, and the Nizám was forced to come to terms and confirm the former cessions. In 1767 fresh quarrels broke out between Mádhavráv and his uncle Raghunáthráv who levied troops in the Gangthadi. The war ended in 1782 by the treaty of Salbai, and Raghunáthráv retired to Kopargaon on the Godávári where he soon after died. His family remained at Kopargaon till 1792 when they were moved to Ánandveli close to the west of Násik town.

Battle of Khurda,
1795.

In 1795, in consequence of the Peshwa's exorbitant demands, war broke out between the Peshwa and the Nizám. Nána Fadnavis the minister at Poona collected a great army. Since Mahádji Sindia's death in 1794 Nána's power had greatly increased, and the prospect of sharing in the gains from a victory over the Nizám brought to his standard all the leading Marátha chiefs. Daulatráv Sindia and Tukoji Holkar were already in Poona; and the Rája of Berár had set out to join the army. Govindráv Gaikwár sent a detachment, the Patvardhans and Rástiás from the Bombay Karnatak, the Bráhman holders of Málegaon and Vinchúr in Násik, the Pratinidhi and the Pant Sachiv from Sátára, the Marátha *mánkaris*, Nimbálkar, Ghátge, Chavhán, Dasse, Povár, Thorát, and Pátankar, with many others of less note obeyed the summons.

¹ Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. I. 256-258.

For the last time the Marátha chiefs met under the authority of the Peshwa. Nizám Ali was first in the field and slowly advanced from Bedar, along the banks of the Mánjra, towards the Marátha frontier. The Peshwa quitted Poona in January, and his army marched at the same time, but by different routes for the convenience of forage. The Marátha army contained over 130,000 horse and foot besides 10,000 Pendháris. Of this force more than one-half were either paid from the Peshwa's treasury, or were troops of *jágirdárs* or estate-holders under his direct control. Though the greater part of his army was in North India and Málwa, Daulatráv Sindia's force was the largest and most efficient, including 25,000 men, of whom 10,000 were regular infantry under Perron, De Boigne's second-in-command; Raghuji Bhonsla mustered 15,000 horse and foot; Tukoji Holkar had only 10,000, but of these 2000 were regulars under Dudrenec, and most of the Pendháris were followers of Holkar. Parashurám Bháu had 7000 men. Nána Fadnavis consulted the chief officers separately and appointed Parashurám Bháu commander-in-chief. The Pendháris and some other horse were ordered ahead to plunder round the Moghal camp, and spoil their forage. The heavy baggage, properly protected, remained one march in the rear, and the best of the horse with the regular infantry, supported by upwards of 150 pieces of cannon, were sent forward to attack Nizám Ali, who, with an army 110,000 strong, advanced towards Kharda in Jámkhed about fifty-five miles south-east of Ahmadnagar and descended the Mohori pass. A body of the Peshwa's household troops under Bábárov, son of the deceased Haripant Phadke, attacked the Moghals when descending the pass. The Maráthás were driven off with loss. And on the same evening Nizám Ali sat in state and received presents and congratulations on his victory. Next day, when the Moghals were on their march from Kharda to Paránda, the Maráthás appeared in great force on their right, Nizám Ali halted his elephant, sent his baggage to the left, and directed Asad Ali Khán with the cavalry, supported by 17,000 regular infantry under Raymond, to attack the Maráthás. Parashurám Bháu rode forward to reconnoitre, supported by Bábárov Phadke and Káshiráv, the son of Tukoji Holkar. He had advanced only a short distance when he was suddenly charged by a body of Patháns, under a Beluchi named Lál Khán, who cut down several men, and, with his own hand, unhorsed and wounded Parashurám Bháu. Haripant Patvardhan, the Bháu's eldest son, seeing his father fall, attacked the Beluchi and killed him on the spot. In spite of the loss of their leader the Patháns, supported by Alif Khán the son of the Nawáb of Karnaul, and Salábat Khán the son of Ismáel Khán, Nawáb of Elichpur, pressed on till the advanced party of the Maráthás gave way, and were driven back in such confusion that a large section of the army were panic-stricken and thousands fled. Even Bábárov Phadke in charge of the Golden Streamer or *Jari Patka*, was turning to fly when he was stopped by Jivba Dáda Bakhshi, who, upbraiding him for cowardice, told him if he wanted to be safe he might get behind Sindia's troops. By this time the regular battalions on both sides had approached within

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musket-shot, and the Moghal cavalry were advancing to the support of their infantry with apparent steadiness, when Raghuji Bhonsla met them with a shower of rockets, and at the same moment they received the fire of thirty-five pieces of cannon which Perron had judiciously placed on a rising ground. In a few minutes the Moghal cavalry were routed. Still Raymond's infantry stood their ground and had even gained some advantage over Perron's battalions, when Raymond, by repeated and peremptory orders, was forced to follow Nizám Ali, who had already retreated towards Kharda. By the time the detached portions of the Moghal army learned their leader's intention, the sun had set, and darkness increased their confusion. After nightfall shots continued to be exchanged in different directions and few men, except those of Raymond's half-disciplined battalions, could find their own division. At last the multitude, worn by fatigue and clamour sunk to rest, or lay down to await the return of day. In the stillness of night, a small patrol of Maráthás in search of water came by chance to a rivulet where lay a party of Moghals, who, discovering that they were Maráthás fired on them. Raymond's sentries who were near also fired. Then the whole line, who lay with their muskets loaded started from their sleep, and fired an irregular volley. In their perplexed state this volley drove the Moghal army into complete panic. Many of Raymond's sepoy, struck with the general fear quitted their ranks and mingled in the confusion. At last the moon rose and Nizám Ali, in utter consternation, sought refuge within the small badly placed fort of Kharda. Most of his troops fled, plundering the baggage of their own army as they went. They were not allowed to carry off this ill gotten spoil as Marátha Pendhárís overtook them, and, without opposition, stripped the panic-struck fugitives of all their booty. Next morning the Maráthás found the ground strewn with guns, stores, baggage, and the usual wreck of an army. Their surprise was still greater on perceiving Nizám Ali shut in Kharda and his army wasted to one-tenth of its former strength. No people are keener or prompter in seizing such an advantage than the Maráthás. The joyful news flashed through the whole force; the furthest parties came swarming in to plunder the Moghals. In a few hours the Nizám's army was hemmed in, and next day batteries were opened from hills which commanded the fort as well as the army. Nizám Ali, endured this hopeless exposure for two days. On the morning of the 15th March he asked for and obtained a cessation of arms. The preliminary demand made by the Maráthás was the surrender of the minister Mushir-ul-Mulk, that amends might be made for the insult offered to the Peshwa in threatening to seize Nána Fadnavis.¹ They next exacted

¹ When discussions about the payment of arrears were going on between the Peshwa's envoy Govindráv Kále and Mushir-ul-Mulk, the envoy was told in public darbár that Nána Fadnavis must himself attend at the court of Haidarabad, in order to afford an explanation of the different items of their intricate claims. The envoy replied 'Nána Fadnavis is much engaged; how can he come?' 'How can he come,' re-echoed Mushir-ul-Mulk, 'I will soon show how he shall be brought to the presence.' This menace was considered a sufficient declaration and although negotiations continued to the last both parties prepared to decide their differences by the sword. While at a

territorial cessions, stretching along the frontier from Paránda on the south to the Tápti on the north, including the fort of Daulatabad and the part of those districts conquered by Sadáshivráv Bháu in 1760, which had been restored to Nizám Ali in 1761 and three millions sterling (Rs. 3 *krors*) were promised on account of arrears of revenue and war expenses. Besides this, by a separate agreement, in lieu of Raghuji Bhonsla's claims for *ghás-dána* in the Gangthadi, Nizám Ali ceded territory yielding £31,800 (Rs. 3,18,000) a year. Nizám Ali likewise promised to pay arrears due to Raghuji Bhonsla amounting to £290,000 (Rs. 29 *lákhs*) and to collect their respective shares of revenue in Berár, according to ancient usage, for all which the Peshwa afterwards became Raghuji's guarantee. Nizám Ali was extremely unwilling to surrender his minister. Mushir-ul-Mulk urged him to the measure, as he thought the other conditions more moderate than might have been expected. The minister was delivered to a party of 200 Maráthás, by whom he was escorted to their camp. The Peshwa met him at the outskirts, and received him with distinction, but his person was carefully guarded. The Marátha delight at their triumph knew no bounds. A grievous sign of decay, said the young Peshwa, that Maráthás should boast of a victory won without danger and without honour. In the battle both sides together scarcely lost 200 men, though a considerable number of Moghals were killed during the night of panic and the two days' exposure to the Marátha fire. For long, to have been present at the glorious field of Kharda, was one of the proudest boasts of old Marátha horsemen.¹

With the death of Mádhavráv II. in October 1795, a time of confusion and trouble began which lasted till the country was conquered by the English in 1803. In 1797, as the price of his support of the claims of Bájiráv to be Peshwa, Sindia, who had already obtained large grants of land in Ahmadnagar, had the fort of Ahmadnagar and some other lands ceded to him. At the end of the year Sindia seized and imprisoned Nána Fadnavis in the Ahmadnagar fort. In 1798 disputes broke out between Daulatráv Sindia and the two elder widows of his adoptive father Mahádji Sindia, which resulted in the war known as the war of the Ladies or Báis. The ladies' troops ravaged Sindia's parts of the Deccan and the country round Ahmadnagar suffered severely. From Ahmadnagar the ladies retreated north to Khándesh, and in 1800 were defeated by Yashvantráv Holkar and retired to Mewád. Nána Fadnavis was released in 1798 and died in 1800.

In the latter part of 1802 Yashvantráv Holkar, who was enraged

distance, the war was extremely popular among the Moghals. The grand army under Nizám Ali's personal command was assembled at Bedar and the camp was full of bustle and life. Vaunting threats were in the mouths of the ill-appointed disorderly soldiery. Poona was to be pillaged and burnt; the dancing girls already sung the triumphs of their army; and even the prime minister declared in a public assembly that the Moghals should now be freed from Marátha encroachments; that they should recover Bijápur and Khándesh, or they would never grant peace until they had despatched the Peshwa to Benares with a cloth about his loins and a pot of water in his hand, to mutter incantations on the banks of the Ganges. Grant Duff's Maráthás, 514.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 514 - 517.

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31st December
1802.*

with Bájiráv for the murder of his half-brother Vithoji, passed south to Poona laying the country waste. After Holkar's victory at Poona (25th October 1802) Bájiráv fled to Mahád in Kolába and from Mahád to Bassein, where, on the 31st of December 1802, in return for cessions of territory, the British government bound itself to defend the Peshwa from all attacks. Bájiráv was escorted to Poona and restored to the throne on the 13th of May 1803. Soon after accounts reached the British government that Daulatráv Sindia had combined with Raghuji Bhonsla the Rájá of Berár to make war on the British.¹ The treaty of Bassein was communicated to Daulatráv Sindia on the 27th of May and he was called on to state his objections if he had any. He was also desired to make known the object of his negotiations with the Rájá of Berár and other chiefs, and if his designs were not hostile to the British government or its allies he was called on to retire with his troops to their usual stations. Daulatráv Sindia, in answer, declared to the British Resident that until he had a meeting with the Rájá of Berár he could not decide whether there should be peace or war, but that the British Resident should be made acquainted with the determination of the united chiefs as soon as they met. On the 3rd of June Sindia and the Berár chief met near Malkápur in Shevgaon, and from that day, though they were shown that the treaty of Bassein was purely defensive, they evaded giving any answer till the 8th of July 1803. Both Sindia and the Rájá of Berár then declared that they had no intentions to attack the British or their allies or to obstruct the execution of the treaty of Bassein, provided the British would not prevent the execution of the treaties subsisting between the Peshwa and themselves. At the same time they continued to advance towards the Nizám's frontier. On the 14th of July General Wellesley, who was in command of the British forces and in charge of the negotiations, told Sindia by letter that unless he separated his troops from those of the Rájá of Berár, and both retired from the Nizám's borders, he could not consider their actions consistent with their declaration; when the united chiefs retired he promised that the British troops should also retire to their usual stations. If Sindia and the Rájá of Berár kept their troops close to the Nizám's frontier, the British troops would attack Ahmadnagar. Sindia admitted the justice of General Wellesley's demand that their troops should retire. But instead of retiring they kept to their position on the Nizám's frontier and wrote to General Wellesley advising him to withdraw to Madras, Seringapatam, or Bombay.²

¹ The contracting parties to the treaty of Bassein had a full right to enter into the treaty which was purely defensive. It contained an express stipulation that the British troops should not be employed to attack the great Marátha Jagirdárs unless they should first commit hostilities against the allies. Daulatráv Sindia had called upon the British government to give assistance to the Peshwa to recover his throne; subsequently when informed that the relations between the British and the Peshwa had been improved he had expressed his satisfaction at that event, and in his camp on the 2nd March had formally declared to the British Resident that he had no intention of obstructing the treaty of Bassein or of committing hostilities against the British government or its allies. Wellington's Despatches, I. 291.

² Wellington's Despatches, I. 291.

General Wellesley had offered an equal and honourable peace, the chiefs preferred war.¹ General Wellesley was stationed at Válki six miles south of Ahmadnagar.² It was his intention to seize Ahmadnagar so soon as he heard that Sindia and the Berár chief refused to withdraw from the Nizám's border. A very heavy fall of rain defeated his plans. News that the chiefs refused to retire reached him on the 3rd of August. But from the third to the sixth such constant rain fell that the six miles between Válki and Ahmadnagar were impassable. On the 7th of August General Wellesley issued a proclamation declaring that he would make no war on the people and that all officers and others were required to remain in their stations and obey the orders they should receive; that if they did no harm to the British armies, no harm would be done to them; and that any one who either left his dwelling or did any harm to the British army or to their followers, would be treated as an enemy. On the seventh the country was still impassable, but the weather cleared and General Wellesley reached Ahmadnagar on the eighth. On the morning of the eighth General Wellesley sent a messenger to the commandant or *killedár* of Ahmadnagar requiring him to surrender the fort. On arriving near the town or *petta* he offered terms or *kaul* to the people. As the town was held by Arabs, supported by a battalion of Sindia's regular infantry and a body of horse encamped in an open space between the town and the fort, the terms were refused. General Wellesley immediately attacked the town in three places, in one place with the piquets of the infantry reinforced by the flank companies of the 78th Regiment under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Harness, in a second with the 74th Regiment and the 1st battalion of the 8th under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Wallace, and in a third with the flank companies of the 74th and the 1st battalion of the 3rd Regiment under the command of Captain Vesey. The town wall was very lofty and was defended by towers. It had also no rampart, so that when the troops had climbed to the top they had no ground to stand on, and the Arabs who held the towers defended their posts with the utmost obstinacy. At length they were forced to quit the wall and fled to the houses, from which they continued to pour a destructive fire on the troops. Sindia's regular infantry also attacked the British troops after they entered the town. Still in a short time, after a brisk and gallant contest, the British were completely masters of the town with the loss of four officers. From the

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¹ Wellington's Despatches, I. 291-92.

² The forces under the immediate command of Major-General Wellesley consisted of: Cavalry, H. M. 19th Light Dragoons, 384; 4th, 5th, and 7th Regiments native cavalry 1347, total 1731; artillery 173; infantry, H. M. 74th and 78th Regiments, 1368; 1st battalion 2nd Regiment native infantry, 1st and 2nd battalions 3rd regiment native infantry, 1st battalion 8th regiment native infantry, 2nd battalion 12th regiment native infantry, and 2nd battalion 18th regiment native infantry, 5631; total 6999; grand total 8903. Besides these there were European artillerymen and 653 Pioneers of the establishment of Fort St. George, 2400 cavalry belonging to the Rája of Maisur and about 3000 Marátha horse. Two battalions of sepoys were detached in July with a large convoy of treasure, bullocks, and grain from the army under the command of Lieutenant-General Stuart to the division under Major-General Wellesley. Wellington's Despatches, I. 293.

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1759-1817.*Ahmadnagar
taken by
General Wellesley,
1803.*

nature of the contest the enemy's loss was much greater. On the 8th all the enemy's force which was not required for the defence of the fort, including all the Arabs who survived the contest in the town went north except a small number who attended one of their wounded chiefs who could not be moved from the fort. On the 9th General Wellesley reconnoitered the ground near the fort, and on that evening Colonel Wallace with five companies of the 74th Regiment and the 2nd battalion of the 12th Regiment, seized a position within 400 yards of the wall. On this spot in the course of the night, a four-gun battery was built to take off the defences from the side on which General Wellesley proposed to attack. The battery opened at daylight on the 10th. It was so well placed and fired with such effect that the commandant desired General Wellesley to cease firing that he might send a person to treat for his surrender. In reply General Wellesley told the commandant that he would not cease firing till either he had taken the fort or the commandant had surrendered it; still that he would listen to whatever the commandant wished to say. On the morning of the 11th the commander sent two agents to propose to surrender the fort on condition that he should be allowed to depart with his garrison and his private property. General Wellesley agreed to this proposal, but it was five in the evening before the hostages arrived in the camp without whose presence, General Wellesley refused to stop the fire from the British batteries. According to his engagement, the commandant marched out of the fort on the morning of the 12th with a garrison of 400 men, and the troops under General Wellesley's command took possession. The British loss since the 8th was trifling which General Wellesley attributed much to the spirit with which the British attacks on that day were made.¹ Among the officers mentioned in General Wellesley's despatches were Lieutenant-Colonels Harness, Wallace, and Maxwell who commanded in the trenches, Captain Beauman commanding the artillery, Captain Johnson the engineer, and Captain Heitland of the Pioneers in the short subsequent siege. The fort of Ahmadnagar held an important position on the Nizam's frontier, covering Poona, and was a valuable point of support to all future operations of the British to the north. It was considered one of the strongest forts in the country and except Vellor in the Madras Karnatak was the strongest country fort General Wellesley had seen. It was in excellent repair, except in the part exposed to the British artillery. Inside it was in a sad dirty state and in the utmost confusion. The quantities of stores were astonishing and the powder was so good that General Wellesley replaced from the magazines that which he had consumed in the siege. General Wellesley thought the fort ought to be cleared of the old buildings with

¹ The losses were: Of Europeans, the 19th Light Dragoons, Artillery, and H.M. 74th and 78th Regiments, killed 2 Captains, 2 subalterns, 1 serjeant, 1 drummer, and 12 rank and file; wounded 2 subalterns, 1 serjeant, and 58 rank and file. Of Natives, 5th Regiment Cavalry, 1st battalion 2nd Regiment, 1st battalion 3rd Regiment 1st battalion 8th Regiment, 2nd battalion 12th Regiment, 2nd battalion 18th Regiment, and 1st battalion Pioneers, killed, 1 *havildár*, 1 *naik*, and ten *sepoys*; wounded 1 *subhedár*, 9 *havildárs*, 3 *naiks*, and 39 *sepoys*. Wellington's Despatches, I. 302.

which it was crowded.¹ General Wellesley proposed at once to cross the Godávari and intended to secure for the use of the British troops the resources of Sindia's possessions south of the Godávari depending on Ahmadnagar.²

General Wellesley appointed Captain Graham to take charge, for the use of the British government and the Peshwa, of all the territories belonging to Daulatráv Sindia depending upon the Ahmadnagar fort, and he called on all officials and others to attend to and obey Captain Graham's orders and those of no other person.³

General Wellesley then crossed the Godávari and the war was brought to a close by the great victory of Assaye on the 23rd of September. By the treaty concluded with Sindia by General Wellesley, on the 30th of December 1803, the territories near Ahmadnagar, the ancient family lands of Sindia were restored to him, under a particular stipulation that no armed men were ever to be kept in them.⁴ The fort of Ahmadnagar together with the district taken possession of at the time of the capture of the fort remained with the British by whom they were soon after given to the Peshwa.⁵ At this time two freebooters, Malva Dáda and Syed Sultán Ali, are mentioned as committing great depredations. Malva Dáda took Shrigonda and defeated Captain Graham's peons sent against him⁶ and it was a condition in Sindia's treaty that he should cause Malva Dáda to withdraw with the banditti that were breaking daily from the district across the Godávari into Khándesh, Syed Ali was tried, and found guilty and was sentenced accordingly.⁷ The war against Holkar still continued and his districts in the Deccan were taken by the English. In 1805 he came to terms when his Deccan possessions were restored to him except Shevgaon which also was given up within two years.

In 1804 to add to the miseries of the country which had been ravaged by Holkar's troops in 1802 the late rains of 1803 failed and a fearful famine followed. Whole districts were depopulated and the survivors sought refuge in the forts built in the larger villages. At Ahmadnagar more than 5000 persons were employed by General Wellesley in making a glacis or bank round the fort.⁸ In his march from Ahmadnagar to the Godávari (24th August 1803) General Wellesley trembled for the want of the common country grains for the followers and cattle. The country was completely exhausted and the villages empty and large tracts of rich land waste.⁹ The Bhils and other wild tribes taking advantage of the confusion gathered in large bands and completed the ruin of the land. They

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MARÁTHÁS,
1759-1817.*Famine,*
1803-4.*Bhils.*¹ Wellington's Despatches, I. 310.² Wellington's Despatches, I. 299-301.³ General Wellesley's instructions to Captain Graham were: To keep the country quiet, to secure its resources and a free communication through it to Poona and Bombay. These were objects of far greater importance than to collect large revenue. Captain Graham was to refrain from pressing the country with a view to raising the collections. Wellington's Despatches, I. 303, 307.⁴ Wellington's Despatches, I. 569.⁵ Wellington's Despatches, I. 412.⁶ Wellington's Despatches, III. 356, 423, 466 and I. 464.⁷ Wellington's Despatches, III. 556.⁸ For details see Agriculture chapter.⁹ Wellington's Despatches, I. 335.

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MARÁTHÁS,
1759-1817.

pillaged and murdered without mercy and no mercy was shown them in return. To put down the Bhil rising Bájiráv invested Báláji Lakshman the Sarsubhedár or governor of Khándesh with full powers. At the instigation of Manohargir Gosávi one of his captains Báláji Lakshman invited a large body of Bhils to a meeting at Kopargaon on the Godávári, treacherously seized them, and threw them down wells. This restored order for a time. But in 1806 disorder was as general as ever and Trimbakji Denglia who was then in charge of the district caused another massacre of Bhils at Ghevri-Chándgaon in Shevgaon. He commissioned Nároba Tákít Pátíl of Karambha to clear the Gangthadi; and 5000 to 6000 horse and a large body of infantry were given him. Nároba butchered the Bhils and all who had any connection with them wherever he found them. During fifteen months 15,000 human beings are said to have been massacred.

After the transfer of Ahmadnagar to the Peshwa the land revenue was farmed to the highest bidder. The farmer had not only the right to collect the revenue, but to administer civil and criminal justice, and so long as he paid the required sum and bribed the court favourites no complaints were listened to. Justice was openly sold and the mámlatdár of a district was often a worse enemy to the husbandmen than the Bhils. In 1816, Trimbakji who had been imprisoned at Thána for the murder of Gangádhar Shástri the Gáikwár's ambassador, escaped and wandered about the hilly country of Sangamner, rousing the wild tribes, and, in concert with his master Bájiráv, making preparations for war. The Pendháris also began to make raids into the district. In June 1817 under the treaty of Poona the Peshwa ceded the fort of Ahmadnagar to the English.¹

*Battle of Kirkee,
1817.*

After his defeat at the battle of Kirkee (5th November 1817) the Peshwa fled (17th November) past Junnar to Utur and then to Bráhmánváda about ten miles north in the Akola subdivision up the Lál pass, and thence to Lingdev about nine miles. Between these three places he spent the time from the 17th to the 27th of December. As the eastern passes were difficult for guns General Smith who had arrived at Sirur on the 17th of December moved to the Nimbodehera pass. He left Sirur on the 22nd and on the 25th reached Hanvantgaon nearly on the direct road from Ahmadnagar to Kopargaon. From Hanvantgaon he made a long march to Sangamner and on the 27th he marched further west to Thugaon. The Peshwa sent his tents to the Vásir pass on the 27th as if he intended to cross the valley of the Pravara near Akola and proceed by the great road to Násik, but on hearing of General Smith's approach to Sangamner he changed his route and moved to Kotul on the more western side through Rájur. When General Smith reached Thugaon the Peshwa, thinking that he could not pass to the north without the risk of being entangled in the hills and overtaken by the British troops, retraced his steps on the 28th and arrived on the

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 635.

same day at Utur a distance of nearly twenty miles through hills from whence he proceeded southwards.¹

After his defeat at Ashti in Sholápur on the 20th of March 1818 Bájiráv marched by Nevása to Kopargaon, and proceeded north towards Chándor in Násik. But the approach of Sir Thomas Hislop drove him back to Kopargaon whence he fled north-east towards Dholkot near Asirgad where he finally surrendered on the 3rd of June 1818. Meantime Holkar and the Pendháris had been defeated, and by the treaty of Mandeshvar in January 1818, Holkar surrendered to the English all his possessions south of the Sátputás including Shevgaon. The forts of Harishchandragad and Hunjilgad were taken possession of between the 4th and the 8th of May 1818 by a detachment under Captain Sykes despatched by Major Eldridge from Chávand in Poona.²

On the 27th of April 1818 a body of horse entered Nevása and excited considerable alarm. Within three days they were dispersed and returned to their villages. Dharmáji Pratápráv committed great depredations and cruelties in Shevgaon.³ Before General Smith's arrival a detachment, commanded by Major Macleod of the Auxiliary Horse, had marched from Ahmadnagar at the requisition of Captain Pottinger against Dharmáji Pratápráv, the only individual who remained in arms on the south side of the Godávári. The insurgent dispersed his banditti, and disappeared; but General Smith sent out a sufficient reinforcement to Major Macleod, to enable him to reduce Dharmáji's forts and to cut off the means of renewing the rebellion.⁴ The whole of the dominions of the Peshwa and those of the Holkar in the Deccan were taken possession of by the British government. Sindia had held half of Shevgaon and the Shrigonda *pargana*. The greater part of the Korti *pargana*, including the present sub-divisions of Karjat and part of Shrigonda was under Ráv Rambha Nimbálkar till 1821 when it was given to the English. Ahmadnagar with the country between the Chándor hills and the Bhima was placed under Captain Pottinger. Little difficulty was found in restoring order. The country was exhausted, and the people willingly obeyed any power that could protect them. The Peshwa's disbanded soldiers settled in their villages, the hill forts were dismantled, and their garrison gradually reduced. Near the Sahyádris the country was in the hands of the Koli Náiks. They and the Bhil Náiks were sent for, and allowances and villages which they already held were confirmed to them on the understanding that they should keep the neighbouring country quiet. Ahmadnagar very soon enjoyed more complete rest than it had known for years.

When the British government took possession of Ahmadnagar much of it was almost ruined. According to Mr. Elphinstone the east of Gangthadi, though open and fertile, was almost entirely uninhabited since the famine of 1803 and 1804 in which years out

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¹ Pendhári and Marátha Wars, 177-180. ² Pendhári and Marátha Wars, 274.

³ Pendhári and Marátha Wars, 273.

⁴ Mr. Elphinstone, 24th May 1818; Pendhári and Marátha Wars, 343.

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Jail Outbreak,
1821.

Koli Risings,
1828.

of 180 villages in Nevása only twenty-one were inhabited. The country between that and Ahmadnagar was better and the plains south of Ahmadnagar were for many marches one sheet of the richest cultivation. Still in 1819 more than half of the arable land was waste, and in Párner the sub-division next to Sirur in Poona the country was a wilderness.

On the 19th of August 1821 a desperate fight took place in the Ahmadnagar jail. The convicts overpowered the guard and seized their weapons. Some of the convicts escaped and the rest shut themselves in the jail and held it until troops arrived with a gun. The door was blown open and the military charged the convicts who were not dispersed till twenty-nine were killed and sixty-two wounded.¹

On the 19th of October 1822, on the confession of Narsingráv a servant of Chintámanráv Purandhare of SÁNGLI, a plot was discovered for collecting troops in Sindia's villages of Belápur, Sonai Bomni, and Jámgaon, and at Nandurbar in Khándesh. They were to meet at Lasur and were to be joined by others from Hindustán when a general attack was to be made on the British posts.²

Nearly twenty years of British rule passed before the warlike Kolis of the western hills were brought to order. The beginning of troubles arose out of an unfortunate mistake. Rámji Bhángria, who in his youth had been a famous outlaw and during the latter years of Báji-ráv's reign had become a most useful police officer, on the establishment of British rule, waited on the Collector and was appointed chief constable or *jamádár* of one of the hill police posts. According to custom in addition to his pay, Rámji received as a yearly meeting or *bhet* present from every village a rupee, a fowl, and some rice, and a sheep from every flock that passed through his charge. Rámji did good service until an order came that no Government servant was to take any present in addition to his pay. This order was applied to Rámji and his chickens; he wrote to ask that an exception might be made in his favour, and as he got no answer to his letters he asked for his discharge. His discharge was refused and he was given six months' leave. At the end of the six months' leave as nothing was done to raise his salary or to make up for his loss of perquisites he went into outlawry. Rámji Bhángria's chief supporter was a Koli named Govindráv Khári. Govindráv had been commandant of the hill fort of Ratangad about twenty-two miles west of Akola under the Peshwa. On the Peshwa's fall he remained staunch to his master, and under the plea of age, refused employment under the British government. In the reductions of hill fort garrisons which followed the establishment of order, twelve of Govindráv's kinsmen, who had formed part of the Ratangad garrison, were thrown out of employment and were also deprived of the revenues of a village to which as commandants of the fort they had hereditary claims. Govindráv and his kinsmen and several other discontented people went to the hills and in the latter part of 1828 were joined

¹ Mr. T. C. Hamilton, C. S.

² Mr. T. C. Hamilton, C. S.

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by Rámji Bhángria from the Konkan. In January 1829, in consequence of news that there were several hundred Kolis in the Akola hills and that the people were in great alarm, Captain Mackintosh went with a detachment of police to the Sahyádris. At first, though almost no village had not its two or three representatives in the gang, no information could be got. The Bráhmañ *kulkarnis*, some of whom were abetting the rising, advised that troops should not be sent after the Kolis but that some arrangement should be made to redress their grievances. Captain Mackintosh for a time took little notice of the gang beyond sending them word that no letters or petitions could be attended to till they had laid down their arms. He busied himself in accustoming his men to the roughest tracts which the Kolis used, and gathered information regarding the strength of the outlaws, the names of their leaders, the people who were likely to help them, and the places where they were in the habit of meeting. He also took pains to gain the goodwill and co-operation of a number of the people. When his information was completed a detachment from Bhiwñdi was stationed at the bottom of the passes leading into the Konkan, and other detachments from Málegaon, Ahmadnagar, and Poona were posted in the most suitable places, and lightly equipped parties kept constantly searching the Kolis' haunts and lurking places. A few days before the troops came the insurgents had plundered three villages. The insurgents had soon to break into small parties. Many of the insurgents finding how all the ways were blocked and guarded, fled, and the rest were greatly perplexed by finding guards posted over their favourite ponds and drinking places. The people gave great help and officers and men worked with unceasing zeal. In two months the two chiefs and over eighty of their followers were marched into Ahmadnagar. Though the chiefs were secured the rising was not at an end. Ráma Kirva, one of the leaders in the rising, a stout and powerful man with an extremely fine figure and good features noted for excelling all the Kolis in agility, had escaped south before the final success against the gang. In July 1830 he was joined by Bhils and he and his gang gave great trouble plundering both above and below the Sahyádris. The troops under Captain Luykin of the 17th Regiment N. I., Lieutenant Lloyd of the 11th Regiment, and Lieutenant Forbes of the 13th worked with the greatest energy. The people gave the troops important help and the thorough knowledge of the hills which two years' experience supplied enabled the troops to give the insurgents no rest. A number of prisoners were taken to Poona and Thána, and Ráma Kirva and several other notorious leaders were taken to Ahmadnagar where Kirva was executed.¹

In 1845 the Kolis were again troublesome. One Koli outlaw whose name is still fresh in the district was Rághoji Bhángria of Násik. He made a raid on some Márwári Vánis who applied to the police. During the investigation the police asked Rághoji's mother where her son was hiding; and when she refused to tell she was put

Rághoji Bhángria,
1845-1847.¹ Capt. J. Mackintosh in Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. I. 257-263

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Bhagoji Náik,
1857-1859.

to torture. Enraged at this outrage Rághoji gathered a band of Kolis and wandering through the Násik and Ahmadnagar districts cut the nose off of every Márwári he could lay hands on. Almost all village Márwáris fled in terror to the district towns and the pursuit of the police was so hot that Rághoji had to break his band and disappear. He avoided capture for many years. At last in 1812 he was caught at Pandharpur by Lieutenant afterwards General Gell. As some of his raids had been accompanied with murder, he was hanged and many of the leading men punished.¹

²During the 1857 mutinies Ahmadnagar was the scene of considerable disturbance. The rebels were about 7000 Bhils of South Násik and North Ahmadnagar. Detachments of troops were stationed to guard the frontier against raids from the Nizám's dominions, and to save the large towns from the chance of Bhil attacks. The work of scattering the Bhil gatherings and hunting the rebels was left almost entirely to the police who were strengthened by the raising of a special Koli corps and by detachments of infantry and cavalry. The first gathering of Bhils was under the leadership of one Bhágoji Náik. This chief, who had been an officer in the Ahmadnagar police, in 1855 was convicted of rioting and obstructing the police and was sentenced to imprisonment. On his release he was required to find security for his good behaviour for a year. Shortly after the year was over, in consequence of the order for a general disarming, Bhágoji left his village of Nándur-Shingote in the Sinnar subdivision of Násik, about five miles to the north of the Ahmadnagar boundary. Being a man of influence he was soon joined by some fifty of his tribe and took a position about a mile from his village, commanding the Poona-Násik road. After a few days (4th October 1857) Lieutenant J. W. Henry, the Superintendent of Police, arrived at Nándur-Shingote and was joined by his assistant Lieutenant now Colonel T. Thatcher, and Mr. A. L. Taylor inspecting postmaster. The police force under Lieutenant Henry consisted of thirty constables and twenty revenue messengers armed with swords. Lieutenant Henry told the mámlatdárs of Sangamner and Sinnar to send for Bhágoji and induce him to submit. Bhágoji refused unless he received two years' back pay and unless some arrangement was made for his maintenance. On receiving this message, the police were ordered to advance against his position. The first shot killed a man immediately behind Lieutenant Henry. The officers dismounted, but before they had advanced many yards were met by a volley, and Lieutenant Henry fell wounded. He regained his feet, and, pressing on, received a mortal wound in the chest. The attack was continued under Lieutenant Thatcher and the Bhils retreated. This unfortunate engagement excited the whole Bhil population. A fresh gang of about 100 Bhils was raised by Patharji Náik in the Ráhuri sub-division, but it was soon dispersed by Major now Lieutenant General Montgomery, the new superintendent of police. On the 18th of October an engagement

¹ Details of Rághoji Bhángria's capture are given in the Thána Statistical Account.

² Major H. Daniell, formerly Superintendent of Police, Ahmadnagar.

took place in the hills of Shamsherpur in Akola, between Bhágoji's men and a detachment of troops and police under Colonel Macan of the 26th Native Infantry, in which Lieutenant Graham who was on special police duty and Mr. F. S. Chapman of the Civil Service who accompanied the force were wounded. As disorder was widespread, Captain now General Nuttall, who succeeded Lieutenant Graham, was ordered to raise a corps of Kolis, the hereditary rivals of the Bhils, who, in Marátha times, had been among the bravest of the Mávlis or West Deccan footmen. The corps was recruited chiefly in the hilly parts of Akola, of Junnar in Poona, and of Násik. In December 1857 a hundred men armed with their own swords and muskets were fit for the field, and so useful did they prove, that in January and February 1858 a second levy of 110 was ordered, and shortly after the strength of the corps was increased to 600 men with a commandant and adjutant.¹

In raising the corps Captain Nuttall dealt with the heads of the different clans, promising them rank and position corresponding to the number of recruits they brought to the corps. Jávji Náik Bomla, the chief of the Bomla clan, was made the head of the corps and a brother of the famous outlaw Rághoji Bhángria and other leading men were chosen as officers. Drill masters were lent by the Ahmadnagar police, and, in spite of the want of leisure, the Kolis mastered their drill with the ease of born soldiers, and proved skilful skirmishers among hills and in rough ground. In 1858 the rebels were chiefly engaged in Násik, Khándesh, and the Nizám's dominions and gave no trouble in Ahmadnagar. In the hot weather (April-May) of 1859, the Bhils under Bhágoji and Harji Náik again appeared in the district. On the 5th of July after a forced march, Captain Nuttall came upon the Bhils near Ambhora Dara eight miles south-east of Sangamner. The Bhils took a strong position from which they were driven by twenty-five men of the Koli Corps with a loss of ten killed, including Yashvant Bhágoji's son, several wounded, and three prisoners among whom was Harji Náik one of the leaders. In October 1859 parties of Bhils were reported to be gathering in the Nizám's territory with the intention of joining Bhágoji. In the British districts also they were again becoming uneasy and excited. Under these circumstances a detachment of Native Infantry was kept posted along the frontier which was constantly patrolled by strong parties of the Poona Irregular Horse. On the 26th of October, Bhágoji plundered the village of Korhála in Kopargaon and carried off property worth about £1800 (Rs. 18,000). He was closely pursued by Captain Nuttall for nearly a fortnight along the rough Sahyádrí country, down to the Konkan, and up again into Ahmadnagar, but by very rapid and secret marches always succeeded in baulking his pursuers. At last on the 11th of November the rebels were pursued by Mr. now Sir Frank Souter, the newly appointed police superintendent of the district, and at Mithságar, in the Sinnar sub-division of Násik, in a hand to hand fight Bhágoji and most of his followers were killed and the rebellion

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Koli Corps,
1858.

¹ Details are given in the Population Chapter.

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brought to an end.¹ The Nizám Bhils who were awaiting Bhágoji's arrival dispersed, and on the 20th, in falling back from the British frontier with a loss of forty killed were attacked and routed by a detachment of the Haidarabad contingent under Lieutenant Podler. On the 12th of November a large party of Bhils, under an influential chief, a relative of Bhágoji's, left Sonai in Nevása to join Bhágoji. On hearing of his death they turned towards Khándesh where they were caught. As they had committed no crimes they were pardoned and allowed to return to their homes. Though disturbances were at an end posts of regular troops were maintained till 1860. When the regular troops were withdrawn their places were taken by detachments of the Koli corps. The Koli Corps continued to perform this outpost duty till March 1861, when they were disbanded, and all, except a few who entered the police, returned to their former life of tillage and field labour. The wisdom of raising the corps had been proved. Instead of heading disturbances, as had often happened before and has happened since, the disciplined Kolis were a powerful element in repressing disorder. Under Captain Nuttall's patient and kindly care, and by the example of his dashing bravery and untiring energy, they proved a most orderly, well disciplined, active, and courageous force. They showed themselves superior to the Bhils in strength and spirit, and, in their two and a half years of active service five times earned the special thanks of Government.

Honya Bhágoji,
1873.

1874.

In 1873, one Honya Bhágoji Kenglia, an influential Koli of Jamburi in Poona, at the head of a well trained gang began a series of attacks on the moneylenders who habitually cheat and oppress the hill tribes and at intervals drive them into crime. Honya's robberies extended over the western parts of Poona Ahmadnagar and Násik and the eastern sub-divisions of Thána. They became so numerous and daring that in 1874 a special police party of 175 armed men under Colonel Scott and Mr. W. F. Sinclair C. S. was detached for his arrest and proclamations were issued offering rewards of £100 (Rs. 1000) for Honya and £20 to £60 (Rs. 200-600) for any of his followers. In spite of these measures Honya managed to evade pursuit till July 1876 when he was caught by Major H. Daniell then superintendent of police. In 1875 the spirit of disorder spread from the Kolis to the peace-loving Kunbis of the plain country and between May and July chiefly in Párner, Shrigonda, Nagar, and Karjat twenty-two cases of assaults on moneylenders by bands of villagers were committed. Troops were called to the aid of the police and the disturbance was put down.

¹ Details are given in the Násik Statistical Account, 203-4.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE LAND.¹

SECTION I.—ACQUISITION AND STAFF.

THE lands of the district of Ahmadnagar have been gained by conquest, cession, and exchange. Most of the country fell to the British on the overthrow of the Peshwa in 1818: In 1822, His Highness the Nizám, by a treaty dated the 12th of December 1822, ceded 107 villages, sixteen in Nagar, five in Jámkhed, twenty in Shrigonda, sixty-five in Karjat, and one in Shevgaon. In 1861, His Highness Sindia, by a treaty dated the 12th of December 1860, in exchange for other lands, ceded 120 villages, ten in Nagar, thirteen in Párner, fourteen in Shrigonda, one in Karjat, two in Nevása, seventy-seven in Shevgaon, and three in Kopargaon. In 1868, His Highness Holkar, under Government Resolution 4157 dated the 30th of December 1867, in exchange for other lands, ceded three villages in Shrigonda, and under Government Revenue Order 4470 dated the 28th of November 1868, in exchange for other lands, ceded one village in Kopargaon. In 1870, His Highness the Nizám, under Government Resolution 3519 dated the 22nd of July 1870, in exchange for other lands, ceded two villages in the Nagar sub-division.

The revenue administration of the district is entrusted to an officer styled Collector on a yearly pay of £2160 (Rs. 21,600). This officer, who is also the chief magistrate and executive head of the district, is aided in his work of general supervision by a staff of four assistants, of whom three are covenanted and one is an uncovenanted servant of Government. The sanctioned yearly salaries of the covenanted assistants range from £600 to £1080 (Rs. 6000 - Rs. 10,800);

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* STAFF,
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¹ Materials for the Land History of Ahmadnagar include, besides elaborate survey tables prepared in 1879 by Mr. Fforde of the Revenue Survey, Mr. Elphinstone's Report dated the 25th of October 1819 (Ed. 1872); Mr. Chaplin's Report dated the 20th of August 1822 (Ed. 1877); East India Papers, III. and IV. (Ed. 1826); the Collector Mr. Boyd's Report 203 dated the 26th of November 1828 (Lithographed Papers); Manuscript Selections 157 of 1821-29; Mr. Williamson's Report 2610 dated the 23rd of November 1838; Mr. Vibart's Report 311 dated the 24th of February 1842; Survey Reports in Bom. Gov. Sel. CXVII. CXXIII. and CXXX. and in Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 207 of 1848, 212 of 1848, 204 of 1849, and 207 of 1849; Annual Jamábandi and other Reports and Statements in Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 47 of 1822, 50 of 1822, 68 of 1823, 72 of 1823, 74 of 1823, 117 of 1825, 123 of 1825, 156 of 1827, 207 of 1828, 351 of 1831, 352 of 1831, 406 of 1832, 482 of 1833, 548 of 1834, 625 of 1835, 691 of 1836, 692 of 1836, 769 of 1837, 968 of 1839, 1092 of 1840, 1235 of 1841, 1339 of 1842, 1448 of 1843, 1564 of 1844, 9 of 1845, 11 of 1847, 10 of 1848, 13 of 1849, 13 of 1850, 11 of 1851, 12 of 1851, 11 of 1852, 13 of 1856, 17 (Part 1) of 1856, 10 of 1857, 11 (Part 2) of 1857, 18 (Part 2) of 1858, 18 (Part 5) of 1859, 9 of 1860, 11 of 1861, 236 of 1862-1864, Gov. Res. on Revenue Settlement Reports for 1873-74, Rev. Dept. 6092 dated the 27th of October 1875, and Bom. Pres. Genl. Adm. Reports since 1872-73; Season Reports in Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 90 of 1861, 235 of 1862-1864, 75 of 1866, 57 of 1867, 59 of 1868, 65 of 1869, 95 of 1871, 81 of 1872, 89 of 1873; and the printed Acquisition Statement of the Bombay Presidency.

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the salary of the uncovenanted assistant is £720 (Rs. 7200) a year. For fiscal and other administrative purposes the lands under the Collector's charge are distributed among eleven sub-divisions, all of which are generally entrusted to the three covenanted assistant collectors. The fourth assistant, styled the head-quarter or *huzur* deputy collector, is entrusted with the charge of the treasury. These officers are also assistant magistrates, and those of them who hold revenue charges have, under the presidency of the Collector, the chief management of the different administrative bodies, local fund and municipal committees, within the limits of their revenue charges.

Sub-Divisional
Officers.

Under the supervision of the Collector and his assistants the revenue charge of each fiscal division is placed in the hands of an officer styled *mámlatdár*. These functionaries, who are also entrusted with magisterial powers, have yearly salaries varying from £180 to £300 (Rs. 1800 - 3000).

Village Officers.

In revenue and police matters the charge of the Government villages is entrusted to 1352 headmen, all of whom are hereditary. The headmen are nearly all Maráthás or Kunbis. A few Máli, Bráhmañ, and Musalmán headmen are scattered over the district, and in the west of Akola many villages are under Kolis and one or two are under Thákurs. Of the 1352 headmen 125 attend to matters of police only, while 1227 perform both revenue and police duties. Their yearly endowments depend on the village revenue, varying from 6s. 3d. to £18 9s. 1½d. (Rs. 3½ - 184½) and averaging £3 6s. 4½d. (Rs. 33½). In many villages, besides the headman, members of his family are in receipt of state grants representing a yearly sum of £496 (Rs. 4960), of which £493 (Rs. 4930) are met by grants of land and £3 (Rs. 30) are paid in cash. Of £4983 (Rs. 49,830), the total yearly charge on account of the headmen of villages and their families, £493 (Rs. 4930) are met by grants of land and £4490 (Rs. 44,900) are paid in cash. To keep the village accounts, prepare statistics, and help the village headmen, a body of 991 village accountants or *kulkarnis* are employed. Of these fifteen are stipendiary and the rest hereditary. All of them are Bráhmans. Every village accountant has an average charge of 1¼ villages containing on an average 780 people and yielding a yearly revenue of about £133 (Rs. 1330). The *kulkarni's* yearly pay varies from 13s. 3d. to £25 9s. 1½d. (Rs. 6½ - 254½) and averages £6 10s. 7½d. (Rs. 65½). The total yearly charge on account of village accountants amounts to £6473 (Rs. 64,730), of which £6429 (Rs. 64,290) are paid in cash and £44 (Rs. 440) in land.

Village Servants.

Under the headmen and accountants are 8694 village servants who are liable both for revenue and for police duties. They are either Musalmáns or they are Hindus of the Máng, Koli, Rámoshi, Bhil, Mhár, Kunbi, and Kaikádi castes. The total yearly cost of this establishment amounts to £3035 (Rs. 30,350), being 6s 11¾d. (Rs. 3 as. 7½) to each man, or a cost to each village of £2 9s. 8½d. (Rs. 24 as. 13¾). Of the whole amount, £1830 (Rs. 18,300) are paid in cash and £1205 (Rs. 12,050) are met by grants of land.

The average yearly cost of village establishments may be thus summarised:

Ahmadnagar Village Establishments.

	£	Rs.
Headmen	4983	49,830
Accountants	6473	64,730
Servants	3035	30,350
Total	14,491	1,44,910

This is equal to a charge of £11 17s. 4½d. (Rs.118½) a village or about eleven per cent of the district land revenue.

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The earliest revenue settlements of which traces remained at the beginning of British rule, seem to be the division of the land into plots or estates known as *munds*, *kás*, and *tikás* or *thikás*. These names seem to be of Dravidian that is of southern or eastern origin.¹ They need not date from times further back than the northern element in Maráthi, as, among the great Hindu dynasties who ruled the Deccan before the Musalmán invasion in 1294, perhaps the Ráshtrakutás (760-973) and the Chálukyás (973-1184) and probably the Devgiri Yádavs (1150-1310) were of southern or eastern origin. The *mund* or large estate was the aggregate of many fields or *tikás* together or separate, or part together part separate. The assessment on the *mund* was a fixed lump sum for all the lands in the estate or *mund*, good, fair, and bad. In the settlement of *kás* or small estates the division of the village lands was into smaller parcels than *munds*, and, unlike the assessment on *tikás* or *shets*, the assessment on each *kás* in a village was the same.

The next system of revenue management of which traces remained was Malík Ambar's. This was introduced at the beginning of the seventeenth century by the Ahmadnagar minister Malík Ambar (1600-1626). It was a new system based on the system introduced in the Moghal territories in Upper India and partially in Gujarát and Khándesh by Akbar's (1556-1605) minister Todar Mal. According to Major Jervis,² Malík Ambar's chief change was to make the settlement direct with the village instead of with the district hereditary revenue superintendents and accountants, the *deshmukhs* or *desáís* and the *deshpándes*. His next step was, by careful measuring and classing, which however seem to have been confined to a portion only of the arable area,³ to find the yield of the land, and to fix one-third of the yield as the government share. When some years of experience had shown the average amount of grain due to government and the average price of grain, the grain share was changed into a money payment. The village headmen were made hereditary and responsible for the village rental. An average or normal payment called the *tankha* was fixed for each plot of land surveyed and for each village. Unlike Todar Mal's settlement this average money payment was not fixed permanently. It represented the sum due in a normal year. The actual collections varied from

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Early Hindu.

Malík Ambar.

¹ See Thána Statistical Account, Bombay Gazetteer, XIII. 550.

² Jervis' Konkan, 66. See Thána Stat. Acct. Bombay Gazetteer, XIII. 553-554.

³ East India Papers, IV. 732-733; Poona Statistical Account (Bombay Gazetteer) Chapter VIII. 317-319.

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year to year with the crops.¹ Malik Ambar's system combined the two great merits of a moderate and certain tax and the possession by the cultivators of an interest in the soil. Instead of keeping the state sole landowner Malik Ambar sought to strengthen the government by giving the people a definite interest in the soil they tilled. He made a considerable portion of the land private property. The lands of the village were considered the joint property of the township; the fallow land was the common for the pasture of the cattle; and the ploughed land was either the property of individual villagers or it was tilled by the headman's tenants who received a portion of the crop. It appears to have been a principle of his wise administration to encourage the possession of private landed property as a means of attaching the cultivators to the soil, and making over in perpetuity to them what is useful to government only so long as cultivators continue to till it. At the same time his settlement was with the village head for a lump sum not with individual holders for an acre rate. The assessment is described as being fixed by *tankha* and *rakba*, that is apparently by a lump payment from a lump area, or the share to be levied from individuals being left in each village to be settled between the landholders and their headman or *pátíl*.²

Malik Ambar's *tankha* or ideal average rental was continued without change by various persons whose names were handed down by oral tradition and were still known in 1822. The *tankha* accounts which were produced by the district officers in 1822 were declared to be framed from information handed down from generation to generation; and this assertion was corroborated by the scraps of the oldest available papers, and occasional measurements showed that the areas given in the *tankha* were correct. In 1822 Captain Pottinger noticed that the *tankha* of many villages considerably exceeded the *kamál* or total fixed under Maráthá surveys made in 1769-70 (*Fasli* 1179).³

The Maráthás.

The revenue system which the English found in force when they conquered Ahmadnagar in 1818 took its rise in the latter part of the seventeenth century. About 1670 the Maráthás appear as freebooters without any fixed dominion. Their first demand was one-fourth of the land revenue due to the existing government. In

¹ Grant Duff (Maráthás, 43) gives the following summary of the changes introduced by Malik Ambar: 'He abolished revenue farming, and committed the management to Bráhman agents under Muhammadan superintendence; he restored such parts of the village establishment as had fallen into decay and he revived a mode of assessing the fields by collecting a moderate proportion of the actual produce in kind, which after the experience of several seasons was commuted for a payment in money settled annually according to the cultivation.' It is stated that his assessment was equal to two-fifths of the produce, but tradition says his money commutation was only one-third.

² Khándesh Statistical Account, Bombay Gazetteer, XII. 267-268.

³ According to Capt. Pottinger, 31st July 1822, the ancient custom of the Deccan was that, after deducting all *hakdárs'* or claimants' rights government received one-half of the net produce of dry crop or *jiráyat* land and one-third of the produce of garden or *bágyat* land. This method was called *batai* or division. The *tankha* is supposed to have been framed with reference to the produce of the soil. The *tankha* was established on the average prices of grain for a series of years. In most places money-rent was first substituted for payment in kind when the *tankha* rental was established, and in a few places at a more recent period. East India Papers, IV. 732, 747.

1717 the Marátha claim to the one-fourth or *chauth* and the one-tenth or *sardeshmukhi* of the revenue was acknowledged by the Moghal general Husain Ali Khán.¹ About 1720 the Maráthás made many assignments of revenue to individual chiefs and others for whom it was politic to make provision. Besides these grants of portions of the revenue, many proprietors held and collected the rents of various estates. The whole system was complicated and confused. Uncertainty as to the amount of revenue due and as to the persons to whom it should be paid caused the people constant suffering.

About 1769 (*Fasli* 1179), during the administration of Peshwa Mádhavráv Ballál (1761-1772),² a rate of assessment was introduced,

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¹ Kháfikhán (Muntakhabu-l-Lubáb in Elliot's History of India, VII. 467-468) gives the following details for the year 1718. The Moghal government agreed that there was to be paid to the officers of Rája Sháhu a fourth part of what the *amins*, *kroris*, and *shekhdárs* collected as land revenue and as *sáyar* from the government lands and from the *jágirdárs*. It was also settled that in addition to the fourth share which they were to get from the receipts of the *jágirdárs*, they were to receive from the *rayats* ten per cent as *sardeshmukhi*. Altogether they were to receive thirty-five per cent upon the total collections, (and also) upon the *abvábs* called *faujdarí*, *shekhdarí*, *ziyafat*, and other charges, as shown in the gross account of the collections. According to this account they were to receive nearly half the total revenue recorded in the government rent-roll, and the collections were thus shared by the domineering collectors of Rája Sháhu. This arrangement, by which they were to collect all taxes, fell very hard on the *rayats*, and on the government officers and *jágirdárs*, for in every district there were two collectors, one called the *kamávísdar* the other the *gumásta* of *sardeshmukhi*. On the roll of the collections the signature of the *shirastédár* of the *sardeshmukhi* was first placed, and what was required by the rules on that account was to be taken separately. The position and life of the officers of government and of the *jágirdárs* became irksome. Besides these there were two separate collectors of the *rahdarí* or road duties in each district. In consequence of the negligence of the *faujdarás* and the power of the enemy, these had for some time taken their positions in different places, and exacted half a rupee or one rupee for each bullock and cart from merchants, and whatever they pleased from other persons. They exacted twice or three times more than the most tyrannical *faujdarás*. Now also, since the days of the peace, the former grievance remained but it was aggravated by more taking part in it. In the present state of things there were in each district three regular collectors of Rája Sháhu, with parties of horsemen and footmen stationed at the office, the guard-house where the land revenue, the *sáyar*, and the tolls were collected. Besides this, there were in many places villages which had been laid waste by the Maráthás, and which had been again brought into cultivation, under special agreements, such as the districts about Nandurbár in Khándesh, in Berár, and in other places. They paid no heed to the special contracts made by Husain Ali Khán; but conceding the third share belonging to the *jágirdár*, they made the following arrangement. They recognized three shares; one was for the *jágirdár*, one they took themselves, and the third they left to the *rayats*. In revenue and civil matters the orders and the action of the enemy prevailed over the authority of the *faujdarás* and *jágirdárs*. At the time of the peace Husain Ali Khán determined and issued strict injunctions that the *rahdarí* should not be exacted, as in the days before the peace, from merchants and travellers at the rate of three rupees or four upon each bullock and cart, as if *faujdar* and harsh officials were acting. But it was no good. In several districts there was no longer any plundering of villages and caravans; but, as in former days, travellers and wanderers paid the *rahdarí*, and went on in peace without interruption. Villages which had been ravaged by plunderers or made completely desolate by the tyranny of rapacious managers were now restored to cultivation. Husain Ali delivered a *sanad* containing the conditions of peace under his seal to the agents of Rája Sháhu, and made no delay in writing for a royal grant confirming this document. He introduced the agents of Rája Sháhu everywhere and he settled that Báláji Vishvanáth and Jamsáji, two of the highest officers of Rája Sháhu, should stay with a suitable escort in Aurangabad as deputy and agent or *vakil* of the Rája, so that all civil and revenue matters might be settled through them.

² The Collector gives the date 1769 and the name Mádhavráv Náráyan, but his administration was between 1774 and 1796. The name of Mádhavráv Ballál is therefore given in the text and the date left unchanged.

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known as the *kamál* or total. The period when it was imposed was one of much greater agricultural prosperity than prevailed for many years either before or after the British accession.¹ The *kamál* settlement is generally supposed to have been undertaken to ascertain the exact value of the soil, and the highest rent it would bear consistent with the prosperity of the country.² Great pains are said to have been taken to employ intelligent and upright officers. After a short trial, in the Sinnar sub-division now (1884) in Násik, the *kamál* assessment was found not to bear equally on the soil, and in its place, with the sanction of Nána Fadnavis, an older settlement known as the *kásbandi bigha* was introduced. In some sub-divisions, probably because they were already sufficiently highly assessed, the *kamál* rental was never introduced.³

During the time of Nána Fadnavis (1774-1800) the village rental was divided into three parts. First the village expenses were paid and the claims of village servants met; second the state revenue was set apart; third the remainder was divided among officers and chiefs to whom it was advisable to give a local interest and local authority. Provision for the state share of the revenue seems to have been made in three ways. By allotting to the state the rents of certain whole villages or groups of villages; by deducting from the full village rent a share for the state and distributing the balance of the rent among chiefs and officers; by nominally dividing the whole village rents among chiefs and by crediting certain of these allotments for the use of the head of the state. When as much of the revenue of a tract of country as was required, or as seemed advisable, had been taken for the state, the remainder, in some villages the whole net rental, in other villages part of the net rental, was distributed in claims or *amals* to state officers and chiefs. The system by which these shares were allotted and collected was elaborate and uncertain. It differed greatly even in neighbouring villages of the same district. The usual plan was to divide the available rental into a certain number of shares of £11 5s. (Rs. 112½) each. From each share of £11 5s. (Rs. 112½) £1 5s. (Rs. 12½) were deducted for *sardeshmukhi* that is for the overlord's share which was sometimes set apart for the head of the state and sometimes allotted to the Pratinidhi or Premier. Of the remaining hundred and half to two-thirds was set apart for the proprietor of the estate or *jágir* to which the

¹ Mr. Harrison, Collector, 28th September 1836, Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 33-34.

² It is a question whether *kamál* meant the highest rent the whole arable land of the village could bear or the highest rent that could safely be levied from the area under tillage when the settlement was made. The latter seems the more probable meaning. In 1820, Captain Robertson, the Collector of Poona, wrote (East India Papers IV. 426-427): In 1757-58 an attempt was made to introduce a general revenue settlement by measuring the land and by classing and arranging its quality and fixing an average rate for each village. This settlement was introduced in great part of the Junnar district between 1758 and 1768 and in the country round Poona at a later date. The result was termed the *kamál*. The *kamál* as it existed in Poona in 1820 seemed to be the assessment on the land actually occupied and paying rent at the time of the settlement, together with the *shiváya* or extra revenue. In Capt. Robertson's opinion the *kamál* varied with the increase or decrease of cultivation and of the extra revenue.

³ Capt. Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 731.

village belonged. The distribution of the remaining half or one-third varied greatly. Four to thirty per cent were set apart as cess or *bābti* for some officer or chief; one to two per cent to another officer as *sahotra* literally six per cent; eleven to thirty-two per cent to some one else as *mokāsa* or military service grant; one to three per cent as *nim-chauthāi* literally half a fourth that is an eighth or twelve and a half per cent; and twenty-five per cent as *svarāj* that is originally the part due to government. As an example of the distribution of shares Captain Pottinger quotes the case of Mekhri village. In Mekhri, of every £11 5s. (Rs. 112½), £1 5s. (Rs. 12½) were set apart as *sardeshmukhi* or the overlord's share, £7 10s. (Rs. 75) as *jāgir* or the proprietor's share, and £2 10s. (Rs. 25) as *svarāj* or the government share. Of the twenty-five per cent government share or *svarāj* 18½ were allotted under the head of *mokāsa* or reward for military service and 6½ under the head of *bābti* or cesses. In the 18½ *mokāsa* were included sixteen of original and 1¼ of extra *mokāsa* and 1¼ of *sahotra* at six per cent. In the 6½ *bābti* were included 4¼ of original or *ain bābti* and 1¼ of *nim-chauthāi* that is half a fourth or twelve and a half per cent. The proprietor or *jāgirdār* who in most cases had much the largest share, generally made the revenue settlement for the year, representatives of the other claimants being present and each collecting his employer's share. The village officers generally settled the share to which each claimant had a right. If the amount was doubtful the local records were consulted, and if the correctness of the local records was questioned, an appeal lay to the central records at Poona.¹

The management of a district was entrusted to an officer styled *subhedār* whose charge was divided into sub-divisions each under the management of a *kamāvisdār* or *māmlatdār*.² The authority of the *subhedār* closely corresponded to the authority of a Collector under the English Government. He was vested with general control over the heads of sub-divisions or *kamāvisdārs*. He had power to punish theft, speculation, and other offences not amounting to capital crimes. He superintended the conduct of all grades of government officers, and, if he discovered malpractices, he suspended the delinquents and reported the matter to government. His authority was of great use in adjusting boundary disputes between villages or quarrels concerning the right of hill pasture and waste lands, the division of the water of streams, and similar matters. The *māmlatdār* or *kamāvisdār* decided suits that were submitted to him by the consent of both parties, or he ordered village councils or *panchāyats* to sit and settle them. He could not inflict any severe punishment without the *subhedār's* sanction. *Subhedārs* and *kamāvisdārs* were paid by assignments on the revenue of their charge. The assignments

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¹ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 741-743.

² Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 755. The Ahmadnagar papers styled the officer in charge of a district *sarsubhedār*. The word *subhedār* has been used in preference, as, according to the usual practice, *sarsubhedār* is applied to a higher officer, the head of a province such as Khāndesh or Gujarāt. For the relative authority of *subhedār* and *kamāvisdār*, see Captain Pottinger's Report of 15th January 1819 quoted in East India Papers IV. 755.

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were fixed on an estimate made at Poona, and if any difference was discovered in the payment of the inferior officers, in the number of revenue messengers employed, or in any other items, the *kamávisdár* was fined and punished, besides being obliged to refund the amount.¹ Besides these stipendiary officers, there was a staff of district hereditary officers, of whom the chief were the district superintendent of revenue or *deshmukh* and the district accountant or *deshpánde*. These hereditary officers were generally styled *zamindárs*.² Their duties were to look after the revenues of their village groups in the same way as the *pátel* and *kulkarni* looked after the revenue of their village. They were bound to inform the stipendiary officers of government on all questions relating to the revenue, to help in fixing the yearly rent settlement or *jamábandi*, to endeavour to keep the landholders or *rayats* in good humour, and to explain any cause of dissatisfaction. They were expected to be present at the settlement of all boundary disputes, to attest all transfers and sales of land within the limits of their charges, and to prepare a statement of the gross revenue. Their perquisites varied from three to ten per cent of the revenue which their village group yielded. These perquisites were known by the names of *rusum* or customary allowances and *bhikna* or charitable demands. The charitable demands were payable from the revenues of villages without reference to their value; it was not determined in accordance with any fixed scale.

Though the system remained the same, the character of Marátha revenue management depended greatly on the views and energy of the head of the executive. During the ministry of Nána Fadnavis (1774-1800) great attention was paid to the representations of the heads of villages and other landholders. If a village headman went to Poona with a complaint he had no difficulty in interviewing the minister. The knowledge that petitioners had a full and ready hearing was a great check on the *kamávisdárs* and other distant officers. Besides this freedom of appeal, local officers were under the surveillance of people stationed in each sub-division to watch and report on their actions. In other respects their doings were not so closely checked as under the British system.³

¹ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 755.

² In the early Ahmadnagar records the hereditary revenue officers are generally styled *zamindárs*. The chief of these hereditary revenue officers were the *deshmukh* and the *deshpánde*. The *deshmukh*, who was the revenue superintendent of a group of villages, stood to his group in the same relation as the village headman or *pátel* stood to his village. The *deshpánde*, who was the group accountant, stood to the group in the same relation the village accountant stood to the village. Captain Pottinger, 1822, East India Papers IV. 743. Unless they forfeited their position owing to treason or other state crimes, these offices were hereditary. Captain Pottinger (31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 756) notices that the *deshmukhs* of Vádi in Poona had forfeited their office by joining in an attempt to overthrow the government.

³ It is said that out of every Rs. 1,00,000 which he collected, a *kamávisdár* had tacit permission to spend Rs. 5,000 in contingent expenses. If he paid Rs. 95,000 into the treasury and satisfactorily showed how the balance was spent, little inquiry was made. In spite of this slackness, Captain Pottinger believed (31st July 1822) that under efficient ministers, the Maráthás had a more thorough knowledge and control over their subordinate officers than was possible under an English Government. Like the English the Marátha minister could work only through the medium of natives. But the minister was skilled in detecting abuses and knew at a glance where abuses existed. With the close of Nána Fadnavis' ministry, these checks

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The Maráthás occasionally measured the land which happened to be under cultivation, but as these measurements were made only to answer the purpose of the hour there was no specification of the names or of the position of the surveyed fields; consequently, even where they were preserved, the rough records gave no useful information. Under the Maráthás the *subhedárs* attended merely to the aggregate revenue which the different sub-divisions could yield. They left the interior fiscal management to the *kamávisdárs* who every year settled with the heads of each village what rental the village was to pay.¹ If tillage had spread or if the village showed any other sign of prosperity the government demand was raised. On the other hand if the people were so poor that the levy of the whole of the former demand would be followed by the throwing up of land a temporary abatement was sanctioned. In very favourable seasons extra cesses were introduced professedly for that year only; once exacted these cesses were generally included in subsequent settlements as part of the regular rental. When the total rental for the year was settled the village community apportioned the sum to the different holdings according to established practice, generally by fractional shares.²

The revenue settlement or *jamábandi* was by villages. There was no instance on record of the settlement being by *maháls* or districts, or by *amals* that is by the shares of the different revenue claimants. Whole villages lying within foreign territory were sometimes farmed to save the expense of establishments. The rest of the country was under direct or *amáni* management. When the *kamávisdár* of a sub-division moved from his head-quarters to begin the yearly rent-settlement or *jamábandi*, he summoned the headmen and the accountants of a certain number of villages. With the help of the local hereditary revenue officers, the accounts of these villages were carefully examined by the *kamávisdár* and his clerks. The receipts of former years were referred to and the cause of the absence of old landholders, whether from death or emigration, was closely scrutinised. The cause of any change in the revenue, whether increase or decrease, was also closely examined. When these points were settled, the village statement or *patta* was drawn out and given to the headman; and a written agreement was taken from the headman to pay the sum mentioned in the village statement. After this agreement was recorded, neither the *kamávisdár* nor his assistants interfered with the village except to realize the rental of which a large share was sometimes taken in advance. Though he did not make an individual or *kulvár* settlement, a *kamávisdár*, who did his duty, was always ready to attend to the complaints of landholders whom the heads of villages might have forced to pay more than their share. On the other hand where

on extortion and abuse ceased. When the system of farming the revenue was introduced by Bájiráv, the friendship of some court favourite secured the revenue farmer against any local complaints of extortion. East India Papers, IV. 745, 746.

¹ Captain Pottinger, 61st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 745; Mr. Goldsmid 1st November 1840, Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXX. 13-14.

² Mr. Goldsmid, 1st November 1840, Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXX. 13-14.

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landholders failed to discharge their dues and absconded, the loss was very often divided among the rest of the villagers; and this gave the headman the opportunity of befriending his relations and indirectly oppressing those with whom he might be on bad terms.¹

Under Nána Fadnavis no government officer dared to burden a village with an unusually heavy rent without first obtaining the assent of the village. After the death of Nána Fadnavis in 1800 the system changed. During the eighteen years before the introduction of British management the only limit on the demands made from the landholders was their power to pay. So long as it was known or even imagined that a village could pay a fresh cess, there was no want of pretences for levying it. The cesses varied in almost every village. There were the butter or *tup* cess, the hemp or *ambádi* cess, the grass-cutting or *gavat-katái* cess, the grain-purchase or *galla-kharedi* cess, and many others. In individual cases the nature and the amount of these cesses were fixed according to the quantity of ground cultivated.² Except that the head of the village was held responsible for the payment of the village revenue, until the accession of Peshwa Bájiráv (December 1796), there was no revenue farming. Under Bájiráv's system, the revenue farmer or *maktedár* was obliged, even if he ruined himself, to pay the full amount which he had offered. The farmer in turn took care not to lose by his agreement. Whether failure arose from death or from any other cause, he levied the utmost penny from the villages included in his farm. Occasionally ignorant court dependants or *hujre* that is men of the presence, agreed to farm a group of villages at more than they could possibly pay. Even in these cases the farmers were treated without the slightest consideration. They were obliged to sell their houses and chattels, and, if their property did not make good the deficiency, they were thrown into prison. In Párner in 1816 Rágho Chimnáji the revenue farmer failed to pay the amount he had promised. He was ordered not to appear at court till he made good the difference. Rágho Chimnáji represented that he had raised the assessment as high as he could possibly raise it. He received no answer except that he need not appear at court till he had paid the full amount of his farm. He returned to his villages and sending out his men seized people of all classes and forced them to pay till the sum he wanted was realized. Several of the injured people went to Poona, but no notice was taken of their complaint.³ Whether a farm should last for one year or for a term of years depended on the pleasure of the government. In Bájiráv's time it was usual to grant farms for several years and the head contractor for a district underfarmed it by villages or even by shares of villages. This minute division of farms more than anything else impoverished the people.⁴ The farmer, desirous only of securing a profit, left internal arrangements to the village officers. So long as a good

¹ Capt. Pottinger, 31st Jan. and 31st July 1822, East India Papers, IV. 720, 745, 746. ² Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 746, 747.

³ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 745-751.

⁴ Captain Pottinger 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 746.

round sum was forthcoming from a village no inquiries were made as to the amount of land under tillage or the share which each landholder had to pay. The village harvest, when stored in the village thrashing floor, was considered the test of a village's paying power. Old rates were sometimes continued in the hereditary or other long cultivated holdings near the village. The rest of the lands were given out without reference to established boundaries, rates, or land measures. When the revenue of a village was not farmed but was collected by the government officials, the village rental was usually settled in the lump with the head of the village who furnished security for the amount and was left to collect it without detailed settlements. The payments of land revenue were usually made by drafts on the moneylender who did the chief banking business of the village; little was collected in cash. The banker usually stood security and was allowed to collect the revenue and his own debts at the same time. Besides the land revenue the people of Ahmadnagar had to pay twenty-six cesses.

Little attention was paid to the fixing of instalments or *kists*. The rents from the early crop or *tusár*, and the middle crop or *kharif*¹ were taken at a guess and paid as quickly as they could be collected by the headman who sent the amount to the *kamávisdár*, and he to government. If the revenue was farmed the contractor usually paid about one-third in advance. In any case he was obliged to deposit a sum as security for the fulfilment of his agreement or to persuade some rich man to become responsible for him. The rents due on the early or *tusár* crop were received in July August and September; those on the middle or *kharif* crop in September October November and December; and those on the late or *rabi* crops, which formed the bulk of the revenue, in January February and March.² When the landholder had the means he paid his rent in cash. But the way in which the revenue was collected forced most of them to give a reference to some moneylender who charged them exorbitant interest. When the headman realized the required sum he sent it to the *kamávisdár's* station by the *Mhárs* accompanied by the village goldsmith. The *kamávisdár* remitted it to the treasury at Poona, either in money or by exchange bills. If the instalment was sent by bills and any loss was sustained by exchange, the loss was met by the people of the village. If the cash proved short from the presence of base coin, the *kamávisdár* had himself to make good the loss. If the *kamávisdár* remitted more money than he was bound to send, the government paid him interest at twelve per cent a year besides a premium or *manuti* of two per cent. Thus if a *kamávisdár* whose villages were to pay £8500 (Rs. 85,000) in a year, remitted £10,000 (Rs. 1,00,000) to Poona, he got interest at twelve per cent on the balance till the instalments of the next year were transmitted.

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The Land.

HISTORY.

The Maráthás.

¹ The early Ahmadnagar reports divide the dry-land crops into three sets or harvests, an early called *tusár* sown in June and reaped in August; a middle called *kharif* sown in June and reaped in October; and a late called *rabi* sown in October and reaped in February.

² Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 747-748.

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He then deducted the amount due to him as interest and premium from his first or second remittance. In a few parts of the district there was a *shirasta batta*, that is a fixed or special local exchange, of two per cent.¹ This special rate was seldom necessary; for at that period the great number of base rupees, which afterwards came into circulation (1822) were unknown. When the *tusdr* or early crop was ready, a rough estimate was framed of the area under pulse and a portion of the revenue equal to that estimate was collected. The same was done with the middle or *kharif* crop, when the rent settlement or *jamábandi* of the season was finally made. When the late or *rabi* crops were ripe or nearly ripe, it was usual to store the grain in the village thrashing floor or *khala*, and to set on them a seal or *thápti* made of cowdung and clay. The grain was not allowed to be moved till security was given. In some cases the security of a neighbouring village was required, and in all cases the headman and the landholders of the village became responsible for each other. The delay that took place before the people were able to take their grain from the village thrashing floor, often made them lose opportunities of disposing of their crop.²

In most cases village expenses were included in the revenue settlement. But in some villages expenses formed a separate head. There was little check on village charges. The *kamávisdár* seldom interfered and the headmen and accountants fixed the amount on no regular system or scale.³ When the people of a village required advances they applied through the headman to the hereditary revenue officers who made arrangements for the requisite security and got the *kamávisdár* to advance the amount. As a rule, the hereditary revenue officers became responsible for the village headman, the headman for the village, and each landholder for his neighbour. Except in special cases these advances were repaid within the season.⁴ In parts of the district where bodies of horse were stationed, waste land was often reserved as meadow or *kuran*. These meadows were set apart in the most convenient villages and a corresponding deduction was made in the village rent. The practice proved the unqualified power of government over the land.⁵

In spite of the exactions of the revenue farmers, under the peace which the supremacy of the British preserved in the Deccan, the cultivating classes recovered considerably from their desolate state in the beginning of the century. Population was scanty and land abundant and much of the people's wealth consisted of flocks and herds, the produce of which was less exposed to the greed of the taxgatherer than the produce of cultivated land.⁶

¹ This special local exchange was also known as the *patti chál batta* or current exchange cess. Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 743.

² East India Papers, IV. 744, 748.

³ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 751.

⁴ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 757.

⁵ At the same time when *mirás* land was included in the grass land set apart for state horses, the owners of it got an equivalent. Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 744.

⁶ Deccan Riot Commissioners' Report, 1875, para 32 pp. 17-18.

SECTION III.—THE BRITISH.

Chapter VIII.

The Land.

THE BRITISH,
1818-1884.

As regards land administration, the sixty-six years (1818-1884) of British management fall under two nearly equal divisions, before and since the introduction of the revenue survey settlement in 1848. The first division includes two periods, before and after the 1833-39 famine, the first on the whole a time of stagnation and the second of progress. The establishment of order, the removal of abuses, and the high price of field produce during the first four years (1818-1822) of British rule caused a rapid increase both in tillage and in revenue. This was followed by about fifteen years of very little progress. The district suffered from a series of bad harvests or from ruinously cheap grain due to the spread of tillage, the small local demand and the want of means of export. The result was a fall in tillage from 1,033,620 *bighás* in 1821-22 to 830,194 *bighás* in 1836-37, and a decline in the net collections from £67,544 to £39,651 (Rs. 6,75,440 to Rs. 3,96,510). The remaining eleven years of this division were on the whole years of steady progress; the tillage area rose from 916,050 *bighás* in 1837-38 to 1,065,987 *bighás* in 1847-48 and the net collections from £45,515 to £69,701 (Rs. 4,55,150 to Rs. 6,97,010).¹

The ruin caused by Yashvantráv Holkar's army in the latter part of 1802, the failure of the late rains of 1803, and various local rebellions and disorders, so completely wasted the district, that hardly a village was left which was not deserted plundered or burnt during the twenty years before the introduction of British rule.² In 1819 many of the sub-divisions were greatly reduced and the villages thinly inhabited.³ The cultivated land measured 1,929,968 *bighás* and the arable waste 1,753,206 *bighás* or a proportion of ninety-one of arable waste to 100 of cultivated land.⁴ In 1820-21, of 2647 villages which occupied about 28,000 square miles and contained about 650,000⁵ people or about twenty-three to the

1818-1821.

¹ The tillage and revenue figures are for the sub-divisions of Nevása, Karda, Nagar, Korti, Shevgaon, and Jámkhed. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 212-213, 222-223, 234-235, 244-245, 252-253, and 260-261.

² Captain Pottinger adds (31st July 1822): 'As a proof of this I may add that within these twenty years Sonai and Hivra were the only inhabited places between Ahmadnagar and Aurangabad.' East India Papers, IV. 731-732. Mr. Harrison, 28th September 1836 in Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 31-32. In 1849-50, when the revenue survey settlement was introduced, Ráhuri had fewer *mirásdárs* and other hereditary villagers than any other sub-division hitherto surveyed. This was believed to be due to the complete desertion of the villages in the early years of the century. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXVII. 9.

³ Captain Pottinger, 29th May 1821, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 50 of 1822, 165.

⁴ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 728. The total area of land in the collectorate was about 5,997,000 *bighás* of which about 3,748,000 were stated to be lost in rivers, rocks, and hills, and included in grants or *indáms*, leaving about 2,249,000 *bighás* of arable land in the hands of Government. Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay 27th November 1822, East India Papers III. 795. The difference between the figures in the text and the figures in this footnote is due to territorial changes between 1818 and 1820.

⁵ Returns prepared by the Collector in 1818 showed for the district as then constituted a population of about 800,000. After 1818 several territorial changes took place. In 1821 the Collector estimated the population at 650,000. 'It is difficult,' he writes, 'owing to the interlacing of Sindia's and the Nizám's possessions, to form even a fairly correct guess of the population. This difficulty has been

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1818-1821.

square mile, only 1963½ villages were under the direct management of the British Government.¹ Of the rest 181½ were alienated or *inám*,² 198½ had been granted on military service or *saranjám*, 179½ belonged to Sindia and his dependants, eighty to Holkar and his dependants, and forty-four to the Nizám.³ In the same year (1820-21) the rental or *tankha* of the Government villages was £296,646 (Rs. 29,66,460) and of the 683½ alienated villages £133,246 (Rs. 13,32,460).⁴ Owing to the oppression of the revenue farmers, the husbandmen, though on the whole frugal and provident, were much indebted to traders and merchants. Many of the debts were of long standing, and were often made of compound interest and fresh occasional aids, which went on growing until the accounts became exceedingly complicated. The embarrassed husbandman could seldom clear off his debts. Hereditary that is *mirás* or *vatan* lands were sometimes mortgaged, the mortgager in some cases and the mortgagee in others paying the Government dues. The moneylenders were greedy and their rates of interest were high. The usurious nature of many of the transactions was such as to secure the creditors from loss even if they realized one-half of their demands. The crops of whole villages were sometimes mortgaged to a moneylender before they were ripe, and the greatest distress often ensued from this mode of forestalling the market. In deciding money disputes the Collector made it a rule to reject suspicious debts and debts of more than twenty years' standing. Reasonable and fair debts were settled by instalments, an arrangement which, while favourable to the husbandmen, showed them that their whole debts would not be wiped out, and forced them as far as they could to compromise their creditors' claims.⁵

As soon as military operations came to an end and order was established, Ahmadnagar was formed into a district extending (1822) from Vani in the Dindori sub-division of Násik in the north-west to Karmála in Sholápur in the south-east. This gave a length of 260 miles, a breadth varying from ninety to 130 miles, and an area of about 28,000 square miles. In 1818-19 (*Fasli* 1228) some sub-divisions were given to Poona and in 1819-20 (*Fasli* 1229) some were taken from Khándesh.⁷ In 1819-20 the district was divided into

increased by the constant transfers of lands to and from my authority. A census taken in 1821 showed the population of the immediate possessions of the British Government at 453,260. The population in the villages of Sindia, Holkar, the Nizám, and others in this collectorate was computed at 172,000, making a total of 625,260. This did not include the wandering people, Bhils, Kolis, shepherds, and others. Some people were also afraid of a capitation tax; 650,000 might therefore be taken as an approximately correct total.' Captain Pottinger, Collector, 31st July 1822, *East India Papers* IV. 727-728.

¹ In 1442½ of these villages other states and various individuals held shares. Some of these shares were trifling. Still they tended to complicate the partition and adjustment of rents; and as the British Government had similar claims or *amals* in 468 of the 683½ alienated villages the accounts were most intricate and unsatisfactory. Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877, 17) and Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 27th November 1822, *East India Papers* III. 795.

² Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877, 17).

³ Captain Pottinger, 1st October 1821, *Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec.* 47 of 1822, 251.

⁴ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, *East India Papers* IV. 728.

⁵ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877, 105-108).

⁶ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, *East India Papers* IV. 727.

⁷ *Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec.* 50 of 1822, 164, 167.

twenty-one sub-divisions with a total of 2155 villages and 554 hamlets.¹ In the following year (1820-21) the number of sub-divisions was nineteen composed of forty-five *parganás* and *tarafs*.² Each sub-division was placed under a *mámlatdár* or *kamávisdár*, and exclusive of alienations yielded an average yearly revenue of £3100 (Rs. 81,000).³

The salaries⁴ of the *mámlatdárs* were regulated as nearly as possible so as to give them £120 (Rs. 1200) a year for every £10,000 (Rs. 1,00,000) they collected. Their clerks and assistants were paid according to the situation and importance of their charges. Some *kamávisdárs* had charge of one *pargana*, others of two, and some of even three. In these large divisions respectable clerks had to be

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¹ The sub-divisions were, Ahmadnagar including Ránjangaon; Karda; Párner including Gánjibhoyra and Nigoji; Ráhuri including Belápur, Bárágaon-Nándur, and Vávrád; Sangamner including Dhándarphal; Akola including Kotul and Rájur; *pránt* Junnar; Nevása including the *phutgaons* or outlying villages of Bijápur and Gondápur; Shevgaon including the town or *kasba* of Mánikdaundi; Jámkhed including Kada and Amalner; Bársi including Ágalgaon, Rátanjan, Pángri, Pángaon, and outlying villages of Dhoka; Bhosa including outlying villages of Vángi, Mandrup, Mhola, and Karkamb; Indápur including Rásin; Ambar; Erur including outlying villages of Sirur and Dhondalgaon; Násik including Trimbak and Vághera; Sinnar including Daipur; Kumbhári including Korhála and the towns or *kasbas* of Ráháta and Vávi; Chándor; Pátoda; and Vani including Dindori. Captain Pottinger, 29th May 1821, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 50 of 1822, 161-162; Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay 27th November 1822 in East India Papers III. 795.

² Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 728-729. In the first thirteen years of British rule territorial changes were very frequent. The *pránt* of Junnar and the *pargana* of Indápur were transferred to Poona in the beginning of 1820-21 (*Fusli* 1230) and the districts of Ambar, Elura, Seur, Dhondalgaon, and some detached villages were made over to the Nizám in April 1821 (Captain Pottinger, 1st October 1821, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 47 of 1822, 250). Bársi, Pángaon, Pánjri, Rátanjan, and Ágalgaon were attached to the sub-collectorate of Sholápur. In return for Ambar, Elura, and others ceded to the Nizám, Ahmadnagar received the *parganás* of Karmála and Korti and a number of detached villages, with probably as many people. (Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 727-728). In 1822-23 that part of the Sholápur sub-collectorate which lay to the north of the river Bhíma was transferred to Ahmadnagar (Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 50 of 1822, 501). In 1824-25 the Ahmadnagar collectorate included the ten sub-divisions of Ahmadnagar, Karda, Akola, Sangamner, Nevása, Pátoda, Násik, Sinnar, Vani-Dindori, and Chándor. It also included the Sholápur sub-collectorate consisting of Sholápur, Mohol, Bársi, Karmála, and Korti (Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 123 of 1825, 8, 15, 17). During the next three years (1825-1828) the Sholápur sub-collectorate was abolished and three of its sub-divisions, Bársi, Karmála and Korti, were added to Ahmadnagar (Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 207 of 1828, 501, 503, 505). At the close of 1828 Ahmadnagar included thirteen sub-divisions stretching from Vani-Dindori to Bársi, a distance of 225 miles with a breadth of sixty to 125 miles. It had the Chándor range on the north, the Sahyádris on the west, and the Nizám's territory on the south and east (Mr. Boyd, Collector, 203 of 26th November 1828, Lithographed Papers, 3). In October 1829 Sholápur was added to Ahmadnagar, and in March 1830 Ahmadnagar was made a principal collectorate with a sub-collector at Sholápur (Mr. Robertson, 12th July 1830, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 2). The sub-divisions were Ahmadnagar, Akola, Bársi, Chándor, Karda, Karmála, Korti, Násik, Nevása, Pátoda, Sangamner, Sinnar, Vani-Dindori, and Sholápur. In January 1831 the sub-divisions of Sholápur and Bársi were transferred to Poona. Principal Collector, 5th August 1831, in Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 406 of 1832, 235.

³ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers, IV. 728-729; Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Edition 187, 58); Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 5th November 1823, East India Papers III. 811.

⁴ The salaries of the *mámlatdárs* amount to less than two per cent of the revenue they collect. Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 5th November 1823, in East India Papers III. 811.

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Hereditary,
Officers,
1818.

placed in charge of each petty division.¹ Between May 1820 and December 1821 the expenditure on this branch of the service was reduced by more than one-half.²

Under the Peshwás, during times of good administration, the hereditary revenue officers were carefully watched and attempts were often made to curtail their authority. But under the lax government of the last Peshwa hereditary officers were left in the free enjoyment of their grants, the only service that was expected of them being information of the state of their districts, the registration of grants, and attendance on the *mámlatdárs* of their districts. When the farming system was introduced they became ready instruments of exaction under the revenue farmers. When this farming system was in vogue the revenue farmers used sometimes to withhold part of the share due to the district officers, and in some instances they levied contributions from those district officers or *zamindárs* who were men of little weight or position and were afraid to complain of the exaction. On the other hand in some parts of the district by usurping authority the district officers were enabled to make large sums of money.³ On the British accession the hereditary district officers lost much of the influence and power which had belonged to them as the revenue farmers' chief engines for carrying their exactions into effect. As regards their regular emoluments they were fully as well paid as formerly, and their claims, which, exclusive of some immunities, varied from three to ten per cent, increased with the prosperity of the country.⁴ Still they probably did not actually receive so much as they had made during the last twenty years of Marátha rule. In that period, exclusive of their acknowledged rights, they had various means of obtaining money and grain from the landholders who were led to submit to their demands either from fear of their power or by a wish to secure their interest with the *mámlatdárs*. With these exceptions, the hereditary district officers were perhaps better off under the British than they were under *Bájíráv*. Under *Bájíráv* they were liable to be called on to pay cesses and fines for a continuance of their office or on some other pretence, whereas under

¹ The Collector, 20th December 1821, Ahmadnagar Collector's Outward File 10 (1821-22). The size of all the sub-divisions and the salaries of *mámlatdárs* in charge of those sub-divisions had been lately increased, the increase in the salaries being made up by the consolidation of the petty districts. Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877, 58).

² The Collector, 20th December 1821, in Ahmadnagar Collector's Outward File 10 (1821-22).

³ The exactions of the *deshmukhs*, *deshpandes*, and other revenue officers who were continued by the British proved so great that most of them had to be dismissed. They lost no opportunity of plundering both government and the landholders. They could not at once be dismissed, for in certain places they possessed considerable influence and the *mámlatdárs* on first taking charge required their help. Where this was the case the authority of Government was enfeebled and abuses were multiplied. Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877, 58-59).

⁴ On the introduction of British rule the claims of the *zamindárs* or hereditary revenue officers were preserved according to the ancient custom as far as the custom could be ascertained. Where that was not possible an average of receipts for a series of years was taken, and the percentage laid down in proportion to the revenue of those seasons. Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 756.

the British they knew that whatever their rightful claims amounted to they were sure to get without trouble and to enjoy in security.¹ In certain parts of the district a secretary or *chitnis* whose duty it was to take down complaints and other depositions, enjoyed a fixed salary. In other parts there was no such officer.²

The number of village officers was not in all places the same. The most common were the headman or *pátíl*, the accountant or *kulkarni*, and the twelve village servants or *bára balutás*.³ The headman's duty was to superintend the cultivation and the improvement of the village, to collect the revenue, to adjust trifling disputes among the landholders, to see that every one of the village servants performed the service belonging to his station, to arrest suspicious characters, and to keep the village police efficient. The accountant or *kulkarni* was the headman's secretary and chief helper. The direction of tillage rested with the headman, the accountant, and to a less extent the grain-watchman or *haváldár*, and the headman's assistant or *chaughula*. The headman and accountant could grant leases or *kauls*. Captain Pottinger put a stop to their power of granting leases and vested the power in the *kamávisdár* to whom the husbandman had to apply through the headman of his village. Captain Pottinger considered this restriction necessary and also beneficial to the people by preventing disputes. Under the new arrangement no head of a village could assign ground to a landholder till the rights of other claimants had been well discussed. In other respects the position of the headman and the accountant was carefully maintained and their fees and perquisites were collected. Their emoluments varied. In a few villages the headman had no private land, and in others the accountants had no pay, and no special claim to perquisites. The *kulkarni*'s claims were usually fixed at a certain amount of grain from each *bigha*. The amount of the perquisites and the rent-free or quit-rent lands held by the headmen, after deducting all Government dues, was estimated at about £10,473 (Rs. 1,04,730) or about six per cent of the district rental. The accountants' allowances amounted to £3217 (Rs. 32,170) or about two per cent. It had been the custom for each sharer in a headship to be responsible for keeping up the cultivation of a share of the village lands proportionate to his share of the headship; and the lands consigned to his care were regularly defined by landmarks or *sánchans*. Under the British this practice fell into disuse. In 1831 not more than seventy-five or eighty villages in the district had traces of separate shares.⁴ The twelve village servants or *bára balutás* were, the carpenter, the blacksmith, the carrier or *Mhár*, the tanner or *Chámháár*, the potter, the barber, the washerman, the rope maker or *Máng*, the astrologer or *joshi*, the temple-attendant or *gurav*, the mosque-attendant or *mujávar* and butcher

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Village Staff,
1818.

¹ Captain Pottinger, 31st January and July 1822, East India Papers IV. 724-725, 743, 756; Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877, 58-59).

² Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 743.

³ East India Papers IV. 752.

⁴ Mr. Robertson, 5th August 1831, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 406 of 1832, 259-260.

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that is Mulla, and the gatekeeper or *yeskar*. These were hereditary servants who had claims on the husbandmen. To these may be added the *chaughula* or headman's assistant, the *nárgun* or head of the shepherds a position held by the Holkár family, and the *haváldár* or grain-watchman who was an officer of Government rather than of the village. Their names explain the chief duties of the village servants or *bára balutás*. Each of them performed for all the persons in the village the services of his particular calling or craft. The carpenter built and repaired houses, made and mended ploughs and yokes; the blacksmith helped the carpenter in all iron work; the tanner or Chámhbár mended shoes and sandals, repaired the mouths of water-bags, and cured hides. The Mhár was the most useful of the village servants. He went on messages, carried money to the treasury, knew the lands of the different landholders and all boundaries, and in boundary disputes, whether between individuals or villages, his voice carried the greatest weight. He was considered the most trustworthy man in the village, and though his caste was low, he held a highly respected position among the village servants. The potter made earthenware for the villagers; the barber shaved them; the washerman washed their clothes; the Máng made traces for ploughs and ropes for wells; the *joshi* or astrologer performed ceremonies of all kinds; the *gurav* cleaned and washed the village temples and helped the *joshi* on particular occasions; the Mulla did the same service for the mosques that the *gurav* did for the temples, and was also the village butcher when any of the villagers wished to sacrifice goats; the *yeskar* or village gatekeeper knew everyone that went in or out, ascertained where travellers had come from, showed them where to put up, and reported all arrivals and departures to the head of the village. The rights perquisites and privileges of all of these village servants were ill-defined and differed in almost every village. They also varied according to the need which landholders had for the services of a particular village servant. All payments to village servants were in kind and were charged on the land. It was not possible to define with any precision the rights and emoluments of any of the village servants except of the headmen and the accountants. They were paid in kind, the quantity they received greatly depending on whether the harvest was good or bad. The owner of a field that had a good crop readily paid double the quantity of service grain that was demanded or expected from an equal area of land bearing a middling or a bad crop. Where grain was bought either in granaries or standing in the field, the seller paid ten per cent to the village servants and two and a half per cent to the accountant. He also paid the district hereditary officers' and headman's claims and his proper share of village expenses. Besides the regular village servants there were hill-chiefs, watchmen of the Bhil and Rámoshi tribes, and *shetsanadis* that is a militia who were originally paid in land not in cash or grain. The duties of hill-chiefs or watchmen were to guard hill-forts and villages. The hill-chiefs held grants of villages and besides were in the receipt of pay from the treasury. The Bhil and Rámoshi watchmen received allowances from the villages which they guarded. In some villages they were given a

fixed quantity or a varying share of each landholder's crop; in other places the watchmen were paid in money, and the charge was included under village expenses; and in a third class of villages plots of land were allotted to them. The chief duty of the Bhil and Rámoshi watchmen in the pay of the British Government was to apprehend criminals and to maintain order. The landholding militia or *shetsanadis* were men who performed the duties of field police or *mahál shibandis* under the British Government and received an allowance on this account. These field police or messengers were found only in Párner where there were fifty-eight who received a grain allowance equal to £174 (Rs. 1740) or an average yearly pay of £3 (Rs. 30).¹

Besides the owners of alienated estates landholders belonged to two leading classes, hereditary holders or *mirásdárs* and non-hereditary holders or *upris*.² Hereditary holders were also called people of the place *thalkaris* and *vatanárs*. The term *mirásdár* was used to mark that the landholder belonged to the village rather than to show that he held his land under any special tenure. The *mirásdár* could dispose of or mortgage his land when he liked.³ He could not be ousted from his lands if he refused assent to the terms proposed.⁴ He was not allowed to throw up his land without the Collector's leave.⁵ In 1823 the hereditary rights and privileges of *mirásdárs* seemed occasionally to be the result of long possession and regular uninterrupted payment of the same assessment. Under the name of *vatan* or *mirás* the existence of hereditary rights was admitted from the Krishna to the hills which divide the Gangthadi from Khándesh. This practice was of considerable antiquity. Traces were discovered (1818-1823) in accounts of one hundred and fifty years standing, but nothing certain was known of its institution. Immediately before the British accession the heads of villages had commonly exercised the privilege of granting lands on *mirás* tenure. The *mirás* deed or *patra* was delivered on payment of a *biga* fee varying from 2s. to 5s. (Rs. 1-2½). These deeds invariably conferred possession from generation to generation, so long as the grantee or his heirs continued to pay the government assessment according to the established usage of the village. Though not drawn up with much precision or uniformity the *mirás* deeds were attested by the village

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¹ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 740, 741, 743, 752, 753, 754, 757.

² East India Papers IV. 735. Only one village was held on the *izáfat* or special service tenure. It was granted to the *deshmukhs* of that place by the Emperor of Delhi, and Captain Pottinger believed all other *izáfat* villages in the Deccan were enjoyed under the same authority. They were rent-free villages granted to hereditary revenue servants of the crown in addition to their other emoluments. East India Papers IV. 743-744.

³ East India Papers IV. 735.

⁴ If ground was cultivated by a yearly tenant or *upri*, and another man offered to pay more, the yearly tenant might be turned out provided he did not hold the land under a lease or *taul* particularly specifying that he should hold it as long as he pleased. Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 747.

⁵ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 740.

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managers and servants as witnesses and the new *mirásdár* used to make them a present on the occasion. Hindu law authorities and the practice which had obtained showed (1823) that the heads of villages had not an exclusive right to dispose of lands in perpetuity, but the government had often been obliged to connive at the practice. The fees, or part of the fees, were sometimes paid to the government or to propitiate the government officers or to make up the loss in the village rental. Most frequently they were laid out in improving the village or in repairing the temple or public rest-house. Hereditary or *mirás* land was often sold, given, or mortgaged, without the leave of government, though government sometimes interfered. The purchaser was bound to discharge the public dues according to the village rates, whether the land was cultivated or waste; remission was granted only in case of a general failure of crops or of some other serious calamity. A *mirásdár* would sometimes let his land for half, a third, or a fourth of the produce. This did not invalidate his right; but while present, and retaining his right on the land, he was responsible for the assessment. When the *mirásdár* was absent the cultivator to whom he let the land paid the government dues. The assessment on hereditary land was seldom lower than that paid by a yearly or *upri* tenant. When hereditary land was thrown up it was often tilled by a yearly or *upri* tenant at a reduced rent, or on a lease for a term of years. The interest felt by an hereditary holder in his land often enabled him to get twenty-five per cent more from his land than it would have yielded to a yearly tenant. The rent supposed to have been originally fixed at one-half fell to a smaller portion of the produce as the land grew richer from careful tillage. The rent paid by the yearly tenant was less than half of the produce. Having only a precarious interest in the soil, he had to be compensated by a higher immediate profit. An hereditary holder seldom abandoned or disposed of his land except from extreme necessity. If want of money forced him to part with his land, he met with great forbearance, and could regain possession at the close of any temporary lease. If from long absence the land had been granted to another in *mirás* the grantee would not be ejected. But hereditary land was never granted in hereditary possession unless the original holder had for many years ceased to have any connection with it. After the original holder's connection had been broken for many years, government could dispose of the land, or, if the owner refused to sow his land or to pay his rent, he might be compelled to pass a deed of renunciation. *Mirás* was also forfeited by treason or rebellion, provision being usually made for the family. Under the Hindu law of inheritance *mirás* land was liable to be split into very minute shares. But though divided it sometimes remained in the name of the original holder. This seemed (1823) a trace of the *jatha* or federal system which carried a mutual responsibility for the payment of the public revenue and for the maintenance of the widows and families of deceased members of the clan. This system was beneficial and was encouraged by Government. Unless it had been greatly improved hereditary land did not fetch more

than two or three years' purchase, apparently showing that the assessment left but little to the proprietor. In 1823 the value of *mirás* was said to have decreased under the British as the yearly tenure was almost as valuable. The privileges of an hereditary holder were, in the western districts, freedom from certain cesses, a voice in the village councils, the right of pasture on the village common, and the right of building and of selling a house. In the eastern parts of the district, in addition to these privileges and some further exemptions, the hereditary holder and his wife were entitled to precedence in village ceremonies and meetings, and his social position, especially in the matter of marriages, was higher than the position of a yearly tenant. These immunities and privileges made his condition better than that of a yearly tenant. He had some personal consequence, and, not being liable to ejection, was animated to exertion and enterprise in the sure prospect of enjoying the fruits of his labour. In some places it was usual for Government to share in improvements. A tax of four or five rupees was laid on each well, or garden rates were levied on dry land when it was turned into garden. This practice, except where it was the established custom, was forbidden as tending to discourage improvements. In some parts on the sanction of long prescription, a special hereditary holder's cess was levied once in three years. In 1823, Government remarked that though this may originally have been an encroachment, the hereditary holder's deed seldom mentioned anything regarding the terms of assessment except that they should be the customary rates.¹

In 1823 the number of hereditary and of yearly tenants in Ahmadnagar was computed to be nearly equal. To the north beyond the Godávári and to the north-east of the hills which divided the highland of Nagar from the lowland of Shevgaon, the existence of hereditary right was less general and the difference between hereditary and yearly tenure was fainter. In the Pátoda districts of the Gangthadi, the special hereditary rights were so far impaired that the practice of buying and selling hereditary land had become obsolete. If poverty prevented an hereditary holder tilling land, he was allowed a partial or a total remission of rent. Indeed throughout Ahmadnagar the grant of remissions to hereditary holders was common though the practice was opposed to the theory of the tenure.² In Akola and probably in other places it was usual to reserve the option of purchase to the relations of the hereditary holder. If the relations of the seller declined the land it was offered to the headman of the village, and after the headman to the chief hereditary holders. This limitation of the right of alienating hereditary property had the effect of maintaining a unity of interest among the members of the village community. In Mr. Chaplin's opinion the custom ought not to be interfered

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¹ Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 5th Nov. 1823, paras 403-425, East India Papers III. 808-810.

² Mr. Chaplin, 20th Aug. 1822, Ed. 1877, 43-44, notices the case of a *mirás* village being recommended for remission without any special hardship or general failure of crop.

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with. As regards the right of the villagers to sell waste hereditary land or *gatkul mirás*, Mr. Chaplin was satisfied that though the practice might have been allowed once or twice it was contrary to the fundamental law that the land belonged to Government. Mr. Chaplin recommended that the practice should cease and this opinion received the approval of Government.¹ Long possession of land was sometimes allowed to constitute an hereditary title. But this title was not acquired unless by upwards of half a century of unbroken occupancy. The difficulty of gaining this title was partly due to the jealousy of the heads of villages who had usurped the power of levying a fine on all cases in which yearly holders were raised to the position of hereditary holders.² Mr. Chaplin considered that a definite payment should be substituted for the existing indefinite yearly payment for hereditary or *mirás* holding. At the same time he considered a revenue survey the only effectual security to the *mirásdárs*.³

Land System.

Except in the *dáng* or hilly tracts bordering the Sahyádris the lands of the district were divided into larger and smaller shares. This distribution of village lands was carried out according to two systems, one found in all the central lands of the district, the other in a few outlying villages in the east and north. According to the common practice the village lands were divided into *thals* or settlements and the settlements were divided into fields *tikás* or *shets* each of which had a name. According to Mr. Robertson (1830-31) the *thals* or settlements generally bore the name of the families who originally colonised them. The settlement or *thal* was a considerable tract of land all in one spot and was divided into *tikás* or *shets* whose assessment was fixed on a rough estimate of the average character of the soil included in the *shet* or *tika*. The assessment on the field or sub-division, though this seems to have been doubtful, was apparently not liable to change. In about 250 villages, chiefly in Pátoda now Yeola in Násik and Kopargaon in Ahmadnagar, in Jámkhed, and in Shevgaon,⁴ there was a different settlement under the names of *mund* or large estates and *kás* or small estates. The *mund* was the aggregate of many fields or *tikás* together or separate or part together part separate. The assessment of the *mund* was a fixed lump sum for all the lands in the estate or *mund*, good, fair, and bad. In the *kás* settlement which was found in only five villages, four of them now in Násik and one in Akola, the division of the village lands was into *kás* which were smaller parcels than *munds*, and unlike *tikás* or *shets*

¹ In Ahmadnagar a right is supposed to exist in the villagers to all waste hereditary or *gatkul mirás* land that has lapsed from the death or absence of the holder. This right is incompatible with the undoubted right of Government to dispose of waste land and under the existing rules of assessment it would be unwise to allow that right to be compromised. Though the extension of the *mirás* tenure is desirable, the admission of the pretended right of these villagers might frustrate that object. Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 5th Nov. 1823, East India Papers III. 809-810.

² Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 43-48.

³ Extract Rev. Letter from Bombay, 5th Nov 1823, East India Papers III. 809.

⁴ Also in twelve or fourteen villages of Násik, in a few villages of Karmála, and Akola, and in two villages in Sinnar. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 406 of 1832, 260-261.

the assessment of every *kás* in a village was the same. In Pátoda, now the Yeola sub-division of Násik and the Kopargaon sub-division of Ahmadnagar, where the estate or *mund* system was universal, to increase the number of landholders by reducing the size of estates, Colonel Briggs gave up the practice of assessing whole estates and instead charged only the land under actual tillage. As the lump or *mund* rate had been fixed on a rough estimate of the average character of the soil over the whole estate, the change was a great gain to those who tilled only the best lands. This the people very quickly saw and the tillage of the poorer soils ceased. Mr. Robertson held that the division of village lands into settlements and fields was part of the *jatha* or village community system. He held that this community system was the oldest form of land settlement and that the rougher estate or lump divisions into *mund* and *kás* were the result of the decline in the land system during the later years of Marátha rule. Mr. Robertson probably argued from his experience that other branches of the administration showed that the careless management in force at the introduction of British rule was the remains of an earlier more effective system. It seems probable that Mr. Robertson's application of the law of decay to this part of the land system was incorrect. The Sanskrit origin of the words *thal* and *shet* and the non-Sanskrit origin of the words *mund* and *kás* suggest that the division of lands into the rough estates or lumps of land known as *munds* and *kás* was older than the more systematic division into *thals* and *shets* which was part of the village community system. This view is supported by the character of the country in which the lump estate system was in force. A few of the villages were in the east of Ahmadnagar and more were in the wilder north now in Násik. In Thána, where the early element in the population is much greater than in the Deccan, the rough estate or *mund* and *kás* system was almost universal until the introduction of the revenue survey.¹ The difference is apparently a difference of names, not of system. But it seems probable that the *mund* and *kás* villages are a relic of what was the universal system before the introduction of the Rajput or other northern element into the population of the Deccan.²

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Land System,
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¹ Details are given in the Thána Statistical Account, Bombay Gazetteer, XIII.

² Captain H. D. Robertson, Principal Collector, 12th July 1830, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 2-3; and 5th August 1831, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 406 of 1832, 260-266. The following are Mr. Robertson's views of the lump or *mund* and *kás* system. They were written on the 12th of July 1830 and are taken from Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 3-4. In Ahmadnagar there were two varieties in the manner of ascertaining the dues of the landholders. The first and most general was an assessment for the supposed quantities by rates declared to be fair rates for the supposed qualities. This was called the *rayatdar* settlement. The other, which was called the *mundbandi* or *kasbandi* method, was the assessment by an average rate of good bad and indifferent land for supposed quantities or actual patches. 'The *kás* or *mund* system,' he says, 'is no doubt the ancient system of the country, and is in fact a fixed system of rental, although it had been often infringed in the shape of *jásti pattis* or extra cesses by oppressive taxgatherers. Mr. Lumsden had abrogated this system; Mr. Boyd had judiciously reverted to it; and as Government sanctioned Mr. Boyd's measures, I carried them out wherever I could. By the *rayatdar* system the resources of Government are always at the mercy of the seasons and depend on scanty means of poor and unsettled

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In consequence of the troubles through which the district had passed in the beginning of the century the Collector, Captain Pottinger, found the utmost difficulty in procuring authentic accounts. None could be obtained showing the collections during a series of years before the introduction of the British Government.¹ The hereditary revenue officers, who should have been able to supply the information, were so ignorant and so jealous of inquiry that it was most tedious and irksome to extort answers from them.² In many cases when the answers were readily given, they were so obviously imperfect that they were of no use for the Collector's purposes.³

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The modes of fixing the assessment varied greatly.⁴ In many villages the hereditary holders, like those of Poona, paid one nominally uniform rate of rent, holding more or less land in proportion as it was bad or good. In other villages rates were established for each particular class of land, varying with its quality and situation. A *makta* or fixed rent in some places was also established for parcels of land without reference to any given *bigha* rate. In Ahmadnagar, hereditary holders occupying garden land usually paid garden rates, though only the dry-land rate may have originally been imposed. In Poona, the dry-land rate more commonly obtained, even though the land may have subsequently been turned into garden.⁵ About 100 Dindori villages, formerly paid a plough-cess, a pair of bullocks paying ten, fifteen, or twenty

cultivators. By the *mundbandi* or *kasbandi* system men are induced to fix to particular spots, and scope is allowed for the improvement of the farms or estates, while the amelioration of the condition of the holders of such lands goes hand in hand with the more certain realization by Government of its revenues.⁶

¹ Captain Pottinger, 31st January and 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 723, 724, 731, 732; and Mr. Harrison, 28th September 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 31-32.

² The hereditary district officers and village headmen, even where they had preserved some old accounts, were at first very backward in producing them. Latterly as they saw our actions agreed with our declarations, they did not hesitate to show them. Captain Pottinger, 31st January 1822, East India Papers IV. 723-724.

³ Captain Pottinger, Collector, 29th May 1821, Rev. Rec. 50 of 1822, 160.

⁴ They were much the same as in Poona. 'The rates of assessment vary in different parts of Poona. In villages where hereditary *miras* land is found there is commonly one uniform *dar* or rate for all lands. This rate is adapted to the different qualities of soil by assigning a larger or smaller quantity of land to the *bigha*, according as the ground is bad or good. In some villages separate rates, supposed to be those established by Malik Ambar, are fixed for each class of land. Little dependence is to be placed on the *kulkarni's* records or the traditions of the old rates, and those levied by the Marátha *mámlatdars* have been variable. In the villages where hereditary or *miras* land is found, the holders usually apportion the land among themselves with reference to its known produce; in other villages each holder pays according to an established classification. In some villages, under the *mundbandi* plan, the land is divided into parcels, paying a *makta* or fixed rent, the data for which are not now known. When relinquished the parcels are rented out at or below the *makta* as may be offered, or at an *isáda* rising by degrees to the full rent. In such villages extra assessments are levied on the holders in proportion to their respective rents. The *mund* rent is considered permanent, and should not be exceeded; to tenants-at-will or *upris* the rate is sometimes reduced. In a few villages each field pays a fixed rent and this method, which is the *mundbandi* plan more in detail, is called *úka*.' Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 5th November 1823, East India Papers III. 805; Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877, 27) and in Bom. Gov. Rev. Lec. 68 of 1823, 196.

⁵ Ext. Rev. Letter from Bombay, 5th Nov. 1823, East India Papers III. 806.

rupees according to the quality of the soil.¹ For some time after the British accession in 1818, no change was made in the *bigha* rates of assessment. There were no fewer than twenty-one *bigha* rates for dry crops alone, varying from 6*d.* to 4*s.* (Rs. $\frac{1}{4}$ -2) in ordinary soils, and rising as high as 6*s.* (Rs. 3) in the best soil.² In some cases the entire lands of a village were assessed at a single all round *bigha* rate, inequalities being prevented by varying the size of the *bigha*. Garden crop rates varied from 2*s.* 3*d.* to 18*s.* (Rs. $1\frac{1}{8}$ -9) the *bigha*.³ In the year following the introduction of British rule, the total or *kamál* assessment, which had long been given up, was taken as the basis of the future revenue settlement, and the village officers were required to give statements of the *bigha* rates leviable on each holding. As no authentic records of revenue payments were available the Marátha full or *kamál* rental was generally assumed as the maximum of assessment. Where accounts of the Marátha full rent were not forthcoming, the Collector adopted the Muhammadan maximum or *tankha* as his standard.⁴

Regarding the adoption of these *kamál* and *tankha* rentals, Mr. Chaplin wrote on the 20th of August 1822: 'In many parts of Ahmadnagar, as in other districts, the rates of rent were undefined, and attempts were made to adjust them with reference to the supposed *kamál* and *tankha* settlements. The principles on which this adjustment was made have not been fully explained. They were meant to produce a gradual rise of the revenue or *jama* and were called *istáva* arrangements.' Mr. Chaplin doubted if these rates would ever become fixed. They appeared to him to depend more upon general assumed views of former realizations than upon any knowledge of the actual resources of cultivation.⁵ A progressive rise or *istáva* was granted to villages where the increase was considerable and where it was evident that the people were unable to pay the whole amount at once.⁶ Great difficulties were experienced in adjusting the rents with reference to any known standard, as the great demand for labour had induced the Marátha authorities to hold out unusual exemptions to the cultivators, and the oldest rates of rent were reduced even to the *mirásdárs* and still more to others. When even these reduced rates were found

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¹ After the British accession the land was taxed by Captain Briggs at a rate fixed with reference to former payments. Mr. Chaplin, 20th Aug. 1822, Ed. 1877, 27-28; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 68 of 1823, 196-197.

² The *bigha* was an uncertain measure. It may roughly be taken at three-fourths of an acre.

³ Mr. Stack's British India Land Revenue Settlement Memorandum (1880), 469; Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877, 31); Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 5th November 1823, East India Papers III. 807.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 31-34. Few authentic records were procurable and the rates finally adopted were in many cases arbitrary and probably of larger amount than had ever been actually in force. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 19.

⁵ Mr. Chaplin's Report of 20th August 1822 para 24 (Ed. 1877, 10).

⁶ Mr. Harrison, 28th September 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 32. In cases in which the villages had become depopulated *istávás* were granted. The Collector seems duly impressed with the conviction that any rapid attempt to raise rents would have the effect of injuring rather than of improving the revenue. His moderate rate of assessment met with the approbation of the Commissioner. Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 27th November 1822, East India Papers III. 795.

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to have prevailed for any considerable period, only a small increase was laid on, to be raised yearly till the rents should reach the old *kamál* standard.¹

The chief changes introduced by Captain Pottinger in the Marátha revenue system were that revenue farming was abolished and a settlement with individual landholders was made either by himself or by his *kamávisdárs* in conjunction with the *pátils*. The legitimate authority of the *pátils* of villages was substituted for much arbitrary power. Captain Pottinger never allowed the rents of deceased or deserted husbandmen to be levied on the village except with his own sanction. He found that the only object of the *deshmukhs* and other hereditary officers was to mislead and to plunder both the Government and the landholders, and he therefore acted as much as possible without their help. He forbade, under the severest penalties, the levy of any kind of assessment beyond the amount shown in the Government accounts. When the rent settlement or *jamábandi* was going forward, he admitted all landholders into his office and made all arrangements public. When a landholder represented to him that he was paying for more ground than he tilled, his land was measured and either the rent was lowered or the landholder was shown that he was not charged too much.² Regular collections of rents were made directly from the landholders instead of through the village moneylender. The landholder enjoyed greater security of property, and he was not burthened with extra or irregular cesses.³ The landholder received a paper or *patta* defining his rent and obtained a receipt for all payments. If in distress, he got an advance which had seldom been done by the former government. He paid his instalments at regular periods in any good coin he liked, without being compelled to discharge them in a particular currency.⁴

Captain Pottinger's mode of settlement was as follows: About a week before he expected to arrive at a sub-division, he sent orders to the *kamávisdár* to summon the village headmen and accountants, and to obtain from them statements of the cultivation of their villages. These cultivation statements were made out according to a given form, and showed the increase and decrease of tillage with the causes. On his arrival at a village, these statements were submitted to the Collector through his head clerk or *shirastedár*; and inquiries were set on foot by sending clerks to the different groups of villages to test the correctness of the returns. If the returns were found to be correct, the *patta* or lease was prepared, and, where any difference was discovered, the required alterations were made, and the headmen were occasionally fined or suspended

¹ Ext. Rev. Letter from Bombay, 27th Nov. 1822, East India Papers III. 795.

² Captain Pottinger, 31st January 1822, East India Papers IV. 720-721. Some of these rules were in force in particular places under the Maráthas. But they were certainly not carried to the extent they were in Captain Pottinger's time, and the satisfaction and confidence of the smaller landholders was increased in proportion.

³ One species of exaction was the seizing of provisions and forage by the public officers for the use of themselves or of government, payment being postponed or more usually neglected. Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 63.

⁴ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 63-64; and Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 5th November 1823, East India Papers III. 812.

for a time. These investigations usually took eight or ten days, which was the longest time a Collector could spare to this portion of his duties in any sub-division. The landholders of a certain number of the nearest villages were then brought and an individual or *kulvár* settlement was made. After this the papers or *pattás* were publicly made over to the headmen and to the individual landholders and all were allowed to return to their homes. Each headman furnished an agreement binding himself to see the rent discharged and each landholder in like manner gave a ticket on which his name was written and the amount he was to pay. In cases where the *kamávisdárs* made the individual settlement,¹ they first prepared the leases and sent them to be sealed by the Collector. After this they were sent back and distributed to the landholders whose receipts were taken and recorded.²

Captain Pottinger abolished all sorts of restrictions as to the period of removing and disposing of the crops. He was satisfied that had he not done so there would have been heavy balances outstanding against every sub-division in the collectorate.³ Under the British the rent was paid in six instalments or *kists*. The proportion the different instalments bore was out of a hundred, ten parts in November, ten in December, and twenty in each of the four months from January to April. About one-fifth of the revenue was usually unpaid on the 30th April. This indulgence, while it made little difference to Government, was of the greatest consequence to the landholders as it gave them time to pay the last instalment without borrowing from moneylenders or *sávkárs*. Further, the concession tended to the realization of the total revenue. In no part of the country were the balances of the Government dues so small as in Ahmadnagar. As regards the coin in which the revenue was paid it was collected at certain fixed rates with reference to the *ankushi* rupees.⁴

Like the *kamávisdárs* of the late government, the British *mámlatdárs* had the general superintendence of village expenses.

¹ The Collector and his assistant could not in person give a lease to every landholder. The duty, therefore, chiefly devolved on the *kamávisdár* assisted by the *pátil*. The number of individual agreements issued by the Collector and his assistant in 1820-21, and of those sent for their seal and signature from the sub-divisions, was about 25,000. East India Papers IV. 738.

² Captain Pottinger, 31st Jan. and July 1822, East India Papers IV. 722, 738-739.

³ Under the Maráthás, when the early crop or *tusár* was ready, a rough estimate was framed of the area under pulse, and a portion of the revenue was collected corresponding to the estimated area. The same was done with the middle or *kharij* crops and the revenue settlement or *jamábandi* of the season was completed. When the late or *rabi* crops were ripe or nearly ripe it was usual to place a *thápti* or cow-dung and clay seal on the stacks of grain after they were placed in the farmyard or *khala*. The produce was not allowed to be removed till the headman and landholders had become responsible for the village rent. In some cases the security of the people of a neighbouring village was required. This procedure was attended with the most serious loss to the landholders, who sometimes missed the best opportunity for selling their crops. Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 744.

⁴ Captain Pottinger fixed these rates after careful inquiry. He never had a complaint on the subject, and, as a proof that Government did not suffer, several Ahmadnagar bankers offered to take the revenue as it came in, and to pay an equal amount of *ankushi* rupees into the treasury. East India Papers IV. 743-749.

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At the close of the year the village headman and accountant were expected to show how the sum assigned for village expenses had been spent. Captain Pottinger held that, so long as the total amount was fixed, headmen should be allowed considerable freedom in the matter of village expenses. Village expenses were allotted at the rate of six per cent of the village rental, and wherever Captain Pottinger discovered that the sum had been exceeded, either under the name of village expenses or under any other name, he forced the headman and accountant to refund the amount. When he had spent more than the proper amount the headman had always some excuse ready. A well had been dug or a cistern had been built for the general good, or the gate or wall of the village had been repaired. Captain Pottinger never met with any instance of a cess being levied by the *pátils* unknown to him in which they had not made away with the amount for their private use. He had therefore less compunction in forcing them to pay back what they had levied, and they all understood the penalty they incurred if detected. The amount fixed for village expenses he considered ample for every purpose and he thought that it would not long be necessary to continue it at so high a rate. Still as it was reduced to at least one-half what it had been under the Maráthás, it seemed to him politic not to lower it further for a time.¹

Non-hereditary holders or *upris* had full liberty to throw up their land. But if a landholder was angry and they thought it likely that he might throw up his land the *mámlatdár* and village headman did what they could to induce him to stay.² Captain Pottinger established the rule that all who chose to settle under the British were to be allowed to come and were to be treated in every respect as the old residents. He refused to sanction any force being used to oblige them to return to their former habitations; if they could be persuaded to go back he made no objection. So also he forbade all attempt to keep back any British subjects who wished to move into the territories of other powers. This rule remained a dead-letter as no cases occurred of English cultivators wishing to settle in other districts.³

Lands that had long lain waste were given for tillage on leases varying from four to eight years, according to the time the land had been out of tillage. For the first few years they were charged a nominal rent rising towards the close of the period to the full assessment. At the end of the lease or *kaul* the full assessment, together with extra cesses, was generally levied, but in some cases the extra cesses were withheld till long after. Fallow lands overgrown with brushwood were exempted from rent for one or two

¹ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 751-752.

² Captain Pottinger laid down this principle the first year after he came. He constantly found that when a landholder was inclined to be troublesome, or when his crops did not fulfil his hopes, he used to say he had been forced to till his land. As soon as it was left optional such complaints ceased. During the best periods of the Marátha rule Captain Pottinger found that the plan was exactly the same, but, he adds, 'in those days the land was too valuable and scarce to be thrown up from any petty pique or annoyance.' Captain Pottinger, 1822, East India Papers IV. 740.

³ Captain Pottinger, 31st January 1822, East India Papers IV. 724.

years. When waste land was turned into garden land, five years of gradually rising rents were generally allowed.¹

No non-hereditary or *upri* holder, whether he held for a year or on a lease for a term of years, was forced to keep his land when he was anxious to give it up. At the same time he was never allowed to give up land that was covered with brushwood. At the close of a lease the non-hereditary holder was seldom able to keep his holding. This was due to the jealousy of the head of the village who feared that by making improvements the non-hereditary holder might gain hereditary rights. The headman was also anxious to get new holders for the lands held by *upris* on the expiry of the lease, in the hope that he might indirectly gain the *mirás* rights for himself. The village authorities put every difficulty in the way of non-hereditary holders and discouraged improvements.² For this reason Captain Pottinger took the power of granting leases from the village authorities and gave it to the *mámlatdárs*.³

In the arrangements for granting leases on rising or *istáva* rents Mr. Chaplin found several defects. He thought that the conditions of the lease did not ensure the headman's granting waste lands according to fixed rules. The people were not secure from exactions; nor was there any provision to enable the Collector to ascertain what leases were granted and how far their provisions were carried out. In some places the settlement was made on a lease not conformable to the regular rules. The term of reduced rental varied from three to seven years. The lease laid down a loose classification and assessment of the land, in conformity to which the heads of villages agreed to pay the increase. But the system accorded neither with a village lease nor with an individual or personal settlement; and the rules were indefinite and vague. The system failed either to secure the husbandman against exactions or the Government against misappropriation. In the villages subsequently transferred from Ahmadnagar to Poona leases had been granted to the heads of villages and could not be superseded without breach of faith. Besides there were several conditions in the leases which were often abused, sometimes to the injury of the husbandman and sometimes to the injury of Government. Though the rent of hereditary or *mirás* land should strictly be unvarying, hereditary land was occasionally granted on leases with rising rentals. Considering these defects, Mr. Chaplin proposed the following changes in the provisions for the grant of leases on rising rentals: That in all *istávás* or leases on rising rent there ought to be a clause binding the renter to keep separate registers of the fields for which the holders paid the full rent and of those which were to be held on leases or *kauls*. That the distinction between these two classes of fields should be marked in the landholders' deeds or *rayatvár pattás*. That in enumerating the fields held on lease or *kaul*, their area in *bighás* and the amount of rent to be paid till the expiry of the lease should be specified.

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¹ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822, para 96, Ed. 1877, 29. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 22.

² Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 30.

³ Captain Pottinger, 1822, East India Papers IV. 740, 744.

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And that registers of all individual leases should be kept and furnished to the head-quarters or *huzur kacheri* and all changes should be noted at the time of settlement.¹

Among the earliest measures suggested to acquire a better knowledge of the country was a survey.² The survey known as the old Deccan survey was introduced into part of Ahmadnagar between 1825 and 1828, but the measurements and classifications then made were never put to any use.³

Alienations.

The amount of alienated or *ināni* land in Ahmadnagar was small. Up to 1822 there was no special inquiry. The Collector during his tour examined recent alleged grants. Many were found to be invalid, but he believed that few false alienations had escaped notice.⁴

Cesses,
1818-1826.

