Deccan.]

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In prehistoric times, like the rest of the Deccan, Poona is said to have formed part of the Dandakáranya or Dandaka forest, which the Rámáyan represents as infested by Rákshasas or wild men who disturbed the religious rites of Bráhman sages. A high and ancient holiness attaches to Bhimáshankar the source of the Bhima, forty-five miles north-west of Poona, the Shivling of whose temple is one of the twelve great lings of India.

Chapter VII

History

EARLY HISTOR

B.C.100 - A.D.12

From very early times trade routes must have crossed the Poona district down the Sahyadri passes to the Konkan seaports of Sopara Kalyan and Cheul. Rock-cut temples, rest-chambers, and inscriptions show that as far back as the first centuries before and after Christ trade went to and from the coast by the Nana and the Bor passes. The richness of the rock-cut temples both above the pass at Bedsa Bhája and Kárlı, and below the pass at Kondáne and Ambivli make it probable that in the first centuries after Christ a great traffic moved along the Bor pass route. The early history of the district centres in Junnar, on the Nana pass route, fifty miles north of Pooua, a city strongly placed, in a rich country, with a good climate, and facilities for trade. Two considerable groups of caves one near Kálamb about twelve miles south of Junnar, the other round Talegaon about thirty miles south-west of Kálamb, now on the main line of traffic from Junnar to the railway, apparently mark the old trade route from Junnar to the Bor pass. Of the founders of Junnar nothing is known. Even its early name has perished, if, as is generally supposed, the present name Junuar means Old City.2 The town is probably as old as the large inscription on the walls of the rock-cut chamber at the head

¹ Indian Antiquary, II. 15 and note 1. The eleven other great lings are: Amareshvar near Ujjain; Gautameshvar unknown; Kedareshvar in the Himalayas; Mahakal in Ujjain; Mallikarjun on the Shrishail hill in Telingana; Omkar in the Narbada; Rameshvar on Rameshvar island near Cape Comorin; Someshvar in Somnath-Patan in Kathiawar; Trimbakeshvar at Trimbak in Nasik; Vaidyanath at Devgad in the Santhal dustrict of Rangal, and Vishvashvar at Rangana.

in Kathiawar; Trimbakeshvar at Trimbak in Nasik; Vaidyanath at Devgad in one Santhal district of Bengal; and Vishveshvar at Benares.

Pandit Bhagvanlal gives Junnar its old name by identifying it with the Tagara of Ptolemy (A.D. 150) and of the Periplus (A.D. 247). The arguments in support of the identification are the antiquity of Junnar as proved by its numerous caves and inscriptions, its position at the head of a highway of commerce, and its comparative nearness to Shelarvadi which Professor Bhandarkar finds to be the only name connected with the Konkan Siláháras, who call Tagara their original city (Bombay Gazetteer, XIII. 423; Professor Bhandarkar's Deccan Early History); and still more the position of the city between the three hills or trigiri corrupted into Tagara. The chief argument against this identification is that the position of Junnar, 100 miles west of Paithan, does not agree with Ptolemy or with the author of the Periplus both of whom place Tagara ten days east of Paithan. A minor objection is that a seventh century copperplate recording a grant to an inhabitant of Tagara has been found in the Nizam's Haidarabad which agrees with the position of Ptolemy's and the Periplus' Tagara (compare Bombay Gazetteer, XIII. 423).

History.
RLY HISTORY.
100 - A.D. 1290

of the Nana pass which was engraved by a Deccan king one of whose capitals was probably at Junnar and whose date probably lies between B.C. 90 and A.D. 30. Next to Ashok's (B.C. 250) edicts at Girnár in Káthiáwár and Sopára ne r Bassein in Thána, the Nána pass inscription is the oldest writing in Western India. It is believed to be the earliest historical/record in the Deccan, and has the special interest of being the oldest known Brahmanical inscription in the whole of India. In the beginning salutations are offered to Vedic and Puránik gods, to Dharma and to Indra, to Chandra the moon, Surya the sun, Agni fire, and Marut wind, to the four region-guardians or lokapáls who preside over the four quarters of the universe, Yama, Varuna, Kubera, and Vásava, and to Sankarshana Krishna's brother and Vasudeva or Krishna. It mentions a pious king of Dakshinapatha or the Deccan, a staunch supporter of the Vedic religion and strictly Brahmanical in his beliefs. It gives a long account of Vedic sacrifices from the first ceremony of fire-placing or agnyádhán to the great horse or ashvamedha and other sacrifices. Mention is made of gifts of villages, elephants, horses, chariots, and of thousands and teu thousands of cows and karshapan coins. This inscription has the high value of showing that about B.C. 90 Buddhism had not yet triumphed over Brahmanism, and that the sacrifices of the Vedic age were still in use. The inscription was engraved by king Vedishri, who, as king of Dakshinapatha, probably improved the Nana pass, cut the rest-chamber for the use of travellers, and, in this large inscription, recorded the power and the piety of his family. Vedishri belonged to the great Andhrabritya or Shatakarni dynasty. Several inscriptions, over what once were statues in the Nana pass chamber, are supposed to give Vedishri's pedigree mentioning Simuka Shatayahana his grandfather, Shri Shatakarni and queen Nayanika his parents, and his two sons Prince Hakushri and Prince Shatavahana. Later in date than the great Naua pass inscription are the Buddhist caves, about 150 in three groups at Junnar, ton at Karle, twelve at Bhája, two at Bedsa, and twenty at and near Shelárwádi probably all of about the first and second centuries after Christ.3 These rock temples contain seventy-five inscriptions also of the first and second centuries after Christ. The Karle and Junuar inscription & give the names of kings Pulumávi and Nahapána, an inscription ove.

¹ The Shatakarnis, who are better known by their Puranik name of Andhrabhrityas, were a powerful Deccan dynasty which is supposed to have flourished in the two centuries before and the three centuries after the Christian era. Their original seat was Andhra or Telangan and their capital Dharnikot at the mouth of the Krishna. At the height of their power (Δ. D. 10-140?) they appear to have held the whole breadth of the Deccan from Sopara in Thana to Dharnikot near the mouth of the Krishna. Their inscriptions and coins have been found at Kanheri and Sopara in the Konkan, at Junnar, Karhad, Kolhapur, and Nasik in the Deccan, at Banavasi in North Kanara, at the Amravati tope in the Kistna district, and in other parts of the Madras Presidency. Details are given in Bombay Gazetteer, XIII. 409; XVI. 181-183, 620-623.

² According to the Puranik lists Simuka, Sindhuka, or Sipraka was the founder of the Andhrabhritya dynasty. Sewell's Dynasties of Southern India, 5.

² The Ganesh Khind and Bhambhurda caves near Poona have no inscriptions. The Bhambhurda rock temple appears to be a Brahmanical work of about the eighth century. The Ganesh Khind caves are plain cells whose age cannot be fixed. The Kalamb caves which are mentioned by Mr. Elphinstone in 1815 (Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I, 283) have not yet (May 1884) been examined.

one of the Nánághát cisterns gives the name of Chatarpana Shátakarni son of Vasishthi, and a Bedsa inscription mentions a Mahabhoja's daughter and a Maharathus wife.1 Among places, a Bedsa inscription mentions Násik, two Junna inscriptions mention Broach and Kalyán, and the Kárle inscriptions pention Abulama perhaps Obollah at the head of the Persian gulf, Lenukákat or Dharnikot at the mouth of the Krishna, Sopara in Tana, and Vaijayanti or Banavasi in North Kanara. Among donors the Junnar inscriptions mention three Yavans, a Shak, a Brahman minister, a goldsmith, and guilds of bamboo makers, coppersmiths, and corn dealers; the Kárle inscriptions mention a goldsmith, carpenters, two Yavans, and two Persians or Parthians.3 The workmanship of many of the caves, especially of the chapel in the Ganesh Lena group at Junnar the magnificent cathedral at Kárle and the temple cave at Bedsa,4 have the special interest of showing in the animal capitals of their pillars a strong foreign, probably Parthian, element. Of the Mahabhoja mentioned in the Bedsa caves nothing is known except that inscriptions in the Kuda caves in Kolába show that about the same time a dynasty of Bhojas was ruling in the Konkan.5 The Palumávi mentioned in the Junnar and Kárle inscriptions seems to be the Pulumávi Vásishthiputra of the Násik inscriptions whose date lies between a.D. 10 and a.D. 150; Chatarpana is known to be the father of a later Andhrabhritya king Yajnashri Shatakarni one of whose silver coins has been found in Sopára; 7 and Nahapána, whose name occurs in an inscription of his minister at Junnar and of his son-in-law Ushavdát at Kárle,8 is supposed to be a Parthian or Shak viceroy whose date probably lies between B.C. 20 and A.D. 120.9 In Professor Chándárkar's opinion Nahapán's minister's and other inscriptions at Junnar favour the view that Junnar was Nahapan's capital. For the 900 years ending early in the fourteenth

Chapter VI. History. EARLY HISTOR B.C.100 - A. D.12

time of the Nana pass statue inscriptions (B. c. 90) also mentions a Maháracha tranika, which may mean either a leader of large chariot fighters or, as is more probable, a leader of Marathas. In the latter sense Marathas would seem to mean Great Rattas, or Reddis, afterwards (760-973) the Ratta and Rashtrakuta kings of the Deccan and Karnátak. See Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 31-38, 79-83. The Bedsa inscription seems to show that the Mahábhojas married with the Mahárathis. Deccan Early History, 10.

2 Compare Bombay Gazetteer, XIII. 421 note 2.

3 Bombay Archæological Survey Report, IV. 89-114; Separate No. X. 22-55.

See under Places, Bedsa.

The Bhojas and Mahábhojas appear to be a very old Deccan dynasty, as along with the Petars or rulers of Paithan on the north-east border of Ahmadnagar, Bhojas appear among Deccan kings in the thirteenth of Ashok's rock edicts (B.C. 250). Ind. Ant. X. 272.

⁶ Deccan Early History, 20; Bombay Gazetteer, XVI. 623. 7 Bombay Gazetteer, XIV. 288, 332.

⁸ Ushavdát appears to have been the Gujarát and Konkan viceroy of Nahapána. His Karle and Nasık inscriptions mention gifts made at Somnath Pattan in Kathiawar His Karle and Násik inscriptions mention gifts made at Somnáth Pattan in Káthiawár and at Broach, as well as at Sopára in Thána and at Govardhan near Násik. See under Places, Kárle. Deccan Early History, 27; Bombay Gazetteer, XVI. 620. Deccan Early History, 22. If Junnar was the capital of Nahapána, the name Junnar may be not the old city, which, where there is no new city, is unmeaning, but the Yavans' city. In support-of this suggestion it may be noticed that at the head of Ptolemy's (A.D. 150) Nanaguna (which apparently is the Nána pass though Ptolemy makes it a river), to the south of Násik and to the east of Sopára is a town called Omenagara (Bertius' Ptolemy 174 and Asia Map X.), which, as the Yavans were also called Mins (Archæological Survey of India Report, II. 45, 54) may be Minagara or Yavanagara that is Junnar. or Yavanagara that is Junnar.

History.
RLY HISTORY,
100 · A.D.1290.

century with the Musalmán overthrow of the Devgiri Yádavs no historical information regarding Poona is available. Not a single stone or copperplate inscription has been found in the Poona district belonging to the three great dynastes of Chalukyas (550-760), Ráshtrakutas (760-973), and Devgiri Y davs (1190-1295). Still, as inscribed stones and copperplates have been found in the neighbouring districts of Ahmadnagar Sholápur and Sátára, it is probable that the Early and Western Chalukyas held the Poona district from about 550 to 760; the Ráshtrakutas to 973; the Western Chálukyas to 1184; and the Devgiri Yádavs till the Musalmán conquest of the Deccan about 1300.

Under the Devgiri Yadavs much of the country is said have been

It is not certain whether the Rashtrakutas were northerners or a family of Rattas or Reddis the widespread tribe of Kanarese husbandmen who were formerly the strongest fighting class in the Karnatak and Maisur. Mr. Fleet seems to incline to a northern origin and to trace the name to Rashtrakuta or Rashtrapati, a title meaning a district head who is subordinate to some overlord. But it seems not improbable that the Rashtrakutas were Rattas or Reddis, and that the main branch when they rose to supreme power Sanscritised their name, while the side branch of Rattas who ruled as underlords at Saundatti and Belgaum and claimed a common origin with the Rashtrakutas kept their original name. The names of about twenty Rashtrakuta kings have been found, the seventh of whom Dantivarma II overthrew the Western Chalukyas about 760. His fifteen successors were powerful sovereigns who ruled till 973 when the last of their race, Kakka III, was defeated and slain by the revived Western Chalukyas, better known under the slightly changed name of Western Chalukyas. Details are given in Fleet's Kanarese Pynasters, 31-38.

³ The Devgiri Yadavs (1150-1310) were a dynasty of ten powerful kings who, before the Musalman conquest (1295) held almost the whole of the Deccan, the Konkan, and the Bombay Karnatak. Their capital was originally at a place called Tenevalege, then at Vijaypur or Bijapur, and lastly at Devgiri the modern Daulatabad in the Nizam's territories. Their greatest king was the ninth, Ramchandra or Ramdev (1271-1308), whose minister was Hemádri or Hemádpant the reputed builder of the

widespread Hemadpanti temples of the Deccan.

4 The only recorded traces of these early Hindu dynasties are the Shaivite rock temple at Bhambhurda two miles west of Poona, and scattered Hemadpanti remains varying from the tenth to the thirteenth century. The chief Hemadpanti remains are the Kukdeshvar temple at Pur ten miles north-west of Junnar, ponds at Behle twenty-one miles north-east of Junnar, and at Pabal twenty-five miles north-east of Poona, transformed mosques at Poona, Junnar, and Sásvad, and the Ganga and Junnar rock-cut reservoirs on the top of Shivner fort in Junnar. The broken Ganpati at the foot of the dismantled rock-cut ladder in the middle of the east or Junnar face of the Shivner scarp appears also to belong to the time of the Devgiri Yadavs, and to show that Shivner was used by them as a fort. According to Ferishta (Briggs' Edition, II. 436) Chákan as well as Shivner was an early Hindu fort. See under

The name Chálukya is derived by tradition from chulka, chaluka, or chuluka, a waterpot, from which their ancestor is said to have sprung. This appears to be a late story, as, though chaluka or chuluka a waterpot may be the origin of the later forms Chálukya in the Deccan and Chalukya in Gujarát, it cannot be the origin of the early name which is written Chalkya, Chalikya, and Chalukya They claim to belong to the Som-vansh or lunar race and mention a succession of fifty-nine kings, rulers of Ayodhya, and after them sixteen more who ruled over the region of the south. The names of seven early Chalukya kings have been found who reigned from about 550 to 610. In 610 the Chalukya dominions were divided into an eastern kingdom whose head-quarters were Vengi in the delta of the Krishna and the Godávari, and a western kingdom whose head-quarters are believed to have been at Bádámi in Bijápur. Of this western branch called the Western Chalukyas the names of six kings have been found who ruled from 610 to 700 about which time they were overthrown by the Rashtrakutas Several attempts were made by the dynasty to regain its power but unpresentilly until 973 when Taila II. destroyed the Rashtrakutas, and the slightly changed name of (Western) Chálukyas, up to about 1100 articen of his successors ruled over the greater part of the Deccan and about 1100 articen of his successors ruled over the greater part of the Deccan and

divided among Marátha or Koli hill chiefs or páligárs: except to Nác Náik the Koli chief of Sinhgad no reference to any Poona local chief has been traced.

The first Musalmán invavior of the Deccan took place in 1294, but the power of the Devg ri Yadavs was not crushed till 1318.2 From 1318 Maháráshtra began to be ruled by governors appointed from Delhi and stationed at Devgiri. At first the conquest of the country was imperfect. In 1340 the Delhi emperor Muhammad Tughlik (1325-1351) who, in 1338, had made Devgiri his capital and changed its name to Daulatabad or the City of Wealth, marched against the fort of Kondhána the modern Sinhgad about ten miles south of Poona. Nág Náik, the Koli chieftain, opposed him with great bravery, but was forced to take refuge within the walls of the fort. As the only way to the hill top was by a narrow passage cut in the rock, Muhammad, after fruitless attempts on the works, blockaded the fort. At the end of eight months, as their stores failed them, the garrison left the fort, and Muhammad returned to Daulatabad. Three years later (1341) Musalmán 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.3 In 1346 there was widespread disorder, and the Delhi officers plundered and wasted the country. These cruelties led to the revolt of the Deccan nobles under the able leadership of an Afghan soldier of fortune, named Hasan Gangu. The nobles were successful, and freed the Deccan from dependence on Northern India. Hasan⁵ founded a dynasty, which, in honour of his patron a Bráhman, he called Bahmani, and which held command of the Deccan for nearly 150 years. The Bahmani capital was first

Chapter VI' History

Musalmáns 1294-1760. Delhi Governor 1318 - 1347.

> Bahmanis, 1347 - 1490.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 24.
² Brigge' 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 1310 Rámdev was succeeded by his son Shankardev who was not well affected to the Musalmáns (Ditto, I. 373). In 1312 Malik Káfur marched a third time into the Deccan, seized and put Shankardev to death, wasted 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 toarms, drove absence at Delhi, Harpaldev the son-in-law of Ramdev stirred the Deccan toarms, drove out many Musalman garrisons, and, with the aid of the other Deccan chiefs, recovered Maharashtra. In 1318 Mubarik Khilji, Ala-ud-din's son and successor, marched to the Deccan to chastise Harpaldev who fied at the approach of the Musalmans, and was pursued, seized, and flayed alive. Mubarik appointed Malik Beg Laki, one of his father's slayes to approach in the Deccan and successor, marched to Delhi. (Ditto 1 380)

was pursued, seized, and flayed alive. Mubarik appointed Malik Beg Laki, one of his father's slaves, to command in the Deccan, and returned to Delhi. (Ditto, I. 389).

Briggs' Ferishta, I. 426-427. This statement seems exaggerated. In 1346 there were Musalman governors at Raichur, Mudkal, Kulbarga, Bedar, Bijápur, Ganjauti, Raibág, Gilhari, Hukeri, and Berar. Ditto, 437.

Briggs' Ferishta, I. 432-433.

Briggs' Ferishta, II. 285-291. Hasan Gangu, the first Bahmani king, was an Afghan of the lowest rank and a native of Delhi. He farmed a small plot of land belonging to a Bráhman astrologer, named Gangu, who was in favour with the king of Delhi. Having accidentally found a treasure in his field, Hasan 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 Hasan's fortunes. Hasan thus rose to a great station in the Deccan, where his merit marked him out among his equals to be their leader in their

napter VII. History. Musalmáns. Bahmanıs, 1347 - 1490.

fixed at Kulbarga about 225 miles south-east of Poona, and in 1426 was moved to Bedar or Ahmadabad-Bedar about 100 miles further By 1351 Alá-ud-din Hasan Gangg Bahmani, by treating local chiefs and authorities in a liberal and friendly spirit, the power every part of the had brought under his which had previously been subject to the throne of Delhi. In 1357, Alá-ud-din divided his kingdom into four provinces or tarafs, over each of which he set a provincial governor or tarafdar. Poona formed part of the province of Maharashtra, of which Daulatabad was the centre and which included the country between Junnar, Daulatabad, Bid, and Paithan on the north, and Poona and the south. This was the chief province of the kingdom, and was placed under the charge of the king's nephew.2 In the later part of the fourteenth century, under the excellent rule of Muhammad Shah Bahmani (1358-1375), the banditti which for ages had harassed the trade of the Deccan were broken and scattered, and the people enjoyed peace and good government.3 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 wasted 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 an orphan school in each of the seven leading towns of his dominions.4 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 Musalmans into the hands of local chiefs.5 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. In 1429 the leading Bahmani noble, whose title was always Malik-ul-Tujár, that is Chief of the Merchants, went through the Deccan restoring order.

revolt. He assumed the name of Gangu in gratitude to his benefactor, and from similar motive added that of Bahmani or Brahmani by which his dynasty was afterwards distinguished. Elphinstone's History of India, 666. The Bahmani 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:

The Bahmanis, 1847 - 1528

NAME.	Accession.	NAME.	Accession.
I Alá-ud-din Hasan Gangu	1347 1358 1875 1378 1378 1397 1397 1397	11 Humáyun	1520 1522

 ¹ Briggs' Ferishta, II. 291-292; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 25.
 ² Briggs' Ferishta, II. 295.
 ³ Briggs' Ferishta, II. 325 · 326.
 ⁴ Briggs' Ferishta, II. 349-350. These seven towns were Cheul, Dábhol, Elichpur, Daulatabad, Bedar, Kulbarga, and Kandhar,

⁶ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 26. 6 Briggs' Ferishta, II, 405.406.

So entirely had the country fallen waste that the old villages had disappeared and fresh ones had to be formed generally including the lands of two or three old villages. Land was given to all who would till it free of rent for the Frst year and for a horse-bag of grain for the second year. This settlement was entrusted to Dadu Narsu Kale an experienced Brahman, and to a Turkish eunuch of the court. In 1443 the Malık-ul-Tujár, who was ordered to reduce the seacoast or Konkan forts, fixed his headquarters at Chakan, a small fort eighteen miles north of Poona, and secured Shivner the famous hill fort of From Junnar he several times sent detachments into the Junnar.2 Konkan. An expedition which he commanded in person ended in His Deccan and Abyssinian troops refused to advance into the woody country, and the Malık-ul-Tujár with 500 Moghals was surrounded and slain. The rest of the Moghals retired. Contrary to the advice of the Deccan officers, who tried to persuade them to withdraw to their estates, the Moghals fell back on Chakan. The Deccan officers sent false word to the king that the disaster was due to the Malık-ul-Tujár's rashness and to the turbulence and disobedience of the Moghals, who, they said, were now in revolt. The king ordered the Moghals to be put to death, and the Deccan nobles attacked Chakan. After the siege had lasted for two months, the Deccan officers forged a letter from the king and persuaded some of the Moghals to leave the fort. They gave an entertainment to the rest in the fort, and while the feast was going on, attacked them and put them to death. At the same time one party of Moghals outside of the fort were attacked and every male was put to death. Another party who were more on their guard made good their escape. The survivors succeeded in convicting the Deccan nobles of their treachery and procured their punishment.4 From this time Chákan and Junnar continued military posts. In 1472 and 1479 failure of rain so wasted the country that in 1474 when rain fell scarcely any one was left to till the land.5 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 Shah Bahmani II. (1463-1482), 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 headquarters; the pay of the captains was greatly increased and they were forced to keep their garrisons at full strength. This scheme for reducing their power brought on Mahmud Gawan the hatred of the leading nobles. They brought false charges of disloyalty against him. The king was weak enough to believe them and foolish enough to order the minister's execution. Bahmani power never recovered the murder of Máhmud Gáwán.

Chapter VI: History. MUSALMANO. Bahmanis, 1347 · 1490.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthas, 26.

² Malik-ul-Tujar's fort is probably the present fort of Chakan. According to a local story the original fort was built by an Abyssinian in 1295. Grant Duff's Marathas, 27.

Briggs' Ferishta, II. 436-439.
 Briggs' Ferishta, II. 483, 493, 494.

Briggs' Ferishta, II. 440 -447.
 Briggs' Ferishta, II. 503, 504.

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History.

Mistory.

Mistory.

Mistory.

Mistory.

Mistory.

Mistory.

Mistory.

11490.

Under the Bahmanis, to control the Kolis and other wild hill tribes, their chiefs were given the rank of nobles or sardárs and some of them were called mansabdárs or honourables. One of the headmen of each mával or western valley was made a captain or náik, and, over the whole west, a tract which was known as the Fifty-two Valleys or Bávan-Mávals, a head captain of sarnáik was named whose headquarters were at Junnar.

Of the state of the Poona Deccan, at the time of the decay of Bahmani power, the Russian traveller Athanasius Nikitin (1468-1474) has left some particulars.2 Athanasins, who was at the time trading in horses, after a voyage through a sea swarming with pirates reached Cheul in Kolába about thirty miles south of Bombay. After a week's stay at Cheul he started with a valuable stallion and went by land eight days to Pili to the Indian mountain, apparently Pulu Sonálu in Thána near the foot of the Nána pass. From Pulu he went in ten days to Umri, probably for his horse's sake avoiding the Nana pass, and ascending to the Deccan by some other route. From Umri, which has not been identified, he went in six days to Jooneer, that is Junuar, bringing his horse safely, but at a cost of about £16 (100 roubles). On the way, as was the custom for foreign travellers, Athanasius stopped at inns where the landlady cooked the food, made the bed, and slept with the stranger. Junnar stood on a stony island, no human hands had builf it, God made the town; a narrow road which it took a day to climb, broad enough for only one man at a time, led up the hill. At Junnar lived Asat Khán a tributary of Maliktuchar that is Malik-ul-Tujár the governor of Danlatabad. Asat Khán held seven of Malik-ul-Tujár's twenty-seven tmás that is thánás or posts. He had been fighting the Káfars, that is the infidels or Hindus, for twenty years, being sometimes beaten, but mostly beating them. Asat Khan rode on men, though he had many good elephants and horses. Among his attendants were many Khorasanians, some of whom came from the countries of Khorasan, Oroban, Sarkemsk, and Cheyotan. All came by sea in tavas or Indian ships. The winter began from Trinity Day in June, and Athanasius wintered at Junnar living there for two months. For four months day and night there was nothing but rain and dirt. The people were tilling the ground, sowing grain, tuturegan, perhaps tur and rági, peas and all sorts of vegetables.3 Wine was kept in large Indian goat skins. Horses were not born in the country, but oxen and buffaloes were, and were used for riding, carrying goods, and every other purpose. The horses were fed on peas, also on khichiri boiled with sugar and oil. In the early morning they got shishenivs (?). In the winter the common people put on a fata or shoulder cloak, sometimes wearing it round the waist; sometimes on the shoulders, and sometimes on the head. The princes and nobles were trousers, a shirt, and a

¹ Captain Mackintosh in Jour. Bom. Geog. Soc. I. 238. This arrangement was continued by the Ahmadnagar kings and by the Moghals. The last head captain was Muhammad Latif about 1670.

² Major's India in the Fifteenth Century, Athanasius Nikitin, 9-12.

³ From the translation Athanasius seems to have used the Russian wheat in the general sense of grain. The grain must have been millet.

Chapter V?:

History

Musalmán:

Bahmanis,
1347-1490.

long coat, and three scarfs, one on the shoulder, another round the waist as a belt, and a third round the head. While he was at Junnar Asat Khán took Athanasius' horse, and, hearing he was no Muhammadan but a Russial said he would give him back the horse and a thousand pieces of gold if he would embrace the Muhammadan faith; if he refused to embrace the Muhammadan faith he would keep the horse and fine Athanasius a thousand pieces of gold. During the four days which Asat Khán gave him to consider his offer, a man named Khoza Iocha Mahmet came from Khorásan and took pity on Athanasius, went to the Khán, prayed him not to insist on Athanasius' conversion and brought him back his horse. Christian brethren of Russia, says Athanasius, whoever of you wishes to go to the Indian country may leave his faith in Russia, confess Muhammad, and then proceed to the land of Hindustán. Those Musalmán dogs have lied to me, saying I should find here plenty of our goods; there is nothing for our country; the goods are for the land of Musalmáns, as pepper and colours and these are cheap.

In 1477 Mahmud Gawan was succeeded in the office of minister by Nizam-ul-Mulk Bhairi. About 1485, Bid and other districts including Poona were added to the estates of Nizám-ul-Mulk, and. the management of part of it was made over to the minister's son, Malik Ahmad, the founder of the Nizám Sháhi dynasty (1490-1636). Malık Ahmad made Junnar his headquarters. In 1486 Zain-uddin, who had command of Chákan, went into revolt, and Nizám-ul Mulk ordered his son Malik Ahmad to reduce Chákan. Zain-ud-din applied for help to Yusuf Adil Khán of Bijápur, who sent 6000 horse which he ordered to encamp near the fort of Indapur. which belonged to Yusuf Adil Khan, and watch Malik Ahmad's movements. Besides the Musalman commandant of Chakan, other chiefs, several of whom were Hindus, held places of strength in Malik Ahmad's new estates. Some of these chiefs, on the plea that the king was a boy and that such changes should not be made till he came of age, refused to give up their forts. Among them was the Marátha commandant of Shivner, the hill fort of Junnar. Malik Ahmad attacked the fort, and after a long siege the garrison surrendered. The capture of Shivner was of the greatest importance to Malik Ahmad, as five years' revenue of Maharashtra was stored in This treasure enabled Ahmad to make rich presents to his officers and troops, and helped him to secure all the places of the greatest strength in west and south-west Poona. Among the forts which fell into Ahmad's hands, in consequence of his success at Junnar, are mentioned Chávand and Jivdhan within ten miles west

¹ Nizam-ul-Mulk Bhairi was a Vijayanagar Brahman from Patri whose original name was Timappa, the son of Bhairu. In his infancy he was taken prisoner by the Muhammadan army of Ahmad Shah Bahmani (1422-1435). On becoming a Musalman he received the name of Hasan; and was brought up as one of the royal slaves. 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.

1apter VII. History, Ausalmáns. izám Sháhis. 1490-1636.

of Junnar, Lohogad about thirty miles north-west of Poona, Koari about five miles to the south-west of Lohogad, Kondhana, the modern Sinhgad about eight miles south, and Jurandhar about eighteen miles south-east of Poona; Mahuli in Thans, and Pali in Bhor about twelve miles south Kolaba. In 1486 Nizam-ul-Mulk, the Bahmani minister, was assassingled at the Bedar court. On hearing of his father's assassination Matik Ahmad, who was besieging Rájápur in Janjira, returned to Junnar, assumed the title of Ahmad Nizam-ul-Mulk Bhairi, and set himself to improve the state of the country. As Malik Ahmad, though he continued to read the public prayers in his master's name, had practically thrown off his allegiance. Mahmud Shah Bahmani II. (1482-1518) ordered Yusuf Adıl Khan of Bijápur and Zain-ud-dinof Chákan to attack him. But Yusuf, who soon after followed Malik Ahmad's example and assumed independence, instead of advancing against Malik Ahmad, withdrew his troops from Indápur which was part of the Bijápur territory. Malık Ahmad, or as he was now styled Ahmad Nızam, appointed Zarif-ul-Mulk Afghan his commander-in-chief or Amir-ul-Omra, and Nasir-ul-Mulk Gujaráti, minister of finance or Mir Jumla. Ahmad tried but failed to win to his side Zain-ud-din the commandant of As the Bahmani army was advancing against him, Ahmad left his family in Shivner and marched to meet the Bahmani force. During the night he suddenly turned on Chakan, was himself the first to scale the walls, and had helped seventeen of his men to gain a footing before the garrison took alarm. Zain-ud-din and his men fought with great bravery, but their leader was killed and the rest surrendered. From Chákan Ahmad marched against and defeated the Bahmani army. He returned to Junpar and busied himself with improving the internal management of his territory.1 28th of May 1490, at Bagh or the garden, now the site of Ahmadnagar, Ahmad gained a complete victory over the Bahmani forces.² After his return to Junnar, without a rival or an enemy, on the advice of Yusuf Adil Shah, Ahmad assumed the position of king, had the public prayers read in his own name, and had the white canopy of state borne over his head. But this assumption of kingly power was so distasteful to some of his leading supporters that Ahmad stopped the reading of prayers in his name, and allowed his nobles to use a canopy which differed from his own state canopy only in not being lined with scarlet. Shortly after, at the request of his officers, Ahmad again assumed the rank of king and had the prayers read in his name.

In 1493 Ahmad's sister, who was the wife of one of the Daulatabad family of Ashrafs, came to Junnar complaining of the murder of her son and of her husband by her husband's brother Malik Ashraf. 'Ahmad marched against Malik Ashraf, and, after besieging

Briggs' Ferishta, III. 190-195. Briggs' Ferishta, III. 197.

Briggs' Ferishta, III. 198.

Briggs' Ferishta, III. 198. About the same time out of the ruins of the Bahmani kingdom rose the Adul Shahi dynasty of Bijapur, the Kutb Shahi dynasty of Golkonda seven miles west of Haidarabad, and the Imad Shahi dynasty of Elichpur in East Berar.

Daulatabad for two months without success, returned to Junnar. In 1494 Ahmad moved his capital from Junnar to Bágh, the site of his great victory over the Bahmani troops in 1490, where, about half-way between Junnar and Daulatabad, he had founded the new city of Ahmadnagar. Except perhaps Indápur, which belonged to Brjápur, the territory of Poola remained subject to the Ahmadnagar kings.

Under the Ahmadnagar kings, though perhaps less regularly than afterwards under the Moghals, the country was divided into The district was distributed among subdistricts or sarkárs. divisions which were generally known by Persian names, pargana, haryát, sammat, mahál, and táluka, and sometimes by the Hindu names of prant and desh. The hilly west, which was generally managed by Hindu officers, continued to be arranged by valleys with their Hindu names of khora, murha, and maval. 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 Civil suits relating to land were generally referred to juries Though the chief power in the country was or pancháyats.3 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 Musalman commandants or killedirs. Besides the hill forts some parts of the open country were left under loval Marátha and Bráhman 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 grantholder maintained. Family fends 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 Musalman states. Hindus of distinguished service were rewarded

History.

MUSALMANS

Nusám Shah.

1,00-1636.

Nizdm Shahi Kings, 1490 - 1636.

NAME.	Date.	NAME.	Daie.
Burhán	1490	Burbán II	1590
	1598	Ibráinn	1594
	1563	Ahmad II.	1593
	1565	Bahádur s.	1595
	1588	Murtara	1606 - 1631

³ Grant Duff's Marathas, 36, 38,

¹ Brige ferishta, III. 200.

² P ggs' Ferishta, III. 202. At Ahmadnagar the Nizám Sháhi dynasty founded by Ahmad continued through ten successions to 1600, when Ahmadnagar was taken by Akbar the Moghal emperor. One more king afterwards reigned at Daulatabad, till 1630 when he was deposed and put to death. Two more infant kings were nominated and in 1636 the kingdom was destroyed by Shah Jahán. The names and dates of the Nizám Sháhi kings are:

Grant Duff's Marathas, 36, 38.

hapter VII.

Musalmáns, izám Sháhis, 1490-1636. with the Hindu titles of rája, náik, and ráv. Numbers of Hindus were employed in the Ahmadnagar armies.

In 1529 Burhan Nizam (1508-1553), the record of the Ahmadnagar kings, was defeated by the troops of Sahadur Shah of Gujarat (1525-1535). This defeat led to an important change in the management of the Ahmadnagar state. Burhan, who had retired to Junnar, believed that his failure was due to the unpopularity of his minister or peshwa. Shaikh Jáfar was deprived of his office, and it was given to a Bráhman whom Ferishta calls Kávar Sen.² From the time of Kávar Sen's appointment to be minister, Hindus gained great influence in the Ahmadnagar Under the Ahmadnagar kings few references government.8 to places within Poona limits have been traced, though in ordinary times both Sinhgad and Purandhar in South Poona were in their hands.4 In 1562 Husain Nizám Sháh the third king of Ahmadnagar (1553-1565), pursued by Rám Rája of Vijayanagar and Ali Adil Shah of Bijappr, retired to the Junnar hills, and, employing his own troops to lay waste the districts of Junuar and Purandhar, prevented the enemy's advance. In 1564, on the accession of Murtaza Nizam Shah, one of his brothers Burhan Nizam with his sons, was placed in confinement on Lohogad hill about eight miles south-east of Khandála, and a second brother, Shah Kasim, was confined on Shivner near Junnar. In 1576, hearing that his brother was hated at Ahmadnagar, Burlán won over the commandant of Lohogad, and advanced from Lohogad Ahmadnagar at the head of 6000 horse, but was not successful Burhán's two sons Ibráhim and Ismáel continued in Lohogad !!! 1588 when they were carried to Ahmadnagar and Ismael was place 1 on the throne.

Between 1564 and 1589 Salábat Khán, the leading man at Ahmadnagar, according to Ferishta, made the country more prosperous than it had been since Máhmud Bahmani's time (1378-1397). In 1589 court factions forced him to retire to Burhánpur, and from Burhánpur he went to Talegaon, twenty miles north-east of Poona, and died there before the close of the year. In 1594 Bahádur the infant son of Burhán Nizám II. was kept in continement for over a year at Chávand, and was then raised to the Ahmadnagar throne.

The rise of the Maráthás may be traced to the Moghal attack on Ahmadnagar in 1595. In 1595 king Bahádur Nizam II. (1595-1605) ennobled a Marátha, named Máloji Bhonsla, with the title of rája, and enriched him with the estates or jágirs of Poona and Supa, and the charge of the forts and districts of Shivner and Chákau.

¹ The Persian title of Peshwa was brought into use in the Deccan in 1397 by Ghaias-ud-din Bahmani (1397), It was adopted from the Bahmanis by the Ahmadnagar kings, and from the Ahmadnagar kings by Shivaji. Briggs' Ferishta, II. 353.

2 Briggs' Ferishta, II. 353.

3 Grant Duff's Marathas, 34 and foot.

4 Khafi Khan in Elhot and Dowson, VII. 272.

⁵ Lassen, IV. 214. Of the Ahmadnagar generals at this time one was an Abyssinian, one a Deccan Musalman, and one a Koli. Ditto.

Briggs' Ferishta, III. 271, 282.

Briggs' Ferishta, III. 262, 279. Briggs' Ferishta, III. 293, 296, 304.

Chapter V

History

Musalmán

Nızám Shál.

1490-16**3**6

The headquarters of this Máloji Bhonsla, who is said to have held several patilships, were at Verul or Ellora near Aurangabad. Máloji's father Bábji Bhonsla was descended from Bhosáji, who is said to have been the first of the family to settle in the Deccan. Bhosáji claimed descent film a younger or from an illegitimate son of the royal family of Udepu) in Kajputana. Máloji married Dipábái the sister of Jagpálráv Náil Nimbálkar the deshmukh of Phaltan. 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, Málon took his son Shahaji, a boy of five, to pay his respects to Lukhji Jádhavráv, Máloji's patron and the chief Marátha in the Ahmadnagar state. Lukhji Jádhavráv, 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 stuck to his point and carried it, when, in 1599, his successful services were rewarded with the title of raja.2 In 1600 the city of Ahmadnagar was taken by the Moghals. Partly from the disorders caused by the rebellion of Jahángir's son Khusrn, which followed Jahángir's accession on the death of Akbar in 1605, Moghal power in the Deccan declined. Their generals in Ahmadnagar had also to deal with the Abyssinian slave Malik Ambar, a man of the highest talent both in military and in civil affairs. Though the Moghals still held Ahmadnagar in 1605, Malık Ambar raised Murtaza Nizám II. to the throne, and succeeded in recovering Junuar and making it the head-quarters of a state which included the greater part of the former possessions of Ahmadnagar. From Junnar, he moved in the same year to Kharki near Ellora, a place which was afterwards named Aurangabad by Prince Malik Ambar's power remained unshaken till his death in 1633 when he was succeeded by his son Fateh Khán. Great as was his success as a general, Malik Ambar is best known by his excellent land system. He stopped revenue-farming, and, under Musalman supervision, entrusted the collection of the revenues to Brahman agents. He renewed the broken village system, and, when several years of experiments had current to ascertain the average yield of a field, took about two-fitths of the revenues. in kind, and afterwards (1614) commuted the grain payment to payment representing about one-third of the yield. Unlike Todar Mal, Akbar's 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 This system was so successful that, in spite of his heavy war charges, his finances prospered and his country throve and grew rich.'3

In May 1627, in Shivner fortnear Junnar, Jijibái Sháháji's wife gave birth to Shiváji, the founder of the Marátha empire. In 1629 the

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 41; Scott's Deccan, II. 4; Shiváji's Bakhar by Malhárráv Rám Chitnis (1811).
2 Grant Duff's Maráthás, 41.
3 Grant Duff's Maráthás, 43.
4 Grant Duff's Maráthás, 55.

DISTRICTS.

History.

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1490-1636.

rains failed and a second failure in 1630 caused grievous suffering. Thousands left the Deccan and numbers perished in their homes; whole districts were emptied of people. The famine was accompanied by an almost complete loss of cattle and was followed by a pestilence.1 In 1629 Shahajiy who had succeeded his father Maloji in Poons and Supa, broke his connection with the Nighm Shahi government. retired to Poona and Chakan, offered his services to the Moghal emperor, was confirmed in his lands, and received the command of 5000 horse, a dress of honour, and £20,000 (Rs. 2 lákhs) in cash.2 In 1632, in spite of these and other gifts, Shahaji left the Moghal service and sided with Bijapur against the Moghals. At this time Shivaji and his mother had several narrow escapes of being caught by the Moghals. On one occasion Jijibai was taken prisoner, but was released and conveyed to the fort of Kondhana or Sinhgad.3 In 1631 Murtaza Nizám II. was thrown into prison and strangled by order of Fatch Khan the son of Malik Ambar, and the infant son of Murtaza was raised to the throne. In 1634 Shah Jahan captured Daulatabad and took prisoner the young Nizam Shahi prince. The Moghals supposed that with the fall of Daulatahad and the capture of the prince the war with Ahmadnagar was at an end. But Sháháji who had the support of Bijápur, proclaimed another prince heir to the Nizam Shahi kingdom, and, with the help of the local Bráhman officers, succeeded in overrunning a great part of the southern Ahmadnagar territories and seizing most of the places of strength. At Gangapur on the Indrayani he weighed himself against money and changed the name of the town to Tulápur, the Weighing Town. In 1635 a Moghal army of 20,000 horse took the field against Sháháji, and he was forced to retire into Bijápur territory to the south of the Nira. According to Maratha tradition the town of Poona was destroyed by the Moghals and an ass-drawn plough drawn over the site.4 In 1636 Muhammad of Bijapur sued for peace and concluded a treaty with the Moghals. under which the Ahmadnagar territory was divided between Bijápur and the Moghals, Bijápur seouring the country between the Bhima and the Nira as far north as Chakan. In 1637, as Sháháji declined to enter Bijápur service and refused to give Junnar and other forthcoses be the Moghals, Muhammad of Bijapur. Randaula Khán to overcome Sháháji. They blockaded Junnar and pursued Sháháji from Lohogad to Sinhgad, and from Sinhgad to the Konkan, where Shahaji agreed to enter Bijapur service and give up the forts of Junnar, Jivdhan, Chavand, Harshira, and Kondhana or Sinhgad. Of these Sinhgad seems to have passed to Bijápur and the rest to the Moghals.6 Muhammad Ali treated Sháháji with honour, confirmed him in his estates in Poona and Supa, and, with the Bijapur minister Murarpant, employed him in settling the

lil Sháhis and Moghals, 1636-1686.

Elphinstone's History, 507; Bádsháh Náma in Elliot and Dowson, VII. 24-25.
 Bádsháh Náma in Elliot and Dowson, VII. 15. The details of Sháháji's command or masnab vary from 5000 to 15,000 horse. Ditto and footnote.
 Grant Duff's Maráthás. 58.

Shivaji's Bakhar by Malharrav Ram Chitnis (1811).
 Grant Duff s Marathas, 52.

⁶ Badshah Nama in Elliot and Dowson, VII. 589; Grant Duff's Marathas, 53.

newly gained territory between the Nira and the Bhima. So strong a friendship sprung up between Murárpant and Sháháji, that, in the same year, when the settlement was completed, they led a joint expedition into the Karnátak, where the districts of Kolhár, Bangalur, Oskotha, Bálápur, and Se., were afterwards made over to Sháháji. When Sháháji started with Jurárpant for the Karnátak, he arranged that Shivaji and his mother tijibai should live in Poona, and that his estates in Poona, which, in addition to Poona and Supa now included Indapur and Baramati in the east and the Mavals in the west, should be managed by a Bráhman named Dádáji Kondadev. managed Sháháji's estates with great success, continuing the system introduced by Malik Ambar. He was particularly successful in the Mávals or hilly west, where the people had fallen into great misery. He remitted rents, found employment for the people as guards and messengers, and extirpated the wolves that infested the country.3

North or Moghal Poona was also about this time (1636) improved by the introduction of Rája Todar Mal's revenue system, which consisted in ascertaining by experiments lasting through a long series of years the outturn of the land, fixing a share of the grain as the government share, commuting the grain share into a money payment estimated at one-fourth of the produce, and enforcing this one-fourth as a permanent rent. From the silver coin in which it was collected this settlement was known as the tankha. After twenty years of labour it was introduced into the Deccan by an able officer named Murshed Kuli Khán. Murshed's system differed from Malik Ambar's, chiefly in being a permanent settlement while Malik Ambar's varied from year to year. Another change about this time (1637) introduced in the Moghal parts of Poona was the introduction of the Fasli year. The Fasli year which was started by Akbar (1556-1605) was a solar year, whose era or initial date was the Hijra. The Fasli year 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 the lunar, the Fasli differed from the regular lunar Musalman year more than three years every century.

At Poona Dádáji built for Jijibái and her son Shiváji a large mansion called Rang Mahal. He taught Shivaji, as a Maratha chief ought, to be a good archer, shot, spearsman, and rider, and, as a Marátha ought, to be ignorant of all clerkship even of the mystery of writing his own name. He taught him the rules of his caste and raised in him a love for old Hindu religious and warlike stories. From about his sixteenth year (1643) Shivaji took great delight in the stirring fellowship of freebooters, and, in their society, stayed away from his home for days, nursing the hope of one day becoming independent. independent. His kindly obliging temper made him popular with the Marátha gentry round Poons, and he was probably none the worse liked when reports got abroad, that, young as he Chapter VII. History. MUSALMANS. Adıl Shahis am Moghals.

Shivdji's Rue, 1643-1680.·

Grant Duff's Marathas, 54, 55. ³ East India Papers, IV. 420.

Grant Duff's Maráthás, 57.

Grant Duff's Maráthás, 56, 57; and Elphinstone's History of Indía, 514. Before the introduction of the silver tankha a copper tankha was in general use. 6 Grant Duff's Marathas, 56.

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History.

Musalmans.

Shivaji's P'se,
1643-1647.

was, he had a share in some large gang robberies in the Konkan. To wean him from these dangerous pursuits, Dádéji en usted Shiváji with the management of his father's estates. His favourite pastime was hunting in the western hills with his friends the Mávalis, to whom his skill and success as a hunter endeared him. He gained a thorough knowledge of those wild districts. He learned how easily, under the present careless management, the hill forts might be seized, and, if once seized how easily they might be held against all comers. The hill forts were easy to seize, because as the country round them

generally unhealthy, the Musalman garrisons were often withdrawn and the forts left in charge of an amildar or other local agent. Besides this, the Bijapur government was at peace with the Moghals, and the bulk of the regular Bijapur troops had been sent to the Karnátak. In 1646, when he was nineteen years old, Shiváji took the hill fort of Torna in Bhor territory about twenty miles south-west of Poona, and in 1647 he took the small inaccessible peak of Rajgad about three miles south-east of Torna and began to strengthen it with the view of making it his headquarters. wrote and blamed Shiváji for this lawless conduct, and Dádáji did all that advice could do to turn him from his purpose, but Shivaji, though he made many promises, continued unmoved. Soon after Dádáji fell On his deathbed (1647) he sent for Shivaji, advised him to press on his plans of independence, to protect Brahmans cattle and cultivators, to guard Hindu temples, and to follow the fortune which lay before him,? On Dádáji's death Shiváji took complete charge of his father's Soon after a messenger came from his father asking for the payment of arrears. Shivaji evaded payment, and at last told his father that the expense of managing his Deccan estates had become so great that in future he had better trust to his Karnátak revenues. Before his authority could be supreme in his father's estates. Shivaji had either to win over or to overpower two officers, Phirangáji Narsála who was in charge of Chákan and Báji Mohita the manager of Supa. Phirangaji he won over without much trouble. But, as Baji refused to listen to any proposals, Supa was surprised, he was made prisoner, and sent to Shahaji in the Kurnatak. Shivaji's next acquisition was Kondhana hill. This he gained by a large bribe to the Musalman commandant, took possession of it, and named it Sinhgad or the Lion's Den.

In 1647, about the time of Dádáji's death, the commandant of Purandher died. As the families were friendly, Shiváji was asked to settle some points in dispute among the commandant's three sons. He went to the fort, persuaded the younger brothers at night to make their elder brother prisoner, and during the disturbance secretly filled the fort with his own Mávalis, and took it for himself,

¹ Of these years of Shivaji's life, Khafi Khan the Musalman historian gives the following account. Shivaji became manager of the two estates of Poona and Supa, which at this time belonged to his father Shahaji. He looked carefully after his father's affairs. He was distinguished in his tribe for courage and intelligence. In that country where all the hills rise to the sky and the forests are full of trees and bushes, he had an inaccessible abode. Like other local chiefs, he set about building forts on the hills and in the plains mud forts called gadhic. Muntakbu l lubáb in Elliot a Dowson, VII. 256-57.

² Graa Duff's Marathas. 60: Wilks' South of India, I. 72-74.

keeping the brothers well disposed to him by the grant of lands and villages. Thus Shivaji without bloodshed secured the territory between Chakan and the Nira. It is jágir land, and Shahaji the holder of the land is in my power; if Shahaji does not object to let his son take his lands, what matters it to me. Thus perhaps Muhammad Adil Shah reasoned and devoted his thoughts to his two chief interests, his Karnatak conquests and his Bijapur buildings.

Meanwhile Shivaji busied himself in gathering Mavalis and horsemen. His next exploit, his first open breach of peace with Bijapur, was in 1648, when he was twenty-one years old, the plunder of a rich caravan bringing treasure from Kalyan to Bijápur. The spoil was carried to Raigad which was now Shivaji's head-quartore. This success was followed by the capture of Bhurap and Kangori in Kolaba, of Tung and Tikonain Bhor, of Koari in south-west Poona, and of Lohogad about six miles to the south-east and Rájmáchi about ten miles to the north-west of Khandála. In the same year the Kolába fortsof Tala, Ghosála, and Ráiri the modern Ráygad were taken and Birvádi and Lingana were built. In Thána, Kalyán and all the forts in the neighbourhood were taken and several rich towns were plundered. In 1649, when for Shiváji's ravages Sháháji was imprisoned by Muhammad Adil Sháh of Bijápur, Shiváji entered into a correspondence with the Moghal emperor Shah Jahan who agreed to admit Shivaji into the imperial service and to give him the rank of commandant of 5000 horse. Sháháji was released and Shiváji contrived to evade his promises by preferring certain claims on the revenues of Junnar and Ahmadnagar. In 1653, after au unsuccessful attempt on the part of Bijápur to seize him, Shiváji began to devise schemes for possessing himself of the whole of the Ghátmátha or hilly west Deccan and of the Konkan. caused the Hindu Raja of Javli in Satara to be murdered, took Rohira his fort, and built Pratapgad. Shivaji's principal minister at this time was Shamrajpant whom he now dignified with the title of peshwa and also gave him a high military command.

In the north of the Poona district, since 1636 Moghal power had remained unchallenged. In 1650 Prince Aurangzeb was appointed viceroy. He made Aurangabad his head-quarters and managed his charge with vigour and success. About 1657 Aurangzeb, who was planning the overthrow of his elder brother Dara Shekkoh, sent to ask Shivaji if he would enter his service. Shivaji pretended to be horror-struck at the proposed rebellion, treated the messenger with indignity, and ordered the letter to be tied to the tail of a dog. At the time Aurangzeb took no notice of this insult but it apparently lay at the root of his unceasing hatred of Shivaji.2 At this time, apparently stirred by Shivaji's success against Bijapur, the Kolis of north-west Poona rose in rebellion. Kheni, the Sar Naik and many leading Koli chiefs agreed to try and shake off Musalman rule, and transfer their allegiance to some Hindu prince, probably Shivaji. A Moghal army was sent into the hills, the hill forts were strengthened and garrisoned, Chapter VII. History.

Musalmans. Shivaji's Rise, 1643-1655.

The Moghals, 1636 - 1790.

Grant Duff's Maráthás, 61.
Scott's Deccan, II, 7; Waring's Maráthás, 63; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 73.

Chapter VII.

History.

Musalmans.

Shivedji's Rise,
1667-1661.

the people were hunted down and either made prisoners or slaughtered, the Sar Náik and his clan were destroyed, and the prisoners were taken to Junnar and their heads cut off and piled into a pyramid and a platform built over them which is still known as the Black Platform or Kála Chabūtra.

In 1657, with no further reason than that the state was weakened by the death of king Muhammad Adil Shah and that his successor Ali Adil Sháh was a child, Aurangzeb declared war against Bijápur. Shivaji took advantage of this war to increase his resources by plunder. In May 1657 he committed his first act of hostility against the Moghals. In a night attack he surprised and plundered Junnar, and carried off about £1100 (3 lákhs of pagodás) in cash, 200 horses, valuable cloth, and other articles. He escorted his booty as far as Poona, and then handed it to a party to be taken to Rajgad. From Poona Shivaji marched by unfrequented roads and surprised and partially plundered Ahmadnagar. He made great efforts to strengthen his cavalry. He hought horses from all quarters, engaged horsemen whom he could trust, began to employ Marátha shíledárs or self-mounted troopers, and appointed a new master of horse, Netáji Pálkar, a man of vigour and influence but cruel and unprincipled. The rapid success of Aurangzeh's advance on Bijápur marred Shiváji's plans. He sent one messenger after another praying for forgiveness, promising amendment, and offering to help Aurangzeb with a body of horse. Aurangzeb, who was suddenly called to Delhi by the news of his father's severe illness, agrood to pardon Shiváji, to enquire into his hereditary claims, and to receive a body of 500 of his horse. In 1659 Shivaji sent a large force under Shamrajpant Peshwa against the Sidi of Janjira in the Central Konkan, but the Sidi defeated the Peshwa's army with great slaughter. Shamrajpant was recalled and Moro Trimal Pingle was named Peshwa in his place. A treaty was made with the Savants of Vádi in the South Konkan, under which Shiváji obtained one-half of the revenue of that state. In the same year, near Pratapgad Shivaji assassinated Afzul Khan the Bijapur general, who was sent to reduce him, and destroyed his army. Soon after this Panhala and Pavangad in Kolhapur fell to his officers, and Vasantgad in Satara was taken by Shivaji himself who levied contributions along the banks of the Krishna, and left a thana or garrison with a revenue collector in the mud fort of Battis Shirála. On Shiváji's arrival at Panhála the forts in the neighbourhood, both below and above the Sahyádris, submitted, and Rángna and Vishálgad were taken by surprise. In the next month (December 1659) Shivaji plundered as far as Bijapur, levied contributions from market towns, and spread terror over the whole country. In 1660 Shivaji was engaged with the Bijápur troops, who retook the forts near Panhála except Rángna and Vishálgad. In January 1661 Shiváji took and plundered Rájápur in Ratnagiri and attacked the possessions of a local Marátha chief, the Dalvi of Shringarpur. During the rains he built a temple to the goddess Bhavani in the fort of Pratapgad, and from this time his religious observances became extremely strict.' He chose the celebrated Rámdás Svámi as his spiritual guide, and aspired to a

¹ Captain Mackintosh, Jour. Bom. Geog. Soc. I, 241-42.

high character for sanctity. He is even said to have offered all his territories to Rámdás Svámi. The Svámi had no need of lands but asked Shiváji to use the colour of his clothes in the Bhagva Jhenda or Saffron Banner. In the same year 1661 he made a rapid march across the country, and to venge his father's wrongs, who, at the instance of the Bijapur gover ment had been treacherously seized by Báji Ghorpade of Mudhol id 1649, surprised and killed Ghorpade with most of his relations and followers, and plundered and burnt Mudhol. The Savants of Vadi, who contrary to their engagements had taken an active part against him, Shivaji attacked and pursued. and afterwards received as vassals. Shivaji next built the forts of Ráiri and Sindhudurg or Málvan, both on the Ratnágiri coast. and fitted out a navy. He strengthened Kolába and Vijayadurg in Ratnágiri, and prepared vessels at all these places, Kolába being his chief naval centre. On condition of being supplied with guns and warlike stores Shivaji did no harm to the Portuguese. Shiyan's power was now so great that the Bijapur minister entered into a secret compact with him, which was probably brought about by the intervention of his father Shahaji, who at this time visited Shivaji with the approval of the Bijápur government. Shiváji treated his father with the greatest distinction. On hearing of his approach he went several miles to meet him, dismounted, and saluted him with the obeisance due by a servant to his sovereign. He insisted on walking by the side of his father's palanquin, and would not sit in his father's presence until repeatedly commanded. After some weeks spent in pleasure and in visiting the temple at Jejuri and other places in Shivaji's territory, Shahaji, highly gratified, returned to Bijápur, the bearer of presents from Shiváji to the king. From this time until Sháháji's death in 1664 Shiváji never attacked Bijápur, nor, when hostilities were renewed, was Shiváji the aggressor. Soon after Sháháji's death, Shiváji changed his capital from Raigad to the inland Rairi in the Central Konkan, which he greatly strengthened and called Raygad. Shivaji now held the whole Konkan from Kalyan to Gos, and the Konkan Ghatmatha or hilly west Deccan from the Bhima to the Várna. His army of 50,000 foot and 7000 horse was much larger than his territory, which at its greatest breadth from Supa to Janjira did not exceed 100 miles. either required or could support. His power was formidable and the truce with Bijapur gave him the opportunity of turning it against the Moghals. In 1662, as Aurangzeb was longer and more busily employed in Northern India than was expected, Moro Trimal Pingle, Shivaji's minister or peshwa possessed himself of several strongholds north of Junnar. In the same year Netáji Pálkar, Shiváji's master of the horse, who had swept the Moghal territory close to Aurangabad, returned safe to Poons. 1. punish this daring raid, Shaiste Khan, the new Moghal governor, marched from Aurangabad with a great force towards Poona and Chákan. Shiváji, who was in Supa, retired to Sinhgad; Supa was taken, and, in spite of much annoyance from Shiváji's horse, the Musalmans pressed on and took Poona. From Poona Sháiste Khán marched north to Chákan. The fort was held by

Chapter VII

History
MUSALMÁNS,

Shiváji's Rise,
1661 - 1662.

[|] Elliot and Dowson, VII. 261-262.

Chapter VII. History. Musalmáns. Shiváji's Rise. 1661 - 1663.

Shivaji's old ally Phirangaji Narsala, and, in spite of a most skilful and vigorous attack, was defended with such courage that it did not fall till two months had passed and 900 of the besiegers were When Phirangaji surrendered the Moghal general treated slain. him with great respect and sent him in safety to Shivaji by whom he was praised and rewarded. Shaiste Khan placed Uzbek Khan in charge of Chakan, called Jafar Khan from Malwa to his aid, and marched after Shiváji. In 1663, under Aurangzeb's orders, Rája Jasvantsing the Rajput prince of Jodhpur arrived with a large reinforcement. The fair season was far advanced and the whole army lay idle near Poons. Shaiste Khan, after taking several forts and strong places had gone to Poona and was living in the Rang Mahál which Dádáji Kondadev had built for Shivaji and his mother. In spite of the precautions which had been taken to prevent armed Maráthás entering Poona Shiváji determined to surprise the Moghals. He sent two Brahmans in advance to make preparations. One evoning in April a little before sunset Shivaji set out from Sinhgad with a considerable body of foot These he posted in small parties along the road, and took with him to Poona only YasajiKank, Tanaji Malusre, and twenty-five Mávalis.² The Bráhmans had won over some of the Maráthás in Sháiste Khán's employ. They arranged that two parties of Maráthás should enter the town one as if a wedding party the other as if bringing prisoners, and that Shivaji and his twenty-five should pass Shivaji's party passed in safety, put on their in with them. armour, and, at the dead of night, by secret ways reached the Khán's house. They entered through the cookhouse, killed the cooks, and, as they were cutting through a built-up window, the alarm was raised. Three of the Mávalis forced themselves into Sháiste Khán's room, but two fell into a cistern of water and the third, though he cut off Shaiste Khan's thumb, was killed by his spear. Two slave girls dragged Shaiste Khan to a place of safety.3 The Maráthás killed many of his followers, cut to pieces some of the women, and cut off the head of an old man whom they took for Sháiste Khán. The kettle-drums beat an alarm and the Maráthás retired, lighting torches and burning bonfires as they went up Sinhgad hill in derision of the Moghals.4 Next morning a body of Moghal. horse gallopped towards the fort. They were thrown into confusion by an unexpected fire of musketry and retired in disorder. A party of Shivaji's horse fell on them and they took to flight, the first time that Moghal cavalry had been chased by Maráthás. The surprise in Poona and other small reverses filled Shaiste Khan with the suspicion that Jasvantsing was in league with Shivaji. The dissensions of their leaders crippled the Moghal army, and both Shaiste Khan and Jasvantsing were recalled. Jasvantsing was afterwards

Muntakhabu-l-Lubáb in Elliot and Dowson, VII. 262 - 263,

According to Khán Shiváji, beaten and dispirited, had retired into mountains difficult of access, and was continually changing his position. Elliot and Dowson, VII. 269.—See Waring's Maráthás, 74, 75.

This is Khán Khán's account in Elliot and Dowson, VII. 270-1. According to

Grant Duff (Maráthás, 88) Shaiste Khán's fingers were cut off as he was letting himself out of a window.

Kháfi Khán in Elliot and Dowson, VII, 270-271.

Chapter VII History. Musalmáns, Shivaji's. Rise. *1663 - 1665* .

allowed to remain as second in command to Prince Sultán Muazzam who was appointed viceroy. Jasvantsing made a feeble attempt to invest Sinhgad, but did not press the siege. Strong detachments were left at Chakan and Junnar and the main body of the army retired to Aurangabad. A out this time Shivaji went to Poona to hear a katha of song-sermon by the Váni saint Tukárám and narrowly escaped being made prisoner by the garrison of Chakan. In 1664, after his return from sacking Surat, Shivaji heard of the death of his father Shahaji.2 He came to Sinhgad and spent some days in performing his father's funeral rites. He then took the title of Rája, struck coins in his name, and spent some months at Ráygad hill in Kolába arranging his government. His fleet scoured the coast and enraged the Musalmans by seizing some holy Mecca pilgrims. In August Shivaji surprised and plundered the town of Ahmadnagar and swept across the country east to Aurangabad. In October the Bijápur troops broke the truce and made a vigorous effort to regain the Konkan. Shivaji seemed to be everywhere and ready at all points. He met the Bijápur army and defeated them with great loss. He burnt Vengurla in Ratnágiri, and hastened to Sinhgad to watch the Moghals who had sent a strong reinforcement to a camp at Juniar. Finding the Moghals did not intend to act on the offensive, he returned to the coast, embarked from Malvan with 4000 men, plundered the rich town of Barcelor about 130 miles south of Goa, sailed back to Gokarn in North Kánara, scoured the country, re-embarked, and returned to his capital.

In February 1665, Jasvantsing and Sultan Muzzzam were recalled. and Mirza Rája Jaysing another Rajput prince and Diler Khán were sent to conduct the war against Shivaji. They reached the Deccan early in April 1665 and lost no time in beginning operations. Jaysing went to Poona, arranged its affairs, and spread abroad his forces ravaging the country and attacking Shivaji's forts. He himself went to attack Purandhar, about twenty miles south-east of Poona, one of the most noted fortresses in the Deccan. Diler Khan, who was sent in command of the advanced force, began the siege and invested both Purandhar and the neighbouring fort of Vajragad or Rudra Mahál. Jaysing left Diler Khán to prosecute the siege of Purandhar and blockaded Sinhgad. The commandant of Purandhar was Báji Prabhu, the deshpándia of Mahád in Kolába; and the fort was strongly garrisoned by Mávalis and Hetkaris that is Ratnágiri Maráthás. The deshpandia maintained his post with bravery and ability. He disputed every point of the approaches, but his outposts were driven in, and Diler Khan began to mine a rock under one of the towers of the lower fort. The garrison made frequent sallies, and repeatedly drove off the miners, but they were at last firmly lodged under cover. After numerous failures they succeeded

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 89. According to the Maráthás Shiváji escaped by the help of the god Vithoba of Pandharpur.

² Shahaji had continued faithful to Bijapur and had been allowed to keep his estates in the Karnátak and the fort of Arni, Porto Novo, and the territory of Tanjor. Grant Duff's Maráthás, 89-90.

⁸ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 92; and Elliot and Dowson, VII. 272,

Chapter VII.

History.

Musalmáns.

Shiváji's Rise,
1665.

in shattering the rock so as to enable them to attempt an assault. The assailants gained the lower fort, and, while the garrison was retiring to the upper fort, began to plunder careless or ignorant of The Hetkari marksmen from above opened so their danger. destructive a fire that many of the assai ints sought shelter in every corner and others ran outside for cover. The Mavalis headed by their commander sallied out, attacked the Moghals sword in hand, killed all that opposed them, and drove them down the bill. Diler Khán, who was seated on his elephant near the hill foot, seeing the flight of his men, bent his bow, called on a body of Pathans about him to advance, and rallying the fugitives pushed his elephant The garrison, like all Maráthás daring in success, closed with his men and the powerful Afghans recoiled from the swords of the Mavalis. Diler Khan, marking the conspicuous conduct of their leader, with his own hand pierced him with an arrow, and killed him on the spot. On the loss of their leader the garrison fled nor stopped until they reached the upper fort. The Moghals again took possession of the lower fort, but the fire from above once more forced them to leave it. After this failure Diler Khán, considering the northern face impregnable, determined on attempting to escalade the small detached fort of Vajragad or Rudra Mahál. on the north-east corner of Purandhar which commands a great part of The attempt succeeded and guns were brought to the main works. breach the upper fort. The setting in of the rains greatly retarded operations. The Moghal artillery was bad, and, although they continued firing for weeks, they made little impression on the defences. garrison became dispirited and sent notice that they could hold out no longer. They would have left the fort, but Shivaji, who, after his successes at sea, had at last returned to Raygad, asked them to hold on until he should send them word to retire. Shivaji sent

I Khási Khán's account (Muntakhbu-l-Lubáb in Elliot and Dowson, VII. 272), while in the main agreeing with the Marátha version, gives some interesting additional details. The garrison of Purandhar made a vigorous defence and Jaysing arrived with his son Kesarising. After a bastion had been blown up on one side a panic seized the defenders of the foot of the hill. The besiegers attacked them and succeeded in making their way to the top of the hill when the defenders called for quarter which was granted them by the Rája and Diler Khán. The two commandants waited upon Diler Khán, and were sent to the Rája who disarmed the garrison and took possession of the forts. Eighty men, horsemen, infantry, and sappers were lost in the siege and more than a hundred were wounded. After the conquest of the two forts Rája Jaysing sent Dáud Khán with 7000 horse to plunder and lay waste the country which Shiváji had won by force and violence. Great efforts were made on both sides, and for five months the imperial forces never rested from harassing and fighting the enemy. At Shivápar which was built by Shiváji and at the forts of Kondhána or Sinhgad eight miles south of Poona, and Kanvari (Koári) not one trace of curtivation was left, and numbers of cattle were taken. On the other hand, the Maráthás sudden attacks, their brilliant successes, their night assaults, their seizure of the roads and passes, and the firing of the forest, severely tried the imperial forces, and men and beasts perished in numbers. The Maráthás had also suffered heavy losses and no longer had heart to face the imperial troops. The fort of Rájgad about three miles south-east of Torna and about fifteen south-west of Poona, which Shiváji himself held, and the fort of Kondhána or Sinhgad in which were his wife and his mother's relations were both invested and hard pressed. The roads on all sides were blockaded and Shiváji knew that he could not rescue his family and that if Sinhgad was taken they would be liable to suffer the consequences of his evil deeds. Acco

Raghunáthpant Sháshtri to Jaysing, who agreed to Shiváji's proposal to enter the Moghal service and give up part of his territory. At the same time Jaysing placed no trust in Shiváji's sincerity until the Bráhman convinced him that Shiváji did not intend to deceive him. Jaysing then desired him to assure Shivaji on the honour of a Rajput that he might rely not only on the emperor's pardon but on his favour and protection. While this negotiation was pending, Shivaji, with a slender retinue, in the month of July, proceeded from Pratapgad in Satara to Jaysing's camp before Sinhgad, where he announced himself as Shivaji Raja. Jaysing sent his son Kiratsing to lead him to his presence with all the honours due to his rank. The whole camp pressed forward to see this celebrated hero and on his approach Jaysing advanced from his tent, met, and embraced him. Jaysing seated Shivaji on his right hand, treated him with respect and kindness, and repeated the assurances sent by Ragunáthpant. After some conversation in the humblest strain on the part of Shivaji, he was allowed to retire to tents near those of Jaysing. Next day Shivaji went to visit Diler Khan, who was still before Purandhar and was exceedingly mortified that he was not made privy to the negotiation. He threatened to persevere in reducing Purandhar and putting every man to the sword. This was but a threat, and he was soothed and gratified by Shivaji's presenting the keys of the gate with his own hand, telling him that all his forts and country were his, that he merely sought pardon, that

Chapter VII
History
Musalmáns.
Moghals.
Shiváji,
1665.

his sincerity, ordered that the attack should be pressed with renewed vigour. At last two confidential Bráhmans came from Shiváji and withthe most banding asths confirmed his expressions of submission and repentance. The Rája promised him necurity of life and honour on condition that he waited on the emperor and agreed to enter his actives. He also promised him high station or mansab in the imperial service and made preparation for receiving him as became his rank. Shiváji approached with great humility. The Rája sent his agent or munshi to meet him and he also sent armed Rajputs to guard against treachery. The munshi carried a message to say that if Shiváji cubmitted frankly, gave up his forts, and agreed to obey, the emperor would grant his petition for forgiveness. If he did not accept these terms he had better return and renew the war. When Shiváji received the message he said with great humility that he knew his his and honour were safe if he made his submission. The Rája then sent a person of high rank to bring him in with honour. When Shiváji entered the Rája rose, embraced him, and seated him near himself. Shiváji then with a thousand signs of shame cheped his hand and said 'I have come as a guilty slave to seek forgiveness, and it is for you either to pardon or to kill me at your pleasure. I will make over my great forts with the country of the Konkan to the emperor's officers, and I will send my son to enter the imperial service. As for myself, I hope that after the interval of one year, when I have paid my respect to the emperor's officers, and I will send my son to enter the imperial service. As for myself, I hope that after the interval of one year, when I have paid my respect to the emperor's officers, and I will send my son to enter the imperial service. As for myself, I hope that after the interval of one year, when I have paid my respect to the emperor, and wherever my services are required, I will, on receiving prders, discharge my duty loyally.' The Rája cheered him and sent him to Diler Khār

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Shivoy.

1665-16v

experience had satisfied him that it was folly to resist such soldiers as Aurangzeb could boast of, and that now his one hope was to be enrolled among the servants of the empire. An armistice took place as soon as Shivaji came into camp After several conferences, subject to the emperor's approval, it was agreed that Shivaji should give up whatever forts or territory he fad taken from the Moghals. Of thirty-two forts taken or built by him in the territory which had belonged to the Nizam Shahi government, he gave up twenty to Jaysing, among which were Purandhar and Sinhgad with all their dependent districts. According to Kháfi Khán Shivaji gave twentythree out of thirty-five forts with a yearly revenue amounting to £400,000 (10 lákhs of huns or 40 lákhs of rupees). The territory belonging to the remaining twelve forts,2 of which Koari and Isvádi were in Poona, estimated to yield a yearly revenue of about £40,000 (Pagodás 100,000) and all the rest of his acquisitions, were to form his estate which he was to hold from the emperor, and his son Sambháji, then in his eighth year, was to receive the rank of a commander of 5000 horse. The most remarkable part of the agreement was Shiváji's proposal to be allowed assignments on Bijápur, estimated at about £180,000 (Pagodás500,000), being a fourth and a tenth of the revenue, termed by him the chauth and sardeshmukhi, of certain districts above the Sahyadris, the charge of collecting which he took upon himself. So eager was Shivaji to obtain the imperial authority for this arrangement, that it was granted on condition he offered to pay a tribute or peshkash of about £1,400,000 (Pagodás 4,000,000) by yearly instalments of about £110,000 (Pagodás 300,000), and to keep an additional body of troops. Shivaji's proposals, according to custom, were sent to the emperor in the form of a petition. On Jaysing's suggestion Shivaji intimated his desire to kiss the royal threshold. Aurangzeb agreed to Shiváji's proposal on condition that he and his troops went with Raja Jaysing against Bijapur and that he paid the first instalment of the promised tribute. According to this agreement. Shivaji co-operated with Jaysing, and the combined army, including 2000 horse and 8000 infantry belonging to Shivaji, marched against Bijápur about the month of November. In the operations which followed, Phaltan was reduced, the fort of Tathavad escaladed, and all the fortified places on their route were taken possession of by Shivaji and his Mavalis. In consequence of these services Aurangzeb invited Shivaji to court, promised to confer on him great rank and honours, and to allow him to return to the Deccan. In 1666 Shivaji, after visiting all his forts and holding a council of his ministers at Ráygad, went to Delhi with his son Sambháji. Aurangzeb's court he was treated with indignity and was watched as a prisoner. In the Deccan Jaysing had not the means to garrison many of the forts sucrendered by Shivaji. He placed strong garrisons in Lohogad, Sinhgad, and Purandhar; a few men were left in such of the others as had supplies of provisions; and, of the rest, he ordered that the gates should be burnt, and such part of

Elliot and Dowson, VII. 275.
 The twelve forts were: Rájgad, Torna, Ráygad, Lingana, Mahádgad, Bálágad, Ghosála, Isvádi, Páli, Bhurap, Koári, and Udedurg.

the defences destroyed as could be hastily thrown down. After Shivaji's escape from Delhi, in December 1666, he lost no time in regaining his forts. Moropant Peshwa repaired them, replaced the garrisons, and drove out the Moghals.

In 1667, by the representations of the new vicercy Sultan Muazam, who was accompanied and much swayed by Jasvantsing a staunch Hindu, Shivaji obtained from Aurangzeb the title of Raja, a confirmation of Sambhaji's rank, and land in Berar. The districts of Poona, Chákan, and Supa were also restored to Shiváji, but the commanding forts of Siphgad and Purandhar were kept by the Moghals. Though Aurangzeb at first agreed to Sultan Muazzam's proposals in favour of Shivaji, he afterwards showed marked hostility to Shivaji. Accordingly Shivaji determined as soon as possible to gain the strongly garrisoned forts of Sinhgad and Purandhar which blocked his communication with Poona and Chakan. Sinhgad, Shivaji justly considered one of the strongest forts in the country, and, as the commandant, Ude Bán, was a celebrated soldier and had a choice Rajput garrison it was supposed impregnable. Security had made the Sinhgad garrison somewhat negligent, and Shivaji laid a plan for taking the place by surprise. Tánáji Málusre, whom he consulted, offered to surprise Sinhgad if he was allowed to take his younger-brother Suryáji and 1000 picked Mávalis. Accordingly, in February 1670, one thousand Mávalis under Tánáji and Suryáji started from Ráygad in Kolába, and, taking different paths, met near Sinhgad. Tánáji divided his men into two parties. One party under his brother Suryaji he left at a little distance with orders to advance if necessary; the other party under his own command lodged uncursaves undiscovered at the foot of Sinhgad rock. When it grew dark, choosing the sheerest part of the rock as the least likely to be guarded, one of the Mávalis climbed the rock and made fast a ladder of ropes up which the rest crept one by one. Each as he gained the top lay down. In spite of their care before 300 of them had reached the top, some movement drew the attention of the garrison to the Mévalis. One of the garrison drew near and was silently slain by an arrow. Still the alarm spread, and the noise of voices and of a running to arms showed Tánáji that a rush forward was his only chance of a surprise. The Mávalis plied their arrows in the direction of the voices, till a blaze of blue lights and torches showed the Rajputs armed or arming, and discovered their assailants. In the desperate fight that followed Tánáji fell. The Mávalis lost heart and were running to the ladder, when Suryáji, Tánáji's brother, met them with the reserve. He rallied them, asked them if they would leave their leader's body to be tossed into a pit by Mhárs, told them the ropes were broken and there was no retreat; now was the time to prove themselves Shivaji's Mavalis. They turned with spirit, and, shouting their war cry Har Har Mahadev, dashed on the garrison, and, after a desperate fight in which 300 Mávalis and 500 Rajputs were slain or disabled, gained the fort. A thatched house turned into a bonfire flashed the news to Shiváji. Besides those who were slain or wounded in the fort, many Rajputs who ventured over the crest of the rock were dashed to pieces. Contrary to his custom, Shivaji gave every man of the assailants a silver bracelet and

Chapter VII.

History.

Musalmáns.

Moghals.

Shirdji,

1667.

Thapter VII.

'History.

Musalmáns.

Moghals.

Shivaji,

1670-1675.

honoured their leaders with rich rewards. He grieved over Tánáji: Sinbgad the lion's house is taken, but the lion is slain: I have gained a fort and lost Tánáji. Suryáji, Tánáji's brother, was made commandant of Sinhgad, and within a month (March 1670) again distinguished himself by escalading Pura dhar. Máhuli and Karnála in the Konkan were also taken, and the whole province of Kalyan was recovered by the end of June. In July (1670) Lohogad was surprised and taken, but an attempt on Shivner failed. Next year (1671) Diler Khán, who was at Junnar with a considerable Moghal force, retook Lohogad and captured Chakan.8 In 1674, after great successes in South Gujarát, Khándesh, Golkonda, Sátára, the Bombay Karnátak, and North Kanara, Shiváji was crowned with great pomp at Ráygad in Kolába. At the time of his crowning Shiváji is described as forty-seven years of age, of a handsome and intelligent countenance, and for a Marátha fair in skin. His eye was keen, his nose long aquiline and somewhat drooping, his beard trim and peaked, and his moustache slight. His expression was rapid and resolute, hard and feline.4

In 1675 Shivaji made another unsuccessful attempt on Shivner his birth-place, which was never destined to fall into his hands 5 About this time the services of Fryer, the English physician and traveller. were sought by the Moghal governor of Jeneah that is Junuar. Fryer started from Bombay on St. George's Day, 23rd April 1673, and passed through Kalyan and Murbad which was all wasted by Shiváji and the Moghols, up the terribly steep Avápa pass or Oppagaot. At the top of the pass was a bad starvling town which he walls Oppagaot. There was a fort or castle on a hill top, and near the head of the pass a subhedur or customer, blown up with the confidence of half a dozen hillmen. From the top of the pass Fryer entered a deep valley where he met a caravan of oxen laden with provisions which had hardly escaped the Moghal army which was not for off. Fear of the villainy of Shivaji's men made Fryer's guide use great haste, and by ten at night he had travelled twenty miles (10 kos) to Ambegaon. In Ambegaon there was no one but a single fakir; the rest had fled from a party of Moghal horse. As they could get nothing to eat but a few green figs, Fryer's people pressed on through three or four wretched villages, to Beelseer or Bilsar three miles south-west of Junnar. Here his people rested as they found some provisions in a wretched hamlet which was liable to continual pillaging at the hands both of the Moghals and of the Maráthás, and bore the pillaging well because it was in the condition of having little or nothing to lose.

⁶ Fryer's party included four Moor peons, a Portuguese, his own servants, a Brahman linguist, a horsekeeper, eight palanquin-bearers, a dozen farders that is lumber or baggage-carriers, and a Turkish horse. East India and Persia, 123.

¹ Grant Duff's Marathas, 94.

Grant Duff's Marathas, 109, 110.

Grant Duff's Maráthás, IIO.

Mr. Douglas from the Vignette in Orme's Historical Fragments Scott Waring (Maráthás, 87-88) gives the following details: Shiváji was short and dark with bright piercing eyes, an active body, and well-governed temper. He was religious above his countrymen. He was a good father to a bad son. Though he possessed high talents as a soldier, he was fonder of cuming than courage and of dissimulation than wisdom.

Grant Duff's Maráthás, 119.

Grant Duff's Maráthás, 119.

Next day, the last of April, he went on to Junnar the frontier town of the Moghals, for many years the seat of war. There was a castle at Junnar and some palaces with gardens, and the governor was in command of 17,000 horse and 3000 foot. The governor of the city and district was different 1 om the commandant of Shivner fort who never left the hill top Jurhar city and the fort in the plain were ill-prepared to stand a siege. The Moghals were encamped there rather than settled, and, when Shivaji came in force, they retired speedily to the main army under Bahadur Khan who had a host of 40,000 horse at Pedgaon three days' journey off in Ahmadnagar on the Bhima. Fryer, in English interests, tried to pursuade the governor of the value of opening a trade with Bombay through which the Deccan might be supplied with Arab and Persian horses. To do this it was necessary that the Konkan should be cleared of Shivaji's troops. The governor made light of Shivaji, but seemed little inclined to anne him out of the Konkan, either because he knew it was more difficult to do than he pretended, or, because, if Shivaji was driven out, the excuse for keeping up a large army and therefore his employment and the source of his revenue would cease. When the rains began to fall cotton was planted in the fields about Junnar. The land also yielded wheat in abundance and other grain, though the husbandmen's crops were often burned by those mountain-foxes the Maráthás. It was not safe to move about Junnar in small parties: troopers were often sent home disrobed and dismounted. Except Shivner most of the hill forts were in Shivaji's hands. In a still night many of his garrisons might be heard by voice and more by trumpet. The government of Junnar was like the government of all Moghal cities. The walls were broken but the gates remained. Disorder had scared trade, though the town was well placed and furnished with coarse calicoes. fine lawns, and plenty of cotton land. The ploughmen and weavers had followed the traders. A rich craftsman or landholder was not to be heard of in seven or eight days' journey. The markets had little but provisions which the rulers compelled the country-people to bring in, and sometimes took them by force by reason of the general poverty reigning among them. Fryer returned to Bombay by the Nana pass, a far shorter and easier way than he came. Between Junnar and the head of the pass he went by three of Shivaji's castles. It was doubtful if the Moghals could pass by that way.

Chapter VII

History.

Musalmans.

Moghals.

Junuar,

1675.

¹ Fryer explains why the governor, was so disinclined to reduce his army. He kept only half the nominal muster of men and drew the pay of the rest, dividing his profits with the notaries who were sent by Aurangzeb to see that no frauds were committed. The same practice was followed by the under-officers. Every one had their snips verifying the proverb, 'Half the king's cheese goes in parings.' The grandees of the army were mounted on Persian Arab or Turkish steeds; the lower officers rarely got more than the race of the country which were fiery and mettlesome, but very flashing probably because the officers pinched their horses' bellies to put into their own. There were many Hindus in the Moghal army and many Musalmans in Shiváji's army, as they thought not of their country but whose sait they ate. The Moghal army was chiefly Moghal cavalry and Gentoo infantry with matchlock muskets. Their pay was fourteen months behind hand. Still they stayed, for they, were sure of something with ease, while Shiváji's rule was the freebooter's rule, No plunder no pay. Fryer's East India and Persia, 139, 141.

History.

MUSALMANS.

Mog 'ls.

Samb. ii.
1680 7.

During the last four years of his life (1677-1680) the success of his famous expedition to the Madras Karnátak greatly increased Shiváji's power.

On Shivaji's death on the 5th of April 1680, Sambhaji his son and successor showed some of his father's vigour and skill in war. He then fell into a life of pleasure and rice, wasting in dissipation the wealth which his father had amassed. Kalusha, his friend and councillor, raised the land rent by levying many fresh cesses. Still the receipts fell short of the former rental. The managers of districts were removed, the revenue was farmed, many landholders fled, and speedy ruin threatened Sambhaji's territorics.

In 1682 to ravage the Konkan a body of Moghal horse under Husan Ali Khan advanced from Ahmadnagar by the route of Junnar and descended the Sahyadris. In 1684, Aurangzeb issued orders to levy a poll tax or jizia on all non-Muhammadan subjects? In 1685 Aurangzeb ordered Khán Jahán to place posts or thanás in the country between Junnar and Sinhgad. Khán Jahán took Poona and the country round, and appointed Khákar Khán as governor or foujdár. In the same year (1685) a body of troops stationed under Ghazi-ud-Din at Junnar was directed to move towards Ahmadnagar. The Maráthás seized this opportunity and made a rapid march northwards and plundered Broach, Aurangzeb's rebel son Sultan Akbar, whom Sambhaji treated with the greatest respect, instigating if not leading the enterprise. intercepted near Chakan and defeated by the Moghal forces.6 In 1686 Bijápur fell and the Adil Sháhi dynasty came to an end. In 1689 Aurangzeb's camp moved up the Bhima from Akluj in Sholapur and cantoned at Tulapur at the meeting of the Indrayani and the Bhima, sixteen miles north-east of Poona. Aurangzeb was camped at Tulápur, Takarrib Khán, who had surprised Samonaji and his favourite Kalusha at Sangameshvar in Ratnágiri. arrived with his prisoners. The Marathas made no effort to rescue Kalusha's oppression and Sambháji's misconduct had Sambháji. made them hateful to the bulk of the people, and even had his army been disposed to undertake any enterprise in his favour, its loose and disordered state would probably have prevented the attempt.. When the prisoners were brought close to the imperial camp they were bound and set upon camels. His turban was taken off Sambhaji's head, drums and other noisy music sounded before him, and thousands flocked from all sides to see his entry into the The prisoners were shown to Aurangzeb and ordered into confinement till their sentence was determined. Some of the Moghal nobles suggested that Sambhaji's life should be spared as a means of inducing his troops to surrender the forts; Aurangzeb

¹ At the time of his death, Shiváji held the Konkan from Gandevi in Surat to Phonda in Kolhápur, except the small possessions of the Portuguese, the English, and the Sidi. He had posts in Kánara and great possessions in the Madras Karnátak and in Tanjor. He held the West Deccan from the Hiranyakeshi in Belgaum to the Indráyani in Poona, besides strong points in Ahmadnagar, Násik, and Khándesh. In Ráygad he had several millions of cash besides valuable goods.

Grant Duff's Mandthág 141

Grant Duff's Mandthág 145

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Grant Duff's Maráthás, 141.
 Grant Duff's Maráthás, 148.

Scott's Deccan, II. 70.

himself seemed inclined to this course. But Sambhaji, roused to a sense of his disgrace and stung with shame and remorse. expected and wished for nothing but death, and made use of every epithet of abuse to induce some rash soldier to kill him. In this frame of mind when Aurazgzeb sent him a message offering life on condition of his becoming a Musalman, Sambhaji answered: Not if you give me your daughter in marriage, and ended by cursing the Prophet. The enraged emperor ordered a red-hot iron to be drawn across his eyes, his tongue to be cut out, and his head to be severed from his body. These orders were publicly carried out in the camp at Tulapur about the beginning of August 1689 1 Sambháji's execution Rájárám, Sambháji's younger brother, was declared regent during the minority of Sambhaji's son Shivaji, afterwards known as Shahu. In 1690 Raygad fell to the Moghals and voung Shiváji and his mother Soyrábái were taken prisoners. Rajaram who was moving from place to place escaped to Ginji in the Karnátak and from Ginji managed his Deccan affairs. Rájárám remained in Ginji till 1698, when he was forced to flee to Vishalgad in Kolhápur. From Vishálgad in 1699, Rájárám, joined by Parsáji Bhonsla, Haibatrav Nimbalkar, Nimaji Sindia, Athavle, Samsher Bahadur, and other Maratha commanders, proceeded with a greater force than Shivaji ever commanded, and passed through Gangthadi, Nánder, Berár, and Khándesh claiming chauth and sardeshmukhi. When he had completed his tour, Rájárám left Khanderáv Dábháde in Báglán or North Násik, Nemáji Sindia with the title of Sarlashkar in Khandesh, Parsaji Bhonsla with the title of Senásáheb Subhe in Berár, and Haibatráv Nimbálkar in Gangthadi to collect, as was said, the outstanding balances due to the Raja.

In February 1700, Rájárám took shelter in Sinhgad, and died one month later from inflammation of the lungs brought on by violent exertion. When Rájárám died leaving only widows and infants, the power of the Maráthás seemed at an end. But Tárábái, the elder widow, with the aid of Rámchandrapant Ámátya, Shankráji Náráyan, and Dhánáji Jádhav Senápati assumed the government, seated her son Shiváji a boy of ten on the cushion of state, and placed Rájasbái the younger widow in confinement. Tárábái did not fix her residence in any one fort but moved from place to place as seemed advisable. Between 1700 and 1703, Aurangzeb besieged Sinhgad. After a three and a half months

Chapter VII.

History.

Musalmáns.

Moghals.

Rájárám, 1690.

Tárábái, 1700.

Grant Duff's Maráthás, 159-60; and Orme's Historical Fragments, 164.

According to Kháfi Khán Tárábái won the heart of her officers and took vigorous measures for ravaging the imperial territory. In spite of all Aurangzeb's struggles and schemes, campaigns, and sieges, the power of the Maráthás waxed instead of waning. They penetrated into the old imperial territories, plundering and destroying wherever they went. In imitation of the emperor, who, with his army and enterprising cobles was staying in the Deccan mountains, Tárábái's commanders cast the anchor of permanence wherever they penetrated, and having appointed komaushdárs or revenue collectors, passed the time to their satisfaction with their wives and children, and tents, and elephants. Their daring went beyond all bounds. They divided all the districts or parganás among themselves, and, following the practice of the imperial rule, appointed their suthedárs or provincial governors, kamáushdárs or revenue collectors, and rahádars or toll collectors. Kháfi Khán Muntakhbu-l-Lubáb in Elliot and Dowson, VII. 373-375.

Chapter VII.

History.

Musalmáns.

Moghals.

Tárábái,

1700.

siege, the fort was bought from the commandant and its name changed to Bakshindabaksh or God's Gift. The army halted for a month at Poona and the neighbouring villages. At Poona prince Muhiul-Mulk the son of Kam Baksh, the son of Aurangzeb, died and Aurangzeb changed the nathe of Poona to Muhiabad. From Poota the Moghal army marched against Raigad in Bhor, and by 1705 Purandhar was taken. In 1765, after halting 71 months near Junnar, the emperor quitted the neighbourhood of Poona and marched towards Bijapur.2 As soon as the Moghal troops withdrew Shankráji Náráyan Sach the chief manager of the country round, retook Sinhgad and some other places.8 The loss of Sinhgad and of Panhála in Kolhápur was a great grief to Aurangzeb. It increased the illuess from which he was suffering and from which he recovered very slowly. Zulfikár Khán was sent to retake Sinhgad, and, before his departure the emperor committed Sambháji's son Sháhu to his charge and Zulfikár tried to bring the Maráthás to his side by sending letters from Sháhu as their lawful prince. From want of supplies Sinhgad yielded to. Zulfikar, but, as soon as he retired, from the same cause, it was speedily retaken by Shankráji Náráyan.

Restoration, 1707.