Under the Peshwās many cesses had been added to the original assessment. These cesses, of which a list is given in a footnote, were levied both on hereditary and on non-hereditary landholders. All of these cesses were not levied from any one village, but there was no village that had not to pay several of them. Under the British the most oppressive were abolished and the rest continued.⁵ In 1822, thirty-six cesses were levied from the holders of land, some of which were collected from the land, some from the village, and some from the landholder. Under the British most of these cesses were paid in cash instead of in kind.⁶

¹ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 10-11.

² In 1821 (October 1), Captain Pottinger observed, 'Some of the arrangements proposed by Mr. Crawford can be brought about only very progressively and perhaps cannot be introduced till the whole country is surveyed, measured, and the ground classed according to the plan adopted in the ceded districts.' Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 47 of 1822, 257.

³ Mr. Stack's British India Land Revenue Settlement Memorandum (1880), 469. East India Papers III. 813.

⁴ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 56.

⁵ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 24.

⁶ These thirty-six cesses were: (1) *galla patti* or *kharedi galla*, that is grain taken from the husbandmen at less than the market price for the supply of forts or of the government horse; (2) *kadba*, originally straw levied as forage: this cess or *bāb* was (1826) found only in the sub-divisions of Nagar Karda and Sangamner, and amounted to Rs. 1997; (3) *ambādi*, originally horse-ropes, amounted in 1826 to Rs. 16 in Nagar, Rs. 43 in Karda, and Rs. 41 in Sinnar, or Rs. 100 in all; (4) *gavat katli*, originally cut grass for the government cattle and horse, amounted in 1826 to Rs. 1369 in Nagar, Rs. 1599 in Chāndor, Rs. 356 in Karda, Rs. 60 in Sangamner, Rs. 670 in Akola, Rs. 4 in Nevāsa, Rs. 100 in Sinnar, and Rs. 308 in Pātoda, or Rs. 4466 in all; (5) *kharch patti*, a money cess to meet village expenses, amounted in 1826 to Rs. 21,257 in Nāsik, Rs. 7749 in Chāndor, Rs. 47 in Dindori, Rs. 230 in Nagar, Rs. 666 in Karda, Rs. 99 in Akola, and Rs. 428 in Nevāsa, or Rs. 30,476 in all; (6) *til sankranti*, an offering at the *sankranti* (January 12th) originally in sesame seed, amounted to Rs. 29 in Kumbhāri and Rs. 10 in Nagar; (7) *charni joda*, originally a pair of shoes taken from the Chāmbhār, afterwards a money claim on landholders; (8) *bazār batta* and (9) *shirasta batta*, exchange on coins; the *shirasta batta* was in Nagar at two and three per cent Rs. 2139, in Pārner at three per cent Rs. 2165, in Karda at three per cent Rs. 202, in Kotul at two per cent Rs. 291, and in Nāsik at one per cent Rs. 1367, total Rs. 6164; (10) *tup patti*, originally a levy of clarified butter, amounted in 1826 to Rs. 876; (11) *gurhāl patti*, originally a levy of unrefined sugar, chiefly in Pārner amounted to Rs. 70; (12) *kulkarni mushāhira*, originally a claim of the *kulkarnis*; (13) *pān tatya*, a particular leaf used in thatching; (14) *sat*, originally horse ropes; (15) *ghugri* and *havāldāri*, the threshing floor watcher's cess, amounted to Rs. 22,908, Rs. 17,797 being on account of *ghugri* and Rs. 5111 of *havāldāri* or charge; (16) *dasara bhet* or *dasara bakra*, originally a goat sacrificed on Dasara Day (September-October), amounted in 1826 to Rs. 146 in Akola, Rs. 144 in Sinnar, and Rs. 59 in Kumbhāri, or Rs. 349 in all; (17) *mirās patti*, an irregular cess levied once in three years on *mirās dārs* in the Junnar

Besides cesses levied from landholders, some non-agricultural or professional taxes were brought under *sáyar* or miscellaneous revenue. Of these the chief was the *mohhtarfa*, which included house and shop taxes, loom taxes, taxes on traders, taxes on professions, and a house-tax collected from a few landholders. The Ahmadnagar traders had little to complain of in the matter of taxation. The taxes were lighter than either in Poona or in Khándesh, and the traders were much better off than in Dhárwár.¹ The traders were divided into several classes and the different persons in each class were assessed at a very arbitrary estimate of their wealth. The highest payment made by moneylenders or *sávkárs* was £4 (Rs. 40) a year; by moneychangers or shroffs about £3 18s. (Rs. 39); by first class grocers £5 (Rs. 50); by grain-dealers 6s. to £3 (Rs. 3-30); by petty moneychangers and the sellers of vegetables fruit and tobacco, $\frac{1}{2}$ a. or a half-penny a day. This last was the heaviest compared with the profits. All of the others, though irregular, were light. A great objection to the system was that many wealthy traders paid nothing. The cesses on craftsmen varied from 2s. to £3 (Rs. 1-30) a year. They were very unequal and were lighter in the country than in large towns. Some craftsmen were exempted on the ground that they worked for government.²

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villages transferred to Ahmadnagar; (18) *bhet*, originally a present at the time of fixing the rental; (19) *bár pattí*; (20) *ghugri*, originally a trifling cess in grain belonging to the *pátl*; (21) *máil kátái*, originally a fine of Re. 1 for leave to cut the crops, amounted in 1826 to Rs. 60 in Akola, Rs. 49 in Sinnar, and Rs. 29 in Kumbhári, or Rs. 138 in all; (22) *pendrak*, originally a cess in green *javári* for horses in the Nagar subdivision, amounted in 1826 to Rs. 5; (23) *halad pattí*, a tax on the growth of turmeric; (24) *kattia páyil*, an undefined impost in grain; (25) *hurda*, originally a present of toasted ears of corn; (26) *tabarrak pattí*, a cess paid by an endowed Muhammadan; (27) *rui khor*, a cess collected from the village of Devi Bhojra on account of charcoal, formerly supplied by it for the manufacture of gunpowder, when the village was assigned to the arsenal or *tofikhána*: in 1826 it amounted to Rs. 15; the Collector remarks (1826), 'this appears to be an extra assessment on this village and on that ground might be remitted'; (28) *lhareli tota*, this cess was on account of supplies of fine rice in kind, which villages were obliged to make at lower than the *bazár* rates and in cases where the rice was not supplied this difference of price was exacted, from Nagar Rs. 15 and Akola *máhil* Rs. 111, total 126; the Collector remarks (1826) 'the amount of this cess should be transferred to the revenue, and not kept as a separate item in the accounts; the rice assessed is particularly fine'; (29) *sut senta*, cotton thread supplied by Devi Bhojra gratis for the purpose of making matches while the village was under the arsenal or *tofikhána*; the amount was only Rs. 7 and the Collector thought it might be remitted; (30) *Lakshmi Náráyan pattí*, this was a cess collected for this temple, and as the allowance was (1826) paid from the treasury, the cess was (1826) credited to Government; (31) *guru rancharái*, this was a collection from strangers who grazed cattle in Karda, which paid Rs. 27, and in Akola which paid Rs. 4, total Rs. 31; (32) *mendli rancharái*, this was a similar collection from sheep and goats, it was generally farmed and amounted to Rs. 8500; (33) *inám chítnával*, this was a cess from *inámáris* according to an established rate, Ahmadnagar Rs. 917, Karda Rs. 10, Akola Rs. 16, Nevása Rs. 110, Násik Rs. 40, total Rs. 1093; (34) *Mhár hadola*, this was an old established cess on *ináms* held by Mhárs at different rates on the *cháhur* of 120 *bighás*; it amounted to the following sums: Ahmadnagar Rs. 1395, Karda Rs. 1757, Sangamner Rs. 2125, Akola Rs. 1477, Nevása Rs. 1,439, Násik Rs. 4495, Sinnar Rs. 1663, Chándor Rs. 1767, Pátoda Rs. 1522, Dindori Rs. 1989, total Rs. 19,634; (35) *kalavatti*, this was a cess on land held on condition of drawing water for the village cattle in Nevása; it amounted to Rs. 4; (36) *mohoruna*, which was similar to *inám chítnával* in Sangamner, amounted to Rs. 241. Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877, 141-142), and Collector, 28th September 1826.

¹ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 54-55.

² Ext. Rev. Letter from Bombay, 5th November 1823, East India Papers III. 810.

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The establishment of order, the freeing of landholders from dependence on village headmen and on sureties, the settlement of what they had to pay to the State, the limiting of the rent charge to the lands actually under tillage, the gradual increase of the area of land which paid less than the full rental, and the very liberal terms on which waste lands were granted for tillage, caused a sudden change in the state of the district. The effect of these changes was increased by good harvests and by the continuance of high grain prices. The discharged soldiery and fort guards all turned husbandmen, and numbers flocked into Ahmadnagar from the Nizám's territory. The people were suddenly raised from the abject poverty and degradation to which they had been reduced by the mismanagement of Bájiráv and his officers.¹ Transfers of villages from and to Poona and the Nizám's territories prevent an exact comparison. Still the startling rapidity of the change is shown by the fact that the rent settlement or *jamábandi* showed a rise from £200,764 (Rs. 20,07,640) in 1818-19 to £254,784 (Rs. 25,47,840) in 1819-20, an increase of £54,020 (Rs. 5,40,200) or twenty-seven per cent. In the Collector's opinion this increase did not fall heavily on the people, because they had been assessed at specially low rates in the preceding season on the understanding that there was to be a gradual yearly increase till what was considered the full rental was reached.² The next year (1820-21) was not so prosperous. The land revenue fell from £182,443 to £163,570 (Rs. 18,24,430 - Rs. 16,35,700), a fall of £18,873 (Rs. 1,88,730) or ten per cent. This was partly due to the transfer of Shivner or Junnar and Indápur to Poona. But there was another cause, a terrible outbreak of cholera, which seriously reduced the number of the people.³ In spite of this severe outbreak of disease, within three years (1818-21) of the establishment of British power about 390,000 *bighás* of waste were brought under tillage. Many places which had been covered by almost impassable brushwood had rich crops of wheat and grain.⁴ In the beginning of 1822, Captain Pottinger

¹ On the 31st of January 1822 Captain Pottinger wrote: 'The state of this district exceeds in every desirable circumstance all that my most sanguine expectations had formed a hope of seeing effected in the time that has elapsed since I had the honour to be placed in charge of it. This I chiefly attribute to the system which has been acted on and the liberal and conciliatory policy that has been authorised, as also partly to the naturally quiet disposition of the great body of our new subjects, to the high opinion they had formed, even before they came under our authority, of our foresight and enlarged views, and to the abject state of poverty and degradation to which, as a nation, they had been reduced by the mismanagement of the Peshwa Bájiráv and his officers.' East India Papers IV. 727.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 50 of 1822, 163, 167, 170. Regarding this increase of revenue Government observed: 'We should have felt some uneasiness regarding the means by which the extensive and sudden increase of about Rs. 6,00,000 had been obtained but for the conviction expressed by the Collector of the inexpediency of hastily raising the revenue. We suggested however to the Commissioner to direct his attention on his intended tour to the discovering of any excess of assessment which might have escaped the notice of the Collector.' Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 27th November 1822, East India Papers III. 795.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 47 of 1822, 29. 'I am grieved to observe that the cholera has thrown back the number of the people.' Collector, 3rd January 1822, in Ahmadnagar Collector's Outward File 10 (1821-22).

⁴ The Collector, Captain Pottinger, writes (3rd January 1822): 'The incitement which this fact must give to the agricultural exertions of the people may easily be conceived when it is recollected that they hold this land for the present year,

wrote, 'If it had not been for the cholera the change would have been quite surprising.' During the first year the whole of the great area of freshly tilled land was held free of rent, and the full rental would not be levied for five or six years. Along with the spread of tillage and the increase in the rental, the state of the husbandmen was improving. The Kunbis were gradually freeing themselves from their embarrassments with moneylenders and the number of suits for debt had greatly fallen.¹ Want of rain at the close of 1821 (1820?) (November-December) caused a failure in the late or *rabi* crop, and considerable remissions were granted.² The rainy season of 1821 (June to October) was favourable, and except in Kumbhári, Korhála, Ráhuri, and Belápur, where the fall was short and large remissions (£1900) were granted, the crops were fine. On the whole, 1821-22 was a prosperous year. Grain prices were still fairly high. The labour and capital of the country were strained to the utmost.³ The area of waste land brought under tillage had risen to 500,000 *bighás*; nineteen villages had been re-peopled; all the disbanded soldiery had become husbandmen and numbers had come from the neighbouring Nizám and Sindia villages.⁴ During the four years ending 1821-22 the Collector met with no important difficulty in realizing the revenue. In no case where the cultivator was present was distraint necessary.⁵ This was partly due to Captain Pottinger's leniency in not pressing for payment as soon as the instalment fell due. To force payment of the instalments as soon as they fell due would have driven the people to the moneylender and they would have been impoverished by the extortion of a rapacious and usurious

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being the first year, free of rent and that in some districts they will not be called on to pay the full amount of rent for five or even for six seasons more. It is a highly pleasing reflection that by this great encouragement, while we are bettering the circumstances of thousands of our distressed and impoverished subjects, the resources of the country and the just dues of Government are improving and increasing as rapidly as the most sanguine expectations could have looked for.' Collector's Outward File 10 (1821-22).

¹ Captain Pottinger thought (East India Papers IV. 724) that the cause of the fall in the number of suits for debt was that the parties had begun to see the wisdom of coming to terms without going to court. Mr. Chaplin (20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 105) thought Captain Pottinger's view a little highly coloured. In his opinion moneylenders had ceased to press their claims because many of them had been declared inadmissible.

² Ex. Rev. Letter from Bombay 27th Nov. 1822, East India Papers III. 796.

³ Mr. Lumsden, Collector, 14th March 1823, Rev. Rec. 207 of 1823, 506.

⁴ Captain Pottinger, 31st January and 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 724, 726, 744; Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877, 107). The Nizám was forced to grant his people easier rents and win them back by the offer of leases (Mr. Chaplin). On the 31st of January 1822, Captain Pottinger wrote: 'The tillage of waste is augmenting every month. In the two districts received (1820-21) from the Nizám, the quantity of ground already ploughed exceeds 30,000 *bighás*. I am at present making arrangements for classing and fixing the rent of all that was formerly under cultivation, as well as that which has been recently tilled or remains to be tilled.' East India Papers IV. 724.

⁵ 'It is frequently requisite to write to the mámlatdárs strong injunctions and even to stop their pay and threaten them with dismissal if they do not send in the revenue in proper time. Beyond this I have not had occasion to go. In 1821-22, a landholder absconded with rent unpaid. As he had a large stock of cattle which he left with his son, I ordered the mámlatdár to have as many of the bullocks sold as would discharge the Government dues. The *páills* and others of the village bought in the cattle for the boy, and the absentee afterwards returned to his house.' Capt. Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 730-731.

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1822-1825.

Márwári.¹ About one-fifth of the settlement remained to be annually collected at the close of the official year of accounts. The balances due up to the 30th of April 1822 for 1820-21 (*Fasli* 1230) were £80 (Rs. 800) on account of land revenue and £6666 (Rs. 66,660) on account of customs revenue, and for 1821-22 (*Fasli* 1231) £40,785 (Rs. 4,07,850) on account of land revenue and £13,236 (Rs. 1,32,360) on account of customs revenue.²

With 1821-22 the period of rapid progress came to a close. Over a great part of the country similar causes had produced the same effects as in Ahmadnagar. Settled government and the disbandment of troops had thrown on the land large bodies of people who had formerly been otherwise employed. None of them were men of capital. They grew only the commonest crops. There was no demand for the produce and the grain could not be stored as it had to be sold to pay the money rental. The effect was disastrous. If the harvest was good grain had little or no value, and the people had to dispose of the whole crop to the moneylender or grain-dealer to meet the Government rent. If a failure of crops followed the landholders benefited nothing by the rise in prices as all the stores were in the moneylenders' and grain-dealers' hands. The effect of the fine harvest of 1821 was not noticed till the close of the year. Then, on the 31st of July 1822, Capt. Pottinger warned Government that grain was becoming so cheap that he feared there would be great difficulty in realising the revenue. So plentiful was grain that landholders found it difficult, almost impossible, to sell their produce.³ The fall in prices was unprecedented. Indian millet or *javári*, the staple grain of the district, fell from thirty to ninety *shers* the rupee. A fine cold-weather harvest affected pulse as well as grain.⁴ This fall in the price of field produce was followed by a shrinking in the tillage area from *bighás* 2,154,396 in 1821-22 to *bighás* 1,981,182 in 1822-23; by a fall in gross revenue from £235,053 (Rs. 23,50,530) in 1821-22 to £220,359 (Rs. 22,03,590) in 1822-23; and by a rise in remissions from £9742 to £29,640 (Rs. 97,420 - Rs. 2,96,400).⁵ The plenty of 1821 and 1822 was followed by two years of scarcity.⁶ In 1823-24 the rainfall was short and the harvest was poor; 1824-25 was worse. The failure of rain was so complete that in September Captain Pottinger spent £20 (Rs. 200) in performing

¹ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 731.

² These outstandings were chiefly due to the ravages of cholera. The rest was partly owing to the return to their homes of people who had come from other parts of the country. Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 729.

³ Captain Pottinger, 31st July 1822, East India Papers IV. 730.

⁴ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Fd. 1877, 61); the Collector, 5th December 1822; Mr. Harrison, 28th September 1836 in Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 35-37. *Jvári* fell from thirty-four *shers* the rupee in 1818 to about ninety in November 1822; *bájrí* from twenty-five to about seventy; wheat from twenty-five to about thirty-three and gram from twenty-four to about thirty. Collector, 5th December 1822 and Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 part I of 1856, 200. In December 1822 the prospects of a large cold-weather crop brought gram down from thirty-two to forty *shers*. Collector, 5th December 1822.

⁵ Mr. Lumsden, 14th March 1828, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 207 of 1828, 503-505.

⁶ Mr. Harrison, 28th September 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 37-38.

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1823-1825.

1825-1827.

ceremonies to soothe the people who were in great alarm. The tillage area fell from about *bighás* 2,000,000 in 1822-23 to about *bighás* 1,600,000 in 1823-24; the gross revenue fell from about £220,000 to £197,500; and remissions rose from £30,000 to £38,000. In 1824-25 the tillage area rose slightly, but remissions reached the large amount of £102,000, and the revenue fell to about £196,000.¹ The failure of the 1824 rains caused great distress. Numbers of cattle died and many people went with their cattle to the Nizám's country where the failure of rain had been less complete. The rains of 1825 did not set in till the 25th of August. Many landholders did not return before that time. But the failure of rain the preceding year had been so complete that the fields remained as they were after the 1824 ploughing. When the people came the fields were ready to be sown. In spite of the serious loss of cattle the tillage area spread from about *bighás* 1,586,000 to 1,855,000, the gross revenue rose from about £196,000 to £210,000, and remissions fell from £102,000 to £20,000.² The good harvest of 1825 was followed by a fall in prices from an average of twenty-eight and a half *shers* the rupee in 1821-1825 to forty-eight *shers* in 1826,³ and this fall in prices caused in 1826 a shrinkage of tillage to 1,804,000 *bighás* and a rise in remissions to about £25,000 (Rs. 2,50,000).⁴

In December 1826, Mr. Dunlop, who came to the district in March 1825, wrote that as far as he was able to judge the people were better off than in the Konkan but not nearly so well off as in Gujarát. The soil seemed poor and the climate uncertain; the

¹ Mr. Lumsden, 14th March 1828, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 207 of 1828, 503-505. The details were: 1822-23, tillage *bighás* 1,981,182, remissions Rs. 2,96,403, gross revenue Rs. 22,03,591; 1823-24, tillage *bighás* 1,580,801, remissions Rs. 3,82,490, revenue Rs. 19,76,512; 1824-25, tillage *bighás* 1,586,762, remissions Rs. 10,23,253, revenue Rs. 19,63,270.

² Mr. Dunlop, Collector, 8th December 1826, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 156 of 1827, 1-2. The details were: 1825-26, tillage *bighás* 1,855,393, gross revenue Rs. 21,00,310, remissions Rs. 2,13,308. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 207 of 1828, 503-505.

³ The Bársi *javri* prices were, 1806-1810, twenty-eight and a half *shers* the rupee; 1811-1815, twenty-seven and a half *shers*; 1816-1820, sixteen *shers*; 1821-1825, twenty-eight and a half *shers*; and part of 1826, forty-eight *shers*. The two common complaints of the cultivators were 'bad crops or low prices.' Mr. Lumsden, Collector, 14th March 1828, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 207 of 1828, 572-573.

⁴ The details were: 1826-27, tillage *bighás* 1,803,927, gross revenue Rs. 22,00,676, remissions Rs. 2,49,017. For the thirteen sub-divisions, Ahmadnagar, Karda, Sangamner, Akola, Nevása, Násik, Sinnar, Chándor, Pátoda, Vani-Dúndori, Bársi, Karmála, and Korti, the total gross revenue including all heads of revenue and excluding extra revenue during the six years ending 1826-27 (*Fasli* 1236) was:

Ahmadnagar Revenue, 1821-1827.

YEAR.	Tillage.	Gross Revenue.	Remissions.
	<i>Bighás.</i>	Rs.	Rs.
1821-22 ...	2,154,396	23,50,581	97,423
1822-23 ...	1,981,182	22,03,591	2,96,403
1823-24 ...	1,580,801	19,76,512	3,82,490
1824-25 ...	1,586,762	19,63,270	10,23,253
1825-26 ...	1,855,393	21,00,310	2,13,308
1826-27 ...	1,803,927	22,00,676	2,49,017

Mr. Lumsden, Collector, 14th March 1828, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 207 of 1828, 503-505.

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number of bad seasons remembered by the people was much greater than either in Gujarát or in the Konkan. The people struck him as curiously averse from mercantile pursuits. Almost the only moneylenders and shopkeepers were foreigners, Márwáris or Gujarátis. These men came as needy adventurers, usually beginning as servants to one of their countrymen. They soon set up for themselves and in a few years went back to their country to get married in very different circumstances from those in which they left their homes. Some were satisfied with little and stayed but a short time. But many returned and settled in the Deccan where, Mr. Dunlop expected, they would soon form a numerous body.¹ Mr. Dunlop saw no reason to expect any improvement in the state of the people. Almost all were husbandmen. There was no local demand sufficient to dispose of the produce of a good or even of a fair harvest and the distance from water-carriage and from markets rendered the surplus grain of little value. Some good, he thought, might be done by encouraging horse-breeding.² Poverty was the great evil. The people were too poor to grow anything but the cheapest grains. These in seasons of plenty were almost valueless, and the landholders had to go to the moneylender or the grain-merchant in order that the rent might be paid in money. When a failure of rain came they had no stores and gained nothing by the rise in prices. Either way there was trouble, the crops were bad or the prices were bad.³ The poverty of the people was not without some advantages. Unlike the Gujarát cultivators, the Deccan Kunbis were nearly free from the folly of contracting debts on the occasions of marriages and deaths. Their feast expenses were moderate and to a great extent were met by the presents made by the guests. The Nagar peasants were also strictly sober and free from the consequences of debauchery which were so injurious to the lower castes of Hindus on the coast. The climate was healthy and there was little danger to life or property either from wild beasts or from gang robbers.⁴

Village Accounts,
1825-1828.

A system of village accounts was introduced by Mr. Dunlop in 1825. It was sanctioned in 1825, and in 1828 had proved a useful reform.⁵

Revenue System,
1823.

In November 1828 the Collector, Mr. Boyd, furnished Government with a detailed statistical account of the district and of the revenue system. The Ahmadnagar Collectorate stretched from Vani-Dindori to Bársi, a distance of 225 miles, with a breadth varying from sixty to 125 miles. The district was bounded on the north by the Chándor range, on the east by the Nizám's territories, on the south by the Nizám's territories and the Poona collectorate, and on the west by the Poona collectorate and the Sahyádrí hills. It was divided into thirteen revenue divisions each under an officer styled

¹ Mr. Dunlop, Collector, 8th Dec. 1826, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 156 of 1827, 23-24.

² Mr. Dunlop, 8th December 1826, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 156 of 1827, 16.

³ Mr. Lumsden, 14th March 1828, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 207 of 1828, 572.

⁴ Mr. Lumsden, 14th March 1828, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 207 of 1828, 565-566.

⁵ Mr. Dunlop, 8th December 1826, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 156 of 1827, 3; Mr. Lumsden, 14th March 1828, Rev. Rec. 207 of 1828, 563, Bom. Gov. Sel. VI. 52.

kamávisdár or *mámlatdár*. Of these the divisions of Násik, Vani-Dindori, Chándor, Sinnar, Pátoda, Nevása, Sangamner, Bársi, and Korti were on the whole level; while Ahmadnagar, Karmála, Karda, and Akola were hilly. There were three leading varieties of soil, black *káli*, whitish *maul*(?), and stony *barad*. Watered lands, both black and white, yielded sugarcane, groundnuts, red pepper, wheat, gram, turmeric, and vegetables. Dry black land was sown with wheat, gram, Indian millet, and oil-plants. Dry white land produced *bájri*, *juári*, pulse, and a variety of small grains. The stony land was similar to the white land but very rocky and hilly; it gave the same crops of a poorer quality. In Sinnar, Akola, and Násik, a good deal of rice was grown especially in the villages near the Sahyádri hills. The harvest began in September and ended about March. It contained three divisions, an early crop known as *tusár*, a middle crop known as *kharif*, and a late crop known as *rabi*. The early or *tusár* crop was sown in June and reaped in September; it chiefly consisted of pulse, *mug* and *udid*, and millet. The middle crop or *kharif* was sown in July and August and reaped in October and November; like the early crop it chiefly consisted of millet and pulse. The late crop or *rabi* was sown in September and October and reaped in February and March. This crop included wheat, gram, *juári*, and oil-plants.

The cultivating classes were Marátha Kunbis, Vanjáris, and a division of Kolistermed Hindu Kolis. In Bársi, about one-fourth were Lingáyats and Musalmáns. The chief land tenures were *mirás* or hereditary tenure in which Government had not the right to deprive the holder of his field unless he failed to pay the rent. The hereditary holder was not supposed to pay less for his land than the non-hereditary holder or *upri*. The chief advantages he gained were higher social position, under the former government freedom from forced service, and the satisfaction of knowing that so long as he paid the rent due to Government he could not be driven from his paternal fields. Even if he left his hereditary land unclaimed or *gathkul* for sixty or a hundred years, he might claim it though it had meanwhile been granted to some one else as an hereditary property. The non-hereditary landholder or *upri* had formerly differed little from a yearly tenant. Under the British system he had all the substantial benefits of the hereditary holder. So long as he paid his rent he was as secure in his lands as his *mirási* neighbour; this change had so far lowered the value of the *mirás* tenure that a sale of the hereditary right, which had been common under the former government, was scarcely heard of. To encourage the redeeming of waste bush lands to tillage, leases or *kauts* had been granted on rentals gradually rising till they reached the full rent which was known as *sosti* or *bharkas*. These leases of waste arable land varied in length from one to seven years. Mr. Boyd noticed with approval the estate or plot tenure called *kásbandi*. This tenure, he thought, was profitable both to Government and to the holder. The interests of Government were guarded as the risk of giving up bad land and tilling only the best was prevented and the rent of the poorer lands secured, whether they were tilled or waste.

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The holder found the estate system beneficial as Government accepted a moderate assessment and as the estate or *kás* contained a share of different kinds of lands as well as rights to watercourses, firewood, and grazing grounds.¹ The estate or *kás* tenure was found in only four villages. In a few parts of the district the rent was collected by a plough or *aut* cess. This cess varied from 8s. to £1 12s. (Rs. 4-Rs. 16) on what was supposed to be the area which one pair of bullocks could till. In the wild hilly or *dáng* villages in the west, where the soil was poor, the land was cropped for three years and then given up. This was known as the throwing up or *ulta* system. In the first year the land was assessed at 6d. (4 *as.*) a *bigha*; in the second year the *bigha* rate rose to 1s. (8 *as.*), and in the third year it again fell to 6d. (4 *as.*). After the third year fresh lands could be taken on the same terms. Of *inám* that is alienated or freehold tenures there were seven varieties: *inám* or alienated land free from all demand from Government and in general subject to the rights and perquisites of *hakdárs* that is hereditary district officers and village claimants; *pásodi*, land held rent-free by the heads of villages; *devasthán*, land set apart for the support of religious establishments; *saranjám*, land held for service; *ját saranjám*, land held in personal grant for which service was not expected; *shetsanadi*, land granted for special local service as divisional police; and *náikvádi*, lands granted to village watchmen.

The revenue was collected under three chief heads, *jamin báb* or land revenue, *sáyar báb* or miscellaneous taxes, and *jakát* or customs. Under the general head of land revenue came *nagdi báb* or a cash payment not included in the regular rent; *van charái* or grazing farms, *ghugri* a payment in grain commuted to money, and an infinite variety of similar taxes originally in grain but changed to cash. *Sáyar* revenue included, besides minor items, the *mohtarfa* or town tax on professions, *baluta* or a tax levied on hereditary craftsmen, *rábta* or a commuted payment into cash for service levied upon the *Mhárs*, and *ábkári* or a tax on the distillation and sale of liquors. Under customs came *rahdári* or transit duties; *thal bharit*, a tax levied on leaving the place where merchandise was first packed or carted; *thal mod*, a tax on the sale of merchandise; and *nakás* or a tax on animals. These sources of customs revenue were farmed yearly to the highest bidder.

There were four hereditary revenue officers, the *deshmukh*, *deshpánde*, *pátíl*, and *kulkarni*. The *pátíl* performed revenue duties of high importance. He attended to the general management of the village lands, prevented the throwing up of land, and the desertion or idleness of landholders. He collected the revenue and carried into effect the orders of Government. The *kulkarni* was the village

¹ Mr. Boyd gives the example of an estate or *kás* 14½ *bighás* in area. In this plot there were: first class garden land ¼ *bigha* at Rs. 5, Rs. 2½; second class garden land one *bigha* at Rs. 3, Rs. 3; good dry land 4 *bighás* at 12 *as.*, Rs. 3; and poor dry land 9 *bighás* at 2 *as.*, Rs. 1½; total 14½ *bighás* assessed at Rs. 9½. This gives an average of *as.* 10⅞ the *bigha*.

accountant and general helper of the *pátíl*. His records contained registers of all the village lands, their divisions and qualities, the names of the holders of land, and a record of sales of land and of rents. He entered all revenue payments in a simple and useful day-book and ledger. What the headman and the accountant were to a village, the *deshmukh* or superintendent and the *deshpánde* or accountant were to a sub-division or group of villages. Under the elaborate system of village records introduced by the British, the importance of the *deshmukh* and *deshpánde* had greatly declined. All the duties which the *deshmukhs* had still to perform were occasionally to produce their records and attend at the settlement of a boundary dispute. The *deshpánde* was more useful. He kept up a set of books on the new principle, and examined the *kulkarnis'* records and countersigned their balances.

The yearly rent settlement or *jamábandi* was begun as soon as possible after the close of the rainy season. The *kamávisdár* or head sub-divisional officer was instructed to travel through his districts as soon as the state of the crops enabled him to form an estimate of the produce. In each village he called for tillage lists or *ldvni patraks*. These lists were made out by fields or *tikevár*. It was the *kamávisdár's* duty to ascertain the correctness of the statements and to examine any fields in which the holders complained that crops had failed. When the *pátíls* reported that the crops were good, no examination took place unless the *kamávisdár* had reason to suppose that increased tillage had not been brought to account. Frauds of this sort had formerly been committed but were rapidly decreasing. When the Collector came on tour to any part of the district, the headmen and accountants of the neighbouring villages attended at the Collector's camp, and clerks from the Collector's establishment were sent to examine villages whose loss of crops or decline in cultivation pointed them out as requiring special investigation. This examination afforded a check both on the *kamávisdárs* and on the village statements. It guarded the landholders from the mistaken zeal of public servants anxious to increase the revenue, and it protected Government from loss by district and village officers joining to keep back a share of the revenue. In addition to this inquiry by the clerks on his staff, the Collector himself examined several villages in each group and visited every field attended by its owner. This practice was particularly agreeable to the people and this sample or *nimtána* system threw much light on the way in which the sub-divisional officers had prepared the settlement. When the testing was completed and the amount of remissions fixed, the village statement or *ijára patta* was prepared showing the revenue due to Government, the remissions, and other particulars. This statement was delivered to the headman who presented an acknowledgment or *muchalka* agreeing to the settlement and binding himself to make good the amount. The *kamávisdár* then drew up individual agreements or *rayatvár pattás*. The individual agreements were as a rule not delivered for one or two months after the revenue settlement. They could not be made out before the settlement, and the *kamávis-*

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dár's establishments with their other duties could not complete them sooner.¹

The payment of the assessment was spread over six months. Of the whole amount ten per cent were due in November, twenty per cent in December January February and March, and the remaining ten per cent in April. The instalments were collected from the landholders by the village officers, who, if necessary, were reminded of what was due by a messenger or *mahál shibandi*, whose duty it was, in a group of three or four villages, to see that the village was making exertions to discharge the instalment.² To prevent the people making away with the grain, guards or *haváldárs* were generally set over the crops as soon as they were stacked. As soon as the *kamávisdár* was satisfied that the rental would be paid the people were allowed to take the whole or part of the crop. During the six months in which instalments of rent were due (November to April) the guards were paid 4s. (Rs. 2) a month from the village funds, and a small daily allowance of flour. In several parts of the district this system of guarding the crops was not practised. The cash was collected by the headman, and each landholder as he paid received a receipt from the accountant. When all the villages had paid their instalments, the cash was sent to the *kamávisdár* in charge of the village assayer or *potdár* and some *Mhárs*. At the *kamávisdár's* office a receipt was at once given. As regards *takávi* or *tagái* that is cash advances, an estimate of the sum required was made out by each *kamávisdár*. This was examined by the Collector, and, if approved, was submitted for the sanction of Government. The sums required were forwarded to the different *kamávisdárs* who distributed them to the most needy and respectable applicants. Security was always taken and the advances were paid back as soon as the next crop was cut. The amount of these advances varied according to the season. In 1827-28 they amounted to £4400 (Rs. 44,000) or about 2.25 per cent of the whole revenue.³

1829-30.

Except along the western boundary among the mountains where the supply of rain was sufficient, the rains of 1829 were in most parts of the district unfavourable, and there was a general failure of grass and forage. Both the early or *kharif* and the late or *rabi* crops were fair in *Bársi* and *Sholápur*, which were better off than the tract between them and the mountain valleys. The failure of rain threw out of tillage land paying a rental of no less than £47,079 (Rs. 4,70,790), and the remissions on land which was sown amounted to a further loss of rental of £41,324 (Rs. 4,13,240). The husband-

¹ In so large a collectorate the yearly settlement took so long to complete that the collection of the revenue began before the sum to be levied was fixed. Any chance of error to which this practice was likely to give rise was to a great extent removed by the sagacity and experience of the *kamávisdárs* who, from what they knew of their villages, were able to tell the probable amount which the Collector would fix. Mr. Boyd, Collector, 26th November 1828.

² The *Ahmadnagar shibandis* had no right to demand anything from the villagers, neither had they any power beyond continually urging the discharge of the rent. Mr. Boyd, Collector, 26th November 1828.

³ Mr. Boyd, Collector, 26th November 1823, Lithographed Papers.

men who occupied unsown lands or who reaped no crops were in most instances too poor to fulfil their obligations. Compared with the year before, the collections showed a fall of £40,735 (Rs. 4,07,350).¹

The season of 1830-31 promised well but turned out unfavourable. In Sinnar the early grain or *kharif* crops of about twenty villages were very poor, and there were serious failures of the late or *rabi* harvest in Pátoda, Chándor, Sinnar, Sangamner, and Karmála. Remissions were sanctioned amounting to £26,735 (Rs. 2,67,350). In spite of the necessity of these large remissions, in Mr. Robertson's opinion the state of the people was no worse, perhaps it was slightly better than in the previous year.² The price of grain continued very low. The total outstandings on account of former years were as high as £58,512 (Rs. 5,85,120), and there was no increase of tillage.³

In 1831-32 the early and late crops suffered a little from scarcity of rain, and the revenue showed a fall of about £8022 (Rs. 80,220).⁴

This was followed in 1832 in some places by a partial and in other places by a total failure of rain which caused severe distress. There was so little grass that the shepherds quitted the country. Want of water and scarcity of forage interfered with the carrying trade and considerably diminished the collections on the transit of goods. The net revenue for collection fell from £102,493 (Rs. 10,24,930) in 1831-32 to £64,811 (Rs. 6,48,110) in 1832-33, and remissions increased from £35,069 to £73,396 (Rs. 3,50,690 - Rs. 7,33,960).⁵

The next season 1833-34 was very favourable. In spite of the long continued cheapness of grain⁶ remissions were reduced to £28,104 (Rs. 2,81,040) and the net revenue for collection rose from £64,811 to £139,960 (Rs. 6,48,110 - Rs. 13,99,600), a higher sum than had been collected during the ten preceding years. The following statement gives the leading revenue details for the eleven years ending 1833-34:⁷

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1830-31.

1831-32.

1832-33.

1833-34.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 1-2, 4-6.

² Mr. Robertson, Principal Collector, 5th August 1831, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 406 of 1832, 234-235.

³ Mr. Reid, Rev. Comr. 8th February 1832, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 406 of 1832, 226.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 482 of 1833, 185-186, 193.

⁵ Gov. Rev. Rec. 548 of 1834, 23, and Rec. 625 of 1835, 197, 199, 204, 205, 223, 229.

⁶ The details are:

Ahmadnagar Grain: Shers the Rupee, 1810-1834.

CROP.	1810-1822.			1822-1834.		
	Kar-mála.	Jám-khed.	Kortl.	Kar-mála.	Jám-khed.	Kortl.
<i>J. ári</i> ...	29	20	31	43	28	44(?)
<i>Bávi</i> ...	23	19	21	35	26	31
Wheat ...	17	14	17	23	19	23
Giam ...	18	16	22	26	23	24

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 31.

⁷ In 1833-34 the Ahmadnagar district included twelve sub-divisions, Nagar, Akola, Chándor, Karda, Karmála, Kortl, Násik, Nevása, Pátoda, Sangamner, Sinnar, and Dúndori. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 162, 200, 205.

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Ahmadnagar Revenue, 1823-1834.

YEAR.	Settle- ment.	Charges.	Remis- sions.	Revenue for Collection.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1823-24	17,55,144	2,53,943	3,31,608	11,69,593
1824-25	17,10,428	1,27,208	9,81,884	6,01,341
1825-26	18,18,686	2,90,822	1,89,778	13,29,086
1826-27	18,40,217	2,84,577	2,43,388	13,10,257
1827-28	17,29,071	2,43,253	3,89,348	10,99,465
1828-29	17,45,142	2,69,644	3,54,404	11,21,094
1829-30	15,84,943	1,58,087	7,67,321	6,59,085
1830-31	15,91,013	2,42,688	2,67,517	10,80,808
1831-32	16,05,318	2,29,693	3,50,690	10,24,920
1832-33	15,89,248	1,57,170	7,33,966	6,48,107
1833-34	19,84,611	3,03,967	2,81,039	13,99,605

1834-35.

Unlike the previous year the season of 1834 was unfavourable. In some parts the early crops suffered from too much rain and the late crops from too little rain. Extreme cold set in about the middle of January, and a quite incalculable number of rats infested many of the sub-divisions for a considerable time. The effect of the frost, which was more intense than had ever been remembered by the oldest inhabitants, was wholly to destroy the crops on many lands which a few days would have brought to maturity, while the swarms of rats seldom failed to destroy almost entirely the crops of such fields as they attacked. The remissions, which were chiefly due to the severe frost and the rats, amounted to £19,685 (Rs. 1,96,850), and the total remissions amounted to £26,942 (Rs. 2,69,420). Compared with 1833-34 the net revenue of 1834-35 showed a fall of £20,188 (Rs. 2,01,880). At the same time, in spite of the bad season, the revenue of 1834-35 compared favourably with the average of the ten years ending 1833-34, the increase amounting to £19,245 (Rs. 1,92,450).¹

1835-36.

In the next year 1835-36 the rains set in favourably in the beginning of June, but for a period of six weeks from the latter part of June to the first week of August scarcely a shower fell and great alarm prevailed. In addition to the deficiency of rain early in the season and to an excessive fall towards its close, on the 26th of December the district was again visited by a severe frost which did incredible damage. In spite of these drawbacks the results of the revenue settlement of 1835-36 showed a gross land revenue of £143,692 (Rs. 14,36,920) being an increase on the preceding year of £3559 (Rs. 35,590). Of this the net land revenue was £116,920 (Rs. 11,69,200) showing an increase of £2742 (Rs. 27,420). Remissions amounted to £24,516 (Rs. 2,45,160) of which £14,926 (Rs. 1,49,260) were granted on account of failure of crops; £5588 (Rs. 55,880) on account of land agreed for by cultivators but left unsown; £3121 (Rs. 31,210) on account of injury to crops by frost; and £499 (Rs. 4990) on account of garden and rice lands cultivated with dry crops, or a total of £24,134 (Rs. 2,41,340) in connection with crops and £382 (Rs. 3820) on account of fires and other causes. Of the net land revenue £106,432 (Rs. 10,64,320) were collected by

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 691 of 1836, 181, 195-196, 198, 202.

the end of May 1836, showing an increase of £22,490 (Rs. 2,24,900) over the sum collected about the same time the preceding year; and of the total net revenue from all sources £144,093 (Rs. 14,40,930) only £4594 (Rs. 45,940) remained uncollected by the end of August 1836. The revenue would have been larger had it not been for the remission of the water-rate or *pánbharit* which was sanctioned by Government in September 1835 and the reduction of garden and dry-crop rates of assessment on the cultivation of 1835-36.¹

The rains of 1836-37 were very late, scarcely any falling before the middle of July. From the middle of July till the end of August the rain was favourable. But from the end of August till the middle of October scarcely any rain fell. Infinite damage was done to the early crops and much of the late crop or *rabi* ground was never sown. During the latter part of October and early in November a general and timely rain prevented the late crops proving a total failure. But towards the close of the year in parts of the Korti sub-division much of the crop was destroyed by frost.² Remissions amounting to £41,107 (Rs. 4,11,070) were granted and the net land revenue was reduced from £116,920 to £104,707 (Rs. 11,69,200-Rs. 10,47,070) or a loss of £12,213 (Rs. 1,22,130). The Collector Mr. Harrison observed: While the circumstances of the past (1836) season rendered large remissions necessary, it was gratifying to remark that the defalcation would have been much greater but for the spirit of industry which prevailed among the labouring population and which had led to 177,375 *bighás* of land being brought into cultivation above the cultivation returns of the previous year. The stimulus which had been given to the industry of the people by the reduction of rates had no doubt chiefly contributed to this result, and it was satisfactory to observe that the increase of tillage had taken place in both garden and dry lands, in lands paying full or *sosti* as well as in lands paying reduced or *kauli* rates.³ The permanent reductions effected in the land revenue during 1836-37, amounted on the cultivation of the season to £4179 (Rs. 41,790). These reductions were made chiefly in the Sangamner, Nevása, Ahmadnagar, and Karda sub-divisions, and extended to 260 villages.⁴

As regards the condition of the landholders the Collector Mr. Harrison wrote in September 1837: 'It may be expected that I should speak of the circumstances of the cultivating population who in this district form so large a proportion of the inhabitants. The circumstances of this class are certainly extremely depressed. They appear to be far worse off than the people of the Southern Marátha Country, though perhaps their condition may be better in some respects than the cultivators of the Southern Konkan.' The large mass of the population lived from hand to mouth and were overwhelmed with debt. Nothing but the most fostering care could enable them to improve their condition. It was very possible that

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¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 17-22, 25, 69.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 769 of 1837, 143.

³ The Collector, Mr. Harrison, 9th Sept. 1837, Rev. Rec. 769 of 1837, 134-135.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 769 of 1837, 133.

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for the next two or rather three years the financial results of the administration of Ahmadnagar would be less favourable than in better placed districts.¹

In the next year 1837-38 the land customs which in the previous year had yielded £16,400 (Rs. 1,64,000) were abolished.² During the fourteen years ending 1836-37 more than £40,000 (Rs. 4,00,000) were written off the district books on account of remissions in the rent settlement or *jamábandi*. With these deductions the land and *sáyar* revenue of 1837-38, £126,506 (Rs. 12,65,060), compared favourably with that of the best of the fourteen previous years, and of a rent settlement fixed at £125,866 (Rs. 12,58,660) no more than £1832 (Rs. 18,320) remained outstanding on the 1st of August 1838.³ The season of 1837 was good. The very large increase, £18,581 (Rs. 1,85,810), in the land revenue over the previous year

¹ Mr. Harrison, Collector, 9th Sept. 1837, Rev. Rec. 769 of 1837, 144-145.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 16, 124.

³ Mr. Harrison, 26th Sept. 1838, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 20-22. The most remarkable circumstance attending the settlement of 1837-38 was the unprecedented smallness of the balance (Rs. 18,318) outstanding on account of that year. The abolition of numerous vexatious taxes, the remission of transit duties, and the reduction of the land tax where excessive, had all contributed to this result. Mr. Harrison, 26th September 1838, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 963 of 1839, 40-41. The following statements show the reduction in outstandings and the proceeds of taxes lately abolished:

Ahmadnagar Land Revenue and Outstandings, 1829-1840.

YEAR.	Net Land Revenue.	Outstandings	YEAR.	Net Land Revenue.	Outstandings.
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
1829-30 ...	7,58,536	1,26,405	1835-36 ...	13,65,843	37,524
1830-31 ...	12,15,093	1,76,191	1836-37 ...	12,08,937	28,591
1831-32 ...	11,33,489	1,75,627	1837-38 ...	14,51,694	18,311
1832-33 ...	7,45,272	1,32,834	1838-39 ...	10,72,225	5915
1833-34 ...	15,59,857	1,71,644	1839-40 ...	14,46,142	6020
1834-35 ...	13,19,280	67,468			

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1235 of 1841, 47.

Ahmadnagar Cesses, 1818-1838.

YEAR.	Nevása.	Karda.	Nagar.	Kortl.	Shevgaon.	Jánkhed.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1818-19 ...	3631	3331	9130	483	2236	1129
1819-20 ...	4641	6766	9519	454	2508	498
1820-21 ...	4684	8156	9404	1029	2548	392
1821-22 ...	5112	9521	6795	304	2468	456
1822-23 ...	4310	8255	7608	949	2199	229
1823-24 ...	3239	7799	5684	948	1804	450
1824-25 ...	3368	5695	7281	892	1743	1208
1825-26 ...	3977	7482	6434	572	2370	506
1826-27 ...	4984	6807	4937	488	2663	530
1827-28 ...	4337	4430	4792	654	2647	511
1828-29 ...	4205	5998	4268	633	1980	255
1829-30 ...	3529	4808	5322	325	1816	504
1830-31 ...	3865	7248	5224	880	1867	392
1831-32 ...	3617	5710	2467	812	2114	295
1832-33 ...	2787	4386	6523	457	1704	449
1833-34 ...	4999	8690	6194	612	2611	807
1834-35 ...	4073	8587	5429	1	2136	749
1835-36 ...	3584	6057	5585	...	2028	352
1836-37 ...	3573	6180	2243	353
1837-38 ...	19	13	207	...

Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 213, 223, 235, 245, 253, 261.

was, in the opinion of the Collector and of the Revenue Commissioner, due chiefly to the reduction of oppressive rates and to the abolition of vexatious taxes and transit duties.¹

The following statement shows the land and *sáyar* revenue of the district for the fifteen years ending 1837-38:²

Ahmadnagar Land and Sáyar Revenue, 1823-1838.

YEAR.	Revenue.	YEAR.	Revenue.
	Rs.		Rs.
1823-24	11,69,593	1835-36	12,06,302
1824-25	5,39,591	1836-37	10,79,361
1825-26	13,39,086		
1826-27	13,10,257	Total	1,48,57,394
1827-28	10,99,464	Average	10,61,242
1828-29	11,21,094	Ditto excluding	
1829-30	6,59,035	bad years :	
1830-31	10,80,907	1824-25	11,82,796
1831-32	10,24,931	1829-30	
1832-33	6,48,007	1832-33	
1833-34	13,99,605	1837-38	12,65,065
1834-35	11,79,661		

In 1837 the land revenue was reduced by £2116 (Rs. 21,160) in certain villages where it was proved to be oppressive. This raised the permanent reductions in the Government demand to not less than £13,154 (Rs. 1,31,540).³

In 1837-38 the price of grain fell, and chiefly in the Korti Karmála and Jámkhed sub-divisions much land passed out of tillage. In these three sub-divisions of a total rental of £26,876 (Rs. 2,68,760), £6462 (Rs. 64,620) were remitted.⁴

The six years between 1832 and 1838 show no rise in produce prices. Still so much had been done to lighten the Government

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¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 2. In the opinion of the Revenue Commissioner Mr. Williamson, 18th Oct. 1837, the injustice and over-exaction from which the people suffered a few years ago were nearly put down, under the improved system of village accounts and European superintendence introduced during the last few years. The spirit of rapine which was so universally diffused had met with a severe check, and the people were no longer exposed to the pillage and oppression which was gradually deteriorating the country. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 769 of 1837, 120-121.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 19-20.

³ The necessity for these reductions had been brought to the notice of Government and fully admitted. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 19-20; see also Rev. Rec. 769 of 1837, 133-134.

⁴ Mr. Bell, First Asst. Collector, 19th July 1838, Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 57-60. The details of grain prices are :

Ahmadnagar Grain Prices, 1810-1838.

YEAR.	Shers THE RUPER.											
	Karmála.				Jámkhed				Korti.			
	Jvári.	Edjri.	Wheat	Gram.	Jvári.	Edjri.	Wheat	Gram.	Jvári.	Edjri.	Wheat	Gram.
1810-1822 ...	29	23	17	18	20	19	14	16	31	21	17	22
1822-1834 ...	43	35	23	20	28	26	19	23	44(?)	31	23	24
1834-1838 ...	43	36	29	32	32	32	29	32	44	32	29	32

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 25-26, 31.

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demand that the landholders were able to wipe off a large amount of outstandings.¹ Though no general change was introduced either in the revenue system or in the rates of assessment, experience enabled the district officers and Government to suggest and to carry out changes which did much to relieve the distress caused by the continued cheapness of field produce. The chief subjects to which the attention of district revenue officers was drawn during this period may be grouped under five heads: Introducing petty division officers or mahákaris subordinate to mámlatdárs, lowering the rates of dry-crop assessment, increasing the area under irrigation, stopping the practice of employing a moneylender or banker as a surety or *havála* between the landholder and Government, and improving the system of village records and accounts. As regards the strengthening of the staff of superior revenue officers in 1836 Mr. Williamson, the Revenue Commissioner, brought to the notice of Government the necessity of appointing a Sub-Collector at Násik, and in 1837-38 Násik was made a sub-collectorate subordinate to Ahmadnagar. About 1835 petty division officers styled mahákaris were introduced. For a year or two the mahákaris from want of proper establishments were of little value. When this defect was remedied, the change did much to improve the revenue management of the Deccan. As regards the reduction of dry-crop rates, in 1834 Mr. Mills the Collector drew the attention of Government to what seemed to him the excessive rates levied on dry-crop or *jirayat* land. He suggested that part of the Government demand should be held over or left *tahkub* till it was seen whether the landholder was able to pay the full assessment.² Mr. Williamson the Revenue Commissioner disapproved of Mr. Mills' proposal of keeping part of the assessment suspended till it was seen whether or not the landholder could pay the whole demand. He agreed with the Collector that in many villages the rates were too high. He was satisfied that there would be no real improvement in the district till rents were so greatly reduced that yearly remissions ceased to be necessary.³ These opinions satisfied Government that the dry-land rates in Ahmadnagar required to be lowered. They vested the Collector with power to reduce the rates, wherever, after inquiry by himself and his assistants, he was satisfied that reduction was urgently needed. An immediate reduction to a proper standard was the only cure for the evils of over-assessment.⁴ In accordance with these orders, in certain parts of the district the Collector

¹ In June 1835 the outstandings amounted to Rs. 7,54,173 of which Rs. 3,69,357 were realized by the end of May 1836. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 44.

² Mr. Williamson, Rev. Comr. 2610 of 23rd November 1833; 18th Oct. 1837, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 769 of 1837, 122-123. ³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 182.

⁴ Mr. Williamson, 30th April 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 182: 'I am now examining the condition of some villages myself and find over-assessment to be the chief cause of the neglected state in which I find their lands. In some cases that have lately come to my knowledge, our high rates have forced landholders at the expense of our revenue to carry their industry to the Moghalái, though in going to those villages our subjects are exposed to the inconvenience of taking their ploughs far from home, and to the unjust treatment of the Nisám's native officers.' Mr. Williamson, 12th February 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 691 of 1836, 188-189.

⁵ Gov. Letter of 7th September 1835, Bom Gov. Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 441-442.

made a close inquiry into the productive powers of the land, the rates prevailing on similar soils in neighbouring villages, the ease with which the existing rates were paid, and the changes which had taken place in the prices of field produce. The result of this inquiry was a permanent reduction of £822 (Rs. 8220).¹

In the following year (28th September 1836) the Collector Mr. Harrison expressed his opinion that such partial reductions did not meet the wants of the case. The Collector had not time to devote to an elaborate revision. Existing rates, whether or not originally too high, had since 1822 been doubled by the fall in produce prices. The rates were causing serious and widespread suffering. Sufficient and prompt relief could be given only by lowering the rates of whole sub-divisions. If Government sanctioned a large and general lowering of assessment the loss of revenue would be temporary. With increased means the holders of land would bring a larger area under tillage and would devote a larger proportion of the tilled area to the growth of the better class of produce.² These views were carried into effect; and a systematic reduction of twenty to twenty-five per cent was made in the assessment of several sub-divisions between 1834 and 1837.³ Another object which the district officers strove to gain was the increase of the area of watered land. In October 1834 Mr. Mills the Collector drew attention to the fact that in a large number of villages the whole of the garden land was not cultivated, partly owing to the poverty of the holders and partly to the high rate of assessment. Of *bighás* 102,889 of garden land assessed at £32,829 (Rs. 3,28,290), *bighás* 23,203 or nearly one-fourth assessed at £7848 (Rs. 78,480) were waste. The only measure to ensure the steady cultivation of these garden lands was to reduce the assessment one-half.⁴ Government referred the Collector to orders issued in November 1832 for the reduction of garden rates in villages where they were too heavy, which they directed him to carry out without further delay.⁵ With the same object of increasing the area under irrigation, Mr. Mills pleaded for the remission of the water cess or *pánbharit*. This water cess was an extra levy on dry-crop or *jíráyat* land made into garden land and watered from wells. It was assessed in an arbitrary way according to the crop produced and the ability of the landholder to pay. In the Collector's opinion it was a direct tax on industry. The cess prevented much dry land from being watered, and in 1833 it yielded only £916 (Rs. 9160). The Collector recommended its abolition by proclamation.⁶ This suggestion was supported by the Revenue Commissioner, and the

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¹ Other reductions in the garden and dry-land rates of assessment made by the Collector and the Revenue Commissioner amounted to £1824 (Rs. 18,240); these were to come into operation in the next year (1836-37). Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 27-29.

² Mr. Harrison, 28th Sept. 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 29, 35-37, 42-44.

³ Mr. Stack's British India Land Revenue Settlement Memorandum (1880), 469.

⁴ Mr. Mills, Collector, 30th Oct. 1834, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 284-286.

⁵ Government Letter of 7th September 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 440; Mr. Vibart, Rev. Comr. 9th Nov. 1839, Rev. Rec. 1092 of 1840, 10-11.

⁶ Mr. Mills, Collector, 30th Oct. 1834, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 287-288.

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water-cess or *pánbharit* was abolished.¹ The result of this concession was in one year to double the area of watered land.² In April 1831 Government agreed with the Revenue Commissioner that land watered from new wells should be free from extra garden assessment and that one-fourth of the special assessment should be remitted on land watered by wells repaired by the people at their own expense.³ In 1833 it was brought to the notice of Government that the revenue was to a great extent recovered not from the landholders but from sureties or *haválas*, usurious moneylenders who swarmed and threw at the people's expense on the resources on which the Government revenue depended. In May 1833 Government ordered that the practice of recovering the assessment from moneylenders as sureties for the landholder should cease. But there was difficulty in carrying out this order, and in 1835 the practice was still continued.⁴

To preserve the landholders from demands made by the village authorities in excess of the Government assessment, a more complete system of village records was introduced. The village forms which had been introduced by Mr. Dunlop in 1825 provided for the record of the amount of revenue due by each landholder and of the amount and date of the payments made.⁵ In 1833 Mr. Williamson introduced a more elaborate form of village record. Each field was numbered and its name, number, area, holder's name, tenure, and rent were recorded. The information was obtained by scrutinies and by occasional measurements. The record could not at once be correct, but it gradually improved, and in 1835 formed a valuable basis on which Government could rely with much greater safety than on the vague statements formerly furnished.⁶ Another subject connected with village accounts to which care was given was the distribution and preservation of landholders' receipt books. Though village accounts were not yet correctly kept a great advance was made between 1833 and 1835.⁷ A change from which much

¹ Mr. Williamson, Rev. Comr. 30th April 1835; Government Letter of 7th September 1835; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 181, 441.

² Mr. Harrison, Collector, 28th September 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 26. Mr. Harrison adds, 'I have no doubt myself that when the liberal views of Government respecting the wells termed *budkis* become more generally known, there will scarcely remain a stream in the country that will not be rendered available for purposes of irrigation.'

³ The Rev. Comr. 706 of 14th April 1834 and Gov. Letter 1109 of 29th April 1834. The effect of this concession was that of 29,398 *bighás* of waste garden land in 1831-32, 9737 *bighás* or about one-third had been brought under irrigation by the end of 1838-39. Mr. Harrison, Collector, 8th Oct. 1839. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1092 of 1840, 10-11, 46.

⁴ Mr. Williamson, Rev. Comr. 30th April 1835; Gov. Letter of 7th September 1835; Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 172, 438.

⁵ In 1825-26 Mr. Dunlop, the Collector, sent the person in charge of the *mámlat-dár's* office two forms, after which returns were to be prepared, showing the name of each *tikka*, its contents in *bighás*, the portions which were *mirás* and *galkul*, cultivated and waste, the *bigha* rate, the aggregate assessment, and whether the holders of the cultivated portions were *mirásulárs* or *upriá*. By order of Mr. Dunlop a bound day-book and ledger were introduced in place of the loose bits of paper on which the Government accounts were kept. 'Of late years,' Mr. Goldsmid wrote in March 1841, 'the method of keeping these books has from time to time been considerably improved by the Revenue Commissioner.' Bom. Gov. Sel. VI. 52.

⁶ Mr. Williamson, Rev. Comr. 30th April 1835, Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 173.

⁷ Mr. Mills, Collector, 16th June 1834, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 548 of 1834, 49. Gov. Letter of 7th September 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 436-437.

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was expected in 1834-35 was the leasing of waste and declining villages. Mr. Williamson, the Revenue Commissioner, held that a combination of village leasing and direct management would be a gain. If introduced gradually and cautiously he did not doubt that village leases would benefit both Government and the people.¹ In February 1834 Government sanctioned the grant of leases in the case of deserted and decaying villages.² Between July and October 1834 several villages were granted in lease. But the Collector was forced to refer every case to Government. He thought that if it was the intention of Government to introduce village leasing to any large extent, greater freedom should be granted to the Collector.³ Among miscellaneous changes introduced to improve the state of the district, were the abolition of transit dues in 1837, and the special reduction in 1834 of the assessment of lands set apart for the growth of cotton.⁴

As regards the effect of these changes, the statement of the tillage area and revenue for six sub-divisions, given below, shows during the seven years ending 1837-38 an increase of 197,486 acres in the area under tillage, and in spite of large reductions⁵ in the demands of Government an increase in the collections from £41,484 to £45,515 (Rs. 4,14,840 to Rs. 4,55,150).⁶ This improved state was to some extent due to the good seasons of 1833 and 1837. This improvement in the financial state of the district was accompanied by the return of a great number of landholders who had left the district, and by the addition of about 64,500 *bighás* to the tillage area.⁷ This result was satisfactory. But the Collector, Mr. Harrison, feared a repetition of the old experience that the spread of tillage could be followed by a ruinous fall in the price of grain.⁸

¹ Mr. Williamson, 30th April 1835, Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 176-177. 'As a large portion of the land has been uncultivated the people cannot afford to break it up except it is leased to them on easy terms. In granting leases or *kauls* care is required to prevent the people deserting lands previously under cultivation. When the rates on those lands are heavy, such desertions are liable to take place, to the serious detriment of the revenue; but when those rates are light that liability is very inconsiderable. When the throwing up of the cultivated land and the taking up of other lands proceeds at the rate described by Mr. Reeves, a minute scrutiny into the facts of the case will, I apprehend, usually show that exorbitant demands and local mismanagement are the primary agents of the mischief.' Mr. Williamson Rev. Comr. 12th February 1836, Rev. Rec. 691 of 1836, 189.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 274.

³ Mr. Mills, Collector, 30th October 1834, Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 274-277.

⁴ Gov. Letter to Rev. Comr. 7th Sept. 1835, Rev. Rec. 625 of 1835, 441.

⁵ The permanent reductions made in the annual revenue of the district amounted at the close of 1837-38 to Rs. 1,31,540. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 19.

⁶ These figures, taken from statements in Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII., are for six sub-divisions, Nevása, Karda, Ahmadnagar, Korti, Shevgaon, and Jámkhed. In the entire district the outstandings fell from Rs. 1,75,627 in 1831-32 to Rs. 13,831 in 1837-38, and the revenue after deducting remissions showed an increase from Rs. 11,33,489 in 1831-32 to Rs. 14,51,694 in 1837-38. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1235 of 1841, 47.

⁷ In 1837-38, in Pátoda, Ráhuri, and Sangamner the increase was 30,176 *bighás* and in Karmála Jámkhed and Korti 62,710 *bighás*. Against this there was a decline in Korti of *bighás* 28,327, that is a balance of increase of 64,559 *bighás*. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 32, 59.

⁸ Mr. Harrison, Collector, 26th September 1838. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 23, 24, 30.

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The cause of the increase of tillage was also not entirely satisfactory. It was due to the general grant of leases or *kauls*, and large areas of land were paying much less than their proper rents. The need of the grant of leases showed that the regular assessment was too high. It was the great fall in produce prices that made the regular assessment so heavy. He recommended that in the three southern sub-divisions, Karmála Jámkhed and Korti, a reduction of twenty per cent in the Government assessment should be sanctioned. Government did not approve of so general a measure, but ordered that in villages where it seemed necessary, the rates should be reduced to a fair and reasonable standard so as to make yearly remissions and the grant of leases unnecessary.¹

1838-39.

The rains of 1838 began with a fair promise, but the crops were destroyed by an almost total drought in July and August which made remissions necessary to the amount of £56,980 (Rs. 5,69,800).² There was a rise in the price of grain due not only to the local demand but because large quantities were bought for export.³ If the landholders had grain in store this rise in price would, to some extent, have made up for the shortness of their crops. But over most of the districts the landholders lived from hand to mouth, so that the grain dealers were the only people who benefited by the rise in prices.⁴

In Pátoda, Ráhuri, Nevása, Shevgaon, and Nagar, the effect of the drought was very severely felt. On the 27th of August 1839 Mr. Inverarity reported that during the previous year immenso tracts of rich black soil on both banks of the Godávári had been unsown, and that where the land had been sown the returns were very scanty. To add to the landholders' difficulties there was no forage. As early as October 1838 cattle had been driven in herds to the Nizám's territory. The distress that followed this failure of crops gave fresh force to the representations in favour of encouraging irrigation and lowering the assessment. Mr. Inverarity (27th August 1839) pointed out that the tract included in Pátoda, Ráhuri, Nevása, Shevgaon, and Nagar was entirely a grain country. No more sugarcane, cotton, or oil-seed was grown than was wanted for local use. Grain might have paid when there were large bodies of Marátha horse to feed; it did not pay now. The people were too poor and the rainfall was too uncertain to encourage the growth of the richer crops. Government had taken the place of the larger landlords. For their own interest as well as for the sake of the people they should undertake some scheme to turn the water of the streams to use for irrigation.⁵ These views of Mr. Inverarity's were supported by the Collector Mr. Harrison. He noticed, on the one hand, that in 1833 in spite of the failure of the rains £100,000 (Rs. 10,00,000) had been realized in Kaira from irrigated lands, while on the other

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 968 of 1839, 28-29, 131-133.² Mr. Harrison, 8th October 1839, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1092 of 1840, 34, 37.³ Mr. Jones, 26th August 1839, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1092 of 1840, 120.⁴ Mr. Vibart, 9th November 1839; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1092 of 1840, 3-4, 35.⁵ Mr. Inverarity, 27th August 1839, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1092 of 1840, 106-114.

land in a single group of ten villages in Pátoda £4096 (Rs. 40,960) in 1838-39 and £3438 (Rs. 34,380) in 1836-37 had to be remitted. If they could be sunk at a reasonable cost he was strongly in favour of sinking wells in those villages.¹ The Revenue Commissioner, Mr. Vibart, agreed with Mr. Harrison that in a district where the landholders were so entirely destitute of capital it was not enough for Government to reduce garden rates. Government must make advances and he asked to be allowed to place £2000 (Rs. 20,000) at the Collector's disposal to be advanced to landholders willing to make or to repair wells.² Government, considering the importance of spreading irrigation and the poorness of the people, approved of Mr. Vibart's proposals and sanctioned a grant of £2000 (Rs. 20,000) in the Ahmadnagar principal division and £1000 (Rs. 10,000) in the Násik sub-collectorate.³

At the close of 1838 (November 23) Mr. Williamson drew the attention of Government to the land assessment in Ahmadnagar. It had for many years been complained of as excessive, and heavy reductions had been made with the best effect. Still from the vagueness of the measurements and other points connected with the assessment some kind of survey was necessary before the land tax could be placed on a satisfactory basis. A survey would alone furnish materials for framing accurate land registers.⁴ In spite of large yearly remissions, the exemption of the uncultivated portions of holdings, triennial or quadrennial leases at reduced rates, and a systematic reduction of rates by twenty to twenty-five per cent, the unequal incidence of the revenue demand continued to be severely felt. The people were generally depressed and impoverished.⁵ A plan of survey and settlement prepared by Mr. Goldsmid was laid before Government and received their approval. Ahmadnagar was one of the first districts taken in hand by the Deccan Survey. Operations were begun in 1839 in the north in Niphád now in Násik, but so large was the district that no survey settlement was introduced in the present (1884) district of Ahmadnagar till 1848. This survey was carried on by two distinct departments. The Assistant Collector Mr. Tytler of the land revenue department was placed in charge of the *dáng* or hill survey, and the regular revenue survey department under Mr. Goldsmid and Lieutenant Davidson was in charge of the survey of the *desh* or plain parts of the district. By 1847-48 the settlement was brought to a close in the part of the old collectorate which is now included in Násik. As the *dáng* or hill portion mostly lies in Násik, its details have been given in the Statistical Account of that district.⁶ The survey details of the remaining portion of the old Ahmadnagar collectorate are given in order of time, after the yearly season and revenue details for the nine years ending 1848.

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1838-39.

Survey,
1838-1848.

¹ Mr. Harrison, 8th October 1839, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1092 of 1840, 54-55.

² Mr. Vibart, 9th November 1839, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1092 of 1840, 10, 16.

³ Gov. Letter of 30th May 1840, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1092 of 1840, 204-208.

⁴ Mr. Williamson, Revenue Commissioner, 2610 of 23rd November 1838.

⁵ Mr. Stack's British India Land Revenue Settlement Memorandum (1880), 469.

⁶ The only portion of *dáng* or hill-land in Ahmadnagar is in Akola. The details of its settlement are given below.

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1841-1848.

During the seven years ending 1848 the Ahmadnagar land revenue was fluctuating. Exclusive of remissions, the highest amount for collection was £165,256 (Rs. 16,52,560) in 1847-48 and the lowest £100,943 (Rs. 10,09,430) in 1844-45; remissions were smallest £6616 (Rs. 66,160) in 1847-48 and largest £49,963 (Rs. 4,99,630) in 1845-46. The details¹ are:

Ahmadnagar Land Revenue, 1841-1848.

YEAR.	Rental.		Remissions.		For Collection.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1841-42	18,88,813	3,52,933	14,86,880	
1842-43	17,78,033	1,26,564	16,46,469	
1843-44	16,11,877	3,49,181	12,62,696	
1844-45	15,06,251	4,96,817	10,09,434	
1845-46	15,89,297	4,99,632	10,89,665	
1846-47	16,71,636	2,15,432	14,56,204	
1847-48	17,18,725	66,161	16,52,564	

1839-1848.

During the nine years ending 1847-48, the land revenue collections rose from £89,609 (Rs. 8,96,090) in 1839-40 to £114,779 (Rs. 11,47,790) in 1847-48 and remissions fell from £24,913 (Rs. 2,49,180) to £6219 (Rs. 62,190). Of these nine years the three seasons 1843, 1844, and 1845, were most unfavourable. Scanty and uncertain rainfall, want of fodder, and cattle disease, and two severe outbreaks of cholera reduced parts of the district to great distress. Compared with an average of £27,210 (Rs. 2,72,100) of remissions during the nine years ending 1848 remissions rose to £31,897 (Rs. 3,18,970) in 1843-44, £47,944 (Rs. 4,79,440) in 1844-45, and £49,088 (Rs. 4,90,880) in 1845-46; and collections from an average of £89,037 (Rs. 8,90,370) fell to £77,914 (Rs. 7,79,140) in 1843-44, £62,823 (Rs. 6,28,230) in 1845-46, and £59,564 (Rs. 5,95,640) in 1844-45. The details² are:

Ahmadnagar Land Revenue, 1837-1860.

YEAR.	Rental.	Remissions.	Out-standings.	Col-lections.	YEAR.	Rental.	Remissions.	Out-standings.	Col-lections.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1837-38	10,46,986	1,49,935	8812	8,88,139	1844-45	10,82,593	4,79,444	7504	5,96,645
1838-39	10,83,619	3,63,906	1741	7,17,972	1845-46	11,37,303	4,90,876	18,100	6,23,227
1839-40	11,56,403	2,49,177	5143	8,96,088	1846-47	12,14,714	2,12,222	33,220	9,69,272
1840-41	12,05,866	2,27,170	4305	9,74,391	1847-48	13,42,298	62,192	32,319	11,47,787
1841-42	12,40,003	2,98,043	15,032	9,26,873	1848-49	10,89,282	3,13,174	9987	7,66,121
1842-43	12,09,715	1,10,790	2999	10,95,926	1849-50	9,38,215	2,23,763	1021	7,13,431
1843-44	11,02,220	3,18,975	4106	7,79,140					

The following yearly details are taken from reports that relate to the entire district including the sub-collectorate that is the sub-divisions of Násik, Chándor, Sinnar, Dindori, and Kávnái:

1839-40.

The scarcity of 1838-39 was followed by an excellent season. Remissions fell from £54,656 to £31,254 (Rs. 5,46,560-Rs. 3,12,540);

¹ These figures are for the fifteen sub-divisions, Akola, Sangamner, Pátoda, Ráhuri, Nevása, Ahmadnagar, Karda, Korti, Shevgaon, Jámkhed, Násik, Chándor, Sinnar, Dindori, and Kávnái. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 13 of 1850, 90-91.

² These figures, taken from yearly administration reports, are for the ten sub-divisions of Akola, Sangamner, Pátoda, Ráhuri, Nevása, Ahmadnagar, Karda, Korti, Shevgaon, and Jámkhed.

the revenue for collection rose to £144,614 (Rs. 14,46,140), an increase of £11,691 (Rs. 4,16,910) or forty per cent; and of this large amount all but £602 (Rs. 6020) were collected.¹

1840 was an unfavourable season. The rains began well but the first fall was followed by a drought which lasted from the end of July to the middle of September, damaged the crops especially in the eastern districts of Karda, Korti, and Jámkhed, and made necessary the grant of remissions amounting altogether to £26,326 (Rs. 2,63,260).² Still these were less than former remissions and this together with an increase in the tillage area raised the revenue to £156,826 (Rs. 15,68,260) or £12,212 (Rs. 1,22,120) more than in the previous year. In 1840 Mr. Harrison again drew attention to the importance of increasing the area under irrigation. There were no fewer than 4652 wells out of repair,³ and of the whole gross revenue (£183,153) only £22,749 (Rs. 2,27,490) or about twelve per cent was drawn from garden land.⁴ In the following year efforts to increase the amount of irrigation were so far successful, that 173 wells were repaired and fifteen were built.⁵

Between 1835 and 1839 a great increase took place in the number of civil suits. The totals rose from 6672 in 1835 to 12,426 in 1839 and the number brought against landholders from 2922 in 1835 to 5991 in 1839.⁶ This great increase in the pressure of the money-lending classes is not explained in the reports of the time. Two causes may be suggested as helping to bring about this result. The stoppage of the surety or *havála* system in 1833 and 1835, must have taken out of the moneylender's hands one of their weapons for forcing their debtors to make over to them all the produce of their fields. Another cause was the very large reductions made in the Government demand in several parts of the district. This gave a sale value to land which had formerly been unsaleable, and, as happened to a marked extent in Thána after the great reductions between 1835 and 1842, moneylenders pressed their debtors in order to get the land entered in their own names.⁷ There seems little reason to doubt that the doubling of the number of civil suits marks

¹ Government (7th of May 1841, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1235 of 1841, 191-194) considered the result gratifying: a proof that the district was well managed and that the resources of the people had improved.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1339 of 1842, 1, 30, 45.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1235 of 1841, 60.

⁴ Mr. Harrison, 10th October 1841, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1339 of 1842, 32.

⁵ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1339 of 1842, 48-49.

⁶ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1235 of 1841, 65. The details are:

Ahmadnagar Civil Suits, 1835-1839.

YEAR.	Total.	Against Landholders.	Per Cent.	YEAR.	Total.	Against Landholders.	Per Cent.
1835	6672	2922	43.79	1839	12,426	5991	48.21
1836	6834	3115	45.58	Total	46,603	21,896	46.98
1837	9859	4322	43.83	Average	9320	4379	46.98
1838	10,812	5546	51.29				

⁷ Thána Statistical Account, Bombay Gazetteer, XIII. Part II 589.

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1840-41.

the attempt of the moneylenders to divert from the landholders to themselves the benefits of the liberal reductions in the Government demand. An inquiry to which this great increase in the pressure of the moneylenders gave rise, showed that of 53,376 persons holding land direct from Government, 36,545 or 68 per cent were deeply involved, owing sums amounting in the aggregate to £500,000 (Rs. 50,00,000). Of the whole number of landholders only 16,831 or 32 per cent were free from embarrassment. In Mr. Harrison's opinion this disastrous state of things was due partly to the high rates formerly levied, but more to the improvident thoughtless character of the people and to the law which admitted a perfect freedom in the traffic of money, and allowed the creditor to recover any amount lent at the most usurious rate of interest.¹

1841-42.

1841 was on the whole an unfavourable season. The early rain was scanty, and heavy unseasonable showers greatly damaged the harvest. Up to the middle of October little of the late or *rabi* crop had been sown and so bad was the outlook that many families left their villages with their cattle. Heavy rain at the end of October saved the late crops and brought back large numbers of families who had left their homes in search of fodder for their cattle. Later on between the 13th and 15th of January the wheat and gram were in many parts almost destroyed by heavy rain. Compared with the previous year the gross land revenue of 1841-42 showed an increase of £728 (Rs. 7280) arising chiefly from advances in the rates on lands which were held under rising leases or *istáva kauls*, and from several villages having reverted to Government. In the net land revenue there was a fall of £8243 (Rs. 82,430) occasioned by the necessity of granting heavy remissions.² Still though less than in 1840-41 the net land and *sáyar* revenue of 1841-42 was in excess of the average net revenue of the eighteen preceding years.³ The

¹ Mr. Harrison, 10th Oct. 1841, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1339 of 1842, 64-66. It seems doubtful whether Mr. Harrison was correct in holding that the land rates originally fixed were excessive. The striking progress of the district during the first four years of British rule shows that the original rates were not excessive. The poverty and distress were chiefly caused by the crushing fall, about 50 per cent (Rev. Rec. 692 of 1836, 37), in the value of grain.

² The details are: Gross revenue of 1841-42, £183,881 (Rs. 18,38,810) against £183,153 (Rs. 18,31,530) in 1840-41; remissions £35,298 (Rs. 3,52,980) against £26,326 (Rs. 2,63,260); net revenue £148,583 (Rs. 14,85,830) against £156,826 (Rs. 15,68,260). Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1448 of 1843, 1-2, 20-21.

³ The details are:

Ahmadnagar Land and Sáyar Revenue, 1823-1843.

YEAR.	Revenue.	YEAR.	Revenue.	YEAR.	Revenue.	YEAR.	Revenue.
	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
1823-24 ...	11,69,593	1829-30 ...	6,59,635	1835-36 ...	12,06,801	Average of eighteen years 1823-1841 ...	10,83,611
1824-25 ...	5,39,591	1830-31 ...	10,30,907	1836-37 ...	10,79,360	Average of fourteen years excluding 1824, 1829, 1832 and 1838 ...	11,97,836
1825-26 ...	13,39,086	1831-32 ...	10,24,931	1837-38 ...	12,65,065	Average of fifteen years excluding 1824, 1829, and 1832 ...	11,77,106
1826-27 ...	13,10,257	1832-33 ...	6,43,007	1838-39 ...	8,86,371	1841-42 ...	12,32,224
1827-28 ...	10,99,464	1833-34 ...	13,99,805	1839-40 ...	11,92,578		
1828-29 ...	11,21,093	1834-35 ...	11,79,660	1840-41 ...	13,01,303		

realizable revenue was also promptly and easily collected, £148,583 (Rs. 14,85,830) or all but £1292 (Rs. 12,920) being received before the close of September 1842.¹

Since 1835 the system of taking *sánkli jámin* or chain security had superseded the objectionable practice of crop-security or *mál jámin*. The chain security was merely personal and was given by the landholders among themselves. It entailed no expense, few but men of bad character failed to obtain it. When this security was not given, the village *haváldár* or crop watchman was employed to prevent secret tampering with the crop. The average yearly sum levied during the three years ending 1841 under the head of duns or *mohsals* to recover overdue revenue was only £49 (Rs. 490).²

During 1841-42, at the suggestion of Mr. Simson, Government placed £2000 (Rs. 20,000) at the disposal of the Principal Collector of Ahmadnagar and £1000 (Rs. 10,000) at the disposal of the Sub-Collector of Násik to be spent in spreading irrigation, and considerable progress was made in repairing old and sinking new wells.³

Though the rains of 1842 set in late and were broken by several long stretches of dry weather, the season, especially the late harvest, on the whole was favourable. Though the harvest was good, the season was unhealthy both for men and for cattle, as many as 13,613 people dying of cholera and 84,338 cattle dying of cattle disease. So much did the people suffer from this outbreak of sickness, that the Collector assigns sickness as the cause why the area under dry-crop tillage had shrunk by over 50,000 *bighás* in the principal division of the district.⁴ Garden cultivation yielded only £20,598 (Rs. 2,05,980). Compared with the previous year, remissions showed a fall of £22,642 (Rs. 2,26,420). The total remissions amounted to £12,656 ((Rs. 1,26,560) or 7·14 per cent of the revenue. The largest remissions were in Ráhuri 15·94 per cent, Jámkhed 15·34 per cent, Korti 12·12 per cent, and Karda 11·57 per cent. The smallest were in Chándor, Kávnai, and Násik. In the sub-collectorate they amounted to 2·81 per cent and in the principal division to 9·16 per cent.⁵ The net revenue amounted to £164,647 (Rs. 16,46,470) or an increase of £16,064 (Rs. 1,60,640) over the previous year. Of the total amount all but £300 (Rs. 3000) were realized before the close of July 1843. The following statement⁶ shows that in spite of the reductions in the Government demand during the eight years ending 1842-43, the revenue realized in 1842-43 was larger than in any of the twenty years ending 1842-43 :

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1841-42.

1842-43.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1448 of 1843, 5-6.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1448 of 1843, 6, 15, 23, 25.

³ Mr. Simson, Revenue Commissioner, 5th December 1842, and Government Letter 2440 of 25th July 1843. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1448 of 1843, 13, 14, 180.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1564 of 1844, 22-25.

⁵ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1564 of 1844, 21, 33-36.

⁶ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1564 of 1844, 43. In explanation of these figures the Collector Mr. Harrison says (2nd October 1843), 'During the nineteen years ending 1841-42, villages and shares or *amals* have lapsed to Government yielding a yearly revenue of £15,000 (Rs. 1,50,000), while during the last eight years permanent reductions in the Government demand have been made to the extent of £50,000 (Rs. 5,00,000) of which £13,382 (Rs. 1,33,820) were on account of land customs.'

DISTRICTS.

Ahmadnagar Revenue, 1823-1843.

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1842-43.

YEAR	LAND.			SA'YAR.			TOTAL COLLECTI-ONS.
	Revenue for Collection	Irre-cover-able.	Collec-tions.	Revenue for Collection.	Irre-cover-able.	Collec-tions	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1823-24	12,57,692	2557	12,55,124	93,477	110	93,365	13,48,489
1824-25	6,53,985	2164	6,51,821	1,10,468	466	1,10,001	7,61,625
1825-26	14,53,211	15,533	14,68,744	1,07,292	913	1,06,379	15,75,367
1826-27	14,24,271	15,290	14,08,981	2,03,704	335	2,03,369	16,11,909
1827-28	12,51,684	1,51,144	12,36,540	2,23,673	849	2,22,824	14,59,037
1828-29	12,70,079	21,819	12,48,260	2,53,488	2222	2,51,266	14,99,753
1829-30	7,58,536	22,719	7,35,817	2,78,067	2349	2,75,718	10,10,958
1830-31	12,15,092	29,462	11,85,630	2,55,160	2396	2,52,764	14,37,222
1831-32	11,33,488	42,973	10,90,515	2,41,565	5241	2,36,324	13,26,839
1832-33	7,45,272	27,614	7,17,658	2,50,046	60,981	1,89,065	9,06,044
1833-34	15,59,867	32,540	15,27,327	2,51,782	7879	2,43,902	17,79,548
1834-35	13,19,279	30,951	12,88,328	2,69,400	2784	2,66,616	15,54,000
1835-36	13,85,843	13,778	13,72,065	2,66,371	2407	2,63,964	16,35,219
1836-37	12,08,936	12,362	11,96,574	2,67,002	935	2,66,067	14,60,404
1837-38	14,51,694	5927	14,45,767	1,34,249	724	1,33,525	15,77,958
1838-39	10,72,225	2278	10,69,947	1,42,281	182	1,41,729	12,10,610
1839-40	14,46,142	1797	14,44,345	2,52,819	48	1,51,923	15,96,652
1840-41	15,68,265	2345	15,65,920	1,61,522	8	1,61,036	17,26,185
1841-42	14,85,829	12	14,85,817	1,72,374	1	1,71,471	16,49,517
1842-43	16,46,488	...	16,43,471	1,84,263	...	1,82,207	18,25,678

As regards the number, extent, and character of the holdings 54,666 cultivators held direct from Government. Of 54,240 of these, 34,557 held dry land paying an assessment of under £5 (Rs. 50); 4021 held dry land paying an assessment of £5 to £10 (Rs. 50 - Rs. 100); 624 held dry land paying an assessment of £10 to £20 (Rs. 100 - Rs. 200); and 38 held dry land assessed at above £20 (Rs. 200); and 15,000 held both garden and dry lands; of the revenue realized £59,944 (Rs. 5,99,440) was derived from land cultivated with millet or *hájri*; £42,711 (Rs. 4,27,110) from land producing Indian millet or *juári*; £20,763 (Rs. 2,07,630) from wheat cultivation; £8550 (Rs. 85,590) from land cultivated with gram; £7512 (Rs. 75,120) from sugarcane tillage and vegetables; £4215 (Rs. 42,150) from rice; and £9579 (Rs. 95,790) from pulses and oil plants.¹

¹ In the north of the district that is in the present collectorate of Násik in 1842-43 the Collector complained that the introduction of the survey, probably from the spread of tillage causing increased production, had reduced the price of grain, which, during the five years ending 1842-43, had fallen about twenty per cent.²

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1564 of 1844, 27-23.

² The details are: *Ahmadnagar Produce Rupee Prices, 1810-1843.*

YEAR.	Páyis of Four Shers.								Shers.
	Bájri.	Tur.	Mug.	Til.	Judri.	Wheat.	Gram	Kar-dai.	
1810-1822	5 7/8	5 1/2	4 1/2	3	6 1/2	4 1/2	4 1/2	7 1/2	9 1/2
1822-1834	8 1/4	7 1/2	6 1/2	4 1/2	9 1/2	6 1/2	6 1/2	10 1/2	10 1/2
1834-1838	9 1/2	4 1/2	6 1/2	3 1/2	11 1/2	7 1/2	8	9 1/2	12 1/2
1838-39	8 1/2	5 1/2	6	...	11 1/2	7 1/2	7 1/2	...	11 1/2
1839-40	7 1/2	4 1/2	5 1/2	4 1/2	11 1/2	5 1/2	4 1/2	11 1/2	9 1/2
1840-41	10 1/2	5	6 1/2	6	13 1/2	6 1/2	5 1/2	15 1/2	8 1/2
1841-42	11	6 1/2	7 1/2	6 1/2	14 1/2	7 1/2	6 1/2	16 1/2	5 1/2
1842-43	10 1/2	6 1/2	6 1/2	6	14 1/2	6 1/2	7 1/2	14 1/2	11 1/2

These seasons of favourable or at worst of fair harvests were followed by three years of scanty rainfall and distress amounting almost to famine.

In 1843 the rains were so unfavourable that arable land yielding a revenue of £11965 (Rs. 1,19,650) was not brought under the plough. In addition to this, chiefly in the principal division of the collectorate, so large a proportion both of the early and of the late crops was destroyed that remissions amounting in the whole district to £34,918 (Rs. 3,49,180) or 21 per cent of the revenue had to be granted. In the Násik sub-collectorate the season was better, but remissions had to be granted on account of the ravages of locusts.¹

The season of 1844 was most unfortunate; it was more unfavourable even than 1843. In the beginning of the rains the fall was so scanty that much of the early or *kharif* crop area remained unsown, and of what was sown little came to maturity. In many places the late or *rabi* crop was also a complete failure. This and a terrible epidemic, apparently of cholera though the disease is not stated, drove many of the people from their villages. In six sub-divisions remissions amounting to £40,684 (Rs. 4,06,840) were granted; in Karda £11,301 (Rs. 1,13,010), in Korti £8561 (Rs. 85,610), in Pátoda £6897 (Rs. 68,970), in Nevása £6624 (Rs. 66,240), in Ráhuri £5278 (Rs. 52,780), and in Sangamner £2023 (Rs. 20,230). The total remissions amounted to £49,682 (Rs. 4,96,820).² The grant of abundant remissions was the only chance of keeping the people from leaving their homes, even from starvation. The distress was sharpest in Karda, Korti, and Jámkhed where pasturage was so scarce that to save their cattle the people had to leave their homes. In 152 of the 305 villages of these three sub-divisions the people paid only one-fourth of their rental.³ Mr. Young the assistant in charge of Karda, Korti, and Jámkhed, describes the failure of crops as almost unprecedented. In Jámkhed there was rain enough to allow the early crops to be sown in proper time but in Karda and Korti the early crops were not sown till the end of July. As no rain fell in August, the young crops were almost everywhere totally destroyed and pasture became so scarce that most of the cattle were driven out of the district. In the middle of September a pretty general fall enabled the late or *rabi* crops to be sown. But as no more rain fell much of the seed never sprouted and what did spring up was burnt. The failure of the late harvest was complete. So widespread and so complete was the failure that half of the villages, 152 in 305, did not pay one

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1843-44.

1844-45.

¹ The Collector, 12th December 1844, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 9 of 1845, 51-52, 54-56.

² The remissions in the sub-collectorate of Násik, compared with those of the principal district, were small, amounting to only £1737 (Rs. 17,370). These remissions were chiefly given in the Násik and Sinnar sub-divisions in consequence of considerable losses from the destruction of the late crops by insects. In Sinnar large remissions were granted as with few exceptions the late crops completely failed and the early harvest was at best only middling. The revenues of the sub-collectorate were realized without difficulty. In the three surveyed sub-divisions, Násik Chándor and Dindori, there were no outstandings and the increase of cultivation amounted to no less than 55,290 aerea. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 11 of 1847, 68-71, 74, 76.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 11 of 1847, 69-70, 77-78.

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quarter of their rental.¹ Many villages were reduced to a deplorable state. The people left the country taking with them whatever they could remove. The absence of any nourishment for man or beast, their closed gates and tenantless huts, their unfrequented and failing wells, and the parched and waste fields gave large tracts the appearance of worthless and unproductive deserts. The absence of so large a proportion of the people had the advantage of relieving those who were able to remain from any excessive rise in the price of grain. This was helped by the recent improved communications and better commercial and social intercourse with surrounding districts.² In the whole district the net land revenue after deducting remissions amounted to £100,943 (Rs. 10,09,430) showing a fall of £25,326 (Rs. 2,53,260) compared with 1843-44. Of the whole amount all but £804 (Rs. 8040) were collected before the close of July 1845.

1845-46.

Bad as 1844 was, 1845 seems to have been worse. Over the whole of the principal division of the district there was a complete failure of the late or *rabi* crops. Had it not been for the very high price of grain, and that the early or *khari* harvest in many places was fair, almost no revenue could have been collected. As it was remissions varied from 66·45 per cent in Ráhuri to 13·35 per cent in Akola and averaged 43·16 per cent.³ The state of the people of the eastern sub-

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 11 of 1847, 143-145. The details are :

Karda-Korti-Jámkhed Revenue, 1844-45.

PROPORTIONAL PAYMENTS.	KARDA.			KORTI.			JA'MKHEB.		
	Villages.	Collections.	Remissions.	Villages.	Collections.	Remissions.	Villages.	Collections.	Remissions.
		Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
Nothing ...	4	...	1697	1	...	905
Less than 1/4th ...	28	2698	24,310	31	2581	31,517
From 1/4th - 1/2th ...	53	19,132	55,162	35	5849	22,051
" 1/2th - 3/4th ...	26	10,982	17,164	22	9834	19,078
" 3/4th - 1th ...	16	10,039	9174	12	8497	8905	3	2123	1904
" 1th - 1 1/4th ...	3	2490	1306	4	4643	2947
" 1 1/4th - 1 1/2th ...	6	4255	1816	7	3932	2715	21	15,999	5699
" 1 1/2th - 1 3/4th ...	6	3795	607	22	23,261	3992
" 1 3/4th - 1th ...	3	884	42	3	1536	65
Total ...	144	54,275	1,11,273	108	30,643	85,171	53	47,562	14,867

² Mr. Young, First Assistant Collector, 6th November 1845, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 11 of 1847, 146-147.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 10 of 1848, 20, 67. The details are :

Ahmadnagar Remissions, 1845-46.

PRINCIPAL DIVISION.				SUB-COLLECTORATE.	
Sub-Division.	Remissions.	Sub-Division.	Remissions.	Sub-Division.	Remissions.
	Per Cent.		Per Cent.		Per Cent.
Nagar ...	41·69	Pátoda ...	46·23	Násik ...	1·25
Akola ...	13·35	Sangamner ...	32·23	Cháandor ...	0·57
Jámkhed ...	31·42	Ráhuri ...	66·45	Sfanar ...	3·53
Karda ...	36·12	Shevgaon ...	31·18	Dindori ...	0·92
Korti ...	61·15	Average ...	43·16	Kávnai ...	1·97
Nevása ...	52·18	Grazing ...	37·43	Average ...	1·69

divisions, Korti, Jámkhed, Shevgaon, Ráhuri, and Pátoda was lamentable. Their late harvest was a complete failure, their wells were dry; there was no fodder; and an epidemic apparently of cholera started from Paithan and spread death over the district. In February many of the people finding their late harvest a complete failure left their villages to seek a living elsewhere. Some went into the Nizám's territory with their carts and cattle, and others settled at the villages on the banks of the Nira and Pravara, tilling small patches in the beds of the rivers. To their other miseries was added an outbreak of cattle disease which was supposed to have been caused by the cattle feeding on the blighted remains of crops which had been withered before reaching maturity. The cattle plague was particularly deadly in Korti, Nevása, and Ráhuri. According to Mr. Young, the First Assistant, the villages in the valleys of the Bhima and Sina were as bad as they possibly could be, the late crop was a total failure, and except in a few villages the early harvest was nearly as bad. In Nevása and Ráhuri the distress was little less severe. Since the famine of 1824 Mr. Langford, the Collector, remembered no season of such widespread suffering. In many places where the early crops did not completely fail, the straw was filled with insects which poisoned the cattle which fed on them. In the twenty miles between Singva and Nevása as early as January there was not a single field of grain which was not withered. Even the moneylenders and shopkeepers were driven from the villages, as many villages had no water and almost no people. The attempt was made by offering advances to induce the people to stay, and repair and deepen their wells. These offers were mostly rejected as the people's chief care was to save their cattle by taking them to places where they would find forage. In Ráhuri both the early and the late crops failed; only ten out of eighty villages gave a tolerable return. In Karda¹ which was hilly and had a less uncertain rainfall, the loss was less than in Ráhuri; in many places the early crops were fair and the late harvest was not a complete failure. In Nagar the late crops to which the people chiefly trusted were, except in a few places, a nearly complete failure, and the little water in the wells made garden cultivation impossible. In Shevgaon, which contained 176 villages 77½ Government and 98½ alienated,² perhaps from the neighbourhood of hills, the early crops were generally better than elsewhere, and in some few places even the late harvest yielded a scanty return. Shevgaon was less distressed than most parts of the district. No sub-division in Ahmadnagar had more improved under British rule; the land was good and the assessment was moderate. In 1846 the tillage area had increased by 4784 *bighás*.³ In Pátoda where Captain Davidson was carrying on his survey, compared with the previous year the revenue showed a fall of about £5700 (Rs. 57,000). Few parts of the district had suffered more from the drought than Pátoda. In Sangamner the losses

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¹ Karda was a very large sub-division containing 213 villages. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 10 of 1848, 74-75.

² Of these 80½ were held by Sindia. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 10 of 1848, 78.

³ Mr. Langford, 13th Oct. 1846, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 10 of 1848, 81.

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were comparatively small owing to the neighbourhood of the hills and because the early crops were its chief harvest. In Akola, because of its hills, good rainfall, and early crops, the losses were less than in any other sub-division, the remissions being little over one-eighth of the rental. Akola with its warliko Kolis, who were just beginning to settle and give up their bad courses, was very unlike the rest of the district. Of its 175 villages only fifty were in the plains and 125 were *dáng* or *dongar* that is hill villages. The assessment of the plain or *desh* villages had been revised in 1845 by Lieutenant Day of the revenue survey. The new rates were throughout moderate, and the crops were better than elsewhere. The rental was easily levied and the outstandings were small. In the 125 hill or *dáng* villages three modes of assessment were all light and gave rise to no complaint. The chief of them was the plough rate or *autbandi*, which much resembled the plough tax of the neighbouring Konkan sub-division of Kolvan in Thána. It was a fixed sum varying from 8s. to £1 10s. (Rs. 4-15) on the pair of bullocks according to the capability of the land which varied in area from thirty to fifty *bighás*. This was chiefly sown with the smaller grains, and here and there where the means of watering allowed, small patches of rice ground were tilled. When from their steepness hill or *dáng* lands could not be ploughed, they were brought under tillage by the pickaxe and the holders paid a poll tax of about 1s. (8 *as.*) a head or 2s. (Re. 1) on each family. In addition to these a third system went by the name of *nakta chál* or cash rate. Under it holdings were assessed at a fixed yearly sum varying from 10s. to £2 (Rs. 5-20). For this amount the holders were allowed to till certain fixed tracts of outlying land. The mass of the hill cultivators were Kolis. During 1845, owing to the great activity and success of Captain Simpson the Bhil Agent and Commandant of the police corps, the Kolis were particularly quiet, and since Rághoji Bhángria's rising or *band* had been crushed and many of the leading men punished, few sub-divisions were freer from crime than Akola. In four of the five sub-divisions included in the Násik sub-collectorate a better rainfall and moderate assessment made much smaller remissions necessary than in Ahmadnagar. The only Násik sub-division in which large remissions were given was Sinnar. In the distressed parts of Ahmadnagar the people made much less use than was expected of the offer of advances to sink or repair wells. Most of them left the district in search of fodder for their cattle. Many were employed by the Collector of Poona in making roads and some useful local relief was given by opening a pass near Sinnar. Towards the close of the season some two hundred destitute persons were employed in the town of Nagar in clearing milk-bush (*Euphorbia tirucalli*) which had overgrown parts of the town and harboured disease.¹

During 1845-46 Captain Davidson had completed the survey of

¹ Mr. Langford, 13th Oct. 1846, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 10 of 1848, 99-100.

Pátoda and nearly completed the survey of the plain part of Akola. The measuring of Sangamner and of Ráhuri except the deserted villages was finished, and the boundaries of about half the villages in Karda and Nagar had been laid down.¹ The Collector complained bitterly of the want of European assistance. Unless four assistants were sanctioned three for the districts and one for the town he despaired of improving the management of the district.²

1846 on the whole was a favourable season. Still a considerable area suffered from drought and between Sangamner and Kolhár the early crops in many villages were destroyed. Remissions fell from £49,963 to £21,543 (Rs. 4,99,630 - Rs. 2,15,430) and the revenue for collection rose from £106,966 to £145,620 (Rs. 10,69,660 - Rs. 14,56,200).³ In this year the survey settlement was introduced in Pátoda, the new rates showing a decline of 28 per cent on the old rates.⁴

1847 was a better season than had been known for several years. The rainfall was irregular being at times excessive and at other times insufficient but on the whole the season was exceedingly propitious and the harvest abundant. Compared with the previous year, remissions showed a fall from £21,543 (Rs. 2,15,430) or 12·89 per cent to £6616 (Rs. 66,160) or 3·85 per cent and the revenue for collection, a rise from £145,620 to £165,256 (Rs. 14,56,200 -

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¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 10 of 1848, 89.

² Mr. Langford, 13th Oct. 1846, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 10 of 1848, 93-95.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 13 of 1849, 48, 58, 66. The details are :

Ahmadnagar Remissions, 1846-47.

PRINCIPAL DIVISION.				SUB-COLLECTORATE.	
Sub-Division.	Remissions.	Sub-Division.	Remissions.	Sub-Division.	Remissions.
	PerCent		PerCent		PerCent
Nagar	14·13	Nevása	16·42	Násik	0·94
Akola	11·84	Pátoda	6·12	Chándor	0·19
Jámkhed... ..	14·34	Sangamner	32·90	Sinnar	0·31
Karda	9·89	Ráhuri	42·35	Dindori	0·85
Korti	25·94	Shevgaon	5·04	Kávnai	1·81

⁴ The following statement shows the Pátoda revenue during the ten years ending 1846-47 :

Pátoda Revenue, 1837-1847.

YEAR.	Revenue.	Remissions.	Collections.	YEAR.	Revenue.	Remissions.	Collections.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1837-38...	1,71,180	16,790	1,54,390	1842-43..	1,75,301	8901	1,66,400
1838-39...	1,70,760	1,00,587	70,182	1843-44..	1,71,559	55,337	1,16,222
1839-40...	1,79,598	36,400	1,43,198	1844-45..	1,42,222	68,974	73,248
1840-41..	1,84,155	85,485	1,48,670	1845-46...	1,29,967	60,091	69,876
1841-42...	1,86,186	58,431	1,27,754	1846-47...	1,12,350	6916	1,05,934

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 13 of 1849, 75-76. Details of survey settlements introduced between 1840 and 1847 in Kávnai, Chándor, Dindori, Sinnar, Násik, and Pátoda have been given in the Násik Statistical Account. Details of the remaining nine sub-divisions which were settled between 1848 and 1853 are given below.

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Rs. 16,52,560).¹ Tillage showed an increase of 62,565 acres, 32,118 of them in the principal division and 30,447 in the sub-collectorate. During this season the highest proportion of remissions (9·76 per cent) was granted in Akola. The reduced survey rates were not yet in force and in those outlying parts the abundant harvest had been followed by so serious a fall in the value of grain that in some places it was almost unsaleable at any price.² Though to a less extent than in Akola, in other parts of the principal division of the district the abundant harvest by making grain ruinously cheap caused much loss to the husbandmen. All the people were husbandmen, and all the husbandmen grew coarse bulky grain. The local markets were glutted and there was no outside demand. Collectors had tried to lessen the production of grain by persuading the people to grow cotton, sugarcane, or mulberry trees; or to turn their attention to stock and improve the breed of sheep cattle and horses. These attempts had met with no success. The district was far from markets; the only hope was in improved communications, roads, and railways.³ Great reductions had of late been granted in the Government share of the produce of the land; and further sacrifices were being made in almost all places where the new survey rates were being introduced. It was doubtful under the existing law and court practice in the matter of debtor and creditor, whether the landholders would benefit by the remissions. It was a matter of dispute whether the village Váni or professional moneylender was a blessing or a curse to the people. Mr. Spooner the Collector was satisfied that the present system and the practice of the civil courts left the moneylender too many opportunities for enveloping the needy landholder in a web of fictitious indebtedness and too much power in enforcing his nominal claims even to the extent of ruining his debtor. The Váni lends the landholder a small sum of money at a high rate of interest and the borrower passes a bond for the amount. The borrower cannot pay the interest, and interest and capital joined form the subject of a fresh bond. By this process the original small sum rapidly swells until the borrower is in the lender's hands. A suit is filed, a decree passed, and the debtor's property is sold. Care is taken that part of the claim remains outstanding, and that like the original sum the balance should rapidly grow to a large amount. If the season

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 13 of 1850, 54, 70, 79. The details are :

Ahmadnagar Remissions, 1847-48.

PRINCIPAL DIVISION.				Sub-COLLECTORATE.	
Sub-Division.	Remissions.	Sub-Division.	Remissions.	Sub-Division.	Remissions.
	PerCent		PerCent		PerCent
Nagar	4·71	Nevása	6·42	Násik	1·02
Akola	9·76	Pátoda	0·77	Chándor	0·68
Jámkhed... ..	3·41	Sangamner	4·97	Sinnar	0·23
Karda	5·32	Ráhuri	9·31	Dindori	0·77
Korti	3·04	Shevgaon	2·40	Kávnai	2·22

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 13 of 1850, 120, 206.

³ Mr. Richard Spooner, 11th Nov. 1848, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 13 of 1850, 91-93.

is good and the landholder has put something by and increased his farm stock, a fresh action is filed and a fresh decree granted. The landholder's property is sold, his bullocks are gone, and he has to throw up his land. To remedy these abuses Mr. Spooner proposed that no court should be allowed to issue a decree in a lender's favour without inquiring into the debt and into the borrower's means of paying the debt. All decrees should provide for the payment of such amount as the court thought fit by easy instalments. In no case should a debtor's bullocks or other means of earning a living be liable to sale for debt.¹

The following statement shows the tillage, land revenue collections, and remissions during the thirty years ending 1850-51 for the sub-divisions of Nevása, Kharda, Ahmadnagar, Korti, Shevgaon, and Jámkhed²:

Ahmadnagar Land Revenue, 1821-1851.

YEAR.	Villages.	Land given for Cultivation.	Assessment.		Tillage.		Assessment.		Remissions.	Collections.
			Rs.	Bighás.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
1821-22	584	1,033,620	6,86,318	1,033,620	920,378	6,86,318	10,878	6,75,440		
1822-23	579	951,096	6,65,376	849,052	766,911	6,99,567	80,748	5,48,819		
1823-24	582	735,614	5,26,485	688,083	625,622	4,92,667	57,843	4,34,764		
1824-25	586	788,838	5,58,318	759,494	675,714	5,44,164	2,86,302	2,57,862		
1825-26	587	766,029	5,57,821	786,043	686,621	5,39,787	42,812	4,97,113		
1826-27	588	759,847	5,72,085	746,855	661,987	5,64,062	82,130	5,31,794		
1827-28	583	709,146	5,34,381	671,954	593,360	5,10,347	1,51,967	3,58,880		
1828-29	603	696,111	5,15,909	669,331	597,199	4,96,296	95,698	4,00,598		
1829-30	600	682,096	4,87,180	599,057	539,678	4,32,114	1,63,860	2,68,254		
1830-31	606	669,987	4,78,458	671,083	615,137	4,57,420	58,085	3,99,335		
1831-32	605	693,525	4,95,207	676,601	606,331	4,83,603	68,765	4,14,838		
1832-33	604	668,123	4,98,864	597,911	543,343	4,41,229	2,41,735	1,99,504		
1833-34	607	790,844	6,09,014	705,250	637,169	5,45,522	45,771	4,99,751		
1834-35	606	707,604	5,07,346	681,153	614,548	4,39,354	82,436	4,06,918		
1835-36	608	768,221	5,15,124	736,722	653,993	4,94,007	1,12,463	3,81,544		
1836-37	609	876,979	5,27,337	830,194	733,582	4,99,455	1,02,947	3,96,508		
1837-38	609	994,479	5,62,316	916,050	804,317	5,25,578	70,428	4,65,150		
1838-39	614	1,048,900	6,04,610	985,386	869,020	5,70,732	1,16,615	4,54,117		
1839-40	614	1,076,444	6,68,758	1,011,235	892,142	6,31,816	1,30,031	5,01,785		
1840-41	614	1,068,812	7,08,012	1,046,502	923,244	6,95,638	1,34,143	5,62,495		
1841-42	614	1,056,970	7,30,072	1,035,977	908,262	7,16,661	1,68,680	5,48,031		
1842-43	614	1,022,267	7,11,998	1,019,923	894,937	7,10,445	77,836	6,31,609		
1843-44	614	909,918	6,26,487	969,124	816,738	6,25,635	1,94,095	4,22,330		
1844-45	614	930,016	6,37,579	930,000	871,150	6,42,568	3,27,874	3,14,694		
1845-46	616	997,275	6,85,946	997,160	833,431	6,85,865	3,17,664	3,68,201		
1846-47	616	1,091,967	7,47,781	1,086,148	974,697	7,45,374	1,22,378	6,22,996		
1847-48	616	1,069,911	7,37,981	1,065,987	964,773	7,35,319	38,814	6,97,005		
1848-49	617	978,508	6,76,418	863,777	783,815	6,00,447	1,55,088	4,45,359		
1849-50	617	836,064	5,35,396	717,983	652,676	5,14,413	1,25,028	3,89,385		
1850-51	619	851,675	6,02,635	733,697	695,498	5,64,684	85,260	4,79,424		

In 1848 Mr. Tytler's Násik hill or *dáng* survey was extended to the Akola *dángs* or hill lands in Ahmadnagar.³ The Akola hill survey group formed the most western portion of the district. It had little level land and was composed of mountains, hills, ravines, and stream beds. Within its limits were the two highest mountains in the Deccan, Kalsubái and Harishchandragad. The soil was poor,

HILL SURVEY.

Akola,
1848.

¹ Mr. Spooner, Collector, 11th Nov. 1848, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 13 of 1850, 121-124

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII.

³ Mr. Tytler, 7 of 10th January 1848 and 108 of 22nd August 1848; Gov. Letters 2065 of 8th April 1848 and 6043 of 6th October 1848; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 212 of 1848 and 207 of 1849; Gov. Letter 419 of 23rd January 1849.

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the rain plentiful, and the torrents numerous and fierce so that to prevent the soil being washed away dry-crop land was often banked like rice land. The chief products were rice, *khurásni*, *náglí*, and *bájrí*. Only rice and *khurásni* were exported, rice to the inner Deccan and *khurásni* to the coast for oil. The people, except the *kulkarnis* or village accountants, were poor. The average pressure was fifty-five people to the square mile and the proportion of husbandmen five to one. There were only two weekly markets. The exports were rice, *khurásni*, clarified butter, and a few cattle. The imports were common cotton stuffs, sugar, salt, and the most ordinary necessaries of life. Four weavers made turbans and a few shepherds made blankets. Interest was high, because the borrowers were poor and the risks of the lender great. Owing to the absence of roads, the stagnation of trade and manufactures, there was nothing to relieve the pressure of the people on the single and insufficient resource the soil. The advantages enjoyed by the hill people were never-failing rain, abundance of grass, and wood. The disadvantages were bad climate, the specially hard labour entailed by rice cultivation, and the necessity of clearing new dry-crop or *jiráyat* land every three or four years. Fires were frequent, and the people had no village walls or other means of protection against robbers other than the payment of blackmail. Of a total of 25,536 people, Kolis numbered about 12,250, Kunbis 5545, Vanjáis 621, Thákurs 1160, Kánadás 442, and other castes 5518. The Kolis were careless thoughtless and improvident. They were generally in debt and of plundering habits. Whenever the hill passes were disturbed by gang robbers, the Akola hills supplied a full share of the men and gave the gangs strong and choice retreats against the police. Rághoji Bhángria (1845), and his equally notorious father Rámji Bhángria, both belonged to the Akola hills. The Kunbis were quieter and harder working. The Thákurs and Kánadás were remarkably well behaved and were rarely seen in courts either as witnesses, prisoners, or defaulters. The Thákurs though poor were rarely in debt; the Kánadás, a shepherd tribe, were as seldom in debt and were generally in easy circumstances.

In no part of Ahmadnagar did the land rates stand in more need of revision than in the Akola hills. In 1829-30 Captain Robertson had tried to bring matters into form, but stopped till a regular survey should be introduced. Since his time the question had passed unnoticed. Including four alienated villages the Akola hills contained 116 villages yielding a yearly gross revenue of about £3490 (Rs. 34,900). In the 112 Government villages four different systems of assessment obtained (1848), the *bigha* rate or *bighávní* in forty villages, the plough rate or *autbandi* in thirty-five, the cash rate or *nakta chál* in thirty-seven, and the wood-ash or *dali* rate found in different forms in all the villages. The *bighávní* system professed to divide the land into fields of so many *bighás* each. There was a field register or number *kharda*; but no field measurement of any kind, and no classification according to the capabilities of the soil. The *bigha* was of every size from half an acre to two, three, or four acres. In the forty *bighávní* villages twenty-five rates were in force.

Each village had usually three to six rates. The *kulkarnis* also realized direct from the landholders of these *bighávní* villages six *páylis* of grain and 1s. (8 as.) each on every thirty *bighás*. The plough or *autbandi* system was a tax on ploughs, of which there were four kinds: two-bullock, four-bullock, six-bullock, and eight-bullock. The rates were forty-three in number. Each village commonly had three or four different rates, which were also liable to be halved and quartered. These numerous rates were often changed; the loss or the purchase of a bullock or two, the increase or the decrease of the area held for tillage, any addition to a man's family or establishment, and other causes, would add or take away one-fourth, one-half, or a whole plough, as the case might be or as the *kulkarni* pleased. A yearly assessment took place in these plough villages. The *kulkarni* was sole assessor and the *pátíl* nominally supplied the information. The influences which combined to form the result seemed endless, but there was little uniformity of procedure. The *kulkarnis* gave different accounts of their modes of assessment. Some *kulkarnis* said they took the area of land into consideration, others said a consideration of the area formed no part of the system. In the majority of cases the *kulkarnis* were also *deshpándes*. This plough tax admitted of no test; neither the *mámlatdár* nor any other head officer ever attempted to test it. One *deshpánde* who was also a *kulkarni* told Mr. Tytler that a test was sometimes taken. When asked to describe it he said, 'When I think there is fraud in the matter of any plough, I sleep over-night at a neighbouring village, and surprise the house at dawn, and count the family and bullocks.' Besides the rates on ploughs already specified, each *kulkarni* realized directly three *páylis* of grain and four *annas* cash on every two-bullock plough; six *páylis* and eight *annas* on every four-bullock plough; and twelve *páylis* and one rupee on every eight-bullock plough. Twenty, fifteen, twelve, and ten *bighás* were said to go to a plough; but the land was never measured, and from first to last nothing was certain in this system, except the supremacy of the *kulkarnis*. The third system was called the cash or *nakta chál*. A round sum was fixed on the head of each landholder by the *kulkarni* and *pátíl*; but the *pátíl* took a very secondary place in all these arrangements. The landholder's powers of paying, the number of his bullocks, partners, and family, were said to be the influences which combined to fix the sum charged. But in this as in the plough system the assessors gave most various accounts of their modes of assessment. Some said the land was taken into consideration, others that it was not. The round sum was changed from year to year. On the loss of a son, of a partner, or of a bullock, it fell; when a man's cultivation increased, or his condition improved, it rose. The boundaries of the holdings were unfixed, and neither rates nor records existed, except the landholder's name and the round sum he yearly paid. The system admitted of no test, and no test had ever been attempted. In these cash or *nakta chál* villages the *kulkarnis* levied direct from the landholder half an *anna* in cash and one *sher* of grain on every rupee

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of assessment. The fourth system was the wood-ash or *dali* assessment. Twelve rates were in force for wood-ash, and there were often two, three, or four rates in one village. The *kulkarni* fixed the rates chiefly on a consideration of the landholder's means and powers. A single man paid 8 *annas*, a married man a rupee, and so on; but there was no uniform rule of procedure. The *kulkarnis* levied $1\frac{1}{2}$ *páyis* of grain and two *annas* in cash on each wood-ash holding. Irregularity and uncertainty pervaded all four systems, and the whole tendency of the second, third, and fourth was to tax and check instead of fostering industry and labour. The rates were perhaps not heavy, yet, except the *kulkarnis*, none of the people seemed in easy circumstances.

Mr. Tytler's settlement (1848) of the Akola hills consisted in a minute survey, classification, and assessment field by field of all the better soils whether rice, garden, or dry-crop. Poor and hilly lands which did not admit of measurement were leased in a lump to the people of each village, each individual having his own holding and dues defined by the settling officer and recorded in a separate lease which was signed and given when the rates were fixed. This leasing was confined to lands where field measurements were impracticable or uncalled-for. The field by field survey was conducted on the same principles as the plain survey under Captain Davidson. The size of the rice fields averaged twelve *gunthás* and the dry-crop fields eight acres. Mr. Tytler divided the 110 villages into three groups. The first group contained forty-four villages having, as far as possible, the whole of the arable land measured and classified. The second group contained thirty-three villages in which the rice lands alone were measured and classified. The third group contained thirty-three villages in which the rice lands were, as far as possible, measured into fields but not classified. The rates proposed were of four kinds; *ukti* or round sums imposed on each village on lands incapable of measurement; rice land rates; dry-crop or *jiráyat* rates suited for lands capable of being measured; and garden rates. The *ukti* or lump sums were imposed on dry-crop lands incapable of being measured. The term of the lease was limited to five years. The rice lands were divided into eight classes. The highest acre rate was fixed at 5s. (Rs. 2½) and the lowest at 1s. 6d. (12 *as.*). The dry-crop or *jiráyat* rates were divided into nine classes. They varied from 2s. 3d. to 6d. (Rs. 1½ - ¼) the acre. They were applicable only to lands capable of being measured, and occurred only in the first group of villages. The area of garden land was small, only 216 acres. Channel-watered garden land was divided into twelve classes and well-watered garden land was divided into five classes. For the channel-watered land the highest acre rate was fixed at 15s. (Rs. 7½) and the lowest at 5s. (Rs. 2½). For the well-watered land the highest acre rate was fixed at 7s. (Rs. 3½) and the lowest at 3s. (Rs. 1½). The average acre rate on channel-watered land amounted to 5s. 4½d. (Rs. 2 *as.* 11½) and on well-watered land to 4s. 11½d. (Rs. 2 *as.* 7½). The average collections of the preceding twenty-nine years were £2230 (Rs. 22,300), and the new total rental amounted to £2748 (Rs. 27,480). The probable collections

for 1848-49 at the new rates were estimated at £2386 (Rs. 23,860). The proposed rates were sanctioned by Government in January 1849.

At the time of the first survey settlement (1840) the Ahmadnagar district consisted of fifteen sub-divisions. Almost the entire lands of six of these belong to the present Násik district.¹ Their settlement details have therefore been given in the Násik Statistical Account. The remaining nine sub-divisions were surveyed and settled between 1848 and 1853.² The details are :

Ahmadnagar Survey Settlement, 1848-1853.

SUB-DIVISION.	FORMER.				SURVEY.			
	Year.	Collections.	Year.	Collections.	Year.	Collections.	Year.	Collections.
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Akola ...	1818-1848	50,000	1846-47.	57,993	1848-49.	40,000	1849-50.	42,000
Sangamner ...	1818-1848	54,000	1846-47.	56,131	1848-49.	35,000	1849-50.	44,000
Ráhuri ...	1818-1849	59,952	1848-49.	52,888	1849-50.	41,465	1850-51.	55,000
Nevása ...	1818-1851	1,01,523	1850-51.	1,15,111	1851-52.	69,067	1852-53.	98,501
Karda ...	1818-1851	1,21,648	1850-51.	1,02,014	1851-52.	78,833	1852-53.	1,03,704
Nagar ...	1818-1851	80,260	1850-51.	81,397	1851-52.	52,329	1852-53.	67,393
Korti ...	1818-1852	69,267	1851-52.	78,399	1852-53.	55,161	1853-54	70,000
Shevgaon ...	1818-1852	42,354	1851-52.	45,013	1852-53.	32,898	1853-54	40,000
Jánkhed ...	1818-1852	55,504	1851-52.	54,017	1852-53.	36,082	1853-54.	45,000
Total	6,34,503	...	6,42,963	...	4,35,833	...	5,65,598

The survey settlement was introduced in the plain or *desh* portion of Akola and in Sangamner in 1848. These tracts lay in the valley of the Právára and formed the most western portion of the principal division of the Ahmadnagar district. Akola was the more western of the two and its plain or *desh* part, with a large portion of Sangamner, lay between two of the east-stretching spurs of the great Sahyádrí range. These two sub-divisions were bounded on the north by Sinnar, on the east by Ráhuri, on the south by Junnar in Poona, and on the west by Sháhápúr in Thána and by Kávnai or Igatpuri in Násik. Although the plain or *desh* of Akola bordered on Sangamner, there was a marked difference in climate. The neighbourhood of the Sahyádrí hills ensured Akola against drought, while Sangamner suffered severely from the want of rain.³ In dryness as well as in the general character of its soil Sangamner closely resembled that part of Sinnar which formed its northern boundary. The chief products of both Akola and Sangamner were millets, wheat and gram, and the proportion of the early to the late crop was about two to one in Akola and three to two in Sangamner.

The fluctuation in the cultivation and collections of Akola was considerable, but the average collections approached nearer to the old total or *kamál* than in Chándor, Dindori, Sinnar, Násik, or Pátoda. The average demand had been more than 2s. (Re. 1) the acre. In both Akola and Sangamner there was a gradual reduction of the acre rate till about 1836-37 after which there was a slight

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¹ Kávnai, Chándor, Dindori, Sinnar, Násik, and Pátoda.

² Of these Karda and Korti represent the present Fárner Shrigonda and Karjat, while Pátoda included, besides Yeola and part of Nándgaon, the present Kopargaon of the Ahmadnagar district.

³ Captain Davidson, 33 of 26th Nov. 1847.

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increase. The past system was so irregular that it was difficult to trace the cause of the changes. The rates of villages in both the sub-divisions were from time to time lowered as the excess of the original assessment was forced on the attention of the local authorities. In Sangamner in 1836-37 the rates of forty-four villages were at once lowered, a measure which seems to have been immediately followed by increased cultivation.¹ In Akola the tillage area rose from 52,770 *bighás* in the ten years ending 1827-28 to 55,921 in the nine years ending 1846-47 and the collections from £5167 to £5364 (Rs. 51,670 - Rs. 53,640); in Sangamner the rise in tillage was from *bighás* 69,506 to 96,286 and in collections from £5596 to £6103 (Rs. 55,960 - Rs. 61,030). The details are²:

Akola-Sangamner Land Revenue, 1818-1847.

YEAR.	AKOLA.			SANGAMNER.		
	Villages.	Tillage.	Collec- tions.	Villages	Tillage.	Collec- tions.
1818-1828	56	<i>Bighás.</i> 52,770	Rs. 51,666	194	<i>Bighás.</i> 69,506	55,967
1828-1838	56	50,859	43,286	104	61,741	40,904
1838-1847	56	55,921	53,645	104	96,286	61,027
1818-1847	56	53,092	49,390	104	75,136	52,337

Survey operations were begun in 1845 and finished in 1847. As the surface was much cut by ravines, and as the soil varied in depth and quality in almost every field, Akola and Sangamner presented considerable difficulties to the measurer and classer: Of the fifty-six Akola villages twenty-eight were assessed at 4*s.* (Rs. 2) for the first class and 9*d.* (6 *as.*) for the lowest class; twenty-five at 3*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. 1½) for the first class and 7½*d.* (5½ *as.*) for the lowest class; and three at 3*s.* (Rs. 1½) for the first class and 6½*d.* (4½ *as.*) for the lowest class. For garden land the Chándor rates were introduced; channel-watered, twelve classes with 16*s.* (Rs. 8) for the first class and 6*s.* (Rs. 3) for the lowest class; and well-watered, five classes with 8*s.* (Rs. 4) for the first class and 4*s.* (Rs. 2) for the lowest class. Compared with the former total or *kamál* assessment on the entire arable land £8393 (Rs. 83,930) the total survey rental £5547 (Rs. 55,470) of the fifty-six Akola villages showed a reduction of 34 per cent. Compared with the collections £5799 (Rs. 57,990) of 1846-47, the survey rental on the tillage of the same year showed a reduction of £1135 (Rs. 11,350) or 19½ per cent. The relief afforded by the survey rates was considerable; since the landholders of Akola had until the survey settlement paid an average acre rate of 2*s.* ½*d.* (Rs. 1 a. ½) independent of grain levies to *haldárs*, whereas the average survey rate including *haks* was only 1*s.* 7½*d.* (12½ *as.*). Compared with the average of past collections £4939 (Rs. 49,390) and the average value of village officers' *haks* paid in grain £266 (Rs. 2660) or a total of £5205 (Rs. 52,050), the total survey rental on the entire arable land showed a prospective

¹ Captain Davidson, 33 of 26th November 1847 para. 17.² The Rev. Comr. 483 of 8th February 1848 para. 18.

increase, supposing all the arable land was cultivated, of 6½ per cent.

The land of Sangamner was classed according to the Pátoda scale. The dry-crop acre rates proposed were nine, suited to the nine classes of soil, 3s., 2s. 6½d., 2s. ¾d., 1s. 8½d., 1s. 3¼d., 1s. ¾d., 9d., 6½d., and 4½d. (Rs. 1½, Re. 1 as. 4¼, Re. 1 a. ½, 13½ as., 10½ as., 8¼ as., 6 as., 4½ as., and 3 as.). The garden land which was entirely well-watered was assessed at the Chándor or Akola rates, 8s. (Rs. 4) for the first class and 4s. (Rs. 2) for the lowest class, there being in all five classes. Compared with £17,169 (Rs. 1,71,690), the former *kamál* or highest assessment on the entire arable area, the total survey rental £7178 (Rs. 71,780) of the 104 Sangamner villages showed a reduction of 58 per cent. Compared with the collections £5613 (Rs. 56,130) of 1846-47, the survey rental £5016 (Rs. 50,160) on the tillage of the same year showed a reduction of 10½ per cent.¹ If the recorded cultivation was correct the survey rates effected a liberal reduction in the assessment. Before survey the landholders paid an average acre rate of 2s. 1½d. (Re. 1 as. 1½) exclusive of *haks* in kind due to village officers, while the average survey rate including those *haks* amounted to only 1s. ¾d. (8¼ as.). Compared with the average of past collections £5234 (Rs. 52,340) and the average value of *haks* as recorded in the Government accounts £436 (Rs. 4360) or a total of £5670 (Rs. 56,700), the total survey rental on the entire arable land showed a prospective increase, supposing all the arable land was cultivated, of 26 per cent. The following statement gives the details of the new settlement :

Akola-Sangamner Survey Settlement, 1848.

LAND.	AKOLA.				SANGAMNER.			
	Villages.	Area.	Assessment.	Average Acre Rate.	Villages.	Area.	Assessment.	Average Acre Rate.
		Acres.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.		Acres.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.
Dry-crop	67,739	51,648	0 12 2	...	135,604	65,274	0 7 8
Channel-watered...	...	536	1849	3 7 2
Well-watered	724	1976	2 11 8	...	2460	6509	2 10 4
Total ...	56	68,999	55,473	0 12 10	104	138,064	71,782	0 8 3

The survey settlement was introduced into Ráhuri in 1849-50. Ráhuri was bounded on the north by Pátoda, on the east by Nevása, on the south by Karda and Nagar separated by an eastern spur from the Sahyádrí range, and on the west by Sangamner and Sinnar. Ráhuri had an estimated area of 331,632 acres or 518 square miles, and 125 villages, 101 of them Government and ten wholly and fourteen partly alienated.²

Ráhuri,
1849-50.

¹ 1846-47 was a year of failure and heavy remissions, nearly 36 per cent.

² In the Peshwás' time the *tarafs* of Ráhuri and Belápur belonged to the *pargana* of Sangamner. The *taraf* of Bárágaon Nándur was formerly held in service grant or *saranjám* but about 1800 it came under the direct management of government. On the acquisition of the country by the British in 1818, a separate sub-division was formed and a *mámlatdár* was stationed at the market town of Ráhuri. This arrangement was upset in 1824-25, the Belápur and Ráhuri *tarafs* reverting to Sangamner and Bárágaon Nándur being attached to Nagar; but the sub-division according to its existing (1849) form was again established in 1838-39. Lieut. G. S. A. Anderson, 110 of 29th Sept. 1849 in Bom. Gov. Sel. CXVII. 3.

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Ráhuri,
1849-50.

From their unprotected position in the plain, and their nearness to the high road leading from Poona towards Málwa and Hindustán, the Ráhuri villages had been specially subject to plunder by the numerous marauding armies and bands of thieves by which the country was overrun during the later years of the Peshwás' government. The Ráhuri sub-division suffered much about 1798-99 in the wars between Daulatráv Sindia and the two Báis.¹ It was plundered by Holkar's army in 1802-3, and subsequently Bhils and Pendhárís made frequent raids on many of the villages. In 1804 several thousand Bhils were thrown into wells in Kopargaon, but the Pendhárís continued their depredations till 1818. During these unsettled times many villages were deserted, and in 1818 at the time of the British accession the state of the Ráhuri villages was probably worse than the state of villages nearer the Sahyádrí hills.

The nominal land measures and rates of assessment were those of the Muhammadan area or *rakba* and assessment or *tankha*, but they had probably been frequently altered by different governments to meet the demands of the day. The last general settlement of any importance is said to have been made in 1759-60 during the Subhedárship of Náro Bápuji Nagarkar. This officer caused the land to be measured and the size of the *bigha* to be adjusted to the different descriptions of soil. For instance the area of an inferior field may have been ascertained by measurement to be forty *bighás*, but it was entered in the accounts as containing only twenty *bighás*, to admit of its being assessed at the same rate as the first class soil in the same village. Throughout the Ahmadnagar collectorate the *bigha* was almost always a measure of quality not of quantity.

Whatever may have been the mode of assessment before the introduction of revenue farming in 1802-3, it virtually ceased from that year until the overthrow of the Peshwa's government in 1818. During the seventeen years ending 1818 no rules were observed regarding the giving out of land for cultivation. The annual collections from a village were limited, not by established rules or rates, but by the degree of extortion exercised by the farmer and his agents and the means of payment possessed by the villagers. When the country passed into British hands in 1818, the land measures and rates of assessment were not only of the most undefined nature, but those which had nominally been preserved in the village accounts or in the minds of the village officers were not applicable to the existing state of affairs. It was therefore impossible to introduce order and fairness in the revenue management on the basis of former settlements. During the first years of British rule, no satisfactory measures were adopted to regulate the land assessment. So far as the imperfect state of village records allowed, the number of *bighás* of the different holdings was ascertained. These village records were not in all cases trustworthy. Even where they were trustworthy, they did not afford, by any means, a correct representation of the actual holdings. The absence of boundary marks, the variable size of the *bigha*, and the great license that had been allowed in taking up land

¹ Details of the Ladies' War are given in the Poona Statistical Account.

for cultivation, made it impossible to trace and restore the original divisions of the village lands. Before 1825 in doubtful cases it was customary to measure a holding and if its extent in *bighás* was found to exceed that recorded in the village papers, the excess was assessed at the usual rates. This mode of procedure must have done harm instead of good as the new *bigha* was a fixed area while the old *bigha* varied in extent according to the quality of the soil. In 1825 when Mr. Pringle's survey was about to be extended to the villages of this sub-division, the aggregate area of the different holdings was compared with the *rakba* or maximum area of each village; and where they did not tally, the extent of land not accounted for or the deficiency of *bighás* was entered in the village papers. No extra assessment was levied on this account and the measure was productive of no useful results. No change in the former system was effected by this old survey, as it was suspended at an early period and a few villages only were measured and classified. In 1833 the practice of numbering the holdings was introduced and annual field registers were prepared, but no general measurement of land was at any time made. Until 1849 the revenue officers had no materials on which to frame a true estimate of the area of land held by each cultivator. The loose system which was a necessary consequence of so confused a state of things, was far from favourable to the development of agricultural prosperity. The rates of assessment which had nominally existed under the Peshwa's government were not changed by the British. These rates were based on two different systems which may conveniently be named the Muhammadan and the Hindu system. According to the Muhammadan system the arable land was divided into a certain number of *bighás* which were supposed to have been measured and all to be the same in size. The soil and other considerations that affected the value of the land were supposed to have been examined and appraised and as many as twenty-one classes were introduced with *bigha* rates varying from 6d. to 4s. (Rs. $\frac{1}{4}$ - 2). The other system, the Hindu system, was to divide the land into *bighás* or plots of varying sizes, the size being fixed according to the quality of the land in such a way that each plot or *bigha* should be able to pay the same assessment. Under British management both of these systems, partly perhaps from stricter rules but chiefly from the great fall in produce prices, were found to take from the holders of land more than they could pay. Large remissions were granted. Besides remissions up to 1838-39 a system prevailed of letting lands on leases or *kauls* of two, three, or four years on reduced rates. The people were also allowed to till parts of their holdings, the whole rent on the part left waste being remitted.

During 1836-37 and following years, many of the rates were lowered, in some instances as much as twenty or twenty-five per cent. So low were the prices of grain and so uncertain the fall of rain that even these liberal remissions failed to materially improve the condition of the sub-division. The average assessment throughout the thirty years ending 1848 was 1s. 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. (15 $\frac{1}{2}$ as.) the acre; and for the twenty-two years ending 1847 the average rate was 1s. 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.

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(14½ *as.*). This rate refers to the land in cultivation after deducting the internal waste portions of fields; and it is probable that in many instances the people held more land than was entered in their names in the accounts. The assessment also includes the rental of garden land; so that even making allowances for the claims of hereditary officers which were chiefly collected on cultivated land, the average assessment actually paid by dry-crop soils did not exceed 1s. 7½*d.* to 1s. 9*d.* (13 - 14 *as.*) the acre. . .

During the first four or five years of British rule, prices were high, few remissions were granted, and the collections were high. But the people were too poor to stand a year of famine and the failure of crops in 1824-25 reduced the collections to £1500 (Rs. 15,000). In 1825-26 the sub-division in some degree recovered from the effects of the famine of the preceding year; but it was still in an exhausted state, and the serious fall of prices that followed a return of good harvests was followed by six years (1827-1833) of very low collections and decreased cultivation. In 1833-34 a favourable change occurred from the rise in the price of grain that followed the failure of rain in 1832. When prices again fell distress was avoided by the liberal reductions made in 1836 and 1837. A rise of collections in 1842-43 was again followed by a decline. But the decline did not last, and during the four years before the introduction of the survey tillage had somewhat increased. In 1847-48 the harvest was unusually abundant, the collections were very high, and very few remissions on account of failure of crops were granted.

The revenue tillage and remission statistics show that the sub-division was much reduced and impoverished throughout the whole period of British rule (1818-1849). Of about 200,000 acres of good arable land the average area under the plough during the thirty years ending 1848 was about 61,000 acres; even including the internal waste portions of fields, the area of land under tillage in any year never amounted to one-half of the arable land of the sub-division. The great fluctuations in revenue also show that agriculture was never in a healthy state and that there was no available capital to invest in the improvement of the soil.¹

At the time of settlement (1849) Ráhuri was in a more impoverished state than any of the eight previously settled sub-divisions. The people had little capital of any kind. There were only 8475 working bullocks a number, considering the fertility of the arable land, the portion of it under cultivation, and the number of cultivators, proportionately less than that of any other surveyed sub-division. There was also a less extent of garden and other superior cultivation than in any other sub-division except Pátoda. The manufactures were of an inferior description and of very limited amount, and the trade of the subdivision was confined to the export of grain and sheep and the import of the few articles required to supply the moderate wants of the villagers. The cultivators of

¹ Lt. G. S. A. Anderson, 110 of 29th Sept. 1849 para 24. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXVII. 16.

the villages along the banks of the Pravara were perhaps in rather better circumstances than those of other villages, but there was no material difference in the condition of the cultivators in the several parts of the sub-division. The general poverty of the people made them fall an easy prey to the Márwáris and other moneylenders who were to be found in every large village. Few landholders had means enough to meet the losses caused by a bad season, the death of a bullock, or other unforeseen calamity. In an unfavourable year many landholders were unable to earn a livelihood and were forced to leave the sub-division and seek work in Bombay or elsewhere.

The main road from Nagar towards Násik and Málegaon entered the sub-division on the south crossing the Nimbghera pass. A considerable traffic passed along this line, as there was no other opening in the hills fit for carts for about forty miles to the west or about twelve miles to the east. This traffic would probably have been much increased had not the bad state of the road chiefly near the Sahyádris caused much obstruction to the passage of carts and bullocks. The sub-division had no other leading cart road and no important markets. The surplus field produce was chiefly bought by corn merchants living in Belápur, Ráhuri, and Vámbori for export to Nágpur, Poona, and Bombay. But Belápur, Ráhuri, and Vámbori were not much resorted to and were inferior in wealth and trading enterprise to Sangamner, Sinnar, Yeola, and other market towns of neighbouring sub-divisions.

Of the 101 Government villages, seventeen were placed in the first class with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 3*s.* (Rs. 1½), thirty-three in the second class with a rate of 2*s.* 9*d.* (Rs. 1¾), and fifty-one in the third class with a rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. 1¼). The average dry-crop acre rate paid by lands under cultivation from 1825-26 to 1846-47 was 1*s.* 7½*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.* (13 - 14 *as.*). The survey rates gave an average acre assessment for the entire arable dry-crop land of 1*s.* 2*d.* (9½ *as.*) and on the tillage of 1847-48, 1*s.* 4½*d.* (11 *as.*). These rates showed a reduction of about 3¾*d.* (2½ *as.*). There were 2170 acres of garden land. The whole of this land was watered from 949 wells, most of them near the Pravara and Mula rivers. Except in seasons of failure of rain and consequent rise of prices, the profits of garden tillage were small. Of the two principal garden products wheat and gram, wheat, though in favourable seasons more productive than the same crop in dry soils, was more subject to disease when watered. Sugarcane, chillies, and other superior garden products were in little local demand and the landholders had too little capital to admit of such an outlay as would be required to make the exports of importance. The garden cultivation was not so profitable, the people not so well off, as in the previously settled sub-divisions where the garden rate was fixed at 8*s.* (Rs. 4) the acre. In Ráhuri the survey acre rate for garden lands was fixed at 6*s.* (Rs. 3). The average acre rate amounted to 4*s.* 4*d.* (Rs. 2 *as.* 2¾). This gave a maximum rental of £472 (Rs. 4720) being an increase of £39 (Rs. 390) on the collection from garden land in 1847-48. Compared with the average of past collections (£5995), the collections (£4146) at survey rates in 1849-50 showed a reduction of over thirty per cent.

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SURVEY.

Ráhuri,
1849-50.

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Ráhuri,
1849-50.

Ráhuri Survey Settlement, 1849-50.

SETTLEMENT.	ITEMS.	PAST COLLECTIONS.		
		1847-48.	1825-1847.	1818-1848.
Former ...	Dry-Crop	Rs. 97,210	Rs. 53,890	Rs. 57,923
	Quit-Rent	690	797	803
	Pasture	1262	135	157
	Water Rate	...	212	339
	Cesses	...	812	1079
	Total ...	99,162	55,853	60,291
Survey ...	Assessment	1,20,000	1,20,000	1,20,000
	Quit-Rent	1465	1465	1465
	Total ...	1,21,465	1,21,465	1,21,465
	Excess of Survey Rental ...	22,303	65,612	61,174

Nevása,
1851-52.

After Ráhuri the survey settlement was introduced into Nevása, Karda, and Nagar in 1851-52, and into Korti, Shevgaon, and Jámkhed in 1852-53. The country included in these six subdivisions had an estimated area of 4912 square miles or 3,143,847 acres. Its western boundary was thirty-five or forty miles from the main line of the Sahyádrí hills. Its greatest length from north to south was upwards of 100 miles and its greatest breadth from east to west about ninety-five miles.

In Nevása the work of measurement was begun in October 1846 and was finished in most of the Government villages before July 1848, and in the rest by August 1849; classing was begun about November 1847 and finished in February 1849. The settlement was introduced in 1851-52.¹

Nevása was in the plain of the Godávári to the north of the Nagar chain of hills. On the north it was separated from the Nizám's territory by the Godávári; it was bounded on the east by Shevgaon, on the south by Nagar, and on the west by Ráhuri. Its estimated area was 4,77,138 acres² occupied by 180 villages, 149 of them Government, fourteen partly alienated, and seventeen wholly alienated. The charge of the entire sub-division was divided between a mámlatdár and a mahálkari. Nevása came into British possession in 1818. It then contained 111 Government and sixty-nine alienated villages. In 1822-23 seven of the Government

¹ Col. G. S. A. Anderson, Surv. Supt. 31st Jan. 1854, Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 1, 27.

² A detailed field survey of the lands of 166 villages was made by the Survey Department, and actual measurement gave 426,825 acres. The lands of fourteen alienated villages were not surveyed in detail, but their areas were computed from the map, the boundaries of each village having been surveyed by the theodolite. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 3.

Nevása Area, 1851-52.

	SURVEYED.		COMPUTED.		TOTAL.	
	Villages.	Acres.	Villages.	Acres.	Villages.	Acres.
Government ...	149	388,013	149	388,013
Partly Alienated ...	10	24,503	4	13,004	14	37,507
Wholly Alienated ...	7	14,309	10	37,219	17	51,528
Total ..	166	426,825	14	50,313	180	477,138

villages were given in a service grant or *saranjám jágir*. Of these four reverted to Government in the same year and three in 1838-39 on the deaths of the alienees. Of the alienated villages thirty-seven lapsed to Government at various periods before the survey settlement year (1851-52), and one during that year. In 1824-25 Nevása was incorporated with Shevgaon, but in 1834-35 it was again made a separate sub-division. In 1835-36 on the formation of a petty division, the mahálkari was stationed at Dhergaon but in 1838-39 he was removed to Sonai. The mámlatdár was from the first stationed at Nevása. In 1852 several of the alienated villages were held by dependents of Sindia. No large proprietors resided in the sub-division.¹

According to tradition Nevása and other neighbouring parts of the valley of the Godávári, while under the old Hindu government, were thickly peopled and highly civilised and prosperous. The natural richness of the soil and the neighbourhood of the great Hindu capitals of Paithan and Devgiri or Daulatabad support the tradition. From about 1490 to 1636 Nevása formed part of the territory of the Nizám Sháhi kings of Nagar. About 1636 it passed under the sway of the Moghal emperor Sháh Jahán. In the beginning of the eighteenth century it is stated to have been given as a marriage present to Sháhu the grandson of Shiváji. In the eighteenth century, being a frontier district it suffered much in the wars between the Maráthás and the Nizám. It came under regular Marátha management about 1759. Numerous stories remained of acts of rapine and pillage committed by the armies of the several contending parties who infested the Deccan in the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth centuries. It is an open district with no forts or strongly walled towns, and lies on the main line of road from Poona and Nagar to Aurangabad and North India. It is also close to Shevgaon formerly a joint possession of Sindia and Holkar, so that it was probably plundered and oppressed even more than most districts. From 1798 to 1800 it suffered in the petty warfare between Sindia and the two Báis. From 1801 to 1803 Holkar and his chiefs on their passage to and from Poona, moved through Nevása robbing villages and doing their utmost to ruin the country. After Holkar had ceased to molest the country, it was visited by many bands of plundering Bhils, till in 1806 many of them were killed by the Peshwa's troops; and they were soon afterwards entirely put down. In consequence of these disasters and of the famine of 1804, the population and resources of the district were so reduced, that only twenty-one villages remained inhabited and the country became covered with brushwood. After this the Pendháris now and then troubled the district, but the country continued to revive and the population to increase until it was taken by the British. Since 1818 it had enjoyed unbroken quiet.²

Before the establishment of the British rule, the revenue management of Nevása was as unsatisfactory as in the other territories

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¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 5.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 5-7.

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taken from the Peshwa. Nevása is one of the districts which are supposed to have been settled by Malik Ambar about 1605. Beyond tradition, nothing could be gleaned on the spot regarding Malik Ambar's reforms. It was even doubtful whether the *bighávní* system, which continued till the 1852 settlement, was introduced by him or by the Moghal officers of Sháh Jahán to whom the management of the country was entrusted on the break of the Nizám Sháhi kingdom in 1636. Still Malik Ambar was universally believed by the people to have been the wisest and most benevolent ruler of former times. The highest praise for any popular change was that it was like Malik Ambar's reforms. Under the *bighávní* system, whether or not introduced by Malik Ambar, each village had a fixed total or highest rental. This total rental was known as *tankha* and also as *kamál*. The *rakba*, which was the total area in *bighás* in each village, is supposed to have been determined partly by measurement and partly by estimate, the size of the *bigha* varying in different villages and in different parts of the same village. The *tankha* was said to represent Malik Ambar's highest assessment. The hereditary district officers stated that it was equal to a fourth of the gross produce in kind turned into a money value on data furnished by the cultivation of past years, and the market prices of the different kinds of produce. Subsequently this assessment seemed to have been often changed and the highest assessment of the Maráthás was generally in excess of the *tankha* and was called *kamál*. *Taufar* was said to mean the difference between the Musalmán and the Hindu maximum assessments. Marátha rule began about 1759 and Náro Bábáji, who was soon afterwards appointed governor or *subhedár* of Nagar, and who is said to have remained in office from thirty-five to forty years, introduced many revenue reforms, probably similar to those carried out in other parts of the Peshwa's territories. The number of *bighás* in each holding seems to have been fixed by him in some cases by measurement and in others by estimate. A uniform *bigha* was not adopted. In good soils a small *bigha* of a half to three quarters of an acre (20-30 *gunthás*) was introduced and in poor soils the *bigha* was doubled, trebled, or otherwise enlarged, as was considered expedient. Varying *bigha* rates were also levied on the different kinds of soil. The district was managed directly by government on the individual or *rayatvár* system. The local officers were not often changed. Moro Hari Sangamnerkar had charge of Nevása for many years. Under the early Maráthás the country on the whole seems to have prospered. In 1803 Bájiráv's farming system began and the former rates and land measures became nominal. The ravages of Holkar in 1802 and the failure of the late rains in 1803 almost emptied the country. Even when the people returned, no attempt was made to restore the old system. The revenue was farmed to contractors who were anxious only to secure a profit. They left all interior arrangements to the village officers and so long as a good sum was forthcoming from each village, no inquiries were made as to the area under tillage or as to the rent paid by each landholder. The crops when stacked and stored were considered the best criterion of the paying powers of the village. Yearly accounts were continued by the village officers

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but merely as a matter of form. There was no system. In the case of hereditary or *mirás* and other long-tilled holdings near villages the old rates were sometimes kept. The rest of the land was given for cultivation at reduced rates on leases called *kauls* or *uktis*. At the settling day, if the terms originally agreed on were considered too low, a larger amount of revenue was demanded from the village, and, after a series of squabbles between the parties concerned, some agreement was arrived at by which the landholders were generally pretty well plundered. Occasional cesses or *pattis* were also imposed in addition to the revenue demands, one of which an *ahir patti* or tax leviable from the inhabitants on the occasion of the marriage of the great man of the district, was collected in some of the adjoining Nimbalkar's villages within the Nizám's frontier.¹

Notwithstanding the bad effects of the farming system the supremacy of the British saved the country from war. In the opinion of the Survey Superintendent the country perhaps made a greater advance in population and farming capital between 1808 and 1818 than it did between 1818 and 1852. In his opinion this might in part be attributed to the full rates having been exacted in the early part of British rule and to the assessment under the British being generally much too heavy. In the year following the introduction of British rule the Marátha total or *kamát* assessment which had long been virtually abolished, was assumed to be that by which the future revenue collections might properly be adjusted and the village officers were required to give statements of the rates leviable from the *bighás* of each holding. Few authentic records were procurable and the rates finally adopted were in many cases arbitrary, and were probably of larger amounts than had ever actually been in force. There were about twenty-four different rates for dry-crop lands varying from 3d. to 4s. (Rs. $\frac{1}{2}$ - 2) a *bigha*. In six villages there was only one rate; in fifty-nine villages, two rates; in fifty-five, three rates; in twenty, four rates; in five, five rates; in one, six rates; and in one, seven rates. In eleven villages the estate or *mundbandi* system of assessment was found in force. On what evidence *bigha* rates for these villages were determined is not known. Indeed from the absence of trustworthy information the whole distribution of the rates must have been little better than guess work.* There were eleven garden rates varying from 7s. to 2s. (Rs. $3\frac{1}{2}$ - 1) a *bigha*. Most villages had only one rate and in some cases the garden lands were assessed at dry-crop rates. These rates remained in force until 1836-37, when the dry-crop rates of about fifty-eight villages and of a few holdings in other villages were lowered by the Collector Mr. Harrison, on an average about 6 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. ($4\frac{7}{12}$ as.) in the rupee or about 28 per cent. The garden rates seem not to have been changed, but in forty-six villages a readjustment was made of the *bighás* watered from each well and in this manner a reduction was effected in the number of *bighás* and consequently in the aggregate assessment. No systematic attempt to lower the rates seems to

* ¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 16-19.

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have been made. It was generally acknowledged that from the fall in the value of grain the rates at first imposed had become too high, and when any particular outcry was made by the landholders or when much difficulty was found in collecting the revenue a reduction of assessment was allowed. Pending a detailed survey it was not considered expedient to undertake a general revision of the assessment, and Mr. Harrison's reductions were only applicable to real or supposed cases of excessive over-taxation. They were doubtless beneficial, but from their partial and irregular nature they had no material effect on the general prosperity. Other remedial measures tending to lighten the assessment were also carried out about the same time. The water tax or *pánbharit* was abolished in 1835. This tax was nominally leviable from dry-crop lands temporarily watered; in reality many of the lands from which it was collected were garden lands assessed at dry-crop rates and the entire remission of the tax placed them in a much better position than similar lands assessed at garden rates. But the tax was obnoxious and changeable and its abolition probably did good. The abolition of transit and town duties had also indirectly a beneficial effect on the sub-division, and at the same time several claims or *haks* collected on account of Government were abolished. In one village the estate or *mundbandi* assessment was found in force at the time of settlement.¹

In the fall of produce prices the rates adopted in 1819-20 proved much too high. Their burden was considerably lightened by the introduction of a rule allowing the partial cultivation of holdings. And when the new rates were higher than the rates formerly paid, the excess was spread over three or four years. It was also formerly the custom to give out waste lands for cultivation on *kauls* or agreements not to impose the full assessment at once, but by gradual additions ranging over periods of six to eight years. According to the Survey Superintendent this system was not much practised during the first four years of British rule. It afterwards became pretty extensive and continued till 1838 when it was abolished.² Throughout the whole of British management large remissions were made. The assessment of portions of fields left uncultivated by the holders was generally remitted and large reductions were also made for bad crops, poverty, and other causes.³

In 1827-28 the lands of 130 villages were measured in connection with Mr. Pringle's first Deccan survey. But the measurements were not used and the operations caused no change in the revenue management. Up to 1833-34 no complete returns of the fields or *tikás* of each village were prepared. Village registers were then introduced containing the areas in *bighás*, rates of assessment, boundaries, and tenures of the several holdings. But as the boundaries of the holdings were not ascertained by actual inspection in the field, and as no measurements were made for the purpose of fixing the area of

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 19-20.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 22. The opinion of the Superintendent that leases were little granted in the first years of British management seems at variance with Capt. Pottinger's account.

³ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 22-23.

each holding, these registers in many cases proved incorrect. When the land was measured between 1846 and 1849 many of the fields recorded in the accounts could not be identified. At the time of Mr. Pringle's survey (1828) the areas of the several holdings of each village had, as far as possible, been arranged in correspondence with the total area or *rakba*. The papers then prepared by the village officers were used in filling the registers, and probably most of the holdings under cultivation in 1828 and in 1833 were entered with tolerable accuracy. Even had all the holdings been correctly recorded, and if there were no doubts regarding the former rates of assessment, it would still be impossible to obtain a clear view of the actual state of matters in former years, owing to the methods of giving out the lands for cultivation then in vogue. On several occasions endeavours were made to enforce the cultivation of entire fields or *tikás*. These efforts in every case failed. Throughout the whole period of British rule, it was customary to allow the partial cultivation of holdings, and this method however advantageous to the landholders caused much confusion in the accounts and made it impossible to ascertain, with any accuracy, the actual extent of land yearly tilled. This concession also gave rise to many fraudulent practices on the part of the village and district officers and to bad husbandry on the part of the people. The portions of each field under tillage were not measured or ascertained according to any fixed standard. They were entered in the accounts according to the proportion they were found to bear to the entire recorded area of the field by a rough eye estimate made by the village officers or by guess. In 1833-34 waste patches in fields held for tillage were brought to account in the yearly statements, but the assessment was remitted. In general only the portions of holdings actually taken for cultivation were entered in the accounts. During the first years of British rule no attempts seem to have been made to test the tillage returns. Subsequently, especially since 1833-34, a test was taken by the *mámlatdár's* establishment aided by the hereditary district officers, and occasionally in cases of doubt or suspicion of fraud, by the assistant collector or Collector.¹

Nevása suffered much from over-taxation. The rates adopted at the beginning of British rule soon began to press most severely on the resources of the sub-division. In 1822-23 prices fell unprecedentedly low. According to the Survey Superintendent this was partly due to an unusually large crop and to other causes. But in his opinion the chief cause of the scarcity of money was that too much revenue was taken from the country in proportion to the farming capital and resources of the cultivators. In his opinion the want of remedial measures and the continuance of high rates combined to bring Nevása to ruin till 1832-33, when the cultivation and collections fell much lower than in any other years of British rule. In the two or three succeeding years, he continues, the cultivation and collections somewhat rose, but it was not until the attention of Government had been fully drawn to the depressed condition of the collectorate and the local officers were urged to carry

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out improvements, that there was a decided tendency upwards. Between 1836-37 and 1846-47 the rates of many of the villages were lowered, liberal remissions were granted, and, though 1844-45 and 1845-46 were unfavourable years, the cultivation and assessment rose in 1846-47 higher than they ever were before. In 1847-48 the cultivation still further increased. But the year was one of much over-production and few remissions were granted. Prices, partly in consequence of the excess of produce, and partly on account of the great drain of money to meet the large revenue demands, fell very low and many landholders unable to pay their rent from the profits of the season had to resort to moneylenders, and in many cases to dispose of their farm stock. The cultivation and revenue immediately decreased, and as the following seasons were unfavourable the collections fell from £16,072 (Rs. 1,60,720) in 1847-48 to £8215 (Rs. 82,150) in 1849-50, a decrease of nearly one-half. In 1850-51 according to the Survey Superintendent the anticipated early introduction of the revised rates caused an increase of cultivation and revenue.¹ At the time of settlement the sub-division was still suffering from the over-collections of 1847-48.²

Although Nevása did not suffer from over-assessment in the same degree as Ráhuri, the old rates were in the Superintendent's opinion ruinously and oppressively high. Throughout the whole period of British rule (1818-1852) it had never been possible to collect the full assessment. In addition to the freedom from the assessment of untilled patches in fields taken for cultivation, remissions had averaged £2100 (Rs. 21,000) or about eighteen per cent of the revenue demands. Cultivation had also been most unsteady, and although the land was generally fertile not one-half of it had been under tillage for a long term of years. That the country would have progressed more rapidly under a light assessment was in the Superintendent's opinion shown by the improvement that had resulted from the reforms and modifications of the assessment already carried out. These remedial measures, he adds, merely afforded relief in isolated cases. They were undertaken not so much with the view of placing the revenue system on a permanently sound basis, as of saving the people from ruin and Government from loss of revenue.³

A road from Ahmadnagar to Aurangabad crossed (1848) the sub-division. Just below the Jeur pass a branch of this road turned to the right and went through Shevgaon and Paithan, one of the oldest capitals in the Deccan, and from Paithan passed to the great cotton mart of Umrávati. By this route large quantities of cotton were brought to the coast. Another line of road crossed the sub-division east and west, and, passing a little to the south of the town of Nevása, cut directly through Sangamner. Between the towns of Sangamner and Sinnar it skirted the southern boundary of the Násik sub-division and came upon the Násik and Málegaon road just above the Jeur pass. Bullocks laden with grain generally travelled on this road.⁴ Though the local trade was inconsiderable there was

¹ The rise in produce prices had probably more to do with the increase of area taken for tillage than the progress of survey operations. ² Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 24-25.

³ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 26-27.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 175-176.

a large through traffic. The Imámpur or Jeur pass on the south was the only route open to carts, and a large quantity of cotton from Berár by Paithan was carried to Bombay. The post line from Bombay to Calcutta by Nagar and Aurangabad also passed by the same route. There were also a few cross roads chiefly used by Vanjáris, but the bullock traffic was fast giving place to cart traffic.¹

The market towns were Nevása, Sonai, Chánda, Kukána, Ghotan, Tondola, Sundgaon, Bhánas, Hivra, Degaon, Vákri, and Bhokar. About half the produce of the sub-division was exported. Grain was the only export. The people themselves did not take their grain beyond Ahmadnagar. Potters and washermen were great grain carriers. The grain dealers bought the grain and employed Vanjáris to carry it to the coast. The imports were iron, salt, groceries, and cloth of all kinds from Berár and Bombay. There were only one hundred hand-loom in the subdivision weaving cloth of the commonest texture. A few weavers were found at Nevása, Sonai, Ghotan, and Kukána. Women's robes or *lugdás* fifteen cubits long by two broad were woven at Nevása. Generally the thread was spun by Mhárs. A few blankets were made by Dhangars, but most articles of wearing apparel were imported. Most landholders had a few sheep and goats which they disposed of to butchers in neighbouring towns. There was a local breed of bullocks, but the better sort came from Málwa and Berár. Their prices varied from £1 10s. to £3 (Rs. 15-30). The largest town was Nevása with 3268 people. Of the 149 Government towns and villages only nine had a population of more than 1000. Every year in March about 50,000 pilgrims and wandering traders came to Toka from all quarters.² The fair lasted about a month and had much traffic in cloth and other articles.

The survey census gave for 149 Government villages 51,674 people, 36,878 horned cattle, 2639 horses, 48,046 sheep and goats, 3381 ploughs, and 1768 carts. The people of Nevása were in somewhat better circumstances than those of Ráhuri or Sangamner. Under the former government the condition of these three sub-divisions was similar and Nevása possessed no superior advantages either as regards climate or markets. That it was not taxed so heavily accounted for its not being in so extremely depressed a state as the other sub-divisions. A few landholders held farms of over 200 acres and had twenty

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¹ The details are: *Nagar-Imámpur Road Traffic, March-June, 1857.*

MONTH.	Carts.	Pack bullocks	Horses.	Asses.	Camels.	Elephants.	Cows.	Buffaloes.	Sheep.
March ...	4686	16,397	1929	4819	48	2	...	283	1095
April ...	6567	10,587	2289	5372	565	...	2390
May ...	7890	19,985	2406	6725	411	...	3540
June ...	8370	33,094	2922	6031	512	...	4971

² A heavy trade in grain goes on all the year. The cotton from Berár swells the traffic in these four months' Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 10-11.

³ Toka and Pravara were two Hindu sacred places. Some of the Toka temples were destroyed by Nizám Ali in 1761. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 12.

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or thirty bullocks. A good many were free from debt and had grain-pits where they could store their surplus produce and to which they could resort in times of necessity instead of to the Márwáris. Most landholders were deeply involved in debt. Two-thirds were in the hands of the Márwáris, and the average debt of each was not less than £10 (Rs. 100). The landholders had few means of adding to what their fields yielded. A few people of some villages cultivated lands on reduced rates in the neighbouring Nizám's territory and some of the villagers went for a time to Bombay as labourers or porters. Many landholders, when their field work for the season was over, were hired with their bullocks by grain dealers to carry grain and other exports to the coast.¹ Well-irrigation might be very much increased in the Nevása sub-division as, except near the Godávári, in the low grounds of most villages water was plentiful and at moderate depths. Few people were able to afford the £15 or £20 (Rs. 150 or Rs. 200) required for digging a new well. In the existing scarcity of capital a subsistence could be more easily and safely derived from the cultivation of dry-crop lands.²

The bulk of the land was held on the hereditary or *mirás* tenure. Of 17,163 survey numbers into which the Government lands were divided, 10,520 belonged to hereditary holders or *mirásdárs*; the remaining 6643 being either alienated or deserted that is *gatkuli* fields. Of the 10,520 *mirás* fields 2630 were cultivated by the hereditary holders, 1765 by holders of other hereditary lands, 1817 by non-hereditary holders, and 4308 were waste. For the survey assessment the Government villages were divided into three classes with highest dry crop acre rates of 2s. 6d., 2s. 3d., and 2s. (Rs. 1½, Rs. 1½, and Re. 1). An acre rate of 6s. (Rs. 3) was fixed for garden land of which 2947 acres were watered entirely from wells. The total garden assessment amounted to £636 12s. (Rs. 6366) and showed an average survey acre rate of 4s. 3½d. (Rs. 2 as. 2¼) or 3s. 4d. (Re. 1 as. 10½) less than the old average acre rate. The total survey rental exceeded the average past collections by forty-five per cent.³ The reduction effected by the survey rates on the demand from the cultivated area was estimated at 5½d. (3½ as.) the acre or about twenty-nine per cent. The survey officer was inclined to think that more land was cultivated under the former system than was entered in the accounts. The *bighás* of the former cultivation could not be converted into acres according to any fixed standard. Even making allowances for these and other circumstances which might tend to

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 12-13, 15.² Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 30.

³ In judging of the financial results of the settlement, the first year of the new system, 1851-52, should not be taken into consideration. In the Ahmadnagar collectorate, in consequence of the former system of remitting the assessment of waste and unsown lands, and also of the generally impoverished condition of the cultivators, it was found necessary, in effecting the change from the old to the new system, in the several districts to allow remissions which were calculated upon the former assessment and were given in cases where the amount leviable under the old was found to be less than that leviable under the new rates, the difference only being remitted. The year 1851-52 was one of partial failure of crops and the remissions required were considerable. The revised rates therefore did not come into full operation until the following year 1852-53. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 34-36.

modify the apparent results, the survey officer was of opinion that the actual relief to the cultivators was not less than $3\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $4d.$ ($2\frac{1}{2} - 2\frac{3}{4} as.$) the acre or twenty to twenty-four per cent. This was deemed sufficient to place Nevása on an equality with Ráhuri and other previously assessed sub-divisions:¹

Nevása Survey Settlement, 1852.

CLASS.	VILLAGES.	FORMER.		SURVEY.						
		Assessment.	Acre Rate.	Land under Tillage.			Waste.		Total.	
				Area.	Assessment.	Acre Rate.	Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.
		Rs.	Ra. a. p.	Acres.	Rs.	Ra. a. p.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.
I. ...	17	19,100	0 11 4	26,965	12,388	0 7 4	22,770	9135	49,735	21,523
II. ...	98	1,15,235	1 1 7	105,050	62,270	0 9 6	103,473	42,197	208,523	1,04,467
III. ...	38	27,452	1 1 0	25,811	13,013	0 8 1	34,766	11,942	60,577	24,955
Total ..	148	1,61,787	1 0 5	157,826	87,671	0 8 10	161,009	63,274	318,835	1,50,945

The general results of the settlement, as regards all descriptions of tenures, are shown in the following statement:

Nevása Survey Settlement, 1852.

SETTLEMENT.	YEAR.	CULTIVATED LANDS.				WASTE LANDS.	ALIEN-ATED LANDS.	TOTAL.
		Area.	Assessment.	Remissions.	Collections.	Collections.	Collections.	Collections.
Former ...	1818-1851 ...	129,602	1,23,144	21,616	1,01,528	2773	1140	1,05,446
	1850-51 ...	126,348	1,33,468	13,357	1,15,111	755	2089	1,17,954
Survey ...	1851-52 ...	157,826	87,671	18,604	69,067	1468	1021	71,556
	1852-53 ...	183,641	93,399	398	98,501	1826	1517	1,01,844
	Rental of 148 Villages ...	318,835	1,50,945	1663	1,52,613

The following statement shows the entire area of the 149 Government villages (148 original and one lapsed in 1852) comprised (1852) in the Nevása sub-division, and the survey assessment imposed on the several descriptions of land:

Nevása Survey Settlement, 1852.

LAND.	DRY-CROP.		GARDEN.		BARREN.	TOTAL.		ALIEN-ATED.	REALIZ-ABLE BALANCE.
	Area.	Amount.	Area.	Amt.	Area.	Area.	Amount.		
Government ...	320,715	1,46,774	2976	6438	42,060	365,751	1,53,212	..	1,53,212
Alienated ...	13,159	6631	204	413	794	14,157	7044	7044	...
Quit-Rent ...	7695	3171	4	5	406	8105	3176	1496	1680
Total ...	341,569	1,56,576	3184	6856	43,260	398,013	1,63,432	8540	1,54,392

Abolished claims or *haks*, for which a money compensation was to be given to the former recipients, were included in the survey total. The hereditary district officers of Nevása, as well as of

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most other sub-divisions of the Ahmadnagar collectorate, did (1852) not collect levies in kind from the people. The highest value of those claims collected by the village officers, entered by the recipients in the accounts for the year before the introduction of the revised rates, was for *pátils* £39 (Rs. 390) and for *kulkarnis* £511 (Rs. 5110). In 1852 the *hadola* lands of the village Mhárs and a few other grants were subject to a quit-rent or *judi* assessment. As this was generally less than the survey assessment it was very slightly affected by the introduction of the revised rates. In cases where the quit-rent exceeded the survey assessment, the difference was remitted, but in the Nevása sub-division it only amounted to an aggregate sum of about £5 (Rs. 50). The Ahmadnagar Mhárs were generally poorly paid for their services to Government.¹

Karda,
1851-52.

From Nevása the survey passed to Karda where measurements were begun in March 1847 and finished in April 1851, and classing was begun in February 1849 and finished in June 1851. Survey rates were introduced in 1851-52. Karda was the largest sub-division in the Ahmadnagar district. It stretched north for about seventy miles from the Bhima to a range of hills that separated it from Sangamner and Ráhuri. It was bounded on the north by Sangamner and Ráhuri, on the east by Nagar and Korti, and on the west and south by the Junnar Pábal and Bhimthadi sub-divisions of the Poona district. With an estimated area of 934,125 acres, Karda contained 145 Government and twenty-seven partly and forty wholly alienated villages. The charge of the entire sub-division was divided between a *mámlatdár* and two *mahálkaris*. At the time of settlement, Karda was made of villages which belonged to old divisions which were partly under Poona and partly under Ahmadnagar. Since the beginning of British rule Karda had undergone many changes. The transfers of villages between this and adjoining sub-divisions, both of the Poona and Ahmadnagar collectorates, before 1842-43 were very numerous and complicated. In 1852 the Karda sub-division was too large for proper management. Several of the villages belonged to non-resident proprietors and chiefs, among them Sindia, Ráste, Holkar, the Pant Sachiv, and others.²

Karda, like Nevása, formed part of the old Muhammadan kingdom of Nagar that is Ahmadnagar. The Maráthás got possession of the Karda villages before they extended their power to Nevása. About the beginning of the present century, Karda was plundered by Holkar and others, but it did not suffer so much as Nevása. Shortly after the beginning of Bájiráv's rule, its revenue was farmed in the same manner as in other sub-divisions, and, when the British gained possession in 1818, all matters relating to the revenue management were in disorder. In many of the villages the terms *man* and *khandi*, *rúka* and *taka*, *partan* and *dorí*, were found in the old accounts. But these land measures were all resolvable into *bighás*. The *bigha* seems to have been the unit of calculation under the

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 33, 156.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 42-45.

Maráthás. Little trustworthy information about the former revenue management was available. It was certainly more complicated than in Nevása. Partial measurements and settlements had been made in the time of the Maráthás, but many of the villages being poor and yielding little revenue probably received little attention, and the management altogether appears to have been very rude and irregular. The size of the Karda *bigha* varied more than the size of the Nevása *bigha* and it was generally found to be larger in Karda than in the other sub-divisions. The former rates of assessment were also very irregular. In many villages the old garden rates were high. In others there was no old garden rate, but in such cases a higher dry-crop rate was generally imposed on all the lands of the village in consequence of some of them being watered. The lands of some of the villages were managed partly on the *bigha* and partly on the plot or *mundbandi* system. But in most cases the prevailing unit of calculation was the *bigha*.¹ At the beginning of British rule, as was done in Nevása, *bigha* rates were adopted for most Karda villages. In some villages the old estate or *mundbandi* system was kept and in a few cases, where all traces of the former *bigha* rates had been lost, a new estate or *mundbandi* assessment was imposed. The *bigha* rates where adopted varied from 5s. 6½d. (Rs. 2 as. 12½) to 3d. (2 as.) for dry-crop lands, and from 12s. (Rs. 6) to 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1¼) for garden lands. Most villages had only one dry-crop and one garden rate. Many of the rates were lowered by the Collector Mr. Harrison between 1834 and 1837. His reductions of dry-crop rates extended to about fifty-one villages at the average rate of about 6½d. (4½ as.) in the rupee, and of garden rates to twenty-two villages at the rate of about 10d. (6¾ as.) in the rupee. Owing to the irregularity of the former system and to other causes Mr. Harrison's measures seem to have been less beneficial in Karda than in Nevása. About 1826 the lands of most of the villages were measured in connection with Mr. Pringle's survey but they were not assessed. The changes through which Karda passed under British management were much the same as the changes through which Nevása passed.² In both sub-divisions there were the same high collections in the first five years of British rule, the same fall of revenue between 1823-24 and 1832-33, the same improvement between 1833-34 and 1847-48, and the same decline in succeeding years. Over-assessment had perhaps caused more harm in Karda than in Nevása. In the early years of British rule, in proportion to its resources, the revenue collections were so much higher in Karda than in Nevása, that, in spite of the later remissions, the revenue never recovered to the same extent in Karda as in Nevása, and cultivation never in any succeeding period of five years rose to the same height as in the five years immediately after the introduction of British rule. In the years immediately before the introduction of the new rates there was a great fall in cultivation. Generally also in bad years there had been a larger falling off of revenue in Karda than in Nevása. The remissions irrespective of

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1851-52.¹ Bom. Gov. Sgl. CXXIII. 53-54.² Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 54-55.

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freedom from assessment in unsown or *náper* patches of numbers averaged £3454 (Rs.34,540) or about four per cent more than in Nevása. The collections of 1852-53 were somewhat in excess of those of the last year of the old system (1850-51), and the heavy collections of 1847-48 and preceding years had borne very severely on the resources of the sub-division. In the opinion of the survey officer, even under a fairer assessment the subdivision would not very quickly recover from its depressed state, and the extreme fluctuations in cultivation and revenue that had prevailed before the survey settlement would not admit of the new system having complete fair play in the first years of its action.¹

The high road from Bombay to Calcutta passed through the centre of the sub-division from south-west to north-east. On this main line of road there was a large traffic, but little of it was local. Of the several cross roads one from Poona to Bársi and Sholápur and one from Junnar in the same direction were fair dry-weather roads. The two lines of road from Nagar to Junnar and to the Sahyádris to the west of Junnar, though scarcely passable by carts, were much used by Vanjáris. From the badness of the roads some parts of the sub-division were very unfavourably placed as regards markets and Mr. Gooddine advocated the repair of several small passes which presented serious barriers to internal traffic. Grain was the chief export being sent to Poona, Junnar, and the coast. Sheep were sold by Dhangars and husbandmen to wandering butchers, and there was always a ready sale for a few horses reared in the Bhima villages. The imports were cotton goods, salt, rice, sugar, and other articles required for local use. As regards markets, in consequence of their nearness to Poona and to Ahmadnagar, the southern Karda villages were better off than most Nevása villages. Sirur also was a better market than any in Nevása. The Vásunda villages in the north mahálkari's charge were unfavourably placed, having no large markets near and being cramped as regarded communication with other quarters. As in Nevása the manufactures in Karda were of little importance. A few coarse cotton stuffs were made in seven or eight villages but the demand did not furnish work for more than fifty looms. The Dhangars in Vásunda made blankets from the wool of sheep belonging to the sub-division. There were nine market towns, the chief of them being Sirur, Jámgaon, and Kánhur. Sirur situated on the Poona high road, the head-quarters of the Poona Horse, was the most important market. It had about 7000 people of whom about 285 were resident moneylenders, traders, and shopkeepers, some of them in good circumstances. Besides their usual retail traffic in cloth and other articles, some of the dealers exported large quantities of grain. A good many cattle and a few horses were also sold in the Sirur market. There were several large traders in Jámgaon, Kánhur, Párner, Alkuti, and other places, but except in Sirur and Jámgaon the market dealings seemed to be nearly confined to the supply of local wants. Jámgaon was a well built town with a handsome mansion belonging to

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII, 56, 66-68.

Sindia, and there were a good many substantial houses and temples in other towns.

According to the survey returns there were in the Karda sub-division 68,611 people, 70,703 horned cattle, 45,565 sheep and goats, 3841 horses, 4477 ploughs, and 1747 carts. Of the 25,152 survey numbers 14,603 were hereditary or *mirás* holdings and 10,549 were alienated or *gatkuli* that is deserted. Of the hereditary numbers 5856 were tilled by the holders themselves, 3210 by other hereditary holders, 1931 by non-hereditary holders, and 3606 were waste.

In assessing this large sub-division the 145 Government villages were arranged in six classes with highest dry-crop acre rates ranging from 3s. to 1s. 9d. (Rs. 1½ - ⅞). Twelve villages with a highest acre rate of 3s. (Rs. 1½) formed the first class. Their lands were the best in Karda. They mostly lay on the Kánhur *pathár*, an elevated table-land on the hills running through the centre of the sub-division. The climate of these villages was superior, their position with respect to Poona Sirur and Nagar was good, and they yielded specially valuable wheat. They had good drinking water but there was no large area of garden land. Thirty-one villages with a highest acre rate of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1⅘) formed the second class. The lands of seventeen of these villages lay close to the north of the range of hills of which the Kánhur table land formed a part. Their climate was as good as that of the first class villages but their position with respect to Poona and Sirur was not so good. They had a large area of garden land. The north maháلكari's station Vásunda was included in this group. The lands of the remaining fourteen villages lay immediately to the south or south-west of Kánhur and included the mámlatdár's station of Párner. The position of these villages with respect to markets was good. Their climate was not quite so good as the climate of the villages more to the north. On the other hand the supply of water for irrigation was more plentiful in this group than in the others. Forty-three villages with a highest acre rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1¼) formed the third class. The lands of five of them lay on the high grounds to the north of the Mula. They had an equally good climate with the first class villages of Ráhuri, but their position with reference to markets was inferior. They were out of the way of traffic, and the villagers had to descend into Ráhuri and Sangamner to dispose of their produce. The lands of the remaining thirty-eight villages were partly hilly. They lay to the south and south-east of the second class villages. Their position with respect to markets was good, but their climate was inferior to that of the villages more to the north. There was a moderate proportion of garden land. Forty villages with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1⅓) formed the fourth class. Ten of these villages were in the valley of the Mula. The climate was good but the villages were out of the way of markets. Water was scanty in several villages and in others cultivation was difficult as the arable lands were mostly on plateaus, while the villages lay in hollows. Except that the climate was bad, the remaining thirty villages were similarly situated to the third class villages lying immediately to the north. Sixteen villages with a highest acre rate of 2s. (Rs. 1) formed the fifth class. Ten of these were in the valley of the Bhima and their climate was inferior to that

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of the groups to the north. The remaining six villages lay in the south-east of Karda near the hills. Their climate was inferior and they were not so well placed with respect to markets as the other villages of this class. Three villages with a highest acre rate of 1*s.* 9*d.* (14 *as.*) formed the sixth class. They were in the extreme south in the valley of the Bhima. The climate was most uncertain and the soil was generally stiff requiring an extra quantity of moisture. The classes of eleven of the 145 villages were changed from additional experience acquired during the time of settlement. In other respects the dry-crop rates originally proposed were found suitable and were introduced.

Unlike Ráhuri and Nevása where it was entirely from wells, the garden cultivation of Karda was partly channel-watered. In some of the Karda villages the garden husbandry was superior, and on account of the nearness of Poona and other large towns the people had a better chance of exporting and selling their produce. For thirty-six villages in the north of the sub-division which were far from good markets, and for nineteen in the south where the garden husbandry was poor, a maximum well-rate of 6*s.* (Rs. 3) was fixed. For ninety villages in the centre of the sub-division, which from being near the Poona road or from being close to good local markets were more favourably situated, a highest well-water acre rate of 8*s.* (Rs. 4) was fixed. This last rate was 2*s.* (Re. 1) the acre higher than the Ráhuri and Nevása rate. In most of the Násik villages Captain Davidson had adopted 16*s.* (Rs. 8) as the highest channel-water acre rate. But for Karda this was deemed too high and a highest rate of 12*s.* (Rs. 6) was fixed. In many cases the water used was partly from wells and partly from channels. For lands so watered intermediate rates, with reference to the supply of water derived from both sources, were adopted. In no case did the assessment exceed the highest channel-water rate. In 1852 the sub-division had in all 5133 acres of garden land and the whole assessment imposed by the above rates was £1340 (Rs. 13,400) or an average rate of 5*s.* 2½*d.* (Rs. 2*as.* 9¼) the acre. The former highest assessment amounted to £1669 (Rs. 16,690), but as many of the gardens had been assessed as dry-crop lands, and because of the great irregularities in the former rates, it is not possible to give a clear idea of the actual reduction caused by the new rates.

The alluvial or *dheli* lands on the banks of the Bhima were assessed at acre rates varying from 4*s.* to 2*s.* (Rs. 2-1). These lands either were enriched by deposits of mud or drew an extra degree of moisture from the river and yielded better crops. On seventy-eight acres of this river side land the average survey rate of assessment was 2*s.* 11¾*d.* (Re. 1 *as.* 7¼) the acre. In other parts of the sub-division dry lands yielded superior crops in consequence of being watered from dams during a portion of the year. On that account a small extra acre rate varying from 2*s.* to 4½*d.* (Re. 1-*as.* 3) was imposed on them. The effect of the settlement was to lower the assessment on the area under tillage from £16,958 to £9824 (Rs. 1,69,580 - Rs. 98,240) or 42 per cent. The details are :

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CLASS.	VILLAGES	FORMER.		SURVEY.						
		Assessment.	Acro Rate.	TILLAGE.			WASTE.		TOTAL.	
				Area.	Assessment.	Acro Rate.	Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.
I ...	12	12,393	15 6	12,827	5498	6 10	3212	1004	16,039	6503
II ..	31	49,270	14 0	56,174	28,803	8 2	25,487	8659	81,661	37,462
III .	43	46,933	13 0	63,428	27,041	6 11	32,269	11,070	94,697	38,111
IV .	40	43,903	9 9	71,936	25,673	5 9	55,970	15,434	127,206	41,107
V .	16	14,045	11 0	20,368	8896	6 11	29,127	9456	49,495	18,352
VI ...	3	9039	13 7	3583	2325	10 5	2000	473	5583	2798
Total .	145	169,583	11 11	227,316	98,236	6 11	147,365	46,096	374,681	144,332

The general results of the settlement are shown in the following statement :

Karda Survey Settlement, 1852.

YEAR.	CULTIVATED.				WASTE.	ALIENATED.	TOTAL.
	Area.	Assessment.	Remissions.	Collections.	Collections.	Collections.	Collections.
Former :	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1818-1851 ...	212,191	1,56,187	34,539	1,21,648	5870	2045	1,29,563
1850-51 ..	193,002	1,46,090	44,076	1,02,014	6638	1772	1,10,419
Survey :							
1851-52 ...	227,316	98,236	24,403	73,833	5863	1394	81,090
1852-53 ...	251,728	1,04,646	942	1,03,704	5232	2099	1,11,085
Rental of 145 villages	374,681	1,44,332	2453	1,46,785

Owing to the want of former correct data of the actual acre rate, the relief which the new rates afforded can be only roughly shown. The average acre rate before the introduction of the survey was estimated at 1s. 1½d. (9½ as.) for the whole period of British rule. The survey acre rate on the lands cultivated in 1851-52 was 10½d. (6½ as.) which shows a reduction on the past collections of 3½d. (2½ as.) the acre or about 24½ per cent. In Karda, as has been noticed, the irregularities of the former system were very great, and, though the rates were generally heavy, in some villages the assessment was moderate. In some cases also Mr. Harrison's reductions between 1834 and 1837 amounted to forty per cent or upwards, which left no need of reduction by the survey. Under these circumstances the effect of the survey settlement varied greatly in different parts of the sub-division.

The area and assessment of the entire lands comprised in the Government portion of the sub-division are shewn in the following statement :

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LAND.	DRY-CROF.		GARDEN.		BARRRY	TOTAL.		ALIEN-ATED.	REALIS-ABLE BAL-ANCE.
	Area.	Amount	Area.	Amount	Area.	Area.	Amount	Ra.	Ra.
Government ..	367,459	1,30,033	5133	13,404	187,490	560,072	1,43,437	...	1,43,437
Detached Sheri.	2089	895	1830	3919	895	...	895
<i>Inam</i> ..	10,539	4011	157	408	2986	13,682	4419	4419	...
Detached <i>Indm.</i>	935	416	4	15	170	1109	431	431	...
Quit Rent ...	9997	3620	34	77	1881	11,912	3697	1244	2453
Total ...	391,019	1,33,975	5323	13,904	194,347	590,694	1,52,379	6094	1,46,785

The highest value of abolished village claims entered by the recipients in the accounts of 1850-51, was for headmen £37 (Rs. 370), for accountants £462 (Rs. 4620), and for watchmen £124 (Rs. 1240), or a total of £623 (Rs. 6230).

Ahmadnagar,
1851-52.

After Karda the survey settlement was introduced into Ahmadnagar also called Nagar. A few villages near Nagar were measured during the rainy season of 1847 but measuring was not regularly begun till the following year. Except a few details the work was completed in June 1851. The work of classing except in three villages was in progress from April 1849 to June 1851. Revised rates were introduced in eighty-two Government villages in 1851-52. Three alienated villages which lapsed to Government in that year were settled in the following year 1852-53.

At the time of settlement (1852) Nagar was bounded on the north by Ráhuri, on the north-east by Nevása, on the east by the Nizam's territory, on the south-east by Korti, and on the south-west and west by Karda. Its estimated area was 412,126 acres occupied by 109 villages of which eighty-five were Government and ten partly and fourteen wholly alienated.¹ The entire sub-division formed the charge of a mámlatdár. Like most other sub-divisions in the district, Nagar passed through many territorial changes between 1818 and 1852. In 1818-19 it contained fifty-six Government and fifteen alienated villages. In 1821-22 twelve of the Government villages were made over to Karda and there were many other receipts and transfers. Since 1837-38 when the sub-division

¹The details are :

Nagar Villages, 1852.

DESCRIPTION.	AREA SURVEYED.		AREA COMPUTED.		TOTAL.	
	Vil-lages.	Area.	Vil-lages.	Area.	Vil-lages.	Area.
Government ...	85	Acres. 274,124	85	274,124
Detached portions of Government land ...	2	778	2	778
City and Cantonment	2992	2992
Partly Alienated ...	1	2128	9	36,651	10	38,779
Wholly Alienated ...	3	20,789	11	74,664	14	95,453
Total ...	91	306,511	20	111,315	111	412,126

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contained eighty Government and twenty-nine alienated villages there had been no territorial changes. The only alterations were that two alienated villages lapsed to Government before the settlement and three after the settlement in 1852-53. The leading landlords or *júgirdárs* were Sindia and Holkar. According to the hereditary district officers, but their statement was unsupported by proof, the rental or *tankha* of the sub-division was fixed by Malik Ambar. Between 1762 and 1785 the Marátha governor or *subherdár* Náro Bábáji carried out many revenue reforms. Before his time there seems to have been as much disorder in the revenue management as during the period before the acquisition of the country by the British. His attempts at fixing rates and adjusting land measures may have been as general and as successful as the early efforts of the British. But they were far from being satisfactory or complete. So far as Colonel G. Anderson could ascertain, Náro Bábáji's measures were at first confined to the restoration on paper of the old rates and land measures of the prosperous periods of Muhammadan government. When this proved unsatisfactory, a rough estimate or in some cases a partial measurement of the lands of each village was made. The *bighá* instead of meaning a plot of fixed size was made to vary according to the character of the soil. He perhaps at first intended to levy from each of these *bigha* plots an uniform assessment. But as this plan did not answer in all cases different rates were adopted, the highest rates being generally those of the lands nearest the village. In some of the villages the estate or plot system called *múndbandi* was probably found and was continued, the assessment being placed on each holding or *múnd* instead of on each *bigha*.¹ The total or *kamál* rates adopted by the British on gaining possession of the country were apparently an attempt to restore Náro Bábáji's assessment which was higher than the Musalmán total or *tankha* and also higher than the rates imposed during the period of misrule before the British conquest. According to Colonel G. Anderson, the assessment proved very high and the districts were rapidly ruined in consequence of over-taxation. This, he continues, at last became so apparent that all parties were convinced of the necessity of lowering the rates. Pending the extension of survey operations to this part of the country, no satisfactory arrangements could be made, but remedial measures were carried out as far as circumstances permitted. The old dry-crop *bigha* rates varied from 5s. (Rs. 2½) to 3¾d. (2¼ as.) and the garden rates from 11s. to 9d. (Rs. 7 - ⅘). In 1834-35 the rates of Chichundi and other places were lowered, probably by the Revenue Commissioner himself; and subsequently the Collector Mr. Harrison modified the dry-crop assessment of fifty-five and the garden assessment of thirty-seven villages. The dry-crop rates were lowered on the average about 5d. (3½ as.) in the rupee and the garden rates about 8¼d. (5½ as.). In some villages also a plot or *múndbandi*

¹ The Survey Superintendent Col. G. Anderson notices that the materials on which he based his account of Náro Bábáji's land administration were of doubtful accuracy. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 87-88.

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assessment appears to have been partially introduced. Formerly in only one village was there a plot or *mundbandi* assessment. The revenue management in other respects was much the same as in the sub-divisions which have been already described.¹

The results of British revenue management in the Nagar sub-division were not unlike those in Karda. The heavy rates adopted at the beginning pressed with even greater severity in Nagar; the revenue having gradually declined from £13,100 (Rs. 1,31,000) in 1821-22 to £2300 (Rs. 23,000) in 1832-33. Between 1833-34 and 1850-51 the fluctuations in revenue were not so great as in Karda. This, Colonel G. Anderson thought, was due to a somewhat better revenue management and possibly to the abolition of the transit duties and other oppressive taxes. Still there was not any material rise in prosperity. On the contrary there was a rapid fall in the two or three years before the introduction of the survey. That the neighbourhood of Nagar city, with its large and increasing population and comparatively great trading and manufacturing capital, should not have progressed more rapidly, was, in Colonel Anderson's opinion, chiefly due to over-assessment.²

At the time of settlement (1852), the surveyed Government portion of the Nagar subdivision, excluding the Ahmadnagar town, contained 40,450 inhabitants, and had 30,591 horned cattle, 1722 horses, 23,648 sheep and goats, 1633 ploughs, and 881 carts. The high road from Bombay to Calcutta passed through the sub-division. There was another chief line of traffic namely that leading over the Nimbdhera pass through Ráhuri towards Násik and Málegaon on the north, and from Nagar towards Karmála, Pandharpur, and other places on the south. There was also a considerable traffic on the line between Kolhár and Málegaon. Little had been done to help the traffic. The country was very much in want of roads. With regard to markets the sub-division was favourably placed. As Nagar was the head-quarters of the Artillery and of a Native Infantry Regiment, large supplies were required for the military markets. Besides this, the city of Nagar was still important with a population of about 28,600 and considerable manufactures and trade. A large traffic also passed through the sub-division especially along the Bombay and Calcutta road. In Ahmadnagar and in the neighbouring town of Bhingár about 1322 handlooms were at work, weaving women's robes and other cotton cloths. Much of the produce was of a superior description and was sent to Poona Násik and other places. Some other villages had a few cotton looms and Ahmadnagar had some silk looms. There was also in Ahmadnagar a large manufacture of brass cooking vessels and of carpets. Most of the trade of the subdivision was in the hands of Ahmadnagar money-lenders. The chief exports were grain, cotton goods, and articles of hardware. The chief imports were grain and other supplies from the surrounding districts; sugar, salt, iron, and English cotton goods.

and yarn from Bombay; rice from Poona and Junnar; oil, turmeric, butter, and betelnut from Bârsi and other towns to the south; molasses from the east, butter from Jámkhed and other places; cotton goods from Nágpur and other places; and silk and embroidered stuffs from Paathan and Yeola. The Ahmadnagar market was on the whole well supplied and the place appeared to be thriving. Besides Ahmadnagar, there were six other market towns, but none of them were of much importance except Vâlki which was the largest cattle market in this part of the collectorate and was frequented by landholders and cattle dealers from all the neighbouring districts.

Many landholders, though so near a good market as Nagar, were extremely poor, owing, it was thought, to their expensive habits of living. The profits of their land, though greater than elsewhere, were not large enough both to enable them to meet the demands of Government and also to admit of their indulging in luxuries. Many of them had forsaken agriculture for employment as labourers and servants about the cantonment. Hardworking landholders who managed to keep clear of debt were generally thriving. Their produce always found a ready market in the city, and they could make a good deal by hiring their bullocks and the members of their households who were not required for field-work to Márwâr merchants and others who had carts and exported grain to Poona and the coast. Again in some of the hilly villages the people kept cattle and made money by selling butter. Some of the poorer classes especially the Lamánis brought firewood for the supply of the city and camp. The owners of gardens near the town of Nagar were generally better off than other cultivators. Most of them were of the Máli caste and many of them were very experienced and industrious. Several of them who lived in the town had considerable capital and were able to keep more labourers and to till their lands more highly than any in other parts of the Nagar collectorate. These cases were exceptional. Many husbandmen even near the town were just as depressed as in the neighbouring sub-divisions and the more remote villages had no advantages as regards markets or in other respects. Of the 14,487 survey numbers 9134 belonged to hereditary holders or *mirásdárs*, and 5353 were deserted, alienated, or barren fields. Of the *mirás* numbers 3200 were cultivated by the hereditary holders themselves, 1879 by other hereditary holders, 1215 by non-hereditary holders, and 2840 were waste.

The Nagar villages were generally better placed with respect to markets and climate than those of Nevása. Some of the Karda villages enjoyed a better climate, and being nearer to Poona where prices were higher than at Nagar, they were equally well placed for the sale of their dry-crop produce. Nagar could pay a higher dry-crop assessment than Nevása and an equally high assessment with part of Karda. It could also pay a higher garden assessment than those sub-divisions, as fruits and vegetables suffered less in being taken to Ahmadnagar than in going to Poona. The highest dry-crop acre rates were fixed at 2s. 9d., 2s. 6d., and 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½, Rs. 1¼ and Rs. 1½). Forty-six villages with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1½) formed the first class. These villages were in the centre of the sub-

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division ; some of them were close to the large market of Ahmadnagar, and others, further from Ahmadnagar, had a better climate or were close to made lines of road. The greatest extent of garden land was in these villages. Twenty-five villages with a highest rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) formed the second class. Three of these near the Mula were not so well placed for markets as most of those of the first class. They were also not particularly well supplied with water. The remaining twenty-two villages lay to the south and south-east of the first class villages. They had an inferior climate and an inferior position as to markets. Eleven villages with a highest rate of 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1¼) formed the third class. Four of them were in the valley of the Mula with a good climate, but with a very inferior position with reference to markets. The remaining seven villages were in the extreme south of the sub-division adjoining Korti with a poor climate and further removed from Ahmadnagar. Some of the garden produce was raised by water brought from dams but most of the gardens were watered from wells. The garden lands close to Ahmadnagar were the best as the people could sell their vegetables and other produce without trouble or loss of time. A highest acre rate of 12s. (Rs. 6) was therefore imposed on them. Garden lands further off but still within an easy distance of Ahmadnagar had a highest acre rate of 10s. (Rs. 5). For the remaining first and second class villages a highest rate of 8s. (Rs. 4) and for those of the third class a rate of 6s. (Rs. 3) were adopted. Except the state or *sheri* lands of the Fara garden, where it was £1 (Rs. 10), the highest channel-water acre rate was fixed at 12s. (Rs. 6). As in Karda the dams in Nagar were of earth and had to be built afresh each year. The water drawn from the streams which took their rise in the northern hills was generally only enough to water small plots of land. There were many skilled raisers of garden produce near Ahmadnagar. With a better supply of water the garden area would be greatly increased. There were in all 4802 acres of garden land and the total assessment was £1509 (Rs. 15,090) or an average acre rate of 6s. 3¾d. (Rs. 3 as. 2¼). The old *kamál* or highest garden assessment in Nagar was £2340 (Rs. 23,400) which applied to the acres of survey measurement would give an average rate of about 9s. 9d. (Rs. 4¾). But the former rates were so irregular that no safe deductions could be made from them.

The general results of the rates in the several classes of villages are shown in the following statement :

Nagar Survey Settlement, 1852.

CLASS.	VILLAGES.	FORMER.		SURVEY.						
		Assessment.	Acre-Rate.	LAND IN CULTIVATION			WASTE.		TOTAL.	
				Area.	Assessment.	Acre-Rate.	Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.
I ...	46	Rs. 66,710	Rs. a p. 1 3	554,962	40,305	As. p. 11 9	33,716	Rs. 15,301	Acres 88,678	Rs. 56,107
II ..	25	23,807	0 14	831,352	17,585	9 0	35,281	14,178	66,684	31,703
III ...	11	4643	0 9 4	7930	3884	6 10	11,339	2581	19,269	6906
Total.	82	1,00,160	1 1 0	94,244	61,274	10 5	80,337	33,561	174,581	94,835

The general results of the settlement, as regards all tenures, are shown in the following statement :

Nagar Survey Settlement, 1852.

YEAR.	CULTIVATED.				WASTE.	ALIEN-ATED.	TOTAL.
	Area.	Assess-ment.	Remis-sions.	Collec-tions.	Collec-tions.	Collec-tions	Collec-tions
Former:	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.	Rs.	Rs.	Ra.	Ra.
1819-1851	92,907	97,797	17,537	80,260	5465	1164	86,889
1850-51	77,968	84,728	5331	81,397	7010	1283	89,690
Survey:							
1851-52	94,244	61,274	8945	52,329	5772	998	59,090
1852-53	109,461	67,912	619	67,393	5419	1334	74,146
Rental of 82 villages and two portions of <i>sheri</i> land	174,567	94,788	1438	96,226

The average acre rate paid before the survey settlement was 1s. 8½d. (13½ *as.*). The survey acre rate on the entire arable lands was 1s. 1d. (8½ *as.*), and the rate of the lands cultivated in 1851-52, 1s. 3½d. (10½ *as.*) or a reduction on the past payments of about twenty-five per cent. The area and assessment of the entire Government portion of the sub-division are shown below :

Nagar Area and Assessment, 1852-53.

LAND.	DRY-CROP.		GARDEN.		BARRER.	TOTAL.		ALIEN-ATED.	REALIZ-ABLE BALANCE.
	Area.	Amt.	Area.	Amount	Area.	Area.	Amount		
Government ..	Acres.	Ra.	Acres.	Ra.	Acres.	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.
Detached <i>Sheri</i> ...	173,177	79,970	4706	14,605	77,000	253,883	94,575	...	94,575
Alienated ...	602	406	105	498	64	771	904	...	904
Detached <i>Indim</i> ...	11,166	5272	366	1205	1319	12,361	6477	6477	...
Quit Rent ...	6	4	1	7	4	4	...
City and Camp of Ahmadnagar ...	6321	2728	122	476	947	7390	3204	1762	1442
...	2992	2992
Total of 85 Government vil-lages and two detached por-tions of land ...	190,272	88,380	5299	16,784	82,323	277,894	1,06,164	8243	96,921

The highest value of claims or *haks* paid to village officers entered in the accounts of 1850-51, was for headmen £28 (Rs. 280), for accountants £374 (Rs. 3740), and for watchmen £25 (Rs. 250), or a total of £427 (Rs. 4270).

The sub-division that was settled next after Ahmadnagar was Korti. In the Korti villages measurements were in progress from November 1848 to January 1852, and classification from November 1849 to June 1852. The settlement was made in February and March 1853. At the time of settlement the Korti sub-division was bounded on the north-west and north by Karda and Nagar, on the north-east and east by the Nizám's territories separated by the Sina, on the south-east by the Karmála sub-division of Sholápur, and on the south-west and west by the Bhimthadi and Indápur sub-divisions of the Poona collectorate, the Bhima being the dividing line. Korti had a total estimated area of 615,116 acres occupied by 137 villages, 106 of which were Government and

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fourteen partly and seventeen wholly alienated villages.¹ The charge was divided between a mámlatdár and a mahálkari. In 1821-22 Korti contained ninety-eight villages and the number was afterwards increased by sixty. From this total number twenty-one villages were transferred to other sub-divisions, which left a balance of 137 villages in 1837-38. Between 1837 and 1852 no changes were made. The chief landlords or *jágirdárs* were Sindia, the Bhonsle of Nágpur, and the descendants of Kávi Jang.

Before it came into the possession of the British in 1821-22 the greater portion of Korti was under the management of Ráv Rambha Nimbálkar the head of a powerful branch of the Nimbálkar family settled under the protection of the Nizám's government. A few villages which were included (1852) in the sub-division, formerly belonged to the Peshwa and were obtained by the British in 1818-19. Some of the villages of Korti are said to have suffered severely from plundering parties of the Marátha army about the time of the battle of Kharda in 1795. The depredations of Holkar and others also extended over Korti in 1803 and were carried to such lengths that large towns alone remained inhabited.

It is not known when or by whom the total assessment called *tankha* was fixed. Local traditions attributed the original arrangements to Malik Ambar. The Marátha total rental or *kamál* in most, if not in all villages, exceeded the Musalmán total. Trustworthy information regarding the way in which the Marátha total was settled was also not procurable, though it was said that the nominal total assessment of the villages that were received from the Peshwa was fixed in Náro Bábáji's time. Before the beginning of British rule, the revenues of all the villages, whether under the Nimbálkar, Daulatráv Sindia, or the Peshwa Bájiráv, seem to have been farmed in the usual manner. Under the British the revenue management did not materially differ from that pursued in other sub-divisions. The lands were measured about 1826-27 by Mr. Pringle's establishment, and some of them were also classified, but no further measures with regard to the settlement of the revenue were adopted. Shortly after the British acquired possession, forty-seven dry-crop rates were introduced varying from 2s. 9d. to 5½d. (Rs. 1½ to 3½ *as.*) the *bigha*; and thirty-six for garden lands varying from 10s. to 1s. 3½d. (Rs. 5 to 10½ *as.*) the *bigha*. In 100 villages, though different rates prevailed in the several villages, there was only one dry-crop rate for the entire lands of each village, from which the

¹ The details are :

Korti Villages, 1852.

DESCRIPTION.	SURVEYED.		COMPUTED.		TOTAL.	
	Villages.	Acres.	Villages.	Acres.	Villages.	Acres.
Government ...	106	454,119	106	454,119
Partly Alienated ...	14	78,005	14	78,005
Wholly Alienated ...	3	11,369	14	78,623	17	84,992
Total ...	123	541,493	14	78,623	137	615,116

Survey Superintendent inferred that the land measures had been adapted to the rates and not the rates to the land measures. Similarly in forty-nine villages there was only one garden rate for each village and in forty-one villages there was no garden rate. Between 1834 and 1837 the Collector Mr. Harrison reduced the dry crop rates of about eighty-eight villages on an average about $6\frac{1}{2}d.$ ($4\frac{1}{2}as.$) in the rupee; and he also reduced the garden rates of four villages on an average about $6\frac{1}{2}d.$ ($4\frac{1}{2}as.$) in the rupee. The other changes were similar to those noticed in the sub-divisions which have been already described.

The fluctuations in cultivation and in collections were much greater in Korti than in Nevása Karda or Nagar. This was due not so much to a heavier assessment as to its uncertain rainfall, its poor husbandry, and its small area of garden land. Though the rates in many were high, some villages were lightly assessed. There was a marked resemblance in the fluctuations of Karda and Korti, the ups and downs being greatest in the past history of Korti. For instance between 1821 and 1833 in Karda there was a fall of $39\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in cultivation and of $72\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in collections compared with a fall in Korti of 51 per cent in cultivation and 88 per cent in collections. Again between 1842 and 1845 there was a fall in the Karda collections of 66 per cent and in the Korti collections of 75 per cent, and between 1847 and 1849 the fall in Karda was $35\frac{1}{2}$ per cent and in Korti 55 per cent. The average yearly remissions in Karda were £3454 (Rs. 34,540) or 22 per cent of the revenue demands and in Korti £3156 (Rs. 31,560) or $31\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. A reduction of assessment was necessary; but even under low rates the Survey Superintendent doubted whether Korti with so uncertain a rainfall and such scanty capital would become prosperous.

There was no made road in the sub-division, several of the country tracks were passable by carts, and with a little smoothing and repairing might be made into good roads. The cart traffic was considerable and the roads were also frequented by Vanjárs. There were three principal lines of traffic. The first led from east to west through the centre of the subdivision from Bársi and Karmála by the Korti towns of Alsunda and Pedgaon towards Poona and Bombay. The second, also from east to west, led from the Bálághát and Kharda in Jámkhed by the Korti towns of Nimbodi and Chámhárgonda towards Poona. The third route led from north-west to south-east from Nagar to Karmála and Sholápur in a direction parallel to the river Sina. Of five market towns Chámhárgonda or Shrigonda was the chief. It belonged to Sindia and was a large and wealthy place. Karjat with about 4600 people was the chief market among the Government villages and was fairly thriving. Mirajgaon and Rásin, both alienated villages, were also large markets. Rásin though decayed had a considerable population and several well-built temples and houses. Pedgaon on the Bhima was formerly a place of importance, being a chief military station of the Moghals and Maráthás. At the settlement time it was much reduced and had only 1900 inhabitants. About 100 handlooms were worked at Karjat, Korti, and other

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Government villages, chiefly in weaving a good coarse cloth which was exported to Nagar and other places. The chief exports from Korti were grain and vegetable oils which went to Poona and in smaller quantities to Nagar. A good many sheep and a few horses were also reared in the sub-division and sold for export to other places chiefly to wandering buyers. Some horses went to Málegaon in the Nizám's country or elsewhere. The imports were chiefly necessaries such as wheat, gram, rice, molasses, salt, cloths, and petty market supplies, but the general poverty of the inhabitants did not admit of a very brisk trade.

The population was 50,388, horned cattle 52,083, horses 2646, sheep and goats 52,244, ploughs 2305, and carts 546. There were few occupations unconnected with agriculture. A good many landholders especially in bad years left the sub-division and sought temporary employment elsewhere. They were generally poor, though in a few villages some of the headmen and influential landholders who kept sheep or cattle were in good circumstances. They were probably in proportion to their means equally involved in debt with the people of other sub-divisions. About fifty landholders in nine villages on the frontier cultivated land in the Nizám's territory. Of the 23,058 survey numbers into which the lands of the sub-division were divided, 7854 numbers belonged to hereditary holders or *mirásdárs*. Of these 2636 were tilled by the holders themselves, 1069 by other hereditary holders, 1513 by non-hereditary holders, and 2636 numbers were waste.

The 106 Government villages were divided into three classes with highest dry-crop acre rates of 2s., 1s. 9d., and 1s. 6d. (Re. 1, 14 as., and 12 as.). Fourteen villages with a highest rate of 2s. (Re. 1) formed the first class. They were in the valley of the Sina close to the 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) Nagar villages. Their climate though not good was superior to that of the villages in the valley of the Bhíma and this group was nearer the Nagar market than the other groups. A large share of the cultivation was of the middle crop or *kharij*. Nineteen villages with a highest rate of 1s. 9d. (14 as.) formed the second class. Six of them were in the north-west in the valley of the Bhíma and near the 2s. (Re. 1) villages of Karda. Their climate was slightly better than that of the villages further south, and they were somewhat better placed for markets being near to Chámbhárgonda and also being better placed for outside markets. The remaining thirteen villages were in the valley of the Sina near the villages of the first class. They had a similar climate, but they were not quite so well placed with reference to outside markets. Seventy-three villages with a rate of 1s. 6d. (12 as.) formed the third class. Nineteen of them adjoined the thirteen villages of the second group of the second class and their climate was probably similar but they were not so near the Nagar market as the remaining villages of the valley of the Sina and they were also further from the Poona market than the villages of the valley of the Bhíma. The remaining fifty-four villages were in the valley of the Bhíma. Their climate was very inferior, and several of the villages suffered from a want of water. They were however fairly well placed with

respect to the Poona market. Lower dry-crop rates were fixed for Korti than for Karda or Nagar, because its climate was worse, its situation with respect to markets was also worse, and its husbandry was in some respects inferior. A good season was generally followed by so great a fall in the price of grain that the indebted people could not sufficiently recover from the losses of preceding years and many of them were in miserable poverty. Korti was one of the worst sub-divisions in the Deccan. It could not bear a heavy assessment. Even with low rates, though it might improve, it could never be so prosperous as some parts of Nagar and Karda.¹

Lower garden rates were also required. The garden lands were almost entirely well-watered or *motasthal* and except in a very few villages the crops were generally inferior. The highest well-rates in Karda were 8s. (Rs. 4) and 6s. (Rs. 3) the acre, according to the situation of the villages with reference to markets or modes of husbandry. The rates in Nagar varied from 12s. (Rs. 6) in the lands close to Nagar to 6s. (Rs. 3) in badly placed villages. In Korti a highest acre rate of 6s. (Rs. 3) was imposed on several villages which had the advantage of being near markets where landholders drew an extra profit from the ready sale of vegetables and other garden produce. For other villages a highest acre rate of 5s. (Rs. 2½) was adopted. These rates were the highest that could safely be imposed in so barren and poor a country. For lands watered from dams or *bandhrás* a highest acre rate of 10s. (Rs. 5) was levied. The entire area of garden land was 2870 acres of which the total assessment was £531 (Rs. 5310), that is an average acre rate of 3s. 8½d. (Rs. 1 as. 13½). The old total or *kamál* garden assessment was £830 (Rs. 8300) which applied to the survey acres gives an average of 5s. 9½d. (Rs. 2 as. 14½), but there were many inequalities. It was originally proposed as had been done in Karda to assess the alluvial or *dheli* lands on the banks of the Bhima at a highest acre rate of 4s. (Rs. 2). Owing to the greater distance from large markets of most Korti villages and the consequent lower profits a highest rate of 3s. (Rs. 1½) was adopted. There were 446 acres of alluvial land with a total assessment of £48 10s. (Rs. 485) or an average acre assessment of 2s. 2½d. (Rs. 1 as. 1½). The general results of the rates as regards the three classes of villages are shown in the following statement :

Korti Survey Settlement, 1853.

CLASS.	VILLAGES.	FORMER.		SURVEY.						
		Assess-ment.	Acre Rate.	Tilled.			Waste.		Total.	
				Area.	Assess-ment.	Acre Rate.	Area.	Assess-ment.	Area.	Assess-ment.
		Rs.	As. p.	Acres.	Rs.	As. p.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.
I. ...	14	9464	7 9	19,636	7155	5 10	13,317	8936	32,853	11,091
II. ...	19	20,924	8 0	41,865	12,967	5 0	23,188	7000	70,051	19,967
III. ...	73	79,199	9 0	140,879	41,926	4 9	97,980	22,084	238,259	64,010
Total...	106	109,587	8 8	202,330	62,048	4 11	133,783	33,020	341,163	95,068

¹ Surv. Supt. in Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 112.

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The general results of the settlement, as regards all descriptions of tenures, are shown in the following statement :

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Korti Survey Settlement, 1853.

YEAR.	TILLED.				WASTE. Collections.	ALIEN-ATED. Collections.	TOTAL. Collections.
	Area.	Asses-ment.	Remis-sions.	Collec-tions.			
Former :	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.
1821-1852	185,361	1,00,819	31,562	69,257	1709	763	71,379
1851-52	179,456	96,117	17,718	78,399	4885	429	83,713
Survey :							
1852-53	202,380	62,048	6867	55,161	5725	393	61,279
Rental of 106 villages.	841,163	95,068	531	95,599

The excess of revenue which would be realized provided all the arable lands were brought under tillage was about £2400 (Rs. 24,000) or 34 per cent on the average collections of former years. The average acre assessment paid before the survey settlement was 9d. (6 as.), and the survey rate on all the arable lands was 6½d. (4½ as.) and on the lands tilled in the year of settlement 7½d. (4½ as.) the acre, or a decrease of 1½d. (1½ as.) or about 18 per cent on past payments. The following statement shows the area of the 106 Government villages and the survey assessment imposed on the different descriptions of land :

Korti Area and Assessment, 1853.

LAND.	Dry-Crop.		Garden.		Barren.	Total.		Alien-ated.	Realizable Balance.
	Acres	Ra.	Acres	Ra.		Acres.	Ra.		
Government ...	338,298	89,755	2870	5313	88,296	429,459	95,068	...	95,068
Alienated ...	18,095	4957	159	294	8120	21,874	5251	5251	...
Quit Rent ...	2971	898	3	4	312	8266	902	371	531
Total ...	359,359	95,610	3032	5611	91,728	454,119	1,01,221	5622	95,599

The highest value of the village claims or *haks*, which were abolished at the settlement, as entered in the accounts for 1850-51, was £241 (Rs. 2410) for headmen, £18 (Rs. 180) for assistant headmen, and £344 (Rs. 3440) for accountants, or a total of £603 (Rs. 6030).

The sub-division that was settled next after Korti was Shevgaon. Measuring was begun in April 1850 and finished in July 1852 ; classing was begun in November 1851 and finished in December 1852, and the survey rates were introduced in April and May 1853. The Shevgaon villages lay in the Godávári valley and were much mixed with Nevása villages. On the north, east, and south Shevgaon was bounded by the Nizám's territory, and on the west by Nevása and Nagar. Its area was 417,459 acres occupied by 176½ villages of which 78½ were Government and 53 were partly and 45 wholly alienated.¹

Shevgaon,
1852-53.

¹ The details are :

Shevgaon Villages, 1853.

DESCRIPTION.	SURVEYED.		COMPUTED.		TOTAL.	
	Villages.	Acres.	Villages.	Acres.	Villages.	Acres.
Government	78½	174,530	78½	174,530
Partly Alienated	7	26,536	46	84,659	53	111,194
Wholly Alienated	1	3357	44	128,378	45	131,735
Total	86½	204,423	90	213,035	176½	417,459

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About the middle of the eighteenth century the Maráthás took Shevgaon from the Nizám, and by mutual agreement Sindia and Holkar shared it in 1752. Holkar's share fell to the British in 1818, but Sindia continued to hold his share at the time of the introduction of the survey. In the early years of the nineteenth century Shevgaon, equally with Nevása, suffered from the ravages of Marátha armies, Bhils, and Pendhárís. Sindia, Holkar, and the Peshwa had posts or *thánás* in the sub-division but instead of joining to protect the people the three powers appear to have seized every opportunity of plundering them. Frequently also, as in the case of the quarrels between Sindia and the two Báis, the villages suffered from the quarrels of members of the same family. Sarjeráv Ghátge and Holkar are said to have been the chief oppressors. On the British accession to Holkar's share the old Musalmán total rental or *tankha* is said to have been that nominally in force, no Marátha total or *kamál* having been fixed. The same rude revenue management as in the Peshwa's districts seems to have prevailed. In 1818-19 so far as they could be ascertained the largest realizations of former years were assumed to be the proper total for each village and proportionate rates were distributed over the several holdings. These rates varied from 4s. (Rs. 2) to 2s. (Rs. 1) the *bigha* for dry-crop lands and from 6s. to 3s. (Rs. 3-1½) the *bigha* for garden lands. Between 1834 and 1837 Mr. Harrison reduced the dry-crop rates of fifteen villages about 5d. (3¼ as.) in the rupee or twenty per cent and the garden rates of thirty-three villages about 1s. ¾d. (8½ as.) in the rupee or fifty-three per cent. In a few villages the plot or *mundbandi* system was kept and was still in use at the time of the settlement. There was a good deal of confusion in the old accounts of this sub-division and they were probably less accurate even than those of Nevása. In Shevgaon itself at the time of measurement several of the holdings represented in the village papers could not be traced in the field. The revenue management under British rule differed in no material respect from the system already described in other sub-divisions. Shevgaon was the only sub-division of Ahmadnagar which showed a decided improvement under British management. According to the Survey Superintendent this improvement was chiefly due to its comparatively light assessment. Though there was a considerable similarity in the dry-crop soils of Nevása and Shevgaon and the garden lands of Shevgaon were extensive and probably richer, the Nevása assessment ranged about ten per cent higher than that of Shevgaon. The revenue was therefore more easily collected in Shevgaon than in Nevása. The average remissions in Shevgaon amounted to ten per cent of the revenue demands, while in Nevása they amounted to eighteen per cent. The fluctuations in collections were also less in Shevgaon than in Nevása. Thus from 1821-22 to 1824-25 the fall of revenue was 36½ per cent in Nevása and 21 per cent in Shevgaon. Between 1826 and 1833 the decline was 53½ per cent in Nevása and 41½ per cent in Shevgaon. Between 1842 and 1846 the decline was 49¾ per cent in Nevása and 29½ per cent in Shevgaon, and between 1847 and 1850 the decline was 49 per cent in Nevása and 37 per cent in Shevgaon. According to the Superin-

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tendent the assessment though moderate was uneven. In his opinion with a fair amount of trading and manufacturing capital and with an increasing population the Shevgaon subdivision would have progressed much more rapidly in agricultural wealth and would have been in a much more prosperous state had the former assessment not pressed too heavily on the cultivating classes. Under the former loose system landholders were able to choose not only the least heavily assessed lands but also the best parts of the fields that were chosen. With this help though they made no great advance, they raised no great outcry regarding over-assessment. Still there was room for improvement. In some of the villages the assessment was higher than in others; consequently the area under tillage varied greatly in different villages. Of an arable area of 133,311 acres, only 55,468 acres had on an average been cultivated. The garden cultivation might also be much increased. At the same time most of the Shevgaon villages were able to pay as high an assessment as the Nevása villages, and the state of the sub-division allowed the imposition of an assessment sufficiently high to lead to an increase of revenue in future years.

Shevgaon was not so well placed as Nevása with respect to outside markets. The old town of Paithan on the Godávári was not far from the north of the subdivision. It had a large manufacturing population and under ordinary circumstances would have been the centre of a thriving traffic. But the transit and town duties of the Nizám's government prevented much trade between it and the neighbouring British villages. Instead of to Paithan grain was sent to Nagar. There were two or three much used bullock tracks but no cart roads over the hills to the east of the Imámpur pass. Cart traffic was confined to the Imámpur route which could only be reached by a long round. Considerable outside traffic from Berár and the Nizám's country passed along several other routes. Shevgaon had a considerable number of cotton weavers. Sindia's town of Páthardi had upwards of 500 looms, and other alienated and Government villages had about 250 more. Tisgaon with fifty to sixty looms had the largest manufacturing population of any British village. A few silk fabrics fitted for robes and bodices were made at Páthardi and Tisgaon. The cotton cloth was almost entirely coarse, some of it being woven from native thread and some from a mixture of English and native thread. Of ten market towns the chief were Páthardi and Bodegaon, both belonging to Sindia and reported to contain several wealthy traders. Of the Government towns Shevgaon and Tisgaon had fair markets. Shevgaon had a population of about 3900 of whom 100 or 120 were shopkeepers traders and moneylenders. At Mánikdaundi and Khurvandi a good many moneylenders carried on a considerable business in the neighbouring Nizám's villages, but preferred to live under British protection. At the village of Mari a yearly fair was held in March attended by about 15,000 visitors. The chief exports from Shevgaon were cloth which generally found a sale in neighbouring villages, and grain, vegetables, oil, butter, and safflower, which were sent to Nagar and Poona. The survey census showed 28,983 people, 26,429 horned cattle, 1579 horses, 17,799 sheep and goats, 1311 ploughs

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and 474 carts. At the time of settlement about 1148 of the 1764 landholders who had separate accounts with Government were represented by the village officers to be in debt. The average debt of each individual was estimated at something less than £10 (Rs. 100). Of the 9764 survey numbers 6844 were hereditary holdings. Of these 2027 were tilled by the original holders, 757 by other hereditary holders, 1848 by non-hereditary holders or *upris*, and 2212 were waste.

The 78½ Government villages were arranged in four classes with highest dry-crop acre rates varying from 2s. 6d. to 1s. 9d. (Rs. 1¼ - 14 as.). In assessing Shevgaon the same highest dry-crop rates as those of the Nevása villages were adopted except in eight outlying villages in the extreme north-east. Eight villages with a highest rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1¼) formed the first class. They were in the south-east near the hills with a good climate and close to the large market of Páthardi. They were also nearer Ahmadnagar than the other villages of the sub-division. This group was a continuation of the Nevása 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1¼) group. Thirty-nine and a half villages with an acre rate of 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) formed the second class. This group lay to the north-east of the villages of the first class, being a continuation of the 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) Nevása group of villages. Some of the villages near the hills had a somewhat less uncertain rainfall, while those in the plain were better placed with respect to markets. The position of the entire group was not so good as that of the first class villages. Twenty-three villages with an acre rate of 2s. (Rs. 1) formed the third class. They held much the same position with reference to the second class as the second class did to the first class. Eight villages with a rate of 1s. 9d. (14 as.) formed the fourth class. These villages did not enjoy so good a climate as the villages near the hills. They were also further from good markets and two or three of them which had been somewhat over-assessed were empty. As regards garden tillage in lands watered from wells, a highest acre rate of 6s. (Rs. 3), the same as in Nevása, was imposed on most of the Shevgaon villages. In nine villages which were not well placed for markets the highest rate was reduced to 5s. (Rs. 2½). For channel-watered lands which were few and poor, a highest acre rate of 10s. (Rs. 5) was adopted. The whole survey assessment on garden lands was £427 (Rs. 4270) on 205½ acres that is an average rate of 4s. 1¾d. (Rs. 2 as. 1½). The former total assessment was £569 (Rs. 5690). The results of the revised rates in the four classes of villages are shown in the following statement:

Shevgaon Survey Settlement, 1853.

CLASS.	VILLAGES.	FORMER.				SURVEY.					
		As- sessment.	Acre Rate.	TILLED.			WASTE.		TOTAL.		
				Area.	As- sessment.	Acre Rate.	Area.	As- sessment.	Area.	As- sessment.	
I ...	8	Rs. 7414	0 12 7	9487	4956	8 5	10,548	4186	19,985	9141	
II ..	89½	28,422	0 13 8	33,169	19,835	9 7	29,626	11,931	62,795	31,766	
III ...	23	16,586	0 15 5	17,242	9335	8 8	26,642	8317	43,884	17,652	
IV ...	8	2038	1 1 0	1918	992	8 3	4759	1595	6677	2587	
Total ..	78½	64,460	0 14 1	61,766	35,117	9 1	71,575	26,029	133,341	61,146	

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The general results of the settlement are shown in the following statement:

Shevgaon Survey Settlement, 1853.

YEAR.	TILLED.				WASTE.	ALIENATED.	TOTAL.
	Area.	Assessment.	Remissions.	Collections.	Collections.	Collections.	Collections.
Former :	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1818-1852.	55,468	47,297	4943	42,354	1667	205	44,226
1851-52 ..	53,115	46,947	1934	45,013	1577	224	46,514
Survey :							
1852-53 ...	61,766	35,117	2221	32,896	1120	210	34,226
Rental ...	133,341	61,146	247	61,393

The excess of the survey total over former average collections was £1717 or 38½ per cent. The relief afforded to the landholders was not so great as in Nevása, but owing to the comparatively better condition of the Shevgaon villages, such a large reduction was not necessary. The details of the total area and assessment are :

Shevgaon Area and Assessment, 1853.

LAND.	Dry-Crop.		Garden.		Barren.	Total.		Alienated.	Realizable Balance.
	Acres.	Ra.	Acres.	Ra.		Acres.	Ra.		
Government.	131,287	56,878	2054	4268	33,012	166,353	61,146	...	61,146
Alienated ...	5602	2432	127	258	602	6331	2690	2690	...
Quit Rent ...	1748	785	45	97	53	1846	892	635	247
Total ...	138,637	60,095	2226	4623	33,667	174,830	64,718	3325	61,393

The highest value of the claims of village officers entered in the 1851-52 accounts was £204 (Rs. 2040) of which £27 (Rs. 270) went to headmen and £177 (Rs. 1770) to accountants.

Jámkhed,
1852-53.

The sub-division that was settled next after Shevgaon was Jámkhed. Measuring was begun in March 1850 and finished in July 1852, classing was begun in November 1851 and finished in February 1853, and the survey rates were introduced in May and June 1853. At the time of settlement Jámkhed lay south of Shevgaon and east of Korti. It was formed of several groups of villages or of detached single villages generally surrounded by the Nizám's territories. The largest of these groups lay in the valley of the Sina, at some distance to the east of the north part of Korti. Jámkhed had an estimated area of 287,883 acres occupied by seventy-five villages,¹ of which fifty-nine

¹ Original number of villages 82; received from the Nizám 6; alienated villages brought to account 29; total 117. Of these four were transferred to Karmála, two to Nagar, thirty-one to Korti, and five to Karda, making a total of 42 villages which left for Jámkhed 75 villages :

Jámkhed Villages, 1853.

DESCRIPTION.	SURVEYED.		COMPUTED.		TOTAL.	
	Vil-lages.	Acres.	Vil-lages.	Acres.	Vil-lages.	Acres.
Government ...	59	234,703	59	234,703
Partly Alienated ...	5	14,274	5	19,504	10	33,773
Wholly Alienated	8	19,402	6	19,402
Total ...	64	248,977	11	38,906	75	287,883

were Government and ten were partly and six wholly alienated. Most of the Jámkhed villages were acquired from the Peshwa in 1818-19. Six villages including Jámkhed and Kharda were subsequently received from the Nizám, five of them in 1821-22 and one in 1845-46, owing to the death of the proprietor who, though a Muhammadan, appears to have held the post of priest or *guru* to Sindia. Jámkhed formed a separate sub-division from 1818-19 to 1821-22 when it was included in Karmála. In 1824-25 it was transferred from Karmála to Nagar and again in 1826-27 retransferred to Karmála to which it remained attached until 1835-36 when it was formed into a separate sub-division. Besides these territorial changes some villages were transferred to other sub-divisions. Twenty-nine alienated villages were at various times included in the accounts of the sub-division, and fifteen alienated villages lapsed to Government.

Before the beginning of British rule most of the villages of the petty division of Mánur are stated to have been in the possession of the Peshwa from 1760 and some of the Kharda and Jámkhed villages from a much earlier period. The villages are also stated to have been managed by government agents and not to have been farmed. Shortly after the beginning of British rule, rates were fixed in the same way as in other sub-divisions. There were twenty-four *bigha* rates for the dry-crop soils, varying from 4s. to 6d. (Rs. 2-4 *as.*) and twenty-one for garden lands varying from 12s. to 2s. 9d. (Rs. 6-1½). In two villages, the estate or *mundbandi* assessment survived. About 1836-37 the Revenue Commissioner and Collector lowered the dry-crop rates of eighteen villages on an average about 5½d. (3¼ *as.*) in the rupee or twenty-four per cent and the garden rates of six villages about 11¼d. (7½ *as.*) in the rupee or forty-six per cent. The remaining details of the revenue management before the survey settlement do not differ from those described in other sub-divisions. The assessment was somewhat heavier in Jámkhed than in Shevgaon, and the progress of Jámkhed was in consequence not quite so satisfactory. The average past yearly remissions in Jámkhed were £900 (Rs. 9000) or fourteen per cent of the revenue demands, while in Shevgaon they averaged only £494 (Rs. 4940) or ten per cent. On the other hand the results in Jámkhed were better than in Nagar. In Jámkhed the revenue collections in any subsequent series of years never rose so high as their average amount in the first years of British rule. Between 1847 and 1852 there was a great decline both in the collections and in the area under tillage. The comparatively large amount of capital in Jámkhed and the profits of many landholders from other sources than agriculture, enabled them to keep up their cultivation better than in other sub-divisions. But according to the survey officer many of the poorer landholders who had to look solely to their labour as husbandmen were very badly off. There was no want of population, capital, or farming stock, and, in the opinion of the survey officer, had the former assessment been fair nearly all the arable land would have been under tillage, whereas on an average upwards of 70,000 acres of arable land had remained waste and of late years the tendency had been downward instead of upward.

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The country tracks from Kharda and Jámkhed towards Poona and Nagar though not good were passable by carts. Those towards Poona led through Korti. Carts generally went to Nagar by the Korti town of Mirajgaon, the direct road being difficult. But there was not much cart traffic between Nagar and the Jámkhed villages in the Sina valley. The Mohori pass on the Sina side near Kharda was used though in bad repair. The Nizám's army passed through it before the battle of Kharda (1795) and it is said to have been then cleared for the passage of guns. There was (1853) a large traffic between Kharda and Poona, and an increase was anticipated owing to the Bálághát districts having been placed under British superintendence. The greater portion of the route was hard and firm and the cost of a road if made to join Kharda with Poona and Sholápur would not be very great. The Jámkhed villages were not in general well placed with respect to the Nagar and Poona markets, and all exports and imports conveyed through the Nizám's territories were subject to transit duties. The villages in the Sina valley had within their limits the large market town of Kharda, and the country towards Poona being open, carts could be used. Kharda had a population of about 6834 and was a very thriving place. There were 195 merchants shopkeepers and moneylenders, many of whom carried on a large trade in grain and other articles which were procured from the neighbouring villages or from the Bálághát and sent to Poona and other places to the west. Kharda was also the largest grain, cattle, and money market within the limits of this survey group. It was frequented not only by the people of the villages round but by traders and others from distant parts of the country. Jámkhed and Kada were also tolerably large market towns. Jámkhed had a population of about 3600 and Kada of about 2500, and there were a good many traders in both towns. The northern or hilly villages were not so well placed for markets as those in the valley of the Sina. On account of the rugged nature of the ground carts could not be used and, with the exception of the very difficult line from Mánur to Ashti and Kada, there was no road in the direction of Nagar or Poona. The routes to the south in the direction of Jámkhed and Kharda were also almost impracticable for carts. But though the villages were badly placed with reference to outside markets they were generally thriving and contained a pretty large trading and manufacturing population. The former disturbed state of the neighbouring Nizam's territories had caused a considerable influx of moneyed and industrious settlers. The survey census showed 53,374 people, 53,985 horned cattle, 2166 horses, 27,656 sheep and goats, 1868 ploughs, and 573 carts. There were 125 families of weavers in the town of Kharda and about 200 looms were worked in other towns and villages. The outturn was chiefly coarse cotton stuffs such as *lugdás* and turbans. English thread was not much used. Several villages had also a few brassworkers, coppersmiths, and bangle-makers. The circumstances of the Jámkhed landholders varied greatly. The majority were as poor as the people of other sub-divisions, but many of the headmen and leading landholders especially in the villages of Mánur were well off. The Mánur hills

afforded good pasture and besides grain a good deal of butter was exported to Nagar. About 350 of the landholders tilled lands in the neighbouring Nizám's villages. Many of the Jámkhed villages also drew much advantage from the residence of traders and moneylenders who would under other circumstances have settled in the Nizám's territories. Of the 12,049 survey numbers 4311 numbers belonged to hereditary holders. Of these 2500 were tilled by the holders themselves, 593 by other hereditary holders, 473 by non-hereditary holders, and 745 were waste.

The fifty-nine Government villages were arranged in four classes with highest dry-crop acre rates varying from 2s. 6d. to 1s. 9d. (Rs. 1½ - as. 14). The Jámkhed dry-crop rates were similar to those in the Shevgaon villages. They also corresponded with those of two of the Nagar and two of the Korti classes but owing to the different circumstances of the several subdivisions few just comparisons could be drawn between them. The northern villages of Jámkhed had the best climate but were worse off for markets. The southern Jámkhed villages differed little from the neighbouring Nagar and Korti villages as regards either climate or markets. Twenty-six villages with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) formed the first class. Of these three villages were on the Bálághát and twenty-three villages were scattered in the hilly country between the Bálághát and Shevgaon. The climate of these villages was superior; the husbandry good, though carried on under difficulties; and although their position with respect to large markets was not good, owing to the number of resident traders and manufacturers, they were not so straitened as they otherwise would have been in so inaccessible a part of the country. Twelve villages with a highest rate of 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) formed the second class. These villages were situated immediately below the Bálághát in the valley of the Sina. Their climate was inferior to that of the villages of the first class but was fair. Their position with respect to markets was good but they suffered from transit duties on goods passing through the Nizám's territories. Eighteen villages with a highest rate of 2s. (Rs. 1) formed the third class. They were scattered in the valley of the Sina, their climate and situation with reference to markets being inferior. Three villages with an uncertain rainfall and with no peculiar advantages formed the fourth class and were charged a highest rate of 1s. 9d. (14 as.). Highest well-watered garden rates similar to those of Shevgaon namely 6s. and 5s. (Rs. 3 and Rs. 2½) an acre were imposed on the Jámkhed villages. The channel-watered lands were not extensive and were assessed at a highest acre rate of 10s. (Rs. 5), the same as that applied to the Shevgaon villages. The aggregate garden assessment was £453 (Rs. 4530) on the entire arable area of 2460 acres or an average acre rate of 3s. 8½d. (Rs. 1 as. 13½). The former total garden assessment was £595 (Rs. 5950).

The results of the revised rates in the four classes of villages are shown below :

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Jámkhed Survey Settlement, 1853.

CLASS.	VILLAGES	FORMER.		SURVEY.						
		Assessment.	Acre Rate.	Tilled.			Waste.		Total.	
				Area.	Assessment.	Acre Rate.	Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.
I. ..	26	Rs. 36,815	As. p. 12 6	Acres. 48,971	Rs. 22,487	As. p. 7 8	Acres. 27,418	Rs. 10,547	Acres. 74,387	Rs. 32,934
II. ..	12	18,527	12 7	23,533	9515	6 6	17,430	5711	40,963	16,229
III. ..	18	12,460	11 4	17,563	7690	7 0	19,150	6298	36,719	13,898
IV. ..	3	3341	8 11	6990	2100	5 7	5580	1575	11,560	3475
Total.	59	70,943	12 1	94,062	41,792	7 1	69,562	23,641	163,624	66,433

The general results of the settlement are shown below :

Jámkhed Survey Settlement, 1853.

YEAR.	TILLED.				WASTE	ALIEN-ATED.	TOTAL.
	Area.	Assessment.	Remissions.	Collections.	Collections.	Collections.	Collections.
Former.	Acres. 90,044	Rs. 34,500	Rs. 8996	Rs. 55,504	Rs. 1217	Rs. 519	Rs. 57,210
1851-52 ...	64,978	61,098	7081	54,017	2942	446	57,425
Survey.	Acres. 94,062	41,792	5710	38,082	2378	352	39,312
Rental ...	163,624	65,433	309	66,302

The excess of revenue realizable from the whole sub-division, supposing all the arable lands were brought under tillage, was £856 (Rs. 8560) or an increase of about fifteen per cent on the former collections. As most of the poor soils in Jámkhed were capable of being profitably cultivated and as there was no lack either of capital or of industry, the Survey Superintendent was of opinion that the introduction of the new rates would not cause any permanent loss of revenue. At the same time he thought that the increase of revenue would not be great. The former collections averaged 1s. 2½d. (9½ as.) the acre and the survey rate on the lands cultivated in the settlement year was 10½d. (7¼ as.), that is a reduction of about twenty-eight per cent. In this as well as in the sub-divisions previously settled some allowances must be made for the uncertainties of the former system and the varying size of the *bigha*. The following statement shows the total area and assessment of the lands in the fifty-nine Government villages in Jámkhed :

Jámkhed Area and Assessment, 1853.

LAND.	DRY-CROP.		GARDEN.		BARREN.	TOTAL.		ALIEN-ATED.	REALIZ-ABLE BALANCE.
	Area.	Amount	Area.	Amount	Area.	Area.	Amount		
Government.	Acres. 161,164	Rs. 60,898	Acres. 2460	Rs. 4535	Acres. 56,009	Acres. 219,633	Rs. 65,433	Rs. ..	Rs. 65,433
Alienated ...	12,152	4778	307	678	1581	14,010	5356	8356	..
Quit Rent ...	978	371	29	58	53	1060	429	60	369
Total ...	174,294	66,047	2796	5171	57,613	234,703	71,218	5416	66,302

The village grain claims entered in the 1851-52 accounts amounted to £273 (Rs. 2730) of which £88 (Rs. 880) belonged to the headmen and £185 (Rs. 1850) to the accountants. As in other sub-divisions, these claims were abolished at the time of settlement.

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In 1854 in submitting his settlement reports for the six sub-divisions of Nevása, Karda, Nagar, Korti, Shevgaon, and Jámkhed, Colonel G. Anderson the Survey Superintendent expressed his opinion that the people were so impoverished that they could not be expected to feel the full benefits of the revised assessment during the first few years of the settlement.¹ Should the seasons prove unfavourable, there seemed no mode of remedy but the granting of remissions. Colonel Anderson believed that under the new rates the state of the people would improve. He thought that the spending of a little money in making roads and useful public works would greatly quicken the improvement. With more and better roads, the fluctuations in collections would probably be much less than in the past and fewer remissions of revenue would be required. Owing to the depressed state of many sub-divisions when the settlements were made, until they became somewhat less impoverished, it would probably not be expedient to attempt to collect the full assessment in very unfavourable years especially in the few years immediately following the settlements. In Chándor, Dindori, Sinnar, Násik, Pátoda, Akola, Sangamner, and Ráhuri, where the new rates had been introduced before 1851, fluctuations in the revenue and grant of remissions were not so great as they had been under the old system. In the first five of these subdivisions where new rates had been introduced before 1848, the progress was very satisfactory up to the year 1847-48. In that year prices fell very low, but in these settled sub-divisions the consequent falling off of cultivation and revenue was slight, compared with the falling-off in the unsettled sub-divisions; and prices in the settled sub-divisions were affected by those of the unsettled sub-divisions, especially in Sinnar which adjoined Akola, Sangamner, and Ráhuri, into which revised rates had not been then introduced and where owing to the heavy collections and the abundant harvest, a very large supply of grain was suddenly forced on the market. In the settled sub-divisions in which the new rates were in operation in both years, there was only a decline from 1847-48 to 1848-49 of $1\frac{3}{4}$ per cent in the cultivation and of $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in the revenue, while in the unsettled sub-divisions the immediate fall in tillage amounted to $18\frac{1}{2}$ per cent and in revenue to thirty-six per cent. In subsequent years the seasons were unfavourable both in the settled and unsettled sub-divisions. In 1851-52 the rains failed to a greater extent in the Násik sub-collectorate and in Pátoda than in most of the Ahmadnagar sub-divisions. The year 1851-52 is described in the Násik reports as most unseasonable. Colonel Anderson's experience bore out this estimate of the year. In Shevgaon the crops were pretty good, in Nevása they were poor, and further to the west in Ráhuri Sangamner and Akola the crops were nowhere good and large tracts of land were unsown. Another disadvantage to which, since the introduction of the settlement, the sub-divisions settled before 1851 had been subjected to, was that although the claims of the village

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 159-160. Including the Násik sub-collectorate the Ahmadnagar district consisted of fifteen sub-divisions. Of these survey rates were introduced into Kávnai, Chándor, Dindori, Sinnar, Násik, and Pátoda between 1840 and 1847; into Akola, Sangamner, and Ráhuri between 1848 and 1850; and into Nevása, Karda, Nagar, Korti, Shevgaon, and Jámkhed between 1851 and 1853.

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officers had been absorbed in the new assessment their collection was still allowed. This afforded the village officers opportunities of petty extortion and oppression. Consequently the action of the Survey Joint Rules was not so beneficial as it would have been had the collection of these claims been at once stopped. Notwithstanding these adverse circumstances in the Superintendent's opinion the result of the survey settlement on the whole was satisfactory.

The fluctuations in cultivation and revenue in Chándor, Dindori, Násik, Akola, Sangamner, and Ráhuri were not great, and especially in Chándor, Dindori, Sangamner, and Ráhuri showed much in favour of the new system. In Sinnar and Pátoda the ups and downs were more marked though still less than under the old system when fluctuations were enormous. The former fluctuations of revenue in Sinnar were almost equal to those of Pátoda. In Pátoda in no corresponding series of years had the rises and falls of revenue been less under the old system than under the new. Formerly cultivation assessment and collections used to rise as high as 56½, 54½, and 82½ per cent, while in Sinnar under the new system the corresponding limits were only 25½, 19½, and 30½, and in Pátoda 12½, 11, and 23½. Compared with those given under the old system, under the new system remissions were small. The following comparative statement shows in the sub-divisions settled before 1851 the average yearly percentage of remissions on the revenue demands :

Ahmadnagar Remission Percentages.

SUB-DIVISION.	SYSTEM.		SUB-DIVISION.	SYSTEM.	
	New.	Old.		New.	Old.
Chándor	2	16½	Pátoda	5½	24½
Dindori	1½	10½	Akola	5	18½
Sinnar	4½	15½	Sangamner... ..	9	24
Násik	1½	10	Ráhuri	7½	28½

The following statement shows the average yearly percentage of remissions calculated on the revenue demands, given in the settled subdivisions, contrasted with those given in corresponding periods of years in the unsettled sub-divisions¹:

Ahmadnagar Remission Percentages.

SUB-DIVISION.	SETTLED SUB-DIVISIONS.	UNSETTLED SUB-DIVISIONS.						Average.
		Nevása.	Karda.	Nagar.	Korti.	Shevgaon.	Jámkhed.	
Chándor	2	23	27	18	34½	13½	16½	23½
Dindori	1½	23	27	18	34½	13½	16½	23½
Sinnar	4½	23½	28½	19½	37½	13½	16½	25
Násik	1½	23½	28½	19½	37½	13½	16½	25
Pátoda	5½	26½	28½	20½	31	10½	15	24½
Akola	5	16½	18½	11½	24½	6½	11½	16½
Sangamner	9	16½	18½	11½	24½	6½	11½	16½
Ráhuri	7½	16½	20½	9	30	7½	14	17½
Average	3½	22	26	17½	33½	11½	15	22½

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 159-163.

During the sixteen years ending 1854-55 houses showed an increase from 152,496 in 1839-40 to 154,955 in 1854-55 or a rise of 1·6 per cent, ploughs from 49,566 to 64,564 or 30·2 per cent, carts from 20,187 to 23,587 or 16·8 per cent, bullocks from 229,978 to 309,582 or 34·6 per cent, and wells from 23,178 to 27,089 or 16·8 per cent. During the same period Indian millet rupee prices rose about 100 per cent.¹

The Násik sub-collectorate, which had been formed in 1837-38, was abolished under Government Order 2540 of 10th July 1856, and its sub-divisions of Násik, Chándor, Dindori, Sinnar, and Kávnai, including the political charge of the Peint state, were made over to the Ahmadnagar Collector to be managed by an assistant like the other subdivisions. This and all subsequent reductions caused a total yearly saving of £10,963 (Rs. 1,09,630) and the aggregate saving up to 1862 amounted to £23,742 (Rs. 2,37,420). With a view to combine increased efficiency with reduced expenditure ten mahálkaris were abolished and the sub-divisions were reorganized under mámlatdárs alone. Three new mámlatdárs' charges were formed and the twenty-six *thánás* or stations were reduced to nineteen. The large sub-divisions were reduced, the smaller ones were enlarged, and all were made more compact and the *thánás* more central.²

About half of the Ahmadnagar collectorate, the part to the south and east, was settled between 1851 and 1853.³ In this part in 1859-60 and in 1860-61 a slight downward tendency was observable

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Territorial
Changes,
1856-1862.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 part 1 of 1856, 199-200. The details are :

Ahmadnagar Development, 1839-1855.

YEAR.	HOUSES.			LAND-HOLDERS	BULLOCKS.		PLOUGHS.		
	Ter- racol.	Tiled.	That- ched.		Plough.	Paek.	Two Bullock.	Four Bullock.	Eight Bullock.
1839-40 ..	90,790	12,836	48,870	59,070	204,457	25,521	13,105	29,974	6,487
1854-55 ..	88,268	16,156	50,531	80,140	280,361	29,221	17,340	37,121	10,103
Increase.	..	3330	1661	21,070	75,904	3700	4235	7147	3616
Decrease.	2522

YEAR.	CARTS.		WELLS.		WATER LIFTS.	CHANNELS
	Four Bullock.	Two Bullock.	Drinking.	Watering		
1839-40 ..	9475	10,712	6684	17,144	893	786 *
1854-55 ..	10,782	12,805	7361	19,218	1197	934
Increase ..	1307	2093	1337	2074	304	198
Decrease

Ahmadnagar Prices : Shers the Rupee, 1817-1856.

CROP.	1817-18	1837-38.	1855-56.	CROP.	1817-18.	1837-38.	1855-56
	Jatrá	34	36½		18	Wheat	25
Bajrá	25	28½	15½	Gram	24	29	15½

² Mr. Tytler, 143 of 29th January 1862 in Rev. Rec. 236 of 1862-1864, 263-264.

³ Nevása, Karda, Nagar, Korti, Shevgaon, and Jámkhed.

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in cultivation and revenue. The principal cause was supposed to be a too rapid spread of tillage in the then impoverished condition of the sub-divisions and the great deficiency of farming stock. It was also partly due to a series of bad seasons and partly to the fact that in 1859 prices had fallen one-fifth to one-fourth lower than the average prices of the five preceding years. With the exception of this temporary check, the advance in all the sub-divisions was most marked and rapid, both before and after the great rise in prices which began in 1862.

The following statement shows for the sixteen years ending 1869 the increase of cultivation and collections in the six south-east sub-divisions :

Ahmadnagar Survey Settlement Results, 1853-1869.

SUB-DIVISION.	AVERAGE OF FORMER SYSTEM.		AVERAGE OF 1853-1869.		AVERAGE OF 1864-1869.		1868-69.			
	Tillage.	Collections.	Tillage.	Collections.	Tillage.	Collections.	Arable.	Survey Rental.	Tillage.	Assessment.
	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.
Nevása	129,602	1,01,528	275,735	1,36,109	303,321	1,44,497	813,335	1,50,345	305,521	1,47,555
Karda	212,191	1,21,548	340,569	1,29,303	355,577	1,38,774	374,681	1,44,332	356,859	1,39,577
Nagar	92,907	80,260	156,852	86,768	171,771	92,939	174,567	94,788	173,329	93,633
Korti	185,361	69,277	309,877	83,276	338,107	93,827	341,163	95,068	333,305	94,131
Shevgaon	55,468	42,354	113,133	54,645	119,473	57,537	133,341	61,146	121,701	68,300
Jámkhed	90,044	55,504	146,908	59,432	161,089	64,401	163,624	65,433	162,325	64,796
Total	765,573	4,70,551	1,333,074	5,54,513	1,447,338	5,91,975	1,506,211	5,11,712	1,459,040	5,98,102

The aggregate remissions since 1853 amounted in 1869 to £6740 (Rs. 67,400). At the percentage rate on the demand of the old system they would have amounted to an aggregate sum of £187,772 (Rs. 18,77,720). This is a total decrease of £181,032 (Rs. 18,10,320) or about 96 per cent. Moreover of the remissions given £4092 (Rs. 40,920) or nearly two-thirds were granted in 1853-54 which is described in the Collector's revenue report as a disastrous season. As this year immediately followed the introduction of the survey assessment into Korti Shevgaon and Jámkhed and as the rates had only then been in operation for one year in Nevása Karda and Nagar, the people had no time to recover from their depressed condition under the old system. The season of 1855-56 was again unfavourable. The Collector stated that considering the circumstances of the year the remissions £3951 (Rs. 39,510) granted on account of the failure of crops under the new rates were moderate. Under the old rates the year's remissions would probably have been about four *lákhs* of rupees. The year 1856-57 was also a bad year. Again towards the end of the period there appears to have been another series of bad years. In his revenue report for 1868-69, the Collector stated that in Ráhuri and Nevása remissions were absolutely necessary owing to the entire failure of the crops and to the impoverished state of the people from a succession of bad seasons. Mr. Waddington wrote: 'Many villages were entirely deserted and hardly any cattle were left in the country as there was no grazing and great want of water.' Colonel G. Anderson passed through the worst part of these two sub-divisions (Ráhuri and Nevása) in January 1869, and for miles on the land which had been reserved

for late crops, he saw not a blade of grass or a stem of grain. The remissions were given after the fullest inquiry where the crops had altogether failed and where the inability of the cultivators to pay the assessment had been ascertained. The same was done in certain villages of the Ahmadnagar sub-division.

In 1868-69 the Collector wrote that considering the severity of the season he thought it a matter of congratulation and a mark of the success of the survey system that such a large revenue should have been collected with an average remission of only $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. It may be added that notwithstanding this exceptionally bad year some of the sub-divisions got on without any remissions and that the aggregate of those granted in the six south and east sub-divisions did not amount to a ninth of the average of those given under the old system taking good and bad years together.

The most marked improvement, as regards the discontinuance of the practice of granting remissions, took place in Korti. Under the old system the average yearly remissions granted in that sub-division were £3156 (Rs. 31,560) while under the new system their aggregate amount in the sixteen years ending 1868-69 was only £260 (Rs. 2600). Of this amount £258 (Rs. 2580) were remitted in 1853-54 the year following the introduction of the revised assessment. During the fifteen years ending 1868-69 no remissions at all were granted in thirteen of the years, and sums of only £2 2s. (Rs. 21) and 12s. (Rs. 6) were granted in the remaining two years. In Jámkhed also no remissions were granted during the six years ending 1868-69 and an aggregate sum of only £6 4s. (Rs. 62), or 18s. (Rs. 9) a year in the preceding seven years. In Shevgaon in the fourteen years ending 1868-69 they amounted to £25 14s. (Rs. 257) or an average of £1 16s. (Rs. 18) a year. In the other sub-divisions Nevása, Karda, Nagar, the results were not so strikingly favourable, but in them also, except in such very bad years as those alluded to above 1853-54, 1855-56, 1856-57, 1868-69, either no remissions were given or they were very small. Of the six sub-divisions in the south and east, Korti, which had the worst climate and which was in the worst condition at the time of settlement, seems to have been one of the quickest to improve. One chief cause of this improvement was the opening of the Poona and Sholápur section of the Bombay and Madras line of railway. Jámkhed too made a great advance owing chiefly to its good climate and the greater amount of capital it possessed at the time of settlement. Though not in the same degree as Korti and Jámkhed, the four other sub-divisions, Shevgaon, Nagar, Karda, and Nevása also prospered beyond the expectation of the survey settlement officer. The great rise in prices which began in 1862, though accompanied by a series of years of scanty rainfall, helped to bring about these satisfactory results.¹

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¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 279-287. Though considerable fluctuations occurred between 1850 and 1860, there was no decided or long continued rise in prices until 1862. The period of enhanced values and profits from which landholders had benefited largely and which tended materially to improve the condition of the cultivators, began

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Between 1852 and 1870 in these six south and east sub-divisions 1630 new wells were built. Taking the average cost of a well at £40 (Rs. 400) the total sum invested by the people in new wells would be £65,200 (Rs. 6,52,000). This represents an average yearly expenditure in the six sub-divisions of about £3700 (Rs. 37,000), and assuming $2\frac{1}{2}$ acres as the average area watered from a well, 1630 new wells show an increase in the garden cultivation of about 4000 acres. This, in Colonel Anderson's opinion, was satisfactory.¹ A corresponding statement for the whole district of Ahmadnagar including the portion transferred to Násik in 1869, showed that, between 1840 and 1862, 1017 new wells had been built and 940 restored to use. All dams were kept in good repair and there was a marked spread in irrigation. In 1862 made roads had greatly increased and several important lines were in progress. Two railways passed through the district and attempts were being made to introduce tramways on two of the railway feeders.²

Under the reduced rates cultivation had doubled. The dry-crop lands of the district paid only a yearly average of one shilling an acre, garden lands six shillings, rice land five shillings, and cotton land only eight-pence. Ninety-six per cent of the entire garden land of the district was under tillage and eighty-three per cent of dry-crop land. The revenue was paid with ease and speed. Since 1840 the rates of interest had greatly fallen, an unmistakable sign of increase in capital and wealth. In 1862 the people freely allowed that to a large extent they had shaken off the trammels of debt.³

about the revenue year 1862-63. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 279-280. The details are :

Ahmadnagar Produce Rupee Prices, 1850-1870.