In 1707 on the occasion of Shahu's marriage with the daughters of the Jounay of Sindkhed and of Sindia the patil of Kinnackhed, Aurangzeb conferred on him Indapur and Supa in Poona with other districts. Tárábái and her ministers took advantage of the absence of the main body of the Moghal army. Dhanaji Jadhav defeated Lodikhán the commandant of Poone, and retook Chákan, and the Maráthás rapidly occupied as well as plundered the country. In the same year (1707) Aurangzeb died, and steps were taken to release Shahu. On his arrival in Poona means were successfully employed to detach Dhanáji from the cause of Tárábái took place at the village of Khed twenty-two miles north of Poona in which the Pratinidhi was not supported by Dhanaji and was obliged to fly to Sátára. Dhanáji joined Sháhu and proceeded towards Chandan-Wandan in Sátára. Sháhu seized the families of all the men of rank who were acting against him; and summoned Shankráji Náráyan the Pant Sachiv to deliver Purandhar which he had taken shortly before; but Shankráji did not obey. In 1711, as he still adhered to the cause of Tárábái, Sháhu determined to reduce Shankráji Náráyan's territory, which, as it included Rájgad Shiváji's first capital, was considered the centre of Marátha rule. An arm was sent towards Poona and took Rajgad. Shahu was spared + ne great labour of besieging the Pant Sachiv's other forts by the nows that Shankraji had drowned himself, it was said, out of remoreo

¹ Kháfi Khán Muntakhabu-l-Lubáb in Elliot and Dowson, VII, 37.; and Grant Duff's Maráthás, 177.

² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 178; Elliot and Dowson, VII, 379.

⁸ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 180.
⁴ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 184. On this occasion Aurangzel among other presents to Sháhu gave him a sword he had himself frequently worn, and restored two swords which Sháhu's attendants had always urged Sháhu to recover. One of these was Shiváji's famous Bhaváni, and the other the sword of Afzul Khán the murdered general of Bijápur all of which were taken at Ráygad in 1690. These swords were in the possession of the Rája of Sátára in 1826, Ditto.

because he had bound himself by oath to Tárábái to fight against his lawful prince. 1 Sháhu with characteristic conciliation sent robes of investiture to Shankráji's son Náro Shankar a child of two years old and confirmed his multilik or deputy in that post. Sachiv's party never again silerved from their allegiance to Shahu.2

In March 1708 Sháhu wis established at Sátára, and in 1710 Tárábái with her son Shiváji went to Kolhápur and established herself there. Chandrasen Jádhav, who had been appointed senápati or commander-in-chief on his father Dhanaji's death, was sent from Sátára with a considerable army to levy the cháuth, sardeshmukhi, and qhásdána from the Moghal districts. On this occasion Chandrasen was attended by his father's agent or karkun Balaji Vishvanáth, the founder of the Peshwas of Poona who was now charged with collecting the Raja's share of the revenue, a position of control very galling to Chandrasen. A dispute about a deer which had been run down by one of Báláji's horsemen forced Báláji to flee for his life. He fled first to Sasvad, where the Sachiv's agent in Purandhar did not think it prudent to protect him. pursuers were in sight but the commander of the fort would not allow him to enter. With a few followers, among whom were his sons Bájiráv and Chimnáji, Báláji Vishvanáth attempted to cross to Pándugad fört in the opposite valley, but the Jádhav's horemen were on his track and searching for him in every quarter. Báláji managed to hide himself for a few days. Then two Marathas, Pilaji Jadhav and Dhumal, two of his self-horsed troopers, undertook to carry him to a place of mafaty. They gathered a small troop of horse, and, though they were attacked on the way and a man on each side of him had to hold on Balaji who could not ride, they carried him and his sons out of danger. After this Chandrasen, Báláji's rival, left the M.ráthás and took service with the Nizam, and, with the Nizam's relp, drove back Sháhu's forces from the Godávari to the Bhima. To support his local troops Shahu sent Balaji whom he dignified with the title of sena kurt or army agent. Báláji joined Haibatráv Nimbálkar, and they together fell back on Purandhar. A battle was fought which the Maráthás claim as a victory, but which seems to have been a defeat as they afterwards retreated to the Salpa Poona was overrun by a detachment of Maráthás in the Nizám's service under Rambháji Nimbálkar. An agreement was made, and, as was their custom, the Moghal troops retired for the rains to Aurangabad. As soon as they were gone, under different

Chapter VII History. MUSALMANS. Moghals. Sháhu, 1707 - 1717.

I Shankraji performed the jalasamadh or water-burial by sitting tied to a wooden raft which floated on empty jars pierced with holes. As the jars filled the raft sunk and the person seated on the raft was drowned. Hindu devotees were rather partial to this form of death. Grant Duff's Maráthás, 186 foot, grant Duff's Maráthás, 189.

Grant Dun's Maratnas, 189.

In January 1712 Shiváji, the son of Tárábái, who was of weak mind, died of small-pox. On his death Tárabái was removed from the administration, and Sambháji the son of Rájasbái the younger widow of Rájarám was appointed in her stead. Tárábái and Bhavánibái her son's widow, who is said to have been pregnant at the time of her husband's death, were not into confinement.

the time of her husband's death, were put into confinement.

Balaji Vishvanath was the kulkarni or village accountant of Shrivardhan in Janjira, a village then claimed by the Sidi from which in consequence of some intrigue connected with the Sidi's enemy Angria he had fled to Sasvad in Poona, and was recommended to Dhanaji Jadhav by Abaji Purandhara and Parashuram Trimbak.

Chapter VII.
History.
Musalmans.
Moghals
Shahu,
1707-77

leaders, the Maráthás spread plundering over the country. All the leading Hindu deshmukhs and deshpándiás in the Moghal parts of the Marátha country fortified their villages on pretence of defending them, but often joined and helped their countrymen. As Nizam-ul-Mulk favoured the Kolhápur party, Sh'hu's influence continued to In the prevailing anarchy Damaji Thorat, who was attached to the cause of Kolhapur, strengthened a mud fort in the village of Hingni or Hingangaon, near Patas, about forty miles east of Poona and levied contributions about thirty miles round. Báláii Vishvanáth, who set out to reduce Damáji, was seduced to a conference, treacherously seized, and thrown into confinement, together with his friend abaji Purandhare, Báláji's two Bajiráv and Chimnaji, and several of their immediate retainers. Thorat threatened them with torture and death if they did not pay a large ransom. The ransom was paid, and the Sachiv was sent against Damáji. But he was defeated and himself and his chief agent made prisoners.

ranáth, wa,

About the same time Bahiropant, Shahu's minister or peshwa, undertook an expedition into the Konkan to repel the pirate chief Angria of Kolába. Bahiropant was defeated and made prisoner. Angria advanced and took the forts of Rajmachi and Lohogad in west Poona. Angria intended to march on Satara, but he was met and defeated by Báláji. After the defeat, Báláji, by the grant of ten forts and sixteen fortified places in the Konkan, persuaded Angria to forsake the cause of Kolhápur and become tributary to Sháhu.1 In consequence of this valuable service, in 1714, Báláji Vishvanáth was appointed Peshwa in place of Bahiropaut Pingle who was removed. Báláji's friend Ábáji Purandhare was confirmed as his deputy or mutálik and Rámájipant Bhánu the ancestor of the celebrated Náua Fadnavis as his secretary or fadnavis. Chandrasen Jádhav deserted to the Moghals in 1710, Mánáji Mara had been appointed Sháhu's commander-in-chief or senápati. Sinci then he had performed no service of distinction. Balaji Peshwa now arranged that Mánáji, the commander-in-chief with Haibatráv Nimbálkar should reduce Damáji Thorát. Before hostilities began Báláji succeeded in procuring the release of Damáji's prisoner the Pant Sachiv, and, in gratitude for this service, the Pant Sachiv's mother presented Balaji with all the Pant Sachiv's rights in Purandhar and gave him the fort as a place of safety for his family whose head-quarters had hitherto been at Sasvad. This transfer The force assembled in the Poona was confirmed by Shahu. district under Manaji was too powerful for Thorat. He was driven back, Hingangam his fort was stormed and destroyed, and himself made prisoner. In 1715 Báláji Peshwa induced the Moghal agent for the Poona district, a Marátha named Báji Kadam, to make over the superior authority to him on the promise that Rambháji Nimbalkar's estates should be respected. As soon as he acquired this authority Báláji turned his attention to putting down the free-

¹ The ten forts were Khánderi, Kolába, Suvarndurg, Vijayadurg, Jaygad, Devdurg, Kanikdurg, Fategad, Auchitgad, and Yasvantgad; the sixteen fortified places were Bahirugad, Kotla, Venkatgad, Mánikgad, Mirgad, Ságargad, Rasálgad, Pálgad, Khárepátan, Rámdurg, Rájápur, Ambar, Sátavli, Kámte, Shrivardhan, and Manranjan,

booters with whom the country swarmed, he stopped revenuefarming, and encouraged tillage by granting leases at low rates. Negotiations between Shahu and the court of Delhi were set on foot, in consequence of which in 1718 Báláji, in command of a large contingent, was sent to Del'i to assist the Sayads. This was the beginning of Marátha influe ce at Delhi with which till 1803 they were so closely connected. The battle of Shahapur destroyed the power of the Sayads, and established Muhammadsháh upon the throne of the decaying empire. Balaji succeeded in obtaining from the imperial court three grants one for the chauth or one-fourth of the whole revenue of the six subhas of the Deccan, including the Haidarabad and Bijápur territories, the Karnátak, and the tributary states of Tanjor, Trichinopoli, and Maisur, and a second for the sardeshmukhi or additional one-tenth of the Deccan revenue. The third grant was for the svaráj or home-rule by the Maráthás of sixteen districts, which they stated Shivaji held at the time of his death. Under this arrangement almost the whole of Poona, Supa, Bárámati, Indápur, and Junnar became part of the Marátha home-In reward for his services on the occasion Báláji Vishvanáth received several districts near Poona in personal grant or jágir including the fort of Lohogad.

Not long after (1720) Chinkalich Khán, better known as the Nizámul-Mulk, who, after the murder of the emperor Ferokshir, had been appointed governor of Málwa, revolted, and crossing the Narbada and defeating the imperial forces at Burhánpur and Bálápur, made himself independent in the Deccan. Báláji's health had suffered considerably from the fatigue of the journey to and from Delhi and the labour he bestowed on the management of affairs after his return. He was allowed to retire for rest to his family seat at Sasvad, where he died in a few days in April 1721. He left two sons, Bájiráv and Chimnáji, and two daughters Bhiubái married to Abáji Náik the brother of Bápuji Naik, a rich banker of Bárámati, and Annubái, the wife of Náráyanráv Ghorpade of Ichalkaranji in the Bombay Karnátak. For nearly seven months after his father's death Báláji's eldest son Bájiráv was not formally invested with the dignity of Peshwa. At last Bájiráv received his robes, his brother Chimnáji received the command of an army under the Peshwa and the district of Supa in grant or jágir, and Abájipant Purandhare, their father's head agent, was reinvested by Shahu.2 Soon after his appointment Bájiráv Peshwa set out with an army for Khándesh, but, till 1724, he was forced every year to return to Sátára. Bájiráv's great design was to extend Marátha power in North India.3 In a debate before Shahu he said, Now is our time to drive strangers from the land of the Hindus and to gain undying

Chapter VII. History. Maráthás, 1720-1817.

Bájiráv Ballál, Second Peshios 1720-1245.

¹ The sraráj or home-rule districts were Poona, Supa including Bárámati, Indápur, Vái, the Mávals, Sátára, Karhád, Khatáv, Mán, Phaltan, Malkápur, Tárla, Panhála, Ajra, Junnar, and Kolhápur; the parganás of Kopal, Gadag, Halyál, and all the forts which were captured by Shiváji to the north of the Tungbhadra, and Rámnagar in the Konkan including Gandevi, Jawhár, Cheul, Bhimgad, Bhiwndi, Kalyán, Rájpuri, Dábhol, Jávli, Rájápur, Phonda, Akola, and Kudál, The six subhás of the Deccan were Aurangabad, Bedar, Berár, Eijápur, Haidarabad, and Khándesh, yielding an estimated revenue of Rs. 18.05. 17.300. the sardeshmikhi on which was Rs. 1,80,51,730, and the revenue of Rs. 18,05,17,300), the sardeshmukhi on which was Rs. 1,80,51,730, and the chauth and other rights Rs. 11,75,16,762. Grant Duff's Maráthás, 200

² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 212,

Chapter VII.

History.

Maráthás,

1720-1817.

renown. By turning our efforts to Hindustan the Maratha flag shall fly from the Krishna to the Attok. Let us strike at the trunk of the withering tree and the branches must fall of themselves. Shahu for the moment roused to something of his grandfather's spirit replied, You shall plant my flag on the Himálayás. You are a noble son of a worthy father. At this ime several Marátha officers, who afterwards became independent ledders or founders of states, rose to distinction. The chief of these were Malharji Holkar, the ancestor of the Holkars of Indur then chaugula or assistant headman of the village of Hol on the Nira, Ránoji Sindia the ancestor of the Sindiás of Gwálior, the Peshwa's slipper-bearer, Udáji Povár the ancestor of the Povars of Dhar an enterprising warrior of Malwa, and Piláji Gáikwár the son of Damáji Gáikwár the ancestor of the Baroda Gáikwárs.¹ In 1731 Bájiráv remained at Poona and employed himself in the internal management of Marátha affairs. His victory over his rival Trimbakráv Dábháde the Marátha commander-in-chief or Senápati like the issue of every civil war left unfriendly feelings in many minds. Bájiráv took every means to regain goodwill, among others continuing Dábháde's practice of feeding some thousand Bráhmans for several days. This charitable practice Bájiráv continued at Poona and gave sums of money at the same time to the assembled Shastris and Vaidiks. This festival was continued by his successors and was known by the name of Dakshina or money gifts.2 In 1734 Báláji was most successful in the north gaining Malwa and the territory between the Chambal and the Narbada, and, in 1739, his brother Chimnaji drove the Portuguese from almost all their leading possessions in the North Konkan. Bájiráv died in 1740. He left three sons, Báláji the eldest who succeeded him as Peshwa, Raghunáthráv the second afterwards so well known to the English, and Janárdan Báva who died in early youth. He left one illegitimate son by a Muhammadan mother whom he bred as a Musalman and named Samsher-Bahadur. Bájliáv was ambitious, a thorough soldier, hardy, self-denying, persevering, and patriotic. Maratha pictures represent him cating fried jvári ears or hurda as he rides at the head of a troop of Marátha soldiers. He was no unworthy rival of Nizám-ul-Mulk, and wielded the mighty arm of Marátha power with incomparable While the main body of his army remained encamped on the Shivganga, Raghuji Bhonsla the Sena Saheb Subha or commander-inchief returned to Sátára, and endeavoured to prevent Báláji Bájiráv's succession as Peshwa by proposing for the vacant office Bápuji Náik, a Bráhman banker of Bárámati, a connection but an enemy of the late Peshwa who was Bápuji's debtor for a large sum. Chiefly by the help of his uncle Chimnáji, Báláji's claims prevailed, and he was invested in August 1740. The disappointed Bápuji Náik at first pressed Báláji hard to pay his father's debts. Báláji was relieved from this annoyance by the influence and credit of his agent or diván, Mahádájipant Purandhare. In 1741, on the death of his uncle Chimnáji, Báláji Peshwa returned from the northern

Báláji Bájiráv, ılıas Nándsáheb, 2'hird Peshwa, 1740-1761.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 212. ² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 205. This dakshina fund is now used for promoting vernacular literature and providing fellowships in the two arts colleges in Poona and Bombay.

districts and spent nearly a year in improving the civil administration of Poona and Sátára. From this till 1745, a time of comparative quiet in the Deccan, Báláji encouraged agriculture, protected the villagers and grain merchants, and caused a marked improvement in the state of the country

Sháhu died in 1749 and was succeeded by Rám Rája, the posthumous son of the second Shivaji whose birth in 1712 was kept a secret. Before his death Báláji obtained a deed from Sháhu Rája empowering him to manage the Marátha empire, on condition of perpetuating the Rája's name and keeping up the dignity of the house of Shiváji through the grandson of Tárábái and his descendants. Bálaji left the Rája in Raghuji's charge and went to Poona, and from this time Poona became the capital of the Marátha empire. Tárábái, whom Báláji had almost overlooked, although seventy years of age, showed him how dangerous it was to slight a woman of her spirit. On pretence of paying her devotions at her husband Rájárám's tomb in the fort of Sinhgad, she endeavoured to persuade the Pant Sachiv to declare for her as the head of the Marátha empire. After much persuasion Báláji induced Tárábái to come to Poona, and, flattering her ambition with the hope of a large share in the administration, persuaded her to use her influence with Ram Raja to confirm his schemes. The Marátha chiefs were subservient to the Peshwa's views and were not likely to cause opposition. Báláji owed much of his success to his minister or diván, Mahádájipant, who, except Sadáshivráv his cousin had more influence than any one over Báláji. Through Sadáshivráv's influence, Rám Rája the new Sátára chief agreed to renounce the entire power, and to lend his sanction to whatever measures the Peshwa might pursue. After Báláji's scheme had so far prospered, it was nearly ruined by a quarrel between him and his cousin Sadáshivráv. Sadáshivráv applied to Báláji for the same share of authority as had been enjoyed by Sadáshivráv's father Chimnáji Appa. To this Báláji would not agree as he was anxious that the second place should be held not by Sadáshivráv but by Mahádájipant Purandhare to whom Báláji was under deep obligations. Sadáshivráv in anger accepted the position of Peshwa to the chief of Kolhápur. As this quarrel was likely seriously to weaken the power of the Peshwa, Mahadajipant gave up his post and Sadáshivráv came to Poona as the Peshwa's minister or diván.

In 1750 Báláji Peshwa arranged that the Pant Sachiv should give him Sinhgad in exchange for Tung and Tikona in Western He then marched with an army towards Aurangabad. In 1751 as Damáji Gáikwár did not comply with Báláji's commands, the Peshwa sent private orders to seize some of the Gaikwar and Dábháde families, who were living at Talegaon, and imprison them in the hill-fort of Lohogad. He also treacherously surrounded, attacked, and plundered Damáji's camp which was near him at Satara, and kept him in confinement in the city of Poona.8 During

Chapter VI History. Marathas, 1720 - 1817.

Sháhu's Deat 1749.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 271-272.

² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 271-272.

³ In consequence of this treachery Damáji is said ever after to have refused to salute the Peshwa except with his left hand. Grant Duff's Maráthás, 274.

History.

Maráthás,
1720-1817.

The Nizám,
1752.

the same year (1751) the Moghals, supported by the French, advanced towards Poona, totally destroying every village in their route. Báláji, alarmed at their progress, endeavoured to negotiate, and at the same time to arouse suspicion and jealousy of the French among Salabat Jang's officers. Monsieur Bussy the French general, as the best means of counteracting such scheme and securing influence with the Nizam, exerted himself with judgment and energy. He planned an attack on the Marátha camp at Rájápur on the Ghod river on the night of the 22nd of November, at the moment of an eclipse of the moon when the Hindus were at prayer. The Marátha army fled before him, and though only one man of consequence was wounded, some valuable booty was taken particularly some gold vessels belonging to the Peshwa. This success added greatly to Bussy's reputation. In spite of the surprise, next day the Maráthás were as active as ever. Still the Moghals pressed on, plundered Ránjangaon, and totally destroyed Talegaon Dábháde. At last on the 27th of November they were attacked by the Maráthás with the greatest determination, and nothing but the French artillery saved them from total defeat. The Maráthás were led by Mahádájipant Purandhare, the late diván, supported by the two sons of Ránoji Sindia, Dattáji, and Mahádji, and by Konher Trimbak Ekbote whose feats of valour gained him the title of Phákde or the hero. Still the Moghals pressed on to Koregaon on the Bhima. Negotiations were opened but were stopped by the news that the Marathas had taken the Moghal fort of Trimbak in Nasik. Salabat Jung demanded that the restoration of Trimbak should form part of any settlement. This Báláji refused and the Moghals moved towards Junnar continually harassed by the Maráthás. At last an armistice was concluded and the Moghals returned to Haidarabad (1752). During the next year the armistice was turned into a peace. Báláji returned to Poona and soon after prepared a large force for an expedition into the Karnatak which turned out to be the most profitable in which he was ever engaged. Before he left for the Karnátak Báláji endeavoured to arrange a compromise with Tárábái against whom a force had been sent in the previous year. In June 1754 Báláji returned to Poona from the Karnátak. Damáji Gáikwar, who had been imprisoned at Poona since 1751, was anxious to procure his release, and Báláji entered into terms, when, among other points it was arranged that Damaji should pay a sum of £150,000 (Rs. 15,00,000), should set apart for the Peshwa half of the territory conquered by him in Gujarát, and should pay a large sum as deputy commander-in-chief.

In 1751, with the object of gaining possession of Surat then the chief centre of trade in Western India, Raghunáthráv, Báláji's brother, had been sent to Gujarát, but was recalled without effecting his object. Nothing more was done till at the close of the rains of 1754, to spread Marátha power in Gujarát and to carry out the settlement made with Damáji, Raghunáthráv started on a second expedition to Gujarát. Shortly after a second expedition which Báláji accompanied for some distance in person proceeded to the

Karnátak. Báláji, who was naturally indolent, left the burden of military affairs to his brother Raghunáthráv and the civil administration to his cousin Sadáshivráv. For more than the life of a man plunder and violence had been general. An improvement was begun at this time by Rámchandra Bába Shenvi the friend and adviser of Sadáshiv and aft ir his death was carried on by Sadáshiv Chimnáji.

In March 1753, Raghuji Bhonsla the Sena Sáheb Subha died. Before his death he counselled his son to preserve union in the Marátha empire. Soon after, with the object of being confirmed in his father's office, Raghuji's son Jánoji came to Poona. Encouraged by Jánoji's approach, and, on the Peshwa's assurance of safety, Tárábái, the aged head of the Sátára state, came to Poona. She was received with great attention and agreed to the Peshwa's former proposals. Báláji professed much anxiety for the release of Rám Rája, the Sátára chief, who was then in confinement in Sátára fort. He pressed the point, being anxious that Ram Raja should be kept in confinement and judging that to profess the opposite yiew was the likeliest means to bring Tárábái to take the course he wished. This calculation was correct and the chief remained a prisoner. Jánoji Bhonsla agreed to the terms subscribed by his father. He undertook to furnish 10,000 horse for the service of the state and to pay £90,000 (Rs. 9 lákhs) a year to meet the cost of the establishment of the Sátára chief. Jánoji was formally invested as Sena Súheb Subha, and Báláji approved of the treaty Jánoji had made in 1751 with Alivardi Khán of Haidarabad, under which the Maráthás were to receive a share of the revenues of Orissa. Jánoji then left for Berár.

In July 1755 Báláji Peshwa returned from an expedition into the Karnátak. Shortly after Báláji's return Muzaffar Khán, who Lad boom dismissed from the Nizam's service appeared at Yoona, made humble apologies to the Peshwa and promises or good conduct, and was again entertained contrary to Sadáshivráv's advice. In April 1756 the capture of Angria's stronghold of Gheria or Vijaydurg in Ratnágiri and the destruction of Angria's power at sea was the first achievement which raised the English to importance as a political power in Western India. A land force of the Peshwa's had acted with the English fleet. They had given little aid and by intrigues with Angria had tried to secure Gheria for themselves. This attempt was discovered and prevented by the English, and the English were in the strong position of holding Gheria of which Báláji was most anxious to gain possession. In October 1756, Mr. John Spencer and Mr. Thomas Byfield, members of the Bombay Council, came to Poona and had a long interview with Báláji Peshwa at which Raghunáthráv the Peshwa's brother and Sadáshivráv the Peshwa's cousin were present. As news had reached him that M. Bussy had been restored to power at Haidarabad Báláji was anxious to obtain the services of a body of English troops. To this Mr. Spencer was instructed not to agree, though, at the same time, he was to let the Peshwa know that Salábat Khán had been asking the Madras Government to supply him with English troops to aid him in

History.

Maráthás,
1720-1817.

History.

MARÁTHÁS,
1720-1817.

driving out the French. Báláji expressed strong disapproval of any alliance between the English and the Nizám. Under a treaty concluded on the 12th of October 1756 Báláji agreed to allow the Dutch no share in the trade of the Marátha dominions, and the English agreed to cede Gheria to Báláji receiving in exchange ten villages including Bankot in the Central Konkan and the sovereignty of the Bánkot river. Báláji engaged to give no territory to Angria and to settle with the Sidi of Janjira regarding his customs dues in the Bánkot river. He also agreed to waive all claims on the English company and to levy on English merchandise no additional inland duties. Shortly after (1756) Raghunáthráv, with Sakharám Bápu as his agent or diván started for Hindustán. They were joined by Malháráv Holkar, and tógether advanced to Delhi and broke the power of Ahmad Abdalli who was forced to retire to Afghanistan. This, though one of the most successful of Marátha campaigns, was costly, and was not rewarded with any large share of booty. At the close of 1756 Báláji led an army south to the Karnátak, and crossed the Krishna in February 1757. Meanwhile news had come that the English were in trouble in Calcutta, and that war had broken out in Europe between England and France. This caused a change in Báláji's attitude to the English. He wrote to the Madras Government, forwarding a letter to the king of England, written with much less friendliness than he had shown in the negotiations with Mr. Spencer, and, in spite of the provision in the 1756 treaty agreeing to waive all claims on the English Company, asking for the treasure and stores which the English had carried off from Gheria. This request was probably made not in the hope of getting the Gheria spoils, but preparatory to demands for a share in the revenues of the Moghal provinces of the eastern or Páyin Ghát that is lowland Karnátak in which the English and now a direct interest. About May 1757 Báláji About May 1757 Báláji returned from the Karnátak with the greater part of his army successful to Poona.

During the next two years Báláji took a considerable part in Haidarabad affairs where a plot was on foot to cause a revolution and drive out the French. In March 1759 Báláji succeeded for a time in keeping the English from taking Surat castle, but through the ability of Mr. Spencer and the military talents of Admiral Watson the castle and with it the post of Moghal admiral passed to the English inthe same year. At Poona the civil administration continued under the management of Sadáshivráv, Báláji's cousin. Sadáshivráv was violent and grasping but active and vigorous, and though proud and unbending, had a large share of good nature and good sense. He was open to bribes but not under circumstances to which Marátha ideas attached shame. Sádáshivráv had a bitter enemy in Báláji's wife Gopikábái, who feared that Sadáshivráv would prevent her sons from gaining their proper position and power in the state. To remove her fears Sadáshivráv was urgent in recommending to Báláji

the early employment of his eldest son Vishvásráv in war and in civil affairs. In spite of Sadáshivráv's goodwill in this matter, Gopikábái nursed a bitter dislike of Sadáshivráv and did what she could to arouse unfriendly feelings between him and her husband Báláji. This ill feeling del not turn to open discourtesy till the return of Ragunáthráv from North Indiain 1759. Sadáshivráv blamed an arrangement of Ragunáthráv's which had caused a loss to the state, and Ragunáthráv left him in anger telling him he had better take command of the next expedition. The quarrel between Ragunáthráv and Sadáshivráv spread to other members of the family, and the ill feeling became still stronger after an attempt on Sadáshivráv's life by Muzaffar Khán whom, contrary to Sadáshivráv's advice, Báláji had received back to favour. There was no proof that either Báláji or Ragunáthráv was a party to the plot. In 1760 the arrangement which had been suggested by Ragunáthráv in anger, that Raghunáthráv should take Sadáshivráv's place at the head of civil affairs in the Deccan and that Sadáshivráv should take Ragunathráv's place at the head of the Marátha army in North India was carried out. Before Sadáshivráv left with his army for North India, news came of the success of an intrigue for the surrender of the strong fort of Ahmadnagar, which for a sum of money was betrayed into the hands of a Bráhman agent of Sadáshivráv's by Kávi Jang the Moghal commandant. This act of treachery brought on a war with the Nizám. Báláji marched with a large army to Ahmadnagar, and Sadáshivráv moved The Moghal army under Salábat Jang and Nizám Ali met Báláji's army at Udgir on the banks of the Mánjra about one hundred miles east of Ahmadnagar, and chiefly by the brilliant courage of Sadáshivráv ended in a severe defeat to the Nizám. Under the terms of a treaty concluded after this important victory, Shivner in Poona, Daulatabad, Asirgad, Bijápur, and the province of Aurangabad were made over to the Maráthás. These territories yielded an estimated yearly revenue of over £620,000 (Rs. 62 lákhs). Of the whole territory portions yielding an estimated yearly revenue of £410,000 (Rs. 41 lákhs) were according to the Peshwa's practice granted as military estates or jágirs. Towards the close of 1760 Sadáshivráv marched to North India in command of the richest army which the Maráthás ever assembled. In the middle of January 1761 news of the ruin of the Maráthás at Pánipat reached Peshwa Bálájíráv in the Godávari valley. The message ran: Two pearls have been dissolved, twenty-seven gold mohars have been lost, of the silver and copper the total cannot be cast up. Báláji understood that the two leaders his cousin Sadáshivráv and his eldest son Vishvásráv were slain, numbers of his nobles lost, and the mass of the proudest army the Maráthás ever put in the field destroyed. Báláji retired slowly to Poona. The blow crushed him, his mind gave way, and he died in the end of June in the temple he had built on Parvati hill close to the south of Poona.

Though under Báláji the Marátha power was at its highest, and though the Maráthás praise the time of his rule, Báláji owed more to his father and grandfather and to his brother Raghunáthráv and his cousin Sadáshivráv than he owed to himself. He was

Chapter VI History. Marathas, 1720-1817.

> *Udgir*, *1760*.

Pánipat, 1761. History.

MARÁTHÁS,
1720-1817.

Condition,
1714-1760.

lazy sensual and dissipated, but kind generous and charitable. He loved intrigue and hated violence. He had great address, polished manners, and considerable political sagacity, tempered by a cunning which passed for wisdom. Though perhaps less well-ordered than it became about thirty years later unfer Nana Fadnavis, under Báláji Bájiráv the administration of the country round Poona was greatly improved. Báláji Vishvanáth the first Peshwa (1714-1720) had done good by stopping revenue-farming, by granting land on cheap leases, and by encouraging villagers to protect themselves from the exactions of petty chiefs. Still, till about 1750, the country round Poona was full of turbulence and disorder. Báláji Bájiráv appointed mámlatdárs and subhedárs to the different districts and over them in the more distant parts placed a sarsubhedár or provincial governor. Poona and the other lands between the Godávari and the Krishna, though the best protected territories under Marátha rule, had no governor. Instead of being under a governor they were under the Peshwa's favourites and courtiers. who had absolute police, revenue, and judicial power. They stayed at court, governed by deputy, allowed their districts to fall into disorder, paid to the state but a small share of their revenues, and furnished no accounts. Báláji Bájiráv was too indolent to reform But Sadáshivráv, acting on a policy which was started these abuses. by Rámchandra Bába Shenvi, appointed a governor or sarsubhedár, and, in spite of opposition which in one case had to be met by force. compelled the managers of the districts to produce their accounts and to pay the state its share of the revenue. A respectable Shastri was placed at the head of justice and the police was greatly improved. These reforms and the Peshwa's success in war, which enriched the Deccan with the spoils of great part of India, improved the state of the people. The Marátha peasantry have ever since blessed the days of Báláji Bájiráv, or as he was commonly called Nána Sáheb Peshwa.²

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Though power had so entirely passed from the Sátára chief that he had to get leave from the Peshwa to appoint an agent to collect his dues as hereditary deshmukh of Indápur, Báláji's second son Mádhavráv, then in his seventeenth year, in September 1761 went to Sátára to receive investiture. The young Mádhavráv and his uncle Raghunáthráv who was appointed regent had to face the difficulties which the ruin of Panipat had brought upon the heads of the Marátha empire. The first difficulty was in the Konkan where the English sided with the Sidi of Janjira, saved his state from destruction by the Maráthás, and forced the Maráthás to restore part of the Sidi's lands which they had taken. Raghunáthráv agreed to these terms because he knew that Nizam Ali was collecting a large force in the hope of winning back the territories which had been lost to Haidarabad by the defeat of Udgir in 1760. The Peshwa's finances were low and the Marátha nobles held back from coming to the Peshwa's help. Raghunáthráv, in the hope

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 307. ² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 320-322. ³ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 324.

of securing the services of English troops, offered the Bombay Government large cessions of territory, near Jambusar in Gujarát. What the Bombay Government wanted was the island of Salsette but this Raghunáthráv was most unwilling to give. While negotiations went on, the Moghal army ad advanced close to Ahmadnagar. At Toka about forty-five miled east of Ahmadnagar the Musalmans destroyed some Hindu temples, and most of the Maráthás in their army deserted to the Peshwa carrying with them Mir Moghal Nizám-ul-Mulk's youngest son. The Moghals, though opposed with spirit, continued to advance. At last in 1762, within fourteen miles of Poona, negotiations were opened and on the cession of land in Aurangabad and Bedar yielding £270,000 (Rs. 27 lákhs) a year the Moghal army retired. When the danger from the Moghals was at an end Raghunáthráv's anxiety for English soldiers ceased, and the negotiations about ceding Salsette to the English were rudely broken off.1

When the treaty with the Nizám was concluded, Mádhavráv the young Peshwa, attended by Trimbakráv Máma the maternal uncle of the late Sadáshivráv, was sent south to collect the revenue, and Nizám Ali returned towards Bedar.² Shortly after Mádhavráy returned to Poona, his anxiety to share in the administration brought on disputes between him and his uncle Raghunáthráv. Raghunáthráv, Sakhárám Bhagavant Bokil better known as Sakhárám Bápu, and several other ministers resigned. Mádhavráv promptly asked Trimbakráv Máma to act as minister or diván. and next under Trimbakráv appointed Gopálráv Govind Patvardhan, Jágirdár of Miraj. At the same time Mádhavráv chose as his personal agents, or kárkuns, Haripant Phadke and Báláji Janárdan Bhánu, afterwards the famous Nána Fadnavis. The failure of his plan to force Mádhavráv to keep him in power and the mutual hatred of Anand: al Raghunáthrav swife and Gonikábái Mádhavráv's mother are curaged Raghunáthráv that he retired from Násik to Annadragar, Shivner, and territory yielding £510,000 (Rs. 51 lákhs), he was assisted by a Moghal army, with which half-way between Poona and Ahmadnagar he met and defeated Mádhavráv. Mádhavráv saw that a war between him and his uncle must cause a complete split in the Marátha state. He accordingly threw himself into Raghunáthráv's power, who placed him in confinement but treated him with respect. Raghunáthráv, being now in uncontrolled power, appointed Sakhárám Bápu and Nilkanthráv Purandhare his principal ministers, bestowing on Sakhárám an estate worth £90,000 (Rs. 9 lákhs) and giving Nilkanthráv the command of Purandhar He raised his own infant son Bháskarráv to the office of Pratinidhi or deputy, and made Náro Shankar his deputy. These and other changes gave much offence, and, when, to gratify personal hatred, Raghunáthráv took the fort of Miraj from Gopálráv

Chapter VII
History.
MARÁTHÁS.

1720 - 1817.

¹ Grant Duff's Marathas, 325.

Colonel Wilks does not mention this expedition into the Karnatak.

History.

Patvardhan, Gopálráv and many Marátha nobles went over to the Nizám.

Maráth/. 1720-1817.

In the war which followed the Marátha troops ravaged the Nizam's country; and Nizam Ali advanted and plundered Poona, taking much property and destroying and burning all houses which were not ransomed. Shortly after, in 1763, the violence of the rains forced the Moghals to withdraw to Aurangabad. In the same year Jánoji Bhonsla, who had been won to the Nizám's side by the promise of the Sátára regency, found the Nizám's promises deceptive and returned to the Peshwa. In the battle which followed at Rakisbon or Tandulja, in great measure owing to the courage and military talent of Mádhavráv, the Maráthás gained a complete victory. After peace was concluded with the Nizam, on the death of Raghunáthráv's son Bháskarráv, Bhavánráv was restored to his rank of Pratinidhi, Miraj was given back to Gopálráv Patvardhan, and on Báláji Janárdan Bhánu afterwards known as Nána Fadnavis was bestowed the office of Fadnavis. In 1764 a large army was assembling at Poona to act against Haidar Ali who had risen to power on the ruins of the Hindu state of Maisur. Mádhavráv insisted on his right to command this army while his uncle remained at Poona to conduct the government. Sakhárám Bápu joined in supporting Mádhavráv. Raghunáthráv yielded but retired in anger to A'nandveli near Nasik. These discussions delayed the Peshwa's advance, and, before he could reach the Karnátak, Gopálráv Patvardhan was defeated by Haidar's general Fazalulla Khán with great loss. Mádhavráv was more successful. In the month of May he entered the Karnátak with an army of 30,000 horse and about the same number of infantry and near Annavatti inflicted a severe defeat on Haidar Ali. This led to a treaty under which Haidar engaged to restore all places wre-ted from Murárráv Ghorpade, to relinquish all claims on the Nawab . Savanur, and to pay £320,000 (Rs. 32 lakhs) to the Peshwa. After the treaty was concluded Madhavrav left the Karnatak and recrossed the Krulma by the end of February 1765. The ill feeling between Madhavrav and Raghunáthráv continued to be fostered by the hatred of Gopikábái and Anandibái. As Mádhavráv knew that Raghunáthráv could at this time gain the aid either of Nizám Ali or of Jánoji Bhonsla, he, in 1766, concluded a secret alliance with Nizam Ali who hoped to persuade Mádhavráv to join him in attacking Haidar Ali. During the same year Nizam Ali entered into an alliance with the English with the object of overthrowing Haidar and restraining the spread of the Marathas. In 1767 Madhavrav, who probably felt that the combination of the English and Nizam must be partly directed against him, advanced by himself into the Karnátak, levied £300,000 (Rs. 30 lákhs) from Haidar and £170,000 (Rs. 17 lákhs) from other powers in the Karnátak, and returned to the Deccan before the Nizám had taken the field. The English and the Nizám sent envoys to claim part of the Marátha plunder, but they were treated with broad and undisguised ridicule.1

In 1768 Mr. Mostyn came to Poona as envoy from the Bombay Government to try and secure an assurance that the Peshwa would not join in alliance with Haidar and the Nizam. Madhavrav refused to give any promise and told the envoy that he would be guided In Ap I of the same year, with the help of by circumstances. Damáji Gáikwár and Gang'idhar Yashvant the diván of Holkar, Raghunáthráv collected a large army at Násik and marched about fifty-five miles north to the neighbourhood of the hill fort of Dhodap. As he was waiting at Dhodap in the hope of being joined by Jánoji Bhonsla of Berár, Mádhavráv surprised Raghunáthráv's army, took him prisoner, and carried him to Poona where he confined him in the Peshwa's palace. In 1769 to punish Jánoji for the support he had given to Raghunáthráv, the Peshwa advanced towards Berár, and Jánoji wheeled to the west and began to plunder the country on the way to Poona. After Poona was destroyed by Nizám Ali in 1763, Madhavrav had proposed to surround it with a wall. This design was afterwards abandoned on the ground that no fortified plain city could be as safe as Sinhgad and Purandhar. On Jánoji's approach the people of Poona sent off their property. Mádhavráv ordered Gopálráv Patvardhan and Rámchandra Ganesh to move against Jánoji with 30,000 horse, but Gopálráv was in league with Jánoji and took no steps to stop his plundering. Mádhávráv shortly after was forced to make a treaty with Jánoji. He next ordered Visáji Krishna Binivále, accompanied by Rámchandra Ganesh, Tukoji Holkar, and Mahádji Sindia the illegitimate son of Ránoji Sindia and the successor in the family estates of his nephew Jankoji, to start at once with an army to Málwa. In spite of these urgent orders Mádhavráv, two or three days after, when riding to his favourite village of Theur thirteen miles east of Poona, found Mahadji's camp without a sign of moving. He instantly sent word to Mahádji, that if on his return from Theur he found a tent standing or his troops in sight he would plunder the camp and take his estates. This expedition to Northern India was extremely successful, and a heavy tribute was imposed on Though so constantly pressed by wars and rebellions, the Játs. Mádhávráv did much to improve the civil government of his country. His efforts were greatly aided by the celebrated Rám Shástri, an upright and pure judge in almost universal corruption. One of Mádhavráv's first acts was to stop the practice of forcing villagers to carry baggage without pay. The practice was so common, that the order putting a stop to it occasioned much discontent and many of the leading men disregarded the order. Mádhavráv, who had an excellent system of spies learned that some valuable articles belonging to the subhedár of Bassein were being carried by forced labour. He seized and confiscated the property, and levied a heavy fine to repay the people for being taken from their fields. He issued fresh orders, which none who knew his system of spies dared to disobey. In the fair season of 1770, Mádhavráv had leisure to turn his attention to the Karnátak, where Haidar Ali, having made peace with the English, not only evaded the Maratha demands but levied contributions on the Peshwa's vassals. To punish this insult, in November, Mádhavráv sent forward a large body of horse under Gopálráv Patvardhan and Malhárráv Rástia, himself following at

Chapter VII History. MARÁTHÁS, 1720-1817. Chapter VII. History.

Maráthás, 1720 - 1817.

D th of Máa v vráv, 1 2.

the head of 20,000 horse and 15,000 foot. His progress was successful and he reduced several places of strength. In June an attack of the disease which was wasting him, a consumption which he believed was brought on by the curse of the mother of the Kolhapur chief, forced Madhavrav to return to Foons, leaving Trimbakrav Mama to carry on the war. In 1771, at soon as the season allowed, Mádhavráv marched from Poona intending to join Trimbakráv Máma. He was again taken ill, and made over the command to Apa Balvant who defeated Haidar and forced him to come to terms. During the rainy season Mádhavráv's health so greatly improved that he seemed to have shaken off his disease. But in March This attack was pronounced incurable, 1772 his sickness returned. and on the morning of the 18th of November he died at Theur in the 28th year of his age. He left no children, and his widow Ramábái, who had a great love for him, burnt herself with his body. death of Madhavrav, says Grant Duff, occasioned no immediate commotion. Like his own disease it was at first scarcely perceptible, but the root which nourished the far-spreading tree was cut from the The plains of Pánipat were not more fatal to the Marátha empire than the early end of this excellent prince, brave, prudent, fond of his people, firm, and successful. Mádhavráv, who is known as Thorale or Great Mádhavráv, is entitled to special praiso for his support of the weak against the oppressive, of the poor against the rich, and, so far as the constitution of society admitted, for his justness. Mádhavráv started nothing new. He improved the existing system, tried to cure defects without changing forms, and restrained a corruption which he could not remove. The efficiency of his early government was clogged rather than aided by the abilities of Sakhárám Bápu. The old minister's influence was too great for his young master's talents. All useful acts were set down to Sakhárám Bápuand all that was unpleasant to Mádhavráv, an allotment of praise and blame, which Madhavrav's irritable and ungoverned temper seemed to justify. When, shortly after Raghunáthráv's confinement (1768), Mádhavráv removed Sakhárám, he allowed Moroba his successor to do nothing without his orders, and established a system of intelligence which gave him prompt and exact information regarding both domestic and foreign events.

For some time before Mádhavráv's death Raghunáthráv's confinement had been much relaxed. As his nephew's health declined, Raghunáthráv opened intrigues with Haidar Ali and the Nizám to obtain his freedom and secure his succession as Peshwa. During Madhavrav's last illness the ministers intercepted the correspondence. Nineteen persons were sent to hill forts, and Raghunáthráv's confinement would have become stricter than ever, had not Madhavrav, feeling that death was near, interposed, observing that it was natural for his uncle to desire his liberty. His sound discrimination showed him that his brother would fail to conduct the administration if Raghunáthráv were neither effectually restrained nor conciliated. Judging conciliation better than restraint, he appointed Raghunáthráv's friend Sakhárám Bápu minister, and summoned Raghunáthráv to Theur and there solemnly placed his vounger brother Náráyanráv under Raghunáthráv's charge. Shortly

before Mádhavráv's death Mr. Thomas Mostyn, of the Bombay Civil Service, came to live at Poona as an envoy of the British Government. In December 1772 Náráyanráv, the third of Báláji Bájiráv's sons, then seventgen years old went to Sátára and was invested as Peshwa. Sakha am Bapu received the robes of prime minister under the name di kárbhári, Bajába Purandhare was appointed minister or diván, and Nána Fadnavis was appointed recorder or fadnavis.2 Náráyanráv and Raghunáthráv for some time continued in apparent friendship. But the old hatred between Náráyanráv's mother Gopikábái and Raghunáthráv's wife Ánandıbái, and the jealousy of the Brahman ministers soon produced discord, and, on the 11th of April 1773, Raghunáthráv was confined in a room in the palace in which Narayanrav usually lived when at Poona. Nana Fadnavis stood high in Náráyanráv's favour, but Bajába Purandhare and Haripant Phadke were his chief confidants. The conduct of the leading affairs of state nominally continued with Sakharam Bapu, but the favourites were opposed to his power. Náráyanráv, who had a longing for military fame, looked forward with eagerness to the next season's campaign in the Karnátak. Troops were told to be in readiness, and orders were despatched to recall the armies from North India. On the morning of the 30th of August a commotion broke out among the Peshwa's regular infantry in Poona. Towards noon the disturbance so greatly increased that Náráyanráv, before going to dine, told Haripant Phadke to restore order. Haripant neglected these instructions and went to dine with a friend. the afternoon, Náráyanráv, who had retired to rest, was wakened by a tumult in the palace, where a large body of infantry, led by two men named Sumersing and Muhammad Yusuf, were demanding arrears of pay. Kharaksing who commanded the palace guard Instead of entering the open main gate, joined the rioters. they made their way through an unfinished door on the east side, which, together with the wall round the palace, had shortly before been pulled down to make an entrance distinct from the entrance to Raghunáthráv's quarter. On starting from sleep Náráyanráv, closely pursued by Sumersing, ran to his uncle's room. He threw himself into his uncle's arms, and called on him to save him. Raghunáthráv begged Sumersing to spare his life. I have not gone thus far to ensure my own destruction replied Sumersing; let him go, or you shall die with him. Raghunáthráv disengaged himself and got out on the terrace. Náráyanráv attempted to follow him, but Tralia Povár an armed Marátha servant of Raghunáthráv's, seized him by the leg, and pulled him down. As Náráyanráv fell, Chápáji Tilekar, one of his own servants, came in, and though unarmed rushed to his master. Náráyanráv clasped his arms round Chápáji's neck, and Sumersing and Tralia slew them both with their swords. Meanwhile

Chapter VII.

History.

Markthis,
1720-1817.

Nardyanrav

Ballai,
Fifth Peshwa,
1772-1773.

Náráyanráv Murdered, 80th August 1773.

2 The first object of the new administration was the reduction of Raygad in Kolaba (1773) which was held by the Moghals. Grant Duff's Marathas, 359.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 371. The appointment of envoy was made under instructions from the Court of Directors. The object of the appointment nominally was to keep the different Presidencies informed of the movements and intentions of the Maráthás. The real object of the mission was to obtain the cession of Salsette and the islands of the Bombay harbour.

Chapter VII. History.

> Maráthás, 1720-1817.

the conspirators secured the whole of the outer wall of the palace. The tumult passed to the city, armed men thronged the streets, the shops were shut, and the townsmen ran to and fro in consternation. Sakharam Bapu went to the police magistrate's office and there heard that Raghunathrav had sent assurance, to the people that all was quiet. Sakhárám Bápu directed Haripunt Phadke to write a note to Raghunáthráv. Raghunáthráv answered telling him that some soldiers had murdered his nephew. Haripant declared that Raghunathray was the murderer and fled to Bárámati. Sakhárám Bápu told the people to go to their homes and that no one would harm them. On that night Bajába Purandhare and Máloji Ghorpade had an interview with Raghunáthráy, and Trimbakráy Máma bore off Náráyanráy's body and burnt it. Visitors were received at the palace. Mr. Mostyn, the English envoy and the different agents paid their respects, but Raghunáthráv remained in confinement, detained, as was said, by the conspirators as a security for the payment of their arrears. Raghunáthráv was suspected, but there was no proof. He was known to have loved his nephew, and the ministers decided that, until the contrary was proved, Raghunáthráv should be held innocent and be accepted as the new Peshwa. Rám Shástri approved of this At the same time he made close inquiries. After about six weeks he found a paper from Raghunáthráv to Sumersing, giving him authority to slay Náráyanráy. Rám Shástri showed this paper to Raghunáthráv, who admitted that he had given an order, but persisted that his order was to seize Nárávanráv, not to slay him. Examination of the paper confirmed Raghunáthráv's statement, showing that the word dharave seize had been changed to marave kill. This change it was generally believed was the work of Anandibai Raghunathrav's wife; it was also believed that it was under her orders that the servant Tralia Povár had taken part in Náráyanráv's murder. When Raghunáthráy confessed his share in Náráyanráy's murder, he asked Ram Shastri what atonement he could make. The sacrifice of your life, replied the Shastri, is the only atonement. The Shastri refused to stay longer in Poona with Raghunáthráv at the head of affairs, left the city, and spent the rest of his life in retirement near Vái. Meanwhile the arrears of pay were discharged, Raghunáthráv was released, and his adopted son Amritrav, attended by Bajaba Purandhare, was sent to Sátára to bring the robes of office. Raghunáthráv was proclaimed Peshwa. Sakharam Bapu was confirmed as prime minister or kárbhári; and Chinto Vithal and Sadáshiv Rámchandra the son of Ramchandra Baba Shenvi were the most confidential of Raghunathráv's advisers. Náráyanráv was murdered in his eighteenth year. His follies, which were the follies of a boy, have been blackened into crimes by the feelings and interests of his rivals. He was affectionate to his relations, kind to his servants, and loved by all but his By the end of the rainy season (November 1773) the Peshwa's army in North India under Visáji Krishna returned to Poona. They had defeated an attempt of the emperor Shah Alam II. to free himself from Marátha control, and had greatly strengthened Marátha power at the Delhi court.1 Haidar Ali of Maisur

Raghunáthráv, Sixth Peshwa, 1773 - 1774. and Nizam Ali of Haidarabad lost little time in taking advantage of the disorders at Poona. Raghunáthráv resolved to oppose Nizám Ali and cripple his power. It was when the army had marched and Raghunathrav was leaving Poona, that Ram Shastri produced the proof of Raghunáthráv's ki wledge of the plot against Náráyanráv and stated that so long as Laghunáthráv remained at the head of affairs he would never return to Poona. Though the other ministers did not openly withdraw from Raghunáthrav's support they soon became estranged from his councils, and Sadáshiv Rámchandra, Chinto Vithal, A'baji Mahadev, and Sakharam Hari, the persons of whom he made choice, were ill qualified to supply their place. Sakhárám Bápu and Nána Fadnavis on different pretences withdrew from the army and returned to Poona. They were soon followed by Ganpatráv Rástia, Bábáji Náik Bárámatikar, and several other persons of consequence. Except Bajaba Purandhare, Moroba Fadnavis was the last of Raghunáthráv's minister to quit his camp. All but Raghunáthráv and his dependents saw there was some scheme on foot.2

The leading members of the Poona ministry were Sakhárám Bápu, Trimbakráv Máma, Nána and Moroba Fadnavis, Bajába Purandhare, Anandrav Jivaji, and Haripant Phadke. All these men had been raised by the Peshwa's family and had no connection with Shiváji's and Sháhu's eight ministers. leaders of the ministry were Nána Fadnavis and Haripant Phadke. It was found that Gangábái Náráyanráv's widow was pregnant, and it was determined that she should be taken for safety to Purandhar, and, according to some accounts, that other pregnant Bráhman women should be sent with her that the risk of mishap might be avoided and the chance of Gangábái's child proving a girl be amended. On the morning of the 30th of January 1774, Nana Fadnavis and Haripant Phadke carried Gangábái from Poona to Purandhar. She was accompanied by Párvatibái, the widow of Sadáshivráv, a lady held in high respect, and the reason of her removal was publicly announced. The ministers formed a regency under Gangábái and began to govern in her name. All the adherents of Raghunáthráv, who, by this time had advanced beyond Ballari, were thrown into confinement. Negotiations were opened with Nizam Ali and Sábáji Bhonsla, both of whom agreed to support Gangábái and a widespread intrigue in Raghunáthráv's camp was organized by Krishnaráv Balvant. When Raghunáthráv heard of the revolt in Poona, with the Pant Pratinidhi and Murárráv Ghorpade, he began to march towards the city. Haripant Phadke came from Poona to meet him at the head of a division, while Trimabkráv Máma and Sábáji Bhonsla were advancing from Purinda. On the 4th of March 1774 Raghunathrav met and defeated the minister's troops under Haripant Phadke near Pandharpur in Sholapur. The news of this defeat filled Poons with alarm. The people packed their property and

Chapter VII. History. MARÁTHÁS: 1720-1817.

> Gangábái'e Regency, 30th January 1774,

¹ The nephew or grandson of Bápuji Náik Bárámatikar, who was married to the aunt of Báláji Bájiráv and who endeavoured with the support of Raghuji Bhonsla to purchase the office of Peshwa in 1740.

Grant Duff's Maráthás, 365.

в 1327 - 33

Chapter VII.

History.

Markthis,
1720-1817.

Madhavrav
Nardyan,
Seventh Peshwa,
1774-1795.

fled for safety to retired villages and hill forts. Instead of marching on Poona Raghunáthráv passed north to receive the aid of Holkar, Sindia, Gáikwár, and the English. On the 18th of April 1774, a son was born to Gangábái, Náráyanráv's widow. In Grant Duff's opinion, notwithstanding he suspicious circumstances which formed part of the minister's scheme, there is little doubt that the child was the son of the murdered Narayanrav. The child was named Mádhavráv Náráyan, afterwards known as Savái Mádhavráv. Gangábái sent Sakhárám Bápu and Nána Fadnavis to receive herson's robes of investiture, which the Raja sent from Satara in charge of Nilkanthráv Purandhare. The infant Mádhavráv was formally installed Peshwa when he was forty days old. I Jealousy soon sprang up among the ministers. Nana Fadnavis was too cautious to take the lead and supported Sakhárám Bápu as the head of the government. This conduct was as much due to timidity as to design. Sakhárám Bápu was an old, cautious, time-serving courtier, but he was a man of much more courage than Nána, and, in his humble and assiduous colleague and adherent, he did not see a future rival and a powerful foe. So great was Sakhárám Bápu's influence that his secession would have ruined the minister's cause. Nána's position was greatly strengthened by Gangábái's passion for him. He could thoroughly trust her and teach her the best means of governing the old ministers. Nána's cousin Moroba, who had been Mádhavráv's ostensible prime minister, was dissatisfied to find that little deference was paid to his counsel. If he could have done it with safety and made sure of a future rise to power, he would readily have gone back to Raghunáthráv. Such of the other ministers as would not submit to Sakhárám and Nána were soon united in common discontent. This split among the ministers became generally known by the discovery of a correspondence on the part of Moroba, Bajába, and Bábáji Náik with Raghunáthráy. Letters intercepted by Haripant near Burhánpur showed that these three had formed a plan to secure Sakhárám Bápu, Nána, Gangábái, and the infant Mádhavráv, all of whom, during the rains, to escape the chill damps of Purandhar, had come to live in Sasvad. They heard of this conspiracy on the 30th of June, and with undissembled panic fled to the fort. The discovery of their plot defeated the designs of the feeble triumvirate. The ministers sentagents through the country to blacken the crimes of Raghunáthráv and hold forth on the justice of the ministers' cause. At the same time they breathed nothing but union and concord. They determined to gain Raghunáthráv's absolute submission; and their active and judicious preparations for war showed that they understood the best means of ensuring peace.2 When Raghunáthráv passed north instead of marching on Poona he sent an agent to the British resident with hurried and vague applications for aid in men and money. The British were willing to help him, but before any agreement could be made he had retired too far for communication from Poona. Negotiations were next opened with Mr. Gambier the English chief or civil governor of Surat. In the latter part of 1774

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 368.

the ministers won both Sindia and Holkar to their side and sent an army of 30,000 men under Haripant Phadke to pursue Raghunáthráv. In the beginning of 1775 Sakhárám and Nána returned to Purandhar and from it transacted all affairs. On the 6th of March 1775 Raghunáthráv entered into treaty with the English, which is known as the treaty of Surat. With their help he went to Cambay in Gujarát, and on the plain of Arás about ten miles east of Anand in Kaira, defeated Haripant Phadke and his adherent Fatchsing Gáikwár. This news caused the ministerial party great alarm. Nizam Ali pressed them hard, professed sympathy with Raghunáthráv, and doubts of the legitimacy of the young Mádhavráv, and, to remain quiet, received a grant of land worth £180,000 (Rs.18 lákhs) a year. The Marátha nobles had no dislike to Raghunáthráv, and, if the next campaign proved as successful as the last, would probably have made no objection to his being named regent of the young Mádhavráv. Raghunáthráv was disliked by many Poons Bráhmans, even by those who did not believe he was a party to the murder of Náráyanráv. The bulk of the people seemed to have no stronger feeling against him than that he was unlucky.2 The success which had attended the efforts of the English to help Raghunáthráv and the advantages the English had gained by their alliance were lost by the action of the lately arrived members of the Bengal Council, who, contrary to the opinion of the President, Mr. Hastings, declared the Bombay treaty with Ragunáthráv impolitic, dangerous, unauthorised, and unjust, and sent Colonel Upton to Poona to conclude a treaty between the ministers and the Bombay Government.* This ill-judged interference strengthened the hands of the ministers at Purandhar and ultimately cemented the tottering Marátha confederacy under the administration of Nána Fadnavis. In December 1776 Sakhárám Bápu received a letter from the Governor General stating that the Bombay Government had acted beyond

Chapter VII. History. Marathas. 1720 - 1817. Treaty of Surat,

¹ Under the treaty of Surat the Bombay Government engaged at once to send 500 Lunder the treaty of Surat the Bombay Government engaged at once to send 500 European and 1000 Native troops with a due proportion of artillery to help Raghunáthráv. They pledged themselves to make up the number to 700 or 800 Europeans and 1700 sepoys, with gun-lascars, artificers, and pioneers, the whole amounting to 3000 men. Raghunáthráv engaged on account of 2500 men to pay £150,000 (Rs. 1½ lákks) a month with a proportionate increase or decrease according to the number of men supplied. As a security for the payment he made over temporarily the districts of Amod, Hánsot, Balsár, and part of Anklesvar in Central Gunarát, and caded in pernetuity Bassein with its dependencies, the in Central Gujarát, and coded in perpetuity Bassein with its dependencies, the island of Salsette, and the other islands; the districts of Jambusar and Olpád in Central Gujarát; and an assignment of Rs. 75,000 annually upon Anklesvar in Broach, the whole amounting to £192,500 (Rs. 19,25,000) a year. He engaged to procure the cession of the Gaikwar's share of the revenue of Broach, and to pay all procure the cession of the Gairwar's share of the revenue of Broach, and to pay an expenses the Company might incur in obtaining possession of the specified cessions, which were to be considered as belonging to them from the date of the treaty. As Raghunáthráv was destitute of other funds, he deposited jewels valued at upwards of £60,000 (Rs. 6 lákhs) as a security for the promised advance, pledging himself to redeem them. The protection of the Company's possessions in Bengal and those of their ally the Nawáb of Arkot was also provided for; and all British ships or vessels sailing under the protection of the British flag which might have the misfortune to be wrecked on the Marátha coast were to be given to the owners. Grant Duff's Maráthás 377. In 1802 the iswals were restored to Báirráy as a free gift Grant Duff's Maráthás, 377. In 1803 the jewels were restored to Bájiráv as a free gift from the Company. Ditto.

Grant Duff's Maráthás, 387.

Grant Duff's Maráthás, 380, 391.

Chapter VII.

History.

MARATHAS,
1720-1817.

their powers in going to war without the sanction of the Bengal Government, that they had been ordered to withdraw their troops, and that an envoy had been sent to conclude peace.1 Colonel Upton arrived at Purandhar on the 28th of December 1775. The ministers took full advantage of the power which the mistaken policy of the Bengal Government had flaced in their hands. assumed a high tone of demand and menace, which Colonel Upton judged to be firm and sincere. Colonel Upton though upright and moderate was ill-qualified to conduct a negotiation with Marátha Brahmans. The ministers greatly extolled the just and honourable motives which had determined the great Governor of Calcutta to order peace to be concluded. But when Colonel Upton proposed that the English should keep Salsette and the islands in the Bombay harbour, the cession of Bassein which they had obtained in the late war together with the revenue of Broach, the ministers were astonished that a Government which had so justly condemned the war could be so ready to keep the fruits of it. Colonel Upton argued that Salsette was taken possession of as a precautionary measure long deemed necessary to the safety of Bombay, and the prosperity of its commerce. But the ministers would listen to nothing. They had been put to immense expense by keeping armies idle at the wish of the Bengal Government, which, if they had not been interfered with, would have long since settled the whole matter. They demanded the immediate surrender of Raghunáthráv and the entire restoration of the territory occupied by the Bombay Government since the beginning of the war. If Raghunáthráv was given up and all the territory restored, the ministers as a favour to the Governor General would pay £120,000 (Rs. 12 lákhs) to reimburse the East India Company for the expenses incurred by the Bombay They seconded their arguments with threats, and Government. mistook the mild remonstrances of the envoy for timidity. As Colonel Upton could not agree to these proposals on the 17th of February he wrote to the Governor General that he supposed negotiations were at an end. But almost immediately after they had carried their menaces to the highest pitch the ministers agreed to the greater part of Colonel Upton's original demands. Before accounts had time to reach Calcutta that the negotiations were broken off the treaty of Purandhar was settled and signed on the 1st of March 1776. The chief provisions were that Salsette or a territory yielding £30,000 (Rs. 3,00,000), and Broach and territory worth £30,000 (Rs. 3,00,000) more should be left with the English and £120,000 (Rs. 12 lákhs) paid to them on account of war expenses; that the treaty with Raghunáthráv was annulled; that the English were to return to garrison and Raghunáthráv's army be disbanded within a month; and that Raghunáthráv was to get an establishment and live at Kopargaon on the Godávari. The Bombay Govern-

Treaty of Purandhar, 1776.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 392.

⁹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 393-394. The Peshwa's name was not mentioned in the treaty. The ministers Nána and Sakhárám probably left out the name, that in case the child Mádhavráv should die Gangábái might adopt another son.

ment still clung to Raghunáthráv's cause and received him with 200 followers at Surat, where he appealed to the Directors and to the King. The ministers threatened war if Raghunáthráv's army was not disbanded. To this the Bombay Government paid no attention, and their position way strengthened by the arrival at Bombay on the 20th of August 1176 and again in November 1777, of despatches from the Court of Directors approving the Bombay treaty of Surat with Raghunáthrav, and consuring the great and unnecessary sacrifice of the Bengal treaty of Puraudhar with the Though hostilities had ceased, peace was not established. In October 1776 a man claiming to be Sadáshiv Chimnáji, the leader of the Maráthás at Pánipat, with the support of the Rombay Government possessed himself of the greater part of the Konkan and seized the Bor pass and Rájmáchi fort. Near Rájmáchi he was attacked and defeated by a ministerial force, fled to Kolába, was given up by Angria, and was dragged to death at an elephant's footin Poona. On the 11th of November Raghunáthráv was allowed to live in Bombay and an allowance of £1000 (Rs. 10,000) a month was settled on him. In November Colonel Upton was recalled from Poona and Mr. Mostyn was sent as envoy in his place. The Poona ministers next showed their dislike to the English by trying to establish their enemies the French in a position of power in Western India. At Poona an agent of France was received with distinction and Mr. Mostyn was treated with studied coldness. In the middle of March 1777 several Frenchmen, who landed at Cheul in Kolaba went to Poona, and, early in May 1777, one of them St. Lubin was received in Poona as an ambassador from France. The port of Cheul was promised to the French and an agreement made for the introduction of troops and warlike supplies.3 Though the treaty of Purandhar and the suppression of Sadáshiv's rising had strengthened the ministers' government in the Deccan, in the Bombay Karnátak they had suffered several reverses from Haidar and the Kolhapur chief. In September 1777, Gangábái the infant Peshwa's mother died from a drug taken to conceal the effects of her intimacy with Nána Fadnavis. In October 1777, Mr. Hornby the Governor of Bombay reviewed the position of the Poona ministers, and showed how their difficulties were increased by Sindia's and Holkar's want of support, by the defection of other Marátha nobles, by Haidar's victories, and by Gangábai's death. The effect of Mr. Hornby's minute must have been greatly increased at Calcutta by the length which Nána's hate of the English carried him in his dealings with St. Lubin and by the Directors' despatch received in November 1777 strongly censuring the Calcutta treaty of Purandhar, and, under

Chapter VII History. MARATHÁS, 1720-1820.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 396.

² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 398.

³ Account of Bombay (1781). St. Lubin had been in India before. Though he was not an ambassador, St. Lubin had authority from the French to find what advantage could be gained from an alliance with the Maráthás. He offered Nana to bring 2500 Europeans and 10,000 disciplined sepoys, and abundance of war stores.

⁴ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 404.

Chapter VII. History. Maráthás, 1720-1817.

suitable circumstances approving an alliance with Raghunáthráv.¹ Meanwhile (1778) at Poona dissensions among the misterial party increased. Nana Fadnavis despised the abilities of his cousin Moroba Fadnavis, but, with a Brahman's caution, he was at more pains to conceal his contempt than Ais enmity. Moroba was supported by all Raghunáthráv's partifins, particularly by Bajába Purandhare, Sakharam Hari, Chinto Vithal, Vishnu Narhar, and lately by Tukoji Holkar. Still Nána was confident, a spirit which Mr. Mostyn believed was due to assurance of support from France. After the death of Gangábái, Sakhárám began to be jealous of Nána and expressed a qualified approval of a plan to restore Raghunáthráv, and Moroba wrote to the Bombay Government proposing the restoration of Raghunáthtáv. The Bombay Government, who from Nána's dealings with the French were satisfied that their safety depended on a change of ministry at Poona, agreed to restore Ragunáthráv, provided Sakhárám Bápu, the chief authority in Poona, expressed his approval of the scheme in writing. The decision of the Bombay Government was approved by the Governor General. To help their plans and to counteract French designs in Western India, a force under Colonel Leslie was ordered to cross the continent, and place themselves under the orders of the Government of Bombay. Sakhárám Bápu refused to record in writing his approval of the plan to restore Raghunáthráv and further action was stopped. At Poona Nana attempted but failed to seize Moroba. In spite of this failure, with the help of Sakhárám Bápu and with the offer of a position in the ministry, Nána succeeded in inducing Moroba to join his party. The effect of this change was at first a loss to Nana. Moroba, with the help of Holkar's troops, was more powerful than Nana, who retired to Purandhar and agreed to the plan for bringing Raghunáthráv to Poona provided no harm should come to himself or his property. But Nana, by reminding Sakharam Bapu of the evil results of Raghunáthráv's former term of rule at Poona, persuaded Sakhárám Ranu and through Sakharam Bapu persuaded Moroba to give up the idea of bringing Raghunathrav back. The enjoyment of power under the existing arrangement and Nána's persuasion led Moroba still further to adopt Nana's views and favour St. Lubin and a French alliance.

The Bombay Government remonstrated with the ministers for keeping St. Lubin in favour in Poona. Nána saw that the English would not stand further friendship between the French and the Maráthás. He accordingly dismissed St. Lubin in July, and granted passports for the Bengal troops through Marátha territory on their way across India to counteract French influence in Western India. While dismissing St. Lubin, Nána assured him that if St. Lubin could bring a French corps to India he would grant the French an establishment in Marátha territories; and, while granting passports to the British for safe conduct through Marátha territory, Nána was sending secret orders to the Marátha officers and to the Bundelkhand chief to do

1 Grant Duff's Maráthás, 406.

² The force consisted of six battalions of sepoys, proportionate artillery, and some cavalry. Grant Duff's Maráthás, 406.

what they could to stop the English.1 Nana allowed Moroba to remain in power for about a year. On the 8th of June 1778 Haripant Phadke and Mahádji Sindia joined Nána at Purandhar and a bribe of £90,000 (Rs. 9 lákhs) removed the source of Moroba's strength by the transfer of Holkar from Moroba's interests to the interests of Nána.2 On the 11th of July 1778, Moroba was seized by a party of Sindia's horse, made over to Nána, and placed in confinement. wholeof Moroba's party were arrested except Sakharam Bapu, who, for the sake of the Purandhar treaty, had to be left at liberty.3 In spite of Nana's triumph, the Bombay Government resolved to continue their efforts to place Ragunáthráv in the regency, and directed Colonel Leslie to march on Junnar. At Poona, Nana Fadnavis on the plea of age, removed Sakhárám Bápu from the administration, and placed a body of Sindia's troops over his person and house. Self-mounted horsemen or shiledars were recruited all over the country and ordered to someble at the Dasara festival in October. In the different ports vessels were refitted, forts were provisioned and repaired, fresh instructions were despatched to harasa Leslie's march, and an agent was sent to Bombay to amuse the Government by making overtures to Raghunáthráy. This last deception failed, as the Bombay Government knew from Mr. Lewis what was going on in Poona.

On the 22nd of November 1778, under agreement with Raghunáthráv, an advanced party of British troops under Captain James Stewart, consisting of six companies of native grenadiers from different corps with a small detail of artillery, moved from the port of Apti in Kolába, took possession of the Bor pass without opposition, and encamped at Khandála. The main force landed at Panvel in Thána on the 25th November, but from delay in making a road for the guns up the Bor pass, they did not reach the top of the pass till the 23rd of December 1778. The force was under the command of Colonel Egerton and Mr. Carnac. It included 501 Europeans, 2273 Native Infantry and 500 gun lascars. They were accompanied by Raghanáthray, his adopted son Amritráv, and a few horse. Some skirmishing had taken place between Captain Stewart and small parties of the enemy. in which the British sepoys showed great zeal. At Knanuala Colonel Egerton, the commanding officer, reserving the advance as 'a separate corps under Captain Stewart, divided the main body of his force into two brigades, one commanded by Lieutenant Colonel Cay and the other by Lieutenant Colonel Cockburn. Through fairly level, though in places somewhat marshy land, these three divisions advanced at the rate of about three-quarters of a

Chapter VII | History.

MARATHAS, 1720 - 1817. Nána Fadnavis 1778.

> English Expedition 1778,

Grant Duff's Maráthás, 409-410.

Grant Duff's Maráthás, 401. Among the better type of Maráthás who devoted their lives to the attempt to place at the head of the state the generous soldier Raghunáthráv, instead of Nána the scheming and cowardly courtier, was a Káyastha Prabhu named Sakhárám Hari. Sakhárám, who had spent his life in Raghunáthráv's service and never wavered from his master's interest, was arrested with others of Morobá's party. He was chained in irons so heavy that, though a man of unusual strength he could hardly lift them. His allowance of food and water was slow starvation. Still at the end of fourteen months when too weak to rise, his spirit and his love for his master remained unshaken. My strength is gone, my life is going, when voice and breath fail my bones shall shout Raghunáthráv, Raghunáthráv.

Charter VII.

His. 7.

MARATHA
1720-1817.

Vadgaon,
1778.

mile a day, one division always occupying the ground which the other had quitted. In this way eleven days passed before they reached Kárla a village eight miles from the ground which Captain Stewart had occupied about six weeks before. The extraordinary slowness of this march jencouraged the enemy's advance guard, which under Bhivrav Yashvant Panse brought infantry, rockets and guns to harass them, but on every occasion were attacked and driven back with the greatest spirit. During the march from Khandála the army lost Lieutenant Colonel Cay an excellent officer, who was mortally wounded by a rocket on the 31st of December. A still more serious loss was at Kárla, on the 4th of January 1779, the death of Captain Stewart the leader of the advance, a true soldier active gallant and judicious, whose distinguished courage impressed the Maráthás that for years he was remembered as Stewart Phákde or Hero Stewart. This creeping advance of the Stewart Phákde or Hero Stewart. This creeping advance of the Bombay army gave Nána Fadnavis and Mahádji Sindia cumple time to gather their forces. As the chief signer of the Purandhar treaty Sakhárám Bápu could not well be longer kept under restraint, and, after a formal reconciliation, he nominally returned to his office of minister. Nána's military leaders were Mahádji Sindia, Haripant Phadke, and Tukeji Holkar. But, as in spite of his bribe of £90,000 (Rs. 9 lákhs), Nána mistrusted Holkar, he was kept in a position from which it was almost impossible for him to join Raghunáthráv. As the English drew near, the Maratha army advanced to Talegaon about twenty miles east of Khandala and eighteen miles west of Poona. On the 6th of January 1779, ill health forced Colonel Egerton to resign the command to Colonel Cockburn. Colonel Egerton started for Bombay, but as the Maráthás had cut off communications he was forced to return to the army where he continued a member of the committee. On the 9th of January 1779, when the Bombay army reached Talegaon, the Maráthas retired. The village was found to be burnt, and it was said that if the Bombay army advanced further Chinchwad and Poona would also be burnt. Though they were within eighteen miles or rooms and had stores and provisions for eighteen days the Committee, that is apparently Mr. Carnac, scared by the union and the determination of the Maráthás proposed a retreat. In vain Raghunáthráv, who had once led 50,000 of his countrymen from the Narbada to the Attok, pleaded for an action, one success would bring forward numbers of his partisans; in vain Mr. Reid, Mr. Mostyn's assistant stated that a party of horse in Moroba's interest were on their way from the Konkan; in vain Colonel Cockburn engaged to take the army to Poona and Captain Hartley and Mr. Holmes argued that if an advance was impossible negotiations should at least be begun before a retreat was ordered. The committee had determined to retreat and did not delay one day. At eleven on the night of the 11th of January the heavy guns were thrown into a pond, stores were burnt, and 2600 British troops began to retreat before 50,000 Maráthás. The Committee imagined their retreat

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 415. Mr. Lewis estimated the Marátha force at 35,000; the Maráthás at 100,000; Colonel Cockburn at 120,000; Grant Duff at 50,000.

would remain unknown. By two next morning, within three hours of their start, a party of Maráthás fired on the advanced guard; shortly after the rear also was attacked and the baggage plundered; at daybreak the army was surrounded and large bodies of horse were coming to the attack. The weight of the assault fell on the rear, composed of Hero Stewart's six companies of grenadiers and two guns now under the command of Captain Hartley a distinguished officer and well known to the men. Shortly after sunrise the rear was again attacked by the main body of the Maráthás, horse foot and guns. The sepoys fought with enthusiasm, the red wall, as Sindia said, building itself up again as soon as it was thrown down. Five companies of Europeans and two companies of sepoys were sent to support Captain Hartley, who, in spite of constant attacks, continued till noon to keep the Maratha force at bay. During the whole of the morning the main body of the army were engaged in returning the fire of the Marátha artillery and suffered little loss. About noon Major Frederick was sent to take the command in the rear. About an hour after Major Frederick was ordered to retire on the main body and the whole force moved to the village of Vaugaon Crowde of falloware pressed Where the edvence gneed was nested in and the entrance into Vadgaon was a scene of confusion and loss. At last the troops cleared themselves, drove off the Marátha horse, got guns into position, and by four in the afternoon the army had some respite. Early next morning (13th January 1779) the enemy's guns opened on the village and a body of infantry advanced to attack it. They were repulsed, but a feeling spread among some of the officers that the men were dispirited and were ready to desert. The commander's example encouraged this feeling. A further retreat was deemed impracticable, and Mr. Farmer the secretary of the committee was sent to negotiate; with the ministers. ministers demanded Raghunáthrav, but the committee were saved the disgrace of surrendering him, by Raghunáthráv's agreeing to give himself up to Sindia. The ministers, that is Nana and Sindia who between them held the real power, insisted that the committee should agree to surrender all the territory which the Bombey Government had acquired since the death of Madhavrav Ballal (1772), together with the Company's revenue in Broach and Surat which the Maráthás had never possessed. When these terms were laid before the committee Captain Hartley pleaded that one more effort might be made to retreat but his proposal was rejected. A message was sent to the ministers that the committee had no power to enter intoany treaty without the sanction of the Bombay Government. Still Mr. Carnac immediately after sent Mr. Holmes to Sindia with full power to conclude a treaty. Sindia, though highly flattered by this direct negotiation, gave in nothing from the Maratha demands, and Mr. Holmes had to agree that everything should be restored to the Maráthás as in 1772 and that a message should be sent to stop the

Chapter V History. MARATHA-1820 1817 Vadqaen, 1779.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 425.
2 The English loss on the 12th January was fifty-six killed, 151 wounded, 155 missing. Of the killed and wounded fifteen were European officers. Grant Duff's Maráthás, 417.

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hapter VII.

History.

MARATHAS,
1720-1817,

Vadgaon,
1779.

advance of the Bengal troops. Sindia's favour was parchased by a private promise to bestow on him the English share of Broach and by the gift of £4100 (Rs. 41,000) to his servants. The Bombay army, after leaving Mr. Farmer and Colonel Stewart as hostages, were allowed to withdraw.

Mr. Carnac's first act on reaching the Konkan was to suspend his order stopping the advance of the Bengal troops. When news of the disgrace at Vadgaon reached Bombay Mr. Hornby disavowed Mr. Carnac's power to make a treaty. On the 19th of February he proposed to the council that their object should be to secure peace so as to exclude the French from the Marátha dominions and to prevent the cession of English territory. He thought the £4100 (Rs. 41,000) spent in presents to Sindia's servants should be paid and the promise of the grant of Broach to Sindia confirmed.

Goddard's March, 1779,

The position of the English which was almost ruined by the disaster at Vadgaon was retrieved by the success of Goddard's march. On hearing that the Bombay army had suffered a defeat at Vadgaon, Goddard pressed on with speed from Rajegad in Bundelkhand and mached Surat on the 25th of February 1779. When news of Vadgaon reached the supreme Government they ordered Goddard, whom they had already appointed their plenipotentiary, to conclude a treaty with the Maráthás. The new treaty was to be on the basis of the Purandhar treaty with an additional article excluding the French from any establishment in Marátha territory. Goddard was also, if he gained the opportunity, to come to a separate arrangement with Sindia.4 Sindia who continued to keep Raghunáthráv in his power arranged that lands worth £1,200,000 (Rs. 1,20,00,000) a year should be settled on Raghunáthráy in Bundelkhand On his way to Bundelkhand Raghunáthráv escaped from his guard and reached Surat where he prayed General Goddard to give him shelter. Goddard agreed to shelter him (12th June 1779) and gave him an allowance of £5000 (Rs. 50,000) a month. The escape of Raghunáthráv caused some coldness between Nána and Sindia. This passed off and Holkar and Sindia with 15,000 horse agreed to oppose Goddard in Gujarát.5

When the rains of 1779 were over, as the Maráthás refused to come to terms, troops were sent from Bombay and overran North Thána and secured the revenue. On the 1st of January 1780 Goddard marched south from Surat to act with the Bombay troops. In December 1780 he captured Bassein, while Hartley defeated the Maráthás with heavy loss at the battle of Dugad about twenty miles north of Thána. After these successes in the Konkan, in the hope that a display of vigour would bring Nána to terms, Goddard advanced and took the Bor pass on the 1st of February 1781. Goddard kept his head-quarters at Khopivli or Kámpoli at the foot of the pass and sent proposals to Nána. Nána who was busy

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 418.

3 Grant Duff's Maráthás, 420.

3 Goddard's route lay through Multán, Khemlassa, Bhilsa, Bhopál, Hoshangabad, and Burhánpur. After refreshing his army at Burhánpur he resumed his march on the 6th of February, and, in twenty days, reached Surat a distance of 300 miles.

4 Grant Duff's Maráthás, 424.

5 Grant Duff's Maráthás, 421.

collecting troops negotiated for a time, and, when his preparations were ready, returned Goddard's proposals on the ground that no terms could be considered which did not provide for the safety of the Maráthás' ally Haidar of Maisur. On the 15th of April Goddard began to retreat on Bombay. From the first he was sorely pressed by the Maráthás. Only his skill as a general and the courage of his troops enabled him on the 23rd of April to bring them safely to Panvel. The Maráthás considered this retreat of Goddard's one of their greatest successes over the English. In September 1781 Lord Macartney, Sir Eyre Coote, Sir Edward Hughes, and Mr. McPherson addressed a joint letter to the Peshwa stating their wish for peace, the moderation of the Company's views, the desire of the British nation to conclude a firm and lasting treaty which no servant of the Company should have power to break, and assuring the Peshwa that satisfaction should be given in a sincere and irrevocable treatv. General Goddard, who still considered himself the accredited agent on the part of the supreme Government, also opened a negotiation, and assumed, what was privately agreed, that Sindia should use his endeavour to obtain a cessation of hostilities between the Peshwa and the English until the terms of a general peace could be adjusted. January 1782 the Bombay Government sent Watherstone to Poona, but shortly after his arrival official intelligence was received that Mr. David Anderson had been denuted to Mahadji Sindia's camp, as Agent of the Governor General with full powers to negotiate and conclude a treaty with the Maráthás. On this Captain Watherstone was recalled. At last on the 17th of May the treaty of Salbai was concluded and ratified by the Peshwa on the 20th of December 1782.1 Its chief provisions were that Raghunáthráv should have £2500 (Rs. 25,000) a month and live where he chose; that all territory should remain as before the treaty of Purandhar; that all Europeans except the Portuguese should be excluded from the Maratha dominions, that Haider about be compelled to relinquish his conquests from the English: and that Broach should be given to Sindia for his humanity to the the terms of the treaty and and his midance at Kopargaon on the Godávari in Ahmadnagar. He survived only a few months. His widow Anandibái shortly after gave birth to a son Chimnáji Apa. The infant Chimnáji together with Bájiráv, who at the time of his father's death was nine years old, remained at Kopargaon till 1793 when Nána Fadnavis removed them to Junnar.

In 1784, a conspiracy formed with the object of deposing Mádhavráv Náráyan and raising Bájiráv, the son of the late Raghunáthráv was discovered and crushed by Nána. In the same year Mudáji Bhonsla the chief of Berár visited Poona. He showed a sincere desire to connect himself with the head of the state, and, in the name of his son Raghuji, entered on a new agreement pledging himself never to assist the English against the Peshwa's Government and promising to co-operate in the expected war with Tipu. One

Chapter VIII History. MARÁTHÁS, 1720-1817.

Treaty of Salba 1782.

¹ Grant Duff's Marathas, 452,

² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 459, 520.

History.

Marathas,
1720-1817.

effect of the treaty of Salbai was greatly to favour Sindia's desire to form an independent Marátha dominion. In 1784 he took Gwalior from the Rána of Gohad who had forfeited his claim to British protection; he obtained supreme authority at Delhi; he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Mghal forces and manager of the provinces of Delhi and Agra; and made a claim on the British for chauth for their, Bengal provinces which was disavowed by Mr. McPherson. In 1785 the news of Sindia's success in Northern India was received at Poona with surprise and joy. A small body of the Peshwa's troops was sent to join him as a measure of policy to preserve the appearance of the Peshwa's co-operation and supremacy. In the same year at Nána's desire Mr. Charles Malet was chosen to be British-resident at Poona.

In December 1789, on hearing of Tipu's movements, Nána Fadnavis made specific proposals to the Governor General in the name both of his master and of Nizám Ali. These proposals with slight modifications were accepted. A preliminary agreement was settled on the 29th of March 1790, and, on the 1st of June, for the suppression of Tipu an offensive and defensive treaty was concluded at Poona between Mr. Malet on the part of the Company and Nana Fadnavis on the part of the Peshwa and Nizam Ali. In 1792 Sindle, who was supreme at the Dehli Court, marched from the north towards Poona bearing from the Emperor of Delhi to the Peshwa the deeds and robes of the hereditary office of Vakil-i-Mutlak or Chief Minister, whose hereditary deputy in North India was to be Sindia. Nána Fadnavis applied to the English for the permanent services of Captain Little's Detachment which had acted with Parashurám Bháu in the war in the Karnátak in 1790 and 1791. This proposal was not agreed to. Sindia, afraid that Nána might enter into some such arrangement with the English, and to allay Nána's well-founded jealousy of his regular infantry, brought with him only a small party under an Englishman named Hessing and a complete battalion commanded by Michael Filoze a Neapolitan. Single reached Poons on the 11th of June and pitched his camp near the Sangam or marking of the Mutha and Mula rivers, the place assigned by the Peshwa for the residence of the British envoy and his suite. Nana, who was jealous of Sindia, did all he could to prevent the Peshwa's accepting the titles and insignia brought from the emperor. He represented the impropriety of adopting some of the titles, especially that of Maháráj Adhráj, the greatest of great rájás, which was inconsistent with the constitution of the Maratha empire. Still Sindia persisted and the Raja of Satara gave the Peshwa leave to accept the honours. Nine days after his arrival, Nana visited Sindia who received him in the most cordial manner, refused to sit on his state cushion in the minister's presence, and treated him with the greatest respect. Next day Sindia paid his respects to the Peshwa, carrying with him numberless rarities from North India. The following morning was fixed for the ceremony of investing the young Peshwa with the title and dignity of Vakil-i-

ndia in Poona, 1792.

Mutlak. Sindia spared no pains to make the investiture imposing. Poona had never seen so grand a display. The investiture of Sindia as the Peshwa's deputy in the office of Vakil-i-Mutlak filled the next day. In spite of the outward success of these ceremonies the Maráthas and Brahmans of Poons and the Deccan remained unfriendly to Sindia. Sindia hoped by the magnificence of his presents to gain the goodwill of the Peshwa. He also, in contrast to Nána's strictness and decorum, took pains to please the Peshwa, making hunting and water parties for his amusement. These efforts of Sindia's had so much success that Nana in an interview with the Peshwa, after reminding him what services he had rendered warned him of the danger he ran if he put himself in Sindia's hands, and asked leave to retire to Benares. Mádhavráv was much affected and promised that nothing would persuade him to desert Nána for Sindia. So bitter was the feeling between Nana and Sindia that disputes nearly ended in an outbreak. This danger was removed by the death of Mahadji Sindia of fever after a few days' illness at Vánavdi about two miles east of Poona on the 12th of February 1794.1 Mahadji Sindia's career had been most evolutur. He was the chief Marátha leader for about thirty-five years, he madiated between the Peshwa and the English, and he ruled the puppet emperor of Delhi with a rod of iron. He was succeeded by his grand nephew Daulatrav Sindia, then in his fifteenth year. Nána Fadnavis was now the only Marátha statesman. The Marátha confederacy still maintained the nominal supremacy of the Peshwa; but the people were losing their adventurous spirit and each chieftain was gradually becoming independent of any central authority. Between Sindia's death in February 1794 and the close of the year the progress of events was in Nana's favour. But the disputes between him and Nizám Ali regarding arrears of tribute grew more and more complicated. Sir John Shore would not interfere and war was begun in 1794. For the last time all the great Marátha chiefs served together under the Peshwa's banner. Daulatráv Sindia Mahádji's successor, and Tukoji Holkar were already at Poona, and the Rája of Berár had set out to join; Govindráv Gáikwár sent a detachment of his troops; the great southern vassals the Brahman families of Patvardhan and Rástia, the Bráhman holders of Málegaon and Vinchur, the Pratinidhi, the Pantsachiv, the Marátha Mánkaris, Nimbálkar, Ghátge. Chavhán, Dafle, Povár, Thorát, and Pátankar with many others attended the summons. The Peshwa left Poona in January 1795. and the great Marátha army marched at the same time, but by different routes for the convenience of forage. The army included upwards of 130,000 horse and foot, exclusive of 10,000 Pendháris. Chapter VII
History.
MARÁTHÁS,
1720-18'7.
Sina
in Poona,
1792.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 503.

²Of this force upwards of one-half were either paid by the Peshwa's treasury, or were troops of vassals under his direct control. Daulatrav Sindia's force was more numerous and more efficient than that of any other chieftain, although the greater part of his army remained in North India and Málwa. Jivba Dáda Bakshi commanded immediately under Daulatrav and had lately joined him with a reinforcement. The whole consisted of 25,000 men, of whom 10,000 were regular infantry under Da Boing's second-in-command M. Perron. 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. Grant Duff's Maráthás, 614.

Thapter VII.

History.

MARÁTHÁS,
1720-1817.

dna's Triumph,
1795.

Nána Fadnavis consulted the chief officers separately, and seems to have adopted the plans of Jivba Dada Bakshi the Shenvi commander of Sindia's troops, and of Tukoji Holkar. He appointed Parshuram Bhau to act as commander-in-chief. The war ended on the 11th of March by the defeat of the Moghals at Kharda in the Jamkhed sub-division of Ahmadnagar, a defeat due more to Moghal panic than to Marátha bravery. Nizám Ali was obliged to treat and surrender an obnoxious minister Mashir-ul-Mulk, who had resisted the Marátha claims. After the battle the Peshwa returned to Poona; Nána Fadnavis was employed in distributing the acquisitions and in settling affairs with the different chiefs; Parshurám Bháu and Raghuji Bhousla remained near Poona; Holkar encamped at Jejuri about twenty-five miles south-east of Poona; and Sindia at Jámgaon in Ahmadnagar. By the middle of September 1795 Daulatráv Sindia had taken leave of the Peshwa and gone to Jámgaon on his way to Hindustán; Parashurám Bháu had returned to Tásgaon in Sátára; Holkar remained at Poona; and Raghuji Bhonsla left Poona at the middle of October being dismissed with great honour. Nana Fadnavis was at the height of his Without calling the help of any foreign power he had gained every object of his ambition. Daulatrav Sindia was well disposed lowards him and Sindia's ministers and officers were more intent on forwarding their own views in the government of their young master than in schemes for controlling the Poona Court. Tukoji Holkar had become imbecile both in mind and body and his officers were in Nána's hands. Raghuji Bhonsla was completely secured in his interests, and the Brahman estate-holders were of his party. The fair prospect that the Peshwa's Government would regain the tone and vigour of the first Mádhavráv's time (1761-1772) was ruined by Nana's fondness for power. His unwillingness to let even his master share with him the control of the state brought on Nána a catastrophe which undermined his authority, overturned the labour of his life, and clouded his last days with trouble and misery.

Mádhavráv, 1795.