YEAR.	Jodri.	Bajri.	Wheat	YEAR.	Jodri.	Bajri.	Wheat.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.		Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
1850 ..	74	59	59	1861 ...	72	55	37
1851 ...	90	64	59	1862 ...	42	35	33
1852 ...	112	77	64	1863 ...	30	25	26
1853 ...	113	93	68	1864 ...	32	26	24
1854 ...	69	56	52	1865 ...	59	37	22
1855 ...	79	67	51	1866 ...	52	41	23
1856 ...	74	56	50	1867 ...	37	30	25
1857 ...	85	75	55	1868 ...	65	45	31
1858 ...	76	64	58	1869 ...	36	30	22
1859 ...	95	73*	64	1870 ..	43	33	19
1860 ...	83	62	52				

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 286-287. The details are :

Ahmadnagar New Wells, 1853-1870.

SUB-DIVISION.	Wells.	Estimated Cost.	SUB-DIVISION.	Wells.	Estimated Cost.
		Rs.			Rs.
Nevasa...	251	1,00,400	Shevgaon ...	71	28,400
Karda ...	277	1,10,800	Jámkhed ...	327	1,30,500
Nagar ...	382	1,62,800			
Korta ...	323	1,28,800	Total ...	1630	6,51,000

² Mr. Tytler, Collector, 143 of 29th January 1862, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 236 of 1862-1864, 259-260.

³ Mr. Tytler, Collector, 143 of 29th January 1862, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 236 of 1862-1864, 255-257.

In 1840 land had no saleable value and large tracts were waste. In 1862 all land save the poorest was in demand and the mere right of occupancy fetched five to forty times the year's assessment. In 1862 the Collector Mr. Tytler gave the following out of many available instances. In the village of Jeur in Yeola, the occupancy of a field bearing a yearly assessment of £1 9s. (Rs. 14½) was sold for £12 2s. (Rs. 121) or 8½ times the assessment. In Jánuri in Dindori the occupancy of four fields bearing a yearly assessment of £8 2s. 3¼d. (Rs. 81 as. 2¼) was sold for £146 15s. (Rs. 1467½) or eighteen times the assessment. In the village of Chaurána in Ahmadnagar the occupancy of two fields bearing a yearly assessment of £1 9s. (Rs. 14½) was sold for £47 10s. (Rs. 475) or thirty-three times the assessment. In Nimlak in Ahmadnagar the occupancy of portions of three fields bearing a yearly assessment of 13s. 1½d. (Rs. 6½) was sold for £10 14s. (Rs. 107) or sixteen times the assessment. In Shevgaon the occupancy of a field bearing a yearly assessment of 3s. (Rs. 1½) was sold for £1 16s. (Rs. 18) or twelve times the assessment :¹

Ahmadnagar Survey Results,² 1860-61.

YEAR.	Gross Land Revenue.	Remissions.	Collections.	Sáyar Revenue.
<i>Before Survey.</i>	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1840 - 1839 ...	15,54,439	3,33,595	12,20,843	70,518
1842 - 1839 ...	15,64,825	3,46,888	12,17,936	90,548
<i>After Survey.</i>				
1860-61 ...	17,11,968	507	17,11,461	5,74,906

According to the Deccan Riots Commission, between the introduction of the survey in 1848 and the year 1860, the condition of the district in many respects entirely changed. Instead of large tracts of land lying waste, all the arable land was brought under the plough. Population and agricultural capital of all kinds increased. The country was supplied with carts and good roads abounded. The railway traversed the richest part of the region. Prices of produce and wages increased. With a much larger revenue to pay on the larger area of cultivation, remissions became unknown, and more capital was yearly invested in wells and in bringing waste lands under tillage. In 1862 began the period of abnormal prosperity caused by the rise in the price of cotton which followed the outbreak of the American war. Landholders would under ordinary circumstances have suffered severely from the deficiency of rain. But the abnormal value of produce made the scanty crop of a year of drought equal to the full crop of a good season. The competition

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 236 of 1862-1864, 296-297.

² The increase of Rs. 4,90,318 in collections is not all due to survey, but Rs. 3,85,790 seem fairly attributable thereto. The details are : On account of lapsed villages Rs. 88,868 ; on account of lapsed grants or *indáms* Rs. 8329 ; on account of lapsed shares or *amals* Rs. 1571 ; on account of attached shares Rs. 3026 ; and on account of attached grants Rs. 2734, making a total of Rs. 1,04,528 which when added to Rs. 3,85,790, gives a total of Rs. 4,90,318. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 236 of 1862-1864, 274-275.

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for labour made it possible for the husbandman and his family to earn the assessment of an ordinary holding by a fortnight's work, and the enhancement of his credit enabled him to borrow sums far beyond the ordinary value of his capital.¹

During the term of the survey settlement, the Ahmadnagar district which in 1840 included a part of Nāsik, underwent a considerable change in consequence of transfers of villages and sub-divisions. To show the results of the survey settlement in the present (1883) Ahmadnagar district, it has been necessary to prepare special statements giving tillage and revenue figures for each village in the present district for the settlement period and for ten years before it. The final district statement prepared from these village returns by the survey department² gives the following results.³ Before the introduction of the survey settlement the total area of the Government villages under the *bigha* rate system, for which details were available, was estimated at 4918 square miles or 3,147,777 acres rating the *bigha* at three-quarters of an acre. The area as measured at the time of the survey settlement was widely different from the former estimate, 5588 square miles or 3,575,940 acres including arable and waste lands.⁴ The cause of this great difference lies in the fact that the size of the old *bigha* varied with the character of the soil. So great is the difference in result that a comparison of areas in the two periods is impossible. In the 1216½ settled Government villages for which information is available the figures for 1882-83 show, compared with the average of the ten years before the survey, a fall in remissions from £33,589 to £16,336 (Rs. 3,35,890 - Rs. 1,63,360) and an increase in collections from £95,908 to £112,149 (Rs. 9,59,080 - Rs. 11,21,490) or 16·9 per cent. Taking the figures for the seventy-eight and a half alienated villages for which information is available the figures for 1882-83 show, compared with the average of the ten years before the survey, a fall in remissions from £4809 (Rs. 48,090) to nothing, and an increase in

¹ Deccan Riots Commission Report, 1875, paras 34-35 pages 20-21.

² Mr. A. B. Fforde, 1879, and the Survey Commissioner Mr. Stewart, 1680 of 9th August 1884.

³ The eleven sub-divisions into which the present district is divided contained when these statements were prepared (1883), 1378 villages, 1223½ Government and 154½ alienated. Of these 1221½ Government and 82½ alienated villages were brought under survey settlement. Of the settled villages details for years before the settlement were not available for five Government and four alienated villages. The rate of survey progress was as follows: Of Government villages 1 was settled in 1841-42, 40 in 1844-45, 53 in 1846-47, 263 in 1848-49, 137 in 1849-50, 5 in 1850-51, 354 in 1851-52, 235 in 1852-53, 17 in 1853-54, 4½ in 1854-55, 1 in 1855-56, 15 in 1856-57, 2 in 1859-60, 7 in 1863-64, 57 in 1868-69, 25 in 1869-70, 3 in 1874-75, and 2 in 1875-76; total Government villages 1221½. Of these 272 were resettled, 41 in 1875-76, 55 in 1876-77, and 176 in 1880-81. Of alienated villages 4 were settled in 1849-50, 2 in 1851-52, 11 in 1852-53, 30 in 1853-54, 2½ in 1854-55, 1 in 1855-56, 1 in 1856-57, 1 in 1857-58, 5 in 1858-59, 1 in 1859-60, 3 in 1864-65, 4 in 1868-69, 10 in 1869-70, 5 in 1875-76, and 2 in 1878-79; total 82½ alienated villages. Of these 2 were resettled in 1880-81.

⁴ The area of grant or *indm* villages is estimated at 364 square miles or 232,833 acres before the survey settlement and at 507 square miles or 324,701 acres since the survey settlement. The total area of Government and alienated villages is therefore 5282 square miles or 3,380,610 acres before survey and 6095 square miles or 3,900,641 acres after survey.

collections from £9846 to £12,096 (Rs. 98,460 - Rs. 1,20,900) or 22.9 per cent. The following statement shows for the Government villages of each sub-division the chief changes in tillage, remissions, and collections, since the introduction of the revenue survey :

Ahmadnagar Survey Results, 1841-1883.

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Sub-Division.	Year.	AREA.					REMISSIONS.		
		Occupied.			Unoccupied		Government.	Alienated.	Total.
		Government.	Alienated.	Total.	Arable.	Unarable.			
		Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Akola	Ten years before survey ...	62,954	11,179	74,133	41,568	25,302	11,349	467	11,810
	1882-83 ...	174,159	12,353	186,512	16,329	161,750	6658	122	6780
Jánkhed	Ten years before survey ...	72,610	14,051	86,661	46,292	58,472	16,688	64	16,752
	1882-83 ...	158,661	15,074	173,735	5111	72,520	3	...	3
Karjat	Ten years before survey ...	97,585	10,770	108,355	59,713	31,618	26,292	84	26,376
	1882-83 ...	167,278	14,125	181,403	40,815	84,766
Kopargaon.	Ten years before survey ...	129,761	30,368	160,129	166,370	82,029	67,742	893	68,635
	1882-83 ...	254,271	21,648	275,919	14,965	30,650	71,108	1149	72,257
Nagar	Ten years before survey ...	114,457	21,458	135,915	65,648	32,865	29,427	425	29,852
	1882-83 ...	202,296	22,908	225,204	11,073	80,669
Nevása	Ten years before survey ...	128,608	21,605	150,213	141,162	88,713	36,111	619	36,730
	1882-83 ...	219,830	16,805	236,635	10,849	46,444	4689	...	4689
Párner	Ten years before survey ...	135,238	16,144	151,382	54,460	53,991	36,234	862	36,596
	1882-83 ...	226,045	17,908	243,953	9540	118,670
Ráhuri	Ten years before survey ...	86,611	20,174	106,785	110,286	75,742	13,762	848	14,610
	1882-83 ...	181,810	15,788	197,598	19,011	71,996	64,387	779	65,166
Sangannor.	Ten years before survey ...	114,198	21,641	135,839	109,010	63,436	23,520	773	29,293
	1882-83 ...	177,627	18,901	194,528	21,437	108,095	13,822	639	14,461
Shevgaon.	Ten years before survey ...	158,454	21,857	180,311	118,245	137,145	11,295	120	11,415
	1882-83 ...	249,140	16,550	265,690	23,729	60,308
Shrigonda.	Ten years before survey ...	157,915	23,806	186,721	77,382	26,884	53,473	339	53,817
	1882-83 ...	228,095	23,476	251,571	35,847	84,113
Total	Ten years before survey ...	1,258,301	218,053	1,476,444	990,136	681,197	3,30,892	4994	3,35,886
	1882-83 ...	2,239,212	193,536	2,432,748	213,706	919,981	1,60,667	2689	1,63,356

Sub-Division.	Year.	COLLECTIONS.					OUTSTANDINGS.
		Occupied.	Unoccupied.	Alienated.	Unarable.	Total.	
Akola	Ten years before survey ...	Rs. 60,903	Rs. 647	Rs. 702	Rs. 251	Rs. 62,503	Rs. 1342
	1882-83 ...	67,130	304	2472	1054	70,960	7467
Jánkhed	Ten years before survey ...	59,126	1382	488	64	61,060	1760
	1882-83 ...	64,357	232	2310	277	67,176	...
Karjat	Ten years before survey ...	47,179	1517	211	20	48,927	3240
	1882-83 ...	47,503	...	1238	2756	51,497	1
Kopargaon.	Ten years before survey ...	1,05,923	515	1099	425	1,07,955	2815
	1882-83 ...	1,34,823	608	7752	1682	1,44,865	22,593
Nagar	Ten years before survey ...	1,05,784	1788	1075	2498	1,11,145	18,229
	1882-83 ...	1,13,548	754	4883	60	1,22,243	609
Nevása	Ten years before survey ...	88,591	886	623	299	90,399	8633
	1882-83 ...	1,08,011	443	3739	892	1,13,085	202
Párner	Ten years before survey ...	69,502	1383	1391	170	1,02,446	9793
	1882-83 ...	98,819	231	3142	769	1,02,961	...

Chapter VIII.

Ahmadnagar Survey Results, 1841-1883—continued.

The Land.

SURVEY
RESULTS,
1841-1883.

SUB-DIVISION.	YEAR.	COLLECTIONS.					OUTSTAND- ING.
		Occupied.	Unoccu- pied.	Alienated.	Unarable.	Total.	
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Ráhuri ...	Ten years before survey	68,602	532	572	246	70,002	7013
	1882-83	93,336	343	4420	...	98,098	26,373
Sangamner.	Ten years before survey	98,342	1283	1242	499	1,01,866	5748
	1882-83	98,673	291	3901	344	1,03,709	42,784
Shevgaon.	Ten years before survey	1,12,638	1631	831	1279	1,16,879	15
	1882-83	1,36,051	1078	3890	627	1,41,646	30
Shrigonda.	Ten years before survey	82,716	2318	1157	705	86,896	6204
	1882-83	97,415	1294	3701	2840	1,06,250	715
Total ..	Ten years before survey	9,29,806	13,932	9384	6456	9,59,078	64,794
	1882-83	10,62,663	5578	41,448	11,801	11,21,490	1,00,773

REVISION
SURVEY,
1880-1884.

As the original survey rates were introduced for a term of thirty years beginning in some parts of the district in 1848, the period of the original survey began to draw to a close in 1878. Between 1880 and 1884 revised assessments were introduced into Sangamner Ráhuri and Nagar.

Sangamner,
1880.

During the thirty years of its first survey settlement (1849-1879) many changes occurred in the constitution of Sangamner. In 1849 it consisted of 118 villages, 106 Government and twelve alienated; in 1880 the number of villages was 156, 148 of them Government and eight alienated. During the thirty years great improvement was made in road communications. In 1849 there was not a metalled road in the sub-division, while in 1880 there were two with culverts and bridges throughout. Besides these several famine roads were made in 1876-77, but they were merely fair weather tracks, nothing in the way of repairs being done to them. In 1880 the chief grain traffic mostly millet or *bájrí* passed along the metalled road from Sangamner to the Devláli station, a distance of nearly forty miles. Weekly markets were held at six different places within the limits of the subdivision. One of them was Sangamner where the estimated value of weekly sales amounted to upwards of £100 (Rs. 1000). At three markets the value of weekly sales ranged from £10 to £50 (Rs. 100-500), and at the remaining two from £2 10s. to £10 (Rs. 25-100). The manufactures consisted of robes, turbans, blankets, bangles, and saltpetre. There were 861 looms in seventy-nine villages. The surplus field produce chiefly millet, wheat, gram, and oil-seeds was for the most part sent to Bombay. The minor exports were hides, horns, cotton cloth, and bangles. The imports were chiefly rice from the Akola sub-division, *javári* from Ráhuri, brass and copper articles from Násik, and salt, iron, cocoanuts, grocery, kerosine oil, and European cloths from Bombay.

During the settlement period population advanced from 26,846 to 34,640 or 29 per cent, flat roofed and tiled houses from 4041 to 6142 or 52 per cent, field cattle from 7957 to 9372 or 17.8 per cent, cows, and buffaloes from 7019 to 8416 or 19.9 per cent, sheep and goats

from 21,320 to 23,266 or 9·1 per cent, ploughs from 1683½ to 2166 or 28·3 per cent, and carts from 1017 to 1266 or 24·5 per cent. There was a decrease in thatched houses from 391 to 315 or 19·4 per cent, and in horses from 703 to 627 or 11·4 per cent.¹

The following statement shows the fluctuations in tillage and collections since 1838-39 :

Sangamner Land Revenue, 1838-1879.

Y.E.A.	Occu- pied.	Waste.	Remis- sions.	Collec- tions.	Out- stand- ings.
	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1838-1843 ...	75,197	68,850	19,099	53,214	3130
1843-1858 ...	84,957	40,725	3424	48,844	523
1858-1868 ...	116,636	10,373	64	70,052	
1868-1878 ...	122,859	3644	790	72,234	6275
1878-79 ...	120,943	5632	52	72,009	19,205

The revision survey operations were begun in 1874 and finished in 1880. The eighty-two Government villages into which revised rates were introduced in 1880 were divided into three groups. In the first group were placed fifteen villages with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 4s. (Rs. 2). The greater part of them lay to the west of the high road from Poona to Násik and were most favourably situated in point of climate. A good number of them near the high road had easy access to the town of Sangamner. In the second group were placed eight villages with a highest rate of 3s. 9d. (Rs. 1½) and forty-three villages with a rate of 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1½). The villages of this group were chiefly in the centre of the sub-division; they were not so well placed as regards rainfall, but possessed in the main the best soils. Eight villages for which a higher rate was fixed were close to and had the advantage of the market town of Sangamner. The third group, the least favoured in point of climate, included sixteen villages with a highest acre rate of 3s. 3d. (Rs. 1½). They lay still further to the east than the second group and were not situated near hills. According to the first survey settlement there were 2295 acres of garden land, 2142 of them Government. According to the revision survey there was a total garden area of 7566 acres, 7208 of them Government. For 169 acres under channel water, a highest acre rate of 16s. (Rs. 8), land and water combined, was fixed. It gave an average acre rate of 6s. 4½d. (Rs. 3 as. 2½). Land under old wells was assessed within the highest rate on dry-crop land. On lands under new wells the ordinary dry-crop rates were imposed. The following statement shows the general result of the revised rates of assessment in each group of villages :²

¹ The marked increase in the better class or flat roofed and tiled houses with a decrease in thatched houses or huts goes to prove that the people had more money to lay out in material comforts than formerly. The small increase in the item of field cattle is owing to the late years of scarcity. Fluctuations in the number of sheep and goats depend on the demands of the Nagar, Poona, and Bombay markets, Colonel Laughton, Survey Superintendent, 9th Feb. 1880 paras 22-24.

² Survey Superintendent, 119 of 9th February 1880 paras 42-49.

Chapter VIII.

Sangamner Revision Settlement, 1880.

The Land.

REVISION
SURVEY.Sangamner,
1880.

CLASS	VIL- LAGES.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.						Highest Dry-crop Acre Rate
		Occupied.		Occupied.		Waste.		Total.		
		Area.	Assess- ment.	Area.	Asses- ment.	Area.	Assess- ment.	Area.	Assess- ment.	
I ...	15	Acres. 20,312	Rs. 16,444	Acres. 23,686	Rs. 22,328	Acres. 672	Rs. 273	Acres. 24,358	Rs. 22,601	Hs. a. 2 0
II ...	8	6527	4878	7500	6529	68	31	7566	6560	1 14
III	43	51,726	30,164	59,758	38,582	2437	740	62,195	39,272	1 12
IV ..	16	30,849	16,849	32,872	22,701	1626	508	34,498	21,209	1 10
Total	82	109,414	63,325	123,816	90,090	4601	1552	128,617	91,642	...

The increase in the new rental for these eighty-two villages was estimated at 31·9 per cent. The revised assessment on the whole of the Government occupied land gave an average of 1s. 5½d. (11½ as.) the acre, while the existing assessment gave an average rate of 1s. 3d. (10 as.), the increase being 2½d. (1½ as.) the acre.

Rāhūri,
1880.

The next sub-division into which the revised settlement was introduced was Rāhūri which was originally settled in 1850. In anticipation of the close of the thirty years guarantee a re-survey was begun in 1878. The re-classing was partly finished in the beginning of 1880. During the thirty years of the original settlement the total number of 125 villages, 101 Government and twenty-four alienated, had been reduced to 118, of which 110 were Government and eight were alienated villages.¹ In ninety-six Government villages, two settled in 1848-49 and ninety-four settled in 1849-50, during the thirty years of the survey settlement population had advanced from 28,244 to 39,202 or 38·8 per cent, flat-roofed and tiled houses from 3547 to 4974 or 40·2 per cent, field cattle from 8614 to 11,506 or 33·6 per cent, cows and buffaloes from 7299 to 11,393 or 56·2 per cent, horses from 826 to 1197 or 44·9 per cent, ploughs from 1684 to 2505 or 48·8 per cent, carts from 1074 to 1632 or 52 per cent, and wells from 857 to 1514 or 76·6 per cent. On the other hand there was a fall from 28,695 to 19,904 or 30·6 per cent in sheep and goats and from 927 to 854 or 7·9 per cent in thatched houses.

In the ten years ending 1860, the average rupee prices of grain were *javāri* 51 *shers*, *bājri* 44, wheat 33, and gram 34. In the ten years ending 1870 the corresponding figures were *javāri* 29 *shers*, *bājri* 23, wheat 16, and gram 16. In the ten years ending 1880 the corresponding figures were *javāri* 24, *bājri* 21, wheat 14, and

¹ In 1849-50 there were 101 Government and 24 alienated villages. Of the latter 17 subsequently lapsed to Government. In 1861-62 twenty-three, 21 Government and two alienated villages, were transferred to Nagar Nevāsa and Kopargaoṅ, and sixteen, 13 Government and 3 alienated, were received from Pārner, Nevāsa, Nagar, and Sangamner. Thus the total number at the revision settlement (1880) was 118, 110 Government and eight alienated villages. Colonel Laughton, Surv. Supt. 145 of 15th February 1880.

gram 16.¹ The following statement shows in the thirty years of survey settlement a rise in the occupied area from 95,949 acres to 181,608 acres, a fall in arable waste from 97,985 acres to 2747 acres, a fall in remissions from £4005 to £71 (Rs. 40,050 - Rs 710), and a rise in collections from £6376 to £11,554 (Rs. 63,760 - Rs. 1,15,540). The details are : *Ráhuri Land Revenue, 1839-1879.*

Chapter VIII.

The Land.

REVISION
SURVEY.*Ráhuri,*
1880.

YEAR.	Occupied.	Waste.	Remissions.	Collections.	Out-standings.
	Acres.	Acres	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1839-1849 ...	95,949	97,985	40,049	63,763	6196
1849-1859 .	125,003	58,760	139	78,031	1085
1859-1869 ..	175,467	9655	163	1,11,091	8
1869-1879	181,608	2747	709	1,15,537	14,606

For the revised settlement the ninety-six Government villages were arranged in four groups with highest dry-crop acre rates varying from 3s. 6d. to 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ - 1 $\frac{3}{8}$). The first group consisted of five villages and was charged a rate of 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1 $\frac{3}{4}$); the second of thirty-eight villages with a rate of 3s. 3d. (Rs. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$); the third of thirty-two villages with a rate of 3s. (Rs. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$); and the fourth of twenty-one villages with a rate of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1 $\frac{3}{8}$). Gardenland increased from 2463 acres in 1849-50 to 7363 acres in 1879-80. Of this only ten acres were channel-watered and the rest were under wells. For the channel-water a highest acre rate of 16s. (Rs. 8) was fixed, the average acre rate amounting to 6s. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. (Rs. 3 $\frac{1}{6}$). Lands under old wells were assessed within the highest dry-crop rate, and to those under new wells the ordinary dry-crop rates were applied. The following statement shows the general result of the imposition of the revised rates of assessment in each group of villages :

Ráhuri Revision Settlement, 1880.

CLASS.	VILLAGES.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.						Highest Dry-crop Acre Rate.
		Occupied.		Occupied.		Waste.		Total.		
		Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.	
I	5	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs. a.
II	38	15,518	9422	16,710	14,498	16,710	14,498	1 12
III	32	77,893	51,096	83,801	71,369	1149	409	84,950	71,778	1 10
IV	21	36,107	25,603	36,333	36,570	202	94	37,085	36,664	1 6
Total	96	39,426	25,729	41,243	34,266	1035	410	42,278	34,676	1 6
Total	96	168,944	1,11,850	178,587	1,56,703	2386	919	180,973	1,57,616	...

The former survey assessment showed an average acre rate of 1s. 4d. (10 $\frac{3}{4}$ as.) while the revision survey average rate was 1s. 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. (14 $\frac{1}{2}$ as.), the increase being 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. (3 $\frac{5}{12}$ as.) the acre.

¹ Survey Report 145 of 15th February 1880 para 23. The 1876-1879 prices were :

Ráhuri Produce Rupee Prices, 1876-1879.

YEAR.	Judri.	Bajri.	Wheat.	Gram.
	Shers.	Shers.	Shers.	Shers.
1876-77 ...	14	13	12	12
1877-78 ..	10	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8
1878-79 ..	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8

Chapter VIII:

The Land.

REVISION
SURVEY.Nagar,
1884.

The revision assessment of the Nagar sub-division was completed in 1884.¹ When the survey settlement was introduced into the sub-division in 1851-52, there were eighty-two Government and ten partly and seventeen wholly alienated villages. After various transfers lapses and alienations, in 1884 at the time of revision the sub-division contained 118 villages of which ninety-nine were Government and nineteen were alienated. The total area of 95 of the Govt. villages was 296,514 acres against 296,731 under the former survey and the number of arable acres was 235,322 against 227,385 under the former survey. The means of communication had vastly improved since the survey settlement was introduced. Formerly the only made road was between Nagar and the foot of the Nimbdhera pass. At the time of revision the chief made roads within the Nagar sub-division were the road to Poona to the south-west, a road over the Nimbdhera pass to Kolhár and beyond, and a third over the Imámpur pass to Aurangabad. At the bottom of the Imámpur pass a branch struck off at Khospuri in the direction of Shevgaon, while in the opposite direction another branch had been lined out to Vámbori, and thence to the railroad where was a station of the same name as the town. The last two roads led from Nagar to the north. Another road, leaving Nagar on the east, went to Tisgaon a large town in Shevgaon and then to Shevgaon itself. Two other roads, leaving Nagar to the south-east and south, passed the one to Sholápur by Jámkhed and the other to Dhond. Most of these roads could be used at all times. A fair weather road leaving Nagar went west by Jámbgaon in the Párner sub-division to Párner and a continuation from near Jámbgaon went by Tákli Dholkeshvar over the Ana pass into the Junnar subdivision. Lastly the Dhond-Manmád railway went right through the sub-division from south to north having two stations within the sub-division, one at Vilad in the north and the other at Nagar. A third station at Sarola was just over the south border of the sub-division. During the thirty years ending 1881, the rupee price of Indian millet rose at Nagar from 79 pounds during the ten years ending 1861 to 44 pounds during the ten years ending 1881, that is a rise of 79·5 per cent; of *bájrí* from 66½ pounds to 34½ pounds or 92·8 per cent; of wheat from 55 pounds to 25½ pounds or 115·7 per cent; and of gram from 53½ pounds to thirty-two pounds or 67·2 per cent. The details are :

Nagar Grain Rupee Prices, 1851 - 1883.

YEAR.	<i>Jodri</i> .	<i>Bájrí</i> .	Wheat.	Gram.	<i>Kardai</i> .
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
1851-1861 ...	79	66½	55	53½	65½
1861-1871 ...	42½	35½	26	26	30½
1871-1881 ...	44	34½	25½	32	31½
1881-81 ...	67	50	28	45	...
1882-83 ...	52½	41½	27½	38½	...
1883	48	39	29	38	...

From the statement it would seem that in spite of the famine years (1876-1878) the average prices in the ten years ending 1881

¹ Colonel Laughton, Surv. Supt. 130 of 26th January 1884.

were almost lower than in the ten years ending 1871, while in 1881-82 more *juári* could be obtained for the rupee in the Nagar market than for twenty years before, although the total rainfall for that year was less than in any year since 1876-77. The prices for 1883 were considerably higher and were not likely to fall.

During the twenty-two years ending 1883 the rainfall at Nagar varied from 46·74 inches in 1869-70 to 8·99 inches in 1876 and averaged 23·55 inches.¹

In seventy-one villages people had multiplied from 40,149 in 1851 to 46,149 in 1883 or 14·9 per cent; flat roofed and tiled houses from 4441 to 5552 or 25 per cent; thatched houses from 823 to 849 or 3·2 per cent; farm cattle from 13,730 to 17,331 or 29·9 per cent; cows and buffaloes from 16,307 to 17,006 or 4·3 per cent; sheep and goats from 21,019 to 33,123 or 57·6 per cent; ploughs from 1765 to 2576 or 45·9 per cent; and carts from 908 to 1463 or 61·1 per cent. Horses and ponies showed a fall from 1081 to 909 or 15·9 per cent. In ninety-five villages wells rose during the same period from 1534 to 1916 or 25 per cent. There had thus been an increase under every head except horses. The greatest increase, as might be expected from the improved state of road communication, was in the item of carts. Even in villages settled in 1869-70 the same increase obtained. The cultivated area being 224,703 acres, it gave 20·4 acres to each pair of bullocks, not a large area considering that the dry-crop soils were light and easily ploughed. During the thirty years of the survey lease, in eighty-two villages a comparison of the ten years ending 1861 and 1881, showed a rise in the tillage area from about 150,000 acres to 177,000 acres and in collections from £8250 to £9540 (Rs. 82,500 - Rs. 95,400). The details are :

Nagar Tillage and Revenue, 1841-1883.

YEAR.	Occu- pied.	Unoccu- pied.	Collec- tions.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.
	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1841-1851 ...	92,827	58,658	86,089	25,144	17,812
1851-1861 ...	149,768	33,567	82,511	2026	21
1861-1871 ...	175,948	8645	94,684	367	1
1871-1881 ...	177,085	8115	95,374	219	4294
1881-1883 ...	173,070	9414	93,652	..	541
1882-83 ..	172,973	9036	93,768

The wisdom of the low rates adopted at the survey settlement was fully shown by the great and steady increase in tillage and revenue. The average revenue for the ten years ending 1880-81

¹ The details are :

Nagar Rainfall, 1865-1883.

YEAR.	Inches.	YEAR.	Inches.	YEAR.	Inches.
1862-63 ...	17·45	1870-71 ...	10·01	1878 ...	24·81
1863-64 ...	17·74	1871-72 ...	11·00	1879 ...	23·67
1864-65 ...	19·80	1872-73 ...	28·96	1880 ...	20·71
1865-66 ...	21·44	1873 ...	33·07	1881 ...	18·09
1866-67 ...	23·22	1874 ...	31·64	1882 ...	21·60
1867-68 ...	17·05	1875 ...	19·95	1883 ...	40·56
1868-69 ...	23·49	1876 ...	8·99		
1869-70 ...	46·74	1877 ...	23·09	Average ...	23·55

Chapter VIII.

The Land.

REVISION
SURVEY,
Nagar,
1884.

Chapter VIII.

The Land.

REVISION
SURVEY.Nagar,
1884.

was nearly eleven per cent more than that of the ten years before the introduction of the survey. Average remissions fell from £2514 (Rs. 25,140) in the ten years ending 1851 to £203 (Rs. 2030) in the ten years ending 1861, while in the ten years ending 1881 they amounted to only £22 (Rs. 220). Outstanding balances almost disappeared from the record until the famine caused large remissions in the three years ending 1879. The sub-division had made great progress during the survey settlement, and a moderate increase in the existing rates was justifiable.

In 1883 ninety-five villages had 22,809 survey numbers. After deducting waste numbers, about 76·9 per cent of the remainder was tilled by the owners and about fifteen per cent in partnership with others; about 5·7 per cent were sub-let on money rents and 0·9 per cent on grain rents.¹ Of 486 cases of mortgage in the Nagar sub-division, in eighty-seven cases was land mortgaged for twenty-five to fifty times the survey assessment, in thirty-three cases for fifty to one hundred times the assessment, in four cases for one hundred to one hundred and fifty times the assessment, and in five cases for one hundred and fifty to two hundred times the survey assessment and upwards. Of 342 cases of sales, in seventy cases land was sold for twenty-five to fifty times the assessment, in forty-four cases for fifty to one hundred times the assessment, in eleven cases for one hundred to one hundred and fifty times the assessment, and in six cases for one hundred and fifty to two hundred times the assessment and upwards. In Nagar tillage was often somewhat slovenly, and frequently pieces of land were left untilled even in rich soil for no apparent reason except possibly for grass. Manure was used when available. But in the villages within easy reach of Ahmadnagar, the landholders were more inclined to sell manure for fuel than to put it on their land. Except in villages that lay immediately round the city, much land was only manured at very long intervals. The rotation of crops was much the same as elsewhere. In black soil wheat or gram was usually followed the next year by *javari*, *kardai* being sown among both crops. In the poorer soils *bajri* was often sown year after year, but *javari* was also alternated with it. In some of the poorest soils, where there was

¹ The percentage of fields cultivated by those whose names were entered in the village books was large. This state of things would at first sight seem satisfactory as indicating that the landholders had largely retained their occupancy rights but Mr. Stewart, the Survey Commissioner, thought that such an inference would be misleading. Nothing was more common than for the names of ruined landholders, the mortgages on whose lands had been foreclosed, to be continued in the Government books and themselves to be continued as rack-rented tenants of the land, until the real owner chose to have the transfer of the occupancy recorded. There was no reason to believe that in Nagar the transfer of the land to the capitalist was proceeding with less marked strides. One of the results of the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act had been to induce the moneylending class to decline to advance to cultivators on the security of their land and to encourage its out-and-out transfer by deed of sale. Statistics showed that while cases of mortgage of land had decreased from 231 in 1880-81 to 82 in 1882-83, in the same period the yearly number of sales had risen from 105 to 119. The area sold during the three years ending 1883 amounted to 4152 acres and land was changing hands at a steady rate. Mr. Stewart had no doubt that the land was transferred for the most part to capitalists, and that the sellers were needy landholders who could not work the land at a profit. Mr. T. H. Stewart, C. S., Survey and Settlement Commissioner, 396 of 23rd February 1884 para 13.

plenty of land, fallows of a year or two were sometimes given. In garden land a good deal of *javari* was grown as a moderate amount of water and labour sufficed to turn out a good crop. Black soils were ploughed in alternate years, but the poorer soils every season. In the villages below the Imámpur and Karanja passes, cotton cultivation was increasing rapidly. The number of acres under cotton in fourteen villages was forty-one in 1878-79, 1135 in 1881-82, and 2307 in 1882-83. The chief crops were *javari* and *bjri*, about eighty per cent of the whole; the next were wheat, *kardai*, tobacco, and cotton. Of superior garden produce, sugarcane was grown throughout the sub-division. Very little rice was grown and that poor rice.

The principal towns were Ahmadnagar, Bhingár, Jeur, and Válki. In Válki the largest cattle market in the collectorate was held. Ahmadnagar and Bhingár had municipalities and had together more than 33,000 people. Ahmadnagar from its position was the principal seat of trade in the district; most of the grain and other merchants lived in it. Besides the ordinary town market, a market known as the Stewart cotton market had been opened about 1879-80 and was largely used for buying and selling cotton. Near the market three or four steam presses belonging to various owners, Bombay firms and others, had been set up for pressing the cotton bales before despatching them by rail. Of the weekly markets held at eight villages, the estimated value of goods sold at Válki was £400 to £500 (Rs. 4000-5000), at Ahmadnagar £35 to £40 (Rs. 350-400), at Jeur Chichondi-Shiral and Bhátodi £20 (Rs. 200), at Bhingár £10 to £20 (Rs. 100-200), at Karanji £10 (Rs. 100), and at Chichondi-Pátláchi £7 (Rs. 70). Besides these markets several outside the sub-division were within easy reach of its villagers. Except Ahmadnagar and Bhingár no towns had manufactures of any consequence. In Ahmadnagar city there were 1607 looms for robes, six for turbans, and eight for blankets. In Bhingár there were about 950 looms for robes, eight for turbans, and twelve for blankets. Scattered over the sub-division in various villages were about 150 looms. In Ahmadnagar about thirty workshops turned out £4000 to £5000 (Rs. 40,000 - 50,000) worth of brass and copper ware in the year. Of the 118 oil-presses worked in the sub-division, seventy-four were in the city and forty-four in the villages. About 150 sugar mills were worked. The city had four presses or factories for cleaning and pressing cotton, two of stone and two of iron. Most of the cotton came from the Nizám's country but the local outturn was yearly growing.¹ The chief imports were cotton, *javari*, wheat, gram, and

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¹ During 1883, 35,560 bales were pressed in these factories and forwarded to the Bombay market by rail, but none by road. A few native merchants still (1884) send their cotton in *dokras* or unpressed bales. The average price of a pressed bale of cotton was £8 (Rs. 80), which gives the value of cotton pressed during 1883 at nearly £285,000 (Rs. 23½ lakhs). Each pressed bale weighed half a Bombay *khandi* or 14 *mans* of 28 pounds each. Cotton was sold in the Nagar market by the *palla* of 120 *shers* or 132 *shers* wholesale measure, equal to about 265 pounds. An unpressed bundle or *dokra* weighed about half a *palla*. From November to the end of May was the cotton season, when almost all the cotton was brought into the market and pressed before despatch to Bombay. Colonel Laughton, Surv. Supt. 130 of 26th January 1884 para 17.

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oil-seeds, most of which were brought to Ahmadnagar from the Godávári plain and the Nizám's country by the Imámpur pass. The Jámkhed, Sholápur, and Málegaon roads all helped in a smaller degree to swell the number of carts which during the season came into the city daily. During February and March 1883, 14,559 carts and 6710 loaded pack animals passed into the city. This large influx of animals created a brisk trade in grass and fodder all along the high road and large quantities were also taken into the city itself to meet the demand. All the cotton and much of the grain brought into the city went by rail chiefly to Bombay. Other exports were local brassware and cotton cloth. English cotton goods and ironware were imported from Bombay and salt rice and groceries from the Konkan and elsewhere; some was used in the city and the rest was sent into the surrounding districts, the outgoing carts being glad to obtain return fares. Bhátodi had a considerable trade in betel leaves, tobacco, earthnuts, and coarse sugar. Cotton and sheep were bought for the Bombay and Poona markets, and from the Válki market cattle found their way all over the sub-division and even beyond it.

Of the ninety-nine Government villages, the revision settlement had been sanctioned for four villages by Government Resolution 3545 of 21st June 1881. The remaining ninety-five villages were divided into three classes with highest dry-crop acre rates of 3s. 3d., 3s., and 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1½, Rs. 1½, and Rs. 1½). The first class consisted of sixteen villages, all within three miles of the city. Their nearness to the city and the facilities they enjoyed for disposing of produce, both grain and fodder, made these villages capable of standing the increase of assessment which amounted to 24·1 per cent. The second group of fifty-one villages was assessed at a highest dry-crop acre rate of 3s (Rs. 1½). The average percentage increase on this class was 12·5. In four villages in this class the increase was over fifty per cent caused by land being found under tillage which was formerly entered as unarable and not assessed. The remaining twenty-eight villages were included in the third class. On this group the increase amounted to 35·6 per cent. Five villages, in which the area under channel-water had increased considerably, showed an increase over fifty per cent. The increase on all the ninety-five villages according to the revised rates amounted to 20·5 per cent. Land under old wells was assessed within the highest dry-crop rate of the class within which the villages were situated, while land under new wells bore the ordinary dry-crop classification rate, and thus improvements were not taxed. A good deal of channel tillage occurred in forty-nine villages under 230 fair weather dams. Except in Pimpalgaon-Malvi where the channel flowed till the first of April, on an average the water lasted to the middle of January. The area watered (1884) under fair weather works amounted to 3892 acres; land under wells and water-lifts without the aid of channels amounted to 8582 acres; the total area watered from all sources was 12,474 acres. The villages where channel-water was most used lay round the sources of the Sina river between the city and the hills to the north and north-east, and also near the hills to the east. At the

village of Párgaon, a large reservoir known as the Bhátodi reservoir commanded about 13,000 acres in the villages of Sándva, Dashnigavhán, Chichondi, Bhátodi, Ukadgaon, and Mándva. For channel-watered land, a highest acre rate of 16s. (Rs. 8) was proposed. Irrespective of the rates levied by the Survey Department, the scale fixed by the Irrigation Department for water taken from the Bhátodi reservoir was £1 4s. (Rs. 12) for a twelve-month water-supply, 8s. (Rs. 4) for two months from April to May, 6s. (Rs. 3) for eight months from June to the end of January, 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1¼) for four months from November to the end of February, and 6d. (4 as.) for four months from 15th June to 15th October. By Government Resolution 2238 of 8th April 1876, an extra sum of 3d. (2 as.) was added to the highest dry-crop acre rate of Bhátodi on account of indirect advantages derived from the Párgaon (Bhátodi) reservoir. This rate was retained. Rice cultivation obtained only in three villages and its extent was thirteen acres. The highest acre rate proposed for rice was 8s. (Rs. 4). The average acre rate on the occupied land according to the proposed rates was 1s. 3¼d. (10½ as.) against 1s. 1¼d. (9½ as.) according to the existing rates. The following statement gives the results of the revised assessment :

Nagar Revision Settlement, 1884.

CLASS.	VILLAGES	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.						HIGHEST DRY-CROP ACRE RATE.
		Occupied.		Occupied.		Unoccupied.		Total.		
		Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	
I.	16	Acres. 20,135	Ra. 13,799	Acres. 20,757	Ra. 17,127	Acres. ...	Ra. ...	Acres. 20,757	Ra. 17,127	Ra. 1½
II.	51	109,773	66,093	114,968	74,371	2842	1432	117,810	75,803	1½
III.	28	64,931	32,022	68,355	43,413	7777	3030	76,132	46,443	1½
Total	95	194,829	1,11,913	204,080	1,34,911	10,619	4462	214,699	1,39,373	...

The following statement gives the total area and assessment of these villages under every head :

Nagar Area and Assessment, 1884.

LAND.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.		QUIT-RENT.
	Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.	
Government Occupied Land ...	Acres. 194,829	Ra. 1,11,913	Acres. 204,080	Ra. 1,34,911	...
Government Arable Waste ...	10,402	4,488	10,619	4462	...
Alienated ...	23,154	11,273	20,623	12,352	4740
Government Unarable ...	69,846	...	61,102
Total ...	296,731	1,27,673	296,514	1,51,725	4740

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The following is a summary of the chief available season details for the thirty-three years ending 1882-83 :

The season of 1850-51 was on the whole favourable but bad in Korti and Karda. In Sangamner, Akola, Ráhuri, and Pátoda the early harvest was fair, but the cold weather crops suffered much from the failure of the later rains. In Pátoda and Ráhuri

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the loss was considerable. Notwithstanding these failures the state of the district was on the whole good. During the year the collections amounted to £82,865 (Rs. 8,28,650); £13,212 (Rs. 1,32,120) were remitted and £2 (Rs. 20) left outstanding.

The rainfall of 1851-52 was very capricious. It was excessive in the beginning of the season and scanty towards the close. The early or *tusár* and the middle or *kharif* crops suffered from excess of rain while the cold weather and other late crops withered from want of moisture. Much land prepared for tillage was left unsown and in a few parts where it was sown the seed did not sprout. In Karda Jámkhed and Korti the rainfall was very irregular. It began early in June and at first fell moderately, but at the close of the month it became incessant. In Korti and in part of Karda there was a partial failure in July and a total failure in all the three subdivisions during the first fifteen days of August. This break was followed by excessive rain which injured the early crop in Jámkhed and Vasundra and put a stop to late sowing. This was followed by another term of complete drought. In Karda and Jámkhed there were some showers, but they were of no use though in Korti the November rains proved of some benefit. The general results of the season were far from satisfactory. The crops had suffered considerably and much land was thrown up. Watered lands yielded well. Public health was generally bad. Cholera, but not of a specially fatal type, prevailed during the first three months in Jámkhed, Karda, and Korti. Cattle disease was also prevalent. The collections fell from £82,865 to £70,984 (Rs. 8,28,650 - Rs. 7,09,840), £15,291 (Rs. 1,52,910) were remitted, and £15 (Rs. 150) were left outstanding. Indian millet or *javári* prices fell from 62 to 78 pounds the rupee.

1852-53.

The season of 1852-53 was very favourable and public health was generally good. The collections rose from £70,984 to £79,495 (Rs. 7,09,840 - Rs. 7,94,950), £2091 (Rs. 20,910) were remitted and £3 (Rs. 30) left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 78 to 79 pounds the rupee.

1853-54.

The rains of 1853-54 were very scanty. There was a considerable fall in the land revenue especially in Pátoda. Both for the early and the late crops remissions had to be granted. Ráhuri and Nevása also suffered but the failure was small compared with Pátoda. The collections fell from £79,495 to £79,355 (Rs. 7,94,950 - Rs. 7,93,550), £10,470 (Rs. 1,04,700) were remitted and £6 (Rs. 60) left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 79 to 48 pounds the rupee.

1854-55.

The rains of 1854-55 did not set in till late in July and even then the fall was not sufficient. *Bájri* failed or at best was below the average. The latter rains were abundant. Towards the close of August heavy showers began to fall and continued with short intermissions till the end of October. In November also the rain was excessive. The millet suffered greatly and in places was destroyed. On the other hand the October and November rain was excellent for the late crops which yielded a full harvest. The collections rose from £79,355 to £93,628 (Rs. 7,93,550 - Rs. 9,36,280),

£668 (Rs. 6680) were remitted and £2 (Rs. 20) left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 48 to 55 pounds the rupee.

The season of 1855-56 varied in different sub-divisions. In most the crops were fair, but in the central tract enclosed by Pátoda, Nevása, Sinnar, Sangamner, and Ráhuri, the late rains entirely failed and the crops came to nothing. Eight villages in Pátoda and Nevása and thirty in Sangamner and Ráhuri were inspected and remissions granted. The outturn of many other fields was also much below the average; but the damage was not such as to call for remission. For want of rain in the beginning of June very little of the early or *tusár* crop was sown, and the middle or *kharif* sowing was only about a quarter of its full extent. Late crops were sown in most of the land that was left fallow but the crop was only partial. Grain was rather scarce as large exports had been made to Sholápur. Public health was generally good. The collection rose from £93,628 to £100,057 (Rs. 9,36,280-Rs. 10,00,570), £3765 (Rs. 37,650) were remitted and £45 (Rs. 450) left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 55 to 51 pounds the rupee.

1856-57 was an average season. In Shevgaon and Jámkhed the rainfall was abundant and the crops excellent; in Nagar, Akola, Korti, Pátoda, and Nevása the crops were on the whole good with some partial failures, and in Karda, Sangamner, and Ráhuri the season was bad. Both the early and the late crops failed almost entirely. In Karda especially the loss was extensive and large remissions were necessary. Public health was generally good. There was no epidemic of any sort and no cattle disease. The collections rose from £100,057 to £106,369 (Rs. 10,00,570 - Rs. 10,63,690), £1774 (Rs. 17,740) were remitted and nothing was left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 51 to 59 pounds the rupee.

1857-58 was an average season. A long and threatening drought in the middle of the rains was followed by an abundant and seasonable fall in the latter part of the season. Akola Ráhuri and Karda had the best harvests. In Nagar Korti and Jámkhed the season was on the whole fair though the middle or *kharif* crops suffered for want of rain. In Nevása and Shevgaon the season was tolerably favourable. The rains set in late and injured the early crops. The late rains were plentiful and seasonable, and the late crops were good. In Sangamner and Ráhuri the middle or *kharif* sowing was late, but the rains were abundant and the crops excellent. The late crops were also good. In Pátoda the season was fair. The crops suffered no injury and the Government revenue remained unaffected. Throughout the district public health was good. The collections rose from £106,369 to £112,345 (Rs. 10,63,690-Rs. 11,23,450), £440 (Rs. 4400) were remitted and nothing was left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 59 to 53 pounds the rupee.

1858-59 had an abundant and well timed rainfall. In Nagar and Karda the season was an ordinary one. Both the early and the late crops suffered slightly from want of rain, but there was no distress. The season was above the average in Nevása, Shevgaon,

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and Pátoda. In the first two sub-divisions the early rains were somewhat scanty and the middle or *kharif* crops suffered to some extent. But the latter rains were abundant and the outturn of the late crops was excellent. In Pátoda the middle crop was good and the late crop a failure. In Korti and Jámkhed the late rains failed and the harvest was poor. Public health was generally good. The collections rose from £112,345 to £113,622 (Rs. 11,23,450 - Rs. 11,36,220), £53 (Rs. 530) were remitted and nothing was left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 53 to 66 pounds the rupee.

1859-60.

1859-60 was a favourable season. The tillage area rose from 2,191,106 to 22,45,909 acres and the collections rose from £113,622 to £114,465 (Rs. 11,36,220 - Rs. 11,44,650), £38 (Rs. 380) were remitted and nothing was left outstanding. Indian millet rupee prices rose from 66 to 58 pounds.

1860-61.

•1860-61 was a favourable season. The tillage area fell from 2,245,909 to 2,199,611 acres, the collections rose from £114,465 to £115,143 (Rs. 11,44,650 - Rs. 11,51,430), £51 (Rs. 510) were remitted and nothing was left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 58 to 50 pounds the rupee.

1861-62.

1861-62 had a favourable rainfall and the crops were good. Public health was generally good; cattle disease prevailed to some extent in a few places. The tillage area rose from 2,199,611 to 2,300,288 acres and the collections from £115,143 to £125,111 (Rs. 11,51,430 - Rs. 12,51,110), £399 (Rs. 3990) were remitted and £349 (Rs. 3490) left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 50 to 29 pounds the rupee.

1862-63.

1862-63 was an unfavourable season. The early rains failed, and there was a great scarcity of water. The middle or *kharif* crops suffered greatly from want of rain and yielded a scanty outturn. Late in the season, in September and October, copious showers fell. Every field that had been fallow was sown with cold weather crops. Public health was generally good, but the failure of the early rains was so complete that large numbers of cattle died. The tillage area rose from 2,300,288 to 2,328,244 acres and the collections from £125,111 to £127,094 (Rs. 12,51,110 - Rs. 12,70,940), £294 (Rs. 2940) were remitted and £2 (Rs. 20) left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 29 to 21 pounds the rupee.

1863-64.

The rainfall of 1863-64 was scanty in the beginning and plentiful and seasonable towards the close. In Karjat and Sirur both the early and the late rains were short. Yet on the whole the season was an average one with a moderate outturn of crops. Public health was not good, cholera being prevalent. Cattle disease also prevailed, but the mortality was trifling. The tillage area rose from 2,328,244 to 2,394,659 acres and the collections from £127,094 to £133,025 (Rs. 12,70,940 - Rs. 13,30,250), £781 (Rs. 7810) were remitted and £9 (Rs. 90) left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 21 to 22 pounds the rupee.

1864-65.

In 1864-65 the early rainfall was excellent but the late fall was scanty and the late crops suffered. Still the yield of the season both

early and late was up to the average. Public health was good. The tillage area rose from 2,394,659 to 2,443,624 acres and the collections from £133,025 to £136,473 (Rs. 13,30,250 - Rs. 13,64,730), £558 (Rs. 5580) were remitted and £2 (Rs. 20) left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 22 to 41 pounds the rupee.

1865-66.

In 1865-66 the rainfall though not seasonable was generally sufficient. Both early and late harvests were fair. Except slight cholera and cattle disease health was good. The tillage area rose from 2,443,624 to 2,494,443 acres and the collections from £136,473 to £146,311 (Rs. 13,64,730 - Rs. 14,63,110), £64 (Rs. 640) were remitted, and £61 (Rs. 610) left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 41 to 36 pounds the rupee.

1866-67.

In 1866-67 the rainfall was barely sufficient. The middle or *khari*f crops were average in eight of the sub-divisions and in the rest they were much below the average. Only in three sub-divisions did the late crops prosper. In most other sub-divisions want of rain reduced the outturn to about one-half the usual produce. Still enough of grain for home use was secured. The chief bad effect of the want of rain was a great scarcity of drinking water. Public health was generally good. The tillage area fell from 2,494,443 to 2,422,797 acres and the collections from £146,311 to £136,980 (Rs. 14,63,110 - Rs. 13,69,800), £145 (Rs. 1450) were remitted, and nothing was left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 36 to 25 pounds the rupee.

1867-68.

The season of 1867-68 was favourable everywhere except in Sávargaon where want of rain caused considerable loss. The tillage area rose from 2,422,797 to 2,430,146 acres and the collections from £136,980 to £138,429 (Rs. 13,69,800 - Rs. 13,84,290), £111 (Rs. 1110) were remitted and nothing was left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 25 to 45 pounds the rupee.

1868-69.

In 1868-69 the rainfall was very irregular. In Jámkhed, Karjat, Kopargaon, and Sanganner the *khari*f crops yielded an average harvest. In other sub-divisions the early crops suffered much from want of rain and in some they failed entirely. The almost total failure of the October and November rains was fatal to the late harvest. The failure of the late rain caused a widespread scarcity of water. Cholera prevailed to some extent, but on the whole the public health was good. The tillage area rose from 2,430,146 to 2,437,630 acres, the collections fell from £138,429 to £134,131 (Rs. 1,384,290 - Rs. 13,41,310), £3980 (Rs. 39,800) were remitted, and £152 (Rs. 1520) left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 45 to 25 pounds the rupee.

1869 70.

The season of 1869-70 was favourable, both the early and the late harvests being excellent. Public health was good and cattle were fairly free from disease. The tillage area rose from 2,437,630 to 2,448,585 acres and the collections from £134,131 to £136,331 (Rs. 13,41,310 - Rs. 13,63,310), £494 (Rs. 4940) were remitted and £44 (Rs. 440) left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 25 to 30 pounds the rupee.

1870-71.

In 1870-71 the rainfall was rather excessive in the early part

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of the season and injured the *khariif* crops. Later on it was more seasonable and gave hopes of an excellent late harvest. Public health was generally good. The tillage area rose from 2,448,585 to 2,467,638 acres and the collections from £136,331 to £137,599 (Rs. 13,63,310 - Rs. 13,75,990), £46 (Rs. 460) were remitted and £16 (Rs. 160) left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 30 to 45 pounds the rupee.

1871-72.

The season of 1871-72 was very unfavourable. The early rains were scanty and unseasonable, except in Párner and Akola *khariif* sowing was limited to a few fields. Some showers in September tempted the sowing of late crops. But the rain was partial and in tracts along the banks of the Godávári it never fell. Even in the most fortunate parts of the district the crop was not more than a half crop. In parts where the rains failed watering did much to save the harvest. The last year's plentiful rains had left the wells and ponds full. The Lákhi canal and the Bhátodi lake were of special service. Still so great was the scarcity that many cattle died from want of fodder or left the district in search of pasture. Considerable numbers of husbandmen and labourers also left the district in search of work and food. This was particularly the case in Sangamner, Kopargaon, Nevása, and Shevgaon. Cholera prevailed to some extent, but public health was on the whole good. The tillage area fell from 2,467,638 to 2,467,545 acres and the collections from £137,599 to £125,860 (Rs. 13,75,990 - Rs. 12,58,600), £4690 (Rs. 46,900) were remitted and £4983 (Rs. 49,830) left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 45 to 32 pounds the rupee.

1872-73.

The early rains of 1872-73 were seasonable and favourable. More land than usual was given to *khariif* and though heavy rain in August and September caused some damage the harvest was on the whole good. The late or *rabi* harvest was also above the average. The supply of water during the season was abundant, and grass and other fodder was plentiful. Public health was good though cholera prevailed to a slight extent. There was no cattle disease. The tillage area fell from 2,467,545 to 2,455,544 acres and the collections rose from £125,860 to £135,356 (Rs. 12,58,600 - Rs. 13,53,560), £209 (Rs. 2090) were remitted and £296 (Rs. 2960) left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 32 to 41 pounds the rupee.

1873-74.

The season of 1873-74 was most favourable. The rains set in well and the *khariif* crops were sown in good time, and though they suffered from a long stretch of dry weather in August, the harvest was above the average. The late crops were also on the whole good. Fodder was abundant and the water-supply sufficient. Public health was generally good. The tillage area fell from 2,455,544 to 2,448,749 acres, and the collections from £135,356 to £134,089 (Rs. 13,53,560 - Rs. 13,40,390), £83 (Rs. 830) were remitted, and £302 (Rs. 3020) left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 41 to 67 pounds the rupee.

1874-75.

In 1874-75 the rainfall was on the whole rather too heavy. The outturn of the early or *tusár* harvest was on the whole

good, and the middle or *kharif* harvest though in places it suffered from rain was at least average. The yield of the late or *rabi* crops was also fair. During the whole season the supply of water was abundant. Public health was good, but cattle disease prevailed in some parts of Párner, Ráhuri, and Kopargaon. The tillage area fell from 2,448,749 to 2,432,354 acres and the collections from £134,039 to £132,738 (Rs. 13,40,390 - Rs. 1,327,380), £117 (Rs. 1170) were remitted and £7 (Rs. 70) left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 67 to 81 pounds the rupee.

In 1875-76 the rainfall was at first scanty and then unseasonable. In Nagar, Jámkhed, Shevgaon, and Akola the early or *tusár* harvest was middling, and in Párner, Shrigonda, Nevása, Karjat, and Kopargaon it was an almost complete failure. The *kharif* sowings were delayed from want of rain and the crops suffered seriously from excessive rain at the close of the season. The late or *rabi* crop was on the whole satisfactory. The water-supply was abundant. Public health was not good. Cholera was prevalent and a form of cattle disease called *dendalia* caused considerable loss in Párner, Ráhuri, and Akola. The tillage area fell from 2,432,354 to 2,418,593 acres and the collections from £132,738 to £132,110 (Rs. 13,27,380 - Rs. 13,21,100), £1621 (Rs. 16,210) were remitted and £244 (Rs. 2440) left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 81 to 66 pounds the rupee.

In 1876-77 the rainfall was very scanty. The *kharif* crops failed almost entirely in Karjat and Shrigonda. In Nagar, Párner, Jámkhed, Akola, Ráhuri, Kopargaon, and Sangamner, the crops were saved from destruction by occasional slight showers. In Jámkhed and Akola the outturn amounted to seven *annas* in the rupee, in Kopargaon to six *annas*, in Nagar to five *annas*, in Párner and Sangamner to three, and in Ráhuri to two. Nevása and Shevgaon alone enjoyed a fair harvest. The later rains failed generally. *Rabi* crops were sown over a limited area, but except in Nevása and Shevgaon, their return was much below the average. The scarcity of fodder was so great that cattle had to be sent out of the district. The season was one of famine. Relief works were opened in the worst sub-divisions and employment found for large numbers of the destitute. Public health was good though scattered cases of cholera occurred. The tillage area fell from 2,418,593 to 2,407,660 acres and the collections from £132,110 to £87,248 (Rs. 13,21,100 - Rs. 8,72,480), £13,174 (Rs. 1,31,740) were remitted and £35,126 (Rs. 3,51,260) left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 66 to 34 pounds the rupee.

The rains of 1877-78 opened well. But the first fall was followed by a break which lasted nearly to the close of August. The early crops suffered severely, and further damage was done by excessive rain late in the season. The cold weather harvest was good. There was much sickness and distress. Cholera, small-pox, and fever prevailed, and were fatal in a large number of cases. Many of the cattle that left the district in search of fodder never returned. The tillage area fell from 2,407,660 to 2,401,589 acres, while the collections rose from £87,248 to £98,841 (Rs. 8,72,480 - Rs. 9,88,410).

Chapter VIII.
The Land.
SEASON REPORTS.
1874-75.

1875-76.

1876-77.

1877-78.

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SEASON REPORTS.
1878-79.

No remissions were granted, but £36,619 (Rs. 3,66,190) were left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 34 to 19 pounds the rupee.

The season of 1878-79 was moderate. Heavy and unceasing rain harmed the early crops and locusts added to the loss. The late crops suffered from want of late rain and from rats. Cholera and fever were prevalent. The tillage area rose from 2,401,589 to 2,415,167 acres and the collections from £98,841 to £118,599 (Rs. 9,88,410-Rs. 11,85,990); no remissions were granted, but £17,660 (Rs. 1,76,600) were left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 19 to 21 pounds the rupee.

1879-80

The season of 1879-80 was on the whole favourable though both the early and late harvests were below the average. Fodder was good and plentiful and except for stray cases of cholera and cattle disease the year was healthy. The tillage area fell from 2,415,167 to 2,277,538 acres and the collections rose from £118,599 to £123,241 (Rs. 11,85,990-Rs. 12,32,410), £9 (Rs. 90) were remitted and £7709 (Rs. 77,090) were left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 21 to 23 pounds the rupee.

1880-81.

In 1880-81 the season was not favourable. The rainfall was little below and in some places it was above the average, but it was not seasonable. The early crops were in places very poor; the late crops were better, but were not up to the average. Fodder was scarce, but imports by the Dhond-Manmád railway kept grain abundant. Prices were very low, *bájri* and *javári* selling at less than half the price of the previous year. Public health was good during almost the whole year. Some cases of cholera occurred in September and December, and a severe outbreak of that disease began in June. The tillage area fell from 2,277,538 to 2,267,346 acres and the collections rose from £123,241 to £123,964 (Rs. 12,32,410 - Rs. 12,39,640); no remissions were granted, but £12,651 (Rs. 1,26,510) left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 23 to 41 pounds the rupee.

1881-82.

In 1881-82 the rainfall was unusually variable. In some sub-divisions it was above the average and in some it was little below the average, in others the deficiency was so serious as to cause distress. The early harvest in Karjat, Jámkhed, and Shevgaon was from $\frac{1}{8}$ ths to $\frac{1}{6}$ ths, and the late harvest in Karjat, Jámkhed, Shevgaon, and Shrigonda was from $\frac{1}{16}$ ths to $\frac{1}{8}$ ths. In Ráhuri, Sanganner, and Kopargaon the early harvest was $\frac{1}{16}$ ths to $\frac{1}{8}$ ths and the late $\frac{1}{16}$ ths to $\frac{1}{8}$ ths. In Ráhuri and Kopargaon few early crops were sown; in the greater part of Kopargaon there was no late harvest and in the rest it was miserably poor. During the greater part of the year grain was cheaper even than in the year before. A grant of £5000 (Rs. 50,000) was made from Provincial Funds to provide employment for all in need. A threatened water famine was averted by the sinking and repairing of wells, for which an allotment of £1500 (Rs. 15,000) was made. Cholera prevailed from time to time in all the sub-divisions, and in some it was particularly deadly. In other respects the year was healthy. The tillage area rose from 2,267,346 to 2,278,125 acres and the collections fell from £123,964 to £97,734

£12,39,640 - Rs. 9,77,340), £22,088 (Rs. 2,20,880) were remitted and £18,110 (Rs. 1,81,100) left outstanding. Indian millet prices fell from 41 to 72 pounds the rupee.

In 1882-83 the rainfall was in some sub-divisions above and in others below the average, but it was generally sufficient and reasonable. The early crops were seriously injured by locusts in some sub-divisions and to a less extent in two others. The late crops were generally good, but owing to fear of injury from locusts a smaller area than usual was sown. Cholera prevailed throughout the greater part of the year and in July was very deadly. There was also an epidemic of small-pox in the town of Ahmadnagar. The tillage area rose from 2,278,125 to 2,300,556 acres and the collections from £97,734 to £111,055 (Rs. 9,77,340 - Rs. 11,10,550), £3,484 (Rs. 1,64,840) were remitted and £12,010 (Rs. 1,20,100) left outstanding. Indian millet prices rose from 72 to 56 pounds the rupee.

The following statement shows the tillage, revenue, and prices during the thirty-three years ending 1882-83 :

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The Land.

SEASON REPORTS.
1882-83.

REVENUE,
1850-1883.

Ahmadnagar Tillage and Land Revenue, 1850-1883.

YEAR.	TILLAGE.	LAND REVENUE.				INDIAN MILLET RUPPEE PRICES.
		Remitted.	For Collection.	Out-standing.	Collected.	
	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Pounds.
1850-51	1,32,119	8,28,668	18	8,28,650	62
1851-52	1,52,913	7,09,995	192	7,09,843	78
1852-53	20,914	7,94,986	85	7,94,951	79
1853-54	1,04,705	7,93,609	59	7,93,550	48
1854-55	6679	9,36,293	18	9,36,277	55
1855-56	37,653	10,01,028	455	10,00,573	51
1856-57	17,739	10,63,686	...	10,63,686	59
1857-58	4396	11,23,450	...	11,23,450	53
1858-59	2,191,106	533	11,36,222	...	11,36,222	66
1859-60	2,245,909	378	11,44,647	...	11,44,647	58
1860-61	2,199,611	506	11,51,433	...	11,51,433	50
1861-62	2,300,238	3989	12,54,599	3492	12,51,107	29
1862-63	2,328,244	2945	12,70,961	16	12,70,945	21
1863-64	2,394,659	7812	13,30,337	85	13,30,252	22
1864-65	2,443,624	6584	13,64,749	17	13,64,732	41
1865-66	2,494,443	644	14,63,721	611	14,63,110	36
1866-67	2,422,797	1452	13,69,305	...	13,69,305	25
1867-68	2,430,140	1106	13,84,238	...	13,84,238	45
1868-69	2,437,630	39,802	13,42,330	1523	13,41,307	25
1869-70	2,448,585	4937	13,61,756	442	13,63,314	30
1870-71	2,467,638	459	13,76,148	156	13,75,992	45
1871-72	2,467,545	46,898	13,08,436	49,832	12,58,604	32
1872-73	2,455,544	2087	13,66,522	2961	13,53,561	41
1873-74	2,448,749	833	13,43,413	3025	13,40,388	67
1874-75	2,432,354	1166	13,27,456	74	13,27,382	81
1875-76	2,418,593	16,210	13,23,546	2441	13,21,105	66
1876-77	2,407,600	1,31,741	12,23,737	8,51,261	8,72,476	34
1877-78	2,401,589	...	13,54,602	3,66,193	9,88,409	19
1878-79	2,415,167	...	13,62,597	1,78,603	11,85,994	21
1879-80	2,277,343	92	13,09,503	77,093	12,32,410	23
1880-81	2,267,343	...	13,06,154	1,25,514	12,39,640	41
1881-82	2,276,125	2,20,884	11,58,446	1,81,102	9,77,344	72
1882-83	2,300,556	1,64,842	12,30,656	1,20,104	11,10,552	56

Chapter VIII.

SECTION V.—ALIENATED VILLAGES.

Rs.

The Land.

ALIENATED
VILLAGES,
1884.

The holders of alienated villages are Hindus and Musand and
Of the Hindus some are Bráhmans and some are Maráthás. ^{rom}
proprietors live in and manage their villages; others who are en In
elsewhere or who are men of rank or of large estates manage the
villages through agents. The estates as a rule are kept in the case
of one family. The land is never divided into shares; where there
shareholders and under-shareholders the revenue not the land is divided. ^{wer}
estate is a grant in *iná*m for the maintenance of the family, ^{Come}
ment occasionally distribute the revenue among the ^{reco}
shareholders. Except villages which belong to persons of high ^{rwat}
Sindia and Holkar, estates are often mortgaged to creditors. ^{1Th}
to which the summary settlement has been applied have beco^l
private property and are liable for sale under civil court de^{cl}
Villages to which the summary settlement has not been applic^{out}
also be sold under civil court decrees. What rights the purch^{rup}
acquires under such sales depend on the tenure of the village. ^T
is commonly the case the village is continued in *iná*m only so ^{lur}
as any male descendant of a particular person remains, if
family dies out, the purchaser at the civil court sale will have
give up the village to Government. In few cases are estate
jágir lands privately sold. The people and the tillage in neighb^o
ing alienated and Government villages show no notable differenc^e
Holders in alienated villages never have the help of advances
tagdí; on the other hand they are allowed much more freedom an
much greater delay in paying their rents than in Governmen
villages. Most landholders in unsurveyed alienated villages a^r
mirásdárs and pay a fixed rent, the rest are yearly tenants or *upr*.
The *mirásdárs*' payments are generally made subject to a year
páhani or inspection, when remissions are allowed if the crops a^r
poor. *Kadim* or old *inámdárs*, that is alienees of land revenue who
grants or *ináms* are of older date than the grant of the propriet^r
or *inámdár* of the village, pay the Government their original *jui*
or quit-rent. The tenants pay their rents in cash and never i
grain. In alienated villages not under the survey settlement t^e
rates vary, but one rupee or two shillings the *bigha* or about thre
quarters of an acre, is an ordinary rate for dry crop and 8s. or 1l.
(Rs. 4 or 5) for garden land. Where the survey has not beⁿ
introduced, other modes of assessment in use in alienated villages a^r
tahkub or standing over, that is withholding the levy of the f^o
assessment so long as the land continues in the occupancy o
certain tenant; *istáva* that is a growing assessment after a specifi
period; and *thoka* or lump, a rental levied on a field irrespective o
its area. *Istáva* and *thoka* are uncommon. The usual dry crop ac
rate of about 2s. 8d. (Re. 1 a *bigha*) is apparently higher than th
Government rate, but concessions probably reduce it to about th
same. No arrangements are made to meet the case of a tenan
improving his field, digging a well in it, or turning it from dry cr
to rice land. In most cases if a tenant permanently improves th

¹ Mr. Elphinston, Collector, 332 of 16th January 1884.

land by sinking a well custom prevents the alienee from taking advantage of the improvement to raise the tenant's rent. The alienee generally sets aside rent-free land for the grazing of the village cattle. The tenants at least the hereditary tenants or *mirásdárs* are the permanent occupants of the land, and so long as they pay the rent they are its virtual owners. They may cut timber on their land without asking the landlord's leave. If an alienee, not invested with special powers for recovering rent under the Revenue Code, applies to the Collector for help to recover his dues, a notice is served and the amounts due are recovered by the distress and sale of the defaulter's movable property. Assistance is given in accordance with the survey rates where these rates have been introduced, or where the survey settlement is not in force, in accordance with the rates prevailing in neighbouring Government villages. The number of applications for aid against defaulting tenants is not large.

Chapter VIII.**The Land.****ALIENATED
VILLAGES,
1884.**

CHAPTER IX.

JUSTICE.

Chapter IX.
Justice.
1818-1869.

¹ For ten years (1818-1827) after the British conquest, to prevent sudden and extensive changes, Ahmadnagar with the rest of the Deccan was administered under the orders of the Governor in Council.² A Collector and Political Agent under the orders of the Commissioner at Poona was appointed to Ahmadnagar, which then included the southern half of Násik. The authority of the Collector and Political Agent closely resembled that of the Peshwa's *sarsubhedárs*. His instructions were scrupulously to keep to old usages and customs, and to attempt no changes except such as were clearly beneficial to the people and Government. In 1823 a *munsif's* court was opened at each of the towns of Ahmadnagar, Chándor, Jámkhed, Karda, Násik, Nevása, Pátoda, Ráhuri, Sangamner, and Sinnar. In 1827 when most of the ceded Deccan districts were brought under the Revised Regulations, Ahmadnagar became the seat of a District Judge's court with jurisdiction extending over Ahmadnagar which then included the southern half, and over Khándesh which included the northern half, of Násik. In 1827, in addition to the ten existing *munsif* courts, one more *munsif* court was opened at Korti. In 1849 when Khándesh was separated from the Ahmadnagar Judge's jurisdiction, there were, besides the principal *sadar amin's* court at Ahmadnagar and the *sadar amin's* courts at Karda and Násik, ten *munsif* courts; one of these was placed in each of the towns of Ahmadnagar, Chándor, Jámkhed, Násik, Nevása, Pátoda, Ráhata, Ráhuri, Sangamner, and Sinnar. In July 1869 Násik was made a separate district and separated from the Ahmadnagar Judge's jurisdiction.

CIVIL COURTS.
1870-1884.

In 1870 the number of courts in Ahmadnagar was six, and the number of suits disposed of was 10,185. In 1875 the number of courts remained unchanged and the number of suits disposed of was 9640. In 1880 the number of courts was twelve, and the number of suits disposed of was 4248. At present (1884) the district is provided with a District Judge and nine sub-judges. Of the nine sub-judges, the first class sub-judge of Ahmadnagar, besides special jurisdiction above £500 (Rs. 5000) over the whole district has ordinary jurisdiction

¹ Details of the administration of justice under the Musalmáns and the Maráthás are given in the Násik and Poona Statistical Accounts.

² Regulation XXIX. of 1827, Preamble.

over the Nagar sub-division ; the second class sub-judge of Sangamner has charge over the Sangamner sub-division ; the second class sub-judge of Nevása has charge over the Nevása sub-division ; the second class sub-judge of Ráhuri and Párner has charge over the Ráhuri and Párner sub-divisions having a court at Ráhuri and another at Párner ; the second class sub-judge of Shrigonda has charge over the Shrigonda sub-division ; the second class sub-judge of Kada and Karjat has charge over the Jámkhed and Karjat sub-divisions having a court at Kada and another at Karjat ; the second class sub-judge of Shevgaon has charge over the Shevgaon sub-division ; the second class sub-judge of Kopargaon has charge over the Kopargaon sub-division ; and the second class sub-judge of Akola has charge over the Akola sub-division.

The average distance of the Ahmadnagar court from its furthest six villages is nineteen miles ; of the Sangamner court twenty miles ; of the Nevása court sixteen miles ; of the Ráhuri court fourteen miles ; of the Párner court eighteen miles ; of the Shrigonda court seventeen miles ; of the Kada court thirty-six miles ; of the Karjat court seventeen miles ; of the Shevgaon court eighteen miles ; of the Kopargaon court sixteen miles ; and of the Akola court eighteen miles.

During the thirteen years ending 1882 the average number of suits decided was 7826. In 1870 the total was 10,185. During the three years ending 1873, the total rose from 8739 in 1871 to 10,903 in 1873. For the next four years the returns show a continuous fall from 10,903 in 1873 to 5710 in 1877. During the next two years the total rose to 7041 in 1878 and 8420 in 1879. In 1880 the total suddenly fell from 8420 to 4248 or a decrease of nearly fifty per cent ; in 1881 there was a further fall to 4144. In 1882 the total was 4997. Of the total number of cases decided, fifty-three per cent have on an average been given against the defendant in his absence, the lowest being 7.68 in 1882 and the highest 73.01 in 1872. Except in 1878, when there was a slight fall to 57.25, the percentage of cases decided in this way was above the average percentage in the ten years ending 1879 and below in the remaining three years :

Ahmadnagar Ex parte Decrees, 1870-1882.

YEAR.	Suits.	Decisions.	Percentage.	YEAR.	Suits.	Decisions.	Percentage.
1870	10,185	7133	70.03	1878	7041	4031	57.25
1871	8739	6298	72.07	1879	8420	5008	59.47
1872	9008	6577	73.01	1880	4248	865	20.36
1873	10,903	7494	68.73	1881	4144	447	10.54
1874	10,066	6784	67.46	1882	4997	383	7.68
1875	9640	6084	63.21				
1876	8647	5533	63.98				
1877	5710	3565	62.43	Total	101,738	60,212	59.25

Of contested cases during this period of thirteen years an average of 17.25 per cent have been decided for the defendant, the percentage varying from 22.16 in 1877 to 13.94 in 1873. In 233, or 4.66 per cent of the suits decided in 1882 the decree was executed by putting the plaintiff in possession of the immovable property claimed.

Chapter IX.

Justice.

CIVIL COURTS.

1870-1884.

CIVIL SUITS.

1870-1882.

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Justice.
CIVIL SUITS.
1870-1882.

Except in 1873 when it was 561 the number of this class of cases varied from 132 out of 4248 in 1880 to 233 out of 4997 in 1882. In 923 or 18.47 per cent of the 1882 decisions, decrees for money due were executed by the attachment or sale of property. Of these 652 or 13.05 per cent were executed by the sale of immovable property and 271 or 5.42 per cent by the sale of movable property. The number of attachments or sales of immovable property varied from 4858 in 1873 to 467 in 1881 and of movable property from 1978 in 1874 to 233 in 1881. During the thirteen years ending 1882 the number of decrees executed by the arrest of debtors varied from 325 in 1871 to thirty-five in 1877. Except in 1871 and 1876 when there was a slight increase, during the eight years ending 1877 the numbers gradually fell from 325 in 1871 to thirty-five in 1877. During the remaining five years, the number rose from thirty-five in 1877 to 216 in 1878, fell to thirty-six in 1880, and again rose to 153 in 1882. The following table shows that during the same thirteen years (1870-1882) the number of civil prisoners varied from 102 in 1870 to fifteen in 1880 and 1881 :

Ahmadnagar Civil Prisoners, 1870-1882.

YEAR.	PRISONERS.	DAYS.	RELEASE.					Time Expiry.
			By satisfying the Decree.	At Creditor's Request.	No Sub-sistence Allowance.	Disclosure of Property.		
1870	102	30	1	22	76	1	1	
1871	95	31	8	12	72	3	...	
1872	80	29	9	11	59	1	...	
1873	70	38	...	18	50	1	6	
1874	68	40	7	12	44	3	2	
1875	67	32	...	12	54	...	1	
1876	79	40	6	14	54	2	3	
1877	43	32	6	16	21	
1878	45	21	7	12	25	...	1	
1879	46	30	3	15	23	...	5	
1880	15	29	...	4	19	...	1	
1881	15	27	3	5	7	
1882	30	30	1	10	16	...	3	

The following statement shows in tabular form the working of the district civil courts during the thirteen years ending 1882 :

Ahmadnagar Civil Courts, 1870-1882.

YEAR.	SUITS.	AVERAGE VALUE.	UNCONTESTED.				Total.
			Decreed Exparte.	Dismissed Exparte.	Decreed on Confession.	Otherwise disposed of.	
1870	10,185	£. s.	7193	11	310	1455	8909
1871	8739	7 13	6298	5	263	1079	7645
1872	9008	8 11	6577	13	496	941	7937
1873	10,903	8 0	7494	251	697	1197	9519
1874	10,036	6 7	6784	351	553	970	8618
1875	9640	7 2	6094	207	578	1353	8212
1876	8647	7 4	5533	162	708	1034	7437
1877	5719	17 11	3565	117	419	683	4754
1878	7041	13 15	4031	110	738	950	5859
1879	8420	3 16	5008	139	922	1043	7162
1880	4248	9 15	665	133	872	1235	3195
1881	4144	11 17	447	47	1010	1295	2799
1882	4997	9 9	333	63	1023	1633	3197

Ahmadnagar Civil Courts, 1870-1882—continued.

YEAR.	CONTESTED.				EXECUTION.			
	Plain- tiff.	Defen- dant.	Mixed.	Total.	Arrest.	Put In Posses- sion.	Attachment or Sale.	
							Immov- able.	Mova- ble.
1870	1064	182	30	1276	293	163	2297	913
1871	864	216	24	1094	325	176	2338	941
1872	818	198	55	1071	317	195	2501	863
1873	1130	193	61	1384	293	561	4858	1883
1874	1070	209	139	1418	115	170	4394	1973
1875	878	269	261	1408	81	188	4272	1581
1876	796	233	181	1210	99	206	4006	1471
1877	563	205	158	926	35	166	1131	633
1878	746	220	216	1182	216	192	835	951
1879	747	216	295	1258	66	186	1499	1519
1880	565	206	372	1143	36	132	842	1314
1881	681	224	440	1345	103	153	467	233
1882	965	295	630	1890	153	233	652	271

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CIVIL SUITS.
1870-1882.

REGISTRATION.

In Ahmadnagar, besides the ordinary registration, there is a special branch of registration called Village Registration, which works under the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act. The work of ordinary registration employs eleven sub-registrars all of them special or full-time officers. One of these sub-registrars is stationed at each of the sub-divisional head-quarters. In addition to supervision by the Collector as District Registrar, a special scrutiny under the control of the Inspector General of Registration and Stamps is carried on by the Divisional Inspector. According to the registration report for 1882-83 the gross registration receipts for that year amounted to £354 (Rs. 3540) and the charges to £472 (Rs. 4720), thus showing a deficit of £118 (Rs. 1180). Of 1464, the total number of registrations, 1341 related to immovable property, ninety-nine to movable property, and twenty-four were wills. Of 1341 documents relating to immovable property, 393 were mortgage deeds, 754 deeds of sale, 135 leases, and fifty-nine miscellaneous deeds. Including £37,343 (Rs. 3,73,430) the value of immovable property transferred, the total value of property affected by registration amounted to £40,052 (Rs. 4,00,520). Village Registration under the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act employs forty-nine village registrars, all of whom are special or full-time officers. Besides the forty-nine village registrars, every sub-registrar is also a village registrar within the limits of his charge, and is responsible for the issue of registration books to village registrars and for the monthly accounts of the village offices. Under the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act a special officer for the district called Inspector of Village Registry Offices is appointed to examine the village registry offices. In addition to supervision by the Collector as District Registrar, a special scrutiny under the control of the Inspector General of Registration and Stamps is carried on by the Divisional Inspector. According to the registration report for 1882-83 the gross registration receipts under the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act for that year amounted to £594 (Rs. 5940) and the charges to £1074 (Rs. 10,740), thus showing a deficit of £480 (Rs. 4800). Of 20,324, the total number of registra-

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Justice.
REGISTRATION.

tions 8294 related to immovable property and 12,030 to movable property. Of 8294 documents relating to immovable property 2219 were mortgage deeds, 1165 deeds of sale, twenty-five deeds of gift, 4555 leases, and 330 miscellaneous deeds. Including £63,400 (Rs. 6,34,000) the value of immovable property transferred, the total value of property affected by registration amounted to £130,090 (Rs. 13,00,900). The introduction of village registration into the district has prejudicially affected the operations of ordinary registration. Compared with the registration figures of 1878-79 those of 1882-83 show a reduction of 2265 or nearly sixty-one per cent in the number of registrations, of £471 (Rs. 4710) or fifty-seven per cent in fees, and of £62,073 (Rs. 6,20,730) or nearly sixty-eight per cent in the value of property affected.

During the calendar year 1883, sixty village registrars appointed under the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act of 1879 registered 12,120 documents; seventy-six conciliators disposed of 11,232 applications and under sections 44 and 45 of the Act forwarded 1630 agreements to courts; twenty-nine village *munsifs* decided 563 cases; and under chapter II of the Act nine sub-judges decided 3440 cases.

ARBITRATION
COURT.

The Ahmadnagar Arbitration Court was established on the 13th of June 1876 at the suggestion of a Poona pleader and was called the Ahmadnagar Panchayat or Ahmadnagar Court of Juries. The institution was managed by a body of five members and had an establishment of six men on a monthly pay of £3 14s. (Rs. 37). The arbitrators received no pay, but to meet the expenses one per cent fee was levied on all claims and a service fee of 1½d. to 4s. (Rs. 1/8 - 2) was charged. The fee was subject to increase in proportion to the number of plaintiffs and defendants. An additional fee of 1½d. (1 a.) for every two miles was charged when the processes were to be served outside the town. Subsistence allowance to witnesses was charged at rates fixed by Government. Arbitrators served in turns each for two days; at the end of their term if any case was unfinished the arbitrators were obliged to remain in office until it had been decided. The court worked about eighteen months ending November 1877, during which time 176 suits were disposed of by thirty arbitrators. In certain cases the late judge of the Small Cause Court took objections to the filing of awards, and examined arbitrators as witnesses; arbitrators and townsmen soon ceased to take interest; the 1876-77 famine prevented people from filing suits; and thus the court was closed. In 1879 Sir William Wedderburn, the then District Judge, tried to revive the court, but the attempt failed, probably owing to the death of its organizer and to the want of interest shown by the people.

MAGISTRACY.

At present (1884) twenty-seven officers share the administration of criminal justice. Of these, eight, including the District Magistrate, are magistrates of the first class and nineteen are magistrates of the second and third classes. Of the magistrates of the first class three are covenanted European civilians, two are European uncovenanted civil officers namely the *huzur* deputy collector and the cantonment magistrate, and three are Natives,

of whom one is a district deputy collector and two are mámlatdárs exercising first class powers. The District Magistrate has a general supervision over the whole district. In 1883 the District Magistrate decided fifteen original and twenty-seven appeal cases and the seven first class magistrates decided 909 original cases. Three of the first class magistrates invested with appellate powers decided eleven appeals against the decisions of the second and third class magistrates in their revenue charges. The *huzur* deputy collector has magisterial charge of the town of Ahmadnagar and the cantonment magistrate of the cantonment. Except the two mámlatdárs exercising first class powers the remaining first class magistrates exercise magisterial powers over their revenue charges. This gives them each an average area of 1962 square miles containing about 225,842 people. Of magistrates of the second and third classes there are nineteen, all of them natives of India. Of these one is a member of the native civil service exercising second class powers over an area of 779 square miles and about 73,701 people. The average charge of the remaining eighteen second and third class magistrates was 327 square miles with a population of 34,195. In 1883 these magistrates decided 1333 original cases. Besides their magisterial duties these officers exercise revenue powers as mámlatdárs, mahálkâris, or head clerks of mámlatdárs. Besides these magistrates, 1377 village headmen were entrusted with petty magisterial powers under section 14 of the Bombay Village Police Act VIII of 1867. Of the whole number eight hold commissions under section 15 of the Act.

The revenue headman or *pátîl* as a rule performs the duties of a police headman and is assisted by one to twenty-four *jâglyás* or watchmen. The *pátîl* or headman, as a rule, is a Kunbi and his office is hereditary. *Pátîls* are under the direct orders of the District Magistrate, and their nomination and dismissal rest with the Commissioner of the division. The *jâglyás* or watchmen are generally Bhils, Mángs, and Rámoshis, and a few are Mhárs and Musalmáns. They are paid either in cash or land, and their number varies with the population and traffic of the place. At Kharda, through which a large quantity of goods passes from British territories into the Nizám's country, the number of *jâglyás* or watchmen is twenty-four. The system of patrol by the district police is carried on in the regular way, each post having its appointed area which is patrolled by the officers and men in charge of the post.

The chief local obstacles to the discovery of crime and the conviction of offenders are the neighbourhood of the Nizám's country to the whole of the east side of the district, the wild hilly and thinly populated parts of the Párner and Ráhuri sub-divisions, and the Akola and Sangamner forest and hilly tracts. Up to 1875 the few agrarian offences consisted merely of attempts by entry on, and cultivation of, lands in dispute to assert ownership. But the cultivators then began to be hardpressed for the payment of debts by the moneylenders and in desperation they rose against them and committed many outrages. The first outbreak was at Kolgaon in

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Justice.
MAGISTRACY.

VILLAGE
POLICE.

CRIME.

Chapter IX.

Justice.

CRIME.

Shrigonda, where the villagers assembled before the village Máruti, and swore before the god that they would force the Márwár and Gujaráti moneylenders to give up their bonds and leave their village and to cease from doing any work for them. Barbers were interdicted from shaving them, washermen from washing their clothes, and Bráhmans from writing petitions for them. The villagers then went to the moneylenders' houses, forced them by threats to give their bonds, tore the bonds, and dispersed. Similar riots took place in ten other villages of Shrigonda, six of Párner, four of Nagar, and one of Karjat, and besides actual rioting there were numerous gatherings at which actual violence was prevented only by the timely arrival of the police or militia. Gang robberies are rare.

CRIMINAL
CLASSES.

Many Bhils and Vanjáris, including Lamáns who are more or less given to thieving, live in wild and thinly peopled parts of the district. In Akola, Kolis are found in great numbers, and in the western sub-divisions the number of Rámoshis is so great that there is hardly a village which does not contain some of them. Besides the resident criminal tribes of the district, there are several wild wandering tribes who halt in the district for short periods.

POLICE.
1882.

In 1882 the total strength of the district or regular police force was 622. Of these, under the District Superintendent, two were superior subordinate officers, 106 inferior subordinate officers, and twenty-six mounted and 487 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was for the Superintendent a total yearly salary of £558 (Rs. 8580); for the subordinate officers on yearly salaries of not less than £120 (Rs. 1200); and the inferior subordinate officers on yearly salaries of less than £120 (Rs. 1200), a total yearly cost of £3316 (Rs. 33,160); and for the foot and mounted constables a cost of £5608 (Rs. 56,080). Besides their pay a total sum of £240 (Rs. 2400) was yearly allowed for the horse and travelling allowances of the Superintendent; £462 (Rs. 4620) for the pay and travelling allowances of his establishment; £192 (Rs. 1920) for the horse and travelling allowances of subordinate officers; and £989 (Rs. 9890) a year for contingencies and petty charges. Thus the total yearly cost of maintaining the police force amounted to £11,666 (Rs. 1,16,660). Of these £11,464 (Rs. 1,14,640) were paid from provincial funds and £202 (Rs. 2020) from other sources. On an area of 6666 square miles and a population of 751,228 these figures give one constable for every 10.72 square miles and 1207.76 people and a cost of £1.14s. (Rs. 17) to the square mile, or nearly 4d. (2½ as.) to each head of the population. Of the total strength of 622, exclusive of the Superintendent, three officers and seventeen men were, in 1882, employed as guards at district, central, or subsidiary jails; thirteen officers and seventy-eight men were engaged as guards over treasuries and lock-ups, or as escorts to prisoners and treasure; and seventy-nine officers and 337 men were employed in the district on other duties and ninety-four men were stationed in towns, municipalities, and cantonments. Of the whole number exclusive of the Superintendent, 235 were provided with fire-arms, sixty-two with swords or with swords and batons, and 324 were provided with batons only; 268, of whom sixty-three were officers and 205 men, could read and write.

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Justice.

Except the Superintendent who was a European and two officers one a European and the other a Eurasian, the members of the police force were all natives of India. Of these thirty officers and 186 men were Muhammadans, nine officers and fourteen men Bráhmans, seven officers and fifty-one men Rajputs, three officers and eight men Rámoshis, and fifty-six officers and 253 men Hindus of other castes. One was a Pársi, and one a Christian.

The returns of offences for the nine years ending 1882 show a total of 118 murders, twenty-eight culpable homicides, 115 cases of grievous hurt, 306 gang and other robberies, and 33,494 other offences. During these nine years the total number of offences gave a yearly average of 3785 or one offence for every 198 of the population. The number of murders varied from five in 1874 to nineteen in 1879 and averaged thirteen; culpable homicides varied from one in 1874, 1875, 1876, and 1881 to eight in 1879 and averaged three; cases of grievous hurt varied from five in 1877 and 1878 to twenty-six in 1882 and averaged thirteen; gang and other robberies varied from thirteen in 1875 to sixty in 1877 and averaged thirty-four; and other offences varied from 2647 in 1876 to 4756 in 1879 and averaged 3722 or 98·33 per cent of the whole. Of the whole number of persons arrested the convictions varied from thirty-four per cent in 1874 to sixty-nine per cent in 1878 and averaged fifty per cent. The percentage of stolen property recovered varied from twenty-seven in 1879 and 1881 to sixty-seven in 1876. The details are:

OFFENCES.
1874-1882.

Ahmadnagar Crime and Police, 1874-1882.

YEAR.	OFFENCES AND CONVICTIONS.									
	Murder and Attempts to Murder.				Culpable Homicide.				Grievous Hurt.	
	Cases.	Arrests.	Convictions.	Percent- age.	Cases.	Arrests.	Convictions.	Percent- age.	Cases.	Arrests.
1874 ...	5	6	1	16	1	2	9	21
1875 ...	7	11	5	45	1	2	13	21
1876 ...	6	12	6	50	1	1	8	9
1877 ...	13	13	4	30	4	7	5	3
1878 ...	16	23	7	26	6	11	1	9	5	11
1879 ...	19	19	7	36	8	11	3	27	10	11
1880 ...	17	25	5	20	4	3	15	19
1881 ...	13	11	3	11	1	1	24	30
1882 ...	16	24	6	25	2	2	2	100	26	29
Total ...	118	144	44	29	23	40	6	15	115	154

YEAR.	OFFENCES AND CONVICTIONS—continued.									
	Grievous Hurt.		Dacoities and Robberies.				Other Offences.			
	Convictions.	Percent- age.	Cases.	Arrests.	Convictions.	Percent- age.	Cases.	Arrests.	Convictions.	Percent- age.
1874 ...	7	33	17	107	20	18	3711	7021	2380	34
1875 ...	7	33	13	75	21	29	3151	5164	2908	50
1876 ...	4	45	29	139	64	46	2647	4206	2020	48
1877 ...	3	100	60	390	133	46	3330	6655	4268	64
1878 ...	7	64	30	104	47	45	4649	6399	4456	69
1879 ...	5	45	44	148	53	35	4756	6661	3273	53
1880 ...	6	42	43	76	7	9	3936	5322	2335	43
1881 ...	13	43	31	81	12	14	3080	3511	1433	42
1882 ...	4	14	39	36	7	2	3634	4634	1778	39
Total ...	53	46	306	1156	414	37	33,494	49,573	25,206	50

DISTRICTS.

Ahmadnagar Crime and Police, 1874-1882—continued.

Chapter IX.

Justice.

OFFENCES.
1874-1882.

YEAR.	OFFENCES AND CONVICTIONS—continued.						
	Total.				Property.		
	Cases.	Arrests.	Convictions.	Percentage.	Stolen.	Recovered.	Percentage.
1874	3743	7157	2408	34	3030	1449	33
1875	3185	5278	2641	50	3038	1959	64
1876	2693	4367	2094	48	2430	1629	67
1877... ..	3962	7068	4458	63	5460	1852	34
1878	4705	6543	4518	69	5373	2144	40
1879	4837	6850	3941	57	6249	1685	27
1880... ..	4065	5445	2355	45	4840	1335	28
1881	3154	3634	1516	42	3261	665	27
1882... ..	3717	4725	1797	38	1929	613	32
Total ...	34,061	51,067	25,728	50	35,610	13,531	39

JAILS.

Besides the lock-up at each mámlatdár's office there is a district jail at Ahmadnagar and five subordinate jails situated at Jámkhed, Kopargaon, Nevása, Sangamner, and Shrigonda. The number of convicts in the Ahmadnagar and the subsidiary jails on the 31st of December 1882 was ninety of whom seventy-six were males and fourteen females. During the year 1883, 360 convicts of whom 320 were males and forty females were admitted, and 347 of whom 309 were males and thirty-eight females were discharged. During the year the daily average of prisoners was 102 and at the close of the year the number of convicts was 103 of whom eighty-seven were males and sixteen females. Of these forty males and eleven females were sentenced to imprisonment for not more than one year; sixteen males and one female for over one year and not more than two years; eighteen males for more than two years and not more than five years; and two males and two females for more than five years and not more than ten years. Ten males and two females were under sentence of transportation. The daily average number of sick was 4.6. During the year four prisoners died in hospital. The total yearly cost was £903 (Rs. 9030) or an average of £8 17s. (Rs. 88½) for each prisoner.

CHAPTER X.

FINANCE.

THE earliest balance-sheet of the district as at present constituted is for 1870-71. Exclusive of £29,666 (Rs. 2,96,660), the adjustment on account of alienated lands, the total transactions entered in the district balance-sheet for 1882-83 amounted under receipts to £245,718 (Rs. 24,57,180) against £238,070 (Rs. 23,80,700) in 1870-71, and under charges to £216,871 (Rs. 21,68,710) against £268,934 (Rs. 26,89,340). Leaving aside departmental miscellaneous receipts and payments in return for services rendered, such as post and telegraph receipts, the revenue for 1882-83 under all heads imperial, provincial, local, and municipal, came to £155,987 (Rs. 15,59,870),¹ or, on a population of 751,228, an individual share of 4s. 2d. (Rs. 2½). During the last thirteen years the following changes have taken place under the chief heads of receipts and charges.

Chapter X.
Finance.

Land revenue receipts, which form forty-one per cent of the entire revenue of the district, have fallen from £136,568 to £100,931 (Rs. 13,65,680 - Rs. 10,09,310). Except in the 1876-77 famine when they amounted to £89,147 (Rs. 8,91,470), they varied between £157,176 (Rs. 15,71,760) in 1878-79 and £100,931 (Rs. 10,09,310) in 1882-83 and averaged £127,255 (Rs. 12,72,550). Land revenue charges have fallen from £25,435 to £24,346 (Rs. 2,54,350 - Rs. 2,43,460). The following statement shows the land revenue collected in each of the thirteen years ending the 31st of March 1883 :

LAND.

Ahmadnagar Land Revenue, 1870-1883.

YEAR.	Amount.	YEAR.	Amount.	YEAR.	Amount.
	£		£		£
1870-71 ...	136,568	1875-76 ...	132,253	1879-80 ...	133,738
1871-72 ...	120,254	1876-77 ...	89,147	1880-81 ...	124,032
1872-73 ...	143,404	1877-78 ...	120,640	1881-82 ...	121,935
1873-74 ...	136,768	1878-79 ...	157,176	1882-83 ...	100,931
1874-75 ...	137,427				

Stamp receipts have fallen from £27,180 to £9370 (Rs. 2,71,800 - Rs. 93,700), and charges from £1032 to £317 (Rs. 10,320 - Rs. 3170).

STAMPS.

¹ This total includes the following items : £116,101 land revenue, excise, assessed taxes, and forests ; £10,000 stamps, justice, and registration ; £1249 education and police ; £27,977 local and municipal funds ; total £155,987.

Chapter X.
Finance.
STAMPS.

This is due to a considerable decrease in moneylending transactions, the introduction of the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act, and a consequent decrease in litigation. The following statement shows the stamp revenue collected in each of the thirteen years ending the 31st of March 1883 :

Ahmadnagar Stamp Revenue, 1870-1883.

YEAR.	Amount.	YEAR.	Amount.	YEAR.	Amount.
	£		£		£
1870-71 ...	27,180	1876-76 ...	19,812	1879-80 ...	14,407
1871-72 ...	28,069	1876-77 ...	17,636	1880-81 ...	10,074
1872-73 ...	25,829	1877-78 ...	16,322	1881-82 ...	10,187
1873-74 ...	22,899	1878-79 ...	17,482	1882-83 ...	9870
1874-75 ...	20,518				

EXCISE.

During the five years ending 1876-77 the average yearly excise revenue of Ahmadnagar amounted to £2980 (Rs. 29,800). In 1877-78 it rose to £3376 (Rs. 33,760), but in 1878-79 fell to £2832 (Rs. 28,320). In 1878-79 and 1879-80 it amounted to £3249 (Rs. 32,490) and £3022 (Rs. 30,220) respectively. Since 1880-81 the revenue has been steadily increasing, amounting at present (1884) to more than £6500 (Rs. 65,000). The chief source of revenue is the manufacture and sale of country spirit and toddy. Before 1878-79 the farms were sold yearly for lump sums, but since 1878-79 the exclusive privilege of manufacturing and selling country spirit has been farmed to a single individual, on his guaranteeing a minimum revenue of £2100 (Rs. 21,000) to be paid in the shape of still-head duty at the rate of 5s. (Rs. 2½) the gallon of spirit 25° under proof and 3s. 4d. (Rs. 1½) the gallon 50° under proof, manufactured and issued from a central distillery at Ahmadnagar under the supervision of an inspector appointed by Government. This system was to continue in force till the 1st of August 1884 when the Ahmadnagar distillery was to be closed, and liquor was to be supplied to the district from the central distillery at Poona. There are fifteen shops in the district for the sale of country spirit, which produce a revenue of £5800 (Rs. 58,000). There are nine toddy shops which yielded in 1882-83 a revenue of £710 (Rs. 7100). A tax of 6s. (Rs. 3) on every brab palm and of 2s. (Rs. 1) on every date palm tapped also yielded a revenue of £148 (Rs. 1480). There are eighteen shops for the sale of European liquor which pay yearly for licenses £95 (Rs. 950). The cultivation of the hemp plant which produces the intoxicating drugs called *bháng* and *gánja* is largely carried on. More than seventy tons (2000 *mans*) of *gánja* is yearly exported from the district, a fee of 10s. (Rs. 5) being charged for every seven hundredweight (10 *mans*) exported. Fees for licenses for retail sale amount to about £160 (Rs. 1600) a year.

JUSTICE.

Law and Justice receipts have fallen from £1253 (Rs. 12,530) in 1870-71 to £672 (Rs. 6720), and charges have risen from £14,475 (Rs. 1,44,750) in 1870-71 to £28,612 (Rs. 2,86,120) in 1882-83. The rise in expenditure is due to an increase in the number and pay of the officers and establishments.

Forest receipts have risen from £2616 (Rs. 26,160) in 1870-71 to £5771 (Rs. 57,710) in 1882-83 and charges from £363 (Rs. 3630) to £3397 (Rs. 33,970).

The following table shows the amounts realized from the different assessed taxes levied between 1870-71 and 1882-83. The variety of rates and incidence prevents any satisfactory comparison of the results :

Ahmadnagar Assessed Taxes, 1870-1882.

YEAR.	Amount	YEAR.	Amount	YEAR.	Amount
<i>Income Tax.</i>	£	<i>Non-agricultural Tax.</i>	£	<i>License Tax.</i>	£
1870-71 ...	7974	1871-72 ...	8450	1878-79 ...	7512
1871-72 ...	2027			1878-80 ...	7498
1872-73 ...	1550			1880-81 ...	4370
				1881-82 ...	3864
				1882-83 ...	3547

Military charges have fallen from £95,273 (Rs. 9,52,730) in 1870-71 to £40,653 (Rs. 4,06,530) in 1882-83.

Registration receipts have fallen from £1641 (Rs. 16,410) in 1870-71 to £618 (Rs. 6180) in 1882-83, and charges have risen from £1089 (Rs. 10,890) to £1230 (Rs. 12,300).

Education receipts have fallen from £4743 (Rs. 47,430) in 1870-71 to £509 (Rs. 5090) in 1882-83, and charges have risen from £2065 (Rs. 20,650) to £2232 (Rs. 22,320).

Police receipts have risen from £302 (Rs. 3020) in 1870-71 to £740 (Rs. 7400) in 1882-83 and charges from £12,516 (Rs. 1,25,160) to £15,545 (Rs. 1,55,450).

Transfer receipts have risen from £38,383 (Rs. 3,83,830) in 1870-71 to £99,572 (Rs. 9,95,720) in 1882-83 and transfer expenditure has fallen from £57,175 (Rs. 5,71,750) to £44,668 (Rs. 4,46,680).

In the following balance sheet the figures shown in black on both sides of the 1870-71 and 1882-83 accounts are both adjustments. On the receipt side the item of £29,666 (Rs. 2,96,660) against £31,125 (Rs. 3,11,250) in 1870-71 represents the additional revenue the district would yield had none of its lands been alienated. On the debit side the items of £5246 (Rs. 52,460) in 1882-83 against £6759 (Rs. 67,590) in 1870-71 under Land Revenue and £809 (Rs. 8090) in 1882-83 against £347 (Rs. 3470) in 1870-71 under police are rentals of the lands granted for service to village headmen and watchmen. The item of £23,611 (Rs. 2,36,110) in 1882-83 against £24,019 (Rs. 2,40,190) in 1870-71 shown under allowances and assignments represents the rental of lands granted to hereditary officers whose services have been dispensed with and of religious and charitable land grants :¹

Chapter X.
Finance.

ASSESSED TAXES.

MILITARY.

REGISTRATION.

EDUCATION.

POLICE.

TRANSFER.

BALANCE SHEETS,
1870-71 AND
1882-83.

¹ Cash allowances to village and district officers who render service are treated as actual charges and debited to land revenue.

Chapter X.

Finance.

BALANCE SHEETS,
1870-71 AND
1882-83.

Ahmadnagar Balance Sheet, 1870-71 and 1882-83.

RECEIPTS.				CHARGES.			
Head.	1870-71.	1882-83.	Head.	1870-71.	1882-83.		
	£	£		£	£		
Land	136,568	100,931	Land	25,435	24,343		
Stamps	31,125	29,666	Stamps	6759	5246		
Excise	27,180	9870	Excise	1032	817		
Justice	7172	5851	Excise { Civil	2	459		
Justice	1253	672	Justice { Criminal	8398	22,659		
Forests	2616	5771	Forests	6079	5953		
Assessed Taxes	7974	3548	Forests	368	397		
Miscellaneous	241	117	Allowances and Assignments	9746	804		
Interest	82	276		24,019	23,611		
Public Works	4669	4269	Pensions	3574	4172		
Military	2652	2069	Ecclesiastical	1134	1025		
Post	2263	10,849	Miscellaneous	1341	2457		
Telegraph	123	349	Public Works	38,410	29,553		
Registration	1641	618	Military	95,273	40,653		
Education	4748	509	Post	293	6434		
Police	302	740	Telegraph	24	533		
Medical	40	Registration	1089	1240		
Jail	203	167	Education	2965	2232		
			Police	12,516	13,545		
				347	609		
			Medical	846	1147		
			Jail	1130	939		
			Printing	141	23		
Total ..	199,687	146,146	Total ...	211,759	172,203		
<i>Transfer Items.</i>			<i>Transfer Items.</i>				
Deposits	4213	10,892	Deposits	3627	14,663		
Cash Remittances	13,958	68,326	Cash Remittances	36,001	15,309		
Pension Funds	162	7	Interest	1657	547		
Local Funds	20,050	20,347	Local Funds	16,490	14,158		
Total ..	38,383	99,572	Total ...	57,176	44,668		
GRAND TOTAL ...	238,070	245,718	GRAND TOTAL ...	268,934	216,871		
	31,125	29,666		31,125	29,666		

REVENUE OTHER THAN IMPERIAL.

LOCAL FUNDS.

Since 1863 district local funds have been collected to promote rural education, and to supply roads, wells, rest-houses, dispensaries, and other useful works. In 1882-83 the receipts amounted to £20,347 (Rs. 2,03,470) and the expenditure to £14,158 (Rs. 1,41,580). The local fund revenue is drawn from three sources, a special cess of one-sixteenth in addition to the land tax, the proceeds of certain subordinate local funds, and certain miscellaneous items. In 1882-83 the special land cess, of which two-thirds are set apart as a road fund and the rest as a school fund yielded a revenue of £8685 (Rs. 86,850). The subordinate funds, including a toll fund, a ferry fund, a cattle-pound fund, and a school-fee fund, yielded £2868 (Rs. 28,680). Government and private contributions amounted to £8752 (Rs. 87,520); and miscellaneous receipts, including certain items of land revenue amounted to £40 (Rs. 400). This revenue is administered by district and sub-divisional committees partly of official and partly of private members. The district committees consist of the Collector, the assistant and deputy collectors, the executive engineer, and education inspector as official, and the proprietor of an alienated village and six landholders as non-official members. The sub-divisional committees consist of an assistant collector, the mámlatdár, a public works officer, and the deputy education inspector as official,* and the proprietor of an

alienated village and three landholders as non-official members. The sub-divisional committees bring their requirements to the notice of the district committee who prepare the budget. For administrative purposes the district local funds are divided into two sections, one set apart for public works the other for instruction. The receipts and disbursements during the year 1882-83 were:

Ahmadnagar Local Funds, 1882-83.

PUBLIC WORKS.					
RECEIPTS.			CHARGES.		
	£			£	
Two-thirds of Land Cess	5796		Establishment	1527	
Tolls	885		New Works	7178	
Ferries	214		Repairs	3098	
Cattle Pound	888		Medical Charges	680	
Contributions	8908		Miscellaneous	1710	
Miscellaneous	25		Balance 31st March 1883	541	
Total	14,732		Total	14,732	
INSTRUCTION.					
RECEIPTS.			CHARGES.		
	£			£	
Balance 1st April 1883	1114		School Charges	5633	
One-third of Land Cess	2889		Scholarships	178	
School Fee Fund	864		School Houses, New	357	
Contributions Government	1723		Do. do. Repairs	311	
Do. Private	118		Miscellaneous	114	
Miscellaneous	15		Balance 31st March 1883	137	
Total	6730		Total	6730	

There are three municipalities at Ahmadnagar, Bhingár, and Sangamner. Of these the Ahmadnagar municipality is a city municipality, and those at Bhingár and Sangamner are town municipalities. The Ahmadnagar city municipality is administered by a body of commissioners with the Collector as president. The town municipalities at Bhingár and Sangamner are administered by a body of commissioners with the Collector as president and the assistant or deputy collector in charge of the sub-division as vice-president. In 1882-83 the district municipal revenues amounted to £7630 (Rs. 76,300), of which £2838 (Rs. 28,380) were from octroi dues, £1026 (Rs. 10,260) from house tax, and £3766 (Rs. 37,660) from miscellaneous sources.

MUNICIPALITIES.

The following statement gives for each municipality the receipts, charges, and incidence of taxation during the year ending the 31st of March 1883:

Ahmadnagar Municipal Details, 1882-83.

NAME.	DATE.	PEOPLE, 1881.	RECEIPTS.				INCI- DENCE.
			Octroi.	House Tax.	Miscella- neous.	Total.	
			£	£	£	£	s. d.
Ahmadnagar	1854	32,903	2450	743	3416	6609	4 0
Bhingár	1857	5106		161	272	483	1 6
Sangamner	1860	8796	388	122	78	588	1 4
Total		46,805	2838	1026	3766	7630	3 2

DISTRICTS.

Ahmadnagar Municipal Details, 1882-83—continued.

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NAME.	CHARGES.					MIS-CELLANEOUS.	TOTAL.
	Staff.	Safety.	Health.	Schools.	Public Works.		
Ahmadnagar ...	£ 706	£ 244	£ 3087	£ 181	£ 1566	£ 154	£ 5888
Bhingār ...	76	24	244	7	11	8	365
Sangamner ...	120	14	263	24	120	59	600
Total ...	902	282	3544	212	1697	216	6853

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INSTRUCTION.

In 1882-83 there were 253 Government schools or an average of one school for every 5.45 inhabited villages with 13,674 names and an average attendance of 9714 or 4.82 per cent of 201,285, the whole population between six and fourteen years of age.

Under the Director of Public Instruction and the Educational Inspector North-East Division, the schooling of the district was conducted by a local staff 419 strong. Of these one was a deputy educational inspector drawing a yearly pay of £180 (Rs. 1800) with general charge over all the schools of the district except the high school and the four anglo-vernacular schools, one an assistant deputy educational inspector drawing a yearly pay of £90 (Rs. 900), and the rest were masters and assistant masters with yearly salaries ranging from £6 to £240 (Rs. 60 - 2400).

Excluding superintendence charges, the total expenditure on account of these schools amounted to £7405 (Rs. 74,050), of which £2484 (Rs. 24,340) were paid by Government and £4921 (Rs. 49,210) from local and other funds.

In 243 of 253 the total number of schools, Maráthi only was taught and in three Hindústáni. In six of the rest instruction was given both in English and Maráthi; and one was a high school teaching English and two classical languages, Sanskrit and Persian, up to the standard required to pass the University entrance test examination. Of the 243 Maráthi schools 225 were for boys and eighteen for girls.

¹ Before the Board of Education commenced operations in 1840, there were a few indigenous elementary schools scattered over the district, which were mostly conducted by Bráhmans. But more than ninety per cent of the villages were without schools. The Board of Education opened elementary schools in most of the large villages and in 1850 there were thirty of these institutions attended by 1727 pupils. In 1855, when the Department of Public Instruction was constituted, the organization of these schools was greatly improved. From 1863, when the voluntary education cess was first levied, the extension of primary education was vigorously taken in hand; and in 1872-73 the department was maintaining 196 schools of this class, attended by 8682 scholars. In 1882-83 there were 249 local-cess schools under the supervision of the

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¹ Contributed by Mr. H. P. Jacob, Educational Inspector North-East Division.

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Local Fund committees and of the Educational Department which were attended by 13,402 pupils. Of these 234 were day-schools, five night-schools, three Hindustáni schools, and seven free or low-caste schools. All these schools are well organized, and are highly valued both by the town and village people. Sixty-four of the teachers have gone through a special course of instruction at the Poona Training College and almost all the masters of the village schools have qualified at some public examination. Definite standards of instruction and examination have been in force since 1866, and the highest vernacular standard qualifies for admission to the lower grades of the public service. Classes for instruction in drawing and practical agriculture have been recently established at Ahmadnagar in connection with the primary schools in that city. All the larger schools in the district are well housed and they are also fully equipped with the requisite apparatus of instruction, such as form and colour boxes, terrestrial globes, wall-maps, and pictures. The schools are also provided with small libraries which are from time to time supplied with new books presented to them by the Director of Public Instruction or by the District Committees.

AIDED SCHOOLS.

There were also at the end of 1882-83 fifty-eight schools aided by the Department of Public Instruction or by the Local Fund Committee, fifty-four being for boys and four for girls. They were attended by 1257 pupils. Of these fifty-eight schools, fifty-four were maintained by Christian missionary societies and four by indigenous schoolmasters. The majority of these schools were located in the Ahmadnagar, Nevása, Ráhuri, Párner, and Sangánér sub-divisions. The aggregate number of pupils on the rolls at the end of 1882-83 was 1257 with an average attendance of 1016 pupils. One of these fifty-eight schools was a high school maintained by the American Mission and attended by fifty-six pupils of whom on an average thirty-two attended regularly. Another was an anglo-vernacular school maintained by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel with fifty-nine pupils on the rolls and an average attendance of fifty-one. The tuition fees in the high school range from 2s. to 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1 - 1½) a month. In the anglo-vernacular school which is also a boarding-school no fees are charged. The average total cost of instructing each pupil was £12 12s. (Rs. 126) in the high school and £4 4s. (Rs. 42) in the anglo-vernacular school. The cost of instructing each pupil in the boys vernacular schools maintained by the missionary societies was 16s. (Rs. 8) and in the girls schools £1 18s. (Rs. 19). The mission schools are chiefly maintained for Hindus of the lowest castes and the children of native converts. The mission high school at Ahmadnagar teaches up to the matriculation standard, and the anglo-vernacular school up to the third anglo-vernacular standard. The teaching in the vernacular schools aims at nothing beyond the rudiments of reading, writing, and cyphering. Most of the mission schools have been but recently established, but the boarding school for native girls maintained at Ahmadnagar by the American Mission was founded as far back as 1840.

Besides the Government and aided schools there were ninety-six private elementary schools which received no aid from public funds, but were under the inspection of the department or of the District Committee. They were attended by 2012 pupils. Almost all of these are secular schools maintained by and for Hindus. Few, if any of them, can trace back their existence beyond the third generation, while many are known to have been very recently opened. The schools are usually held in the houses of rich men. Occasionally a private house is lent by the villagers rent-free or the school is accommodated in the village *chāvdi* or in a temple or mosque. They are open to all except the lowest classes, and are chiefly attended by the sons of tradesmen and artisans. Bráhmans mostly prefer the cess schools managed by the Educational Department. There are no such schools for girls, and Hindu parents very rarely send their daughters to the boys schools. The Muhammadan primary schools, on the other hand, are freely attended by children of both sexes, though the boys are the more numerous. The medium of instruction is Maráthi in the Hindu schools. Many schools teach only writing, others writing and multiplication tables; but many town-schools conform to the departmental standards of instruction. Each morning at about six the schoolmaster, who is in some cases a Bráhman and the priest of many of the families whose children attend the school, goes round the village and collects his pupils. For the first half hour a *bhupáli* or invocation to the San, Sarasvati, Ganpati, or some other deity, is chanted by the whole school. After this the boys, who can write, trace the letters of their *kittás* or copy-slips with a dry pen, the object of this exercise being to give free play to the fingers and wrist and to accustom them to the sweep of the letters. When the tracing lesson is over, the boys begin to write copies; and the youngest children who have been hitherto merely looking on are taken in hand either by the master's son or by one of the elder pupils. The master himself generally confines his attention to one or two of the oldest pupils and to those whose instruction he has stipulated to finish within a given time. All the pupils are seated in one small room or veranda. The school breaks up about nine or ten, and reassembles at two in the afternoon. The concluding lesson is given at 4 P.M. For this the boys are ranged in two rows facing each other, while two of the elder pupils stand at one end between the two rows and dictate the multiplication-tables, step by step, for the rest of the boys to shout after them in chorus. When this is over the school is dismissed, and the master personally conducts the younger children to their homes. The boys get a holiday on each of the Hindu feasts and fasts, and twice a month on *Amávásya* or no-moon day and *Purnima* or full-moon day. In harvest time many of the rural indigenous schools are entirely closed. It is still the practice in some indigenous schools, though the custom is rapidly dying out, for the pupils on the eve of *Amávásya* and *Purnima* to perform the ceremony of *pátipuja* or slate-worship. A quarter of an anna, a betelnut, one pound ($\frac{1}{2}$ *sher*) of grain, a little saffron and turmeric, and a few flowers, are laid upon the slate of each pupil as offerings to Saras-

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vati the goddess of learning. Before these each boy reverently bows down, and then places the slate for a few minutes on his head. The master afterwards appropriates the offerings. The indigenous primary schools have slowly but steadily increased in numbers. There is also a general improvement observable in their management and method of teaching, which is both directly and indirectly due to the operations of the Educational Department. The tuition fees charged in indigenous schools vary from $\frac{3}{4}d.$ ($\frac{1}{2}a.$) to $4s.$ (Rs. 2) a month. In some villages in lieu of fees the schoolmaster receives a fixed annual income from the villagers, or, if a Muhammadan, from the mosque funds. It is also a common practice for the master to agree to instruct a pupil in certain subjects within a given time for a lump payment, which is sometimes as much as £10 (Rs. 100). It is not uncommon for the master to receive a present in money, clothes, or grain, when a pupil begins to learn his multiplication tables, and again when he begins the alphabet; and similar presents are made on the occasion of the boy's marriage and thread ceremonies. In most mosque schools it is a standing rule that each pupil should pay the master $\frac{3}{4}d.$ ($\frac{1}{4}a.$) and a cake or bread every Thursday, though this rule is often modified so as to enable the master to receive the bread by daily instalments. On the whole it is estimated that the master of a village school gets about from $10s.$ to $16s.$ (Rs. 5-8) a month and in town schools twice as much or even £5 (Rs. 50).

GIRLS SCHOOLS.

The first girls school was opened at Ahmadnagar in 1840. In 1868 there were fifty-nine names on the rolls with an average attendance of 25·2. In 1872-73, an additional school was opened in the same place and the number of pupils in both the schools amounted to 148, of whom seven were Parsis and the rest Hindus. In 1882-83 there were nineteen schools with 1123 names and an average attendance of 598·5.

**READERS AND
WRITERS.**

The 1881 census returns give for the chief races of the district the following proportion of persons able to read and write. Of 706,557 the total Hindu population, 7973 (males 7717, females 256) or 1·13 per cent below fifteen and 1231 (males 1213, females 18) or 0·17 per cent above fifteen years of age were under instruction; 793 (males 770, females 23) or 0·11 per cent below fifteen and 19,199 (males 19,077, females 122) or 2·72 per cent above fifteen were instructed; 270,943 (males 133,711, females 137,232) or 38·35 per cent below fifteen and 406,418 (males 196,026, females 210,392) or 57·52 per cent above fifteen were illiterate. Of 39,592 the total Musalmán population, 577 (males 558, females 19) or 1·46 per cent below fifteen and 96 (males 92, females 4) or 0·24 per cent above fifteen were under instruction; 71 (males 70, female 1) or 0·18 per cent below fifteen and 855 (males 841, females 14) or 2·16 per cent above fifteen were instructed; 14,850 (males 7301, females 7549) or 37·50 per cent below fifteen and 23,143 (males 11,241, females 11,902) or 58·46 per cent above fifteen were illiterate. Of 4821 Christians, 461 (males 323, females 138) or 9·56 per cent below fifteen and 79 (males 71, females 8) or 1·64 per cent above fifteen were under instruction; 94 (males 50, females 44) or 1·95 per cent below fifteen and 1212 (males 998, females 214) or 25·14 per cent above fifteen were instructed; and 1245 (males 558, females 687) or

25·82 per cent below fifteen and 1730 (males 856, females 874) or 35·89 per cent above fifteen were illiterate. The details are :

Ahmadnagar Instruction, 1881.

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READERS AND
WRITERS.

	HINDUS.				MUSALMÁNS.				CHRISTIANS.			
	Males.	Females	Total.	Per-centage on Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Per-centage on Total.	Males.	Fe-males	Total.	Per-centage on Total
<i>Under Instruction.</i>												
Below Fifteen	7717	256	7973	1·13	553	19	572	1·46	323	138	461	9·56
Above Fifteen	1213	18	1231	0·17	92	4	96	0·24	71	8	79	1·64
<i>Instructed.</i>												
Below Fifteen	770	23	793	0·11	70	1	71	0·18	50	44	94	1·96
Above Fifteen	19,077	122	19,199	2·72	841	14	855	2·16	993	214	1212	25·14
<i>Illiterate</i>												
Below Fifteen	133,711	137,232	270,943	38·35	7301	7549	14,850	37·50	553	637	1245	25·82
Above Fifteen	196,026	210,392	406,418	57·52	11,241	11,902	23,143	58·46	856	874	1730	35·89
Total	358,514	348,043	706,557		20,103	19,439	39,592		2856	1965	4821	

Before 1865-66 no returns were prepared arranging the pupils according to race and religion. The following statement shows that of the two chief races of the district the Musalmáns have the larger proportion of their boys and girls under instruction :

RACE AND
RELIGION.

Pupils by Race, 1865-66 and 1882-83.

RACE.	1865-66.		1882-83.			
	Pupils.	Percent- age of Pupils.	Pupils.	Percent- age of Pupils.	School- going population	Percentage on school- going popu- lation.
Hindus	8611	92·66	11,998	87·77	139,349	6·3
Musalmáns	263	6·74	1511	11·05	10,633	14·2

Of 13,674 the total number of pupils in Government schools at the end of 1882-83, 3454 or 25·23 per cent were Bráhmans, 152 or 1·11 per cent were Kshatriyas, 58 or 0·42 per cent were Káyasth Prabhus, 246 or 1·80 per cent were Lingáyats, 386 or 2·82 per cent were Jains, 1284 or 9·40 per cent were trading classes, 3615 or 26·45 per cent were Kunbis or cultivators, 1207 or 8·83 per cent were artisans, 396 or 2·90 per cent were shopkeepers, 327 or 2·40 per cent were labourers, 371 or 2·71 per cent were low-castes Mochis and others, 507 or 3·70 per cent were of miscellaneous castes, 13 or 0·10 per cent were Shaikhs, 113 or 0·82 per cent were Khojás and Memans, 5 or 0·03 per cent were Syeds, 7 or 0·06 per cent were Patháns, 672 or 4·91 per cent were Moghals, 26 or 0·20 per cent were Bohorás, 675 or 4·93 per cent were Miyánás, 41 or 0·30 per cent were Pársis, 9 or 0·07 per cent were Jews, and 89 or 0·66 per cent were aboriginal or hill tribes.

In 1882-83 there were 682 low-caste pupils attending the Government and non-government schools in Ahmadnagar. Of these 140 attended the low-caste schools specially opened for them in the city of Ahmadnagar, and the remaining 542 were scattered in different schools. In all the cess-schools they are made to sit separately either

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in the school-room or in the veranda according to circumstances. The shoemakers are not allowed to sit with high-caste Hindus such as Bráhmans, Prabhus, Rajputs, and Kunbis, who however raise no objection to sitting with the Bhois or fishermen.

SCHOOL RETURNS.

The following tables prepared from special returns furnished by the Educational Department, show in detail the number of schools and pupils with their cost to Government :

Ahmadnagar School Returns, 1855-56, 1865-66, and 1882-83.

CLASS.	SCHOOLS.			PUPILS.					
				Hindus.			Musalmáns.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>									
High School	1	95	5
Anglo-Vernacular Schools ...	1	7	4	45	790	195	9	41	24
Vernacular Schools { Boys.	20	57	229	1398	2321	10,737	122	223	1364
{ Girls.	19	971	128
Total ...	21	64	253	1443	3611	11,998	131	263	1511

CLASS.	PUPILS—continued.						AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE.		
	Pársis.			Total.					
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>									
High School	9	109	92
Anglo-Vernacular Schools ...	20	16	15	74	847	234	64	733	193
Vernacular Schools { Boys.	49	8	117	1569	3951	12,208	1136	2498	8331
{ Girls.	24	1123	598
Total ...	69	24	165	1643	3998	13,674	1200	3231	9714

CLASS.	FEES.			COST PER PUPIL.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
				£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
<i>Government.</i>						
High School	3s. to 4s.	8 3 8
Anglo-Vernacular Schools ...	1s.	2s.	...	4 2 5½	2 13 7	1 19 7
Vernacular Schools { Boys.	1½d.	3d. to 9d.	½d. to 9d.	0 9 2	0 11 8½	0 11 4
{ Girls.	0 15 2
Total ...						0 14 4

CLASS.	RECEIPTS.					
	Government.			Local Cess.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>						
High School ...	£	£	£	£
Anglo-Vernacular Schools ...	263	625	132	45
Vernacular Schools { Boys.	448	1074	1728	81
{ Girls.	2365
Total ...	711	1699	2485	454
						2895

Ahmadnagar School Returns, 1855-56, 1865-66, and 1882-83—continued.

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CLASS.	RECEIPTS—continued.					
	Municipalities.			Private.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>		£	£	£	£	£
High School	52
Anglo Vernacular Schools	60	30	...	9	...
Vernacular Schools ... { Boys..	57	21	106	61
... { Girls..
Total	60	139	21	115	61

CLASS.	RECEIPTS—continued.					
	Fees.			Total.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>	£	£	£	£	£	£
High School	227	949
Anglo-Vernacular Schools ...	36	272	197	299	956	390
Vernacular Schools ... { Boys..	64	439	830	533	1619	5041
... { Girls..	454
Total ...	100	711	1254	882	2675	6884

CLASS.	EXPENDITURE.					
	Instruction and Inspection.			Buildings.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>	£	£	£	£	£	£
High School	865	13
Anglo-Vernacular Schools ...	284	748	300	...	99	8
Vernacular Schools ... { Boys..	521	1567	4857	...	60	668
... { Girls..	455
Total ...	785	2315	6537	...	159	689

CLASS.	EXPENDITURE—continued.					
	Scholarships.			Libraries.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>	£	£	£	£	£	£
High School	72	2
Anglo-Vernacular Schools	8	17	5
Vernacular Schools ... { Boys..	83
... { Girls..
Total	8	172	7

CLASS.	EXPENDITURE—contd.			COST TO		
	Total.			Government.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>	£	£	£	£	£	£
High School	952	600
Anglo-Vernacular Schools ...	284	855	390	268	626	158
Vernacular Schools ... { Boys..	521	1627	5808	448	1074	1696
... { Girls..	455	30
Total ...	785	2482	7405	711	1700	2484

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SCHOOL RETURNS.

Ahmadnagar School Returns, 1855-56, 1865-66, and 1882-83—continued.

CLASS.	Cost—continued.								
	Local Cess.			Other Funds.			Total.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>			£	£	£	£	£	£	£
High School	44	308	952
Anglo-Vernacular Schools	34	1	221	208	264	855	890
Vernacular Schools. { Boys.	3038	73	553	874	521	1627	5008
{ Girls.	415	10	465
Total	3521	74	774	1400	785	2482	7405

TOWN SCHOOLS.

A comparison of the present (1882-83) provision for teaching the town and the country population gives the following results :

In Ahmadnagar twelve Government schools had 1735 names on the rolls and an average attendance of 1233. Of the twelve Government schools, one was a high school including one drawing and one agricultural class ; one was a first grade anglo-vernacular school ; eight were Maráthi schools, six for boys and two for girls ; and two were Urdu schools, one for boys and one for girls. The average yearly cost to each pupil in the high school was £3 3s. (Rs. 81½) and in other schools it varied from £2 6s. to 12s. 9d. (Rs. 23 - 6½).

Besides these, eight private schools, including one high school, one anglo-vernacular school, and six vernacular schools two for boys and four for girls had 395 names on the rolls and an average attendance of 378. The average yearly cost of instructing each pupil in the American Mission high school was £12 12s. (Rs. 126) and in other schools it varied from £1 10s. 9d. to £4 4s. (Rs. 15½ - 42). In Sangamner three schools had 453 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 333, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 12s. 9d. (Rs. 6½). In Páthardi two schools had 247 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 163, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 13s. 3d. (Rs. 6½). In Kharda three schools had 267 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 190, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 11s. 9d. (Rs. 5½). In Shrigonda three schools had 329 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 218, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 10s. 11d. (Rs. 5⅞). In Bhingár three schools had 231 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 156, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 10s. 10d. (Rs. 5⅞). In Karjat three schools had 164 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 94, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of £1 1s. 1d. (Rs. 10½). In Sonai one school had 126 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 67, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 13s. (Rs. 6½).

VILLAGE SCHOOLS.

Exclusive of the eight towns of Ahmadnagar, Sangamner, Páthardi, Kharda, Shrigonda, Bhingár, Karjat, and Sonai, the district of Ahmadnagar was provided with 223 schools or an average of one school for every six inhabited villages. The following statement shows the distribution of these schools by sub-divisions :

Ahmadnagar Village Schools, 1882-83.

SUB-DIVISION	Villages.	Popula- tion.	Number of Schools.		SUB-DIVISION.	Villages.	Popula- tion.	Number of Schools.	
			Boys.	Girls.				Boys.	Girls.
Akola ..	157	60,800	11	1	Ráhari ...	118	68,289	25	3
Jámkhed ...	77	55,398	20	1	Sangamner ...	159	59,561	20	...
Karjat ..	82	81,212	8	...	Shevgaon ..	188	80,379	25	1
Kopargaon	125	68,789	21	2	Shrigonda ...	86	46,013	14	...
Nagar ...	117	66,352	19	...					
Nevásá ..	148	73,675	29	1					
Párner ...	123	73,701	21	1	Total ...	1380	673,769	213	10

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VILLAGE SCHOOLS.

There are four libraries in Ahmadnagar. The Ahmadnagar City Library is an old public institution, having been first established in 1838. For want of support it remained closed from that year till 1847 when it was reopened; since 1847 it has remained open. No donation has been given to it since its foundation except a sum of £2 10s. (Rs. 25) but 435 books have been presented by different gentlemen. The library is located in a building which was once a mosque. Of a total number of 1533 books, 1070 are English and the rest are either Maráthi, Sanskrit, or Persian. In 1882-83 there were fifty members connected with it, each of whom paid as yearly subscriptions from 6s. to £2 8s. (Rs. 3-24). The yearly revenue of the library is about £42 (Rs. 420) of which £30 (Rs. 300) are collected from subscriptions and £12 (Rs. 120) are granted out of the municipal funds. The library subscribes to one daily and three weekly English newspapers, six weekly and one biweekly vernacular papers, and five monthly magazines.

LIBRARIES.

The Native Library at Sangamner, though a small institution, has a building of its own. There are only seventy books, of which three are Sanskrit, one Gujaráti, and the rest Maráthi. In 1882-83 there were thirty-four subscribers, whose yearly subscriptions varied from 1s. 6d. to £1 2s. (Rs. $\frac{3}{4}$ - 11). The yearly income is about £11 16s. (Rs. 118), of which £4 16s. (Rs. 48) are paid by the Sangamner town municipality and the rest by the subscribers.

There are three local Maráthi newspapers printed at Ahmadnagar: the *Nyáyasindhu* or Ocean of Justice, a lithographed paper, which has been in circulation for eighteen years; the *Nagar Samáchár* or Nagar News, which has existed for about ten years; and the *Jagadádáresh* or Mirror of the World which has been in circulation for two years. All these papers are issued once a week and have a very limited number of subscribers; their style is very poor and subscribers to them are few in number. The yearly subscription for the *Nyáyasindhu* is 9s. (Rs. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$) in advance and 13s. (Rs. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$) in arrears, of the *Nagar Samáchár* 2s. (Rs. 1) in advance, and of the *Jagadádáresh* 4s. (Rs. 2) in advance.

NEWSPAPERS.

The Ahmadnagar Sárva-janik Sabha, or Peoples' Association, was started in 1871 at the instance of the Poona society of the same name. The existence of the society has been little more than nominal.

PUBLIC ASSOCIATION.

CHAPTER XII.

HEALTH.

Chapter XII.

Health.

CLIMATE.

THE climate of Ahmadnagar is on the whole extremely healthy. In the cold season (November-February) the air is dry and invigorating. A hot dry wind from the north-west then gradually sets in blowing with varying force till the middle of May. This is usually succeeded by sultry oppressive weather, lasting, unless tempered by the showers which frequently precede the regular burst of the south-west monsoon, till the middle of June when the south-west rains set in and the climate at once becomes temperate and pleasant. The chief diseases are fever, rheumatism, and bowel complaints.

HOSPITAL.

Besides the Ahmadnagar civil hospital, in 1882 the district had three grant-in-aid dispensaries situated at Sangamner, Nevása, and Shevgaon, in which 27,765 out-patients and 393 in-patients were treated at a cost of £1214 (Rs. 12,140). The Ahmadnagar civil hospital has a building of its own. In 1882 the most prevalent diseases were conjunctivitis, skin diseases, and ague. Cholera prevailed slightly in some of the surrounding parts, but no case occurred in the city. Forty-six major surgical operations were performed, including six amputations and three lithotomies. 14,757 out-door and 303 in-door patients were treated at a cost of £873 (Rs. 8730).

DISPENSARIES.

The Sangamner dispensary was opened in 1873. In 1882 ophthalmia, skin diseases, malarious fevers, and rheumatic affections were the prevailing diseases. There was no epidemic. Two major operations were performed successfully. 8044 out-patients and sixty-one in-patients were treated at a cost of £137 (Rs. 1370). The Nevása dispensary was opened in 1877. In 1882 the prevailing diseases were malarious fevers, ophthalmia, chest affections, and bowel complaints. Small-pox was prevalent at the end of the year. 105 children were successfully vaccinated. 3023 out-patients and fourteen in-patients were treated at a cost of £109 (Rs. 1090). The Shevgaon dispensary was opened in 1876. In 1882 the prevailing diseases were malarious fevers, ophthalmia, respiratory affections, and skin diseases. There was no epidemic. 105 children were successfully vaccinated. The total treated was 1941 out-patients and fifteen in-patients. The cost was £95 (Rs. 950).

INFIRM PEOPLE.

According to the 1881 census 3893 persons (males 2089, females 1804) or 0.51 per cent of the population were infirm. Of the total number 3709 (males 1981, females 1728) were Hindus; 171 (males 103, females 68) Musalmáns; 12 (males 5, females 7) Christians; and one Pársi female. Of 3893 the total number of infirm persons,

147 (males 101, females 46) or 3.77 per cent were of unsound mind ; 2504 (males 1115, females 1389) or 64.32 per cent were blind ; 477 (males 288, females 189) or 12.25 per cent were deaf and dumb ; and 765 (males 585, females 180) or 19.65 per cent were lepers. The details are :

Ahmadnagar Infirm People, 1881.

	HINDUS.		MUSALMA'NS.		CHRISTIANS.		PA'RSIS.		TOTAL.	
	Males	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.	Males.	Fe- males.
Insane	93	41	8	3	...	1	...	1	101	46
Blind	1060	1343	51	40	4	6	1115	1389
Deaf-Mutes ...	270	175	17	14	1	288	189
Lepers	558	169	27	11	585	180
Total	1981	1728	103	68	5	7	...	1	2039	1804

Eleven kinds of disease affect the cattle of the district: *Pivla* or yellow disease is reported from Shevgaon. The ears become cold and droop, and the animal lies prostrate and refuses to eat or drink. The attack lasts for eight days and after death the body turns black. A boil as large as a woodapple is found growing on the liver. *Dhendalya* or diarrhoea is a disease of common occurrence in Shevgaon, Nagar, and Jámkhed, but in each of these sub-divisions the affection assumes a different form. In Shevgaon the belly swells, and the animal suffers much from thirst and shivers. In the last stage purging begins and the animal becomes emaciated, and falls down and emits a bad smell. The attack continues for ten days. After death the body becomes black and the liver black and yellow. In Nagar where the disease lasts only for four days the ears droop and the animal is said to lose appetite. On the liver a boil forms as large as a pea. In Jámkhed the disease lasts for only two days, and the animal suffers from discharges of saliva from the mouth and a burning sensation over the whole body. After death the body turns blackish. *Bolkándya* is reported from Ráhuri and Kopargaon. In Ráhuri the attack is said to last for fifteen days, and the animal after death presents a dry appearance. In Kopargaon the attack lasts for four days. In the first stage the animal appears sluggish and the abdomen swells. The second stage is marked by excessive thirst and loss of appetite, and in the last stage diarrhoea sets in. After death cold water of a bluish colour flows from the mouth. *Khurkut* is reported from Ráhuri, Nagar, Akola, Shrigonda, and Párner. In Ráhuri where the attack lasts for a month, the animal's hoofs swell, saliva passes from the mouth, and there is loss of appetite. In Nagar the attack lasts for fifteen days. In Akola the attack lasts from four to ten months ; maggots are formed in the sore parts both in the hoofs and in the mouth. If the disease takes a fatal turn, the mouth and the hoofs rot and emit a bad smell. In Párner the attack lasts for two months. *Kukad* is reported from Shevgaon. The animal rejects food and water, and perspires from the mouth, and gangrene ensues. The attack lasts for eight days. After death the body turns black and the liver turns black and yellow. *Lálechárog* or the saliva disease is reported from Karjat. It lasts for eight days.

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INFIRM PEOPLE.

CATTLE DISEASE.

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CATTLE DISEASES.

The symptoms are purging, flow of saliva from the mouth, and swelling of the hoofs from which also blood flows. *Haldyárog* is reported from Akola, Sangamner, and Nevása. It lasts for four to fifteen days. In Akola the symptoms observed are diarrhœa, gradual enlargement of the lungs, constipation, evacuation of fleshy matter, and excessive thirst; in Sangamner swelling of the body, dullness, loss of appetite, sinking of the eyes, water running from the mouth and nose, and mucous discharge from the nose. In Nevása the liver and lungs are affected; water collects in the stomach, and the animal appears to be unable to satisfy its thirst. Maggots are also formed in the eyes and mouth, and the animal shivers. *Durunglya* is a disease which affects cattle in Shrigonda and Párner. The attack lasts from four to eight days. The symptoms are shivering of the body, discharge of saliva from the mouth, diarrhœa, heavy breathing, want of appetite, thirst, and bloody urine. *Phopya* is reported from Nevása. The symptoms are swelling of the body, loss of appetite, burning sensation, and excessive thirst. The attack lasts for five days. *Mukhrog* is a disease of the mouth which attacks cattle in Jámkhed. It lasts for four days. The symptoms are inflammation of the tongue, loss of appetite, and bloody discharges.

CAT PLAGUE.

¹ In 1881, when cholera prevailed in the city of Ahmadnagar from about the beginning of July till the middle of August, there was a great and unprecedented mortality during the first part of the period among the cats of the city.² About 750 cats died between the 1st and 25th of July 1881. A day or two before the cat died, it appeared sluggish, took no food, and sought for some cool place where it could rest. The throat of the animal became swollen and choked, and before death it foamed at the mouth.³ Mr. Lamb, the Veterinary Surgeon, was of opinion that the cats were probably suffering from the destructive malignant disease called anthrax which frequently attacks cattle and for which there is no remedy. If the disease was anthrax, as Mr. Lamb suspected it to be, the causes which originated it were in his opinion such as would undoubtedly affect human and animal health generally.

VACCINATION.

In 1883-84 under the supervision of the Deputy Sanitary Commissioner the work of vaccination was carried on by thirteen vaccinators with yearly salaries varying from £16 16s. to £28 16s. (Rs. 168-288). Of the operators twelve were distributed over the rural parts of the district, whilst the thirteenth attended to the work in Ahmadnagar town. Besides these vaccinators the medical officers of the two dispensaries at Shevgaon and Nevása performed vaccine operations. The total number of operations was 27,895 exclusive of 244 revaccinations, compared with 10,531 primary vaccinations in 1869-70.

¹ Memorandum on the Cat Plague in Ahmadnagar, 1881, and in Sirur, 1883.

² A similar plague occurred at Sirur in Poona in June 1883, when from the 1st to the 21st of the month about 125 cats died. The chief symptom noticed was vomiting. A very similar disease attacked at the same time some of the cattle at Sirur, chiefly young healthy buffaloes.

³ The dead animals were removed by the local municipality to a distance from the city, and buried deep in the ground in the neighbourhood of the municipal nightsoil depôt.

The following statement shows the sex, religion, and age of the persons primarily vaccinated:

Ahmadnagar Vaccination Details, 1869-70 and 1883-84.

YEAR.	PERSONS PRIMARILY VACCINATED.									Total.
	Sex.		Religion.					Age.		
	Males.	Females.	Hindus.	Musal- māns.	Pārsis.	Chris- tians.	Others.	Under One Year.	Above One Year.	
1869-70	5581	4950	8690	657	1	54	1129	4565	5966	10,531
1883-84	13,953	13,942	22,577	1310	5	96	3907	20,166	7729	27,895

In 1883-84 the total cost of these operations, exclusive of those performed in dispensaries was £626 4s. (Rs. 6262) or about 5½d. (3½ as.) for each successful case. The entire charge was made up of the following items: Supervision and inspection £243 12s. (Rs. 2436), establishment £368 14s. (Rs. 3687), and contingencies £13 18s. (Rs. 139). Of these the supervising and inspecting charges were met from provincial funds, while £354 6s. (Rs. 3543) were borne by the local funds of the different sub-divisions and £28 6s. (Rs. 283) by the Ahmadnagar municipality.

The total number of deaths shown in the Sanitary Commissioner's yearly reports, for the thirteen years ending 1883, is 255,212 or an average mortality of 19,631, or, according to the 1881 census, of twenty-six in every thousand people. Of the average number of deaths 12,592 or 64.14 per cent were returned as due to fevers, 2178 or 11.09 per cent to cholera, 513 or 2.61 per cent to small-pox, 1989 or 10.13 per cent to bowel complaints, 180 or 0.91 per cent to injuries, and 2593 or 13.20 per cent to miscellaneous diseases.

An examination of the returns shows that on an average 12,592 deaths or 64.14 per cent of the total number from all causes were due to fever. As shown below in seven years mortality from this cause was below the average and in six years above it. Of the seven years below the average, two years 1871 and 1873 had between 7000 and 8000 deaths; four years 1872, 1874, 1880, and 1882 had between 9000 and 11,000 deaths the lowest total being 9669; and one year 1879 had 12,425 deaths. Of the six years above the average, three years 1875 1876 and 1881 had between 12,600 and 13,600 deaths; one year 1883 had 15,606 deaths; and two years 1877 and 1878 had between 19,400 and 20,300 deaths. Of the deaths from cholera, which amounted to 23,962 and averaged 2178, 7368 or 30.74 per cent happened in 1883 and 4933 or 20.58 per cent in 1875. The other years above the average were, 1877 with 2760, 1881 with 2645, and 1878 with 2267 deaths. Of the five years below the average and above 100, 1872 had 1837 deaths, 1876 had 1115, 1871 had 658, 1879 had 186, and 1882 had 182. One year 1880 had eleven deaths; and two years 1873 and 1874 were free from cholera. Of the deaths from small-pox, which amounted to 5642 and averaged 513, 2254 or 39.95 per cent happened in 1872 and 1978 or 35.05 per cent happened in 1877. Of the four years below the average and above 100, 1873 had 410

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deaths, 1883 had 352, 1876 had 350, and 1871 had 204. In none of the other years were there more than fifty deaths, the lowest number being five in 1879, and two years 1880 and 1881 being completely free from small-pox. Deaths from bowel complaints amounted to 25,858 and averaged 1989. The smallest number of deaths from bowel complaints in any one of the thirteen years was 1236 in 1880 and the largest was 2884 in 1877. To injuries were attributable 2341 deaths in all or an average of 180; the number of deaths varied from 146 in 1876 to 247 in 1878. Deaths from other causes varied from 1666 in 1873 to 3649 in 1877 and averaged 2593.

BIRTHS.

During the thirteen years ending 1883 the number of births averaged 20,561, or according to the 1881 census twenty-seven to the thousand people. The yearly totals vary from 12,113 in 1878 to 29,386 in 1882. The details are¹:

Ahmadnagar Births and Deaths, 1871-1883.

YEAR.	DEATHS.							BIRTHS.
	Cholera.	Small-pox.	Fevers.	Bowel Com-plaints.	Injuries.	Other Causes.	All Causes.	
1871 ...	658	204	7287	1775	171	2160	12,235	14,169
1872 ...	1837	2354	10,488	2072	176	2441	19,268	12,408
1873	410	7262	1536	188	1666	11,062	18,369
1874	22	9669	2029	176	1913	13,809	23,340
1875 ...	4933	40	12,963	2641	166	3037	23,790	24,294
1876 ...	1115	350	18,521	2498	146	3015	20,640	24,427
1877 ...	2760	1978	19,424	2884	196	3649	30,891	16,308
1878 ...	2267	21	20,248	2157	247	3015	27,965	12,113
1879 ...	186	5	12,425	1481	201	2366	16,564	18,968
1880 ...	11	...	10,544	1236	189	2124	14,102	20,086
1881 ...	2645	...	18,567	1709	165	3184	21,270	24,313
1882 ...	182	6	10,712	1368	166	2224	14,658	29,386
1883 ...	7368	352	15,606	2477	154	3011	28,968	28,571
Total ...	23,962	5642	163,694	25,858	2341	33,715	255,212	267,296
Average ...	2178	513	12,592	1989	180	2593	19,631	20,561

¹ The death returns are believed to be fairly correct and the birth returns to be incomplete.

CHAPTER XIII.

SUB-DIVISIONS.¹

Akola, the most westerly sub-division, is bounded on the north by the Igatpuri and Sinnar sub-divisions of Násik, on the east by Sangamner, on the south by the Junnar sub-division of Poona, and on the west by the Murbád and Sháhápúr sub-divisions of Thána lying in the Konkau below. Its length from north to south is twenty-seven and breadth from west to east thirty-three miles, its area is 588 square miles, and it comprises 157 villages. In 1831 the population was 60,800 or 103 to the square mile and in 1882-83 the land revenue amounted to £7995 (Rs. 79,950).

Of an area of 588 square miles, 569 have been surveyed in detail. Of these 8226 acres are the lands of alienated villages. The rest includes 202,909 acres or 56·93 per cent of arable land; 49,959 acres or 14·01 per cent of unarable; 101,312 or 28·42 per cent of forest reserves; and 2197 or 0·61 per cent of village sites, roads, and river beds. From the 202,909 acres of arable land, 12,415 or 6·11 per cent have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages. Of 190,494 acres, the actual area of arable Government land, 175,170 acres or 91·95 per cent were in 1882-83 held for tillage. Of these 170,636 acres were dry crop, 616 acres watered garden, and 3918 acres rite land.

Akola consists mainly of the two valleys of the Pravara and Mula rivers which rise on the western edge of the Deccan and flow eastward through the Ahmadnagar district. The Pravara valley is at first of the wildest and most rugged description and for twelve miles the river flows in a shallow rocky bed, but near the village of Randa there is a fall of some 200 feet and for six or eight miles the river banks are high and precipitous. East of the town of Rájur there is a general descent of the whole country to the lower level of the river bed which emerges into an alluvial plain lying between two hill ranges known as the *desh* of Akola. This plain widens out as the river pursues its easterly course in the direction of Sangamner. The Mula valley on the contrary preserves its wild character through both Akola and Sangamner. Besides these two main valleys there is a smaller one in the extreme north formed by the river Adula, a tributary of the Pravara. This valley is also uneven and broken by ravines. Near the village of Sávargaon, fifteen miles from its source, the Adula, after a fall of 200 feet emerges through a narrow channel with precipitous rocky sides into the Akola *desh* and thence flows into the Sangamner sub-division.²

The *dáng* country or the western half of the sub-division, which stretches up to and includes the crest of the Sahyádrí mountains, enjoys a certain and heavy rainfall ranging from 250 inches in the extreme west to fifty inches near the town of Rájur. The *dángs*

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AKOLA.

Area.

Aspect.

Climate.

¹ Contributed by Mr. T. S. Hamilton, C. S.

² The different ranges of hills enclosing the valleys of these three rivers have been described with some detail in Chapter I.

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Climate.

are considered very feverish up to the end of December. The *desh* or lower country of the east, however, has a much more uncertain and lighter rain. The following statement gives the monthly rainfall at Akola during the eleven years ending 1884:¹

Akola Rainfall, 1874-1884.

MONTH.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
January ...	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
February	0·07	0·22
March	0·20
April	0·05
May	0·50	1·01	...	0·10
June	0·90	8·82	...	1·14	0·14	0·84	...
July ...	12·14	3·93	2·48	4·00	0·84	10·80	3·59	1·40	7·51	7·04	1·77
August ...	5·68	6·26	5·07	1·08	12·16	3·94	4·95	7·01	7·09	2·81	11·78
September ...	3·35	3·73	1·42	0·11	6·44	6·77	0·47	1·69	1·78	5·62	2·53
October ...	6·56	5·44	0·01	4·39	8·11	1·66	4·32	2·15	10·60	6·75	4·05
November ...	2·20	2·04	3·10	4·34	2·24	4·98	...	7·59	6·19
December ...	0·12	0·54	...	0·56
Total ...	30·05	20·81	8·98	11·92	30·66	81·33	16·11	18·27	28·61	30·55	26·64

Soils.

The deep alluvial soils on the banks of the Pravara especially those to the west of the town of Akola are of great fertility. The soils in the Mula valley are for the most part of a light description and far less fertile. In the Adula valley there is a good deal of fertile land bordering on the river banks. In the *dāngs*, except the rice lands consisting chiefly of artificial terraces formed by throwing dams of earth and stones across the numerous streams and water-courses which intersect the country, the soils are suited only to the cultivation of the coarser cereals as *nāgli* Eleusine corocana, *vari* or *sāva* Panicum miliaceum, and *khurāsni* Verbesina sativa.

Cultivation.

These are grown on the hill sides which are prepared by cutting down and firing brushwood on the spots selected, the seed being sown in the ashes after the first fall of rain. This method of cultivation known as *dalhi* has been the ruin of the forests of the Sahyādris and in Akola alone the area so cultivated falls little if at all short of 30,000 acres annually. When all the brushwood on the hill sides is exhausted the trees are lopped till at last they assume the appearance when in leaf of green May-poles. In course of time, unable to stand this constant lopping they die and are cut down and if the existing state of things continues it can only be a matter of time when the whole of the *dāng* country, with the exception of the tracts under forest conservancy, will be reduced to a barren waste of rock and boulders.²

Irrigation.

Surface irrigation from the waters of the Adula and some of the minor tributaries of the Pravara is practised to a considerable extent. Dams of masonry or of stones and clay are thrown across the streams, and the water is conveyed thence to the fields by channels some of which are of great length and constructed with no mean skill. In the village of Sāvargaon one such aqueduct very substantially built is said to date from the days of the Musalmān rule (1318-1759). Old masonry dams may be seen at Gardani, Dhāmangaon, and other places. Between Shamsherpur and Sāvargaon is a small modern dam built from local funds. It is contemplated by the Irrigation

¹ The rain figures for 1884 throughout are up to October.² This state of things has now (1884) been changed. See Agriculture Chapter.

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Irrigation.

Department to form a storage tank on the Pravara river with a view to supplement the existing supply in the Ojhar and Láksh canals which are fed by masonry dams thrown across the river further east in the Sangamner and Ráhuri sub-divisions. The work has been sanctioned by the Government of India, and will soon be commenced. The site selected for the proposed tank is a deep valley, through which the river flows opening out into the plain at the village of Máládevi five miles west of the town of Akola. The dam which is to be of earth and 107 feet high will extend across the mouth of the valley and thus enclose an immense body of water.¹

Ninety per cent of the total cultivated area is under *kharif* or early crops of which the chief are *bájri*, *nágli*, and rice. The area under rice in Akola is sixty-five per cent of that in the whole district.

Crops.

Of 139,916 acres the actual area under cultivation, grain crops occupied 102,043 acres or 72·93 per cent, of which 54,265 were under spiked millet *bájri* *Penicillaria spicata*; 4101 under Indian millet *jtári* *Sorghum vulgare*; 4469 under wheat *gahu* *Triticum aestivum*; 22,499 under *rági* or *náchni* *Eleusine corocana*; 5136 under rice *bhát* *Oryza sativa*; 1188 under chenna *sáva* *Panicum miliaceum*; 49 under maize *makka* *Zea mays*; 12 under *kodra* or *harik* *Paspalum scrobiculatum*; and 10,324 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 14,477 acres or 10·34 per cent of which 3349 were under gram *harbhara* *Cicer arietinum*; 3219 under *kulith* or *kulthi* *Dolichoş biflorus*; 801 under *tur* *Cajanus indicus*; 1545 under *mug* *Phaseolus mungo*; 1259 under *udid* *Phaseolus radiatus*; 1434 under peas *vátána* *Pisum sativum*; 155 under lentils *masur* *Ervum lens*, and 2715 under other pulses. Oil-seeds occupied 21,838 acres or 15·60 per cent, of which 116 were under gingelly seed *til* *Sesamum indicum*; one under mustard *rái* *Sinapis racemosa*; and 21,721 under other oil-seeds. Fibres occupied 240 acres or 0·17 per cent of which 66 were under Bombay hemp *san* or *tág* *Crotalaria juncea*; and 174 under brown hemp *ambádi* *Hibiscus cannabinus*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 1318 acres or 0·94 per cent, of which 636 were under tobacco *tambáku* *Nicotiana tabacum*; 175 under chillies *mirchi* *Capsicum frutescens*; 297 under sugarcane *us* *Saccharum officinarum*; and the remaining 210 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 60,800 people 59,579 or 97·99 per cent were Hindus and 1221 or 2·00 per cent Musalmáns. The details of the Hindu castes are: 1545 Bráhmans; 293 Osvál Márwáris, 51 Sansári Jangams, 46 Meshri Márwáris, 35 Gujarát Jains, 25 Gujarát Vánis, 8 Kunam Vánis, and 2 Komtis, traders and merchants; 21,821 Kunbis, 562 Mális, 36 Rajputs, and 17 Bangars, husbandmen; 619 Telis, oil-pressers; 548 Vadárs, diggers; 512 Sutárs, carpenters; 495 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 351 Shimpis, tailors; 338 Kumbhárs, potters; 235 Lohárs, blacksmiths; 204 Kásárs, brassmakers; 144 Beldárs, quarrymen; 28 Sális, weavers; 21 Kaikádis, basketmakers; 17 Gavandis masons; 10 Tábats, coppersmiths; 355 Guravs, priests;

People.

¹ The sub-divisional stock and holding figures are given under Agriculture.

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454 Nhávis, barbers; 195 Parits, washermen; 226 Dhangars, cowmen; 46 Khátiks, butchers; 1143 Vanjáris, caravan-men; 17 Lamáns, carriers; 5385 Mhárs, labourers; 580 Chámbhárs, shoe-makers; 486 Mángs, messengers; 329 Gosávis, 82 Gondhlis, 12 Mánbhávs, beggars; 22,110 Kolis, 161 Rámoshis, 33 Bharádis, and 2 Ráváls, unsettled tribes.

Roads.

Up to 1870 there were no roads in the sub-division nor any practicable cart-tracks except one from Sangamner fourteen miles west to the town of Akola. This was extended west to the town of Rájur in 1874 by the opening up of the Vita pass which leads from the *desh* up to the *dáng* country. During the 1876-77 famine labourers were employed on the whole length of the road from Loni, a village eighteen miles east of Sangamner, to Rájur a distance of forty-three miles. A complete scheme for the improvement of this road including its extension to Bári, a village about twenty miles north-west of Rájur on the Násik frontier was prepared, but famine works being brought to a close before it could be taken in hand, the necessary funds were subsequently obtained from the district local funds. The road is now completed and the whole of the rice-producing district of Akola is thus brought into direct communication with the markets of Sangamner on the east, and Ghoti, a station on the Great India Peninsula railway in Násik, on the north-west. The road enters the Akola sub-division on the eastern boundary near the village of Kalas on the Pravara river, nine miles west of Sangamner and sixty-eight miles north-west of Ahmadnagar; it passes through Akola seventy-three miles, Vita 79½ miles, Jángaon eighty-two miles, and Rájur eighty-four miles. Thence through a pass in the hills it enters a tract of country of the most rugged description. Descending to the village of Randa, ninety miles, by easy gradients the road crosses the river Pravara a mile above the falls and a ferry has recently been established at this point. It then rises gradually to the crest of the northern range of hills which divides Akola from the adjacent Násik sub-division of Igatpuri, passing near the village of Váki, ninety-four miles, and reaching Bári on the district boundary 100 miles from Ahmadnagar. The pass or *ghát* road three miles long leading down to the plain of Igatpuri, though lying in Násik, was constructed and is maintained at the expense of the Ahmadnagar local funds. From its foot a newly made road, ten miles, leads through Umbhádi to the station of Ghoti on the Peninsula railway. The cart track from Akola towards the market town of Kotul which lies to the south in the Mula valley, has been from time to time improved and some parts of it are now in fair order, but the Vásira pass leading over the lofty range of hills which divides the Pravara from the Mula valley is at present (1883) too steep for laden carts. By this route Kotul is eleven miles from Akola but by the foot road through Dhámangaon it is not more than eight miles. Proposals have been made at different times to extend this road from Kotul to Bráhmañváda seven miles further south, and thence seven miles to the market town of Utur in the Junnar sub-division of Poona. During the famine labourers were employed on the two miles of the pass leading down from Bráhmañváda to the lower level of Junnar, but the works were stopped before the road was

completed. In the north of the sub-division there is a cart-track from Akola seven miles north to Devthán, and thence on to the town of Sinnar in Násik. At Devthán another track leads west up to the Adula valley and lightly laden carts can be taken with some difficulty as far as Sàngvi, eleven miles. It is said that formerly there was a cart road up a pass in the northern range, locally known as the Mhaisvályácha pass, leading from the village of Asare in Igatpuri to the foot of the fort of Patta and there are traces of a road from the top of the pass in that direction but it is hardly credible that the pass itself was ever practicable for wheeled carriages.

The following statement gives a list of the places where weekly markets are held :

Akola Markets.

Town.	Market Day.
Rájur	{ Monday 1 Tuesday.
Akola	{ Saturday.
Kotul	{ Wednesday.

The only manufacture of any note is that of glass bangles at the villages of Gardani and Lahit-khurd which are made by Telegu-speaking immigrants from Madras who settled in these villages as well as in the Sangamner village of Pengiri many years ago. The number of workers is at Gardani generally eight and at Lahit twelve, and the annual outturn is estimated at £90 (Rs. 900) and £100 (Rs. 1000) respectively. It is said however that the profits are very small now that there is so general a demand for *bilori* or China bangles, which they do not make. Their chief income is now derived from agriculture.

The *desh* or plain portion of the Akola sub-division was surveyed in 1845-47. A maximum dry-crop rate of 4s. (Rs. 2) an acre was imposed in all the villages of the Pravara valley except Sherunkhel and Vita where a maximum rate of 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1 $\frac{3}{4}$) was fixed as also in the villages of the northern valley of the Adula river. These rates were sanctioned in May 1848. The average rate on all arable land amounted under this assessment to 1s. 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. (12 $\frac{5}{8}$ as.) an acre against 2s. $\frac{1}{2}$ d. (Rs. 1 $\frac{1}{8}$) levied under the old system. Garden rates varied from 4s. to 12s. (Rs. 2-6) an acre. The fourteen villages transferred to Akola from Junnar in 1866-68 were surveyed in 1849-50. The arable hill land of the *dángs* of Akola was roughly surveyed and classified by the officers of the revenue department in 1859-60. The rates imposed varied from 3d. to 9d. (2-6 as.) an acre.

Up to 1860 Akola comprised 176 villages, of which 111 were under the charge of a *mámlatdár* stationed at Akola and 65 were under a *mahálkari* stationed at Kotul. On the general re-distribution of villages throughout the district in 1860-61 the *mahálkari*'s appointment was abolished. At the same time thirteen villages

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¹ The market opens about noon on Monday and lasts till about the same hour on Tuesday.

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were transferred to Sangamner and fifteen to Sinnar in Násik, which sub-division was then part of the Ahmadnagar district. In 1866-67 seven villages¹ were transferred from the Poona sub-division of Junnar, then called Shivner, and in the following year (1867-68) seven other Junnar villages,² previously transferred to Sangamner, were given to Akola in exchange for five Akola villages transferred to Sangamner. The sub-division, thus comprising 157 villages, was transferred to the newly-formed Násik district in 1869 but retransferred to Ahmadnagar in the following year (1870). Of these 157 villages 152 belong to Government and 5 are alienated. The following is a nominal list showing their distribution in the old divisions or tarafs :

Akola Villages, 1833.

VILLAGE.*	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf	VILLAGE.	Taraf
Akola. Manoharpur. Gardani. Dhámangaon Avári. Támbohi. Thugaon-Khurd. Thugaon-Budruk. Mutháalne. Kombhalne. Khánápur. Induri. Parkhatpur. Máládevi. Kalas-Khurd P i m p a l g a o n - Nákvinda. Nilvande. Unchkhadak-Budk. Chitalvedha. Ambád. Aurangpur. Tákh Kalas-Budruk. Sherankhel. Khurvire Nabhápur. Vásira. Sultánpur. Bitáka. Tirdha. Mehenduri. Agar. Jámgaon.	Akola-Haveli 32 villages	Shenit. Kátalápur. Pimparkane. Váki. Terungan. Ekdera. Pánjra. Dei gaon. Ratanvádi. Murshet. Kohodi. Shendi. Titvi. Koltembhe. Kodani. Guhira. Chichondi. Kelangan Ranad-Budruk. Ranad-Khurd. Varangus. Shelápur. Ládgaon. Málegaon. Pendshet Pábalvandi. Mutkhel. Ambevangan. Rájur. Bhandárdara. Pádoshi. Uddavani. Ghatghar. Digambar. Babhulvádi. Sámrad. Manhera. Bári. I Shingauvádi.	Rájur 39 villages.	Náchanthas Kotul-Mukundji. Kotul-Nime. Chánd Saraj. Vághápur. 1	Kotul-Haveli 20 villages contd.
Dongargaon. Dhokari. Devthán. Numbrále. Somthán. Vita. Unchkhadak-Kh. Kumbephal. Shamsarpur. Keli. Táhákari. Hivargaon. Reda. Rumbhodi. I Virgaon. I		Rumanvádi 15 villages.		Mogras. Pimpalgaon Khánd. Paithan. Pádalne. D h á m a n g a o n - Pátachi. Pángri. Abitkhind. Lahit-Budruk. Lahit-Khurd. Hori. Keli. Bholevádi. Pisevádi. Shelad. Pimpaldari.	
Pimpalgaon. Ganora. Sávargaon. Mhálungi. Sángvi.	Bhojápúr.		Kotul-Haveli 20 villages.	Chás. Manyále. Sátévádi. Ambhole. Lavhále. Shelvádi. Jámhbhe. Keli. Belápur.	Utar 9 villages.
				Karandi. Badgi. Kalamb. Bráhmánváda. Lingdev	Belha. Karda.

* In this list villages with I after their names are alienated.

¹ The seven villages are Lavhále, Bráhmánváda, Satevádi, Shelvádi, Karandi, Keli, and Ambhole.

² The names are Lingdev, Badgi, Kalamb, Manyále, Jámhbhe, Belápur, and Chás.

Jámkhed in the south-east corner of the district consists of groups of villages and isolated villages surrounded by the Nizám's territory. Its total area is 482 square miles and it comprises seventy-seven villages. In 1881 the population was 60,960 or 126 to the square mile, and in 1882-83 the land revenue amounted to £7496 (Rs. 74,960).

Of an area of 482 square miles, 423 have been surveyed in detail. Of these 16,950 acres are the lands of alienated villages. The rest includes 181,772 acres or 71·52 per cent of arable land; 29,343 acres or 11·54 per cent of unarable; 544 or 0·21 per cent of grass or *kuran*; 38,436 or 15·12 per cent of forest reserves; and 4045 or 1·59 per cent of village sites, roads, and river beds. From the 181,772 acres of arable land, 15,540 or 8·54 per cent have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages. Of 166,232 acres, the actual area of arable Government land, 161,206 acres or 96·97 per cent were in 1882-83 under tillage. Of these 158,641 acres were dry-crop and 2565 acres were watered garden land.

Of thirty-seven villages forming the largest group of villages, the Jámkhed *taraf*, thirty-three are situated in the valley of the Sina and four on the Bálághát, an elevated table-land almost bare of trees formed by the widening out of the Nagar range of hills. This table-land which stretches far east towards Haidarabad gradually subsiding to the general level of the Deccan is watered by the Mánjra river a tributary of the Godávári. These villages differ but little in appearance from those of the Karjat sub-division on the other side of the Sina river. There are some level tracts of *munjal* or reddish soil but the greater part of the soil is of a poor description and there are many low hilly ridges of *mál* or upland. The Bálághat range throws out several smaller spurs on the slopes of which rise streams which pursue a north-westerly course till they fall into the Sina. In a ravine five miles north-east of the town of Jámkhed are the beautiful falls of the Incharna, 219 feet in height. Beside the remaining village in the Jámkhed *taraf* lies detached from the main group and a little to the south of it. Higher up the valley of the Sina are three smaller groups containing four, one, and five villages respectively. The rest of the villages in the sub-division lie between the Bálághát and the Shevgaon boundary in the valley of the Sinphana also a tributary of the Godávári. These, being for the most part situated in fertile well watered valleys formed by the numerous spurs which jut out northward, are decidedly the best in the sub-division. Mango and other trees being abundantly dotted over the fields, the villages present a varied and pleasing aspect.

The soils of Jámkhed are generally of a light texture and easily worked. In the Sina valley, however, stiff deep soil is met with, but on the Bálághát the soil is of a tolerably good description. In the Mánur villages, those in the valley of the Sinphana clustering about the Nizám's town of Mánur to which they were formerly attached, the soil varies exceedingly, being in some parts poor and in others deep and rich.

As regards climate the Jámkhed villages are favourably situated, being for the most part in the neighbourhood of high hills which ensure

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a plentiful supply of rain. In this respect the sub-division generally possesses superior advantages to the open parts of Shevgaon, Nagar, Karjat, or Shrigonda. Those villages, however, which lie towards the Sina river where the rainfall is somewhat uncertain are less favoured than those on the Bálághát and in the valley of the Sinphana beyond. Jámkhed suffered but slightly in the famine of 1876-77. The following table gives the rainfall during the eleven years ending 1884:

Jámkhed Rainfall, 1874-1884.

MONTH.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
January ...	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
February ...	0·28	0·08	...	0·19	0·17
March	0·89	...	0·09
April ...	1·58	0·52	...	0·22	0·80	0·24
May ...	0·90	0·78	...	0·08	0·80	1·68	...	1·48	1·19	...	0·18
June ...	5·41	2·96	3·04	7·08	6·95	4·98	5·52	7·07	12·0	10·08	1·69
July ...	7·99	2·78	1·67	1·55	7·96	3·56	6·61	2·08	2·50	2·7	4·51
August ...	0·67	6·27	3·22	5·4	9·31	7·34	1·98	3·99	1·97	14·83	5·65
September ...	14·04	9·60	0·84	5·81	9·17	0·48	8·89	0·27	18·86	7·87	6·21
October ...	1·35	0·51	0·04	5·47	5·12	2·26	2·24	0·26	...	8·71	2·80
November ...	0·33	0·04	...	0·10	0·25	0·22	5·79	2·84	0·64	0·43	...
December	0·61	0·07
Total ...	32·50	24·26	8·81	28·57	39·56	20·66	27·88	24·04	81·93	44·66	20·94

Cultivation.

In the hill villages early crops are principally grown and in the open country late crops. On the Bálághát both descriptions of crops are grown about equally.

In the Mánur villages arboriculture is extensively practised and as the climate and soil are both favourable to the growth of mango trees the results are most satisfactory. Manure is used for both dry and irrigated crops, but the ground being hilly, carts cannot be much used, and the expense of conveying it by bullocks or labourers tends naturally to restrict its use to the vicinity of villages. In the Sina valley manure is very little used.

Crops.

Of 131,144 acres the actual area under cultivation, grain crops occupied 96,805 acres or 73·81 per cent, of which 54,566 were under spiked millet *bájrí* *Penicillaria spicata*; 34,514 under Indian millet *juári* *Sorghum vulgare*; 5095 under wheat *gahu* *Triticum æstivum*; 935 under rice *bhát* *Oryza sativa*; 73 under chenna *sáva* *Panicum miliaceum*; 40 under maize *makka* *Zea mays*; 416 under Italian millet *rála* or *káng* *Panicum italicum*; 200 under *kodra* or *harik* *Paspalum scrobiculatum*; and 942 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 15,542 acres or 11·85 per cent, of which 8449 were under gram *harbhara* *Cicer arietinum*; 3568 under *kulith* or *kulthi* *Dolichos biflorus*; 4493 under *tur* *Cajanus indicus*; 1192 under *mug* *Phaseolus radiatus*; 223 under *udid* *Phaseolus mungo*; 11 under peas *vátána* *Pisum sativum*; 107 under lentils *masur* *Ervum lens*, and 2199 under other pulses. Oil-seeds occupied 11,124 acres or 8·48 per cent, of which 1496 were under gingelly seed *til* *Sesamum indicum*; 858 under linseed *alshi* *Linum usitatissimum*; and 8770 under other oil-seeds. Fibres occupied 6643 acres or 5·06 per cent, of which 4972 were under cotton *kayus* *Gossypium herbaceum*; 1666 under Bombay hemp *san* or *lág* *Crotalaria juncea*, and 5 under brown hemp *ambádi* *Hibiscus cannabinus*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 1030 acres or 0·78 per

cent, of which 242 were under tobacco *tambáku* *Nicotiana tabacum*; 464 under chillies *mirchi* *Capsicum frutescens*; 196 under sugarcane *us Saccharum officinarum*, and the remaining 128 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 60,960 people 57,764 or 94.75 per cent were Hindus and 3196 or 5.24 per cent Musalmáns. The details of the Hindu castes are: 2573 Bráhmans; 12 Káyasth Prabhus, writers; 1559 Osvál Márwáris, 880 Sansári Jangams, 304 Kunam Vánis, 77 Gujarát Vánis, 47 Meshri Márwáris, and 33 Gujarát Jains, traders and merchants; 23,770 Kunbis, 1711 Mális, 156 Rajputs, and 10 Bangars, husbandmen; 995 Koshtis, weavers; 754 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 691 Sutárs, carpenters; 636 Kásárs, brass-makers; 633 Shimpis, tailors; 608 Telis, oil-pressers; 459 Kumbhárs, potters; 358 Lohárs, blacksmiths; 214 Sális, weavers; 165 Tábats, coppersmiths; 120 Vadárs, diggers; 110 Nirális, indigo-dyers; 108 Saltangars, tanners; 76 Kaikádis, basket-makers; 68 Ghisádis, wandering blacksmiths; 64 Lingáyat Buruds, basket-makers; 56 Beldárs, quarrymen; 34 Jingars, saddle-makers; 17 Otáris, casters; and 8 Lonáris, lime-burners; 237 Guravs, priests; 6 Ghadshis, musicians; 714 Nhávis, barbers; 334 Parits, washermen; 3376 Dhangars, cowmen; 46 Gavlis, cow-keepers; 6 Khátiks, butchers; 6815 Vanjáris, caravan-men; 157 Bhois, fishers; 4180 Mhárs, labourers; 2302 Mángs, messengers; 942 Chámhárs, shoe-makers; 150 Dhors, tanners; 280 Gosávis, 113 Gondhís, 85 Kolhátis, 66 Takáris, 64 Joshis, 41 Mánbhávs, 32 Gopáls, 20 Bhorpis, and 8 Mairáls, beggars; 287 Kolis, 91 Thákurs, 45 Bharádis, 30 Tirmális, 26 Ráváls, and 5 Rámoshis, unsettled tribes.

The Jámkhed-Ahmadnagar road forty-six miles leaving Jámkhed enters the Nizám's territory at a distance of two miles, and passing up through the town of Ashti eleven miles from Jámkhed again enters British territory near the town of Kade, distant twenty miles. After leaving the village lands of Kade the road again enters the Nizám's territory and finally passes into the Nagar sub-division near the village of Athvad thirty miles north-west of Jámkhed. The large town of Kharda twelve miles south-east of Jámkhed is connected with it by a road which passes through Rájuri five miles south-east of Jámkhed. Of a somewhat rough road connecting Jámkhed with the Sholápur town of Karmála on the south, seven miles lie in the sub-division. Another road generally known as the Kharda-Káshti road runs from Jámkhed west through the village of Pátoda 5½ miles, and Arangaon ten miles, thence through 1½ miles of the Nizám's territory to the Sina river and across into the Karjat sub-division. None of these roads are in very good order.

The following is a statement of towns and villages where weekly markets are held:

Jámkhed Markets.

PLACE.	Day.	PLACE.	Day.
Kharda	Tuesday.	Sirur	Tuesday.
Akolner	Sunday.	Táklí	Thursday.
Dongarkinhi ..	Saturday.	Arangaon ...	Sunday.
Kade	Sunday.	Birasmerg ...	Monday.
Jámkhed	Saturday.	Bhangaon ...	Thursday.

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JÁMKHED.

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JÁMKHED,
Markets.

The principal market town of Kharda is attended not only by the villagers in the neighbourhood but by traders from distant parts of the country, and the live stock offered for sale is said to be of a more extensive and varied character than can be found elsewhere in the district. The hilly villages in the Sinphana valley are not so well situated with respect to external markets as those in the more open valley of the Sina. On account of the rugged nature of the ground carts cannot be used, and, with the exception of the very difficult line from Mánur by the Nágthali pass to the Nizám's town of Ashti, there has until lately been no exit from this valley. The ascent to the Bálághát at Pimpalvandi and descent to Moho in the direction of Jámkhed and Kharda have however now been made practicable for carts, though much still remains to be done to render communication uninterrupted at all times of the year. Still, though these Sinphana villages are thus somewhat badly situated with regard to exterior markets, they are generally thriving and contain a fairly large trading and manufacturing population.

Trade.

The villages in the main group have tolerably good roads both north in the direction of Ahmadnagar and west and south towards the Peninsula Railway. But all the Jámkhed villages generally suffer under the disadvantage of being surrounded by the Nizám's territory as all imports and exports conveyed through it are subject to the payment of transit duties.

Crafts.

In the town of Kharda 269 looms are worked. In other towns and villages of the sub-division the looms aggregate 180 in number. The manufacture is principally of coarse cotton stuffs, as turbans and women's robes. English thread is not much used. In several of the larger villages are brass and copper smiths. At Dongarkinbi is a small colony of Telugu-speaking immigrants from Southern India who make glass bangles; the kilns are three and the workmen about twenty in number and they turn out when in full work about 200 pounds ($2\frac{1}{2}$ mans) of bangles daily valued at $\frac{2}{3}$ d. a pound (Rs. $2\frac{1}{2}$ a man). Before the days of forest conservancy these bangle-makers carried on a very brisk trade. Owing however to restrictions recently imposed they are now obliged to purchase wood for their kilns which they formerly cut from the forests free of charge and the industry is in consequence somewhat depressed.

Survey.

Survey rates were introduced in 1852-53 into the fifty-nine Government villages then comprised in the sub-division. These were divided for assessment purposes into three groups. The first consisting of three villages on the Bálághát and twenty-three villages in the Sinphana valley between the Bálághát and the Shevgaon boundary, on which the maximum dry-crop rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. $1\frac{1}{2}$) an acre was fixed. The second group consisted of twelve villages below the Bálághát in the valley of the Sina on which the maximum rate was 2s. 3d. (Rs. $1\frac{1}{2}$) an acre. The third group consisted of three villages also in the valley of the Sina, but nearer than those in the second group to the Karjat boundary on the west, and on these the maximum rate was fixed at 1s. 9d. (14 as.) an acre. The average incidence of these rates on all cultivated lands was $10\frac{1}{2}$ d. (7 as.) an acre or a reduction of twenty-eight per

cent from the average of the rates paid prior to the settlement. On lands irrigated from wells maximum rates of 6s. (Rs. 3) and 5s. 3d. (Rs. 2½) were imposed, and on lands irrigated from watercourses the maximum was 10s. (Rs. 5) an acre, the average incidence on both kinds being 3s. 8½d. (Rs. 1¾) an acre.

Most of the Jámkhed villages were acquired from the Peshwa in 1818-19. Six of them, however, including the towns of Jámkhed and Kharda were subsequently received from the Nizám, five in 1821-22 and one in 1845-46. The sub-division was more than once attached to and again separated from Karmála, an adjacent sub-division now in the Sholápur district, the final separation taking place in 1835-36. In 1851-52 Jámkhed consisted of fifty-nine Government and sixteen alienated villages. In 1861-62, the Nagar village of Khilad, which was surrounded by Jámkhed villages, was added, together with Devi-Nimgaon an alienated village in Korti also geographically belonging to Jámkhed. In 1879 the alienated village of Rájuri lapsed to Government leaving the sub-division as at present constituted with sixty-one Government and sixteen alienated villages a nominal list of which is given below :

Jámkhed Villages, 1883.

VILLAGE.*	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.
Jámkhed.	Jámkhed thirty-eight villages.	Khándvi.1	Jámkhed—continued.	Arvi.	Mánur—continued.
Kharda.		Dhondpargaon.1		Murshatpur.	
Loni		Borie 1		Khokarmoho.	
Pimpalgaon Unda.		Sávargaon.1		Chinchpur Pángal.	
Sonegaon.		Satephal.1		Pimpalgaon tapa.	
Sírur.		Mohori.1		Tinkhadi 1	
Ghodegaon.		Dighol 1		Siras marg. 1	
Pimpalgaon Alvi.		Naygaon.1			
Sa oia.		Taradgaon.1			
Nahull.				Kade.	
Bándkhadak.			Dongargaon.		
Bálgavhán.			Dongaon.		
Váki.			Arangaon.		
Jhikari			Patoda.		
Pádh.			Sheri-khurd.1	Bálgahát.	
Bávi.			Devi Nimgaon.1		
Sángvi.			Khilad.		
Moho.				Bidsángvi.1	
Sakat.					Ashú.
Khurdaitna.				Bramhgaon.	
Devdaitna.				Hajipur.	
Játegaon.				Mirjápúr.	
Telangal.				Bhaláni.	
Apti.					Rásin.
Dhámangaon.				Alhanvadi.1	
Kuelamb.					
Kusadgaon.					
Rájuri.					
Ratrápúr. 1					

* In this list villages with 1 after their names are alienated.

Karjat, the southernmost sub-division is bounded on the north-east by the Nizám's dominions, on the south-east by Karmála a sub-division of Sholápur, on the south-west by Bhimthadi a sub-division of Poona, and on the north-west by Shrigonda. Its length and breadth are about thirty-four miles each. It comprises eighty-two villages and has an area of 580 square miles. In 1881 the population was 34,820 or sixty to the square mile, and in 1882-83 the land revenue was £5,582 (Rs. 55,820).

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Sub-Divisions.

JÁMKHED,

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Sub-Divisions:

KARJAT.
Area.

Of an area of 580 square miles, 558 have been surveyed in detail. Of these 50,375 acres are the lands of alienated villages. The rest includes 222,219 acres or 72·34 per cent of arable land, 37,604 acres or 12·24 per cent of unarable; 24 or 0·007 per cent of grass or *kuran*; 41,383 or 13·47 per cent of forest reserves; and 5955 or 1·93 per cent of village sites, roads, and river beds. From the 222,219 acres of arable land, 14,124 or 6·35 per cent have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages. Of 208,095 acres, the actual area of arable Government land, 167,278 acres or 80·38 per cent were in 1882-83 under tillage. Of these 165,142 acres were dry-crop and 2136 acres were watered garden land.

Aspect.

A chain of low hills with broad flat summits, a prolongation of one branch of the range which strikes off from the Sahyádris at Harishchandragad, traverses the sub-division from north-west to south-east, forming a ridge dividing it into two tolerably equal parts. The highest point on this chain near the village of Kaundána in the north-west known as Mhasoba's plateau or *pathár* has an elevation of 2398 feet, or 500 feet above the surrounding country; that in the south-east near the village of Alsunda is 2172 feet. Gradually decreasing in height, the chain of hills passes into the Sholápur district where it subsides into the general level of the country. The streams which have their source on the eastern slopes of these hills flow into the Sina river, those rising on the western slopes flow into the Bhima. There are but few trees in the sub-division, and owing to the large proportion of rocky and unprofitable ground almost destitute of vegetation, the country generally presents a most dismal appearance. Large tracts of sterile and rugged ground are covered with boulders or large loose pieces of stone. Here and there however are level tracts, some of considerable extent where the soil is deep and rich and there are also a few patches of well cultivated garden land which contrast pleasantly with the dry and stony wastes around.

Rivers.

The Sina river forms for twenty-eight miles almost continuously the boundary of the sub-division on the north-east, separating it from the Nizám's territory, and the Bhima forms for nineteen miles on the south-west the boundary with the adjacent district of Poona. The Lokhára with its tributary the Khosára and the Nandi with its tributary the Belora are the principal streams which drain the western half of the sub-division. The Lokhára rises on the hill slopes north of the village of Sinde and falls into the Bhima near the village of Bhámhora, north of the town of Khed, after a south-westerly course of twenty miles. The Nandi rises north of the town of Karjat and falls into the Bhima near the village of Bábhulgaon after a course of about the same length. The Dukri and the Khanauri drain the eastern half of the sub-division. The Dukri rises near the village of Bhoose and flows east and north-east into the Sina passing by the town of Mirajgaon. The Khanauri rises north of the town of Karjat which it passes and then turning to the south-east enters the Sholápur district falling into the Sina a short distance below the town of Karmála, after a course of twenty-five miles.

Water.

The water-supply of the sub-division is indifferent on the whole

though in some favoured spots as near Alsunda water is found near the surface. Towards the Bhima the wells are very deep.

In the neighbourhood of the central range of hills the soil is of the poorest description. Towards the Bhima river it is chiefly a deep stiff clay *munjal* abundant in stones; in the Sina valley though not differing materially in texture it contains fewer stones. In the south-east near the towns of Karjat and Koregaon there are lighter soils of a better description but taking it as a whole the sub-division is a very poor one.

The rainfall is extremely uncertain and good harvests are rare. The following statement gives the rainfall during the eleven years ending 1884:

Karjat Rainfall, 1874-1881.

Month.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
January	0.30
February	0.05	0.60
March
April	...	0.30	0.53
May	1.20	1.60	1.16	...	0.60	2.40	...
June	4.90	3.45	6.15	10.79	1.18	3.44	1.95	5.41	4.20	12.30	2.12
July	4.60	1.10	...	0.43	11.81	8.16	2.27	1.74	1.87	1.25	2.82
August	...	5.85	...	4.96	8.44	5.43	0.50	3.52	7.23	7.97	2.87
September	11.60	3.90	0.55	9.67	4.63	0.05	10.48	6.69	17.35	10.10	3.50
October	2.20	2.26	3.01	3.06	4.13	1.14	0.10	3.96	1.71
November	0.35	0.40	1.14	0.63	3.50	2.75	0.30	0.30	...
December	0.59	0.41
Total	24.80	14.60	6.70	30.00	30.74	22.47	24.19	21.25	32.11	33.28	13.2

Of 115,749 acres the actual area under cultivation, grain crops occupied 87,310 acres or 75.43 per cent, of which 23,654 were under spiked millet *bajri* *Penicillaria spicata*; 60,408 under Indian millet *javari* *Sorghum vulgare*; 2194 under wheat *gahu* *Triticum aestivum*; six under *ragi* or *nachni* *Eleusine corocana*; 244 under rice *bhat* *Oryza sativa*; 154 under chenna *siva* *Panicum miliaceum*; 61 under maize *makka* *Zea mays*; 18 under barley *jav* *Hordeum hexastichon*; and 571 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 14,992 acres or 12.95 per cent, of which 2969 were under gram *harbhara* *Cicer arietinum*; 7339 under *kulith* or *kulthi* *Dolichos biflorus*; 2240 under *tur* *Cajanus indicus*; 454 under *mug* *Phaseolus radiatus*; one under *udid* *Phaseolus mungo*, one under peas *vataana* *Pisum sativum*; and 1988 under other pulses. Oil-seeds occupied 10,384 acres or 8.97 per cent, of which 611 were under gingelly seed *til* *Sesamum indicum*; 413 under linseed *alshi* *Linum usitatissimum*; and 9360 under other oil-seeds. Fibres occupied 2149 acres or 1.85 per cent, of which 277 were under cotton *kapus* *Gossypium herbaceum*, and 1872 under Bombay hemp *san* or *tag* *Crotalaria juncea*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 914 acres or 0.78 per cent, of which 199 were under tobacco *tambaku* *Nicotiana tabacum*; 401 under chillies *mirchi* *Capsicum frutescens*; 184 under sugarcane *us* *Saccharum officinarum*; 11 under hemp *ganja* *Cannabis sativa*, and the remaining 119 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 34,820 people 33,488 or 96.17 per cent were Hindus and 1332 or 3.82 per cent Musalmans.

Chapter XIII. Sub-Divisions.

KARJAT.
Soil.

Rainfall.

Crops.

People.

Chapter XIII.
Sub-Divisions.

KARJAT.
People.

The details of the Hindu castes are : 1465 Bráhmans ; 4 Káyasth Prabhus, writers ; 1002 Osvál Márwáris and 210 Sansári Jangams, traders and merchants ; 14,375 Kunbis, 2076 Mális, 218 Rajputs, and 11 Bangars, husbandmen ; 478 Telis, oil-pressers ; 397 Sonárs, goldsmiths ; 343 Sutárs, carpenters ; 304 Shimpis, tailors ; 234 Kumbhárs, potters ; 232 Koshtis, weavers ; 185 Lohárs, blacksmiths ; 172 Vadárs, diggers ; 113 Sális, weavers ; 106 Kásárs, brass-makers ; 85 Gavandis, masons ; 71 Kaikádis, basket-makers ; 36 Lingáyat Buruds, basket-makers ; 24 Tábats, copper-smiths ; 22 Ghisádis, wandering blacksmiths ; 17 Nirális, indigo-dyers ; 16 Lonárs, lime-burners ; 11 Jingars, saddle-makers ; and 3 Otáris, casters ; 176 Guravs, priests ; 35 Ghadshis, musicians ; 443 Nhávis, barbers ; 214 Parits, washermen ; 4084 Dhangars, cow-men ; 178 Gavlis, cow-keepers ; 130 Vanjáris, caravan-men ; 40 Bhois, fishers ; 2402 Mhárs, labourers ; 1661 Mángs, messengers ; 664 Chámhára, shoemakers ; and 232 Dhors, tanners ; 91 Gosávis ; 67 Takáris, 71 Joshis, 37 Chitrakathis, 18 Gondhlis, and 6 Gopáls, beggars ; 304 Kolis, 262 Rámoshis, 111 Bharádis, 41 Tirmális, and 11 Ráváls, unsettled tribes.

Roads.

Twenty-six miles of the local fund road from Ahmadnagar to Karmála lie in the Karjat sub-division. This road has a direction generally parallel to the river Sina. The only place of importance on it is the town of Mirajgaon thirty-two miles south of Ahmadnagar. At the twenty-third mile is a branch road running south to the town of Karjat and thence through Rásin to the Diksál station on the Peninsula Railway distant twenty-five miles from Karjat and five miles south of the Bhima river. The road from Karjat to Shrigonda, the adjacent sub-divisional town on the west, is twenty-two miles. It passes through the villages of Vadgaon-tampura four miles and Kuldharan ten miles, and enters the Shrigonda sub-division at the fourteenth mile. About twenty miles of the Kharda-Káshti road lie in the Karjat sub-division, entering from the Jámkhed sub-division at a point on the banks of the Sina river about twelve miles north-east of Karjat. This road crosses the Karmála road at the village of Jalgaon and passing west through the villages of Chincholi-Káldánt and Valvad, enters the Shrigonda sub-division near the village of Rni-gavhán.

Markets.

The following statement gives a list of the places where weekly markets are held :

Karjat Markets.

PLACE.	Day.
Mirajgaon	Wednesday.
Karjat	Saturday.
Rásin	Tuesday.

Of these the principal one is at Mirajgaon a town belonging to the Nimbálkar family and is largely attended by dealers in grain, cloth, and livestock. Rásin is a somewhat decayed town once of considerable importance belonging to the family of Kávi Jang, and neither at Rásin nor at Karjat are the transactions extensive or of more than local interest. In good seasons grain and vegetable oils are exported to Ahmadnagar, Poona, and elsewhere. The imports

are the usual necessities of life, salt, raw-sugar or *gul*, and rice, but the general poverty of the inhabitants does not admit of a very brisk trade being carried on even in such articles.

There are about 135 looms worked in the sub-division, principally in the market towns of Karjat, Rásin, and Mirajgaon for the manufacture of a coarse strong cloth and woollen blankets which are sold locally. With this exception there are no manufactures worthy of note.

Survey rates were first introduced in 1852-53. For assessment purposes the sixty-eight Government villages of Korti which are now in Karjat were divided into three classes. The first class comprised eight villages in the Sina valley in the extreme north of the sub-division where the maximum dry-crop rate imposed was 2*s.* (Re. 1) an acre. The second comprised thirteen villages also in the Sina valley, but south-east of those in the first class, and on these a maximum rate of 1*s.* 9*d.* (14 *as.*) an acre was imposed. With these was also included one village on the opposite side of the hills and in the valley of the Bhima. The third class embraced two groups one of nineteen villages still further down the Sina valley and the other of twenty-seven villages in the Bhima valley on which a maximum dry-crop rate of 1*s.* 6*d.* (12 *as.*) an acre was fixed. The average incidence of these rates, 6½*d.* (4½ *as.*) an acre on all cultivated lands is about eighteen per cent lower than that of the average rates paid prior to the introduction of the survey.

Karjat suffered very severely in the 1876-77 famine when many villages were entirely deserted. The cultivators, owing to a long succession of bad harvests, are wretchedly poor and nearly all heavily in debt. The soil is for the most part very unproductive and the rainfall is extremely uncertain. Under such circumstances, prosperity can hardly be expected. The Karjat sub-division is, in fact, one of the poorest tracts in the Deccan.

The villages now forming Karjat were for the most part originally in the old sub-division of Korti which, in 1851-52, consisted of 137 villages, 106 Government and thirty-one alienated, under the management of a *mámlatdár* stationed at Karjat and a *mahálkari* stationed at Korti. In 1859 nine outlying villages were transferred to Karmála now in Sholápur, one to Jámkhed, and one to Shevgaon. In 1861-62 the *mahálkari*'s appointment was abolished and all the villages, except those which were transferred to Sirur in place of others received, were placed under the *mámlatdár*, the name of the sub-division being changed to Karjat. In 1866-67, when the Sirur sub-division was abolished, forty-four of its villages were added to Karjat which parted with sixteen of its southernmost villages to Karmála; the total number of 159 villages were then formed into the Shrigonda sub-division, Karjat becoming the station of a *mahálkari* subordinate to Shrigonda. This arrangement lasted till 1868-69 when eighty-two of the villages were made into a separate sub-division with its head-quarters at Karjat. Of these eighty-two villages seventy-two now belong to Government and ten are partially or wholly alienated.

The principal *jágirdárs* are the Nimbálkar family and the descendants of Kávi Jang, the commandant of the fort of Ahmadnagar, through whose treachery it fell into the hands of the Peshwa in 1759.

Chapter XIII. Sub-Divisions.

KARJAT.
Crafts.

Survey.

Condition.

Changes.

Chapter XIII.
Sub-Divisions.

The following is a nominal list of the villages which shows to which of the ancient *tarafs* each belonged :

Karjat Villages, 1883.

KARJAT.
Changes.

VILLAGE.*	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.
Karjat. Chande-Khurd. Dikali. Hingangaon. Ambi-jalgaon. Baradgaon. Alsunde. Khatgaon-vágha. Malkhan. Bábhulgaon. Chuncholi-káldánt. Supe. Valvad. Durgaoan. Kuldharan. Dudhodi. Táju. Belvandi. Berdi. Nimgaon-dáku. Chande-Budruk. Siddhtek.1 Malangi.1	Kadevalit twenty-three villages.	Maht. Belgaon. Khandvi. Kokangaon. Mándli. Thergaon. Guro-pimpri. Jalgaon. Godardi. Kaundana. Tikhi.1 Mirajgaon.1	Mandgaon seventeen villages—contd.	Rásin.1 Karpadi. Sipore. Akboni. Yesavdi. Bháradgaon-dagdi. Talavadi. Rakshasvadi-Budruk. Rakshasvadi-Khurd. Dhalavadi. Pimpalvadi. Kopardi. Nandgaon. Vadgaon-tanpara. Thervadi. Kolvadi. Kumbephal. Nimbe. Chilvadi. Benvadi.	Ráan twenty villages.
Ghumri. Ravalgaon. Chinboli-ramján. Nimgaon-gangarda. Nagamthan.		Mandgaon 17 villages		Nimbodi. Patevadi. Koregaon. Khed. Bhámbore. Sinde. Chápadgaon. Loni-masadpur. Dighi. Panch-pimpale. Tákti-khandeshvari. Bábhulgaon.1 Khandla.1 Pategaon.1 Jalápur.1 Ringaván.1	
				Rehekari. Taradgaon. Rátanjan. Nagalvadi.	Ashti four villages.

* In this list villages with 1 after their names are alienated.

KOPARGAON.

Kopargaon, the most northerly sub-division, is bounded on the north by the Násik sub-division of Yeola, on the east by the Nizam's territory, on the south-east by Nevása, on the south by Ráhuri and Sangamner, and on the west by Sangamner and the Sinnar sub-division of Násik. Its length and breadth are about twenty-seven miles each and it comprises 125 villages in an area of 511 square miles. In 1881 its population was 63,789 or 124 to the square mile, and in 1882-83 the land revenue amounted to £21,786 (Rs. 2,17,860).

Area.

Of an area of 511 square miles, 509 have been surveyed in detail. Of these 4283 acres are the lands of alienated villages. The rest includes 290,874 or 90·37 per cent of arable land; 17,588 acres or 5·46 per cent of unarable; 269 or 0·08 per cent of grass or *kuran*; 2988 or 0·92 per cent of forest reserves; and 10,116 or 3·14 per cent of village sites, roads, and river beds. From the 290,874 acres of arable land 21,636 or 7·43 per cent have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages. Of 269,238 acres the actual area of arable Government land, 254,274 acres or 94·44 per cent were in 1882-83 held for tillage. Of these 244,979 acres were dry-crop and 9295 acres were watered garden land.

Aspect.

Kopargaon consists of a black soil plain having a gentle slope from both sides towards the river Godávári which flows through the centre of it. There are no hills, and, except on the banks of the river and in the neighbourhood of the more favoured villages it is bare of trees.

Soil.

The black soil is of various depths, the most fertile being in the central and south-western villages. In the north-east there is a good deal of poor land intersected by small streams. On the whole

however the fertility of the sub-division is above the average of the district.

The Godávári entering at the extreme north-west corner traverses the sub-division completely, flowing thence into the adjacent sub-division of Nevása. The bed of the river is for the most part considerably below the general level of the country and the high black soil and clay banks are deeply fissured by the numerous minor streams which drain the sub-division. In the hot weather the Godávári dwindles to a mere thread of running water which in places even disappears beneath the sandy bed. Here and there however deep pools of water formed by natural dams of rock across the river bed are met with and, in these fish usually abound. In places, notably near Mánjur and Kokamthán, the banks of the river are thickly fringed with fine *búbhul* trees. The chief tributaries of the Godávári are the Gui, the Agasti, the Narandi, and the Kol on the left bank, and on the right bank the Jhám and the Kát. The Jhám rises in the Sanganner hills south-west of the town of Nimon, and after flowing through the Sinnar sub-division enters Kopargaon near the village of Madhi and falls into the Godávári three miles above the town of Kopargaon, after a north-easterly course of about twenty-five miles. The Kát rises on the northern slopes of Dudheshvar, flows north-east and east entering Kopargaon by the village of Vake and passing up by the town of Ráháte it falls into the Godávári a mile above the town of Puntámba after a course of twenty-five miles. A short distance from its confluence with the Godávári it receives on the south the waters of the Kumbhár.

In most of the villages the people are dependent on wells for their water-supply as all but the largest tributaries of the Godávári run dry shortly after the monsoon rains have ceased. In the neighbourhood of this river the wells are of great depth, but near Ráháta and generally in the south of the sub-division water lies tolerably near the surface.

The rainfall is extremely uncertain: only in about one year out of every four it is satisfactory. Out of the eleven years ending 1884 six 1876, 1877, 1880, 1881, 1882 and 1884 have been seasons of partial or absolute famine. In 1874 the seed of the early crops was washed away, in 1875 excessive late rains produced a blight. In some parts, especially near Korhále, Khadke, and Vake there was little or no rain during the six years from 1876 to 1881. The following statement gives the monthly rainfall at Kopargaon during the eleven years ending 1884:

Kopargaon Rainfall, 1874-1884.

Month.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
January...	0·24	0·40
February...	0·28	...	0·20
March...	0·51
April...	0·50	0·28
May...	1·50	0·67	...	3·00	0·10	3·75
June...	12·98	8·00	4·30	3·92	1·41	5·30	4·69	2·65	9·44	7·92	1·70
July...	4·62	3·45	4·13	0·46	5·86	3·64	0·64	1·20	1·52	3·44	4·55
August...	0·39	7·11	1·25	0·77	7·55	2·56	...	0·30	0·10	7·16	2·01
September...	4·03	10·65	0·37	2·59	3·10	2·05	3·48	3·34	5·65	7·89	4·46
October...	0·35	0·16	...	3·92	1·04	4·89	3·93	0·15	...	7·01	2·79
November...	0·19	...	0·06	...	2·40	0·12	...
December...
Total	26·85	30·14	10·24	15·69	24·40	22·39	12·14	7·64	16·97	33·51	15·91

Chapter XIII. Sub-Divisions.

KOPARGAON.
Rivers.

Water.

Rainfall.

Chapter XIII.
Sub-Divisions.

KOPARGAON.
Cultivation.

The method of cultivation differs little from that obtaining in other parts of the district. The soil is usually ploughed every second or third year after a harvest of *bājri*. The lighter soils are not unfrequently ploughed every year, but the plough does not penetrate far beneath the surface. Considerable attention is given to manure which is sometimes even applied to dry crops. It is also a common practice to get a Dhangar to fold his flock on a field, the owner feeding him and his family while the flock remains there by way of payment. Irrigation is carried on almost entirely from wells, there being only four temporary dams on perennial streams which water an area of some sixty acres.

Crops.

Of 198,982 acres the actual area under cultivation in 1881-82 grain crops occupied 186,399 acres or 93·67 per cent, of which 70,027 were under spiked millet *bājri* *Penicillaria spicata*; 58,690 under Indian millet *javari* *Sorghum vulgare*; 57,547 under wheat *gahu* *Triticum æstivum*; 118 under maize *makka* *Zea mays*; and 17 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 9528 acres or 4·78 per cent, of which 8771 were under gram *harbhara* *Cicer arietinum*; 86 under *kulith* or *kulthi* *Dolichos biflorus*; 568 under *tur* *Cajanus indicus*; 21 under *mug* *Phaseolus radiatus*, and 82 under other pulses. Oil-seeds occupied 506 acres or 0·25 per cent, of which 61 were under gingelly seed *til* *Sesamum indicum*; 313 under linsced *alshi* *Linum usitatissimum*, and 132 under other oil-seeds. Fibres occupied 80 acres or 0·04 per cent, of which 50 were under cotton *kāpus* *Gossypium herbaceum*; 12 under Bombay hemp *san* or *tāg* *Crotalaria juncea*; and 18 under brown hemp *ambādi* *Hibiscus cannabinus*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 2469 acres or 1·24 per cent, of which 1202 were under tobacco *tambāku* *Nicotiana tabacum*; 756 under chillies *mirchi* *Capsicum frutescens*; 178 under sugarcane *us* *Saccharum officinarum*; 54 under hemp *gānja* *Cannabis sativa*, and the remaining 299 under various vegetables and fruits.

People.

The 1881 population returns show that of 63,789 people 61,014 or 95·69 per cent were Hindus; 2695 or 4·22 per cent Musalmāns; 46 Christians, and 4 Jews. The details of the Hindu castes are: 3000 Brāhmāns; 1213 Osvāl Mārwaris, 105 Meshri Mārwaris, 78 Komtis, 71 Sansāri Jangams, and 39 Gujarāt Jains, traders and merchants; 31,538 Kunbis, 2587 Mālis, 237 Rajputs, 42 Bangars, and 10 Pahādis, husbandmen; 1076 Sonārs, goldsmiths; 847 Sutārs, carpenters; 687 Kumbhārs, potters; 630 Telis, oil-pressers; 462 Lohārs, blacksmiths; 250 Shimpis, tailors; 240 Kāsārs, brass-makers; 139 Gavandis, masons; 132 Sālis, weavers; 54 Lonāris, lime-burners; 37 Vadārs, earth diggers; 35 Koshtis, weavers; 27 Tāmbats, coppersmiths; 14 Kaikādis, basket-makers; 10 Lingāyat Buruds, basket-makers; 6 Khatris, weavers; 6 Jingars, saddle-makers; 4 Otāris, casters; 166 Guravs, priests; 727 Nhāvis, barbers; 434 Parits, washermen; 3201 Dhangars, cowmen; 11 Khātiks, butchers; 2 Gavlis, cowkeepers; 1337 Vanjāris, caravan-men; 320 Kāhārs, fishers; 17 Lamāns, carriers; 5663 Mhārs, labourers; 1415 Māngs, messengers; 1210 Chāmbhārs, shoemakers; 120 Dhors, tanners; 3 Bhangis, sweepers; 464 Gosāvis, 92 Mānbhāvs, 25 Kolhātis, 22 Gondhlis, and 4 Joskis, beggars; 1609 Bhils, 457 Kolis, 73 Rāmōshis, 52 Bharādis, 27 Tirmālis, and 15 Rāvāls, unsettled tribes.

Chapter XIII.
Sub-Divisions.

KOPARGAON.
Roads.

Kopargaon until quite recently possessed only one made-road, the old military route from Ahmadnagar to Málegaon now maintained from provincial funds. This road enters the Kopargaon sub-division in the forty-fifth mile from Ahmadnagar near the village of Ashtágaon and passing through the villages of Ráháta 49 miles, Shirdi 52½ miles, Nighoj-Nimgaon 54 miles, Kopargaon 60½-miles, and Yesgaon 65 miles, enters the Yeola sub-division of Násik in the sixty-seventh mile. The Godávári river at Kopargaon is crossed by a wire rope ferry. The country being very flat enjoys the advantage of numerous good fair weather tracks connecting the villages with each other and bringing them within easy reach of the chief markets of the district.

After the construction of the railway, however, the question of making good roads between the various stations and the larger trade centres arose and a scheme of feeder roads was accordingly drawn up and sanctioned by Government. Of these roads the following are now in course of construction or completed. From Belápur station to the town of Belápur in the neighbouring sub-division of Ráhuri; from the same station to the provincial high road, passing through the villages of Mamdápur, Rájuri, and Bábleshvar, and thence on to the Sangamner village of Loni, thus forming a complete line of communication between the railway and the important town of Sangamner; from Chitali station to Ráháta, a centre of the grain trade, through the village Ekrukh; and from Kopargaon station to the sub-divisional town.

The Dhond and Manmád State Railway traverses the sub-division from south to north. Entering near the village of Sirasgaon, it winds along a ridge of *mál* or upland passing between the villages of Chitali and Jalgaon and reaches the Godávári at Puntámba. The river is crossed on a fine masonry arch below the town. Passing up by the town of Vári the line suddenly bends to the west and then sharply turning again northwards by the village of Singnápuri, it crosses the provincial high-road and enters the Yeola sub-division. The stations are Belápur, near the village of Gondavni; Chitali, between the villages Chitali and Jalgaon; Puntámba; Sanvatsar; and Kopargaon, at the village of Singnápuri about two miles from the sub-divisional town. The exports of grain from the Puntámba station during the year 1880 amounted to 1175 tons.

Railway.

The following is a statement of the villages where weekly markets are held:

Markets.

Kopargaon Markets.

PLACE.	Day.	PLACE.	Day.
Mamdápur ...	Saturday.	Puntámba ...	Monday.
Kopargaon ...	Monday.	Korhála ...	Sunday.
Ráháta ...	Thursday.	Undirgaon ...	Friday.

Mamdápur is the chief cattle market within a radius of some thirty miles and the weekly transactions are estimated at about £70 (Rs. 700). The price of a pair of bullocks for agricultural purposes ranges from £2 10s. to £6 (Rs. 25-60); of a buffalo from £2 to £4 10s. (Rs. 20-45), of a cow from £1 to £2 (Rs. 10-20), and of a pony or galloway from £1 to £7 10s. (Rs. 10-75). Sheep and goats fetch from 2s. to 10s. (Rs. 1-5) each. The markets of Belápur in the Ráhuri sub-division and of Vihirgaon in the Nizám's territory are visited by neighbouring Kopargaon cultivators.

Chapter XIII.

Sub-Divisions.

KOPARGAON.

Survey.

The manufactures of the sub-division are few and unimportant. Cotton cloth and woollen blankets are woven in the towns and larger villages, and a small quantity of saltpetre is extracted from white earth dug out chiefly from the basement of old mud walls and ruined houses.

Survey rates were first introduced into the village of Sāngvibhusar in 1841-42 when it belonged to the Niphād sub-division. In 1844-45 the survey was introduced into thirty-eight villages, in 1846-47 into fifty-three others, in 1849-50 into the seventeen villages subsequently transferred from Rāhūri, in 1851-52 in six others, and at various other times into seven others. The chief of Vinchur objects to the introduction of the survey into his three villages. The maximum dry-crop rate was fixed at 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) an acre and the average rate amounted to 1s. 5½d. (11½ as.) an acre being a reduction of about forty-four per cent on the rates ruling previous to the survey. Revised rates have now been introduced into 115 of the villages. With the exception of Sāngvibhusar where on revision the maximum rate was raised to 3s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) an acre, the maximum dry-crop rate in the sub-division is 3s. (Rs. 1½) an acre which rules in twenty villages situated for the most part on either side of the Mālegaon road from the southern boundary of the sub-division up to and including the town of Kopargaon. Two villages in the extreme south-west of the sub-division also come under this class. The next maximum rate is 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1½) which rules in thirty-nine villages, of which twenty-three are adjacent on both sides to those in the first class and sixteen are in the south-east abutting on the Rāhūri sub-division. The next maximum rate is 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) which was adopted in forty-three villages, of which seven are in the south-east abutting on the Nevāsa sub-division and the Nizām's territory and thirty-six are in the north-west and north, on the banks of the Godāvāri and adjacent to the Yeola sub-division. Another group of seven villages north-east of the town of Kopargaon has a maximum rate of 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) an acre and finally three villages in the extreme north-east have a maximum of 2s. (Rs. 1). The original settlement rates are still current (1882) in seven villages. The general result of this revision is an average enhancement of thirty-two per cent on the original survey rates.

The cultivators of Kopargaon are in a very impoverished condition attributable doubtless in a great measure to the frequent occurrence of bad seasons. Year by year the rainfall seems to become more uncertain; sudden and violent showers which deluge the country are often succeeded by a long and continued drought; at one time the seed when sown is washed out of the ground, at another it withers after germination. The late rains especially are no longer to be depended on, a circumstance which seems to account for the large area now sown with *bājri* as compared with that of former years.

Changes.

About half the villages now forming Kopargaon belonged to the old sub-division of Pátoda which was broken up in 1861-62. Pátoda was composed of two *parganás*, Pátoda and Kumbhāri. Pátoda was the charge of a *mámlatdār* who had his head-quarters at Yeola, and Kumbhāri that of a *mahálkari* stationed at Kopargaon. Kumbhāri consisted of a narrow strip of country on each side of the

river Godávári and comprised, in 1850, thirty-two Government and two alienated villages. Pátoda lay to the north of Kumbhári extending as far as the Khándesh boundary and comprised 157 Government and sixty-four alienated villages. The total area of both *parganás* was about 912 square miles. On the splitting up, in 1860-61, of this large sub-division, which was found too unwieldy for administrative purposes, thirty Kumbhári villages, twenty-nine of them Government and one alienated, and thirty-two Pátoda villages, twenty-nine of them Government and three alienated were taken to form the new Kopargaon sub-division. To these sixty-two villages were added; seventeen, those in the Bellápur *taraf* in the following list, from Ráhuri; thirty-seven, those in the Korhále and Devpur *tarafs*, from Sinnar; six, those in the Vaijápur *taraf*, from Nevása; one, Ranjángaon-Khurd from Sangamner; and two, those in the Chándvad *pargana* from Chándvad; making a total of 125 villages of which 119 belong to Government and six are wholly alienated. The following statement gives the names of the villages:

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KOPARGAON.
Changes.

Kopargaon Villages, 1883.

VILLAGE*	Pargana or Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Pargana or Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Pargana or Taraf.
Kopargaon. Karanji-Budruk. Sanvatsar. Vári. Singva. Sada. Koksmthán. Jeur. Dunch-Khurd. Ghári. Dunch-Budruk. Hingni. Murshatpur. Dhárangaon. Kumbhári. Sonári. Mahegaon. Kolgaon. Sháhápur. Suregaon. Velápur. Morves. Manjur. Handevádi. Baktarpur. Vadgaon. Chás. Pimpalvádi.1 Puntámba. Ráháta.	Pargana Kumbhári thirty villages.	Tilavni. Ukadgaon. Apegaon. Talegaon-male. Ghoyegaon. Godhegaon. Lauki. Dhotra. Khopadi. Bhojádé. Kánhegaon. Dahigaon-bodka. Dhamori.1 Nátegaon.1 Chandgavhán.1	Pargana Pátoda thirty-two villages—contd.	Dorhále. Nimgaon. Nighoj. Savalvihir-Budruk. Savalvihir-Khurd. Kasare. Chánde. Hinganvedhe. Derde-kolár. Madhi-Budruk. Madhi-Khurd. Válki. Pohegaon-Budruk. Ránjangaon. Anjanápur. Mahegaon. Pohegaon Khurd.1	Taraf Korhále thirty villages—contd.
Jeur. Máyeagaon. Málegaon-thadi. Raunde. Bráhmangaon. Táklí. Yesgaon. Khirdi-ganesh. Achalgaon. Ogadi. Bolki. Shingnápuri. Padhegaon-Budruk. Padhegaon-Khurd. Káli. Sávalgaon. Siraagaon.		Pargana Pátoda thirty-two villages.		Undirgaon. Bráhmangaon-retál. Gondavne. Ránjankhol. Khandále. Dighi. Khairgaon. Nimgaon. Gondegaon. Chitali. Jalgaon. Vákadi. Nándur-Budruk. Mamdápur. Rájuri. Shirasgaon. Nándur-Khurd.1	
			Astágaon. Váki. Khadke. Pimplas. Sákuri. Dahigaon. Korhále. Nándurkhi-Budruk. Nándurkhi-Khurd. Biregaon. Rui. Shirdhi. Kankuri.	Taraf Korhále thirty villages.	Mátalthan. Náygaon. Jafirabad. Náur. Rámpur. Malevadi.
					Sángvibhusar. Derde-chándvad.
				Ránjangaon-Khurd.	Pargana Sangamner one village.

* In this list villages with 1 after their names are alienated.

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NAGAR.

Nagar, one of the central sub-divisions, is bounded on the north by Ráhuri and Nevása, on the east by Shevgaon and the Nizám's territory, on the south by Shrigonda, and on the west by Párner. Its greatest length is thirty-five and breadth thirty miles. It comprises 117 villages in an area of 619 square miles. In 1881 the population was 108,950 inclusive of the town of Ahmadnagar, which, with the military cantonment, contained 87,492 souls or 176 to the square mile, and in 1882-83 the land revenue amounted to £13,561 (Rs. 1,35,610).

Area.

Of an area of 619 square miles, 548½ have been surveyed in detail. Of these 33,794 acres are the lands of alienated villages. The rest includes 236,378 acres or 74·53 per cent of arable land; 29,576 acres or 9·32 per cent of unarable; 75 or 0·02 per cent of grass or *kuran*; 34,336 or 10·82 per cent of forest reserves; and 16,786 or 5·29 per cent of village sites, roads, and river beds. From the 236,378 acres of arable land, 22,903 or 9·68 per cent have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages. Of 213,475 acres, the actual area of arable Government land, 202,401 acres or 94·81 per cent were in 1882-83 held for tillage. Of these 196,844 acres were dry-crop and 5557 acres were watered garden land.

Aspect.

The general appearance of Nagar is that of high table-land lying between the Godávári and the Bhima. On the north, north-east, and east the sides of this table-land where it faces the Mula and Godávári rivers are precipitous and wall-like rising several hundred feet above the elevated country they enclose. On the west and south-west in the direction of the Bhima the hills are of less height and the country is more broken. From the head of the table-land in a south-easterly direction flows the Sina gradually converging towards the Bhima which it ultimately joins. On the banks of the Sina in the centre of this table-land stands the city of Ahmadnagar at a height of 2180 feet above the sea and some 400 feet above the country lying to the north-east in the valley of the Godávári below.

Three Nagar villages however, those in Shirál taraf, Sonai, Miri, and Tisgaon, are situated below the table-land and geographically seem to belong to the Nevása and Shevgaon sub-divisions, from which in fact they were transferred in 1861-62. The sub-division is very scantily wooded. Near Ahmadnagar, however, especially in the neighbourhood of the ruined Muhammadan palaces there are groves of fine old tamarind, mango, and other trees said to have been planted by the orders of Salábat Khán, minister of Murtaza Nizám Sháh I. (1565-1588); also round the fort are many *bábhul* *Acacia arabica* trees, though these are of comparatively recent date. Near Vilad, a village in the extreme north, there is a fine grove of mango trees and other instances might be given, but as a whole the country is extremely bare, a state of things doubtless partly due to the large demand for firewood in the city and cantonment of Ahmadnagar. The most striking hills in the range on the north and east are the peak of Gorakhnáth 2982 feet; the Mánjarsumbha hill which rises above the Happy Valley or Dongargaon glen; the crescent-shaped plateau surrounding the village of Agadgaon, which has an elevation of 3192 feet; and the hill on which Salábat Khán's tomb stands 3080 feet.

There is a considerable proportion of poor soil in the Nagar sub-division, but in the neighbourhood of the city and in many of the minor valleys deep *munjal* or reddish soils are met with. Some of these however, especially in the neighbourhood of the Sina, are stiff and they not only require much labour in their cultivation but yield good returns only in seasons of abundant and favourable rain.

The Sina river has three chief sources, two in the hills of the north-east in the village lands of Jeur and Pimpalgaon-Ujani, and the third in the Párner hills of the west in the village land of Jámgaon. The first two streams unite some three miles above the city of Ahmadnagar and the third joins them $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles further down. Their united waters are further reinforced by the Khokar river on the right and the Bhingár stream or *nála* on the left bank below the city. Other minor tributaries on the right bank are the Mendka, the Válumbta, the Bagri, and the Sodala. The Mehkri river rises in the hilly country on the east and flowing southward chiefly through the Nizám's territory, past the Jámkhed town of Kade, falls into the Sina. Those of the Nagar villages which lie on the northern and eastern slopes of the chief range of hills, as well as those in the country below, are watered by streams flowing into the Mula, the Pravara, and the Godávári rivers.

The climate of Nagar varies considerably. The rainfall at Ahmadnagar itself and within a radius of six to eight miles is less than in the villages on the extreme north, north-east, and east of the sub-division where the country is hilly. On the whole Nagar is more favoured than Nevása and Ráhuri on the north and Shrigonda on the south, but its climate is decidedly inferior to Shevgaon on the east. The following statement gives the monthly rainfall during the eleven years ending 1884 :

Nagar Rainfall, 1874-1884.

MONTH.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
January	0·17	0·30
February	0·09	...	0·11
March ...	0·18	0·13	...	0·16	0·08
April ...	0·24	0·28	...	0·15	0·86	0·13	0·18	...	1·9
May ..	3·53	0·14	...	0·94	0·05	1·69	0·55	0·21	1·40	0·67	...
June ..	3·56	1·73	3·24	9·93	1·64	5·63	0·84	2·76	4·32	10·70	0·79
July ..	5·62	2·00	2·30	0·49	4·06	8·33	2·89	1·88	1·82	1·82	1·84
August ..	2·03	4·13	1·23	3·63	8·54	6·36	1·40	2·28	1·77	8·33	7·11
September ...	13·85	8·94	1·82	4·51	6·78	1·15	10·99	8·75	10·26	10·90	4·93
October ...	2·42	1·00	0·09	2·73	2·66	5·20	2·38	1·15	...	8·14	5·11
November ..	0·06	0·60	0·26	0·42	0·22	0·20	1·11	0·85	1·87	1·31	...
December	1·41	...	0·11	0·08
Total ..	30·99	19·82	8·99	23·33	24·81	28·67	20·16	18·09	21·20	41·87	21·22

Like many other Muhammadan cities Ahmadnagar is supplied with water by means of underground masonry aqueducts which convey it from reservoirs situated in the surrounding higher country. These were for the most part constructed in the time of the Nizám Sháhi kings (1390-1636) and though some of them are ruined and out of use, the majority are in good order and afford an ample supply of pure water to the city, the cantonment, and the town of Bhingár. The Sháhápúr aqueduct conveys water from two tanks at the foot of Salábat Khán's hill formed by dams thrown over

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streams rising on the hill slopes. The Bhingár, Nágábái, and Kápurvádi aqueducts drain the water from masonry reservoirs sunk in the ground in the neighbourhood of Kápurvádi a hamlet three miles north-east of Bhingár. Each of these has several branches and the Kápurvádi aqueduct is further reinforced from a masonry reservoir at Várulvádi which was opened up and repaired during the famine of 1876-77. The Vadgaon aqueduct has its rise near a village of that name, five miles north of the city, and the Ánandi aqueduct drains the nearer country between the city and the Behisht-bág. As the aqueducts follow the contours of the ground their actual length is considerably more than the direct distance from their sources. The water is conveyed over stream or *nála* beds by inverted syphons and where solid rock is encountered the aqueducts take the form of deep cuttings roofed with masonry slabs. The course of all these aqueducts is marked by the numerous vents or air-shafts which may be observed dotted over the country. The lands of the Ferrah and Behisht-bágs or gardens are irrigated by surplus water from the aqueducts.

Cultivation.

Garden lands are generally manured as also shallow dry-crop soils are occasionally, but not those of greater depth. The fields in the neighbourhood of the city are, as a rule, well cultivated but in Nagar, as throughout the district, it often happens that the land is not prepared when the first rains fall and a delay of two or three days at the sowing season often proves fatal.

The area under *rabi* or late crop is to that under *kharif* or early crops as four to three. The garden cultivation of Nagar is principally well-irrigated. In some cases however the lands are irrigated either wholly or partly from the streams which rise on the slopes of the principal range of hills in the north-east. These streams are in places dammed up by temporary weirs of clay and branches, but the number of such dams does not exceed six nor does the area irrigated from them exceed 350 acres.

Irrigation.

The Bhátodi reservoir and canal were constructed by the Irrigation Department in 1877. The dam, which is of masonry, was built over the Mehkri river immediately below an earthen embankment, said to have been constructed by Salábat Khán the minister of Murtaza I. (1565-1588) which was either never completed or after completion was breached by a flood and not repaired. What was the original object of this dam will probably never be known. According to local tradition it was intended by its constructor to supply water to the Shevgaon town of Tisgaon, about sixteen miles north-east of Ahmadnagar, which was a favourite residence of Salábat Khán and where he planted the groves of mangoes and tamarinds which still give the town a beauty even in its decay. The main canal $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and the branch canals $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, in 1882-83 watered an area of 1023 acres. The revenue derived from all sources amounted to £400 (Rs. 4000).

Crops.

Of 182,004 acres the actual area under cultivation, in 1881-82 grain crops occupied 162,736 or 89.41 per cent, of which 65,694 were under spiked millet *bájrí* *Penicillaria spicata*; 86,902 under Indian millet *juári* *Sorghum vulgare*; 9882 under wheat *gahu* *Triticum æstivum* 129 under rice *bhát* *Oryza sativa*; 41 under barley *jav* *Hordeum*

hexastichon, and 88 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 10,662 acres or 5·85 per cent, of which 6577 were under gram *harbhara* *Cicer arietinum*; 1149 under *kulith* or *kulthi* *Dolichos biflorus*; 2248 under *tur* *Cajanus indicus*; 122 under *mug* *Phaseolus radiatus*; 41 under *udid* *Phaseolus mungo*; 31 under chickling-vetch *láng* *Lathyrus sativus*, and 494 under other pulses. Oil-seeds occupied 5296 acres or 2·90 per cent, of which 655 were under gingelly seed *til* *Sesamum indicum*; 638 under linseed *alshi* *Linum usitatissimum*; 17 under mustard *rái* *Sinapis racemosa*, and 3986 under other oil-seeds. Fibres occupied 505 acres or 0·27 per cent, of which 465 were under cotton *kápus* *Gossypium herbaceum* and 40 under Bombay hemp *san* or *táy* *Crotalaria juncea*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 2805 acres or 1·54 per cent of which 875 were under tobacco *tambáku* *Nicotiana tabacum*; 630 under chillies *mirchi* *Capsicum frutescens*; 444 under sugarcane *us* *Saccharum officinarum*; 388 under hemp *gánja* *Cannabis sativa*; and the remaining 468 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 108,950 people 97,029 or 89·05 per cent were Hindus; 9416 or 8·64 per cent Musalmáns; 2258 or 2·07 per cent Christians; 177 or 0·16 per cent Pársis; 61 Jews; 5 Buddhists; and 4 Sikhs. The details of the Hindu castes are: 6676 Bráhmans; 74 Káyasth Prabhus and 10 Pátáne Prabhus, writers; 2459 Osvál Márwáris, 649 Kunam Vánis, 328 Gujarát Vánis, 305 Sansári Jangams, 59 Lád Vánis, 54 Komtis, and 32 Meshri Márwáris, traders and merchants; 37,878 Kunbis, 6672 Mális, 882 Rajputs, and 18 Bangars, husbandmen; 3985 Sális and 2827 Koshtis, weavers; 1339 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 1097 Telis, oil-pressers; 920 Sutárs, carpenters; 602 Shimpis, tailors; 584 Kumbhárs, potters; 577 Vadárs, diggers; 523 Kásárs, brass-makers; 434 Lohárs, blacksmiths; 428 Nirális, indigo-dyers; 190 Lonáris, lime-burners; 185 Tábats, coppersmiths; 132 Kaikádis, basket-makers; 103 Jingars, saddle-makers; 100 Lingáyat Buruds, basket-makers; 82 Ghisádis, wandering blacksmiths; 61 Khatris, weavers; 58 Gavandis, masons; 39 Beldárs, quarrymen; 29 Lákheris lac-bracelet makers; 15 Pardeshi Halvais, confectioners; 10 Bhadbhunjá, grain-parchers; and 8 Otáris, casters; 263 Guravs, priests; 1105 Nhávis, barbers; 844 Parits, washermen; 2847 Dhangars, cowmen; 579 Gavlis, cow-keepers; 22 Khátiks, butchers; 3123 Vanjáris, caravan-men; 169 Kámáthis, labourers; 103 Lamáns, carriers; 97 Bhois, fishers; 9727 Mhárs, labourers; 2856 Mángs, messengers; 1900 Chámhárs, shoemakers; 412 Dhors, tanners; 145 Bhangis, sweepers; 291 Gosávis, 163 Mánbhávs, 127 Marátha Gopáls, 114 Kolhátis, 107 Chitrakathis, 73 Gondhlis, 65 Pánguls, 41 Sahadev Joshis, and 10 Takáris, beggars; 466 Rámoshis, 428 Bhils, 272 Kolis, 114 Tirmális, 78 Bharádis, 56 Rávals, and 8 Vaidus, unsettled tribes.

As most of the roads in the district converge to the city of Ahmadnagar, a large proportion of the total road mileage lies in this sub-division. Of provincial roads the Poona road, the only one bridged throughout, starts from the fort skirting the city on the south. Running in a south-westerly direction past the villages of Kedgaon

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3½ miles and Chás eight miles, it passes a low range of hills to the village of Kámargaon 12½ miles, and thence on to a plateau beyond which is the valley of the Hanga. The road enters the Párner subdivision in the fifteenth mile. The Dhond road branches off from the Poona road at the second mile from the fort. Passing in a southerly direction through the villages of Arangaon six miles and Khadki 10½ miles, it enters the Párner village of Hivra in the twelfth mile and thence into the Shrigonda sub-division. Before the railway was constructed this was the postal route to Poona and Bombay. The road was metalled during the 1876-77 famine, but has been little used since as the railway runs in the same direction. The Aurangabad or Toka road starts from the north-east gate of the city and passing up north by east near the villages of Shendi-Pokhardi five miles, Jeur 9½ miles, and Imámpur a hamlet of Jeur where there is a travellers' bungalow twelve miles, descends by the Imámpur pass to the valley of the Godávári. The road enters the Nevása sub-division in the seventeenth mile. The Paithan road branches from the Toka road at the fifteenth mile and running east through the villages of Khospuri sixteen miles and Pángarmal eighteen miles, enters Nevása in the twentieth mile. These four roads are all metalled. The Kopargaon-Manmád or Málegaon road leaves the city at the north gate and passes up north by west through the villages of Savedi two miles and Nágápur four miles. Thence in the seventh mile it descends to the valley of the Mula passing near Vilad nine miles, Dehera, where it crosses the railway twelve miles, Ismálpur and Singva where there is a travellers' bungalow fourteen miles, and thence through the village of Nándgaon fifteen miles, into the Ráhuri sub-division. This is only a *murum* road. Of local fund roads the Shevgaon road leaves the cantonment of Ahmadnagar on the south side of the town of Bhingár. It then runs due east past the hamlet of Sháhápur five miles, winds up the western slope of the hill range on which the tomb of Salábat Khán stands, crosses the Mehekri river which dammed up two miles below forms the Bhátodi tank, passes the village of Kandgaon 11½ miles, and then crossing a portion of the Nizám's territory, reaches at the fifteenth mile the eastern crest of the range below which is the Shevgaon sub-division in the valley of the Godávári. The descent is by an easy gradient for two miles. Passing on through the village of Karanji eighteen miles, the road enters the Shevgaon sub-division in the twenty-first mile. The Jámkhed road leaves the city at the south-east gate and passes out of the cantonment between the artillery and cavalry barracks. The villages on the route are Nimbodi four miles, Tákli seven miles, Dasmigavhán nine miles, Chichondi thirteen miles, and Atvád fifteen miles. The Nizám's territory is reached at the sixteenth mile. The Sholápur or Karmála road leaves the cantonment by the Motibág, passing thence between the artillery barracks and the Ferrahbág. The villages on the route are Shivadhon eight miles, where the Sina river is crossed, Dahigaon 9½ miles, Vátephal twelve miles, and Ruichhattishi fourteen miles. The road passes into the Shrigonda sub-division in the seventeenth mile. The Aná-ghát road starts from the right bank of the Sina river opposite the west or Nepti gate of the city. Passing due west

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Roads.

through the villages of Jakhangaon seven miles, and Khádgaon-Tákli 8½ miles, where a road branches off south-west to the Párner town of Jángaon, it enters the Párner sub-division in the tenth mile. The Dongargaon or Happy Valley road branches off from the Aurangabad road in a northerly direction in the seventh mile and reaches Dongargaon a village on the crest of the hill range at the eleventh mile. It then winds down the northern face of the range and enters the Ráhuri sub-division below at the twelfth mile. There are thus about forty miles of metalled, and eighty miles of *murum* road in the sub-division which are regularly repaired and kept in order.

Railway.

The Dhond and Manmád railway enters the sub-division on the south-west near the village of Akolner. It passes up by the village of Arangaon skirting the city of Ahmadnagar on the west. The station, mileage fifty-one from Dhond, is at the intersection of the line with the Poona road and distant 2½ miles from the fort. Leaving Ahmadnagar the line pursues a northerly winding course to the village of Nimblak at the head of the valley of the Dev river. Thence it descends into the Ráhuri sub-division passing the village of Vilad near which is a station, mileage sixty from Dhond. At the village of Nimbadehera it crosses the Kopargaon or Manmád road.

Markets.

Exclusive of the city of Ahmadnagar and the adjacent town of Bhingár there are three markets in the sub-division detailed below in the order of their importance :

Nagar Markets.

VILLAGE.	Day.
Válki... ..	Monday.
Jeur	Saturday.
Chunchondi (Shirál),	Monday.

The cattle mart of Válki is the largest in the centre of the district vying in importance with those of Kharda in the south and Mamdápúr in the north. The other two markets are of minor and merely local importance. Tuesday is the principal market day at Ahmadnagar and Friday at Bhingár.

Trade.

The trade of the sub-division is principally in the hands of bankers and moneylenders residing in Ahmadnagar. There are not however in the city many reputed wealthy firms, the principal trading houses being branch agencies of larger firms in other parts of the country.

Crafts.

In Ahmadnagar about 2000 looms and in the neighbouring town of Bhingár about 895 looms are worked in the manufacture of women's robes or *sádis* and other cotton cloths. The yarn now used is principally English. A few silk cloths are also made. There are about seventy looms in some of the outlying villages but their outturn is not extensive. There is also a large manufacture of brass cooking pots.

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NAGAR.
Survey.

Survey rates were introduced in Nagar in 1851-52. For assessment purposes the villages were divided into three classes with maximum dry-crop rates of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1 $\frac{3}{8}$), 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$), and 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1 $\frac{1}{8}$) respectively. The first class comprised a group of fifty villages extending across the sub-division from the Párner boundary on the south-west to the Nevása and Shevgaon boundaries on the north-east, and also the four villages in the north subsequently transferred from Ráhuri; the second class comprised twenty-one villages lying south of those in the central group, three villages to the north-west of it, and ten villages in the extreme north-east subsequently transferred from Nevása and Shevgaon; the third class comprised three villages south of the principal group in the second class, bordering on Shrigonda, three villages in the extreme north-west beyond those of the second class in that direction, and two villages in the north-east which had belonged to the *Sonai taraf* and were transferred from Nevása. Survey rates were also introduced into nine of the alienated villages. The average rate on lands cultivated in the year of settlement was, under this system, 1s. 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. (10 $\frac{5}{12}$ as.) an acre, a reduction of forty per cent on the rates formerly demanded. The term of thirty years having expired revised rates have been (1884) introduced.¹

Changes.

Like most of the other sub-divisions of the district Nagar has undergone numerous territorial changes since the commencement of the British rule. In 1818-19 it comprised seventy-one villages only; in 1837-38 it comprised 109. In 1851-52, eighty-five of these belonged to Government and twenty-four were alienated. In the following year two detached portions of garden land surrounding old Muhammadan places known as the Behisti-bág and the Ferrah-bág were entered in the records as separate villages thus bringing the total number up to 111. In 1861-62 on the general redistribution of villages throughout the district two villages were transferred to Párner, one to Jámkhed, three to Sangamner, and three to Ráhuri. In place of these, five villages three in *taraf* Baragaon-Nándur and two in *taraf* Ráhuri, were received from Ráhuri; three, two in *taraf* Miri and one in *taraf* Tisgaon from Shevgaon; and eleven, nine in *taraf* Shirál and two in *taraf* Sonái from Nevása. The number of villages thus stood at 121 until 1868-69 when on the sub-division of Shrigonda being formed six villages were transferred to it from Nagar. Finally in 1870 two villages, Bhátodi and Átvad, were received in exchange from the Nizám's government, thus bringing the number up to 117 of which ninety-eight belong to Government and nineteen are wholly, or partially alienated. Three of the alienated villages Dhámori, Nátegaon, and Chándgavhán belong to the chief of Vinchur. The following table gives a nominal list of the villages and shows to which of the ancient divisions each belonged :

¹ Details are given above under Land pp. 542-547.

Nagar Villages, 1883.

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Sub-Divisions.

NAGAR.
Changes.

VILLAGE.*	Taraf	VILLAGE.	Taraf	VILLAGE.	Taraf.
Bhingár. Kápurvádi. Sháhapur. Galunkhána. Nimbodi. Vakodi. Mahávida. Chahurana-Budruk. Chahurana-Khurd. Nálegaon. Bágroza. Marchudanagar. Savadi. Darevádi. Nágardevle.1 Behash-t-bág. Ferrah-bág.	Nagar Havell seventeen villages.	Pokhardi. Nágápur. Vadgaon Gupt. Pimpalgaon Lándga. Sonevádi.1 Isápur. Vaunj. Arangaon. Bolhevádi. Pumpalgaon Málvi. Agadgaon.1 Pimpalgaon Ujani.1 Akolner.1 Jám.1 Takil Kájl.1 Válkil. Deogaon.1 Chás.1 Bhatodi. A'tvad.	Pánde Pedgaon forty-seven villages.	Hivra-basár. Dongargaon. Mánjarsumbha. Ninggaon-vágha. Baburdi-bend. Jakhangon. Isiak. Ghanegaon.1 Sujalpur.1 Baburdi Gumat.1 Nimblak.1 Kedgaon.1	Pargana Páner twenty villages.
Khádke. Ránjani. Máthani. Ratadgaon. Mehekári. Sarole Badi. Dasmgavhán. Sándva. Ukadgaon. Naráyandoh. Shiradhon. Khádki. Khandále. Kamargaon. Buruigaon. Padampur. Nepti. Bolhegaon. Chichondi. Kandgaon. Madadgaon. Barevádi. Mándva. Párgaon Maná. Párgaon-Bhatodi. Jeur. Shendi.		Dahigaon. Ibrámpur. Rálegaon. Gunodi. Rui-chhattishi. Sákat. Hátvalan. Vadgaon. Tándli. Vátephal. Gundegaon. Mat Pimpri. Deulgaon Siddhi. Anubvádi.1		Shirái. Khosपुरi. Pángarmal. Chichondi. Vaiju-bábhulgaon. Kolhár. Chuncholl. Karanji.1 Ragho-hivra.1	
	Pánde Pedgaon forty-seven villages.		Mándogan fourteen villages.	Vanjoli. Gunjále.	Sonai.
				Khándgaon. Lohosar.	Miri.
				Bhosa.	Tisgaon.
	Pargana Páner twenty villages.		Pargana Páner twenty villages.	Vilad. Nándgaon.1	Ráhuri.
				Nimbadehera. Singva. Ismálpur.	Baregaon Mándur.

* Villages with 1 after their names are alienated.

Nevása, in the north-east of the district is bounded on the north by the Nizám's dominions, on the east and south-east by Shevgaon, on the south by Nagar, on the west by Ráhuri, and on the north-west by Kopargaon. Its length from north to south is twenty-eight and its breadth from east to west twenty-four miles. Its area is 607 square miles and it comprises 148 villages.¹ In 1881 the population was 78,158 or 128 to the square mile, and in 1882-83 the land revenue amounted to £13,071 (Rs. 1,30,710).

NEVÁSA.

Of an area of 607 square miles, 536 have been surveyed in detail. Of these 49,431 acres are the lands of alienated villages. The rest includes 268,930 acres or 91.49 per cent of arable land; 10,862 acres or 3.69 per cent of unarable; 2506 or 0.85 per cent of forest

Area.

¹ One village, Malunja Budruk, lies detached in the Nizám's territory twelve miles beyond the Godávári river. Negotiations are now (1882) pending with His Highness the Nizám for an exchange of this village with one of his lying south of the river and geographically belonging to the Nevása sub-division.

Chapter XIII.

Sub-Divisions.

NEVÁSA.

reserves; and 11,640 or 3·96 per cent of village sites, roads, and river beds. From the 268,930 acres of arable land, 16,808 or 6·24 per cent have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages. Of 252,122 acres, the actual area of arable Government land, 219,826 acres or 87·19 per cent were in 1882-83 held for tillage. Of these 217,458 acres were dry-crop and 2368 acres were watered garden land.

Aspect.

The general character of Nevása is a flat plain gently sloping northward towards the Godávári. In the south and south-east the country has a more decided slope up towards the Nagar range of hills and is deeply fissured by ravines down which during heavy rains the water rushes with great violence. Between the various streams which drain the country are slightly elevated tracts of *mál* or upland but which hardly change the generally level appearance of the sub-division. Nevása is on the whole very scantily wooded.

Rivers.

The drainage of Nevása is wholly towards the Godávári which forms an almost continuous boundary of the sub-division on the north. One village belonging to His Highness the Nizám lies south of the river thus breaking the continuous boundary for three miles. The bed of the river lies on an average from twenty to forty feet below the surrounding country, but in places as much even as from sixty to eighty feet. The chief tributary of the Godávári is the Pravara which enters the sub-division about seven miles west of the town of Nevása at its meeting with the Mula river. After flowing past the sub-divisional town the united streams fall into the Godávári by the villages of Toka and Pravara-Sangam. The Mula river forms for about ten miles the western boundary between Nevása and the neighbouring sub-division of Ráhuri. The Lendga, which with its minor tributaries drains a greater part of the western half of the sub-division, is formed by streams which have their rise in the Nagar range of hills on the south and after a northerly course of about twenty-five miles it joins the Pravara by the village of Khupti. The Dhor river, which also rises in the Nagar hills and falls into the Godávári near the town of Paithan, flows on the south-east boundary of Nevása and Shevgaon for about twelve miles. With its minor tributaries the Vishrámganga, the Sev, and the Kalpati it drains the eastern half of Nevása.

Climate.

There is a little difference as regards climate and rainfall between Nevása and the adjoining sub-division of Ráhuri on the west. The lands in the extreme south bordering on the Nagar range of hills obtain as a rule a steady and sufficient fall of rain but out in the plain the fall is much more irregular, some lands being well soaked from passing showers whilst others close by do not obtain as sprinkling. The villages in the extreme north-east appear to be the most unfavourably situated of all. Of the past fifteen years six 1870, 1871, 1876, 1877, 1881, and 1884 have been seasons of great scarcity if not of absolute famine. In none of these years did the rainfall amount to seventeen inches and in two, 1870 and 1871, it was below ten inches.

The following statement gives the monthly rainfall during the eleven years ending 1884:

Nevása Rainfall, 1874-1884.

Month.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
January	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
February	1.17	0.40
March	0.30	0.06
April	0.13	0.12	0.25
May	2.06	0.79	...	0.39	...	5.47	...	0.47	...	2.48	...
June	6.41	5.54	3.58	5.54	0.94	7.60	1.40	2.23	10.04	9.20	2.38
July	6.92	2.75	6.74	0.26	7.78	7.76	1.02	3.13	3.65	2.80	1.72
August	0.85	8.60	1.80	1.09	8.82	9.96	0.65	3.69	1.85	7.37	4.86
September	9.75	8.23	1.37	4.12	13.19	2.09	13.04	4.85	7.33	13.38	4.82
October	0.65	0.17	...	1.59	1.62	2.78	4.37	0.12	0.33	5.60	2.74
November	0.23	0.20	0.97	1.00	...	0.33	0.39	0.32	...
December
Total	26.64	26.13	13.71	14.56	32.55	36.86	20.48	15.50	23.64	41.15	18.92

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Sub-Divisions.

NEVÁSA.
Climate.

The system of husbandry does not differ from that in the neighbouring sub-divisions of Ráhuri and Kopargaon. It is the rule to plough heavy lands every year though much depends on the means of the occupant. The garden lands are generally manured, but not the dry-crop lands of the plain though sheep are occasionally folded on them. The lands do not generally appear to be allowed a fallow. A system of crop rotation is observed as far as possible but there is not a sufficient variety of crop to admit of a good rotation. On the whole the husbandry is not good though here and there well cultivated lands are to be seen. The area under *rabi* or late crops is double that under *kharif* or early crops.

Cultivation.

The area of irrigated land is very small not exceeding 0.5 per cent and is almost entirely under wells, there being only a few acres irrigated from *páts* or water channels supplied by temporary dams thrown across perennial streams. The canal from the Lakh reservoir on the Pravara river passes through two villages, Nevása Budruk and Punatgaon, situated between the Pravara and Godávári rivers. The supply of water is however at present insufficient for perennial crops. During the seven years ending 1881 an average area of 157 acres had been irrigated, the largest area being 842 acres in 1877-78, the second year of famine.

Irrigation.

Of 193,254 acres the actual area under cultivation in 1881-82, grain crops occupied 165,203 acres or 85.48 per cent, of which 70,891 were under spiked millet *bájri* *Penicillaria spicata*; 76,353 under Indian millet *javári* *Sorghum vulgare*; 17,814 under wheat *gahu* *Triticum æstivum*; 86 under rice *bhát* *Oryza sativa*; one under chenna *sáva* *Panicum miliaceum*; 8 under barley *jav* *Hordeum hexastichon*; and 50 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 15,883 acres or 8.21 per cent, of which 11,320 were under gram *harbhara* *Cicer arietinum*; 2088 under *kulith* or *kulthi* *Dolichos biflorus*; 2357 under *tur* *Cajanus indicus*; 62 under *mug* *Phaseolus radiatus*; two under peas *vátána* *Pisum sativum*; and 54 under other pulses. Oil seeds occupied 3243 acres or 1.67 per cent, of which 1971 were under zingelly seed *til* *Seşamum indicum*; 790 under linseed *alshi* *Linum sitatissimum*; 51 under mustard *rái* *Sinapis racemosa*; and 433

Crops.

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Crops.

under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 7380 acres or 3·81 per cent, of which 7279 were under cotton *kápus* *Gossypium herbaceum*; 46 under Bombay hemp *sam* or *tág* *Crotalaria juncea*; and 55 under brown hemp *ambádi* *Hibiscus cannabinus*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 1543 acres or 0·79 per cent, of which 569 were under tobacco *tambáku* *Nicotiana tabacum*; 408 under chillies *mirchi* *Capsicum frutescens*; 203 under sugarcane *us* *Saccharum officinarum*; 160 under hemp *gánja* *Cannabis sativa*; and the remaining 203 under various vegetables and fruits.

People.

The 1881 population returns show that of 78,158 people 73,412 or 93·92 per cent were Hindus, 3807 or 4·87 per cent Musalmáns, and 939 or 1·20 per cent Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are: 3354 Bráhmans; 3 Káyasth Prabhus, writers; 2120 Osvál Márwáris, 422 Sansári Jangams, 60 Meshri Márwáris, 60 Gujarát Vánis, 46 Kunam Vánis, and 33 Komtis, traders and merchants; 35,233 Kunbis, 3902 Mális, 300 Rajputs, and 19 Bangars, husbandmen; 795 Kumbhárs, potters; 787 Sútárs, carpenters; 746 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 520 Koshtis, weavers; 483 Telis, oil-pressers; 419 Lohárs, blacksmiths; 336 Vadárs, diggers; 319 Kásárs, brass-makers; 260 Shimpis, tailors; 193 Ghisádis, wandering blacksmiths; 143 Saltangars, tanners; 129 Lonáris, lime-burners; 76 Sális, weavers; 58 Gavandis, masons; 48 Lingáyat Buruds, basket-makers; 46 Kaikádis, basket-makers; 22 Nirális, indigo-dyers; 10 Kattais, leather-workers; 9 Beldárs, quarrymen; 8 Tábats, coppersmiths; and 6 Otáris, casters; 223 Guravs, priests; 5 Ghadshis, musicians; 925 Nhávis, barbers; 573 Paríts, washermen; 4554 Dhangars, cowmen; 9 Gavlis, cow-keepers; 2095 Vanjáris, caravan-men; 225 Káhárs, fishers; 52 Lamáns, carriers; 50 Bhois, fishers; 9 Kámáthis, labourers; 6772 Mhárs, labourers; 2844 Mángs, messengers; 1337 Chámbhárs, shoemakers; 141 Dhors, tanners; 443 Gosávis, 315 Gopáls, 120 Chitrakathis, 98 Joshis, 92 Gondhlis, 86 Kolhátis, 78 Mánbhávs, 22 Vásudevs, and 15 Kanjáris, beggars; 559 Kolis, 550 Bhils, 158 Rámoshis, 56 Tirmális, and 41 Bharádis, unsettled tribes.

Roads.

The provincial road from Ahmadnagar towards Aurangabad enters the Nevása sub-division on the south two miles from the foot of the Imámpur pass and in the seventeenth mile from the town of Ahmadnagar. Passing up north through the villages of Ghodegaon 20½ miles, Vadála 26½ miles where there is a travellers' bungalow, Bábhulvedhe thirty miles, and Khadke thirty-six miles, it reaches the Godávári at Pravara-Sangam in the forty-second mile. On the bank of the river, which is crossed by a wire-rope ferry, is a travellers' bungalow. A second provincial road, the road to Paithan, branches off eastward from the Aurangabad road at the foot of the Imámpur pass in the Nagar sub-division and enters Nevása near the village of Singvakesho at the twentieth mile from Ahmadnagar. Passing east through the villages of Miri twenty-four miles, Máke twenty-eight miles, and Nándur 30½ miles, the road enters the Shevgaon sub-division at the village of Dhorjalgaon in the thirty-third mile. Paithan, on the Godávári, lies twenty-two miles beyond. A short road of three miles in length from the town of Nevása

to the Aurangabad road through the village of Hánde-Nimgaon is usually kept in repair at the expense of the local funds. The country is, however, very flat and the ordinary cross-country cart tracks from village to village are passable during the fair season and after a long cessation of rain in the monsoon there is but little difficulty of communication from one end of the sub-division to the other in every direction.

The Dhond and Manmád Railway which runs on the west of the sub-division passes through the village lands of Nipáni-Vadgaon in the extreme north-west corner. The Belápur station which lies in the adjoining village lands of Gondavni is seventeen miles west of the town of Nevása; the Lákh station south of Belápur is fifteen miles south-west of Nevása; the Ráhuri station is nine miles west of the market town of Sonai, and the Vámburi station is ten miles from Sonai and twelve from Ghodegaon, a market town on the Aurangabad high road. Feeder roads from some or all of these places to the railway stations in their neighbourhood are being or have been made or are in contemplation.

The following statement gives a list of the villages where weekly markets are held :

Nevása Markets.

VILLAGE.	Day.	VILLAGE.	Day.
Kukáne . . .	Thursday.	Bhánashivra . . .	Saturday.
Ghodegaon . . .	Friday.	Bhokar . . .	Tuesday.
Suregaon . . .	Monday.	Kálegaon . . .	Saturday.
Nevása . . .	Sunday.	Varkhede . . .	Tuesday.
Sonai . . .	Sunday.	Dahigaon . . .	Sunday.
Salabatpur . . .	Friday.	Miri . . .	Saturday.

Of these Kukáne and Ghodegaon only are of more than local importance. Kukáne is the largest cattle market in the east of the district. Live stock is also purchased at Ghodegaon.

There are fifty-six looms for weaving cotton cloths and 158 for weaving woollen blankets. The price of cotton cloths ranges up to 18s. (Rs. 9) and of woollens to 7s. (Rs. 3½). There are no other manufactures in the sub-division, save that of saltpetre a little of which is made in some half-dozen villages.