Though Mádhavráv was now (1795) twenty years old, Nána loosened none of the restraints under which he had been reared. At the same time he became more than ever watchful of all the state prisoners whose liberty might endanger his own power. In 1794, before the beginning of the war with Nizam Ali, Bajirav and Chimnáji Apa, the sons of Raghunáthráv, with their adopted brother Amritráv were taken from Násik to the gadhi or mud fort of Junuar and were kept there in close custody. The bulk of the people thought the imprisonment of these youths harsh, cruel, and unneeded. The old partisans of Raghunáthráv and all who disliked Nána strove to strengthen and embitter this feeling, praising the youths and overdrawing the harshness of their The knowledge how widely this feeling confinement. spread made Nána still warier and more careful. He felt that Bájiráv, the elder brother, though a youth of only nineteen, was a rival whom he had reason to fear. Graceful and handsome, with a mild persuasive manner, Bájiráv was famed for skill as a horseman,

archer, and swordsman, and for a knowledge of the sacred books greater than any Marátha Bráhman of his age had ever been known to possess. Mádhavráv heard with delight these accounts of his consin's skill, and prayed that he might be set free and become his friend. In vain Nana war led him that Bajirav was no friend to him but a rival. The more Nana warned and lectured the stronger grew Mádhavráv's longing to know his cousin. Bájiráv heard that Mádhavráv loved him and was anxious that Bájiráv should be set free. Through his keeper Balvantráv, whom after long persuasion he at last won over, Bájiráv sent Mádhavráv a message of respect and sympathy: We are both prisoners, you at Poors and I at Junuar, still our minds and affections are free and should be devoted to each other; the time will come when we two together will rival the deeds of our forefathers. When Nana heard of this correspondence which had lasted for some time he showed an altogether unusual rage. He upbraided Mádhavráv, doubled the closeness of Bájiráv's confinement, and threw Balvantráv into a fort loaded with irons. Mádhavráv galled by restraint and overwhelmed with anger and grief for days refused to leave his At the Dasara on the 22nd of October, he appeared among his troops and in the evening received his chiefs and the ambassadors. But his spirit was wounded to despair, a melancholy seized him, and, on the morning of the 25th of October-1795, he threw himself from a terrace in his palace, broke two of his limbs, and died after two days, having particularly desired that Bajira's should succeed him. When he heard that Mádhavráv had thrown himself from the terrace and was dying, Nána summoned Parashurám Bháu, recalled Raghuji Bhonsla and Daulatrav Sindia, and called in Tukoji Holkar who was in Poona. He hid from them Madhavrav's dying wish that Bajirav should succeed him, and warned them that Bájiráv's succession would be certain ruin to any one who had sided against Raghunáthráy. He enlarged on the family connection between Bajirav and the English; his accession would end in the English ascendancy; why not continue the prosperous government which the Deccan had for years enjoyed. He proposed that Mádhavráv's widow Yashodábái should adopt a son and that Nana should conduct the government till the son came of age. Holkar gave this scheme his support, and by January (1796) the leading nobles had agreed to it and withdrawn from Poona. This decision was told to Mr. Mallet. The English could raise no objection and nothing remained but to choose the child. Bájiráv was informed of these measures. He knew that Báloba Tatya one of Sindia's officers was well disposed to him; he heard that on his death-bed Jivba Dáda Bakshi, Sindia's prime minister, told his master that he was ashamed that he had agreed to keep Bajiráv from his rights, and he promised Sindia territory worth £40,000 (Rs. 4 lákhs) if he would help him to become Peshwa. Sindia promised and a formal agreement was drawn up. When Nána heard of the agreement between Bájiráv and Sindia, he sent in haste for Parashurám Bháu who marched from Tásgaon in Sátára to Poona, 120 miles in forty-eight hours. Nána and Parashurám Bháu agreed that their only chance was to be before Sindia and at once offer the Peshwaship to Bájiráv. Parashurám Bháu started for Junnar and

Chapter VII.

History.

Marathas,
1720-1817.

Bajirav,
1795.

Mádhavrdv Dves, 1795. Chapter VII. History.

Maráthás,

1720 - 1817.

made the offer. When Parashurám Bháu had held a cow by the tail and sworn by the Godávari, Bájiráv was satisfied and went with him to Poona. As soon as Bájiráv reached Poona he had a meeting with Nána. Bájiráv, assured of the succession, agreed to keep Nána at the head of his administration, and both promised to bury former enmity. When Báloba Tátya and his master Sindia heard that Bájiráv had deserted them in favour of Nana they marched on Poona with a large force. The timid Nána was dismayed and told Parashurám Bhau that as it was against him that Sindia was coming he had better retire. Nána accordingly withdrew to Purandhar and then to Sátára. When Sindia reached Poona he had a friendly meeting with Bájiráv. But his minister Báloba Tátya could not forgive Bájiráv's desertion. He proposed that Mádhavráv's widow should adopt Bájiráv's younger brother Chimnáji, and that Parashurám Bhán should be prime minister. Parashurám Bháu consulted Nána, and Nána said the scheme was good, provided Parashurám Bháu got Bájiráv into his Parashurám Bháu overlooked this condition and told Báloba that his scheme had Nána's approval. Báloba expressed himself pleased as he feared that Nána might organize a combination against his master. Nana obtained the robe of investiture from the Sátára chief and was on his way with it to Poona when he heard that Parashurám Bháu had not secured possession of Bájiráv. He suspected treachery, sent on the robe, and halted at Vái in Sátára. During all this time Bájiráv knew nothing of the plot to pass him over in his brother's favour. To settle some dispute, regarding certain arrears of pay he had promised to make good to Sindia, Bájiráv went to Sindia's camp. Towards evening confused news came that Parashurám Bháu had seized Chimnáji and carried him off. Bájiráv was keen for pursuit; but no one knew where the boy had been taken and till morning pursuit was useless. Bájiráv stayed the night in Sindia's camp. Next morning he saw the snare into which he had fallen when he was advised to remain with Sindia as timnaji Madhavrav, no place outside of the camp was safe for him. Parashuram Bhau had taken Chimnáji to Poona, and on the 26th of May 1796 contrary to his wish, Chimnáji was adopted by the name of Chimnaji Madhavrav and formally invested as Peshwa. The day after the new Peshwa was installed Parashuram. Bhau proposed that Nana Fadnavis should come to Poona, be reconciled to Sindia's minister Báloba, and assume the civil administration, while the command of the troops should remain with Parashuram Bhau. In reply Nána Fadnavis requested that Parashurám Bháu's eldest son Haripant, might be sent to Vái to settle preliminaries. of coming as an envoy, Haripant crossed the Nira at the head of 4000 to 5000 chosen horse. Nána's suspicions were strengthened by a letter from Babáráv Phadke advising him to lose no time in putting himself in a place of safety, and Nána retired to Mahád close to Ráygad fort in Kolába. Nána's fortunes now seemed desperate. But necessity forced him out of his timid and half-hearted measures. He exerted bimself with a vigour of judgment, a richness of resource and a power of combining men, which from his European contemporaries gained him the name of the Marátha Machiavel. 1 Nána's two chief enemies were Parashurám Bháu who was acting as minister at Poona and

Eighth Peshwa, May 1796.

Báloba, Sindia's minister. His chief hope lay in persuading Bájiráy. like himself a chief loser under the present arrangement, to throw in his lot with his. In these extremities Nána's wealth, which he had been laying by for years and had placed with trusty bankers all over the country, was of the greatest service. Money could buy some leading man in the Peshwa's army to counteract Parashurám Bháu; money could buy a party in Sindia's camp to oppose Nána's other chief enemy Báloba; if only Bájiráv were on his side promises of territory would win Sindia and the Nizám. Nána's negotiations with Bájiráy were made easy by the arrival of a trusty dependent now in Bájiráv's service bringing friendly assurances from Bájiráv who urged Nána to exert himself as their cause was the same. Nána's schemes succeeded. He had Tukoji Holkar ready at a signal to help him with all his power. He won over Bábáráv Phadke who was in command of the Peshwa's household troops as a make-weight to Parashurám Bháu, and gained Sakhárám Ghátge, whose daughter Sindia was most anxious to marry, an He offered enemy of Báloba Sindia's minister. Parashurám Bháu's estates in the Bombay Karnátak, the fort of Ahmadnagar, and territory worth £100,000 (Rs. 10 lákhs) on condition that he would place Báloba in confinement, establish Bájiráv as Peshwa, and withdraw to North India. To these terms Sindia agreed. When Bájiráv and Bábáráv Phadke, the commandant of the Peshwa's household troops knew that Sindia's alliance was secured, they began openly to collect troops with funds placed at their disposal by Nána. Báloba Tátya, Sindia's minister, found out that Bajirav and Babarav were raising troops. He seized and imprisoned Bábáráv in Chákan, surrounded Bájiráv's encampment, and disbanded his troops. Báloba thought Bájiráv was the root of the whole conspiracy, and arranged that he should be sent to North India under the charge of Sakhárám Ghátge. On the way Bájiráv used every endeavour tolwin over Ghátge, and, on the promise that Bájiráv when he came to power would get him appointed Sindia's minister, Ghátge allowed Bájiráv to halt on the plea of ill-health. Mashir-ul-Mulk, the Nizam's minister, whom he had lately freed from confinement in Poona was allowed by Parashurám Bháu to collect troops to be used against Nána. But Nána had already gained the Nizam and his vizier, promising, if the Nizam helped Bájiráv to be Peshwa and Nána to be minister, that the lands won by the Maráthás after the battle of Kharda (1795) should be restored to the Nizám and outstanding claims cancelled. On Dasara which fell on the 11th of October the regular battalions in the Peshwa's service under Mr. Boyd marched to the Nira bridge and a brigade of Sindia's regulars started towards Ráygad both apparently with the object of crushing Nána. Nána's plans were now complete. On the 27th of October Sindia arrested his minister Báloba and sent a body of troops, accompanied by some of the Nizam's to seize Parashuram Bháu. Parashuram Bháu was warned and fled, taking Chimnéji Apa, but was pursued and captured. Bájiráv was brought back and camped at Koregaon on the Bhima. Nana left Mahad, met the troops which he had collected at the Salpa pass in Satara and was joined by the Peshwa's infantry under Mr. Boyd. Before advancing Nána

Chapter VII.

History.

Marathas,
1720-1817.

Nana's Triumph
1796.

CiChapter VII. History. Maráthás, 1720 - 1817.

jiráv Raghunáth, Ninth and last Peshwa. 1796 - 1817.

required a guarantee from Bájiráv that no treachery was intended, and that if he ever wished he might resign his post as minister in the certainty that his person and property would be respected. Nána Fadnavis resumed the duties of prime minister on the 25th of November and Bajirav was installed Pehwa on the 4th of December 1796. The Shastris declared Chimnaji's adoption illegal and after a nominal penance Chimnáji was appointed governor of Gujarát. The English and Raghuji Bhonsla of Nagpur approved of Bajirav's At the time of his accession Mr. Tone, who was then in Poona, described Bájiráv as over middle size, fair, and graceful, with a manly sensible and majestic face and impressive manners.

During these irregularities the army had fallen into disorder. In 1797 a desperate affray took place in the streets of Poona between a body of Arabs and a party of Mr. Boyd's sepoys, in which upwards of 100 persons were killed and many shops and warehouses were plundered. The treaties with Sindia and Raghuji Bhonsla were fulfilled, and Raghuji left for Nagpur. But as Bajirav, unless it was greatly modified, refused to ratify the treaty of Mahad with Nizam Ali, Mashir-ul-mulk quitted Poona without taking leave of the Peshwa and returned highly incensed to Haidarabad (13th July 1797). This dispute with the Nizam and the death of Tukoji Holkar in August 1797 considerably weakened Nána's power. On Holkar's death (13th July 1797) Malhárráv quarrelled with his brother Káshiráv, who was imbecile in mind and body, and, with his two illegitimate brothers Yashvantráv and Vithoji, removed to Bhamburda, about two miles north-west of Poona city. favoured Malhárráv, and Káshiráv applied for help to Sindia. Sindia promised help with the greatest readiness, sent a strong force to Bhámburda, and, as Malháráv refused to yield, his camp was surrendered and he was killed. His half-brothers Yashvantrav and Vithoji escaped. This success gave Sindia power over the whole of Holkar's resources and was a deathblow to the schemes of Nána Fadnavis. Bájiráv secretly encouraged Sindia, who, in transferring Angria's estates in Kolába from Mánáji to his own relation Báburáv and in other matters, began to exercise a more arbitrary power than the Peshwa had ever claimed.2 Hitherto Bájiráv whose, appearance and misfortunes always won sympathy was believed to have an excellent natural disposition. This belief was the result of his talent for cajoling and deceiving. From the beginning his conduct was governed by two principles to trust no one and to deceive every one. His great object was to free himself from the control of Sindia and of Nana. Sindia he regarded as a less evil than Nana. At the worst he thought that at any time he could get rid of Sindia by persuading him to go to North India. To free himself from Nápa's control Bájiráv entered into a plot with Ghátge, whose daughter was not yet married to Sindia, and persuaded him that so long as Nána remained in power Ghátge's hope of becoming Sindia's minister could never be realised. They agreed that Nana should be placed in confinement. On the 31st of December 1797, Nána, while

¹ Grant Duff's Marathas, 527-529.

returning a formal visit to Sindia, was seized with all his retinue; his guards were attacked and dispersed; and under Ghatge's orders Nana's house and the houses of his adherents were plundered. Many resisted; firing went on for a night and day; the whole city was in an uproar; all went armed and in bands. When Nana was seized in Sindia's camp, Bájiráv, as if on business, sent for the leading members of Nána's party and put them in confinement.1 was sent to Ahmadnagar fort. Bájiráv appointed his own halfbrother Amritráv prime minister and raised the unexperienced Bálájipant Patvardhan to the command of the army. When as he supposed he had got rid of Nána's control, Bájiráv began to devise means for dismissing Sindia. But he had first to carry out the promises he had made. Sindia was married to Ghatge's daughter, and money difficulties caused by marriage expenses and the cost of his army at Poona pressed hard on Sindia, so that he urged Bájiráv to give him the £2,000,000 (Rs. 2 krors) he had promised. Bájiráv said he had not the money. If Sindia would make Ghatge his minister, Bájiráv would give Ghátge leave to recover from the rich people of Poona as much as was required. Sindia agreed and Chatge was made minister and empowered to levy the amount required from the people of Poona. Ghátge's first step was to raise money from the members of Nána's party who were confined in Bájiráv's palace. These men of high position and reputation were dragged out and scourged till they gave up their property. One of them, a relation of Nána's, was tied to a heated gun, and as he would not part with his property, remained tied to the gun till he died. These cruelties were not confined to Nána's friends. Merchants. bankers, and all in the city who were supposed to have wealth, were seized and tortured with such cruelty that several of them Though the plan of levying money by force from the people of Poona was Bájiráv's, Bájiráv never supposed that the money would be collected with such cruelty. He remonstrated with Sindia but his complaints were of no effect. Amritráv, Bájiráv's brother, who did not know that Bajirav had any share in the matter proposed to seize Sindia. To this Bajirav willingly agreed. Before this Bájiráv and Amritráv, to make the Peshwa's infantry more nearly a match for Sindia's, had agreed to engage British officers and Mr. Tone was chosen to command the first brigade. Their relations with the Nizam were put forward as the reason for this increase of their troops and Sindia was asked to join in an expedition to recover the arrears due under the treaty of Kharda (1795). Sindia readily agreed. About this time there was much ill-feeling among Sindia's officers and Sindia became very unpopular. Bájiráv fostered the feeling of dislike to Sindia, so that if he seized Sindia he might have less difficulty in preventing an outbreak among Sindia's followers. Bajirav arranged with Amritray that Sindia should be invited to his palace and should be seized by Aba Kále who commanded one of the Peshwa's regular battalions. Sindia was asked to come but excused himself. Bájiráv ordered Chapter VII. History. Maráthás, 1720-1817. Nana Seized, 1797.

E Poona Plundere 1797.

¹ See Mr. Uhtoff's Despatches.

Chapter VII.

Maráthás, 1720-1817.

"he Widows' War, '797. him to attend. At their meeting he upbraided Sindia for his disobedience, and for all the sufferings which he had caused in Poona. He ordered Sindia to withdraw from Poona to Jámgaon in Ahmadnagar. Sindia expressed the greatest willingness to move, but regretted that until the present arrefrs of pay were made good his army could not leave Poona. When the time came to give the signal for 'seizing him, Bájiráv's courage failed and Sindia was allowed to leave. Bájiráv had afterwards the meanness and weakness to tell Sindia what Amritráv had intended and to advise him to be on his guard. Fresh difficulties arose from the arrears of pay due to the Peshwa's army. They were ordered to march to Satara to put down a rising. Instead of starting they raised a riot in Poona and kicked about the street the turban of one of Bájiráv's favourites who tried to interfere. Govindráv Pingle, one of the ministers who was in confinement, sent word to Bajirav that the only man who could bring the troops to order was Náropant Chakradev, the former commander who had been imprisoned as a friend of Nána's. Bájiráv restored both Pingle and Náropant to liberty, and Náropant quelled the tumult in a day. But as Bájiráv could not trust Náropant at a distance he had to release Parashurám Bháu to restore order at Sátára. Disorders increased at Poona. Daulatráv Sindia's uncle Mahádji on his death in 1795 had left three widows. Daulatráv promised to make ample provision for them and they continued to live in his camp. No provision was made and even their comforts were scrimped. The youngest of the three widows was a beautiful woman and the others either discovered or invented a criminal intimacy between her and Sindia. The ladies openly accessed Sindia of the crime and Ghatge who was sent to quiet their complaints being refused an entrance forced his way into their tents and seized and flogged them (1798). The Shenvi Brahmans, of whom Báloba was the head and who before Ghátge's rise to power were the strongest party in Sindia's army, took the side of the widows. After much discussion it was arranged that the widows should be taken to Burhánpur and should be kept there in a state of suitable comfort. On their way to Burhanpur their friends learned that the widows were being taken not to Burhánpur but to Ahmadnagar fort. Under the influence of the Shenvi Bráhmans a Pathán named Muzaffar Khan, who was in command of a choice body of cavalry, assailed the escort, rescued the widows, and carried them back close to Sindia's Ghátge persuaded Sindia to let him attack Muzaffar. Muzaffar had warning and retired with the widows pursued by Ghátge. He left the ladies in the camp of Amritráv, Bájiráv's brother who was near the Bhima, turned on Ghatge, defeated him, and put him to flight. Bájiráv approved of his brother's kindness to the widows, and asked Colonel Palmer, the British Resident, to mediate between them and Sindia. Sindia refused, and, on the night of the 7th June, sent Ghatge with five battalions of regular infantry under Du Prat, a Frenchman, to surprise Amritráv's camp and seize the ladies. Ghatge's attempt failed and he had to retire with loss. Sindia then promised to arrange for a suitable establishment for the ladies, and Amritráv came into Poona and camped close to Sindia. It was the Muharram time, and Ghatge, under pretence of keeping

order, brought two brigades of infantry and twenty-five guns close to Amritráv's camp, suddenly opened fire on it, charged and dispersed Amritráv's troops, and pillaged his camp. This outrage was nothing less than war with 'the Peshwa. Holkar came and sided with the Peshwa, the other Marátha nobles joined his standard, and the Peshwa negotiated an alliance with Nizam Ali. Sindia alarmed by the treaty between the Peshwa and the Nizam tried to arrange a settlement, but the demands of the ladies became so extravagant that nothing could be settled. To intimidate Bájiráv Sindia sent an envoy to Tipu, but Bájlráv had done the same. more powerful means of influencing Bajirav and also a means of raising money was to set Nana Fadnavis free. Sindia brought Nána from Ahmadnagar and received £100,000 (Rs. 10 lákhs) as the price of his liberty. The release of Nana was shortly followed by the revocation of the treaty between the Peshwa and Nizám Ali. These events forced Bájiráv to begin negotiations with Nána Fadnavis, and Sindia, who did not know that the treaty between the Peshwa and the Nizam had been revoked, was anxious to some to terms, insisting only that Nána should be placed at the head of Bájiráv's affairs. Meanwhile Ghátge had been acting with such reckless cruelty that Sindia felt that Ghatge's disgraceful acts were alienating the minds of all his supporters. He accordingly gave orders for Ghatge's arrest which was successfully effected. Ghátge's arrest helped to reconcile Sindia and Bájiráv. of reconciliation was also pressed on them by the change of policy on the part of the English. The timid neutrality which had marked the English policy under Sir John Shore was reversed by the Marquis of Wellesley's arrival in India on the 26th of April 1798. Soon after his arrival the Marquis of Wellesley, then Lord Mornington, directed the Political Agents at Poona and Haidarabad to secure the alliance of those states so that at least their resources might not be applied against the British Government. With the object of removing Sindia from the Deccan who was known to be always anxious to obstruct British influence, the British agent at Poona set forth the reported designs on India of Zamán Sháh king of Kábul, the grandson of Ahmad Sháh Abdáli terrible to Maráthás. The British agent also offered the Peshwa a body of the Company's troops to protect his territory and revive the authority of his government. Bájiráv had not long before asked for the help of British troops and his offer had been refused. He could explain this sudden change in the view of the English only by an understanding with Nana, and his suspicion was confirmed when the English agent spoke strongly in favour of Nána's restoration.

Maráthás, 1720-1817

Nána Set Free 1798.

Chapter VII
History.

Under this treaty the Peshwa confirmed the articles of the treaty of Mahad which was passed between Nana Fadnavis and the Nizam in 1796; Maratha claims on Bedar were remitted and a tract of territory yielding £80,000 (Rs. 8,00,000) of revenue was ceded to Nizam Ali. Nizam Ali agreed to support the Peshwa against any encroachment of Nana Fadnavis, but in case Nana was set free by Sindia it was agreed that Bajirav would allow him a yearly pension of £10,000 (Rs. 1,00,000). Raghuji Bhonsla of Nagpur, if he chose, was to be considered a party to this treaty, nd was to receive the whole of Garh Mandla from Bajirav. Grant Duffs athas, 530.

Chapter VII.

History

MARATMAS,
1720-1817.

Nána Minister,
1798.

As Nána was the object of Bájiráv's strongest hate and fear the wish to prevent an understanding between Nana and the English overcame all other considerations. Sindia was ready to leave for North India but Bájiráv at a private meeting persuaded him to stay to prevent Nána from bringing English troops into Poona. While these private negotiations with Sindia were on foot Bájiráv was secretly praying Nana who was then in Sindia's camp, to return to Poona and take his post as minister. Nána at first refused unless under a guarantee from the British Government that his person and property should be safe. To overcome Nána's fears Bajirav went alone at night to Nana's house, and using to the utmost his extraordinary powers of persuasion and deception induced (15th October 1798) the old man to resume his post as minister without any guarantee. Within a few months (1799) Nána was told by Yashvantráv Ghorpade and by Sindia that Bájiráv was again trying to persuade Sindia to put him in confinement. Nána went to Bájiráv, charged him with this treachery, and implored him to let him give up his post as minister and withdraw to private life. Bájiráv denied any knowledge of the proposals, asked who had dared to make use of his name, and told Sindia to arrest them. Sindia arrested Bájiráv's minister Govindráv, and Shivrám another of Bájiráv's agents, who bore the loss of their property and their liberty without impeaching their master's truthfulness. After this satisfaction Nána resumed his duties. As far as possible Nána avoided public business. for some months affairs had been in progress which no one at Poona but Nána could prevent from seriously affecting the power of the Peshwa. On the first of September 1798 a new treaty was concluded between Nizam Ali and the English under which Nizám Ali agreed to disband his French troops and replace them with English troops, and under which the English undertook to mediate between the Nizam and the Peshwa and to do their best to bring the Peshwa to a friendly settlement.1 The Maráthás viewed this treaty with much jealousy and the British agent urged the Peshwa to conclude a similar treaty. He evaded the subject by an assurance that he would faithfully execute the conditions of existing engagements, and, in the event of a war with Tipu, promised to afford his aid. In these replies Bajirav followed Nana's advice. Nána pressed him, after giving these promises, to take care that his promises were fulfilled; any instance of bad faith would add greatly to the power of the English in their future dealings with the Maráthás. In this matter Bajiráv followed his own inclination. Though, with the help of Parashurám Bháu, Nána arranged that as in 1790 a Marátha contingent should be ready, in 1799, when the fourth Maisur war broke out, the English instead of Maratha support found that Tipu's envoys were publicly received in Poons, and that Tipu's agent had paid Bájiráv £130,000 (Rs. 13 lákhs). The Governor General noticed the conduct of the court of Poons by countermanding the detachment which was in readiness to act with

Parashurám Bháu, an action which Nána Fadnavis who did not know that Bájiráv had received the £130,000 (Rs. 13 'lákhs') could not understand.

When he heard that (4th May 1799) Seringapatam had fallen, that Tipu was slain, and that his power was at an end, Bajirav affected the utmost joy, tried to pursuade Colonel Palmer that the backwardness of the Marátha contingent was due to Nána, and sent urgent orders to the governor of the Marátha Karnátak to advance into Tipu's country. Sindia also, while secretly striving to encourage resistance among Tipu's partisans, sent abundant congratulations to Colonel Palmer. Though the Peshwa had failed in his promise of help, in the hope of making him agree to a treaty like the treaty he had concluded with the Nizám, the Governor General set apart a portion of Tipu's conquered country for the Maráthás. This tract of territory, which included the greater part of the Sunda lands now in North Kánara, yielding an estimated revenue of £26,300 (Rs. 2,63,000), was rejected by the Peshwa. The Poona Government regretted that the disorder in the Marátha country had prevented them from sending the promised contingent to act against Tipu; in the case of the French landing in India the Peshwa undertook to join with the English in fighting them, at the same time the Peshwa would not agree to exclude Frenchmen from his service. He refused the Company's offered mediation in his existing disputes with the Nizám, and treated as absurd the proposal to include Raghuji Bhonsla of Nágpur as a principal in the intended alliance, Sindia's affairs continued in confusion. After Ghatge's attack on Amritráv's camp in 1798 the ladies sought refuge with the Kolhápur chief. In Kolhápur they were joined by the leading Shenvi Brahmans in Sindia's service. Numbers of horsemen flocked to their standard, and they marched north (February 1799) burning all Sindia's villages between the Krishna and the Godávari. Sindia's horse fled before them, and, though they gave way to his regular battalions, as soon as the regular troops turned to go back to Poona the ladies' troops followed them and continued their work of ruin. The country swarmed with horsemen. and though plunder was not indiscriminate the devastation was great. In addition to his troubles with the widows Sindia's power was threatened by a revolt in North India and by the escape and rapid success of Yashvantráv Holkar in Málwa. In these straits Sindia's headmen advised him to set Báloba Tátya free and appoint him minister. Báloba promptly made a settlement with the ladies. But after all was arranged the murder of one of their followers enraged the ladies and they withdrew and again marched through the country plundering.2 In August 1799, with the approval of their chiefs, Báloba and Nána deliberated on measures to counteract the close alliance between the Nizam and the English. For some time Sátára and Kolhápur had fallen into complete disorder and Parashurám Bháu the Peshwa's commander had lately been killed. A combined force of the Peshwa and Sindia marched towards

Chapter VI:
Hist
Marathas,

1720 - 1817.

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 545.

² Grant Duff's Marathas, 546.

Chapter VII.
History.
MARÁTHÁR,
1720-1817.
Nána Dies,
1800.

Tolhapur, defeated the chief, forced him to seek safety in Panhala, besieged Kolhapur, and had nearly taken it when (1800) events at Poona forced a prompt settlement and saved the existence or at least the independence of the Kolhapur state.

Nána's health, which had long been declining, failed rapidly in the beginning of 1800, and he died at Poona on the 13th of March. This event sealed the ruin of the Peshwa's government. In figure Nána was tall and thin, dark in complexion and grave in manners, with a quick searching and intelligent expression. In private life he was truthful, frugal, and charitable, a most orderly and painstaking worker. He respected the sincerity and vigour of the English, but, as political enemies, looked on them with the keenest jealousy and alarm. As a politician his early lifd was disfigured by timidity and ambition. During his last years he acted with the courage and sincerity of a patriot, regardless of consequences to himself, counselling Bajirav to do what he believed was for the good of the state. In his early life he devoted his energies to maintain the improved civil management which had been established by Mádhavráv Ballál (1761-1772). In later years home intrigues and foreign troubles so filled his time and his thoughts that in practice almost all check on abuses disappeared. Eyen in Poona city so slack was the control that Ghasiram the head of the city police was able without check to commit a series of murders, and at last, when his guilt was proved, was punished not by the law but by a rising of the townsmen who stoned him to death. With Nana passed away all that was wise and moderate in the Peshwa's government.

Nána died leaving a young widow and no children. The desire to seize his wealth, which in spite of all he had latterly been forced to part with was said to be still immense, soon set Sindia and Bájiráv quarrelling. When the insurrection in North India was crushed, Sindia, under the influence of Ghatge determined to destroy Baloba. He was seized and thrown into Ahmadnagar, death freeing him from the tortures which Ghatge had planned for him and which he carried out in the case of two of Baloba's supporters blowing one from a gun and mangling the other by tying round him and setting" fire to a belt of rockets. While Sindia vented his hate on the Shenvi Bráhmans, Bájiráv gratified his revenge by seizing and throwing into confinement the former supporters of Nana and of Parashuram Bháu and other Patvardhans. Sindia was now allpowerful at Poona. He had Bájiráv so entirely in his hands, that he for some time kept a guard round Bajirav's palace lest he should attempt to escape. Before the close of 1800, the rapid success of Yashvantráv Holkar, who had overrun almost the whole of Málwa, compelled Sindia to leave Poona and march north. Before he left Poona he forced Bájiráv to give him bills worth £470,000 (Rs. 47 lákhs). Several bloody battles were fought between Sindia and Holkar in Málwa. The infamous Ghátge joined Sindia's army and gained a complete victory over Holkar. Yashvantráv, though nearly ruined, by a skilful march arrived unexpectedly in the neighbourhood of When Sindia left Poona, instead of trying to win Poona.

the respect of his people, Bájiráv gave his attention to distressing and pillaging all who had opposed either himself or his father. One of the first who suffered was Madhavrav Rastia. whom he invited to visit him, seized, and hurried to prison. This act, followed by others like it, caused general discontent. Lawlessness spread and the Deccan was filled with bands of plundering horsemen. Among the prisoners taken in one affray was Vithoji the brother of Yashvantráv Holkar. According to Marátha practice the punishment to prisoners taken in a plundering raid was not always death. Something short of death might have sufficed in the case of a son of Tukoji Holkar. But Tukoji Holkar had been Nana's friend and the Holkars were Sindia's enemies. So to death Bájiráv added disgrace and sat by as Vithoii was bound to an elephant's foot and dragged to death in the streets of Poona (April 1801). Bájiráv's cruelty brought on him the hate of Vithoji's brother Yashvantráv, a hate which for years haunted Bájiráv's coward mind, Shortly after Vithoji's death, the news of Yashvantráv's vow of vengeance and of his successes against Sindia's troops at Ujain (June 1801) led Bájiráv to address him in friendly terms as the heir of Tukoji Holkar. As Sindia was fully occupied with his fight against Holkar, who had more than once defeated his troops, Bajirav thought the opportunity suitable for seizing Sindia's officer Ghatge. Ghatge, whose plundering was causing much misery in the Doccan, came into Poona and in his demands for money insulted the Poona Court. Báláji Kunjar, Bájiráv's favourite. asked him to his house to receive some of the money he demanded. Chátge came; but noticing from a signal given by Báláji Kunjar that treachery was intended, he forced his way out, leaped on his horse, escaped, and returned to Poona with a force threatening to sack the city. The British Resident was called in to effect some settlement of Ghátge's claim, and Poona was saved further loss by an urgent message from Sindia requiring Ghatge in Malwa. Early in 1802 Sháh Ahmad Khán, an officer detached by Yashvantráv Holkar, carried his ravages into the Peshwa's territories between the Godávari and Poona, and cut off almost to a man a force of 1500 horse under Narsing Khanderav the chief of Vinchur. The consternation at Poona caused Bájiráv to renew negotiations with the English. He wished to have a force, but he objected to its presence in his territory, and he still refused to agree that the English should arbitrate between him and the Nizam Yesh santráv Holkar himself soon moved towards Poona. The Peshwa did all in his power to stop him. Yashvantráv said, You cannot give me back Vithoji but set my nephew Khanderáv free. Bájiráv promised; but, instead of setting him free, had Khanderáv thrown into prison at Asirgad. Meanwhile Sindia's army joined the Peshwa's, and together they prepared to stop Holkar at the Ali Bela pass in north Poona. Yashvantrav, knowing their strength passed east by Ahmadnagar, joined his general Fatesing Mane near Jejuri, marched down the Rájvári pass, and on the 23rd of October 1802 encamped between Loni and Hadapsar about five miles east of Poona.

About eight days before Yashvantráv's arrival the joint Sindia-Peshwa army had fallen back from Ali Bela and taken a position

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Chapter VII.

History.

MARÁTHAS

Marathas, 1720-1812 Vuhoji Holkov Killed, 1801,

> Yashvantráv Holkar's Invasion, 1802.

DISTRICTS.

Chapter VII. History. Maráthás, 1720-1817. Yashvantráv Tolkar's Victory, 1802.

> Bájiráv leaves Poona.

* 'oona Plundered, 1802.

> Treaty of Bassein. 31st December 1802.

close to Poona near the present cantonment. The Peshwa ordered Yashvantráv to retire. He replied he was willing to obey; but that Sindia, not he, was the rebel and had refused to give up Yashvantrav's nephew Khanderav whom Bajirav had ordered him to set free. the morning of the 25th of October the armies met, and, after a well contested fight, the battle ended in a complete victory for Yashvantráv which was chiefly due to his own energy and courage. Bájiráv making sure of victory came out to see the battle but the firing frightened him and he turned southward. On learning the fate of the battle he fled to Sinhgad. From Sinhgad he sent an engagement to Colonel Close binding himself to subsidise six battalions of sepoys and to cede £250,000 (Rs. 25 lákhs) of yearly revenue for their support. He had already agreed to waive his objection to allow the troops to be stationed in his territory. some days after his victory Yashvantráv showed great moderation at Poons. He placed guards to protect the city, treated Bájiráv's dependents with kindness and made several attempts to persuade Bájiráv to come back. Bájiráv, after staying three days in Sinhgad, fled to Ráygad in Kolába, and from Ráygad retired to the island of Suvarndurg off the north coast of Ratnagiri. From Suvarndurg, alarmed by news of the approach of one of Holkar's generals, he passed to Revdanda, and from Revdanda sailed in an English ship to Bassein which he reached on the 6th of December 1802. Meanwhile, at Poona, when Holkar heard that Bajirav had fled from Sinhgad, he levied a contribution from the people of Poona. contribution was arranged by two of Bájiráv's officers and it was carried out in an orderly manner. When Yashvantrav found that Bájiráv would not return he sent a body of troops to Amritráv with the offer of the Peshwaship. Amritrav at first refused; but, when Bájiráv threw himself into the hands of the English, Amritráv held that he had abdicated and took his place. After much hesitation he was confirmed as Peshwa by the Satara chief.

This settlement of affairs at Poona was followed by a plunder of the city as complete and as wickedly cruel as Sindia's plunder in 1798. Every person of substance was seized and tortured out of their property and several out of their life. The loss of property was unusually severe as some time before the battle of the 25th of October Bájiráv had set guards to keep people from leaving Poona and Holkar took care that after the victory these guards were not with-These excesses were begun even before Colonel Close left Poona. Both Amritray and Holkar were anxious to keep Colonel Close in Poona. They wished him to mediate in their differences with Sindia and the Peshwa, and his presence seemed to show that the British Government approved of their usurpation of power. Finding that no persuasion could alter Colonel Close's purpose he was allowed to leave on the 20th of November 1802.

On the 31st of December 1802, at Bassein in the North Konkan, Bájiráv agreed to a treaty, under which the English undertook to restora Bajirav to power in Poona and to maintain permanently in the Peshwa's dominions a subsidiary force of 6000 regular infantry with the usual proportion of field artillery and European artillerymen. In return for these troops the Peshwa agreed that districts yielding a yearly revenue of £260,000 (Rs. 26 lákhs) should be assigned to the English; that he would keep a force of 3000 infantry and 5000 horse; that he would entertain no European of any nation hostile to the English; and that he would have no dealings with any power without consulting the British Government. The treaty of Bassein made the English sovereign in the Deccan; Bájiráv bought safety at the cost of independence. In March 1803 to reestablish Bájiráv at Poona the subsidiary force at Haidarabad under Colonel Stevenson took a position at Purinda near the Peshwa's eastern frontier. General Wellesley was detached from the main army of Madras which was assembled in the north of Maisur, and, with 8000 infantry and 1700 cavalry, was directed to march towards Poona to co-operate with Colonel Stevenson. Wellesley left Harihar in Maisur on the 9th of March and crossed the Tungbhadra on the 12th. On the banks of the Krishna he was joined by the Patvardhan and other Maratha and Brahman Karnatak estateholders, all of whom, especially the Patvardhans, showed much friendliness to the British. On the 19th of April as he drew near Poona, General Wellesley was warned that Bájiráv's brother Amritrav was likely to burn the city. To prevent this misfortune General Wellesley pressed on with the cavalry of his division, and the Marátha troops under Ápa Sáheb Gokhla and others of the Peshwa's officers, using such speed, that, though kept six hours in the Little Bor pass, he reached Poons on the 20th of April after a march of sixty miles in thirty-two hours. In the country south of the Bhima straggling bodies of Holkar's plunderers were seen, who, on being ordered to desist, had retired. Before General Wellesley reached Poona all hostile troops had left. Holkar had gone to Chandor in Násik some days before, and Amritráv had started that morning for Sangamner in Ahmadnagar.² On the 13th of May, escorted from Panvel by 2300 infantry of whom 1200 were Europeans, Bájiráv entered Poons, was installed as Peshwa, and received presents from the leading men of the state.

Chapter VII. History. Marathas, 1720 - 1817 Treaty of Bassein 31st December 1802.

Bájiráv Restor

98, 100, 101; III. 448.

² Amritráv fought and defeated the Rája Bahádur of Násik. He afterwards entered into an agreement with General Wellesley, and finally retired to Benares on Grant Duff's Maráthás. 569.

a yearly pension of £80,000 (Rs. 8 lakhs), Grant Duff's Marathas, 569.

General Wellesley's route was by Mirai and Pandharpur to Baramati. He camped at Baramati on the 18th of April and at Moreshvar on the 19th. At Moreshvar he heard that Amritray meant to burn Poona. After halting for a few hours at Moreshvar he moved with one native battalion and the whole of his cavalry. Though detained six hours in the Bor pass he entered Poona at two on the 20th of April, a march of sixty miles in thirty-two hours. The infantry joined him on the 22nd. Col. Close in Wellington's Despatches, L 166. During this war General Wellesley made one greater march than this. When engaged on the Godávari he started on the morning of the 4th of February 1804 with the British cavalry, the 74th Regiment, the first battalion of the 8th Regiment, 500 men belonging to other native corps, and the Maisur and Maratha cavalry. After a march of twenty miles on the 4th word was brought that the enemy were twenty-four miles off. He marched again on the night of the 4th, but the road was bad and they did not reach the place named till nine next morning. The infantry arrived at the point of attack along with the eavalry. The enemy had heard of their advance, were in retreat, but still in sight. They were pursued from height to height till the whole body was scattered. All was over by twelve on the 5th. The troops had marched sixty miles in thirty hours. General Wellesley thought this was quicker even than Marathas. He often spoke of it as the greatest march he ever made. Wellington's Despatches, II. 97,

DISTRICTS.

Chapter VII. History. Maráthás, 1720 - 1817. Condition. *1803*.

In consequence of the ravages from which the country had for some years suffered, and especially from the ruin caused by Holkar and his Pendháris, 1803 was a year of scarcity in the Deccan, and, in consequence of the complete failure of rain in September and October 1803, the last months of 1803 and the first half of 1804 was a time of deadly famine. Meanwhile, secretly encouraged by Bájiráv, Sindia and Raghuji Bhonsla were preparing to contest British supremacy in the Deccan. The capture of Ahmadnagar fort on the 12th of August 1803 and the famous victory of Assaye. 160 miles north-east of Poona, on the 23rd of September made the British supreme in the Deccan. For some time the country round Poona continued disturbed by insurgents and freehooters. When they were crushed, until Bájiráv stirred war in 1816, the presence of British troops at Poona, Sirur, and Ahmadnagar preserved peace. When it passed under British sovereignty Poona, like most of the Deccan, was little more than a desert. In January 1803, writing from information received at Maisur, General Wellesley described the country round Poons as entirely exhausted.2 It was in great confusion. The heads of villages and districts no longer obeyed the chiefs who had governed them; each had assumed supreme authority in his own district, and they were carrying on a petty but destructive war against each other. In April 1803, after his march from Miraj through Bárámati and the Little Bor pass, General Wellesley wrote: 8 In the country to the south-east of Poona Holkar could not possibly maintain an army. They have not left a stick standing within 150 miles of Poona. They have eaten the forage and grain, have pulled down houses, and have used the material as firewood. The people have fled with their cattle. Between Miraj and Poona, except in one village, not a human being had been seen. General Wellesley's rapid march saved Poons from hurning. The people showed the most lively gratitude and great numbers returned to their homes.4 The Poona market was well supplied with grain, but forage was so scarce that General Wellesley determined to march west to the hills. He went no further than Punavle, about fifteen miles to the west of the city

¹ The Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone, who was on General Wellesley's staff at the head of one of the branches of the Intelligence Department and took part in all the engagements in this war, describes the Maratha camp as an assemblage of every sort engagements in this war, describes the Maratha camp as an assemblage of every sort of covering of every shape and colour, spreading for miles on all sides over hill and dale mixed with tents, flags, trees, and buildings (Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 175; II. 137). When the Marathas marched, a sea of horse foot and dragoons poured over the country fifteen miles long by two or three broad. Here and there were a few horse with a flag and a drum, mixed with a loose and straggling mass of camels, elephants, bullocks, dancing girls, beggars and buffaloes, troops and followers, lancemen and matchlocknien, traders, and agents or mutsadis (Ditto). Of his life in the English camp Mr. Elphinstone gives the following details: Tents are struck before five, and early breakfast is taken about six. Then we mount and ride coursing a mile for two out on the flank, reach the camping ground between ten and twelve, and or two out on the flank, reach the camping ground between ten and twelve, and sit if the chairs have come or lie on the ground. When the tents are pitched we move into them and talk till breakfast. After breakfast we work read talk or rest in the tents till dark. Then comes some exercise, dressing for dinner, dinner, and talk till nine. Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 84-85.

2 Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, III. 531, 559.

4 Wellington's Despatches, I. 143.

4 Wellington's Despatches, I. 145.

Wellington's Despatches I. 147.

because he found that as soon as he moved all the people of property left Poona. From Punavle he sent his cattle further up the ralley to graze.² In the country to the north-east of Poona (18th June 1803) the people were in the villages and they had grain in underground pits, but there was no government, or indeed anything but thieving.3 The country was very poor. From the Peshwa to the lowest horseman no one had a shilling.4 The entire Marátha territory was unsettled and in ruins. Owing to Holkar's plunder and extortion whole districts were unpeopled and the towns destroyed. estateholders for several years had received no rents they were forced to allow their troops to plunder their own territories. Every man was a plunderer and a thief; no man who could seize or steal would till.5 The Peshwa's resources were small and the land about Poona was waste.6 In 1803 the rainfall in June July and early August was sufficient, apparently abundant. But the late rains of September and October completely failed; except in the west the bulk of the early harvest must have perished and the late crops were probably never sown. The failure of rain was specially severe in the central and eastern parts of Poona and Ahmadnagar. By the eleventh of October there was every reason to expect a great scarcity Lightin if not a famine. The troops in Poona could be supplied only from Bombay and Bombay only from Kanara. In Bombay the fear of famine was so strong that Governor Duncan kept for the use of the settlement grain which was meant to have gone to the army in the Deccan.8 Even in the hilly west of Poona, which depends little on the late rains, early in October, famine was raging. ⁹The English traveller Lord Valentia reached Khandála from Bombay on the 9th of October. Close to the pond vultures and dogs were feeding on about a hundred dead bodies. Famine was in every face, several houses were empty, and the last victims had never been removed from the places where they perished. This terrible suffering seems not to have been due to a local failure of rain as the hills were green to the top, there were many paddy fields, and the harvest was nearly ripe. Karla was the first stage from Bombay where Lord Valentia saw no famine corpses. The country near Talegaon was level and without tillage or trees, and a little beyond Chinchyad were signs of Holkar's devastations: the village of Aundh on the Mutha was nearly in ruins. The streets of Poona showed no great signs of suffering, but the sight of dead bodies on the river banks in every stage of decay was distressing. Colonel Close the resident distributed charity chiefly from & fund of £4000 (Rs. 40,000) which Lady Mackintosh had collected in Bombay. He at first gave the people boiled rice. But the sight of the food drove the people nearly frantic and numbers lost their share. Money (2 as.) was Chapter VI History. Maráthás 1720 - 1817. Condition, 1803.

Wellington's Despatches, I. 155; III 91. ² Wellington's Despatches, III. 91. Wellington's Despatches, III. 190. ⁸ Wellington's Despatches, III. 186, 188. Wellington's Despatches, I. 240. Welling 7 Wellington's Despatches, I. 288 and other passages. ⁶ Wellington's Despatches, I. 332,

⁸ Wellington's Despatches, I. 441-447.
9 Travels, II. 112-169. Lord Valentia noticed that the Indráyani or Bor pass valley between Kárla and Talegaon was strewn with agates, onyx, and carnelian. When he was in Poona he made a large collection of agates which were to be had in profusion. Ditto, II, 113.

Thapter VII.

History.

MARATHAS,
1720-1817.

Condition,
1803-4.

accordingly given instead of grain. About 5000 people were relieved every day. The Peshwa confined his charity to the relief of Brahmans of whom he fed great numbers. In December 1803 General Wellesley wrote: The Peshwa has not in his service a common writer of civil officer to whom he can trust the management of a single district. His territories are all either in the hands of his enemies or are without managers on his part. All the persons capable of arranging his state are either in the service of his enemies or are imprisoned and oppressed by himself. Rich districts are going to ruin because all the persons fit to manage them are in prison or oppressed by the Peshwa. Unless the Peshwa sets these people free and employs them in settling the country the Poona state will never revive. In January 1804 General Wellesley described the Deccan as a chaos. If a militia was not raised and government put in some regular train all must fall to pieces.8 The Peshwa's government was only a name. The country along the Bhima five miles north of Poona was unsettled, a dreary waste overrun with thieves. The Peshwa was unfit to manage the government himself. He gave no trust or power to any one and had no person about him to conduct the common business of the country.4 Towards the end of February (23rd) General Wellesley wrote : The Peshing 300 nothing to improve his government. His only system of government is that of a robber. He does not choose to keep up an army and his territories are overrun by armed men who are ready to enlist with any one who will lead them to plunder. Except the British troops there is no power in the country to support the government and protect the industrious classes of the people. Conceive a country in every village of which twenty to thirty horsemen have been dismissed from the service of the state and have no means of living except by plunder. There is no law, no civil government, no army to keep the plunderers in order; no revenue can be collected; no inhabitant will or can remain to cultivate unless he is protected by an armed force stationed in his village. Habits of industry are out of the question; men must plunder or starve. The state of the police was also lamentable. The Peshwa's ministers and favourites were the patrons and the sharers of the profits gained by the thieves in their plunder of those whose necessities forced them to travel through the country.6 In March, General Wellesley wrote: Bájiráv's great object is to gain money to meet the expenses of the pleasures of his court. He makes no attempt to organize the force, which, under the treaty of Bassein, he is bound to support, and is anxious to employ English troops in putting down robbers and helping his revenue-collectors. General Wellesley refused to

a great review in which the British troops took part. The Peshwa, on an elephant, passed along the line to a spot where the branch of a tree had been stuck in the ground. He got off the elephant and performed the ceremonies. He plucked some ears of corn, a salute was fired, and he went off in a looking-glass elephant-car. Formerly whole fields of corn used to be wasted, the Peshwa leading the wasters. Travels, II. 123-124.

<sup>Wellington's Despatches, I. 547.
Wellington's Despatches, II. 16, 17.
Wellington's Despatches, II. 125, 127.
Wellington's Despatches, II. 128, 129, 187.</sup>

have anything to do with the police of the country or the little dirty amildari exactions. 1 At the end of April (23rd) the accounts of the state of the Deccan were very distressing. Even in the Nizam's country, which was better off than the west, the sufferings were extreme. It was scarcely possible to get forage or grain; a detachment was some days without food and lost 100 horses in one day. At Poons the British cavalry horses had for some time been fed on Bombay rice. Rice was not wholesome food for horses, but it was the only grain that could be got. General Wellesley doubted if he could move his troops from Poona.² In May matters were worse. In Poona all but the fighting men suffered much distress. By great exertions grain was procured but it sold for five pounds (2½ shers) the rupee. Forage was very scarce except near the Bor pass, and even there it was dear and bad.3 In the beginning of June, so many cattle died and General Wellesley received such dreadful accounts of the want of forage that he determined to stay in Poona as a measure of prudence if not of necessity.

Towards the end of December 1805 Sir James Mackintosh, the Recorder or Chief Justice of Bombay (1804-1811), came from Bombay to visit Colonel Close the Resident at Poona. He was pleased with Chinchvad and its sacred family, in one of whom the god Ganesh dwelt, and whose sacredness had saved the village from ruin in Holkar's ravages in 1802. Just before reaching Poona, Mackintosh was interested to see a thousand Maratha horse, a fair sample of the terrible cavalry who had wasted and won almost the whole of India. Their air was martial even fierce and next to the Bombay watermen. probably the Koli fishermen, they were more robust them any Indians Mackintosh had seen. They had no uniform and their clothes and arms were most neglected. Their horses varied; some were very wild and some very mean, none were showy. The English in Poona moved with considerable state. In front went two scarletcoated couriers or harkarás on camels, then an escort of sepoys, then several scarlet mace-bearers, then some of the party on horses and the rest on elephants. The Residency at the Sangam, which Mackintosh describes as a set of bungalows spread over the enclosure, was fitted conveniently and luxuriously. Poons city had its principal streets paved with stone and was reckoned one of the best built native towns in India. The Peshwa's residence, the Saturday Palace or Shanvar Vada, from its size well deserved the name of palace. A gateway opened into a large rather handsome square surrounded by buildings, whose walls were painted with scenes from Hindu mythology. The staircase at one corner was steep and narrow, an odd contrast to the handsome square. The audience hall was a long gallery supported by two rows of massive wooden pillars. The hall was carpeted and at one end on a white cloth were three pillows, the Peshwa's state seat. Bájiráv. who was then about thirty-four, was a fair man, very handsome, with a perfect gentlemanlike air and manner, simply and neatly dressed

Chapter VII. History. Maráthás, 1720-1817. Condition. 1803-4.

1805.

¹ Wellington's Despatches, II. 85, 147, 187.

Wellington's Despatches, II. 214. Wellington's Despatches, II. 224-225. Wellington's Despatches, II, 288. Mackintosh's Life, I. 274-288.

Chapter VII.
History.
MARATHAS,
1720 - 1817.
Condition,
1805.

in white muslin. He had the easy bearing of one who had a long familiarity with a superior station. Though more elegant than dignified he was not effeminate. Of the three chiefs of nations to whom Mackintosh had been presented, George III., Napoleon, and Bájiráv, Mackintosh preferred the Bráhman.¹ The etiquette of Bájiráv's court was a whisper. When they moved to Bájiráv's own room, an unfurnished bare-walled closet with a white floor cloth and some small pillows, Bájiráv spoke warmly of his happiness under the British alliance. Mackintosh's assurance that the English would always protect his security and comfort, brightened his face with apparently genuine delight. Mackintosh thought Bájiráv's feelings natural, perhaps reasonable, and obviously unaffected. He had lost independence but had gained rest for himself and his people, personal enjoyment and comfort, and outward dignity. An ambitious man might prefer the independence, a philosopher's choice might vary. Bájiráv was neither a hero nor a sage; he was devoted to nothing but to women and to the gods. On leaving the palace a diamond crest was fastened in Mackintosh's hat, a diamond necklace was thrown round his neck, and several pieces of gold and silver cloth and fine muslin were laid before his feet. According to custom these presents were given up and sold on account of the Honourable East India Company.

In spite of the unfeigned obviously natural joy and thankfulness which carried conviction to such shrewd and practised observers as Lord Valentia, Sir James Mackintosh, and Colonel Close, since his restoration to power, Bájiráv had been steadily disloyal to the English.² He wrote (1803) to the chiefs who were in league against the English explaining that his wretched dependence on the enemy was due to the treachery of the southern estate-holders; he failed to give General Wellesley any help in his campaign against Sindia (1803), and did his best to stop his supplies; and in conducting his affairs with the English Resident, he employed Sadáshiv Mánkeshvar, whose chief qualification for the post was his open enmity to the English. That the English recommended it was enough to secure the failure of any plan for the good of his government. During

¹ Mr. Elphinstone on first meeting Bajirav (April, 1802) found him a handsome unaffected person, with a good and dignified face though there was some coarseness about the mouth. Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 46.

² Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 291. Lord Valentia, who had three interviews with

² Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 291. Lord Valentia, who had three interviews with Bájiráv in October 1803, was satisfied that the Peshwa highly valued the English alliance and was sincerely delighted when he heard the news that Holkar's fort of Chándor in Nasik had fallen to the English army (Travels, II. 130). Colonel Close, according to Lord Valentia, had no doubt that the Peshwa was sincere in his gratitude to the English. He had never seen the Peshwa so evidently pleased or heard him more unequivocally declare his sentiments. The way in which the Peshwa and his brother Chimnaji lived together without jealousy proved how excellent was the Peshwa's heart (Ditto, 136). With Lord Valentia's, Sir James Mackintosh's, and Colonel Close's high opinion of Bájiráv's evident sincerity it is interesting to compare the Duke of Wellington's opinion, who, and Mr. Elphinstone under his influence, were the only Englishmen who resisted the fascination of Bájiráv's manner. The Duke of Wellington, says Grant Duff (Maráthás, 572 foot), had (1803) remarkably correct views of Marátha character; his opinion of Bájiráv's future conduct was prophetic. In May 1803, when Bájiráv was established at Poona, Colonel Close (Wellington's Despatches, I. 170) described the Peshwa's disposition as wholly satisfactory. The Duke at the same time (14th May 1803) wrote (Ditto, 164): The Peshwa showed much quickness

the years between 1805 and 1811, under Colonel Close and for a short time after under Mr. Russel, affairs went smoothly at Poona. Bajiráv for a time seems to have honestly considered the English alliance a piece of good fortune and the country greatly improved.\(^1\) On the 10th of November 1808, Sir James Mackintosh paid a second visit to the Deccan. He found Kárla a miserable village of fifteen or twenty huts and about fifty people. It paid £100 (Rs. 1000) a year to a man of rank at Poona, who had lately threatened to raise the rent to £120 (Rs. 1200), and the people had threatened to leave. Mackintosh thought the state of the people wretched. They felt they were governed only when they paid taxes, in every other respect they were left to themselves, without police or justice, except such as the village system supplied. It was hard to say why taxes were paid, unless to bribe the sovereign to abstain from murder and robbery. At Talegaon the wood entirely ceased The land was bare and little cultivated; there were no villages; the

Chapter VII-History Marathas, 1720-1311. Condition, 1808.

and ability: he appeared particularly anxious to perform the stipulations of the treaty at the smallest possible expense to himself. Early in June, when he had to leave Poona to act against Sindia and the Berar chief without any help from Bajirav, the Duke (4th June; Ditto, I. 179) felt that the Peshwa had broken the treaty by not furnishing an army and had broken his word to the Duke by not settling with the southern chiefs. Still he believed the Peshwa was not treacherous. On the 8th of June (Ditto, III. 166) he began to doubt if the Peshwa was only incapable. Stubborn facts proved that something besides the Peshwa's incapacity for business prevented a Marátha army helping the English. On the 19th of June (Ditto, I. 185-188), when he could get no supplies and was worse off than in an enemy's country, he could no longer help feeling that the Peshwa was thwarting him. On the 20th of June he believed the Peshwa disliked the English alliance. He had found out that the Peshwa had daily communications with Sindia and Holkar of which the Resident he believed the Peshwa disliked the English alliance. He had found out that the Peshwa had daily communications with Sindia and Holkar of which the Resident at Poona knew nothing (Ditto, III. 191). On the 23rd of June (Ditto, III. 201) he describes Bájiráv as unwilling as well as incapable, a prince the only known principle of whose character is insincerity. On the 24th of June (Ditto, I. 194) the Duke was satisfied that the Peshwa was not true to the English cause and was preventing grain coming to his army. On the 28th of September he wrote (Ditto, I. 410): The Peshwa is sincere in his intention to keep to our alliance, but there is crookedness in his policy. He has no ministers; he is everything himself and everything is little. In January 1804 he wrote (Ditto, II. 87.88): The Peshwa's only principles of government are revenge and jealousy of me. He will begin again, or rather will continue for I believe he has never stopped, his intrigues with Sindia. I certainly have a bad opinion of him; he has no public feeling and his private disposition is terrible. I have no positive proof that he has been treacherous, but I have a strong suspicion of it, and I know that since he has signed the treaty of Bassein he has done no one thing that was desired. In February 1804 (Ditto, III. 468), when he found that Bájiráv had Frenchmen hid for a mouth in Poona, he wrote: Is not this shocking? What is to be done with the fellow? This is our good and faithful ally! And again on the 7th of March (Ditto, II. 138): The Peshwa is callous to everything except money and revenge. If he is sincere how can we explain his never telling the Resident that the Frenchmen had come to Poona. According to Mr. Elphinstone, who, after studying his character for several years (November 1815): Bájiráv's ruling passions were fear and revenge. His great art was dissimulation. He was habitually insincere, joining a talent for insinuation to a natural love of artifice and intrigue. His want of courage and his love of ease thwarted his eagerness for p deference. He was proud and haughty but to serve his ends stooped to any meanness. Changeable humours hid fixed designs. He was able, humane when neither afraid nor vengeful, frugal, courteous, and dignified. Half his life was spent in fasts, prayers, and pilgrimages, and a large share of his revenue on magical practices. He was most strict to guard against ceremonial impurity, and almost daily spent hours in disgusting debauchery in large assemblies of women of rank. (Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 287-288. 1 Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 246.

Histor Markithis, 1720-1817. Condition, 1808. road was lonely; and the whole country seemed empty. At Punavle were the ruins of a large castle or váda which had been destroyed by Holkar in 1802. It had both square and round towers and was not unlike an English feudal castle of the rudest form. Sir James was met by Colonel Close on the morning of the 12th of November and taken on an elephant to the Sangam. He describes Colonel Close as without accomplishment or show, plain, cautious, and with a degree of mildness that formed a singular contrast with the firmness and even sternness which he had shown on trying occasions. He had a calm understanding, wholly employed in practice, united to a strength of nerve which qualified him equally for a cautious or a vigorous policy. He was a very superior man who among common observers might easily have passed for a very common man.1 According to Colonel Close's information the population of the city of Poona was about a hundred thousand. The police was entrusted to a military Bráhman of the family of Gokhla who had a considerable establishment and his duty was either so easy or so skilfully performed, that, notwithstanding the frequent meeting of armed men, instances of disorder were rare. Gokhla punished all small offences. Great crimes were punished by the officers entrusted with the districts and in very serious cases by the government. Capital punishment was rare. Civil disputes were settled by arbitration under the sanction of the ministers. There was not a court of judicature, nor a judge in the whole Maratha dominions; nor were there any regular forms of trial.2 Mackintosh speaks less civilly of Bajirav than he spoke of him in 1805: The Peshwa has just come back from Pandharpur. He is a disgusting mixture of superstition and dissolute manners, a combination which was not unnatural among Hindus, who, in Mackintosh's opinion, had expunged purity of manners from their catalogue of

1811.

During the six years ending 1811 the bulk of the residency work was in the hands of a Pársi named Khusruji, a man of judgment and great address, who had been won over to the Peshwa's interests. In 1811 Mr. Russel was succeeded by the Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone. Mr. Elphinstone had been at Poona in 1802 as Colone.

¹Mr. Elphinstone (21st September 1812) describes Sir Barry Close as a man of a strong and hardy frame, a clear head, and vigorous understanding, fixed principles, unshaken courage, and a contempt for pomp and pleasure. His entire devotion to the public service and his extreme modesty and simplicity combined to form such a character as one would expect to meet in ancient Rome rather than in our own age and nation. Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 270.

Nothing seemed so strange to the Recorder as that so great a country could exist without a judge. Two circumstances diminished his wonder. The first was the power of the officers of villages or rather townships, who, throughout India, preserved a sort of republican constitution under despotic princes and retained their authority in the midst of the revolutions among their superiors. The second was the great power of the Brahmans and heads of castes who were a kind of natural arbitrators in all disputes, and who could punish offences by expulsion from caste, a penalty more terrible than any which the law could inflict. These two authorities, with the irregular jurisdiction of the executive officers, were sufficient to maintain tranquillity. Still the absence of regular forms of criminal justice had the usual effect in corrupting nations so unfortunate as to be destitute of that great school of morality. Sir James Mackintosh's Life, I. 460-1.

Close's assistant, in 1803 he was on General Wellesley's staff in the war against Sındia and the chief of Berár, and between 1803 and 1807 he was Resident at the Berar chief's court at Nagpur.1 Mr. Elphinstone was well versed in Maratha politics and Maratha state-craft, and did all business direct not through Khusruji. This change was most distasteful to Khusruji who succeeded in raising in the Peshwa's mind a dislike of Mr. Elphinstone. This dislike was to a great extent removed in 1812, when, as the Patvardhan and other southern estateholders refused to acknowledge the Peshwa's supremacy, Mr. Elphinstone assembled an army at Pandharpur, marched towards the Krishna, and forced the estateholders to abide by their original agreement with the Poona state. Bájiráv was profuse in his acknowledgments to Mr. Elphinstone. In 1813, in connection with these troubles, he declared that he wished to have no more vassal horse.2 He was anxious to raise a brigade of native infantry, drill it by European officers, and pay it from his treasury. To this the Governor General readily agreed (1813), and, at Khusruji's suggestion, Captain John Ford, of the Madras establishment, who had been long attached to Colonel Close's escort, was appointed commandant of the brigade. Able officers from the line, chosen by Captain Ford, were also lent from the Bombay establishment to help to form and discipline the corps. Except a small proportion of Marathas the men were chiefly raised in the Company's provinces in Northern India. On entering their battalions they swore fidelity to the Peshwa, adding of their own accord the condition, so long as he continued in alliance with the British. The cantonment allotted for this brigade was at the village of Dapuri about four miles north-west of Poona. One brigade of British troops was stationed at Poona near Gárpir, a spot originally chosen to guard the city; the rest of the subsidiary force were posted about half-way between Poons and Ahmadnagar, on the river Ghod near the village of Sirur. Some time before 1813 a quarrel, which seems to have been stirred up by Bájiráv, broke out between Khasruji the resident's agent and Sidashiv Mankeshvar one of Bajirav's ministers. Khusruji had received from the Poshwa the valuable post of sarsubhedir or governor of the Marátha Kainitak. Sadishiv Mankeshvar who coveted this appointment accused Khusruji of mismanagement, and Mr. Elphinstone told Khusruji that he must choose between his agency at the residency

Chapter VII. Histor. MARÁT. 1720 -

¹ Mr. Elphiustone's plan of life at Poons was to ride ten to twenty miles in the

¹ Mr. Elphinstone's plan of life at Poona was to ride ten to twenty miles in the morning, do club exercise, breakfast, apply to public business and private correspondence from about ten to two, lunch on a few sandwiches figs and a glass of water, rest half an hour, read and write, drive in the evening, take more club exercise, dine on a few potatoes and one or two glasses of claret and water, and read till sleep at eleven. Especially in the hot weather he suffered much from low spirits and bad health. Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 235.

The Peshwa had soon a fresh instance of the value of the British force whom he found it necessary to call in against Apa Desái, who, refused to comply with certain claims devolving on the Peshwa by the late settlement and to give up some territory belonging to the Raja of Kolhapur. The British authorities interposed, but Bajiráv artfully contrived to induce Apa Desái to trust to his lenity, and resist the demands. By this insidious conduct the Desái was led to forfeit one-fourth of his estate to the Peshwa. Grant Duff's Maráthás, 621. Compare Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 253.

History.

Maráthás,
1720-1817.

and his government. Khusruji chose the residency agency and his appointment as governor of the Karnátak was given to Trimbakji Denglia one of Bájiráv's chief favourites. This Trimbakii, afterwards the main cause of Bajiray's fall, was originally a spy who had risen to notice by the speed with which he brought Bájiráv an answer from Poona when (1502) he was at Mahad in Kolaba in flight from Holkar. Trimbakji continued a most active useful and unscrupulous servant to Bajirav, supple in adopting his master's views and bold in carrying them out. He boasted that he was ready to kill a cow if his master told him. He was perhaps the only man who ever gained Bájiráv's confidence, as he was too low to be feared, too despicable to excite jealousy, and too servile to irritate by Bájiráv's success against his southern estateholders led him to speak vaguely of enforcing his claims on the Nizám, Sindia, and the Gaikwar. At this time Bajirav apparently had no thought of acting against the British Government. It was Trimbakji's bitter hatred of Europeans which succeeded in flattering Bájiráv into the belief, that, if he only steadily added to his army, he might in time be able to make himself independent of the English. Accordingly the Peshwa began systematically to strengthen his force, chiefly engaging Gosavi and Arab infantry. Mr. Elphinstone raised no objection. On the contrary he was anxious to see the Peshwa's force strengthened, so that they could more effectually resist the attacks of the Pendharis who were now causing great loss in many parts of the Deccan.2 At this time Khusruji exercised an evil influence on the Peshwa by constantly enlarging on the great gains which the British Government had received from the treaty of Bassein. Mr. Elphinstone was aware of Khusruji's views, determined to remove him, and made a liberal provision for him in Gujarát. As he was leaving Poona Khusruji died of poison. searching inquiry was made it remained doubtful whether Khusruji committed suicide, as he knew his corrupt practices would become public as soon as he left Poona, or whether he was poisoned by Trimbakji at Bájiráv's suggestion because Khusruji knew too many of their secrets. In 1815 Trimbakji, who continued to rise in favour with Bajirav, was made agent in the affairs with the British Government. Trimbakji studied his master's humours and gained entire ascendancy over his mind. His measures, though ignorant violent and treacherous, were vigorous. His punishments were at once lenient and severe. Robbery and murder might be compensated by a fine; a failure in a revenue contract was an unpardonable offence. The Peshwa farmed his districts to the highest bidder. Those who failed in their contracts had to give up their whole property and that of their securities. If their whole property was insufficient they were thrown into hill-forts and treated with the greatest rigour. Bájiráv's net revenue was about £1,200,000 (Rs. 120 lákhs) out of which he sayed about £500,009 (Rs. 50 lákhs) a year. In 1816 he was believed to have collected £5,000,000 (Rs. 5 krors) of

¹ Colebrooke's Elphinstone, II. 288, 293.
² In 1816 (27th November) Pandhéris Terre plus

² In 1816 (27th November) Pendharis were plundering within fifteen miles of Poona and driving the people into Poona. Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 343, 346.

treasure. Bájiráv's court was gay and licentious beyond that of any former Peshwa, a characteristic agreeable to most Poona Brahmans. His time was passed in the practice of gross debauchery and of religious rites. He claimed great holiness and was most careful to keep all religious rules and ceremonies. Apparently to lay the ghost of Náráyanráv Peshwa, whom his parents had murdered and who seems to have haunted him, Bajirav planted several hundred thousand mango trees about Poona, gave largesses to Brahmans and religious establishments, and was particularly generous to Vithoba's temple at Pandharpur.2 He never listened to his people's complaints. If villagers tried to approach him, his attendants drove them off. The revenue-farmers had generally the superintendence of civil and criminal justice and these powers enabled them to increase their collections. The court of justice at Poona was so corrupt that a suitor without money or influence never won a case. In 1815 the Peshwa continued to send agents to Sindia and Bhonsla and for the first time sent agents to Holkar and the Pendharis. These agents were sent with the object of forming a league to prevent any aggression on the part of the British, or to take advantage of any reverse in the Nepal (1815) or other war which might weaken the British and give the loaguers the chance of shaking off their power. Bajirav had no definite plans. Still he had gone so far that his intrigues would have justified the English in depriving him of power. From time to time Bájiráv spoke to Mr. Elphinstone of the necessity of settling his claims on the Nizam and on the Gaikwar. Mr. Elphinstone was at all times ready to arrange for an inquiry, but Bájiráv always let the subject Chapter V History Maráthá 1720-1817

1 Grant Duff's Maráthás, 625. General Briggs says (Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 303): Out of a yearly revenue of a million and a half sterling Bájiráv laid by half a million. In 1816-17 he must have had at his disposal upwards of eight millions of treasure in jewels and in specie.

The suggestion offered in the text to explain the planting of the mange groves may seem to differ from the usual explanation that the manges were planted to atone for the crime and to gain purity or punya. The suggestion that the atonement and purity Bajiráv sought was freedom from the haunting of a ghost or unclean spirit is based on the following considerations: The mange is one of the holiest, that is the most effective spirit-scarers, among Hindu trees. That the object of planting the mange groves was to keep Náráyanráv's ghost at a distance is supported by the story told by Grant Duff (Maráthás, 625) that one of Bájiráv's religious advisers saw Náráyanráv's ghost and that it ordered a dinner for 100,000 Bráhmans, an entertainment which was at once provided. Two passages in Mackintosh's account of the Mahádev Kolis of Ahmadnagar (1836 Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. I. 223 and 256) further support the view taken in the text. The Kolis at times pay divine honours to persons who have died a violent death particularly if they or their ancestors caused the death. They pay these honours to the spirit of the murdered man to win its favour and that the past may be forgotten. The second passage shows that the Marátha Bráhmans in Bájiráv's fime held the same views as the Kolis about ghost-haunting. In 1777 Balvantráv Bede, the brother-in-law of Nána Fadnavis, treacherously seized and killed five Koli outlaws at Junnar. After the execution of the Kolis Balvantráv became very unhappy. He lost all peace of mind. To regain his tranquility he built a temple near Junnar, and, in it, as the object of worship, set five stones or panch lings representing the five Kolis whom he had executed. That is the ghosts of the five Kolis haunted Balvantráv and he set up these stones as houses for the ghosts of the five Kolis haunted Balvantráv and he set up these stones as houses for the ghosts of the five Kolis haunted Balvantráv and he set up these stones as houses for the ghosts of the five Kolis haunted Balvantráv and he set up these stones

apter VII. History-MARÁTHÁS, 720-1817.

drop. At heart he had no wish to have his claims settled: if his claims were settled his chief opportunity of intriguing with the Nizám and the Gáikwár would cease. At last in 1815, as part of a scheme to establish his ascendancy over Gujarát, he again pressed an adjustment of his claims on the Gaikwar. The Governor General thought it advisable to let the two states settle their affairs by direct negotiation, and that the British Government should not arbitrate unless the states failed to agree. At an early stage in the discussion an agent of the Gáikwár named Gopálráv Mairál had been sent to Poona. The claims of the Gaikwar and the Peshwa were very intricate, and, when Bájiráv, adopting Trimbakji's policy, determined for purposes of intrigue to keep open the discussion no progress was made. For the intrigues which Bájiráv hoped to develop out of these discussions Gopálráv Mairál, who was upright sensible and cautious, was unsuited. In 1814 the Peshwa asked that another agent should be sent both to adjust the accounts and to gain a renewal of the lease of the Peshwa's share of Gujarát. The Gáikwár's new agent was Gangádhar Shástri. Gangádhar Shástri had originally been in the employment of the Phadke family in Poona. He had gained a place at Baroda through Fatesing Gaikwar, had proved of the greatest service to Colonel Walker in settling the claims of the Gaikwar on his feudatory chiefs, and had recently been the leading man at Baroda. So strong was the distrust of Bajirav and the dread of Trimbakji that the Gáikwár asked and obtained the formal guarantee of his minister's safety from the British Government. On a previous occasion in 1811, Bájiráv had approved of Gangádhar Shástri's appointment. Since then he had heard from his supporters in Baroda that Gangadhar Shastri was a friend to the English. In 1814 when Gangádhar Shástri was again proposed as the Gáikwár's agent, Bájiráv objected, stating that when he was a clerk under Phadke, the Shastri had once been insolent to him. As Bájiráv had not raised this objection in 1811, Mr. Elphinstone refused to attach any weight to it. In 1815, as Gangadhar Shastri found that his negotiations with the Peshwa must end in nothing, with Mr. Elphinstone's approval, he determined to return to Baroda and leave the settlement to British This determination produced a sudden change on Bájirávand Trimbakji. If these questions were left to Mr. Elphinstone all excuse for correspondence between the Peshwa and the Gaikwar would cease and intrigue against the English would be made most difficult and dangerous. At any cost Gangadhar Shastri must be won to their interests. Gangadhar Shastri's weak point was vanity. Trimbakji told him what an extremely high opinion Bájiráv had formed of his talents from the ability with which he had supported the Gáikwár's interests. `The Peshwa was most anxious to get Gangádhar

Fangádhar Shastri at Poona, 1815.

¹ Mr. Elphinstone (15th June 1814) describes Gangadhar Shastri as a person of great shrewdness and talent who keeps the whole state of Baroda in the highest order, and, at Poona, lavishes money and marshals his retinue in such style as to draw the attention of the whole place. Though a learned Sanskrit scholar he affects the Englishman, walks fast, talks fast, interrupts and contradicts, mixes English words with everything he says, and calls the Peshwa and his ministers old fools and dam rascal. Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 275.

Shástri into his service. He must not leave Poona at once. This was followed by marked friendliness on Bajirav's part, even by the offer of his sister-in-law in marriage to Gangadhar Shastri's son. Bajirav also agreed to an adjustment of the Peshwa's claims on the Gaikwar which Gangadhar Shastri proposed. The marriage preparations were pushed on. But as no answer came from the Gaikwar to the proposed settlement Gangadhar Shastri began to fear that his master suspected that this offer of marriage had won him to the Peshwa's side. Gangádhar Shástri hesitated about the marriage and much to Bájiráv's annovance it was put off. He further enraged Bájiráv by refusing to allow his wife to visit the Peshwa's palace because of the debauchery from which it was never free. Still Trimbakii continued more cordial and friendly than ever. In July (1815) Bájiráv asked Gangádhar Shástri to go with him on a pilgrimage to Pandharpur. Contrary to Gopálráv Mairál's advice Gangádhar Shástri went. On the 14th of July Gangadhar Shastri dined with the In the evening Trimbakji asked him to Vithoba's temple where the Peshwa was. Gangadhar Shastri went and found the Peshwa most gracious and pleasing. He left the temple in high spirits, and before he had gone 300 yards, was attacked and killed. The heinousness of this crime, the murder of a Brahman in holy Pandharpur, raised a strong feeling against the murderers. Gopálráv Mairál openly accused Trimbakji, and Mr. Elphinstone, after a long inquiry, proved that Trimbakji had hired the assassins. Bájiráv was called on to give up Trimbakji to the British Government. He put Trimbakji under arrest but refused to surrender him. British troops were moved on Poona, Bájiráv's heart failed him, and Trimbakji was surrendered on the 25th of September. Sitárám the Baroda minister, who was in the Peshwa's pay, had helped Trimbakji's plans for murdering Gangádhar Shástri. Between the time of Gangádhar Shástri's murder and Trimbakji's surrender Sitárám busied himself in raising troops. He was taken into custody by the Resident at Baroda much against the will of the regent Fatesing Gaikwar whose conduct showed that like Sitaram he had become a party to Bájiráv's intrigues against the British. Trimbakji was confined in the Thana fort. In the evening of the 12th of October he escaped and reached a safe hiding place in the Ahmadnagar hills.1

After the surrender of Trimbakji Bájiráv's chief advisers were Sadáshiv Bháu Mánkeshvar, Moro Dikshit, and Chimnáji Náráyan. The two last were Konkanasth Bráhmans, who, like most of Bájiráv's courtiers, had gained their prince's favour by their families' dishonour. The agent between Bájiráv and Mr. Elphinstone was Captain Ford the commandant of the Peshwa's regular brigade. Trimbakji's escape seemed to restore Bájiráv's good humour and he continued on the most cordial terms with Mr. Elphinstone. He was now busier than ever organising a league against the English. With Sindia, Holkar, the Rája of Nágpur, and the Pendháris constant negotiations went on. He greatly added to the strength of his army and supplied Trimbakji with funds

Chapter VII History. Maráthás, 1720-1817.

> Gangádhar Shástri Murdered, 1815.

hapter VII. History. Marathas, 1720-1817.

to raise the Bhils, Kolis, Ramoshis, and Mangs of Khandesh Nasik and Ahmadnagar. Other gangs were organised in different parts of Bajirav's territories, which, if they attracted Mr. Elphinstone's notice, were instructed to play the part of Pendharis or insurgents (1817). Mr. Elphinstone had exact knowledge of what was going He sent word to the minister that a large body of troops was assembled at Nátáputa, a village south of the Nira and within fifty miles of Poona. Were these troops the Peshwa's or were they insurgents? The minister replied that the Peshwa had no troops in that part of the country, and that Bapu Gokhla's horse had been sent against the insurgents. When Gokhla's horse reached the Nira they camped among the insurgents and could hear nothing of them. Still Mr. Elphinstone persisted that a large insurrection was on foot in that part of the country, and Bájiráv asked him to take his own measures to suppress it. Colonel Smith, who commanded the Poona subsidiary force, marched to the Nira, the insurgents moved to Jat, Colonel Smith followed them, and they retired north through a little known pass in the Mahadev hills to join a second body of insurgents which had gathered in Khandesh under Trimbakji's relative Godáji Denglia. Before the arrival of the Nira insurgents Godáji's troops had been dispersed by Lieutenant Evan Davis with a body of the Nizam's horse. Bajirav could no longer deny that there were insurgents. He ordered the chief of Vinchur in Násik to act against them, and, soon after, forwarded a letter from the Vinchur chief, giving fictitious details of a defeat of the insurgents. Meanwhile Bájiráv continued to levy both infantry and cavalry. Mr. Elphinstone warned him of the danger he was running and asked him to stop. Bájiráv in reply assumed a peremptory tone, demanding whether Mr. Elphinstone meant war or peace. Mr. Elphinstone directed Colonel Smith to move towards Poona with the light division and told Bájiráv that he had called Colonel Smith to his support. Affairs were urgent. The insurgents were making head in Khándesh; May was already begun; and Bájiráv might retire to a hill fort and during the rains organize a general rising of all the Marátha powers. Disturbances in Katak prevented communication between Poona and Calcutta. But a private letter from the Governor General reached Mr. Elphinstone advising num to make the surrender of Trimbakji a preliminary to any arrangement he might come to with Bajirav. Mr. Elphinstone determined to act without delay. At the Peshwa's desire he visited him and Bájiráv's persuasiveness and the soundness of his arguments would have convinced any one to whom the facts were not known that he could not possibly be unfriendly to the English. While Bájiráv's acts contradicted his words Mr. Elphinstone was not to be deceived. He warned Bájiráv of the dangers he had brought on himself, and told him that unless Trimbakji was either given up or driven out of the Peshwa's territory, war with the English must follow. Several days passed without an answer from Bájiráv. Then Mr. Elphinstone formally demanded the surrender of Trimbakji within a month and the immediate delivery of the three hill forts of Sinhgad and Purandhar in Poons and Raygad in Kolaba s a pledge that Trimbakji would be surrendered. Bajirav had an exaggerated idea of the importance of his friendship to the English. He believed Mr. Elphinstone would not go to extremities and he hoped he might tide over the few weeks that remained till the fighting season was past. On the 7th of May Mr. Elphinstone sent word, that, in case Bájiráv did not agree to hand over the three forts in pledge of Trimbakji's surrender, Poons would be surrounded. At one o'clock in the morning of the 8th Bájiráv sent a messenger in the hope that Mr. Elphinstone might be pursuaded not to surround the city. The discussion lasted all night; day had dawned before the messenger told Mr. Elphinstone that Bajirav agreed to hand over the three forts. The troops were already moving round the city, and had completely surrounded it before Mr. Elphinstone reached the head of the line. As soon as Bájiráv issued an order for the surrender of The Peshwa, as if he at the forts the troops were withdrawn. length had resolved to give up his favourite, issued a proclamation offering £20,000 (Rs. 2 lakks) and a village worth £100 (Rs. 1000) a year, to any one who would bring in Trimbakji dead or alive. He seized some of Trimbakji's adherents and sequestrated the property of others who were concerned in the insurrection. Though these proceedings deceived neither his own subjects nor Mr. Elphinstone, they were taken as the preliminary concessions without which the English could entertain no proposals for the future relations between the two states. Two days later (10th May 1817) Mr. Elphinstone received instructions from the Governor General, the Marquis of Hastings, which were framed with the object of preventing Bajirav again organising or taking part in any combination against the English. Under these instructions Mr. Elphinstone drew up the treaty of Poona which was signed by Bajirav on the 13th of June 1817. In this treaty Bájiráv admitted that Trimbakji murdered Gangádhar Shástri; he agreed to have no correspondence with any foreign power that is with any other state; he renounced all rights to lands beyond the Narbada on the north and the Tungbhadra on the south; he agreed to receive a yearly payment of £40,000 (Rs. 4 lúkhs) as a settlement of all his claims on the Gáikwár; to cede to the English the fort of Ahmadnagar; and instead of the contingent of 5000 horse and 3000 foot which he furnished under the treaty of Bassein to cede to the English territory yielding a yearly revenue of £340,000 (Rs. 34 lákhs).1 Bájiráv disbanded a number of his horse, but it was found that each self-horsed trooper had received eight months' pay and had promised to attend if summoned and to bring friends. The Peshwa's regular battalions were transferred as part of the force which the English were to keep up in return for the fresh grant of territory. Only one battalion under Captain Ford was kept in the Peshwa's pay, and, in their stead, the English raised a new corps. In July 1817,

Chapter VII. History. MARATHAS, 1720-1817.

Treaty of Poors
18th June 1817

¹ This territory included Dhárwár and other parts of the Karnatak, the North Konkan, and the Peshwa's revenue in Gujarát. Grant Duff's Marátháa, 635.

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History.

MARÁTHÁS,
1720 - 1817.

when the arrangements under the treaty of Poona were adjusted, Bájiráv left Poona on his yearly pilgrimage to Pandharpur.

At this time (1816-1818), under the Marquis of Hastings (1814-1823), the whole power of the British in India was set in motion to crush the Pendháris, a horde of robbers, who, under the patronage of Sindia, Holkar, and the Peshwa, and under the shadow of the weak policy which had paralysed the English since the close of the Marquis of Wellesley's government (1805), had risen to dangerous strength and spread unrest and ruin over Málwa, Central India, and much of the British possessions. During 1816 and the early months of 1817 the Marquis of Hastings determined, besides suppressing the Pendháris whose head-quarters were in Málwa and Central India, to enter into fresh treaties with the powers of Rajputána and Central India whose relations with the British Government and with each other had remained unsatisfactory since 1805. At the same time he determined to put an end to the great Marátha league whose head was the Peshwa and whose chief

members were the Bhonsla of Nágpur, Sindia, and Holkar.

As a part of the Marquis of Hastings' great scheme, at the close of the rains (October 1817), all available British forces were to be sent from the Deccan to Málwa. The intention of moving the English troops northwards was not kept secret, and, when Bajirav came to know of it, he determined not to miss the chance which it gave him of being revenged on Mr. Elphinstone. Part of the arrangement for the Pendhari and Central India campaign was the appointment of Sir John Malcolm as Political Agent with the army of the Deccan. With his usual vigour, before moving north to Málwa, Sir John Malcolm visited all the Residents and native courts in the Deccan. When Sir John Malcolm reached Poona in August Bájiráv was at Máhuli, the sacred meeting of the Vena and the Krishna in Sátára. He asked Sir John Malcolm to visit him at Máhuli and Sir John Malcolm went. Bájiráv complained of his crippled state under the treaty of Poona and of the loss of the friendship of the English, and declared his longing to have the friendship renewed. Sir John Malcolm advised him to collect troops, and, in the coming war with the Pendháris, to show his loyalty by sending a contingent to the English aid. Bájiráv warmly approved of this plan, and spoke with such cordiality, candour, and sense that Sir John Malcolm went back to Mr. Elphinstone satisfied that all that was wanted to make Bájiráv a firm ally of the English was to trust him and to encourage him to raise troops. Mr. Elphinstone told Sir John Malcolm that in his opinion to trust Bajirav and to let him raise troops would end in making him not a fast ally of the English but their open foe. Still though this was his opinion he would not oppose Sir John Malcolm's scheme. In August Bajirav received back Sinhgad, Purandhar, and Raygad. He stayed at Mahuli till the end of September doing his best, as he had promised Sir John Malcolm, to collect a strong army. Bájiráv's chief adviser was Bápu Gokhla a brave soldier of much higher position and character than Trimbakji. Under Gokhla's influence Bájiráv behaved with generosity to many of his great vassals restoring their lands and striving to make himself popular. Perhaps because he knew that no one trusted him

he bound himself under a writing and by an oath to be guided by Bápu Gokhla. To meet the expense of his preparations Bájiráv gave Gokhla £1,000,000 (Rs. one kror). Forts were repaired, levies of Bhils and other hill tribes arranged, and missions sent to Bhonsla, Sindia, and Holkar. The part of the scheme which Bájiráv liked best, and whose working he kept in his own hands, was the corruption of the English troops and officers and the murder of Mr. Elphinstone? Yashvantrav Ghorpade, a friend of Mr. Elphinstone's and of many British officers, was at this time in disgrace with Mr. Elphinstone on account of some intrigues. Under an oath of secrecy Bajirav induced Yashvantrav to undertake to buy over the British officers, and to this, on the advance of £5000 (Rs. 50,000) Yashvantrav agreed, and kept his vow of secrecy with such care that he never mentioned Bajirav's scheme to a soul. Yashvantrav had a great regard for Mr. Elphinstone. It was to Yashvantrav and to a Brahman named Balajipant Natu that Mr. Elphinstone owed his knowledge of Bájiráv's plans. The Peshwa returned to Poona at the end of September. Reports of attempts to corrupt the British sepoys came from all sides, and there was the still graver danger that Bajirav would influence others by threatening to persecute their families, many of whom lived in his South Konkan territories. Bájiráv's plan was to ask Mr. Elphinstone to a conference and murder him, but to this Bapu Gokhla would not agree.

On the 14th of October Mr. Elphinstone and Bajırav met for the last time. Bájiráv spoke of the loss he suffered under the treaty of Poona. Mr. Elphinstone told him that his only chance of regaining the goodwill of the English was to lose no time in sending his troops north to aid the English in putting down the Pendháris. Bájiráv assured him that his troops would start as soon as the Dasara was over. Dasara Day fell on the 19th of October. It was the finest military spectacle since the accession of Bájiráv. During the day two incidents showed the ruling feelings in Bájiráv's mind; he openly slighted Mr. Elphinstone and he ordered a mass of his horse to gallop down on the British troops as if to attack and then to wheel off. The next week (19th-25th October) was full of interest. By night and day parties of armed men kept flocking into Poona from all sides. General Smith's force was now close to the Chandor hills in Nasik, too far to help Mr. Elphinstone, and the European regiment which was on its way from Bombay could not reach Poons for ten days. The British troops at Poons were cantoned to the north of the town. Gardens and hedges in many places led within half musket shot of the lines offering every help to attacking Arabs or to disloyal sepoys. First small parties, then large bodies of the Peshwa's troops came out and settled round the British lines. Vinchurkar's horse with some infantry and guns camped to the west of the residency between it and Bhamburda village. The Peshwa was urged to strike before reinforcements could reach Mr. Elphinstone. On the night of the 28th of October the guns were yoked, the horses saddled, and the infantry ready to surprise the British lines. But Bájiráv's force was daily increasing; his intrigues with the sepoys were not completed: there was still time for delay. Next day (29th October) Mr. Elphinstone complained

Chapter VII History. MARÁTHÁS, 1720 - 1817. Chapter VII. History. Marathas, 1720-1817.

to the Peshwa of the crowding of the Maratha troops on the British When the message was received Bapu Gokhla was for instant attack. But the arguments of the night before again prevailed, the Peshwa's schemes were not yet completed, the European regiment was, he believed, still far distant, and every hour the Maratha army was growing. At four next afternoon (30th October) the European regiment after great exertions reached the cantonment. Next day (1st November), except 250 men who were left to guard the residency, Mr. Elphinstone moved the troops to a good position at the village of Kirkee four miles north of Poona. This movement gratified Bajirar as he took it for a sign of fear. The British cantonment was plundered and parties of troops continued to push forward as if in defiance. Bájiráv let three days more pass to allow the Patvardhans and his other Karnátak feudatories to join his army. Meanwhile General Smith, warned how matters stood at Poona, had ordered his light battalion to fall back on Sirur about forty miles north-east of Poona. On the 3rd of November Mr. Elphinstone directed the light battalion and part of the auxiliary horse to move from Sirur to Poona. When Bajirav heard that these troops had been summoned he determined to delay no longer.

lattle of Kirkee, 6th November 1817.

The strength of the two forces was, on the English side, including Captain Ford's hattalion which was stationed at Dapuri about four miles west of Kirkee, 2800 rank and file of whom about 800 were Europeans. The Maratha army, besides 5000 horse and 2000 foot who were with the Peshwa at Parvati, included 18,000 horse and 8000 foot, or 33,000 in all. Mr. Elphinstone had examined the ground between the British head-quarters at Kirkee and Captain Ford's encampment at Dápuri. The two villages were separated by the river Mula, but a ford was found which Captain Ford's three six-pounders could cross. Mr. Elphinstone arranged that in case of attack Captain Ford should join Colonel Burr's brigade, and explained to all concerned that at any hazard they must act on the offensive. In the afternoon of the fifth Bájiráv's army poured out of Poona, everything hushed but the trampling and the neighing of horses, till, from the Mutha to the Ganesh Khind hills, the valley was filled like a river in flood. The residency was left and was at once sacked and burned, and Mr. Elphinstone A message to advance was retired to join the troops at Kirkee. sent to Colonel Burr who moved towards Dápuri to meet Captain Ford's corps; the corps united and together pushed on to the Amazed by the advance of troops whom they believed attack. bought or panic-struck, the Marátha skirmishers fell back, and the Marátha army, already anxious from the ill-omened breaking of their standard, began to lose heart. Gokhla rode from rank to rank cheering and taunting, and opened the attack pushing forward his cavalry so as nearly to surround the British. In their eagerness to attack a Portuguese battalion, which had come up under cover of enclosures, some of the English sepoys became separated from the rest

¹ Colebrooke's Elphinstone, I. 383; Forrest's Elphinstone, 50.