Survey rates were first introduced into Nevása in 1851-52. The 148 Government villages then in the sub-division were divided into three classes of seventeen, ninety-three, and thirty-eight villages with maximum dry-crop rates of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1¼), 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½), and 2s. (Rs. 1) an acre respectively. Those in the first class were the southern villages near the Nagar and Shevgaon hills, those in the second class comprised the bulk of the central villages, whilst the villages of the north-east formed the third class. Under this system the average rate on cultivated lands amounted to 1s. 1¼d. (8½ as.) or thirty per cent less than the average rate under the old system. Allowing for changes in the constitution of the sub-division since 1851-52, by which a few of the southern villages were transferred to Nagar and a larger number of the eastern villages to Shevgaon, the same threefold division of the villages for

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Railway.

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classification purposes was adopted at the revision survey of 1881-82. Generally, however, an increase of 3*d.* (2 *as.*) on the maximum rates has been imposed and of the 118 Government villages now forming the sub-division five have a maximum rate of 2*s.* 9*d.* (Rs. 1½) an acre, sixty-nine of 2*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. 1¼), and forty-four of 2*s.* 3*d.* (Rs. 1⅓). The increase of assessment resulting from these changes amounts to twenty-eight per cent. Survey rates have also been introduced in twenty-seven of the thirty alienated villages.

In 1818-19 on the downfall of the Peshwa Nevása comprised 111 Government and sixty-nine alienated villages. In 1824-25 it was incorporated with the adjacent sub-division of Shevgaon but again separated in 1834-35. In the following year (1835-36) some of the villages were placed under the management of a mahálkari stationed at first at Dedgaon but afterwards at Sonai. Thirty-eight of the alienated villages lapsed to Government before 1851-52, when of the 148 Government villages 101 were under the mámlatdár and forty-seven under the mahálkari, and of the thirty-two alienated villages twenty-one were similarly under the mámlatdár and eleven under the mahálkari. On the general abolition of the mahálkari's appointment in 1861-62 and simultaneous re-distribution of charges eleven villages were transferred to Nagar, six to Kopergaon, three to Ráhuri, and twenty-five to Shevgaon. In place of these one village, Siregaon, was received from Ráhuri and twelve from Shevgaon, thus leaving the sub-division as at present constituted with 148 villages of which 118 belong to Government and thirty are partially or wholly alienated. Some of the alienated villages are held by the dependants of Sindia, but no influential *jágirdárs* or *inámdárs* live in the sub-division. The following table gives a nominal list of all the villages and shows to which of the ancient divisions each belonged :

Nevása Villages, 1883.

VILLAGE.*	Taraf	VILLAGE	Taraf.	VILLAGE	Taraf					
Nevása Khurd Naráyanvádi. Murme Maktapur Dhangarvádi Hándi-mimgaon. Bhánashivra Saundále Khanegaon Meli Mohotarpha Khupti. Khadke Khalámpuri. Chinchban Madki Mukundpur Baku-pumpalgaon 1	Nevása-Khurd seventeen villages	Suregaon Jalke-Budruk Gondegaon Bhede Budruk. Malevádi Mhálápur 1 Rámdoh 1	Gánápur seven villages	Shahartáki Majaleshar Antarvádi-Budruk Kukáne Vadule Taravádi Sukal Khurd Sukal-Budruk Nándur Shikári. Baktapur. Devtáki 1 Gupha.1	Shahartáki twelve villages					
Punatgaon Dhamori Godhegaon Vásim Borgaon Usthal Bahurvádi. Ládmód Bhalgaon Malunja-Budruk. Nevása-Budruk 1 Toka.1		Nevása-Khurd twelve villages		Málvadgaon. Khokar Bhokar Bel-pumpalgaon Bel-pándhari Jainpur Khánápur Nipáni vadgaon Ghumandev Ghogargaon 1		Málvadgaon ten villages	Sonai Pánegaon. Amalner Morya-chinchore. Lohogaon. Nimbari Khedle-parmánand 1 Karanjgaon 1	Sonai eight villages		
				Kharvandi. Vátapur Nipáni-mimgaon. Támavádi. Malichinchore. Gomalvádi. Gonegaon Imámpur Bábhulvedhe			Kharvandi nine villages		Sirasgaon Gevrai Suregaon. Pimpri-Shahall. Yarkhed, Goygavhán.	Dakigaon sixteen villages.

* Villages with 1 after their names are alienated.

Nevása Villages, 1883—continued.

VILLAGE.	Taraf	VILLAGE	Taraf	VILLAGE.	Taraf.
Vakadi Patharvále Sultánpur. Dahgaon 1 Ráyaní.1 Kalegaon 1 Khánggaon 1 Popápur 1 Málvadi 1 Tuljápúr 1	Dahgaon sixteen villages—contd.	Kágoni Hingoni Sháhápur. Rástápur Mahálakshmi-hivre. Singva-tukai Mhálas-pimpalgaon Morgavhán Barhánpur Loharvádi Ghodegaon 1	Chánde fifteen villages—contd.	Nagpur Bháýgaon Dandpur Rajagaon Káreggaon Chilekanvádi Mirí 1 Ránjangaon 1 Singva kesho 1 Gidegaon 1 Usthal 1 Bhede-Khurd 1	Paragane Shivegaon twelve villages.
Salábatpur. Bábhukhede Mhasle. Galmimb Gogalgaon. Dighi Pichadgaon Khedle-Kájh. Manglápúr 1 Najik-Chincholi 1 Jalki-Khurd 1 Pravara-Sangam.1		Salábatpur twelve villages.		Dedgaon Jeur Nandurvihir Akhatvádi Bhatkudgaon Pachunde Nimbe Devsade Dhorjalgaon Devgaon 1 Máke 1 Telkudgaon.	
Chánde Fatepur. Kavte Mándegavhán	Chánde fifteen villages			Kadgaon	Shirál one village
				Siregaon	Ráhuri one village.

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**NEVÁSA.
Changes.**

Pa'rner, the largest sub-division of the district, is bounded on the north by Sangamner and Ráhuri, on the east by Nagar, on the south by Shrigonda, and on the west by the Sirur and Junnar sub-divisions of Poona. Its greatest length and breadth are about thirty-five miles each; it comprises 123 villages, and has an area of 779 square miles. In 1881 it had a population of 73,701 or 94 to the square mile and in 1882-83 the land revenue amounted to £10,980 (Rs. 1,09,800).

PÁRNER.

Of an area of 779 square miles, 752 have been surveyed in detail. Of these 90,383 acres are the lands of alienated villages. The rest includes 255,606 acres or 65.38 per cent of arable land; 49,719 acres or 12.71 per cent of unarable; 115 or 0.02 per cent of grass or *kuran*; 72,952 or 18.66 per cent of forest reserves; and 12,517 or 3.20 per cent of village sites, roads, and river beds. From the 255,606 acres of arable land, 18,013 or 7.04 per cent have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages. Of 237,593 acres, the actual area of arable Government land, 227,952 acres or 95.94 per cent were in 1882-83 held for tillage. Of these 223,425 acres were dry-crop and 4527 acres were watered garden land.

Area.

The surface of Párner is very irregular and hilly consisting of a series of plateaus or table-lands of various heights. The highest is the Kánhur or central plateau formed by the widening out of the summit of one of the spurs of the Sahyádris which traverses the sub-division from north-west to south-east. Its average height is 2800 feet above the sea level, though there are points on it three and four hundred feet higher as the Bhandar and Párner hills 3129 and 3250 feet respectively. To the south of this plateau and about 200 feet lower lie the extensive village lands of Párner itself. On the north is the table-land of Vásunda which stretches as far as the Mula river the basin of which lies about 400 feet below. Vásunda and the neighbouring villages have a height of 2400 feet. On the

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PÁRNER.

Soil.

west of the main range is the low-lying level of the Kukdi and Ghod rivers averaging 2100 feet above the sea, and on the east is a part of the valley of the Sina river. South of Párner is a tract of hilly ground formed by spurs jutting out from the main range.

As might be expected from the diversified nature of the surface the soil of Párner is of various kinds. On the higher plateaus the soils though not very deep are of a good description producing wheat, gram, and other crops without requiring much rain. In the descent from the plateaus there are terraces or steps on which are detached flat patches of inferior soil of various widths, but the sides and the slopes of the hills are stony and barren. Generally speaking the black soils of the low ground are fertile and easily worked but there are no extensive plains of rich soil, the river valleys being skirted by waving and broken ground. Some of the valleys are well irrigated, and have a pleasing aspect, and there are many isolated mango and tamarind groves notably in the alienated villages of Ránjangaon, Javle, Alkuti, Kánhur, Nighoj, and Palshi, and also in the Government villages of Párner, Chincholi, and Jámgaoon; but as a whole the sub-division cannot be called well wooded. In the extreme north there is a barren stretch of waving rocky country many miles in extent where deer and wolves abound.

Rainfall.

The rainfall of the sub-division is very changeable, but on the whole decidedly more favourable than in the neighbouring sub-division of Shrigonda on the south. The following statement gives the monthly rainfall during the twelve years ending 1884:

Párner Rainfall, 1873-1884.

Month.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
January	0.06	0.29
February ...	0.53	0.18
March	0.10	0.78
April	0.19	1.10	...	0.06	0.75	0.30	0.22
May ...	3.38	0.52	0.31	...	1.85	2.62	0.10	2.18	0.43	1.15
June ...	4.11	4.70	3.07	5.18	4.36	2.16	5.63	1.53	2.24	3.29	10.96	2.56
July ...	1.92	4.93	3.77	1.68	0.69	9.93	4.69	2.10	4.03	3.57	3.29	5.23
August ...	2.29	2.98	4.25	1.05	5.03	6.01	4.71	1.44	3.05	4.44	4.31	3.67
September ...	4.10	13.81	8.16	0.17	2.56	10.79	0.20	7.02	6.90	10.27	10.56	3.11
October	2.42	1.60	...	2.68	5.04	7.54	1.62	1.92	0.32	5.99	2.92
November ...	1.42	0.23	...	0.13	0.20	0.11	...	0.56	...	1.19	0.94	...
December	0.45
Total ...	17.75	29.27	22.36	8.46	17.44	34.79	25.29	15.15	20.52	23.96	37.19	18.20

Water.

On the whole the water-supply of Párner is fairly good. Many of the smaller streams have a perennial flow. Except in seasons of drought water is found near the surface in most parts of the sub-division. In the north the Mandhol, Jámbhul, and Kálu rivers rising on the slopes of the Kánhur plateau flow across the table-land of Vásunda into the Mula river; the lands in the east are drained by a branch of the Sina river which rises near Jámgaoon and flows in a direct line towards Nagar; the whole of the south is drained by the Hanga river which rises near Párner and flows across the Shrigonda sub-division into the Ghod river; and the west is drained by the Kukdi and its minor tributaries the Pádal, Siddheshvar, and Dudh rivers which rise on the western slopes of the Kánhur and Párner plateaus.

The cultivation in Párner differs but little from that in other parts of the district. Formerly late crops predominated but during the past few years, especially since the famine, there has been a general anxiety to secure as early a harvest as possible and the area under *bájri* cultivation now exceeds that under *javári* in the proportion of three to two. Garden crops occupy about two per cent of the whole cultivated area. Irrigation is carried on partly from wells and partly from watercourses supplied by dammed-up streams. There are no permanent or masonry dams in the sub-division, but a great many temporary ones the supply of water from which frequently lasts through the cold weather. The garden cultivation is chiefly confined to vegetables and sugarcane. In Chincholi, Javle, and the neighbouring villages there are many valuable vineyards which yield grapes of a very superior quality.

Of 217,629 acres the actual area under cultivation in 1881-82, grain crops occupied 180,472 or 82.92 per cent, of which 109,447 were under spiked millet *bájri* *Penicillaria spicata*; 58,884 under Indian millet *javári* *Sorghum vulgare*; 11,609 under wheat *gahu* *Triticum aestivum*; two under *rági* or *náchni* Eleusine corocana; 113 under rice *bhát* *Oryza sativa*; 37 under chenna *sáva* *Panicum miliaceum*; 139 under maize *makka* *Zea mays*; 18 under *kodra* or *harik* *Paspalum scrobiculatum*; 17 under barley *jav* *Hordeum hexastichon*; and 206 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 26,704 acres or 12.27 per cent, of which 2637 were under gram *karbhara* *Cicer arietinum*; 8284 under *kulith* or *kulthi* *Dolichos biflorus*; 11,594 under *tur* *Cajanus indicus*; 247 under *mug* *Phaseolus radiatus*; 223 under *udid* *Phaseolus mungo*; five under peas *vátána* *Pisum sativum*; and 3714 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 8972 acres or 4.12 per cent, of which 195 were under gingelly seed *til* *Sesamum indicum*; 27 under linseed *alshi* *Linum usitatissimum*; and 8750 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 191 acres or 0.08 per cent, of which the whole were under Bombay hemp *san* or *tág* *Crotalaria juncea*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 1290 acres or 0.59 per cent, of which 123 were under tobacco *tambáku* *Nicotiana tabacum*; 623 under chillies *mirchi* *Capsicum frutescens*; 264 under sugarcane *us* *Saccharum officinarum*; 33 under hemp *gánja* *Cannabis sativa*; and the remaining 247 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 73,701 people 70,866 or 96.15 per cent were Hindus; 2734 or 3.70 per cent Musalmáns; 99 Christians; one Buddhist; and one Pársi. The details of the Hindu castes are: 2627 Bráhmans; 28 Káyasth Prabhus, writers; 1871 Osvál Márwáris, 374 Sansári Jangams, 35 Kunam Vánis, 19 Meshri Márwáris, and 8 Komtis, traders and merchants; 38,774 Kunbis, 3962 Mális, 110 Rajputs, and 18 Bangars, husbandmen; 1086 Vadárs, diggers; 762 Sútárs, carpenters; 724 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 586 Kumbhárs, potters; 402 Lohárs, blacksmiths; 396 Telis, oil-pressers; 306 Koshtis, weavers; 250 Shimpis, tailors; 125 Lákheris, lac-bracelet makers; 58 Sális, weavers; 56 Kaikádis, basket-makers; 34 Beldárs, quarrymen; 25 Kásárs, brass-makers; 24 Lonáris, lime-burners; 23 Jingars, saddle-makers; 14 Gavandis, masons; 14 Ghisádis, wandering blacksmiths; 9 Nirális, indigo-dyers; 8 Otáris, casters; 6 Tábats, coppersmiths; 5 Lingáyat

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PÁRNER.
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PÁRNER.
People.

Buruds, basket-makers; one Bhádbhunja, grain-parcher; 303 Guravs, priests; 720 Nhávis, barbers; 291 Parits, washermen; 3898 Dhangars, cow-men; 45 Khátiks, butchers; 19 Gavlis, cow-keepers; 210 Vanjárís, caravan-men; 84 Lamáns, carriers; 52 Bhois, fishers; 3 Kámáthis, labourers; 6500 Mhárs, labourers; 1298 Mángs, messengers; 1713 Chámhárs, shoemakers; 63 Dhors, tanners; 2 Bhangis, sweepers; 354 Gosávis, 68 Joshis, 64 Gopáls, 53 Mánbhávs, 49 Gondhlis, and 6 Kolhátis, beggars; 1084 Rámoshis, 460 Bhils, 395 Kolis, 209 Thákurs, 142 Bharádis, and 41 Tirmális, unsettled tribes.

Roads.

Sixteen miles of the Ahmadnagar-Poona high road lie in the Párner sub-division. The villages on or near this road are Supe, Vághunda, Nárayangavhán, and Vádegavhán, where there is a toll-gate twenty miles south-west of Ahmadnagar. At Supe, seventeen miles south-west of Ahmadnagar, branches off the local road to Párner distant seven miles. There is also another route from Ahmadnagar through Jámgaoon, which being a trifle shorter is much used in fair weather, although for half its length it is little else than a rough track intersected by streams with rugged banks crossing the spur of the hills between Párner and Jámgaoon by steep gradients. From Párner one road runs up north through the towns of Kánhur, Tákli-Dhokeshvar, and Vásunda to the Mula river and thence into the Sangamner sub-division. Another road runs west to Chincholi in the Kukdi valley whence country tracks lead to Alkuti, Javle, and Nighoj. South-west of Párner is a hilly road two miles long leading down to the village of Pánoli. Across the north of the sub-division runs what is known as the Anághát road made in 1869-70 to connect Ahmadnagar with a road which it was proposed to construct down the Málsej pass, one of the main passes in the Sahyádris leading from the extreme north-west corner of the Poona district to the sub-division of Murbád in Thána below. Thirty-three miles of the road lie in the Ahmadnagar district. The Párner villages on the route are Bhálavni twelve miles, Dhotra nineteen miles, Tákli-Dhokeshvar twenty-four miles, and Karjuna twenty-eight miles. At the thirty-third mile it enters the Poona district and the village of Ana which gives its name to the road is at the thirty-fifth mile from Ahmadnagar. The Málsej pass scheme for some years abandoned is now (1882) again under consideration and the road from the foot of the pass to Kalyán is approaching completion.

Railway.

The Dhond and Manmád State Railway skirts the south-east corner of the subdivision, traversing the village lands of Ránjangaon Ghospuri and Sárola. Near Sárola is a station fifteen miles from Párner by road.

Markets.

The following statement gives a list of the villages where weekly markets are held:

Párner Markets.

VILLAGE.	Day.	VILLAGE.	Day.
Ránjangaon .	Thursday.	Párner ..	Sunday.
Alkuti ...	Sunday.	Jámgaon ..	Saturday.
Nighoj ...	Tuesday.	Javle ...	Saturday.
Kánhur ...	Wednesday.		

The traffic in these places is chiefly confined to the supply of the wants of villages in their neighbourhood. Sirur in the Poona district is the market chiefly resorted to by the villagers of the south and west of Párner and the destination of most of the grain exported from the sub-division. Except grain and a small quantity of fruit there are few exports. The imports are the usual cotton goods and groceries. Salt is brought up from the Konkan on pack bullocks and sold at the villages on their route.

The manufactures of the sub-division are very few consisting of coarsely woven turbans, cotton cloth, and woollen blankets, which are sold locally. At Javle there was formerly a manufacture of imitation coral beads but the artificers migrated to Bombay during the 1876-77 famine.

Survey rates were first introduced in April and May 1852. For assessment purposes the villages were divided into four groups with maximum dry-crop rates of 3s. (Rs. 1½), 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1¾), 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1¼), and 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) respectively. The first group included the villages on the Káuhur or central plateau. The second group included (1) villages on the Vásunda plateau immediately below and to the north of Kánhur; (2) Párner itself and the villages on the west lying in the valley of the Kukdi river; and (3) villages on the east lying in the valley of the Sina river. The third group included all the villages in the hilly country of the south of the sub-division. The fourth group included (1) the villages in the extreme north bordering on the Mula river and (2) a few villages in the extreme south-west on the Ghod river. Previous to the introduction of these rates the average rate realized was 1½s. (9 as.) an acre, whilst the average survey rate amounted to 10½d. (7 as.) or twenty-three per cent less.

Párner does not as a whole represent any old division but is made up of villages formerly comprised in old divisions now partly under Poona and partly under Ahmadnagar. The sub-division has undergone numerous changes since the beginning of the British rule, and in 1850 at the time of the first survey it formed part of Karda, a sub-division which had an area of 1640 square miles and comprised 216 villages placed under the management of a mámlatdár stationed at Párner and two maháلكaris stationed each at Vásunda and Kolgaon. Karda being found too unwieldy a sub-division for administration purposes was in 1859 divided into two new sub-divisions of 107 and 109 villages called Párner and Sirur and the *petás* of Vásunda and Kolgaon were abolished. In 1861-62 two Párner villages were transferred to Sangamner and seven to Ráhuri; at the same time two villages Palshi and Mandva-Khurd were received from Nagar. In 1866 the Sirur sub-division was broken up, another one bearing the same name being formed and added to the Poona district. Twenty villages were then re-transferred to Párner, two villages Chombat and Shirapur being added from Pábal and seven¹ from Shivner now called Junnar, two sub-divisions of Poona adjacent to Párner.

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PÁRNER.
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¹ The seven villages are Hivargaon, Aklápur, Sávargaon, Kasára, Palaspur, Kaías, and Katalvedha.

DISTRICTS.

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PÁRNER.
Changes.

In 1867 one village, Hivargaon, was transferred to Sangamner and in 1868 four villages, Chikhali, Ukalgaon, Suregaon, and Koregaon were transferred to the newly formed Shrigonda sub-division, and finally in 1872-73 one village, Aklapur, was transferred to Sangamner leaving Párner with 123 villages, of which 107 belong to Government and sixteen are wholly or partially alienated. The following is a nominal list of the Párner villages showing to which of the formerly existing *tarafs* each belonged :

Párner Villages, 1883.

VILLAGE.	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.
Párner. Palva Budruk. Palva Khurd. Loni. Apdhap. Vaghunda Budruk. Vaghunda Khurd. Gatevadi. Ghanegaon. Jategaon. { Sultánpur. { Mhasena.1 Supa. Mungshi. Vadner.	Havali fifteen villages.	Mhasa Khurd. Gadilgaon. Vadner Khurd. Vadner Budruk. Ganora. Pimpri pathar 1	Ganji Bhoira fourteen villages.	Hatulkhindi. Goregaon. Hivra Karda, Tikhol. Pimpalgaon Turuk. Vesdara. Padali. Kalkup. Maikup. Vadgaondarya. Karandi. 1	Kánhur sixteen villages.
Ashtágaon. Sarola-Kasar. Dartnagnjal. Sarola Adbai. Pimpalgaon Kanda. Shahájapur. { Bhoira Khurd.2 { Bhoira Pathar.		Kedgaon eight villages.		Nighoj.1 Devbhotra. Panoli. Ralegan Sindhi. Darodi. Garkhundi. Randha. { Májampur.2 { Ralegan-therpal. Hakikatpur. Taki Haji. Pimpalner. Naráyangavhan.1 Loni-Mavia.1 Javli.1	
Vadjhira. Shirsul. Bhoira Gaugarda. Valavna. Renasdi. Kurand. Dongargaon. Kohokadi. Mhasa Budruk. Hivra Jhara.1 Alkuti.1	Karda eleven villages.		Bhálavni. Vadgaon Ambli. Bhandgaon. Jámgaon. Dhavalpuri.1	Khadgaon five villages.	Baburdi. Padli. Kadus. Vadegavhán. Ghospur. Raytala. Honga. Ránjangaon.1 Rui.1 Pimpri gavli.1
Gangí Dhaira. Sangvi Surya. Bábhulvada. Pimpri Julsen. Padli Darya. Chincholi. Akalvádi. Vadala.		Ganji Bhoira fourteen villages.	Vasunda. Táki Dhokeshvar. Dhoki. Karjuna Harya. Pimpalgaon Rota. Nandur Pathar. Gargundi. Dhotra Budruk. Dhotra Khurd. Gajdipur. Bhondra. Vadgaon Santal. Karegaon.		Vasunda thirteen villages.
			{ Kánhur.2 { Kánhur. Dúgsal. Kinhi. Viroli.	Kánhur sixteen villages.	
					Taa
				Sheri Koldara.3	

1 Alienated villages.
2 Those villages which have one site in common are bracketed together.
3 Formed out of disputed land claimed by the villagers of Párner, Chincholi, and Vadjhira.

RÁHURI.

Rá'huri, the most central sub-division, is bounded on the north by Kopargaon and Nevása, on the east by Nevása, on the south by Nagar and Párner, and on the west by Sangamner. Its length from north to south and breadth from east to west are about twenty-four miles each, it comprises 118 villages, and has an area of 497 square miles. ; In 1881 its population was 63,289 or 127 to the square mile, and in 1882-83 the land revenue amounted to £17,794 (Rs. 1,77,940).

Of an area of 497 square miles, 457 have been surveyed in detail. Of these 7127 acres are the lands of alienated villages. The rest includes 230,650 acres or 80·78 per cent of arable land ; 22,047 acres or 7·72 per cent of unarable ; 24,124 or 8·44 per cent of forest reserves ; and 8703 or 3·04 per cent of village sites, roads, and river beds. From the 230,650 acres of arable land, 16,570 acres or 7·18 per cent have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages. Of 214,080 acres, the actual area of arable Government land, 192,557 acres or 89·94 per cent were in 1882-83 held for tillage. Of these 184,936 acres were dry-crop and 7621 acres were watered garden land.

There is nothing very striking in the natural features of the sub-division which forms part of an extensive plain country drained by the rivers Mula and Pravara, tributaries of the Godávári. The south-eastern boundary is a well marked range of hills which divides Ráhuri from the more elevated sub-division of Nagar. This range, which forms the water-shed line between the Godávári and Bhima rivers, presents a wall-like face towards the plain of Ráhuri and being almost destitute of vegetation, has a bare and rugged aspect, the strongly marked horizontal lines of stratification contrasting in a striking manner with the vertical fissures worn into their steep sides by the action of water. The highest point, the hill of Gorakhnáth, has an elevation of 2982 feet above the sea level or about 1200 feet above the level of Ráhuri. The Báleshvar range of hills, which traverses the neighbouring sub-division of Sangamner on the west, ends in the south-west of Ráhuri and the country in that direction is rugged and wild in the extreme. The sub-division is very scantily wooded ; indeed with the exception of a few mango and tamarind groves chiefly on the banks of rivers near villages the country is entirely bare of trees, and except when the crops are on the ground the whole plain presents a wretchedly naked and barren appearance.

The prevailing soil is of a deep black colour, rich and clayey, requiring much rain to enable it to yield good crops. Light showers such as too frequently fall when heavy rain is required have no effect, but when once thoroughly soaked this soil retains its moisture for a long time and is highly valued for every description of late crop. Towards the hills and on the ridges between the rivers the soils being lighter and more friable are better adapted for the early crops. In some parts the fields are much cut up by the numerous and tortuous branches of the minor streams which work deep beds in the black soil of the plain.

The Mula river enters Ráhuri through these hills in a deep bed with steep rocky sides. The Pravara enters at the north-west corner of the sub-division and the two rivers traverse the plain in converging lines, their junction being at the north-east angle of the sub-division abutting on Nevása. The Mula has one considerable tributary, the Dev which rises among the hills in the south and flowing northward for some eighteen miles joins the Mula one mile east of the town of Ráhuri. In the hot weather it generally ceases to flow.

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RÁHURI.

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RÁHURI.
Water.

The Ojhár canal, which is supplied with water from the Pravara by a masonry weir across the river at the village of Ojhar in the Sangamner sub-division, enters the north-west corner of Ráhuri near the village of Lohogaon at its nineteenth mile and terminates at the twenty-third mile. The Láksh canal springs from a masonry weir across the Pravara near the village of Láksh. It has with its three main branches a total length of forty-five miles of which seventeen lie in Ráhuri. The area irrigated from this section has hitherto been very small, not exceeding 816 acres in any year, owing to the uncertain supply of water during the hot season. The canal is fringed for a considerable part of its length with fine avenues of *bábhul* *Acacia arabica* trees.

Climate.

The Ráhuri sub-division has on the whole a better rainfall than Sangamner which lies on the west and nearer to the Sahyádris. The rain clouds which come up from the south-west seem to divide when near the town of Sangamner and keeping along the two ranges of hills on the north and south of the Pravara river do not, as a rule, discharge their contents till near the borders of Ráhuri. In the hill villages of the south-west the early rains rarely fail. Towards the Nevása boundary in the north-east however the rainfall is uncertain, whereas the villages in the extreme south which lie under the Gorakhnáth or Happy Valley range of hills enjoy probably a more certain and satisfactory fall than any other part of the district. The following statement gives the monthly rainfall for the eleven years ending 1884:

Ráhuri Rainfall, 1874-1884.

MONTH.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
January	0.90	0.90
February	0.85
March	0.20	0.30
April	0.10	0.51
May	0.92	0.60	2.90	4.03	0.37	1.13	...
June	5.03	8.14	5.17	6.00	1.62	6.51	1.43	3.14	5.31	6.87	1.78
July	5.78	1.97	2.53	6.29	6.11	3.05	0.89	1.12	1.16	5.21	2.72
August	0.89	5.81	0.82	0.70	10.69	5.04	0.53	1.27	1.65	7.01	5.94
September	8.95	10.32	1.65	2.90	9.6	0.45	10.68	4.25	11.46	9.12	3.94
October	0.99	1.87	...	3.57	3.36	2.67	0.18	2.65	0.12	3.11	6.63
November	0.11	0.60	0.50	1.62	0.05	...
December	0.10	0.15
Total	22.46	28.71	10.67	15.41	31.45	20.32	15.06	18.96	24.04	33.10	20.31

Cultivation

Early and late crops are grown in about equal proportions in Ráhuri, the early crops chiefly in the hill villages and the late crops in the plain. The principal garden productions are wheat and gram. In a few villages a small quantity of sugarcane is grown and near the larger towns fruits and vegetables are produced in sufficient quantities for the consumption of the wealthier classes. Manure is little used except in the garden lands of the larger villages. It is hardly ever applied to dry-crops, the rainfall being too uncertain in the plain villages to allow of it as in the event of the quantity of rain being insufficient to counteract its heating properties the crops would be liable to be burnt up.

Irrigation.

Except through the Government canal there is no irrigation from the rivers the beds of which lie too far below the level of the

surrounding country. Garden land is therefore ordinarily irrigated from wells only.

Of 172,171 acres the actual area under cultivation in 1881-82 grain crops occupied 154,619 acres or 89·80 per cent, of which 48,065 were under spiked millet *bājri* *Penicillaria spicata*; 84,240 under Indian millet *javāri* *Sorghum vulgare*; 20,244 under wheat *gahu* *Triticum æstivum*; 10 under rice *bhāt* *Oryza sativa*; 24 under maize *makka* *Zea mays*; and 2036 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 12,591 acres or 7·31 per cent, of which 11,437 were under gram *harbhara* *Cicer arietinum*; 98 under *kulith* or *kulthi* *Dolichos biflorus*; 339 under *tur* *Cajanus indicus*; 347 under *mug* *Phaseolus radiatus*; and 370 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 2404 acres or 1·39 per cent, of which 210 were under gingelly-seed *til* *Sesamum indicum*; 319 under linseed *alshi* *Linum usitatissimum*; and 1875 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 300 acres or 0·17 per cent, of which 217 were under cotton *kāpus* *Gossypium herbaceum*; 26 under Bombay hemp *san* or *tāg* *Crotalaria juncea*; and 57 under brown hemp *amābdi* *Hibiscus cannabinus*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 2257 acres or 1·31 per cent, of which 1194 were under tobacco *tambāku* *Nicotiana tabacum*; 469 under chillies *mirchi* *Capsicum frutescens*; 185 under sugarcane *us* *Saccharum officinarum*; 133 under hemp *gānja* *Cannabis sativa*; and the remaining 276 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 63,289 people 58,390 or 92·25 per cent were Hindus; 3601 or 5·68 per cent Musalmāns; and 1298 or 2·05 per cent Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are: 2596 Brāhmans; 1127 Osvāl Mārwaris, 143 Meshri Mārwaris, 122 Sansāri Jangams, 82 Gujarāt Vānis, and 55 Kunam Vānis, traders and merchants; 29,852 Kunbis, 2424 Mālis, 106 Rajputs, and 20 Bangars, husbandmen; 969 Telis, oil-pressers, 625 Sonārs, goldsmiths; 617 Sutārs, carpenters; 589 Kumbhārs, potters; 295 Lohārs, blacksmiths; 264 Koshtis, weavers; 250 Kāsārs, brassmakers; 226 Shimpis, tailors; 206 Vadārs, diggers; 124 Jingars, saddle-makers; 122 Sālis, weavers; 56 Lingāyat Buruds, basket-makers; 18 Otāris, casters; 25 Beldārs, quarrymen; 17 Kaikādis, basket-makers; 17 Gavandis, masons; 17 Nirālis, indigo-dyers; 13 Tāmbats, coppersmiths; and 10 Kuttais, leather-workers; 94 Guravs, priests; 6 Ghadshis, musicians; 570 Nhāvis, barbers; 305 Parits, washermen; 6026 Dhangars, cow-men; 5 Khātiks, butchers; 396 Vanjāris, caravan-men; 102 Bhois, fishers; 35 Lamāns, landholders; 15 Kāhārs, fishers; 5395 Mbārs, labourers; 1112 Chāmbhārs, shoe makers; 1092 Māngs, messengers; 158 Dhors, tanners; 6 Bhangis, sweepers; 285 Gosāvis, 109 Mānbhāvs, 63 Gondhlis, 46 Joshis, 34 Kolbātis, 21 Gopāls, and 3 Chitrakathis, beggars; 771 Bhils, 646 Kolis, 78 Tirmālis, 66 Rāmoshis, and 18 Bharādis, unsettled tribes.

The provincial road from Ahmadnagar to Manmād enters Rāhuri on the south at the sixteenth mile from Ahmadnagar and passing up north through the village lands of Dhamori, Khadāmba, and Digras it reaches in the twenty-third mile the Mula river where

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RÁHURI.

Roads.

there is a wire-rope ferry. On the north bank of the river stands the town of Ráhuri, after leaving which the road takes a bend to the north-west and passing through the village lands of Devláli and Guvha reaches the Pravara river in the thirty-sixth mile. Here too is a wire-rope ferry. Passing the town of Kolhár on the north bank of the river, the road runs through the village of Bábleshtar and enters the extreme north-east corner of the Sangamner sub-division in the forty-second mile from Ahmadnagar. Branching off from the provincial road at Kolhár in a north-westerly direction is the local fund road to Násik but only 2½ miles of this road lie within the limits of Ráhuri. In the south is the road from the town of Vámburi to Ahmadnagar through the Dongargaon pass of which three miles, up to the crest of the Nagar range of hills, lie in the Ráhuri sub-division.

Railway.

The Dhond and Manmád State railway traverses Ráhuri from south to north. Three stations Vámburi, Ráhuri, and Lák are in the neighbourhood of the villages of Khadámba, Tándulvádi, and Pádhagaon respectively. The Mula river is crossed by an iron girder bridge resting on masonry piers, and the Pravara by a masonry bridge. The towns of Ráhuri, Vámburi, and Belápur are connected with their railway stations by roads 2½, three, and four miles respectively.

Markets.

The following statement gives a list of the villages where weekly markets are held :

Ráhuri Markets.

VILLAGE.	Day.	VILLAGE.	Day.
Vámburi ...	Monday.	Kolhár ...	Tuesday.
Belápur ...	Sunday.	Pádhagaon ...	Wednesday.
Ráhuri ...	Thursday.		

The richest merchants live at Vámburi and carry on a large trade in grain.

Crafts.

The manufactures are quite insignificant, there being only about 125 looms in the whole sub-division, of which 100 are for weaving coarse woollen blankets and twenty-five for weaving cotton cloth. The blankets fetch up to 6s. (Rs. 3) each and the cotton *lugadás* or women's robes up to 12s. (Rs. 6). In one or two villages silk *sádis* or women's robes were formerly woven, but this small industry has now quite died out.

Survey.

Survey rates were introduced into Ráhuri in 1849-50. The 101 Government villages then in the sub-division were divided into three groups. The first group consisted of seventeen villages in the hilly country of the west where a maximum dry-crop rate of 3s. (Rs. 1½) an acre was imposed; the second group of thirty-three villages in the centre of the sub-division with a rate of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1½) an acre; and the third group of fifty-one villages in the north and north-east where the maximum rate was fixed at 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1¼) an acre. The average incidence of these rates amounted to 1s. 2d. (9½ as.) an acre, the average rate prior to the settlement being 1s. 4½d. (11 as.). On garden land the average assessment was

4s. 4d. (Rs. 2½) an acre. In 1879-80 the sub-division which had meanwhile undergone some slight territorial changes was reassessed. Ninety-six of the 101 Government villages were divided into three groups running in a generally north and south direction. The first group of twenty-eight villages furthest to the west had a maximum dry-crop rate of 3s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) an acre, the second or central group of forty-seven villages had a maximum rate of 3s. (Rs. 1½), and the third or most easterly of the groups with twenty-one villages had a rate of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1⅓) an acre. But in consequence of nearness to the railroad the rates on all villages within five miles of the line were raised 3d. (2 as.) an acre in each group by which change five villages received a maximum rate of 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1¾), thirty-eight villages a rate of 3s. 3d. (Rs. 1½), thirty-two villages of 3s. (Rs. 1½), and twenty-one villages of 2s. 9d. (1⅓) an acre. The average incidence of these rates was forty per cent above that of the previous settlement. The seven villages received from Párner and those received from Nagar and Nevása having not been originally settled till 1851-53 were not included in the 1879-80 revision. Survey rates have been introduced into six of the eight *inám* or alienated villages in the sub-division.

Ráhuri consists of villages, the greater number of which were in former times comprised in the *tarafs* of Ráhuri, Belápur, and Bárágaon-Nándur. Under the Peshwás the Ráhuri and Belápur *tarafs* were attached to the *pargana* of Sangamner and until the beginning of the present century the Bárágaon-Nándur *tafar* was held in *saranjám*. On the acquisition of the country by the British in 1818, a separate sub-division was formed, the *mámlatdár* being stationed at the market town of Ráhuri. In 1824-25 the Belápur and Ráhuri *tarafs* were again attached to Sangamner, but in 1838-39 the Ráhuri sub-division was re-established and comprised in 1849-50 125 villages. In 1861-62 five villages were transferred to Nagar, one to Nevása, and seventeen to Kopargaon; and in place of these seven villages¹ were received from Párner; three Vánjulpoi, Kátrad, and Sangaon from Nevása; three Vávrád, Jambhli, and Jámbulban from Nagar; and three Kadit-Budruk, Kadit-Khurd, and Mándva from Sangamner, leaving the sub-division with 118 villages of which 110 now belong to Government, eight being wholly or partially alienated. There are no resident *jágirdárs* of any wealth or influence. The following is a nominal list of all the villages in the sub-division showing to which of the former *tarafs* each belonged:

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Changes.

¹ The seven villages are Khámba, Varsinde, Mahisgaon, Chikhaltán, Sirakánhegaon, Daradgaon, and Tahárabad.

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Survey.

Ráhuri Villages, 1883.

VILLAGE.*	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.
Ráhuri. Ráhuri-Khurd. Kendal-Budruk. Kendal-Khurd. Nimbhera. Guvha. Desvandi. Báhmán. Deoláh. Tulápur. Válan. Dhamori-Khurd. Pimpri-anghad. Sada. Táklí-mia. Chandkápúr. Kangar-Budruk. Kangar-Khurd. Ganegaon. Tandulner. Manjrya. Silegaon. Támohera. Manori-Kenápúr. Aradgaon. Rámpur. Khálsinde. Kondvad. Vádnér. Chunchvilir. Pimpri-Válan. Gágargaon. Chedgaon. Kánadgaon. Dhamori-Budruk.	Ráhuri thirty-six villages.	Amalner. Sankrápur. Máhegaon. Trimbakpur. Lákh. Daradgaon. Játap. Karanjgaon. Belápur-Khurd. Kopre. Kudsargaon. Páchgáon. Chincholi-Budruk. Galumb. Padhegaon. Shenvadgaon. Ukalgaon. Páthra Budruk. Hannantgaon. Páthra Khurd. Bráhmangaon. Vángi-Budruk. Vángi-khurd. Máthágaon. Bodhegaon. Khirdi. Márunja-Budruk. Márunja-Khurd. Chuncholi-Khurd. Bábleshvar-Bk. Bábleshvar-khurd. Kolhár-Budruk. Fathabad. Kolhár-Khurd. Valatgaon. Kánhegaon. Davanagaon. Gangápur. Lohagaon. Tisgaon. Daimabad. Lidgaon. Bhagvatipur. Kesápur.	Belápur fifty-six villages—continued.	Bherdápur. Kuranpur.1 Eklahari 1 Pimpalgaon 1 Chandegaon.1 Matapur.1	Belápur —contd.
Belápur. Káregáon. Amatapur. Tilápur. Umbargaon. Ambi.		Belápur 56 villages.		Nándur. Vámburi. Khadamba-Budruk. Khadamba-Khurd. Bábhulgaon. Varvandi. Chinchál. Kharsinde. Digras. Umbre.	
				Sirakánhegaon. Khámbar. Mahisgaon. Chikhaltán. Daradgaon. Varsinde. Tahárábad.1	Thodi seven villages.
				Kadit-Budruk. Kadit-Khurd. Mandva.1	Mhate (Sangam- ner).
				Vavrad. Jámbe. Jambulban.1	Vav- rad.
				Vanjulpol. Kátrad.	Sonal.
				Sangam	Vaijá- pur.

* Villages with 1 after their names are alienated.

SANGAMNER.

Sangamner one of the northern sub-divisions is bounded on the north-east by Kopargaoon, on the east by Ráhuri, on the south by Párper and the Junnar sub-division of Poona, on the west by Akola, and on the north-west by the Sinnar sub-division of Násik. Its greatest length is forty miles and breadth thirty. It comprises 159 villages in an area of 708 square miles. In 1881 its population was 68,357 or 96 to the square mile and in 1882-83 the land revenue amounted to £14,832 (Rs. 1,48,320).

Area.

Of an area of 708 square miles, 702 have been surveyed in detail. Of these 26,133 acres are the lands of alienated villages. The rest includes 269,068 acres or 63.54 per cent of arable land; 50,983 acres or 12.04 per cent of unarable; 94,596 or 22.33 per cent of forest reserves; and 8795 or 2.07 per cent of village sites, roads, and river beds. From the 269,068 acres of arable land, 21,348 or 7.93 per cent have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages. Of 247,720 acres, the actual area of arable Government land, 223,175 acres or 90.09 per cent were in 1882-83 held for tillage. Of these 214,321 acres were dry-crop, 8833 acres were watered garden, and 21 acres were rice land.

The sub-division is divided into three distinct portions by the two mountain ranges which traverse it in a parallel direction. The northernmost range enters on the north-west corner near the village of Saikhindi and ends with the peak of Dudheshvar 2748 feet high near the village of Nimbgaon-Jáli. The highest point of this range is Vatmaí seven miles north of the town of Sangamner in the village lands of Sonoshi, which has an elevation of 2892 feet. The southernmost and loftier range completely traverses the sub-division from west to east, entering near the village of Sávarchol and passing into the Ráhuri sub-division near the village of Varvandi. In this range are the peaks of Báleshvar 3889 feet, and Hivargaon 3035 feet. The central portion of the sub-division lying in the valley of the Pravara between these two ranges of hills is fairly well wooded being dotted with mango and *bábhul* trees more especially towards the west. Its soil along both banks of the river is of the richest description, deteriorating however on either side towards the hills. The northern division in comparison lies higher but is not so well wooded and the soil is of an inferior character. The various streams which water it flow in the direction of the Godávári but all are dry in the hot season and the water-supply is not good. The southern and highest lying division is inferior in every respect to the two others. The prevailing soil being friable and intermixed with gravel the country is almost bare of trees except in the west where considerable quantities of teak, mostly however of small size, are found in the sheltered valleys abutting on the Akola boundary. The water-supply too is poor as the tributaries of the Mula river which traverse the country can only be styled torrent streams. In all three divisions the country in the neighbourhood of the hill ranges is more or less cut up by ravines formed by the many spurs which jut out into the plains.

The chief rivers are the Pravara and the Mula. The Pravara rises in the west of the Akola sub-division which it completely traverses entering Sangamner on the western boundary two miles from the town of Dhandarphal. Its principal tributaries on the left bank are the Dhamori, the Ardala, the Kására, the Mahálungi, the Kát, the Isma, and the Tamora, and on the right bank the Raita, the Dher, the Digras, and the Chandikavra. Of these the Ardala and the Raita only have a small perennial flow. In the monsoon the Mahálungi, which joins the Pravara at the town of Sangamner, is subject to violent floods which, however, are generally of short duration. The Mula river also rises on the Sahyádris in the south-west of Akola and enters Sangamner about six miles south of the Báleshvar hill. Its tributaries the chief of which are the Kás or Kos and the Mándhal both on the right bank, are numerous but of little importance, being merely mountain torrents which cease to flow almost immediately on the cessation of rain. The bed of the Mula is deep and rocky. For the last eight or ten miles of its course through Sangamner it forms the boundary between Sangamner and Párner and finally passes out of the Sangamner limits at the extreme south-east corner near the hill of Gorikhar in the village lands of Sindodi.

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*Aspect.**Water.*

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SANGAMNER.
Climate.

It would be natural to expect that Sangamner being thus traversed by main spurs from the Sahyádris would have a better rainfall than the neighbouring and less advantageously situated sub-divisions of Sinnar, Kopargaon, and Ráhuri. Statistics however show that the reverse is the case and this is more remarkable as both Ráhuri and Kopargaon are not only further from the Sahyádris but are flat in comparison with Sangamner. The following statement gives the monthly rainfall during the eleven years ending 1884 :

Sangamner Rainfall, 1874-1884.

MONTH.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
January	0.68
February	0.26	...	0.19
March	0.10	...	0.16
April	0.92	0.10	0.34	0.15	...	0.03
May ...	2.90	1.10	...	9.76	...	2.72	0.19	1.01	0.69	1.19	...
June ...	7.73	5.38	3.80	5.41	2.28	7.63	2.93	2.08	6.88	5.34	1.54
July ...	4.45	3.05	2.20	0.20	6.77	4.22	2.25	2.36	3.61	4.64	7.01
August ...	1.38	3.79	0.84	0.01	6.83	2.61	0.08	1.25	1.89	6.14	1.60
September ...	6.34	9.71	0.11	6.25	8.80	0.90	8.24	2.87	11.73	5.74	4.02
October ...	1.70	...	0.05	3.24	1.92	3.70	1.25	4.93	0.10	8.82	4.32
November	0.09	0.50	...	1.14	0.08	...
December	0.08
Total ...	24.50	24.05	6.59	16.29	26.75	22.17	15.41	14.69	26.02	31.95	19.20

Cultivation.

The mode of husbandry does not differ materially from that obtaining in the Deccan generally except as regards ploughing. In many of the Poona sub-divisions the heavy soils are ploughed once in two and three years, whereas in Sangamner both heavy and light soils are ploughed every year. From the presence of weed and coarse high grass in some of the fields tillage operations seem to be frequently performed carelessly and cannot bear comparison with the careful cultivation seen elsewhere. Possibly the long succession of bad seasons may have something to do with this seeming neglect. Manure is generally employed in irrigated lands only and these even get but an insufficient quantity, while dry-crop lands are manured at rare intervals, sheep and goat droppings being used as a top dressing. Very rarely are two crops raised, the soil from its light friable nature not retaining sufficient moisture after the monsoon. The area under *kharif* or early crops is to that under *rabi* or late as three to one. In Sangamner as well as in the other sub-divisions of the district, the area under *kharif* has largely increased of late years and in the hill villages of the south and south-west early crops are almost exclusively grown.

Irrigation.

Owing to the confined nature of the valley of the Pravara the courses of its minor tributaries are short and deep, and irrigation from dams or *bandhárás* is not carried on to any great extent, and even where practised the water-supply is limited, being on the average available only up to the 1st of January or thereabouts. There is a masonry weir of considerable dimensions at Javle built across the Raita some twenty-five years ago, but owing to faulty construction it does not retain the water and has never been of any use. With the exception therefore of irrigation from the Ojhar canal garden cultivation is carried on chiefly by means of wells.

A large dam of solid masonry 830 feet long and with a maximum height of twenty-nine feet was in 1873 built across the rocky bed of the Pravara by the Irrigation Department close to the village of Ojhar-Khurd. The total cost of the dam together with the headworks was about £6000 (Rs. 60,000). The canal or channel which leads the water from the work is on the north side of the river, and the total area irrigated from the seventeen miles which lie in the Sangamner sub-division was 517 acres in 1878-79, 885 acres in 1879-80, and 2227 acres in 1880-81. Irrigation rates vary from 2s. to 16s. (Rs. 1-8) an acre according to the number of months for which the water is supplied. A large area of valuable alluvial land has been formed by the silting up of the river above the weir. As the flow of the Pravara river is uncertain during the hot months, a scheme for the formation of a large storage reservoir at Mháládevi in the Akola sub-division about twenty-five miles above the dam has received the sanction of Government and will soon be commenced.

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Ojhar Canal.

Of 204,020 acres the actual area under cultivation in 1881-82, grain crops occupied 197,190 acres or 96·65 per cent, of which 157,823 were under spiked millet *bájrí* *Penicillaria spicata*; 30,043 under Indian millet *juári* *Sorghum vulgare*; 8461 under wheat *gahu* *Triticum æstivum*; 309 under *rági* or *náchni* Eleusine corocana; 232 under rice *bhát* *Oryza sativa*; 70 under maize *makka* *Zea mays*; 15 under *kodra* or *harik* *Paspalum scrobiculatum*; and 237 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 4764 acres or 2·33 per cent, of which 2206 were under gram *harbhara* *Cicer arietinum*; 329 under *kulith* or *kulthi* *Dolichos biflorus*; 102 under *tur* *Cajanus indicus*; 980 under *mug* *Phaseolus radiatus*; 175 under *udid* *Phaseolus mungo*; two under peas *vátána* *Pisum sativum*; and 970 under other pulses. Oil-seeds occupied 662 acres or 0·32 per cent, of which 190 were under gingelly seed *til* *Sesamum indicum*, and 472 under other oil-seeds. Fibres occupied 11 acres of which six were under Bombay hemp *san* or *tág* *Crotalaria juncea*, and five under brown hemp *ambádi* *Hibiscus cannabinus*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 1393 acres or 0·68 per cent, of which 428 were under tobacco *tambáku* *Nicotiana tabacum*; 414 under chillies *mirchi* *Capsicum frutescens*; 205 under sugarcane *us* *Saccharum officinarum*; 36 under hemp *gánja* *Cannabis sativa*; and the remaining 310 under various vegetables and fruits.

Crops.

The 1881 population returns show that of 68,357 people 64,598 or 94·50 per cent were Hindus; 3728 or 5·45 per cent Musalmáns; 28 Christians; and three Sikhs. The details of the Hindu castes are: 3095 Bráhmans; 13 Káyasth Prabhus, writers; 417 Osvál Márwáris, 146 Sansári Jangams, 63 Gujarát Jains, 51 Meshri Márwáris, 45 Kunam Vánis, 17 Gujarát Vánis, and 10 Komtis, traders and merchants; 32,093 Kunbis, 2312 Mális, 274 Rajputs, 38 Bangars, and 2 Pahádis, husbandmen; 923 Sutárs, carpenters; 759 Sális, weavers; 758 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 684 Koshtis, weavers; 638 Shimpis, tailors; 598 Kumbhárs, potters; 585 Telis, oil-pressers; 366 Lohárs, blacksmiths; 292 Khatris, weavers; 276 Nirális, indigo-

People.

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People.

dyers; 187 Kásárs, brass-makers; 50 Kaikádis, basket-makers; 41 Lonáris, lime-burners; 33 Vadárs, diggers; 30 Beldárs, quarrymen; 20 Lingáyat Púruds, basket-makers; 10 Tábats, coppersmiths; 8 Bhádbhunjás, grain-parchers; 8 Kattais, leather-workers; one Otári, caster; 522 Guravs, priests; 758 Nhávis, barbers; 299 Parits, washermen; 3941 Dhangars, cowmen; 2 Gavlis, cow-keepers; 3740 Varjáris, caravan-men; 33 Káhárs, fishers; 31 Kámáthis, labourers; 26 Bhois, fishers; 9 Lamáns, carriers; 5058 Mhárs, labourers; 1251 Chámhárs, shoemakers; 435 Mángs, messengers; 118 Dhors, tanners; 14 Bhangis, sweepers; 432 Gosávis, 71 Mánbháva, 40 Bhorpis, 34 Joshis, 34 Gondhlis, 19 Gopáls, and 18 Kolháris, beggars; 1549 Kolis, 976 Rámoshis, 189 Bhils, 109 Bharádis, and 47 Ráváls, unsettled tribes.

Roads.

Sangamner has on the whole better lines of communication than most of the other sub-divisions, being traversed from north to south and from east to west by two good roads which intersect at the town of Sangamner. The first of these the Poona-Násik provincial high road enters the sub-division on the south at the fifty-eighth mile from Poona. It then passes over a depression in the Harishchandra range of hills by easy gradients through the village of Bota 61½ miles and descends to the Mula river which at Ambeghadgaon sixty-seven miles, is crossed by a flying bridge. Thence it ascends the Báleshvar range passing the villages of Dolasna seventy-three miles and Karjale seventy-five miles and descends into the Pravara valley by the Chandnápuri pass¹ locally known as Hanmant Náik's pass. The town of Sangamner which stands on the north side of the river Pravara crossed by a flying bridge is reached at the eighty-seventh mile from Poona. The road then passes over the northern range of hills near the village of Karhe and enters the Násik district in the ninety-sixth mile. All the smaller streams on this route are bridged but at some of the larger ones traffic is not unfrequently impeded for short periods during heavy rain. There is a toll-gate at the foot of the Chandnápuri pass. The second is a local fund road from Loni, a village in the east of the sub-division, to Sangamner and forms the main line of communication with Ahmadnagar, Loni being connected with Kolhár on the Málegaon road by a short section of five miles recently bridged and thoroughly repaired. From Loni, forty-one miles north-west of Ahmadnagar, the road passes due west through the villages of Nimgaon-Jáli 46½ miles; Konchi forty-nine miles; Kokangaon

¹ Near the top, upon the ridge of a natural trap-dyke, a stone pillar commemorates the death of Hanmant Náik, a local Bhil chief who made war on the Moghals, or according to another story on the Peshwa. Their enemy came fighting about seventy miles from Poona, and the Bhils waited for them to pass. As Hanmant Náik was bending his bow, a trooper shot him in the breast with a matchlock ball. The wound was fatal, but as he fell he loosed his shaft and killed the horseman. After the battle the Bhils brought Hanmant's body, and buried it where the horseman had stood. Here all Bhils love to be buried, and once a year they come and slay cocks and drink deeply. The tomb is covered with little wooden legs and arms offered by worshippers, who hope by Hanmant's favour to cure an ailing limb. Close by are two or three other tombs of the same sort, square platforms surmounted by little obelisks, and others more modest. Mr. Sinclair, C.S. in Ind. Ant. V. 8.

fifty-one miles; Vadgaon fifty-four miles; and Samnápúr fifty-six miles, reaching Sangamner in the fifty-ninth mile. Leaving Sangamner it passes still due west through the village of Chikhli sixty-three miles, and enters the Akola sub-division in the sixty-eighth mile. The Kolhár-Nándur road, also a local fund road which, with the exception of the first five miles forming part of the route from Ahmadnagar to Sangamner, is now very little used traverses the sub-division on the north-east. Formerly large quantities of timber were brought from the Násik forests to Ahmadnagar by this route, but of late years the supply has greatly fallen off and as there is now railway communication through Manmád it seems unlikely that the road will ever be much used again. From Loni it pursues a north-westerly direction passing through the villages of Gogalgaon forty-four miles from Ahmadnagar; Lohára-Mirpur 47½ miles; Kására 49½ miles; Vadjhiri fifty-three miles; Talegaon fifty-five miles; Nánaj fifty-eight miles; Pimple sixty miles, and Nimon sixty-two miles, and enters the Sinner sub-division of Násik in the sixty-fifth mile and joins the Poona-Násik high road two miles beyond the boundary of Sangamner. The greater portion of this road has fallen into disrepair. In addition to these three main routes there are many cart-tracks which have from time to time been repaired and improved. Two of these are the road from Panodi over the Báleshvar range to Mándva a village on the river Mula and the road from Pimpalgaon-depa through Sákur to the same village of Mándva and thence, across the river, up to the northern plateau of the Párner sub-division by the Palshi-Mándva pass. All these roads have been made during the last thirty years and with the exception of a few villages in the difficult country south of Javle-Báleshvar nearly every part of the sub-division is now accessible to carts.

The nearest stations to Sangamner are Násik Road on the north-east section of the Peninsula Railway distant thirty-seven miles, and Belápúr on the Dhond-Manmád railway distant thirty-one miles.

The following statement gives a list of the villages where weekly markets are held:

Sangamner Markets.

VILLAGE.	Day.	VILLAGE.	Day.
Sangamner ...	Wednesday and Saturday.	Sátral	Tuesday.
Nimon	Friday.	Ashvi	Monday.
Sákur	Wednesday.	Pemguri	Friday.

On Wednesdays the principal article brought and sold at Sangamner is rice, and on Saturdays there are transactions in live stock. At the other markets only the ordinary commodities of cloth, grain, groceries, and vegetable are offered for sale. The cultivators also visit the weekly markets at Ráháta, Korhále, and Mamdápúr in the Kopargaon sub-division. Mamdápúr is the largest cattle market in the north of the district.

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SANGAMNER.

Crafts.

The manufactures are cotton and silk cloths, turbans, woollen blankets, bangles, and saltpetre. There are about 2100 looms worked in the sub-division of which 2000 are in the town of Sangamner itself where the weaving trade is very brisk. The yarn now used is principally English. Bangles are made at Pemgiri by a small colony of Kácháris, Telegu-speaking inhabitants of Southern India who established kilns in that village some fifty years ago. The yearly value of the outturn from their three kilns is said to be £150 (Rs. 1500) and the bangles are chiefly purchased by itinerant merchants who export them to different parts of the district and also to Bombay. Saltpetre is manufactured, though to a very limited extent, from nitrated earth in the villages of Loni, Adgaon, Lohára, Gogalgaon, Jorve, and Mirjhápur.

Survey.

Survey rates were first introduced in 1849 into 102 villages which were, with the exception of twelve villages adjacent to the Akola boundary, divided into two classes each with a maximum dry-crop rate of 3s. (Rs. 1½) an acre though with slightly different classification values. In the twelve villages above alluded to a maximum rate of 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1¾) was fixed; subsequently however four of them were transferred to the lower classes. In all these villages the average incidence of these rates amounted to 1s. 2½d. (9¼ as.) an acre. On the expiry of the first term of thirty years these 102 villages, now reckoned as 105, together with twenty-nine others received from the Akola, Junnar, and Párner sub-divisions but less two which had been transferred to Ráhuri, were re-measured and re-classed and the revised rates received the sanction of Government in 1880 and 1881. These 132 villages were divided into six groups. The first group, with a maximum dry-crop rate of 4s. (Rs. 2) an acre comprised twenty-two villages in the west of the subdivision lying in the valley of the Pravara and in the neighbourhood of the town of Sangamner; the second group with a maximum rate of 3s. 9d. (Rs. 1⅞) comprised eight villages in the Pravara valley to the east of Sangamner; the third with a maximum rate of 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1¾) an acre comprised fifty-nine villages of which forty-three are situated east of those in the second group and sixteen are in the north of the sub-division; the fourth group with a maximum rate of 3s. 3d. (Rs. 1⅝) comprised sixteen villages in the extreme east of the sub-division; the fifth group with a maximum rate of 3s. (Rs. 1½) comprised twenty villages lying south of the Báleshvar range in the Mula valley; and the sixth group with a maximum rate of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1⅓) an acre comprised seven villages in the hilly country southwest of Sangamner, where, though the rainfall is good there is a great scarcity of water and where the soil is shallow and poor. The average incidence of these rates shows an increase of thirty per cent over those leviable in the same villages under the old rates. Of the remaining nineteen Government villages revision rates were introduced in 1875-76 into the five villages which were received from Násik. In the four south-eastern villages which were received from Párner and Nagar the first term of settlement is still current as it is also in nine alienated villages which lapsed to Government between 1853 and 1855. The one remaining village Sheri-kuran is a forest.

reserve and therefore not now assessed. Survey rates have also at different times been introduced into five of the eight alienated villages of the sub-division.

Sangamner in the time of the Peshwás consisted of two *parganá*s Sangamner and Dhandarphal, Sangamner being again subdivided into the *tarafs* of Shelke and Mhaske. In 1848 the number of Government villages was 106 and of alienated villages twelve. In 1853-54 a hamlet¹ of Javle-Báleshvar was reckoned as a separate village. In 1861-62 three villages were transferred to Ráhuri and one village to Kopargaon. At the same time six villages in the Devpur *taraf* were received from Násik; thirteen² from Akola; three Sakur, Sindodi, and Mándva-Budruk from Nagar; and two Kantá-Malkápur and Varvandi from Párner. On the abolition of the Sirur sub-division in 1866-67 seventeen villages were received from Shivner, now the Junnar sub-division of Poona, but of these seven were retransferred³ in the following year to Akola, the Párner village of Hivargaonpathár, and five Akola villages of *taraf* Pathár being received in exchange. In 1872-73 another village Aklápur, was added from Párner, thus making the total number of villages in the sub-division 156. Subsequently in 1881 four villages,⁴ originally distinct but which had for many years been reckoned as one in the Government records, were again separated at the suggestion of the survey authorities. So that the sub-division at present contains 159 villages, of which 151 belong to Government and eight are wholly or partially alienated. The following table gives a nominal list and shows to which of the *tarafs* each village formerly belonged :

Sangamner Villages, 1883.

VILLAGE.	<i>Taraf</i>	VILLAGE.	<i>Taraf</i>	VILLAGE.	<i>Taraf</i>
Kanoli	Mhaske fifty-five villages.	Ambhora.	Mhaske fifty-five villages— <i>contd.</i>	Khándgaon.	Mhaske fifty-five villages— <i>contd.</i>
Kankápur.		Sangamner-Khurđ		Jákhori	
Jhole		Ojhar-Budruk		Dadh-Budruk.	
Sátral		Nimgaon.		Dadh-Khurđ.	
Chandnápur.		Durgapur.		Shedgaon	
Khali		Pratáppur.		Pimpri.	
Ráhpur		Pimparne.		Lavki	
Jharekátthi.		Shirapur.		Ajampur.	
Sávargaon.		Jámgaon.		Takrápur.	
Vághápur.		Kolváde.		Pánodi 1	
Devgaon.		Ashvi-Budruk.		Sublapur 1	
Kharádi.		Digras		Ojhar Khurđ 1	
Raita		Mánchi.		Kasárvádi 1	
Chanegaon.		Konchi			
Chinchpur-Budruk.		Ashvi-Khurđ.			
Chunchpur-Khurđ		Nimgaon-Jáli.			
Hivargaon.		Jorve		Pimpri-nirmal.	Shelke forty-five villages
Malunja.	Hangevádi.	Kására.			
Chanurapur.	Manoli	Maldád			
Dhanora	Pokhri	Hasnábad			
Songaon.	Aurangpur	Vadgaon-Khurđ.			
		Nimbále.			

¹ Sheri-kuran.

² Of the thirteen villages two were in *taraf* Rumanvádi, four in *taraf* Bojápur, and seven in *taraf* Pathár.

³ Leaving ten villages five of *taraf* Belhe, three of *taraf* Karda, and two of *taraf* Alhe.

⁴ The four villages are Pimpri, Lavki, Ajampur, and Takrápur.

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Sangamner Villages, 1883—continued.

VILLAGE.	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.	
Kuran. Nilvande. Talegaon. Junezaon. Ajampur. Arampur. Tigaon. Gogalgaon. Kokangaon. Kante-Kamleshvar. Lohara. Loni-Budruk. Loni-Khurd. Hasnapur. Panbaki. Khatapur. Umr. Balapur. Mendhvan. Karute. Vajhiri-Budruk. Vajhiri-Khurd. Shivapur. Chorkante. Malegaon. Sadatpur. Vadgaon-Budruk. Sangamner. Chimcholi-guro. Samnapur. Velhale. Rajapur. Adgaon-Budruk. Adgaon-Khurd. Pimpri-lokal. Mirpur. Kelvad-Budruk. Kelvad-Khurd. Satara.	Shekhe forty-five villages—continued.	Dhandarphal. Pengri. Nimgaon-Budruk. Kante. Mirjhapur. Sonoshi. Sirasgaon. Dhupa. Savarchol. Nimgaon-Khurd. Nimaj. Dhandarphal Khurd. Pimpalgaon - Konj-hira. Pimpalgaon-Matha. Manglapur. Sangvi. Nanduri.1	Dhandarphal seventeen villages.	Javle-Kadlak. Vadgaon-Landga.	Ruman- vad, two villages.	
		Mhasvandi. Kurkundi. Jambhut-Budruk. Jambhut-Khurd. Sindodi. Pokhri-Baleshvar. Sarola. Dolasna. Varudi. Karjule. Malegaon. Pimpalgaon-Deps. Ambi.1		Pathar thirteen villages.		
		Nimgaon. Chikhli. Sarkhindi. Chikhni.			Bojapur four vil- lages.	Bota. Savargaon.
		Nimon. Karke. Pimple. Paregaon-Budruk. Paregaon-Khurd. Nana.1		Devpur six villages.	Javle-Baleshvar. Vankuta. Bojdari. Kanta-Budruk. Kanta-Khurd. Hivargaon. Sheri-Kuran. Kanta-Malkapur. Aklapur.	Belhe nine villages.
Varvandi. Sakur. Mandva-Budruk.1	Thadi three villages	Wandur-Khandar- mal. Ghargaon. Ambi.	Karde three villages.			

* Villages with 1 after their names are alienated.

SHEVGAON,

Shevgaon, the most easterly sub-division, is bounded on the north-east and east by the Nizam's territory, on the south by Jamkhed and the Nizam's territory, on the south-west by Nagar, and on the west and north-west by Nevasa. It has an area of 670 square miles and comprises 188 villages. In 1881 its population was 87,113 or 130 to the square mile and in 1882-83 the land revenue amounted to £15,692 (Rs. 1,56,920).

Area.

Of an area of 670 square miles 597 have been surveyed in detail. Of these 27,520 acres are the lands of alienated villages. The rest includes 294,407 acres of 82.99 per cent of arable land; 30,256 acres or 8.52 per cent of unarable; 19,165 or 5.40 per cent of forest reserves; and 10,912 or 3.07 per cent of village sites, roads, and river beds. From the 294,407 acres of arable land, 16,516 or 5.60 per cent have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages. Of 277,891 acres, the actual area of arable Government land, 248,615 acres or 89.46 per cent were in 1882-83 held for tillage. Of these 244,439 acres were dry-crop and 4176 acres were watered garden land.

Aspect.

With the exception of two of its villages Jat-devla and Manik-daundi Shevgaon lies in the valley of the river Godavari which forms a natural boundary on the north-east. On the south-west is the high wall of hills dividing Shevgaon from the more elevated

sub-division of Nagar. Except in the south and south-east where spurs from the Nagar range of hills jut out into the valley the ground is level. The hilly portion has a varied and picturesque aspect, several of the minor valleys being well wooded, and in the neighbourhood of the villages there are more extensive patches of garden cultivation than are found in the plain portion of the sub-division.

With one or two exceptions the streams which drain the sub-division all rise in the hills on the south and south-east and flow northward into the Godávári. The Dhora which rises in the Nevása sub-division skirts Shevgaon on the north-west, and is joined by the Erdha, the Nani, and other minor streams which rise in the hills south of Tisgaon and Páthardi. The two villages of Mánikdaundi and Ját-devla lying on the southern slopes of the Nagar range are watered by streams which flow into the river Mehekri a branch of the Sina. The village of Kharvandi in the south-east stands on a minor branch of the Siphana river which, though a tributary of the Godávári does not in any part of its course enter the Shevgaon sub-division, flowing through the Nizám's territory much further to the east.

The Shevgaon villages are for the most part very well supplied with water which throughout the low grounds is always to be found at a moderate depth. Many of the small streams also have a perennial flow affording a plentiful supply of drinking water to the villages on their banks.

Near the Godávári the soil is deep and stiff but near the hills it is of a lighter texture and more easily worked. On the gently elevated tracts of *mál* land between the minor streams the soil is poor and hard, but on the whole this sub-division is the most fertile in the district.

The rainfall too is more certain and plentiful than in any of the adjacent sub-divisions. Even in the famine years of 1876, 1877, and 1878 Shevgaon hardly suffered at all. The following statement gives the monthly rainfall during the eleven years ending 1884 :

Shevgaon Rainfall, 1874-1884.

MONTH.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
January	1.70	0.31
February	0.31	...	0.14
March	0.14	0.60
April	0.35	0.04	...	0.10
May ...	8.94	0.20	0.18	5.15	0.16	0.40	0.21	0.38	...
June ...	7.92	1.80	3.22	7.12	2.56	7.76	2.96	4.82	9.22	7.07	1.94
July ...	8.39	2.08	7.75	0.58	11.73	5.98	5.79	5.74	3.96	2.15	2.05
August ...	0.91	6.12	3.09	1.49	12.52	7.41	1.95	3.54	2.50	9.87	2.40
September ...	12.45	13.20	5.94	5.32	6.25	1.45	7.45	4.80	5.91	12.63	3.27
October ...	2.10	2.08	...	3.60	3.58	1.30	2.28	1.68	...	2.59	4.54
November ...	0.53	...	0.60	1.24	.05	0.05	1.02	1.22	0.57	0.31	...
December	1.13	...	0.20
Total ..	36.24	26.61	20.80	21.54	38.22	29.19	23.19	22.00	22.41	35.00	14.61

Early and late crops are grown in about equal proportions. Of 222,759 acres the actual area under cultivation in 1881-82, grain crops occupied 177,102 acres or 79.50 per cent of which 82,750 were under

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spiked millet *bájni* *Penicillaria spicata*; 84,160 under Indian millet *juári* *Sorghum vulgare*; 9541 under wheat *gahu* *Triticum aestivum*; four under *rági* or *náchni* *Eleusine corocana*; three under rice *bhát* *Oryza sativa*; 18 under chenna *sáva* *Panicum miliaceum*; 457 under maize *makka* *Zea mays*; 8 under barley *jav* *Hordeum hexastichon*; and 161 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 17,612 acres or 7.90 per cent of which 7983 were under gram *harbhara* *Cicer arietinum*; 4891 under *kulith* or *kulthi* *Dolichos biflorus*; 4043 under *tur* *Cajanus indicus*; 131 under *mug* *Phaseolus radiatus*; and 564 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 7001 acres or 3.14 per cent, of which 3901 were under gingelly seed *til* *Sesamum indicum*; 1239 under linseed *alshi* *Linum usitatissimum*; 127 under mustard *rái* *Sinapis racemosa*, and 1734 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 19,531 acres or 8.76 per cent of which 18,824 were under cotton *kápus* *Gossypium herbaceum*; 677 under Bombay hemp *san* or *tág* *Crotalaria juncea*, and 30 under brown hemp *ambádi* *Hibiscus cannabinus*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 1513 acres or 0.67 per cent, of which 593 were under tobacco *tambáku* *Nicotiana tabacum*; 329 under chillies *mirchi* *Capsicum frutescens*; 401 under sugarcane *us* *Saccharum officinarum*; 12 under hemp *gánja* *Cannabis sativa*, and the remaining 178 under various vegetables and fruits.

People.

The 1881 population returns show that of 87,113 people 81,261 or 93.28 per cent were Hindus, 5776 or 6.63 per cent Musalmáns, 74 Christians, one Pársi, and one Sikh. The details of the Hindu castes are: 3338 Bráhmans; 5 Káyasth Prabhús, writers; 1628 Osvál Márwáris, 469 Sansári Jangams, 302 Lád Vánis, 227 Kunam Vánis, 65 Gujarát Jains, 44 Meshri Márwáris, and 8 Gujarát Vánis, traders and merchants; 31,368 Kumbis, 2127 Mális, 379 Rajputs, and 17 Bangars, husbandmen; 2062 Koshtis, weavers; 913 Sutárs, carpenters; 846 Telis, oil-pressers; 782 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 701 Kumbhárs, potters; 548 Kásárs, brass-makers; 454 Lohárs, blacksmiths; 330 Shimpis, tailors; 301 Nirális, indigo-dyers; 274 Vadárs, diggers; 222 Sális, weavers; 139 Kaikádis, basket-makers; 46 Beldárs, quarrymen; 45 Tábats, coppersmiths; 39 Lingáyát Buruds, basket-makers; 25 Gavandis, masons; 19 Pardeshi Halvais, confectioners; 16 Lonáris lime-burners; 16 Ghisádis, wandering blacksmiths; 15 Mochis and 11 Kattáis, leather-workers; 8 Jingars, saddle-makers; 156 Guravs, priests; 934 Nhávis, barbers; 325 Parits, washermen; 5292 Dhangars, cow-men; 6 Gavlis, cow-keepers; 11,775 Vanjáris, caravan-men; 279 Lamáns, carriers; 162 Bhois and 83 Káhárs, fishers; 7355 Mhárs, labourers; 3289 Mángs, messengers; 1426 Chámbhárs, shoemakers; 322 Dhors, tanners; 620 Gosávis, 158 Kolhátis, 135 Mánbhávs, 130 Gondhlis, 95 Gopáls, 50 Bhorpis, and 7 Joshis, beggars; 317 Kolis, 300 Bhils, 133 Rámoshis, 70 Bharádis, 36 Tirmális, and 17 Ráváls, unsettled tribes.

Roads.

The provincial road from Ahmadnagar to Paithan enters the Shevgaon sub-division on the west at the village of Dhorjalgaon thirty-three miles north-east of Ahmadnagar. Passing by the villages

of Sámangaon and Vadule it reaches Shevgaon in the forty-first mile. Thence through the villages of Talni and Ghotan it enters on the Nizám's territory at the fifty-second mile by the village of Karhe-Tákli. The town of Paithan on the north bank of the Godávári lies three miles beyond the British boundary. Shevgaon is also connected with Ahmadnagar by another road, a local fund road, which enters the sub-division on the south-west at the top of the Karanja pass fifteen miles east of Ahmadnagar. After winding down the pass for two miles it passes up through the villages of Karanja eighteen miles, Devrai twenty-one miles, Tisgaon twenty-four miles, Amrápur thirty-four miles, and Bhagur thirty-seven miles, reaching Shevgaon in the fortieth mile.

The following statement gives a list of the places where weekly markets are held :

Shevgaon Markets.

VILLAGE.	Day.	VILLAGE.	Day.
Páthardi ...	Wednesday.	Mungi ...	Monday.
Bodhegaon ...	Thursday.	Tisgaon.. ...	Thursday.
Yeradgaon ...	Friday.	Shevgaon .	Sunday.
Kámbi ...	Wednesday.	Khavandi ...	Sunday.
Koradgaon ...	Saturday.	Vadule Khurd..	Monday.

Páthardi is the chief cattle market whilst at Bodhegaon the largest transactions in grain are effected. Both places are the residences of wealthy merchants. At Yeradgaon also live stock can be purchased.

About 3000 looms are worked in the Shevgaon sub-division of which about 2000 are in the town of Páthardi, which formerly belonged to Sindia, and 200 in Tisgaon. Although a few silk cloths are woven, the principal manufacture is of various kinds of cotton cloths, mostly coarse. Of late years English yarn has been largely used.

Shevgaon was surveyed between 1850 and 1852, the new rates being introduced in the following year. The 77½ Government villages which were then and are still comprised in the sub-division were divided into four groups. The first group consisting of eight villages in the south-west of the sub-division near the market-town of Páthardi had a maximum dry-crop rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1¼) an acre; the second group consisted of 38½ villages situated to the north and north-east of those in the first group, but not possessing so good a climate or being further from markets, the maximum rate was fixed at 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) an acre; the third group of twenty-three villages still less favourably situated had a maximum rate of 2s. (Rs. 1) an acre; and in the fourth group of eight villages in the extreme north-east the maximum rate was 1s. 9d. (14 as.) an acre. The average rate on lands which had been cultivated in the year of the settlement was reduced from 1s. 9d. to 1s. 1½d. (14-9 as.) an acre, a relief to the extent of nearly thirty six per cent. On garden land irrigated from wells the maximum rate was fixed at 6s. (Rs. 3) except in nine villages, where it was reduced to 5s. (Rs. 2½) an acre. The 61½ villages obtained from Sindia in 1860 were subsequently surveyed and classed on similar principles.

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About the middle of the last century Shevgaon was acquired from the Nizám by the Maráthás and in 1752 by mutual agreement was divided between Sindia and Holkar. In 1818-19 Holkar's share came into possession of the British. The sub-division, then embracing some 176 villages was incorporated with Nevása in 1825-26 but again separated in 1834-35. In 1850 Government owned 78½ of the villages, 97½ being wholly or partially alienated. By the treaty with Sindia in 1860, 61½ of the alienated villages were acquired. In 1861-62 twelve villages were transferred to Nevása and three to Nagar in place of twenty-six villages received from Nevása¹ and one, Jatdevla, from Korti. Seven alienated villages have lapsed to Government at different times since 1850 and now of the 188 villages composing the sub-division 160 belong to Government and twenty-eight are wholly or partially alienated.

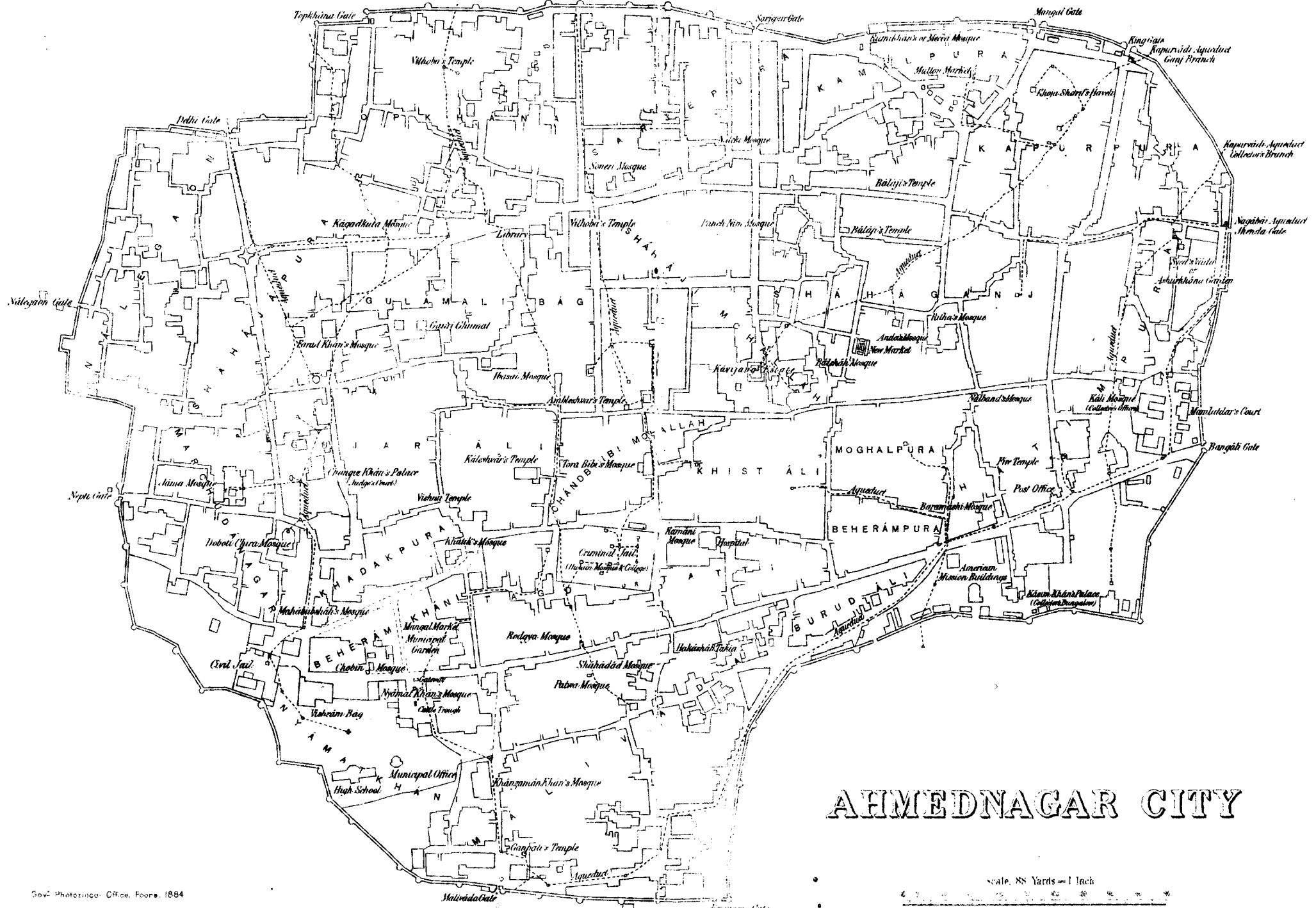
The following table contains a nominal list of the villages and shows to which of the ancient *tarafs* each belonged :

Shevgaon Villages, 1883. *

VILLAGE.*	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.
Valunj.	Pargana Shevgaon 161 villages.	Dhámangaon.	Pargana Shevgaon 161 villages—continued.	Avháne-Khurd.1	Pargana Shevgaon 161 villages—continued.
Shekte Khurd.		Nivadunge.		Shevgaon.	
Dhorjalgaon.		Pingevádi.		Khirdi.	
Parevádi.		Pathardi.		Khacke.	
Agaskhán.		Barhánpur.		Karjat-Budruk.	
Saraphe.		Belgaon.		Kempur.	
Prabh-pimpri.		Bodhegaon.1		Sone-sángvl.	
Karjat-Khurd.		Bhute-táklí.		Samangaon.	
Madke.		Bhábi-nimgaon.		Sultánpur-Khurd.	
Sulepimpalgaon.		Marhadpur.		Kberde.	
Badhávangaon.		Ládjalgaon.1		Madhi.	
Pimpalgavhán.		Lakhmápur.1		Mohote.	
Dulechándgaon.		Vágholi.		Karodi.	
Khambgaon.		Vadule-Khurd.		Kalaspimpri.	
Nágalvádi.		Vasu 1		Padali.	
Murni.		Saidápur.		Joharvádi.	
Trigaon.		Sonvahir.		Ghátarasa.	
Bhorde.		Sukali.		Bodke.	
Thákur-nimgaon.		Somtháne-Budruk.		Chitale-nime.	
Rakshi.		Somtháne-nalvade.		Kolgaon.	
Mangrul-Khurd.		Sángvi-Budruk.		Hingangaon.	
Kharvandi.		Sángvi-Khurd.1		Málegaon.	
Vadule-Budruk.		Shirapur.		Ránegaon.	
Bálamtáklí.		Sátvad.		Antre.	
Yeh.		Sakegaon.1		Kandgaon.	
Vadgaon.		Isnápur.		Shingori.	
Mungi.		Hanmant-táklí.		Johrapur.	
Adhodí.		Hatrál.		Shahapur.	
Kelvandi.		Hátgaon.1		Thate.	
Kolsángvi.		Dongarákhegaon.		Nándur.	
Karegaon-Khurd.		Shekte Budruk.		Antarváll-Budruk.	
Konosi.1		Pangoripimpalgaon		Appaon.	
Kásárpimpalgaon.1		Varur-Khurd.		Maikapur.	
Gáikvád-jalgaon.1		Lakhephal.		Prabh-Vadgaon.	
Karhetáklí.1	Morgavhán.	Hingni.			
Khánápur.1	Chede-chandgaon.	Váksari.			
Warkhede.1	Varur-Budruk.1	Dahiphal.			
Avháne-Budruk.1	Nimbári.	Golegaon.			
Chítale-nime-juni.	Agarnándur.	Jámblí.			
Chápadgaon.	Nipáni-jalgaon.	Mohaj-Budruk.			
Javkhede-khálsa.	Shahajapur.1	Jirevádi.			
Thákur-pimpalgaon	Kálegaon.	Garudvádi.			
Dhor-chándgaon.	Bátgavhán.	Susare 1			
Dhor-hingni.	Divis.1	Gangápur.1			
Dahigaon.	Kharadgaon.1	Kámbi.1			

* Villages with 1 after their names are alienated.

¹ Of the twenty-six thirteen were of *taraf* Ghotan, eight of *taraf* Shirál, two *taraf* Shahartáklí, and Devlára, Vagholi, and Málegaon.



AHMEDNAGAR CITY

Scale, 88 Yards = 1 Inch

Shevgaon Villages, 1883—continued.

VILLAGE.*	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.
Sonoshi. Gogalegaon. Bráhmangaon. Dadegaon. Khampimpri. Dhas-yeradgaon. Bhagvat-yeradgaon. Samsudi-yeradgaon. Akoile. Akhegaon. Mohari. Aurangpur. Aminpur. Koradgaon. Ghuvri. Mangrul-Budruk. Amrápur. Sultánpur-Budruk. Bhagur.1 Godevádi.1 Nimboh. Loilegaon. Kuradgaon. Mohoj-Khurd. Antarvali-Khurd. Kopre.	Pargana Shevgaon 161 villages—continued.	Málegaon	Dedgaon.	Máli-bábhulgaon. Shekte. Sáivadgaon. Nyásháli. Talni. Revtaile. Málegaon. Antarvad-Khurd. Ghotan. Tondoli. Nájk-bábhulgaon.1 Tánápur. Khuntephal.	Ghotan thirteen villages.
Dhorsade. Hingangaon.		Shaharákál.	Adgaon. Kámatsingva. Somtháne-Khurd.1 Jaukhede-Khurd.1 Mohoj Budruk. Devrái. Tribhuvva nvádi. Mandva.	Shivál 8 villages.	
Devláne		Dahigaon.	Mánikdavandi. Ját-devle.1	Kadé.	

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Shrigonda, one of the two southern sub-divisions of the district, is bounded on the north by Párner and Nagar; on the east by Karjat; on the south by Bhimthadi; and on the west by Sirur, both sub-divisions of the Poona district. Its length from north to south and its breadth from east to west are each about twenty-eight miles. It comprises eighty-seven villages¹ in an area of 625 square miles. In 1881 the population was 51,291 or 82 to the square mile and in 1882-83 the land revenue was £10,641 (Rs. 1,06,410).

SHRIGONDA.

Of an area of 625 square miles, 607 have been surveyed in detail. Of these 17,518 acres are the lands of alienated villages.* The rest includes 287,418 acres or 77.36 per cent of arable land; 32,289 acres or 8.69 per cent of unarable; 30,729 or 8.27 per cent of forest reserves; and 21,095 or 5.67 per cent of village sites, roads, and river beds. From the 287,418 acres of arable land 23,475 or 8.16 per cent have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages. Of 263,943 acres, the actual area of arable Government land 228,096 acres or 86.41 per cent were in 1882-83 held for tillage. Of these 224,566 acres were dry-crop and 3530 acres watered garden land.

Area.

The greater part of the Shrigonda sub-division lies in the valley of the Bhima and has a gentle slope from the north-east towards that river on the south and its tributary the Ghod on the south-west. For the most part it is a level plain, with an average elevation of 1900 feet above the sea level, skirted on the north-east by a chain of low hills with flat summits. Fourteen of the villages lie on the north side of this range in the valley of the Sina. The chain of hills on the north-east is remarkable for its succession of flat summits or *pathárs* which have a uniform elevation of some 2500 feet. A

Aspect.

¹ Of these seventy-nine and not seventy-eight as given in the First Chapter are Government and eight alienated.

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few peaks however stand out prominently from this singular looking range the principal of which are a hill four miles east of Kolgaon in the village lands of Kothul 2826 feet high, and another one 1½ miles further east 2783 feet high. Adjacent to this hill is the large elevated tract known as the Dongar-pathár.

Water.

The Bhima river forms the southern boundary of the sub-division. Its chief tributary is the Ghod which forms the western boundary and falls into the Bhima at the extreme south-western corner. The eastern half of Shrigonda is drained by the Dev and its tributaries which flow south into the Bhima, whilst the western half is drained by Hanga and its tributaries which flow into the Ghod. The Dev has its sources in the hills of the north-east near the villages of Kosegavhán and Pisorákhánd. It flows south past the villages of Adalgaon and Ghodegaon receiving on its right the combined waters of the Ambil and the Sarasvati and falls into the Bhima on the east side of ancient fortifications of Pedgaon. The Hanga rises near Párner and flowing south, enters Shrigonda by the village of Chámburdi. Flowing on southward past Pimpalgaon-Pisa it receives on the left the Palsi on the banks of which stands the market town of Kolgaon. Passing by Belvandi the river turns towards the south-west and falls into the Ghod six miles below the villages of Yelpana and Pisorá. Both Hanga and Dev have a small perennial flow which is utilized in places for surface irrigation.

Soil.

Towards the hills the soil is generally of a very poor description. That of the centre of the sub-division is tolerably fertile, but in the neighbourhood of the Bhima deep clayey *munjal* soils prevail which require much labour in their cultivation and yield large crops only in years of plentiful rain. On the banks of this river small tracts of rich alluvial deposit are occasionally met with. Between most of the various streams which drain the sub-division are undulating tracts of *mál* land which are either unproductive or yield only scanty crops.

Climate.

The climate of Shrigonda is changeable. Near the hills on the north and north-east sufficient rain falls as a rule to ensure good crops on the light soils in that direction. In the central portion it is not so much to be depended on and further south where the nature of the soil requires abundant rain, years of failure seem to form the rule and a good year now and then the exception. The following statement gives the monthly rainfall during the eleven years ending 1884 :

Shrigonda Rainfall, 1874-1884.

MONTH.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.
	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
January	0·02	...	0·09
February
March	0·23	...	0·30	0·21	0·14
April	0·85	0·50	1·05
May ...	2·35	1·79	0·30	2·06	0·23	1·21	...	0·73	...
June ...	6·36	1·58	11·84	3·74	1·51	5·09	2·11	3·21	5·06	6·91	1·72
July ...	6·50	2·25	2·98	1·27	5·66	1·09	0·93	1·62	1·14	1·36	2·70
August	0·80	0·10	4·88	7·27	4·33	0·75	2·65	2·27	6·50	2·66
September ...	15·27	5·74	0·37	4·26	3·98	0·07	6·87	5·29	11·26	10·26	1·72
October ...	2·50	1·19	0·04	4·52	4·10	1·85	1·63	2·61	1·61	2·39	1·77
November	0·15	1·90	0·24	1·80	1·75	1·39	0·31	0·83	...
December	0·34	0·30
Total ...	33·48	20·05	15·48	21·30	23·56	16·89	14·48	18·23	23·12	29·06	16·67

There is little difference between the husbandry of Shrigonda and that of the neighbouring sub-divisions of Párner and Nagar. As a rule only irrigated lands are manured. The system of rotation is simple, consisting of alternate crops of wheat, gram, and *javári*. The advantages of good and early ploughing are well known, but few cultivators have the requisite number of cattle. A fallow is never permitted except from necessity. Irrigation is carried on by wells chiefly, but there are some eighteen temporary earthen dams thrown over the perennial streams which irrigate from 500 to 600 acres.

The area under *rabi* or late crops is about double that under *kharif* or early crops. The staple of the late crops is *javári*, of the early crops *bájrí* and *hulga* or *kulthi*. More *hulga* is grown in Shrigonda than in any other sub-division of the district. There are a few vineyards in the neighbourhood of the town of Shrigonda.

Of 192,031 acres the actual area under cultivation in 1881-82 grain crops occupied 152,371 acres or 79·32 per cent, of which 45,974 were under spiked millet *bájrí* *Penicillaria spicata*; 101,554 under Indian millet *javári* *Sorghum vulgare*; 4170 under wheat *gahu* *Triticum æstivum*; 190 under rice *bhát* *Oryza sativa*; 26 under chenna *sáva* *Panicum miliaceum*; 128 under maize *makka* *Zea mays*; 12 under barley *jav* *Hordeum hexastichon*; and 317 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 19,420 acres or 10·11 per cent of which 3772 were under gram *harbhara* *Cicer arietinum*; 6802 under *kulith* or *kulthi* or *hulga* *Dolichos biflorus*; 4337 under *tur* *Cajanus indicus*; 354 under *mug* *Phaseolus radiatus*; five under lentils *masur* *Ervum lens*, and 4150 under other pulses. Oil-seeds occupied 16,794 acres or 8·74 per cent of which 1388 were under gingelly-seed *til* *Sesamum indicum*, 333 under linseed *alshi* *Linum usitatissimum*, 91 under mustard *rái* *Sinapis racemosa*, and 14,982 under other oil-seeds. Fibres occupied 1653 acres or 0·86 per cent, of which 147 were under cotton *kápus* *Gossypium herbaceum*, and 1506 under Bombay hemp *san* or *tág* *Crotalaria juncea*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 1843 acres or 0·95 per cent of which 367 were under tobacco *tambáku* *Nicotiana tabacum*, 678 under chillies *mirchi* *Capsicum frutescens*, 245 under sugarcane *us* *Saccharum officinarum*, 319 under hemp *gánja* *Cannabis sativa*, and the remaining 234 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 51,291 people 49,126 or 95·77 per cent were Hindus, 2086 or 4·06 per cent Musalmáns, and 79 Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are: 2304 Bráhmans; 8 Pátáne Prabhus and 7 Káyasth Prabhus, writers; 893 Osvál Márwáris, 171 Sansári Jangams; 91 Kunam Vánis, 55 Gujarát Jains, and 13 Meshri Márwáris, traders and merchants; 24,279 Kunbis, 4417 Mális, 96 Rajputs, and 14 Bangars, husbandmen; 543 Sutárs, carpenters; 506 Telis, oil-pressers; 501 Kumbhárs, potters; 445 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 439 Shimpis, tailors; 292 Vadárs, diggers; 247 Sális, weavers; 237 Lohárs, blacksmiths; 125 Lákheris, lac-bracelet makers; 99 Kaikádis, basket-makers; 32 Niráils, indigo-dyers; 31 Bángdis, blanket-weavers; 29 Lingáyat Buruds, basket-makers; 27 Lonáris, lime-burners; 26 Gavandis,

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People.

masons; 22 Jingars, saddle-makers; 15 Mochis, shoemakers; 14 Beldárs, quarrymen; 8 Koshtis, weavers; 8 Támbats, copper-smiths; 6 Otáris, casters; 2 Kásárs, brass-makers; 137 Guravs, priests; 23 Ghadshis, musicians; 578 Nhávis, barbers; 227 Parits, washermen; 2395 Dhangars, cowmen; 31 Gavlis, cow-keepers; 164 Bhois, fishers; 36 Vanjáris, caravan-men; 28 Kámáthis, labourers; 4288 Mhárs, labourers; 1760 Mángs, messengers; 1401 Chámblárs, shoemakers; 191 Dhors, tanners; 1 Bhangi, sweeper; 209 Joshis, 191 Gosávis, 120 Chitrakathis, 81 Kolhátis, 74 Gopáls, 45 Mánbhávs, 25 Gondhlis, and 17 Kanjárs, beggars; 615 Rámoshis, 283 Kolis, 154 Bharádis, 22 Vaidus, 17 Tirmális, and 11 Rávals, unsettled tribes.

Roads.

The old mail road from Ahmadnagar to Dhond enters the sub-division on the north in the fifteenth mile from Ahmadnagar near the village of Chikhli. Passing over a depression in the hill range it runs down south, leaving the once important town of Kolgaon on its eastern side, through the villages of Ghargaon twenty-six miles; Loní-Venknáth thirty-two miles; Madhe-Vadgaon thirty-six miles; and Káshti forty-one miles, reaching the Bhima river in the forty-sixth mile at the village of Nimbgaonkhalu. Over the river is a wire rope ferry. This road was metalled during the 1876-78 famine but is now comparatively little used as the railway runs almost parallel with it. The larger streams on the route are unbridged. Near Kolgaon at the twenty-second mile is a travellers' bungalow and near Ghargaon at the twenty-sixth mile is a large tiled rest-house or *dharmshála*. What is known generally as the Kharda-Káshti road leaves the village of Káshti in the extreme south-west corner of the sub-division and passes up north-east through the village of Limpangaon four miles, to the town of Shrigonda nine miles. Thence on to Adalgaon thirteen miles, where it takes a more easterly line entering the Karjat sub-division $18\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Káshti. The terminus Karda is a town in the Jámkhed sub-division distant some seventy miles. Besides these two roads which are regularly maintained, the country tracks from Shrigonda in the direction of Karjat on the east, of Mándogan on the north-east, of Ghargaon on the north, and of Loní-Venknáth on the north-west, have at different times been much improved, so that most parts of the sub-division are well opened up for cart traffic. Roads connecting the town of Shrigonda with the Pimpri station $3\frac{1}{4}$ miles, and from Belvandi to its station two miles, have been constructed recently.

Railway.

Crossing the Bhima river on a fine masonry bridge the Dhond and Manmád State Railway enters the district by the Shrigonda village of Nimgaon-Khalu. The line completely traverses the sub-division entering Nagar on the north near the village of Ukhargaon. The stations are Pimpri, a mile from the village of Mhatar Pimpri and $3\frac{1}{2}$ from Shrigonda at mileage twelve; Belvandi, two miles from the village of that name, at mileage twenty-one; and Visápur, close by the village, at mileage twenty-nine.

The following statement gives a list of the towns where weekly markets are held:

Shrigonda Markets.

Town.	Day.	Town.	Day.
Shrigonda	Monday.	Mándogan	Tuesday.
Palgaon	Friday.	Belvandi	Sunday.
Kolgaon	Wednesday.		

At none of these however are the transactions of other than local interest. At Shrigonda livestock can sometimes be purchased. A market formerly held at Pimpalgaon-Pisa was discontinued some years ago. There are no manufactures in the sub-division worthy of note.

Survey rates were first introduced into fifty-three of the seventy-nine Government villages now forming the sub-division in the years 1851-1853. These were divided into five groups. The first group consisted of five villages near the hills in the north in which the maximum dry-crop rate was 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) an acre; the second group consisted of fourteen villages to the south and west of the first group and four villages lying in the Sina valley, in which the maximum rate was 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1¼); the third group consisted of seven villages in the hills of the east and six villages in the Sina valley, in which the maximum rate was 2s. (Re. 1); the fourth group consisted of four villages in the south-east bordering on Karjat and one village on the Ghod river with a maximum rate of 1s. 9d. (14 as.); and the fifth group consisted of twelve villages in the extreme south on the Bhima river with a maximum rate of 1s. 6d. (12 as.) an acre. The alienated villages which were acquired under the treaty of 1860 were assessed according as their position and soil brought them under one or other of these groups. The result of these rates was a relief of forty-two per cent on the assessment levied under the old system.

Survey.

Shrigonda, as at present constituted, dates from 1868-69 only. Some of its villages belonged to Sirur, a sub-division of the Ahmadnagar district which was formed in 1859 on the breaking up of Karda and abolished in 1866-67, and some belonged to Korti which was broken up in 1861-62 on the formation of the Karjat sub-division. For a short time between 1866 and 1868 the greater part of Karjat was subordinated to Shrigonda which had thus a total of 159 villages; but this arrangement was abolished in 1868 when Karjat again became a separate sub-division with eighty-two villages: the remaining seventy-seven, to which were added six¹ from Nagar and four² from Parner, being formed into the present sub-division of Shrigonda. Of these eighty-seven villages seventy-nine belong to Government and eight are alienated. The following table gives a nominal list of all the villages and shows to which of the ancient *tarafs* each belonged:

Changes.

¹ The six villages are Vadghul, Kámti, Mándogan, Kátrabad, Banpimpri, and Taradgavhán.

² The four villages are Chukhli, Ukalgaon, Suregaon, and Koregaon.

DISTRICTS,

Shrigonda Villages, 1883.

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SRIGONDA.
Changes.

VILLAGE.*	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.	VILLAGE.	Taraf.		
Chándgaon. Hiradgaon. Ajnuj. Pedgaon. Kaute. Gar. Arvi. Shedgaon. Táklí. Babhurdi. Vangdari. Sángvi.1	Kadavalit twelve villages.	Vadghul. Taradgavháa. Banpimpri.	Mándogan- contd.	Bhaudi. Angar. Kashití. Mhase. Dhorje. Raygavháa. Math. Yeipane. Kondegavháa. Koregavháa. Chikhli. Koregaon. Suregaon. Tándli.1 Dev-daitna.1 Arangaon.1	Rinjangaon sixteen villages.		
Shrigonda. Ghugal-vadgaon. Kokangaon. Belvandi-kothár. Deulgaon. Velu. Madhe-vadgaon. Párgaon-sudrik. Kámti. Lom-Venkháth. Bhingan. Bhingaon.1		Shrigonda twelve villages.		Karda thirty-one villages.		Ukadgaon. Dhavalgaon. Vasápur.	Belha.
Mándogan. Chaur-Sángvi. Ghogargaon. Bangarde. Thite-sangvi Rukhel Ismálpur.		Mándogan ten villages				Pimpalgaonpisa. Ukhalgaon.	Ked- gaon.
		Ghodegaon	Báana.				

* Villages with 1 after their names are alienated.

CHAPTER XIV.

PLACES.¹

Ahmadnagar,² in north latitude 19° 40' and east longitude 70° 40' on the bank of the Sina about seventy-five miles north-east of Poona and about 130 miles east of Bombay, is the head-quarters of the Ahmadnagar district and sub-division with a military cantonment, a fort, a railway station, a large cotton mart, and three cotton presses. The 1881 census returns show that Ahmadnagar is the eleventh city in the Bombay Presidency with a town site of 317 acres and a population of 32,903 or 104 persons to the square acre.

Ahmadnagar, locally known as Nagar, with its surroundings, including the railway station, the fort, the cantonment, and the old town of Bhingár, cover an area of about six miles. They are scattered over a fairly wooded slightly waving plain, bounded on the west by the Sina and the lands of Kedgaon village, and seven or eight miles to the north and east by a line of hills two to six hundred feet high, the eastern end of whose flat top is crowned by the tomb of Salábat Khán (46).³ From the railway station in the south a well kept road, crossing the Sina by an iron bridge among rich fields and through rows of old *bábhul* trees, leads about a mile to the south-west corner of the city. On this side the outskirts of the town are almost bare of houses, and except the Collector's residence, a high flat roofed Musalmán palace with a group of lofty tamarind trees, the city buildings are hid by a plain stone and mud wall twelve feet high and about three miles round. The city is bounded on the west by the broad and at times deeply-flooded bed of the Sina. The fort, the cantonment, and all the outlying parts of the town lie to the east and north. To the east, close to the city walls, are two small suburbs known as the Mandai market and the Tent Pitchers' lines. About half a mile further east, across the barren but carefully tree-planted plain, and nearly hidden by its glacia or covering bank now thick with *bábhul* trees, is the fort with strong bastioned stone walls, nearly circular, and a little more than a mile round. About two hundred yards further to the south-east is the shallow gravelly bed of the Bhingár stream, and across a bare slightly swelling plain are, about a mile to the right, the high trees of the Faráh garden (41). Closer, but still at some distance to the north, are the three large blocks of new Artillery Barracks with out-houses and patcheries or married men's quarters

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AHMADNAGAR.

Description.

¹ This chapter owes much to additions and corrections by Messrs. J. Elphinston, C. S. ; T. S. Hamilton, C. S. ; R. E. Candy, C. S. ; and A. F. Woodburn, C. S.

² A great part of the city account has been compiled from materials supplied by Mr. C. N. Setna, former Municipal Secretary.

³ Salábat Khán the famous Ahmadnagar minister (1519-1589). The number in brackets is the serial number in the list of Objects described below.

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AHMADNAGAR.

Description.

and to the north-west are the old artillery lines, which are now used as stables. About seven hundred yards to the left or north of the Faráh garden lie the cavalry stables, and further on, stretching to the north, are the swimming bath and the Protestant and Roman Catholic churches. To the left a row of bungalows runs along both sides of the road known as the Pensiouers' Lines. About two hundred yards to the east of the cavalry stables are the cavalry barracks, to the north of which are the married men's quarters, and about seven hundred yards further to the north is the Sadar Bazar. Close to the north of this is the Government garden, and after crossing the shallow gravelly bed of the Bhingár river, which passes by the northern boundary of the Government garden, are the commissariat lines, beyond which the cantonment limits end. Facing the cavalry barracks fifty to two hundred yards to the east, a double row of officers' houses in large well wooded enclosures, stretch about a thousand yards to the north. To the north of the officers' quarters a road to the west passes between the Roman Catholic chapel on the right and the Protestant church on the left, across a narrow masonry bridge over the Bhingár river to the fort. Close to the east of the Government garden is the old cantonment hospital building now used as the Cantonment Magistrate's office, at the eastern boundary of whose enclosure the cantonment limits end. Further east on both banks of the Bhingár river are the early Hindu settlements, of Bhingár and Nágardevla. North of the city, about two hundred yards from the Mangal gate, on the left or west is the Kotla enclosure (31). To the north-east are the Native Infantry lines, and about a hundred yards further north-west are the officers' quarters, two rows of large handsome houses in shady and well kept gardens. About five hundred yards to the north of the Native Infantry lines is the St. James Garden or Recreation Ground, a small flower garden, supported chiefly by the station officers. Close to the left and beyond the public road are the civil lines, consisting of three large bungalows with gardens. To the north-east about twenty-five yards beyond the Kotla enclosure is Rumikhán's tomb or the Pilá-Ghumat (32), in the garden of which the large Bijápur gun, Malík-i-Maidán or the Ruler of the Plain, is said to have been cast during the reign of Burhán Nizám Sháh (1508-1553) by Rumikhán one of his nobles.

As the city is chiefly composed of low flat-roofed houses, from the outside it is almost hid by the city walls. Inside, from some high building, except for tiled two-storeyed houses in the east and centre and a few spires, domes, and clusters of trees, the rows of mud roofs stretch bare and white almost like a freshly ploughed field. Especially in the centre and north-west the whole area of 317 acres is thickly covered with houses.

Walls and Gates.

The city walls built of stone and mud masonry below and white mud masonry above are twelve to thirteen feet high, six feet broad, and about three miles round. The walls were built about 1631 (H. 1042) by Sarjekhán one of Sháh Jahán's (1627-1658) nobles. The city is entered by eleven gates, the Jhenda and the Báva Bangáli gates in the east, the Máliváda or Railway and Fergusson gates in the south, the Nepti and Nálegaon gates in the west, and the

Delhi, Topkhána, Sarjápur, Mangal, and King gates in the north. The Jhenda or flag gate is eleven feet wide by seventeen high. The wall, which stretches on both sides, forms the wings of the doorway and is built with stones four feet from the ground, and for the remaining eight feet with burnt bricks and mud masonry, pointed with mortar. Inside a stone stair leads up the wall to the flat top of the gateway to command a view of the ground in front when the gate was shut in times of danger. The Báva Bangáli gate 335 yards south of the Jhenda gate, is eleven feet wide by fourteen feet high. Except for two side bastions of stone below and brick and mud above, it is built like the Jhenda gate.

About 1035 yards south-west of the Báva Bangáli gate, an ornamented structure about 12' 6" wide by 19' 6" high, is the Fergusson gate built for easy access to the municipal market by the Municipality in 1881 and called after Sir James Fergusson, Bart. K.C.M.G., Governor of Bombay. About 300 yards west of the Fergusson gate is the Málivádá gate; eleven and a quarter feet wide by thirteen feet nine inches high, with an open archway somewhat in the Gothic style, built of ashlar masonry. The gate has two strong stone side bastions, each about seventeen feet high. The parapets of the bastions which are about three feet high and are furnished with gun-holes are of burnt bricks and lime. The parapet over the flat part of the archway has openings for guns and is ascended by a stone stair. The doors are of teakwood, about four inches thick, and like all the other gates have a small window to pass through at night, when the doors are closed from nine to five in the morning. Máliváda is the strongest of the eleven Ahmadnagar gates. Close to the west of the doorway let into the wall in the centre of an arched recess specially built for it, an oblong inscribed black marble tablet, surmounted by an antlered stag's head and the Gaelic motto of the regiment, contains an inscription in memory of the officers and men of the 78th Highlanders who fell at the storming of the city on the 8th of August 1803.¹ The inscription is :

GUIDEACHD AN RIGH CAPPER FIABDH.

On this spot fell at the storming of Ahmadnagar on the 8th of August 1803 Thomas Humberstone Mackenzie Captain in H. M.'s 78th Regiment of Ross-shire Highlanders son of Colonel Mackenzie Humberstone who was killed at the close of the MAHRATTAH WAR in 1783.

THIS TOMB

Is also consecrated to the memory of CAPTAIN GRANT LIEUTENANT ANDERSON and the Non-

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¹ The tablet was raised by Lady Hood when she was in Ahmadnagar. Fifteen Years in India, 433. The Gaelic motto Guideachd an Righ means Save the King. The stag's headcrest and the motto were bestowed on Mackenzie of Seaforth in return for saving the Scotch king Alexander from a wounded stag. As he rushed forward Mackenzie called Guideachd an Righ, Save the King. Besides by the crest and motto Mackenzie was rewarded with the hand of the king's daughter. When Mackenzie of Seaforth raised the Seaforth Highlanders, the regiment adopted his crest and motto. A print of a picture showing Mackenzie saving the king from the wounded stag is in the mess of the 2nd Battalion Seaforth Highlanders at Lucknow. Captain Alexander.

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Commissioned Officers and Privates of the same Regiment who fell on that occasion.

To the right or east of the gateway close to the city wall is a plastered tomb (8' x 4' x 4') built in memory of an officer of the First Regiment of Madras Native Infantry who fell on the same occasion. On the side of the tomb facing the road is a tablet with this inscription :

This tomb was erected by the Officers of the 1st Battalion, 11th Regiment, Madras Native Infantry, as a tribute of their respect for the memory of Lieutenant William Penderleath of that corps, who fell at the assault of the Pettah of Ahmadnagar on the 8th of August 1803.

The tomb which is kept in repair by the Public Works Department is enclosed by a wooden railing (14' 6" x 8' 6" x 7' 8"), with square wooden bars fixed at six-inch intervals. The Nepti gate 894 yards north-west of the Máliváda gate is nine feet wide by seventeen feet high and is much like the Bangáli gate. The Nálegaon gate 363 yards north of the Nepti gate is nine feet wide by ten feet high, and is much like the Jhenda gate except that it has no bastions. The Delhi gate, 406 yards north-east of the Nálegaon gate, is twelve feet wide by fourteen feet high and has an open archway over the door, as in the Máliváda gate. Like the Bangáli gate it has two bastions of stone below and mud above. The Tophkhána gate 359 yards north-east of the Delhi gate is 10' 6" wide by 12' 6" high; it is like the Bangáli and Nepti gates with bastions. The Sarjápúr gate 572 yards east of the Tophkhána gate is eleven feet wide by fifteen feet high and is much like the Tophkhána gate. The Mangal gate, 410 yards north-west of the Sarjápúr gate and 440 yards east of the Jhenda gate, is 10' 6" wide by 14' 6" high and is much like the Sarjápúr gate. Between the Sarjápúr and Mangal gates a small gate three feet wide and six feet high has been opened by the municipality for easy access to the municipal beef market. About 132 yards east of the Mangal gate near the Bráhmañ cistern is the King gate about twelve feet wide opened by the Municipality in 1881. This is an old gate said to have been closed after the British occupation of Ahmadnagar (1803) to stop disputes between the people of the city and the privates of the Native Infantry Regiment which was stationed outside and close to this gateway. Besides these eleven two new gateways ten feet square have been opened in the city wall near the mission chapel for the convenience of the American Mission and one for the Collector's bungalow.

Houses.

The whole area of 317 acres within the city walls is well peopled and much of it is thickly packed with houses. The only open spaces are the weekly market place or Mangal Bazár, the municipal garden, the Khoje or Khwája Sherif's Haveli (2) and the Kávi-Jang Mahál (17), the Gavri Ghumat, the New Anandi Bazár, and the Soneri Mosque (15) and Collector's compounds. Of late years the number of houses has been steadily increasing, the total number in 1883 being 5860. During the five years ending 1883-84 eighty-seven houses have been built, including seven of the first, thirteen of the second, twenty-two of the third, thirty of the fourth, and fifteen of the fifth class. According to the 1881 returns the total

number of houses was 5832 or 18.40 to the acre against 5792 or 15.74 to the acre in 1875. Of the 5832 houses 507 are of the first class, 898 of the second, 1279 of the third, 2065 of the fourth, and 1083 of the fifth class. The first class houses are assessed by the municipality at 8s. (Rs. 4), the second at 4s. (Rs. 2), the third at 2s. (Rs. 1), the fourth at 1s. (8 *as.*), and the fifth class including very poor houses temples and rest-houses, are not assessed. In 1883 the number increased to 5860. To guard against fire no thatched houses are allowed within the city walls. Except a few large Musalmán and Marátha mansions and about fifteen hundred tiled houses, some of them large two-storeyed buildings, most of the houses are one-storeyed with mud walls and flat mud-roofs. The houses are generally in good repair, but are often unsightly, built round an open court with a dead wall towards the street broken only by one door. According to the municipal classification 507 houses yield a yearly rent of more than £10 (Rs. 100), 898 between £5 and £10 (Rs. 50-100), 1279 between £2 10s. and £5 (Rs. 25-50), and 3148 less than £2 10s. (Rs. 25).

The shops, which are generally owned by Bohorás and Márwár or Marátha Vánis, are either flat mud platforms five to twenty feet broad covered with flat roofs built in front of houses, or, as in the municipal markets, they are broad open plinths covered with a baked tile or corrugated iron roof and unconnected with dwelling houses. Most of the shops are near the centre of the town. According to a statement prepared in 1879, of 2792 the total number of shops 972 have houses behind them. Of the shops one each is a *gándhi* or oilman's and medicine seller's store, a photographer's, a *sárangí* or fiddle maker's, and a watchmaker's; two each of bookbinders, booksellers and stationers, English tinware sellers, and opium and *gánja* sellers; five each of hide sellers and stamp vendors; seven of turners; eight each of beef sellers, cooks, firework makers, and snuff makers; nine of hemp sellers; eleven each of liquor sellers and tobacco sellers; twelve each of cloth painters and pulse sellers; fourteen of fish-sellers; fifteen of tinkers horse and bullock shoers and nail makers; eighteen of silk sellers; nineteen each of flour sellers and yarn sellers; twenty each of Buruds and perfumers; twenty-one of tinnars; twenty-two of blacksmiths; twenty-four each of money-lenders and mutton sellers; twenty-six of flower sellers; twenty-seven each of cotton cleaners, pearl sellers, and sheep-skin dealers; twenty-nine each of brokers in grain and groceries and metal polishers; thirty-one of needle and glass bead sellers; thirty-five of necklace tiers and other ornaments in silk; thirty-eight potters; forty-one lac-bangle makers; forty-four metal pot sellers; forty-five Bohorás chiefly piecegoods sellers; fifty-two fruit sellers; fifty-seven roasted grain and rice sellers; sixty-seven hardware dealers and bangle-makers; seventy-two country shoemakers; seventy-five moneychangers; seventy-seven country cigarette makers; eighty-five grain sellers; eighty-eight turban dyers; ninety-three bangle makers; 104 goldsmiths; 110 cloth sellers; 118 tailors; 120 sweetmeat makers; 124 English and Márwár shoemakers; 125 metal pot makers; 145 vegetable sellers; 162 betel-leaf sellers; 176 grocers, and 181 oil sellers.

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The shops are let at monthly rents varying from 8s. to £1 (Rs. 4 to Rs. 10). Shopkeepers generally live in separate houses. They close their shops at night from the outside with wooden shutters, the middle board being last put on and fastened with a padlock so that until it is unlocked none of the other planks can be moved. The shops are opened daily about six in the morning and are not closed till eight or nine at night. The shopping time is from six to ten in the morning and, to a less extent, from four to seven at night. Two opium shops are kept by a Pardeshi, one outside the Jhenda gate and the other in the Gauj market. The right of selling opium and hemp is sold every year by public auction and is given by the Collector to the highest bidder, who is bound to buy Government opium at a certain rate. The yearly consumption varies from 425 to 450 pounds. Almost all the poorer classes of Musalmáns and Hindus buy opium to give it with milk to infants of three months to about one year. Of adults the chief consumers are Márwár Vánis and Musalmáns. Of twelve liquor shops, one is for the sale of native and eleven for the sale of European liquor. Of the Europe liquor shops, two, Messrs. Cursetji and Sons' and DeSouza's sell good wines and spirits, and nine others kept by Pársis Christians and Kámáthis, sell cheap English brandy at 2s. 6d. to 3s. (Rs. 1½ - 1½) the bottle. This cheap brandy is drunk chiefly by Pársis, Kámáthis, Gavandis, Native Infantry privates, and well-to-do Koshtis and Kunbis. The single country liquor shop near the Sarjápur gate is kept by a Pársi who sells *Bassia latifolia* or *moha* spirit and sometimes toddy for about six months in the year. The chief consumers are Mhárs and Mángs the poorer Sális and Kunbis. Shops selling European liquor pay Government a fixed yearly fee of £10 to £20 (Rs. 100-200), and the right to sell country liquor is sold by yearly or two-yearly auctions. The same contractor holds two country liquor shops within cantonment limits. Since the 1876-77 famine the demand for liquor both European and native has fallen off and about four Europe shops have been closed. During the last five years the total number of all kinds of shops has remained pretty steady. Every year fifteen or twenty people, often old Musalmán and Váni women, growing too feeble for grain grinding or spinning, borrow money or sell their ornaments, and with the proceeds open petty grocery shops. Some of these women succeed but others fail, and within a year or two shut their shops and fall back on their relations.

Streets.

As the house enclosures are not built on any plan the city streets are very irregular, and, as they are broken only by one door, the walls lining the streets are often ugly and dead. The city has about twenty-two miles of thoroughfare, of which about sixteen miles of main and cross roads are metalled. The chief streets are fairly broad very smooth and clean swept, and provided with side gutters. The lanes are often narrow and winding, broken by outstanding doorways and house-walls and unmetalled, but kept clean, well drained, and in repair. From east to west the city is crossed by three main streets. In the north the Jhenda-Nálegaon road starts from the Jhenda gate, and passing west is known for the first 440 yards as Dál-Mandai or the Grain Market road. After a short turn

to the north, under the name of Chaupáti Káranja road, it again passes west about 1056 yards to the Chaupáti cistern, and from the cistern it is continued by cross roads about 308 yards south-west to the Nálegaon gate. The second main road called the Kápad Áli road, also enters from the east through the Jhenda gate, passes south-west by the Collector's office, and stretches west about 1584 yards in a straight line to the Chaupáti cistern cross road, and from the cross road goes south-west by cross lanes about 308 yards to the Nepti gate. The third and best marked of the three east and west lines is the Bangáli road. This road entering through the Bangáli gate, passes to the south of the Collector's office, and running by the city post office along the Burud lane and through the Juna Bazár¹ about 1364 yards west to the Civil Jail, passes from the jail about 484 yards north-west to the Nepti gate. The north and south cross roads are broken and irregular, none of them forming one complete line from the north to the south wall. The chief cross road runs from the Mangal gate in the north-east, south by Mr. Cursetji's shop, the city post office, and the mission enclosure, about a mile and a half to the Máliváda gate.

The city has twenty divisions, which may roughly be brought under three heads, eight original central wards, nine suburbs or *purás*, and three villages included within the circuit of the walls. The three villages are Máliváda in the south settled by Kázi Jumákhán when the city was founded (1494) and now chiefly inhabited by well-to-do Mális; Marchudánagar in the south-west originally called Murtazánagar, established by Murtaza Behri in the reign of the sixth Nizám Sháhi king Ismáel (1588-1590), and now occupied by a mixed middle class population; and Nálegaon in the west and north-west. Each of these divisions is a separate village with its own headman, accountant, servants, and husbandmen whose lands lie outside of the city walls.

To the west inside of the three villages and to the east and north-east are the nine suburbs or *purás*. Beginning in the west to the south-east of Marchudánagar is Khadakpura, said to have been founded by Nyámatkhán Dakhni during the reign of Murtaza Nizám Sháh I. (1565-1588), and now mostly inhabited by Bráhman Government servants and middling Musalmáns. North of Khadakpura to the east of Nálegaon, is Sháhájápura said to have been founded by Aurangzeb and now inhabited by well-to-do Bráhmans Kumbhárs Sális and Koshtis. North-east of Sháhájápura, and once part of it, is Tophkhána the old arsenal, now occupied chiefly by poor weavers. In the north of the city near the Sarjepur gate, with a mixed and poor population, is Sarjepura established during the seventeenth century by Sarjekhán, one of Sháh Jahán's nobles. To the east of Sarjepura, near the Mangal gate, is Kamálpura, founded by Kamáلكhán Dakhni, one of the nobles of Burhán Nizám Sháh (1508-1553) now occupied by a mixed

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¹ The Juna Bazár was founded about 1565 (H. 972) at the time of the establishment of the city by Daulatkhán Dakhni. It is now occupied by Sonárs, Jingars, and Musalmáns.

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poor and middling population chiefly Musalmáns and Maráthás. Further east, built by Sarjekhán, is Kapurpura with a well-to-do middling and low caste population chiefly Hindu. To the south-east of Kapurpura with a well-to-do and middling population, is Hátimpura, built by a noble named Hátimkhán at the end of the fifteenth or the beginning of the sixteenth century. West of Hátimpura are Moghalpura with a well-to-do and poor population and Beherámpura with poor and middle class people.

The central group of eight wards are Gulám-Ali Bág in the north and to the east of Sháhájápura, originally a garden belonging to a certain Ján Khán, after whose son Gulám Ali it has been called. The people are chiefly Musalmáns and fairly off Sáli weavers. To the east of Gulám-Ali Bág is Sháháji Mohollah established during the Peshwa's rule and occupied by well-to-do Márwáris, and Bráhman Government servants; to the east of Sháháji Mohollah, with a well-to-do population, is Sháháganj founded by Ahmad Nizám Sháh (1490-1508); to the south-west of Sháháganj is Khist Áli with a well-to-do population; to the west of Khist Áli is Tagdi otherwise called Takti Darwája occupied by poor and middle class people and built in 1531 (H. 939) by Murtazákhán Takti, one of Burhán Nizám Sháh's nobles. Further to the west and south-west are Beherámkháni and Nyámatkháni, built in 1579 (H. 987) by Nyámatkhán, one of Murtaza Nizám Sháh I.'s (1565-1588) nobles and now occupied by labourers and landholders. In the centre is the Chándbibi Mohollah said to have been established during the regency of Chándbibi (1595-1599) the granddaughter of Burhán Nizám Sháh and occupied by a mixed poor, middling, and well-to-do population.

The latest settled part of the city, to the north of Chándbibi Mohollah is Navápeth or Pottingerpura, called after Captain Pottinger the first Collector of Ahmadnagar who founded it in 1821 on waste land formerly belonging to the Gulam-Ali garden. Navápeth is now one of the wealthiest quarters of the city, and is occupied by influential people of all castes chiefly Márwáris. To the south of Navápeth is Bágadpati, called after a Sáli weaver. It was settled after 1803 and is still occupied by the descendants of the Bágdyá family and by well-to-do, middling, and poor Sáli and Koshti weavers.