Gokhla seized the opportunity for a charge with 6000 of the line. chosen horse. Colonel Burr who saw the movement recalled his men and ordered them to stand firm and keep their fire. whole mass of Marátha cavalry came on at speed in the most splendid style. The rush of horse, the sound of the earth, the waving of flags, and the brandishing of spears was grand beyond description but perfectly ineffectual. The charge was broken by a deep morass in front of the English. As the horsemen floundered in disorder the British troops fired on them with deadly effect. Only a few of the Marátha horse pressed on to the bayonets, the rest retreated or fled. The failure of their great cavalry charge disconcerted the Maráthás. They began to drive off their guns, the infantry retired, and, on the advance of the British line, the field was cleared. Next morning the arrival of the light battalion and auxiliary horse from Sirur prevented Gokhla from renewing the attack. The European loss was sixty-eight and the Marátha loss 500 killed and wounded.1 On the evening of the 13th General Smith arrived at Kirkee. Since the 5th the Peshwa's army had received the important reinforcements he had been expecting from the Patvardhans and other southern feudatories. They moved from the city and took their position with their left on the late British cantonment at Garpir and their right stretching some miles east along the Haidarabad road. About sunset on the 16th General Smith threw an advanced guard across the river to take a position to the east of the Peshwa's army at the village of Ghorpadi. The British troops were met by a body of the Peshwa's infantry, but, after a severe struggle, they gained their position. During the night they were not molested and next morning the Peshwa's camp was empty. Bájiráv had fled to Sátára. During the day Poona was surrendered. The greatest care was taken to protect the peaceable townspeople and order and peace were soon established. On the 22nd of November General Smith pursued Bájiráv to Máhuli in Sátára, from Máhuli to Pandharpur, and from Pandharpur to Junnar, among whose hills Bájiráv hoped that Trimbakji would make him safe. At the end of December, finding no safety in Junnar, Bájiráv fled south towards Poona. Colonel Burr who was in charge of Poona, hearing that the Peshwa meant to attack the city, sent to Sirur for aid. The second battalion of the 1st Regiment, under the command of Captain Staunton, started for Poona at eight at night on the 31st of December. They were 500 rank and file with 300 irregular horse and two six-pounder guns well-manned by twenty-four European Madras artillerymen under a sergeant and a lieutenant. On reaching the high ground above the village of Koregaon, about ten in the morning of the first of January 1818, the battalion saw the

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Poona Surrendered 17th Novemby 1817.

¹ Details of the battle of Kirkee are given under Kirkee, Places of Interest. Blacker in his Maratha War (65-69) passes over Mr. Elphinstone's share in the victory of Kirkee. There is no doubt that Mr. Elphinstone planned and won the battle. Canning in the House of Commons said: In this singular campaign Mr. Elphinstone displayed talents and resources which would have rendered him no mean general in a country where generals are of no mean excellence and reputation. Forrest's Elphinstone, 55; compare Colebrooke's Elphinstone, II, 127.

hapter VII. History.

BRITISH, 1817 - 1884. ht at Koregaon, lst January 1818.

Sálára roclamation, th February 1818.

Peshwa's army of 25,000 Marátha horse on the eastern bank of the Bhima. Captain Staunton continued his march and took possession of the mud-walled village of Koregaon. As soon as the Maráthás caught sight of the British troops they recalled a body of 5000 infantry which was some distance ahead. The infantry soon arrived and formed a storming force divided into three parties of 600 each. The storming parties breached the wall in several places especially in the east, forced their way into the village, and gained a strong position inside of the walls. Still in spite of heat, thirst, and terrible loss the besieged held on till evening, when the firing ceased and the Peshwa's troops withdrew. Next morning Captain Staunton retired to Sirur. His loss was 175 men killed and wounded including twenty-one of the twenty-four European artillerymen. About one-third of the auxiliary horse were killed, wounded, or missing. The Maráthás lost five or six hundred men. the whole day Bájiráv sat about two miles off, watching 800 British troops keep 30,000 Maráthás at bay. In his annoyance he upbraided his officers Gokhla, Apa Desái, and Trimbakji all of whom directed the attacks: You boasted you could defeat the English; my whole army is no match for one battalion of them. From Talegaon Bájiráv fled to the Karnátak. He found it in Major Munro's hands and turned north, avoiding his pursuers by the skill of Gokhla. While the pursuit of Bajirav was going on the Marquis of Hastings had ordered Mr. Elphinstone to take over the whole of the Peshwa's possessions, except a small tract to be set apart for the imprisoned chief of Sátára. Sátára fort was taken on the tenth of February 1818, and a proclamation was issued that for his treachery the Peshwa's territories had passed to the British. The proclamation promised that no religion should be interfered with: and that all pensions and allowances should be respected, provided the holders withdrew from Bájiráv's service. Nothing was said about service estates or jagirs. It was soon understood that they would be confiscated or continued according as the holders showed readiness in tendering allegiance to the new government.

Before the country could be settled Bájiráv had to be caught and his hill-forts to be taken. On the 14th of February Brigadier General Pritzler marched from Sátára by the Nira bridge to Sinhgad. The siege was begun on the 24th of February and on the 2nd of March, after 1417 shells and 2281 shot had been spent, the garrison of 700 Gosávis and 400 Arabs held out a white flag and next day surrendered the fort. From Sinhgad General Pritzler marched to Purandhar which was surrounded by the 11th of March. A mortar battery was opened on the 14th and on the 15th a British garrison occupied the neighbouring fort of Vajragad. As Vajragad commands Purandhar, the Purandhar garrison at once surrendered, and the British colours were hoisted on the 16th. In the north Colonel Deacon, on the

Details of this famous fight are given under Koregaen, Places of Interest.

20th of February, after taking some places in Ahmadnagar, came to Sirur. On the 25th he reached Chakan, but, in spite of its strength, the garrison held out for only one day surrendering on the 26th. The British loss was four Europeans killed and wounded. After Chákan Colonel Descon's detachment went to Lohogad and Isapur. At Lohogad there was already a besieging force under Colonel Prother who had reached Lohogad on the 4th of March from the Konkan by the Bor pass. Isápur was taken without resistance on the 4th, and on the 5th Lohogad was surrendered before the battery guns were placed in position. Tung and Tikona in Bhor immediately surrendered and Rájmáchi was occupied without resistance. Koári, a place of importance commanding a pass, was attacked on the 11th. On the 13th a fire broke out and on the 14th a magazine exploded and the garrison of 600 surrendered. The dependent fort of Ganga was occupied on the 17th. On the fall of Koári the troops returned to Poona. A fourth detachment under Major Eldridge on the 24th of April marched to Junnar which they found empty. They then took Chávand, Jivdhan, Hadsar, Náráyangad, and Harishchandragad near the Poona-Ahmadnagar boundary. Of these Chavand and Jivdhan alone made a show of resistance. Chavand was bombarded on the first of May and next morning after 150 shells had been thrown the garrison of 100 men surrendered. Jivdhan, close to the Nána Pass, was attacked on the third of May. and surrendered after an hour's firing. This completed the capture of the Poona forts.1

About the middle of February, after the fall of Sátára, General Smith went in pursuit of the Peshwa who was at Sholapur. After several forced marches General Smith came in sight of the Maráthás at Ashta about fifteen miles north of Pandharpur. The Peshwa taunted Gokhla with the success of his arrangements for preventing his master being surprised. Gokhla vowed that at least the approach to him would be well guarded. He waited with 500 horse for the English cavalry, attacked them as they passed out of a river bed, caused some loss and confusion but was killed and the Maráthás put to flight. The Rája of Sátára and his mother and brothers, to their great joy, were rescued from Bájiráv's power. This surprise and defeat and the death of Gokhla upset the Marátha plans and did much to hasten submission. Bájiráv fled to Kopargaon in Ahmadnagar, and from Kopargaon to Chandor in Nasik. From Nasik he passed into the Central Provinces, where, on the banks of the Vardha he was defeated and his troops dispersed. From the Vardha he tried to pass north to Sindia. At last from Dholkot near Asirgad he sent to Sir John Malcolm an offer of surrender, and on the 3rd of June surrendered and received a maintenance of £80,000 (Rs. 8 lákhs) a vear.2

By the end of May the Poona force was divided between Sirur, Junnar, and Poona. At Sirur were stationed the head-quarters of

Chapter VII
History.

THE BRITISH, 1817-1834.

Pendhári and Marátha War, 294-316. Details are given under Places.
 Grant Duff's Maráthás, 674-5. In the amount of the maintenance and in some other stipulations Sir John Malcolm showed that, in spite of the lesson he had learned at Máhuli, he was unable to resist Bájiráv's fascinations. Bájiráv died at Bithur in 1851.

Chapter VII. History. THE BRITISH. 1817 - 1884.

the force, the head-quarters of the cavalry brigade and horse artillery, the remains of the foot artillery, His Majesty's 65th Regiment, the light battalion and the right wing of the 1st battalion of the 7th Bombay Native Infantry. At Junnar were placed one battation of Bombay Native Infantry, two six-pounders, and a party of Captain Swanston's Horse. At Poona city and cantonment were placed details of Artillery and Pioneers, one Regiment of Light Cavalry, one European Regiment, and three

battalions of Bombay Native Infantry.1

To the management of the city of Poons and the tract which lay between the Bhima and the Nira, Mr. Elphinstone, who had been named sole Commissioner to settle the conquered territory, appointed Captain Henry Dundas Robertson Collector, Magistrate, and Judge. The north of the conquered territory, now including North Poons Ahmadnagar and Násik, which stretched between the Bhima river and the Chandor hills, was entrusted to Captain Henry Pottinger. With each of these officers, whose authority corresponded to that of the Peshwa's sarsubhedars, experienced natives were appointed to numerous subordinate situations on liberal salaries. To restore order in the country, to prevent the revenue being turned to hostile purposes, to guard and to please the people, and to improve not to change the existing system were the first objects to which Ma Elphinstone directed the Collectors' attention. As almost all the British troops were either pursuing the Peshwa or taking the western forts the Collectors' power of restoring order was at first small. Still by raising irregulars something was done to reduce the smaller places and destroy straggling plunderers. Mr. Elphinstone's great object was to learn what system was in force and to keep it unimpaired. He was anxious to stop people making laws for the country before they knew whether the country wanted laws.2 In 1819 Mr. Elphinstone made arrangements for obtaining a knowledge of local customs and Inquiries were circulated to all persons of known intelligence. A mass of valuable information was gathered, and, from the judicious nature of the questions, the inquiry tended to gain the confidence of the people rather than to arouse their suspicions. To prevent insurrection, to settle claims and rewards, to provide for all who had suffered, and to better the condition of those who were worthy of favour were among the duties which devolved on the Commissioner. At first to prevent disorders or risings a strict system of private intelligence, which was agreeable to Marátha ideas of government, was kept up. Armed men travelling without passports were forced to lay down their arms, and the hoarded resources of the late government were seized wherever they were found. After the first year Mr. Elphinstone was able to relax these rules. No passport was required except from armed bodies of more than twenty-five men, and no search for treasure was allowed unless there was good reason to believe that the information regarding it was correct. A strong military force held positions at Poona, Sirur, and Junuar, and numbers of the enemy's irregular infantry were

¹ Blacker's Marátha War, 315, 316. ² Colebrooke's Elphinstone, II. 46.

red in the British service. The ranks of the auxiliary horse ady filled by men enlisted beyond the borders of the Maratha country, but more than half the horses which returned from Bájiráv's army died in the course of six months from the fatigue they had undergone. Few attempts at insurrection occurred. One conspiracy was detected which had for its object the release of the pretended Chitursing, the murder of all the Europeans at Poona and Sátára, the surprise of some of the principal forts, and the capture of the Rája of Sátára. The conspirators were men of desperate fortunes among the unemployed soldiery; many of them were apprehended and tried, and the leaders, some of whom were Brahmans, were blown from guns. This example had an excellent effect in restraining conspiracies. Except service-estates or jágirs, which could not be continued on the former basis of supplying contingents of troops, every species of hereditary right, all established pensions, charitable and religious assignments, and service-endowments were continued. Regarding the service-estates or jágirs many points required consideration. In the first instance, unless specially exempted, every service estate or jágir taken possession of in the same way as the territory in the imme ---- occupation of the Peshwa's agents. Estates which had been sequest. A by the Peshwa were not restored. Some of the estateholders had established claims by their early submission or by former services to the British Government. The rest might justly be granted a suitable maintenance but could have no claim to the estates which they formerly held on condition of furnishing troops. Liberal pensions in land or money were granted to those who had aided the British Government during the revolution. mipisters of the late government and of the time of Nána Fadnavis who were wholly unprovided with means of living received life allowances. Mr. Elphinstone was anxious to maintain the sardárs or gentry and nobles in the position they had held under the Peshwa. To deprive them of all signs of rank would be felt as oppressive by the upper classes and would be disapproved as unusual by the lower orders. The chiefs were classed according to their rank and the estimation in which they were held under the former government. They were freed from the immediate jurisdiction of the civil court, an appeal being allowed from the Agent to Sardárs in Poona to the Governor in Council or to the Sadar Court, The jury or panchayat was the ordinary tribunal for the decision of civil suits. The criminal law was administered by individual judges assisted by the authority of Hindu law in regulating the measure of punishment. In all important cases the sentences were passed subject to the Commissioner's approval. In revenue matters the farming system was abolished and the revenue was collected through government agents. Many poor Bráhmans had become greatly dependent on the charitable gifts or dakshina which Bájiráv, in the belief that they atoned for sin, had lavishly distributed. To have at once stopped these grants would have caused much suffering. At the same time

Chapter VII.
History.
The British,
1817-1884.

¹ Colebrooke's Elphinstone, IL 62, 75.

Chapter VII. History. THE BRITISH. 1817 1984.

so much evil was found to attend the grant of money in promiscuous charity that the greater part was devoted to founding a Hindu college at Poona.

Of the management of the country at the time of its transfer to British rule, Mr. Elphinstone (28th September 1819) had no great fault to find either with the criminal justice or the police.1 The pancháyats or civil juries were less satisfactory. They were difficult to summon, and they were slow and in all but simple cases were The mass of the people were not opposed to the change of rule from the Peshwa to the British. They were strongly inlined for peace and had by no means been favoured under the Bráhman government. Still there were many disaffected Bráhmans, leshmukhs and other hereditary officers, and discharged soldiery.3 The country had greatly improved during the sixteen years of British protection. The people were few compared to the arable irea; the lower orders were very comfortable and the upper prosperous. There was abundance of employment in the domestic establishments and foreign conquests of the nation. government must have disadvantages: many of the upper claser must sink into comparative poverty, and many of those who were employed by the court and the army must positive! lose their In August 1822 when as Governor of Dombay he came on tour to the Deccan, Mr. Elphinstone found the road so bad in places that his party had to dismount and reached Poona with lame and The country was not changed. The town was the shoeless horses. same, only all of the horses and most of the gentry were gone. On his next visit to the Deccan in 1826 Mr. Elphinstone found that by reductions of assessment and still more by stopping exactions the burdens of the people had been much lightened. In spite of bad seasons and redundant produce the condition of the people was probably better than in the best years of the Peshwa's government. The police was worse than under the Maráthás though perhaps not so bades he had expected. Even in the neighbourhood of Poona there had been two or three bands of banditti and there was still one band headed by persons who had been captured and released from want of proof. Except gang robbery and perhaps drunkenness, Mr. Elphinstone did not think crime had increased. In his opinion the most unsuccessful part of the new system was the administration of civil justice.7

⁸ In the same year (1826), partly owing to the scarcity of 1825 partly owing to the reduction in the local garrison, the Rámoshis of south Poons rose into revolt and outlawry. For three years

Colebrooke's Elphinstone, II. 53.

Colebrooke's Elphinstone, III. 57.

In the Satara Proclamation of 9th February 1818, Mr. Elphinstone pointed out that when the English restored Bajirav to power the country was waste, the people Wretched, and the government penniless. Since 1803, in spite of revenue-farming and exactions, under British protection, the country had recovered and Bajirav had heaped together about eight millions sterling of jewels and treasure. Forrest's Elphinstone, 53; Colebrooke's Elphinstone, II. 303.

Colebrooke's Elphinstone, II. 141

Colebrooke's Elphinstone, II. 79, 80.
 Colebrooke's Elphinstone, II. 191, 192. 6 Colebrooke's Elphinstone, IL 141. ⁸ Mr. A. Keyser, C.S.

bands of Rámoshis were guilty of atrocious acts of violence. Under the leading of one Umaji they were so enterprising and successful that, in 1827, as they could not be put down, their crimes were pardoned, they were taken into pay, employed as hill police, and enriched with land grants.1 The success of the Rámoshis stirred the Kolis of the north-west Poona and Ahmadnagar hills to revolt. Large gangs went into outlawry and did much mischief in Poona, Thána, and Ahmadnagar. Strong detachments of troops were gathered from all the districts round, and, under the skilful management of Captain Mackintosh, by 1830, the rebel gangs were broken, their leaders secured, and order restored.3 The next serious disturbances were risings of hill tribes between 1839 and 1846. Early in 1839 bands of Kolis appeared in various parts of the Sahyadris and attacked and robbed several villages. All castes joined them and their numbers soon rose to three or four hundred, under the leading of three Bráhmans Bháu Khare, Chimnáji Jádhav, and Nána Darbáre. The rising took a political character; the leaders declared that they were acting for the Peshwa, and assumed charge of the government in his name. As further reductions had lately been made in the Poona garrison the Brahmans persuaded the people that the bulk of the British troops had left the district. prompt action taken by Lieutenant Rudd the superintendent of police and Mr. Rose the assistant collector prevented much mischief. Hearing that an attack was intended on the mahálkari's treasury at Ghode, Mr. Rose hurried to Ghode, collected a force of messengers and townspeople, and successfully repulsed the repeated attacks of 150 insurgents who besieged them through the whole night. This was their only serious venture. Shortly after Lieutenant Rudd with a party of the Poona Auxiliary Horse attacked and dispersed the band, taking a number of prisoners. As soon as the main band was broken the members were cought in detail and the rising was at an end. Fifty-four of the rebels were tried, of whom a Brahman Ramchandra Gauesh Gore and a Koli were hanged. twenty-four were pardoned or acquitted, and of the rest ware sentenced to transportation for life and others to various terms of imprisonment. The prompt and vigorous action of Messrs. Rose and Rudd received the thanks of the Court of Directors. In 1844 the hill-tribes again became troublesome, and, as usual, they were joined and helped by disaffected persons of various castes. The leaders of this rising were Rághu Bhángria and Bápu Bhángria the sons of a jamádár of the Ahmadnagar police a Koli by caste whom the Kolis carried off and forced to join them. The Bhangrias' head-quarters were the hilly country in the north-west of Poona. They attacked and robbed several villages generally without doing much harm to the people, but in two instances cutting off headmen's noses. The police made several captures. In one case Captain Giberne the superintendent seized as many as seventy-two outlaws,

Chapter VII-History.

¹ Capt. Mackintosh in Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. I. 260. Details of Rámoshi risinga are given under Justice.

Chapter VII.
History.
THE BRITISH,
1817-1884.

though Bápu Bhángria the leader escaped. On the 20th of September 1844 Rághu Bhángria's gang cut off a native officer of police and ten constables who were benighted in the hills and killed all but three, In 1845, the disturbances spread to the Purandhar sub-division south of Poona, and from Purandhar south through Sátára. The Poona police were strengthened by sixty-two Ramoshis, and on the 18th of August 1845, in consequence of a quarrel with one of his own men, Bápu Bhángria was caught. In spite of the loss of their leader the gangs, who had the secret support of several influential persons, continued to harass the country and plunder villages. Government money was seized while it was being collected, a patil was murdered because he had helped the police to detect some former outrage, several moneylenders were robbed and one or two were mutilated, and a writer in the Purandhar mámlatdár's establishment was murdered. In Purandhar, with the aid of a Gavli named Kema and a large band of followers, the sons of Umáji the leader in the 1825 rising committed similar depredations. On one occasion at Jejuri they carried off the litter with the holy image but they brought it back. As the police were not strong enough to restore order, in May 1845 a detachment of Native Infantry was quartered at Junnar, other troops were sent to Purandhar, and one hundred men were set to watch the Malsej and Nána passes by which the rebels moved up and down to the Konkan. Early in 1846 the Magistrate reported the country quiet, though, in spite of rewards, the ringleaders were still at large. During 1846 Umáji's sons were caught, but they escaped and were not retaken till April 1850 after heading a gang robbery which resulted in the murder of two persons. Except the chief Rághu Bhángria, the other leaders were all secured. A reward of £500 (Rs. 5000) was offered for Raghu Bhangria who was supposed to he gifted with supernatural power, and exercised great influence not only over his own men but over all the north-west Poona hills where, for years, he lived on blackmail levied from Poona and Thana villages. A+ land our the 2nd of January 1848 Rághu Bhángria was caught by Lieutenant, afterwards General, Gell, and a party of police at Pandharpur where he had gone dressed as a pilgrim. Since 1846 the outlaws had ceased to give much trouble, and, on the 19th of April 1850, the capture of Umáji's sons Tukya and Mankala brought the disturbances to a close.

During the 1857 Mutinies Poona was free from open acts of rebellion, even from offences requiring political prosecutions. In June 1857 a discharged constable was flogged for attempting to raise a disturbance in the city of Poona. Later in the same year the maulvi of Poona, Nural Huda, who was one of the leaders of the Wahabi sect of Musalmans in Western India, was detained in the Thana jail under suspicion of carrying on a treasonable correspondence with the Belgaum and Kolhapur Musalmans who had joined the mutineers. One or two suspicious characters from Northern India were forced to return to their own country, and Chatursing a noted bad character who had given trouble for forty years was made a prisoner on suspicion of intriguing with the rebels. The Kolis and other hill tribes attacked a few villages and robbed their

old foes the moneylenders, but even among them there was no outbreak of importance. In 1858 a man was prosecuted and condemned to death for publishing a seditious proclamation in favour of Nána Sáheb, the late Peshwa's adopted son. But the conviction was quashed as inquiry seemed to show that the charge was malicious. In September 1857 a seditious paper was posted near the college and library in the city of Poona. The authors were not discovered, and so little importance was attached to this demonstration that no reward was offered for their apprehension. The local authorities were watchful, and the dangerous element in Poona city, which is always considerable, was overawed by the garrison.

In 1873, in the north-west of Poona, Honya, an influential Koli, 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. Many of the moneylenders were robbed and some had their noses cut off. Honya was caught in 1876 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 Sirur and Bhimthadi, eleven assaults on moneylenders by bands of villagers' were committed. Troops were called to the aid of the police and quiet was restored. In 1879 the peace of the district was again broken by three gangs of robbers. One of these gangs was of Poona Rámoshis led by Vásudev Balvant Phadke a Poona Bráhman. another of Kolis under Krishna Sábla and his son, and a third of Sátára Rámoshis under two brothers Hari and Tátya Makáji and one Ráma Krishna. Within Poona limits no fewer than fiftynine gang robberies were committed. These three gangs and a fourth gang in the Nizám's country were put down before the end of 1879.

Chapter VII

History.

THE BRITISH
1817-1884,

¹ Details are given under Capital.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE LAND'.

SECTION I. - ACQUISITION AND STAFF.

Land.

covisition, 1817 - 1868.

THE lands of the district of Poona have been gained by conquest, cession, exchange, and lapse. Most of the country fell to the British on the overthrow of the Peshwa in 1817. In 1844, under Government Resolution 1290 dated the 20th of April 1844, on the death of the Chief of Kolába, the half village of Chákan in Khed lapsed to the British Government. In 1861 His Highness Sindia, by a treaty dated the 12th of December 1860; in exchange for other lands, ceded twelve villages, three in Sirar, seven in Bhimthadi, and two in Haveli. In 1866 His Highness the Gáikwár, under Government Political Resolution 2974 dated the 9th of October 1866, in exchange for other lands, ceded the half village of Chákan in Khed and one other village in Haveli. In 1868 His Highness Holkar, under Government Revenue Order 4470 dated the 28th of November 1868, in exchange for other lands, ceded six villages, one in Junnar, four in Khed, and one in Sirur.

Staff, 1884. District Officers. The revenue administration of the district is entrusted to an officer styled Collector, on a yearly pay of £2790 (Rs. 27,900). This officer, who is also chief magistrate and the executive head of the district, is helped in his work of general supervision by a staff of four assistants, of whom two are covenanted and two are uncovenanted servants—of Government. The sanctioned yearly salaries of the covenanted assistants range from £840 (Rs. 8400)

¹ Materials for the Land History of Poona include, besides elaborate survey tables prepared in 1881 by Mr. R. B. Pitt of the Revenue Survey, Mr. Elphinstone's Report dated the 25th of October 1819 Edition 1872; Mr. Chaplin's Report dated the 20th of August 1822, Edition 1877; East India Papers III, and IV. Edition 1826; Mr. Pringle's Lithographed Report dated the 6th of September 1828; Mr. Blair's Lithographed Report 643 dated the 9th of December 1828; 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; Bombay Government Selections New Series LXX. CVII. and CLL.; and survey and yearly jamabandi administration and season reports and other reports and statements in Bombay Government Revenue Record 16 of 1821, 50 of 1822, 68 of 1823, 69 of 1823, 70 of 1823, 71 of 1823, 72 of 1823, 74 of 1823, 95 of 1824, 117 of 1825, 123 of 1825, 174 of 1827, 175 of 1827, 212 of 1828, 351 of 1831, 352 of 1831, 407 of 1832, 426 of 1832, 427 of 1832, 434 of 1832, 484 of 1833, 517 of 1833, 550 of 1834, 595 of 1834, 628 of 1835, 665 of 1832, 434 of 1832, 484 of 1836, 698 of 1836, 766 of 1837, 772 of 1837, 974 of 1839, 1052 of 1839, 1098 of 1840, 1241 of 1841, 1344 of 1842, 1414 of 1842, 1453 of 1843, 1568 of 1844, 17 of 1846, 17 of 1847, 15 of 1848, 23 of 1849, 205 of 1849, 16 of 1850, 24 of 1851, 18 of 1852, 172 of 1853, 15 of 1862-64, 75 of 1866, 57 of 1860, 17 of 1861, 90 of 1861, 13 of 1862-64, 235 of 1862-64, 75 of 1866, 57 of 1867, 59 of 1868, 65 of 1869, 95 of 1871, 81 of 1872, 89 of 1873, 97 of 1873; Government Resolution on Revenue Settlement Reports for 1873-74, Revenue Department 6092 dated the 27th of October 1875; Bombay Presidency General Administration Reports from 1872 to 1883; and the printed acquisition statement of the Bombay Presidency.

to £1080 (Rs. 10,800); and the salaries of the uncovenanted assistants are £360 (Rs. 3600) and £720 (Rs. 7200). For fiscal and other administrative purposes, the lands under the Collector's charge are distributed among nine sub-divisions, including the city of Poona, which for revenue purposes is a separate sub-division known as the Poona sub-division and placed under the city mamlatdar who is a second class magistrate. Of the nine sub-divisions five are entrusted to the covenanted first assistant and the remaning four to the covenanted second assistant collector. Of the uncovenanted assistants one, styled the head-quarter or huzur account officer, and who is a deputy collector, is entrusted with the supervision of the account office and stamp and opium departments. The other, styled.city magistrate, who is also a deputy collector, does the criminal and miscellaneous revenue work connected with the city. The treasury is in charge of the Poona Branch of the Bank of Bombay. The covenanted assistant collectors are also assistant magistrates, and 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.

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 mambatdar. These functionaries who are also entrusted with magisterial powers have yearly salaries varying from £180 to £300 (Rs.1800-3000). Three of the fiscal divisions, Haveli Khed and Bhimthadi, contain each a subordinate division or peta mahál, placed under the charge of an officer styled mahálkari, who, except that he has no treasury to superintend, exercises the revenue and magisterial powers generally entrusted to a mámlatdár. The yearly pay of the mahálkari is £72 (Rs. 720).

In revenue and police matters the charge of the 9971 Government villages is entrusted to 1128 headmen of whom six are stipendiary and 1122 are hereditary. Most of them are Kunbis, but some are Musalmans and others belong to the Brahman, Shenvi, Gurav, Nhávi, Dhobi, Dhangar, and Koli castes. One of the stipendiary and 116 of the hereditary headmen perform revenue duties only, one of the stipendiary and 117 of the hereditary attend to matters of police only, and four stipendiary and 889 hereditary headmen are entrusted with both revenue and police charges. The yearly pay of the headmen depends on the village revenue. It varies from 4s. (Rs. 2) to £23 14s. (Rs. 237) and averages £3 (Rs. 30). In many villages, besides the headman, members of his family are in receipt of state land-grants representing a yearly sum of £290 (Rs. 2900). Of £5223 (Rs. 52,230) the total yearly charge on account of the headmen of villages and their families, £435 (Rs. 4350) are met by grants of land and £4788 (Rs. 47,880) are paid in cash. Several of the larger villages have an assistant headman or chaughula. He is generally a Marátha Kunbi by caste and is paid 10s to £5 (Rs.5-50) a year. To keep the village accounts, prepare statistics, and help the village headmen there is a body of seventeen stipendiary and 816 hereditary or in all of 833 village accountants. Most of them are Brahmans and others belong to the Prabhu, Sonár, Gurav, and Golak castes. Every village accountant

Chapter VIII Land. STAFF, 1884.

District

Officers.

Sub-Division Officers.

Village

Thapter VIII.

Land.

STAFF, 1884 has at average charge of about one village, containing about 900 inhabitants, and yielding an average yearly revenue of £160 (Rs. 1600). Their yearly salaries vary from 6s. to £29 14s. (Rs. 3-Rs. 297) and average £7 12s. (Rs. 76). The total yearly charge amounts to £6570 (Rs. 65,700) of which £30 (Rs. 300) are met by land-grants and £6540 (Rs. 65,400) are paid in cash.

Village Servants. Under the headmen and accountants are 6495 village servants, who are liable both for revenue and police duties. They are Kolis, Mhars, or Ramoshis. The yearly cost of this establishment amounts to £3027 (Rs. 30,270) being about 8s. (Rs. 4) to each man or a cost to each village of about £3 (Rs. 30). Of the whole amount, £2602 (Rs. 26,020) are met by grants of land and £425 (Rs. 4250) are paid in cash. The average yearly cost of village establishments may be thus summarised:

Poona Village Establishments, 1884.

Headmen Accountants Servants	***	:::	£ 5223 6570 8027	Rs 52,230 66,700 30,270
Total	•••		14,820	1,48,200

This is equal to a charge of £14 16s. (Rs. 148) a village or about thirteen per cent of the district land revenue.

ALIENATED VILLAGES,

Of the 1201 villages of the district 997% are Government and 2031 are private or alienated. Alienated villages are of three classes, sharákati or share villages whose revenues are divided between Government and private holders, saranjámi or military service grant villages, and inam or grant villages. By caste the holders of these villages are Bráhmans, Maráthás, Prabhus, Mális, Vánis, Gosávis, and Musalmans. A few proprietors of alienated villages live in their villages and themselves manage them. Few alienated villages are in the hands of one proprietor; but it is the rental of the village not its lands which are divided among the sharers. The estates or estate-shares are often mortgaged but rarely sold to creditors. The condition of the people and the character of the tillage in alienated and neighbouring Government villages show no marked difference. Most holders of land in alienated villages pay a fixed rent, but some are yearly tenants. Tenants generally pay their rent in cash; but, in villages where the survey rates are not fixed, in a few cases they pay their rent in grain. The acre rates generally vary from 3d. to 3s. (Rs. $\frac{1}{8}$ -1 $\frac{1}{8}$). In villages where the survey rates have not been introduced the rents are not fixed under any uniform system. In some villages the rent is so much the bigha, in others it is so much the khandi, and a lump payment is sometimes charged on a certain plot of land. In villages under the survey settlement the rates are the same as in Government villages; and in villages into which the survey has not been introduced, the alienees levy a rent equal to about 3d. to 3s. (Rs. $\frac{1}{8}$ -1 $\frac{1}{2}$) the The alienees make no special arrangements to meet the case.

¹ Collector of Poons, 3070 of 25th April 1884,

of a tenant improving his field by digging a well in it, or by turning it from dry crop to rice land. The alienees set aside land free of assessment as village grazing land. In surveyed alienated villages the occupants have the same rights as regards trees as in Government villages. If an alienee applies to the Collector for help to recover his dues, assistance is given in accordance with the provisions of the Land Revenue Code.

Chapter III.

SECTION II,-HISTORY.

The earliest revenue system of which traces remained at the beginning of British rule was the jatha that is the family estate or the thal that is the settlement system. In 1821 from every original paper he could find relating to settlers or thalkaris and their occupation of land, the Collector Captain Robertson found that, at a former time, the whole arable land of each village was apportioned among a certain number of families. The number of families seems to

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1 Captain Robertson, Collector, 10th October 1821, East India Papers IV. 530-531, respectively. Contestor, Total Corestal 1821, East India Papers IV. 530-531, In 1821 in some villages the jathas or family estates were (Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay 5th November 1823, East India Papers III. 805) large plots of land with a fixed rental, called mund, and in other villages the large holding was divided into fields each with a fixed rate, called thika or taka; these words seem to be of Dravidian origin and perhaps belong to the time of the Devgiri Yadavs (1150-1310) who had a strong southern element. The division and possession of land and the boundaries of villages were well defined before A.D. 1600 the time of Malik Ambar the minister of Ahmadnagar, and Captain Robertson was of opinion that private property in land existed from a very much earlier period. In an old account of the village of Ving of the Nirthadi district it is stated that 'during the management of Nabi Yar of the Kulbarga Sultanat there was neither a division of the fields nor of the bounds of the village, the plains being covered with grass, and the occupation of the people the feeding of horned cattle or gurc for which a fixed sum was exacted. During the management of the Baridis in Bedar (1498-1526) and in the administration of the black and white Khojás (probably Khájás) the village bounds were fixed; portions of land were given to particular persons whose names were registered and a rent or dast was established. The preamble to a paper exhibiting a renewed distribution of lands in the village of Gord in A.D. 1593 after that village had been depopulated and probably reduced like the village of Ving (though at a much later period) to be a pasture land for cattle, proves also something regarding the division of land at a remote period. 'Karim Beg Sáheb Nawáb sent Jánu Sáheb to settle the country. On reaching the village of Sál in A.D. 1593, where he halted for a month, Janu Saheb attached the patiliship of the whole country until the patilis put a stop to exciters of sedition and to plunderers going about the country. He then made an agreement with them, which set forth that as government had come to know that the country had been completely ruined from the disturbances and rebellions of late years, it was desirous of repeopling it and bringing it again into a flourishing condition, and therefore that it granted kauls to the pátils to assemble the villagers who had fied. The pátils having been promised their kabti(?) rights, agreed to the terms and went to their different villages. Among the rest the pátil of the village of Gord which was waste, assembled the inhabitants and went to the sarkár, where they requested that their lands might be measured out and assessed according to the measurement. In consequence of this, government ordered that the settlement made in Kutub-ud-din's time should be renewed. The people, satisfied with this order, returned home, and having met in the dargha of Syed Ambar Chasti, they determined that the old mirasdars should resume their old estates, and that those lands whose former proprietors. lands whose former proprietors were not present should be bestowed on new proprietors. As all agreed to the justice of this, the lands were occupied as follows: Bunyadi Thalkari or original landlord and Inamdars Jejji, Patil, Kale Mukadam to possess (1) his own field called Parinda containing twelve khandis of which ten and a half khandis are arable, and (2) three and a half khandis of the field called Chinchkele which contains seven khandis extending from the road to the river and of which the former mirásdár is not present.' Captain H. D. Robertson, Collector, 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV. 415-416.

Chapter VIII.

History.

Thal or Jatha.

have seldom been fewer than four or more than twenty-five except in large villages with dependent hamlets or vádis which in some cases seemed to have thirty to forty original families. The lands each family occupied were distinguished by the occupant's surname. Thus in a village the settlement or holding, thal, of a family of the Jádhav tribe was called Jádhav Thal; the holding of a Sindia family Sindia Thal; and of a Pavár family Pavár Thal; and though none of their descendants remained, the estates still (October 1821) kept the name of the original settler. These holdings were called jathas or family estates. Whether each estate at first belonged to a single person is not known. It semed to Captain Robertson, that, at the time of the original settlement, one man with his children took a fourth or a fifth or a sixth share of the village lands. His reason for this opinion was that in the family estates which remained perfect in 1821 the original estate was held in small portions by persons of the same family and surname who had acquired their separate shares by the Hindu law of succession. These descendants were collectively termed a jatha or family. Among them they were supposed to possess the whole of the original estate; and as a body they were responsible for the payment of whatever was due to government and others for the whole estate. If the owner of one of the shares let his land fall waste, the whole family was responsible for his share of the rental; and the land of his share was placed at their disposal. In the same way, if a member of the family died without an heir. his portion of the family estate was divided among the surviving relations according to the Hindu law of inheritance. The individual members and sharers of the land of a jatha or family estate appeared always to have been at liberty to do what they pleased with their own portions. They might let them out for a year or for several years or they might allow them to lie fallow. But whatever they did with their land they were responsible to the other members for their share of the government demand. It was therefore an object with the whole of the members of a family estate or jatha to see that na individual by extravagance or carelessness ruined himself and burthened the rest with the payment of his share of the rental. Any member of the family estate was also free to dispose of his share of the patrimony or 'baproti' literally father's bread. If a sharer of a joint estate wished to sell his share, it was never allowed to go to a stranger if any of the family was able to bny it. If no member of the family was able to buy it, and if the holder of the share was forced to sell, the share was made over to any one, a Bráhman or a Kunbi of another family, or a Musalmán, whoever might offer to buy it. The admission of outsiders as members of the joint estate by purchase gave rise to a distinction between the shareholders. The sharers who belonged to the original family were known as ghar bhaus or house brothers and the sharers who entered by purchase were known as birádar bháus literally brethren, brothers apparently in the sense of legal brothers.1 The new brother became liable to all the particular customs and rules

¹ East India Papers, IV. 531. Biradar, a brother, a Persian word used only in grants deeds and public papers.

which bound the body of sharers he had joined. In 1821, though there remained no trace of the practice, several old settlers or thalkaris agreed in stating that very long ago the representatives of the eldest branch of the family estate or jatha looked after the cultivation and gathered the dues from the younger branches. The head of the family stood between the younger branches and the headman or mukádam of the village. When from any cause the family estate failed to pay the government rental, the village headman never looked to the individual members but to the head of the family to make good what was wanting. Though this practice had ceased long before the beginning of British rule, a trace of it remained in the custom of having one family estate chosen, eitherby government or by other family estates, to undertake, through its head, the duty of collecting their shares of the government demand from the different estates. To this duty was joined the responsibility of making good any failure in the amount of the government demand. The members of the family-estate who were thus chosen to represent the village were all styled pátils, and the head of the pátil estate was called the mukádam or chief of the pátils and therefore the chief of all the other joint estates of the village. In some villages for the same reason that it was found convenient to have one responsible family-estate it was found desirable to have a second joint-estate to help the first. In this way arose the chaughulás or families of assistant pátils. In 1821 the members of the family-estate which was responsible for the village rental or the jatha of pátils were respected more than the members of the other family-estates. The position of head or mukádam of the village was attended with several advantages. Besides his own share of his family-estate the headman held grant or inám lands free from tax. He also had the control of the village expenses and several other substantial perquisites. In the same way as all the members of a family-estate or jatha were obliged to make good the share of any defaulting member, so the body of family-estates were bound to make good the share of any defaulting estate.

In Captain Robertson's opinion the village head or mukadam had formerly been and still was as much a natural head of the village society as a servant of government. It was a matter of no small importance to the members of the joint estates to have a representative who could meet and settle the claims of the officers of government. The headman had been and was still a magistrate by the will of the community as well as by the appointment of government. He enforced the observances of what in England would be termed the bye-laws of the corporation; he formerly raised by contribution a sum of money to meet the expenses of the

Land.
HISTORY.
Thal or Jatha.

Captain Robertson thought that, from the meaning of the word pátil, which he apparently derived from pattakil that is the holder of a grant or lease, the use of pátil as a member of the responsible estate was not the original use of the word. In his opinion the word pátil was originally applied to a person by whom the whole of a new village was settled. He noticed that the use of the Persian term mukddam showed that the practice of choosing one man to be responsible for the whole village revenue did not date from before the Musaimán conquest of the Deccan. Captain Robertson, Collector, 10th October 1821, East India Papers IV. 531.534

Land.
HISTORY.
Thal or Jatha.

corporation and to support his own dignity as its head; he suggested improvements for the benefit of the association and marshalled its members to aid him in maintaining the public peace; he dispensed civil justice as a patriarch to those who chose to submit to his decision as referee, or he presided over the proceedings of others whom either he or the parties concerned named as arbitrators. Captain Robertson was of opinion that in virtue of his position as president of the corporation, the mukádam was originally granted the management of its affairs, and the regulation of the village feasts and temples, and that, like other presidents, he had turned this power to his own advantage, and by degrees, increased the amount of the village charges.

In a country like the Deccan, which for centuries had been subject to perpetual revolutions and disturbances, many villages must have found the benefit of forming a society, all of whose members were bound to support each other. The strength of the feeling of fellowship or association was shown by the walls which guarded the villages and by the bravery with which in disturbed times these walls had often been defended against large bodies of troops.

Though in theory the leading family estate and its head were responsible for the whole rental of the village and were bound to make good the failures of minor family estates, this responsibility could be enforced only in ordinary years. When any great and general calamity happened, and the ruin of villages from war or from pestilence was not uncommon and in nine cases out of ten was the result either of the weakness or of the greed of the government, the government was forced to take less than the full rental, sometimes to recover only from the ground which was actually under tillage. Still in times of disorder and misrule the remissions were often insufficient to prevent the impoverishment if not the ruin of the responsible head. Headmen were forced to part either with the whole or with some of their rights and privileges. When a headman was forced to sell his rights and privileges two or three sharers by purchase were occasionally established, and each took a certain number of family estates, or if the original family estates had been broken, they took a certain number of individuals for whose share of the rental they became responsible and from whom they received man-pan or tokens of respect. These divisions of the headship were known as thalkaris' sarfás or sarifás that is settlers' dues. sharer or takshimdar of the headship had also assigned to him a share of the waste or *qatkul* land in proportion to his share of the headship. This plan of ranging a certain number of family estates or of individuals under each sharer in the headship was, no doubt, a good arrangement for the individual landholder as it saved him from the risk of having to pay headship dues to more than one person. respect or mán-pán enjoyed by the head or mukádam was never shared by his relations unless when the office had been lately

¹ Until the kamál or highest that is the Marátha settlement, which was made between 1758 and 1760, the headman was allowed to spend what amount he chose on village expenses. In 1760 government undertook to regulate village expenses and the sums spent were entered in the yearly rent statement or jamábandi. East India Papers, IV, 532-533.

acquired by purchase. When a headship was bought the signs of respect or mán-pán were generally distributed among all the

members of the purchasing family.1

Another revenue system of which traces remained at the beginning of British rule was the system of Malik Ambar, the famous Abyssinian minister of the last Nizám Sháhi king Murtaza II. at the beginning of the seventeenth century. Malik Ambar seems to have adopted many of the principles of Todar Mal's settlement which was introduced into parts of Upper India and of Gujarát during the reign of the Emperor Akbar (1556-1605), and into Khándesh and parts of the Deccan during the reign of Sháh Jahán (1627-1658). According to Captain Robertson, the object of Todar Mal's settlement was to measure the land under tillage into bighás and to divide the lands into four classes according to their quality, to ascertain from year to year what crops had been grown, to strike a medium of the value of the crops grown, and to take one-fourth of the estimated value of the crops in cash. This was called the cash rent settlement or jamábandi nagdi and the holdings which were held under this settlement were known as rakbás or areas.

Like Todar Mal's settlement Malik Ambar's system was based on a correct knowledge of the area3 of the land tilled and of the money value of the crop, and the determination to limit the state demand to a small share of the actual money value of the crop. Malik Ambar's settlement was introduced between 1605 and 1626. 1820 he was still remembered as the benefactor of the people. According to a Marátha legend which narrated events that occurred about 1618, Malik Ambar was said to have doubled the revenues of the government at the same time that he improved the state of the people. According to another tradition it was Malik Ambar who established the village servants or balutás. One chief point of difference between the systems of Todar Mal and of Malik Ambar was that Malik Ambar converted his grain demand into fixed cash rates. These conversion rates did not vary with the fluctuations in the price of grain and from their extreme lowness were probably at the time when they were introduced greatly below the actual prices. Todar Mal's conversion rates from grain into cash seem to have been based on the produce prices which were ruling when his survey was introduced. His system provided for a revision of the conversion rates so that they might continue in agreement with the actual market prices of grain. Malik Ambar's experiments to fix the average outturn of the different plots of village land were confined to the

It is doubtful if Malik Ambar's bighas were of uniform size.

Chapter VIII Land.

HISTORY. Malık Ambar.

¹ Capt. Robertson, Collector, 10th Oct. 1821, East India Papers IV. 531-534. ² East India Papers, IV. 409.

It is doubtful if Malik Ambar's bights were of uniform size.

Captain Robertson, 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV. 408-409.

East India Papers, IV. 410. According to Grant Duff (Marátha History, 43) Malik Ambar abolished revenue farming, and committed the management of the land revenue 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 (1614) commuted for a payment in money settled annually according to the cultivation. His assessment was said to be two fifths and his money commutation one third of the produce. two-fifths and his money commutation one-third of the produce.

Land.
HISTORY.

Mal: Ambar.

arable lands of the village. Hill lands were not included. Before Malik Ambar's time the boundaries of the villages were known. What he did was to introduce into the arable land, for waste and hill lands seem not to have been included, the practice of division into equal areas or bighás and of varying the demand on these areas according to the quality of the soil. Under Malik Ambar's plan when the whole arable land of the village had been ascertained, it was divided according to ancient practice into two classes bágúyat or garden land and jirayat or corn-land. The arable area was also divided into khálsa or land which yielded a revenue to government and inamat or land whose government rental had been alienated through favour or in return for service. After deducting the land whose government rental had been alienated from the total area, the khálsa land, that is the land which paid a rent to government, was entered as including so much garden or bágáyat and so much cornland or jirayat. In the accounts two classes of rent-alienated land were distinguished, dumála or two-ownered inám which was held by vatandárs and wholly inám-which was held by mosques and temples and by village servants. After the entries regarding the rentalienated lands, were the details of the assessment of the rent-paying or khálsa lands and lastly there was an entry of the cesses, some of them fixed others varying, which were levied on the craftsmen shopkeepers and village servants or balutás. Captain Robertson found no evidence to show what portion of the produce Malik Ambar took as the government share. He thought it fair to conclude that Malik Ambar fixed the share at less than one-third, which had been the usual exaction before his time. In Captain Robertson's opinion he probably adopted Todar Mal's plan and fixed the rent at onefourth of the produce.2 Malik Ambar encouraged the higher kinds of cultivation by levying no special garden rates.3

As regards the character of Malik Ambar's survey well informed natives were of opinion that the areas were fixed not by measuring but by a glance estimate or nasar páháni. This view seemed to be supported by the fact that he continued to use the old terms for measuring. He seemed to have divided the land into good and bad without attempting so elaborate a classification as was intended

¹ East India Papers, IV. 415.

² Captain Robertson, 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV. 418; Capt. Robertson's Report of 1st February 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 479. Compare Grant Duff (Maratha History, 43) who states that Malık Ambar's share when reduced to cash equalled one-third, and Elphinstone's History of India, 553. Grant Duff's estimate has been accepted by later writers. See Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 9. According to the tankha assessment which was introduced by Todar Mal the celebrated minister of Akbar, and which derived its name from the small silver coin in which the revenues were collected, the lands were in the first instance assessed with reference to the fertility in a proportion varying from one-half to one-seventh of the gross produce according to the expense of culture and to the description of crop grown. The government share was then commuted for a money payment and in time when a measurement classification and register had taken place, the regulated assessment was fixed at a fourth of the whole produce of each field throughout the year and thus became the permanent assessment of the land. This is Captain Grant's description of the principles on which the tankha assessment was fixed. Mr. Mills, Principal Collector, 23rd December 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 52.

³ Captain Robertson, 1st February 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 488.

'n Todar Mal's scheme. Malik Ambar though he may have called the divisions of land or holdings bighás, seems to have used the word bigha in its original sense of share and not in its later sense of an area containing a definite number of square yards. He seems to have fixed the amount which a holding could bear by a test of the produce it yielded. In some cases a man might hold double as large a bigha as another, but the land was probably only half as rich and so the pressure of the demand was the same. It was the cropyielding powers of the different estates which were fixed, not their areas.1 At the same time the fact that when tested by measurements the quantity of grain taken on an estimate bigha varied from about 54 to 90 pounds ($\frac{9}{16}$ to $\frac{15}{16}$ of a man) showed that Malik Ambar had taken pains to ascertain the capabilities of the village lands. According to a tradition, which Captain Robertson believed was correct, the plan he followed in ascertaining the productive powers of a field was by a test or nimtana of the produce it yielded. At harvest time the sheaves were counted in a field of an estimated number of bighas. Three sheaves, a good, a middling, and a bad, were picked out and the quantity of grain each contained was ascertained and the average of the three yields was struck and this average multiplied into the whole number of sheaves gave the grain-yield of the field.3 These experiments were repeated through a series of years some say as many as ten years to ascertain the effect of the season on the yield of the land. In this way the yield in an average season was ascertained.

The amount realized by the trade and other cesses varied from year to year, and the share of the village revenue which continued to be taken in grain fluctuated with the price of grain, but under Malik Ambar's system the bulk of the demand on each village became constant. Malik Ambar's settlement contains no reference to waste land. According to Captain Robertson he based his estimate on the whole arable land of the village without reference to the state of cultivation. After fixing what rental it should pay to government he handed the management of the village to the pátils with orders that they should realize the amount. It appears that under Malik Ambar's system the whole of the detailed arrangement with the actual landholders was left to the village head. Under this system the headman was either a contractor who was bound to raise a certain sum from the village

Chapter VIII

Land.

HISTORY.

Malik Ambar.

¹ Captain Robertson, 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV. 418; Captain Robertson, 1st February 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 482. Captain Robertson thinks it not certain whether Malık Ambar measured the square contents of the land. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 480.

² Captain Robertson (East India Papers, IV. 420) notices that the test or nimitine system was still common in North India and in parts of Khándesh and Gujarát. It was the basis of the batái or crop-share system. The test system was the system adopted by Shiváji's father Sháháji's headman Dádáji Kondadev when he introduced a settlement into the Mávals or western hill tracts of Poona in 1645.

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East India Papers, IV. 420.

East India Papers, IV. 418.

Captain Robertson, 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV. 418. It has already been noticed that Malik Ambar's survey did not include unarable waste lands. If his settlement was the boon which it was believed to be, it seems difficult to understand how he could have called on the willage to pay for more land than was actually under tillage or at least was held for cultivation.

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History.
dik Ambar.

or he cas the representative of the whole body of landholders or mirásdárs. As the headman or the representative was bound to pay the whole village rental, so each holder was bound to pay the whole of the share of the rental to which his land was liable whether his land was under tillage or was waste.

After Malik Ambar's examination or glance survey of the arable land of a village the quantity of grain which it should be called upon to pay was fixed.2 After the quantity of grain which the whole village should yield was fixed, the rents of alienated lands were deducted and either the whole of the grain or some part less than the whole was turned into a cash payment. There seemed to be no instance of a fixed money settlement which had not before been a fixed grain settlement. As Malik Ambar made his commutation rates permanent he was forced to fix them very low. In Malik Ambar's estimates the price or money value of grain was not more than one-seventh of the average price of the same amount of grain between 1820 and 1825. This Captain Robertson was assured by the hereditary revenue officers was not due to any change in the size of the grain measures.8 Calculations made by Captain Robertson seemed to show that on the shenshahi bigha of 39262 square yards or about the of an acre, which was the land measure in use in the Deccan since the time of the Moghals, Malik Ambar's demand amounted in grain to about 82 pounds (18ths of a man of twelve páylis or about 101 pounds) and in money according to Malik Ambar's grain prices to 7½d. (5 as.) and according to the prices of grain in 1820 varied from 3s. 6d. to 4s. (Rs. 1½-2). According to Captain Robertson the low rates fixed by Malik Ambar greatly enriched the country. The headmen were able to let out waste lands at rates which secured cultivators; the interests of landholders were fostered, and cultivators appeared in villages which had before been empty.

About 1637 when Mahomed Sháh (1626-1656) of Bijápur made an alliance with Sháh Jahán, the Bijápur king gave to Sháhájí, Shiváji's father, the greater part of the present district of Poona including the divisions of Chákan, Poona, Supa, Bárámati, Indápur,

7 · Maráthás.

¹ East India Papers, IV. 418-419.

² Captain Robertson (1st February 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 479) says the whole arable and assessed lands.

³ Captain Robertson, 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV. 419-420; 1st February 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 481.

Captain Robertson, 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV. 420. Captain Robertson's calculation of the average amount of grain taken under Malik Ambar's system was based on a knowledge of the area of arable land ascertained by actual measurement between A.D. 1662 and 1666 and of the quantity of grain taken as a fixed rent by Malik Ambar and his successors. The quantity of grain was fixed on a shenshahi bugha. The measurements introduced by the Moghals showed that in an uniform area of 39263 aquare yards, that is on a shenshahi bugha, the rates introduced by Malik Ambar, based chiefly on the ascertained outturn, varied from 18 ths to 13 ths and 13 ths of a man. The average was 13 ths. This average was ascertained by summing the arable land in forty villages and comparing it with the whole fixed quantity of grain payable by these villages under Malik Ambar's permanent settlement. According to Captain Robertson's calculations, on the average price of grain between 1820 and 1825 which was 42 pounds for 2s. (5 paylis the rupee), 4ths of a man represented a shenshahi bigha rate of Re. 1 as. 15; 13 ths of Rs. 12; 13 ths of Re. 1 as. 101; 13 ths of Re. 1 as. 102; 13 ths of Re. 1 as. 104; 13 ths of Rs. 2 as. 13; and 14 ths of Rs. 24. Capt. Robertson, 1st February 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 480-481.

and the twelve mountain valleys called Mávals. Sháháji entrusted the management of his land to Dádáji Kondadev a Bráhman who is said to have been extremely just and prudent, but very severe. Dádáji Kondadev took advantage of the distress in 1630 to tempt large numbers of cultivators to settle in the lands under his charge,1 and took such pains to improve the country that, if we may credit his historian, there were not twenty cubits of arable waste in the whole of his charge. This statement seems to be mainly poetical as another Marátha account describes the Mávals or the greater part of the hilly west of Poona as miserable and empty of people, overrun with woods and with wolves. Dádáji destroyed the wolves and cleared much of the forests and introduced or confirmed Malik Ambar's settlement, fixing the amount of the government demand by a test or nimtána of the actual outturn of the crop. In connection with Dádáji Kondadev's revenue management it is worthy of note that when Shahaji overran the eastern Karnátak he drew numbers of Marátha Bráhmans from Poons and appointing them deshmukhs, deshpandes, and kulkarnis, introduced Dádáji's revenue system into his conquests.2 same practice was introduced by Shivaji about 1652 into his Konkan and other conquests.3

In 1664 when the Moghals under prince Muazzam drove Shiváji ont of his father's lands, they found the country much reduced by the ravages of war and pestilence. Between 1662 and 1666 they made a correct measurement and division into uniform bighas of 39263 square yards of a large area of land near Poona.4 the depressed state of the country they were not able to continue Malik Ambar's system. In 1664 in its stead prince Muazzam introduced a crop division or batái system under which the outturn was divided equally between the government and the landholder or rayat, who, besides paying half of his crop, had to meet the cost of the district superintendent or deshmukh and the accountant or deshpande and also of the village headman and village accountant.5 Special garden rates of £1 7s. 7\frac{1}{4}d. the acre (Rs. 11\frac{1}{4} the bigha) in channel watered or pátasthal and of 18s. 43d. the acre (Rs. 71 the bigha) in well watered or motasthal lands, were for the first time introduced.6

In 1669 when Shiváji reconquered Poons he introduced a cash rental instead of a payment in kind. The rates seem to have been based on the custom or riváj, which was apparently in use before Malik Ambar's time, of government taking one-third and leaving two-thirds to the landholders. This one-third demand represented an acre rate of about 260 pounds (2 mans 2½ páylis the shensháhi bigha). in first rate land; 177 pounds (11 mans the bigha) in second rate land; and 118 pounds (1 man the bigha) in third rate land. On the

Chapter VIII Land. HISTORY. The Marathás.

The Moghals.

The Maráthás.

Capt. Robertson, 1st Feb. 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 488.

в 1327-41

Chapter VIII.

Land.

HISTORY.

The Maráthás.

grain prices ruling about 1825 these amounts represented a cash acre rate of 13s. (Rs. 5 as. 43 the bigha) in first rate land; of 8s. 10d. (Rs. 3 as. $9\frac{1}{2}$ the bigha) in second rate land; and of 5s. 11d.(Rs. 2 as. 61 the bigha) in third rate land. Shivaji continued prince Muazzam's garden rate of £1 7s. 71d. the acre (Rs. 111 the bigha) in channel and of 18s. 44d. the acre (Rs. 71 the bigha) in well-watered land. No change was made in the relations between the government and the landholder. The settlement was, as it had been under Malik Ambar's settlement, by village or mauzevár. The village had to make good a lump sum. The villagers were left to arrange among themselves for the payment of shares which had fallen waste. Land deserted by its owner became the joint property of the The remaining villagers tilled it either dividing it among themselves or clubbing together to cultivate it as common land. this system had been continued Captain Robertson thought that individual property in land would have disappeared. Under this system Shivaji's rental was uncertain and the people suffered, and in 1674 Malik Ambar's system of a fixed money rent for the whole village was restored.

The troubles during the wars between Shivaji and the Moghals and between Aurangzeb and Bijapur which ended in the overthrow of Bijapur in 1686, and the still greater disorders which filled the first twenty years of the eighteenth century must have caused a decline in the area under tillage and in the production. There was also according to Captain Robertson (1st February 1825)2 an increased abundance of money; partly because money had been cheapened by the continuous working of the American mines, and partly because in the spread of Marátha power the spoils of a great part of India were brought home by the Poons soldiery. The effect of the rise in the price of produce was greatly to reduce the government share in the ontturn of the land. To make this loss good, or probably rather to adapt the system to the disordered state of the country, fresh cesses were levied at any time and under any form which seemed to be likely to yield revenue. This continued till 1758 when under the rule of Peshwa Báláji Bájiráv (1740-1761) a new and very elaborate measurement and settlement was introduced. The new settlement was introduced into great part of Junnar between 1758 and 1768 and at a later date into the neighbourhood of Poona. The rates under this new system were termed the kamál. The amount of money levied under the kamál was about twice as great as it had been under Malik Ambar's tankha settlement. The land was measured and entered in shenshahi bighas and the bigha rates were fixed according to the quality of the soil. The kamálor Peshwa system also differed from the tankha or Musalmán system in levying the village rental on the area actually under tillage and not on the whole arable area of the village. Under the new system the whole rental or kamál ákár of a village was composed of the

Capt. Robortson, 1st Feb. 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 487-489.
 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 489-491. Also 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV. 426-427.

original rental or ain jama and of extra or shivuya jama. Thus in the village of Avsari Khurd the kamal settlement gave the following details. The measurements showed an area of 2530 acres or 3120 shensháhi bighás in actual cultivation, assessed at £393 (Rs. 3930). Of the whole area 19 acres (23% bighás) were garden land or bágáyat assessed at 14s. $9\frac{1}{4}d$. an acre (Rs. 6 a bigha); 192 acres ($236\frac{3}{4}$ bighás) were green products and fruit tree land called mala and assessed at 7s. 43d. an acre (Rs. 3 a bigha); 336 acres (4144 bighás) of black or first class grain land called káli and assessed at 4s. 11d. an acre (Rs. 2 a bigha); 435 acres (536) bighás) of second class grain land assessed at 3s. 3d. an acre (Rs. 11 a bigha); 478 acres (589 bighás) of third class grain land assessed at 2s. 51d. an acre (Re. 1 a bigha), and 1070 acres (13191 bighás) of fourth class grain land assessed at 1s. 101d. an acre (Rs. \frac{3}{4} a bigha). To this original rental or ain jama was added under shivaya jama or extras £4 16s. (Rs. 48) under Mhárs' land or Mhár hadola, £15 8s. (Rs. 154) as trade tax or mohtarfa, and £6 12s. (Rs. 66) from village servants entered as baluta.

Land.
HISTORY.
The Marátha

¹ East India Papers, IV. 427. It seems doubtful how far the elaborate system described in the text was introduced. In the Purandhar sub-division a very much rougher system seems to have been in force. The arable lands were parcelled into chahurs, each system seems to have been in force. The about leads were pastened into contained, each challer representing about 120 bighds. These which contained lands varying much in quality were assessed in poor villages at Rs. 36 to Rs. 60, in middle villages at Rs. 60 to Rs. 90, and in good villages at Rs. 90 to Rs. 120 or Rs. 130. Lt. Shortrede Ist Oct. 1895. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 85; Mr. Mills, 23rd Dec. 1835, Do. 58. Capt. Robertson, 1st May 1820, Last India Papers, IV. 427. Other items of extra assessment or shivaya jama are mentioned by Mr. Elphinstone: On the cultivators dahak patti or a tax of one year's revenue in ten; on the lands of the deshmukh and deshpande chauthai or a fourth of the fees levied every year; on the Mhars a mhar mharki; on mirasdars a mirás patti once in three years; on inámdárs an inám tijái or one-third of the government share of their lands and an inam patti or occasional tax imposed in times of need; pándhar gana an additional 12 per cent on the tankha, levied once in twelve years; and whin hunda or an extra tax on lands watered from wells. Other taxes were on traders alone. These were mohtarfa or a tax on shopkeepers varying with their means, in fact an income tax; baluti or a tax on the twelve village servants; these too were sometimes included in the am jama and in some places the mohtarfa formed a distinct head by itself; bazár baühak or a tax on stalls at fairs, kumbhár khán or a tax on earth dug up by the potters. The following full induscriminately on both classes; ghar patti or ambár sárí or house tax levied from all but Brahmans and village officers; bachak pahani or a fee on the annual examination of weights and measures; tug or a similar fee on examining the scales used for bulky articles; danka, or danka, or a tax on the right to beat a drum on particular religious and other occasions; kharidi jinnas or purveyance or a tax on the right to purchase articles at a certain rate; this was generally commuted for a money payment; lagan takka or a tax on marriages; pat dam or a particular tax on the marriage of widows; mhass patti or a tax on buffaloes; bakri patti or a tax on sheep. There were also occasional contributions in kind called fad farmash such as bullocks' hides, charcoal, hemp, rope, and butter, which were often commuted for fixed money payments; many other sums were paid in commutation for service. All those collections were made by the pútil in small villages though in towns there was a separate officer to levy those not connected with the land. Government had other sources of revenue included in the shiváya jama or extra collections in each village besides those enumerated. The principal were kamávis gunliegári or khand farshi as fines and forfeitures, baitanmál escheats and profit from deposits and temporary sequestrations; rancharái grazing fees; gháskatái grass fees; devasthán dabi derived from offerings to idols; kharbuj vidi or a tax on melon gardens in the beds of rivers. Besides all this and besides the village expenses or guon kharch there were taxes to defray the mahál sádilvár or district expenses not already provided for by government, in which were included many personal expenses of the mamlatdars and a large fund for embezzlement and corruption for the mamlatdar and the courtiers who befriended him. In addition to all these exactions there were occasional impositions on extraordinary emergencies which were called jasti patti or extra cess and eksali

hapter VIII. Land. HISTORY. . The Marathas.

After 1720, in parts of Poona not included in the svaráj, the full rental or kamál was divided between the Maráthás and the Moghals, or when the Nizám became independent, between the Maráthás and the Nizám. To the full rental or kamál ten per cent were added for the Marátha sardeshmukhi or overlordship. Taking the whole demand including the overlord's charge at 100, ten went to the overlord. Of the remaining ninety, forty-five went to the Moghals and forty-five to the Maráthás. The forty-five parts left to the Moghals were divided into two groups one of 333 called jágir and the other of 111 called faujdári. The Marátha share like the Moghal share was divided into two, one of 333 called bábti or the chief's share, and one of 111 called mokása or the share given away by the chief. But the divisions of the Marátha share were uncertain, as various claims or amals were granted to the Pant Sachiv and other high officers.2 In other cases, some of the Marátha shares or bábtis seem to have been added to the original rental or ain jama. Thus in an example given by Mr. Chaplin the original bigha rate is shown at 8 mans. To this 3 the of a man and three shers are added for sardeshmukhi and for makatmajkur, ½ a man for sahotra, ½ of a man for hak chauthai, and 21 shers for desai. In addition to the original assessment, extra cesses styled pattis were levied, as examples of which Mr. Chaplin cites a butter cess ghipatti, a grain cess galla patti, and a present or sadar-bhet. A house-tax and a female buffalo tax were also levied.

In uplands or varkas, where coarse grains were alone grown, an estimate of the crop was made, and from a half to one-third was taken as the government share which was commuted for a money payment at a rate which was established for each village. When rates were fixed at a páhani or survey, the amount of government rent was not changed until a fresh survey was made.

In large villages and in market towns called peths and kasbás the non-agricultural cesses were collected through the shets or leaders of the merchant and craft guilds, who, among the men of their own class, held a position of headship corresponding to the position held by a pátil mukádam in a village. These headmen distributed the assessment among the members of their caste or trade, according to their knowledge of their circumstances, and with the concurrence of the individuals themselves in full assembly. The government demands on traders and craftsmen were regulated by a reference to what it had been usual to collect. New cesses were always resisted with great clamour, and unless the agent of government could support his demands by the documents of previous years, he had great trouble in levying the cess.4

patti or year cess. If these happened to be continued for several years they ceased to be considered as occasional impositions and fell into the regular shivaya jama; but until the introduction of the farming system they were said to have been as rare as the occasions which furnished the pretext for them. Mr. Elphinstone, 25th October 1819 (Ed. 1872, 26-27).

¹ The Poona districts included in the grant of the svaráj were Poona, Supa including Bárámati, Indápur, and Junnar. Grant Duff's Maráthás, 200.

* East India Papers, IV. 586 - 587.

Mr. Chaplin, 20th Aug. 1822, Ed. 1877, 25-27. East India Papers, IV. 588,

After the introduction of the kamálor full settlement about 1760 the revenues were managed by agents who examined the village accounts in detail and settled or were supposed to settle for the revenues according to the actual state of cultivation, or by fixing with the head of the village for the payment of a stipulated sum for one year. The kamál which had taken the place of the tankha in the village accounts was the basis of all these settlements. In villages which were just able or were barely able to pay it, the kamál was always demanded and became almost a fixed settlement. In villages which had grown richer since the kamál was fixed, an additional amount was levied either by guess or after examining the increased cultivation. The additional amount levied in this way was generally a perquisite of the local agents and was entered in the accounts under " hal majkur that is sub-divisional charges or under some other suitable head. These agents were spread over the whole Marstna empire d were men of influence and ability. They were of two classes sarsubheda. or provincial governors and subhedars who corresponded to the English Collectors and had charges yielding a yearly revenue varying from £10,000 to £50,000 (Rs. 1,00,000-Rs. 5,00,000).2 Neither the sarsubhedár nor the subhedár was bound to live at the head-quarters of his charge. The management of affairs was usually entrusted to an able and confidential agent or kárbhári, on whom all the power of the office devolved. When a district chief or subhedar was appointed he was furnished with an estimate of the revenues of his district with a list of all the authorized charges including militia or shibandis, pensions, religious expenses, and salaries. This estimate was prepared by the secretaries or daftardárs of the state under the eye of the Peshwa or of his minister. The tankha, and after the middle of the eighteenth century the kamál, formed the basis of these government estimates, and the changes which had taken place since the introduction of the kamal were calculated on the basis of the The subhedár's salary, which was payments of the last year. generally calculated at one per cent on the revenue of his charge, or £500 to £600 (Rs. 5000-6000) a year, and his establishment were next fixed and the amount deducted. The balance which was left, was divided into several sums which at stated periods were required to be paid into the government treasury at Poona. The subhedár nad to pay the revenue in advance. He generally had to pay half of the amount at the beginning of the year and the rest by instalments but always in advance.3

When the account year was closed (4th June), the subhedar was obliged to furnish detailed statements of the sums he had realized.

According to Mr. Elphinstone's Report (25th October 1819, Ed. 1872, 22) on the territories conquered from the Peshwa, the sarsubhedar was appointed in Gujarat,

³ Mr. Elphinstone, 1819, Ed. 1872, 22-24. Capt. Robertson, 1820, East India Papers IV, 430-434.

Chapter VIII Land

HISTORY. .The Maráthas.

Khandesh, the Karnatak, and other remote provinces.

Mr. Elphinstone (Report of 25th October 1819, Ed. 1872, 24-26) uses the title mindudar instead of subhedar. He says the officer in charge of a large district was called mamlatdar; there was sometimes a provincial governor or sarsubhedar between the mamlatdar and government. Capt. Robertson (May 1820) says that a subheddr sometimes farmed part of his charge to a mamlatdar. East India Papers,

Jhapter VIIL Land. HISTORY. The Marathas.

If it appeared that he had collected more than had been estimated, the subhedár was called on to pay the surplus; if any deficiency had arisen, and if there was no reason to suppose that his accounts were false or his management negligent, he was not obliged to make good the deficiency. As the subhedar always paid in advance, at the close of the year there was generally a balance in his favour. Deductions were sometimes made from this balance on the score of embezzlements. The rest was carried over from year to year; the balance was sometimes reduced by partial payments but it was seldom cleared. balances due to government were exacted unless the subhedár could show that the receipts had fallen short of the estimates without any carelessness or dishonesty on his part. The eighteenth century subhedár was a government agent whose chief duty in times of peace was to move about his charge redressing grievar es, superintending his officers, and collecting the revenue. He was also a judge and a magistrate, but it was because he was the collector of the revenue that he held the offices of judge and magistrate.

When the subhedár or his representative came to his charge, his first duty was to ascertain with precision how much fresh land had been or was likely to be brought into cultivation in the course of the year. For this purpose he deputed local managers. Those sent to superintend large groups of villages, called a taraf pargana or mahál, were termed kamavisdars or tarfdars and those who had charge of a few villages were called karkuns and shekhdars that is clerks.2 The kamávisdárs, tarafdárs, kárkuns, and shekhdárs were appointed by the subhedár. As a check upon them and upon the subhedár there was a set of hereditary officials called fee-men or darakdúrs because they were partly paid from local fees. Among these were the diván or minister, the fadravis or registrar, and the potnis or treasurer, whose duty it was to draw up and sign a yearly statement of the receipts and expenditure in the subhedár's office and to report to government any evil practices of the subhedárs.3 There was a second set of hereditary officers who like the diván and fadnavis were intended to exercise a check on the subhedár chiefly in the interest of the landholders. These were the district superintendent or deshmukh and the district accountant or deshpande. Peth were generally known by the title of landlords or zami dars. The deshmukh held for a group of villages much the same position as the village headman held with regard to one village and the position of deshpande or group accountant corresponded to the position of the kulkarni or village accountant.4 As these hereditary district officers or zamindárs were considered chiefly to represent the interests of the cultivators, the village headmen looked to them for help in resisting exactions and in obtaining remissions. The subhedár's staff of kamavisdars, karkuns, and shekhdars, was employed in framing

¹ Mr. Elphinstone, 1819, Ed. 1872, 22-24.

² East India Papers, IV. 430. According to Mr. Elphinstone (1819, Ed. 1872, 22)

the kárkin had charge of a considerable number of villages and had under him an officer called shekhdar who had four or five villages.

Mr. Elphinstone, 1819, Edition 1872, 22-24.

Mr. Elphinstone, 1819, Edition 1872, 18-20.

Chapter VIII

Land.

HISTORY.

The Maráthás.

from actual inspection and with the help of pátils and kulkarnis, a return of the area of rent-alienated land belonging to inamdars and others; of the area of arable waste which had been brought under tillage during the year; and of the area of arable which still remained waste. After this examination was completed, the revenue of each village for the current year was calculated from the mirás land under tillage or which belonged to resident mirásdárs together with the rents due from short rate or ukti and lease or kauli land. This estimate was not the final settlement; it was only the basis on which the dates of paying certain sums were fixed, until at the close of the year the actual government demand was finally determined. the estimate was always near enough to the final assessment to insert it in the pátil's agreement to pay the village revenue. When the inspectors of the cultivation were ready to submit their labours, it was usual for the subhedár to visit each village group called taraf mahal or pargana. The patils of the group met at his office, and after receiving a general assurance that the subhedár would not take more than was usual, gave a written engagement specifying the quantity of cultivated land, the area of waste, and the area granted to new settlers, and promised to realize and to pay the revenue and received a counterpart from the subhedar. On their return to their villages the pátils began to collect the revenue. If any crops failed after the estimate was framed, the failure was taken into account in fixing the final demand. It was understood by government that, unless he farmed the revenues for the year, the pátil was purely a government agent, and that neither he nor the kulkarni was entitled to any advantage beyond their established rights and salaries. For the same reason if the amount received from a village fell short of the estimate, no attempt was made to recover the balance from the headman or from the accountant.1 The payments of revenue were generally in three instalments, one corresponding with the early or monsoon crops or kharif which was due about November-December, a second corresponding to the cold weather or rabi crops which was due in January and February, a third corresponding to the hot weather or tusar crops which was due in February and March, and a fourth which was sometimes levied about March-April to recover outstanding balances.2 In October or November when the early or principal harvest was nearly ready, the subhedár moved through his charge. The headmen and accountants, who were generally accompanied and supported by some of the leading landholders, laid before him the papers showing the old settlement rates, apparently both Malik Ambar's tankha and the kamal of 1760 together with the latest year's payments or vasul ákár, and such a statement of extra items. as gave a full view of the state of the village. The minuteknowledge which the subhedár's staff of clerks called kárkuns or shekhdars had of the villages under their charge, enabled the subhedar to check the correctness of the village accounts. Some discussion generally followed in which the villagers looked to the

¹ East India Papers, IV. 431. ² Mr. Elphinstone, 1819, Edition 1872, 24-26.

Chapter VIII.

Land.

HISTORY.

The Maráthás.

hereditary district officers the deshmukh and the deshpande to help them to gain any remission or concession which they thought they required. The discussion generally ended in the preparation of a final rent statement or jamábandi patta to which the pátil gave a formal agreement. If the pátil refused to accept the conditions offered by the subhedar, an officer was sent to examine the state of the village crops. If even then no agreement could be made, the subhedar, though this rarely happened in Poona, arranged to take one-half of the crop. The practice of keeping the village crops under guard until the settlement was made, unknown immediately round Poona, was common. When one of the three revenue instalments fell due, the subhedár's clerk sent a messenger to each village to help the pátil. The Mhár summoned the landholders who paid their rent to the pátil in the presence of the village goldsmith or potdár who assayed and stamped the money, and of the accountant who granted a receipt. When the instalment was collected, the headman sent it by the Mhar under charge of the under-patil or chaughula with a letter to the deshmukh and another to the mamlatdar. At the mamlatdar's office the money was again tested by a moneychanger and if any of it was found to be bad, the village goldsmith or potder was made responsible. When the money was accepted the subheddr granted When the account year closed these receipts were resumed and the pátil was furnished with a statement showing the amount of revenue fixed for the year, the dates of its realization, and the balance, if any, outstanding. This statement was ratified by the subhedár in the usual way.

A subhedár held his appointment for only one year. reappointment to his charge depended chiefly on his influence at court and they generally had sufficient address to hold their charge for a considerable period in some cases, according to Mr. Elphinstone, for as much as fifty years. Though the subhedár's nominal pay was seldom more than £500 (Rs.5000) or £600 (Rs.6000) a year, and though the system of payment in advance seemed to make any considerable profit impossible, the subhedars valued their posts and clung to them as long as they could. They generally succeeded in bringing over to their side both the district hereditary officers who were supposed to represent the people, and the diván, fadnavis, and potdár, who were supposed to represent the government; and, to answer appeals and complaints to head-quarters which under good rulers were encouraged and attended to, the subhedár had an agent or vakil at The subhedars added to their income by concealing unusual receipts, by making false entries of remissions, and false musters and by holding back allowances and pensions. Their chief source of profit was under the head of sadilvar that is extra or contingent charges. As a portion of the money spent under this head went to bribe the ministers and auditors, the details were not closely examined and the subhedar generally succeeded in keeping more to himself than he paid in bribes.2 Some subhedars let out a few of their

¹ 25th Oct. 1819, Ed. 1872, 24,

³ Mr. Elphinstone, 1819, Ed. 1872, 23-24.

maháls in farms to persons styled mámlatdárs. They were vested with all the subhedár's magisterial powers except that they could not pass sentence in capital or other heinous crimes. When the account year came to an end the pátil had to continue to perform his duties with vigour without receiving any orders from the subhedár. It made no difference to the pátil whether the subhedár was continued in office or a new man was appointed. two or three months of a new account year passed before the pátils knew who was to be their superior for the coming year. It was necessary that the pátil should take this independent action, because when a subhedár was changed, the former holder of the office was naturally remiss for some time before he left and his successor was at first ignorant of his charge. Considerable liberty was therefore left to the pátils in using their discretion as to the means best suited to stimulate the cultivators to industry. Except in years of famine, pestilence, or war, the headman was generally able to induce the people again to take the land which they had tilled in the previous year. Those who were not mirásdárs or hereditary holders and had once tilled a field, were generally willing to till it again so long as they had a sufficient stock of cattle. At the beginning of the year (June 5th) the pátil's chief care was to encourage hereditary holders to invest their gains in bringing arable waste under tillage; to obtain new temporary holders or upris and to help the old temporary holders to free themselves from the pressure of creditors and to prevent the sale of their cattle and goods or other extreme measures which might force them to leave the village. With this object the pátil went to the creditors and persuaded them that if the debtor had time he would pay what he owed; or he promised to lay the debtor's case before the subhedár and obtained from him some advance or takávi. To tempt hereditary holders to till arable waste the headman undertook to procure a lease in which, according to the length of time the land had lain waste, the cultivator was allowed part remission of rent during terms varying from four to ten years.1 Holders of these leases were free from the demands, which the hereditary holders generally had to pay as donations to holy men especially gosávis, and contributions to travelling tumblers and musicians. The headmen expected that a man who had enjoyed a rising lease would continue to hold the land at least for a year or two after the full rent became due. During those years they continued free from the extra levies to which the regular holders of village lands were liable. Besides the village rent the pátil had to see that all payments in kind to government were duly made and Chapter VIII.

History.

The Maráthás.

Generally when the land had lain waste for fifteen years an increasing lease or a written istáva kaul was granted for ten years. Under these leases no rent was charged for the first year, a ninth part of the full rent was charged in the second year, two-ninths in the third year, three-ninths in the fourth year, and so on till the tenth year when the full rent was levied. Land which had been waste for more than six and less than fifteen years was offered on a lease of six years, free in the first year and charged a fifth in the second, two-fifths in the third, and so on till in the sixth year the full rent was levied. Land which had lain waste less than six and more than two years was given on a lease of four years with a gradually increasing rental. East India Papers, IV. 432.

B 1327-42

Chapter VIII.

Land.

HISTORY.

The Maráthás.

that the village and group officers received their dues. If a cultivator either refused or evaded payment, the pátil called on the government messenger to interfere. The messenger heard what the defaulter had to say. If he thought the headman was acting unjustly or that the defaulter was really unable to pay, he took him to the subhedár who, if the defaulter's explanation satisfied him, granted him a complete or a partial remission. If the messenger thought the landholder had no good reason for refusing to pay, he would punish him by making him sit in the sun, by keeping him fasting, or by placing him in durance in the village guard-house or chavdi. If this treatment failed to make the defaulter pay, the messenger took him to the mamlatdar, who if he pleased might inflict slight corporal punishment, handing him roughly, pulling and pushing him about, and thumping him on the sides and back. If the mamlatdar was no more successful than the messenger, the defaulter was reported to the subhedár who ordered that his bullocks and property, and, if he was a mirásdár and the case was extreme, his land should be attached. If the amount realized from the sale was less than the sum he owed, the debtor was thrown into prison with fetters on his legs until it was fully ascertained that he had no other resources, when he was set at liberty.

If a pátil proved refractory and refused to obey the summons of the local officer, the subhedár sent a messenger or a horseman to the village with a written order to the pátil to pay the bearer a certain sum every day varying from 2s. to £5 (Rs.1-50) in proportion to the pátil's wealth or to the gravity of his offence. pátil persisted in not obeying the summons, and also in refusing to pay the fine, militia or shibandis were sent to bring him by force and he was then fined. Rigorous treatment either of a landholder or of a headman was seldom necessary in recovering the regular revenue. It was more employed in exacting extraordinary taxes. The pátil was bound to recover within a year all advances that is tagái or takávi which the subhedár had made. These advances were never made to the landholders direct. They were made through the pátil and at his request. And though the persons to whom the advances were made were still insolvent and required further help from government, the money was generally resumed at the close of a year and if the subhedár chose, a fresh advance was made for the new year. The pátil frequently furnished cultivators with means of recovering themselves by lending them money; if the cultivator was unworthy of this indulgence and failed to pay back the advance, the pátil was bound to make it good. Under this system of land management distraints were rare. If a temporary holder or upri fled and the rest of the villagers would not make good what he owed, his bullocks were sold. Government never sold a mirásdár's field or his bullocks though a mirásdár's relations might occasionally force him to part with some of his property to make good sums which they had paid to government on his account.2

There were local varieties in the system of land management, and conditions varied with the character of the times and the character

¹ Mr. Elphinstone, 1819, Edition 1872, 22-26.

² East India Papers, IV. 526.

of the Peshwas. Till the beginning of British rule the Peshwa Mádhavráv (1761-1772) was remembered with affection for his moderation, and Sakhárám Bápu and Nána Fadnavis with respect for their masterful knowledge tempered with justice and kindness.1 The cultivators were said to have been in a state of comparative prosperity under Peshwa Mádhavráv Náráyan (1774-1796) and traces of former prosperity remained. In those times the government collected its revenues through its own agents; the maximum of the land-tax was fixed, and only charged on lands actually under tillage: while remissions were made in bad seasons, and in cases of great distress sums of money were advanced without interest or on a moderate interest. The revenues fluctuated according to the prosperity of the country.2

Between 1772 and 1800, the years of the administration of Nána Fadnavis, the management of the Peshwa's land revenue was perhaps more efficient than at any other time. The mamlatdars or subhedars were chosen from families of character and respectability. office was given to trustworthy persons without any special agreement as to the amount of revenue their charge would supply. On their appointment they sometimes though not always paid a portion of the revenue to the treasury. Each received a deed or sanad enjoining the faithful discharge of their duty, and directing them to adopt as a guide a separate account of the assets and expenses of their charge. The deed or sanad also instructed them to ascertain what collections of the current year their predecessors had made, to credit them for the charges in proportion to the period they were in office, and to realize the balance after taking the late mamlatdar's acknowledgment of the amount outstanding. At the same time the former mamlatdar received an order directing him to give over to his successor the charge of the district with all its forts, garrisons, and magazines, to transfer to him all collections after deducting allowances or charges up to the period of his removal, and to certify to him the amount of arrears due, whether from the district land revenue or from other sources. The commandants of the forts were also ordered to place themselves under the direction of the new mámlatdúr, and the hereditary district officers or zamindárs were enjoined to acquaint the new mámlatdár with the resources of their charge. If his charge was important and contained a fort, the yearly pay and allowances of a mámlatdár amounted to about £430 (Rs. 4300). If his charge was righ but contained no fort his pay and allowances amounted to about £240 (Rs. 2400).3 When a new mámlatdár came to his charge, if it was an important charge, he

Chapter VIII Land.

HISTORY. The Marathas.

¹Capt. Robertson, Collector, 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV. 427-434; 1st February 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 479-508.

²Loni Account, 1820, Trans. Bom. Lit. Soc. III. 227.

⁵The pay and allowances of the Shivner charge which had a fort and yielded a yearly revenue of £10,200 (Rs. 1,02,000) amounted to Rs. 4279. The details were Pay Rs. 1000, a palanquin Rs. 800, oil Rs. 18, palanquin furniture Rs. 63, cloth Rs. 40, a house allowance or kārkuni from the secret service or antast fund Rs. 2,358; total Rs. 4279. The details for Junnar, which had no fort and yielded £11,574 (Rs. 1,15,740), were Pay Rs. 2000, clothes Rs. 21, palanquin furniture Rs. 75, firewood Rs. 275, total Rs. 2371. Appendix to Mr. Chaplin's Report, 20th August 1822 Edition 1877, 145-146, East India Papers IV. 625.

hapter VIII. Land. HISTORY. The Maráthás.

found two sets of local hereditary officials, one set called feemen or darakdárs1 because they were partly paid by local fees, some of whom were district and others were fort officers, and another set known as landlords or zamindárs, the hereditary superintendent or deshmukh and the hereditary accountant or deshpande of a group of villages. None of these hereditary officers could be dismissed by the mamlatdar, nor could he employ them on any duties except those which were specially prescribed to them. The fee-men or darakdars both of village groups and of forts received their pay and allowances in the same way as the mamlatdar. They were of three classes subha-nisbati or provincial, mahál or divisional, and killedári or belonging to forts; in the provincial staff there were besides twelve kárkuns or clerks, eight members, the minister or diván, the auditor or mujumdár, the registrar or fadnavis, the secretary or daftardár, the treasurer or potnis, the assay clerk or potdár, the petty registrar or sabhásad, and the under secretary or chitnis. Of the district or provincial fee-men or darakdárs the chief was the minister or diván who as chief factor under the mámlatdár countersigned all letters and orders. He received about £59 (Rs. 590) a year of which £35 (Rs. 350) were pay and £24 (Rs. 240) expenses or kárkuni. The auditor or mujumdár approved deeds and accounts before they went to the registrar or fadnavis. He received £49 (Rs. 490) of which £25 (Rs. 250) were pay and £24 (Rs. 240) were expenses. The registrar or fadnavis dated all deeds and orders. prepared a daily waste book, fastened notes to the money-bags, dated the yearly village rent settlement, and brought the books to head-quarters. He received £61 (Rs. 610) of which £20 (Rs. 200) were pay, £9 (Rs. 90) allowances for assistants, and £32 (Rs. 320) expenses. The secretary or daftardar, from the registrar's waste book, made up the ledger and sent a monthly abstract to headquarters. He received £28 (Rs. 280) of which £15 (Rs. 150) were pay, £1 (Rs. 10) for clothes, and £12 (Rs. 120) for expenses. The treasurer or potnis kept a record of collections and the balance of cash, and helped in writing the waste book and the ledger. received £15 (Rs. 150) of which £13 (Rs. 130) were pay and £2 (Rs. 20) expenses. The assay-clerk or potdar, of whom there were always two, examined the coins. They received £21 (Rs. 210) between them. The petty registrar or sabhásad kept a register of potty suits and reported them to the mamlatdar. He received £25 (Rs. 250). The under-secretary or chitnis wrote and answered despatches. He received £17 (Rs. 170) of which £12 (Rs. 120) were pay, £1 (Rs. 10) were for clothes, and £4 (Rs. 40) were expenses. The twelve clerks or kárkuns had an average pay of £20 (Rs. 200). If any of them went to head-quarters for the audit of accounts he was paid £35 (Rs. 350) extra. Each division or village group, called mahal or taraf, had three revenue officers, a deputy or haváldár, an auditor or mujumdár, and a registrar or fadnavis,

¹ The fee-men or darakdars were generally though not always hereditary. Mr

Elphinstone, 1819, Edition 1872, 22.

In some tracts there were no hereditary district officers. In such places their duties were performed by the fee-officials or darakdars. Appendix to Mr. Chaplin Report of 1822, Edition 1877, 156; East India Papers IV. 631.

and four militia or shibandi officers, the asham-navis, the registrar or asham-fadnavis, the roll-master or haziri-navis, and the secretary or asham-daftardar. Of the three revenue officers the deputy or haváldár made and remitted collections and inquired into petty complaints. Besides an uncertain sum for expenses or kárkuni, he received £29 (Rs. 290) of which £20 (Rs. 200) were pay, £5 (Rs. 50) were for oil, £2 6s. (Rs. 23) for an assistant, and £1 14s. (Rs. 17) for clothes. The divisional auditor or mahal mujumdar had on a small scale the same duties as the provincial auditor. He received about £35 (Rs. 350) of which £10 (Rs. 100) were pay, and about £25 (Rs. 250) allowances. The divisional registrar or mahal fadnavis had duties corresponding to the duties of the provincial registrar. He received about £37 (Rs. 370) of which £12 (Rs. 120) were pay, and about £25 (Rs. 250) were allowances. the four militia or shibandi officers the asham-navis kept a roll showing each man's name family name and village, his arms, and his pay. He received £53 (Rs. 530) of which £25 (Rs. 250) were pay, £7 (Rs. 70) were for oil and an umbrella, and £21 (Rs. 210) The militia registrar or asham-fadnavis kept the for expenses. accounts, and, if there was no muster-master, wrote out the musters. He received £30 (Rs. 300) of which £20 (Rs. 200) were for pay and The muster-master or háziri-navis £10 (Rs. 100) for expenses. mustered and made out the abstracts. The military secretary or asham-daftardár made out the militia ledger-book. He received £27 (Rs. 270) of which £15 (Rs. 150) were for pay and £12 (Rs. 120) for expenses. To all forts of any size a staff of six civil officials was attached; a haráldár or deputy-commandant, a sarnaubat or assistant deputy, an accountant or sabnis, a registrar or fadnavis, a storekeeper or fadnavis of stores, and a clerk or kárkun. The deputy commandant or haváldár arranged all guards and patrols and gave leave to people to go out and in. He received £36 (Rs. 360) as pay. The assistant deputy or sarnaubat was under the deputy and superintended public works: he received £21 (Rs. 210) pay. The accountant or sabnis wrote out the garrison accounts and reported enlistments and discharges. His pay was £22 (Rs. 220). The registrar or fadnavis dated and certified the accounts and kept a record of receipts and payments. He received £19 (Rs. 190). A storekeeper or faduaris of stores was sometimes kept on £16 (Rs. 160). writer was paid £10 (Rs. 100). In addition to their pay and allowances these fee-men or darakdárs had, according to their rank, a following of a certain number of militiamen, and those who were connected with forts made percentages in supplying wood, betel, and other articles.

When a mámlatdár was appointed to a new district he either went himself or sent his agent or kárbhári to take over charge from the former mámlatdár. He next summoned the district hereditary officers or zamindárs and the heads of villages, each of whom, according to rule, from the deshmukh or district superintendent and the deshpánds or the district accountant to the shet mahájan or alderman and the village mukádam or headman, paid his respects and presented the new mámlatdár with an offering or nazar. At this reception the mámlatdár delivered to the district officers the

Land.
HISTORY.
.The Maráthá:

Land.
HISTORY.

head-duarters' mandate enjoining obedience to his authority. When the reception was over the mamlatdar transacted business in office which was usually attended by the district superintendents and accountants or by their deputies. The district superintendent or deshmukh and his people helped in the general management of the revenue and the district accountant or deshpande furnished records and kept an account of the collections.1 His clerk wrote all requisitions to the villagers which were dated and signed in due form by some of the fee-men or darakdárs and confirmed by the mámlatdár. When the heads of villages were present an account of each village was drawn up and signed by the headman and accountant, and countersigned by the outgoing mamlatdar. When this was finished a statement of the actuals of the past year was made ready and sent to head-quarters by the mamlatdar's agent. Next an estimate or ajmás of the next year's resources was prepared. The traditional total rental whether Malik Ambar's tankha or the Marátha kamál was entered, and from it was taken the value of all rent-grants or inams. The balance formed the ain jama or regular receipts as opposed to shivaya or extras which included customs, farms, fines, and presents.