These divisions are not now used either for police or municipal purposes. For administrative purposes the city is divided into four main divisions, the north-east, south-east, south-west, and north-west. The north-east division is bounded on the north and east by the city wall, on the south by the Kápad Áli road the second of the three main streets, and on the west by the Sarjepur gate road. The south-east division is bounded on the north by the Kápad Áli road; on the east and south by the city wall, and on the west by an irregular line of lanes running to the west of the Mission Lecture Hall from the Báváji-báwa cistern to the Máliváda cistern and thence by the criminal jail to the new cistern in the north. The south-west division is bounded on the east by the south-east division, on the south and west by the city

wall, and on the north as far as the Nálegoaon gate by the Ánandi market road. The north-west division is bounded on the east by the Sarjepura road, on the south by the Ánandi market road, and on the west and north by the city wall. In these main and minor divisions, the poor classes live in the north-west and north, in Nálegoaon, Sháhájápura, Tophkhána, Sarjepura, and Kamálpura. There the bulk of the people are hand-loom weavers, Sális, Koshtis, Mochis, Lonáris, Momins, and other Musalmáns and Maráthás. They live in small mud-walled and flat-roofed houses owned chiefly by Bráhmans and Márwár Vánis, who charge monthly rents of $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ to 2s. (Re. $\frac{2}{16}$ - 1). Middle class people, Kunbis, Mális, Lohárs, Jingars, and Musalmán cultivators live in the south-west and Kámáthis in Kapurpura in the north-east of the city. Most of these middle class people live in houses of their own, worth a monthly rent of 1s. to 2s. 6d. (Rs. $\frac{1}{2}$ - $1\frac{1}{2}$). The well-to-do classes, Bráhmans Márwáris and Pársis, chiefly traders and Government servants, live in the south-east and north-east of the city in Sháháganj, Khist Áli, Moghalpura, Beherámpura, and Hátimpura, chiefly in their own houses, worth a monthly rent of 2s. to 12s. (Rs. 1-6). Many well-to-do families, mostly Márwár Vánis and Tábats live in the central part of the city in the Navápeth or Pottingerpura, in houses worth a monthly rent of 4s. to 16s. (Rs. 2-8). In the north of the city on either side of the Delhi gate road,¹ are the settlements of Bráhman Deshmukhs in large ancestral mansions worth a monthly rent of 4s. to 12s. (Rs. 2-6).

The 1872 census returns showed for Ahmadnagar city and cantonment a total population of 37,240 of whom 29,289 were Hindus, 6422 Musalmáns, 1391 Christians, and 138 Others.² The 1881 census returns showed a total town and cantonment population of 37,492, of whom 30,154 were Hindus, 5934 Musalmáns, 1128 Christians, 176 Pársis, and 100 Others.

The city has eleven markets, ten daily and one weekly. Of the daily markets three are private and seven are municipal. The three private markets for general produce, for cloth, and for grain, and three of the municipal markets for grain and flour, for fruits and vegetables, and for miscellaneous goods are held in or near the centre of the city. Of the remaining four municipal markets, two, one for mutton and one for fish, are in the north-east of the city near the Mangal gate. The remaining two municipal markets are outside of the walls, a beef market in the north close to the west wall of the Makka mosque (1) between the Mangal and the Sarjepur gates, and a cotton market in the south about 275 yards outside of the Fergusson gate.

The three private markets are Sháháganj or the General Market, the Cloth Market, and the Grain Market. The Sháháganj or General

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¹ The Delhi gate road now called Deshmukh Áli, was founded in the time of the Peshwás (1760-1818) and is now inhabited by Deshmukh families.

² The city details for 1872 were 26,209 Hindus, 6135 Musalmáns, 359 Christians, and 138 Others, total 32,841; the cantonment details were Hindus 3080, Musalmáns 287, Christians 1032, total 4399. The 1881 census returns do not show separate details for the town and cantonment.

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Private Markets.

Market, in the centre of the city, is except in a few places a row of one-storeyed flat-roofed shops, the property of Márwár and Marátha Vánis, and of a few Bohorás and Bráhmans. The shops are arranged in blocks, each block called after the shopkeepers. On either side of the main street are two rows of coppersmiths' shops and in front of them, on small stone platforms built out on the road, are the municipal fruit and vegetable shops. On a cross street to the east are on the north a row of Bohora shops and beyond them Váni grocers' shops. In a lane south of these Bohora and Váni shops are shops of perfumers or Attárs, and to the south of the Attárs, in three other cross lanes are betel leaf sellers, earthen pot sellers, goldsmiths, and flower sellers. The monthly rents of these shops vary from 8s. to £1 4s. (Rs. 4 - 12).

Cloth.

The Cloth Market stretches between Sháháganj and Moghalpura along both sides of the second of the main east and west streets, and gives it its name of Kápad Áli or Cloth Road. Most cloth shops have upper storeys, as many of the dealers have their houses behind their shops. The houses mostly belong to the traders. Such as are hired fetch a yearly rent of £20 to £35 (Rs. 200 - 350). The dealers are mostly Márwár and Gujarát Vánis and a few Bráhmans. Their shops are open from daybreak to nine at night, and their busiest time is between two and six in the afternoon. Their busy season is during the marriage months chiefly from February to Máy. The cloth most sold is white T-cloth from the Bombay mills, and, to a less extent, English goods. The stiff brilliant English goods are liked by the rich, and the cheap strong Bombay goods by the poor. Cloth dealers also sell local hand-made robes, waistcloths, bodices, turbans, and black blankets. Except a few hand-made waistcloths brought from Sholápur and Paithan, the hand-made cloth is all the produce of the Ahmadnagar and Bhingár hand looms. Except Gujarát Vánis who deal in Bombay and coloured English yarn, and sometimes advance it to handloom weavers, receiving its cost after the sale of the cloth, all the cloth dealers are paid in cash. The cloth trade suffered severely during the 1876-77 famine, but has since recovered and increased.

Grain.

The Grain Market is on the north on both sides of the Jhenda-Nálegaon main road between Kamálpura and Sháháganj. It consists of a row of dwellings with large wide front platforms on three feet high plinths on which the grain is laid for sale. The houses generally belong to the grain dealers and are worth a monthly rent of 4s. to 8s. (Rs. 2 - 4). The grain dealers are generally Lingáyat Vánis, Kunbis, Musalmáns, and Pardeshi Rajputs, and one or two Kámáthis who are known as Dálválás or pulse sellers. The Dálválás buy grain wholesale from Márwár and Marátha Váni agents or brokers who get grain consignments from village grain dealers and sell it retail. The chief grains sold are millet, Indian millet, pulses, and wheat mostly from the Gangthadi or right Godávári valley and rice from Pooná and the Konkan. The buyers are the townspeople and neighbouring villagers who bring head-loads of wood, cowdung cakes, vegetables, and fodder, and

spend the proceeds in buying 3*d.* to 1*s.* (2-8 *as.*) worth of grain. Town labourers generally buy grain in the evening after being paid their day's wages. To the north of the Dálmandai is a wholesale grain market called Dánedabra where, according to the season, from thirty to 200 carts of millet Indian millet wheat grain and oilseed come from the district. Márwáris and other wholesale dealers buy at this market whose busy hours are from six to eleven in the morning.

South of the Sháháganj or General Market in the centre of the city, are the municipal grain, fruit, vegetable, and miscellaneous markets, three blocks of tiled and one block of iron roofed buildings with 189 stalls about thirty-five of which are empty. Each block of buildings is divided into nineteen to 108 stalls. A small tiled block (62' x 5'6") with twenty stalls is kept for Bohora tanners and fancy goods sellers, and a second block (93' x 6') with nineteen stalls is kept for pulse and flour sellers. An iron shed (108' x 8') with forty-two stalls is set apart for vegetable sellers, and the largest tiled shed sixty-four feet square with 108 stalls is given to miscellaneous sellers. These stalls fetch yearly rents of 5*s.* to £1 4*s.* (Rs. 2½-12) and yield a yearly municipal revenue of £150 (Rs. 1500). The municipal sweepers clean the markets daily and a messenger is posted to keep order and see that no one but a passholder uses a stall. The markets open at daybreak and close about nine at night. Some of the stallholders keep their goods locked in their own boxes; others take their goods home. The business at this market is fairly constant throughout the year.

About 200 feet west of the central municipal markets is another daily municipal market called the Bichháyat or Outsiders' Market. The people of the neighbouring villages here enjoy free of charge the privilege of bringing in their field produce and disposing of their goods wholesale or retail. This market is generally open from daybreak to noon and a monthly fee of 6*d.* (4 *as.*) is levied from such local retail sellers as hold no stalls in the central market.

The municipal mutton market in Kamálpura to the right of the Mangal gate, is a brick enclosure (76' x 73') surrounded by tiled sheds on a three feet high stone plinth and divided into twenty-seven stalls (7' x 5') of which twenty-four are rented at a monthly fee of 2*s.* (Re. 1). Behind the stalls facing the entrance is the slaughter house, a paved platform (41' x 13') with cross bars and iron hooks for hanging and dressing carcasses, and semicircular gutters for gathering the blood. The hours of slaughtering are five to eight in the morning and four to six in the evening. The municipal register shows for 1883 a total of 21,783 slaughtered animals and a daily average consumption of sixty sheep and goats. The animals are generally bought by Musalmánbutchers from Dhangars and Vyápáris or Musalmán sheep-dealers at 3*s.* to 4*s.* (Rs. 1½-2) a head and are generally killed at once. The butchers are all Musalmáns. One of them for a fee of ¾*d.* a head, serves as priest or *mulla* and repeats *Alláh-ho-akbár* or Alláh is Great, when each animal's throat is cut. After the throat is cut the carcass is handed to the owner, who skins it, takes out the inside, cuts off the head and legs, and hangs the

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body in his stall. Some of the skins are sold to Saltangar tanners, who tan and dress them and make them into children's shoes and drums for the Holi holidays in February-March. Others are sold to agents of Madras hide merchants. The entrails are sold to the poor, and the blood is gathered by the butcher and kept either for his own use or sold to Mhárs and Mángs, who let it harden into a jelly and eat it uncooked. The heads legs and entrails are sold to poor buyers chiefly Sális and are sometimes bought by well-to-do people for jelly or soup. The offal is removed by municipal sweepers. The large and heavy pieces are sold by the men and the legs and heads by the women. Purchasers begin to come about six in the morning and generally pay $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $3d.$ a pound ($1-2 as.$ for half a *sher*). Since the opening of the mutton market competition has reduced butchers' prices from $2\frac{1}{4}d.$ and $3\frac{1}{4}d.$ ($1\frac{1}{2}$ and $2\frac{1}{2} as.$) to $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ and $3d.$ (1 and $2 as.$) the pound. The consumers of mutton are Europeans, Pársis, and Musalmáns, and among Hindus Maráthás, Sonárs, Lohárs, Jingars, Mhárs, Mángs, and Bhangis. In the evening Sális, poor Musalmáns, Mángs, Mhárs and Bhangis come to pick up cheap bits.

Fish.

A shed attached to the west row of mutton stalls is used as the municipal fish market. Fresh fish, chiefly *pádí maral vámb shingada* and *khavli*, are brought daily by Bhois and sold at $3d.$ to $6d.$ ($2-4 as.$) a pound or half local *sher*. Dry fish, chiefly bamele or Bombay Duck, is also brought by Bhois from Bombay and mostly sold in their own houses near the central market at $6d.$ to $9d.$ ($4-6 as.$) a pound. Fish is eaten by all mutton-eating classes.

Beef.

The beef market is outside the city wall in the north between the Mangal and Sarjapur gates. In a stone walled enclosure ($115' \times 27'$) a shed attached to the city wall contains eight stalls ($11' 6'' \times 6'$) all occupied and each paying a monthly fee of $6s.$ ($Rs. 3$). The slaughter house is about a mile from the market to the north of the Delhi gate. It is a paved platform, enclosed by a stone and cement wall, with a gateway to the east. Six to eight animals, mostly cows past bearing and more rarely bullocks and buffaloes, are killed daily. The owners are Musalmán butchers who buy from Musalmán dealers. Ahmadnagar Kunbis never sell their bullocks or cows direct to the butcher, but when a cow grows barren or a bullock grows too old for work they do not object to sell them in open market to some Kunbi or other broker who professes to have no connection with butchers. As among sheep butchers, a cow butcher is chosen and paid $\frac{3}{4}d.$ ($\frac{1}{2} a.$) for slaughtering each animal. The butcher skins the animal and puts it in the slaughter house, disposing of the hide generally to Dhors who buy them for local use or to Bohorás and Memans who buy to send to Bombay. The blood of the cow is never used. The carcass is divided into eight or ten pieces and carried to the beef market. The chief buyers are Europeans, Native Christians, poor Musalmáns, and Mhárs and Mángs. Beef, both cow and buffalo, is cheaper than mutton, the price varying from $\frac{3}{4}d.$ to $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ ($\frac{1}{2}-1 a.$) a pound.

Besides these regular markets in different parts of the town there are about thirty-five roadside masonry platforms with one to eighty

in each and a total of 155 seats. Each seat is let at a yearly fee of 2s. to 6s. (Rs. 1 - 3) to fodder vegetable and fruit sellers, grocers, and moneychangers.

Though before the north-east and south-east branches of the Peninsula Railway were opened cotton was seldom stored in the city, Ahmadnagar was considered a large cotton centre as all the cotton from Sholapur and Berár as far as Jálna and Khámgaon used to come to Ahmadnagar and be sold chiefly to Bhátia agents of Bombay firms. Since the opening of the Peninsula Railway nearly half of the cotton has passed from the Nagar market. It was believed that on the opening of the Dhond-Manmád State Railway the cotton trade would flourish and that with increased facilities Ahmadnagar might again become a leading cotton centre. With this object in September 1878, the Collector, Mr. T. H. Stewart, C.S. set apart for a cotton market and store about $18\frac{1}{4}$ acres of cultivated land assessed at £1 11s. (Rs. 15½).¹ The site chosen is close to four cotton presses to the right of the station road and about 275 yards south-east of the Máliváda gate and about seventy-five yards from the Fergusson gate. The front of the market is enclosed with a strong stone wall and iron railing; a small central building is set apart as a meeting room or exchange for the cotton dealers and merchants; a small flat roofed building (60' × 28') with two tiled verandas to the north and south is built as a resting place for labourers during the heat of the day; and two large store-houses (100' × 75' and 100' × 58') are built to store unsold cotton during the rains. A branch pipe from the Nágábái water channel is laid down with four-inch Englishware glazed pipes right in the centre of the yard. Into this main pipe fire plugs have been fixed about 200 feet apart to provide a supply for the market fire engine. A cattle trough (30' × 5' × 2' 6") of coarse stone and lime is built to the east of the yard which is reserved as an *adda* or resting place for cotton carts and bullocks. A row of shops each with a monthly rent of 5s. (Rs. 2½) is built close to the left of the station road in front of the cotton yard for the cartmen's supplies. Three cast-iron drinking pillars with cocks have also been provided. A circular fountain of solid basalt, fifteen feet in diameter and two and a half feet high, is built facing the road in front of the central building, near a small public garden. The four cotton presses, three of which are to the south-west and one to the east of the cotton yard, are supplied with surplus water from the branch pipe which supplies water to the cotton market. Young trees are being (1882) raised in a nursery with the object of planting the enclosure. The whole cost, about £2453 16s. (Rs. 24,538), was met from municipal funds and a further sum of about £1500 (Rs. 15,000) has been spent in finishing another store and the enclosure wall. So far the market has been most successful. During the five years ending 1883-84, 306,401 *bojás* or bundles of cotton each weighing from 240 to 260 lbs. or a yearly average of

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Stewart Cotton
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¹ The market compound was enlarged by ten acres in 1883.

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61,280 *bojás*¹ were brought into the market. During the busy season from October to June, generally from ten to six in the evening, the agents of Bombay firms chiefly *Bhátíás* and a few *Pársis* and Europeans meet the local cotton merchants almost all of whom are *Márwáris*. Of the cotton which is bought a part is sent to be pressed at the Nagar presses but the bulk goes unpressed to Bombay.

The weekly market called Mangal Bazár or Tuesday Market from the day on which it meets, is held to the south-west of the city between *Nyámatkháni* and *Khadakpura*, in an open space of about two acres shaded with rows of *ním* and banian trees. At this weekly market regular lines or built platforms for sellers were provided by the municipality in 1881 at a cost of about £112 10s. (Rs. 1125). The platforms are raised about eight inches over the ground and the walks between them are from ten to fifteen feet wide. There are in all eighteen platforms from twelve to fourteen feet wide with a total length of 1577 feet. Except a few better class travelling cloth dealers who bring small tents, and others who raise temporary stalls, the sellers sit on small carpets, mats, or country blankets on the platforms or at the sides of the paths that cross the market place. No fixed quarters are laid down, but different classes of traders keep to their usual sites. Thus rope and country blanket sellers always sit to the south, cloth traders to the west, eggs and fowlmen to the north, cattle sellers and shoemakers to the east, and the grocers vegetable sellers and other dealers in the centre. Dealers begin to collect at the market in the afternoon. Little business is done till three and from about four to six the place is thronged with 2500 to 3000 buyers and sellers chiefly belonging to Ahmadnagar and the villages round. There is no barter. All payments are made in cash and large quantities of cowrie shells or *kavdis*, brought from Bombay by *Marátha* and *Márwár Váni* grocers, are hawked about the market by small boys who dispose of them to buyers and sellers at the rate of eighty for $\frac{3}{4}d.$ ($\frac{1}{4}a.$). Cowrie shells are mostly used by the poor in buying groceries under a $\frac{1}{4}a.$ in value. The use of shells shows no sign of falling off as the people do not use *pies* ($\frac{1}{8}d.$). About a thousand dealers gather at this weekly market, twenty to twenty-five of them moneychangers by caste *Shrávaks* and *Márwár Bráhmans*, local *Bráhmans*, *Musalmán*s, and *Marátha Váni*s. They give and take silver in exchange for copper and copper for covies. When taking copper for silver and covies for copper the moneychangers charge a discount of $\frac{3}{4}d.$ ($\frac{1}{4}a.$) on every 2s. (Re. 1). The market rate of the Peshwa's copper coin is 2s. $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ (17 *as.*) and of English copper coin 2s. $\frac{3}{4}d.$ (16 $\frac{1}{2}$ *as.*) the rupee. When copper coin is in good demand the rate rises to 2s. $\frac{3}{4}d.$ (16 $\frac{1}{2}$ *as.*) for Peshwa's copper coin and 2s. (16 *as.*) for English. Ten to fifteen *Komtis* take a leading part in the market; *Komtis* generally barter

¹ The details were, 1879-80 *bojás* 38,501; 1880-81 *bojás* 37,668; 1881-82 *bojás* 83,972; 1882-83 *bojás* 84,641; and 1883-84 *bojás* 61,619. A *boja* is equal to two unpressed bales.

brass pots for secondhand clothes, mend the clothes, and sell them to Kunbi women and cloth sellers from whom the poor generally buy.

The chief traffic is in articles of food. Grain is sold in more than a dozen shops chiefly millet, Indian millet, wheat, and three or four pulses. The sellers are Ahmadnagar Musalmáns and Maratha Vánis, who generally buy cheap old grain and sell it to the poor of Ahmadnagar and the villages round.

Vegetables make a large show. They vary according to the season but are chiefly chillies or green and red pepper, potatoes and sweet potatoes, *Trigonella fœnugræcum* or *methi*, *Pimpinella anisum* or *shepu*, safflower seed or *kardai*, *Dolichoş catjang* or *chavli*, *Amaranthus tristis* or *máth*; and one or two other pot-herbs which grow well from September to February and are bought by all classes. Carrots, white and red pumpkins, brinjals or *vángis*, niger seed or *kírle*, a pumpkin called *turái*, snake gourds or *padvals*, radishes, onions, garlic, *bhendis*, and a few other kinds generally grow from August to December and are bought by all classes. *Pápdí* or *ghevda* that is French beans, double beans, *govári* beans, and a few other kinds grow during the rainy and cold seasons and are generally bought by middle class and well-to-do buyers and not by the poor. Cabbages, beetroot, celery, salad, red radishes, and other English vegetables are grown in two or three places and are mostly bought by Europeans, Native Christians, and Pársis. The vegetable sellers are fifty to seventy Máli and Kunbi women of the city with a few from the surrounding villages. The buyers belong to almost all classes, but are chiefly the poor of Ahmadnagar and neighbouring villages who can buy vegetables a little cheaper in the weekly than in the daily markets.

The chief varieties of fruit are in the hot season (February-June) mangoes, grapes, *jámhuls*, figs, *popais*, and musk and watermelons; in the cold season (November-February) oranges, pomelos, citrons, jujubes, guavas, and pomegranates; and almost all the year round plantains and sour lemons. Pistachio nuts, walnuts, figs, dates, and other dry fruit are brought from Bombay by Váni grocers all the year round and by Afghán Ágás once or twice a year chiefly during the cold and hot seasons. Most of the other fruit is grown in local orchards and gardens especially within two to four miles of Ahmadnagar. The sellers, fifteen to twenty in all, generally bring cheap fruit to this market from the central daily market and sell them to poor and middle class buyers, as the well-to-do always buy good fruit from the daily central market. Butter and clarified butter are occasionally brought in small earthen pots and leathern jars or *dabkis* and sold by Maráthás Bráhmans and Vánis. They are chiefly bought by the well-to-do and middle classes.

Two varieties of sweet oil *khurásni* oil and *kardai* oil, but chiefly *kardai*, are occasionally offered by Ahmadnagar Marátha Vánis and Telis, and are bought in small quantities by the poor of the city and still more by the poor of the surrounding villages. Kerosine oil from Bombay is offered by two or three Bohorás and Musalmáns and bought very largely of late by the middle and poor classes for burning.

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Groceries.

Jaggery made of molasses, chiefly from the Nizám's country and the surrounding Nagar villages is sold by almost all Kunbis and Marátha Vánis, and bought in small quantities mostly by the middle and poor classes. Sugar offered for sale by Vánis or grocers is mostly used by the well-to-do.

Groceries, always a varied though not a valuable display, are offered for sale by twenty to thirty dealers, chiefly Marátha Lingáyat and Gujarát Vánis. Some of them hold shops in the city while others wander with pack bullocks from one market town to another. Even the poorest grocer keeps small bags of salt, betelnuts, turmeric, cocoa-kernel, dry dates, coriander, black pepper, *nágkeshar* for washing the hair, almonds, *ova*, *shikekai* for washing the hair, *shopa*, *vávdíng*, dry ginger, *dagadphul*, *rámipatri*, cinnamon, poppyseed, mustard, *methi*, raisins, catechu, cloves, country alkali, mace, and nutmeg.

Ten to fifteen sweetmeat and roasted gram sellers of Ahmadnagar bring their articles for sale and hawk them about the market. The buyers are the poor classes of the city and the surrounding villages. Eighteen to twenty-four tobacco and betel-leaf and nut sellers generally bring and sell raw leaves and tobacco to the poor of the city and the villages round.

Sheep.

A few sheep and goats, some of them milch goats, but most of them for the butcher, are brought chiefly by the Kunbis, Sális, and Koshtis of the city, and by fifty to seventy-five Dhangars from different villages in the district. The buyers are the city butchers and Musalmán Kasáis.

Fish.

Fresh and dry fish are offered for sale by Bhoi women at ten to fifteen stalls. Fresh fish are caught by Bhois in streams from six to twelve miles from the city chiefly from the Bhátodi tank about ten miles east, and salt fish are brought by them from the Konkan in cart loads. The buyers are all classes but Bráhmans and Márwár Vánis. During the 1876-77 famine the consumption of fish greatly fell off but it has again revived.

Hens and Eggs.

Hens and eggs are offered by forty to sixty Musalmáns and Kunbis and by a few Mhárs and Mángs. Except a few Kanjárs and Musalmáns of the city the sellers are mostly from the surrounding villages. The chief buyers are cooks of European officers, Native Christians, Musalmáns, and Pársis, and sometimes Maráthás and Kunbis. At the beginning of the 1876-77 famine hens and eggs were sold cheap. They were very dear when the famine was sorest and eggs are still not so cheap as they were before the famine.

Cloth.

Cloth is one of the chief articles of traffic. The sellers who number from one hundred to one hundred and fifty are Shimpis Márwár Vánis and Musalmáns. With a bullock or two or a cart-load they move from one weekly market to another selling Bombay and European piece goods and some local hand-loom women's robes, bodices, waistcloth, and turbans. The Shimpis generally sell ready made caps and coats for boys of two to ten. Another class of sellers are Márwár and Gujarát Vánis and Marátha Bráhmans of the city who offer some English and Bombay piece goods, but chiefly sell hand-loom robes woven in Bhingár and

Ahmadnagar. Some Koshtis and Sális offer robes woven by themselves. The chief buyers are Kunbi and Máli women of the city and the villages round.

Yarn is sold by twenty to twenty-five dealers half of them Gujarát Vánis and half Musalmán women. The Vánis sell machine-made yarn to Momin turban weavers and the Musalmán women sell home-spun yarn to Musalmán carpet and tape weavers. Three to six Patvekars sell hand-made silk strings or *kargotás* to Maráthás and Kunbis at $\frac{3}{4}d.$ to $1\frac{1}{4}d.$ ($\frac{1}{2}-1a.$) a piece.

Blankets, chiefly the ordinary dark coarse variety, are sold in about thirty or forty stalls by Dhangars who travel from market to market and sell them at $1\frac{1}{2}s.$ to $4s.$ (Rs. $\frac{3}{4}-2$) a piece. The buyers are chiefly the cultivating and labouring classes.

Shoes both Native and European are sold by Chámhbárs and Mochis in seventy to ninety stalls. About forty Chámhbárs make native shoes known as Marátha and Bráhma shoes. The Marátha shoes are strongly made and are chiefly bought by middling Maráthás at $1s.$ to $5s.$ (Rs. $\frac{1}{2}-2\frac{1}{2}$) a pair. The Bráhma shoes are delicate and unfit for rough work and vary in price from $1\frac{1}{2}s.$ to $3s.$ (Rs. $\frac{3}{4}-1\frac{1}{2}$) a pair, and are mostly bought by Bráhmans. A third variety known as Pardeshi shoes are made by Upper Indian and Márwár shoemakers. They vary in price from $2s.$ to $3s.$ (Rs. $1-1\frac{1}{2}$) a pair and are generally bought by middling and well-to-do Musalmáns, Márwáris, and Pardeshis. A cheap variety of shoe known as *váháns* or *chappals* are occasionally bought and worn by the poor classes when their feet cannot bear the heat of the sun while carrying head-loads of vegetables, cowdung-cakes, and firewood. As long as they can bear the heat, they carry their sandals tied with their head-loads that they may last long. These *váháns* or *chappals* vary in price from $6d.$ to $1s.$ ($4-8as.$) a pair. The Mochis both Kámáthis and Pardeshis make shoes in imitation of English shoes, which vary in price from $3d.$ to $4s.$ (Rs. $\frac{1}{8}-2$) a pair. Small English shoes are mostly bought by the middle classes for their children, and large ones by Musalmáns and all other middle and well-to-do classes.

Personal ornaments are sold at five to ten booths by Sonárs, who sell brass and pewter or tin bracelets and by Musalmán Manyárs or trinket sellers, who bring from Bombay cheap jewelry and a miscellaneous store of small articles of hardware. The brass bracelets are chiefly bought by the poor who cannot afford to buy silver ornaments. The trinkets and false jewels are bought mostly by the poor, especially by Musalmáns.

Utensils and appliances are sold in ten or twelve booths by potters, who sell small and large earthen jars of different sorts and flower pots. They are chiefly made in Ahmadnagar and bought mostly by the poorest classes, who cannot afford to buy brass or a better description of vessel. *Máths* or wide-mouthed earthen jars which are used by the middle and well-to-do classes to cool drinking water vary in price according to size from $\frac{3}{4}d.$ to $3d.$ ($\frac{1}{8}-2as.$). During the 1876-77 famine they were in great demand and very dear.

Brass pots, pans, and cups are sold at fifteen to twenty booths by Hindu Kásárs and Musalmán Tábats. Some of the sellers are

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travelling peddlers, who go from mart to mart with a bullock and cart, and others are Ahmadnagar dealers who buy pots made in the city and sell them here. The buyers are all the well-to-do and middle classes. Brass and copper pots are mostly sold by weight at prices varying from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.* (12-14 *as.*) for about two pounds or a *sher* of brass, and 2*s.* to 2*s.* 3*d.* (Rs. 1-1½) for about two pounds or a *sher* of copper pots. Brass and copper pots fell considerably in price during the 1876-77 famine, when brass pots were sold at 1*s.* 3*d.* (10 *as.*) and copper at 1*s.* 9*d.* (14 *as.*) for two pounds or a *sher*. The fall in price was chiefly due to the large number of household brass vessels which were sold to supply money for buying grain.

Date Mats.

Date matting is sold at fifteen to twenty booths by Mángs mostly of the surrounding villages. The buyers are chiefly the poorer classes who use the mats for sleeping on. The mats vary in price from 2½*d.* to 3*d.* (1½-2 *as.*) each. Date brooms at ¾*d.* (¼ *a.*) each are sold by twenty to thirty Máng women to people of almost all classes. Mángs also sell jute ropes varying in price according to thickness, from 6*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. ¼-1¼) the forty feet. The jute generally grows on the edges of fields on the banks of streams.

Miscellaneous
Sellers.

Of miscellaneous sellers about a dozen match-box sellers hawk about the market matches which are generally bought by the poor. Fifteen to twenty. Burud and Kaikádi basket-makers sell bamboo and winnowing baskets, the Buruds to all classes and the Kaikádis, as their baskets are rough and large, chiefly to Kunbis and Mális for bringing vegetables to market and for carrying house sweepings into their fields as manure. Eight or ten animal brokers chiefly Kunbis and Vanjáris generally bargain for ponies and donkeys brought for sale by Kunbis and Dhangars of the surrounding villages. The ponies are generally bought by Musalmán gardeners or Bágváns who use them to bring loads of betel leaves from the surrounding villages. The donkeys are bought by Kumbhárs to carry street sweepings to their kilns and bring burnt bricks and tiles from the kilns to the city. Bullocks are seldom brought to this market as a large bullock market is held every Monday at Válki village about eight miles south of Ahmadnagar. The 1876-77 famine raised the price of bullocks from £5 to £10 (Rs. 50-100) the pair. Ponies are scarcer and dearer than before the famine and vary in price from £8 to £12 (Rs. 80-120) for an ordinary sized pair. During the 1878-79 Afghan war the Ahmadnagar district supplied a very large number of ponies for baggage animals. Donkeys vary in price from 12*s.* to £1 (Rs. 6-10) each. The traffic in animals is very small. Fodder, cut grass, and millet straw are brought by twenty to a hundred dealers mostly Kunbi women, Mhárs, and Mángs. The buyers are people of the well-to-do and middle classes, who can afford to keep a milch cow, and Gavlis or milkmen. According to size a head load varies in price from 3*d.* to 6*d.* (2-4 *as.*). Little fodder is brought for sale in the cold season when most cows and buffaloes are sent to graze within cantonment limits on payment of 4*s.* to 8*s.* (Rs. 2-4) an animal for three months. Five or six Lamáns bring wood and cowdung cakes in head and bullock loads and sell them to all classes. The price of fuel varies from 12*s.* to 16*s.* (Rs. 6-8) a *khandi* of about 1600 pounds, and of cowdung cakes from 4*s.* to 6*s.* (Rs. 2-3) a thousand.

As the city has its regular fuel markets the demand for fuel at this market is small. Scattered here and there among the booths are two or three scrap sellers, decayed Musalmáns, who offer scraps of iron and old blacking and beer bottles. The buyers are generally very poor. Some of the poor of the city gather the scraps in different parts of the town and sell them to these scrap sellers.

Ahmadnagar stands 1900 feet above sea level and about 110 miles from the coast. Though very hot from March to the beginning of June, and with rather a light uncertain rainfall, the climate of Ahmadnagar is on the whole pleasant and healthy. The average temperature varies from 78° to 81° and the average yearly rainfall from 9·79 to 26·98 inches. Rain generally begins in June and ends in November, August and September being the months of heaviest fall.

Deaths are registered by the police, and since 1880 by two municipal clerks, and as no dead body can leave the city without passing through a gate where police are stationed, the returns are probably fairly accurate. During the twelve years ending 1883-84 the ratio of deaths to 1000 people was 27·25 in 1872-73, 25·85 in 1873-74, 28·74 in 1874-75, 39·09 in 1875-76, 45·28 in 1876-77, 62·64 in 1877-78, 56·76 in 1878-79, 31·91 in 1879-80, 31·88 in 1880-81, 54·37 in 1881-82, 35·62 in 1882-83, and 32·55 in 1883-84. The returns show a heavy mortality among children due in part at least to bad drainage and want of air. Compared with other towns the death rate in Ahmadnagar is high. As special measures have since 1880 been taken for recording them, the birth returns are probably fairly complete for at least the last four years. They show a birth rate to the thousand of 21·37 in 1872-73, 12·42 in 1873-74, 14·43 in 1874-75, 17·36 in 1875-76, 24·14 in 1876-77, 10·29 in 1877-78, 10·47 in 1878-79, 17·05 in 1879-80, 27·55 in 1880-81, 37·89 in 1881-82, 29·78 in 1882-83, and 30·69 in 1883-84.

The natural drainage of the city is to a watercourse on the south-west and towards the Sina on the west and south. To carry off storm water and the town sullage the city has open road-side drains and four main drains. Of the four main drains one lies to the north of the Tophkhána or near the Delhi gate; a second in the centre of the Gauj, passing west between the Nálegaon and Nepti gates; a third is the jail drain, passing west near the Nepti gate; and the fourth or Málváda drain is to the south. The Sanitary Commissioner recommends that these drains should be used only to carry off rain water, and that for the sullage of the town glazed stoneware pipes should be laid down and, if possible, the whole carried to the south of the town and used for watering land. A scheme to provide a main drain for the city has been prepared by Mr. J. Pottinger, C.E. Excluding the cost of privy connections it is estimated to cost about £22,500 (Rs. 2,25,000). It is proposed to discharge the drain in a field about 100 acres in area for irrigation.

The natural water-supply of Ahmadnagar from the Sina and the Bhingár stream is precarious. The Sina running north to south from fifty to five hundred yards west of the city and the small Bhingár stream that divides the cantonment into two nearly equal parts, both flow only after heavy rain. At other times the Bhingár stream is

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dry. The bed of the Sina always yields water from about a foot to three feet below the surface, but it is very brackish as about a mile to the north of the city a saltish stream known as the Khára nála meets the Sina. The Sina water is of little use except for washing clothes. The wells of which there are about fifty with water at thirty-five to forty feet below the surface are too brackish for drinking.

A water project proposed by Mr. E. P. Robertson, C.S. Commissioner C. D., was prepared by Mr. C. T. Burke, C.E., Executive Engineer for Irrigation Sholapur and Ahmadnagar at a cost of about £120 (Rs. 1200) and is now before the municipality. On account of the great estimated cost of this scheme the municipality is trying to see if it can restore any of the old channels to the west of the city. Two of these ducts are being traced out and cleared and when the quantity available is known the municipality will decide whether to carry out the scheme or not.

Channels.

Under the Nizám Sháhi kings (1490-1636), fifteen channels or water leads supplied the city with pure and abundant water brought from deep wells at the foot of the neighbouring hills. The water from the wells was carried to the city partly by channels dug from the bottom of the wells till it reached the surface of the ground and partly by sets of country earthen pipes.

Of the fifteen water-leads eight are in repair and seven are ruined. The eight working water-leads are Vadgaon, Kápurvádi, Bhingár, Sháhápur, Anandi, Nágábái, Shendi, and Váruvádi. The seven ruined channels are Nepti, Nimbgaon, Imámpur, Pimpalgaon, Bhandára, Nágápur, and Bhavánipant. The Vadgaon channel is brought from a covered well close to the left of the Shendi water-course and near the village of Vadgaon, about four miles north of Ahmadnagar. It supplies water to about 12,000 people in the north and west of the city at the rate of eight gallons a day. The channel was made by a noble named Salábat Khán during the reign of Ahmad Nizám Sháh (1490-1508). It watered Changiz Khán's palace (12), the Jáma Mosque (13), the king's palace, and several other dipping wells in the city. In the disorders at the beginning of the seventeenth century, about 1630, Babuna son of Malik Ambar destroyed the channel and burnt the Sultán's palace. Some years later during the governorship of Nawáb Fakláz Khán a certain Mián Muntaki, at a cost of £10,000 (Rs. 1,00,000), repaired the channel and dug a lake called the Nia Kár. The Vadgaon channel was breached in several places before the British took possession of the city in 1803. After repairs by the British Government it supplied seventeen cisterns. Besides sixteen water-cocks, forty-seven dipping wells or cisterns built since 1803 are fed with water from the channel. Of the cisterns, one at the Police Lines and eleven at the criminal jail, originally the Husain mosque and college (20), have been built by Government. One was built in Bágadpati, at the cost of the people in memory of Lieutenant J. W. Henry, the District Superintendent of Police, who fell in attacking a band of Bhils in 1857. A tablet with the following inscription is fixed on the inner face of the west parapet of the cistern :

*Vadgaon
Channel.*

This Tank was built by the inhabitants of Ahmadnagar and dedicated by them to the memory of Lieutenant James W. Henry, 3rd European Regiment, who as Superintendent of Police in this Zilla won their esteem and regard by his amiable disposition and energetic performance of his duty.

He was killed in action with the rebel Bhils at Nandur Sinkota in the Sinnar Taluka 4th October 1857.

Four cisterns at the rest-house near the Police Lines and one near the Maidán's Ad were built by public subscription and one in Dángo Áli and one in Gujar Áli by private subscription. The others have been built from municipal funds since the establishment of the municipality in 1854. In 1883 the municipality made a short feeder of about 650 feet in a water-course in the Behisht garden at a cost of £70 (Rs. 700).

The Kápurvádi channel is brought from about 1500 feet to the east of Kápurvádi village at the foot of the range of hills about a mile and a half north-west of the great Salábatkhán's tomb (46) and about five miles north-east of Ahmadnagar. It supplies water to the north-west of the city and the Native Infantry Lines at a daily rate of six gallons a head. The aqueduct was built by three nobles Ikhtiyárhán, Kásimkhán, and Sídi Shamshórhán of the court of Ahmad Nizám Sháh (1490-1508). On the overthrow of the Nizám Sháhi dynasty the channel was broken. It was repaired under Aurangzeb (1658-1707) by Sarjekhán who enlarged it to water the grounds of a palace he built near Ikhtiyárhán's palace. A few years later the conduit was continued to Ganj, the residence of the governor Furktázhán and to the mansion of Abdul Ghafur, the commandant of the fort, who used its water to fill a pond. The conduit supplies a deep well at Burhán-nagar, and after filling two cisterns, one in Colonel Jacob's and the other in Colonel Pottinger's bungalows in the Civil Lines, feeds the four cisterns in the Native Infantry lines, and giving a branch to Kotla (31), passes into the town and supplies ten cisterns. When the city was taken by the British in 1803 the Kápurvádi channel was in many places choked with roots. It was afterwards repaired and three cisterns of the four in the Native Infantry lines and three of the ten in the city were built. With the average yearly rainfall of twenty to twenty-seven inches the supply of water in all these cisterns has been regular. During years of scanty rain the original wells fail and, to make up the deficiency, the channel is fed from deep wells along the line of passage by means of water-bags or *mots*. On the establishment of the municipality in 1854 this and the Vadgaon and Ánandi channels were made over by Government to the municipality, a third of the cost of repairs and maintenance being borne by Government and two-thirds by the municipality. During the slight drought of 1867, the water in the original reservoir fell off and at the suggestion of Captain A. U. H. Finch, R.E. Executive Engineer, the municipality dug a pit about twenty feet in diameter and fifteen deep and about 1350 feet north of the original well. A good supply of water was found within six feet of the surface. It was carried to the original well by an open channel seven to ten feet deep. Soon after a heavy rainfall removed the necessity of continuing the work. During the 1876-77 famine, the water in the

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Water Supply.

*Kápurvádi
Channel.*

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AHMADNAGAR.

*Water Supply.**Kápurvádi
Channel.*

original well again failed. The municipality took up the old work as a famine relief work. They proposed to sink small wells at an interval of fifty to sixty feet along the line of the channel, and after taking them to the depth of the original well, to communicate the water by cutting a tunnel. Eighteen shafts or small wells six to eight feet in diameter with a large well about twenty feet in diameter at the head were dug, thirty-five to forty feet deep. The first eight shafts near the original source were joined by a channel three feet wide and seven feet deep and the remaining ten were left incomplete. Except about 200 feet the whole has been tunnelled out. Thirty-eight wells remain to be joined. This extension has cost the municipality (August 1884) about £1742 (Rs. 17,420) and will be finished by the end of 1885. The result of the famine works has been a satisfactory increase in the water-supply.

*Bhingár
Channel.*

The Bhingár channel originally called the Fáráh garden conduit is one of the chief sources of water-supply to the European barracks, and supplies the Sadar Bazár with a population of about 9000 by open wells or cisterns. The channel was made in the reign of Burhán Nizám Sháh (1508-1553) by two of his nobles Salábatkhán Gurji and Nyámatkhán Dakhni. The story goes that finding the king weary of the Hash-t-i-Behisht garden, the two nobles thought of a new garden, the Bágh-i-Faráh Bakhsh, completed the conduit and built part of a new octagonal palace. But the king did not like the design and the palace remained unfinished. The conduit is brought from a covered well not far from the source of the Bhingár stream below the source of the Kápurvádi and the Nágábái channels. It passes through the town of Bhingár and skirting the east of the cantonment waters the Faráh garden (41).

*Sháhápur
Channel.*

The Sháhápur channel furnishes an independent supply of water to the European Cavalry Barracks. It has its source at the foot of the hill on which stands the tomb of Salábatkhán. The ravine is small and of little depth and when the conduit was built, it was closed by two masonry dams. Near its head the conduit passes under the high road and opens into a large dipping well. On the side opposite where it enters, the conduit takes a fresh departure and joins the Bhingár channel to the north of the Cavalry Barracks. In 1865 the upper dam was breached and became useless. The lower dam was broken and the pond once formed by it had silted and in the gathered silt crops were grown. The masonry of the original reservoir was also damaged by the roots of a large tamarind tree. In 1869 both the well and the conduit from the base of the lower dam were repaired for the use of the cantonment by Captain E. P. Gambier, R.E., Executive Engineer. To prevent dirt or other impurities being blown or thrown into it, the part passing under the high road and the air shafts were covered with solid masonry. As the supply used to run short in the hot weather, the old pond was restored during the 1876-77 famine at a cost of £1002 (Rs. 10,020). The silt and the broken parts of the old dam were removed and a wall about 500 feet long and seven feet high was built over the old dam by Mr. W. S. Howard, C.E., Executive Engineer. The pond was connected by

an eight-inch iron pipe with the well and a sluice valve was fixed to it to let the water of the pond into the well when necessary. A waste-weir was also made. The pond contains 1,660,000 cubic feet of water and has a gathering ground of about 560 acres. It supplies water to the cavalry barracks, feeds the soldiers' plunge bath, and waters the soldiers' garden.

The *Ānandi* channel has its source about two miles north of the city, and provides water to 4000 people at a daily rate of about five gallons a head. The channel was built during the governorship of Sarjekhān by one *Ānandrāv* who built two cisterns, one near the Delhi gate and another inside the city, both called *Ānandi* after his name. During the 1876-77 famine, about 1900 feet of this channel with two silted wells were cleared by the municipality at a cost of about £190 (Rs. 1900), and one of the wells was arched with burnt bricks and lime masonry to prevent dirt and other impurities getting in. A branch line of this channel about 7000 feet from its source has been traced out.

The *Nágábái* channel has its source about a mile below the *Kápurvádi* channel and its original open square well is about 700 feet to the south of the line of the *Kápurvádi* channel. Besides to the Stewart Cotton Market outside of the *Máliváda* gate, it supplies water to twenty dipping wells or cisterns, and sixteen water cocks in the south of the city to about 8000 people at a daily rate of about seven gallons a head. It was built in the reign of Ahmad Nizám Sháh (1490-1508) soon after Ahmadnagar fort was built. The water of this channel was brought from its source by a cutting as far as the village of *Nágardevla*. From *Nágardevla* it was taken to fill the fort ditch by sets of double country earthen pipes, laid side by side and covered with stone masonry. About 1870, as the municipality found that the water supplied by the *Vadgaon*, *Kápurvádi*, and *Ānandi* channels was insufficient, steps were taken to survey the part of the *Nágábái* channel which had silted. Finding that its water could be brought into the city Captain E. P. Gambier, R.E. the Executive Engineer, arranged and, in 1874, completed the restoration of the channel at a cost of about £7000 (Rs. 70,000) of which Government contributed a quarter, Mr. Dinshaw Mánekji Petit the well known Bombay mill-owner gave £1500 (Rs. 15,000), and £4040 (Rs. 40,400) were paid by the municipality.

The *Shendi* channel has its source at the foot of the *Shendi* hills more than a mile east of *Shendi* village. The channel was built by *Salábatkhán Gurji* during the reign of Ahmad Nizám Sháh (1490-1508). Its water was brought by a cut channel to feed the *Lokad Mahál* pond and to water the *Behisht* garden (43). During the troubles in the early part of the seventeenth century the conduit was ruined. In 1876 it was repaired, restored, and extended at a heavy cost by Messrs. *Cursetji and Sons*, general merchants, Ahmadnagar, who leased the channel from the British Government for a term of 999 years to water their *Behisht* garden. They pay Government a yearly rent of 1s. (8 *as.*) the acre for the land watered from the conduit.

The *Váruvádi* channel was built by two nobles *Murtazakhán Fikiti* and *Farhádkhán Dakhni* in the reign of Husain Nizám Sháh

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AHMADNAGAR.

*Water Supply.**Ānandi Channel.**Nágábái Channel.**Shendi Channel.**Váruvádi Channel.*

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AHMADNAGAR.

Water Supply.

*Várulvádi
Channel.*

(1553-1565). The channel was lying ruinous till the 1876-77 famine set the municipality in search of new sources of water-supply. The line of the channel was found about 500 feet from where the earthen pipes of the Kápurvádi channel begin. At its source was an octagonal well with three of its masonry sides broken. Its water was used by the villagers and their cattle. About 300 feet north of this well was found an old pond dammed between the two spurs of a hill with uncoursed stone and lime masonry. The pond was breached in three places and was silted within about seven feet of the brim of the dam wall. The municipality cleared out the silt of the channel and of the original well. The work was begun as a famine water work, and, on removing the silt from the original well and from the channel to a length of about 4500 feet, the original channel was found never to have been finished, as it was joined neither with the pond nor with the well. As small streams were found running into the octagonal well, the channel which was about fifty feet from the well was connected with it by an underground channel and a six-inch sluice valve was fixed at the mouth of the channel to regulate the water-supply. The channel was also connected with the Kápurvádi channel by about 500 feet of six-inch country earthen piping after a three to twelve feet deep cutting in hard rock. Besides repairing the channel, at a cost of about £800 (Rs. 8000), the municipality determined to close with earth the breach in the centre of the pond dam, to build a waste-weir at each side of the dam, to clear part of the silt from the pond and to join the pond with the octagonal well. Within a fortnight of the first fall of rain water began to flow into the old channel, and increased the supply in the Kápurvádi channel, till its own streams began to flow which generally happened after about fifteen inches of rain fell. In 1878 five feet of water gathered in the pond and lasted to about the end of December. In 1879 about 6½ feet gathered and lasted till the middle of February 1880. Including £200 (Rs. 2000) paid for land compensation the work cost the municipality about £1116 (Rs. 11,160).

Plans and estimates of the Kápurvádi lake project have been prepared by Mr. C. T. Burke, C.E., Irrigation Engineer Sholápur and Ahmadnagar, after surveying the ravine between Burhán-nagar village and a small hill near Alamgir's tomb. The site for the proposed lake has been chosen on the Bhingár watercourse about three miles north-west of Ahmadnagar. The proposed dam will pass through the Nágábái and Bhingár aqueducts and cut off their present supply. They will be connected with the outlet works of the lake by a pipe provided with regulating valves and will bring the lake's supply to the various cisterns in the town and cantonment. The total capacity of the lake is 140,837,645 cubic feet and the available capacity required for twenty months at the daily rate of ten gallons a head or 64,000 cubic feet is 124,667,266 less transit and evaporation losses. The total estimated cost is £21,085 (Rs. 2,10,850).¹ The scheme is under the consideration of the municipality.²

¹ Mr. Burke's Report dated 25th March 1879. The details of the cost are Rs. 1,68,766 for works, Rs. 25,315 for establishment, Rs. 13,400 capitalization, and Rs. 3375 tools and plant.

² See above p. 670.

Of the seven ruined conduits two the Nepti and Nimbgaon channels have their sources near the villages of Nepti and Nimbgaon at the foot of the hills, four and six miles to the west of the city. They were built by Nyámatkhán Dakhni during the reign of Burhán Nizám Sháh (1508-1553) to fill a reservoir before his audience hall and a Hamámkhána or bath near it. The channels were destroyed about 1630 by Babuna the son of Malik Ambar and are still in ruins. The broken ends of the two conduits which run side by side in the same block of masonry, are still seen on the right bank of the Sina.

The sources of the Imámpur and Pimpalgaon conduits were traced by the municipality during the 1876-77 famine. The source of the Imámpur conduit is at the foot of the hill near Imámpur village on the Aurangabad road about twelve miles north of Ahmadnagar. Marks of the ruined shafts and the line of the conduit were found in many places. The channel was brought to Jeur village on the left bank of the Sina, which rises from the surrounding hills. It ran as far as Pimpalgaon village along the left bank of the Sina about four miles west of Jeur but no trace of it was found as it came near the village. The source of the Pimpalgaon channel is about 1000 feet south of Pimpalgaon village and about 500 feet to the left bank of the Sina. About a mile and a half of this channel was found connected underground by a cut channel and a part about two miles long was found to have marks of shafts excavated from five to thirty feet deep. The direction of the line of this channel showed that, during the reign of Burhán Nizám Sháh (1508-1553) Salábatkhán intended to join it to the Shendi channel. The work remained unfinished.

The Bhandára channel has its source about a mile to the west of the Sháhápúr channel. During the 1876-77 famine the municipality intended to join the water of this channel with the Sháhápúr conduit, but on taking levels, the Bhandára water was found much lower than the level of the Sháhápúr water, and the project had to be given up. From its direction the water of this channel seemed to have been taken to water the reservoir and grounds of the Faráh garden(41). The channel was not traced throughout its length.

The source of the Nágápur conduit is on the right bank of the Sina about 800 feet south-east of Nágápur village five miles north of Ahmadnagar. The channel was made by Changizkhán during the reign of Burhán Nizám Sháh (1508-1553). On the fall of the Nizám Sháhi dynasty the conduit fell into ruin. The end of the channel is not known; it is said to have been formerly used to supply the city with water.

Bhavánipant's channel has its source about two miles north of Ahmadnagar and about a quarter of a mile east of the Behisht garden. The water of this channel fed two cisterns at the mansion of Bhavánipant and two other cisterns in Nagarkar's mansion. The cisterns are now fed by the Vadgaon channel.

The Ahmadnagar town municipality was established on the 1st of November 1854 under Act XXVI. of 1850, and made a city

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*Water Supply.**Imámpur and
Pimpalgaon
Channels.**Bhandára
Channel.**Nágápur
Channel.**Bhavánipant
Channel.**Management.*

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Management.

municipality on the 7th of November 1874 under Act VI. of 1873. Thirty-one Commissioners were appointed, nine ex-officio and twenty-two appointed by Government. Of the whole number, eleven were yearly chosen as a managing committee with a chairman. In 1883 the number of Commissioners was reduced to twenty-four, half of them to be elected by the ratepayers. Up to the end of 1864-65 the revenue was obtained by octroi dues levied on grain cloth and groceries, and by the sale of street sweepings and litter. In 1865-66 the levy of octroi dues was stopped, and in its stead a house-tax of 1s. to 16s. (Rs. $\frac{1}{2}$ - 8) was introduced. The house-tax was estimated to yield between £1000 and £1100 (Rs. 10,000 - Rs. 11,000), and £1062 15s. 6d. (Rs. 10,627 $\frac{3}{4}$) were realized from the tax in that year. In 1868-69 the municipality again imposed the octroi duty, which has realized from £867 8s. (Rs. 8674) in 1868-69 to £2463 16s. (Rs. 24,638) in 1879-80. In 1869 a privy or halálkhor cess was imposed and was expected to yield £1000 to £1100 (Rs. 10,000 - Rs. 11,000) being sufficient to cover the expenses. The total municipal income in 1855-56 was £802 4s. (Rs. 8022). It rose to £1112 16s. (Rs. 11,128) in 1865-66; to £3688 4s. (Rs. 36,882) in 1875-76; to £5105 12s. (Rs. 51,056) in 1879-80; and to £5555 (Rs. 55,550) in 1883-84. The municipality keeps a permanent establishment of fifty-nine men at a monthly cost of £76 (Rs. 760).

Scavenging.

One of the chief improvements introduced by the municipality is a complete system of scavenging. In 1865 there were no municipal sweepers. In the richer parts of the city a little drain led from the private privies to a pit with an earthen jar at the foot. Public privies were unknown. The poor parts of the town, Tophkhána in the north and Nálegaon in the west, were very unclean deserted enclosures. Even roads were freely used by the people and the narrow ravine close to the north-west of the city wall was a centre of filth. Carts were kept for removing litter and garbage and several stores were made for street sweepings. Most of the stores were within city walls and the most filthy was the Tophkhána store. From 1872 an inspector, two gangers, six street sweepers, and eighteen nightsoil men well provided with carts have been appointed to each of the four municipal divisions. The city has about 2000 private privies and about twenty enclosures known as *vádgás*. The enclosures though unpaved and not free from faults are kept clean. Besides the private privies the municipality has provided in different places inside and outside of the city, eleven public latrines built of rubble stone and lime with, in all, 294 seats.¹ Careful arrangements were made till 1876-77 to gather the nightsoil

¹ The details of the latrines are : Inside of the city, Anandi market privy with fifty seats, Sitaládevi privy with thirty seats. One near the city wall east of the Sarjapur gate, a set of Crawford's iron privies with ten seats for women, and one set of fourteen seats improved pattern which is being built near the Nepti gate. Outside of the walls, one for men west of the Máliváda gate with fifty seats, and another for women east of the Máliváda gate with forty seats. Two for women north of the Nálegaon gate have twenty-eight seats; one for women outside of the Delhi gate has forty seats; one for men on the Málegaon road has fourteen seats; one for men near Khákidás monastery has fourteen seats; and one in the Stewart Cotton Market and another near the Sarjapur rest-house have ten seats each.

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Scavenging.

and bury it in pits near the privies outside of the town.¹ Since 1876-77, the nightsoil from all the private and public latrines is removed to the nightsoil store. The streets are carefully swept and garbage carried off by twenty street sweepers and seven bullock carts. Since 1876 the municipality has been using refuse and cylindrical nightsoil carts, like the carts used by the Bombay municipality. The refuse is now removed by six carts instead of seven which make fifteen to twenty trips, and nightsoil is removed by fifteen cylindrical carts instead of twelve flat carts. About eighteen loads of nightsoil are daily taken to the depot. The introduction of these carts has not only saved money to the municipality, but the work is done quicker than before, and, as the new carts have air-tight shutters, no nuisance is caused while removing the nightsoil. Before the levy of the privy cess in 1869, private privies in the town were cleaned privately by Bhangis at intervals of three or four days and sometimes of a fortnight. The Bhangis removed the nightsoil in gunny bags on bullock backs, received for their services 3d. to 1s. (2-8 as.) a month from each family, and such as could afford it served them with cooked food.

From 1869 to 1875 nightsoil was removed in flat and covered sheet-iron carts by municipal Bhangis to two different field stores one about half a mile outside of the Máliváda gate to the south of the city and the other about a quarter of a mile outside the Delhi gate to the north. It was there thrown into pits each about twenty feet long by four feet broad and three and a half to four feet deep. When filled to about six inches below the surface the pits were carefully covered with layers of town sweepings and dry earth. The pits were then allowed to remain from fifteen to eighteen months or till their contents were thoroughly decomposed and fit to be offered for sale as manure. In 1876 the northern store was closed as being too near the city, and not used except when necessary during the rains. As the southern depot was found very near the Stewart Cotton Market the municipality opened another depot in 1878 to the west of the Válki road about half a mile south of the old store and about a mile from the city. In 1877 the municipality undertook to prepare poudrette manure on open ground during the fair season by mixing the nightsoil with ashes made from street refuse and by allowing the mixture to dry. The work was at first found difficult and tedious, but the people soon got accustomed to it; a great advantage was gained in point of time as poudrette can now be prepared for sale within a fortnight in the dry weather, whereas the old process of pit burial required eighteen months or more. Want of funds prevented the municipality from building a shed at the poudrette store, so that during the rains the old system of pit burial has to be resumed. At the poudrette store the pits

¹ The latrines outside of the town had pits dug near each of them. From the latrines inside of the town, seventy nightsoil men carried the nightsoil in iron carts, of which about thirty loads were daily taken half a mile south of the town to pits twenty feet long by four feet broad and three and a half to four feet deep. The pits were left undisturbed for one and a half to two years and were then sold to cultivators. The nightsoil store is now sifted half a mile further south of the city or about a mile from the city walls.

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are all dug in a line of double rows, and it is approached by a made road to afford easy draught to bullocks carrying full loads of night-soil and town sweepings especially during the rains. At present 250 pits are dug each measuring twenty-four feet long by five feet broad and four and a half feet deep. The municipality generally sell manure at the store by a yearly public auction in the beginning of December. Poudrette manure is generally bought for melons and watermelons in the beds of rivers and streams. As the open ground poudrette manure was not found so powerful as poudrette prepared under the old system, the ratio of ashes to nightsoil was reduced from half to a quarter of ashes and a quarter of manure of street sweepings. The daily average of nightsoil removed to the store by eighteen loads of cylindrical carts and bullocks comes after shrinkage when thrown on the open ground to about 135 cubic feet a day or about 49,275 a year. About 20,250 cubic feet of this nightsoil are used during the five rainy months in making pit burial manure and 29,025 cubic feet are used in making open ground poudrette manure. Thus about 29,025 cubic feet of open ground poudrette are made every year during the seven fair weather months and about 20,250 cubic feet of pit burial poudrette are made during the monsoon. These quantities of nightsoil when mixed with ashes and sweeping manure give a total of about 70,000 cubic feet. Manure is sold to cultivators at the rate of three cartloads or 150 cubic feet for 2s. (Re. 1) and to others at two cartloads or 100 cubic feet for 2s. (Re. 1).

Till 1876 street and house sweepings gathered in 145 dust-bins in different parts of the city were daily removed by the municipal contractors in carts to two or three places outside of the city wall and from there it was removed by potters to their kilns. Since 1877 the sweepings have been removed direct to the nightsoil store by five municipal carts each carrying about fifty cubic feet and making on an average three to four trips a day. During a few of the fair weather months when the sweepings are sold to brickmakers they are removed direct to the kilns. During the rains part of the sweepings is used to cover nightsoil pits and the rest is burnt to ashes to mix with nightsoil during the dry season. The following figures show that during the nine years ending 1883-84 the receipts from nightsoil and town sweepings have varied from £107 in 1881-82 to £248 in 1878-79 and averaged £189 :

Ahmadnagar Manure Receipts, 1875-1884.

YEAR.	Receipts from		Total.	YEAR.	Receipts from		Total.
	Manure.	Sweepings.			Manure.	Sweepings.	
	£	£	£		£	£	£
1875-76	118	101	214	1881-82	28	79	107
1876-77	11	101	112	1882-83	115	79	194
1877-78	153	64	217	1883-84	120	79	199
1878-79	172	76	248				
1879-80	135	67	192				
1880-81	129	90	219	Total	976	726	1702

During the nine years ending 1883-84 the returns show that the cost of removing nightsoil and town sweepings has varied from £330 in 1878-79 to £474 in 1877-78 and averaged £408 or an average of £219 more than the manure receipts. The details are :

Nightsoil Sweepings Expenditure, 1875-1884.

YEAR.	Amount.	YEAR.	Amount.
	£		£
1875-76	425	1881-82... ..	409
1876-77... ..	362	1882-83. . . .	330
1877-78	474	1883-84... ..	439
1878-79	330		
1879-80	460		
1880-81	398	Total	3677

The receipts and expenditure for 1883-84 show a net loss of about £230 (Rs. 2300) a small sum considering it represents the cost of keeping municipal limits free from filth.

Till 1865 lime kilns were worked inside of the city close to dwelling houses. Since 1868 all lime and brick kilns and tanneries have been moved to fixed places outside of the walls.¹ The sheep slaughter house is at the back of the mutton market in Kápurpura in the north-east of the town. It is paved and drained and thirty-five to forty-five head of sheep are daily slaughtered. The cattle slaughter house, at the head of a water-course in Vaitágvádi is built of stone, enclosed by a wall and paved. About eight oxen are slaughtered daily. Till 1876 the offal, blood, and bones were taken in carts to the neighbouring public latrines and buried in the nightsoil pits. Since 1876 the offal has been carried direct to the nightsoil store to the south of the city.

Indigo dyeing was carried on in sixty factories chiefly near Tophkhána and the Delhi gate. Each factory had about twenty bad smelling vats. The municipality thought of removing the factories outside of the town, but want of funds prevented them from providing sheds and the subject was dropped. The dyers were told not to sprinkle the dirty water of their vats on the ground nor to pass it into any main drain, but to remove it to any place fixed by the municipality.

There are two burning grounds, eighteen burial places, and three towers of silence. The two Hindu burning grounds are one in the Sina river to the west and the other in the Bhingár river bed to the south of the city. Hindus are buried in four places, two of which are near the Nálegaon road to the north-west of the town, the third is near the Christian graveyard, and the fourth is to the south-east of the city. The nine Musalmán graveyards are to the west, north-west, north-east, and south-east of the city, from a quarter to one and a quarter miles. Lálbág north of the Delhi gate has a Bohora burial ground. In 1883-84 the Sanitary Commissioner having pointed out the necessity of removing the present burial grounds from due west of the town to further south the municipality has arranged to take up two large fields on the west bank of the Sina about a quarter of a mile to the south-east of the town. The Pársis have three towers of silence about two and a quarter miles to the north of the city. The first with room for nineteen dead bodies is ruined. It was built in 1827 at a cost of about £200 (Rs. 2000) subscribed by

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*Offensive Trades.**Burning and Burial Grounds.*

¹ The details are: Twenty-five lime kilns about half a mile north-west and one and a quarter miles north-east; sixty brick kilns north-west, south-west, and north-east from half to one and a quarter miles from the town. Sanitary Commissioner's Report, 1875-76.

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Ahmadnagar Pársis. The second with room for twenty-one adults and four children is also ruined. It was built in 1842, at a cost of £300 (Rs. 3000) by subscriptions from the Pársis of Ahmadnagar, Poona, and Bombay. The third now in use was built in 1864, at a cost of about £500 (Rs. 5000) jointly contributed by Khán Bahádur Padamji Pestanji of Poona and Khán Bahádur Nasarvánji Cursetji of Nagar. The Pársis have one fire-temple, built in 1847 at a cost of about £700 (Rs. 7000) by Mr. Jamsetji Pestanji Plantin of Bombay. The fire-temple is maintained from the interest of £800 (Rs. 8000) given by the same gentleman in trust to the Bombay Pársi Pancháyat and £100 (Rs. 1000) subscribed by Mr. Dinshaw Mánekji Petit. In 1883 the Pársis of Ahmadnagar started a fund to provide for their caste funerals and £1200 (Rs. 12,000) collected from Bombay, Poona, and Ahmadnagar, are also given in trust to the Bombay Pársi Pancháyat.

Roads.

In 1865 eight miles of road were metalled, but neither watered nor lighted. In 1875, of about twenty-three miles of road, ten were metalled. The rest were of earth, hard enough in the fair season, but nearly impassable during rainy weather. Now (1884) about sixteen miles of main and cross roads are metalled and the rest are kept in good repair. The main streets are kept clean, and watered from February to May of each year. The main and by-streets were first lighted with seventy-five kerosine lamps in 1872-73. The number of lamps has now increased to one hundred and eighty.

Medical Relief.

Since 1865-66 the municipality has been paying a vaccinator and a messenger and contributing £40 (Rs. 400) a year towards the civil hospital, where from 200 to 300 out-door and about ten in-door patients are daily treated, and 100 to 125 children are vaccinated every month. The civil hospital is located in an old Musalmán mosque. In 1883 it treated 315 in-patients and 13,677 out-patients at a cost of £1256 (Rs. 12,560).

Education.

Since 1864-65 the municipality has been paying £30 (Rs. 300) towards the cost of the anglo-vernacular school. In 1874-75 £24 (Rs. 240) were granted for a Persian teacher at the high school, which was built in 1871 at a cost of about £2000 (Rs. 20,000) of which the municipality paid about £1000 (Rs. 10,000). Since 1877-78 the municipality has paid a further sum of £50 (Rs. 500) to the vernacular schools, and since 1878-79 £28 10s. (Rs. 285) towards the agricultural class attached to the high school. The total yearly municipal contribution towards the city education, including £15 (Rs. 150) to the City General Library is £147 10s. (Rs. 1475). Ahmadnagar has twelve Government schools, one high school, one anglo-vernacular school, six Maráthi schools for boys and two schools for girls, and two Urdu schools one for boys and one for girls. There are eight private schools including one high school, one anglo-vernacular school, and six vernacular schools two for boys and four for girls.

Public Garden.

A few years after the establishment of the municipality, Mr. H. M. Birdwood, C.S., Judge of Ahmadnagar, handed over to the municipality an octagonal building with the ground on which the present municipal garden stands and the rest-house outside the Sarjapur gate with a sum of money left as balance out of subscriptions from the townspeople for the erection of buildings at

the above places. The municipality laid out a garden on the site and called it Vishrámbág or the Rest Garden. Till 1872-73 the garden was watered from two wells within the garden limits, and since 1873-74 the waste and surplus water of the Nágábái channel which was then finished has been largely used. The garden prospered till the 1876 famine, when water failed and almost all the fruit and flower trees died. It has since (1881) recovered what it lost, and there are now a number of flower and orange, plantain, *popai*, and lemon trees yielding an average yearly revenue of about £17 10s. (Rs. 175) from fruit alone.

On the failure of the late crops in 1876, the municipality forwarded out of the famine balance of 1872 £5 (Rs. 50) each to the mámlatdárs of Karjat, Kopargaon, Sangamner, and Shrigonda, and £2 10s. (Rs. 25) to the mámlatdár of Párner to aid the deserving poor. Early in October 1876 a sum of £800 (Rs. 8000) was sanctioned to carry out municipal relief works for the poor of the city and of the neighbouring villages. A working sub-committee composed of five members was appointed to buy grain from outstations and retail it to the poor.

The municipal relief works were filling up hollows and reclaiming ground outside the city; clearing silt out of the Várulvádi and Ánandi channels; digging a reservoir and a tunnel at the source of the Kápurvádi channel; clearing silt out of the old wells near the line of the Kápurvádi and Nágábái channels and sinking and building a well for the Vadgaon channel. Excepting the tunnelling work of the Kápurvádi channel all these were finished at a cost of about £2217 (Rs. 22,170) by from 140,000 to 150,000 famine-stricken people. Some of the labourers were paid in cash by weekly payments, others were paid in grain. After spending its whole balance the municipality borrowed £1200 (Rs. 12,000) from Government to carry out the relief water works. The sum was repaid in four instalments by the 1st of January 1881.

In buying grain and retailing it to the poor the municipality sustained a loss of nearly £32 (Rs. 320). A sub-committee of three members was appointed to look after the retail grain shop. A relief house for travellers managed by the municipal chairman was twice opened by Government to relieve destitute travellers. Each traveller was provided with a day's ration. During the early part of the famine each adult received twenty-four ounces of flour, two ounces of gram flour, salt, chillies, and a few cowdung-cakes, and a child half the quantity, and during the second period of the famine, each adult received fifteen ounces of bread and two ounces of vegetable and a child half the quantity. Government relieved 22,269 travellers at a cost of about £132 (Rs. 1320).

The municipality collected a total sum of £3645 (Rs. 36,450) £1711 (Rs. 17,110) donations and monthly subscriptions, £900 (Rs. 9000) contribution from the Deccan and Khándesh Famine Relief Fund Committee at Bombay, £734 (Rs. 7340) Government grant, £200 (Rs. 2000) Gáikwár's contribution, and £100 (Rs. 1000) 1872 famine balance. Out of this sum £3619 (Rs. 36,190) were spent in relieving 470,944 people, 354,261 adults and 116,683 children. Of the total 470,944 relieved 427,203, adults 316,055 and children 111,148, obtained charitable relief and 43,741, adults 38,206

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and children 5535, were employed on the municipal relief works.¹

A working committee of five Europeans and fourteen Natives with secretaries and treasurers was appointed at the first public meeting held on the 25th of October 1876 to manage the fund. The municipal garden of Vishrámbág was chosen for collecting the relief recipients and for distributing charitable relief. Finding a large number of immigrants flocking into the city from the district the working committee sent money and grain to the European and Native officers in the district to distribute charitable relief among the deserving poor. At the request of the Deccan and Khándesh Relief Fund Committee, a sub-committee of three members was appointed to administer what was called the Night Relief that is to afford relief in grain to those who were not accustomed either to beg or to work. Some light work was exacted from each recipient and grain was given them at night.

As small-pox prevailed among the destitute during the first period of the famine, the committee hired a bungalow at Sidhibág outside the Delhi gate and established a small-pox hospital. Children suffering from small-pox were removed to the hospital with their mothers and both were kept in the hospital until recovery. The mothers were then allowed to remain for a few days in the relief house and were afterwards sent either to the relief works or to their villages. A nursing hospital for the treatment of weak adults and children was opened at the Farhádkháni mosque (14) at the beginning of the second period of the famine. Every morning adults and children were examined and such as appeared weakly and wasted were sent to the nursing hospital and kept there in charge of a hospital assistant till they looked better. On recovery they were removed to the relief house, and when they gained a little strength were sent to light relief works. When the funds of the committee collected by private donations, subscriptions, and contributions were nearly exhausted, the Collector agreed on behalf of Government to aid the committee first by giving grain bought by him at Nágpur and other places from a discretionary grant placed at his disposal by Government. Up to April 1877 almost all the relief recipients were provided daily with raw grain, and a small quantity of salt and dry chillies every week. Each adult was given one pound or half a *sher* of grain in measure and each child a half pound or quarter *sher*. After the 25th of April 1877 some of the recipients were relieved out of the Government grant and these received cooked bread of twelve ounces flour and six ounces of vegetable. Such as were relieved out of the charitable relief fund obtained one pound in weight of uncooked grain only. In August in consequence of the increased difficulty of supervising the giving of relief in the city a

¹ The details of the charitably relieved are 248,039, adults 181,324 and children 66,715, at the Ahmadnagar relief house; 22,821 all adults at the city night relief; 127,053, adults 85,019 and children 42,034, at the Government relief house; 10,341, adults 8256 and children 2085, at the Párner relief house; 9297 all adults at the Jám-khed relief house; 4374 all adults at the Shrigonda relief house; 4251, adults 4099 and children 152, at the Karjat relief house; and 1027, adults 865 and children 162, at the Bhátodi relief house. Of 43,741 the total number employed on municipal relief works, 29,253, adults 26,166 and children 3087, were employed on the Váruvádi pond relief work; 8495, adults 7662 and children 833, on the Sháhápúr pond relief work; and 5993, adults 4378 and children 1615, on the Kápurvádrchannel and well relief work.

relief camp was established at the village of Nágápur about five miles to the north of the city. Of the total amount collected by the Famine Fund Committee £3619 10s. 3d. (Rs. 36,195 *as. 2*) were spent in relief and the balance of £26 10s. (Rs. 265) put in the Savings Bank in addition to a small balance of the original famine fund of 1872.

From very early times traffic must have passed close to the site of Ahmadnagar from Paithan and the East Deccan, through the Nána, Málsej, and Bor passes to Sopára, Bhiwndi, Kalyán, and Cheul in the Konkan. Nágardevla about two miles to the north-east and Bhingár about two miles to the east of Ahmadnagar are probably sites of early traffic. During the sixteenth century Ahmadnagar was one of the chief places of trade in the Deccan. At the beginning of the present century this trade had almost disappeared. After the opening of the cart road through the Bor pass in 1830 it revived and in the time of prosperity during the American war (1862-1865) the cart traffic especially in cotton and the Vanjári traffic in salt were of considerable importance. Since the opening of the Dhond-Manmád railway in 1878 the course of trade has greatly changed and almost the whole trade now passes by rail.

The following statement shows the amount and value of the chief articles of import in Ahmadnagar city from 1875-76 to 1883-84. The chief article of import is salt and cotton varying from 8136 carts worth £187,339 (Rs. 18,73,390) in 1875-76 to 21,710 carts worth £508,140 (Rs. 50,81,400) in 1881-82 and averaging 12,488 carts worth £290,884. Grain comes next averaging 32,871 carts worth £162,873 (Rs. 16,28,730) :

Ahmadnagar City Imports, 1875-1884.

ARTICLES.	1875-76.		1876-77.		1877-78.	
	Carts.*	Value.	Carts.	Value.	Carts.	Value.
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Grain	33,192	16,59,839	47,947	27,80,926	49,393	29,63,766
Metals	325	97,766	253	63,257	496	1,24,547
Cloth and Yarn	529	3,77,345	667	4,69,997	708	4,96,229
Grocery	1343	2,29,357	1254	2,15,399	1696	2,89,337
Glass and China	97	6329	88	5947	65	5169
Dyeing Material	143	10,345	106	9429	197	14,996
Building Material	643	71,387	529	53,296	387	43,677
Hides and Skin	371	16,949	450	19,426	536	23,547
Sweetmeats	1155	13,636	1031	11,317	1496	16,979
Wine	77	25,645	56	18,927	99	31,789
Salt and Cotton	8136	18,73,397	9959	22,96,576	11,137	25,67,529
Fodder and Fuel	36,127	73,346	39,369	81,563	47,196	99,696
Tobacco and Snuff	165	19,347	236	26,969	247	29,376

ARTICLES.	1878-79.		1879-80.		1880-81.	
	Carts.	Value.	Carts.	Value.	Carts.	Value.
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Grain	26,280	14,70,623	27,178	11,61,312	29,426	12,89,222
Metals	553	1,63,649	621	1,11,348	560	1,30,243
Cloth and Yarn	726	5,07,375	669	3,64,010	723	4,62,003
Grocery	1906	3,47,839	1773	3,12,579	1797	3,29,518
Glass and China	58	3350	111	9245	117	9443
Dyeing Material	167	12,975	48	8615	236	21,548
Building Material	267	29,875	199	18,445	255	29,039
Hides and Skin	180	8069	156	4,907	169	6773
Sweetmeats	1876	22,171	1529	18,095	1937	21,793
Wine	73	23,500	90	33,400	86	31,000
Salt and Cotton	9751	22,48,993	10,150	23,44,057	10,547	24,17,936
Fodder and Fuel	31,465	66,244	37,551	73,127	50,127	97,756
Tobacco and Snuff	247	27,434	239	24,717	241	24,048

* Carts with two bullocks are estimated to carry four *pallids* of 120 *shers* of grain weighing on an average 1400 pounds.

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Ahmadnagar City Imports, 1875-1884—continued.

ARTICLES.	1881-82.		1882-83.		1883-84.	
	Carts.	Value.	Carts.	Value.	Carts.	Value.
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Grain	18,849	7,89,801	84,697	13,87,880	28,881	11,55,240
Metals	384	1,39,138	962	2,83,600	698	2,08,800
Cloth and Yarn	997	7,60,584	1782	4,46,000	1890	5,25,000
Grocery	3985	5,38,397	235	70,500	167	50,100
Glass and China	77	6529	300	3000	250	2500
Dyeing Material	457	43,736	200	2000	250	2500
Building Material	326	31,398	932	48,900	671	33,550
Hides and Skin	237	9305	60	8750	75	5025
Sweetmeats	2327	26,937	1200	24,000	1500	30,000
Wine	106	37,000	1200	60,000	1000	50,000
Salt and Cotton	21,710	50,81,408	18,000	42,60,000	13,000	30,90,000
Fodder and Fuel	73,956	1,25,987	8,000	16,200	10,000	20,000
Tobacco and Snuff	256	27,112	240	30,000	180	22,500

Exports.

The following statement shows the amount of the chief exports for the five years ending 1883-84. The total exports varied from 17,350 tons in 1883-84 to 29,006 in 1882-83 and averaged 22,719 tons :

Ahmadnagar City Exports, 1879 - 1883.

ARTICLES.	EXPORTS.				
	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.	1883-84.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Grain	17,698	5257	4675	5502	5475
Sugar	332	43	57	83	87
Clarified Butter	615	57	35	39	19
Food or Drink	3399	717	4008	6529	6309
Fuel	751	513	243	185	166
Building Material	28	112	...	24	...
Drugs	96	406	1	294	106
Tobacco	66	1	60	39	47
Cloth	2710	12,339	8138	11,848	635
Materials	1487	1776	525	4379	4510
Miscellaneous	186	...	34	94	...
Total ..	27,443	21,221	18,574	29,006	17,350

Grain.

The chief articles of trade in Ahmadnagar are articles of food. Ahmadnagar is the centre of a large grain trade. The character and amount of the trade varies greatly from year to year according to the season, and the opening of the Dhond-Manmád railway has so changed the course of trade that it is difficult to say what the normal state of the grain trade is. In a year of fair local harvests, millet and rice are imported and wheat and pulse exported. Before the opening of the Dhond-Manmád railway the grain trade was in the hands of a few rich Márwár Vánis, who bought up the local crops in good seasons and stored them in large under-ground granaries. After being kept for a year the grain got a reddish tint and a musty smell, and in ordinary seasons did not sell. But in years of scarcity the grain was in great demand and fetched a high price. Before the opening of the railway the local millet supplies have had to be supplemented by imports from the Nizám's territory and in years of bad local rainfall from Khándesh. Since 1878 the grain supply is much larger, coming from Jabalpur, Nágpur, Málwa, Indor, and Cawnpur. Instead of requiring a large capital the trade can now be carried on with a small outlay. Profits have greatly fallen and prices remain steadier. In 1879 a rise in the local price of millet was met by a large importation from as far as Bellári in Madras. In

ordinary years the import of millet and Indian millet is chiefly from Khándesh, Jabalpur, and Sholápur. The trade is in the hands of rich Bhátia and Márwár Váni merchants of Ahmadnagar. Rice is imported partly by rail from the Konkan to Poona and Sirur, and partly by road on bullock-back and in carts from the rice lands of Junnar in North Poona and other parts of West Poona. The rice trade is in the hands of small Marátha Váni dealers. The exports of grain, chiefly wheat,¹ pulse, and oil-seeds, are in the hands of rich Márwár and Marátha Vánis, who bring the grain by cart chiefly from the villages of the Godávari valley and sell it to Bombay dealers, generally Bhátias, by whom it is sent by rail to Bombay. The pulse trade, both as regards its course and the people by whom it is carried on, differs little from the wheat trade. Gram, *kulthi*, and other pulses are occasionally sent to Poona. Linseed, chiefly from the Nizám's country, is bought by Bhátia merchants and sent to Bombay chiefly for export to Europe.

The traffic in butter and oil is both export and import. The export is in clarified butter and sweet *khurásni* oil, and the import is in kerosine. Clarified butter is made in the villages round Ahmadnagar and is also brought from Khándesh and from the Nizám's territory. It is collected by Márwár dealers from the villages and resold to wholesale traders, by whom it is sent by rail and by road chiefly to Poona and Bombay. The sweet oil brought to the city from the villages round is bought by the merchants who export clarified butter and is sent by rail and by road especially to Poona and Bombay. The import of kerosine, or as it is locally called *sarkári* or Government oil, has only lately risen to importance. It is all brought by rail by Bohorás and Bhátias from Bombay and sold partly to city dealers, chiefly Bohorás and partly to village shopkeepers most of whom are Márwár Vánis.

Before the days of the railway (1860) Ahmadnagar was a great salt mart. The salt was brought back by the carts that took cotton to Bombay and from Ahmadnagar was sent to the Nizám's country. Since the opening of the Dhond-Manmád railway the salt trade has somewhat revived. Márwár Vánis both local and from the Nizám's country send agents to Panvel and Pen, and all through the cold and hot weather small quantities a wagonload or two at a time are brought to Nagar. Here local dealers and agents from the Nizám's country buy the salt and send it to Shevgaon, Párner, Vámbhori, Sangamner, and other leading country towns in quantities enough to last for two or three months. From the market-town dealers the salt is bought by the village shopkeepers most of whom are Márwár Vánis. In Ahmadnagar city retail sellers, chiefly Marátha Vánis and Dálválás, who claim Rajput descent, buy from wholesale Márwár Váni merchants and offer salt for sale on the same counter as grain and pulse. All consumers buy from the retail Dálválás and grocers, the richer classes once a week and the poorer every day.

Cotton has long been one of the chief exports from Nagar. Since the opening of the Dhond-Manmád railway its importance has

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¹ Only the *bakshi* or *banshi* variety of wheat is sent to Bombay.

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much increased and the total quantity of cotton received at the Stewart Cotton Market amounted in 1882-83 to 9446 tons and in 1883-84 to 6877 tons. Most of the cotton comes from that part of the Nizám's country which lies between Jálna, Khánuaon, and Kulburga. Of seventy-four local cotton dealers, twenty belong to the Ahmadnagar district and the rest to the Nizám's country chiefly Aurangabad, Bid, Jálna, and Paithan. Most are Márwár Vánis; the rest are Bráhmans and Kunbis. They advance money to the growers and buy the standing crop often before it is ripe. When it is picked and cleaned, the cotton is packed in bundles or *dokrás* of about 140½ pounds (70 *shers*) and sent to the dealers' agents in Ahmadnagar city. Of these agents or *adtyás* there are about twenty-four, a few Bráhmans and Kunbis, but most of them Márwár Vánis. On receiving the cotton these agents make advances to the dealers up to seventy or eighty per cent of its value. The cotton is stored in the Stewart Cotton Market and offered for sale to Bombay buyers, who, in the past year, represented seven firms, two of them Europeans and five Natives the agents of Bombay Bhátia houses. When the railway was opened it was thought that much cotton would want pressing at Nagar and three full steam presses were built with engines of twenty to forty horse power, to which a fourth was added in 1883. The railway returns for 1883 show a total export of 9287 tons of cotton from Nagar station and the market returns show a further amount of about 4000 *bojás* in store at the end of March 1884. The 1880-81 season was unfavourable to Nagar as a short damaged crop had to compete with a large high class Gujarát crop. The 1882-83 season was exceptionally favourable and the quality also was superior.¹

Cotton Presses.

The four cotton presses are near the cotton market and belong to the Mofussil Company, the Akbar Company, Messrs. Harvey and Sabapathy, and Messrs. Gaddum and Co. The Mofussil Company have built a half and a finishing press of Hodgart's patent which are worked by an engine of about 20 horse power. There were 8400 bales of cotton pressed during the cotton season of 1883-84. The Akbar Company have erected two half-presses of Nasmyth's patent, and a finishing press of Wilson and Nasmyth's patent worked by an engine of 25 horse power. About 4900 bales were pressed at this press during the cotton season of 1883-84. This press was built of burnt bricks and lime with an upper story of tiled roof at a cost of about £1500 (Rs. 15,000). The upper story and roof were burnt down in March 1884. Messrs. Harvey and Sabapathy have a half-press of Nasmyth's patent and a finishing press of Preston's patent worked by a forty horse power engine of Nasmyth's patent. In 1883-84, 5519 bales were pressed against 12,770 in 1882-83. Messrs. Gaddum's press pressed 10,027 bales in 1883-84 against 10,772 in 1882-83. The rate of pressing was uniform at all the presses at a rate of Rs. 3-6-0 a bale, which included the charges of pressing, gunny-bags for covering, and iron hoops. Besides this the buyers paid £1 6s. (Rs. 13) for 100 *bojás* of cotton for carting them to the press houses and thence the pressed bales to the railway station. The Harvey and Sabapathy press is able

¹ See above pp. 270-272, 343-344.

to turn out about 100 bales of 300 pounds each a day. Each bale measures about fifteen cubic feet or twenty pounds of cotton for each cubic feet.

The cloth trade is both export and import. The exports, partly by road and partly by rail, consist of women's robes, waist-cloths, and turbans woven in Nagar and Bhingár hand-looms. The trade is chiefly in the hands of Marátha Vánis, Bráhmans, and Shimpis, by whom it is taken by road to the neighbouring local markets and by rail chiefly to Násik, Khándesh, and the Nizám's territory. The export of cloth suffered most severely during and after the 1876-77 famine. It now shows signs of revival. The import of cloth is partly from Bombay either of European make and partly from Yeola Paithan and other places famous for their hand-loom weavers. All the Bombay imports are by rail and of the rest some come by rail and some by carts or on bullock-back. The cloth importers are chiefly Bhátíás, Marátha Gujaráti and Márwár Vánis, Bráhmans, and Shimpis, some of them men of large capital and most of them well-to-do. They sell partly to Nagar retail dealers and partly to village cloth dealers and Shimpis and other packmen, who, with a cart or bullock, move from one fair or market town to another. Imports were almost stopped during the famine time. But during the past year large quantities have been imported. Apart from the famine there has of late years been a notable change in the amount of European cloth imported. It is now almost entirely of the finer qualities bought by the well-to-do classes, the poorer classes showing a strong preference for Bombay and local-made cloth.

There is a considerable trade in dye stuffs both export and import. The imports are mostly in indigo, crimson, and safflower. Indigo is brought from Bombay and Madras by Váni and Sáli dealers. Crimson is generally brought from Bombay by Bohorás and Gujarát Vánis, and safflower a local product is sent to the city by village Vánis. Indigo is chiefly used by Nirális in dyeing yarn, crimson by Sális in dyeing silk, and safflower by Rangáris in dyeing turbans. It costs about 6*d.* (4 *as.*) to dye a pound of yarn indigo, about 3*s.* (Rs. 1½) to dye a *sher* of silk crimson, and 2*s.* to 10*s.* (Rs. 1 - 5) to dye a turban according to the strength of the safflower used.

The chief local export is the bark of the *Cassia auriculata* or *tarvad* bush. It is gathered by the villagers and brought into the city in headloads. Some is used by the local tanners Dhors and Saltangars. The bulk of it is exported by Bohorás and other Musalmáns to Bombay to be used in tanning.

A little cotton yarn is spun by hand chiefly by Musalmán and Sáli women. They buy the raw cotton and are paid 2½*d.* to 3*d.* (1½-2 *as.*) a *sher* equal to a daily wage of about 1½*d.* (1 *a.*). The yarn is used in weaving the cheapest robes, in making tape for cots, and the long thread wool in carpets. This industry formerly helped to support many families; but it has been greatly destroyed, first by the competition of English and lately by the competition of Bombay factory yarn.

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Hand-loom weaving is carried on by Sális, Padamsális, and Musalmáns about 3100 hand-looms in all, some in separate houses, some in factories with five to ten looms.

The following statements give the chief articles manufactured and prepared in Ahmadnagar city and Bhingár from 1875-76 to 1883-84 :

Ahmadnagar and Bhingár Manufactures, 1875-76 - 1883-84.

ARTICLES.	1875-76.		1876-77.		1877-78.		1878-79.		1879-80.	
	Bun- dles.	Value.	Bun- dles.	Value.	Bun- dles.	Value	Bun- dles.	Value.	Bun- dles.	Value
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Lugdis* ...	7000	49,000	6000	42,000	5000	35,000	6000	42,000	7000	49,000
Sádis † ...	13,000	89,000	14,900	42,000	11,000	33,000	12,800	36,000	15,000	45,000
Turban‡	5000	10,000	4000	8000	3000	6000	2000	4000	4000	8000
Black Blankets§	3300	3300	2900	2900	2700	2700	2400	2300	2600	2600
Carpets ¶	300	7500	300	7500	200	5000	100	2500	300	7500
Brass Vessels §	500	65,000	500	65,000	400	52,000	300	39,000	400	52,000
Copper¶	400	64,000	500	80,000	300	48,000	2000	32,000	300	48,000
Bellmetal§	100	36,000	50	18,000	20	7200	20	7200	75	27,000
Kardai Oil¶	1800	45,000	1800	45,000	1700	42,500	1600	40,000	1900	47,500
Oil-cakes§	5000	12,500	5000	12,500	4000	10,000	3000	7500	4000	10,000
Snuff¶	36	4320	30	3600	25	3000	20	2400	30	3600
Kunku ¶	75	30000	60	24000	50	20000	30	12000	40	16000
Scented Oil¶	25	1500	25	1500	20	1200	20	1200	25	1500
Burnt Brick ¶	20	12,000	20	12,000	15	9000	10	6000	20	12,000
„ Tiles ¶	20	8000	20	8000	15	6000	10	4000	20	8000
Dyed Silk ¶	150	4500	100	3000	75	2250	50	1500	100	3000
Cement ¶	400	3200	400	3200	300	2400	200	1600	300	2400

ARTICLES.	1880-81.		1881-82.		1882-83.		1883-84.	
	Bun- dles.	Value.	Bun- dles.	Value.	Bun- dles.	Value.	Bun- dles.	Value.
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
Lugdis* ...	8000	56,000	8000	56,000	9000	63,000	10,000	50,000
Sádis † ...	16,000	48,000	15,000	45,000	12,000	36,000	6000	10,000
Turban‡	4000	8000	4000	8000	3500	7000	3000	6000
Black Blankets§	2800	2800	2300	2300	2600	2600	4000	5000
Carpets ¶	500	12,500	10	250	15	300	100	2500
Brass Vessels §	500	65,000	296	37,480	300	3600	6000	7500
Copper¶	400	64,000	150	24,000	150	22,600	3000	10,000
Bellmetal§	100	36,000	24	8640	20	7200	2000	6000
Kardai Oil¶	2000	50,000	16,000	40,000	1800	4500	1000	25,000
Oil-cakes§	5000	12,500	3000	7500	3000	6750	1000	3000
Snuff¶	40	4800	28	3360	20	2400	60	6000
Kunku ¶	60	24000	50	20000	40	14000	100	4000
Scented Oil¶	25	1500	18	1044	10	300	25	1600
Burnt Brick ¶	25	15,000	12	7200	12	7200	50,000	5000
„ Tiles ¶	25	10,000	12	48,000	10	8000	500,000	8000
Dyed Silk ¶	150	4500	50	1500	400	10,400	5000	12,500
Cement ¶	300	2400	300	2400	350	2800	500	4000

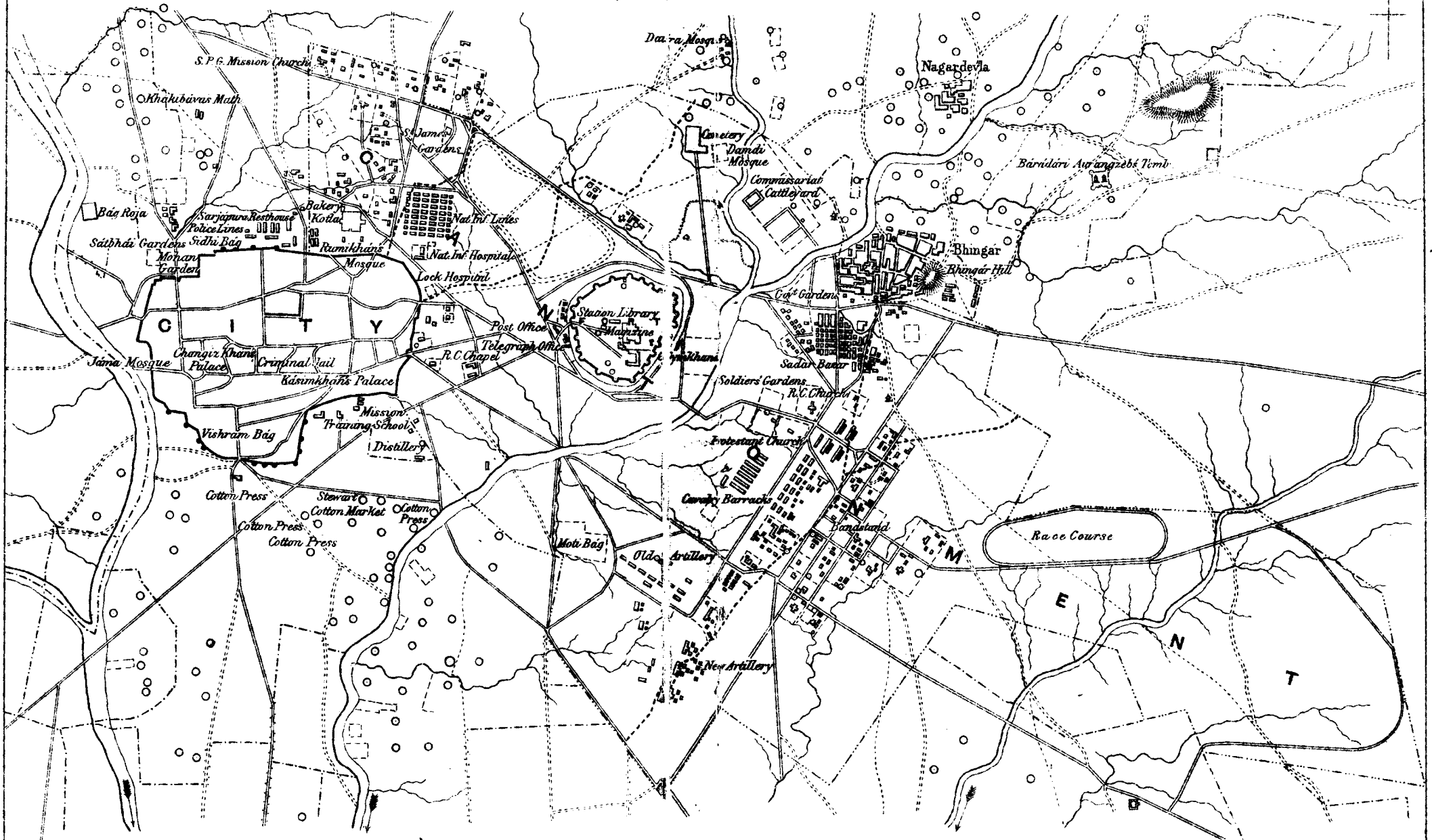
*Nagar & Bhingár. †Nagar. ‡Nagar & Bhingár. §Nagar. ¶Nagar & Bhingár. |Nagar.

The hand loom weavers use a little hand-spun yarn, but the bulk of the yarn comes from Bombay. Some of it is English-coloured yarn but most of it is made in Bombay. The chief articles made by the Ahmadnagar hand-loom weavers are robes, bodices, and turbans. The weaving trade was brought to a stand during the famine. Since then it has been gradually recovering, but is not yet what it was before the famine.

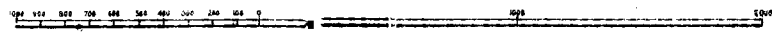
Silk Weaving.

Raw silk, almost all from China but some of it from Bengal, is brought by rail from Bombay by Gujarát Vánis who have factories or kárhánás in Nagar. Others of the buyers are Sális who have private looms. The owners of factories who are chiefly Gujarát Vánis employ from 600 to 700 Sális both men and women. The women separate

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Scale 770 Yards = 1 Inch.



the threads. After the threads are separated Rangári labourers dye chiefly red, being paid by the quantity dyed. The dyed silk is then handed to the men who weave narrow strips for the borders of robes. The weavers are paid by the piece and generally earn 4½*d.* to 6*d.* (3-4 *as.*) a day. The produce of the looms is generally sold wholesale by the owners of the factories and by the weavers themselves to Gujarát Vánis, from whom it is taken chiefly by local cotton weavers. A little goes to the Nizám's territories. Silk cloth is seldom made except by special order.

The Cantonment, stretching from the north-east and east of the city walls with the fort as its centre, covers an area of four and one-third miles. It is a fairly wooded plain, rising slightly eastwards and smooth except among the water-courses near the broad shallow bed of the Bhingár stream. The soil is stiff black and the underlying rock which rises to the surface in the north-east and south-east is trap. The natural drainage is good. In the west the ground slopes to a water-course that runs south into the Sina and towards the south-east it falls partly into the Bhingár river and partly into another water-course that further south runs nearly parallel with it. Circling round the fort, at a distance of a half to three quarters of a mile, the chief parts of the cantonment are in the east of the Sadar market and north-east of it, beyond cantonment limits, the old town of Bhingár. To the south-east are the Infantry Barracks with the Officers' Lines behind them, and further south the new Artillery Barracks. To the west, close to the city walls, are the Tent Pitchers' Lines, and to the north-west, across the Parade Ground, the Native Infantry Lines, and further to the north the Officers' Quarters and the St. James' Garden. West of the Native Infantry lines, part of it out of cantonment limits, is a suburb known as the Simpson market, and still further to the west are the Police Lines.

The population of the cantonment varies with the number of troops. The usual strength in times of peace is a battery of Field Artillery, four companies of European Infantry, and a regiment of Native Infantry. When the 1881 census was taken the cantonment had a population of 4589, males 2487 and females 2102.

Of the old Musalmán water channels four, the Sháhápúr and Bhingár in the east and the Kápurvádi and Nágábái in the west, cross the cantonment from north to south. The Sháhápúr channel, one of the two sources of water supply to the European barracks, has its source near the village of Sháhápúr at the foot of the hill on which stands Salábatkhán's tomb (46). To the north of the infantry barracks, not far from the Protestant chapel the Sháhápúr joins the Bhingár channel. The Bhingár channel, which is the chief source of supply to the east end of the cantonment, rises in the hills about three miles north of the cantonment, and after supplying the town of Bhingár, the Sadar Bazár, and the east end of the cantonment discharges itself into the Faráh garden (41). The Bhingár channel almost never fails during the driest seasons. The west end of the cantonment is supplied with water from the Kápurvádi channel.

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Water.

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Management.

The cantonment is in charge of a Cantonment Committee constituted under the Cantonment Act. The officer commanding the cantonment is president of the committee with the Civil Surgeon, the Executive Engineer, the District Magistrate, and the Cantonment Magistrate as ex-officio members. The cantonment income is about £950 (Rs. 9500) from taxes, fees, and fines, and the produce of the Station Garden. It is spent chiefly on conservancy and police, on a lock hospital, and on the Station Garden.

To remove nightsoil fourteen scavengers are employed, three for the private privies in the Sadar market and eleven in other parts of the cantonment. The nightsoil, of which about eight carts are daily removed, is taken to the extreme east of the cantonment and laid in trenches about fifty feet by four and six deep. For street sweeping, besides about fifteen men two women and one cart to each regiment; a native conservancy serjeant, two gangers, eleven sweepers, and seven women are engaged and daily gather about thirty cartloads of garbage.

Sadar Bazár.

The Sadar Bazár used to be a place of considerable importance when a large number of troops were at Nagar. It has now declined and many houses are empty. It stands above the left bank of the Bhingár river, about 1000 yards east of the fort and about 500 yards north-west of the Infantry Officers' Lines. It has an area of eleven acres with a population of 2635 lodged in 614 houses, 170 of a better and 162 of a poorer kind, and 282 mud hovels. Most of the houses have in their front and rear roads and bye-lanes running chiefly south and north. In 1876 the Sanitary Commissioner found the bazár very clean, and the arrangements for scavenging and carrying away nightsoil effective. To the west of the Sadar Bazár is the government garden. Of the town of Bhingár which lies outside of cantonment limits a separate account is given.

Officers' Quarters.

About 500 yards south-east of the Sadar bazár in the extreme east of cantonment limits are the Infantry Officers' Lines. The houses are arranged in two rows of large one-storeyed dwellings running north and south, each house in a large fenced enclosure generally shaded by lofty trees, and some with bright well-kept gardens. East of the main rows are one or two separate houses, and about 1000 yards further east is the race course. About 250 yards to the west of the Officers' Lines, and like them, ranged on the whole north and south are the Infantry Barracks, with, to the north, the married men's quarters, in the centre the single men's barracks, and in the south the hospital. The married men's quarters consist of four blocks each of twenty quarters, two in front and two in rear, separated by a road that leads from the Officers' Lines to the fort. The unmarried men's barracks, to the south of the married men's quarters, are twelve one-storeyed buildings in two rows with an interval of sixty-four feet between them. The buildings facing north-west on plinths of $1\frac{1}{2}$ to three feet high are of brick and lime mortar with tiled roofs. Each barrack room, measuring 96 feet by 24 and 22 feet high, has a total superficial area of 2304 feet and accommodation for twenty-six inmates. In front and rear the open

verandas twelve feet wide. The room has four ridge ventilators of eighteen inches diameter, and, on each side, two doors and nine windows, and above these, eleven clerestory windows each 4' x 3' with revolving glazed and venetianed shutters. At the right end of each barrack, enclosed from the veranda, are two sergeants' rooms twenty-four feet by twelve. East of the barracks is a building nearly equal to them in size, the north-east half used as a sergeant's mess-room and the other end as a mess library, and close to it a gymnasium and theatre and a double fives court, one side enclosed as an officers' racket court. Further to the south the hospital enclosure, fenced with a dwarf wall and railing, includes the guard room, the hospital sergeants' quarters, and the quarters and store room of the hospital steward. The main building has two wards, and from the right end a third ward runs at right angles to the other two. The wards of the main building, each 65' x 24', are separated by a passage six feet wide with walls that do not reach the roof. In front are seven windows, and on the rear of the ward are only two windows and a door. At the end of the left hand ward are two additional windows. Each ward has on a side seven clerestory windows about three or three and a half feet square, furnished with revolving shutters both glazed and venetianed. The rooms have cloth ceilings. The female hospital is a ground floor building at the left rear of the male hospital. The plinth is about two feet high, the walls of brick and mortar, and the roof tiled. It has two wards placed end to end each 13' 3" x 14' and 18' high. Connected with the men's hospital are a dead house, an isolation ward, and single rooms for the delirious sick. West of the Infantry Barracks, between them and the bed of the Bhingár river, are in the north on either side of the fort road the Catholic and Protestant churches, and west of them a soldiers' garden and a plunge-bath fifty feet long and four to seven feet deep. South of the bath to the west of the single men's barracks are the cavalry stables, which, except the sick horse stable which is used by the Government stud horses, have stood empty since the cavalry left the station. In the south-east corner of the cantonment, about 600 yards south of the Infantry Hospital and, in a line with it, is the Artillery Hospital. About 400 yards farther south are the three New Artillery Barracks. The old temporary Artillery Barracks which run east and west have been dismantled and converted into temporary stables for the Artillery. To the east is the Artillery Hospital a one-storeyed building facing west, 120 feet by twenty-four and twenty high, covering a total superficial area of 2880 feet. The floors, on a slightly raised plinth, are paved, the walls are of brick and mortar, and the roof is tiled. The wards each sixty feet by twenty-four have rooms for twenty-one sick. The walls are 21½ feet high and have clerestory windows provided with proper revolving glazed case-ments.¹ About 150 yards further south on slightly rising ground are the new Artillery Barracks, the most conspicuous buildings in the

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¹Sanitary Commissioner's Report, 1865.

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whole city and cantonment. The barracks and their subsidiary buildings which were finished in 1873 at a cost of £62,500 (Rs. 6,25,000) are in three blocks of fine upper storeyed buildings facing west. Each block accommodates forty-four men and two sergeants. The men's sleeping rooms of which there are two in each block are eighty-seven feet long, twenty-four feet wide, and twenty high. One sergeant lives on the ground floor and one on the first floor. The sergeants' quarters consist of two rooms together eighteen feet by twenty-four with a bathroom attached. The lower floors of the barracks are used as day and recreation rooms, offices, and store-rooms. Each block has a wash-room, cook-room, and latrine. A veranda twelve feet wide encloses each building on all sides. In front of the barracks is the quarter guard, gun sheds, harness rooms, and two blocks of family quarters each holding eight families. Behind the barracks is a block of quarters for three staff sergeants, a canteen, skittle alley, and a fives court. To the west of the fort close to the town walls are the Tent Pitchers' lines a small group of huts built for the use of tent pitchers and store servants. Most of the lines are empty as the number of servants has been greatly reduced. Further north, between the Báva Bangáli and the Jhenda gates, is the Mandai bazár a hamlet with the tomb of the Báva,¹ and a considerable number of mud huts on uneven ground. In 1847 the Mandai bazár was described as occupied by hundreds of unregistered followers, thieves, and bad characters, over whom from the distance of the Sadar bazár the police had little or no control. A number of pensioners had also obtained leave to build at this place, but as it was thought better to concentrate the inhabitants at the Sadar bazár where they could be under control, Government removed all the huts and houses when their owners died or left Nagar. The owners have lately been compensated and the whole plot has been cleared.

Native Infantry
Lines.

At the north-east corner of the city, separated from the fort by the general parade ground, are the Native Infantry Lines. They were built between 1865 and 1870. Two blocks of thirty-two single tiled buildings divide a central street 100 feet broad, each block consisting of eight rows of two buildings divided by streets sixty feet broad. The corner rooms set apart for the Haváldárs are larger and have verandas.² On the right flank is a regimental hospital and a regimental bazár with fifteen shops. The officers' lines about 100 yards to the north, consist of a single row of houses with a monthly rental of £3 to £4 (Rs. 30-40), large one-storeyed tiled buildings in large well kept and well shaded enclosures.

Garden.

About 300 yards north of the Native Infantry Lines is a public garden called St. James' Garden occupying about five acres of ground. The garden is the property of the residents and is

¹ Báva Bangáli was a Musalmán ascetic from Bengal, who lived under a tree near the spot where his tomb now stands. He is said to have come before the foundation of Ahmadnagar (1494) and to have been held in great local repute for holiness. A fair in his memory is held in June when about 100 beggars are fed. The tomb enjoys a piece of rent-free land and a yearly cash grant of £2 14s. (Rs. 27).

² Sanitary Commissioner's Report, 1875.

maintained by voluntary subscriptions. Beside the Officers, and Native Infantry Lines in the north-west of the cantonment, close to the regimental hospital is a Lock Hospital with room for thirty to forty patients. To the west of the Native Infantry Lines across the Aurangabad road lies the Kotla (31) a square enclosure kept in good order, and behind the Kotla part of it out of cantonment limits is the Simpson Bazar.

About the centre of the cantonment half a mile east of the city, in level ground with well grown *bábhul* and banian trees, stands the fort, oval in form, one mile and eighty yards in circumference. From the outside a steep wooded bank or glacis, with a broad top or covered way, hides the walls nearly to the top. Inside of the bank runs a great dry ditch,¹ eighty-five to 180 feet wide and fourteen to twenty feet deep, whose outer side is an unbroken perpendicular wall four feet thick. The cut stone masonry walls of the fort, said to have been built from the rock hewn out of the ditch, are massive throughout, the parapets being five feet thick and the lower masonry of gradually increasing strength. Of two entrances, one as old as the fort, for wheeled traffic and guns, is on the west side at the main gate bastion, the other a modern entrance for foot passengers is on the east side by a sallyport and suspension bridge.² At the chief entrance the moat is crossed by a wooden suspension bridge swung on thick iron chains, and the road, skirting the principal bastion, enters the fort through two gateways placed at right angles with doors studded with large nails to guard against elephants. The court between is occupied by guard rooms. At the postern gate on the east, the moat is crossed by a chain suspension bridge, built some fifty years ago by Colonel Jacob of the Engineers. The walls, rising about thirty feet from the bottom of the ditch, consist of a number of semicircular bastions eighty-five yards apart, connected by curtains with parapets varying from five to ten feet in height, pierced in most places with loopholes. Behind the parapet a six feet wide path runs round the top of the wall. The bastions are all full, and, except the flag staff or chief gate bastion, have embrasures. In bastions 1, 2, 14, 15, 20, 21 and 22 the embrasures are cut down from the top of the parapets; for the rest there is a walk or berme above the embrasures, and the parapets are loopholed for musketry fire. Between each pair of embrasures is a massive stone traverse. The flag staff or chief gate bastion has, from a covered passage in its middle storey, several projections over the ditch from which stones

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¹ The ditch seems originally to have been filled with water from the Nágabái channel. It is described in 1750 as always filled from two water channels (Tieffenthaler, *Recherches Historique et Geographique*, I. 490). It seems to have been dry in 1803 when the fort was taken by General Wellesley. Under the British, the malaria from its damp bed caused fever, and efforts have from time to time been made to drain it. The drainage is now fairly complete, and, except after heavy rain, water seldom lies. It is still damp enough to keep patches of grass fresh throughout the year, and a herd of antelopes and *nilgáis*, turned loose in the ditch about fifty years ago, have since continued to prosper.

² This gate was built for the convenience of the work people when Ahmadnagar was the head-quarters of the Bombay Artillery and the laboratory was in the fort. Major S. Babington.

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and other heavy missiles could be dropped. One hundred and two guns can be mounted on the embrasures and several more on the flag staff bastion. The inside of the fort is sixteen to twenty-two feet below the terreplein of the bastions and curtains with which it is connected by frequent stone staircases. Except for some buildings and *bábhul* and banian trees it is smooth and open. Of the buildings some are of old native construction, others are offices and store-rooms of the commissariat public works barrack and ordnance departments, and the rest are workshops and gunsheds formerly used by the head-quarters of the Bombay foot artillery. The whole area within the fort is vaulted for stores. There is one large powder magazine able to hold two thousand fifty-pound barrels of powder, and one ball cartridge room with space for 1,050,000 rounds of ball ammunition. In the thickness of the inner walls of bastions and curtains many arched recesses might serve as temporary expense magazines. The walls are kept in careful repair, and four wells yield an abundant supply of fair drinking water. Probably from its ditch, which was most difficult to drain, the fort was formerly very unhealthy. Even as late as 1873 all who lived in it both Europeans and Natives suffered severely and constantly from fever.¹ Of the old native buildings in the fort the one of most interest, in the centre and still in good order, is Malik Ahmad's palace (1490 - 1508), afterwards repaired by Husain Nizám Sháh (1553-1565). Of the palace the most notable part is the public room about ninety-one feet long, twenty-two broad and eighteen high. The roof is a series of domes, the inside of them adorned by richly embossed stucco work. The present (1882) badminton court and the state prisoners' room are parts of the old palace buildings and the executive engineer's office and barrack stores appear to be the old palace stables.² A few buildings were levelled to the ground after the British had taken possession. Close inside of the outer gate, on the right hand side, is the tomb of a holy man Syed Baghí Nizám who was buried about 1490 (H. 895). Lights are kept burning at the tomb which is covered by a green cloth. In the open space to the east of the public works stores are a row of eight English tombs with dates ranging from June 1821 to September 1822.³

¹ Major E. P. Gambier, R.E., Fort of Ahmadnagar 1873.

² Major S. Babington.

³ Of the eight tombs one has no inscription, from one the inscription stone has been removed, and the inscription on one is not readable. The epitaphs on the five remaining tombs are (1) Sacred to the memory of William Todd, Late Sergeant of the 2nd Extra Battallion who departed this life on the 4th August 1821, aged 27 years. (2) Sacred to the memory of Lieutenant R. N. White, 1st Battallion, 11th Regiment, N.I., who departed this life August 25th, 18... , aged 30. (3) Sacred to the memory of Frances Julia, infant daughter of Captain and Mrs. Laurie who departed this life 14th September 1822, aged 13 days. (4) Sacred to the memory of Catherine the beloved wife of Captain Frederick Hood, Commanding the 2nd Extra Battallion of Bombay N. I. . She departed this life to the inexpressible anguish and unending regret of her affectionate and devotedly attached husband on the 13th day of November 1821, aged 26 years. (5) Sacred to the memory of Elizabeth Frederica, infant daughter of Frederick and Catherine Hicks, . She departed this life on the 3rd June 1821, aged 8 months and one day. Major S. Babington.

The present fort is said to have been built by Husain Nizám Sháh (1553-1565) on the side of an earth work called Bágh Nizám, thrown up in 1490 (H. 895) by Malík Ahmad after his defeat of the Bahmani general Jahángirkhán. It is a peculiarly well planned and well built fort as, though lying on comparatively low ground, it is not commanded by any spot within a large distance. The earth bank or glacis was originally so high as altogether to cover the fort walls.¹ It has always been praised for the skill shown in its construction, in which, both in the original planning, and afterwards in carrying out repairs, Portuguese engineers are said to have helped.² Its great strength was shown in its brilliant and successful defence by Queen Chánd when a great Moghal army under Prince Murád and Mirzakhán besieged it in vain from November 1595 until peace was concluded in February, 1596. In July 1600 the fort was again besieged by Prince Dányál and Khán Khánán and this time successfully owing to a mutiny among the defenders in the course of which Queen Chánd was murdered.³ The fort remained in the hands of the Musalmáns until 1759 when the commandant Kávi Jang treacherously sold it to Sadáshivráv Bháu the cousin of the third Peshwa. The cession was subsequently confirmed by the treaty which followed the battle of Udgir between Nizám Ali and Sadáshivráv.⁴ In 1797 the fort again changed hands and was given up by treaty to Sindia.⁵ The other leading event in the fort's history was, on the 12th August 1803, its surrender to General Wellesley afterwards Duke of Wellington. The fort was then in excellent repair. * Except Vellor in the Madras Karnátak, it was the strongest fort General Wellesley had seen.⁶ When after capturing the town General Wellesley reconnoitred the fort on the 9th August the complete protection which the glacis afforded to the wall made it difficult to fix on a spot for bombardment. Raghuráv Bába the Deshmukh of Bhingár received a bribe of £400 (Rs. 4000) and advised an attack on the east face. Batteries were thrown up somewhere near the present cavalry barracks and during the night a working party under Lieut.-Colonel Wallace with five companies of the 74th Regiment and the second battalion of the 12th Regiment was sent to cut away through the steep glacis. The battery opened at daylight on the tenth, and played with such effect, that the commandant desired that firing should cease that he might send a person to treat for a surrender. He was told that what he wished

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History.

¹ Major S. Babington.² Meadows Taylor's Noble Queen, III. 171, 173.³ Meadows Taylor's account of the siege and defence of Ahmadnagar fort brings out two points of much interest connected with the siege, the part taken by the Portuguese and the skill shown by the miners in following a soft seam in the rock. Noble Queen, III. 168, 208.⁴ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 306.⁵ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 530.⁶ The following details are from Welsh's Military Reminiscences: The fort is one of the strongest in India. Surrounded by a deep ditch, it is built of solid stone and cement with large circular bastions at short intervals and armed with three or four guns in casemated embrasures, with a terrace above and loopholes for musketry. On the bastions are some sixty guns from twelve to fifty-two pounders, but the casemates were not confined to allow their being effectively employed. The glacis was so abrupt as to cover nearly thirty feet of the wall affording shelter for an enemy if they could only get close to the place. Quoted in Maxwell's Wellington, I. 125.

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to say would be heard, but that the firing would not cease till either the fort was taken or surrendered. Next morning the commandant sent two agents offering to surrender if he was allowed to leave with his garrison and take his private property. The proposal was accepted, and on the arrival of hostages, the firing ceased. Next morning the commandant left the fort with a garrison of 1400 men, and the British troops took possession of it.¹ The fort, with a palace of Sindia and some other large buildings, seemed to have been a place of great splendour. In two rooms of the palace were found several dozen large handsome pier glasses, two electrifying machines, an organ, a pianoforte, lustres, chandeliers, globes, and many other luxuries. In other rooms were the richest stuffs of India, cloth of gold and silver, splendid armour, silks, satins, velvets, furs, shawls, plate, and cash.² Part of the wall suffered severely from the British cannonade and in spite of complete repairs traces were till lately visible on the east front.³ By the treaty of Sirji Anjangaon (30th December 1803) Sindia waived all claim to Ahmadnagar and it was given to the Peshwa as part of his share of the fruits of the campaign.⁴ In 1817, under the terms of the treaty of Poona (13th June 1817) the fort was handed over to the British by Bájiráv Peshwa.⁵ It has since remained in their hands and has been kept in repair.

Outside of the fort close to the main gate are the petty staff lines consisting of seven or eight small bungalows one of which is (1882) used as a post office. On the north are the Neutral Lines consisting of three bungalows and the Pensioners' Lines are on the east of the Bhingár stream close to the Sadar Bazár. To the east is the cricket ground and lawn tennis court with a gymkhana pavilion built in 1879 at a cost of £170 (Rs. 1700) subscribed by the European residents.⁶

Objects.

The chief objects of interest twenty-four in and twenty-seven around Ahmadnagar are ruined Musalmán mosques, tombs, and mansions built during the sixteenth century when the power of the Nizám Sháhi dynasty was at its height.

*Rumikhán's or
Makka Mosque.*

Rumikhán's or the Makka Mosque close to the city wall between the Mangal and Sarjapur gates, about eighty yards east of the Sarjapur gate, was built in the reign of the second king Burhán Nizám Sháh (1508 - 1553) by Rumikhán Dakhni the caster of the great Bijápur gun Malik-i-Maidán.⁷ The mosque is built of trap and lime masonry. It is about forty feet long north and south by about thirty feet broad east and west and on its east front has an enclosure or yard (39' x 27') surrounded by mud walls about seven

¹ Duke of Wellington's Despatches (1834), I. 300, 301. After the capture of the fort General Wellesley breakfasted under the large tamarind which stands close to the ditch opposite the flagstand. In memory of the occasion four old guns have been set mouth down on the four sides of the tree. Murray's Bombay Handbook, 292.

² Maxwell's Wellington, I. 130.

³ Major S. Babington.

⁴ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 583.

⁵ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 635.

⁶ Major S. Babington.

⁷ Rumikhán presented the mosque and his palace to one Mir Abdul Gafar.

feet high. The mosque has two floors, the first or ground floor intended for a rest-house or *musáfarakhána* and the top floor for a place of worship. The flat roof of the mosque rests on four round polished one-stone pillars two in each row much like the pillars used in Kásimkhán's palace (5). Each pillar is about three feet round and eight feet high and looks like black marble. The pillars are said to have been brought from Makka and to have given the building its name of the Makka mosque. Over the pillars two rows of three arches run north and south and on the arches rests the roof. The roof over the west part of the mosque is said to have been in ruins since about 1680. The front is in good repair and is mostly used by beef butchers.

Khwája Sherif's Haveli about 130 yards south-east of Rumi Khan's mosque is an old Musalmán mansion with mud walls, about seven feet high enclosing a space of about 107 yards square. It is said to get its name from Khwája Sherif the brother of Kávi Jang, to whom the third Peshwa Báláji presented it in reward for his brother's cession of the fort in 1759. The entrance is on the north by a strong doorway built of dressed stone and lime. In the enclosure, to the south, is a mosque (about 50' x 20' x 16') of dressed stone and lime masonry and still in good repair. Besides the mansion and the mosque the enclosure has a few flat roofed houses some of them occupied by the descendants of the Khwája Sherif, and two cisterns fed by the Kápurvádi channel. A bier or *tájia* in honour of Khwája Sherif is made every year during the Muharram holidays. The bier is held second in rank to the Bára Imám's bier or *tájia*, and hundreds of people offer sweetmeats and oil to it in fulfilment of vows.

Illahadád's or the Káli that is black mosque, about 220 yards south-east of Khwája Sherif's mansion, was built by Syed Illahadad Khán Dakhni who was administrator general during the reign of Burhán Nizám Sháh (1508-1553). In 1818 Captain Pottinger turned it into the Collector's office, and buildings for the treasury and assistant collector's and mámlatdár's offices have since been built round it.

Nálband's Mosque, about 125 yards west of the Káli mosque is one of the chief mosques now in use though neither old nor of architectural note. It was originally the dwelling house of one Nur Mahmud Nálband, was made a mosque after his death in 1836, and is maintained from the rents of three shops.

Kásimkhán's Palace, about 150 yards south-east of Nálband's mosque, is a handsome two-storeyed building added to and fitted up in 1818-19 as the Collector's residence. It was built in the beginning of the sixteenth century during the reign of the first king Ahmad Nizám Sháh (1490-1508). The centre hall entered by a long-flight of steps is a stately room, the ceiling supported on large one-stone pillars of black stone similar to the pillars in Rumi Khán's mosque (1). The ceiling of the side rooms is domed and handsomely carved.

Khán Zamán's palace and mosque, about 225 yards south-west of Kásimkhán's palace, were built in H. 967 (A.D. 1559) by Khán

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*Rumikhán's or
Makka Mosque*
(1).

*Khwája Sherif's
Haveli*
(2).

*Illahadád's or
Káli Mosque*
(3).

*Nálband's
Mosque*
(4).

*Kásimkhán's
Palace*
(5).

*Khán Zamán's
Palace and Mosque*
(6).

Chapter XIV.**Places.****AHMADNAGAR.****Objects.***Nyámatkhán's
Palace and Mosque
(7).*

Zamán Khán Dakhni in the reign of the third king Husain (1553-1565). The palace is in ruins but the mosque, a small very plain stone building, is still in use. Over the doorway an inscription gives the name of the founder and the date. Except the name the wording of the inscription is the same as that on Farhádkhán's mosque (14).

Nyámatkhán's palace and mosque, about eighty yards north-west of Khán Zamánkhán's mosque, is a magnificent pile of buildings now mostly in ruins. It was designed by Sardár Ferrah Bakhsh and was finished by Nyámatkhán Dakhni in H. 987 (A.D. 1579) in the reign of the fourth king Murtaza I. (1565-1588). The buildings contained a very large bath and attached to them was a famous Badgir or ventilator which was pulled down by Mr. Woodcock a former Judge of Ahmadnagar. A part of the building with an upper storey still stands fronting the roadway and is (1882) occupied by a Musalmán firework maker. The buildings were supplied with water from the Nepti channel which was specially built for them. The foundations of the ruined parts of the palace and bath may still be traced. The mosque (50' x 30' x 15') is on a four feet high plinth, and is built of dressed stone and lime masonry. Its flat top rests on eight stone pillars about two feet square and about five feet high over which rise the arches. It is still in good repair and is used for records and stores by the municipality whose office is close by. The left or south side contains two rows of three archways and was formerly used as a mosque. The right side with two rows of two archways contains the tombs of Nyámat Khán and his wife. From the foundations the palace and the bath seem to have filled a space of about 500 square yards. The main entrance was in the line of the north wall close to the mosque which is still standing. The gate bears a Hindustáni and Arabic inscription in eleven lines on the top of the doorway engraved in two stone tablets which gives the date of the mosque as H. 987 that is A.D. 1579.

*Sháh Táhir's Palace
and Mosque
(8).*

Sháh Táhir's palace and mosque, called after Burhán Nizám's (1508-1553) Shia minister one of the most talented and interesting characters in Ahmadnagar history, lies close to the north of Nyámatkhán's mosque where the Mangalvár market is now held. Except one wall no trace of the building is left.

*Chobin Mosque
(9).*

The Chobin or Wooden Mosque, about sixty yards south-west of the Mangal Market, was built by Syed Jalál Dakhni in the reign of Burhán Nizám Sháh (1508-1553).

*Mengni or Benna
Mahál
(10).*

The Mengni or Benna Mahál, now used as the civil jail, about seventy yards south-west of the Chobin mosque, was built in 1570 in honour of the marriage of Nyámatkhán Dakhni.

*Sarjékhán's Palace
and Mosque
(11).*

Sarjékhán's palace and mosque, about 100 yards north of the civil jail, is a ruined stone mansion (28' x 18') now used as a small cause court. Close to the mosque is Sarjékhán's tomb which is covered with an elegant cut-stone rectangular canopy surmounted by a dome supported on open arches. In the east wall is a small hollow which is called the *Dobotka chira* or two-finger hole as it is said that any two fingers can fill it. It apparently is a partly filled flaw in the stone. The mosque is locally known as the

Dobotka chira masjid or the Two-Finger Hole Mosque. The palace and mosque were built in H. 969 that is A.D. 1561.