Under the head of charges came permanent military and other allowances and revenue assignments, cost of establishments, pay of militia and messengers, and religious and charitable allowances. The balance was then struck and divided into two parts, one to be forwarded to government the other to be kept in hand. The amount to be sent to government was fixed with reference to the remittances of the previous year with such changes as the character of the season made necessary. Part of the amount due to government was usually paid in advance in July or August. The rest was divided into three or four instalments, the payment of which was not very uniform. The share of the revenue which was kept in hand was on account of interest due by government on advances, premium paid for bills of exchange or remittances, new allowances granted during the year, and remissions for destruction of crops or other contingencies. The manlatdar was enjoined not to hold back any items which could be recovered and which belonged to government and to take care that all produce sales were made at the season when the best prices were likely to be secured After these formalities the estimate was approved by the minister and confirmed by the Peshwa's sign manual. A copy was then delivered to the mamlatdar. In some parts of the district, especially near the Nizam's possessions, the lands were farmed from year to year. Abatements were granted to the farmer on account of the charges of the government officers and of charitable and religious allowances. He was made to promise that he would

¹ Under Nana Fadnavis the duties of the district accountant or deshpande were to take from each village accountant in his charge a statement of the village areas and the rates of assessment in his village and from these returns to draw up comparative abstracts showing how the details of the current year differed from those of the year before. These differences he had to explain to the mamlatdar. East India Papers, IV. 631.

keep back none of these payments, and an assurance was given that in the event of any calamity he should receive the usual consideration. As regards the relations of the mamlatdars with the people the manufatdars managed their charges through the hereditary officers and the village headmen and accountants. In each village the mamlatdar examined the jamin jhada or register of lands, the receipts and charges of the past year, and the present state of cultivation. He called for accounts of the particular fields under tillage, ascertained whether they grew dry-crop garden produce or rice, whether they were tilled by hereditary or by temporary holders, whether they were held at a fixed contract rent or on a lease. He learned from the village and district officers what area of arable land had become fallow and why it had become fallow. If necessary he appointed agents to promote cultivation in particular villages and empowered these agents to grant leases for the tillage of waste lands, or made such concessions to the heads of villages as in their opinion would persuade the people to enlarge the area under tillage. He also by advances or remissions helped the people to buy seed or cattle. fixing the rent settlement or jamábandi of a village, particulars of the cultivation were entered and if necessary checked by an actual inspection of the lands. With the help of the headmen and the accountants the whole of the village lands were entered and all grants were deducted. The rest was divided into waste and cultivated, and the cultivated area was divided into dry-land and garden. It was stated whether the garden was watered by wells or by watercourses, and whether it was held by hereditary or by temporary husbandmen. The details, the rates of assessment, and the produce of the whole, were shewn, together with the items of the different cesses. From the gross assets or jama were taken the amounts due to district and village officers, the village charges and the permanent assignments on the village revenue. The balance formed the settlement or beriz. From the settlement in some cases a sum for official expenses or darbar kharch was taken, and in others for grantees and alienees to whom certain shares in the village revenue had been assigned. When all these demands were adjusted what was left was sent to the public treasury by instalments in November December and January. The instalments seem not to have been fixed according to any uniform scale. They depended a good deal on the agreement between the mamlatdar and the villagers, and on the time at which the settlement was concluded. If the settlement was not made till the year was far advanced, the same instalments were paid as inthe past season and the amount was adjusted when the rent settlement was ended.

The following were the proportions in which rents were collected at different dates. In villages which had both an early or *kharif* and a late or rahi crop, the first or Dasara instalment was levied in October or Ashvin. The amount was small. In Kártik that is November twenty-five per cent of the revenue became payable; in January-February twenty-five per cent more; in February-March twenty-five per cent, and the remainder in March-April. In

Land.

History.

The Maráthás

Chapu. III.

tand.

History.

The Maráthás.

villages which had a small early harvest and a heavy late harvest, the early instalments were lightened and about one-half was kept for the March-April payment. On the other hand in villages whose harvest was chiefly of early crops the early instalments were the heaviest. The village collections were generally begun eight or ten days before the date fixed for sending the instalment to the mámlatdár. If from special circumstances rents were difficult to realize, the mámlatdár forbore from pressing the people. Village rents were often partly paid by orders or haválás on bankers; similarly the husbandmen paid the headman by orders; and so general was this practice that not more than one-fourth of the revenue was paid directly in cash.

Though as a rule the distribution of the assessment among the villages was made by the headman and village accountant, the mamlataar, if he doubted either the honesty or the authority of the headman, might distribute the assessment among the villagers either himself or by an agent. All local coins were accepted in payment of the government dues. But if they fell much below the proper value an additional cess or allowance was levied. In collecting arrears considerable indulgence was shewn. If the exaction of arrears was likely to cripple a husbandman so that he could not till his land, the demand was put off till the next year or it was cancelled. It was the practice for the mamlatdar to grant receipts for all formal payments, but as a rule the village accountants gave the husbandmen no At the end of the year, after all the collections had been receipts.1 made, the mámlatdár delivered to the villagers a demand collection and balance account showing the original rent settlement, including all branches of revenue both in money and kind except the secretservice or antast items, the remittances that had been made to his. treasury, and the charges that were admitted. In exchange for this he took a voucher, in the handwriting of the village accountant and signed by the headman, of the actual receipts and disbursements, together with a copy of the vasul báki or balance account. vouchers given in acknowledgment of remittances were then received back by the mamlatdar and deposited among the divisional records. The chief items of extra revenue or shivaya jama which the mámlatdár entered in the public accounts were: a marriage tax or lagan takka, a remarriage tax or pát dám, chithi masála, khand gunhegári, nazar, harki, karz chauthái, and baitanmál.

At the close of the year, either the mamlatdar himself or his registrar or secretary delivered the following accounts into head-quarters: the mahalki jhadti or rough statement of receipts and charges, the rent settlement of each village with the signatures of the hereditary district officers; a muster-roll of the militia and the receipts for their pay; an establishment list or main jabta with a record of absentees; a statement of receipts of pensions and allowances; a customs contract; a list of articles supplied to forts; and a statement of official expenses or darbar kharch.

¹ Appendix to Mr. Chaplin's Report, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877), 144 · 162. Earlindia Papers, IV. 624 · 633, 636.

At head-quarters these accounts were compared with the estimate which had been framed at the beginning of the year. If the statements agreed and the full revenue was realized, the chief clerk read them over to the Peshwa and they were passed. If there were any differences in detail between the estimates and the actuals a táleband or variation statement was prepared. If the 'variations resulted in a failure of revenue, unless the mámlatdár was a confidential servant, an inquiry was made and if necessary the mámlatdár was called on to pay the differences. If a mámlatdár, by paying the revenue in advance and failing to realize the whole of it or by being forced to engage a special body of militiamen to keep the peace, spent more than he had received, subject to certain small deductions, the government granted interest at twelve per cent a year on the amount which stood at the mámlatdár's credit.

The particular points to which the attention of the head-quarter officers was directed, were to collect from time to time balances due by mámlatdárs; to inquire into and redress complaints; to make arrangements for establishing the authority of government in any district where it might be disputed; and to superintend the mámlatdár's administration of civil and criminal justice, who generally inflicted all sort of capital punishments without a reference to head-quarters.

Mámlatdárs were seldom removed for petty faults. Many of them remained thirty or forty years in the charge, and on their death were succeeded by their sons. So too the feemen or durakdárs were not removable except for misconduct and the office frequently passed from father to son. If a charge of misconduct was brought against a mámlatdár the accuser was required to give security that he would prove the charge. If he proved the charge he was rewarded; if the charge seemed to have been honestly brought and the mámlatdár's conduct seemed doubtful the informer was allowed to go without punishment; and if the charge seemed groundtess, the informer forfeited his security. Charges of misconduct were rare. The Maráthás disliked informers and made sport of them calling them Taskar Pant or Mr. Thief.

The revenue functions of the mamlatdars differ little from those which have been already described as belonging to the time before Nána Fadnavis. The mámlatdárs were expected to promote the improvement of the country, to protect all classes from oppression, to dispense civil justice, and to superintend the police. They were not forbidden from taking any advantage they could from trade or from lending money at interest, and they were often connected with the moneylenders who advanced part of the revenues of villages. Such a connection must often have been prejudicial to the people, but under Nana's management abuses were restrained within narrow limits. The village headmen and accountants had the immediate duty of superintending the cultivation and of seeing that it was kept up to the usual standard. If there was any falling off owing to the death or emigration of hereditary holders, the other hereditary holders were expected to cultivate the fields which were given up. If the falling off was due to the poverty of temporary Chapter VIII

History.
The Maráthá

Chapter VIII.

Land.

History.

The Maráthás.

holders, it was the duty of the headman to persuade others to take the vacant land. To help him to persuade people to take up waste, the headman was allowed to make trifling abatements of rent. But if any great or unusual reduction was required, he had to apply for sanction to the mamlatdar. The headmen and accountants furnished all the village accounts to the mamlatdar, sometimes through the hereditary district officers and sometimes direct. In country towns the collection of the house and other non-agricultural cesses was entrusted to aldermen and heads of the communities of merchants and craftsmen. In the smaller towns these collections were made by the village headman and accountant.

The rent settlement or jamábandi of the villages was fixed by the mámlatdárs. In making the individual settlement the village headmen added to the rent settlement the sum deducted in the tharáv yádi on account of village charges and other expenses, and distributed the whole among the people. Any deficiency that might arise in distributing the settlement was made good by a second levy or patti. If even after the second levy a deficiency remained, the amount was raised by a loan from a moneylender. The loan was sometimes repaid by a special cess or patti in the following year, or if this was likely to cause distress, the mamlatdar got leave to remit an equal amount to enable the villagers to liquidate the debt. If the loan was large, this was the usual course; if it was small, the inhabitants themselves usually agreed to make it good, The first instalments of the revenue were collected before any settlement was made, according to the individual payments of the preceding year, and considerable indulgence was shown in exacting balances whose realization was likely to cause severe pressure. As regards the local charges on the village revenue the amounts once sanctioned were continued without fresh instructions until resumed. The permanent yearly village charges were also incurred on the authority of the headman and accountant, but excessive disbursements were, when ascertained, retrenched and brought to the public account. If a village fell into arrears, lands thrown up by the holder or left waste were sometimes sold and transferred on hereditary tenure to other holders. Petty quarrels among the villagers as far as possible were settled by the headmen and accountants. Except when they were serious and the $m\acute{a}mlatd\acute{a}r's$ authority was required, disputes about land were settled on the spot. The petty village officers or balutidárs received their usual fees from the villagers for whom they performed the customary services. These petty officers could not be removed by the headman and accountant. If they were guilty of grave misconduct, the matter was represented to the mámlatdár who punished or dismissed the offenders. At the end of the year when the headman and accountant rendered returns of receipts and charges and received a balance or jama vasul báki statement, the mámlatdár presented them with an honorary dress or shirpav. It was not usual for the headman and

¹ In some villages the village charges were kept separate. East India Papers, IV. 635.

accountant to grant landholders any receipt for their payments. The relations between them made such a security unnecessary.1

Under the system which has been here described, with, as a rule, men of ability and position in charge of the same districts for long terms of years, and with the provision that the weight of all general calamities and of most minor losses should fall on the government and not on the people, in spite of the terrible period of distress caused by the famine of 1792, the bulk of the landholders remained in their hereditary estates till the close of the eighteenth century.2

Early in the nineteenth century the wasting of the district by Holkar in 1802 and the failure of the late rains of 1803 caused grievous distress. For a year or two the assessment fell to about one-fourth.3 At the close of 1802 when the disorders among the Maráthás had reduced the country to a desert, the Peshwa saved his possessions from future desolation by placing himself under British protection. So great was the security which accompanied the transfer of the sovereign rights to the British, that, within a few years, the Peshwa was able to collect as large a revenue as before the destruction of 1802 and 1803.4 Partly apparently from the disordered state into which the miseries of 1803 had thrown the management of the country; partly perhaps because the support of the British to a great extent made it indifferent to him whether the people were contented or were discontented, Bájiráv gave up the former attempt to improve the country by securing men of honour and position to administer its revenues, and to prevent their misconduct by complicated checks. In its stead he introduced the practice of farming the revenue for short terms to the highest bidder. The new system had the two great advantages of relieving the central government of a great mass of labour and responsibility. and of transferring a great part of the loss from failure of crops and other causes from the state to the revenue contractor and to the people. According to Mr. Elphinstone the changes introduced by

Chapter VIII Land. HISTORY.

The Maráthás.

² Captain Robertson, 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV, 434.

Appendix to Mr. Chaplin's Report of 20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 144-162 and East India Papers IV. 624-636.

^{*} Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 85.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 85. The incursions of plundering armies and a succession of calamitous seasons had nearly depopulated the Indapur sub-division when in 1807 the villages were re-established on kaul or istava leases providing for a yearly increase of revenue till the ninth year when the full tankha (kamál ?)

for a yearly increase of revenue till the minth year when the full control (kamai t) rates were to be taken. This settlement only partially succeeded. A further term was added to the leases during the currency of which the war broke out and the Decean fell into the hands of the British. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 6-7.

Soon after Bájirav became Peshwa, the system of collecting revenue through government agents was laid aside and that of farming the revenues from year to year to the highest bidder was adopted. All intercourse between the government and the landholders ceased, and the landholders fell into the hands of a set of greedy and unprincipled contractors. The consequences were certain. The contractors made unprincipled contractors. The consequences were certain. The contractors made the most of their leases by every temporary experiment; the husbandmen were urged to cultivate beyond their means, and taxed for lands not even cultivated; remissions were not made in times of calamity. The people became loud in their complaints against the prince who thus abandoned them; and ultimately there were frequent defalcations of revenue from the contractors being unable to realize their frequent defalcations of revenue, from the contractors being unable to realize their rents. Dr. Coats' Account of Loni, 1820, Trans. Bom. Lit. Soc. III, 227.

Chapter VIII. Land. HISTORY. The Marathas.

farming the revenues were aggravations of the evils of the former system rather than complete innovations. The office of mamlatdar. instead of being conferred as a favour on a person of experience and probity, was put to auction among the Peshwa's attendants, who were encouraged to bid, and were sometimes disgraced if they were backward in bidding. Next year the same operation was repeated and the district was transferred to a higher bidder. The revenue farmer had no time for inquiry, and no motive for forbearance. He let out his district at an enhanced rate to under-farmers who repeated the process until the farming came down to the village headmen. If a village headman farmed his own village, he became absolute master of every one in it. No complaints were listened to, and the mámlatdár who was formerly a check on the headman now urged him to greater exactions. If the headman refused to farm the village at the rate proposed, the case of the villagers was perhaps worse, as the mamlatdar's own officers levied the sum required with less knowledge and less pity. In either case the actual state of cultivation was disregarded. A man's means of paying, not the land he held, fixed the amount at which he was assessed. No moderation was shown in levying the sum fixed. Every pretext for fine and forfeiture, every means of rigour and confiscation, were employed to squeeze the people to the utmost before the day when the mamlatdar had to give up his charge. Amidst all this violence a regular account was prepared, as if a most deliberate settlement had been made. In this fictitious account the collections were always underrated, as this enabled the headman to impose on the next mamlatdar, and enabled the outgoing mámlatdár to deceive the government and his fellows. The new mámlatdár pretended to be deceived; he agreed to the most moderate terms, and except making advances, gave every encouragement to increase the cultivation. When the crops were in the ground, or when the end of his term drew near, he threw off the mask, and plundered like his predecessor. In consequence of this, the assessment of the land, being proposed early in the season, would be made with some reference to former practice, and contingent and other charges would accumulate, until the mámlatdár came to make up his accounts. Then his exactions were most severe. He had a fixed sum to complete, and if the collections fell short of the sum, he portioned the balance among the exhausted villages, imposed an extra assessment, and left the headman to extort it on whatever pretence and by whatever means he thought proper.1 As the villagers were very often unable, with any amount of pressure, to pay the sums which were demanded of them, the payments were usually made by drafts on the moneylender, who had the chief banking business in the village. Little was collected in The moneylender stood security and in return was allowed to collect the revenue and his own debts together.2

The section of the people who suffered chiefly under the farming

Mr. Elphinstone, 1819, Ed. 1872, 27-28, East India Papers IV. 166-167.
 Col. S. Anderson in Deccan Riots Commissioners' Report, 1875, para 32 pp. 17-18.

system were the hereditary and other well-to-do holders. of the disorders of the eighteenth century and of the famine of 1792, at the close of the century the bulk of the mirásdárs were still in possession of their hereditary holdings. But under Bájiráv's farming system, when the amount of his collections fell short of what he had undertaken to pay, the farmer turned on the hereditary holders and robbed them with such ingenious greed that many left their lands and all were brought to the brink of ruin.1 In spite of the exactions of the farmers which reduced almost all the landholders of the district to one level, so great was the advantage of the security ensured by the British protectorate that in the thirteen years before the overthrow of the Peshwa in 1817 the district increased greatly in wealth. Bájiráy, whose chief interest in government was to collect money, amassed a sum estimated at £5,000,000 (Rs. 5 krors). And the state of the bulk of the people is said to have improved from what it was at the beginning of the century. They had much wealth in flocks and herds which were less exposed to the greed of the revenue farmer than the outturn of their fields.2

Chapter VII Land.

HISTORY. The Maratha

SECTION III.—BRITISH MANAGEMENT.

As regards land administration, the sixty-six years (1818-1884) of British management fall under two nearly equal divisions, before and after the year 1854 when the introduction of the regular thirty years' revenue survey settlement was completed. The thirty-six years ending 1854 include two periods before and after the introduction of the survey settlement of 1836. Of these periods the first on the whole was a time of stagnation or decline, and the second was a time of progress. The establishment of order, together with the removal of abuses and the high prices of field produce, caused in the first four years of British management (1818-1822) an increase both in tillage and in revenue. This was followed by about fourteen years of very little progress or rather of decline, the district suffering from bad harvests or from the ruinous cheapness of grain due to large crops, small local demand, the want of means of export, and a reduction of money caused by the stoppage of the inflow of tribute and pay which used to centre in Poona as the Peshwa's head-quarters. The result was a considerable fall both in tillage and in revenue. The assessment introduced at the beginning of British rule when prices were high about forty pounds the rupee for Indian millet,3 pressed heavily on landholders in seasons either of bad crops or of low

THE BRITIS 1818-1884

CVII. 118, or CLL 96.

¹ East India Papers, IV. 434.

² Col. S. Anderson in Deccan Riots Commissioners' Report, 1875, para 32 pp. 17-18. At Bajirav's restoration the country was laid waste by war and famine, the people were reduced to misery, and the government derived scarcely any revenue from its lands. Since then, in spite of the farming system and the exactions of rom its lands. Since then, in spite of the farming system and the exactions or Bajiráv's officers, the country has completely recovered, through the protection afforded it by the British Government; and Bajiráv has accumulated those treasures which he is now employing against his benefactors. The British Government not only protected the Peshwa's own possessions, but maintained his rights abroad. Mr. Elphinstone's Satára Proclamation, 1818, in Forrest's Elphinstone, 1884, 53.

At Indapur the Indian millet or justif rupee prices were about 97 pounds in 1817, 43 in 1818, 34 in 1819, 39 in 1820, and 64 in 1821, 1822, and 1823. Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 118. or CLI. 96.

hapter VIII. Land.

THE BRITISH, 1818-1884.

prices. Consequently the leading features of the revenue system before 1836 were high assessment and large remissions.1 1825, with a view to relieve the distress, Mr. Pringle was appointed to survey the district and revise the assessment. His survey settlement was introduced over the whole district between 1829 and The measure proved a failure partly from the heaviness and inequality of the assessment and bad seasons and low prices, and partly from the evil practices of Mr. Pringle's native establishment. The defects of the settlement were early foreseen by the revenue officers, and, in Indapur and other parts of the collectorate, the new rates were either not levied or were soon discontinued, and the difference between the amount due and the amount collected was shown as a remission. About 1835 the regular revenue survey was undertaken. The first settlement guaranteed for thirty years was introduced into Indápur in 1836-38, and the last into Mával in 1853-54.

1817 - 1820.

After the battle of Kirkee in November 1817 the greater part of the present district of Poona fell to the British and by the close of the year all local disturbance had ceased. The only parts of the district which suffered from the war were Haveli, Junnar, and Sirur, through which the Peshwa Bájiráv passed on his way to the The chief measures adopted by the English were to appoint (April-June 1818) a Collector of Poona to travel over the district and control the collection of the revenue and also to act as district magistrate and circuit judge. The officer appointed was Captain H. D. Robertson.3 The straggling charges of the Marátha mámlatdárs were formed into compact sub-divisions yielding a yearly revenue of £5000 to £7000 (Rs. 50,000-Rs. 70,000), and over each a mámlatdár on £7 to £15 (Rs. 70-150) a month was placed.4 One of the chief difficulties in starting the new administration was the want of men suited to be mamlatdars. As the British occupied the country before the Peshwa's cause was desperate, few men of local position or training at first entered the English service. The English were forced to employ what men they could find without much regard to their merit. Still when the struggle with the Peshwa was over and the final treaty was concluded, the Collector was able to secure a fair number of respectable servants of the old government. A few mamlatdars were brought from Madras, partly from motives of general policy and that they might act as a check on local corruption, and partly to introduce some models of system

¹ Most writers have agreed that the rates first introduced by the British were too high. Sir G. Wingate wrote about 1840: There could be little doubt that the early Collectors over-estimated the capability of the Deccan and that the rates drained the country of its agricultural capital. Deccan Riots Commissioners' Report, 1875, pars 33 pp. 18-20. According to some accounts one cause of distress was the falsifying of village records by the hereditary officers. Lieutenant Shortrede, 1st October 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 85-86.

2 Captain H. D. Robertson, Collector, 1st February 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1825 500

¹¹⁷ of 1825, 509.

⁸ Heber's Narrative, III. 120. Captain Henry Dundas Robertson had charge of the city and district of Poons of which he was Collector of Revenue, Judge, and Magistrate. His district lay between the Nira and Bhima. Grant Duff's Maráthás, 679. ⁴ Mr. Elphinstone, October 1819, Ed. 1872, 30, 31, East India Papers IV. 168-169.

The chief change, in fact almost the only intenand regularity.1 tional change, introduced in the revenue management was abolishing revenue farming. Farming was abolished in all departments except in the customs where there were no complaints, and apparently no oppression. In other respects as far as possible the existing system was maintained. The object was to levy the revenue according to the actual cultivation; to lighten the assessment; to introduce no new cesses; and to abolish no cesses except the obviously unjust. The orders were above all things to avoid innovations. In spite of the efforts to avoid innovations the introduction of foreign rulers and of foreign maxims of government caused many changes. In the revenue department Mr. Elphinstone believed that most of the changes were beneficial. The improvement was not so much in the rules as in the way of carrying out the rules. Faith was kept with the landholder, more liberal advances were made, he was free from false charges as pretexts to extort money, and his complaints found a readier hearing and a surer redress. On the other hand some of the new ways were distasteful to certain sections of the people. There were more forms and there was more strictness. mámlatdárs disliked the narrow limits within which their discretion was bounded; they preferred the old system of perquisites to the new system of pay. The heads of the villages saw that the minuter inquiry into the distribution of the Government rental among the villagers weakened their power, and that the closer examination of the village charges or sadilear kharch reduced their incomes. In the minds of the people, against the advantage of a decrease in village charges, was set the blank caused by the stoppage of former charities and amusements. Every effort was made to ascertain the condition of the landholders and to make the assessment light. Where there was any suspicion of fraud lands were measured. During the first two years (1817-1819) the Collector settled with the headman for the payment of the whole revenue of the village, and gave him a deed or patta. After the first season, before the settlement was concluded the Collector ascertained how much each landholder had to pay and that he agreed that the amount set against him represented his fair share. In all cases the foundation of the assessment was the amount which the village had paid when the people considered themselves well governed. From this amount deductions were made either because of a reduction in cultivation or on other specific grounds. The assessments were much lighter than formerly and much clearer and more uniform.

The chief difficulty in the way of a satisfactory village settlement was the want of records. Under the farming system the village records ceased to be used. Occasionally papers handed down from

Land
THE FRISH,
1817-1820.

The Madras mainlatdars were more active, more obedient, more exact, and more methodical than Maratha Brahmans. They introduced new forms of respect for their immediate superiors and at the same time showed less consideration to the great men of the country. To the bulk of the people their bearing was rough, harsh, and insolent. It was interesting to consider which of these characteristics the Madrasis had taken from the Musalmans and which from the English. Mr. Elphinstone, 25th October 1819, Ed. 1872, 30-31, East India Papers IV. 168-169.

hapter VIII. Land.

THE BRITISH.

1817-18.

the earlier mamlatdars and fee-men or darakdars showed the revenue of whole villages, but they were seldom for any series of years. And as, while the farming system was in force, the hereditary district officers had lost their importance, few of them had preserved their records. The records of the village accountants were also mutilated, full of falsifications and interpolations, and never trustworthy.1

In 1817-18 the existing Maratha settlement was maintained and deductions were granted for any payments which had been made since the beginning of the year. The settlement was with the village headmen, who, Captain Robertson says, imposed upon him and drained the people as much as they could. The people claimed to have suffered from the war and considerable deductions had to be made on this account, though, except in the tracts of Bájiráv's march, Captain Robertson believed the people had suffered less than they were accustomed to suffer in years of peace and regular taxation.8 At the close of the year all balances were remitted.8 In 1818-19 the crops were flourishing and the returns good. On account of the difficulty of collecting detailed village information, Captain Robertson continued the settlement with the headmen.4 There were no

¹ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 68 of 1823, 170-171. Compare East India Papers III. 804 and Lieut. Shortrede, 1st October 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 86.

Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 86.

² Captain Robertson, Collector, 1st February 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 509. According to Dr. Coats (29th February 1820, Trans. Bom. Lit. Soc. III. 228) the people of Loni village hailed their transfer to the British as a happy event. The abolition of the revenue contracting system, and the liberal remissions in consequence of losses by the war, confirmed the high expectations that had been formed of British justice and liberality.

³ Captain Robertson, 10th October 1821, East India Papers IV. 526.

⁴ Dr. Coats writes on the 29th of February 1820 (Trans. Row. Lit. Soc. III. 272, 276).

Dr. Coats writes on the 29th of February 1820 (Trans. Bom. Lit. Soc. III. 273-276) about the revenue settlement of the Loni village on the Ahmadnagar road. These details apply to the whole Poona district. "The revenues are derived from a direct tax on the land, and some extra impositions which must also indirectly come from the same source. The land tax varies from year to year according to the quantity under cultivation. Lands are classed into three kinds and pay a fixed tax according to their quality, agreeably to a rate and measurement made 200 years ago by the Muhammadans; previously to which time the custom seems to have been for the government to have a certain proportion, about half of the produce, or to commute it for money at the market price. The land tax is not increased in favourable seasons, and in very unfavourable seasons the Government makes a remission. Waste and foul lands pay such small rent as may be agreed on between the tenant and the Government agent till they have been brought fully under cultivation, when they become liable to the established tax. Of £130 (Rs. 1300), the amount of the revenue settlement for 1818, £120 (Rs. 1200) were derived from the direct tax on the land and £10 (Rs. 100) from indirect taxes; £24 8s. (Rs. 244) of this amount were granted to defray the expenses of the religious and charitable establishments were granted to derray the expenses of the religious and charitable establishments of Loni, and various customary charges and presents allowed by the Government, and £20 (Rs. 200) were remitted by the Collector in consequence of the unfavourable season and the poverty of the cultivators. The yearly settlement for the revenue the village is to pay for the ensuing year, takes place a little before the beginning of the rainy season. The patil and kulkarni first assemble all the cultivators, when the ldgrad jhdda or written details of cultivation for the past year are produced, and an agreement made with each of them for the quantity he is to cultivate in the approaching season. As the patil's credit with the Government depends on the prography of his village and the state of cultivation he endeavoure to depends on the prosperity of his village and the state of cultivation, he endeavours to extend this by all means in his power. The headman will not allow a thalkari or hereditary landholder to throw up lands he had cultivated the year before; and, should any part of his thal or estate be waste, he upbraids him and threatens to exact the land tax for it if he does not bring it under cultivation. The headman has less hold on the upri or casual holder who will go where he can get land on the best terms, and is obliged to treat him with great consideration. If from any cause the upri threatens to throw up his lands, he is privately promised better terms and

complaints of over-assessment. Perhaps the dread of the new Government prevented the headmen from oppressing the people; perhaps they took advantage of the change and frightened the people from complaining. Captain Robertson surveyed and measured the Náne Mával. The surveyors were men from Belári in Madras and they were allowed to carry out Sir Thomas Munro's survey rules. But the survey was badly done and showed so enormous an assessment that Captain Robertson did not adopt it.

In October 1819 an attempt was made to introduce a rayatvár or individual landholder settlement instead of a maujevár that is a village or headman settlement. The change had to be introduced slowly and with caution. In the first season the mistake was made of settling with the people for the customary or vahivát rates and not for the full or kamál rates, and either the village headmen or the hereditary officers raised large sums from the people in addition to what they paid to Government. In this year the crops were fair, and the price of grain was high about twenty-four pounds the rupee (23-3 páylis). But an epidemic of cholera, which had broken out in the previous season, proved so fatal that the population was seriously reduced and cultivation spread but little.

Chapter VII

Land.

THE ERITISH

1819-20.

greater indulgence; or if he is in distress for money he is promised advances or layar from the Government. When the pitil and kukarsi have made these preliminary agreements, they proceed to the Collector, or his agent, and enter into another agreement for the amount of revenue to be paid for the approaching year, subject to remissions on account of asmáni and sultimi, that is the destroying influence of skies and rulers or the hand of God and the king. The revenues are usually collected by four instalments. The first begins about October, and is termed the tusár patti, in allusion to the name of the crop reaped at this time which consists of rále, mug, mild, maka, sava, and vari. This instalment is in the proportion of one-eighth or one-tenth of the whole revenue. The second takes place in January, and is termed the tharif patti or tax, and is the largest instalment, being about one-half of the whole. The third is termed the rabi patti, and begins in March; and the fourth, the draw all patti or a final settlement, usually takes place in May. The following is the process usually observed in realizing the revenues. The native collector or mamlatdar of the division sends an armed messenger with a written order on the patil to pay him an instalment of the revenue, mentioning the amount, on account of a specified crop. The order runs: 'Tah mukádam suk Loni taraf Sands pránt Poona (the Arabic year follows) mauje machkur sál machkur paki tusár patti baddal Rs. 200 gheun huzur yenya kámás sipai páthrila áhe.' (Signed). That is to the headman of Loni village, in the group of Sandis, in the district of Poona, in the Arabic year so and so, of the said village for the said year on account of the first instalment Rs. 200 to bring to head-quarters a messenger is sent. The patil on this sends the chauti or village office next morning, and be prepared to pay his proportion of the instalment of the revenue that is due. The headman, village clerk, and messenger got to the office and squat on a cloth on the cowdunged floor and t

¹ Captain Robertson, Collector, 1st Feb. 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, B 1327—44 Chapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. 1820-21.

Of the state of the district and of the system of land administration in 1820-21, when the power of the British had been long enough established for their officers to gain a familiar knowledge of the people and of the condition of the district, several reports, chiefly those of Captain Robertson the Collector, have left interesting and fairly complete and clear details.1 After June 1820, when Indapur and Shivner or Junnar were transferred from Ahmadnagar to Poona, the district stretched (October 1821) about 120 miles from north-west to south-east with an average breadth of about thirty-five miles and an area of about 4200 square miles. The population was about 500,000 or 119 to the square mile, and the yearly revenue was about £100,000 (Rs. 10,00,000), of which about £65,600 (Rs. 6,50,000) belonged to Government and about £35,000 (Rs. 3,50,000) were alienated. The 1213 villages of which 3174 were alienated, were grouped into nine sub-divisions, Poona City, Bhimthadi, Indápur, Pábal, Khed, Purandhar, Haveli, Mával, and Shivner or Junnar, the last eight yielding an average revenue of £12,500 (Rs. 1,25,000) and under the charge of mamlatdars whose pay varied from £84 to £180 (Rs. 840-Rs. 1800) a year.3 About 700 men were engaged for the protection of the district of whom 192 were cash-paid fort guards or shibandis, 407 were revenue messengers or peons, and 100 were land-paid militia or shetsanadis.4 The country was divided into two chief parts, the sunset or mával lands in the hilly west from which Shivaji had drawn the flower of his troops, and the eastern plain or desh.5 The western hills were covered with timber and brushwood, and the eastern hills and the whole plain country were bare of trees.6 Many rivers passed cast and south-east from the Sahyadris. Their valleys, which were known as khores and ners, had rich soil, and, with some exceptions, were well peopled and fairly cultivated though there were no watered crops or high tillage. The stock of fish was by no means plentiful, and few of the fish were good eating. Tigers were found in the west, and all over the district were panthers, hyenas, wolves, and wild hog. The hills yielded little; the supply of teak and poon (Calophyllum elatum) was scanty, and the timber was small. The hill grass in the west was good for horned cattle though not for sheep or for horses, and on the skirts of the eastern hills there was excellent grass both for sheep and for horses. Compared with other parts of India the climate was good, the air was light, the cold bracing, and the heat not oppressive. During 1818-19 numbers had perished in a deadly plague of cholera; but this was unusual; the chief diseases were fever, ague, affections of the liver and bowels, and violent colds. Except a few showers from

^{509-514, 516-517; 10}th October 1821, East India Papers IV. 580. So terrible was this cholera that in one village of 1000 people 460 died. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 254.

1 Captain H. D. Robertson, Collector, 1st May 1820 and 10th October 1821, East

India Papers IV. ² Captain Robertson, 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV. 403; 10th October 1821, East India Papers IV. 524-525.

³ East India Papers IV. 524-525.

³ East India Papers IV. 525, 526, 585, Ext. Rev. Letter from Bombay, 5th Nov. 1823, East India Papers III. 811. Mr. Elphinstone, 1819, Ed. 1872, 31, and East India Papers IV. 169.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 403; Heber's Narrative, Ed. 1829, III. 114.

⁶ East India Papers, IV. 404.

the north-east in November the supply of rain was from the south-Within about fifty miles from the Sahyadris the fall of rain was generally sufficient. East of this the supply was scanty and in Supa and Patas great scarcities were frequent. Of the 1213 villages or maujes some were alone and others had hamlets or vadis. Forty to ninety villages formed a group called a tarf or mahal with in each group a market town or kasba. Five to eight village groups formed a division called subha, prant, or desh. The village boundaries were in most cases natural boundaries, the limiting line in hilly districts as a rule carefully following the panlot or water-Most of the villages were open. Some had walls of mud and stone and in others the sides and gable ends of the outer houses were so connected as to form a valuable defence. There were three en en varieties of soil, black or káli, white or pándhri, and red or timbat. Of the black soil there were three varieties; the first called dombi and kevaldhás, the richest variety but not the most popular because of the large amount of water which it required; the stony called khadkál or dhondál, the most esteemed variety because it wanted comparatively little water, though it required manure and in spite of the husbandman's skill in mixing crops was believed to be losing its power; the third variety of black was when the black was mixed with sand, clay, or limestone. Of the white or pándhri there were several varieties. Most of it was charged with lime. But the husbandmen liked it as it was a clean soil growing few The red or copper soil was of several shades. It was generally a poor soil along the skirts of the hills rough and stiff to work and requiring deep ploughing. If well worked it sometimes yielded large crops. The chief varieties were pure red or nirmal támbdi, the lightest and richest variety, deeper and sandier than any other; upland or mál jamin thin and with rock near the surface; válsar or sandy fairly rich when tolerably deep; and chopan shedvat or chikni a clayey soil found near river banks. Of other soils in swampy lands there was a clayey variety called shembad or upál. Roughly, of the whole area of arable land perhaps about fifty per cent were black or káli, twelve per cent white or pándhri, thirty per cent red or tambdi, and eight per cent of other soils. Of the fifty per cent of black land about forty yielded dry grains or jiráyat or were waste; and of the remaining ten, two per cent yielded garden crops, five per cent cold weather or rabi crops watered by channels, and three per cent cold weather crops watered from wells. Of the twelve per cent of white land one per cent yielded garden crops, two per cent cold weather crops watered by channels, two per cent cold weather crops watered from wells, and seven per cent dry crops.2 Of the thirty per cent of red land twenty-seven per cent yielded dry crops or were waste. Of the remaining three per cent half a per cent yielded garden crops, one and a half per cent yielded channel watered cold weather crops, and one per cent well watered cold

Chapter VIII
Land.
THE BRITISH.
1820-21.

² Captain Robertson, 10th October 1821, in East India Papers IV, 565.566,

Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 27th November 1822, East India Papers III. 793-794. East India Papers, IV. 408.

Chapter VIII. Land. TR.. TISH. 1820 /

weather crops. The eight per cent of other soils either yielded dry. crops or were not under tillage. According to these returns eightytwo per cent of the arable land yielded dry crops, and eighteen per cent yielded watered crops. Of the watered land ten per cent were black, five white, and three red. Of the eighty-two per cent of dry crop land about forty per cent black, seven per cent white, and even per cent red, or fifty-four per cent in all, could grow cold weather crops; the remaining twenty-eight per cent grew only early or rainy weather kharif crops. Of these eighty-two per cent of unwatered land only twenty-two per cent were under late crops, about forty per cent were under kharif crops, and about twenty per cent were waste or fallow. Of the arable land of the district about twenty per cent or one-fifth were waste, and eighty per cent or fourfifths were under tillage. Of the eighty per cent under tillage, bout half were under dry-crops. Of the remaining forty per cent ee and a half were under garden crops, six under well-watered tu: crops, eight and a half under channel watered late crops, and twenty-two were not watered. Of the forty per cent under early crops thirty-five per cent grew the better dry grains, four per cent grew rice, and one per cent grew hill grains or varkas.1 Of the grains grown in the Poona district seventeen, which were specially prized by the people, were known as the great gifts or mahádán. These were alshi, chavlya, harbhare, hulge, javas, jondhle, kodru, lákh, masur, mug, rice, sátu, til, tur, udid, vátáne, and wheat. The other products were small grains, ambádi, bájri, bhádli, dhonglya, harik, javas, káthan of sorts, kardai, maka, math, mohrya, nágli, pávte, rán-mug, rán, sorti, siras, til, and vari. Besides these there were several wild or self-sown grains, chiefly barbade, devbhút, hávri kamal-bij, pakad, til, udid, and varsh-bij. The crops generally. grown were on garden land betel leaves, chillies, carrots, garlic, ginger, jvári, Indian corn, kadval, kothimbir, onions, peas or vátánc, radishes, rájgira, rále, sátu, sugarcane, sweet-potatoes, tobacco, wheat, and yams; on black land ambádi, bájri, gram, hulge, jvári, math, mug, pávte, rále, tobacco, tur, vátáne, and wheat; on poor land bájri, bhádli, hulge, math, nágli, sáva, til, and vari; on uplands bájri, bhádli, jondhle, nágli, sáva, tur, and vari; and on pulse or káthan land, gram, kardai, masur, sátu, vál, vátáne, and wheat. The following is a rough estimate of the quantities of seed required to sow a bigha or about three-fourths of an acre of tho different crops:

In the west the land was divided into three classes, varkas or upland, káthan or pulse, and bhusar or rice. Captain Robertson, 10th October 1821, East India Papers IV. 572-574.

¹ East India Papers, IV. 565-567. By kharif is to be understood crops brought to maturity by the monsoon rains; and by rabi, those that are matured by dews and by irrigation and partial showers in the fair season, from November till March. It is to be remarked that no rice is cultivated by irrigation, all which is sown depending solely on the south-west rains, and a partial and uncertain supply from streams that continue to flow for a fortnight or three weeks after the south-west rains cease. Captain Robertson, 10th October 1821, East India Papers IV. 568.

POONA CROPS: PAYLIS OF SEED TO THE BIGHA, 1821.

od. Middle. Páylis. 2 3 3 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Páylis. 41 4 21	CROP. Mirchi Mug Nagli	•	Good. Páylis. 5	Middle. Paylis. 6 6 11	
2 3 2 3 1 14	41 4 21	Mug	•••	Páylis. 5	6	Páylu. 7 8
5 6 7 11 21 1 11	eight. 7 10 4 21 21 21	Rule Rice Sáva Sháku Tu Tur Udid Vari	••	1 2 5 30	1 1 42 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	50 21 50 2 18 2 3 7 40 31
	6 7 11 21 1 11	6 7 10 14 21 4 1 11 21 2 21 21 1 2 21 2 31 6 8 11		6 7 10 Sáva Sháku Sháku 11 11 21 Tu 21 12 22 22 22 22 Tur 22 3 4 Vari Vátána Vátána Vátána Vátána	1	7 10 Sáva . 1 1½ 1½ 2½ 4 Shálu 8 10 1 1½ 2½ 1 1½ 1½ 2 2½ 2½ 1 1½ 1½ 1 2 2½ 1 1½ 1½ 1 2 3½ 1 1 1½ 2 3 4 Vari 30 32 6 8 11 Vátána 2 3

Chapter VIII Land. THE BRITISH. 1820-21.

The result of two experiments on first rate black land made by Captain Robertson on the 31st of October 1820 was to show an average outturn of grain to the English acre worth about £3 (Rs. 30), the outturn being turned into money on the basis of about forty pounds of millet (5 páylis) to the rupee.1 Estimates of the best black land in three good and three bad years gave a mean bigha outturn of 103 páylis or about 824 pounds worth £2 4s. (Rs. 22). From this, Captain Robertson thought that to give a fair return for a series of years, one-fourth should be taken to represent the failure of crops on account of want of rain. The

Poona Crops: Best Uniontered Black Land, 1820;

CROPS.	Best.	Middle	Worst	Total.	Aver- age.	Value.	Crops.	Best	Middle	Worst	Total.	Aver- age.	Value
Bájri Tur Tul Rále	Pdy- lus. 65 30 25 20	Pdy- lus. 57 26 18	Pdy- lus. 35 12 8 10	Pdy- is. 157 68 51 44	Pdy- lis. 62 23 17	Rs	Bdjri Math	Pdy- lis. 70	Páy- its. 60 50	Pdy- lis. 45	Páy- lıs. 175	Pdy- lus, 58	Rs
Ambádi. Total	145	118	67	10 330	110	25	Tctal	130	110	85	325	108	20
Bájri Jvári	120 6	100	70 8	290 13	97	:::	Piola Jon- dhala	130	108	80	818	106	20
Total	126	104	73	303	101	20	Wheat	100	80	60	240	80	20
Báyri Tur	L DO	40 45	28 28	118 133	39 44		Gram	130	115	90	335	112	22
Til Ambáds	20	15 3	10 2	45	15 3	£	Total	6 96	738	523	2156	719	152
Total	134	103	68	805	102	25	Average	128	105	75	308	109	22

¹ The trials on which this estimate was based were: In Talegaon Dhamdhere in one pand or one-twentieth of a bigha of the field called Gokal which had the best soil and yielded the best crop of the year (a middling year), \$\frac{2}{2}\$ths of the crop were bdjri and \$\frac{1}{2}\$th jvári. It yielded 5\frac{1}{2}\$ páylis, that is 110 páylis worth Rs. 22 to the bigha. The second trial was in the village of Tánkli in the field of one Tuláji Kále, in one-twentieth of a bugha of the best black land of a middling crop of spiked millet or bdjri mixed with other grains. The bdjri yielded 3½ paylis that is at the rate of 62½ paylis the bigha, worth Rs. 12½, and the other products worth Rs. 14 as. 15 or a total value of Rs. 27 as. 7 East India Papers, IV. 568, East India Papers, IV. 569. The details are:

Land.
THE BRITISH.
1820-21.

mean bigka outturn would then be about 616 pounds (77 páylis) worth £1 12s. (Rs. 16). To this should be added about 56 pounds (7 páylis) worth 3s. (Rs. 11) for a second crop or a total mean outturn of about 672 pounds (84 páylis) worth £1 15s. (Rs. 171). Experiments and estimates seemed to show that the mean outturn of second class land was about one-third less than the mean outturn of the best land that is about 448 pounds (56 páylis) weath about £1 3s. 41d. (Rs. 11 as. $10\frac{5}{6}$). Similar estimates gave for the poorest lands an outturn of about five-sevenths less that is of about 192 pounds (24 páylis) worth about 6s. 4\frac{1}{2}d. (Rs. 3 as. 3\frac{1}{2}). That is for the three leading classes of land an average outturn of about 4371 pounds $(54\frac{2}{3} p\acute{a}ylis)$ worth about £1 1s. 7d. (Rs. 10 as. 12 $\frac{2}{3}$). The rates in force in the greater part of the district under the Marátha or kamál settlement were, except in the western rice lands or about twentytwo per cent of the whole, a bigha of dry land fit to yield vegetables or jiráyat malai, 6s. (Rs. 3); a bigha of pulse or káthan land 4s. (Rs. 2); a bigha of second class land 3s. (Rs. 11); a bigha of third class land 2s. (Re. 1); and a bigha of fourth class land 1s. 6d. (12 as.), that is an average of about 3s. 3 d. (Re. 1 as. 10^{5}) that is equal to about one-sixth of the average outturn.8 As regards watered land Captain Robertson's estimates of outturn were for unhusked wheat on a bigha of black soil of the first sort about 1728 pounds (216 páylis), of the second sort about 1344 pounds (168 paylis), and of the third sort about 1264 pounds (158 paylis). This gives for the three sorts an average of about 1440 pounds (180 páylis) the bigha that is about 1728 pounds (216 páylis) the acre.4 The current assessment on a bigha yielding this produce was 8s. (Rs. 4) if it was watered from a channel, and 12s. (Rs. 6) if it was watered from a well. Captain Robertson's experiments in rice lands gave a bigha outturn of about 1806 pounds (I khandi and 11 mans or 225% páylis) for a good crop, about 1281 pounds (15) mans or 160 páylis) for a middle crop, and about 777 pounds (91 mans or 97 páylis) for a poor crop, that is an average of about 1288 pounds (151 mans) equal to 161 páylis the bigha or 207 páylis that is 303 English bushels the acre. The season of 1820 when the experiments were made was a poor rice year and a more correct average was said to be 20 mans the bigha or 37 bushels the acre.5

¹ East India Papers, IV. 569-570.

^a That is about 520 pounds (65 páylis) worth Rs. 12 as. 91 the acre. East India Papers, IV. 570. According to Captain Robertson (10th October 1821 East India Papers, IV. 570) 22 pints are equal to one measured sher. The equivalents of páylis in the text are given at two pounds the sher or eight pounds the páyli.

^a East India Papers, IV. 570.

^{*}Captain Robertson estimates this acre outturn of 216 pdylis or 864 shere equal to 32 English standard bushels, and notices (10th Oct. 1821) that the poorest land in Scotland yields of oats from one bole and a quarter to one bole and a half or from five to six bushels to the English acre; the average barley produce to the acre on middling land in Scotland is twenty bushels; the average of wheat is twenty-four bushels. In Yorkshire the average of oats is fifty-eight bushels. Barley in the midland district of Gloucester yields sometimes sixty bushels but the average is thirty-four bushels; in the vale of Gloucester a farmer in 1784 averaged from fifty acres no less than forty-five bushels to the acre of wheat but this was considered a very superior crop. East India Papers, IV. 571.

East India Papers, IV. 571-572.

As regards the style of tillage Captain Robertson noticed that land was not ploughed oftener than once in three or four years. In the other years harrowing was considered enough. But this harrowing was laborious as to destroy the weeds it had to be repeated four times, each time in an opposite direction.1 As regards the cost of tillage Captain Robertson's inquiries showed that a set of eight bullocks could till about 26 acres (35 bighás) of good bad and indifferent land, and about 19 acres (25 bighás) of good land. bullock cost on an average £1 16s. (Rs. 18) and lasted ten years, that is the team of eight bullocks represented an average yearly charge of £1 9s. (Rs. 141). The cattle were fed on grass and straw which cost almost nothing, and a few sugarcakes costing for the eight bullocks about 4s. (Rs. 2) a year. To work the eight bullocks four men were wanted who, if all four were hired, would cost £18 4s. (Rs. 184).2 Other yearly expenses for field tools would amount to an average of about 16s. (Rs. 8).3 average cost of seed on about 26 acres or 35 bighas at about eight pounds the acre (3 shers the bigha) represented £1 1s. (Rs. $10\frac{1}{2}$). That is a total yearly outlay of about £22 (Rs. 219). To this cost of tillage were to be added the rent and other charges on the 26 acres (35 bighás) of land. These at £5 15s. 6d. (Rs. 573) for the assessment, 13s. (Rs. 61) for extra cesses, and £7 (Rs. 70) for the claims of district and village officers and servants, amounted to about £13 (Rs. 134 $\frac{1}{2}$). That is for 26 acres (35 bighás) of good middle and bad land a total expenditure of about £35 (Rs. 3531). The average produce of the 26 acres (35 bighás) was about 437 pounds (54 páylis) worth £11s. 7d. (Rs. 10 as. $12\frac{2}{3}$) the bigha representing a value of £37 15s. 5d. (Rs. 377 as. 11 $\frac{1}{3}$), and this, after deducting the £35 (Rs. 3534) of charges, left a balance of £2 8s. 11d. (Rs. 24 as. 74).4 If instead of hiring the four men two of the men, as was the case in most families, belonged to the household, though the cost of food and clothes would remain the same or might slightly rise, £4 (Rs. 40) would be saved in wages. If, instead of being bought, the bullocks were reared at home, the yearly outlay on bullocks might be reduced about 7s. (Rs. 31), and the wife and children, from the sale of milk butter and cowdung-cakes, might make, £3 (Rs. 30) a year. These three items together amounted to £7 7s. (Rs. 73½) which with the balance of £2 8s. 11d. (Rs. 24 as. 71) of receipts over expenditure amounted to a total of £9 15s. 11d. (Rs. 97 as. $15\frac{1}{2}$). In the best land, according to Captain Robertson's calculations the balance of receipts over charges in regular tillage would be £9 5s. (Rs. 921) instead of

Chapter VIII Land. THE BRITISH. 1820-21.

¹ East India Papers, IV. 578.

² The details are: Food, 2880 pounds or 360 pdylis of millet or ndgli at 40 pounds (5 pdylis) the rupes, £7 4s. (Rs. 72); cash at £2 (Rs. 20) each for three men and £2 4s. (Rs. 22) for the fourth or a total of £8 4s. (Rs. 82); clothes for the four men £3 (Rs. 30). Total £18 8s. (Rs. 184). East India Papers, IV. 576.

⁸ The details are: Every year, for the plough ropes 5s. (Rs. 2½) and dnkda 3s. (Rs. ½) or in all 8s. (Rs. 4); every five years, a phál 3s. (Rs. ½), a halas 5s. (Rs. ½), a yoke or ju 5s. (Rs. ½), shilvat or shilvati 4s. (Rs. 2), kulav 4s. (Rs. 2), panshes (?) 5s. (Rs. 2½), pábhar or pábhár 6s. (Rs. 3), panle (?) 3s. (Rs. ½), sindris (?) 6s. (Rs. 3), total £2 1s (Rs. 20½) in five years or 8s. (Rs. 4) every year. Total for dead stock 16s. (Rs. 8) a year. East India Papers, IV. 576.

⁴ Capt. Robertson in East India Papers, IV. 576.

Chapter VIII.

Land.
THE BRITISH.

1820-21.

£2 8s. I1d. (Rs. 24 as. $7\frac{1}{3}$), that is, together with the £77s. (Rs. $73\frac{1}{2}$) savings from the home work of the men and the extra earnings of the women and children, a total profit of £16 12s. (Rs. 166). On the basis that the father and son worked instead of two of the hired men this estimate of cost of tillage, rent, and other charges, and value of produce showed that in good lands the Government share of the outturn was 13 per cent and the landholder's share 87 per cent. Out of the landholder's 87 per cent 16 per cent went to claimants and village servants, 29 per cent represented the cost of tillage, and 42 per cent the balance left for the support of the family which generally contained six members. In average lands the Government share was 17 per cent and the landholder's share 83 per cent. Out of the landholder's 83 per cent 18 per cent went to village servants and other claimants, 34 per cent represented the cost of tillage, and 31 per cent the maintenance of the landholder's family.2 In Captain Robertson's opinion these results showed that Government took from the landholder quite as large a share of the produce as it could safely take. Regarding the cost and profit of rice tillage Captain Robertson gave the following estimates. Only two bullocks were required for one plough. A man and his family might live on the produce of one plough but they would be wretchedly poor. A pair of bullocks could plough about 4 acres (5 bighás) of rice and about 11 acres (2 bighás) of náchni and súva. The best way of growing rice was by planting the seedlings. was laborious and costly. It would take fifty men one day to plant the seedlings of one man of seed, or 150 men for one day to plant 4 acres (5 bighás). Labourers called in to plant for one day's work were paid about eight pounds (1 páyli) of rice and a cake of some other grain. The planting of rice, where each handful of seedlings had to be separately pressed into the ground, was much more troublesome than the planting of nachni and vari whose seedlings were thrown down at intervals and left to take root. Ten men could plant as large an area of náchni or vari as 150 men could plant of rice.8 At the rice harvest a man and his wife could cut four acres (5 bighás) in eight or nine days. But there was always special expenditure as the grain had to be carried and stacked before it got too dry, and several men were generally hired and paid about eight pounds (1 páyli) of rice for a day's work. In growing náchní or vari except at harvest, little outside help was wanted. Sava had to be weeded when the grain was about a foot high. The weeding was carried out by the mutual agreement of the villagers with no other cost except a small outlay on liquor. As they worked in the chilly rain very lightly clad, it was hard work to keep the weeders in They were generally given as much liquor as they could drink and had a drummer behind them who kept drumming and

The details of the charges and receipts of about 19 acres (25 bighás) of the best land are: Cost of tillage as for poorer land Rs. 219, Government assessment at Rs. 2 a bigha Rs. 50, extra cesses Rs. 6, allowances and village servants' shares Rs. 70; total Rs. 345. Under receipts, 25 bighás at 84 páylis worth Rs. 17½ a bigha give Rs. 437½ that is a balance of Rs. 92½. East India Papers, IV. 577.

2 East India Papers, IV. 578.

every now and then shouted Bhalere dáda bhale bhái dáda, or Well done brothers well done.1

What there There were few masonry watercourses in Poona. were had been built by the Moghals and were cleaned and repaired by Government. Six of the sub-divisions had no regular dams and no watering lakes or reservoirs. If a stream passed near his fields a landholder occasionally made a temporary dam and dug a channel. But it was neither according to rule nor according to practice to make the whole members of a village undertake such works. In villages which had an old water-work, the people might give their labour to repair it; but even this was not a condition of their tenure. Since the English had conquered the country no new reservoirs or watercourses had been made.2

The greater part of the people were Kunbis or cultivators.3 Their number had probably not increased during the three years of British rule. A good many of Bájiráv's servants and messengers had come and settled in their villages. But the cholera had perhaps swept away more than had come back; and a good many, tempted by low leases, were leaving Indapur (October 1821) and settling in the Nizam's country. After a succession of years of good or fair harvests and high prices the state of the husbandmen was by no means wretched. Still they were generally small, poor, and badly clothed. The people of the eastern plain as a rule were abler bodied and better looking than those of the west. This was said to be because the eastern people lived on millet, and the western people on rice rági and sáva. Few husbandmen in any part of the district ate wheat; what wheat they grew went to the nearest market town.⁵ All ate flesh and drank liquor. But they were not drunken, and drunkenness was very rarely a cause of crime. Though as a whole the husbandmen might be described as badly clothed, the people of the west were much worse clothed than the people near Poona. In the west they had little but a blanket and a scanty cloth round the middle while near Poona the men had generally a very good pair of cotton breeches.7 In the west rents were high, the claims of village servants and others were heavy, and the people were poor.8 In the east the houses were of mud and stone with flat mud roofs: in the west they were smaller and were covered with thatch.9 The usual yearly rate of interest was (October 1821) twelve per cent; but 18\frac{2}{3} per cent a year (\frac{1}{2}a. a month for a rupee) was common, and in the west twenty and twenty-four per cent were paid. the interest was paid in grain about 75 per cent (a sher a rupee a month) was taken. If grain was borrowed for food, one quarter to three quarters more than the quantity borrowed had to be repaid; and if grain was borrowed for seed, double the quantity borrowed

Chapter VIII Land.

> THE BRITISH. 1820-21.

> > Condition. 1821.

East India Papers, III. 794; East India Papers, IV. 408.

¹ East India Papers, IV. 578-579.

² East India Papers, IV. 526.

³ East India Papers, IV. 592.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 592.

⁵ East India Papers, IV. 592; Extract Rev.

⁶ Capt. Robertson, 10th Oct. 1821, East India Papers IV. 592; Extract Rev.

Letter from Bombay 27th Nov. 1822, East India Papers III. 793.

⁷ East India Papers, IV. 404.

⁸ East India Papers, IV. 592.

⁸ East India Papers, IV. 592.

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hapter VIII. Land.

THE BRITISH. Condition. 1821.

> Slavery. 1820.

had to be repaid. It had been and it still was usual for the husbandman to make a bargain with a grain dealer to advance him the price of his crop before the crop was cut, and he paid his rent by an order or havála on the grain dealer to whom he had made over his In this the husbandman suffered as he was generally pressed for money and the grain dealer held back till he was able to buy at something less than the market value of the grain. Though as a class the villagers were frugal and provident, owing to the oppression of the revenue farmers many were deeply in debt. These debts were of long standing and were often made of compound interest and occasional aids. Such debts could in fairness be settled only by a compromise which could rarely be obtained except through a jury or pancháit.2

Under the landholding class at the beginning of British rule was a class of slaves. Dr. Coats (Feb. 1820) found in the village of Loni eight families of slaves, comprising eighteen persons. In reward for good services one of the slave families had virtually received their freedom, lived in a separate house, and tilled on their own account. The others lived in their masters'houses. The slaves were well treated. They were clad and fed and except that they took their meals apart, were treated in the same way as the members of the family. If they behaved well they got pocket money on holidays, and their masters were at the expense of their marriages which cost £5 or £6 (Rs. 50 or 60). The men worked in the fields; the women helped their mistresses; and when unmarried were sometimes their masters' concubines. The present race were all home-born. Some of them were descended from women brought as prisoners from Hindustán and the Karnátak. Freedom was sometimes given to slaves from religious motives, for good conduct, and sometimes because they became burdensome. Such persons took the name of shinda or bastard and were considered inferior and were avoided in marriage. Slave-dealing was thought disreputable, and was not much practised. Boys were rarely brought to market; sales of girls were commoner. Beautiful girls were bought by the rich as mistresses, or by courtezans to be taught dancing and singing and fetched £10 to £50 (Rs. 100-500). less favoured were bought as servants in Bráhmans' families.3

¹ East India Papers, IV. 580.

² East India Papers, IV, 580.

² Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822, East India Papers IV. 514.

³ Trans. Bom. Lit. Soc. III. 239-240. Regarding the condition of the people at the beginning of British rule the authorities do not altogether agree. In his paper (Trans. Bom. Lit. Soc. III. 225-228) Dr. Coats described (29th Feb. 1820) the condition of the people of Loni as extremely deplorable. Their houses were crowded, and not sufficiently ventilated; and their cattle and families were often under the same roof. Their food, although seldom deficient in quantity, was not always wholesome and nutritious; and they were wretchedly clothed. Though exercise and water-drinking generally made them wear well, the constant labour of their women out of doors unfitted them for nursing, and in consequence a large proportion of their children died in infancy. The heavy exactions imposed on them by the Government kept them poor, and did away every prospect of independence or improvement. They were them poor, and did away every prospect of independence or improvement. They were improvident, and seldom troubled themselves with the future. The township of Loni contained eighty-four families of landholders all of whom, excepting fifteen or sixteen, were more or less in debt to moneyed men in the neighbourhood, generally to Brahmans or shopkeepers. The total indebtedness amounted to £1453 (Rs. 14,530), and besides this the community owed £307 (Rs. 3070). The usual rate of interest was

In 1821, according to Captain Robertson, there were eight reading and many subordinate tenures. These were sosti or full rent, kauli or lease, ukti or short rent, dumála or service granted, inámati or rent alienated, sheri or Government held, pál or sut that is rent-free, and gahán or mortgaged.

Sosri included land which paid Government a full rental. It was of two kinds, mirási or hereditary and gatkul mirási when the hereditary holder was absent. Land held by a mirásdár was considered to be the holder's property; he could either sell it or mortgage it. Gatkul mirás was land whose hereditary holder had disappeared, and which the headman might let on the best terms he could secure and was not bound to pay Government more than the original holder would have paid had he remained. Land of this kind was considered to belong to the village community and by the village was saleable and assignable in mortgage to defray public debts and public expenses. Under the British system the headman ceased to have power to dispose of this class of land.

KAULI or leasehold included land let for a series of years at an increasing specified assessment. If on the last year of the lease the full rental was paid, leasehold land came to be ranked with full rent or sosti land. It belonged to the village community and was saleable and assignable by it. Under the Maráthás leases were granted by the village headmen; under the British the power of granting leases was directed and controlled by the mamlatdars.

Until or short rate tenure included all land held on something less than a full rental. It was of two kinds, ukti or makta gatkul mirási and khand makta mirási. Makta gatkul mirási was hereditary land whose holder had disappeared and which for some short specified time was let to some one else at a rental short of the full amount; it belonged to and was saleable by the village community; khand makta mirási was similar land let under similar circumstances but on a permanent agreement. This land was saleable and assignable

Chapter VIII.

Tenures, 1821.

Sosti.

Kault.

Ukti.

twenty-four per cent a year, but when small sums were borrowed, the interest was often as high as \{\frac{1}{2}\ anna}\ per rupee a month or about forty per cent. The indebtedness of individual landholders varied from £4 to £20 (Rs. 40-200) and two or three were over £200 (Rs. 2000) in debt. These debts had generally been contracted to meet marriage expenses, or to buy cattle and food. Each debtor kept a running account with his creditor, and took a receipt for sums he might from time to time pay, while the interest was brought against him till it equalled the principal, where it ought legally to stop; dam dusar han tivar or for money double for grain treble, was the maxim that guided juffes in settling these debts. Few of those in debt knew anything about their accounts. It was a common opinion among them that they had discharged all just demands on them over and over again. As none of them knew anything of accounts this was possibly not without truth. Besides owing money, about a fourth of the villagers were indebted to their neighbours for grain and straw borrowed to support themselves and their cattle till the next harvest. This they were bound to repay in kind, and with never less than an increase of fifty and often of seventy-five per cent. The whole of the landholder's crop was generally mortgaged before it was reaped. This was the case in ordinary times. In bad seasons or in case of any calamity the evil was much increased. If any of their cattle died they had no means of replacing them but on the terms above explained; and if they failed in this, their only resource was to quit their fields for a time and endeavour to save a little money by becoming servants to Brahmans and others, or perhaps by enlisting as soldiers.

1 Capt. Robertson, Collector, 10th Oct. 1821, East India Papers IV. 543-547.

Chapter VIII.

Tenures, 1821. Dumála, in mortgage by the holder. This which was more favourable than the ordinary hereditary tenure was extremely rare.

Dumála, literally two-ownered land, in the sense that the original owner had not entirely parted with it, was land held for service. It included shetsanadi land held for military service as garrison troops; bakshis or gift-land, generally garden land granted to a man for his life and then recalled; and saranjám land held rent-free at the pleasure of Government without any stipulation of service. Gaon nisbat dumála, or two-ownered village-land was village land granted rent-free to a Rámoshi or watchman who could neither sell nor mortgage it.

Inámati or rent-alienated land was land granted in perpetuity. through favour, in charity, or to an hereditary office-holder. It included sanad inámati or deed-rent-alienated and gaon nisbat inámati or village-rent-alienated. Sanad inamati had four varieties. All of them were liable to pay the dues of village and district claimants or hakdars and all of them originated from the ruling power. Sanad inámati land was held in perpetuity by a deed or sanad from the ruling power, free of all Government exactions. A grant of this kind seemed to have been always made from ownerless and fallow land. The right assumed by Government to grant such land was not disputed by the village corporation. The other three varieties of deed-held land were inam nimái which paid a Government rent equal to one-half of the full rent, inám tijái which paid a one-third Government rent, and inám chauthái which paid a one-fourth Government rent. Gaon nisbat inámati was of seven varieties, the headman's land pasodi, the Mhar's land of two kinds hinki and hádola, temple land or devasthán, craftsmen's land or váveli, charity land or dharmádáya, and ordeal land or dev teki. Of these, two paid the claimants' dues and one made some payment to Government. Grants of this class were made by the village corporation, but Government appeared to have the power to order an assignment in inam under this head. The headman's grant or pásodi, which perhaps originally meant a grant for clothes, was saleable and assignable in mortgage with or without the office of headman. It was free from all charges except the claims of village servants or balutás. The grant to Mhárs known as hádki or hinki was a plot of land set apart by the Mhárs for carcasses and bones except a fringe round the edge which they tilled; it paid no rent or other charge. The other Mhar grant known as hádola or the bone-land was instead of cash payments. It was saleable and assignable in mortgage and was free from all claims. Temple or devasthán land was assigned for the village gods and for mosques. This land was in charge of the ministrant at the village temple, who was generally of the Gurav caste. He sold the produce and set apart the price to meet the daily charges for the god's red paint, clothes, food, oil, and vessels. It was neither transferable nor saleable. In the west of the district a grant of land to the village craftsmen or balutás, who were known as vávelikars, took the place of a share of the produce. Charity land or dharmádaya was land given in charity or instead of a money payment. It was assignable in mortgage and saleable by the holders. It paid

no tax or fee. Ordeal land or dev teki the last of the village grants was land held by a headman or Mhár in return for having gained for the village some disputed land by passing an ordeal. It was saleable and assignable in mortgage.

SHERI was at the disposal of Government and was managed by the Government direct, not through the headman or any of the village agents. It was entirely Government property and paid no fee.

PAL or Sur land was a small plot of rent-free land in a large holding, which was thrown in to make up for some disadvantage under which the holding suffered.

GAHÁN. The last special tenure was land held in mortgage or gahán. There were six forms of mortgage: (1) The mortgager handed the land to the mortgagee and continued to pay the Government demand and at the end of a certain term the whole debt was cancelled; (2) the mortgagee paid the Government rent.; (3) the mortgagee took the produce of the estate as interest and the principal had to be separately paid; (4) the mortgager managed the land and paid the mortgagee a share of the produce; (5) if the mortgager failed to pay within a certain time, the land passed to the mortgagee; (6) the mortgagee paid the rent on condition that if the mortgager did not pay the principal within a certain period he must sell the land to the mortgagee at a fixed price.

PALNUK. Besides those noticed by Captain Robertson there was a local tenure in the Mulshi petty division formerly of Mával now of This was styled pálnuk or rent-exemption and resembled the pándharpesha or leading villager tenure of the North Konkan. Under the pálnuk tenure freedom from village charges and other claims were granted to hereditary district officers Bráhmans and others specially mentioned. In some cases this pálnuk or reduction in rent amounted to as much as sixty-one per cent and in no case was the remission less than eighteen per cent. In 1830, September. 6th, when he was introducing his settlement into the Mávals, Mr. Pringle noticed that in some villages, chiefly in the Paud vale, Bráhmans, village officers, and certain others were free from extra cesses, villagers' claims, village expenses, charges. The tenure was called pálnuk or freedom from cesses and was like the leading villager or pandharpesha settlement in the North Though the privilege was not supported by distinct grants, Mr. Pringle was satisfied that it had long been enjoyed and had been admitted by the Marátha government. Mr. Pringle thought that the privilege should be confined to those who were in actual enjoyment He accordingly prepared a register which showed that 196 privileged holders enjoyed a concession representing a yearly sum of Pál or Sut.

Gahán.

Pálnuk,

Chapter VIII
Land.
TENURE
1821.
Sheri.

¹ Though Capt. Robertson does not mention pálnuk, the following passage in his report (10th Oct. 1821) seems to refer to this tenure. 'In twelve or fourteen villages of the Paud Khore certain Bráhmans do not pay the full assessment.' He thought this privilege had been acquired because they were rich and respectable, and not from their being poor. East India Papers, IV. 580.

² Poona Collector's Compilation of 1853, 47, 388.

Chapter VIII. Land.

TENURES, 1821. £351 (As. 3510). The reduction on the survey assessment of each of these privileged holders was effected by calculating the value of the cesses or bábs from the payment of which each was exempt. The sum thus found was deducted from the regular assessment by a percentage rate equivalent to its amount. From this information a statement was prepared, giving the names of the pálnukdárs and the reduction to which each was entitled. This arrangement remained in force till 1854. The only change in the interval was that by transfer of the land or the failure of the family of the original holders the amount of the concession had fallen from £351 to £319 (Rs. 3510-3190).

In proposing the Mával survey settlement in January 1854 Captain Francis the Survey Superintendent thought it advisable to make a temporary concession to the pálnukdárs like the concession proposed for the Konkan pándharpeshás. He thought Mr. Pringle's statement of the enjoyers of the palnuk concession should be adopted as the basis of the settlement. That if the new survey rates proved not higher than the existing concession rates the new rates should be levied. That where the new survey rates proved higher than the existing concession rates, if the holder was the same person who had held in Mr. Pringle's time, the enhanced rates should not be levied for ten years; and, if the holder was the lineal descendant of the person who had held in Mr. Pringle's time, the enhanced rates should not be levied for five years. In cases where the holder had acquired the land in any way except by descent the new enhanced survey rates should be at once introduced. Captain Francis suggested that a statement should be prepared to show to what remissions the different holders would be entitled till the proposed concessions came to an end.2 The demi-official letter from the Chief Secretary, on the authority of which Captain Francis introduced the proposed settlement into Mával in 1853-54, seems to have taken no notice of Captain Francis' proposals regarding the palnuk concessions. The matter was brought to the notice of Government in February 1855. In August 1855 Government decided that the question should be reserved for a future occasion.8 At present (1884) there are pálnukdárs in fifty-six villages. Before 1854 the assessment according to mamul rates amounted to £318 (Rs. 3180) and the pálnuk to £136 (Rs. 1360). Under the survey introduced in 1854 the assessment on pálnuk lands was reduced to £273 (Rs. 2730) and the amount of pálnuk to £95 (Rs. 950). This represents the sum now (1884) actually recovered from the pálnukdárs. It will thus be seen that the pálnuk levied under tho mámul rates was 63 annas in the rupee or 42 per cent, whereas that recovered under the survey rates amounts to 51 annas in the rupee or 34 per cent. So that the concession now allowed is more favourable than that under the manul rates. There is an occasional

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 11-12. Under a circular of the Revenue Commissioner N. D., 963 of 8th August 1844, it was decided that the concession ceased with the death of the original palnukdar. This circular was modified three years after by Gov. Letter 2698 of 14th July 1847, which declared that the transfer of land by lineal descent did not affect the concession. Revenue Circular Orders Book, 1860, 415.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 13-15.

³ Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 55, 63, 65.

lapse from failure of lineal descendants or in consequence of the sale of the land to an outsider and the transfer thereof to the purchaser's kháta.¹ Government have lately (1881-82) decided that mortgage with or without possession does not amount to such a transfer of the privileged land as destroys the holder's right to the usual remission. At the same time the former opinion seems to be upheld that the privilege ceases on any portion of the land which passes from the holder's name except by lineal succession.2

At the beginning of British rule the main division of the Poona husbandmen was into hereditary holders called thalkaris or mirásdárs and casual holders called upris. Among the hereditary holders Captain Robertson thought there were some whose families dated from pre-Musalmán times when they used to hold from a Hindu chief on Manu's rental of one-sixth of the produce. hereditary tenure remained in all villages in the district except in about thirty villages which had never recovered from some great Besides the freedom from the chance of being ousted the hereditary holder had many advantages over the upri or casual holder. In the west the hereditary holder was free from several He could build and sell a house; he had a voice in the village councils; and he had a share in the village grazing land. In the east in addition to these advantages the hereditary holder and his wife had precedence in village ceremonies and his children made better marriages than the children of casual holders.5 1821 of about 30,600 landholders who paid direct to Government, about 19,700 were hereditary holders and about 10,900 were casual holders, that is there were about twice as many hereditary holders as casual holders. As regards the proportion of hereditary holders in different parts of the district, Poona City came first with thirteen to one, Haveli and Shivner came second and third each with five to one, Pábal was fourth with four to one, Khed was fifth with five to three, Parandhar was sixth with three to two, Mával was seventh with ten to seven, Bhimthadi was eighth with nine to ten, and Indápur was last with one to three.6

Chapter VIII Land. THE BRITISH.

> Landholders. 1821.

Poona Landholders, 1831.

Sch-Divibions.				Upris.	Mirds- dárs.	Total.	PROPORTION.	
							Upris.	Mirás- dura.
Bhiuthadi Poona City Indápur Pábal Khed Purandhar Haveli Junnar (Estimate	***		1185 9 2509 683	1104 115 810 2504	2289 124 3319 3187	10 1 8	9 13 1	
		***	••• ••	1805 1431 588 1829	8073 2160 2656 2676	4878 3591 8244	3 2	5 3 5
	ımatı	ed)		869	4600	4505 5469	í	10 5
		Total	***	19,908	19,696	30,606	1	2

¹ Collector of Poona, 612 of 26th January 1884.

² Gov. Res. 6414, dated the 28th of October 1881, and 408 of 19th January 1882.

S East India Papers, IV. 529.

4 Captain Robertson, 10th October 1821, East India Papers IV. 579.

5 Ext. Rev. Let. from Bombay, 5th November 1823, East India Papers III. 809.

6 East India Papers, IV. 585. The details are:

hapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. Villages, 1821.

All landholders were members of village communities which formed the most important feature of Deccan society. The Poona village communities were miniature states with anorganization almost complete enough to protect the members if all other Government was withdrawn. They were an excellent remedy for the imperfections of a bad Government; they prevented the evil effects of its negligence and weakness and even presented some barrier against its tyranny and rapacity. Each village had a portion of ground attached to it which was committed to the management of the villagers. The boundaries were carefully marked and jealously guarded. The village lands were divided into fields each of which, whether tilled or waste, had a name and well known limits. Except a few traders and craftsmen the villagers were almost all husbandmen. Over each village was a headman or pátil with an assistant or chaughula and a clerk called kulkarni and twelve subordinate servants called bára balutás.¹

Headman. 1820.

The headman or pátil2 held his office direct from Government, under a written paper or vatan patra, which specified his duties, his rank, and the ceremonies of respect to which he was entitled; and his perguisites, and the quantity of freehold land allotted to him as wages. In 1820 the pátils about Poona, generally said they held their pátilship from the emperor of Delhi, or from one of the Sátára Rájás; in Dr. Coats' opinion many were held from the Peshwas, an origin which was not acknowledged because the Delhi and Sátára grants were considered more sacred. The vatan patra was scaled with the sovereign's seal, had the signature of several witnesses to it, and ended with a curse on any one who should disturb or dispute the rights of the holder. The pátilship was hereditary and saleable; but the office was looked on as so respectable, and the property attached to it was considered so permanent, that there were few or no instances of its being wholly sold, although, as a means of averting misfortune, part of it had often been transferred by sale. This was the reason why there were two pátile in many villages, and three or four in some. When there were more than one headman the duties and rights of the office were divided, according as it might be stipulated in the deed of sale; the original pátil always kept the precedence. The prominent duties of the patil were, along with the village accountant, to ascertain and collect the Government dues

² Dr. Coats' account of the Loni village (29th February 1820) in Trans. Bom. Lit.

Soc. III. 195-196.

¹ Mr. Elphinstone, 1819. Dr. Coats writing in 1820 (29th February) says, 'The township of Loni has its own officers, is governed by its own laws and usages, and is in a great measure independent of all without. Its boundaries and institutions have undergone no alteration from time immemorial; while the great political changes have undergone no alteration from time immemorial; while the great political changes that have been continually going on in the succession of the states it has been subject to, have neither given it much disturbance nor excited much interest. Almost its only intercourse with the Government is the payment of its taxes. Its members are connected with those of the neighbouring townships by intermarriages, and a friendly intercourse is kept up between them. It is commonly left to protect itself from external enemies, and is held responsible for the police within its limits. The officers of the township are two patils who are its civil magistrates; the chaughula or deputy patil; the kulkarni or secretary and accountant; and the bara balutas are its twelve subordinate servants. Trans. Bom. Lit. Soc. 111, 194-195, Ed. 1877.

3 Dr. Coats' account of the Loni village (29th February 1820) in Trans. Bom. Lit.

from the landholders, and to see they were paid to the persons authorised to receive them; to encourage people to settle in his village; to let out waste lands, and promote agriculture by every means in his power; and to punish offences, redress wrongs, and settle disputes among the villagers. In matters of a trifling nature he decided himself, and punished the offender by stripes or reproof, but was not allowed to fine. In cases of more importance he called a pancháit or council. Serious, particularly criminal, cases were referred to the mamlatdar or the Government. The patil was also responsible for the police of his township. For neglect of duty the patel was punished by the Government by fine and imprisonment; but, unless for treason or other serious crime, he was seldom deprived of his office. The pátil had great power and influence, and did not always make good use of his power. He was sometimes said, in collusion with the kulkarni, to impose on the landholders in the settlement of their accounts, and with the kamavisdar to cheat the Government. The pátils were proud of their dignity; all the ceremonies of etiquette and respect they were entitled to were minutely laid down, and they would quarrel with a person for withholding any of their honours sooner than for doing them an injury. A greater proportion of them could write than of the village hereditary landholders. Otherwise, except in knavery, they were not more accomplished, and scarcely differed from them in dress, manners, or way of living. The pátils paid to Government every twelfth (sic) year a tax or dahak patti equal to one year's salary.

The kulkarni or village clerk kept the numerous village records and accounts. The most important were: (1) the general measurement and description of the village lands; (2) the list of fields with the name size and quality of each, the terms under which it was held. the name of the holder, the rent for which he had agreed, and the highest rent ever yielded by the field; (3) the list of all the villagers whether husbandmen or otherwise, with a statement of the dues from each to Government and the receipt and balance in the account of each; (4) the general statement of the instalments of revenue; and (5) the detailed account, in which each branch of revenue was shown under a separate head, with the receipts and balance on each. Besides the public records, the village clock generally kept the accounts of all the landholders, with each other and with their creditors; acted as a notary public in drawing up all their agreements; and even conducted any private correspondence they might have to carry on. He had lands, but oftener fees, allotted to him by Government from whom he held his appointment.

Under the headman were the twelve village servants or bara balutas, the carpenter, the ironsmith, the washerman, the barber, the potter, the silversmith or assayer, the idol-dresser, the water-carrier, the shoemaker or currier, the rope-maker, the watchman messenger and guardian of boundaries, and the Muhammadan mulla or priest. There were also the Brahman astrologer to cast nativities and the

Land.
THE BRITISH,

Headm**an,** 1820.

Accountant, 1820.

TWELVE SERVANTS, 1820.

Dr. Coats, 29th February 1820, Trans. Bom. Lit. Soc. III. 196-197.
 Trans. Bom. Lit. Soc. III. 197-203, East India Papers IV. 158, 582.

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hap *VIII.

Twelve Servants, 1820. Bráhman priest to attend to religious ceremonies. In some parts of the district there was a village watch composed of Bhils and Rámoshis.¹ According to Dr. Coats (29th February 1820) the balutás were hereditary and held their situation from the township. Their hereditary papers or vatan patra were in the name of the pátil and township, and were witnessed by several of the villagers. The deed bound the holder to devote his services to the common good, according to custom, on condition that each landholder paid him a fixed proportion of the produce of the soil. The balutás also received presents for exercising their particular callings at marriges and other rites and ceremonies. The grant or vatan patra sometimes had the seal and signature of the deshmukh and deshpánde or hereditary district revenue officers, and a copy ought to be lodged with the deshpánde. The expenses to a baluta on his appointment amounted to £5 or £6 (Rs. 50 or Rs. 60) in perquisites and presents.² The particular duties of the balutás were:

Carpenter.

The Carpenter made and kept in repair all wooden field tools, the wood being supplied by the landholder. He was paid 200 sheaves of corn and about 48 pounds (24 shers) of grain for every 22½ acres (30 bighás) under tillage, and his dinner or a few pounds of grain a day so long as he was engaged in mending field tools. He furnished marriage chaurang or stool on which the bride and bridegroom were bathed. He supplied travellers with pegs for their tents, and for picketing their horses. During two or three days in the year, in return for a dinner, Government, the deshmukh or hereditary revenue superintendent, and the deshpánds or hereditary revenue accountant were entitled to his services.

Blacksmith.

The Ironsmith or Blacksmith made and kept in repair all iron field tools. He made the sickles, the hoes, and other field tools, and the simple lock and chain which fastened their doors, the villagers finding the iron and the charcoal. For tiring cart wheels, as this was troublesome, he received a money present. He performed the bagád or hook-fastening into the back of devotees who swung before Bahiru and Hanumán. He shoed the horses of villagers and travellers, but he was not a good farrier. He every year furnished a set of horse shoes and twenty-four nails to Government who supplied him with iron. He was paid about thirty-six pounds (18 shers) of grain on every 22½ acres (30 bighás) or one-fourth less than the carpenter.

Washerman.

The Washerman washed the clothes of male villagers; the women generally washed their own clothes. He spread cloths for the bride and bridegroom to walk on at one of the marriage processions, and for parties to sit on at marriages and other festivals. For this he received special presents. He washed the clothes of travellers, and expected a present for his trouble.

Barber.

The Barber shaved the villagers and cut their nails on a lucky day once every fortnight. He kneaded the muscles and cracked

Mr. Elphinstone, 1819, Ed. 1872, 15, and East India Papers IV. 158.
 Trans. Bom. Lit. Soq. III. 197.

the joints of the headman and village clerk on holidays, and of all travellers of distinction who came to the village. He was the village surgeon, and played on the pipe and tambour at weddings and on other occasions. He did not act as a torch-bearer, as he did in some other parts of the country. When the headman went abroad, the barber went with him, and carried and cleaned his copper vessels; and, on village festivals, with the water-carrier and potter, he acted as cook, and, before and after eating, handed the party water to wash. When the bridegroom arrived at the village to take away the bride, the barber led his horse to the bride's house and received the present of a turban. He trimmed the tails of the oxen at the sowing season and received a present of grain.

The Potter supplied the villagers with the baked earthen vessels they used for cooking, for storing spices salt and grain, and for carrying and holding water. He also furnished travellers with such vessels as they wanted. He beat the dánka a kind of drum, and at marriages repeated verses in honour of Jámi an incarnation of Bhaváni. At the harvest homes or davra he prepared the barbat or stewed mutton. He made tiles and bricks, and received a special payment for them. Near Poona potters were freed from the balut sára or village servants' rent because they had been of great service in tiling Báláji Vishvanáth's house.

The Potdár or Treasurer was always a silversmith. He examined the coins when the taxes were paid; and on satisfying himself they were good, stamped his mark on them, and kept them in his treasury, until enough was received to send to the sub-divisional treasury under charge of an escort of Mhárs. When employed as a silversmith he was paid $\frac{3}{4}d$. to 2s. (Re. $\frac{1}{32}$ -1) the rupee weight according to the workmanship.

The Gurav was the village god-dresser and ministrant. He every morning poured water over the village Hanumán, Bahiru, and Mahádev, marked the brows of Bahiru and Hanumán with sandal-wood and oil, and dressed them with flowers. He swept the temples, smeared them with cowdung once every eight days, and every night lighted a lamp in each. At the new-moon he anointed the idol of Hanumán with cinnabar and oil, and Bahiru every Sunday with oil only. Each family in the village gave him daily a small quantity of flour which he made into cakes, and offered at noon to the idols, and afterwards took to his family. During the nine eves or navrátra that end in Dasra in September-October he gave each family a handful of flowers to make garlands which were offered to Bhaváni. He daily supplied the village clerk with Indian fig leaf platters joined with skewers or patrávalis, and on festivals he made leaf-plates for all the villagers.

The Water-carrier, who was of the Pánbhari division of Kolis, kept vessels constantly filled with water at the village office for the use of all Hindus. If as was usual a beggar lived in the building, the water was left under his charge that it might not be defiled. The water-carrier supplied water to travellers, and for marriages and festivals. He brought food for the persons who were fed by the village, from those whose turn it was to supply it. He lighted

Chapter VIII
Land.
TWELVE
SERVANTS,
1820.
Rarber.

Potter.

Silversmith.

Idol-dresser.

Water-carrier

hapter VIII. Land. TWELVE SERVANTS, 1820.

Sheemaker.

the lamps every night at the village office, swept it, and every eight days smeared it with cowdung. When the village was on the bank of a river the water-carrier pointed out the ford to travellers; and when the river was not fordable he took people across on a float buoyed by gourds or inverted earthen pots.

The Shoemaker or Chambhar kept in repair the shoes of the villagers, and every year supplied the kulkarni, pálil, chaughula, deshmukh, and deshpánde with a pair of new shoes. The other villagers paid him about a rupee a year for making their shoes and supplying leather. He made water-bags, and supplied the cart and plough drivers with leather thongs for their whips or asod. He mended shoes, bridles, and other articles belonging to travellers, but expected a present. The skins of all sheep killed in the villago were his perquisites. He did not eat beef or carrion, and was allowed to live within the village. His wages were the same as the carpenter's.

Ropemaker.

The Mangs made hemp ropes for the use of the husbandmen, and a strong raw hide rope used in yoking oxen. The husbandmen supplied him with the materials. He castrated bulls in their fourth year.1 He made the muzzle or muski worn by oxen when weeding or treading corn. On Pola2 or Ox Day, that is the October or A'shvin new moon, the Mangs hung mango leaves on a grass rope across the village gate, the village office or chavdi, and the doors of the chief inhabitants. This was supposed to ensure good luck to the village during the year. The Mangs were considered cruel and revengeful. They acted as executioners, and, it was said, might be hired as assassins. They lived outside of the village, and were not allowed to enter the house even of a Mhár.

The Watchman, who was of the caste known as Mhár Dhed or Parvári, although held outcaste, and not allowed to have a house within the village or to enter the house of any of the villagers, had great weight, and was an important member of the community. The number of Mhár families belonging to each township was from five to fifty according to its size. They lived in a hamlet or whár-váda on the east side and within call of the village. The Mhars' duties were various.3 The most important were to prevent encroachments on the village boundaries of which they were supposed to have an accurate hereditary knowledge. boundary disputes their evidence was generally considered They gave their evidence by walking round the disputed boundary under an oath, in a solemn and formal manner accompanied by the headman and villagers, who marked their track

The bull was thrown down, and a string tied rather tight round the spermatic cord. The glands were then well rubbed with butter and turmeric, and beaten with

a tent-peg. Swelling and absorption of the gland soon followed, and the animal was fit for work in a few days. Dr. Coats, 1820, Trans. Bom. Lit, Soc. III. 200-201.

The Pola or Ox Day varies in different parts of the Decean.

The Mhar did everything and had no special calling. He ran errands, kept a current account in his head of the distribution of the village land, and settled boundary disputes for four or five generations preserving particulars of old boundary fights. Capt. Robertson, 10th Oct. 1821, in East India Papers, IV. 582.

as they went. They were the bearers of all letters on the Lusiness of the township, and generally of all messages. They carried the village rent instalment to the sub-divisional head-quarters. were present at all councils or panchaits involving any hereditary right of the community and their evidence carried great weight. They furnished wood at marriage-feasts, which entitled them to a present of clothes from the bride. They supplied the village headman and his deputy and the village clerk with firewood on Holi in February-March and on Dasra and Diváli in September-October and in November. They carried the fuel required for burning the dead, and. as a perquisite, were given the winding sheet in which some money was always tied. They carried to the next village the baggage of travellers, except the cooking vessels, clothes, and eatables, which would be defiled and were therefore carried by Kunbis. During their stay at the village they supplied travellers with firewood, cleaned their horses. and watched them during the night. They furnished all guides or vátáde. They had charge of the village flag and gates if the village had them, and opened and shut the gates morning and evening. Besides, a beadle that is veskar or yeskar of this tribe was always in waiting at the village office or chávdi, and reported to the headman the arrival of all strangers, and all remarkable occurrences. He was told to keep troublesome visitors from the headman and clerk, by saying they were from home or sick; and to protect the village generally from annoyance, by any subterfuge his ingenuity might suggest. He was the official medium of communication between the headman and the villagers. He was responsible that none of the villagers were called on to act as porters out of their He kept an account of the Kunbi families whose turn it was to supply beggars, Government servants, and others, with their dinners. He attended all travellers during their stay at the village: and all their wants were supplied and paid for through him. The beadle was relieved at stated periods, generally every week. While on duty, he received daily from the $p \dot{a} \bar{t} i l$ half a cake, and from each of the cultivators one-fourth of a cake at noon, and every evening a helping of porridge or gháta from each family; which was generally more than enough to supply himself and his family with food. Government and revenue officers, in return for his food, had a claim on the services of a Mhár for a certain number of days in the year; the Government for three months; the deshmukh for one month; the deshpande for fifteen days; and the sar-patil for eight days. During this period they were employed to bring wood and grass, and to look after horses. The service was termed vapta (rabta?), and was sometimes commuted into a money payment. In each township the Mhars had a plot of freehold land assigned them near their hamlet; this was called hádki or the place of bones where all dead cattle were brought and cut up. They also held another plot of land called hádola which paid a small quit-rent. hereditary families got forty sheaves of corn in the straw, and about eight pounds or four shers of winnowed grain for every sajgani or thirty bighás that is about 22½ acres of corn land. The skin and carcasses of all dead animals, which it was their duty to remove, belonged to them,

Chapter VIII

TWELVE SERVANTS, 1820. Watchman,

hapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. 1820-21.

The Muhammadan Mulla or priest killed the sheep at sacrifices and festivals; he received allowances of grain and straw, and when there was a Muhammadan place of worship in the village, some land was usually attached to it, of which he had the profits.

Of these village officers and servants the only two, besides the headman and the accountant, who had Government duties were the silversmith assayer or potdár and the messenger or Mhár. The payments to the village staff were a heavy burden on the people, representing, according to Captain Robertson's calculations, about sixteen per cent of the whole produce.2 The leading officers, the headman, his assistant, and clerk, besides their rent-free lands and many complimentary offerings, were paid an allowance or ghugri which averaged about seven per cent on the assessment and was divided among the headman, the assistant, and the clerk. This cess and other offerings were always paid by casual holders but in many villages the hereditary holders were exempt. Besides the amounts which were paid to them direct, headmen used considerable sums out of village expenses. These which in former times had varied from six to twenty per cent, under British management had been reduced to 4½ per cent.4 The next officers to whom the villagers had to make payments were the hereditary revenue officers of larger or smaller groups of villages or tarafs and some of They were superintendents or deshmukhs and districts or subhás. accountants or deshpándes and some districts had a desái besides The higher hereditary officers in cities and towns the deshmukh. were styled shets and kulkarnis.5 The offices of deshmukh and deshpande were hereditary and saleable. Except for offences against the state these officers were never set aside or deprived of their emoluments. The Maratha government had sometimes appointed them to do the work of mamlatdars but such appointments were only for a definite time and as a special case. They were properly mediums between the collectors of the government revenue and the headmen of the villages.6 One of the chief duties for which they were originally appointed was to keep a record of former payments by each village under their charge. In consequence of the farming system few of them had these documents at least in anything like a perfect form.7 Their chief duty was to sit in the Collector's office or kacheri and act as umpires between the members of the Collector's establishment and the heads of their villages. They were the representatives of the people and in Captain Robertson's opinion were very useful in moderating the demands of the Collector's establishment and in influencing the

Hereditary Officers,

¹ Mr. Elphinstone, 25th Oct. 1819, Ed. 1872, 15, East India Papers IV. 158.
² Capt. Robertson, 10th Oct. 1821, East India Papers IV. 578. He thought that the payments to the village officers were baneful and harassing to the villagers. It was difficult to estimate how heavy a burden they were. He thought them the heaviest drawback to improvement with which the people were burdened. East India Papers,

IV. 582.

8 East India Papers, IV. 582.

4 Capt. Robertson, 10th Oct. 1821, East India Papers IV. 581.

6 Capt. Robertson, 111. 794; and IV. 408.

6 East India Papers, IV. 582-583. ⁷ Mr. Chaplin, 20th Aug. 1822, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 68 of 1823, 170-171.

The mass of the people headmen to admit rightful demands. looked to them with respect. The position of deshmukh was the highest position to which a Marátha could rise. The great Marátha chiefs, Sindia Holkar and the Rája of Sátára, even Bájiráv Peshwa himself, valued the title and the local position and power of a deshmukher. Though in no way bound to military service, if a deshmukh or deshpande joined the army, his sovereign made much of him and gave him good pay and a large establishment. The people's respect for these officers showed no signs of declining. Their claims or haks, which were in addition to the Government demand on the village, were large. They were taken in kind and they sometimes allowed them to remain eight or nine years in arrears. In 1820 their claims represented about 4.83 per cent of the whole demand. Besides their claims on the villages, deshmukhs and deshpándes in return for special services were occasionally given rent-free villages which were termed izafat. Captain Robertson thought them useful so long as they were not allowed to acquire power as

Government agents.²

In addition to what they had to pay to the village craftsmen in return for their services, to the heads of the village under village expenses, and to the hereditary district officers in liquidation of their claims, the villagers had to meet the demands of Government. According to Captain Robertson's calculations the Government demands varied from thirteen per cent of the outturn in good land to seventeen per cent in middling land, In his opinion, of the whole amount of the Government demand, about nine-tenths belonged to the regular assessment and one-tenth came under the head of cesses.4 Except in some villages where each class of land had a separate rate, which was supposed to have been fixed by Malik Ambar (1600-1626), hereditary holders paid a uniform rate or dar which was adjusted by varying the size of the bigha in accordance with the quality of the land. In some villages the land was divided into parcels or munds each of which paid a fixed rent and some villages had a thika or tika that is a detailed mund settlement where each field in the larger plot had a fixed rent.⁵ In the hilly west the rent had been fixed from a glance measurement of the produce or páháni, and the Government share was commuted for a money payment according to the crop cultivated. In lands which grew upland or varkas crops the Government share was estimated at a half to one-third of the crop which was commuted into a money payment. Some parts of the Paun and Andhar Mávals had traces of a village-rent or khot system which had been in force before the introduction of the revenue farming under Bájiráv. The highest assessment on a

Chapter VIII. Land.

THE BRITISH. Hereditary Officers, 1820-21.

> Assessment. 1820-21.

¹ East India Papers, IV. 587.

² Capt. Robertson, 10th Oct. 1821, East India Papers IV. 582-583. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 85-86. At least in some parts of the country the hereditary district officers were afterwards (1835) believed to have falsified the village records. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 85-86.

³ East India Papers, IV. 578.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 576.

⁵ Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 5th Nov. 1823, East India Papers III. 805.

⁶ Bom. Rev. Letters to the Hon. Court, 23rd Feb. 1822 paras 32-35, and 5th Nov. 1823, East India Papers III. 806. Mr. Chaplin, 21st Nov. 1821 and 20th Aug. 1822 para. 85.

Thapter VIII.

Land.

THE BRITISH.

Assessment,

Cesses,

1820-21.

bighar of dry-crop land was 7s. 6d. (Rs. 33) and the lowest was 3d. (2 as.) In garden lands the rates varied from 2s. (Re. 1) to £1 10s. (Rs. 15). According to Captain Robertson's calculations the cesses or pattis represented about 1½ per cent of the produce of the district.⁸ They were levied both from hereditary and from casual holders. The most unjust or harmful were abolished and besides the house-tax and the tax on callings about twenty-four were kept.4 In Poona tho people who paid the mohtarfa⁵ or house and trade tax were classified and assessed according to a very arbitrary estimate of their wealth and trade. The highest class of bankers paid £4 (Rs. 40) and the highest class of moneychangers £3 18s. (Rs. 39); grocers paid £5 (Rs. 50), grain dealers £3 to 6s. (Rs. 30-3), and roadside moncychangers and fruit and vegetable sellers paid about a half-penny or \(\frac{1}{2} \) anna a day. Except this tax on the shopless hawkers, the rates were light. One serious objection to the tax was that many wealthy traders were free from all charge. The taxes on professions were very unequal, varying from 2s. to £3 (Rs. 1-30).6 Of the twenty-four other cesses which were continued, some were levied on the land, some on the village; and some on the individual holder.

² Capt. Robertson, 10th Oct. 1821, East India Papers IV. 584. See East India Papers, III. 807.

Capt. Robertson, 10th Oct. 1821, East India Papers IV. 576, 578.
 East India Papers, III. 805-806, 810; IV. 622-623.

Mohtarfa comprised house and shop taxes, loom taxes, taxes on traders, taxes on professions, and a house tax from a few landholders. East India Papers, III. 810.

¹ Great diversity was noticed in the land measures in use, but in the former measurements of which there was (1823) any record the bigha equalled about three-fourths of an acre. Some partial new surveys had been made by the Maráthás with a shorter rod by which the traces of the old survey had been nearly lost. In Poona the use of the bigha had been superseded by other measures, multiples of it; and in some places large pieces of land were assessed in the lump at a given sum. These measures were: 20 mans equal to a khandi; one khandi equal to 20, 30, or 35 highás; one takka equal to 48 bighás; one rukka equal to 5, 8, or 10 bighás; one pakka bigha equal to 3, 4, 8, and even 15 ordinary bighás. East India Papers, 111.805. Mr. Chaplin, 20th Aug. 1822, Ed. 1877, 22. Capt. Robertson (10th Oct, 1821) gives the following as the general standard of the land measure: Five cubits or háts and five muthis or fists of five different persons made a rod or káthi of about 9 feet; 20 square rods one pánd; 20 pánds one bigha; 5 bighás one rukka; 24 rukkás or 120 bighás one cháhur or takka; and six rukkás one khandi. East India Papers III, 805; IV. 572.573.

Bombay Rev. Letter, 5th Nov. 1823, East India Papera III. 810.

In 1821 the greater part of the following twenty-four cesses were found in most villages of the Poona plain country: A Grain Cess, galla patti, originally to supply grain for forts and for the government stud, changed to money; a Butter Cess, tup patti, changed to money; a Straw Cess, kadba patti, changed to money; two Rope Cesses; ambidi and sut pattis changed to money; a Grass Cess, gavat patti, changed to money; a Money Cess, kharch patti; a Firewood Cess, karsai patti, changed to money; a Goat Cess, Dasra bakra, its price taken; a Shoe Cess, charmi joda, their value taken; New Year's Sesamum, til sankrant, levied in cash; Skins, charsa, taken in cash; Exchange, bazar batta; Servant Cess, naukar mane, changed to money; Saddle Stuffing, lokar, taken in cash; Horse Blanket, jhul, levied in cash; Contingent Charges, saddvar patti; small Extra Cess, bachak patti; Messenger Cess, shir patti, lump sump taken; Curds Cess, dahi patti, levied in eash: Oil Cess, tel patti, value taken; Watchman Cess, haviddiri, taken in money; Clerks' Cess, karkuni, taken in cash; a Mirás Cess levied once in three years on hereditary holders. Of these twenty-four cesses ten were found in the hilly west, straw, grass, money, shoe, new year's sesamum, firewood, skins, rope, contingent charges, and mirás cess. Twenty other cesses were also collected in this part of the district. A Sidi's Cess or Habshi patti said to be to keep the Konkan Abyssinians from entering the Deccan; a Reggar's Cess gestiv patti; a Ramoshi's Cess; an Extra Cess known as abhi patti; a Mango Cess.

There was no city in the district except Poona. But there were eleven towns of respectable size and trade, Chákan, Ghera, Jejuri, Kendur, Khed, Navlákh Umbra, Pábal, Paud, Sásvad, Talegaon Dábháde, and Talegaon Dhamdhere. The houses in these towns were comfortable buildings of stone and mud, covered with tiles; some of them were two storeys high. The chief inhabitants were traders, bankers, and Bráhmans both of the Deccan and of the Konkan. In all a good deal of trade centred. The chief manufactures were coarse woollen and cotton cloths, and Poonamade gold and silk cloths which vied in richness with the silks of Paithan.¹ Poona had suffered from the change of government. The general peace all over India took from the bankers their favourite war investments, and all classes of the townspeople suffered from the stopping of the great and lavish expenditure at Bájiráv's court.²

In 1821 the year's revenue was about £135,200 (Rs. 13,51,422) or about 7s. (Rs. 3\frac{3}{8}) a head of the population. Of the whole amount about £109,000 (Rs. 10,89,254) were derived from land and sáyar or miscellaneous sources; £23,600 (Rs. 236,237) from customs; and £2600 (Rs. 25,931) from farms and town taxes. The cost of collecting the revenue was about £9370 (Rs. 93,666) or about seven per cent on the collections; magisterial and judicial charges were about £10,300 (Rs. 1,03,168); the Collector's and assistants' salaries £5100 (Rs. 51,000), and the outlay on militia was £7450 (Rs. 74,418). That is a total expenditure of £32,220 (Rs. 3,22,252) or about 20 per cent of the revenue.

Under the English system the management of the land revenue centered in the Collector. The Collector was also magistrate and judge of circuit, but his chief duties were, as head revenue officer, to travel over his district, to fix the rental to be paid by each village, as far as possible to take precautions that in each village the whole amount was fairly shared among the landholders, to detect and punish frauds against Government and oppression of the villagers, and by the grant of leases and other privileges to induce the people to bring the arable waste under tillage. At the beginning of a new year, that is in August, the village headmen and clerks prepared returns showing the state of cultivation

Land.
THE BRITIS
1820-21.

REVENUE System, 1820-21.

ambe dhali; an unknown labbe (?) patti; a Molasses Cess, gurhal patti; a Fowl Cess, kombdi patti; a Thorn Cess, kante modnaval, to make up for a mamlatdar whose feet, were pricked with thorns; a Kulkarni's Cess; a Survey Cess, pahani kharch; an Undefined Cess, patti; a Cucumber Cess, kakdi bhopla; a Leaf Shade Cess, lerdya (?) patti; a Mango Tree Cess, amba takka; a Leaf Thatch Cess, pan tattya; a Customary Cess, quinda (?) patti; a Pestle Cess, musal patti; a Leaf Dish Cess, patraval patti; and a Deficiency Cess, kasar patti. Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 (Ed. 1877), 139-141.

East India Papers IV. 622-623.

Capt. Robertson, 1st. May 1820. Fast India Papers IV. 405. Parker Busses.

¹ Capt. Robertson, 1st May 1820, East India Papers IV. 405; Bombay Revenue.

Letter 27th Nov. 1822, East India Papers III. 793-794.

Capt. Robertson, 10th Oct. 1821, East India Papers IV. 588.

^{*} East India Papers, IV. 525. Of about £128,400 (Rs. 12,83,399) the total or gross settlement or jamaband; of 1820-21 about £19,400 (Rs. 1,94,145) were deducted probably chiefly on account of remissions and claims. This left as net revenue £109,000 (Rs. 10,89,254).

Capt. Robertson, 10th Oct. 1821; East India Papers IV. 525.
 Heber's Narrative, 111, 120.

hapter VIII. Land.

> REVENUE SYSTEM, 1820-21.

in the village, the whole amount due to Government, and the share due from each landholder.1

When the Collector came to the village or to its neighbourhood. under his immediate superintendence, or, if he was not on the spot, under his orders, his establishment examined the village clerk's statement of the current year and compared it with the settlement of the year before, and, with the help of the district hereditary officers, settled the lump sum which the village was to pay. After 1819-20, when, in addition to the settlement with the head of the village, papers were passed showing what each landholder had to pay and that he was willing to pay it, the Collector's establishment were unable to complete the detailed village settlement. This duty was left to the mamlatdar.2 Besides carrying out the detailed or individual village settlement the mamlatdar superintended the collection of the revenue, managed the police, received civil complaints, and referred the complainants to juries or pancháits, and heard criminal complaints and sent the complainants to the Collector. He had a secretary or shirastedár to keep his records, an accountant, and some other assistants. The mamlatdár's powers were limited, and, at least in principle, the system of fixed pay and no perquisites was introduced. The mamlatdar's pay was fixed at £7 to £15 (Rs. 70-150) a month, and the pay of his secretary at £3 10s. to £5 (Rs. 35-50).3 In carrying out the detailed village settlement the chief duties of the mamlatdar and his staff were to detect frauds in the village returns, and see that the statements corresponded to the actual condition of the village; to discover hidden sources of revenue; to assign to each landholder his proper share of the village rental, and to ascertain that the village officers made no extra levies; to make certain that the villages paid their instalments when they fell due, and that all the revenue was regularly forwarded to and accounted for by the head-quarter office.

As mediators between the Collector's establishment and the village headmen who together fixed the amount of the village settlement, there came the district hereditary officers, who, when the amount of the village rental was being discussed, sat in the Collector's office or kacheri and acted as umpires moderating the demands of the Collector's establishment and persuading the headmen to agree to rightful demands.4 In the early years of British rule one of the chief objects of the revenue officers was to introduce a system which should prevent the village officers or the mamlatdar

When the English system was fairly introduced, the village clerk or kulkarni was bound to prepare the six following returns: (1) The jamin jhada or land register that is a record of all village holdings and fields and of their holders; (2) the lawis patrak or tallage statement showing the amount due by each holder to Government; (3) the tahul or receipt book showing daily payments by the landholders; (4) the bot-khat or list of accounts showing the receipts from each holder and what had been done with the receipts; (5) the jhadii or balance sheet which was a statement for the village receipts and payments drawn up at the close of the year; and (6) the moltarfa yad or a memorandum of dues on account of house and other taxes. Besides these the village clerk kept memoranda and registers of leases. East India Papers, IV. 587-588.

Rest India Papers, III, 794; IV. 579, 591.

Mr. Elphinstone, 1819, Ed. 1872, 30-31, East India Papers IV. 163-169.

Captain Robertson, East India Papers IV. 582-583.

from taking more than his right share of the village rental from each landholder. As has been noticed in 1818 and 1819 the settlement continued to be made with the headman for the whole village or mauzevár. But in 1819-20 a beginning of an individual or rayatvár settlement was made by the members of the Collector's establishment ascertaining that each holder knew at what amount the headman had assessed him and admitted that this amount was fair. In 1820-21 the Collector's establishment inquired how much fresh land was taken for tillage; how much land under tillage was kept hid; and whether there were any cesses which had escaped notice in the former year. After these inquiries, on the basis of the last year's settlement, in consultation with the village and hereditary officers, the Collector's staff determined what each village should pay; and the mamlatdar inquired into and fixed the share of the whole village demand which should be recovered from each holder.1 This system was faulty as there was no check on the mamlatdar and no test to prevent collusion between him and the headman in unfairly distributing the individual payments. Accordingly in the next year (1821-22) a system was completed under which each holder received a deed or patta of what he was asked to pay and passed an agreement or kabuláyat to pay the amount fixed. The issue of these individual agreements greatly reduced the power and the emoluments of the village officers who much against their will were relieved of many of their duties. Under this new system the settlement was introduced into a village in one of two ways. Either the whole sum due by the village might be ascertained and his share allotted to each landholder; or the shares due to the different holders might be determined and the village rental befound by adding all the shares together. Unless, which was seldom the case, authentic details of the quality and quantity of land in each man's holding were available, it was extremely difficult to fix each man's share. The whole amount paid by the village through a series of years was generally known, and, as a rule, it was best to fix the whole amount in the first instance and from this to allot his share to each holder. The sum fixed as the village rental included all cesses, claims, and village expenses. After fixing the whole amount due from the village, the Collector's staff were expected to allot the shares to the different holders. But this part of the work they were seldom able to complete. It was entrusted to the mamlatdár and his staff under strict injunctions not to leave it to be done by the district or village officers. In making the individual settlement the mamlatdar was chiefly guided by the village land statement or jamin jháda. This professed to show the state of cultivation of each plot of land in the village. But the statement was generally full of mistakes and frauds; it could not be trusted until it had been checked by the shekhdárs or mámlatdár's clerks who made separate returns, by special or personal inquiries on the part

Chapter VIII. Land.

> REVENUE Systèm, 1820-21.

East India Papers, IV, 591.
 Bombay Revenue Letter 27th Nov, 1822, East India Papers III, 794. ⁸ East India Papers, IV. 582.

Chapter VIII. Land.

> REVENUE System, 1820-21.

of the mamlatdar, by direct examination of the villagers, and by taking advantage of rivalry and jealousy among the families of the headman or village clerk. After the main land assessment was fixed a minute inquiry was necessary into the cesses or pattis. In all these inquiries the Collectors were enjoined to use and to enforce the utmost caution in keeping the assessment moderate. They were warned that in assessing villages it was better to be below than to be above the proper scale, and that the excessive demand of one year could seldom be retrieved by three years of moderation and indulgence. Great care was required in preparing the landholder's paper or patta which was drawn up in a very detailed and elaborate The people were told when the instalments would fall due and care was taken not to levy any part of the rental until after the crop from which the instalment was to be paid was reaped. No security was required except the general security of making the villagers responsible for each other which was known as chain or mutual security, janjir jámin, and which was liable to be enforced by a second settlement. The passing of receipts for all collections, especially for the collection of the villagers' instalments by the village officers was insisted on, and an entry showing the coins received and the date of payment was required. The coins paid were sent to the treasury with lists made by the mamlatdars in sealed bags attested by the shirastedars. Each person through whose hands the money passed gave a receipt, the last being the Collector's receipt to the mamlatdar. Copies of the Collector's receipts were kept at head-quarters.5 In the first years of British management the revenue was collected without difficulty. Distraint was almost unknown. It was not allowed when the person who had failed to pay was known to be poor.6 In October 1821 only £646 (Rs.6460) were outstanding of which £61 (Rs.610) belonged to 1818-19 and £585 (Rs.5850) to 1819-20.7 Under the Marátha government advances had been made to husbandmen at 12 per cent a year. Under the British in the first years the amount of advances was increased and no interest was charged.8

¹ The following were among the frauds which were commonly practised by village headmen and clerks. The names of people paying the house-tax were left out; quitrents leviable from alienated lands were not shown; in other lands something less than

the full rental was shown; lands under tillage were entered as waste or as fallow; and garden lands were entered as dry lands. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 16 of 1821, 705-729; Appendix to Mr. Chaplin's Report, 20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 129.

Mr. Chaplin, Appendix to Report of 20th August 1822, gives an example of the deed or patta passed to the landholder. Ramji Maratha of Loni in Haveli in Poona for the Fusii year 1230 (A.D. 1820-21), you have to pay fifty-six rupees; Of this for three fields of dry land of 25 bights, Rs. 247; for three bights of garden land, Rs. 247; a straw cess Rs. 14; a buffalo cess Rs. 2; and a house cess Rs. 4; total Rs. 56. This you must now at the regular instalments and you must not give the ratio or kulkarni any must pay at the regular instalments and you must not give the pdtil or kulkarni any more than this. You have agreed to be security for the payments of the other villagers more than this. You have agreed to be security for the payments of the other villagers and any arrears might be recovered by a second assessment, 10th December 1820. In some villages the clause regarding the second assessment was left out.

Some villages the clause regarding the second assessment was left out.

Appendix to Mr. Chaplin's Report of 20th August 1822, Ed. 1877, 134; Captain Robertson, 1821, East India Papers, IV, 587.

Captain Robertson, 10th October 1821, East India Papers IV, 581.

Captain Robertson, 10th October 1821, East India Papers IV, 526.

East India Papers. IV, 526.

Fast India Papers, IV. 526. * Captain Robertson, 10th October 1821, East India Papers IV, 584.

The season of 1820-21 was favourable. Cultivation spread and there were no complaints of over-assessment. The only difficulty which occurred was that the headmen of a group of villages in Pabal, finding the individual settlement reduce their power of private taxation, incited the people to refuse to take their deeds or pattas. Before the close of the year the distress which the general establishment of peace caused to the military section of the people of Poona, became more marked, and large numbers who had remained idle in the hope of some more suitable employment, were at last forced to take to husbandry.1 From this cause the increase of tilllage in 1821-22 was greater than in the previous years. The crops were again good and the average rupee price of grain fell from about 32 to 56 pounds (4-7 páylis). The settlement was again made with the individual holders. The fall in the price of grain caused discontent among several sections of the husbandmen. The chief difficulty was in the case of certain villages which had formerly paid a kharedi galla a commutation of the money cess into grain for the supply of Marátha posts and forts. In 1820-21 it had been settled that they should pay in cash on the basis of about 32 pounds (4 páylis) the rupee. As the price had in some places gone down to one-half of this or about 64 pounds (8 páylis), the alternative was given them of paying in kind but as they objected to grain payments the former rates were continued. So serious a difficulty did the people find in disposing of their grain that the Collector found it necessary to postpone the date for paying the instalment.3 £1404 (Rs. 14,040) were remitted.4 The land rent including cesses and miscellaneous revenue amounted to £160,100 (Rs. 16,01,000) against £153,635 (Rs. 15,36,350) in the preceding year. After deducting claims or haks and village expenses, the net revenue for collection amounted to £139,058 (Rs. 13,90,580) against £134,447 (Rs. 13,44,470); the collections amounted to £133,515 (Rs. 13,35,150) against £132,520 (Rs. 13,25,200); and the outstandings were £5543 (Rs. 55,430) against £1926 (Rs. 19,260).5

In spite of the cheapness of grain up to September 1822, except in Indapur where a number of the people had returned to their old homes in the Nizám's country, there seemed to be no signs of overassessment. The value of land was rising and disputes connected with landed property and shares of estates, that had lain asleep for years, had become common and keen. In the two previous years the tillage area had increased by about 80,000 bighás yielding a yearly revenue of about £8000 (Rs. 80,000).6 In spite of the partial failure of some of the crops the harvest of 1822-23 was again abundant. Grain fell to about 110 pounds (13-14 páylis)

Chapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. 1830-21.

1821-22.

1822-23

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec, 117 of 1825, 514-515.

² The rupee prices were, 1819-20, 2² and 3 páylis; 1820-21, 4 páylis; and 1891 22, 6 and 8 páylie, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 517-518.

² Captain Robertson, 20th September 1822, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 12 of 1823, 128; and MS. Selections, 157 (1821-1829); let February 1826, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1826 115 510 1825, 515-519,

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 72 of 1823, 124, 128, 129.

Mr. Chaplin, 29th September 1823, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 72 of 1823, 36.
 Captain Robertson, 20th September 1822, Rev. Rec. 72 of 1823, 224-226.

Chapter VIII THE BRITISH. 1822-23.

the rupee in the remote parts of the district and to about 80 pounds (10 paylis) near Poons. There was no mention and no record of such low prices. The fall caused much distress; even those who had reaped good harvests could hardly find a market for their grain. Headed by the pátils of Pábal, many of whose indirect gains had been stopped by the individual settlement, the people came in crowds and mobbed the Governor in Poona. The cry of over-assessment was raised by some of the English officials, but Captain Robertson contended strongly that the only causes of distress were the fall of grain prices and the want of employment and expenditure at Poona. The commutation rate of kharedi galla or grain that used to be taken in kind was lowered from about 32 to 64 pounds (4-8 páylis). In 1822-23 the realization showed a decline amounting altogether to about one-seventh of the whole revenue. One-fourth of the entire loss was in Indapur from which numbers had moved to the Nizam's country.2

1823-24.

The next year (1823-24) was a season of scanty rain and of distress. The early harvest in about half of the district was fair, in the other half of the district the crops were either chiefly or entirely failures. The late or cold weather harvest was a complete failure. garden and watered crops were blighted by the east wind. cattle suffered so severely from want of fodder and want of water that the Collector sent a number of the people to the Nizam's country to stay there till June 1824. Large numbers of the landholders also of their own accord left Poona to take up lands in the Nizám's country and in Ahmadnagar.8 What added to the difficulties of the people was that in spite of the failure of crops grain continued extremely cheap.4 The Collector and the Commissioner agreed in recommending the greatest moderation in levying the revenue, and their views met with the full approval of Government. Remissions were granted varying from 25 to 75 per cent and in some cases the whole demand was foregone. The distress continued in 1824. The usual May showers failed and there was very little rain either in June or in July. Grain which throughout the cold season had kept wonderfully cheap, now rose from about 80 to 32 pounds (10-4 páylis) and then to about 20 pounds (2½ páylis). In 1823-24 the total revenue for collection amounted to £91,556 (Rs. 9,15,560) against £120,827 (Rs. 12,08,270) in 1822-23; the collections amounted to £73,091 (Rs. 7,30,910) against £103,788 (Rs. 10,37,880), and the outstandings amounted to £18,465 (Rs. 1,84,650) against

6 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 528-530.

¹ Bom, Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 522. In 1820-21, the price was 4 páylis and in 1821-22 it was 6-8 páylis.

² Captain Robertson, 1st Feby. 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 522-528.

² Captain Robertson, 1st Feby, 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 522-528.

³ Captain Robertson, Collector, 25th November 1823, Bort. Gov. Rev. Rec. 74 of 1823, 13-16; 1st February 1824, Rev. Rec. 95 of 1824, 3; 1st February 1825, Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 529.

⁴ Mr. Pringle, 29th January 1824, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 95 of 1824, 6-15. Mr. Chaplin, 10th October 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 404.

⁵ Mr. Chaplin, 29th Nevember 1823, and Gov. Letter 1856 of 11th Dec. 1823, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 74 of 1823, 11-12, 17. Captain Robertson, 1st and 4th February 1824; Mr. Chaplin, 5th February 1824; and Gov. Letter 319 of 23rd February 1824. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 95 of 1824, 1-41.

⁶ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 528-530.

Chapter VIII.

Land

THE BRITISH.

1824-25.

£17,039 (Rs. 1,70,390) in 1822-23. In 1823-24 the very large sum

of £40,747 (Rs. 4,07,470) was remitted.1

At the close of the hot weather of 1824 large sums were granted in advances. The people met the efforts of Government to lighten their distress by showing the greatest industry and emulation in preparing and sowing their fields in June 1824. But again the rain failed except in the west where the harvest was good. In the centre and east the early harvest came to nothing, the late crops which were green and promising till November dried from want of rain and dew and yielded almost no return.² Before February of 1825 the people had deserted the country. Their cattle were almost all dead and in many villages the great drought had left no drinking water. Still the spirit of the people was not broken. The rainfall had been so slight that even the weeds had died and the fields were ploughed and clean ready to be sown when the rains of 1825 came. The people were reduced to the greatest distress. Most of their cattle were dead. Grain had risen to high rates,4 and in sowing the early and late crops of 1824, both of which had failed, they had incurred heavy expenses.5 Except from the west in 1824-25 little or no revenue was realised.6

During these years of failure of crops and distress a somewhat hot correspondence passed between the Collector and the Commissioner as to whether the distress was to any considerable extent due to over-assessment. At first Captain Robertson stoutly protested against the view that any of the depression was the result of over-assessment. But as troubles increased in February 1825 he admitted that the demands might have been greater than the people could well meet. He fully agreed with the Commissioner that to help the people to rise from the low state into which they had fallen, would require most generous and tender treatment. At the same time he thought that besides the failure of rain one chief cause of distress was what has already been noticed, the change in Poona; the stopping of the old flow of expenditure and the closing of the large numbers of openings connected with the court and with the army and the decline in the old demand for the produce of the city craftsmen.

Towards the end of June 1825 Bishop Heber travelled from the Konkan by the Bor pass to Poona. He noticed an excellent bridge of thirteen arches which had just been finished over swampy ground near Karlı, simple but extremely solid and judicious.8 In the west the cottages were small and mean with steep thatched roofs and very low side-walls of loosestones and there was a general appearance of poverty in the dress and the field tools. Still the cattle were larger and better bred than those of Bengal and these in betterease

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 416, 473.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 123 of 1825, 337-339; Rec. 117 of 1825, 405, 537-538.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 537-538.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 537-538.

The price of the necessaries of life had nearly doubled. Mr. Pringle, 8th March 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 123 of 1825, 366-367.

Rom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 123 of 1825, 366-367.
 Bom. Gov. Rec. 117 of 1825, 473-476, 538; Rec. 123 of 1825, 337-339.
 Capt. Robertson, Feb. 1825, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 473-476, 531-534. ⁸ Heber's Narrative, III, 114.

Chapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. 1825.

than hight have been expected after the long drought which in the eastern districts had amounted to famine with its dreadful attendant evils of pestilence and the weakening of moral ties. Making due allowance for the drought and scarcity of several years Poona in 1825 seemed to thrive under its present system of government. The burdens of the peasants were decidedly less in amount and were collected in a less oppressive manner than under the old monarchy. The English name was popular with all but those who were inevitably losers by their coming, the courtiers of the Peshwa, such traders as lived by the splendour of his court, and, though this does not appear. the Brahmans. The body of the people were very peaceable and simple, of frugal habits and gentle disposition. Perhaps in no part of India was crime so rare. The share of the produce taken by Government was said to be high, at least one-fifth. Government wished to introduce a permanent settlement but said that until they had a fuller knowledge of the country they should run the risk of doing greater injustice and occasionally greater evils by the change than any they could apprehend from the present system.8

In November 1825 bájri was selling at about 26 pounds (13 shers) and jvári at about 32 pounds (16 shers) the rupee. Compared with the famine year of 1824-25 the realizable land revenue for 1825-26 showed an increase from £29,203 (Rs. 2,92,030) to £70,132 (Rs. 7,01,320), and the total realizable revenue including miscellaneous customs and other items, from £56,623 (Rs. 5,66,230) to £101,911 (Rs. 10,19,110), Of £70,132 (Rs. 7,01,320) the land revenue for 1825-26, £60,860 (Rs. 6.08,600) were collected and £9272 (Rs. 92,720) left outstanding. Of the total revenue for collection £90,065 (Rs. 9,00,650) were collected and £11846 (Rs. 1,18,460) left outstanding. August 1827 Government authorized the Collector to grant remissions in his district for 1825-26 to the amount of £5987 (Rs. 59,870) and to write off £14,762 (Rs. 1,47,620) as an irrecoverable balance in 1823-24 and £7414 (Rs. 74,140) as an irrecoverable balance in 1824-25.6

In November 1826 the Collector wrote, 'For two more years the people will continue to be crippled by their losses in 1823-24 and 1824-25. Government must submit to grant them liberal consideration for some time to come. The scarcity of cattle is still considerable, and those who require cattle have not money enough to buy them at the present high rates. Time and indulgence can alone remedy these misfortunes.'7

The rains of 1826 were moderate and partial. In some places the fall was favourable, and the outturn large; in other places one sowing and in a few instances two sowings failed. The early harvest was fair, but the late crops which promised well were greatly injured by

Heber's Narrative, III. 110, 121.
 Heber's Narrative, III. 122-123.
 The Collector, 17th Nov. 1826, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 175 of 1827, 8-9.
 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 175 of 1827, 2-3.
 Contract 1827, 2-3. 2 Heber's Narrative, III. 121-122.

⁶ Gov. Letter 1556 of 27th August 1827, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 175 of 1827, 75. 7 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 175 of 1827, 8.9.

Still the season was on the whole above the average. a blight.1 Bájri fell to about 52 pounds (26 shers) and jvári to about 64 pounds (32 shers) the rupee, and the state of the people was greatly improved. They had replaced the bulk of their cattle and in the rains of 1827 were able to undertake their field labours briskly and with confidence. Aware of the efforts the people were making to stock their farms, the Collector granted liberal remissions wherever there had been a failure of crops. Compared with 1825-26 the land revenue for collection for 1826-27 showed a decrease from £115,472 (Rs. 11,54,720) to £111,019 (Rs. 11,10,190), and the total revenue for collection including miscellaneous customs and other items a decrease from £156,697 to £153,039 (Rs. 15,66,970 - Rs. 15,30,390).4

The season of 1827 began favourably. Writing in August the Collector says, 'Another season such as this promises to be will restore the people to the state of comparative well being which they enjoyed before the bad years of 1823 and 1824.' Later on the prospects of the year became overcast. The season on the whole was bad. In many sub-divisions there was little rain and in many others promising crops were ruined by excessive moisture. Compared with 1826-27 the land revenue settlement for 1827-28 showed a decrease from £131,185 (Rs. 13,11,850) to £125,562 (Rs. 12,55,620), and remissions showed an increase from £20,166 (Rs. 2,01,660) to £37,971 (Rs. 3,79,710).6 The failure of crops and distress were specially great in Indapur. Many of the people in despair had left their homes. In spite of the liberal terms offered by Government there seemed no improvement. Everywhere in Indápur were signs of desolation. In other parts of the district as well as in Indapur the bulk of the husbandmen were completely in the hands of the moneylenders or savkars, who, and not the people, reaped any profit which accompanied high grain prices in bad seasons.7

The year 1828-29 was a season of partial failure chiefly in Bhimthadi and Purandhar.8

Of the system of settling the revenue which was in use in 1828 the Collector Mr. Blair has recorded the following detailed account.9 Early in the season (October and before November 15th) the mámlatdárs start on tour round their sub-divisions to ascertain what land in each village is under tillage. When the mamlatdar reaches a village, he summons the landholders, and, in the presence of the village officers, inquires and records the area which each holder has taken for the early tillage or agrees to take for the late harvest. If in consequence of disputes the tillage of any village

Chapter VIII. Land

THE BRITISE. 1826-27.

1827-28.

1828-29.

Revenue Systèm 1828-29.

⁵ The Collector, 10th August 1827, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 174 of 1827, 403-405. ⁶ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 212 of 1828, 222-224.

The Collector, 10th August 1827, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 174 of 1827, 403-405.
 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 175 of 1827, 8-9.
 The Collector, 10th August 1827, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 174 of 1827, 403-405. These figures include the four sub-divisions of Sholapur, Mohol, Indi, and Muddebihal, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 174 of 1827, 403, 409-411.

Mr. Richard Mills, Collector, 23rd September 1828, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 212 of 228, 225-228.
 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 102, 103, 109, 113. 1828, 225-228. 9 Mr. Blair, Collector, 643 of 9th December 1828.

B 1327-48

Chapter VIII. Land.

THE BRITISH.

Revenue System,

1828-29.

is declining, the mamlatdar settles the disputes, and. if the cause of the decline is the poverty of the people, he gives advances. In November when the early harvest is ripening the mamlatdar makes a second tour round his charge to see the condition of the crops and ascertain whether the actual area under tillage is more or less than the holders engaged to take. The Collector generally receives the mamlatdars' reports in December when the early crops are being reaped and the late crops are well When all the manlatdars' reports have been received. and his establishment or huzur kacheri start the Collector through the district. On reaching a sub-division the Collector calls the landholders to appear before him at two or three convenient places according to the size of the sub-division. The first business is to ascertain how far the cultivation and the state of the crops correspond with the mamlatdar's accounts. This is ascertained by comparing the accounts of the mamlatdar's clerk or shekhdar with the reports of the village officers and villagers and every here and there by an actual examination of crops. If the cultivation is the same as in the last year and no failure has occurred among the landholders, rents remain unchanged. In case of an increase or a decrease the amount is either added to or taken from the former total. When the area of land under tillage and the whole rent due by the village have been ascertained, a mauzevár patta or village deed is given to each headman and registered by the village clerk, showing the full amount of rent to be paid by the village. When in this way every village in a sub-division has been settled, the kulvár or personal settlement with the individual landholder is begun. This individual settlement is carried out by the Collector and his establishment with the help of the mamlatdar who calls together the landholders of four or five of the nearest villages, ascertains the area of land held by each man and its rent and gives each landholder a deed or patta signed by the Collector. In this deed every field which each man holds and its rent for the year is entered. In many villages the greater part of the people hold the same fields for several years; as a rule in not more than one-fifth of the cases is a change required. When the Collector has finished the first four or five villages, he moves a few miles, summons the landholders, and settles their rents; and goes on moving from place to place till he has finished the sub-division. The practice of first fixing the whole sum due by each village greatly reduced the labours of making the individual settlement. village officers knowing that a certain sum was to be levied from their village, except perhaps in the case of a few of their own relations, gave every assistance to make a fair distribution among the landholders, and, for the same reason, the people agreed without much difficulty to their shares. As the discovery of every case in which land was fraudulently held rent-free, reduced the share of all other holders, a regard for their own interests encouraged the people to give information of many frauds. It was also of advantage to fix the individual assessment as late in the year as possible as the actual outturn of each man's crops could then be known. Mr. Blair ends his account with the remark that the system undoubtedly acted as

a tax on industry as each man had to pay according to the character The only remedy seemed to be to introduce a survey under which each man would pay according to the quantity and quality of his land and not according to the outturn of his crop. In the individual settlement much was left to the agency of native servants. This agency could not be dispensed with. When properly controlled, no serious evil resulted from its employment, and the minute process that was gone through every year made the most trifling abuse liable to detection.1

About 1825 Mr. Pringle the assistant collector of Poona was appointed to survey the district and revise the assessment.2 Pringle finished the survey and assessment of Shivner or Junnar. Pábal, and Indápur, and reported the result to Government in September 1828. In the principle he adopted for framing his assessment, in one material respect Mr. Pringle departed from the principle followed by Sir Thomas Munro in the ceded districts of Madras, and, so far as Mr. Pringle was aware, from most other settlements hitherto undertaken either under Native or European Governments. From time immemorial the foundation of the land tax in India had been a share of the gross produce of the soil. The proportion varied at different times and under different rulers, but the principle was always the same.4 In Mr. Pringle's opinion the proportion of the gross produce which could be exacted without absorbing the whole of the rent, varied with the numbers, wealth. and skill of the people. Mr. Pringle thought that it was not unlikely that at the time when Sir Thomas Munro wrote, two-thirds of the produce may have been a sufficiently large share to leave to the landholders of the ceded districts as rent. At the same time Mr. Pringle thought that it could hardly have escaped Sir Thomas Munro's attention that while an assessment of one-third of the gross produce might leave a sufficiency to the holder of land whose net produce equalled half of its gross produce, it must exclude from cultivation soil whose net produce is only a fifth of its gross produce. In Mr. Pringle's opinion the surplus which remained from the gross produce after deducting all tillage expenses. was the only fair measure of the power of land to pay an assessment. At the same time, as the relation of the surplus to the whole produce varies in different soils, any tax proportioned to the gross

Chapter VII Land.

THE BRITISH

Mr. PRINGLE SURVEY SETTLEMENT, 1829 - 1831.

3 Mr. Pringle's Report (Lithographed) dated 6th September 1828, about Junnar Pábal and Indápur.

Mr. Blair, Collector, 643 of 9th December 1828.
 In 1826-27 the revenue survey was in progress in the Poona district. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 174 of 1827, 408.

Tabal and Indapur.

The principle of a share in the gross produce is found in the institutes of Manu and in the precepts of the Hedaya, and in the theory if not in the practice of every government which has attempted to methodize the assessment by fixed rules. It was the principle professed by Akbar's minister Todar Mal in Hindustán (1560-1600) and by Malik Ambar (1600-1626) and it was that also adopted in the ceded districts of Madras where it was the delared opinion of Sir Thomas Munro, an opinion in which has been followed by almost all succeeding revenue authorities, that the exercise. he has been followed by almost all succeeding revenue authorities, that the exaction of one-third of the gross produce by government would be sufficiently moderate to enable every landholder to derive a rent from the land he cultivated. Mr. Pringle, 6th September 1828 para 5.

hapter VIII.

Mr. Pringle's Survey Settlement, 1829 - 1831, product must be unequal to the extent of the variation between the net produce and the whole produce, and this inequality by creating an artificial monopoly in favour of the best soils, would tend to check production and to take more from the whole body of the people than it brought into the treasury. He thought that by proportioning the assessment to the net produce, and keeping that proportion moderate, the productive powers of the country would be preserved intact and land would become valuable.1 these considerations Mr. Pringle held that in every case his assessment should rest on the net produce of the land, and that, whatever might be the difficulties, all his inquiries should be directed to find out the amount of the net produce. He accordingly made it his first object to class all soils as nearly as possible according to their net produce, that is the portion of the money value of the average gross produce which remains after deducting the whole cost of tillage and other accompanying charges. determine the amount of the net produce Mr. Pringle appointed assessors and took the evidence of intelligent landholders. The lands were first arranged according to their quality in classes, varying in number with the varieties of soil in each village, but seldom exceeding nine in dry land and three or four in garden and rice land. When more than one variety of soil occurred in the same field, the field was classed according to its average quality. The lands were classed under the advice and with the help of the landholders themselves whose local knowledge made them the best judges of the relative powers of the different fields in their own village. At the same time the assessor availed himself of the opposite interests of the holders, and the experience derived from other villages, to prevent unfairness or partiality. When the classing was completed, the assessor proceeded to observe and record the distinguishing characteristic of each class. Next, from the evidence of the most experienced and intelligent landholders, he ascertained what crops were usually grown in each field, the most approved rotation of crops, the average amount of produce in ordinary years, and the several items of expense incurred according to the system of cultivation usually adopted by landholders in middling circumstances. In tracing each item of expense no point, however small, was omitted which might appear likely to contribute to the accuracy of the result. When circumstances admitted it, the evidence in regard to the amount of produce was verified by cutting crops in different soils and comparing their outturn with the alleged produce of land in similar villages. In all estimates either of produce or of cost where grain was turned into money, the change was made at the average price of grain during a series of twenty years taken from the books of the village Váni. If accounts for twenty years were not available, the average for the whole period was fixed on the proportion which the prices in the years for which they were procurable, bore to the prices during the same years in the nearest market village. In the few villages where there was no Vani the prices were taken from the nearest village where there was a Váni, and if the distance was considerable, an allowance was made for the cost of transport and duty. In fixing the average prices care was taken to avoid relative inaccuracies in the prices of different villages by making all the extracts for the same years and months and by examining and comparing the local weights and measures. In computing the cost of cultivation the number of bullocks required to till each kind of soil was ascertained by an estimate of their daily work, and the yearly acre charge was calculated with reference to their food, their ordinary price in the neighbouring markets, the interest on their original cost, the number of years for which they usually lasted, and the cost of insurance against casualties. acre cost of manual labour was in like manner fixed with reference to the number of hands required to cultivate a given quantity of land, and their wages in money and necessaries at the current rate of hire in the village. The same minuteness was observed in calculating the cost of seed, of manure, of field tools, of craftsmen's and other village fees, of the usual sacrifices and offerings, in short of every item of labour or stock which could form a charge on the produce before it was brought to market. Interest at the current rate exacted on fair security was calculated on all advances which did not yield an immediate return and in all cases of risk a fair allowance was made for insurance. All these items, together with the reasons and authorities on which the estimate rested were ascertained and recorded by the assessor in the fullest detail in each class of soil in every village. The difference between the money value of the gross produce and the cost of cultivation in each class formed a standard by which its power of paying assessment was brought into comparison with the rent-paying power of any other part of the country. When the measure of relative assessment was determined, the next process was to fix the actual assessment. This actual assessment was fixed on the basis of past collections. The assessor secured the revenue accounts of the village for as many years as possible and ascertained the area of assessable land in bighás or other local measure, which was cultivated in each year, and the amount of money collected on it. As the local measures varied in area in almost every field, the next step was to turn them into acres. The local measures were easily turned to acres where the accounts had been kept in detail, as the names of the fields actually in cultivation in each year were given and their size could be known from the present survey. Where as was much oftener the case the old accounts did not give the names of the fields, only an approximate estimate of the area could be made. To make this approximate estimate of area it was assumed that in cultivation preference was generally given to the better classes of land, and the average number of bighás to each acre in each class having been ascertained from the survey, the number of bighas cultivated in any particular year was converted into acres at that proportion, beginning with the highest class, and descending through the other classes until the whole recorded cultivation was accounted for. In applying the recorded amount of assessment

Chapter VIII

Mr. Pringle's
Survey
Settlement,
1829-1831.

pter VIII. Land

Mr. Pringle's Survey Settlement, 1829 - 1831.

to the carea of cultivated land, all cesses and payments of every description, excepting fees to village craftsmen which were already deducted in the charges, were included in the rental or jama. allowance was made for remissions on account of individual poverty nor were detached cases of leasehold or kauli land and its assessment taken into account, because these had reference to temporary and partial considerations which ought not to influence the general conclusions. When the number of acres cultivated in each year and the amount of assessment were ascertained before any final inference could be deduced, the quality of the land under tillage had to be ascertained. In former assessments the necessity of ascertaining the quality of the land had been overlooked. Formerly the average of past collections from cultivated land had without limitation been taken as a guide for the future, though it was obvious that the rate levied from the cultivated portion which was generally the best in the village, if applied indiscriminately to the whole land, must often be more than it was capable of paying. In order to avoid this mistake the cultivated land in each year was arranged in the classes fixed by the survey either where that was possible by ascertaining the fields actually cultivated or, if the actual fields could not be ascertained, by assuming that a preference had been given to each class of land in proportion to its inherent value. When the whole land was so arranged, it was reduced to the standard of the first class by allowing a deduction in the nominal number of acres in each class in proportion to the amount by which its qualities fell short of the qualities of the best class. Thus where there were twenty acres of the second class cultivated and the proportion of the net acre produce in the class was about half of the first class, the twenty acres were rated in the estimate as ten acres. Tho number of acres cultivated in each year being thus estimated in land of the best quality, their sum, divided by the recorded amount of collections, gave the acre rate in such land for that year, and the average rate for the whole series of years was the rate of assessment on the best land of the village as fixed from past collections. When this rate was adjusted to each of the inferior classes of laud in the proportion of its net produce, it accurately showed the rates for those classes with reference to the same data. When the assessor had gone through all of these calculations and the result fully recorded along with the authorities on which the result was based, his share in fixing the rates was completed. It only remained for him to arrange and prepare the general registers of tenures and land divisions which were required for the full development of the system in detail. The effect of the assessor's operations was, in proportion to their net produce, to distribute over the whole lands of each village the average amount of its former payments. The work then passed to the head assessor whose business was to examine and check the operations of the assessor and to compare and combine them with those of other assessors in other villages. With this view the classification was inspected and the complaints of the landholders, if there were any complaints, were heard and investigated. A close scrutiny was

instituted into the detailed estimates of gross produce and cost of tillage, and also into the rates of assessment drawn from past collections with all the reasons, records, evidences, and authorities. on which each estimate was based. This inquiry was carried on with particular care in cases where the proportion of the rate of past collections to the net produce compared with the proportion in other villages and with the actual condition of the village itself gave reasons to suspect inaccuracies. When the proportions did not agree, the apparent error had to be traced to its source and the inconsistency either explained or rectified. When the work of the assessor had been examined and found satisfactory, it was confirmed by the head assessor. As soon as the accounts of all the villages in one or more groups were completed, the head assessors proceeded to combine and generalize the results with the object of equalizing the rates of assessment in different villages, which, as they had hitherto been calculated independently in each village from its past payments and these were liable to be affected by a variety of accidents, were frequently very unequal. In the operation of equalizing the rates the head assessor performed for the villages of a group what the assessor had performed for the fields of each village. He distributed among them in the proportion of their net produce the total average amount ascertained to have been realized from the whole. This was effected by calculating the amount of net produce and assessment of all the land in the group at the rates fixed for each village by the assessors. The amount of net produce divided by the assessment gave the average proportion of the assessment to the net produce in the whole group. This being applied to each class of land in every village, determined the accurate rate of assessment for that class, with reference to the rest of the land in the same group and to the past payments of the whole. All proceedings of the assessors and head assessors were revised in Mr. Pringle's office with as much care and attention as the minuteness of detail and the variety of matter allowed. The mode in which the general principles had been followed was inquired into. The information collected and the facts observed and recorded under similar circumstances were compared. The value of the evidence, the authenticity of the accounts and the reasons for the several operations were weighed and considered. The complaints of the holders were heard and investigated, and, where necessary, the fields were inspected. If in the course of these inquiries any important error was detected, it was corrected. When the accounts had undergone this final revision, Mr. Pringle compared the proportion of the rate of assessment to the net produce with that in other groups. He invited the opinions of the hereditary district officers and of others who were either acquainted with the past and present revenue administration or whose opinion was worthy of respect from their general information and intelligence. Mr. Pringle procured such information as he could in regard to the former history and present resources of the group or pargana, and, on a consideration of these points and of the general changes in the country, he determined to confirm the settlement of the head assessors or to raise or to lower it as circumstances successed

Chapter VIII

Mr Pringle's Survey Settlement, 1829-1831. hapter VIII. Land.

Mr. Pringle's Survey Settlement, 1829-1831.

> Shivner, 1828.

the assessors rates were either raised or lowered, the change was made by the increase or deduction of a uniform proportion of all the rates.

The available sub-divisional details of this survey and assessment are given below. The settlement was introduced in Shivner now Junnar, Pábal, Indápur, Bhimthadi, Purandhar, and Khed in 1829-30, and in Haveli and Mával in 1830-31. It caused a reduction of 11½ per cent in Junnar and Pábal, and 25½ per cent in Khed; and an increase of 76½ per cent in Indápur, 13½ per cent in Bhimthadi, and 27½ per cent in Purandhar. No information is available regarding the effect of Mr. Pringle's survey in Haveli and in Mával.

The Shivner or Junnar sub-division was the most northern in the It stretched from the Sahyadris about forty miles east with an average breadth of about fifteen miles. The west was hilly and rugged, crossed by valleys running between the east-stretching hills. Towards the east and south the country became more level, and, in the Ala and Bela groups, opened into broad plains. Along the north a range of hills ran inland, and beyond the hills the limits of the sub-division spread over a rough and bushy country, till it joined the Ahmadnagar Collectorate in the valley of the Mula. Junnar contained 178 Government and thirteen alienated villages. Exclusive of hills and rivers the measured area of the Government The soil was in general good and villages was 336,408 acres. well tilled. In the valleys near the Sahyadris, where the supply of rain was abundant, rice, náchni, khurásni, sáva, and other hill grains were grown, and in the eastern plains good millet and hulga crops were raised in the lighter soils mixed with pulse as rotation crops in the best land. The most valuable produce was wheat and gram of which very fine fields were grown especially near Umraz and Otur where the soil was perhaps about the best in the Deccan. The land was usually worked with a four or a six bullock plough, which in the best soil was used only once in two or three years, the harrow being employed in the intermediate seasons. The inferior soils were ploughed every year. Manure was applied liberally to the best but not to the poor lands. 1473 acres of garden crops were watered from wells. In general the profit from garden tillage was not high and from want of capital some of the gardens had Near the town of Junnar were some valuable fallen to ruin. plantain and vegetable gardens whose produce found a ready sale in the Junnar market. These Junnar gardens had hitherto paid an acre rent of £4 (Rs. 40), the highest rent Mr. Pringle knew of in the Deccan. But they had been rather over-assessed. No land was watered from ponds in Junnar and none of any consequence from rivers except in Náráyangaon where a fine lately repaired dam watered 415 acres of the best garden land. In the western valleys the rice depended on the rainfall which was generally certain and plentiful. The acre outturn was large compared with the produce of the dry lands but the cost of tillage was heavy as the work was chiefly done by hired labour. In the open villages near the west in ordinary seasons the supply of rain was sufficient, but in the eastern plain the supply was precarious and the villages were less flourishing. There were no large towns. Junnar, Náráyangaon, and Otur were the places of most note, but none of them had over 8000 The local demand for produce was trifling, the greater part of the harvest went to Poona or occasionally to Bombay. The village records showed in Government villages 6457 landholders. but the actual number of holders was greater as fields were sometimes held jointly. Of the whole number entered in the accounts, 4846 were hereditary holders or mirásdárs and 1611 were casual holders or upris. In no part of the Deccan were the rights attending the hereditary tenure or mirás more distinctly recognized. Almost every village had deeds of sale and mortgage, generally of old date, and when the land was valuable it was occasionally the subject of contest. In the open east the husbandmen were chiefly Marátha Kunbis, and in the west Kolis. The Kunbis were the more intelligent, but their hardy simple habits fitted the Kolis for the work of tilling the hilly and rainy west. In the richer villages land was sometimes held on mortgage by Brahmans and traders who tilled them either by hired labour or by arranging to have a Kunbi as managing partner. Of late years such speculations had become less frequent, it was said, because profits had decreased.

The Pábal subdivision lay close to the south of Junnar. Its lands did not pass so far west as the Sahyádris, where, and to the south it was bounded by Khed and to the east by Ahmadnagar. In produce, style of tillage, water, markets, people, and tenures Pábal closely resembled the open parts of Junnar. The chief points of difference were that the land was not so rich and that the proportion of late or rabi crops was smaller. The richest villages were to the north-west in the Mhálunga group. To the south-east also the land was good but the supply of rain was uncertain, and much distress had been suffered and much land had fallen waste in the recent unfavourable seasons. There were fifty-four Government and eleven alienated villages. The Government villages included 184,896 acres with 3249 landholders of whom 2397 were hereditary and 852 were casual.

Except parts of the hilly west Shivner and Pábal had formerly been included in the district or subha of Junnar, which, from its cession by the Moghals in 1720 until the latter years of Bájiráv's government (1817), was for long periods entrusted to the same managers or subhedárs. One of these officers Hari Dámodar had remained in charge for forty-five years. The subordinate managers of village groups or tarafs were also appointed under head-quarter deeds or huzur sanads and were continued during good behaviour. Their local knowledge and experience made them so useful both to the government and to the people that they were rarely removed, and at one time had almost the character of hereditary officers. West Shivner was later of coming to the Maráthás. It formed what was termed the táluka of Shivner most of whose revenues were assigned for the maintenance of the local hill-forts and garrisons. Like the more eastern parts these villages had been

Mr. Pringle's Survey. Shivner, 1828.

> Pábal, 1828.

Shivner-Pábai

Chapter VIII

¹ Mr. Pringle, 1828, para 50. In the three subdivisions Junnar Pábal and Khed the greater proportion of the landholders were *mirásdars* attached to the soil. The Collector, 4th Sept. 1830, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 125.

Ch. pter VIII.
Land.
MR. PRINGLE'S
SURVEY.

hivner-Pábal,
1888.

managed by the same officers during long periods. Under the Maráthás before the time of Bájiráv, subordinate agents called haváldárs or men in charge, agreed to pay the head manager or subhedár a lump sum for a group of villages and made a detailed settlement either with the heads of villages or with individual holders. Hereditary holders or mirásdárs paid full or sosti rates, and casual holders or upris paid short or ukti rates. the settlement was made in a lump sum with the village head, what fell short on the lands of the casual holders was made good by an extra levy on the lands of the hereditary holders. As they were seldom closely examined, the group manager or haváldár was generally able to protect himself by showing in his returns something less than the actual area of full rent or sosti land. Though under this system much of what was taken from the people never reached government, the country was on the whole well tilled and the people were much more flourishing than at later periods when the assessment was more moderate. The long terms during which men remained in charge of districts and of village groups, made them interested in the prosperity of their villages. They occasionally united the character of banker with that of revenue manager and were liberal in their advances and loans, and, on the credit of their long-continued position as managers, in bad seasons they were able to raise funds to meet the demands of the district manager or subhedár without pressing the landholders. In this way by working together with the landholders and by keeping their accounts open for a series of years, the group managers were able to make good their advances at the time when extra payments were least burdensome to the people. This system continued with little change until the accession of Bájiráv in 1796. Under Bájiráv the old managers were removed on the slightest ground and other evil changes were introduced. Then followed in 1802 the irruption of Yashvantráv Holkar which caused desolation in Junnar, though the ruin was not so complete as in some other parts of the Deccan. After the restoration of Bájiráv by the treaty of Bassein, attempts were made to return to a better plan of government, but these attempts were soon abandoned for the ruinous system of revenue contracting.

When the British assumed the management of the country Junnar and Pábal were at first included in Ahmadnagar. Pábal was soon transferred to Poona, but till 1821 Junnar remained in Nagar. Junnar as in most of Ahmadnagar an important change was made in the rent settlement or jamábandi of 1819. The whole of the land which had hitherto been reckoned in local measures, differing in name and extent in almost every village, was nominally turned into bighas and arranged in classes on hasty and inaccurate information. Without much inquiry as to how far it had been actually realized, the full or kamál rental was adopted as the maximum of assessment in each village, and apportioned among the different classes at rates apparently not less arbitrary than the classification. When the increase in the total amount was considerable, it was imposed gradually by progressive or istava enhancements. The results of this settlement were far from uniform. But under the loose way in which it was carried out, the people in many cases were able to procure land under easy terms; and the new rates seemed to have been paid without much difficulty. In Pábal and the other sub-divisions which were attached to Poona seon after the British acquisition, the full or sosti rates and the short or ukti rates of the former government remained undisturbed. The only changes were that greater indulgence was sometimes shown in allowing hereditary holders to pay short or ukti rates. On the other hand the assessment of waste land was occasionally enforced with more rigour than formerly. Though it was not without objections, this system probably worked better than any crude attempt at reform would have worked.

In settling Junnar and Pábal, their neighbourhood and their similar circumstances induced Mr. Pringle to regulate the assessment by the same general standard. The principles on which the assessment was framed have been explained. As it was the first attempt to apply those principles, the settlement was interrupted by many doubts, difficulties, and errors; many groups had to be revised twice or even three times. The share of the net produce which it was decided should be taken by Government was 61.75 per cent. When the assessment was completed the people were called and the result was explained to them. It was found that in some villages the new rates exceeded and in others fell short of former payments. The same happened in the case of individuals. Where the result was an increase the parties were naturally dissatisfied. They were asked to state their objections, and a reference to the detailed accounts and to the opinion of their neighbours was made to show them that their rents had been raised because their land was found to be of greater extent or of better quality than had been supposed. If they refused to admit the justice of the enhancement they were called on to point out any other holder whose fields they considered as good as their own and who had obtained more favourable terms. If they pointed out a more favourable case, a fresh investigation was made on the spot with the help of the headmen of neighbouring villages. These inquiries sometimes led to a reduction of the estimate of net produce, but they more frequently confirmed the assessor's work.

On comparing the details of the new and of the former assessment Mr. Pringle found that a frequent, though not a uniform, effect had been the reduction of the rent of the more fertile fields and villages and the increase of those of inferior quality. This, which to Mr. Pringle must have been an unexpected and disappointing result, was he thought due to the working of full rates or sosti and short rates or ukti, as in many cases under that system, while the best lands paid very highly, the poorer lands paid little more than quit-rents. When the landholders' complaints had been heard, and the settlement of the head assessors had as far as possible been equalised, it remained to confirm raise or lower their settlement in such uniform proportion as appeared advisable. Before fixing how

Land.

MR. PRINGLE'S
SURVEY.

Shivner-Pabal,
1828.

¹ Mr. Pringle, 6th September 1828 para 61.

Land.

Land.

MR. PRINGLE'S
SURVEY.

Shivner-Pabal,
1828.

far to change the assessor's settlement Mr. Pringle had to consider a case which in his opinion constituted a special exception to the general principle. The case was this. The western valley or the khore of Madh was held chiefly by Kolis, a simple rude and hardy people with few ties to bind them to the soil, at the prompting of pique or of disgust always ready to take to their favourite pastime of freebooting. Probably to keep the Kolis settled their lands had been held on very favourable terms. The general effect of the new assessment would in some cases have more than doubled the Kolis' This was no more than the fertility of the soil justified, and as most of the Kolis were casual holders or upris they had no claim of right to any special indulgence; still Mr. Pringle considered that in the case of men of this class the recovery of the full rental was less important than keeping them settled and quiet. Accordingly, in the villages where the increase would have been heavy and in one or two similar villages in neighbouring valleys, Mr. Pringle made a reduction of twenty per cent on the survey rental before bringing them into comparison with the rest of the country.

The amount of land assessment in Junnar and Pábal fixed by the head assessors on the basis of past collections was £47,980 (Rs. 4,79,800). As the accounts of former management had been found very complete and as they went back to some of the best periods of Marátha government, general considerations, connected with the altered circumstances of the country, induced Mr. Pringle to consider this amount greater than could be easily realized, consistently with a liberal regard for the welfare of the people. He accordingly made a general reduction which together with the special reduction in the Koli lands, and, with revisions in some cases where the calculations of the net produce had been excessive, amounted to a reduction of 14.012 per cent on the assessor's total rental. This brought the final assessment to £41,257 (Rs. 4,12,570) and the proportion on the net produce to 54.03 per cent. Of 2460 wells in both sub-divisions only 237 were capable of yielding rent and of these the assessment on the principles laid down in Government letter dated 12th October 1826 amounted to £265 (Rs. 2650). But the whole of this did not fall due until the periods of exemption had expired. The details are:1

SHIVNER-PABAL SETTLEMENT, 1828.

LAND.	TIL	LRD.	Waste		WELLS.	
	Area.	Rent	Area.	Rent.	Number	Rent.
	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.		Rs.
Government	230,645	2,70,829	139,148	1,05,133	237	2655
Alienated	80,095	86,610	•••		216	8458

¹ Mr. Pringle, 6th September 1828 para 72. There were 119,820 acres of unarable land and 2223 wells paying no rent. Though entered under Tilled, the alienated acres and their rental are totals whose detail as to tilled and untilled is not given in Mr. Pringle's report. The rupees shown in the statement are antush: rupees one of which was equal to 0.958 of a British rupee. See Bom. Cov. Sel. LXX. 12.

Under this settlement the assessment of Government land exceeded Malik Ambar's total or tankha by £5843 (Rs. 58,430) and was £6119 (Rs. 61,190) less than the average of past collections. In each village the tillage area was entered for the year in which the village was surveyed. These amounted in the Government land to 230,645 acres of which the survey assessment was £27,083 (Rs. 2,70,830) which was £3564 (Rs. 35,640) less than the existing or actual rent-settlement or januábandi. An increase in the well receipts reduced the deficiency to £3343 (Rs. 33,430).1

Indápur lay between the Nira and Bhima which met at its southeast corner. It contained eighty-six villages of which ten were wholly alienated and were not surveyed. The seventy-six villages which were either entirely or partially in the possession of Government, covered 306,767 acres exclusive of hills. The soil in the riverbank villages was in general deep and rich. The uplands between the rivers were barren and stony. The chief produce was white $jv\acute{a}ri$. The proportion of waste was not very great, but the cultivated area bore marks of the landholder's poverty and want of capital. The heavy eight-bullock plough was used every year in the deep soils. Manure was seldom given except to watered lands. It was its proverbially scanty supply of rain that made Indápur the most unprodutive sub-division of Poona. The only watering was from wells, and the area watered from wells was small.

During Marátha rule Indápur is said to have flourished most under the management of Mádhavráv (1761-1772) and of Nána Fadnavis (1774-1796). At that time most of the sub-division was assigned for the support of pagekaris that is commandants of horse and shiledars that is self-horsed troopers of whom considerable bodies were stationed in all the chief villages, probably to guard the Nizám's frontier. The few records which remained showed that, at that time, compared with what it afterwards became, the area under tillage was great, the rates were high, and there was a much larger body of hereditary holders. The decline of Indápur dated from 1794. A succession of bad seasons and misgovernment reduced its resources and its ruin was completed in 1802 by the ravages of a detachment of Holkar's army under Fatesing Mane. The ruin caused by this army was followed by the failure of the late rains of 1803 and a famine so grievous that the whole of the people left their villages. For six years the land remained empty. It was then granted on a favourable lease to one Malhar Mukund. The lease lasted for nine years, and, at the end of the nine years, the demand was limited to Malık Ambar's very moderate assessment. At the beginning of British management its state was comparatively prosperous, except that the hereditary holders who had fled in the time of desolation, had never come back to claim their lands. From the almost total destruction of village records about 1803 and the irregular system that had since prevailed, little information was available regarding the principles on which the assessment was regulated in the best times. Such accounts as were forthcoming

Land.
Mr. Pringle's

SURVEY.

Indapur, 1828.

¹Mr. Pringle, 6th September 1828 para 73.

Land.

MR. PRINGLE'S

SURVEY.

Indápur,

seemed to show that the land had been held on full or sosti and on short or ukti rates in much the same way as in Shivner and Pabal.

When Indápur came under British management, it was at first placed under the Collector of Ahmadnagar. The rent settlement of 1819 was made by his establishment on the plan adopted in Junnar. In Indápur the full Marátha settlement or kamál which was introduced as the maximum to which by gradual enhancements the Government demand was to rise, was so greatly in excess of the usual collections that it could not have been continued. For three years as the rates were moderate, crops good, and prices high, Indápur flourished. But low grain-prices in 1822 and 1823, and an almost complete failure of rain in 1823 and 1824 reduced the people to the extremest poverty. In 1826 the Collector of Poona endeavoured to restore cultivation by granting village leases for five years on rents rising to twenty-five per cent over Malik Ambar's assessment or tankha. The terms were moderate. But such was the scarcity both of people and of capital that few men were found willing to undertake the risk, and of those who took leases, in consequence of the want of rain in 1826-27, the greater number failed to pay even the moderate sums required. The system of leases was abandoned and the lands were given to people on such short or ukti rents as they were willing to pay.1 Indápur was the largest town in the sub-division. It had once been a place of importance. But in 1828 its trade was inconsiderable and its only manufacture was the weaving of coarse cloth for the use of the neighbouring villagers. The grain went chiefly to Phaltan and Baramati and from there to the Konkan and Poons. Of the husbandmen only a very small proportion were hereditary holders and these were chiefly of headmen's families. Few others had survived the wars and famines which had laid Indapur waste. The casual holders or upris for the most part belonged to the neighbouring territories of the Nizam and the Raja of Satara, or they had come from higher assessed British lands attracted by low rates but without any permanent interest in the soil. The villages were ruinous, and, when Mr. Pringle visited them, had become half empty or entirely deserted in consequence of a recent (1827) failure of rain.3

As the assessing of Indápur was begun later than the assessing of Junnar and Pábal, Mr. Pringle's experience enabled him to clear many of the assessors' doubts and to correct many of their errors. Still several delays occurred and there was much to put in order and to correct, which required the constant supervision of Mr. Pringle and his establishment. The materials for the assessment were more scanty than they had been in Junnar and Pábal. The old records were less complete; many of the holders were absent, and, of those who attended, many were new-comers or casual residents who took little interest in the survey. While the work was in

¹ Mr. Pringle, 6th September 1828 paras 79-80. Mr. Giberne, Collector, 4th September 1830, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 115-119.

² Mr. Pringle, 6th September 1828 para 74.

progress, Mr. Pringle visited almost every village in the sub-livision unaccompanied by any of his establishment and encouraged the people to give him their opinion regarding the survey. Some of the more intelligent seemed sensible of the justice of the views with which it was undertaken, and in general were satisfied with the means which had been used to apportion the rates on the different By far the greater number showed an apathy very different from the jealous anxiety of the hereditary holders of Junnar. A series of bad seasons had taken the heart out of the Indapur husbandmen. Provided they obtained present relief, they were willing to trust the future to the mercy and moderation of Government, aware that if Government asked more than they could pay, they could with little inconvenience move to some other part of the country where rents were lower. The assessors fixed twenty-five per cent of the net produce as the average of past collections. The extreme lowness of this rate was due to the fact that the papers from which it was calculated belonged to the years that followed the ruin of 1803 and included many years of specially light leases or kauls. It would have been impolitic to make a rate obtained under such circumstances permanent. Mr. Pringle had no hesitation in increasing it, but, as he thought that in estimating the gross produce the assessors had not made sufficient allowance for the precarious rainfall and as Indápur was much more impoverished than Junuar or Pábal, he judged it inadvisable to raise the Indapur assessment to the Junuar standard. Under these circumstances he determined to increase the head assessor's settlement by 121 per cent, a change which raised the Government demand to about 281 per cent of the net produce.

A due allowance for the uncertainty of the rain supply would probably raise the share to about 45 per cent or nine per cent less than the proportion finally fixed in Junnar and Pábal. When the head assessors had equalized and completed the assessment as in Junnar and Pábal, it was found to raise the payments of some holders and of some villages and to lower the payments of others. In this respect as in Junnar the new rates were found most often favourable to the best lands. Most of the villages on the Nira had their rates raised, while in the Bhima villages the rates were relatively reduced. This result appeared to be due to the fact that the area of land had hitherto been estimated much lower in the Nira than in the Bhima villages, though there was no corresponding difference in the quality of the soil. The results when explained to the holders were considered good or bad according as their effect was to lower or to raise their individual payments. The doubts of all the villages which objected were, with a single exception, either removed or silenced by an explanation of the causes of the change or by a reference to the accounts and a comparison with the details of other villages. In the case of the single village which refused to accept the new rates, accompanied by the hereditary district officers and by the headmen of other villages, clerks from the Collector's office were sent to inspect the land. The inquiry confirmed the correctness of the assessors' rates. The total rental fixed by the head assessors on Government and which lienated lands was £17,532 (Rs. 1,75,320) and the increase which

Chapter VIII

Mr. Princle's Survey. Indápur, 1828. Chapter VIII. Land.

MR PRINGLE'S SURVEY.

> Indápur, 1828.

Mr. Pfingle imposed raised it to £19,723 (Rs. 1,97,230). The well-tax yielded an additional sum of £413 (Rs. 4130) that is a total of £20,136 (Rs. 2,01,360). The details are:1

INDAPUR SETTLEMENT, 1828.

LAND	Til	led.	WA	STE.	WELLS.	
	Area.	Rent.	Area.	Rent.	Number	Rent
Government Alienated	Acres. 168,765 14,376	Rs 142,156 11,595	Acres 68,474	Rs. 43,481 	237 35	Rs 3552 578

The total settlement of £18,564 (Rs. 1,85,640) on Government land was £5987 (Rs. 59,870) above Malik Ambar's total or tankha and £5049 (Rs. 50,490) below the Marátha total or kamál, and £2068 (Rs. 20,680) more than that calculated from the average of past collections. The survey assessment of cultivated Government land exceeded the existing or actual settlement or jamábandi by £6168 (Rs. 61,680) or an increase of 76½ per cent. But, as Mr. Pringle says, this was of no importance when the circumstances under which the land was let at the time of survey were taken into consideration.2

Bhimthadi.

Purandhar.

In Bhimthadi the new survey and assessment raised the rates on

cultivated land 13½ per cent over the former settlement.

In Purandhar the new survey and assessment rates on Government land exceeded past collections by £6860 (Rs. 68,600) or 331 per The increase in the assessment on cultivated land was £3904 (Rs. 39,040) or 27½ per cent, being less in proportion than on the whole rental as the greater increase fell on the waste land. The increase of the new rates over the settlement (Rs. 88,460) of 1828-29

was £2086 (Rs. 20,860) or about 24 per cent.4

In Khed the new survey rates were fixed at 55 per cent on the net produce, a result which averaged about 271 per cent less than former collections. The fall in the assessment of cultivated land compared with the existing settlement was £3191 (Rs. 31,910) or 251 per cent.

Mr. Pringle's assessment was introduced between 1829 and 1831. During 1829-30 it came into force in Bhimthadi, Purandhar, Indápur,

¹ Mr. Pringle, 6th September 1828 para 89. There were 60, 152 acres of unarable land and 444 wells paying no rent. Though entered under Tilled, the alienated acres and their rental are totals whose detail as to tilled and waste is not given in Mr. Pringle's report.

Khed.

² Mr. Pringle, 6th September 1828, para 90. 'The assessment of cultivated land exceeded the actual jamabandi by £6168 (Rs. 61,680). This the Superintendent considered of no importance as the land was let so low in former years,' Mr. Giberné, Collector, 4th September 1830, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 115-119.

Mr. Giberne, Collector, 4th September 1830, Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 108-110.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 112-115.

Besides in Khed, in Junnar and Pabal the new survey also as noticed above occasioned a reduction in the rates. In Indapur Purandhar and Bhimthadi it caused an increase. In the three sub-divisions of Khed Junnar and Pabal the greater proportion of the landholders were well-to-do hereditary holders attached to the soil. The Collector Mr. Giberne, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 125.

Khed, Junnar or Shivner, and Pábal; and into Haveli, Mával, and Mohol (now in Sholapur) in 1830-31.1 Mr. Pringle's settlement was not found to improve the state of the district. In practice over most of the district the new rates were never actually enforced. In 1836 a fresh survey and settlement was begun.

In 1829-30 there was another failure of rain. In Indápur, Bhimthadi, and part of Purandhar, at the end of September 1829, not a blade of grass was to be seen. The crops failed completely; they were dried up before they came into ear. In the east no collections were made except at spots where moisture gathered. Early in the year the people took their cattle with them and left in great numbers. In addition to remissions of about £38,400 (Rs. 3,84,000), or about £22,100 (Rs. 2,21,000) more than the sum granted in 1828-29, land assessed at £7772 (Rs. 77,720) was thrown up as its holders were too poor to stay and had left. outstandings were large. Compared with 1828-29 the land revenue settlement for 1829-30 showed a fall from £111,711 to £45,409 (Rs. 11,17,110 - Rs. 4,54,090). This fall was partly due to the transfer of three large sub-divisions, Sholapur to Ahmadnagar and Indi and Muddebihal to Dharwar, yielding about £43,400 (Rs. 4,34,000) of revenue.²

The Bhimthadi sub-division was the first in which the Collector Mr. Giberne introduced Mr. Pringle's new settlement. About £2600 (Rs. 26,000) were outstanding from former years. The year 1828-29 was one of partial failure and remissions were required, but owing to changes in the staff of the local officers none were granted.3 1829-30, according to Mr. Pringle's rates, the settlement amounted to £5946 (Rs. 59,460). Of this only about £2000 (Rs. 20,000) could be collected, as the want of rain completely ruined the crops and wasted the greater part of this sub-division. Since 1827-28, when Mr. Pringle's surveyors had measured the country, 27,312 acres had fallen out of tillage. In 1827-28 the new rates showed an increase of 13½ per cent on the rental but the settlement was made according to the old system; £4627 (Rs. 46,270) were remitted, and of the £1581 (Rs. 15,810) which remained over, £605 (Rs. 6050) were outstanding at the close of the year. Compared with 1822-23 the settlement of Bhimthadi in 1828-29 showed a fall from £10,930 (Rs. 1,09,300) to £6600 (Rs. 66,000) or about forty per cent. When managed by the Tulsibág family Bhimthadi is said to have enjoyed considerable prosperity. Of this prosperity few traces were left. The villages looked poor and distressed and there seemed little chance of recovering the increased revenue which according to Mr. Pringle's survey might be recovered without hardship to the landholders.4

In Purandhar the new survey assessment exceeded past collections by £6860 (Rs. 68,600) or $33\frac{1}{8}$ per cent. The increase in the Chapter VIII Land. THE BRITISH.

1829-30.

Rhimthadi.

Purandhar.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 105-106.

² Mr. Giberne, September 1830, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 101-104.

³ The whole rental was brought to account. In September 1830 the Collector reported that about £500 (Rs. 5000) would have to be written off. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 102-103, 113.

⁴ Mr. Giberne, 4th September 1820, Roy. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 108-11.

⁴ Mr. Giberne, 4th September 1830, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 108-11.

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Chapter VIII. Land. Tab BRITISH. Purandhar, 1829-30.

assessment on cultivated land was £3904 (Rs. 39,040) or 271 per cent, being less in proportion than on the whole rental as the increase chiefly fell on the waste land. The new rates showed an increase of £2086 (Rs. 20,860) over the settlement £8846 (Rs. 88,460) of 1828-29. The year 1828-29 was one of partial failure and remissions were required, but they were not granted owing to a change of officers as stated in Bhimthadi. The cultivation in this sub-division varied little. The net settlement amounted to £10,448 (Rs. 1,04,480). The year 1829-30 was one of almost total failure and required the large sum of £6094 (Rs. 60,940) of remissions leaving £4354 (Rs. 43,540) to be collected. Compared with 1822-23 before which omissions had not been granted, the settlement of 1828-29 showed decrease from £11,007 (Rs. 1,10,070) to £8846 (Rs. 88,460) that a fall of at least one-fifth in the revenues in six years.2 For the refere years ending 1828-29 outstanding balances in Purandhar amounted to £4800 (Rs. 48,000). In September 1830 the Collector feared that the season of 1829-30 would add to the outstanding balance. The people were particularly backward in paying the revenue and it was difficult to distinguish the deserving poor from the quarrelsome and cavilling holders who could afford to pay.3

Indápur.

Indápur was a more peculiar sub-division than either Bhimthadi or Purandhar. The rainfall was scanty and its revenue was doubtful. Few of the people were bound to the land; most of them were strangers. The new survey raised the Government demand by 761 per cent. In April 1830 Mr. Giberne the Collector showed what evils would result from any attempt to enforce these higher rates. In June 1830 in order to bring back people who had left, he had been allowed to keep to the old rates showing the difference sacrificed as a temporary reduction. The settlement of 1829-30 by Mr. Pringle's rates represented £9157 (Rs. 91,570), but in September 1830 the Collector wrote that the crops had failed so completely that only a mere trifle could be realised. So entirely did the rain fail that immediately after the close of the rains not a blade of grass was to be seen. Early in the season, probably about July, the people left as water had failed. The returns showed a decrease of cultivation representing a loss of £1021 (Rs. 10,210) of revenue.4 In the Collector's opinion some change of system was required. Under the existing system if a plot of land was thrown up it would be let to the first bidder and as there was no scarcity of waste the highest bid would be far below the sum paid by the last holder. Such a practice tempted the steady farmer and hereditary tenant to throw up his paternal land for a more favourable tenure and made the whole body of husbandmen unsettled and careless. Under Mr. Pringle's new settlement this evil had been checked. In time the people would see the advantages of keeping to and improving

¹ The whole rental was brought to account. In September 1830 the Collector reported that about £2000 (Rs. 20,000) would have to be written off. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 102, 103, 113.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 112-115.

³ Mr. Giberne, Collector, Sept. 1830, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 112-115.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 115-119.

the lands they held. Mr. Giberne was doubtful whether in some cases the new rates had not been fixed too high. He had hoped that a revenue survey would have tended to a reduction of rates and that the necessity of remissions would have ceased. Unfortunately the failure of the 1829-30 crops had been so general and so complete that the amount settled by the new assessment could never have been realised. The state of the people was very depressed. They were well known to live from hand to mouth. They began to eat their crops before they were ripe and daily plucked unripe grain to give them a meal. If the season was favourable the price of grain fell so low as to make the produce of little value and remissions were required. Even if the season was bad the price did not rise because there was many years' supply on hand and remissions had again to be given.² As the rates introduced by the new settlement were considered to be such as the people were able to pay and such as Government were entitled to levy, the Collector did not grant remissions in the old way but held over for future recovery the amount by which the collections fell short of the settlement. The Collector told the people their only chance of getting the balance remitted was by seeing that in future there were no At the same time he was certain that the balance could never be recovered. He had hoped that the new settlement would have reduced the rates so greatly that the revenue would have been easily paid instead of being drawn forth with the greatest labour. He was greatly disappointed that this had not been the result. In other respects, in the arrangement of the accounts, the distinction of fields, and the other details the new settlement could not be improved. Everything was simplified to the utmost. Only the revenue would be as difficult to collect as it had ever been. Before 1822-23 the revenue was collected with the greatest ease; no remissions were ever thought of. This was partly owing to the high price of grain, and the ease with which produce was disposed of. It was also insured by the character of the people, and their fears of delaying the payment arising from the mode formerly in use of compelling payment by a variety of cruel methods, burning fingers or tying up the delinquent with heavy stones fastened to his chest or head. Though under the English these punishments were not practised, from their recent enforcement they were still dreaded. Even after the beginning of British management a stone sent round to the backward villages summoned payments, a practice which was never thought of in 1830. In 1830 a landholder had nothing to fear from delaying to pay. The severest punishments were a gain to him.3 The only course open to the Collector was to enforce the regulations regarding the appointment of watchmen over the crops until a settlement was made for payment. This rule would be in force during the current year; it had never been enforced before.-

Chapter VIII. Land.

> THE BRITISH. Indápur. 1829-30.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 106-108.
 Mr. Giberne, Collector, 1830, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 130-131.
 Mr. Giberne, Collector, 1830, Bom Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 131-134.
 Mr. Giberne, Collector, 4th September 1830, Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 138-139.

pter VIII.

THE BRITISH.

Bhimthadi,
Purandhar,
Indápur,
1829-30.

In Bhimthadi, Purandhar, and Indapur the new survey settlement had increased the rates. Even under the former low rates, large remissions were required and every year large balances remained outstanding. The Collector saw no reason to suppose that the new settlement would reduce these evils. The principles of the new survey were to fix a rate which the landholders could and ought to pay and Government ought to receive. The survey superintendent Mr. Pringle said that Collectors should have the power of imposing the increase so gradually that the pressure of the new rates would be less felt. If this was acted on, the result would be to lower rates fixed on the principle of the survey, proved by the superintendent to be those which the holder could and ought to pay. If the Collector were to take on himself the reduction of these rates, in theory he had no good reason to offer why the full rates should not be levied. But he knew that as a matter of fact the new rates could not be collected. If he took less than the rate fixed by the settlement, because he could not obtain it, he set aside the principle on which the settlement was based. In Indapur from sheer necessity the full rates were not levied. If the new rates were enforced the Collector feared that the greater part of the subdivision would become waste. His fear was grounded on the fact that the greater part of the people had left from want of water and afterwards refused to return to till the land at higher rates.9 In Purandhar the Collector made arrangements for introducing the increase by degrees. Where the rates had been doubled he directed five-eighths (10 as. in the rupee) of the full amount to be levied in the first instance and an addition of $\frac{3}{32}$ nds (1½ as. in the rupee) to be made every year so that five years would pass before the full amount was levied. Even this concession failed to satisfy the people. So great was the distress that in 1830 the lands of the large town of Sásvad were almost all neglected.3

1830-31

The failure of the 1829 rains was followed by a second year of scanty supply. In the east in Bhimthadi, Indápur, Mohol now in Sholápur, and in part of Purandhar the crops completely failed. An early and plentiful fall of rain raised the cultivators' hopes, but the after-failure of rain withered the plants when they were only a few inches above ground. At harvest time the country was a miserable waste, and the people were suffering and full of complaints. Still the actual collections for 1830-31 were more favourable than those of former years. Territorial changes prevented any exact comparison. In 1830-31 Sholápur and Bársi were transferred from Ahmadnagar to Poona. In spite of the local

¹ Mr. Giberne, Collector, Sept. 1830, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 119-120.

² Regarding Indápur, on the 26th of March 1835, the Rev. Comr. Mr. Williamson wrote, 'Before the new survey rates were introduced at Indápur the Collector expressed great fears of their success. The first year he estimated the survey assessment at about £9159 (Rs. 91,590) while he seemed to think he could not realise more than £4230 (Rs. 42,300) being less than one-half the assessed amount. The crops were very bad. No remissions were sanctioned. A large sum was kept suspended and the actual realisations fell greatly short even of the Collector's estimate.' Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 8,

⁸ Mr. Giberne, Collector, Sept. 1830, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 352 of 1831, 120-122.

failure of rain produce prices continued very low from thirty-three to fifty per cent below the average of prices during the twenty years before the beginning of British management.1 Large remissions were again necessary.2. The land revenue settlement of 1830-31 showed an increase from £45,409 (Rs. 4,54,090) in 1829-30 to £67,185 (Rs. 6,71,850). Compared with former years the actual collections were favourable.3

Chapter VIII Land. THE BRITISH.

1831-32.

In 1831-32 compared with 1830-31 the land revenue settlement showed an increase from £67,185 (Rs. 6,71,850) to £68,073 (Rs. 6,80,730); remissions on account of land and miscellaneous revenue showed a fall from £37,420 to £24,998 (Rs. 3,74,200-Rs. 2,49,980); and outstandings were comparatively small.4 In this year the Commissioner Mr. Dunlop directed the attention of the Collectors to the ruined state of the village walls and of the necessity of having them repaired.5

1832-33.

In 1832 the rains again failed. The scarcity began about sixteen miles east of Poona and extended to the extreme east and south of the district. The loss of revenue was most marked in Sholapur, Mohol, Bársi, Indápur, Bhimthadi, and Purandhar. In Indápur the net rental was £7403 (Rs. 74,030), and of this the whole except £806 (Rs. 8060) had to be remitted. To the west of a line about sixteen miles east of Poona the early rain was abundant. About the middle of the season the supply failed and the half-grown fields of grain being left without moisture yielded either no crops at all or a very poor outturn. The after-rains were so slight that the late crops were either never sown or died soon after they sprang up. The land revenue settlement showed a fall from £68,073 (Rs. 6,80,730) in 1831-32 to £38,715 (Rs. 3,87,150).6

On the 18th of July 1831 Mr. Pringle proposed to grant a uniform reduction of thirty-three per cent upon the settlement made by him. On the 7th of October 1831 Government asked the Revenue

¹ The details are : Poona District, Produce Rupes Prices, 1797 - 1831.

Sub-Division	1797-1817.	1831.	SUB-DIVISION.	1797–1817.	1831.
Shivner Indápur Khed Pábai Purandhar	Shers. 201 22 253 213 191	Shers. 331 361 381 381 27	Bhimthadi . Haveli Mával Poona City	Shers. 23 21 1 17 1 20 1	Shers. 80½ 81 27½ 26½

Mr. Giberne, Collector, 15th August 1831, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 407 of 1832, 302.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 407 of 1832, 276, 291, 292.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 407 of 1832, 290. Regarding Indapur, on the 26th March 1835 the Revenue Comr. Mr. Williamson wrote, In 1830-31 the mamlatdar reported that the landholders refused to cultivate the land according to the survey rates. correspondence followed between the Collector and the mamlatdar which ended in an order to the mamlatdar not to demand increases which added more than 25 per cent to the former assessment. Where the new rates were lower than the old, the new rates only were to be collected. Even this reduced assessment did not stand. The crops were again bad and remissions were granted. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 8-9.

4 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 484 of 1833, 21, 23, 24.

5 Sov. Dunlop, 29th November 1831, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 406 of 1832, 13, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 550 of 1834, 11-48.

⁷ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 426 and 427 of 1832.

Land.
THE BRITISH.
Mr. Pringle's
Survey,
1832-33.

Commissioner for his opinion on the proposed reduction. Mr. Reid the Acting Revenue Commissioner referred the matter to the Collector and asked for a figured statement. This was furnished on the 10th of August 1832, and on the 15th of February 1833 the Revenue Commissioner Mr. Williamson in submitting his report² to Government remarked that Mr. Pringle's estimates of the average price of field produce were framed when produce was much more valuable than it had since become. Mr. Williamson thought, that if there was reason to suppose the great fall in produce prices would last, Mr. Pringle's suggestion to reduce his rates by thirty-three per cent would be a suitable measure. But, since Mr. Pringle had made the proposal for reducing his rates, in consequence of the failure of crops in 1832, prices were higher than they had been even in the years on which Mr. Pringle's original estimates were based. food stocks were also so low that Mr. Williamson thought even a good year would fail to bring grain down to its former low level.8 Mr. Williamson doubted whether the system on which Mr. Pringle's rates had been fixed was so good that the simple plan of reducing the rates all round would make the settlement successful. Williamson's experience satisfied him that Mr. Pringle's assessment was too light on the good lands and too heavy on the poor lands. Government lost in both ways. The good land paid less than it ought, and the poor land fell waste.4 Finally Mr. Williamson feared that the work of Mr. Pringle's subordinates was not trustworthy. Complaints of the dishonesty of some of the under-servants were loud. He thought that an officer should be appointed under the Revenue Commissioner and deputed to go in detail through a certain number of villages and compare the result of his examination with the details recorded in Mr. Pringle's survey. Government would then be in a position to judge how far Mr. Pringle's assessment might be accepted as accurate. Government agreed with the Revenue Commissioner that further information regarding

 $^{^1}$ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 517 of 1833, 38, 47. The total amount of loss on the gross settlement of the year 1831-32 (Fasli 1241) was estimated at £22,249 (Rs. 2,22,490). The details are:

		P	oona keve	nue, 1831-32.			
Sub-Division.	Gross Settle- ment.	Amount at 33 per cent.	Remis- sions.	Sub-Division.	Gross Settle- ment,	Amount at 33 per cent.	Remis- sions.
Shivner Indápur Khed Pábal Purandhar Bhimthadi	Rs. 1,52,672 69,858 81,574 80,190 96,705 61,999	Rs. 50,382 23,058 26,919 26,463 31,912 20,460	Rs. 60,724 50,009 11,059 37,158 86,918 25,415	Haveli Mável Poona City .	Rs. 76,830 51,997 2383 6,74,208	Rs. 25,354 17,159 786 2,22,488	Rs. 16,608 519 2,38,400

^{*}Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 517 of 1833, 37-43.

*At Indápur jvári rupee prices were in April 1829 about 160 pounds (80 shers), in April 1830 about 92 pounds (46 shers), in May 1831 about 80 pounds (40 shers), in February 1832 about 120 pounds (60 shers), in February 1833 about 46 pounds (23 shers), in February 1834 about 92 pounds (46 shers), in February 1835 about 96 pounds (48 shers), and in February 1836 about 76 pounds (38 shers). Bom. U.T. Sel. CVII. 118.

4 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 595 of 1834, 9-11.

the trustworthiness of Mr. Pringle's assessment was required. In March 1833 they appointed Captain Dowell of the Ratnagiri survey to make inquiries into the survey assessment lately completed by Mr. Pringle. Shortly after his appointment Captain Dowell fell sick and the inquiry had to be put off.2 In November 1833 Government ordered that the survey rates should be continued, but that the Collector might make inquiries and introduce amended rates in a few villages.

In 1833-34, the famous pik sál or crop-year, the rainfall was sufficient and timely. Out of a land revenue of £96,461 (Rs. 9,64,610) all but £3856 (Rs. 38,560) were collected by November 1834.4 The changes which had to be introduced in Mr. Pringle's settlement rates in consequence of the succession of bad years, caused great confusion in the revenue accounts. This confusion opened a door for fraud, and the native officials seem to have fallen into a state of grave corruption. They appropriated a great part of the liberal remissions to their own use, and introduced a system of secret exactions which in some cases produced more than double the Government revenue. The Revenue Commissioner believed that not one-half of the remissions had reached the people and not onehalf of the collections had reached the Government.⁵ In June 1834 Mr. Baber the Collector of Poona wrote to the mamlatdar to try and recover more of the outstandings in his charge, and told him that his promotion would depend on the vigour he showed in recovering the outstandings. Soon after this it was discovered that the people had been tortured to make them pay the revenue. Twenty persons including the mamlatdar and several hereditary officers were convicted of torturing or of abetting torture and were imprisoned for periods varying from one to seven years.