Changizkhán's Palace, built by the distinguished and ill used noble of that name in the reign of the third Ahmadnagar king Husain Nizám Sháh (1553-1565), about sixty-eight yards north-east of Sarjekhán's palace and mosque, is a fine upper storeyed building now used as the District Judge's court. On its plinth is an inscribed stone but so covered with whitewash as to be almost unreadable.

The Jáma Mosque, about sixty-five yards west of Changiz Khán's palace, is a large plain stone building (75' x 44') on a low plinth. It was built in H. 1117 that is A.D. 1705 by Kázi Abdul Rasul Sáhíb Usmání under orders from Aurangzeb. The property, worth about £4000 (Rs. 40,000) of a Khatri named Gopál who died intestate, fell to the crown and was spent by Aurangzeb in making this mosque.

Farhádkhán's mosque, shrine, and rest-house, about 130 yards north-east of the Jáma Mosque, were built by one Farhádkhán in H. 967 that is A.D. 1559. Over the doorway an inscription gives the date and name of the founder in words the same as those on Khán Zamánkhán's mosque. The mosque is still used, a part of the buildings as a rest-house and the rest as a Government store. The mosque is raised on a stone plinth but has no special architectural beauty. The front is of pointed arches and the roof has six domes resting on four central eight-sided pillars. The whole is enclosed in a paved courtyard at the east end of which is Farhádkhán's tomb. The rest-house is a separate courtyard surrounded by a veranda supported on pointed arches.

The Soneri or Golden Mosque, about 240 yards north-east of Farhádkhán's mosque built by Nizám-ul-Mulk (1720-1748), is now used as a residence by a Pársi family, and has been added to and altered. It appears to have been a very handsome building approached on either side by a low flight of steps. The centre arches of the mosque rest on handsomely carved stone pillars which appear to be the upper parts and capitals of pillars taken from a Hindu temple. The shafts are eight-sided and the capitals are vases with flower ornaments. The interior is whitewashed, and under the wash on the walls are said to be inscriptions in gilt letters. In the basement are a number of cellars and other rooms.

The Bádsháhi Mosque, about 100 yards south-east of Soneri mosque, built by Aurangzeb (1658-1707) is a stone building (39' x 27') ornamented with stucco and whitewash. It is built on the ground without a plinth and has a flat roof. The mosque is repaired from the rents of shops.

Kávi Jang's Mehel, about sixty yards west of the Bádsháhi mosque, is said to have been built about 1750 by Kávi Jang the Nizám's commandant, who was bribed by Peshwa Báláji Bájiráv to surrender Ahmadnagar fort in 1759. The palace (81' x 33') is of dressed stone and lime masonry. It has three floors, the first partly under and partly above ground. The top of the first floor which is about five feet above the ground, forms the plinth of the second floor which has a

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AHMADNAGAR.

Objects.

*Changizkhán's
Palace*
(12).

Jáma Mosque
(13).

*Farhádkhán's
Mosque, Shrine,
and Rest-house*
(14).

Soneri Mosque
(15).

Bádsháhi Mosque
(16).

*Kávi Jang's
Mehel*
(17).

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AHMADNAGAR.

Objects.

Kávi Jang's Mehel
(17).

stone stair in the middle of its west walls leading to the third floor. The first floor under ground is commonly known as the *balad* or cellar. In front, to the north and attached to the main building, is a large stone platform about sixty-four feet long and about nine feet wide with steps on the east and west built to the top level of the first floor. The mansion with its enclosure was mortgaged by Kávi Jang's descendants about the end of the eighteenth century to a Bohora merchant who, for more than fifty years, has rented it to the American Mission by whom it is still occupied. In the centre of the enclosure a large dry cistern was formerly fed by the Kápurvádi channel. A small cistern about seven feet square has been built about twenty-five yards north-east of the old cistern.

Tora Bibi's Mosque
(18).

Tora Bibi's Mosque (24' x 18') about 110 yards south-west of Kávi Jang's Mehel was built in the reign of Murtaza Nizám Sháh (1565-1588) by Tora Bibi one of Chánd Sultána's maids. It is a plain building on a low plinth and is still in use.

Kamani Mosque
(19).

The Kamani Mosque, about sixty yards south-east of Tora Bibi's mosque, still in use was built by Asad Khán Rumi in the latter half of the sixteenth century. A part of the mosque buildings on the east including the gateway have been made into a civil hospital. The mosque (36' x 21') is of stone slightly carved and now whitewashed. In front is the tomb of Kávi Jang the Haidarabad officer who gave up Ahmadnagar fort in 1759. The tomb bears date H. 1188 that is A.D. 1774.

Husain Mosque and College
(20).

Husain Mosque and College about sixty yards west of the Kamani mosque, was built by Syed Husain Mashadi in the reign of Burhán Nizám Sháh (1508-1553) for the spread of the Shia faith. The mosque is a stone building with a large centre dome and is said to be designed on the model of a mosque at Mashad in Persia. It is surrounded by a number of irregular buildings and in 1818 was turned into a criminal jail. The place has been so altered at various times that it is difficult to trace the original buildings. The jail holds about 260 prisoners.

Sadr-ud-Din's Mosque and Tomb
(21).

Sadr-ud-Din's Mosque and Tomb were built by one Sadr-ud-Din in H. 984 that is A.D. 1576, in the reign of the fourth king Murtaza I. (1565-1588). The mosque is a stone building not now in use. Two eastern arches have been filled with brick. The tomb, which is close by, is a square stone building with an octagonal cut corner roof surmounted by a circular dome.

Muntáhib-ud-Din's Mosque
(22).

Muntáhib-ud-Din's Mosque was built by one Muntáhib-ud-Din in H. 993 that is A.D. 1585. Close to the mosque a handsomely carved square stone building with traceried stone windows is surmounted by a ruined cupola which contains the tombs of two Syeds Subhand and Burhán.

Nahardil Palace
(23).

Nahardil Palace and Mosque of unknown date were built by one Samsher Khán. The palace is said to have been a fine building and to have been burnt before the time of Aurangzeb. The mosque is still standing.

Hindu and Jain Temples
(24).

There are three chief temples for Hindu and Jain worship. The chief Hindu temple is of Vithoba built in 1725 by one Vishvanáth

Sakháram Támboi at a cost of £300 (Rs. 3000). Of the two Jain temples one of Párasnáth was built in 1776 by Márwár and Gujarrát Vánis at a cost of £300 (Rs. 3000). It has since been enlarged and improved. It has two entrances one for worshippers and the other for priests and religious men or *sádhus*. The other Jain temple was built in 1850 by Jain Shimpis at a cost of £50 (Rs. 500).

Outside the city near the Jhenda gate in Beluchpur is Ágha Bahizad Dakhni's mosque still in use.

Báva Bangáli's tomb is close outside the Bangáli gate. The tomb is said to be older than the fort (A.D. 1495). The name of the saint is lost. He came from Bengal, and by the aid of a Bengáli charm is said to have raised to life the body of a snake-bitten Hindu Pátel of Bhingár.¹

Close outside of the Máliváda gate is Syed Burhán Dakhni's mosque, a small stone building surmounted by a dome.

On the Sina close to the Nepti gate is Syed Hatti's mosque, a plain building not now in use.

On the west bank of the Sina opposite the Nepti gate is Sháh Sawár Gházi's tomb who was killed in H. 987 that is A.D. 1579 fighting under Chánd Bibi.

To the north of the town near the Police lines is Chár Sának's tomb, a square stone building surmounted by a cupola. It takes its name from the four ornaments at the foot of the cupola.

Near the Mangal gate about 200 yards outside the city is the Kotla Mosque, a walled enclosure with out-houses. It was built by Burhán Nizám Sháh (1508-1553) in H. 944 that is A.D. 1536 under the advice of his minister Sháh Táhir when Burhán embraced the Shia faith.² Burhán presented the mosque to Sháh Táhir and intended it as a charitable institution and college. It was largely endowed and still enjoys a yearly grant of £1500 (Rs. 15,000) chiefly from the revenues of a village in Nevása. The mosque has since been used as a Bárá-Imáms' or the Twelve Saints' holy place and during the Muharram holidays thousands of people offer presents of sweet oil and sweetmeats to the Mujávar in charge, the oil for burning lamps in front of the Bárá Imám's bier or *tájia* and the sweetmeat for distribution among the worshippers for the fulfilment of prayers. Except the outer wall, little of the old buildings is left. The enclosure, which is about 300 feet square is surrounded by a wall about fifteen feet high built of dressed trap and lime. It has two entrances on the east and south. The east and main entrance is about seven feet high and four feet wide. In front on either side of the entrance are travellers' resting places, with two feet square stone pillars and covered with stone archways set in lime. The central part of the west enclosure wall, which is about 100 feet long, forms the back of the mosque, which is similar in plan to

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AHMADNAGAR.

Objects.

*A'gha Bahizad
Dakhni's Mosque*
(25).

*Báva Bangáli's
Tomb*
(26).

*Syed Burhán
Dakhni's Mosque*
(27).

*Syed Hatti's
Mosque*
(28).

*Sháh Sawár
Gházi's Tomb*
(29).

*Chár Sának's
Tomb*
(30).

Kotla Mosque
(31).

¹ See above p. 692 and note 1.

² See below p. 707.

Chapter XIV.**Places.****AHMADNAGAR.****Objects.***Kotla Mosque*
(31).

the Jámamosque (13). On either side of the mosque along the enclosure line are sheds inhabited by the descendants of the Mujávárs. The second or south entrance, which is about twenty feet wide by fifteen high, was opened about 1865 under Government orders for better ventilation. In the centre of the enclosure is a large cistern said to have been fed by the Kápurvádi duct. About 1870 a small cistern about ten feet square fed by the Kápurvádi duct was built in the middle of the old cistern at the joint expense of the mosque people and the cantonment committee. The mosque out-houses and enclosure are in good repair.

*Rumikhán's Tomb
or Pila Ghumat*
(32).

About 100 yards north of the Kotla is Rumikhán's Tomb, also called Pila Ghumat or the Yellow Dome. It is a square tomb surmounted by a dome. The tomb is eighteen feet square inside, and, including the dome, is forty feet high. The walls are four feet thick. It has been made into a dwelling by introducing a floor which divides the tomb into an upper and lower room. The tomb stone, which is a single large block, lies outside where it was probably removed when the tomb was made into a dwelling. In the enclosure close alongside of the tomb a large hollow, about 100 feet by sixty feet and six feet deep, is said to be the mould in which the great Bijápur gun Malik-i-Maidán was cast in H. 956 that is A.D. 1549.¹

*Bahri Khán's
Mosque*
(33).

Outside the town about 500 yards south of the Máliváda gate is Bahri Khán's Mosque, a stone building surmounted by a small dome.

Bágh Rauza
(34).

About half a mile north-west of the city a few hundred yards of the Nálegaon gate, is the Bágh Rauza or the Garden of the Shrine, where the first Nizám Sháhi king Ahmad I. (1490-1508) is buried. This is one of the finest buildings in Ahmadnagar. It is of black stone about forty feet square and roofed by a dome and inscribed inside with texts from the Kurán in letters of gold. Except the one to the south the doors are closed. In the centre of the building, with other tombs on both sides, is the tomb of Ahmad Nizám Sháh. All the tombs are usually covered with a green or black cloth and have no inscriptions. To the south-east of the main building and near a ruinous reservoir is a small square-domed building believed to be the vault, wherein, previous to its being carried to Karbela, the body of Sháh Táhir the Shia minister of Husain Nizám Sháh (1553-1565) was laid. Both these buildings are enclosed by a wall about ten feet high. The gateway to the south is domed and also contains some graves. Immediately to the left is a stone and masonry platform about ten feet high and eighteen feet square. It is partly canopied by a stone-slab supported by a number of elegantly worked stone pillars. It is said to be raised on the place where lies buried the body of the elephant Gulám Ali which captured Rámrája of Vijayanagar in the great battle of Tálikoti (1565). On the dais are two or three grave-like mounds on which are inscribed in beautiful Persian characters the Muhammadan creed. Close by the

¹ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S. and Major S. Babington. *Compare Bijápur Statistical Account, Bombay Gazetteer, XXIII. 639-641.*

canopy on the stone chair is a tomb said to be that of the elephant's driver or *mahát*.

About half a mile north of the city, close to the Aurangabad road, is the shrine of Abd-ur-Rahmán Chishti, who came to Ahmadnagar as a beggar during the reign of Ahmad Nizám Sháh and died at Ahmadnagar. About 313 *bighás* of land were assigned for the repair of this shrine.

On the Málegaon road about a mile to the north of the city, within the limits of Savedi village, are two large domed tombs known as the Adhai Ghumats. About 1579 a Jamádár in Murtaza I.'s (1565 - 1588) service, suspecting the chastity of his mistress, killed her and her lover, a rich Delhi trader. The merchant left a large property from which the two tombs were built. About 1770 they were being pulled down by Bábjiráv, the second Marátha governor of Ahmadnagar, to build stone bastions on the fort instead of the old clay bastions. The labourers employed died next day, and Bábjiráv was warned that he also would die if he did any more harm to the tombs. The tombs were added to and made a residence which for many years was held by the District Judge, but is now the property of the American Mission.

About a mile north of the city, close to the Adhai Ghumats is Háji Hamid's Mosque which was built by one Bessatkán Dakhni. The saint Háji Hamid is buried close by. The mosque has an inscription which has not been read.

Near the fort, about a mile and a half to the north-east of the city, a masonry mosque, called the Damdi Mosque, is notable for its elaborate carving and unusually large stones. It is said to have been built in 1567 by a noble named Sahirkán at the cost of the workmen employed on the fort who gave small daily contributions of a *damdi* ($\frac{1}{16}d.$) from their wages.¹

Close to the Damdi Mosque, about a mile to the east of the city, is Jamálkán's mosque still in use. It was built by the famous minister Jamálkán Ghair Mehdi in the reign of Murtaza Nizám Sháh (1565 - 1588). Near the mosque a square stone building surmounted by a cupola contains the tomb of one Sháh Sharif.

About a mile and a half west of the city is Sháh Ráju Darvesh's tomb, an old building which enjoyed a revenue of fifteen acres (twenty *bighás*) of land.

About two miles south-east of the city are the ruins of the Faráh Bág a fine building in the middle of what was formerly a lake but is now dry except during the rains. The palace was begun by Burhán Nizám Sháh I. (1508-1553) by Changizkán and finished by Nyámatkán. When he came to see it Burhán disliked the design and instigated by Sháh Táhir, who was an enemy of Nyámatkán, ordered it to be pulled down and re-built. The work was entrusted to Salábatkán I. who died while it was in progress. It was

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AHMADNAGAR.

Objects.

Hazrat Abd-ur-Rahman Chishti's Shrine
(35).

Adhai Ghumats
(36).

Háji Hamid's Mosque
(37).

The Damdi Mosque
(38).

Jamálkán's Mosque
(39).

Sháh Ráju Darvesh's Tomb
(40).

Faráh Bág
(41).

¹ Compare Life in Bombay. (1852), 294 which gives a view of the mosque.

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Places.

AHMADNAGAR.

Objects.

Fardh Bāg
(41).

finally finished by Salābatkhān's nephew the great Salābat II. in H. 991 that is A.D. 1583.¹ The palace is octagonal with a flat roofed upper storey. The central hall has a dome about thirty feet high. Including an outer platform all round about twenty-five feet wide the building is about 250 feet in diameter and built of rough stone and lime masonry, plastered inside and outside with stucco. Round the palace is a dry pond about 150 feet wide and about seventeen feet deep which was fed by the Bhingār aqueduct. About 500 yards round the pond the ground was made into a fine garden. The pond is still surrounded by clumps of mango, tamarind, and woodapple trees.

Towers of Silence
(42).

About two miles to the north of the town on a small hill are the remains of three towers of silence, one of them entirely in ruins. The land was granted by Government to the Pārsi community in 1826, and vested in the name of Mr. Barjorji Bhikāji. The first tower was built in 1827 by public subscription. The second was finished on the 11th of January 1842 at a cost of about £300 (Rs. 3000) subscribed by Bombay Poona and Ahmadnagar Pārsis. The third tower, the one now in use, was built of stone in 1864 by Khān Bahādur Padamji Pestanji of Poona and Mr. Nasarvānji Cursetji Gopipuria of Ahmadnagar at a cost of £500 (Rs. 5000).

Hasht Behisht
Bāgh.
(43).

About three miles to the north of the city, in the limits of Hadiri village, is a ruined palace and garden called Hasht Behisht or the Eighth Paradise. It was built in 1506 by Ahmad Nizāmshāh on the advice of Salābat Khān Gurji and was at first called Faiz Baksh or the Gain Giver. Inside the garden in the middle of a large pond was built an eight-sided two-storeyed palace representing the eight gates of Paradise which according to Muhammadan belief has eight doors. Water was brought by a duct from the villages of Vadgaon and Shendi, and on the banks of the pond another high palace with out-houses was built. Burhān Nizām Shāh, the second king, named it the Hasht Behisht or Eighth Paradise and made in it eight flower beds watered by a canal from the Sina, and enlivened* with singing birds.² This and the Farāh Bāgh were the special possessions of the royal household and Murtaza Nizām Shāh often retired here to play chess with a Delhi singer. The central eight-sided palace is now in ruins and except an embankment no signs of the pond remain. Between this garden and the city are seventy domes and forty mosques said to have contained the tombs of many of the royal favourites.

Syed Ishāk's Mosque
and Tomb
(44).

On the Mirāvalli hills about three miles north-east of the city is Syed Ishāk's mosque and tomb. The mosque was built by one Syed Ishāk who was buried near it in H. 973 that is A.D. 1565.

Shāhāpur Mosque
(45).

On the Shevgaon road about four miles east of the city is the Shāhāpur mosque with an inscription giving the Musalmān creed, and

¹ The original building was called Farāh Bakhsh, the word Farāh giving the date H. 902 (A.D. 1497).

* Shāhābi History of Ahmadnagar, 15-16.

a large well in front built by Salábatkhán II. about H. 990 that is A.D. 1582.

Six¹ miles east of the city on the Sháh Dongar hill, about 900 feet above Ahmadnagar and 3080 feet above sea level, stands the tomb of Salábatkhán II. the famous minister of Murtaza Nizám Sháh I. (1565-1588). The hill is one of the highest peaks in the neighbourhood and with the tomb looks from a distance like a short round tower and forms the most marked feature in the landscape. A made road with an avenue of trees runs from the city past the foot of the hill to Shevgaon. On the way it passes the old town of Bhingár and the deserted village of Sháhápúr. At the Sháhápúr mosque the road is crossed by the Sháhápúr aqueduct and a reservoir about 100 yards to the left receives the hill water and feeds a channel which goes to the cantonment. Not far from the reservoir is the road up the hill eight feet broad with a gradient of one in fifteen which was made in 1859 by the military department. It is passable for carts and *tongás*. The hill side is strewn with black boulders and is almost bare of trees, but the lower part is being wooded. An easy walk of about fifteen minutes leads to the top of the hill where the tomb is seen to great advantage. By the simple contrivance of a stone terrace built about twelve feet high and 100 yards broad the tomb seems to rise with considerable dignity from the centre of an octagon. The building is plain but the eight-sided platform, the three tiers of pointed arches, and the dome have all much beauty of form.²

A few steps lead from the terrace into the vault which contains the tomb. The tomb has angular holes so placed that the rising and setting sunlight falls on the tomb. At night the keeper of the tomb lights a lamp before the tomb. Salábatkhán's name is forgotten and the tomb is locally known as Chándbibí's Mahál. The tower is about seventy feet high and the base about twelve feet wide, while the galleries are about twenty feet broad. A narrow stone staircase runs round the tower hidden inside the wall which separates the tower from the galleries. The top storey over the dome is unfinished. It is difficult to say whether an outside dome was intended as a finish or the building was meant to be carried higher by adding additional galleries of smaller size. According to one account Salábatkhán meant to carry up the tower, till from the top of it he could see his beloved Daulatabad. The natural advantages of the hill and tomb as a health resort were early recognised by the English. Captain Pottinger the first Collector pitched his tents on the terrace and occupied the tomb. He stopped up one of the inner arches to protect himself from the strong breeze and cut a road up the hill beginning from a point near the present toll-house and

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AHMADNAGAR.

Objects.

Salábatkhán's
Tomb
(46).

¹ Contributed by Mr. W. R. Hamilton, Deputy Collector, Ahmadnagar.

² The building is unfinished. The legend is that Salábatkhán possessed the secret of the philosopher's stone and the art of turning base metal into gold. Tired of life he built himself a tomb and prepared three cups of poison which he asked his two wives to drink that they might die with him. One hesitated but the other drank the poison. To her who drank the poison he assigned the honour of being buried by his side within the tomb. The other wife was buried with her child outside the tomb on the terrace.

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AHMADNAGAR.

Objects.

Salāhatkhān's Tomb
(46).

ending where the new road ends. The only difficulty on the hill is its scanty water-supply. The legend is that before British rule the tomb was occupied by a Musalmān mendicant or *fakir* skilful in medicine. Afterwards the tomb was held by a gang of Bhil robbers who were attacked and captured by the people of Mehekri village. In 1859 about forty soldiers were sent to the tomb and some of the arches were closed for their convenience. It was then settled to make the tomb a health resort for about fifty men with women and children by stopping all the arches on the first and second storeys with mud and stone leaving windows and openings for air and providing a wooden staircase inside the tower. The Superintending Surgeon reported that though from its small height the hill could hardly be called a health resort, it would prove beneficial during the hot season for convalescents from fever and for the weakly men of the Nagar Brigade. It was afterwards intended to close all the arches and make a staircase to the top storey, but the cost of these changes prevented their being carried out. A cistern has been made at the foot of the hill over a fresh spring of water. It was at one time intended to make four cisterns on the hill top to store rain water. The masonry walls are still in repair but the cisterns do not hold water except for a short time in the rains. The walls of a large pond stand some way below the main road. It failed as a pond but a *pātil* has drained it and its rich deposit of silt bears excellent crops. The hill has a trigonometrical survey cairn.

Sina Bridge
(47).

The Sina Bridge is a bow girder bridge of eight spans of sixty feet each with a total length, including masonry abutments, of 530 feet. Its average height above the river is 12' 6" and the width of its roadway eighteen feet. The roadway girders, each in three lengths of nine feet, rest on cast iron screw piles 1'6" in diameter and are sunk in the river bed to an average depth of seventeen feet. The bow which forms the top of the bridge is formed by four bolted pieces the shoe pieces of each end being secured to a bed plate resting on the top of the piles. The bow is retained in its place by tension bars on which the roadway girders rest, the bow being filled in with diagonal traces to which are attached a light railing forming the sides of the bridge. The height of the bow at the centre is about seven feet above the roadway level. On the roadway girders, secured by bolts and nuts are laid stout iron buckled plates, on which the roadway is laid. The corrugations in the buckled plates are filled in with concrete, on which a thin layer of *murum* and four inches of metal are spread and consolidated. The end bow of the bridge rests on masonry abutments, terminated above the roadway by four massive cut stone pilasters, two on each side of the roadway. A tablet fixed in one of the pilasters bears the inscription :

Sina iron bridge erected by Major E. P. Gambier, R. E. Commenced in August 1869, completed in January 1873. Cost Rs. 90,311.

Bhingār Bridge
(48).

The Bhingār bridge roughly built with stone and lime masonry is about 315 feet long by fifteen wide and consists of four semicircular archways each about ten feet wide and eight feet high. The roadway parapets are formed by twenty

pilasters built on either side with burnt brick and lime masonry, about thirteen feet apart from centre to centre into which cross wooden railings are fixed.

There are two Christian burial grounds, one about half a mile north-west of the Delhi gate used by Native Christians, the other a walled enclosure nicely laid out and planted with trees about half a mile north of the fort used by Europeans and Portuguese.

The Hindu burning ground is on the right or west bank of the Sina about 1507 yards to the west of the Nepti and Nálegaon gates. Except Mhárs, Mángs, Chámbhárs, and Bhangis the burning ground is used by all classes of Hindus. The Mhárs and Mángs have two burying grounds on the left bank of the Sina, one about 250 yards south-west of the Nepti gate, the other about 500 yards north-west of the Nálegaon gate. The Chámbhár burial ground is near the Pársi tower of silence. The Bhangis bury their dead about 400 yards south of the Nepti gate beyond the river, and the Vadárs, all of whom live within cantonment limits, bury their dead to the east of the cantonment.

The chief Musalmán burying ground is to the north of the city on the river bank near the Nepti gate close to the wall.

The history of Ahmadnagar dates from the year 1490 when Ahmad Nizám Sháh, the founder of the Nizám Sháhi dynasty defeated the Bahmani troops under Jahángir Khán near its site. All officers of distinction were slain; others were taken prisoners, and mounted on buffaloes were led about the camp and afterwards sent to Bedar. This victory was called the Victory of the Garden, because on that spot Ahmad Nizám built a palace and laid out a garden.¹ Ahmad gave public thanks to God for his victory and granted a village near the spot as a residence for holy men.² In 1493 on his way to Junnar from Daulatabad which was blockaded for two months without success, Ahmad Nizám on reaching Bhingár resolved to found his capital on the site of his victory which was midway between Junnar and Daulatabad, and from this place he determined to send an army every year to lay waste the country round Daulatabad till he reduced it.³ In 1494 he laid the foundation of a city close to the Bágh Nizám upon the left bank of the Sina river and called it after himself Ahmadnagar or the city of Ahmad. In two years the city is said to have rivalled Bagdad and Cairo in splendour.⁴ In 1499 after reducing Daulatabad, Ahmad Nizám raised a wall round the Bágh Nizám, and in it built a palace of red stone.⁵ In 1529 Bahádúr Sháh of Gujarát, before whom Burhán Nizám Sháh, Ahmad's successor (1508-1553), fled to Junnar, marched on Ahmadnagar and lived for forty days in Burhán Nizám's palace. He then left Imád Sháh of Berár to conduct the siege of the fort and marched to Daulatabad. Imád Sháh also soon retired to Elichpur. In 1537 Burhán Nizám Sháh showed his preference for the Shia tenets.

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Objects.
Christian Cemeteries
(49).

Hindu Burning
Ground
(50).

Musalmán Burying
Ground
(51).
History.

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 197. This garden was improved by Ahmad's successor, Burhán Nizám Sháh who walled it and called it Bágh Nizám.

² Briggs' Ferishta, III. 198.

⁴ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 200-201.

³ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 201.

⁵ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 204.

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This caused much discontent and a number of the disaffected under one Mulla Pir Muhammad, a furious Sunni, besieged the palace. The leader was imprisoned and the tumult subsided.¹ In 1542 Burhán Nizám marching on Bijápur was deserted by Asadkhán of Belgaum, who had joined him for policy's sake, retreated towards Ahmadnagar pursued by the Berár and Bijápur army and was forced to leave his capital a prey to the invaders.² In 1559 Ali Adil Sháh (1557-1580) of Bijápur formed an alliance with Rám Rája and Ibráhim Kutb Sháh, and the allied sovereigns reached Ahmadnagar with an army of 900,000 infantry. Husain Nizám Sháh, the third Ahmadnagar king (1553-1565), fled to Paithan and the allies laid siege to Ahmadnagar. Ibráhim Kutb Sháh, jealous of the Bijápur king's power, connived at supplies passing to the garrison and one of his generals kept communication both with Husain Nizám Sháh at Paithan and with the besieged. On Rám Rája's demanding an explanation Kutb Sháh marched during the night for Golkonda, while his general finding his way into the fort joined Husain Nizám Sháh at Paithan. Imád-ul-Mulk sent a large force to join Husain. This division, being employed to cut off the besiegers' supplies, compelled the allies to raise the siege. Husain returned to Ahmadnagar and caused the fort which was originally built of mud to be rebuilt with stone and to be surrounded by a deep ditch.³ In 1562, flying before the allies Husain threw supplies into Ahmadnagar and returned to Junnar. The allies again laid siege to Ahmadnagar, Rám Rája's followers committing every species of cruelty. At Ali Adil Sháh's advice, Rám Rája raised the siege and pursued Husain to Junnar. At the approach of the rainy season the allies returned to the siege. Rám Rája's army encamped on the bank of the Sina. Heavy rain fell in the hills and the river rose so suddenly during the night that 300 of Rám Rája's horses and a vast number of carriage cattle were drowned and twenty officers of rank and upwards of 25,000 men were swept away in the torrent. Rám Rája raised the siege and moved towards the Karnátak and Ali Adil Sháh followed his example.⁴ In 1588 Mirzakhán the Regent and prince Mirán Muhammad dissatisfied with the conduct of king Murtaza Nizám Sháh (1565-1588) rushed into Ahmadnagar fort with 40,000 armed men and put to death all they found including the king. In the same year when Mirzakhán wanted to depose Mirán Husain and put in his place another prince, the Dakhni troops and the inhabitants flew to arms and in a short time about 5000 horse and foot with a numerous mob joined Jamál Khán a military leader. Mirzakhán commanded the king's head to be cut off and placing it on a pole planted it on one of the bastions of the citadel. At Jamálkhán's instance the mob heaped piles of wood and straw against the gates and set them on fire. The gates were burnt and Mirzakhán and his friends rushed into the fort. Numbers were slain. Mirzakhán who had made his escape was brought back to Ahmadnagar. He was first carried through the city on an ass and his body mangled. The massacre continued for seven days and

¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 228.² Briggs' Ferishta, III. 229-230.³ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 242.⁴ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 245.

nearly a thousand foreigners were murdered, a few only escaping under the protection of Dakhni and Abyssinian officers.¹ In 1594 Ahmad II. the ninth king of Ahmadnagar, being deserted by Yekhláskhán the chief Abyssinian general in the kingdom, Mián Manju the prime minister with his Dakhnis encamped in a large body on the plain of the Kála Chabutra near Ahmadnagar fort. He despatched his son Mián Hasan with 700 horse to disperse the mob under Yekhláskhán and himself accompanied by Ahmad went upon a raised ground from whence they could see the result. The two parties engaged and the struggle was long doubtful till a shot from the insurgents struck the king's canopy and caused great confusion in the fort. A report was spread that the king was dead. Mián Hasan took to flight and threw himself into the fort. Yekhláskhán's party advanced and laid siege to the place both by a close blockade and regular approaches. Yekhláskhán proclaimed another king and collected between ten and twelve thousand cavalry. Mián Manju asked Prince Murád, son of the Emperor Akbar, to march to his assistance who gladly accepted the invitation. In the meantime many of Yekhláskhán's followers joined Mián Manju who, on the 18th of September 1595 attacked and completely routed the Abyssinians in the neighbourhood of the Idga. About a month later (14th December) Prince Murád at the head of 30,000 Moghal and Rajput horse accompanied by Rája Alikhán of Khándesh appeared to the north of Ahmadnagar. Mián Manju repented of the step he had taken and made preparations to oppose the Moghals. Chánd Bibi who was appointed regent for the king Bahádur Sháh bravely defended the fort against the Moghals and as a last resource entered into a treaty with the Moghals.² In 1596, Chánd Sultána, seeing Muhammadkhán her adviser was intent on usurping all power, asked her nephew Ibráhim Adil Sháh of Bijápur to send a large force to enable her to reorganize the government. Sohaikhán the Bijápur general accordingly invested the fort and blockaded it for four months. Muhammadkhán wrote to the Moghal commander-in-chief in Berár, promising if he came to his help that he would hold the country as a vassal of the Delhi emperor. Muhammadkhán was seized and Chánd Sultána's power was restored. In 1597, Nebangkhán the minister attacked the fort and several skirmishes followed. In 1599 he raised the siege in order to oppose the Moghals who were marching on Ahmadnagar at Muhammadkhán's invitation. They soon laid siege to the fort, Chánd Sultána was treacherously put to death by her own officers, and the Moghals stormed and carried the place.³ Khán Khanán was appointed governor of Ahmadnagar. In 1604 Prince Danyál, the Moghal governor of the Deccan whose head-quarters were at Burhánpur came to Ahmadnagar to receive his bride the Bijápur king's daughter. Mián Ráju, one of the two Nizám Sháhi generals who had divided most of the Ahmadnagar kingdom between themselves, was asked to come to the prince's camp and make his submission as the other general Malik Ambar had

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*History.*¹ Briggs' Ferishta, III. 274-75.² For details see above History, 383.³ Details are given above under History, 386-387.

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done, but he did not obey the order. In 1607 Ahmadnagar was invested by Malik Ambar, and assistance not coming in time Khwāja Beg the Moghal commandant capitulated.¹ About 1621 Malik Ambar being deserted by the Marátha chiefs in his service was forced to tender king Murtaza II.'s submission and restore the fort of Ahmadnagar together with all the territory he had won back from the Moghals.² Soon after Ahmadnagar was besieged by a force of Malik Ambar's. The Moghal forces advanced towards the place from Paithan and Malik Ambar deeming further resistance hopeless sent envoys to express repentance and ask forgiveness and entered into a treaty with the Moghals.³ In 1624 Malik Ambar again marched to lay siege to Ahmadnagar, but in spite of every effort he made no impression on Ahmadnagar and leaving part of his army to maintain the investment he marched against Bijápur. In 1627 Khán Jahán the Moghal general bribed by the Nizám Sháhu general Hamidkhán agreed to restore to Murtaza II. all the Balághát as far as Ahmadnagar. He wrote among others to Sipahdárkhán the commandant of Ahmadnagar to give up the place to Nizám-ul-Mulk, but when Nizám-ul-Mulk's officers reached Ahmadnagar the Khán refused to restore the place and put it in a state of defence. In 1636 the Nizám Sháhi dynasty came to an end and Ahmadnagar remained with the Moghals till it was betrayed to the Maráthás in 1759.

In 1657 Shiváji, who since 1650 had greatly increased his power, marched by unfrequented roads to Ahmadnagar in the hope of surprising the town. His attempt was partially successful. But while his men were plundering he was attacked and several of his party were killed by a detachment from the fort.⁴ In 1665 he again plundered the town. In 1684 Aurangzeb went to Ahmadnagar and stayed there some time and on the 21st of February 1707 he died there in the eighty-ninth year of his age. In 1712 Sháhu (1708-1749) the grandson of Shiváji thought of moving his capital from Sátára to Ahmadnagar but as it gave offence to the Moghal general Zulfikár Khán, Sháhu gave up the intention.⁵ In 1716 a battle was fought near Ahmadnagar between the Maráthás under Khanderáv Dábháde and the Moghals. The result was not decisive but the advantage remained with the Maráthás.⁶ In 1720 Nizám-ul-Mulk made himself independent in the Deccan and Ahmadnagar remained in his possession till 1748. In 1759, the Nizám's commandant Kávi Jang for a sum of money betrayed the fort of Ahmadnagar to the third Peshwa Báláji Bájiráv. War following between the two powers the grant was confirmed in 1760. In 1797 as the price of his support of the claims of Bájiráv to the Peshwa's throne, the fort of Ahmadnagar was ceded to Sindia, who in the same year imprisoned in it Nána Fadnavis, but released him in the following year. On the 31st of December 1802 the treaty of Bassein was entered into between Bájiráv and the English, and Sindia and the Rája of Berár

¹ Elliot and Dowson, VI. 324.² Elphinstone's History of India, 562, 563.³ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 196.⁴ See above p. 393.⁵ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 74.⁶ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 106.

uniting against the British, General Wellesley marched from the Karnátak and reached Ahmadnagar on the 8th of August 1803. He attacked the town in three places and in a short time after a brisk and gallant contest the British were completely masters of the town. On the 11th after batteries had been built and firing had commenced the commandant of the fort sued for terms, and on the 12th the fort was taken possession of by the British.¹ The fort held an important position on the Nizám's frontier covering Poona and was a valuable point of support to all future operations of the British to the north. It was considered one of the strongest in the country and except Vellor in the Madras Karnátak was the strongest country fort General Wellesley had seen. Except in the part exposed to the British artillery it was in excellent repair. Inside it was in a sad dirty state and in the utmost confusion. The quantities of stores were astonishing and the powder was so good that General Wellesley replaced from the magazines what he had consumed in the siege. General Wellesley thought the fort ought to be cleared of the old buildings with which it was crowded.² Ahmadnagar, together with the surrounding country for some time remained with the British who appointed Captain Graham as their Collector of the place, which was soon restored to the Peshwa. About 1816 Ahmadnagar is described as lying in a grand plain covered with plantations of fruit trees and watered by the Sina which is distributed over it by aqueducts of hard cement many of them choked up. The fort was a mile round built of stone with a ditch forty yards broad and sixteen feet deep.³ In June 1817 under the treaty of Poona the fort was ceded by the Peshwa to the British. After the Peshwa's fall Ahmadnagar became the head-quarters of the district and a military station and, except a scuffle in the jail in 1821, the city has enjoyed unbroken peace. About 1878 old stores of useless raw sugar for the use of the garrison were discovered in the fort.

Akola, about sixty miles north-west of Ahmadnagar, is a subdivisional head-quarters, with in 1881 a population of 3778. The town is built on the south bank of the Pravara which is much raised above the level of the river bed. Some flights of steps on the river bank are fairly preserved and from the north give the town a most picturesque air. Sloping to the water's edge are a number of old Marátha and Bráhma mansions or *vádús* most of whose owners have now fallen into poverty. Like many other Deccan towns Akola has the ruins of what must have been large buildings.⁴ The chief objects of interest are two temples, a Hemádpanti⁵ temple of Siddheshvar and a

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¹ Details are given above, 411-412.

² Wellington's Despatches, I. 310.

³ Fifteen Years in India, 432-433.

⁴ Mr. T. S. Hamilton, C. S.

⁵ Hemádpant is believed to have been a celebrated physician of the *dváparayug* or the Third Age who cured Bibhishan the brother of Rávan king of Ceylon. In return Hemádpant begged the services of some giant architects with whose help he built numerous temples and step-wells in the Deccan which are most commonly known as Hemádpanti remains. The historical Hemádrí or Hemádpant was a minister of the ninth Devgiri Yádev king Rámchandra (1271-1308) who was a writer and temple-builder. In Khándesh and the North Deccan his name is now applied to almost all early Hindu buildings made of cut-stone without mortar.

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modern temple of Gangádhar. The Siddheshvar temple was buried in the silt of the Pravara, till, about 1780, a Kunbi's plough struck against the *kalash* or pot-shaped peak of its spire. The plinth and half the walls are still buried while the upper part of the central dome is gone and has been replaced by a pile built of stone and mortar. What remains is exceedingly rich and shows that the temple must have been a work of much beauty. The design of the temple is peculiar. With the usual hall or *mandap* and shrine, set like two broken squares touching at the corners, it has a porch and a door behind the *ling* shrine. The two side porches of the hall seem not to have been used either as entrances or as shrines. They are supported on short pillars and must have been partly open to the light, but they are surrounded by a continuous parapet which seems to have been surmounted by a dwarf wooden or stone railing about fifteen inches high. The images over the door lintels of the shrine are much defaced and the front porch has been badly restored. A pillar belonging to the porch with a long Sanskrit inscription has been thrown down and the letters are now hardly readable. The temple has small standing figures of various Hindu divinities wilfully defaced. The sacred swan appears both on the rear porch and on the central pillars. The best parts are the four architraves forming the first course of the central dome of the hall. Two of the architraves are adorned with battle pieces; the third has a representation of Vishnu reclining on the serpent Shesh. To the right and left of Vishnu are quaint figures, half-human half-snake, squatted on their curled tails, and outside of them are human figures. Facing these figures is a representation of the churning of the ocean by the gods and demons to obtain ambrosia or *amrit*. The architraves of the other domes are ornamented with a pattern of blade-like leaves set in a double row. The rest of the nine interior domes and of the side porches or transepts is modern work, but the porch behind the shrine has its original ceiling. The temple is now used for *ling* worship. The sculptures and the fact that the *ling* shrine is not on a lower but on the general floor level seem to show that it originally was a Vishnu temple.¹

The Gangádhar temple, in the centre of the town, is perhaps the finest piece of modern workmanship in the district. It was built in 1782 by Krishnáji Ambádás Sant a Deshpánde. Besides the sub-divisional revenue and police offices Akola has schools for both boys and girls and a Saturday market.

ARANGAON.

Arangaon ten miles west of Jámkhed, has an unusually large but plain Hemádpanti temple of Araneshvar Mahádev with an inscription.²

BELÁPUR.

Bela'pur, fifteen miles north of Ráhuri, with in 1881 a population of 3283, is a large market town and a station on the Dhond-Manmád railway. The town lies on the north bank of the Pravara which in floods rises to the town gates. On the river front are

¹ Mr. Sinclair in Indian Antiquary, V. 9. Dr. Burgess' Lists of Antiquarian Remains, 106-113. Most of the temple details in this chapter are taken from Dr. Burgess' Lists.

² Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S.

three large flights of steps of which two have been ruined by the wash of the water, and one, leading to a temple of Keshavgovind, is under repair. On the river side some picturesque buildings belong to the Náiks an old Marátha family. On the opposite bank of the river, to which a ferry plies during the south-west rains, is Belápur Khurd nestled among beautiful trees with a Collector's bungalow. Both towns have Government schools. The railway station four miles north of the town is joined to it by a new road. The chief traders are Márwár Vánis and Telis with average capitals of about £600 (Rs. 6000) and trade chiefly in grain and cloth. A weekly market is held on Sundays opposite the fort and outside of the town gate.¹ In 1822 an attempt was made to make Belápur the centre of a rising.²

Belvandi Kolhá'r, four miles north of Shrigonda, has a well preserved Hemádpanti well or *báro* with a Hemádpanti temple projecting into it on one side. The temple has two plain doors leading to the hall or *mandap* which has cobras on the pillar capitals and one leading to the shrine which is on the same level as the hall. In front of the shrine door is a Nandi under a dome. Over the dome is a place for raising water, and a stone waterway, running the length of the temple on the roof, empties into an old water trough. The well is supposed to be haunted and is not used.

Bhá'lgáon, twenty-six miles north-east of Jámkhed, has a temple of Bháleshvar with nine domes on fairly carved pillars with lozenge-shaped ornaments on the faces. In the village is another ruined temple of which the shrine and hall or *mandap* remain.³

Bhá'todi village, ten miles north-east of Ahmadnagar, gives its name to the Bhátodi lake built by Salábatkhán the famous minister of the fourth Nizám Sháhi king Murtaza Nizám Sháh (1565-1588) and restored by Government in 1877. The lake drains 44 square miles, and when full has an area of 310 acres and an available capacity of 149 millions of cubic feet. The lake has several irrigation canals, the main canal $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and branch canals $3\frac{3}{4}$ miles long.⁴ The restoration of the lake caused the transfer of Bhátodi from the Nizám to the British Government.

Bhingá'r, a municipal town, with in 1881 a population of 5706, lies on a large watercourse which flows west through the Ahmadnagar cantonment. The town lies close to the line that marks the military limits of the Ahmadnagar cantonment, and is nearly continuous with the Sadar Bazár between it and the European barracks which lie a mile to the south of the city and the native infantry lines. Except the chief market where the houses are large and regularly built the town is built of square enclosures with mud walls five to six feet high. Among these enclosures are narrow crooked lanes and blind alleys and these and the many ruins in the town offer great facilities for the gathering of filth. Throughout the town are built receptacles for all sweepings except night-soil.

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BELÁPUR.

BELVANDI
KOLHÁR.

BHÁLGAON.

BHÁTODI.

BHINGÁR.

¹ Mr. T. S. Hamilton, C. S.² Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S.³ See above p. 253.⁴ Details are given above pp. 252-254.

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BHINGÁR.

Bhingár is supplied with good drinking water by an underground masonry aqueduct from the hills. The supply is under the control of the Executive Engineer. A drinking reservoir, bathing pavement, and cattle trough have been built in Bhingár at such levels that the aqueduct supplies the whole town and the surplus water from the cattle trough runs into the watercourse.

The 1872 census showed a population of 5752 of whom 5339 were Hindus, 399 Musalmáns, and fourteen Christians. The 1881 census showed 5106 of whom 4792 were Hindus and 314 Musalmáns. The municipality was established in 1857. In 1882-83 it had an income of £432 (Rs. 4320) and an expenditure of £364 (Rs. 3640). Cholera was formerly prevalent in Bhingár, but since conservancy rules have been enforced, it has been hardly known. In 1878, when Ahmádnagar city was attacked by cholera, Bhingár was almost entirely free. A fair is held at Bhingár on the bright third of *Ashvin* or September-October when about 20,000 people assemble and goods worth £500 (Rs. 5000) are sold.

BRÁHMANVÁDI.

Brahmanvádi on the Poona-Nagar frontier about twelve miles south of Akola, with in 1881 a population of 1195, has a funeral monument on the spot where the daughter-in-law of the Marátha general Bápu Gokhale burnt herself on hearing of her husband's death in the battle of Koregaon (1818). Instead of the usual *sati* stone hand and arm this monument bears foot-prints.¹

After his defeat at Kirkee in 1817 (5th November) Bájiráv stopped in his flight at Bráhmanvádi.²

CHICHLI.

Chichli, eighteen miles north of Shrigonda, has an old pond on the hills about two miles south of the village.³

CHINCHOLI.

Chincholi village six miles west of Párner, with in 1881 a population of 632, has fragments of ancient sculpture, the most notable being a seven-headed cobra or *nág* on a grave-stone with a tail tied in a true love-knot.⁴

DASÁBÁI.

Dasa'ba'i hill in Párner town has a small empty tomb or cenotaph in honour of Chánd Bibi the Noble Queen, who was killed in the defence of Ahmádnagar fort in 1599. The tomb is covered by a jasmine bush where Hindu women offer bangles.⁵

DEVALGAON.

Devalgaon, eight miles north of Shrigonda, has an old Hemádpanti well which has been repaired in later times and its old stones broken by Vadár stone-cutters.

DEVDAITHAN.

Devdaithan, eight miles east of Jámkhed with in 1881 a population of 432, has the remains of a modern temple of Khandoba. The temple roof rests on eight pillars which with the walls make fifteen domes. The pillars are like those used in Hemádpanti temples but are made of pieces instead of being cut from single blocks.⁶

DHERGAON.

Dhergaon village sixteen miles north-west of Karjat, has a

¹ Fifteen Years in India, 499.

² Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S.

³ Indian Antiquary, V. 14.

⁴ Pendhári and Marátha War Papers, 273.

⁵ Indian Antiquary, V. 14.

⁶ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S.

ruined Hemádpanti temple of Mallikárjun with four well carved pillars adorned with cobras on the capitals.

Dhoke village, twelve miles north of Párner, has, on the east side of one of two rugged hills rising from a stony plateau, a group of early Bráhmánic caves of about A.D. 550-600. The chief cave is irregular about forty-five feet wide in front and upwards of fifty feet deep. In front are two massive pillars between pilasters, and 14½ feet behind them two other pillars stand on a raised step. The pillars are square below and change above into eight and thirty-two sides with square capitals having pendant corners under ordinary brackets. The front pair of columns have more carving on the lower halves but are square up to the capitals. The shrine is rock-cut with, round it, a wide circling path or *pradakshina*, and with a door in front and in the right end. On each side of the front door is a doorkeeper with an aureole behind the head, holding a flower in his right hand. He wears a high head-dress with twisted locks of hair.¹ Over their shoulders are heavenly choristers or *vidyádharas*. Under the right hand of the left doorkeeper a figure stands with folded arms and wearing a trident on his head like a cap. Other figures are carved to the right and left. The shrine has a small *ling*, and on an earthen platform in front, among many fragments of sculpture of all ages, is a modern hollow copper *ling* with a human face in front and a snake coiled round and seven hoods raised over it.

On the deep architrave over the inner pair of pillars in the centre is a sculpture of Lakshmi and elephants pouring water over her and other figures to the left. At the north end is a chapel with two pillars in front, and on the back wall is a large sculpture of Bhairav and some snake figures. Outside, at each end of the front, is a tall standing female figure with a lofty head-dress holding in one hand an opening bud. In a recess to the north of the shrine is a coarsely hewn bull. In the back are three small recesses, and in the south end is a raised platform with a seat at the end of which a hole has been made into a large cistern, the entrance to which is a dozen yards to the south of the cave. Between the great cave and the cistern and some way up the face of the rock, reached by a risky stair, is a small cave with a low roof and a built front as the original front has given way. On each side of this cave is a cell with an opening two or 2½ feet from the floor. In the left front corner is a trap-door leading to a partly filled apartment.

On the south wall of the cave are badly carved figures of the Seven Mothers with Ganesh and Bhringi at their head. The Mothers are seated under the foliage of five trees. Each has an aureole and her distinguishing animal symbol.² Beyond the last Mother is Shiv.³

¹ These figures are similar to those on the sides of the shrine at Elephanta and the Dumar Lena at Elurá. Compare Fergusson and Burgess' *Cave Temples*, 448, 469.

² The seven Mothers are Aindri with an elephant, Bráhmi with a swan, Chámunda with a dead body, Kaumári with a peacock, Máheshvari with a bull, Vaishnavi with the eagle Garud, and Váráhi with a buffalo. Compare *Bombay Gazetteer*, XIV. 79 note 1.

³ *Cave Temples of India*, 429-430.

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DHOKÉ.

Caves.

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DHORJA.

Dhorja, about eight miles north of Shrigonda, has, about a mile north of the village, two old temples one of old brick work and the other Hemádpanti with nine domes to the hall. The second temple is half sunk in the ground. Of the four pillars in the hall, the two outer have cobras on their capitals and the two inner have figures. The temple roof has projecting eaves.

DITAN.

Ditan village in Shrigonda, with in 1881 a population of 1086, has the remains of a temple of Nimráj Báva in whose honour a fair is held on Maháshivrátra in January-February.

DONGARGAN.

Dongargan village, ten miles north-east of Ahmadnagar, with in 1881 a population of 617, has a romantic little ravine called the Happy Valley between two spurs of the Ahmadnagar plateau. A road branching from the Ahmadnagar-Toka road at the sixth milestone leads past Dongargan on the east through an opening in the hills to the rich market town of Vámbhori. Standing on the outskirts of Dongargan and looking north lies the Happy Valley. A deep flight of rock-cut steps runs past a temple of Mahádev from behind which a spring gushes from the rock and flows into a round cistern about four feet deep. From the first cistern the stream is carried by a channel into a second cistern, and, winding round a Muhammadan tomb now a travellers' bungalow, tumbles over a rocky ledge about twenty feet and dashes along a rugged bed for a quarter of a mile till it leaps over the edge of the plateau to the plain below.¹ During the hot weather, when the country round is dry, the stream continues to flow, and all down the valley the trees give a grateful shade.²

A yearly fair is held at Dongargan on the third Monday of *Shrávan* or July-August when about 4000 people assemble.

GANJIBHOYRA.

Ganjibhoyra, five miles south-west of Párner, has a Hemádpanti temple of Mahádev surrounded by numerous ruins. The temple has cobra capitals and near it are the remains of a Hemádpanti well or *báro* with a pillared veranda.³

GHOTAN.

Ghotan, six miles north of Shevgaon, with in 1881 a population of 2948, is a market town with an old temple of Mahádev. The temple stands in the middle of the village in a square on one side of which is an old archway with a hanging bell. Passing under the archway steps lead to a courtyard in the middle of which is the temple surrounded by several smaller shrines. From outside the temple does not look old as brick parapet walls have been built round the flat roof and the dome is whitewashed. Passing a mutilated Nandi at the door the way leads to a hall with a carved stone ceiling resting on a row of carved stone pillars. A doorway at the other end of the hall leads down a flight of steps to the shrine and a pool both in utter darkness.⁴

¹ Colonel Meadows Taylor notices (Noble Queen, III. 165) an old palace and garden built near a pretty cascade in the Happy Valley. Before the valley lies the broad Godávári plain and even the grim rock of Daulatabad and the tall white minaret of the Emperor Muhammad Tughlik were distinctly visible on a clear day.

² Mr. R. E. Candy, C.S. ³ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C.S. ⁴ Mr. R. E. Candy, C.S.

Gondhegaon in Nevása has three Hemádpanti temples two of Márgalnáth and Rámeshvar in the village, and the third of Sudoleshvar on a neighbouring hill. The Márgalnáth temple has a plain outside with well carved pillars adorned with cobra capitals. Near the temple is a Hemádpanti well or *báro*.¹

Gurav Pimpri, eight miles north of Karjat, has a plain Hemádpanti temple of Pimpreshvar Mahádev and a modern ruined temple of Rámeshvar. The hall of the Pimpreshvar temple has nine domes and the *ling* is in a pit-like shrine. The temple has two inscriptions one under the door of the enclosure and another on an extra pillar which supports a cracked stone beam. The Rámeshvar temple has a ruined well or *báro* with a drinking trough attached.²

Harischandragad Fort, 4691 feet above sea level, with ruined fortifications and Bráhmanical caves, lies on the Sahyádris, eighteen miles south-west of Akola. The hill is the apex of the watershed of the Bhima and Godávári drainage systems.

About six paths lead up to the hill two of which from Páchnái and Lobáli Kotul can be used by loaded cattle. The hill top, which is about three miles in diameter, is an irregular tableland with deep gorges, and at the south-east edge rising rather suddenly to the highest point 4691 feet above the sea. The caves lie north of and about 600 feet below the summit. On the steep slope between the hill top and the caves and stretching east and west is a beautiful belt of evergreen forest almost impenetrable from its thick undergrowth and huge boulders. Other wooded patches freshen sheltered nooks, but most of the rest of the plateau is either bare rock or coarse thatching grass with here and there patches of bracken. The descent from the plateau is unusually steep on all sides. To the north the first drop is a cliff of 200 feet which runs for a great distance along the hill side. The grandest cliff, about 2000 feet, faces west overlooking the Konkan. Ascent by this cliff was not uncommon. The sockets in which the standards for working the rope and pulley or some similar climbing apparatus were fixed are still seen at the top of the cliff. As they were destroyed by Captain Mackintosh about 1820, little but ruined traces are left of the fortifications of Harischandragad. The ruins of the gate appear at the top of the Lobáli Kotul pathway and a few places where an escalade was possible still show remains of fortifications. On a peak, half a mile east of the summit, is the citadel or *bála killa* with decaying walls and blown-up cisterns. At the foot of the citadel, at the gate, and at one or two other places are remains of houses, but the commandant and part of his establishment are believed to have lived in the caves.

Especially in May the edge of the Konkan cliff often gives an excellent view of the curious phenomenon called the Circular Rainbow. In 1835 Colonel Sykes³ during periods of fogs and mists

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GURAV PIMPRI.

HARISCHANDRAGAD
FORT.

Rainbow.

¹ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S.

² Dr. Burgess' Lists, 106.

³ Philosophical Transactions, 1835; Nineteenth Century, February 1884.

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HARISCHANDRAGAD
FORT.*Rainbow.*

several times observed the circular rainbow which from its rareness is spoken of only as a possibility. Sometimes the Konkan fog stratum rose somewhat above the level of the top of the Harischandragad cliff, without coming over the tableland. Colonel Sykes stood at the edge of the precipice just outside of the limits of the fog, with a low cloudless sun on his back. The circular rainbow appeared perfect and most vividly coloured, one-half above Colonel Sykes' level and the other half below. Distinct outline shadows of Colonel Sykes his horse and his men appeared in the centre of the circle as a picture to which the bow served as a resplendent frame.¹ From their nearness to the fog the diameter of the rainbow circle never exceeded fifty or sixty feet. Accompanying the brilliant rainbow circle was the usual outer bow in fainter colours. The Fokiang or Glory of Buddha as seen from mount O in West China² tallies more exactly with the phenomenon than Colonel Sykes' description would seem to show. Round the head of the shadow always appears a bright disc or glory, and concentric with this disc, but separated by an interval, is the circular rainbow. The size and brilliancy of the rainbow varies much with the distance of the mist; when the mist is close the diameter may not be more than six feet. Whether the observer sees only his own shadow or the shadow of others with him depends on the size of the rainbow. Each observer always sees the head of his own shadow in the centre of the glory.

Caves.

The³ caves, which are about 500 feet below the level of the fort, are chiefly in a low scarp of rock to the north of the summit. The caves face north-west and consist of eight or nine excavations none of them large or rich in sculpture. The pillars are mostly plain square blocks; the architraves of the doors are carved in plain fronts; and a few images of the Shaiv symbol Ganpati also appear on some of the door lintels. The style of the low doorways and of the pillars in Cave II., some detached sculptures lying about, the use of Ganpati on the lintels, and some fragments of inscriptions seem to point to about the tenth or the eleventh century as the 'date of the caves. Cave I. at the east end of the group is about 17' 6" square and has a low bench round three sides. The door is four feet high with a high threshold and a plain moulding round the top. To the west of the cave is a cistern. Cave II. about nine yards west of cave I. is one of the largest in the group. The veranda is 23' 6" long and about 7' 6" wide with an entrance into a large cell from the left end. The whole veranda is not open in front. The space between the left pillar and pilaster is closed and the central and right hand spaces are left open. The two square pillars, only one of which stands free, are 6' 4½" high with a simple base and a number of small mouldings on the neck and capital occupying

¹ Colonel Sykes' men could not believe that the figures they saw were their own shadows and assured themselves by tossing about their arms and legs and putting their bodies in various postures.

² Professor Tyndall in Nineteenth Century, February 1884; Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S.

³ Cave Temples of India, 474-479.

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HARISCHANDRAGAD

FORT.

Caves.

the upper 2' 7". A door with plain mouldings and a small Ganesh on the lintel, with two square windows one on each side leads to the hall, which measures about twenty-five feet by twenty and varies in height from 8' 1½" to 8' 11". The hall has one cell on the right and two in the back with platforms six inches to a foot high. Outside on the right another cell leads into a larger cell at the right end of the veranda. Cave III. is unfinished though somewhat on the same plan as cave II. Half of the front wall has been cut away and a large image of Ganesh is carved on the remaining half. In a cell to the right is an altar for a *ling*. Cave IV. is an oblong cell and cave V. in the bed of the torrent is apparently unfinished with a structural front. Round three sides runs a high stone bench. The sixth, seventh, and eighth caves are similar to cave IV. But a bed of soft clay has destroyed the walls of the sixth and seventh. The shrine of the sixth has a long altar for three images. Near the eighth cave is a deep stone cistern ten feet square.

A little below the row of caves is a large Hemádpanti reservoir or *báro* with steps, along whose southern side is a row of little niches or shrines, some of them still occupied by images. Round the reservoir are small temples and cenotaphs or *thadgis*. Below the reservoir is a small temple in a pit, half rock-cut half built, consisting of a cell with a shrine at each side. One of the cells contains the socket or *shálunkha* of a removed *ling*. Below this temple a deep hollow or pit, formed by cutting away the rock at the head of a ravine, leaves a small level space from the middle of which rises a somewhat lofty temple, built on a remarkable plan. The temple has no hall or *mandap*, but consists only of a shrine with a very tall spire in the Northern Hindu style of architecture as at Buddha Gaya near Benares. The *ling* within is worshipped from any one of four doors with porches. In the south-east corner of the pit is another shrine half built half hewn with an image of a goddess. To the west of the pit two or three irregular caves were probably used as dwellings by *yogis* attached to the temple. Fifty yards further down the ravine is a cave about fifty-five feet square. In front are four columns each about three feet square with plain bracket capitals nine inches deep and 6' 10" long. In the middle of the hall is a large round socket or *shálunkha* containing a *ling* and surrounded by four slender columns of the same type as in the Elephanta caves in the Bombay harbour. All round the pillars to the walls and front of the cave the floor is cut down four feet and is always full of water, and the *ling* can be approached only by wading or swimming. On the left end is a relief carved with a *ling* and worshippers on each side. Above the level of the water is a small chamber. The caves are often used as health resorts in the hot season by district officers. Mr. Harrison a former Collector (1836-1843) built near the caves a bungalow which was burnt down.

In the last Marátha war Harischandragad was taken in the beginning of May 1818 by a detachment under Captain Sykes.¹

¹ Pendhári and Marátha War Papers, 294.

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Jalgaon, nine miles north-east of Karjat, has a Hemádpanti temple of Ankeshvar Mahádev. The hall has twelve domes and an entrance in front. The sunken shrine has a *ling* and a ruined brick dome.¹

JÁMKHED.

Ja'mkhed, 18° 43' north latitude and 75° 22' east longitude, forty-five miles south-east of Ahmadnagar, is a sub-divisional headquarters with in 1881 a population of 3465. Jámkhed has two Hemádpanti temples of Mallikárjun and Jatáshankar Mahádev. Of the Mallikárjun temple the shrine only is left and the hall pillars are scattered about. The Jatáshankar temple was long buried under ground and is well preserved. The weekly market is held on Saturdays. On the Incharna river six miles north-east of Jámkhed and close to the village of Sautara in the Nizám's territories, is a waterfall 209 feet high. During the greater part of the fair season the stream is dry, but during the rains the fall is well worth a visit. Below the fall is a beautiful glen with steep sides and an old temple at the bottom.²

JEUR.

Jeur, with in 1881 a population of 4206, is a large market town on the Toka road about thirteen miles north-east of Ahmadnagar. The town is enclosed by a ruined wall and has a strong gateway with a paved entrance. The town has a school and a weekly market on Saturday. Close by the town, perched on a high hill, is a group of three temples one of them with an inscription dated 1781. Two miles north of Jeur at the top of a beautiful ravine down which winds the Nevása road is the Imámpur travellers' bungalow. The bungalow is an old mosque and stands in a large grove with excellent shade.³

KARJAT.

Karjat, 18° 33' north latitude and 75° 3' east longitude, about forty miles south-east of Ahmadnagar, is a sub-divisional headquarters, with in 1872 a population of 5535 and in 1881 of 3608. Besides the sub-divisional revenue and police offices Karjat has a post office, a large school, and a weekly Saturday market. The town is hot and the water-supply bad.

Temples.

Karjat has three Hemádpanti temples two of Mahádev and one of Nágoba. Of the two Mahádev temples one called Nakticha Deval has nine domes and a shrine, the centre dome being smooth cut. Opposite the main shrine which is on a lower level than the hall is the door, and on each side of the door are many carved figures chiefly obscene. In front of the door is a Nandi under a dome and to the left of the door is a detached shrine with a *ling*. Two other shrines, one on each side of the *mandap*, contain images. The second Mahádev temple near the first is plain with nine domes to the hall and a *ling* in a pit-like shrine. The temple of Nágoba is close to the two Mahádev temples on the opposite bank of the Kunvalla river. The temple is Hemádpanti within and modern outside. There are nine domes to the hall and one to the sunken shrine. The pillars are plain, and a large cobra is carved on a stone outside. The temple has a modern portico with a *ling* and near it a *Nandi*.⁴

¹ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C.S.² Mr. R. E. Candy, C.S.³ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C.S.⁴ Dr. Burgess' Lists, 106.

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KÁSÁRE.

KHADGAON.

KHARDA.

Ka'mti village, about fifteen miles north-east of Shrigonda, has, in the hills to the south of the village, a curious old pond said to have been built by the Gavli kings. The pond has a broken earthen dam faced with rows of oblong stones.¹

Ka'sa're, about ten miles south of Kopargaon, with in 1881 a population of 203, has near a small stream an ugly temple of Bhairavnáth. The temple has Hemádpanti foundations on the common plan of a rectangular hall with a shrine forming a very slightly broken square.²

Khadgaon, thirteen miles north-east of Shrigonda, has at the foot of the hills a mile south of the village, an old pond said to have been built by the Gavli kings. The earthen dam leaks and the bed of the pond is under tillage.³

Kharda, twelve miles south-east of Jámkhed, with in 1881 a population of 5562, is an important market town and the scene of a famous Marátha victory over the Nizám in 1795. The 1872 census gave a population of 6899 of whom 6043 were Hindus and 856 Musalmáns. The 1881 census showed 5562 or a decrease of 1337 of whom 4979 were Hindus and 583 Musalmáns. The town contains upwards of 500 merchants, shopkeepers, and money-lenders, many of whom carry on a large trade in grain, country cloth, and other articles brought from the neighbouring villages or the Bálághát in the east and sent west to Poona and other towns. The cattle market on Tuesday is the largest in the district. Kharda belonged to the Nimbálkar one of the Nizám's nobles whose handsome mansion in the middle of the town is now entirely ruined. In 1745 Nimbálkar built a fort which is still in good repair. The fort, which stands close to the south-east of the town, is square, and very strongly built with cut stone walls twenty-five to thirty feet high and a ditch now ruined. The walls have a very massive gateway and two gates at right angles to each other. On the inner gateway is an inscription. The interior which is about 300 feet square, has a small mosque with an inscription on a stone over the front. Other buildings have been removed and some of them used in making the Jámkhed subdivisional office. The water-supply is from a very deep well now stagnant. About a mile east of the town is a European tomb with the inscription :

"Here lieth the body of Major John Hamilton Johnston of His Highness the Nizam's Service who departed this life on the 29th day of May 1803 A.D. aged 40 years."*

Close to the north gate of the town is a very handsome tomb near which one of the Nimbálkars is buried. The general appearance of the tomb is Muhammadan but except the small minarets on the top the details are Hindu. The plinth is of handsomely cut stone about fifteen feet square and four feet high. The tomb consists of a horizontal dome resting on twelve carved one-stone pillars surmounted with arched openings. The four corner pillars are plain and the middle pairs are cut to represent groups of four.⁵

¹ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S.

² Mr. W. F. Sinclair, C. S.

³ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S.

⁴ Major S. Babington.

⁵ Major S. Babington.

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KHARDA.

On the 11th of March 1795 Kharda, wrongly called Kurdla, was the scene of a famous battle in which Nizám Ali, who brought his army over the Mohori pass from Bedar, was defeated by the combined Marátha forces of the Peshwa, Sindia, Holkar, Bhonsla, and the Gáikwár, numbering it is said, 130,000 horse and foot. The Nizám took refuge in the fort but yielded after a two days' cannonade and was forced to sign a treaty, ceding extensive territories including the fortress of Daulatabad.¹ About 1840 Kharda was suddenly surprised by a band of dacoits from the Nizám's territories. The mámlatdár of Jámkhed raised the whole country, and besieged Kharda fort with hundreds of men armed with all kinds of rusty weapons. The dacoits fled during the first night and some of the fugitives were captured.² In the 1857 mutinies Kharda fort was occupied by 100 men of the 22nd Native Infantry.³

KOKAMTHÁN.

Kokamthán on the Godávari four miles south-east of Kopargaon, with in 1881 a population of 1326, has an old temple of Mahádev built of coarse dry stone, and probably belonging to the twelfth century. The temple is remarkable for its internal carved stone work, for the beauty of a pendant in the central dome representing a large flower hanging from a stalk, and, among its external weather-worn and defaced decorations, for the beauty of a belt of wreathed snakes which in places change into a foliage pattern. The temple is of the usual double diamond ground plan minutely faceted and elaborately decorated. It is of the form common in ancient Shaiv buildings in the Chálukyan and derived styles, a shrine and hall with a dome about sixty feet round, and much like the dome of the chief Jain temple in Belgaum fort.⁴ The spire over the shrine is of old shaped bricks and mortar apparently a restoration skilfully carried out in keeping with the rest of the dry stone building and agreeing closely with the little ornamental buttresses outside the shrine which harmonised with the original stone spire. Though the chief dome has no pillar supports two porches, occupying the corners of the hall opposite the shrine to the west, have domes supported on pillars, but adorned internally with the same rich carving. The fourth corner is occupied by a very curious square transept which does not appear to be a part of the original building. It is composed of rectangular panels of stone carved in geometrical and other fanciful patterns unusual in temples but much like the geometrical patterns in the great seventh century Sárnáth relic mound near Benares. The goddess of the shrine is famed for her power of curing the itch. Within the court walls of smaller temples may be traced which were destroyed by the 1872 flood. Another old temple of Mahádev formerly stood on a mound to the west of the village. A large *ling* and a Nandi still lie on the spot. According to an old custom in the village on the bright third of *Vaishákh* or April-May the village boys fight with

¹ See above History, pp. 406-409.

² Mr. J. Elphinston, C. S. * Mr. J. Elphinston, C.S.

⁴ Details are given in the Belgaum Statistical Account pp. 539-541.

slings and stones with the youngsters of the village of Samvatsar across the Godávári.¹

Kokangaon, fourteen miles north of Karjat, has a ruined Hemád-panti temple and well. Of the temple nothing but the shrine is left. The local story is that the stones were taken to build the forts of Ahmadnagar, Karmála in Sholápur, and Parinda in the Nizám's territories, and Nimbálkar's mansion or *váda* in Mirajgaon village two miles to the south-east.²

Kolgaon, twelve miles north-west of Shrigonda, with in 1881 a population of 3009 and a weekly market on Wednesday, has a Hemád-panti temple of Válkeshvar. The temple has nine domes and a sunk shrine with a *ling*. The pillars are well carved with figures on their capitals but they are entirely covered with plaster. On each side of the hall is a recess both of which are unused. In front of the door are the remains of a veranda built of large blocks of stone let into each other in receding courses. To the left of the veranda is a new shrine with a *ling* and in front is a Nandi under a four-pillared dome. Over the temple shrine is the usual brick and plaster dome. In front of the temple is a brick lamp-pillar with a staircase inside. The original outside of the temple has been removed and replaced by modern masonry.³

Kopargaon, 19° 54' north latitude and 74° 33' east longitude, sixty miles north of Ahmadnagar, is a sub-divisional head-quarters with in 1881 a population of 2020. The town lies on the Málegaon road on the north bank of the Godávári and has a subordinate judge's court and a weekly Monday market. Kopargaon was the favourite residence of Raghunáthráv or Rághoba the father of Bájiráv the last Peshwa. Raghunáthráv's palace is now used as the sub-divisional office. One of the three rooms used as the sub-judge's court has a pretty carved wooden ceiling. Facing the sub-divisional office, in a grove of trees in an island in the Godávári, were two palaces which have been pulled down and sold. Hingani three miles off where one of the palaces stood has a cenotaph of Rághoba who died and was burnt here. In an elbow of the Godávári and surrounded on three sides by its bed stands a fortified cut-stone enclosure (65' x 58' x 60') with massive black walls. It has one gate but the side towards the river is open. In the centre is the cenotaph or *thadye*, a very small work of timber and brick upon a coarse stone plinth with no writing or ornament. Near the site of the old palace in the island stands the temple of Kacheshvar a set of plain modern buildings held in great honour.⁴

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KOKANGAON.

KOLGAON.

KOPARGAON.

¹ The local belief is that the non-observance of this fighting custom is followed by a failure of rain or if rain falls it produces a rat plague. A stone fight duly waged is followed by a plentiful rainfall. Mr. Sinclair in Ind. Ant. V 5.

² Dr. Burgess' Lists, 107.

³ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C.S.

⁴ According to the local story of the Kacheshvar temple demons lived in the Gangthadi and their teacher or *guru* Shukráchárya lived in this island. The gods unable to subdue the demons asked the help of their teacher Brihaspati who sent his son Kach to convert them. Kach became a disciple of Shukráchárya and his good looks won the heart of Shukra's daughter. The jealous demons slew Kach but the lady induced her father to restore him to life. Three times the demons slew

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In 1804 Báláji Lakshman the Peshwa governor of Khándesh and one Manohargir Gosávi inveigled 7000 Bhils into their power at Kopargaon and threw most of them into two wells.¹ In 1818 Kopargaon was occupied by Madras troops and a few European tombs then built remain near the ford.

KOREGAON.

Koregaon, two miles east of Karjat, with in 1881 a population of 1149, has two old temples, one Hemádpanti to the west of the village with nine domes to the hall, and the other an old temple of Koreshvar said to be Hemádpanti. The Koreshvar temple has only the shrine left with a *ling*, Nandi, Ganpati, and Párvati in white marble. The body of the *ling* is composed of four faces of Mahádev adorned with snakes. A fifth snake is on the narrow mouth of the *ling*-case or *shálunkha*. The marble images are said to have been brought about 1730 from Upper India to Karmála in Sholápur, and from Karmála, about the beginning of the present century, to Koregaon.²

KORHÁLA.

Korhála about twelve miles south of Kopargaon, with in 1881 a population of 209 is an old town now decayed and deserted but formerly of importance. The town walls which were built by Holkar are well preserved and, as they enclose much open ground, from outside the town looks much larger than it is. A market is held on Sunday. In an exchange of territory Korhála was received by the Peshwa with thirty villages from Holkar and was made the headquarters of a sub-division. In 1818 a treasury subordinate to Ahmadnagar was kept in Korhála in charge of a Thándár. About 1830 the Thándár was dismissed on the discovery of frauds, and Korhála was transferred to the Sinnar sub-division in Násik. On the appointment of a petty divisional officer at Nimon in Sinnar the Korhála villages were placed under his charge, and on the abolition of the Nimon petty division, the Korhála villages were transferred to the newly formed sub-division of Kopargaon. The headship of Korhála which had been kept by Holkar lapsed to Government about 1865 when two large mansions built by the headman for his office and residence were sold by auction.³

KOTHAL.

Kothal, ten miles north of Shrigonda has, on the top of a neighbouring hill, a temple of Khandoba. The temple roof rests on six pillars in octagonal and square sections. The temple has been struck by lightning which has left marks of its course without materially injuring the building. In front of the temple, within

Kach and thrice he was raised to life. They again slew him and burnt him to ashes, and mixed the ashes with Shukrácharya's water and after he had drunk told him he had swallowed Kach's ashes. Moved by his daughter's entreaties Shukrácharya taught her a spell at hearing which, when her father died, Kach could come forth from the dead body. Kach overheard the charm and repeating it leapt from the body of Shukrácharya. The shock killed Shukrácharya but his daughter brought him to life. The girl offered her hand to Kach who replied that as he owed her his life she was his mother; and as she was the daughter of his teacher she was his spiritual sister. A dispute followed in which Kach told her she need never expect to win a Bráhman husband. Shukra was converted and he and his demons became good Hindus. To this day a stone Shukra and Kach sit side by side on the island and receive much worship. Ind. Ant. V. 4-5.

¹ See above p. 414. ² Dr. Burgess' Lists, 107. ³ Mr. T. S. Hamilton, C.S.

living memory, hook swinging' was practised on the bright sixth of *Mārgshīrsh* and *Paush* or December-February. Behind the temple of Khandoba is an older temple with a readable inscription.

Kolha'r, on the Nagar-Manmād road, is a large and important trade centre on the Pravara about fifteen miles north-west of Rāhūri. A fair lasting fifteen days is held every year in January.¹

Kothulmukunji, sixteen miles south-west of Akola, has the ruins of a temple of Nārāyaneshvar with a fine doorway and the foundation of a temple of Koteshtar.

Kotul on the Mula eight miles south of Akola, is the second town in the Akola sub-division with in 1881 a population of 2260. The population is chiefly Kunbi with a large number of Brāhmins and Gujarāt Vānis. A large weekly market is held on Wednesdays. The trade is chiefly carried on by the Brāhmanvāda pass with Junnar and Utur in Poona and owing to improved communications, trade with Akola and Sangamner is increasing. The town has a Government school.²

Kumbhā'ri, on the right bank of the Godāvāri about six miles north-west of Kopargaon, with in 1881 a population of 534, has an old Mahādev temple with a hall of the same style as the Kokamthān temple,³ as beautiful and a little larger being twenty-one feet in diameter. The outside of the temple is plain and massive. Except at the porches, the only ornaments are niches which once held images. The spire is gone but the cornices remain and show that it was of a modified Dravidian style. The interior of the temple is as rich as the Kokamthān temple. A curious ornament is a concave quarter sphere crossed by two intersecting ribs. The wreathed snake plant also appears on the west porch. Other ornaments are the sun and a very long and narrow lozenge or lance head. The general ground plan is the same as that of the Kokamthān temple, and here also two-pillared porches have domes in miniature of the pillarless hall dome. But here the transept containing a *ling* fills the west corner of the hall and is uniform with the rest of the building and part of the original design. On a throne or *āsān* in the chief shrine is an ornamental figure which is worshipped as Lakshmi. A pipe or *mori* in the east wall of the shrine is used to admit sunlight. It is at a higher level than the top of the *ling* and was probably made to drown the god with water in seasons of drought.⁴

Lāk'h, a small village with a railway station six miles north of Rāhūri, has a magnificent masonry weir which stems the Pravara and supplies the Lāk'h Canal.⁵ Just below the weir the Pravara is spanned by a fine masonry bridge on the Dhond-Manmād railway.

Limpangaon, five miles south of Shrigonda, has a Hemādpanthi temple of Siddheshvar Mahādev. The hall has nine domes and the *ling* is in a sunk shrine. The pillars are well carved. Two slabs lie

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KOLHĀR.

KOTHULMUKUNJI.

KOTUL.

KUMBHĀRI.

LĀKH.

LIMPANGAON.

¹ Mr R. E. Candy, C.S. ² Mr. R. E. Candy, C.S.; Mr T. S. Hamilton, C.S.

³ See above p. 722.

⁴ Dr Burgess' Lists, 106-113.

⁵ Details of the canal are given above pp. 256-257.

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Places.

LIMPANGAON.
Ponds.

near the temple one with a cobra and the other with an inscription which appears to be dated 1386 (*Shak* 1308).¹

Besides the small pond to the west of the village Limpangaon has a curious unfinished pond built about the end of the eighteenth century. The lower dam of the pond, about 500 feet long, is faced with cut-stone and provision has been made in the middle for drawing off water. The pond has an upper dam, probably intended to prevent silting, as sluices are made to let the water through and there is an unfinished waste weir to carry off the flood water. The pond has silted and has two splendid fields in its bed. The cost of the luke must have been out of all proportion to its value as an irrigation work.²

MADHI.

Madhi³ in Shevgaon sixteen miles south-west of Shevgaon and three miles south-west of Páthardi is a noted place of pilgrimage with a shrine or *dargáh* of a Musalmán-Hindu saint Sháh Rámzán Mahi Savár or Kánhoba. The shrine is held in great reverence by both Hindus and Musalmáns, and the chief buildings which are on a small hill were built by Hindu kings and chiefs. The buildings consist of the shrine a lofty building in which the saint is buried. Near the shrine is a small domed building with a narrow staircase leading down to a spot about twenty feet down the hill. The building is lighted by a stone perforated window or grating where the saint is said to have been in the habit of retiring for religious meditations. Two domed buildings where the ancestors of the present *inámdár* and *mujávar* are buried were built in 1730 (*Shak* 1652 *Sádháran Samvatsar*) by Piláji Gáikwár whose name and that of his minister Chimnáji Sávant are engraved in Devnágri letters in front of the shrine. On the south-east corner of the shrine is a domed building called the Bárádari with open windows looking down on the village of Madhi below. This was built in 1731 by Sháhu Rája (1708-1749) the grandson of Shiváji in fulfilment, it is said, of a vow taken by his mother if he returned safe from the Moghal camp where he was taken as a prisoner with his mother Yesubái. Close to Sháhu's building and almost at the entrance of the *dargáh* is a lofty drum-house or *nagárákhána* with a flat roof reached by a narrow staircase and commanding a very wide view reaching, it is said, as far as Paithan about thirty miles to the north-west. This handsome building was raised about 1780 by Kánhuji Náik a rich landed proprietor of Básim in the Nizám's dominions. There are two rest-houses for pilgrims built by Salábatkhán II. the famous minister of the fourth Nizám Sháhi king Murtaza Nizámsháh (1565-1588). The enclosure has two handsome gates,⁴ one built by Moré a Marátha chief at the Peshwa's court and the other about 1750 by Khwája Sherif the great Khoja merchant of Ahmadnagar.⁵ Close to this gate is a recently repaired mosque.

A prettily adorned room close to the saint's tomb was built by the Deshmukh of Bárámáti in Poona in gratitude for recovery from

¹ Dr. Burgess' Lists, 106-113.

² Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C.S.

³ Mr. J. Elphinston, C.S.

⁴ There is a third gate built by a Marátha Sardár of Hinganghat.

⁵ See above p. 697.

blindness. The whole space inside the gates of the *dargáh*, about 26,000 square feet was paved and eighty-five steps built on one side and ninety on the other all by a Bijápúr king. The shrine is hung with ostrich eggs and large coloured glass globes and contains many votive offerings, among others a silver and a brass horse presented by Bháu Sáheb Ángria of Kolába and two white horses one of clay and one of wood presented by a carpenter.

Sháh Ramzán Mahi Savár or Kánhoba as he is generally called by Hindus is said to have come to Paithan in about 1350 (H. 752) where he was converted to Islám by one Sádát Ali. After travelling six years he came to Madhi in 1380 (H. 782) and died there in 1390 (H. 792) at the age of ninety years. The saint is said to have exercised miraculous powers and his Musalmán name is said to be derived from his having crossed the Godávári mounted on a large fish *mahi savár*.¹ A yearly fair is held at the shrine on the dark fifth of *Phálgun* (March-April) and is attended by twenty to thirty thousand pilgrims both Hindus and Musalmáns. Pilgrims and visitors are shown a spot at the shrine where at the time of the fair persons are said to become possessed and to throw themselves down from the top of the hill and a woman now in the village is said to have done this some years ago.

Land measuring two *cháhours* or 200 acres is said to have been granted to the *dargáh* by the Emperor Sháh Álam. Madhi village itself was given in *iná*m by Sháhu but afterwards at different times a fourth was given to Síndia and another fourth to Holkar for maintaining order at the yearly fair. A third quarter is now paid as *judi* to the British Government and one-fourth of the village revenues goes to the shrine.

Ma'legaon village with 418 people and Mahágaon village with 446 people on the Godávári six miles north-west of Kopargaoon have remains of two temples said to be Hemádpanti.²

Ma'ndogan is a large town about twenty miles north of Shrigonda, and joined with Shrigonda by a fair weather road made during the 1876-77 famine. The town has many large and handsome houses and a good school. The trade is not large, as hills surround the town.³

Mándogan has a temple of Lakshmi Náráyan now dedicated to Devi. The hall which is twenty-four feet square inside has three entrances and nine plain domes resting on four pillars and eight pilasters. The pillars are in square octagonal and round sections; the capitals have various figures with cobras on the pilaster brackets. The shrine with a well carved door is on a lower level than the hall and has an image of Devi and a five feet high mutilated image of Lakshmi Náráyan. In front of the temple is a four-pillared pavilion. Except string courses of lozenge ornament the outside of the temple has not much carving.⁴

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Places.

MADHI.

MÁLEGAON.

MÁNDOGAN.

Temple.

¹ A local tradition says that the *pir* drove out a goddess who was living on the spot where the shrine now stands and that she took refuge in a cave at Shirápúr village two miles west of Madhi.

² Mr. W. F. Sinclair, C.S.

³ Mr. R. E. Candy, C.S.

⁴ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C.S.

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Places.

MÁNJARSUMBA.

Ma'njarsumba, a small village a mile west of Dongargan and eight miles north of Ahmadnagar lies at the foot of the Dongargan hill crowned by the fort which overlooks the Vámbhori plain. The hill side has cisterns of spring water and the fort would make a fine health resort.¹ The Mánjarsumba pass is said to be a favourite haunt of Válmiki, the author of the Rámáyan and the reputed founder of the Mahádev Kolis.²

MÁYEGAON.

Ma'yegaon is a small village on the Godávari twelve miles north-west of Kopargaon, with in 1881 a population of 547. On the river bank a short distance from the village on rent-free land assigned to the goddess is an image of Bhaváni of Máhur. A temple is said to have existed of which, except the image, a shapeless stone set against a mud wall, no trace remains. A yearly fair lasting two days is held on the full-moon of *Chaitra* or March-April. It is attended by upwards of 20,000 persons when a number of stalls are raised and goods worth £1000 (Rs. 10,000) are sold. A $\frac{1}{4}$ anna laid by every pilgrim before the goddess goes to the priest.³

MEHEKRI.

Mehekri village of 1124 people, on the left of the Ahmadnagar-Shevgaon road six miles east of Ahmadnagar has near it on a hill the tomb of the great Nizámsháhi minister Salábatkhán II.⁴ The tomb is commonly known as Chánd Bibi's Mahál and is now used as a military health resort. The tomb is about 100 feet high and 100 feet in diameter. It is an octagonal dome surrounded by a three-storeyed veranda. A road leads up and round the hill side to the courtyard of the tomb. The summit of the hill commands a most extensive view. To the west lie the barracks and houses of Ahmadnagar with the hills of Párner in the back ground; to the north-west the fort-crowned hill of Mánjarsumba looks down on the Dongargan Happy Valley and the rich plain of Vámbhori; to the south-east stretches the Bhátodi lake, and beyond the lake rich fields watered by the Bhátodi canal. The hill is rocky and bare of trees. At its foot on the Mehekri side is an old Jain temple.

MIRAJGAON.

Mirajgaon, with in 1881 a population of 3480, is a large and wealthy market town on the Ahmadnagar-Karmála road about ten miles north-east of Karjat. Mirajgaon has a post office and a school, a large and well built market, and some fine temples. The weekly market is held on Wednesday.⁵

MIRI.

Miri, with a population of about 2000, is an alienated village on the Paithan road twenty miles south of Nevása and just within the limits of the Nevása sub-division. Miri has an old temple of Moteshvar Mahádev and a shrine of the Hindu-Musalmán saint Kánhoba whose chief shrine is at Madhi in Shevgaon.⁶ The Moteshvar temple is square at the base and rises in an octagonal shape to a great height.⁷ It is said to have been built about 1625 and was repaired by one of the proprietors of Miri about 1690. Kánhoba's shrine is both a temple and a mosque, with a well carved wooden canopy with hanging

¹ Mr. R. E. Candy, C. S.

² Mr. T. S. Hamilton, C.S.

³ Mr. R. E. Candy, C.S.

⁴ Mackintosh in Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. I. 202

⁵ See above pp. 705-706.

⁶ See above Madhi.

⁷ Mr. R. E. Candy, C.S.

ostrich eggs. No image of the saint is worshipped.¹ A shrine of Bahiroba was built in Miri by a Dhangar about 1780. The chief worshippers are Dhangars, and one of the most illustrious devotees is Mahárája Holkar who sends many gifts. Miri with two neighbouring villages appears from Persian documents to have been first granted by Aurangzeb to Rámráv Náráyan Mirikar.² The third Peshwa Baláji Bájráv (1740-1761) renewed the gift and gave a written grant to the Mirikars. In 1644 (H. 1055) a grant of land was made to ministrants of Kánhoba's shrine for repairs and worship. The shrine is said to have been built by Álamgir or Aurangzeb at that time. In 1770 the great grandfather of the present proprietor of Miri built an outer hall or *sabhámandap* to the shrine of Kánhoba and in 1820 his son built a drum-house or *nagárkhána*.³

Neva'sa,⁴ 19° 34' north latitude and 75° east longitude, with in 1881 a population of 3804, is a sub-divisional head-quarters thirty-five miles north-east of Ahmadnagar. Besides the sub-divisional revenue and police offices Nevása has a sub-judge's court, a dispensary, and a Sunday market. The dispensary was established in 1877. In 1883 it treated nineteen in-patients and 3834 out-patients at a cost of £97 2s. (Rs. 971).

About a quarter of a mile to the west of Nevása is a stone pillar four feet round apparently part of a lost temple. It is called Dnyánoba's pillar from the local story that the famous Marátha poet Dnyánoba (1271-1300) leaned against it while composing his commentary on the Bhagvadgita at Nevása. The pillar is buried in the ground under a flat roof measuring about thirty-three feet by twenty-six. The pillar, which stands about four and a half feet out of the ground, is square in the middle and round above and below. The front side of the square bears an inscription in seven lines and two Sanskrit verses.⁵

In 1290 Dnyáneshvar, the great Marátha poet, wrote his commentary on the Bhagvadgita at Nevása which he calls Nivás and describes it as a place extending ten miles (five *kos*) in the Marátha country near the Godávári and as the abode of Maháláya, in the

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MIRI.

NEVÁSA.

Dnyánoba's
Pillar.

¹ The saint Kánhoba is said to have come from Paithan to Miri about 1320 to rescue the people from the tyranny of king Bali. From Miri Kánhoba went to Madhi where is his chief shrine.

² The Miri family had other villages granted to them in Upper India by the Moghals. The family still maintain possession of a Phadnishi grant in the Pidva subdivision of the Tonk State in Rajputána and have some houses in that part of the country.

³ From materials supplied by the proprietor of Miri.

⁴ From *nivás* or residence. A local *máhátmya* derives the name from *nidhivás* or the abode of (the nine) treasures of the god of wealth. The story is that the gods, afraid of the demon Tárak who afterwards through Shiv's favour gained a place in heaven, asked for a safe home. Vishnu recommended them the country of the Vara or the good river near the Godávári and with the gods came Kuber the god of wealth who left here his nine treasures. Indian Antiquary, IV. 353.

⁵ The inscription, which is in some places illegible, runs: 'Om, salutation to Vireshvarráy. (As my) grandfather has formerly granted a sum of six (rupees) to Jagadguru (Shiv) to be continued monthly for a continual supply of wick and oil (for a light in his temple) so that that sum of six (rupees) should be given as long as the sun and moon exist. He who appropriates to his use is wicked, his ancestors will go to hell. May the great deity (Mohiniráj) do good.' Ind. Ant. IV. 353.

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Places.

NIGHOJ.

kingdom of the Devgiri Yáday king Rámchandra (1271-1310). His commentary bears date 1290.

Nighoj, a market town twelve miles west of Párner, with in 1881 a population of 2552, has a large reservoir with niches which appear to represent the outside of a temple of Dravidian style with cornices. Its surface plan is the same as the ground plan of a hall or *mandap* the rectangular broken square. Three large staircases take the place of the porches, and the pier of the leather water-bucket is in the position of the shrine. It looks like a hall or *mandap* turned upside down. Each course of large blocks of hewn stone is set a little back from the next below and is firmly imbedded in a hollow cut for it. Mortar is nowhere used and a few iron clamps in the steps are probably modern. Except niches with red stones instead of images, there are no decorations. On one stone of the well pier are scratched two quarter foils, as if marked out to be cut deeper; on another are two more and what looks like a short broadsword or dagger. According to the villagers the marks represent the shears of a tailor who built the well in fulfilment of a vow to Malai Devi to whom it is sacred.¹ The market is held on Tuesday.

PALSHI.

Palshi, a market town on a feeder of the Mula twenty miles north of Párner, with in 1881 a population of 1110, has, between the town gate and the river, stones built into and lying in front of a small rude temple. The temple shows the same scanty ornaments as the temple and reservoir at Párner. The village has a handsome temple of Vithoba with a fine domed hall resting entirely on pillars. The pillars are stiff in outline and the inside of the dome is disfigured by ugly painted figures. The shrine or *vimán* is graceful and has some fine wood-carving.²

PÁRNER.

Párner, 19° north latitude and 74° 30' east longitude, twenty miles south-west of Ahmadnagar, with in 1881 a population of 4058 is a sub-division head-quarters with a Sunday market. Párner has about fifty moneylenders, chiefly Márwáris with a bad name for greed and fraud. In the 1874-75 riots of the husbandmen against moneylenders,³ the people of Párner were among the first to follow the example of Kirdeh, Nemunch, and other villages in Sirur in Poona, the inhabitants of which in the beginning of 1874 placed the Márwáris in a state of social outlawry, refusing to work for them, to draw water, supply necessaries, or shave them. The watchfulness of the police saved Párner from a riot. Párner has two wells and the tomb of a Musalmán saint or Pir which enjoys a grant of land. In the tomb enclosure are fine trees and a small mosque and pond.

Temples.

Near the usual camping place, at the meeting of two small streams, is a temple of Sangameshvar or Trimbakeshvar. The ground plan is the usual double-broken diamond or square. The temple is not much faceted and has only three superior re-entering angles on the front sides of the hall and lesser re-entering angles near the front porch. All the three porches are ruined, the best

¹ Mr. W. F. Sinclair, C. S. in *Indian Antiquary*, V. 14.

² *Ind. Ant.* V. 14.

³ Details of the 1874-75 riots are given above pp. 318-319.

preserved being the front porch. Its door strongly resembles the inner door of the second Belgaum temple, but has not the pierced flanking panels. The pillars are more in the style of the first Belgaum temple.¹ Four large pillars, with the help of the walls and remaining pilasters, support the roof which is composed of nine small rough domes. This appears to have been the original plan, but the whole roof has been destroyed and restored from a height of about nine feet above the ground as appears by the use of mortar in the restored part and by the inverted position of the decorations. The lower or ancient part is of dry stone work in receding imbedded courses of very large blocks. The *ling* is enshrined in a deep pit. The whole exterior is covered with a carving representing, in low relief, sometimes an arch and sometimes a dome. A few fragments of the cornice seem to show that the roof was Dravidian in style. The Nandi in front of the chief entrance now rests at the bottom of a pit lined with modern masonry, and partly covered by a rough dome built out of the ruined porch and perhaps of a destroyed pavilion. On this rests a stone representing apparently an inverted bunch of grapes which the people call a *ling* but do not worship. It was probably a finial of the pavilion or of one of the porches. Several slender pillars of a broken square section have been built into a small modern temple with a relief in moulded clay, coloured and gilt, of Chandikádevi killing the buffalo demon Mahishásur. Under a *pipal* tree before this temple are several carved fragments of sculpture, among which are a huge gargoyle in the form of a monster's head and a large stone *ránjan* or vase the upper and lower parts of which have been hewn separately and afterwards fitted together. The vase is of the still popular form of an egg truncated at both ends and is $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet both in height and in external diameter. It is very rough and its simple ornamentation does not correspond with that of any of the other remains. It may be modern, the work of Vadár stonecutters.² A little from the town, to the east of the Nagar gate, is an old temple of Nágnáth Mahádev. The temple enclosure has a large well or *báro* containing a stone inscription dated 1093 (*Shak* 1015). This well seems to be intended for public use as well as for watering a little garden which is now used for growing temple flowers. The well has steps on two sides, and on the top remains of the plaster work made for the bucket to draw water from. Outside the Nagar gate are many funeral monuments one of which is said to record the death of a demon or *rákshas*.

Pa'thardi about fifteen miles south of Shevgaon, is a large market town with in 1872 a population of 7117 and in 1881 of 5123. The town lies picturesquely on the side of a steep hill which rises in the midst of a barren tract skirted on the north and east by the range of hills which pass from Dongargan into the Nizám's territory.

Chapter XVII.

Placca.

PÁRNER.

Temple.

PÁTHARDI.

¹ Compare Belgaum Statistical Account p. 540.

² A lower half of a *ránjan* similar to the Párner vase lies among the ruins of a deserted old temple which lies on the left of the Kánhur road four miles north of Párner. The vase was found in a Bráhman's stackyard and brought to its present place by a mámlatdár.

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PÁTHARDI.

The houses are mostly mud built and straggling, broken here and there by the dwellings of well-to-do merchants. The weekly market is on Wednesday. Want of communication has checked the development of Páthardi trade. Towards the Nizám's territories there are no roads, but from Páthardi to Tisgaon, on the main road from Ahmadnagar to Shevgaon an unbridged and very fair road is newly made.

The sanitation of Páthardi is bad though its position on a hill side offers facilities for drainage. The people bathe, wash, and drink from a large water-course which flows past the town. About 1852 Páthardi is described as having upwards of 500 looms.

PATTA FORT.

Patta Fort, about sixteen miles north-west of Akola lies on a bare hill two miles long, half a mile broad, and 4587 feet above the sea. Three paths, none of them fit for laden animals, lead up the hill. The hill top has an old building (90' x 30') covered by three solid masonry domes with walls four feet thick. All round this building are ruined huts with remains of walls. On the hill top are two large caves and about half-way down the hill two or three smaller caves, one of which is a temple. The water-supply of the fort is from about twenty rock-cut cisterns, some of them thirty feet by fifteen and six to eight feet deep. One large cistern is close to the chief building and the rest are in two groups higher up. All the cisterns hold excellent water throughout the year. The fort has ruins of small fortifications in places and a solid cut-stone wall about ten feet high and six feet thick runs across the hill about two-thirds of the way along the top towards the north.

Ekdara fort five miles south of Patta and Aundha four miles to the north formed with Patta the Peshwa's outposts in this direction. These two, with Alang Kulang¹ and Pábar fifteen to twenty-five miles west of Akola and Kaládgad twenty-two miles south-west of Akola, were blown up and their approaches buildings and cisterns destroyed by Captain Mackintosh in 1819-20. The wild rugged peaks of these forts form one of the grandest pieces of scenery on the Sahyádris.

PEDGAON.

Pedgaon on the north bank of the Bhima eight miles south of Shrigonda, is a ruined market town with in 1881 a population of 1747. Pedgaon has four ruined Hemádpanti temples of Baleshvar, Lakshmi-Naráyan, Mallikárjun, and Rámeshvar. Of Baleshvar's temple only the shrine is left with a *ling*. What is left of the pillar capitals is ornamented with well-carved cobras. Of the Lakshmi-Naráyan temple the hall or *mandap* is covered by good domes, of which the centre dome and the shrine dome are carved. Three doors lead to the hall or *mandap* with fine pillars. The shrine is on a lower level than the hall or *mandap* and is filled with earth. Outside and inside many elaborate carvings have been wilfully broken. The outside carving consists of elephants in the lowest panel, tigers in the next, and men and women in the succeeding panels. Of the Mallikárjun temple only the shrine and two pillars of the

¹ Alang and Kulang had the stairs scarped off and are now inaccessible.

hall or *mandap* remain. The only carvings are broken cobras on the pillar capitals. The Rámeshvar temple has shrines on three sides of the hall or *mandap* and a door on the fourth side. The hall or *mandap* roof is of one dome resting on four pillars, the spire between the pillars and the wall being covered with plain flat stones. The shrine opposite the door has a *ling* on a slightly lower level than the hall or *mandap* floor.

About 1680 Pedgaon was one of the chief stores and a frontier post of the Moghal army and the ruined fortifications which from a distance give an imposing appearance to the town were built by the Deccan Viceroy Khán Jahán who camped here during the monsoon of 1672 in pursuit of Shiváji. Another of Khán Jahán's works is a fairly preserved channel or conduit for bringing water from the Bhima. The water was raised from the Bhima by an elephant *mot* and a Persian wheel. The *mot* and a tower for the Persian wheel are still fairly preserved. Khán Jahán gave Pedgaon the name of Bahádurgad which it has not retained. In 1673 the English traveller Fryer notices Pedgaon on the Bhima three days' journey from Junnar, where the Moghals had a large host of 40,000 horse under Bahádur Khán.¹ In 1759, during the conflict which followed the treacherous surrender of Ahmadnagar fort to the Peshwa, Pedgaon was captured by his cousin Sadáshivráv and remained with the Maráthás till 1818.² About 1851 Pedgaon is noticed as a much reduced town with 1900 inhabitants.

Pimpalvandi, sixteen miles north of Jámkhed, has a temple of Áshviling Mahádev said to be Hemádpanti. A new dome was built about 1730 by a Gosávi whose temple is on a hill above the village. The temple is surrounded by a wall and to the west is a pond with walled sides. A yearly fair is held in honour of the temple. Near it to the north is a row of small temples of Bali, Mahádev, Bahiroba, Bhaváni, and Khandoba, all said to be of the same age.³

Pravara'sangam. See TOKA.

Punta'mba on the Godávari twelve miles south-east of Kopargaon, with in 1881 a population of 5767, is a large market town with a station on the Dhond-Manmád railway. The traders are Márwáris and Bráhmans owning in all about £6000 (Rs. 60,000). Punta'mba has fourteen modern temples and low flights of steps or *gháts* to the Godávari one built by Ahalyábái the great temple-building princess of Indor (1765-1795) and another by one Shivrám Dumat. The chief temple is of about the middle of the seventeenth century and belongs to Chángdev a famous saint said to have had 1400 disciples. The other temples are of Annapurna, Báláji, Bhadrakálíshankar, Gopálkrishna, Jagadamba, Kálbhairav, Káshivishveshvar, Keshavráj, Mahárudrashankar, Rámchandra, Rámeshvar, and Trimbakeshvar.⁴

Ra'ha'ta on the Nagar-Manmád road twelve miles south of Kopargaon, with in 1872 a population of 2209 and in 1881 of 2389, is the chief market town in the Kopargaon subdivision with a travellers'

Chapter XIV.

PLACES.

PEDGAON.

History.

PIMPALVANDI.

PRAVARA'SANGAM.

PUNTA'MBA.

RA'HA'TA.

¹ East India and Persia, 139, 141.² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 306.³ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S. ⁴ Dr. Burgess' Lists of Antiquarian Remains, 113.

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Places.

RÁHÁTA.

bungalow. Ráháta is the chief centre of the grain trade in Kopargaon and has several rich merchants. Since the opening of the Dhond and Maumád line the export route has been diverted from Lásalgaon on the Peninsula railway in the Násik district to Chitali ten miles to the south-east and Puntámba ten miles to the north-east of Ráháta. A weekly market is held on Thursday. Ráháta had a subordinate judge's court till the 1st of January 1851. The Government school is now held in the old court-house.

RÁHURI.

Rá'huri, 19° 23' north latitude and 74° 42' east longitude, on the north bank of the Mula twenty-five miles north of Ahmadnagar, is a sub-divisional head-quarters with a railway station and a weekly market. The 1872 census showed a population of 4570 and the 1881 census of 4304. The Nagar-Manmád road passes west of the town and a road made in 1879-80 joins it with the railway station three miles to the east. Ráhuri has independent Márwári traders owning about £15,000 (Rs. 1,50,000). The weekly market is held on Thursday. Of three Government schools two are for boys and one for girls.

RÁJUR.

Rájur ten miles west of Akola, with in 1872 a population of 2075 and in 1881 of 1693, is the third town in the Akola sub-division with a weekly market on Monday and Tuesday. Rájur stands on a raised plateau reached by a winding hill road about a mile and a quarter from the village of Vita in the Pravara valley. Rájur is the capital and head trading town of the surrounding Dáng villages and the population is chiefly Kolis, Gujarát Vánis, and Marátha Shimpis owning about £4000 (Rs. 40,000) and trading on their own account. A number of Vanjáris engaged in the Konkan carrying trade go and come by the difficult pass at the head of the Pravara valley. The town has a Government school.

RANDA KHURD.

Randa Khurd, thirteen miles west of Akola has, on the Pravara, a waterfall 200 feet high with a deep pool below full of large fish.¹

RÁNJANGAON
DESHMUKHI,

Ránjangaon Deshmukhi,² two villages about ten miles south-west of Kopargaon on the Sangamner road, have an ancient reservoir or *báro* much like modern reservoirs. The only ornament consists in a series of niches which appear to have held images.³

RÁSIN.

Rá'sin, ten miles south-west of Karjat, with in 1881 a population of 2455, is an old town with a Tuesday market two temples and a well. Of the two temples one dedicated to Káldevál Mahádev is Hemádpanti and has nine domes to the hall or *mandap*, one dome to the shrine, and one dome to the porch. The pillars are well carved with figures on their capitals. In the centre of each dome is a star-like carved stone. There are three shrines, the chief shrine opposite the door and the other two, one on each side of the hall. A stone platform runs round the temple, about the level of the floor. The temple dedicated to Devi, with two or three others, is said to have been built by a Váni about 1780, on the site of an old temple. The

¹ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S.

² Ránjangaon has a population of 576 and Deshmukhi of 1478.

³ Indian Antiquary, V. 6.

brick lamp-pillars and a well attached to the old brick temple still remain. One of the lamp-pillars forty-three feet high and twenty-two feet round at the top has a shaky stair inside. On the hill slopes west of Rásin are pretty large ponds with broken dams. The local story is that the ponds were favourite Pendhári camping grounds and the villagers broke the dams to get rid of the Pendháris.¹

In a copper-plate of the Western Chálukya king Vijayáditya dated 700 and of the Ráshttrakuta king Govind III. dated 807 Rásiyan or Rásin appears as the head-quarters of a subdivision or *bhukti*.² About 1851 Rásin is noticed as a market town decayed but with a considerable population and several well built temples and houses.

Ratangad Fort³ crowns the summit of a hill at the end of the Pravara valley to the south-west of Ratanvádi village eighteen miles west of Akola. The ascent to the fort passes by the left bank of the Pravara for about a mile and then winds up through rich brushwood on the eastern slopes of the hill. It then reaches a neck or *khind* between the main hill and a detached pinnacle to the north which rises almost as high as the hill and stands conspicuous from many points of view. From the *khind* a series of very steep ravines lead down on the west to the Konkan and the ascent to the fort continues on the south up a very steep but broken brow to the foot of a narrow and steep spur which projects north from the main mass of the hill. To avoid the main mass a comparatively level reach of road skirting the base of the scarp, climbs to the head of the spur, and a turn in the path suddenly reaches the chief approach to the fortress. This is up a steep flight of large rock-cut steps about six feet wide and two to three feet high rising up a gorge or cleft in the scarp. The scarp appears to be about 150 feet high, and the steps, which are cut out of the rock, at the bottom occupy on the northern face the whole width about half-way up where they have been much worn by a torrent which apparently is the cause of the gorge. About thirty feet below the crest of the scarp a rock-cut doorway with a guard-room partly cut and partly built leads within the defences. The stairs are continued for some distance first in a direct line and afterwards at right angles to the original direction. After passing through a second rock-cut gateway the road opens out on the plateau. Fragments of the teak doors of the gate still lie near the doorways, which are arched and have ogee-shaped vertices and rosette ornaments on the haunches. Except at the north and south the plateau, from a mile to a mile and a half round, is encumbered by a worn ridge running north and south which slopes in many places almost to the edge of the scarp. The remains of a breast wall crowning the scarp appear in places and about the middle of the west face is a gate for the ascent from the Konkan. This west gate has a very carefully hidden approach in the solid rock so made as to cover a force leaving

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RÁSIN.

RATANGAD
FORT.¹ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C.S.² Indian Antiquary, VI. 59.³ Contributed by Mr. J. King, C.S.

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RATANGAD
FORT.

the fort. This gate is now choked by stones washed down from the ridge. At the south end, a little above the edge of the scarp, is a round tower about twenty feet high and fourteen feet in diameter. It is entered by an arched doorway about six feet from the ground. Not far from the tower is a bastion on the scarp which appears to have mounted two guns. On the highest point of the ridge are the ruins of an oblong building (20' x 14') probably part of the citadel. The hill has numerous cisterns one of them about six feet below the highest point. The best water is from a spring on the east face near the edge of the scarp. This is said to be one of the sources of the Pravara, and has a small image of Mahádev marked with vermilion and worshipped by the people. Good water is also found in a carefully hidden underground cistern near the Konkan gate.

History.

About 1763 Ratangad was among the Ahmadnagar forts taken by the Koli insurgent Jávji who had joined Raghunáthráv. In 1818 Ratangad was the head-quarters of a district of five *maháls*, the *taraf* of Rájur with thirty-six villages and the *taraf* of Alang with twenty-two villages above the Sahyádris and below the Sahyádris the *pargana* of Sokugli with sixty villages, the *pargana* of Vádi with twenty-two villages, and the *taraf* of Jurusrosi with sixteen villages. The forts of Alang and Kulang were subordinate to it. In 1820 Ratangad was occupied by irregulars under the command of Captain Gordon. In the 1824 disturbances of Rámji Bhángria his chief supporter was Govindráv formerly commandant of Ratangad.

RATANVÁDI.

Ratanva'di, eighteen miles west of Akola, with in 1881 a population of 564, lies at the source of the Pravara. The village has a small ruined Hemádpanti temple of Ananteshvar of about the twelfth century. The temple has a very high dome over the shrine like the dome on the old temple near the Harischandragad caves and strikingly like the door of the famous Buddha Gaya temple near Benares. In front of the shrine door is a handsome canopy. The inside of the shrine looks modern, but the rest of the temple inside and outside is covered with handsome and elaborate carving.¹

REHEKURI.

Rehekuri village, six miles north-west of Karjat, has a Hemádpanti temple of Kámnáth Mahádev with twelve domes to the hall and one to the shrine. Near the door is the bull or Nandi and on a detached stone near the Nandi is a cobra. Round the temple is a wall capped with large stones. Near the temple is a fine old pond with an earthen dam. The pond is very large and though much silted holds a good deal of water.²

SANGAMNER.

Sangamner, 19°34' north latitude and 74°16' east longitude, at the meeting of the Mahálungi and the Pravara, is a municipal town and a subdivisional head-quarters about fifty miles north-west of Ahmadnagar. The 1872 census showed 9978 people, 8214 Hindus and 1764 Musalmáns. The 1881 census showed 8796 or a decrease of 1182 of whom 7183 were Hindus, 1603 Musalmáns, seven Christians, and three Others. Besides the ordinary sub-divisional revenue and police

¹ Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S.² Mr. A. F. Woodburn, C. S.

offices Sangamner has an assistant collector's bungalow, a post office, a dispensary, and markets on Wednesday and Saturday, the Wednesday market being only for the sale of rice. Sangamner had formerly a paper industry. The municipality established in 1860 had in 1882-83 an income of £588 (Rs. 5880) and an expenditure of £615 (Rs. 6150). The dispensary was established in 1873. In 1883 it treated fifty-one in-patients and 9544 out-patients at a cost of £92 10s. (Rs. 925). To the east of the town is a little domed tomb of Khwájáh Muhammad Sádek who is said to have been the teacher of the emperor Álamgir. The tomb bears two inscriptions dated 1659 (H. 1070).¹ The inscriptions are :

The Dargah of the worker of Keramat is at the propitious hour, to the people a place of pilgrimage, where their difficulties are solved. Difficulties become easy to these Nekshbendi Khwajahs; the royal Khwajah is a turner away of calamities by grace and blessing. When he arrived in his wanderings and travellings from Bokhara the manifestor of the possession of the Vila'yat enjoyed glory and pomp. Ka'mel A'rif built this mausoleum in the auspicious year 1070 of the exile.

The second inscription is :

The Dargah of His Excellency, Khwajah Muhammad Sa'dek son of His Excellency Kutaballa Ktab, Syed Muhammad Bokha known as Khwajah Behah-al-din Nakshbendison of His Excellency Ima'm Hasan Alakri Ealhy in reality a Shaikh of the religion known as Karkhy is a protection from the misfortunes of times by the nobility of the Khwajah Muhammad Shah. Assistance from God and a speedy victory. And do thou bear good tidings to true believers.

To the east of the town near the assistant collector's bungalow is an old Muhammadan graveyard, one of the headstones in which is a pillar from a Hindu temple. A bath-room or *hamámkhána* of the old town fort has been turned into a tomb by a saint in whose memory a green flag waves and a light burns. Sangamner has a mosque with the inscription 'Established by Divine favour H. 1119' that is A.D. 1707-8. A little to the south of Sangamner the Poona-Násik road climbs to a lofty plateau by a difficult pass called Hanmant Náik's Bári. Near the top, on the ridge of a natural trap-dyke, a stone pillar covers the remains of a Bhil chief named Hanmant Náik. Hanmant Náik made war upon Báláji Bájiráv Peshwa. The Maráthás came from Poona and had a short skirmish with the Bhils in which Hanmant was shot in his chest. The Bhils buried him here and set up this stone. Tombs of other Bhils have been built here at various periods since the Náik's death. The Bhils hold the spot sacred and honour it by a yearly carouse and a slain cock. Maráthás believe in the Náik's power of healing broken legs and arms if propitiated by an offering of a model of the broken limb made of *Ægle marmelos* or *bel* wood. Close by the chief tomb are two or three smaller tombs, square platforms surmounted by little obelisks about seven feet high. In 1679 Shiváji was attacked near Sangamner by a Moghal force. Part of his troops were thrown into confusion and Siddoji Nimbálkar, one of his best officers, was killed. Shiváji led a desperate charge and by great personal exertion retrieved the day.² In a revenue state-

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SANGAMNER.

¹ Indian Antiquary, V. 7.² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 129.

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SANGAMNER.

ment of about 1790 Sangamner appears as the head of a *sarkár* of eleven *parganás* including the greater part of the Násik district with a total revenue of £185,508 (Rs. 18,55,080).¹ About 1874 the sub-divisional officer of Sangamner was a curious person a sainted or *dev mámlatdár*. He was very modest and unassuming and had early distinguished himself by a great respect for human and animal suffering. He was held in great veneration by all classes of people in the Maháráshtra except the hill tribes, and pilgrims flocked from great distances and by the most toilsome paths to fall at the feet of the *dev mámlatdár*.²

SHEVGAON.

Shevgaon north latitude 19° 21' and east longitude 75° 18', forty miles north-east of Ahmadnagar is a sub-divisional head-quarters, with in 1881 a population of 2948. Shevgaon is a ruined town on a wide plain and joined with Paithan and Ahmadnagar by an excellent road. It is surrounded by a wall and a water-course on the north. Besides the sub-divisional revenue and police offices Shevgaon has a Sunday market, post office, dispensary, school, and temples. The dispensary was established in 1876. In 1883 it treated twenty in-patients and 2038 out-patients at a cost of £82 14s. (Rs. 827). Facing the sub-divisional office is a very large stone mosque a handsome stone building (54' x 36') raised on a plinth six feet high. The roof which consists of vaulted compartments rests on cut-stone pillars with pointed arches. The stones forming the front or east vaults, which look like very flat domes, are cemented with lead. The back domes are higher and built horizontally apparently of brick. In front of the mosque is a reservoir with regular built conduits and a large number of tombs all out of repair. The mosque was built by public subscription about 1610 (A. 1020) and in 1630 (A. 1041) endowed by the emperor Sháh Jahán (1627-1658) with 480 *highás* of land.³ In 1366, the rebel Bairám Khán was defeated by a Bahmani army near Shevgaon.⁴ In a revenue statement of about 1790 Shevgaon appears as the head of a *pargana* in the Ahmadnagar *sarkár* with a revenue of Rs. 2,34,228.⁵ In 1818 great depredation and cruelties were committed in Shevgaon by one Dharmáji Pratáprav. About this time on account of the feuds of Sindia Holkar and the Peshwa among whom the neighbouring lands had been divided since 1752 Shevgaon was most wretched with not even fifteen inhabited houses.⁶ In 1845 Shevgaon is noticed as a prosperous town with 800 houses.⁷ About 1852 Shevgaon had a population of 3900 of whom 120 were shop-keepers traders and moneylenders.⁸

SHIRÁPUR.

Shirápur, on the Kukdi about fifteen miles west of Párner, with in 1881 a population of 410, has some pillars and a small Dravidian cornice built into and lying about two small temples. The Kukdi,

¹ The eleven *parganás* were Sangamner Rs. 8,16,637, Ahmadabad and Pátvad Rs. 2,83,373, Akola Rs. 63,446, Belava Rs. 35,955, Trimbak Rs. 8482, Japherabad or Chambar (Chándor) Rs. 2,52,866, Dadori (Dindori) Rs. 37,684, Dhádarphal Rs. 12,815, Síndhar or Sínnar Rs. 28,890, Gulshanabad or Násik Rs. 1,67,766, and Varia Rs. 1,17,103. Waring's Maráthás, 238-239. ² Ind. Ant. V. 8-9.

³ Major S. Babington. ⁴ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 25. ⁵ Waring's Maráthás, 239.

⁶ Rev. Rec. 10 of 1848, 81. ⁷ Rev. Rec. 10 of 1848, 81. ⁸ See above p. 522.

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falling thirty feet over a wall of trap, has a narrow and deep channel with pot-holes and honeycombs worn by the stream. The waterfall which is called Kund Málvi, has in it a natural figure of a lion and is held sacred as are the fish in the pools which are believed to grow to the size of men¹. Close to the fall are two small modern temples where yearly fairs are held in *Chaitra* or March-April.

Sidhtek on the Bhima about twenty miles south-west of Karjat and three miles south of Pedgaon, with in 1881 a population of 273, has the remains of a temple of Ganpati.

SIDHTEK.

Sirur, twenty-four miles north of Jámkhed, has a temple of Siddheshvar Mahádev. The hall has nine domes and cobra ornaments on the pillar capitals. The shrine is opposite the door and has a well carved front and entrance. In front of the door is a single dome with a Nandi. To the left of the hall is another shrine.

SIRUR.

Sonái about twelve miles south-west of Nevása is a large market town, with in 1872 a population of 5254 and in 1881 of 5483. The 1872 census showed 4981 Hindus 268 Musalmáns and five Christians; the 1881 census showed 5044 Hindus, 295 Musalmáns, eighty-four Christians, and sixty Others. Sonái is surrounded by a rich plain, and is divided by a water-course into the Peth occupied by merchants and the Kasba occupied by husbandmen. Sonái was formerly the headquarters of a petty division and is described in 1827 as a *kasba* with 313 houses and forty-five shops.² It has an American Mission church which was built in 1861.

SONÁI.

Shrigonda, 18° 41' north latitude and 74° 44' east longitude, also called Chámhárgonda, from Govind a pious Chámháár, is the head-quarters of a sub-division thirty-two miles south of Ahmadnagar, with in 1881 a population of 5278. The town lies on the Sarasvati a feeder of the Bhima, and, besides the sub-divisional revenue and police offices, has a sub-judge's court, a Monday market, four Hemádpanti temples, and two mansions belonging to H. H. Sindia. The Sarasvati runs dry soon after the rains though water can be found by digging in the sand. The trade of Shrigonda is small, but may improve when a good road joins it with the Pimpri railway station about three miles to the west. The 1872 census showed 6175 people of whom 5636 were Hindus and 539 Musalmáns. The 1881 census showed 5278 or a decrease of 897, of whom 4849 were Hindus 424 Musalmáns and five Christians.

SHRIGONDA.

The four Hemádpanti temples are of Hatkeshvar, Maháalakshmi, Rakhumái, and Vithoba. Vithoba's temple, which is built of large blocks of stone without cement in imbedded courses, has a hall or *mandap* (28' x 21') of nine domes supported on six pillars. There is one dome over the shrine and one over a portico in front. The capitals of the pilasters have cobra heads and other figures are carved on the pillar capitals. The door step in front of the temple has an inscription, but the steps appear to be modern. Round the door of the shrine are two rows of figures, the inner row of women and the outer row of monkeys. On each side of the raised block which forms the

Temples.

¹ India Antiquary, V. 14.² Clunes' Itinerary, 25.

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SHRIGONDA.

Temples.

threshold of the shrine is carved a tiger head. Carved blocks stand out from the top of the entrance to the shrine and from the middle of the front of the hall. Rakhumái's temple is near Vithoba's temple and is in the same style but smaller. The temple of Hatkeshvar is in the same style though plainer, with the same number of domes. Cobras are carved on the pillar capitals. The front of the hall or *mandap* is built up with bricks. The temple of Mahálakshmi has the same number of domes. The shrine and parts of the hall or *mandap* have been built up. The temple is not used. About 1600 Shrigonda or Chámbhárgonda is noticed as the residence of Shesho Náik Punde the banker of Shiváji's grandfather Máloji.¹ In 1635 Sháháji was driven from the country about Shrigonda.² In 1853 Shrigonda is noticed as a much frequented market town belonging to Sindia, a large and wealthy place.³

SUPE.

Supe on the Poona-Nagar road seven miles south-east of Párner, with in 1881 a population of 1007, has some white and black marble gods which were brought by a former proprietor of the village as the spoils of a Central Indian raid.⁴

TÁHÁKARI.

Tá'ha'kari, eight miles north-west of Akola, has a ruined Hemádpanti temple of Devi.

TÁKLI.

Tá'kli, six miles north of Karjat, has a ruined Hemádpanti temple of Khandeshvar Mahádev. The temple stones are said to have been used in building the famous fort of Paranda in the Nizám's territories.

TELANGSI.

Telangsi, eleven miles east of Jámkhed, has a Hemádpanti temple of Jatáshankar and a well or *báro*. The hall has nine domes and a pit-like shrine with a cobra. The pillar capitals have cobra ornaments. The well, not far from the temple, has four stairs descending from the middle of the four sides. Between the stairs in the wall are niches. The well is broken at one corner.

THUGAON.

Thugaon on the Párner-Akola road two miles east of Akola has the remains of a Hemádpanti temple which has been wilfully destroyed.

TIRDE.

Tirde village, about fifteen miles north-west of Akola, with in 1881 a population of 1042, has in the hills near it a ruined elephant stable.

TOKA.

Toka and **Pravara'sangam** are two holy towns, Toka on the left and Pravarásangam on the right bank of the Pravara at its meeting with the Godávári seven miles north-east of Nevása. Both the towns are regarded as holy and are chiefly inhabited by Bráhmans. Both have several modern temples some of which were destroyed by Nizám Ali in 1761 shortly after the battle of Pánipat.⁵ The chief temple dedicated to Siddheshvar Mahádev appears from a worn-out Devnágari inscription at the south gate to have been built in 1767 (*Samvat* 1823) at a cost of £9300 (Rs. 93,000) by a Bráhman Vishnu Mahádev Gajre. The temple is strongly built of black stone and has near it smaller shrines of

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 41.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. 126.

³ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 51.

⁴ Indian Antiquary, V. 15.

⁵ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 325.

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Vishnu and Devi. Flights of steps lead from the temple to the river. On the *Maháshivrátra* in February-March a fair is held which though now poorly attended used formerly to last one to two months and to be attended by about 50,000 people.¹ In 1827 Captain Clunes mentions Pravarásangam as an *inam* village with 150 houses and seventeen shops and Toka as a well built Bráhmaṇ village and a post-runner's station.²

Vámbhori within 1881 a population of 4608 is a large and wealthy municipal town three miles east of Khadamba railway station and nine miles south-west of Ráhuri. A good road running over the Dongargan pass joins Vámbhori with Ahmadnagar and a country track running round a spur of the Khospuri hill range joins Vámbhori with the main road to Paithan and Aurangabad. Vámbhori is the head-quarters of Márwár Vánis, the seat of a large Márwár community, and the centre of their exchange and banking business.³ Some of the houses are large and well built but the streets are narrow crooked and ill aired. The town has a brisk trade in grain and salt and a large cart-making industry. The weekly market is held on Monday. The Márwáris have built a handsomely furnished temple of Báláji. Near Vámbhori is a beautiful shady garden which forms a favourite camping ground. In 1827 Captain Clunes describes Vámbhori as a *kasba* and a place of great traffic in grain with 900 houses and 150 shops.⁴

VÁMBHORI.

Vadgaon Darya nine miles north-west of Párner, with in 1881 a population of 252, has, enclosed in a beautiful wild glen, some natural caverns under a cliff near a waterfall. The caverns have been altered by modern masonry. They have a few coarse sculptures on the rock and on detached stones of no architectural interest.

VADGAON DARYA.

Yekdare about fifteen miles north-west of Akola, with in 1881 a population of 849, has two caves on a hill dedicated to Mahákáli.

YEKDARE.

¹ Mr. T. S. Hamilton, C. S. ; Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXIII. (New Series) 12 ; and local information.

² Clunes' Itinerary, 25.

³ Deccan Riots Commission Report, 23.

⁴ Clunes' Itinerary, 25.

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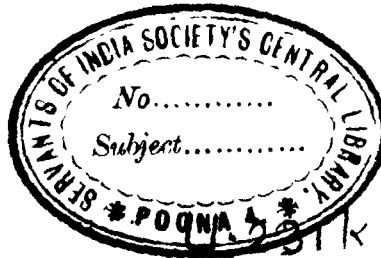
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