In 1834 (January 30th) Major Robertson forwarded the results of his inquiries into the details of Mr. Pringle's settlement. He considered the work so full of inaccuracies and frauds that it could not safely be made the basis of fresh assessments.7 In this opinion Mr. Williamson the Revenue Commissioner (27th April 1834) agreed.8 In Mr. Williamson's opinion one of the chief reasons why Mr. Pringle's work had ended in failure, was the unfitness of the staff. They were ignorant of the work at starting, and they were employed only for, a time, and so were tempted to carelessness and dishonesty. There was no sufficient supervision and Mr. Pringle had to leave much to his headman who had since

Chapter VIII Land.

> THE BRITISH. Mr. Pringle's Survey.

> > 1833-34.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 517 of 1833, 49, 51-52, 55, 57-59.

² The Rev. Comr. 29th June 1833, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 517 of 1833, 191; Gov. Letter, 16th October 1833. Ditto, 241.

³ Gov. Letter, 21st Nev. 1833; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 517 of 1833, 249-252, 255.

⁴ The Collector, 19th January 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 628 of 1835, 14.

⁵ The Revenue Commissioner's Reports on the subject are dated 24th October 1832 and 19th August 1833, quoted in his Report of 26th March 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, Ĭ1 - 12.

⁶ Details are given in Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII, 17-19, ⁷ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 595 of 1834, 37-131, ⁸ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 595 of 1834, 1-33.

Chapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. M. I yle's 14 -34.

been convicted by the Sessions Judge of fraud and cheating. Besides the unsuitableness of the staff for the difficult and important details of field work there had been no provision for supervision. The only case where special inquiry was made was when some landholder complained of the new rates. There was no protection to Government against the fraud of an assessor charging land unduly low rates. Major Robertson detected several cases in which rice and garden land was entered as dry crop, and in some instances whole villages were rated at a fraction of similar and neighbouring villages. Many fraudulent changes to the loss of Government had been made in Mr. Pringle's head-quarter office. Alienated or inám land had been increased and temple allowances had been raised as much as 37½ per cent.2 Under these circumstances Mr. Williamson thought that without further inquiry it was unsafe to base any settlement on Mr. Pringle's survey. He suggested that an officer should be appointed to resume the inquiry which had been begun by Captain Dowell.3 In July 1834 Government ordered that the temple allowances should be reduced to the former amount.4 In August 1834 they appointed Lieutenant Shortrede to resume the inquiry formerly entrusted to Captain Dowell.5

1834-35.

In 1834 the rainfall must again have been sufficient though less The land revenue showed a fall from £96,461 favourable. (Rs. 9,64,610) in 1833-34 to £92,720 (Rs. 9,27,200), but by the end of October 1835, all but £5817 (Rs. 58,170) were collected. About this time an important and useful change was made in the revenue management by appointing mahálkaris or petty division officers subordinate to mámlatdárs.7 This change at first seemed to work well. It was afterwards found that the mahalkari's staff had been fixed at too low a strength. Their strength was increased, and in 1838 Mr. Williamson was satisfied with their working. In his opinion no measure had done more to improve the revenue management of the Deccan than the excellent system of subordinate divisions or maháls.8

¹ The details of the establishment were: Head assessors 8, assessors 54, assessors' karkuns 183, examiners of survey 35, surveyors 359, peons 525, total 1164. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 595 of 1834, 2 - 3.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 595 of 1834, 8, 9, 63; 66-73. Of the errors noted by Major Robertson there was around Sinhgad the omission of 55 and in the village of Kalyán close under Sinhgad the omission of 76 fields. Assessable land was left out of the records of seven or eight other villages. In the village of Mále in Paud Khore lands belonging to a deshmukh had been correctly rated by the assessor but were marked as excessively assessed by the head assessor and unduly reduced. In Khed the village of Chinchuli was found rated at about one-third of the rates levied in neighbouring and similar villages. In another village a field of 115 acres whose proper assessment was £16 8s. (Rs. 164) was entered at 41 acres with a rental of £38s. (Rs. 34). This field had been examined by the head-quarter staff. Bom. Gov. Rev

Rev. Rec. 595 of 1834, 225, 245.

⁶ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 694 of 1836, 244 - 248.

⁷ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 665 of 1835.

Mr. Williamson, Rev. Comr. 26th April 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 694 of 1836, 228, and 2610 of 23rd November 1838.

During 1834-35 Lieutenant Shortrede inquired into the details of Mr. Pringle's survey in Indápur. Of its eighty-four villages he examined the lands of about twenty. He measured a number of fields in several villages, and with two exceptions found them remarkably correct. On the other hand the classing of the soil was remarkably incorrect; the classification seemed to have no connection with the colour or qualities of the soil. Deep rich black soil, acknowledged by the people to be of the best quality, was entered as second black or red, and poor waste or gatkul land was entered as of the first sort. In the rates there were many instances of unfairness; villages whose land was good were assessed at lower rates than villages with inferior soil, and lands held by village and district officers were assessed at unduly low rates.2 In many villages the survey rates could not be realized. Most of the lands were held at ukti or reduced rates, varying from one-half to three-fourths of Though in practice a dead letter, Mr. Pringle's the assessment. survey rates remained the nominal rental. The reductions from this nominal rental offered the district officers excellent chances of fraud of which they were not slow to take advantage. So far as related to Indápur Lieutenant Shortrede could not recommend the continuance of the survey assessment. He saw no permanent system of management by which the survey assessment could be immediately superseded. The country was exhausted and deserted. So far as he could see, no official data of any value were forthcoming on which a permanent settlement of the revenue could be founded. A yearly settlement left open many avenues to mismanagement on the part of the native authorities which Lieutenant Shortrede believed the European authorities, however vigilant and active, would never be able to close. Under these circumstances Lieutenant Shortrede held that the first year of settlement should be experimental, and that the terms of the settlement should be favourable to the landholders to enable them to enter with substance and safety on a permanent settlement in the following year. The report of favourable terms would bring back most of the absent landholders. Meanwhile an active and able assistant might. during the year, gain knowledge enough to enable him to make a ten years' settlement. The settlement which Lieutenant Shortrede proposed for the first year was to let the best land at £6 (Rs. 60) a cháhur or 120 bighás and the poorer lands at £5 to £4 10s. (Rs. 50-45) the cháhur. He believed the people would willingly take lands on these terms. The did not differ much from the old Muhammadan or tankha rates, and good inám lands were let at £5 to £7 (Rs. 50-70) the chahur. These rates were low; in Lieutenant Shortrede's opinion they were less than a fair rental. Still the system of remissions was in practice so evil and corrupt that it

Chapter VIII ... Land. THE BRITIST Mr. Pringle's Survey, 1835.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 44-49.
² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 30, 49.
³ The bigha varied in size according to the soil. In good land it was a half to three-quarters of an acre; in poor lands three-quarters of an acre to one-acre. The proposed rates were equal to acre rates varying from 1s. 4d. to 2s. (103 as.-Re. 1) on good land, and from 9d. to 1s. 11d. (6-9 as.) on poor land.

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Chapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. Mr. Pringle's Survey, 1835.

should cease even at a great sacrifice. After the first experimental year he suggested that the lands should be let on a ten years' lease at much the same rates as those levied in the experimental year. A lease at a fixed rent would help the people to look forward and force them to lay by for bad years.1

The Revenue Commissioner Mr. Williamson submitted this report on the 26th of March 1835.2 The inquiries Mr. Williamson had made in Indápur two years before and the information he had lately collected satisfied him that a change in its management was necessary. Its rich soil and most uncertain rainfall, tempting them back and driving them away, made the people unsettled. In bad seasons they wandered to the Nizam's country.8 So far the British management was a failure. There had been no fixed system. At first a yearly settlement was made and then leases on rising rents were introduced, and again yearly settlements which of late years had been in great measure left to the village clerks and headmen. The seasons had been uncertain and bad. There was a mass of outstanding balances, and large remissions, much of which the native officers stopped on their way to the people, completed the confusion. Mr. Williamson, while admitting that the survey was not the cause of all the evils from which Indapur suffered, agreed with Lieutenant Shortrede that the survey assessment should not be continued. Mr. Williamson thought Lieutenaut Shortrede's scheme of an experimental year followed by a ten years' lease was well devised. He thought it could be carried out with no material obstacle. The system was simple and the rent The people would at once understand it and take to it. Mr. Williamson approved of the cháhur as the unit of assessment. Until they had been puzzled and paralysed by survey rates, reductions, suspensions, and remissions, the landholders had always spoken of their holdings as fractions of a chahur. The area of the cháhur varied with the soil from 90 to 120 bighás. The cháhur was not a completely accurate unit, but where irregularities existed they

¹ Lieut. Shortrede, 15th January 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 50-54.

² Mr. Williamson, Rev. Comr. 502 of 1835, Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 1-40.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 1-2.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 7. Mr. Williamson believed that not one-half of the remissions had reached the landholders and not one-half of the collections had reached the Government. The frauds took place during the third year (1831-32) of the operation of the survey rates and were exposed during the fourth year (1832-33). The Rev. Commissioner's reports on the subject are dated 24th October 1832 and 19th August 1833. Mr. Williamson says in March 1835, 'Of the extent of the peculations of the district and village officers some concention may be formed from the exposure of their corruption which followed my conception may be formed from the exposure of their corruption which followed my last visit to the pargana and from the judicial inquiries which terminated in the conviction and punishment of the mamlatdar and several of the local officers who had shared in the village spoils. In some places the unauthorized collections actually exceeded the authorized. In one case the unauthorized collections amounted actually exceeded the authorized of Re 127 in another case the unauthorized. to Rs. 357 against a Government demand of Rs. 137; in another case the unauthorized collections amounted to Rs. 789 against a Government demand of Rs. 255; in a third case the unauthorized collections amounted to Rs. 321 against a Government demand of Rs. 133; in a fourth case 'while the receipts of Government amouted to Rs. 303,' Government were defrauded of Rs. 368.' Mr. Williamson, Rev. Comr. 26th March 1835, Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 11-12 Bom. Gev. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 14.

Chapter VIII.

Land

THE BRITISH.

Mr. Pringle's

Survey,

1835.

might, he thought, be removed at the settlement. 1 Mr. Widiamson thought the chahur rates proposed by Lieutenant Shortrede, £6 (Rs. 60) on the best lands and £5 or £4 10s. (Rs. 50 or Rs. 45) on inferior lands, low but not too low considering the impoverished state of Indápur, the uncertain rainfall, the want of people, and the urgency of stopping yearly remissions.2 Simplicity was a great merit in any settlement. As the soil of Indapur was unusually uniform, he thought two rates would be enough. At the same time he thought that the settlement officer should have power to meet local peculiarities by special rates. He approved of Lieutenant Shortrede's proposal to grant ten-year leases and dwelt on the importance of limiting the area leased to each holder. If the holder took up more land than he was able to till, a slight misfortune might overset his plans and make him fail in his engagements.5 The lease should have some provision to ensure an abatement of the demand in a year of failure of crops. He objected to the grant of leases in the form of kauls with rising rentals. Remissions of this kind were occasionally necessary, but the practise on any large scale was evil. It led men to leave their old fields, take rent-free land, and again throw it up as soon as the rent had increased to a moderate amount. He was opposed to any grants of village leases. As a body the Deccan headmen had been proved to be corrupt, robbing the people on the one hand and Government on the other. With village leases the people would be in the hands of men who were unfit for any position of trust. In June 1835 Government sanctioned the proposed experimental settlement for one year.

In June 1835, on receiving the Government sanction and the Revenue Commissioner's instructions, the Principal Collector Mr. Mills directed his assistant Mr. Goldsmid, who since February 1835 had been in special charge of Indápur, to take steps to carry the plan into effect.

Mr. Goldsmid, while thoroughly approving of the proposed system, suggested certain changes.8 He was satisfied of the necessity of reassessing Indapur. After spending nearly four months in the subdivision (February-June 1835) he was certain that no scheme could be devised better calculated to injure the interests of both Government and its subjects than the existing system.9 On two points he desired the instructions of the Revenue Commissioner, the term for which the settlement was to be made, and the unit of measurement. the expense would be the same for one or ten years, on the score of economy he recommended a ten years' settlement.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 106-107.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 17-18
 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835,
 Mr. Williamson, 26th March 1835. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 20-21. 6 of 1835, 18.

Mr. Williamson, 26th March 1835. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 600 of 1600, 20-21.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 24.

Mr. Williamson says (26th March 1835), 'I would endeavour to commence the system directed in Government letter, dated 25th February 1834, before the rains, if good pâtils as farmers were procurable and the circumstances of the villages favoured that mode of settlement.' Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 26-28.

Gov. Letter 1326 of 12th June 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 73-74.

The Principal Collector, 22nd June 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 103.

His Report dated 27th June 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 105-124.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835. 106-107.

Chapter VIII.

Land.
THE BRITISH.
Mr. Pringle's
Survey,
1835.

and still stronger reason for the settlement being made at once for ten years was that if the land was given out on the liberal terms proposed by the Revenue Commissioner, so that in years of partial failure no remissions might be requisite, the loss to Government would be comparatively speaking immense unless the settlement were followed by a large increase of cultivation. The resident landholders were not numerous enough to ensure the requisite increase of cultivation, and outsiders could not be expected to come and build dwellings and clear waste merely because the land was assessed low for one year. As regards the unit of measurement Mr. Goldsmid was not in favour of the cháhur or 120 bighás. cháhur was not a definite measure of quantity. It would therefore be necessary to have a number of different chahur rates to equalize the difference in area. If acre rates were introduced in dry-crop land three rates would generally be sufficient. In the absence of trustworthy evidence, it was necessary in assessing the land to visit every field and examine its soil and position. Mr. Goldsmid proposed to engage four native clerks unconnected with the district. Every morning and evening these clerks would prepare statements of the quality quantity and situation of the land. Mr. Goldsmid would himself revise the returns so closely as to make fraud impossible. During the heat of the day, with the aid of fresh clerks. Mr. Goldsmid would prepare from the revised returns detailed statements of the class to which each field belonged, the number of bighás it contained, and the rate at which it should be assessed. He proposed to arrange the jiráyat or dry-crop land into three classes, and to assess them according to either of two scales, two. three, and four acres the rupee or three, four, and five acres the rupee. He preferred the lower scale, as with the higher scale in Indápur where rain was so scarce, remissions would be often required. To enable Government to form a just opinion regarding the relative merits of the two scales, before entering into engagements with the landholders, he promised to submit the result of the settlement of ten villages. On completing his arrangements in every ten villages he proposed to give the landholders written agreements to the effect that they were to be allowed to reap the whole advantages of any improvements they might make in their holdings and keep them at a fixed rate for ten years. He would also, where procurable, enter a neighbouring number or two which the landholders should be allowed to take for tillage within a certain period of years at rates determined according to the proposed scale. Regarding the area of land to be put aside and the term within which the exclusive power of claiming it should remain with the landholder, Mr. Goldsmid asked to be allowed to exercise his discretion. It would, he said, be impossible to follow any one fixed and uniform scheme even in a single village. He would give effect to the liberal orders of Government directing that landholders be permitted to take up land without paying a fee or nazarána. At the same time he feared that by giving out land at the low rates proposed, there might be risk that casual or upri landholders would take up more waste or gatkul land than they could afford to till and keep out more deserving tenants.1 To prevent this he proposed that, unless a holder took up the land within one to four years, his claim to it should cease. Mr. Goldsmid found the rates in garden or watered land ridiculously low. The sacrifice of the Government share had not even the effect of enriching the landholder. The bulk of the profits passed to some moneylending Bráhman who agreed to pay the Government dues if he got half of the crop and sometimes persuaded the holder to take an advance to grow some rich crop. When the soil was exhausted by this heavy crop the Brahman would withdraw from the arrangement.2 Mr. Goldsmid thought Government revenue was being needlessly sacrificed. He proposed that the garden land of Indápur should be assessed at 4s. (Rs. 2) an acre. If higher rates were fixed remissions might be necessary. He thought that channel-rates might be higher than well-rates. He was anxious to introduce the new well-rates at once. The dry-crop rates could not be brought into force till 1836-37 (Fusli 1246).3

In forwarding Mr. Goldsmid's letter to Government Mr. Williamson (24th July 1835)4 agreed that, considering Mr. Goldsmid's special knowledge of the villages, it would be safe at once to introduce a ten years' lease. He also withdrew his objection to the use of the acre as the unit of measurement. As regards rates Mr. Williamson thought it would be advisable to introduce a fourth or lower rate for specially poor soils. He did not agree with Mr. Goldsmid that there was much risk that landholders would take land they were not able to till. He thought that a man should be left free to take land if he chose. In 1832 when Government had taken off the well-cess they stated that it might afterwards be found advisable to raise the rates levied on garden land. He agreed with Mr. Goldsmid that the rates should now be increased.5 The enhanced rates should be light, but he would leave it to Mr. Goldsmid, acting under the Principal Collector's superintendence, to fix its amount. He thought that where a village was deserted or was much decayed Mr. Goldsmid might be allowed to grant the village in lease. But, except perhaps on inferior lands, the rates should be fixed before the village was leased. On the 7th of September 1835 Government approved and sanctioned the ten years' settlement and adopted the acre as the unit of measurement. Government agreed that the fixing of the rates of assessment should be left to Mr. Goldsmid. They did not approve of the proposal to levy an additional cess on garden land. They also thought the proposal to reserve for each landholder a portion bordering on his holding unnecessary. If carried out, there

Chapter VIII Land THE BRITISH. Mr. Pringle's Survey,

1335.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 117.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 117-119.

Mr. Goldsmid, 27th June 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 119-124.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 77-85.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 82, 97-98.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 77-85.

Gov. Letter 2056 of 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 141-156.

Land.

THE BRITISH.

Mr. Pringle's

Survey,

1835.

was the risk that some of the richest land in the village might remain waste. They thought that with such low rates it might be necessary to guard against villagers taking up more land than they could afford to till. The village officers were in every case to inform the settlement officer of the condition of men anxious to take land. They agreed that Mr. Goldsmid should inquire into village claimants and expenses and into temple allowances, and that where he thought it advisable he should grant decayed villages in lease to headmen.¹

In August 1835 Mr. Goldsmid had Mohol, now in Sholapur added to his charge. He brought to light a system of fraud which Government (24th November 1835) described as a discredit to British rule.2 Under these frauds the people were suffering so severely that Mr. Goldsmid believed that numbers would have left had they not taken heart at the sight of a European officer come to live among them.8 Mr. Williamson recommended that an engineer officer should be placed under Mr. Goldsmid to conduct surveys and to relieve Mr. Goldsmid from the labour of checking measurements. Government appointed Mr. Blakiston assistant to Mr. Goldsmid, and said that as soon as another writer, that is civilian, was available be would be appointed. They also approved of Mr. Williamson's plan of placing an engineer officer under Mr. Goldsmid's orders for survey purposes. Lieutenant Wingate was appointed to this special duty.5 In October 1835 Lieutenant Shortrede made proposals for a revised assessment in Purandhar where the rates of Mr. Pringle's survey had been found so unsuitable that since 1830 they had been given up and the old or mamul rates adopted. There were two difficulties in fixing the assessment of Purandhar, the village papers had been falsified and eight or nine land measures were in use. Of the land measures the chief were the bigha and the chahur of 120 bighas.8 The rates of assessment under Nána Fadnavis when the country flourished were not uniform in every village nor in every year. In villages where the soil was of ordinary quality the rates seemed to have varied from £6 to £9 (Rs. 60-90) the chahur; villages whose lands were generally of good quality were assessed at £9 to £12 or £13 (Rs. 90 to 120 or 130); and a few villages whose lands were of inferior quality were assessed at £3 12s. to £6 (Rs. 36-60).

¹ Gov. Letter 2056 of 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 141-156.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 245.

Mr. Goldsmid, 22nd August 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec, 666 of 1835, 78, 204

 ^{214, 218, 219.} Mr. Goldsmid in charge of Indápur and Mohol, 22nd August 1835; Mr. Williamson
 1541 of 22nd September 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 201-204.

^{*} Gov. Letter 2733 of 24th November 1835, Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 245-248.

* His reports are dated 1st October and 10th November 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 75, 95.

* Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 35-36.

Their names were bigha, chahur, rukka, takka, partan, paika, dori, khandi, and the acre introduced under Mr. Pringle's survey (1825-30). The kathi or rod used in measuring a bigha was of 119% inches or % the of an inch short of ten feet. By this measure about 37 bigha's went to 35 acres. But, in fact, the bigha was large or small according as the land was bad or good though the variety in area due to the quality of the soil was not uniform. The bigha was the ouly unit besides the acre which professed to be a measured quantity of land. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 83-84.

For some years after the great famine of 1792 assessment Cas low probably on account of the exhausted state of the country. It increased till the famine of 1803 when it again fell to about one-fourth of the full rate. Under Bájiráv it rose in a few years to the full rate and continued at or beyond the full rate till the country came into the possession of the British. The hereditary village officers took advantage of the ignorance of British officials to falsify the village records. This in Lieutenant Shortrede's opinion was a principal cause of the bad management from which the country had since suffered. The want of honest documents and the interested and corrupted statements which had taken their place had caused the disorder which the revenue survey was meant to cure. Mr. Pringle's survey rates had been judged unsuited for Purandhar and were in force for only one year (1829-30). Under these circumstances Lieutenant Shortrede thought (1st October 1835) that nothing more than a temporary settlement could be proposed. Even for a temporary settlement the means available were deficient. Full half of the lands were lying waste (1835). In his opinion the documents of the British Government were chiefly useful as showing by what means the country had been brought to so miserable a state. Lieutenant Shortrede thought that as an immediate settlement was wanted, the only plan was to use Nána Fadnavis' documents as the basis of the settlement, and to apply the results of neighbouring and similar villages to villages which had none of Nána Fadnavis' records. In Nána's times there were few cesses or bábtis. Many were introduced under Bájiráv. In 1830 when the original or manul rates were ordered to be enforced, Bájiráv's cesses were included. Lieutenant Shortrede thought this a mistake and that all or almost all cesses should be remitted. He also recommended that the village claimants or hakdárs should be paid by Government and not by the villagers, as these payments were a cause of grievous extortion.1 He thought also that serious frauds were committed by the headmen and clerks appropriating to their own uses a large share of the funds which they levied from the people as village expenses or gaon kharch.2 In forwarding this report Mr. Williamson stated that it had never been intended that the cesses should be included in the original or mámul rates which were substituted for the survey He thought that all except perhaps one or two cesses should be given up. He approved of Lieutenant Shortrede's proposal to go back to the rates under which the country had prospered under Nána Fadnavis. But care must be taken to reduce these rates in

1835.

Land.
THE BRITISH.
Mr. Pringle's
Survey.

¹ Closely connected with the bábs and haks was the batta or exchange on the rupees current in the Purandhar sub-division in order to make up the deficiency in their value. It seemed to be a general practice for the kulkarni and pátil to take from the people double of the authorized exchange and the people complained much of the hardship to which they were subject from the variety of coins current throughout the country, though they did not seem aware of the particular fraud thus practised with impunity on them by the pátil and the kulkarni, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 91-92.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 95 - 96.
 Mr. Williamson, 4th January 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 36.

Thapter VIII. Land, THE BRITISH. Mr. Pringle's Survey.

1835-36,

proportion to the fall in produce prices. The fall was roughly about one-half which would reduce the rental of Nana's best land from £12 (Rs. 120) the châhur to £6 (Rs. 60). This arrangement he did not suggest as permanent. It was to have effect till trained officers were available to introduce a correct survey. Any unauthorised increase that could be proved in the village expenses since the beginning of British rule should be reduced.2 In January 1836 Government sanctioned the proposed revision.

The rains of 1835 were far from favourable. In many subdivisions they were late of setting in; in many places the crops withered for want of moisture and in others they failed altogether. On the other hand in some parts of the district the fall was so heavy as to injure the early crops and to keep back the sowing of the late crops. Locusts appeared in some subdivisions and caused damage, and in the beginning of January 1836 severe cold injured the crops. Under all these disadvantages the land revenue showed a fall of about £6890 (Rs. 68,900). Of this decrease part was owing to a decline in the tillage area and part to an increase in remissions which it was found necessary to grant in consequence of the extensive failure of the crops.4 About 1835 measures were taken to improve towns and establish markets throughout the Deccan. In October 1835 Lieutenant Shortrede submitted a report on Mr. Pringle's survey. measuring, Lieutenant Shortrede found errors representing an average of about 16% per cent.7 As regards classing Mr. Pringle divided the dry-crop land into three classes, black or káli, red or támbdi, and gravelly or bardi. In Indápur and Purandhar each class was divided into three grades, first second and third, and in Mohol, Bársi, and Sholápur the black káli and the gravelly bardi had each four grades, and every field throughout the country was entered as belonging to one of these classes and grades. Lieutenant Shortrede inclined to agree with Mr. Pringle that, if the work had been honest, three grades of each class of soil would have been enough for a fair assessment. The first step towards fixing the assessment was to class the land; the next step was to find the net To find the net produce about sixty acres of each class, or as much land as might be cultivated by one eight-bullock plough was taken, the whole value of the produce was estimated, and the necessary and customary charges of tillage and bringing to market were deducted. Of the net produce thus determined fifty-five per cent was taken as the revenue to be paid to Government. Lieutenant Shortrede thought this system excellent in principle.8 After making

¹ Bom, Gov, Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 36-40.

² Mr. Williamson, Rev. Comr. 27 of 4th January 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 35-49.

⁸ The Rev. Comr. 27 of 4th January 1836, Gov. Letters 196 and 197 of 22nd January 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 35, 155, 157.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 772 of 1837, 9, 30.

⁵ Thetails are given in Rem. Cov. Rec. 772.

Both. Gov. Rev. Rec., 72 of 1835, 7, 30.

Both Both Both Both Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835.

Lieut. Shortrede, 24th October 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 401-462.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 342-343, 456-458.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 416. The distinguishing feature of Mr. Pringle's settlement was the principle of assessing at a certain proportion of the net produce. Lieutenant Shortrede and the Rev. Comr. Mr. Williamson did not object

every allowance for the chance of mistake through carelessness or error. Lieutenant Shortrede came to the conclusion that so many and such striking errors as he found could be the result only of intentional dishonesty and fraud. So great was the amount of fraud in the portions of the work he had tested that Lieutenant Shortrede came to the conclusion, that, except in its measurements, the results of Mr. Pringle's survey could never be used as the basis of any revised assessment. In forwarding Lieutenant Shortrede's report Mr. Williamson (16th May 1836) agreed with Lieutenant Shortrede that nothing short of intentional deceit could explain the grievous mistakes which he had brought to light.2 In forty-five out of fifty villages the errors were beyond all moderate bounds. Neither the Chapter VIII:

Land.

THE BRITISH Mr. Pringle's Survey, 1836.

to the principle while Lieutenants Wingate and Nash and the Principal Collector Mr. Mills held that the principle was unfair. In their opinion the result of assessing at a certain proportion of the net produce was unfair. Under it the cultivator was remunerated not according to his labour but in proportion to the value of the field on which he laboured. On the same capital, rich soil yielded a much greater profit than poor soil. Lieutenant Wingste gives (Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 14, 129) the following statement to show the inequality of Mr. Pringle's survey rates in consequence of being a percentage of the net produce, and shows how the rates might have been fixed so as to render the profit of cultivating every description of land the same:

Rental on Net Produce, How Faulty.

	Acres capable		Mr. Pri	ngle's Sur	VEY RATES.	P.	ROPOSED RATES.		
Soil.	of being cultivated at a yearly expense of Rs. 100.	of net	55 per cent of net pro- duce or acre rate.	Total rental on the acres in the second column	Balance of net produce being the profit of cultiva- tion.	Acre Rate,	Total Rental.	Balance of net produce being the profit of cultiva- tion.	
lst Black 2nd Black 3rd Black 1st Red 2nd Red 3rd Red 1st Gravelly 2nd Gravelly 3rd Gravelly	A. g. 28 36 29 15 34 88 29 18 85 1 40 29 40 14 40 84 43 39	Rs. a. p 2 8 0 1 15 3 1 7 9 2 0 14 4 1 2 1 0 13 2 0 10 0	1 1 3 0 13 0 1 1 9 0 11 9 0 7 9 0 10 0 0 7 3	39 11 9 31 10 9 28 4 9 32 8 6 25 11 6 19 11 8 25 3 6	Rs. a. p. 32 8 3 25 17 2 8 3 6 4 27 0 7 20 12 9 16 12 5 20 6 1 15 1 7 12 5 3	Rs a. p. 1 12 1 1 8 8 0 13 10 1 4 9 0 11 5 0 5 10 0 9 7 0 4 9 0 2 2	50 11 1 95 12 0 80 2 2 88 0 2 24 15 4 14 14 9 24 0 8	Rs. a p. 21 8 11 21 8 11 21 8 11 21 8 11 21 8 11 21 8 11 21 8 11 21 8 11 21 8 11	
Total .				236 7 2	194 0 5		236 7 4	194 0 3	

On the other hand Mr. Williamson contended (2297 of 12th October 1838, Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 151-152) that if, as Lieutenant Nash argued, Government were the universal landlord and the cultivators its servants, it would undoubtedly be unjust to leave one man a greater proportionate share of the fruits of his labour than another. But if the object of an assessment was to impose a land-tax, the plan of taking a certain share of the net produce was the only one by which that tax could be fairly fixed, and it was the only means by which any interest could be created in the land stronger than that local attachment which the Kunbi had for his fields; nor was the comparatively higher assessment of inferior soils, which was caused by such a system, to be deprecated. According to Mr. Williamson, it is perfectly natural and most profitable for the cultivator that the best soils should be the first cultivated as most profitable for the cultivator that the best soils should be the first cultivated as those which in proportion to the capital and labour employed on them yield the best return, and, when the fiscal arrangements of Government invert this natural order of things, it is a clear proof that there is something radically wrong in the system. Government (4739, 31st December 1838, Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 157-158) observed that Mr. Williamson's principle carried to extremity would seem to end in the abolition of all difference of rate or classification, and the settlement of one uniform rate for land of all qualities. Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII.

1 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 415-418.
2 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 335-371.

The British.
The Pringle's
Survey,
1836.

classification nor the rate of assessment had any connection with the colour or qualities of the soil. In several cases the assessment was glaringly unjust. In one place, fields, on which no grain could be raised except after rains so excessive as to make the black soil almost useless, were entered as of the best soil. Soils were found wrongly classed in almost every village. The errors ran through whole holdings or thals; they were not occasional or accidental but continual and systematic. The holders of alienated or private lands were greatly favoured. The partial manner in which they had been assessed was shown by cases which Lieut. Shortrede had carefully examined and well set forth. A great part of these favoured lauds were held by the hereditary village officers. The assessable lands held by the hereditary officers were also recorded in a lower class than they properly belonged to. In several villages Lieutenant Shortrede found that the best land was scarcely ever entered in the best class. In several instances he found that the class at first assigned by the assessor was fairly correct and had been falsified by the head assessor. In almost every case these deductions had been made in fields belonging to the village officers and rich landholders.2 Another common error in the survey was the over-assessment of poor lands. These errors were so glaring that they seemed to be wilful. Twenty to a hundred cases of fraud might be produced from any village taken at random.³ In practice, Lieutenant Shortrede said, the system of fixing what rent a field could bear by the net produce it yielded, failed because of the difficulty of collecting trustworthy information about net produce.4 On these reports Government unwillingly came to the conclusion that Mr. Pringle's survey and assessment, a work of great labour and enormous expense, which was originally looked to with sanguine expectation, must finally be set aside. Government acquiesced in the Revenue Commissioner's opinion and were satisfied that the survey and assessment were unfit to be made the basis of any revision.⁵ A fresh revision of the assessment was urgently called for. Considering the miseries which the people suffered from heavy and unequal assessment, every day and every hour of delay was an evil. In regard to the mode of effecting the revision the only general rule which Government could lay down was, that a patient searching and accurate inquiry must be made into the individual nature and capabilities of every

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 336-337.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 337-340, ³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 340-341.

⁴ Lieutenant Shortrede (24th October 1835) says, 'Instead of endeavouring to ascertain by a detailed calculation in every village the exact value of the net produce of each variety of soil, I should have preferred an assessment founded on a proportion of the gross produce decreasing from the rich to the poor soil.' Bom. Gov. Rev.

The faults in Mr. Pringle's settlement are given by Lieutenant Nash and Lieutenant Wingate in Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 12-16, 108-109, 125-130, 138-140, or CLI. 10-13, 88-89, 103-108, 114-116; Mr. Mills, Principal Collector, 20th September 1838, Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 142 or CLI. 118; Colonel Francis in Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 11, 16 or CLI. 10, 13; Mr. Williamson the Rev. Comr. 2297 of 12th October 1838, Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 151-152; and Gov. Letter 4739 of 31st December 1838, Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 157-158.

f soil which the survey included. In such a case no abstract or principle could be applied. Government hoped that under we management of the Revenue Commissioner Mr. Williamson, the present revision would be successful. Besides the talents and information that could now be brought to the work, the agents had learned much from past errors. Everystep they took would be founded on experiment and must lead to improvement. Government determined that under the general superintendence and direction of the Revenue Commissioner the work of survey and assessment should in each subdivision or tilluka be carried on by the Collector or the assistant collector who might be in charge of it aided either by an engineer officer or any other competent military officer. In the Poona collectorate the military officers were to be distributed according to the following arrangement. Lieutenant Wingate was to survey Mohol and Madha under Mr. Goldsmid; Lieutenant Nash was to survey Indapur under Mr. Goldsmid according to the system introduced by Mr. Goldsmid and Lieutenant Wingate; Lieutenant Shortrede was to have charge of Bhimthadi in addition to Purandhar and was to have Lieutenant Gaisford as an assistant; Lieutenant Calland was to survey Khed and Mával; Ensign Diggle was to survey Junnar and Pábal; Lieutenant Hart was to survey Sholápur; and two other officers were nominated to survey Bársi and Haveli.1 To render the proposed arrangement for surveying and revising the assessment fully available and beneficial, Government impressed on all officers concerned the necessity of harmony in work and of unity in system.2

Except in Junnar the 1836 rainfall seems on the whole to have been favourable. Of the total remissions of £16,503 (Rs. 1,65,030), £13,110 (Rs. 1,31,100) were granted on account of bad crops and £3393 (Rs. 33,930) for other causes. Of the total land revenue £119,452 (Rs. 11,94,520) were collected and £6954 (Rs. 69,540) were left outstanding by the end of August 1837. In the nine Poona sub-divisions eight new wells were built and twentyeight old wells were repaired. Markets were established in several villages.4 In April 1837 the Collector Mr. Mills drew attention to the great loss and hardship caused by the levy of customs and transit duties. He was of opinion that the abolition of the transit duties would give much relief to the agricultural and manufacturing classes. Transit duties caused great trouble and annoyance to trade and many difficulties to husbandmen in disposing of their produce. They were one cause of their poverty and of the decline of the land revenue. Mr. Mills recommended that these duties should be abolished.

Chapter VIII. Land.

TRE BRITISH. Mr. Pringle's Survey, 1836.

1836-37.

Jamábandi Reports, 1836-38.

¹ Of the sub-divisions named in the text, Mohol, Madha, Sholapur, and Barsi are now (1884) in Sholapur; and Indapur, Bhimthadi, Purandhar, Khed, Maval, Junnar, Pábal, and Haveh in Poona.

² Gov. Letter 3024 of 3rd Nov. 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 698 of 1836, 483-492. The details of remissions on account of bad crops are: Sholapur and Barsi Rs. 260, Mohol and Mádha Rs. 1300, Haveli and Bhimthadi Rs. 24,170, Khed and Mával Rs. 17,120, Shivner or Junnar and Pábal Rs. 78,900, Purandhar Rs. 6830, Indápur Rs. 2480, and Poona City Rs. 40, total Rs. 1,31,100.

4 The Collector Mr. Mills, 12th January 1838, Poona Collector's Compilation.

VIII. long as they existed, neither trade, manufactures, nor agricult—could flourish. This expinion of Mr. Mills had the supper of Lieutenant, afterwards Sir George Wingate, who held that the transit duties were one of the chief causes of the husbandmen's poverty. The holders of land would hail the abolition of transit duties as one of the greatest boons. Transit duties were abolished in September 1837.

чер, 1838.

The chief measure connected with the administration of the land in 1836-37 was the introduction of the thirty years' revenue survey settlement into the Kalas petty division of Indapur. Apart from the ruinous element of fraud in Mr. Pringle's survey in Indápur, the general failure of the 1829 harvest had altered the character of his settlement and filled the revenue accounts with confusion and uncertainty.8 Between 1829 and 1834 the Indápur husbandmen suffered grievously from the frauds of the village officers and under Government servants. The stoppage of or at least the great reduction in these abuses in 1834 and a change for the better in the seasons improved the condition of Indápur. The revenue returns for the three years ending 1835-36 show average receipts amounting to £6145 (Rs. 61,450) or an increase of £4450 (Rs. 44,500) on the corresponding receipts in the three years before 1833-34.4 It was under these comparatively favourable circumstances that, with the assistance of Lieutenant Wingate, Mr. Goldsmid introduced a revised survey and assessment in the Kalas petty division of Indapur in 1836. Mr. Goldsmid proposed that every field should be examined and the quality of its soil and the advantages or disadvantages of its situation determined. Government were anxious that the measurements of Mr. Pringle's surgey should form

⁸ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 666 of 1835, 9-12. Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 16-17.

The details are: Indapur Revenue, 1826-1836.

YEAR.	Rental.	Remis- sions.	Out- standings.	Collec- tions.
1826-27	68,334 74,688 1,05,705 64,130 73,200 75,502 83,079 70,932	Rs. 12,810 41,947 232 48,550 52,124 57,969 6207 12,162	Rs. 8175 4372 13,613 84,408 2693 273 871 21,989 3648 201	Rs. 63,212 22,015 60,843 21,297 12,887 20,803 17,162 61,080 61,082 62,187

In February 1867 (Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 21 or CLI. 18) Colonel Francis wrote that Mr. Goldsmid introduced his Indápur settlement when the revenue of the subdivision was falling and cultivation decreasing and when there were heavy outstanding balances. This does not agree with the above statement of the Indápur revenues which Colonel Francis gives in para 30 of the same report. The statement shows that Indápur began to mend from 1833-34 not from 1836-37.

5 Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. and CLI.

¹ Mr. Mills, Principal Collector, 25th April 1837, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 772 of

^{1837, 32-34.}Lieutenant Evans in Purandhar Survey Report, 13 of 18th Feby. 1847 para. 10. In consequence of most elaborate and vigorous protests from Mr. Davies in 1836, transit duties were abolished in Thana. Bombay Gazetteer, XIII. 581.

the basis of the new settlement. The former measurements were accordingly in each case tested. Where the error was less than ten per cent the old measurements were kept and if necessary corrected; where the errors were so great as to be likely to vitiate the assessment the whole village was re-measured. As regards the classing of soil Mr. Goldsmid proposed to arrange the dry-crop or jiráyat lands under the three heads of good or uttam, middle or madhyam, and bad or kanishth. It was in his rules for classing the soil that Mr. Goldsmid's system showed itself most superior to Mr. Pringle's system. Under Mr. Pringle's system so many considerations were left to the decision of the classer, the quality of the soil, its position, and its advantages, that it was impossible to have any uniformity in the classing of soils and it was impossible to test the care or the honesty of the classer. Mr. Goldsmid rejected the whole of the former classing. The attention of the classers was directed entirely to the quality of the soil of each field. The classer had nothing to do with any other considerations. All other considerations belonged to the question of the assessment not to the question of the class of land. Even after confining the classer's attention to the quality of the soil it turned out in practical working that to determine the quality of the soil of a field required a much more elaborate arrangement than the original rough grouping into good, middle, and bad. To meet this difficulty Mr. Goldsmid and Lieutenant Wingate devised a plan of arranging the soil under three main groups according to colour, black red and yellow, and of dividing each of the three main groups into three grades or classes, that is into nine grades in all.2 A value was assigned to each of the nine grades, twelve annas or 3ths being the highest and two annas or one-eighth being the lowest. As regards the dry-crop rates Mr. Goldsmid suggested an alternative scale, for good lands either two or three acres to the rupee of assessment; for middle lands either three or four acres; and for poor lands either four or five acres. He was strongly in favour of the lower scale of rates. the higher scale was adopted he thought that in a tract which suffered so greatly from uncertain rainfall frequent remissions would confinue necessary.3 It was at first proposed that the settlement should last for ten years instead of for one year and the period was afterward lengthened from ten to thirty years.4 Of the seventy-three and a half Government villages of Indapur, the villages forming the Kalas group were settled in 1836-37 and the rest in 1837-38.5 following statement shows the tillage and revenue of the Indápur sub-division between 1818-19 and 1836-37:

Chapter VIII Land. THE BRITISH. Survey. 1836 - 1838,

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel, CVII. 28; Mr. Goldsmid, Surv. Supt. 47 of 1st Nov. 1840 paras 66-67, Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXX.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 23-24, 29-30; Lieut. Davidson, 1st Sept. 1840 para 2,

Bom. Gov. Sel. CXXX.

Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 24. ⁴ Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 24, 25, 33, 35. There were besides two and a half villages which were settled in 1845. Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 29.

DISTRICTS.

hapter VIII.
Land.
THE BRITISH.
Survey.
Indúpur,
1836-1833.

Indápur Tillage and Revenue, 1818 - 1837.1

YEAR.		TILL.	AGB,	Ain	Sayar	Total.	Remis-
•	_	Bıghás.	Acres.	Jama.	Jama.	TOURL	81008,
	•			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1818-15	ا.	215,911	}	1,30,782	1533	1,82,815	
1819-20 .		210,532	1	1,56,191	6300	1,62,491	•••
1820-21		203,446		1,88,988	6665	1,45,668	20
1821-22		210,968		1,49,024	10,109	1,59,138	1129
1822-23	•••	177,197	•••	1,84,150	8403	1,42,558	6655
1823-24	•••	173,896	•••	1,43,485	9107	1,52,592	93,877
1824-25		148,562	•••	1,23,321	9436	1,82,757	94,121
1825-26	1	126,544	***	65,898	5344	70,742	9100
1826-27		_ 200,905		77,855	6098	83,953	13,509
1827-28 .		159,278	•••	67,111	5731	72,842	42,602
1828-29 .	•••	157,754		73,858	5586	78,894	232
1829-30			126,050	1,03,653	6168	1,09,821	
1830-31	•••		132,416	63,806	5488	69,244	7
1831-82			130,671	71,770	5291	77,061	53,522
1832-33	1		134,564	74,035	5488	79,528	59,523
1833-34	.,		150,604	81,502	6031	87,548	10
1834-85			126,310	69,601	6049	75,641	6400
1835-36]	٠,,,	131,707	78,144	8103	81,247	14,578
1836-37			159,900	73,212	7078	80,290	6156

YEAR.		Claims.	For	Out-	Collected.	Rupes	PRICES.
		C	Collection.	standings.	0000000	J vári.	Bájri.
	1	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Ra.	Shers.	Shers
1818-19		22,178	1,10,187	11,249	98,888	17	151
1819-20.		34,064	1,28,427	6834	1,24,598	104	12
1820-21		21,901	1,28,732	4261	1,19,471	32	16*
1821-22		24,354	1,33,650	4593	1,29,057	82	
1822-23		27,180	1,08,718	71,753	86,965	82	24
1823-24 .		26,334		13,049	19,332	864	23
1824-25		29,560	9076	2771	6305	12	} ""
1825-26 .		17,785	43,857	4920	38,937	44	84
1826-27		19,890	50,554	8824	46,730	64	
1827-28		15,340	14,900	6154	8746	82	· · · ·
1828-29	•••	10 047	60,015	16,653	43,362	80 🕶	68
1829-30		17,443	92,378	44,868	48,020	46	
1830-31.,	•••	1 1 1 010	51,327	43,206	8121	40	381
1831-32	•••	11 007	11,902	558	11,844	60	35
1832-38	***	9146	10,854	997	9857	28	36
1883-34	***	977 047	59,568	29,933	35,635	46	84
1834-35		22,634	46,607	4955	41,652	48	44
1835-36		21,864	46,805	1327	45,478	88	
1836-37		23,533	50,601	403		66	49
					50,199		

The effect of the rates introduced by Mr. Goldsmid and Lieutenant Wingate was to reduce the jamábandi or rent settlement from £9903 (Rs. 99,030) in 1836-37 to £7279 (Rs. 72,790) in 1837-38 or 26 per cent. This rental of 1837-38 was not much lower than the average settlement £7545 (Rs. 75,450) in the five years before 1836-37.

This survey and settlement of Indápur has the special interest of being the first application of the union of wise principles and ingenious practical devices, which has since become so well known and so widely adopted under the name of the Bombay Revenue Survey system. The new settlement was gradually introduced group after group into all the villages of the Poona district, the work ending with the settlement of the Mávals in 1853-54.

¹ The Indápur sher is larger than the Poona sher; the Poona sher is more than double the Bombay sher (Lieut. Nash, 1838); 216,000 bighás nearly equal 182,000 acres. Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 118, 120, 121; CLI. 96.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 36.

³ Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 21,

The following statement gives the survey rates introduced into the different groups between 1836 and 18541:

Poona Highest Dry-crop Survey Acre Rates, 1836 - 1854.

Land.
THE BRITISH.
Survey,
1836-1854.

Chapter VIII

		BLA	CKS.			RE	D8.		GRAV Bo	ELLY trad.		Dh	eli A evta	MD
GROUPS.	First.	Second.	Third.	Fourth	Furst.	Second.	Third.	Fourth.	First.	Second.	Third.	First	Second.	Third.
•	Res.	Res.	Res	Res.	Res.	Res.	Res.	Res.	Res.	Res	Res	Res.	Res	Res.
Indápur	300	240	170		220	130	75		100	60		800	700	
Kalas	300	240	170		220	130	90		75	45		1 .		
Bárámati	380	265	185	l "	220	145	80		110	65		380	285	1
Bhimthadi .	375	300	230	l	260	180	130	١	165	100				1 1
Kurkumb	330	265	185		220	145	100		110	65	40	400	,	
Pábal . Ausari	} 490	390	270		320	230	130		180	100	60	650	600	
Haveli Donja .	- 550	450	350	250	475	375	275	175	240	140	1			
	(450	372	264	۱	812	228	156	٠.	192	120				[.
Purandhar	₹ 894	325	231		278	199	136		168	105		1	1	
l	C356	295	209		247	181	124	۲	152	95		} '	'	١ ١
Supa	345	275	195		230	155	85	1 .	115	70		l		1 ::: -
, Supa	330	265	185		220	145	80	l	110	65		380		
l	§ 580	470	330	١.	450	825	175	***	210	120		700		
Born	490	390	270		350	250	130_		180	100		650		
1	(390	810	220		260	180	110		140 250	80		500		1 1
İ	650	530 480	890		500 450	860 810	187 150	٠٠ ا	200	150 120		l	***	1 1
Bráhmanvádi	1 480	384	840	} • •	320	1 208	120	! "	166	95		1		!
Į.	390	312	221		260	169	97	***	130	78		***	•••	"
ł	1 380	1 014]	""	200	1 -00	"	1 ""	1 200	"	20	***		<u> </u>

The following statement shows that in the seventeen years ending 1854 during which the revenue survey system was being introduced into the Poona district the tillage area spread from 895,438 acres in 882 villages in 1839-40 to 1,368,430 acres in 941 villages in 1853-54 and the collections rose from £63,612 (Rs. 6,36,120) in 1837-38 to £72,476 (Rs. 7,24,760) in 1853-54. The details are:

Poona Tillage and Revenue, 1837-1854.

Yrar.	INDA'PUR MILLET RUPER PRICES.	Villages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions,	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions,
	Jvári. Bájri.					
٠ عن	Shers. Shers.		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
#87-58 #838-89 #840-41 #840-41 #841-42 #842-43 #843-44 #845-46 #846-46 #846-46 #846-46 #846-46 #846-46 #846-46 #846-51 #851-52 #851-52 #853-54	64 44 56 40 68 42 72 44 60 86	882 882 882 883 889 900 938 938 937 939 940 940 941 942 941	895,488 947,840 982,600 1,000,881 1,065,282 1,168,127 1,102,088 1,148,755 1,228,304 1,227,868 1,196,719 1,215,015 1,273,394 1,196,719 1,215,015 1,273,394 1,196,719	72,410 1,86,263 1,06,399 99,262 1,20,814 26,997 42,917 92,895 1,05,947 19,283 24,622 40,010 81,483 51,961 28,852 7273 82,942	45,745 19,204 4944 17,508 24,408 9695 4498 33,321, 27,983 22,473 7176 11,838 10,759 4169 8258 452 2498	6,86,124 5,48,115 6,70,966 6,82,792 6,42,961 7,69,580 6,89,399 6,88,837 8,15,606 8,18,461 7,75,855 7,62,429 7,90,324 8,04,623 8,00,721 7,24,762

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 88. Four hundred res make a rupee or two shillings. The highest dry-crop survey acre rates in Khed were Rs. 1\frac{1}{5}, Rs. 1\frac{1}{2}, Rs. 1\frac{1}{3}, Rs. 1\frac{1}{4}, and Re. 1, and in Maval Rs. 1\frac{1}{2}, Rs. 1\frac{1}{3}, Rs. 1\frac{1}{4}, and Re. 1. Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 4; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 172 of 1853, 107.

Land.
THE BRITISH.

Of other measures which combined with the revenue survey to improve the district during this period, the introduction of petty divisional officers or mahálkaris between 1835 and 1838, and the abolition of transit dues in 1837 have been noticed. The repeal of cesses under Act XIX. of 1844, and the spread of public works also did much to improve the state of the district. The appointment of mahálkaris¹ or petty division officers subordinate to mámlatdárs or sub-division officers in Poona and other Deccan districts about 1835 was the work of the Revenue Commissioner Mr. Williamson. The repeal of cesses under Act XIX. of 1844 had the evil effect of freeing from taxation large classes of traders who profited more than any section of the community by the English maxims of government, and who were among the best able to pay of the whole population. At the same time it no doubt proved a relief and caused an increaso The introduction of public works especially of roads greatly enriched the district. It gave much-wanted employment to husbandmen when field work was slack; it opened markets for field produce, and by cheapening the cost of carriage added to the value of exports and lowered the price of imports.

1837-38.

The season of 1837 was very unfavourable. In November 1837 throughout the district a heavy and untimely fall of rain caused serious damage both to the standing crops and to the stacked corn. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári rose from about 86 to 72 pounds (43-36 shers). In the whole district £12,566 (Rs. 1,25,660) or 13 per cent of the land revenue were remitted and about eleven per cent left outstanding.9 The net revenue showed a fall of £13,050 (Rs. 1,30,500). This decrease was chiefly due to the abolition of town and transit duties, the discontinuance or modification of objectionable taxes, and a fall in the amount of judicial receipts.8 In January 1838 Mr. Mills, the Collector, observed that the general poverty of the landholders was well known to Government. He hoped that the introduction of superior products, the revision of the assessment, and the abolition of transit duties and other taxes which fettered the energies of the landholders, would soon enable them to better their circumstances.4 The introduction of the thirty years' revenue survey settlement u. Indapur,

Poona Remissions 1838-1838

		F-00	ra Leinus	ione, 1836-183	o. —,		
Sub-Divisions.		1837-88.	1836-87.	SUB-DIVIBION	18.	1837-38.	1836-87
		Re.	Rg.			Rs.	Rs.
Shivner		4632	65,448	Mohol		8031	2867 4904
Indápur Khed		4416 13,142	6156 17,434	Sholápur Bársi	***	15,935 10,856	2515
Pábal		14,072	22,018	Madha		17,135	8786
Purandh ar	[8070	6984	Poons City	***	85	78
Bhimthadi	••••	15,599	16,478	Grazing	•••	114	
Haveli	•••	12,119	10,967			30E 85P	377 150
Mával	•••	6451	6526	Total	***	125,657	171,156

⁸ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 974 of 1839, 1, 22, 214.

For details see Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 665 of 1835.
 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 974 of 1839, 54, 197-198.

⁴ Poona Collector's Compilation, Jamabandi Reports, 1836-38, 26.

which was begun in 1836, was finished in 1837-38. The first year (1837-38) of the new rates showed satisfactory results. The area under tillage had increased in two years (1836-37) by 66,900 acres;1 the revenue was collected punctually and with ease; there were no outstandings, and fewer remissions. That this improvement was in great measure due to the new settlement was shown by the fact that no similar improvement had occurred in other parts of Poona.

The season of 1838-39 was again very unfavourable. In some parts of the district rain almost entirely failed. At the same time the rupee price of Indian millet fell at Indapur from about 72 to 134 pounds (36-67 shers). In the whole district £18,626 (Rs.1,86,260) or about 241 per cent of the land revenue were remitted.3 The collections amounting to £54,811 (Rs. 5,48,110) showed a fall of £8800 (Rs. 88,000) or about fourteen per cent. The outstandings amounted to £1920 (Rs. 19,200). In Indápur, since the introduction Chapter VIII Land. THE BRITISH.

1838-39.

According to another account, the tillage area in Indapur showed an increase from 131,707 acres in 1835-36 to 162,019 acres in 1836-37 and to 189,088 acres in 1837-38. Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII, 120. According to a third statement (Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 63-66) there was an increase in Indapur in 1836-37 in tillage of 20,073 acres and in revenue of Rs. 5335 and in 1837-38 in tillage of 33,370 acres and in revenue of Rs. 11,402.

² Mr. Mansfield, assistant collector, 27th November 1838, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 974 of 1839, 188-190. Mr. Mansfield who had charge of Bhunthadi and Indapur and whose opinion as regards the result of the survey settlement in Indapur has been given in the text, writes in the same report (about 1837-38): 'The late heavy rain that fell in November was the source of much distress to the landholders of the subha or mamlatdar's division of Bhimthadi in which early or kharif crops alone are cultivated maniature survision of Diminian in which early or knowledge at the cultivated while in the Kurkumb petty division where rabi is the chief product, there were better crops than have been known for several years. The distress above alluded to entailed the necessity of making large remissions which though smaller than those granted the year before (1836-37), were larger than ought ever to be given if the sub-division were lightly and equitably assessed. But as this is very far from being the case in this sub-division in which the villages even in proximity to Poona, which it would have been supposed would have been represented by the remissions were mode. uncultivated and the cultivators most wretchedly poor, the remissions were made liberally on the ground that it is better to remit than to allow a balance to remain which may not be paid for years, and perhaps not at all. The decrease in land cultivation, notwithstanding the assistance afforded by Government in advances or tagai, the abolition of the transit duties and other vexations and oppressive taxes, is a forcible example of over-assessment. The mamlatdar of Bhimthadi represented that unless some immediate relief were afforded by reducing the assessment, a further decrease would take place. As there was no establishment capable of making an inquiry into the inequality of assessment, and Lieutenant Nash had begun the survey in the Kurkumb petty division, I issued an order that those who wished to take up fresh land should be assessed only at 12 as, or three-fourths of the survey rates, which measure has been attended by the beneficial result of 15,000 acres of fresh cultivation. The same rain that caused so much distress in Bhimthadi proved of signal benefit in Indapur, and notwithstanding the entire failure of the kharif crops the remissions granted are of less amount than they ever have been. This however might have been expected as the result of the introduction of the new survey. But. I bring it prominently to notice as the obviating the necessity of granting remissions twas one of the reasons specified for lightening the assessment; it is also pleasing to be able to record that that object has been partly attained. Mr. Mansfield, assistant

collector, 29th November 1838, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 974 of 1839, 178-182, 187-188.

² About 7½ per cent in the settled sub-division of Indapur, 43½ per cent in the unsettled sub-division of Shivner or Junnar, and 22½ per cent in the unsettled sub-division of Bhimthadi. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1098 of 1840, 99. In this year (1838-39) the Sholapur sub-divisions of Sholapur, Barsi, Mohol, and Madha were separated from Poona and included in the charge of the Collector of Sholapur. Poona now comprised 882 Government villages formand near the charge of the Collector of Sholapur. now comprised 882 Government villages forming nine sub-divisions: Shivner 173, Indapur 741, Khed 182, Pabal 57, Purandhar 671, Bhimthadi 69, Haveli 82, Maval 175, Poona City 2. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1098 of 1840, 3, 19, 26.

Chapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. 1838-39.

of the 9836 survey, about 68,000 acres had been brought under In November 1838 the Revenue Commissioner Mr. Williamson noticed that the introduction into Poona of the mahálkari system, and the separation of the Sholapur sub-collectorate had done much to improve the revenue management of Poona. The great want now was the revision of the survey. Though much remained to be done village accounts had greatly improved. The remission of town duties and advances to build shops and repair wells and village offices had done much to improve Supa, Kalas, Mohol, and Sholapur, and the city of Poona had benefited by the remission of taxes and the repair of roads.2

SURVEY. Bhimthadi. 1838-39.

In this year 1838-39 the thirty years' revenue survey settlement was introduced into the Kurkumb petty division of Bhimthadi.3 Bhimthadi was a long narrow belt, chiefly on the left bank of the Bhima, stretching from near Poons to the borders of Indapur. It included two divisions which differed greatly in climate. In the west the Pimpalgaon division, under the mamlatdar, enjoyed a much more certain and abundant supply of rain than the eastern division under the mahálkari of Kurkumb. The climate, soil, and productions of Kurkumb were in every respect similar to those of Indápur. The chief feature of its climate was scanty uncertain rainfall, and its chief produce was Indian millet or jvári. Pimpalgaon enjoyed a considerable rainfall, yielded bájrí, and was near Poona the chief grain mart in the country. Survey rates were introduced into Kurkumb in 1838-39 and into Pimpalgaon in 1839-40. horror of Holkar's wasting march in 1802 and the failure of rain and famine of 1803 had wiped out the memory of all older sufferings. The country had scarcely recovered when it passed to the British. Soon after, and probably in the mind of the people because of the Peshwa's overthrow, a plague of cholera swept away a large proportion of the people. During the three years after the Peshwa had been driven from Poona, in the village of Kurkumb out of 1000 people 460 died. Then came the ruinous fall in the price of grain from the spread of tillage, the decline in capital, and the fall in the numbers of the local non-agricultural classes. The failure of rain in 1823, 1824, 1827, 1829, 1830, and 1832 had combined to reduce Kurkumb to a deplorable state. The earliest year for which local information was available was 1832-33. In that year, as in Indapur, a succession of bad years joined with cheap grain had reduced the people to wretchedness and made large remissions necessary, the allotting of which had to be left in great measure to low paid clerks with little supervision. From a nominal or kacha rental of £7187 (Rs. 71,870) of the whole Bhimthadi subdivision, £5482 (Rs. 54,820) had to be taken because of remissions, and £462 (Rs. 4,620) because of village expenses, leaving to Government only £1243 (Rs. 12,430).

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 32, 36. According to another statement, in Indapur in this year (1838-39) tillage showed an increase of 15,555 acres and revenue of Rs. 3073, and in Kurkumb tillage of 11,072 acres and revenue of Rs. 1956. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 63-66.

² Mr. Williamson, Rev. Comr. 2610 of 23rd November 1838.

³ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 228.

The land seems to have been very unequally assessed; the average acre rate for dry-crop was 1s. $6\frac{5}{8}d$. (12 $\frac{5}{12}$ as.) and for garden 8s. (Rs. 4) besides the dry-crop rate. The people had come to look on remissions as their right. In 1838-39 Lieutenant Nash the survey officer was at a loss how to convey an impression of the poverty of the Bhimthadi villages; more than half the arable land was waste, the villages were ruined, constant remissions were required, and outstandings accumulated.2 Of a total of 191,000 arable acres 106,000 or more than one-half were waste. A portion of this waste was covered with thick thorny bushes, which it would be difficult to The village walls were crumbling and falling, and for one inhabited house two were empty and of many only the open sites remained. The conditions of the Kurkumb group, the soil, climate, style of tillage, and price of grain so closely resembled Indapur that Lieutenant Nash proposed to introduce the same rates. On account of their greater nearness to Poona Lieutenant Wingate suggested an increase of ten per cent and these revised rates were approved and introduced.4

In February 1840 Mr. Stewart the Collector remarked that where the new survey rates had been introduced, nearly all the land had been taken up. In many instances the landholders continued to take up land they were unable to cultivate and used it for grazing rather than risk being deprived of it by others. Where the old rates prevailed, much good land was still waste. This could be brought under tillage only by a reduction in the assessment. In 1839-40 the latter rains almost entirely failed and the late crops suffered severely. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári rose from about 134 to 88 pounds (67-44 shers). In the Kurkumb division of Bhimthadi there was an increase of 14,537 acres which was carried out by the landholders with their own capital.6 In the whole district the area under tillage was 895,438 acres; and though £10,640 (Rs. 1,06,400) or about 13} per cent of the land revenue were remitted,7 the collections were £12,280

(Rs. 1,22,800) higher than in the previous year.

Lieutenant-Colonel Waddington, Survey Superintendent, 12th July 1871. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 201.

Chap e. VIII .! "d. St EV

183 **\$**5

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Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 199, 233. At the same time as in Indápur the statement (Sel. CLI. 203) of revenues for forty-eight villages of the Bhimthadi subdivision shows a considerable improvement since the year 1833-34. The average collections during the three years before 1833-34 were Rs. 15,360 and in the six years after 1833-34 Rs. 31,570, and in the three last of these six years Rs. 34,350.

⁸ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 233.

⁴ Gov. Letter 4619 of 24th December 1838, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLL 228, 239.

⁵ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1098 of 1840, 19-20.

Mr. Stewart, Collector, 19th November 1840, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1241 of 1841, 69, 69. In Indapur tallage increased by 5625 acres, and revenue by Rs. 1526; in Bhimthadi the increase was 17,490 acres under tillage and Rs. 7458 under revenue. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 63-66.

In the surveyed and settled subdivisions of Indapur and Bhimthadi the remissions amounted to 44 and 64 per cent, while in the unsettled subdivisions they ranged from 6 to 20 per cent (Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1241 of 1841, 41). On the 9th of October 1840 Mr. Mansfield, the assistant collector, wrote, 'I am afraid that for long some remissions must be made whenever there is a want of rain. The landholders as a rule are so extremely poor, in consequence of over-assessment and low produce prices, that in a had year they have not capital enough to enable them to pay the full assessment.' Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1241 of 1841, 39, 177.

Chapter VIII.

Land.

SURVEY.

Bhimthadi,
1839-40.

In 1839-40 the survey settlement was introduced into the remaining villages of Bhimthadi.¹ They constituted the charge of the mamlatdar at Pimpalgaon. This group was the western division of Bhimthadi. It had passed through the same trials as the eastern or Kurkumb group which was settled in the previous year, and the condition of its villages and people was very little better. On the other hand there was a notable difference in the rainfall, the staple products, and the character of the soil. Pimpalgaon enjoyed a considerable rainfall, yielded bájri, and was near Poona the chief grain mart in the country. As regards rainfall in the Pimpalgaon group the early south-west rains were more plentiful, certain, and regular than in Kurkumb or Indápur; but the north-east October and November rains were slighter and less certain. As regards crops, in consequence of the difference of rainfall, the chief harvest of the Pimpalgaon group was the early or kharif millet or bájri and not as in Indapur the late or rabi Indian millet or jvári. Millet was a more costly crop to grow than Indian millet. It wanted manure and weeding, did not flourish without rain, and gave a less outturn. On the other hand millet was the food of the richer classes, and in Yevat the chief mart of Pimpalgaon was generally twenty per cent dearer than Indian millet.3 The details of millet prices are:4

Rupee Price of Bájri and Jvári in Shere, 1830-1839.

Towns.		Bayri.		Jodni.			
TOWNS.	1830-37.	March 1839.	Septr. 1889.	1830-37.	March 1839.	Septr. 1839.	
Indápur Kurkumb Yevat Poona	29	31 241 22 182	874 80 28 25	52 38	461 86 311 24	68 481 361 29	

Apart from the fact that its staple millet was a higher priced grain

Bhimthadi Revenue, 1830-1840.

YHAR.	Settle- ment.	Remis- sions.	Out- standings.	Collec- tions.	
48 Villages.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Ra.	
1880-31	47,725	39,223	1 1	8502	
4001 BB	2 2 074	15,507	6087	29,730	
1832-88	50,377	86,954	2576	10.847	
1833-84	E7 798	,	29,633	28,103	
1834-85	EE ONG	265	23,978	80.965	
1885-86	E4 900	8417	16,766	29,126	
1886-87	50 007	15.040	17,592	26,295	
1837-88	54,926	7678	13,003	84,260	
1838-89	E0 050	9222	10,034	81.597	
1839-40	59,674	8373	19,106	87,195	
Average	64,101	13,567	13,872	28,661	

Bom, Gov. Sel, CLI. 241.

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 239.

² During the ten years ending 1839-40 in a group of forty-eight Bhimthadi villages which were afterwards brought under revision in 1871, the remissions averaged £1357 (Rs. 13,570) and the collections £2666 (Rs. 26,660). The details (Bom. Gov. Sel. CLL 202-203) including extra cesses or edyar babs were:

⁴ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 241, 246, 247.

Chapter VIII Land. SURVEY. Bhimthadi, S 39-40.

than Indian millet, its nearness to grain markets gave the Pimpalgaon group a considerable advantage over Indapur. During the seven years ending 1837 the average price of Indian millet at Yevat in Pimpalgaon was 27 per cent above the average price of Indian millet in Indapur.1 As regards soil the greater certainty of the rain joined perhaps to some property of the millet plant made the varieties of soil less marked than in Indapur. There was less difference in the outturn of bad and good soils in Pimpalgaon than in Indapur. Pimpalgaon the best lands were waste and the worst lands were under tillage, partly because the good lands were harder to work but also from some fault in assessment. In fixing the amount by which the Pimpalgaon rates should differ from the Indápur rates no change was required under the heads of condition of the people or cost of tillage. The chief grounds of variation were the better rainfall in the Pimpalgaon group, the greater nearness of the Pimpalgaon group to better markets, and the less difference between the outturn of the different classes of soil in Pimpalgaon than in Indapur. These considerations led Lieutenant Nash to propose for the Pimpalgaon group rates which in the aggregate were thirty-two per cent higher than the rates introduced into Indapur.2 In the Pimpalgaon group there were 123,000 acres. The proposed rates averaged $11\frac{3}{4}d$. ($7\frac{5}{6}as$.) the acre, and the new assessment was expected to vary from £5700 to £6300 (Rs. 57,000 - Rs. 63,000). The old assessment was £11,600 (Rs. 1,16,000) and the Government receipts for the two years before the revision of the survey were £3300 (Rs. 33,000) and £2900 (Rs. 29,000). If the reduction of rates caused the same spread of tillage as in Indapur, an increase of 47,000 acres in tillage and of at least £1000 (Rs. 10,000) in collections was expected. On the ground that the difference of produce prices between Indapur and Pimpalgaon was twenty-five per cent in favour of Pimpalgaon, Lieutenant Wingate raised Lieutenant Nash's proposed rates by between four and five per cent.4 Lieutenant Wingate's acre rates were first black 1s. $10\frac{1}{2}d$. (15 as.), second black 1s. 6d. (12 as.), and third black 1s. $1\frac{4}{5}d$. (9 as. $2\frac{3}{5}ps$.); first red 1s. $3\frac{3}{5}d$. (10 as. $4\frac{4}{5}ps$.), second red $10\frac{4}{5}d$. (7 as. $2\frac{3}{5}ps$.), and third red $8\frac{7}{10}d$. (5 as. $9\frac{3}{5}ps$.); first brown $9_{10}^{9}d$. (6 as. 7_{5}^{1} ps.), second brown 6d. (4 as.), and third brown $3_{5}^{3}d$. (2 as. 44 ps.). These rates were sanctioned by Government. In considering the effect of the new rates of assessment Lieutenant Nash

¹ Bom Gov, Sel. CLI. 242-243,

¹ Bom Gov. Sel. CLI. 242-243.

² The Pimpalgaon acre rates were: Black land, 14 as. 4\frac{1}{2} ps., 11 as. 7\frac{1}{2} ps., and 8 as. 9\frac{1}{2} ps.; red land, 10 as., 7 as, and 5 as. 7\frac{1}{2} ps.; brown land, 6 as. 4\frac{1}{4} ps., 4 as., and 2 as. 4\frac{1}{4} ps. The corresponding Indápur rates were: Black land, 12 as., 9 as. 7\frac{1}{2} ps., and 7 as.; red land, 8 as., 5 as. 2\frac{1}{2} ps., and 3 as. 7\frac{1}{2} ps.; brown land, 4 as., 2 as. 4\frac{1}{4} ps., and 1 a. 4\frac{1}{4} ps. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 151, 244.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 245-246. In the Kurkumb group there were 98,764 acres. Their old assessment was £7055 (Rs. 70,550) and their new assessment £3700 (Rs. 37,000) representing an average acre rate of 9\frac{1}{2}d. (6\frac{1}{2} as.). Indápur contained 220,000 acres; its old assessment was £20,300 (Rs. 2,03,000) and for many years the average revenue had been only £3200 (Rs. 32,000). The average acre rate imposed by Mr. Goldsmid was 8\frac{1}{2}d. (5\frac{1}{2} as.); this reduced the assessment to £8400 (Rs. 84.000). average revenue had been only £5200 (Rs. 52,000). The average acre rate imposed by Mr. Goldsmid was \$\frac{1}{3}d. (5\frac{1}{1}\frac{1}{3}cs.); this reduced the assessment to £5400 (Rs. 84,000); while an extension of cultivation consequent on the reduction of assessment increased the revenue to about £5000 (Rs. 50,000), only about one-seventh of the land remaining out of cultivation. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 245.

4 Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 249-251.

Land.

anticipated that they would shortly cause an increase of not less than £1000 (Rs. 10,000) a year in the Government revenue, and Lieutenant Wingate thought that the gain to the people by the introduction of the new rates would be still greater.¹

In 1840-41 of a revenue of about £80,000 (Rs. 8,00,000) about £10,000 (Rs. 1,00,000) were remitted. In the open country away from the Sahyadris the crops were generally bad. About £9200 (Rs. 92,000) were remitted in the plain parts of Pábal, Purandhar, Junnar, and Haveli. In Indápur and Bhimthadi the revision of the assessment had lessened the necessity for remissions though the season was not more favourable than in the other eastern subdivisions. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or juári foll from about 88 to 128 pounds (44-64 shers). In the whole district the tillage area increased from 895,438 to 947,840 acres, remissions fell from £10,640 to £9926 (Rs. 1,06,400-Rs. 99,260), and collections rose from £67,097 to £68,279 (Rs. 6,70,970-Rs. 6,82,790). Outstandings amounted to £1750 (Rs. 17,500). In reviewing the year's report Government observed with satisfaction that the revenue was on the increase, the collections were made more punctually, and the outstanding balances were being settled.

In 1841 the assistant collector Mr. Hart, writing on the 9th of November spoke highly of the progress made in Indápur and Bhimthadi. Within the last few years population had increased, tillage had spread, the Government revenue had risen, and remissions fallen, and the social and pecuniary condition of the people had perceptibly improved. Mr. Hart considered that this change was in great measure due to the new settlement rates.⁵ One

¹ Lieutenant Wingate, 11th December 1839, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLL 252.

The details of remissions are: Maval 3.15 per cent and Khed 1.72, both unrevised western sub-divisions; Juunar 7.87 an unrevised sub-division partly western partly open, the season unfavourable in the open parts; Pabal 30.02 an unrevised sub-division in the open country, the season unfavourable; Haveli 8.58 and Purandhar 38.66, both unrevised sub-divisions partly near the hills partly open, the season unfavourable in the open parts; Bhimthadi 2.50 and Indapur 3.69 both revised sub-divisions in the open country, the season unfavourable as in the unrevised open parts. To illustrate the good results of the revised survey settlement still more strikingly, Mr. Vibart the Revenue Commissioner gives the percentage of remissions in the neighbouring sub-divisions of other districts; Korti 36.61 an unrevised sub-division of Ahmadnagar, and Karmála 43.71, an unrevised subdivision of Shorapur. They lay to the north and northeast of Bhimthadi and Indapur the revised sub-divisions of Poona. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1344 of 1842, 5-6.

⁸ Of the two revised sub-divisions in Indápur tillage showed an increase of 2194 acres and revenue of Rs. 655, and in Bhimthadi tillage of 21,347 acres and revenue of Rs. 8347. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 63-66. Of the total outstandings of Rs. 17,503, Rs. 6262 were in Khed, Rs. 3918 in Indápur, Rs. 2427 in Purandhar, Rs. 2162 in Junnar, Rs. 1825 in Haveli, Rs. 667 in Pábal, Rs. 183 in Poona City, and Rs. 59 in Bhimthadi. There were no outstandings in Mával.

⁴ Gov. Letter 1494 of 16th May 1842. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1344 of 1842, 281.

⁵ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1344 of 1842, 54, 126. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 202. In

⁵ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rev. Rev. 1344 of 1842, 54, 126. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLL. 202. In 1840-41 in Indápur the waste area was reduced to 5160 acres. Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 36. About Kurkumb in Bhimthadi the assistant collector Mr. Mansfield wrote about 1841: 'The increase in the land under cultivation in the Kurkumb division, amounting to 14,537 acres assessed at Rs. 5000, is a proof of the great relief afforded to the landholders by the revised rates of assessment; and it is worthy of remark that the whole of this land has been brought into cultivation by the holders on their own means, unassisted by advances and under a clear understanding that no remission would be made on account of a failure of crops.' Bom. Gov. Sel. CLL 202.

circumstance which added to the prosperity of the people on 1841 was the abundant supply of cattle. This was probably partly at least due to the change from pack-bullocks to carts which must have set free a large number of bullocks. On the 23rd of December 1841 the Collector Mr. Stewart wrote: 'Bullocks are brought in large droves from the neighbouring states. every year to these districts, and cattle markets are held weekly in many large towns. The supply is amply sufficient for the demand. Landholders are never forced to go any distance to buy cattle, nor is any inducement required to persuade the owners of bullocks to bring them for sale in these districts.' In 1840-41 Mr. Hart proposed that remission should be granted to any one who would plant the edges of his field with trees. Mr. Stewart the Collector said it was no use trying to tempt the people as they thought trees spoiled their crops and harboured birds.2

A subject which at this time received much attention from revenue officers was the best means of helping landholders by the grant of advances. In 1842 (February 8th) the Revenue Commissioner Mr. Vibart wrote, 'The account of the Government agricultural advances or the tagái is on the whole Where the advance is made to effect permanent satisfactory. improvements such as sinking wells, the more that can be advanced the better, provided the improvement proposed is real and permanent and the character and means of the landholder hold out a fair prospect of the undertaking succeeding. Advances to buy bullocks might do good. Still in lightly assessed parts advances for bullocks were open to the objection of tempting landholders to bring more land under tillage than they could cultivate properly. He thought that in lightly assessed districts the grant of advances to buy cattle should be discouraged except after an epidemic of cattle disease or after a famine year. In a letter dated the 16th of May 1842, Government approved of Mr. Vibart's proposals. They said 'In tracts or village groups where the assessment is ill-regulated and the landholders are poor and depressed, it is impossible to resist the call for advances to help in providing seed and stock. As a tract improves, the need of advances for seed or for stock becomes less urgent. In such cases advances should be confined to landholders who are anxious to improve their land. Government considered that the sums of money which had been advanced to landholders to enable them to improve their carts was most judicious. Advances to improve irrigation were also always well spent. In the present state of the public resources it was impossible to sanction any considerable outlay, and endeavours must be confined to preventing the decay of works already in existence.' Considering his peculiar qualifications and intimate knowledge of the country, Government sanctioned the annual disbursement by Dr. Gibson the Superintendent of the botanical garden at Hivra of £300 (Rs. 3000) in advances to landholders desirous of undertaking works of irrigation. One

Land.

THE BRITISH.

1841.

Mr. Stewart, Collector, 23rd Dec. 1841. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1344 of 1842, 50.
 Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 196.
 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec, 1344 of 1842, 15-17.

hapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. Carts. 1840.

form obadvances which in the opinion of Government should be scrupulously restricted was the demand of advances with the object of forcing ordinary cultivation.1

In 1836 the great loss which the people suffered from the want of a market for their grain impressed on the district officers the necessity of introducing measures to cheapen the cost of carriage. Roads were being made, and the new road (1830) down the Bor pass made it possible to send produce to the Konkan and Bombay in carts. There were very few carts in the district. Those which were in use were for carrying great weights for short distance and A new style of cart was introduced by had solid stone wheels. Lieutenant Gaisford in 1836, and a cart factory was started by him at Tembhurni in Sholápur.² The people took great interest in the carts which were light weighing only 160 pounds, cheap costing about £4 (Rs. 40), and roomy enough to carry about three quarters Many of the richer landholders bought carts. It was of a ton. found that the bulk of the people were keen to buy but could not spare the money. Advances were made aggregating about £760 (Rs. 7600) and in the four years ending 1840 it was estimated that 3722 carts had been made and were in use. In his report for 1839-40 the Collector Mr. Stewart wrote (19th Nov. 1840): The improved description of carts is highly approved by all classes. The model has been generally adopted and several people make them for sale on speculation, in the city of Poona. To introduce cart-making into the leading country towns Mr. Stewart proposed that at each mámlatdár's station two workshops should be formed, which the children of the village carpenters and blacksmiths of the pargana should be allowed to attend to be taught cart-making. Where the means of learning their trade was thus within the reach of each carpenter and blacksmith of a village, Government might insist on certain degrae of shill to entitle him to the inam or perquisites attending his right to work for his village. As a further encourage ment to the attainment of greater skill, a promise of employment under Government in the public works and ordnance might be held out to those who were considered fit for such situations. Government did not favour Mr. Stewart's suggestions. In their opinion if cart-making paid, cartmakers would soon spring up.4

The season of 1841-42 was peculiarly unfavourable. The early rains fell in some sub-divisions so abundantly and incessantly as to destroy a large proportion of the early crops. The late harvest failed because the latter rains were too long of beginning. In some sub-divisions the standing crops were destroyed by locusts. remissions amounted to 15:31 per cent.5 At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári rose from about 128 to 112 pounds

¹ Gov. Letter 1494 of 16th May 1842, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1344 of 1842, 275-278.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 39, 40, 41, 54, 55.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1241 of 1841, 20-21, 87-91.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1241 of 1841, 269-270.

Junnar 21:47, Indápur 10:96, Khed 14:72, Pábal 12:79, Purandhar 33:35, Bhimbhadi 2:78, Haveli 7:77, Mával 7:21, and City of Poona 3:62. Bom, Gov. Rev. Rec. 1453 of 1843, 41-42,

(64-56 shers). The area under tillagel in the whole district rose from 947,840 to 982,600 acres, and collections fell from £63,279 to £64,296 (Rs. 6,82,790-Rs. 6,42,960).2 Outstandings amounted to £2441 (Rs. 24,410). Since 1838 considerable progress had been made in clearing off the heavy balances which had for years been accumulating. The total of £69,016 (Rs. 6,90,160) in 1838 was reduced to £36,544 (Rs. 3,65,440) in 1841.4

The low rates introduced into Indápur and Bhimthadi had led to a rapid spread of tillage.⁵ The tillage was superficial. As shown in the following statement the increase in the stock of cattle did not nearly keep up with the increase in the tillage area. The details6 are:

Bhimthadi-Indapur Tillage and Working Cattle, 1840-1843.

SUB-DIVISION.	LAST TEAR OF MR. PRINCE'S SURVEY.		1840-41.		1841-42.	1841.
	Tillage.	Oxen.	Tillage.	Oxen.	Acres taken.	Oxen.
Bhimthadi. Mámlatdár's Division Mahálkari's do	Acres. 49,576 36,460	9361 5849	Acres. 74,468 78,127	10,411 7945	Acres. 79,793 77,791	11,068 7864
Indápur. Mámlatdár's Division Maháikari's do	76,875 64,012	4905 4068	118,164 105,006	7675 5776	116,551 108,593	8958 8726
Total .	226,423	23,683	375,765	30,807	377,728	36,616

1 The details are:

Poona Tillage, 1858-1842.

Sun-Division.				1838-89.	1839-40.	1840-41.	1841-42
Shivner Indapur Pábal Purandhar Bhimthadi Haveli Khed Mával Poona City				Acres. 212,407 108,069 	Acres. 218,308 131,324	A cres. 143,763 224,695 113,200 106,048 154,351 60,467 106,312 32,758	Acres. 144,762 227,564 124,209 109,726 159,624 80,142 162,436 31,858
200	***	Total			8 95,438	2246 947,840	932,600

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1344 of 1842, 32, and 1453 of 1843, 34, 35, 37. In 1842 there were 6148 acres of waste in Indapur and 43,705 in Bhimthadi. Rev. Rec. 1453 of 1843, 35. According to another statement there was in 1841-42 a decrease of 749 acres in tillage and of Rs. 226 in revenue in Indapur, and an increase of 5418 acres and Rs. 2368 in Bhimthadi. In Haveli and Pabal into which the survey settlement was introduced in 1841-42, there was an increase of 6382 acres in tillage and of Rs. 3438 in revenue in Haveli, and of 2068 acres and Rs. 1009 in Pabal. Born. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 63 - 66.

Of the decrease in revenue about £1800 (Rs. 18,000) were due to the introduction

of survey rates into Pabal and Haveli. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1453 of 1843, 29.

The details are: Shivner Rs. 57, Indapur Rs. 3598, Khed Rs. 393, Pabal Rs. 3159, Purandhar Rs. 10,523, Bhimthadi Rs. 2934, Haveli Rs. 3237, Mával Rs. 2, and Poona City Rs. 505. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1453 of 1843, 125.

⁴ Mr. Vibart, Rev. Comr. 311 of 24th Feb. 1842. The figures were, for Indipur 212,407 acres in 1838-39; 218,308 in 1839-40; 224,695 in 1840-41; and 227,564 in 1841-42; and those for Bhimthadi 108,069 acres in 1838-39; 131,324 in 1839-40; 154,351 in 1840-41; and 159,624 in 1841-42. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1453 of 1843, 35. According to another statement there was in 1841-42 a decrease of 749 acres in tillage and of Rs. 226 in revenue in Indapur, and an increase of 5418 acres and Rs. 2368 in Bhimthadi. Bom. Gov. Rev. Bec. 17 of 1846, 63-66.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1344 of 1842, 135-136. The figures in this statement and in

the statement in footnote 1 do not quite agree,

Land.

Chapter VIII

THE BRITISH. 1841-42.

> Indápur-Rhimthadi.

Chapter VIII.
Land.
THE BRITISH.
1341-42.

In spite of the badness of the season the opening of cart tracks and the making of carts had caused a marked increase in traffic.\(^1\) In 1841 the chief exports were field produce, chiefly jvári, bájri, tur, gram, wheat, oil, and miscellaneous articles. Coarse cotton cloth chiefly for local use was woven in Indápur, Jejuri, Talegaon Dábháde, and some other villages. Returns prepared at Khandála on the Bombay-Poona road and on the other main lines of traffic showed an increase in the estimated value of the traffic from £110,528 (Rs. 11,05,280) in 1840-41 to £131,758 (Rs. 13,17,580) in 1841-42 or an increase of £21,230 (Rs. 2,12,300). The value of the articles on which import or thal-mod that is local-emptying duties were levied in the city of Poona and in the town of Junnar, rose from £39,738 (Rs. 3,97,380) in 1840-41 to £41,623 (Rs. 4,16,230) in 1841-42, and the export or thal-bharit that is local-filling goods were estimated to have fallen in value from £8880 (Rs. 88,800) to £6849 (Rs. 68,492).2

Survey. Pábal, 1841-42.

In this year the thirty years' revenue survey settlement was introduced into the Pábal and Haveli sub-divisions.3 Pábal was a narrow slip of land lying nearly north and south. It included a northern group with Ausari as its head-quarters which formed the mahálkari's charge and a southern group with Pábal as its headquarters which formed the mamlatdar's charge. As all parts of the sub-division were about the same distance from the Sahyadris there was little variety of climate. In the north-west corner a few villages were hemmed in by considerable hills which caused a specially heavy rainfall while some villages on the eastern boundary received a scanty-supply. The landholders though depressed were not so badly off as those of Indápur and Bhimthadi. The large proportion of hereditary or mirás holders, 1850 out of 2442 in the Pábal group and 2719 out of 3262 in the Ausafi group, showed that this sub-division had never suffered so severely as the east of the district. At the same time Pábal was depressed by over-Many of the villages were ruined and tillage had remained nearly stationary at 105,000 acres in the twelve years ending 1841 during which Mr. Pringle's settlement was nominally During those twelve years more than 50,000 acres or about a third of the Government arable land had lain waste. total dry-crop or kamál jiráyat assessment fixed in 1829 for the whole Government arable land at £15,500 (Rs. 1,55,000) an average of only £7200 (Rs. 72,000) or less than one-half was realized. During the first nine years (1820-1829) of British rule the average rental including sáyar or miscellaneous revenue was £13,783 (Rs.1,37,830), and the average collections were £12,518 (Rs. 1,25,180). In the next twelve years (1829-1841) when the rent settlement was nominally made according to the assessment fixed at the 1829 survey, the average revenue for collection was £10,769 (Rs. 1,07,690) and the collections The large average rental and collections £8785 (Rs.87,850). during the first period (1320-1829) were due to the comparatively enormous revenue drawn from the land in the first few vears of

⁸ Bom, Gov. Sel. CLI, 337.

Bom. Gov. Sel. CLL 339.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1453 of 1843, 16. ² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1453 of 1843, 95-96.

For the first three years (1820-23) the actual receipts British rule. on account of land revenue averaged upwards of £16,000 (Rs. 1,60,000) a year; in 1824 they fell to £10,800 (Rs.1,08,000); and in every succeeding year they were less than in 1824. Lieutenant Wingate thought that in the early years the capabilities of the Deccan had been overtaxed and that this drain of capital was in great measure the cause of the future poverty and distress.1 Of the two survey groups into which Pábal was divided the Pábal or mámlatdár's group in the south contained 113,054 acres distributed among twentyeight villages. Measuring and classing were begun in 1839 and finished in 1840. The measurements of the 1829 survey generally proved correct and were kept by the 1839 survey. Except a few villages in the east where the rainfall was somewhat scanty, the climate of the Pábal group was uniform. The people, though poor in house gear clothing and farm stock, were some shades better off than the people in the east. There were 188 shops. Still many of the villages and village walls were ruined, and manufactures did not flourish. Of 2442 landholders, 1850 were hereditary holders, 492 were casual holders, and 100 were ovandkaris or ovandekaris2 that is strangers. There were 1225 ploughs, 7521 bullocks, and 430 carts. Since the introduction of the 1829 survey the tillage area had varied little, the average of the three years ending 1841 showing an increase over the three years ending 1832 of about 4000 acres.3 This south or Pábal group did not come under British management until 1820. In that year the land revenue was £8332 (Rs. 83,320) and the other taxes yielded £418 (Rs.4180) or a total revenue of £8750 (Rs. 87,500). In 1828 the year before Mr. Pringle's survey, the land revenue was £4796 (Rs. 47,260) or nearly one-half what it was himely ears before and the taxes £328 (Rs. 3280) or one-third less. The survey rates yielded a revenue of £5398 (Rs. 53,980) that is an increase of £600 (Rs. 6000), but in the following year the rental sank to about its former level. Since 1835-36 it had been gradually diminishing at the rate of £100 (Rs.1000) a year and in 1838-39 was £5157 (Rs.51,570) or £3175 (Rs.31,750) less than when the country came into the hands of the British, while the taxes were £190 or £230 (Rs. 1900 or Rs. 2300) less. During the first nine years (1820-1829) remissions to the amount of £6764 (Rs.67,640) were given, and during the last ten years under the 1829 survey the sum of £7629 (Rs. 76,290) was remitted, so that in the space of nineteen years the remissions amounted to the enormous sum of £14,393 (Rs.1,43,930) that is nearly three years' rental. There was a large area of garden tillage. There were many water channels or páts, 739 wells of which 208

Chapter V. Land. SURVEY. Pábal, 1841-42.

The various land measures in use, the pakka-bigha, kachcha-bigha, chahur, rukka, and khandi made it impossible to tell the area under tillage in the years before 1829.

Lieutenant Wingate, 7th September 1841, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLL 337-339, 348. It means the holder and cultivator of land which lies without the tract subject to the village in which he lives.

Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 329.

Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 330. In the entire Pabal sub-division that is in both the Pabal and Ausari survey groups, taking land rent or ain jama and cesses or sayar together, the average yearly remissions during 1820-29 were Rs. 11,800 and outstandings Rs. 843, and during 1829-41 average remissions Rs. 17,141 and outstandings Rs. 2,699. Ditto, 338.

Land.
Survey.
Pábal,
1841-42.

were out of repair, and 69 water-lifts or budkis of which 44 were out of repair. Lieutenant Robertson suggested that the rates sanctioned for the Pimpalgaon group of Bhimthadi which were thirty-three per cent higher than those of Indápur, should be adopted for this Pábal group, as the two groups did not differ in climate, productiveness, nearness to Poona, or in means of sending produce to markets. The garden lands might he thought be assessed on the system adopted in Indápur.

The Ausari or northern group contained 74,662 acres distributed over thirty-four villages of which thirty-one were Government and three were dumála or reversionary. The measuring and classing were begun and finished in 1839-40. As the measurements of the 1829 survey proved incorrect in sixteen villages they were remeasured throughout. The error on the arable land of one village was found as high as 52 per cent, and in the other fifteen villages it varied from 17 to 30 per cent. The mistakes were almost entirely in favour of Government. In the remaining fifteen villages as the amount of error was within ten per cent the former measurement was retained. As it was nearer to the hills the Ausari group was better off for rain than the eastern Pábal villages. Consequently the difference in fertility between the better and the poorer soils was not so marked. The climate was much the same throughout, except in a few villages in the north-west which were surrounded by hills and in consequence had a specially large and certain supply of rain. The group was crossed by the Mina and the Ghod and nearly all of the villages were on the banks of these rivers. The soil of the tract drained by the Mina was poor, chiefly red or támbdi and stony or bardi, with few trees and much of it waste. The Ghod, from as fareas Pimpalgaon, ran through better land, fairly wooded with mangoes and nearly all under tillage. The chief dry grains were for the early harvest bájri and jvári and for the late or rabi harvest wheat, gram, and safflower or kardai. There were 806 wells and 64 water-lifts or budkis in good repair. The wells were chiefly used in growing vegetables wheat and gram, and in a few villages small patches of sugarcane plantain and mulberry trees. A dam across the Mina river at Náráyangaon about ten miles south-east of Junnar, when in thorough repair, watered 362 acres of land. According to the 1829 survey the Ausari group contained 75,177 arable acres, of which in 1840, 55,970 acres were under tillage and 19,207 were waste; of 3262 landholders 2719 were hereditary holders, 426 casual holders, and 117 strangers or ovandkaris. There were 1433 ploughs, 368 carts, and 9436 bullocks. In fifteen villages there were good chavdis or village offices, in ten villages the village offices were sadly out of repair, and in seven villages they were in ruins. Besides serving as village offices, the chávdis were useful and convenient as a resting-place for native travellers. Ten villages had Maráthi schools with a total attendance of 244 boys. At Náráyangaon the master was paid by Government; in the other villages the pay of the master varied

Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 310-311.
 Capt. Landon, asst. supt. 25th August 1840, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 333-334.

according to the number of boys and ranged from 6s. to 12s. (Rs. 3-6) a month, each boy paying 3d. to 6.1. (2-4 as.) a month according to the progress he made. The boys were all very young as the parents did not like paying for them and soon took them away. The only manufactures were the weaving of coarse cotton cloth and of kámblis or blankets for local use. Several villages had a weekly market at which vegetables and small quantities of grain and coarse cloth were offered for sale. The amount of traffic was small. The surplus grain, tobacco, and other produce went either to Poona, Panvel, or Bhiwndi. X Large droves of bullocks loaded with cotton from Umrávati in Berár passed through Korti and Pábal on their way to Bombay. In 1820 when the Ausari villages came under British management the rental on the land under tillage was £8026 (Rs. 80,260). By 1828 it had fallen to £5653 (Rs. 56,530), and Mr. Pringle's survey in 1829 reduced it to £4662 (Rs. 46,620). Since 1829 the tillage area had varied little, but the amount of remissions and balances had been much larger since the 1829 survey than before.1 At the time Ausari passed to the British (1820) the amount collected from the land was £8026 (Rs. 80,260) being the full assessment without any remission. The year before the survey (1828) it had fallen to £4487 (Rs. 44,870) and on the introduction of the survey in 1829 it fell to £3254 (Rs.32,540); in 1831 it fell to £2553 (Rs.25,530); the following year it was more favourable, and in 1833 and the two following years nearly the whole assessment was collected; in 1836 it again fell to £3527 (Rs. 35,270), and since then it fluctuated between £3500 and £4000 (Rs. 35,000 and Rs. 40,000) which is less than half the amount collected when the British first took possession of the petty division in 1820.2

Of the entire Pábal sub-division in a group of fifty-six villages he changes in revenue between 1836 and 1841, that is during the ive years before the thirty years survey settlement, are as follows:

Pábal Revenue, 1836 - 1811.

YEAR.		Vil- lages.	Total Rental,	Unoccu- pied.	Occu- pied.	Remis- sions.	Collec-
1836-37 1837-38 1838-39 1839-40 1640-41	•	56 56 56 56 56	Rs. 1,33,878 1,30,901 1,31,069 1,32,791 1,30,101	Rs. 46,318 44,480 45,162 43,234 33,185	Rs. 87,560 86,421 85,907 89,557 96,916	Rs. 18,764 15,591 26,443 16,980 86,043	Rs. 68,796 70,830 59,464 72,577 60,878

The survey rates proposed by the assistant superintendent Captain Landon gave for the whole sub-division an acre average of 1s. 11d. (9 as.) and a maximum dry-crop assessment on the arable land, of

and between 1829 and 1839 remissions and balances amounted to £4332 (Rs. 43,320) and between 1829 and 1839 they amounted to £9260 (Rs. 92,600). Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 332.

*Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 339.

Chapter VIII

Land.

Survey.

Pábal,
1841-42.

⁴ Captain Landon thought that the Pábal sub-division could easily bear an increase of 35 per cent on the rates fixed for Sholápur that is 68.3 per cent higher than those of Indápur, and 10 per cent additional on the inferior soils on account of their greater fertility. He also suggested that a few villages on the north-west might bear an additional 20 per cent on account of a more certain supply of rain, and a few on the eastern border be lowered 20 per cent on account of less certain rainfall. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 311.

Land.
SURVEY.
Pabal,
1841-42.

£9281 (Rs. 92,810). This in addition to the garden or bágáyat rental of £1550 (Ks. 15,500) gave a total survey rental of £10,831 (Rs. 1,08,310). Compared with the average collections of the previous ten years this total rental showed an increase of £2631 (Rs. 26,310). The immediate sacrifice on the part of Government was estimated at £52 (Rs. 520). For garden land, of which a considerable area was watered from channels, the assistant superintendent recommended an acre rate of 6s. (Rs. 3). There was also a small area of the rich alluvial soil called dheli. Some of this land which had been put to auction in the previous year was rented at 16s. (Rs. 8) the acre. As the area of this alluvial land depended on the river, the assistant superintendent recommended that the existing system of disposing of it by yearly sale should be continued. As the garden land at Náráyangaon was watered from a dam across the Mina river which cost Government a large sum to keep in repair, and, as the rates had been revised by the Revenue Commissioner in 1838, the assistant superintendent advised that the present rates should be continued with an acre reduction of 2s. (Re. 1) in the first class and 1s. (8 as.) in the other classes. rates he proposed were £1 6s., 17s., 7s., and 5s. (Rs. 13, Rs. 8½, Rs. 3½, and Rs. 21). Lieutenant Wingate thought the proposed dry-crop rates too high. If the whole arable area was brought under tillage they would cause an increase of 38 per cent. To place the two Pábal groups on the same favourable position as the Indápur and Bhimthadi groups he would reduce the proposed rates by ten per cent. The watered lands amounted to about 6000 acres of which 3900 were watered from wells, 950 from channels, and 1150 from wells and channels. Well-watered or motastkal lands were not subjected to any extra taxation before the 1840 survey. Lieutenant Wingate recommended that well-watered land should be assessed on the plan adopted for the eastern sub-divisions. For channel watered land an acre rate of 6s. (Rs.3) to 2s. (Rc.1) in excess of highest dry-crop rate was proposed. Land watered from both channels and wells was to be assessed by a combination of the two rates. The settlement as modified by Lieutenant Wingate would, when the whole arable land was brought under tillage, represent an increase of £2000 (Rs. 20,000) or twenty-six per cent on the average collections of £7700 (Rs. 77,000) during the twelve years ending 1841.2 Lieutenant Wingate's rates were approved and sanctioned.3

Rebuilding about one-third of the dam cost about Rs. 37,000. Captain Landon, 25th August 1840, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 335. In 1838 the Revenue Commissioner reduced the rates from Rs. 17, Rs. 12½, Rs. 6, and Rs. 3 to Rs. 14, Rs. 9, Rs. 4 and Rs. 3. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 336.

³ According to Lt. Wingate's rates the dry-crop rental amounted to £8350 (Rs. 83,500) and the garden rental to £1350 (Rs. 13,500) or a total of £9700 (Rs. 97,000). Bom. Gov. Sol. CLI. 342.

⁹ Gov. Letter 3679 of 3rd Dec. 1841. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 348-349. At the survey settlement a murás patti or hereditary holders' cess yielding about £30 (Rs. 300) levied every third year from a few villages was abolished. Another cess of the same name and yielding nearly £200 (Rs. 2000) had been levied every third year from the members of the village staff or balutedars. This was changed into a yearly cess of one-third of the former amount. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 341.

The survey settlement was introduced into the Haveli subdivision in 1841. As Haveli lay to the west of Bhimthadi it enjoyed a larger share of the south-west rains. Bájri was the staple grain and varied in good soils with early jvári and with late wheat and gram. Near the hills a few patches of rice were grown. Near Poona the grazing land was very valuable. In one village upwards of 100 fields were kept in grass. In the villages round Poona, except in the lands of the rich where it was used as manure, the cowdung was stored and carried as fuel to the city. In the city there was a constant demand for grass, vegetables, and fruit, and the average price of grain was twenty to twenty-five per cent higher than in Bhimthadi. According to the 1829 survey, exclusive of ináms the Haveli subdivision contained 96,383 acres of arable land assessed by Mr. Pringle at£11,920 (Rs. 1,19,200). The following statement shows the rental and collections for the twenty-two years ending 1840:2

Chapter VIII.

Land.

SURVEY.

Haveli,
1341-42.

Haveli Revenue, 1818-1840.

ĺ		Rental.		Sáyar.	Total.	Remis-	Balan-	Collec-
ļ	YEAR.	Land.	Cesses.	Sujur.	10	SIODS.	ces.	Mons.
	1818-1840 1818-1830 1830-1840	Rs. 79,042 80,631 77,136	Rs. 27,765 33,672 20,676	Rs. 7681 8379 6842	Rs. 1,14,488 1,22,682 1,04,654	Rs. 19,034 21,444 16,139	Rs. 4271 2784 5478	Rs. 91,183 98,454 83,037

In a group of eighty-one villages the collections during the five years ending 1840-41 averaged £6445 (Rs. 64,450).3 The details are:

Haveli Revenue, 1836-1841.

YEAR	YEAR Villages.						Remis- sions.	Collec- tions,
1836-37 1837-38 1849-39 1839-40	81 81 81 81 81	Rs. 1,35,066 1,26,993 1,25,563 1,26,447 1,26,102	Rs. 44,948 38,017 36,000 35,904 36,208	Ra. 90,116 88,976 89,503 90,543 89,834	Rs. 19,089 26,567 35,097 27,677 18,281	Ks. 71,029 .62,409 54,406 62,866 71,553		

Of 119,720 acres assessed at £15,255 (Rs. 1,52,550), 23,337 acres were alienated. Had the whole of the remaining 96,383 acres assessed at £11,920 (Rs. 1,19,200) been cultivated during the previous twenty-two years, the land assessment alone for that period would have amounted to £262,240 (Rs. 26,22,400). The sum of £2000 (Rs. 20,000) a year or £44,000 (Rs. 4,40,000) for the whole period under cess revenue, raises the total to £306,240 (Rs. 30,62,400). Of these £300,000 (Rs. 30 lákhs), only about £200,000 (Rs. 20 lákhs) were realized between 1818 and 1840. Of the remaining £100,000 (Rs. 10 lákhs) Lieutenant Wingate assigned (Rs. 4,85,000) to loss on account of remissions, £9300 (Rs. 93,000) to outstanding balances, and the rest to the want of tillage. On comparing the twelve years before and the ten years after the 1830 survey it appears that remissions and balances slightly increased and

Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 428. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 429. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 409.

Chapter VIII.

Land.

Survey.

Haveli,
1841-42.

the revenue considerably diminished. In the first twelve years the average Jamábandi was £12,500 (Rs. 1,25,000); in the last ten years it was only £10,776 (Rs. 1,07,760). The collections had fallen consider-In the first twelve years the Government receipts averaged £7400 (Rs.74,000) a year; in the last ten they averaged only £5800 (Rs. 58,000).1 According to Lieutenant Nash the improvement since 1833 was due to the grant of rising leases or istava kauls. In spite of these concessions, in 1841 Haveli was suffering from a high nominal assessment with constant remissions and balances. In fifty villages visited by Lieutenant Nash (1841) he found a want of energy and enterprise and slovenly cultivation; still there were no large tracts of waste black soil nor any ruinous villages. In fact almost all the good soil was under tillage. Close to Poona, land was eagerly sought for, and the villages had a greater air of comfort than elsewhere. Haveli had never suffered so severely from war or famine as the eastern tracts. The country had never been emptied of its people. There were more hereditary holders; the people were more attached to their villages, less ready to change their homes, and more fitted to cope with loss.2

The acre rates proposed by Lieutenant Nash were in black land 2s. 9d., 2s. 3d., 1s. 9d., and 1s. 3d. (Rs. $1\frac{3}{8}$, Rs. $1\frac{1}{8}$, 14 as., and 10 as.); in red land 2s. $4\frac{1}{2}d$., 1s. $10\frac{1}{2}d$., 1s. $4\frac{1}{2}d$., and $10\frac{1}{2}d$. (Rs. $1\frac{3}{16}$, 15 as., 11 as., and 7 as.); and in brown or barad land 1s. $2\frac{2}{6}d$., $8\frac{2}{6}d$. and $3\frac{3}{6}d$. (9 as. $7\frac{1}{5}$ ps., 5 as. $7\frac{1}{5}$ ps., and 2 as. $4\frac{4}{5}$ ps.). These rates were calculated to give an average acre rate of 1s. 6d. (12 as.) against the Bhimthadi average of 1s. (8 as.). An extra assessment not exceeding 6s. (Rs. 3) the acre was proposed for the small area of rice land. On garden lands in addition to the highest dry-crop rate, acre rates varying from 2s. (Re. 1) to 6s. (Rs. 3) were proposed. These proposals were sanctioned by Government in December 1841.

Except in Purandhar where the rainfall was short and the crops were injured by insects and caterpillars, the season of 1842 was on the whole very favourable. Remissions fell from

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 435-436. These averages differ from those given in the statement on page 431.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 436-437.

³ The details are:

Poona Survey Acre Rates, 1837-1841.

			Bhim	thadi.					Bhim	thadi.	[]
CLASS		Indápur	Kur- kumb.	Pimpal- gaon.	Haveli.	Iaveli. CLASS.		Indápur	Kur- kumb.	Pimpal- gaon.	Haveli.
Black	•	Res.	Res.	Res.	Res.	Red-c	ontd.	Res.	Res.	Res.	Res.
I. II. III. IV.	***	170	830 265 185	875 300 233	550 450 350 2 50	III. IV. Brow	 	 90	100	130	275 175
Red. I. II.	***	200 130	220 145	260 180	475 875	IL III. IV.	***	130 60 85 	100 65 40	165 100 60 	240 140 60

Bom, Gov. Sel. CLI. 440. One rupee or two shillings are equal to 400 res.

4 Gov. Letter 3682 of 3rd December 1841, Bom, Gov. Sel. CLI. 449-451.

15.27 per cent to 3.34 per cent. Of £2694 (Rs. 26,940) the whole amount remitted, £1426 (Rs. 14,260) were granted in Purandhar. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvari fell from about 112 to 136 pounds (56-68 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area rose from 982,600 to 1,000,881 acres and the collections from £64,296 to £76,958 (Rs. 6,42,960 - Rs. 7,69,580): £964 (Rs. 9640) were left outstanding.1 The prosperous character of the season of 1842-43 was shown by a marked increase in the town duties of the city of Poona and Junnar, the amounts being £6051 (Rs. 60,510) in 1841-42 and £6699 (Rs. 66,990) in 1842-43. Compared with 1841-42 the returns for 1842-43 showed an increase in the estimated number apparently of bullock-loads that passed through the district from 376,171 to 619,257.3

Chapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. 1842-43.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1453 of 1843, 34, 37, 124-125, and Rec. 1568 of 1844, 56-57, 76, 168-169. The details are:

Poona	Tillage	and	Revenue,	1841	- <i>1843</i> .
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				1841-42				, 1	842- 43 .		
Sub-Division.		VII- lages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Re- mus- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.
	_		Acres,	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Shivner	•••	176	144,762	34,188	57	1,28,192	176	150,398	4566	475	162,548
Indápur		. 77}	227,564	8739	8598	67,874	80	228,551		80	81,119
Khed		182	102,436	15,332	898	88,452	162	99,288	12300	205	1,02,48
Pábal		56	124,209	12,917	8159	85,692	56	134,977	8379	4861	91,80
Purandhar	•••	4CB	109,726	35,916	10,523	61,254	69 1	111,704	14,260	1074	99,06
Bhimthadi	•••	69	159,624	2170	2934	72,877	69	152,824		718	81,90
Haveli	•••	82	80,142	6534	3287	74,285	83	88,173	1767	2555	80,81
Mával		175	31,858	4219	9	55,870	175	32,746	465	155	60,84
Poons City	••	2	2279	299	505	7435	2	2220	200	82	781
Sheep-grazing	**		•••	***		1530		444			169
Tota	١	889	261,600	1,20,814	24,408	6,42,961	8921	1,000,881	26,987	9635	7,69,58

According to another statement, in 1842-43 of the four revised sub-divisions Indapur showed a decrease in tillage of 6601 acres and in revenue of Rs. 2599; Bhimthadi showed a decrease in tillage of 6619 acres and in revenue of Rs. 3380; Pábal showed a decrease in tillage of 8506 acres and in revenue of Rs. 1216; Haveli showed an increase in tillage of 3193 acres and in revenue of Rs. 1214. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 63-66.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1568 of 1844, 100.

² The details are: Poona Transit Trade, 1841-1843.

Division.	1841-42,	1842-43.	Increase.	Division.	1841-42,	1842-48.	Increase.
Shivner . Pabal Purandhar. Bhimthadı	51,374	Rás. 83,985 62,201 94,330 863,702	- Rds. 2496 21,219 42,956 177,850	Indápur Poona City. Total	87,559	Rds. 28,218 36,876 619,257	Rds. -752 -688 243,086

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1568 of 1844, 113-114.

Rds means head of cattle, total. It is not clear from the original reports what these figures represent. The Collector of Poona (4767 of 19th June 1884) thinks they denote the number of bullock-loads.

в 1327-55

Chapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. 1842-43.

The returns also showed an increase in exports from 42,433 to 64,599 bullock-loads and in imports from 392,603 to 429,301.1 The Mával imports showed an increase of 1847 bullock-loads and the exports a decrease of 621, and the transit trade a decrease of 2200 bullock-loads. This carrying trade was from and to the coast through the Nane Maval by the Bor pass. The exports were cotton, grain, vegetable oils, native cloth, tobacco. betel leaves, hides, and potatoes; the imports comprised salt, European cloths, and grocenies. The decrease in the transit trade was due to the opening of the Kusur pass where the traffic had risen by 26,826 bullock-loads. In Khed imports showed an increase of 2920 bullock-loads, exports a fall of 523, and the transit trade a fall of 135,121 bullock-loads. The decrease in the transit trade was chiefly on the Indravani and Navlakh-Umbra roads. The made road that passed through the Khed sub-division showed an increase of 1843 bullock-loads.3 In 1843 in Mával and Khed where roads had been made, a good type of cart was fast taking the place of pack bullocks.4 In December 1843 Mr. Stewart the Collector dwelt on the great advantage to trade which would result from carrying on the Bombay-Poona made road to Sholápur. Local inquiry had satisfied him that the outlay would be met from tolls.5

In 1839 an inquiry was begun into the outstanding balances some of which had remained without examination since 1819. The inquiry lasted till 1843 when it was almost completed and large sums were realized. In December 1843 the Collector Mr. Stewart described the district as prosperous. Large amounts of outstandings had been recovered, the Government revenue was quinctually paid, tillage was spreading, the people were gradually becoming more prosperous, and improvements were keeping pace with the increase of capital expended either by Government or private individuals.

¹ The details are:

Poona Exports and Imports, 1841-1843.

Sur-Division		Exports.		Imports			
SUR-DIVINION	1841-42.	1842-43.	Increase.	1841-42.	1842-43	Increase	
Indápur Pábal Bhimthadi Poons City	. 7538	Rds. 21,526 25,460 2986 5928 8700	Rús. 913 16,777 696 2618 1162 426	Rás. 15,587 16,890 4169 4312 338,178 18,367	Rds. 23,837 16,881 5890 4763 364,669 13,261	Rds. 8250 9 1621 451 26,491 106	
Woto1	42,438	64,599	21,740	392,603	429,301	36,698	

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1568 of 1844, 112-113. See note 3 on page 433.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1568 of 1844, 134-135. ⁸ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1568 of 1844, 111, 112, 135., ⁴ Mr. Inverarity, first assistant collector, 12th October 1843, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1568 of 1844, 114, 136.

⁵ Mr. Stewart, Collector, 1881 of 28th December 1843, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1568 of 1844, 115; Mr. Inverarity, October 1843, Ditto 134-135.

6 Mr. Stewart, Collector, 28th Dec. 1843, Rev. Rec. 1568 of 1844, 119-120.

Advances were continued in this year chiefly with the object of building or repairing village offices and of improving the water supply.¹

To any one who knew the place a few years before, in 1843 the increased population and improved market of Indapur were notable, and the number and increased comfort of the villagers were equally striking. Most of the people considered the change the result of the 1836 survey.²

In 1843-44 the rainfall was sufficient. It was untimely in the west where the early crops on low-lying land suffered greatly, and the late harvest was injured by a failure of the latter November rain; £4292 (Rs. 42,920) or 5.42 per cent were remitted.³ At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári fell from about 136 to 144 pounds (68-72 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area rose from 1,000,881 to 1,055,282 acres and the collections fell from £76,958 (Rs. 7,69,580) to £74,442 (Rs. 7,44,420); £450 (Rs. 4500) were left outstanding. In 1843-44 there was a further increase in the transit trade. X There were no local manufactures fit for export. The

THE BRITISH.

Indápur,

1843.

1843-44.

² Mr. Price, assistant survey superintendent, Karmála Survey Report, 18th July

1843, Bom. Gov. Sel. CL. 465.

The details were: Shivner 13.77 per cent, Indapur 0.21, Khed 5.13, Pabal 0.51, Purandhar (Sasvad division) 22.12 and (Supa division) 1.20, Bhimthadi 0.06, Haveli revised villages 0.0913 and unrevised villages 5.62, Maval 1.01, and Poona City 2.13. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 50-52.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1568 of 1844, 56, 57, 76, 168-169, and Rec. 17 of 1846, 116-118, 480-181. The details are:

Poona Tillage and Revenue, 1842-1844.

		1842-43.					1943-44.				
SUB-DIVISION.	VII- lages.	Tillage.	Remis- Bions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	Vil- lages.	Tillage,	Re- mis- sions	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	
		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Indápur Khed Pábal .	. 56	150,398 228,551 99,288 134,977	2800 8379	475 60 205 4361	162,543 81,112 102,487 91,803	80 184 57	150,826 222,516 104,063 147,984	23,089 161 5371 511	277 194	1,44,311 78,711 99,068 98,915	
Purandhar Bhimthadi Haveli Mávai	69 83 176	111,704 152,824 88,173 82,746		1074 718 2555 155	99,069 81,903 80,811 60,344	69 88	147,988 150,866 97,116	12,012 48 930 620	885 177 2047	86,765 81,755 85,239 60,365	
Poons City Grazing	2	2220	200	82	7818 1690		\$220	175	38 86	7966 1331	
Total	. 8921	1,000,881	28,937	9635	7,69,590	9003	1,055,282	42,917	4498	7,44,425	

According to another statement, in 1843-44, of the four revised sub-divisions Indapur showed a decrease of 5468 acres in tillage and of Rs. 2317 in revenue; Bhimthadi showed a decrease of 2458 acres in tillage and of Rs. 1419 in revenue; Haveli showed an increase of 3098 acres in tillage and of Rs. 1402 in revenue; Pabal showed an increase of 5731 acres in tillage and a decrease of Rs. 280 in revenue, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 63-66.

Chapter VIII.

¹The details were: 26 wells made, 18 wells repaired, 4 water-lifts made, and one cistern made; 23 village offices built and 12 repaired. Besides these the people had at their own expense sunk seventeen wells, and repaired three, and made three water-lifts. Mr. Stewart, Collector, 28th Dec. 1843, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1568 of 1344, 74-75.

Chapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. 1844.

common grains were the chief exports to the coast; the chief return traffic was in European goods and salt. Mr. Invergrity the Collector. writing on the 31st of December 1844, repeated Mr. Stewart's views on the advantage of opening a made road between Poona and Sholapur. Along this line came all the exports from the east and south-east. The trade was hampered by the Bapdev pass which was impracticable for heavy ordnance or for laden carts. How highly the people valued carts was shown by the fact that with the help of Government and by the aid of local contributions the people of the market town of Ghode in Khed had made roads with side-drains through their town where before no cart could pass. Of late years the north of the district had greatly benefited by the introduction of potato growing. In 1844 a large part of the Bombay market was supplied from Junnar. of the Mauritius sugarcane had also increased from 388 to 5474 acres.2 In spite of the spread of tillage in Indapur and Bhimthadi the people were still poor. About one-third of the wells had been allowed to fall into disrepair. Though 1842-43 and 1843-44 were favourable years and the advance under the generally improved conditions continued in other parts of the district, there was a decline in Indápur and Bhimthadi. This was believed to be due to the fact that the low rates of Mr. Goldsmid's settlement had unduly stimulated tillage and that the increased supply had affected prices and the lands ceased to pay the cost of tillage. On the 31st of December 1844 Mr. Inverarity noticed that the decline in the tillage area in Indápur and Bhimthadi was necessary. He thought it was due to the fall in the price of grain in those sub-divisions. Tillage might be expected to go on decreasing until the more needy landholders sank to be labourers and the eventual contraction of produce enabled the substantial farmer to command better prices.⁵ In Supa also there was a decline. The survey measurement had made a nominal addition to the extent of lands under cultivation in the Supa group of villages. In reality there had been a decrease to the extent of 5619 acres assessed at £370 (Rs. 3700).6 The decline which had taken place in Indápur and Bhimthadi did not extend to Haveli and Pábal. The reason was that Poona was a certain market and that there were more means of raising watered crops. Under Act XIX. of 1844 all taxes on trades and occupations Of this sweeping and ill-considered measure were repealed.8 the Collector Mr. Courtney complained with justice that it pressed hardly on the rural people. The people of towns were now

Mr. Inverarity, 31st Dec. 1844. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 107 - 110
 Mr. Inverarity, 31st Dec. 1844, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 72.
 Mr. Inverarity, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 79 - 80.
 Mr. Inverarity, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 63 - 64.
 Mr. Inverarity, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 63 - 64.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 65.

Acres 10,387 were thrown out of cultivation and 4768 were brought under the plough; the net decrease was 5619 acres. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 66.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1846, 66 - 67.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 23 of 1849, 167.

relieved from almost all taxation and ceased to contribute their share to the revenues of the state.1

In 1843-44 the thirty years' revenue survey settlement was introduced into the Supa petty division of Purandhar. Of the 391 Supa villages twenty-five were remeasured, twelve were tested, and the rest which had lately lapsed to Government were measured for the first time. Supa was bounded on the north by Bhimthadi, on the east by Indapur, on the south by the Nira river, and on the west by the Sasyad division of Purandhar. The country along the Karha and Nira was flat and seamed with stream beds. The northern and two or three of the western and central villages were hilly. common with Indapur and still more with the Kurkumb group in east Bhimthadi, Supa suffered from uncertain rain.³ The only road for loaded carts from Supa to Poona was by Khed. The chief markets were Sásvad, Wái, Bhor, and Sátára. The jvári was inferior to that grown towards Madha and did not meet with a ready sale at Sátára, but was sold at a profit at Wái, Bhor, and Sásvad from which it went to Mahád in the Konkan. Bájri found a ready There were few carts in Supa except carts with solid stone wheels. The first survey settlement introduced in this group was by Mr. Pringle in 1829-30. About 1835, when these villages were in a state of depression, Captain Shortrede reduced Mr. Pringle's rental from £12,270 to £8898 (Rs. 1,22,700 - Rs. 88,980) or 27.5 per cent. But owing to the defective manner in which the revision was effected, the levy of Captain Shortrede's modified assessment was found to be impracticable and concessions had to be made under the form of short rates or ukti and of leases or kauls. The following statement⁵ shows the remissions and land revenue collections in the Supa group of villages during the twenty-three years ending 1841-42:

Supa Revenue, 1819-1842.

YEAR.		Remis-	Collec- tions.	Year.	Remis- sions.	Collec- tions.	YEAR.	Remis- sions.	Collec- tions.
		Rs.	Rs.	. 1	Rs.	Rs.		IKS.	Rs.
1819-20			43,519	1828-29	•••	27,223	1887-98 .	1969	33,428
1820-21			47,352	1829-30		47,547	1838-89	8245	30,292
1821-22		30	52,186	1830-31	28,323	5680	1839-40	7868	37,385
1832-23			56,338	1831-82	11,494	29,054	1840-41	29,292	22,982
1823-24	• • •	554	7826	1832-83	32,867	6348	1841-49	22,884	25,038
1824-25		158	7478	1833-34	***	47,784]]		i
1825- 26			27.348	1834-35	***	39,017	1 1		
1826-27		٠ ٠	28,399	1835-36 I	8	20,163	1835-42	10,632	28,269
1897-28			10,351	1836-37	4159	28,592	1 1		

¹ Mr. Courtney, Collector, 21st Dec. 1847, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 23 of 1849, 167.

Chapter VIII-Land. Survey.

Supa.

1843-44.

Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 521-545.
According to a local tradition the want of rain in the country between Jejuri and Baramati was due to a curse. Lieut. E. Evans, assistant super-intendent of survey, 33 of 8th July 1843, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 530.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 513, 524 - 525.
⁵ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 540-541. From this statement it appears that during the six years (1829-1835) of Mr. Pringle's settlement the average collections amounted to Rs. 29,230, and during the seven years of Lieut. Shortrede's settlement (1835-1842) they amounted to Rs. 28,269,

· hapter VIII. Land.

> Survey. Supa, 1843-44.

During this period at Supa the rupee price of millet fell from about 38 to 128 pounds (19-64 shers) for jvári and from about 36 to 80 pounds (18-40 shers) for bájri.

Under the new survey for the Supa group the Kurkumb dry-crop rates which were ten per cent higher than those introduced into Indapur were proposed. The total new dry-crop rental amounted to £5820 (Rs. 58,200) of which the land (111,768 acres) under cultivation yielded £4700 (Rs. 47,000) or an increase of 34 per cent. For garden lands the sum of 4s. (Rs. 2) the acre in excess of dry-crop rates was fixed. The new rental of garden lands amounted to £300 (Rs. 3000).

1844-45.

In 1844-45 near the Sahyadris the rainfall was enough for the early crops, in the east the late crops generally failed, and scarcity of fodder caused such distress that most of the labouring cattle had to leave the district. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári rose from about 144 to 120 pounds (72-60 shers). The tillage area in the whole district rose from 1,055,282 to 1,063,127 acres and the collections fell from £74,442 to £66,489 (Rs. 7,44,420 to Rs. 6,64,890); £8125 (Rs. 81,250) were remitted

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 539. The details are:

Indipur. Pátas. Supa Grain Rupes Prices, 1818-1843.

YEAR.	Ind	ÁPUR.	PÁ	TAS.	Su	PA.
I RAB,	Jvdri.	Bajri.	Jodri.	Báyri.	Justi.	Bajri.
	Shera.	Shera.	Shere.	Shere,	Shere.	Shers.
1818-19	11	61	17	12	19 (18
1819-20	15	17	181	22	19	11
1820-21	81	27	22	26	21	20
1821-22	50	88	52	64	44	20.
1822-28	60	28	112	28	76	46
1823-24	27	29	26	121	24	40
1824-25	13	151	12	17	14	12
1825-26	85	201	33	86	87	16
1826-27	52	52	46	83	46	85
1827-28	52	42	29	84 44	27	32
1828-29	60	53 32	66	38	56 81	31 381
1829-30	44	32 39	40	93	32 38	461
1830-51	60	.86	40	82	42	85
1000.00	20	84	52 22	24	85	. 31
1832-33	40	22	44	52	401	20
1 5004 55	60	28	50	40	46	814
1	86	82	84	84	87	46
1904 05	50	90	44	44	50	85
1 1007 90	64	32 42	56	82	50	81
1 *400 00	88	40	84	84	82	44
1000 40	56	40 86	48	38	44	81
11010 11	52	32	48	38	46	84
1041 40	60	46	56	36	46	85
1842-43	80	48	64	46	64	40
12022 30 111]		
Total	10961	827	10651	8491	9861	7791
' Add	1877	108	4918	8918	9244	76,18
Poons Shere	1234	931	1116	889	1079	856
1						
Yearly average	49	87	45	86	43	84

⁹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 513, 521-545.

and £3126 (Rs. 31,260) left outstanding.1 The people of Ehimthadi and Indapur were suffering and miserable. Of £8125 (Rs. 81,250) or 101 per cent remissions, £7499 (Rs. 74,990) or 92 per cent were given in the late-crop sub-divisions of Junnar, Indapur, and The good soil and abundant irrigation in Purandhar prevented the necessity of remissions.3 The failure of rain showed that the great increase in tillage which especially in Indapur and Bhimthadi in the east had followed the introduction of Mr. Goldsmid's settlement was by no means an unmixed improvement. In February 1846 Mr. Inversity remarked that the main causes of the fall in tillage were the poverty of the landholders and the The more highly exhaustion of soil from constant cropping. assessed lands had fallen waste because the unthrifty habits of the people led them to till for a few seasons the poorer waste fields rather than spend time and labour in renewing by artificial means the exhausted powers of the more valuable lands.3 A succession of bad seasons had caused a decline in tillage, increased remissions, and increased advances. Many of the people had lost heart and mortgaged fields with standing crops to village Vánis. mortgage of land in most cases ended in complete transfer of the proprietary right, a body of landholders possessing capital might in time be formed.4

In 1845-46 matters were worse even than in 1844-45. Want of rain especially in the east destroyed the late crops. It was only by

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1847, 77, 82, 122, 150. The details are: Poona Tillage and Revenue, 1843-1845.

	Ì		1	S43-44.			ł	1	844-45.		
Se B-Division.		Villages	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	Villages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.
			Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Shivner		176	150,396		235	1,44,311	176	144,682	33,007	808	1,28,573
Indápur	. [80	222,515		277	78,711	80	227,089	20,022	3174	
Khed	٠ ا	184	1/4,063		194	99,068		105,133	5015	123	
	-	57	147,984		559	98,915		145 997		2098	
]	69 }	147,983		885	86,763		158,350	1057	15.471	
Bhimthadi . Haveh .	٠ ا	69	150,366		177	81,753		149,855	21,963	4684	53,57
Mával .	٠ ا	83 180	97.116		2047	85,239		99,295	99	4670	89,713
Doone Oite	-	180	33,7(9) 2330			60,305		33,726	13	233	60,039
Grazing	1	*	2320	175	38 86	7966 1331			•••		135
Total .	.	9001	1,055,982	42,917	4496	7,44,122	901	1,063,127	81,251	31,261	6,64,89
Db		21		2346	354	24,388	21		6270	1736	17,53
Purandhar Haveli		11		-4.		1.00	11		4874,	324	697
Total .	[9824		45,263	4852	7,68,910	933		92,395	33,321	6,89,39

In the surveyed villages of Haveli tillage showed a decrease from 87,310 to 87,021

Chapter VII! Land. THE BRITISH. 1844-45.

acres, and, in the unsurveyed villages, an increase from 12,026 to 12,274 acres.

Mr. Inverarity, 27th February 1846, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1847, 86.

Mr. Inverarity, Collector, Feb. 1846, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1847, 81-86.

Mr. Inverarity, Collector, Feb. 1846, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1847, 97-98.

hapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISM. 1845-46.

a sudden rise in the price of grain that landholders were saved from At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári rose from about 120 to 72 pounds (60-36 shers). Over the whole district collections fell from £68,940 to £68,517 (Rs. 6,89,400 to Rs. 6,85,170); £10,546 (Rs. 1,05,460) or 12.88 per cent were remitted and £2776 (Rs. 27,760) left outstanding.1 Of the whole remissions 85 per cent were granted in Indapur and Bhimthadi. The people were so impoverished that the rule against remissions in finally surveyed villages had to be broken. The scale on which remissions were granted was, if the crop was half a failure a quarter of the rent was remitted; if nine-sixteenths a failure six-sixteenths were remitted, if ten-sixteenths half was remitted, if eleven-sixteenths ten-sixteenths were remitted, if twelve-sixteenths eleven-sixteenths were remitted, and if more than twelve-sixteenths had failed the whole rent was remitted. In Bhimthadi and Indápur about 15,000 acres passed out of tillage. Large numbers of people on the verge of starvation were employed in making a road from Pátas to Indápur.²

1846-47.

The season of 1846-47 was favourable. The early rain was somewhat scanty, but especially in the east the late harvest was excellent.8 At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári rose from about 72 to 30 pounds (36-15 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area rose from 1,102,088 to 1,148,755 acres and the collections from £68,517 to £81,561 (Rs. 6,85,170 to Rs. 8,15,610);

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 15 of 1848, 10, 11, 60 63, 72, 100, 134, Rev. Rec. 23 of 1849, 80. The details are: Poona Trllage and Revenue, 1844-1846.

										
		1	844-45.			,	1	845-46.		*
Sub-Division.	Villages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	Villages	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.
•		Acres.	R9.	Rs.	Rs.		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Shivner	176	144,682		808	1,28,573		147,214			1,58,305
Indápur	80	227,089		8174	56,663		252,302			
Khed	184	105,138		123	1,00,006		104,755	1215		1,03,723
Pábal	57	145,997		2098			149,323	***	41	97,892
Purandhar	691	158,350		15,471			169,666	2051		
Bhimthadı	69	149,855		4684			146,442			
Havelı	85	99,295		4670			98,432			
Mával	180	82,726	18	233			33,954	3 58	1328	60,630
Grazing	***		***	***	1353	***	•••		<u> </u>	**
Total	901	1,068,127	81,251	81,261	6,64,890	932	1,102,088	1,05,458	27,758	6,85,174
Bárámati Bhimthadi	21		6270	1736	17,534	•••	***	•••		.,,
Purandhar Haveli	11		4874	824	6975			•••		***
Pabal , Lapsed)		141	,	***	-6		491	225	3 663
Total	938	•••	92,395	33,321	6,89,899	938	•••	1,05,947	27,983	6,88,837

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 15 of 1848, 60-63, 72-74. The waste in Indapur increased to about 24,000 acres, Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 37.

8 Mr. Courtney, Collector, 10th December 1846, Bom, Gov. Rev. Rec. 15 of 1848, 74;

Rev. Rec. 23 of 1849, 18-19.

£1928 (Rs. 19,280) or 21 per cent were remitted and £2247 (Rs. 22,470) left outstanding.1 Remissions fellfrom twelve to 21 percent and about 40,900 acres of land assessed at £3450 (Rs. 34,500) were taken for tillage.9 Remissions were still necessary. Writing on the 21st of December 1847 Mr. Courtney the Collector expressed the opinion that in bad seasons remissions would continue necessary. The landholders were notoriously improvident, few had any capital. Instead of saving any surplus which remained after a plentiful season, they squandered it on some religious or family ceremony.3 The new settlement had been introduced into the Supa petty division of Purandhar in 1844. It proved so successful that notwithstanding that the Government demand was so much lowered, and the two last seasons (1844 and 1845) were indifferent, the increase of revenue had more than repaid the cost of the settlement. For the three years before the survey the actual collections on account of the land tax were £9909 (Rs. 99,090) and for the three years after the survey the corresponding amount was £12,484 (Rs. 1,24,840) that is an increase of 24 per cent.4

Chapter VII. Land THE BRITISH 1846-47.

In 1847-48 the rains were not so good as in the preceding year. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári fell from about 30 to 96 pounds (15-48 shers).5 Over the whole district the tillage area rose from 1,148,755 to 1,228,304 acres and

1847-43.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 23 of 1849, 80, 171, 178. The details are: Poons Tillage and Revenue, 1845-1847.

		1	845-46.				1	846-47.		
SUB-DIVISION.	Villages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	Villages.	Tillage.	Remis-	Out stand- ings.	Collec- tions.
		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs
Shivner		147,214					159,468	-2845	42	
Indapur	101	252,302					254,972		7828	
Khed Pābal	1841	104,755			1,03,723		112,514		172	
Dumondhow	57	149,323		41	97,392		154,264	601	187	99,408
Dhamthada	1	169,666 146,442		6873			179,113		1976	
Haveli	86	98,432					153,518		6501	71,17
Mával	100	83,954			60,630		100,271 84,635	17 15	5310 457	93,85 65,25
Total	932	1,102,088	1,05,456	27,758	6,85,174	937	1.148,755	19,283	22,473	
Lapsed	6		491	225	8663	9		iš62	1857	* 6 355
									1001	030
Total	938		1,05,947	27,983	6,88,837	946		21,245	24,330	8,21,95

There were besides in 1846-47, 979 Government hamlets or vadis and 249 alienated villages and 58 alienated hamlets or vádis.

villages and 58 alienated namiets or viaus.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 23 of 1849, 65, 83-85.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 23 of 1849, 172-173.

⁴ Lieut. Evana, assistant superintendent of survey, 13 of 18th Feby. 1847 para 2.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 71. Writing on the 21st of December 1847 (Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 23 of 1849, 173-174) Mr. Courtney the Collector said, 'The great cheapness of the liberty of the present acceptance of the liberty in realizing the revenue. grain is likely in the present season to occasion some difficulty in realizing the revenue from the cultivating classes. The price of all descriptions of agricultural produce is now full 25 or 30 per cent lower than it was at this time last year, and as the landholder must look to the sale of his crop alone for the money with which to pay his revenue, a season of excessive cheapness is not by any means so favourable to him as to the rest of the community."

Land.
Survey.
Purandhar,
1847-48.

collections from £81,561 to £81,845 (Rs. 8,15,610 - Rs. 8,18,450); £2462 (Rs. 24,620) or 2.8 per cent. were remitted, and £718 (Rs. 7180) left outstanding.

In 1847 the thirty years revenue survey settlement was introduced into the Sásvad mámlatdár's division of Purandhar. The survey was begun in 1843 and finished in 1847. This group contained thirty-seven Government villages. Of these one was at the foot of the Purandhar fort and therefore dwindled after the garrison was reduced. It had no lands attached to it; those belonging to the fort were not measured at the former survey. Six of these villages had lately lapsed to Government. Bájri and jvári were the chief grains. In the south-west villages bájri alternated with monsoon jvári, wheat, and gram; and gram was not unfrequently grown as a cold-weather crop on land from which bájri had been reaped. There were a few patches of rice in the hill villages near the fort of Purandhar, and a small quantity of land was watered by the Karha river, and in one or two villages from perennial streams. A line of hills, an offshoot from the Purandhar range, divided Purandhar from the settled sub-divisions of Poona, Haveli, and Bhimthadi. The town of Sásvad sixteen miles from Poona, was on the made road between Poona and Sátára by the Bápdev pass. This pass was very steep, and, as its ascent required an additional pair of bullocks, it was but little used by carts. The chief portion of the surplus produce of this group was conveyed to the Poona market by pack-bullocks. The Purandhar mamlatdar's station was at Sasyad where a market was held every Monday. Those of the landholders who could afford it, preferred taking their grain to Poona. Lieutenant Evans the assistant superintendent of survey writing on the 18th of February 1847, inclined to think that not much was sold locally. The small quantity of rice that was grown was seld and used on the spot, chiefly at Purincha and Sásvad. At Sásvad millet rupee prices had risen for bájri from about 54 pounds (27 shers) in 1837-38 to about 354 pounds (174 shers) in 1845-46

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 16 of 1850, 42, 43, 76. The details are :

Poona Tillage and Revenue, 1846-1848.

		1	846-47.				1	847-48.		
Sub-Division.	Villages	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	Villages.	Tillage	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.
•		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Shivner		159,468	2845	42			168,448	13,870	129	1,70,597
Indapur		254,972		7828			289,378		3748	1,00,858
Khed		112,514	2320	172			112,055		24	1,08,470
Pábal		154,264	601	187			164,982	938	22	1,04,605
Purandhar . Bhimthadi .	1 min	179,113	6117 4291	1976 6501			212,382		1657	97,497
Lianali	00	158,518 100,271	17	5810			144,403 100,486	50	1020 576	75,467 96,890
Mával	101	84,635	15	457			86,170	456		64,587
. Total .	. 987	1,148,755	19,283	22,473	8,15,606	939	1,228,304	24,622	7176	8,18,451
Attached .	. 9		1962	1857	6352	12		2172	930	7937
Total .	946		21,245	24,330	8,21,958	951		26,794	8106	8,26,388

and for jvári from about 82 pounds (41 shers) to about 314 pounds (153 shers).

Land.
SURVEY.
Purandhar,
1847-48.

Chapter VIII

In fifteen villages of this survey group, during the ten years ending 1846-47, the tillage area rose from 13,473 acres assessed at £1772 (Rs. 17,720) in 1837-38 to 16,882 acres assessed at £2112 (Rs. 21,120); remissions fell from £207 (Rs. 2070) to £19 (Rs. 190), and collections rose from £1565 (Rs. 15,650) to £2093 (Rs. 20,930). The details are:

Purandhar Tillage and Revenue, 1837-1847.

YEAR.	Tillage.	Rental.	Re- mis- sions.	Collec- tions.	YBAR.	Tillage	Rental	Re- mus- sions.	Collec- tions,
1837-38	Acres. 13,473	Rs	Rs	Rs 15.647	1842-43	Acres 15,669	Rs 19,982	Rs. 3078	Rs. 16.904
1938-39	13,667	17,719 17,824	2072 2516	15,308	1843-44	15,532	19,870	2558	17,312
1839-40 1840-41	14,057 15,011	18,206 19,300	1728 5260	16,478 14,034	1844-45 1845-46 .	15,254 15,586	19,219 19,644	335 66	18,884 19,578
1841-42	15,239	19,445	5194	14,251	1846-47	16,882	21,120	187	20,933

To assess their dry-crop lands the thirty-six villages were arranged into four classes. In the first class were placed ten villages and they were charged acre rates of 2s. 3d. (Rs. $1\frac{1}{8}$), 1s. $10\frac{1}{2}d$. (15 as.), and 1s. $3\frac{3}{4}d$, (10\frac{1}{4} as.) for black lands; 1s. $6\frac{3}{4}d$. (12\frac{1}{4} as.), 1s. $1\frac{3}{4}d$. $(9\frac{1}{6} as.)$, and $9\frac{3}{6}d.$ $(6\frac{1}{6} as.)$ for red lands; and $11\frac{1}{6}d.$ $(7\frac{3}{6} as.)$, $7\frac{1}{6}d.$ $(4\frac{5}{6} as.)$ and $4\frac{3}{6}d$. ($3\frac{1}{6}$ as.) for brown or barad lands. In the second class were placed fifteen villages with acre rates of 1s. 11\frac{1}{4}d. (15\frac{2}{4} as)., 1s. 7\frac{1}{4}d. (13 as.), and 1s. 13 d. (91 as.) for black lands; 1s. 41 d. (11 as.), 1s. (8 as.) and $8 \frac{1}{8} d$. $(5 \frac{5}{12} as.)$ for red lands; and $10 \frac{1}{8} d$. $(6 \frac{3}{4} as.)$, $6 \frac{1}{4} d$. $(4 \frac{1}{8} as.)$, and $4\frac{1}{8}d$. $(2\frac{3}{4} \text{ as.})$ for brown or barad lands. In the third class were placed nine villages with acre rates of 1s. 93d. (141 as.), 1s. 53d. $(11\frac{5}{8} as.)$, and $1s.\frac{1}{2}d.$ $(8\frac{1}{3} as.)$ for black lands; $1s. 2\frac{3}{4}d.$ $(9\frac{5}{8} as.), 10\frac{7}{8}d.$ $(7\frac{1}{4} as.)$, and $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ (5 as.) for red lands; $9\frac{1}{8}d.$ (6 $\frac{1}{12} as.$), $5\frac{3}{4}d.$ (3 $\frac{5}{8} as.$), and 31d. (21 as.) for brown or barad lands. The two remaining villages were assessed at the Suparates. The rice lands were of trifling extent. The rates proposed by Lieutenant Evans the assistant superintendent were 6s. (Rs. 3), 4s. 6d. (Rs. $2\frac{1}{4}$), and 3s. (Rs. $1\frac{1}{2}$). These rice rates, compared with the dry-crop rates, were, in the opinion of Captain Wingate, rather high than low. Having no experience of the rice cultivation of this district he however could not give any decided opinion as to their fitness. Government authorized the Collector to make any reductions in the proposed rates which he and Lieutenant Evans the assistant superintendent of survey might deem necessary at the time of introducing them. Grass lands unfit

¹ The details are: Suspend Millet Rupes Prices, 1837-1846

YEAR.		Bájri.	Jodri	YRAB.	Bári	Joári.
1837-38 1838-39	••	Shers.	Shere.	1845-46	Shers.	Shera.
1839-40 1840-41 1841-42.		31 21 27 8	28 35 35	Total . Add .	2343 15	3084 191
1842-43 1848-44 1844-45	•••	22 30 36 21	32½ 46 45 29½	Poons shers Average	-079	3271 861

Chapter VIII.
Land.
SURVEY.

for grain found within the limits of a landholder's field were assessed at acre rates of $1\frac{1}{4}d$. and $2\frac{1}{3}d$. $(\frac{10}{12}as$ and $1\frac{5}{12}as$). As the extent and value of hill lands were but trifling, Government authorized the Collector to continue the existing mode of assessing them unless he could introduce some other system whose working could be more easily and efficiently superintended by the district officers without being distasteful to the cultivators. The effect of the dry-crop or jiráyat settlement was to reduce the revenue of the tileage area from £4906 (Rs. 49,060) in 1846-47 to £3390 (Rs. 33,900) in 1847-48 or 30 per cent.

Bárámati, 1847-48. In 1847-48 the survey settlement was introduced into twenty villages of the Bárámati group in Indápur. These villages lapsed in 1844-45. The tillage area in twenty-one villages rose from 44,937 bighás in 1837-38 to 48,214 bighás in 1842-43 and fell to 42,544 bighás in 1845-46. Collections including cesses rose from £1538 (Rs. 15,380) in 1837-38 to £1933 (Rs. 19,330) in 1845-46 The details are:

Bárámati Tillage and Revenue, 1837-1848.

Yrar.		Vil-	FULL I		SHORT RATE LEASED OR Kauli.		Gae	den.		
		lages.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area	Rental.
			Bighás.	Rs.	Bighás.	Rs.	Brokds.	Rs.	Bighas	Rs.
1837-38		21	4960	4946	25,632	11.915	14,315	4188	80	147
1842-43		21	6917	7402	20,955	8495	20,312	7803	80	147
1843-44		21	4616	4764	24,890	11.817	17.817	7204	80	147
1844-45	••	21	4651	4861	25,558	12.036	15,737	6912	136	212
1845-46	• • •	21	5553	5585	25,440	12,049	11,416	5392	135	237
		` I	Acres.		Acres.		Acres.		ì	1
1846-47	•••	20	6881	9209	22,907	15,037	4737	8268	١.,	
1847-48	,,,	20	56,174	27,495			1782	696		769
			,					•		

	1	To	PAL.			DEDUCT.		
YEAR.	Area.	Rental.	Cesses and Grazing	Total Reve- nue.	Remis- mons.	Village Expen- ses.	Total.	Net Re venue.
	Bighás.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1837-88	44,937	21.196	1203	22,399	847	6669	7016	15,333
2044 40	48,214	23,847	181	24,028	849	4957	5806	18,222
1049 44	47,858	23,932	959	24,891	2346	5776	8122	16,769
3044 45	46,081	24,021	1519	25,540	6270	8945	10,195	15,345
MOAE AA	42,544 Acres.	23,263	1351	24,614	5283	•••	5288	19,331
1846-47	94 505	27.514	1017	28,531	2428	7003	9431	19,100
304W 40	57,908	28,960	813	29,773	5345	6471	11,716	18,062

The new acre rates were for black lands 1s. $7\frac{1}{4}d$. ($13\frac{1}{6}as$.), 1s. 4d. ($10\frac{2}{3}as$.), and $11\frac{1}{6}d$. ($7\frac{5}{16}as$.); for red lands 1s. $1\frac{1}{4}d$. ($8\frac{5}{6}as$.), $8\frac{3}{4}d$ ($5\frac{5}{6}as$.) and 5d. ($3\frac{1}{3}as$.), and for barad or rocky lands $6\frac{5}{8}d$. ($4\frac{5}{12}as$.), 4d. ($2\frac{3}{3}as$.), and $2\frac{1}{2}d$. ($1\frac{2}{3}as$.). Ukti or short rates were in use until the new assessment was introduced in 1847-48 when both the ukti or short and the sosti or full rate tenures ceased. About 1730 acres were allowed to be held on istáva kaul or rising leases either till the lease expired or till the amount was as high as the survey

¹ Lieutenant Evans, assistant superintendent, 13 of 18th February 1847; Captain Wingate, Superintendent of Survey, 128 of 5th October 1847; Government Letter 544 of 26th January 1848.

² Mr. Reeves, Collector, 2842 of 1st Oct. 1849:

³ Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 88.

assessment.¹ Compared with £2108 (Rs. 21,080) the average collections of the five years ending 1846-47, £2896 (Rs. 28,960) the survey rental on the area under tillage showed a rise of 37 per cent. There were 11,693 acres of waste assessed at £479 (Rs. 4790).²

In October 1849, in submitting the settlement report to Government, the Revenue Commissioner Mr. Townsend remarked that to a certain extent every new assessment must be viewed as an experiment, the success of which could be estimated only by the experience of some years. He pressed upon Government the necessity of opening more roads. In this group of villages no improvement could be expected unless a good road was made to Bárámati. Government had done much to lessen their demands. Unless trade was encouraged by the opening of roads, after a few years a further reduction in the Government demand would be necessary.3 Government approved of the settlement. At the same time they observed, apparently in reference to the increase of 37 per cent in this survey group, that both the Revenue Commissioner and the Collector should watch with care the working of the new rates. Government had sanctioned the preliminary arrangements made under the late Lieutenant Nash's superintendence with no feeling of confidence. It should be considered as a standing rule that when rates submitted for approval are compared with the rates obtaining in districts where the assessment had been for some time revised, the manner in which that revised assessment has worked should be fully shown.4

1848-49 was an average season. Untimely and scanty rain injured the early crops, but the late harvest was more favourable. Remissions rose from 2.8 to 4.9 per cent. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári fell from about 96 to 144 pounds (48-72 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area fell from 1,228,304 to 1,227,898, acres and the collections from £81,845 (Rs. 8,18,450) to £77,535 (Rs. 7,75,350); £4061 (Rs. 40,610) or 4.9 per cent were

remitted and £1184 (Rs. 11,840) left outstanding.5

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 205 of 1849, 192-195.

1847-48. 11 1848-49. SUB-Dr ISION. Vil-Out-Remis-Out-Collec-Vil-Tillage. Remis Collecstand. Tillage. lages. gions. tions. standlages. Sions. ings. tions. ings. Acres. 168,448 289,378 112,055 164,982 212,882 144,403 Acres. 168,270 291,165 112,783 167,087 210,788 140,438 Rs.
1,89,843
1,08,410
94,606
1,03,895
97,789
68,178 Rs. Ra. Rs. Shivner 176 13,870 5197 129 ,70,597 ,00,888 176 21,068 832 Indápur Khed 101 1844 3748 24 1530 29 1,00,888 1,08,470 1,04,605 97,497 75,467 96,390 3204 18,918 185<u>1</u> 58 Pábal 58 938 Purandhar Bhimthadi 421 72 907 1657 40 18 72 Haveli ... Mával ... 1020 8055 100,486 50 576 88 101,70 98,239 64,405 36,170 315 456 182 64,537 35,800 939 1,228,804 24,622 7176 8,18,451 940 1,227,898 40,610 11,838 7,75,355 Sequestrated . 12 2172 930 15 4,530 1398 8462 Total 951 26,794 8106 8,26,388 955 45,140 13,231 7,83,817 Chapter VIII.
Land.
SURVEY.
Bardmati,
1847-48.

1848-49.

³ Mr. Bell, assistant superintendent, 25th November 1848; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 205 of 1849, 173, 180, 187, 200, 201, 224, 227, 231, 247.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 205 of 1849, 176.

^{**}Gov. Letter 7214 of 6th Dec. 1848, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 205 of 1849, 249.

**Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 24 of 1851, 7, 13, 47, 62. The details are:

**Poona Tülage and Revenue, 1847-1849.

Thapter VIII.

Land.

SURVEY.

Bori, 1848-49. In 1843-49 Bhimthadi was far from prosperous. Mr. Reid the assistant collector wrote on the 25th of February 1850, 'I do not see how Bhimthadi, will ever be a paying district. Its population is scanty, the rains are variable, and its assessment compared with that of the neighbouring districts of Supa and Indapur is heavy.'

In 1848 the survey settlement was introduced into the Bori petty division of Junnar. The survey of this group was begun in 1842, but with the object of completing the survey of Mangoli in Sholapur survey operations in Bori remained at a stand from 1842 to 1845. Work was begun in 1845 and was finished in 1846. Bori was bounded on the north by the range of hills of the Brahmanyadi petty division of Junnar. on the east by the Nagar district, on the south by Pábal, and on the west by the Haveli villages of Junnar. Of the thirty villages included in this survey group one village was annexed in 1836. The climate of Bori was almost the same as the climate of north Pábal. From the point westward where Bori adjoined the Junnar-Haveli group the supply of rain became gradually more uncertain and less plentiful, till, at the point where Bori joined the Ahmadnagar district, the fall was very uncertain. The chief grains were millets, wheat, and gram. There were 1304 ploughs, 338 carts, and 7950 bullocks. 2455 landholders 2044 were mirásdárs or hereditary holders, 293 were upris or casual holders, and 118 were ovandkaris or strangers. According to Mr. Pringle's survey there were 74,865 acres of Government arable land and 5093 acres of alienated land or a total of 79,958 acres assessed at £7863 (Rs. 78,630) that is an average acre rate of 1s. 11½d. (15¾as.). Of the Government arable area 24,813 acres were waste, and 50,052 acres were under tillage. The rental on the tillage area was £5110 (Rs. 51,100) or $2s. \frac{1}{2}d.$ (Re. 1 $qs. \frac{1}{8}$) the acro. The area held for tillage increased from 46,420 in 1829 to 50,052 Remissions during the sixteen years ending 1845 acres in 1846. averaged £1035 (Rs. 10,350), and during the five years ending 1846 averaged £741 (Rs. 7410). Bori being a long slip of land lying in a line parallel with Pábal, and the climate and market prices in both being much the same, the Pábal rates with a slight increase on the red land were proposed for Bori. The details are:

Bori Survey Rates, 1846.

Soil.	. Class I. 6 Villages.	Class II. 16 Vil- lages.	Class III. 8 Villages.
1st Black 2nd do 8rd do	Res * 590 470 830	Res. 490 390 270	Res. 890 310 220

^{*} Four hundred res equal one rupee or two shillings.

		P	oona Wa	ste, 1848-49.						
SUB-DIVISION.	Arable.	Waste.		A wable		SUB-DIVISION.		Arable.		ste. Per Cent
Shivner Indapur Khed Pábal Purandhar	170,796 182,051	Acres, 59,747 24,375 58,063 15,013 17,179	26·2 7·52 84·00 8 22 7·52	Bhimthadi Haveli Mával		1114 274	39,583	11 07 52 50		

¹ Mr. Reid, second assist. collector, 25th Feb. 1850, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 16 of 1850, 206; Gov. Letter 9756 of 21st Dec. 1850, Gov. Rev. Rec. 16 of 1850, 238-244.

Bori Survey Rates, 1846-continued.

Soil-con	tinued.	Class I 6 Villages.	Class II. 16 Vil- lages.	Class III 8 Villages.
1st Red 2nd do. 3rd do. 1st Barad 2nd do. 3rd do.		Res. 450 825 175 210 120 70	Res. 350 250 130 180 100 60	Res. 240 180 110 140 80 50

Land.
Survey.
Bori,

1848-49,

The area of watered land was considerable. Of 657 wells twentynine were in alienated land; there were also numerous small
channels. From both sources a total area of 4100 acres were
watered. Many of these channels were used only in seasons of
more than average rainfall. In seasons of moderate rain many of
them were without water. It was proposed that the rental on these
channels should not be demanded except when they were used.
Under the former survey the acre rate on the garden land was 6s.
(Rs. 3), but only a small portion (48 acres) of the watered land was
included under this head. It was proposed to impose the Pábal
garden land rate of 4s. (Rs. 2) in Bori. According to the new
survey the garden area amounted to 4100 acres and the rental to
£472 (Rs. 4720) or an average acre rate of a little more than 2s.
(Re. 1). The details are:

Bori Settlement, 1846.

	FORMER.			Survey.		
Villages.	Rental on Tiliage.					
	on	Arable.	Dry Crop.	Garden	Total.	Waste.
30	Rs. 54,643	Acres. 98,514	Rs. 40,319	Rs. 4,719	Rs. 45,038	Rs. 10,480

During the preceding five years the average remissions were about £740 (Rs. 7400). Deducting this sum from the former rental on the tillage area and comparing the balance with the survey rental on the occupied area there appears a reduction of about 4½ per cent. The proposed settlement was sanctioned in September 1848.

1849-50 seems to have been a less favourable year than 1848-49. There was a fall in the tillage area of 31,179 acres. At the same time remissions declined from 4.9 to 3.9 per cent. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári was the same as in the previous year, about 144 pounds (72 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area fell from 1,227,898 to 1,196,719 acres and the

1849-50.

As the supply of water was not enough to cover the whole garden area at the same time, each holder watered part of his land in turns so that the actual amount of land watered at one time was for less than 4100 acres.

land watered at one time was far less than 4100 acres.

³ Capt. Landon, asst. supt. 9th Oct. 1846; Lieut. Nash, Supt. 230 of 2nd Nov. 1846; Capt. Wingate, Supt. Southern Marátha Country, 152 of 11th Aug. 1848; Gov. Letter to the Rev. Comr. 5150 of 4th Sept. 1848.

Land.
Survey.
Brahmanvadi,
1849-50.

collections from £77535 (Rs. 7,75,350) to £76,243 (Rs. 7,62,430); £3148 (Rs. 31,480) or 3.9 per cent were remitted, and £1076 (Rs. 10,760) left outstanding.

In 1849 the survey settlement was introduced into a group of twenty-six villages of the Brahmanvadi petty division of Junuar. The remaining nine hill villages which contained chiefly occasional hill crop and rice land were left until the survey of this class of land was undertaken. Brahmanvadi was bounded on the north and east by the Ahmadnagar district, on the south by Bori another petty division of Junnar, and on the west by Madh Khore and Harishchandra hill. The hill or dáng villages lay on the west side of the Bráhmanvádi petty division between it and the Harishchandra hill. Bráhmanvádi was separated from Bori by a line of hills steep on the south or Bori side and sloping and broken on the north or Brahmanvádi side. In this survey group there were two streams the Kas and The Kas was generally dry in January, it had a very deep the Mul. bed with numerous deep ravines running at right angles from it on either side. The Mul stopped running by February, but had numerous pools which held water all the year. Bráhmanvádi was on the high road from Poona to Násik about a quarter of a mile from the top of the Bráhmanvádi pass. The Bráhmanvádi villages were badly off for roads. There was a made-road forty miles from Poona to Náráyangaon. From Náráyangaon, though not made, the road was fair for fourteen miles to the foot of the Brahmanvadi pass. The ascent of this pass was difficult. The pathway was blocked with boulders or crossed by sloping sheet-rock very dangerous for laden animals. From 10,000 to 15,000 head of cattle yearly crossed this pass loaded with grain chiefly bdjri which they carried to Junnar and Poona and returned laden with salt. There was another road leading out of the Bráhmanvádi petty division by Ale where, some years before, part of the road over the Ale pass had been made. At Utur a village in this survey group the rupee price of bájri was about 62 pounds (31 shers) in 1842-43, about 72 pounds (36 shers) in 1843-44, about 62 pounds (31 shers) in 1844-45, and about 38

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 24 of 1851, 211, 220, 270. The details are:

Poons Tillage and Revenue, 1848-1850.

	•		1848-49	•				1849-50		
Sub-Division.	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remissions.	Out- stand- ings,	Collec- tions.	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remis-	Out- stand- ings	Collec-
Shivner	58 771 73 88 182	Acres. 168,270 291,165 112,733 167,037 210,738 140,438 101,708 35,809	18,918 421 40 18 50 95	Rs. 832 1530 29 72 998 8055 315 7 11,838	Rs. 1,39,843 1,08,410 94,606 1,03,885 97,789 68,178 98,239 64,405 7,75,355	101 1851 58 771 72 88 182	159,014	16,539 198 226	Rs. 8196 5418 87 231 1115 631 81 10,759	Rs. 1,26,825 99,461 98,004 1,01,715 96,106 71,924 1,01,190 67,204 7,62,429
Total	955		45,140	13,231	7,83,817		***	85,808	12,070	7,69,336

pounds (19 shers) in 1845-46. The following statement shows the tillage and revenue during the fifteen years ending 1846-47:

POONA.

Bráhmanvádi Tillage and Revenue, 1832-1847.

YEAR.	Tillage.	Rental.	Remis-	Collec- tions.	YEAR.	Tillage.	Rental.	Remis- sions.	Collec-
1832-33. 1833-34 1834-35 1835-36. 1836-37 1897-38 1838-39 1839-40.	33,912 83,513 33,341 85,119	Rs. 92,772 35,525 36,955 85,349 35,361 36,937 35,704 37,580	Rs. 15,863 247 778 1248 20,191 1116 15,857 5904	Ra. 16,909 \$5,278 \$5,177 \$4,101 15,170 \$5,822 19,847 \$1,676	1840-41 1841-42. 1842-43. 1843-44 1844-45. 1845-46	Acres. 37,698 37,315 37,678 37,583 30,537 37,223 39,897	Rs. 38,229 \$8,102 \$8,410 \$8,665 \$8,141 \$8,417 40,377	Rs. 1213 9182 659 5887 5628 1550 190	Rs. 37,016 28,920 37,751 32,778 84,513 36,867 40,187

Chapter VIII Land

Survey.
Bráhmanvádi,
1849-50.

During the fifteen years ending 1846-47, of the average tillage area of 35,711 acres assessed at £3703 (Rs. 37,030), part was granted on short or ukti rates or on lease or kauli rates.. The average remissions were £570 (Rs. 5700) and the collections £3133 (Rs. 31,330) from 35,711 acres that is a nominal average acre rate of 1s. 9d. (14 as.). The correct acre rate was much lower as revised measurement showed that the number of assessable acres was much greater than those entered in the former survey record. Captain Landon the survey officer attributed the increase in the number of arable acres to the fact that land bordering on fields, which had not been assessed because it was thought too poor for tillage, had been brought under cultivation and improved. This Captain Landon thought might also account for the irregular shape of many fields and for the absence of The new survey left no land unmeasured, field boundary marks. adjoined field, and where there was a space between two fields, it was included in one or other field if it was of small extent and not fit for tillage. If it yielded grass it was assessed as grass land. Patches of bare rock were deducted from the number of assessable acres. In the best soil the former measurement was found generally correct and the shape of the field more regular. This was probably because the whole of such land had been measured.

The twenty-six villages were arranged in four classes with highest dry-crop acre rates 150 to 30 per cent higher than Indápur. The details are:

Brákmanvádi Survey Rates, 1849-50.

			BRÁHM.	arváde.	
Eoir.	Indápar Rates.	150 per cent higher 1 Village.	/ 100 per cent higher 1 Village.	60 per cent higher 13 Villages.	30 per cent higher 11 Villages.
1st Black 2nd do 3rd do 1st Red . 2nd do 3rd do	*Res. 500 240 170 200 130 75	Res. 750 600 425 500+50 130+50	Res. 600 490 840 400+50 260+50	Res. 480 364 272 320 208 120	Res. 390 312 221 260 269
1st Barad 2nd do 31d do	100 60 35	250 150 87	200 130 70	160 96 56	130 78 45

^{*} Four hundred res equal one rupes or two shillings.

¹ Captain Landon, 171 of 29th September 1848, paras 15, 19, and statement 2, These averages do not quite agree with the figures in the statement.

Chapter VIII.
Land.
SURVEY.
Bráhmanvádi,
1849-50.

For the small quantity of grass growing on the edges and rocky parts of the cultivated fields an acre rate of 11d. (1 a.) was proposed. It was proposed to rate a few acres of very rich river alluvial or dheli soil at 3d. (2 as.) and 6d. (4 as.) higher than the first black. Of rice land there were about twenty six acres for which acre rates of 6s. (Rs. 3), 4s. 6d. (Rs. $2\frac{1}{4}$), and 3s. (Rs. $1\frac{1}{2}$) were proposed. garden land an acre rate of 4s. (Rs. 2) for well-watered, and of 6s. (Rs. 3) to 2s. (Re. 1) for channel-watered land was proposed. average rate of the existing settlement on land held for tillage was, according to the former measurement, 2s. 3d. (Rs.1), and according to the new measurement 1s. $6\frac{5}{8}d$. (12 $\frac{5}{12}$ as.). The average acre rate according to the proposed assessment was 1s. 11d. (85 as.). According to Mr. Pringle's settlement in the twenty-six villages there were 51,938 arable acres assessed at £4862 (Rs. 48,620) or an average acre rate of 1s. $10\frac{3}{5}d$. $(14\frac{11}{12}as.)$. According to the revised measurement the arable area was 70,756 acres which gave an average acre rate of 1s. $4\frac{3}{5}d$. ($10\frac{1}{12}$ as.). There were besides 21.544 acres of grass land on the hills not measured by Mr. Pringle's survey. It was proposed to let them by auction or makta as was done in the case of grass lands or kurans.

The following statement shows that the survey settlement reduced the Government demand from £3336 (Rs. 33,360) the average collections of the ten years ending 1846-47 to £2856 (Rs. 28,560) the survey rental on the dry-crop and garden tillage area, that is a reduction of 14 per cent. The details are:

Bráhmanvádi Settlement, 1849.

1		For	MBK		1		1	Burvry	•		
			837 - 184	7.		Culti	rated.		W	aste.	
VILLAGES.	Total Rental.		Remis-	Collec-			Rental.				Total Rental
		Rental.	sions.	tions.	Area.	Dry- Crop.	Garden.	Total.	Area.	Rental.	
26	Rs. 48,622	Rs. 38,016	Rs. 4652	Rs. 33,364	Acres. 51,724	Rs. 27,426	Rs. 1181		Acres. 18,982		Rs 32,978

The proposed rates were sanctioned with the modification that the first black rate for Utur in the first class should be reduced from 3s. 9d. to 3s. 3d. (750 to 650 res); this change reduced the total survey rental by about £130 (Rs. 1300).

1850-51.

The season of 1850 was on the whole unfavourable. Partial and irregular falls of rain injured both the early and the late crops. The parts of the district which suffered most were Bhimthadi and the east or plain parts of Junnar, Khed, Pábal, and Mával. Remissions amounted to about 29 per cent in Bhimthadi, 11 in Khed, 8 in Purandhar, 3 in Indápur, and \$\frac{1}{2}\$ to \$1\frac{1}{2}\$ in other sub-divisions. Over the whole district the remissions showed an increase from 3.9 to 6.6 per cent. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári rose from about 144 to 76 pounds (72-38 shers). Over the whole

¹ The assistant superintendent Captain Landon, 171 of 29th September 1848; Captain Wingate, 236 of 22nd December 1848; Mr. Townsend, Rev. Comr. 483 of 29th January 1849; Gov. Letter 1368 of 24th February 1849.

district the tillage area rose from 1,196,719 to 1,215,015 &cres, and the collections fellfrom £76,243 (Rs. 7,62,430) to £73,032 (Rs. 7,30,320); £5196 (Rs. 51,960) or 6.6 per cent were remitted, and £417 (Rs. 4170) left outstanding.¹

In 1850-51 the thirty years' revenue survey settlement was introduced into 109 villages of Junnar.3 For revenue and magisterial purposes the Shivner or Junuar subdivision included three divisions, one in charge of a mamlatdar and two in charge of mahalkaris. The mamlatdar was stationed at Junuar and the mahalkaris at Bráhmanvádi and Bori. The survey settlement was introduced into the thirty villages of the Bori group in 1848, into the twenty-six villages of the Brahmanvadi group in 1849, and into the 109 villages of the Junnar group in 1850-51. The Junnar group was bounded on the north by the Brahmanvadi petty division and part of the Akola sub-division in Ahmadnagar, on the east by the Bori petty division, on the south by Pabal and Khed, and on the west by the Sahvádri hills. Numerous distinct spurs stretched east and southeast from the Sahyadris gradually falling into the plain. The extreme west was very rugged, and so broken by ravines that bullock and plough tillage was generally impossible. Its place was taken by a hand tillage known as dali. Further east the valleys broadened and the usual form of tillage became general. From the town of Junnar on the west to the Bori petty division on the east was a tract known as the Haveli group. A happy combination of favourable

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 18 of 1852, 5, 6, 10, 14, 19, 82. The details are: Poons Tillage and Revenue, 1849 - 1851.

	*		1849-50.					1850-51.	,	
Sub-Division.	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remis- siona.	Out. stand- ings.	Collec-
		Acres.	Rs.	Re.	Rs.		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Shivner	176	178,844	14,370	₹196	1,26,825		196,637	1764	17	1,23,338
Indápur		273,595	•	5418	99,461		271,007	3518	558	1,01,700
Khed	185		16,539	37	98,004			12,833		1,01,394
Pábal		159,014			1,01,715		154,364	1,908	358	99,375
Purandhar	774			231	96,106				1931	87,880
Bhumthadi .	72	131,504		1115	71,924		135,762	21,802	159	53,157
Haveli	88	102,770		681	1,01,190		102,297	1,338	1145	97,897
Mával	182	36,220	150	81	67,204	182	38,294	562	• • •	66,077
Total .	940	1,196,719	31,483	10,759	7,62,429	937	1.215,015	51,961	4168	7,30,324
Sequestrated	13		4325	1311	6907	15		3466	936	6845
Total	953	<i></i>	85,808	12,070	7,69,336	952		55,427	5104	7,37,169

Poona Waste, 1850-51.

Sur-Division.	Arable.	W	aste.	Sub-Division	1	W	aste.
SUMPLIVENCE.	Arabie.	Area.	Per Cent.	POR-DIVISION	Arable	Area.	Per Cent.
Shlvner Indápur Khed Pábal Purandhar	170,930	58,172 27,752	24·40 11·92 84·02 15·22 9 27	Bhimthadi Haveli Mával Total	1 ME 410	12,670 37,122	37·50 11·00 49·00.

Bom. Cov Sal TVV .-

Chapter VIII
Land.
SURVEY

Junnar, 1850-51. Land.
SURVEY.
Junnar,
1850-51.

rainfall and fertile-soil made this one of the richest spots in the Deccan. Nowhere else in Poona was the fall of rain so genial and so certain; nowhere else did wheat and other grains yield such abundant crops.1 In the rainy west rice was the staple product, the only dry-crops being náchni, sáva, khurásni, and other upland grains. So greatly did the excess of moisture deteriorate and exhaust the soil that after yielding for three or four years the land required three or four years of rest. From this wet western tract eastwards rice gradually disappeared as the wheat gram and millet lands of the Haveli group were approached. The western villages had often not more than a scanty population of hardy and simple hillmen. The houses were generally small roofed sheds. Their wants were few, and especially during the rains they were often left without craftsmen or traders. In the Haveli group the houses were comparatively well built, and the village communities had the usual staff of crafts-The chief and the most central local market was Junnar; the other leading market towns were Utur and Náráyangaon. rates fixed on the survey and assessment of Junuar carried out under Mr. Pringle were introduced in 1829-30, and till 1850 continued to be the basis of the British revenue collections. During the three years after Mr. Pringle's settlement tillage was stationary; during the fourth year it slightly increased. Each of these four years (1829-1833) was marked by a yearly fall in revenue. The years 1833-34 and 1834-35 are remarkable as almost the full assessment on the cultivated land was realized. 1836 was evidently a bad season, but, as liberal remissions were given, in the following year the revenue reached its former standard. 1838 was a year of short rain and the remissions amounted to about 45 per cent of the assess-The effects of this unfavourable season appear to have been felt for the succeeding three years from which time there is nothing remarkable till 1846. In 1848 probably because of the favourable character of the two previous years, the area of land under tillage was greater than in any preceding year of the whole period. unfavourable season of 1849 caused a decline in tillage. During the twenty-one years ending 1849-50 the tillage area varied from 47,000 acres in 1829-30 to 58,000 acres in 1848-49; the collections varied from £3500 (Rs. 35,000) in 1838-39 to £6500 (Rs. 65,000) in 1842-43, and averaged £5466 (Rs. 54,660) or 2s. \(\frac{1}{4}d\). (Re. 1 as. \(\frac{1}{6}\)) the acre. In the ten years ending 1849-50 the collections averaged £5835 (Rs. 58,350) or 2s. $\frac{7}{8}d$. (Re. 1 as. $\frac{7}{12}$) the acre. In 1850 the

¹ Sury, Supt. 205 of 25th Nov. 1850, Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 69-70.
² The details are:

Junnar Tillage and Revenue, 1929-1850.

YEAR.	Til- lage.	Remis- sions.	Collec- tions.	YRAR.	Til-	Remis- sions.	Collec- tions.	YEAR.	Til- lage.	Remis- sions.	Collec- tions.
1829-30. 1830-81 1831-82 1832-23 1838-34 1834-35 1835-36	47,200 47,000 52,000 58,000	11,000 15,000 20,000 200	Rs. 58,000 47,000 48,000 63,000 63,000	1636-37 1837-38 1838-39 1839-40. 1840-41 1841-42 1842-43	56,000 56,000 56,200 56,000 56,200	Rs. 22,000 3000 30,000 20,000 7000 16,000 4000	Rs. 42,000 63,000 85,000 48,000 60,000 51,000 65,000	1843-44., 1844-45., 1845-46., 1846-47., 1847-48., 1848-49., 1849-50.,	55,000 55,000 57,000 57,000 58,000	15,000	Rs. 58,000 50,000 57,000 65,000 65,000 60,000 53,000

These figures are given from the survey diagram for 109 Junuar villages. The old

people of Junnar were badly off. The bulk of them appeared to be deep in the moneylenders' books, almost literally living from hand The few exceptions seemed to be people who held their lands on favourable terms owing to some inequality in the existing assessment. A great reduction in the Government demand seemed called for.1 To ensure this reduction rates were proposed, which on the land under tillage in 1850 reduced the Government demand 34 per cent.2 The 109 villages were arranged into five classes whose highest dry-crop acre rates varied from 3s. 6d. (Rs. 13) in the first class to 1s. 6d. (12 as.) in the fifth class. The first class included twenty-two villages in the east of the Haveli group and in the valley of the Kukdi river, extending to the town of Junnar, the tract which has been described as one of the most fertile spots in the Deccan. They were charged a highest dry crop acre rate of 3s. 6d. (Rs. 13). The second class included twenty-four villages lying generally to the west of the first class and was charged a highest dry-crop acre rate of 3s. (Rs. 1½). In this group though the fall of rain was larger, the soil was much less rich. The third class included nineteen villages with a highest dry crop acre rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 11). and the fourth class contained thirty-four villages with a correspond-The division between the third and fourth ing rate of 2s. (Re. 1). classes was the change of products and cultivation from wheat and bairi to hill grains. The fifth class contained ten villages charged at a rate of 1s. 6d. (12 as.); they were on the tops and slopes of the Sahyádris. As rice tillage was entirely dependent on the rainfall two sets of acre rates, 6s. (Rs. 3) and 5s. (Rs. 21), were introduced, according as the land lay within or on the skirts of the belt of heavy rainfall. The watered land was either channel-watered or well-watered. The Superintendent proposed for well-watered land an acre rate of 4s. (Rs. 2) in excess of the highest dry-crop rates except in the specially rich gardens to the east of Junnar for which he proposed a rate of 8s. (Rs. 4). For channel watered or pátasthal land the Superintendent proposed acre rates varying from 2s. (Re. 1) to 6s. (Rs. 3) in excess of the highest dry-crop acre rates. A special acre rate of 12s. (Rs. 6) was proposed for the Háfiz garden about two miles to the east of Junuar which had an unfailing supply of water. In the hilly lands in the west, which were known as the cutting forest or dali $r\acute{u}n$, the Superintendent proposed to continue the former system of the billhook or koyta cess. Instead of the uniform koyta rate of 1s. 6d. (12 as.) the Superintendent recommended three rates, 1s. 3d. (10 as.) for the villages of the fifth class, 1s. 6d. (12 as.) for the villages of the fourth class, and 2s. (Re. 1) for small patches of billhook tillage in the second and third classes. The total survey rental, including dry-crop, garden, rice, hill-side, and grazing, amounted to £5536 (Rs. 55,360). Compared with £5667 (Rs. 56,670) the average collections of the previous twenty-one years (1829-1850), the total survey rental showed a reduction of £131 (Rs. 1310) or 2:31 per cent. The following statement shows the effect of the survey:

Land.
SURVEY.
Junnar,
1850-51.

kamál or total arable area of this group was 75,000 acres and the old kamál or total rental was £8300 (Rs. 83,000). Bom, Gov. Sel. LXX. 73.

1 Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 75.
2 Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 115.

Chapter VIII.

Land. Survey. Junnar, 1850-51. Junnar Settlement, 1850-51.

!				FORMER.			[SURV	BY.		
CLAS	a		1829	1850.		1849-50.	Dry-	Crop.	Ri	ce.	Garden.	}	1
*		Dry- Crop and Garden,	Rice.	Grazing and Dali Lands.	777-4-2	Dry- Crop Rice and Garden.	A rea,	Ren- tal.	Area.	Ren.	Well and Channel watered.	Grazing and Dati Lands.	Total
Ì		-Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
V III V V		28,400 14,313 4616 4378 553	21 295 2198 688	188 151 236 358 292	28,583 14,485 5147 6924 1533	18,474 4698 5688	27,057 23 ,4 26 13,864 17,693 6017		24 318 1710	23 308 2041 686	2173 903 81 	88 159 293 547 409	25,98 14,07 560 7610 2090
Total	ı	52,260	3197	1215	56,672	53,158	87,557	47,679	2687	8053	8157	1476	55,36

The Superintendent's proposals were approved and sanctioned by Government in April 1851. The only exceptions were that the settlement of the garden lands was not approved; that the old ...iform billhook rate was preferred to the proposed three classes; and that in the case of lands which required fallows the rates should be taken every year and not only when crops were grown.

The season of 1851 was again unfavourable. An abundant early rainfall was followed by a failure of the late rain and great loss of crops. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári fell from about 76 to 80 pounds (38-40 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area rose from 12,15,015 to 12,73,394 acres, and the collections from £73,032 to £80,462 (Rs. 7,30,320-Rs. 8,04,620), £2835 (Rs. 28,350) or 3·3 per cent were remitted, and £326 (Rs. 3260) left outstanding.³

Gov. Letter 4180 of 15th April 1851. Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX, 141-146.
 Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 15 of 1855, 74, 90, 118-120, 148. The details are:

Poona Tillage and Revenue, 1850 - 1852.

			1850-51					1851-52		
Sub-Division.	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- mgs.	Collec- tions.	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- sts d- ings.	Collec- tions.
		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	1	Acres.	Rs.	Re.	Rs,
Shivner	176	196,637	1764	17	1,23,338	176		1074	87	1,32,059
Indapur	99	271,007		558	1,01,706			1608	52	1,07,461
Khed	1851	112,758	12,838	**	1,01,394	187		15,422	530	1,05,919
Pabal	58	154,364		858	99,375			4	17	1,00,260
Purandhar				1931	87,880			4687	848	1,07,393
Bhimthadi	72	135,762		159	53,157			2803	88	80,984
Haveli		102,297	1338	1145	97,397			2759	2166	1,00,200
Mával	182	88,294	562		66,077	182		•••	•••	70,830
Total ,	937	1,215,015	51,961	4168	7,30,324	942	1,273,394	28,352	8258	8,04,625

Remissions in Khed and Haveli alone were in excess of the previous year, and these were only granted in unsurveyed villages where the old system of petitions and inspection of individual losses was in force; and where considerable damage had been sustained owing to the want of rain. In the surveyed villages of the northern subdivisions no remissions were given on account of failure of rain. Of the remissions shown against Junnar about Rs. 900 were nominal being the difference between the highest or kamál rental and the actual amount of settlement of one alienated village under attachment. The large amount of remissions for failure in the southern sub-divisions was rendered necessary by the general unproductiveness of the season,

In 1851-52 the survey settlement was introduced into the Ambegaon petty division of Khed.1 This group formed a narrow belt of country stretching from the Sahyadris on the west to the borders of Pabal on the east; it had Junnar on the north and the remaining portion of Khed on the south. It comprised the petty divisions of Ghode, Ambegaon, and Málunga, and contained fifty-eight villages one of which, Sal, had lapsed the previous year. The mavals or western portions of Ambegaon and Junnar were much alike. There was perhaps a smaller extent of comparatively level country in the mavals of Ambegaon than in those of Junnar. The products of Ambegaon and Junnar were likewise very similar, but in the plain or desh portion of Ambegaon cultivation was almost entirely confined to early crops of millets both bájri and jvári. The proportion of late crop was perhaps less than one-sixteenth of the whole. Wheat and gram were grown as second crops where there was irrigation from wells and channels. The potato was considered one of the ordinary products of the plain villages though it was not so much grown, nor, except in Ghode town, was the country so suited to its growth as in the neighbouring villages of the Ausari petty division of Pábal. Two potato crops were raised in the year. The first was planted in the early part of the monsoon; the after-crop was planted in December, but it was only where irrigation was available that it could be raised at this season. The potato seemed to be a favourite crop with the landholders chiefly on account of the ready sale the produce met with, to dealers who made a practice of visiting this part of the Deccan to buy for the Bombay and Poona markets. The other products of the Ambegaon group were sold by the landholders to the Vánis of Ghode, Senoli, and Ambegaon. At each of these three places there was a market. Ambegaon was a great store for rice, and Ghode was the chief market for other grains. Senoli was a small and unimportant market. Mr. Pringle's survey settlement was introduced into the Ambegaon group in 1829-30. During the twenty-two years ending 1850-51 the survey diagram showed that tillage fell from 25,000 acres in 1829-30 to 21,250 in 1831-32, and again rose to 26,000 in 1836-37. In the next three years it fell to 25,800 in 1839-40 and again rose to 27,500 in 1840-41. In the next three years it fell to 24,500 in 1843-44 and during the remaining seven years, with a rise in one and a fall in another year, it varied between 25,000 in 1845-46 and 26,250 in 1846-47, 1848-49, and 1850-51. Remissions were Rs. 3000 in 1829-30 and 1830-31, Rs. 1700 in 1831-32 and 1832-33, Rs. 2500 in 1836-37, Rs. 1250 in 1837-38, Rs. 2500 in 1838-39 and 1839-40, and Rs. 1300 in 1843-44, 1844-45, and 1850-51; in other years they were less than Rs. 600. The collections fell from Rs. 14,500 in 1829-30 to Rs. 12,500 Land-Survey. Ambegaon, 1851-52.

1 Lieut. Francis, Surv. Supt. 235 of 4th Dec. 1851, and Gov. Res. quoted in Gov. Letter 1624 of 9th March 1852 to the Rev. Comr. S. D.

but only in Indápur were remissions granted in surveyed villages, the sum shown against Purandhar being for Rástia's villages which were under temporary management. The amount against Bhunthadi is that of a recently lapsed village, whose landholders were unable to pay the sosti or full rates of assessment. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 15 of 1855, 118-120.

Apter VIII.

Land.

SURVEY.

Ambegaon,
1851-52.

in 1830-31, and steadily rose to Rs. 17,000 in 1835-36. In the next four years, except 1837-38 when they were Rs. 17,000, the stood at Rs. 15,000, and rose to Rs. 18,000 in 1840-41. They fell to Rs. 15,500 in 1841-42, rose to Rs. 17,500 in 1842-43, and again fell to Rs. 16,250 in 1843-44. After that they steadily rose to Rs. 18,000 in 1846-47 and fell to Rs. 17,000 in 1850-51. According to the Survey Superintendent Lieutenant Francis, during this whole period. the remissions were very small showing an abatement of only 71 per cent. In December 1851 he remarked, 'If it can be shown that under an assessment that has been in operation for so considerable a period. the resources of the group have not been impaired, that cultivation has extended accompanied with a corresponding increase of revenue. a reduction proportionate to the extent of remissions would seem all that is now required.' Lieut. Francis had passed through the grou in 1850 and had also visited it during December 1851. He was satisfied that the bulk of the landholders were in fair circumstances. In the hilly west or mával part of the group the holdings were small, and the landholders' means were generally very limited; still, as far as he could learn, few of them were in the habit of leaving their villages to seek employment in Bombay or elsewhere, being able to support themselves on the produce of their Considering the superior climate of this group he was of opinion that a new assessment equal to the amount of former collections would effect all the reduction called for. The rates he proposed were 3s., 2\frac{3}{4}s., 2\frac{1}{2}s., and 2s. (Rs. 1\frac{1}{2}, Rs. 1\frac{3}{8}, Rs. 1\frac{1}{4}, and Re. 1) for dry-crop lands. For rice lands one uniform rate of 6s. (Rs. 3) was proposed. 1063 acres were under rice and their assessment at the revised rates amounted to £133 (Rs., 1330) or an average acre rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 11). For garden lands, 6s. (Rs. 3) for channels and 4s. (Rs. 2) for wells were proposed. The total garden rental amounted to £49 (Rs. 490). Compared with the previous year's collections (Rs. 16,915) in fifty-seven villages the survey rental on the tillage area (Rs. 15,936)1 showed a reduction of 54 per cent. Including waste and the lapsed village of Sal the survey total amounted to £1951 (Rs. 19,510). Lieut. Francis observed that because of the rather scanty population of some of the villages near the Sahyadris, as well as on account of the nature of the soil which required a periodical fallow, the whole of the waste would not be brought under tillage at one time. There was a large extent of hill-land suited only for dali bush-clearing tillage. It had not been divided into numbers, but was left in large tracts for the purpose of being brought under the koyta or billhook system of assessment. It was proposed to continue the old rate of 1s. 6d. (12 as.) the koyta. The following statement shows the effect of the survey:

In para 12 of his report the Survey Superintendent compares the revenue at existing rates, Rs. 18,215 including Rs. 1300 of remissions in fifty-zeven villages, with the survey rental on the tillage Rs. 16,436 and shows the reduction to be 93 per cent. In para 20 he adds that Rs. 500 should be deducted on account of remissions for fields increased by new rates and compares the collections Rs. 16,915 with the survey rental Rs. 15,936 and shows the reduction to be 53 per cent. According to the tabular statements Rs. 15,936 should be Rs. 15,436, a change which gives a

Ambegaon Settlement, 1851-52.

		-	VII-	For Reve		Survey.									
Ci	Lass,		LAGRA.	1829 - 1851.	1850-51,	1860-51.	860-51. Dry-Crop and Garden.		Rice.		Grazing and Dali	Total	Dry- Crop Rate.		
		Ì	(7	Rs. 8208	Rs. 8770	Rs. 6760	Acres. 12,095	Rs. 7576	Acres 60	Rs 75	Rs 524	Rs. 8175	Rs.		
1	***	• •	ξ ₁		1384	663	1643	624	20	25	1	650	15		
п	***		11	4736	5125	4555	11,349	4784	166	213	622	5619	12		
ш	ń		17	2651	2461	2357	11,307	2662	403	588	242	8492	11		
IV			22	2308	1859	1764	20,220	8163	434	450	465	4078	1		
,	Total		58	17,903	19,599	16,099	56,614	18,809	1088	1351	1854	22,014	••		

Chapter VIII. Land. SURVEY. Ambegaon.

1851-52.

Purandhar.

The proposed rates were sanctioned by Government in March 1852.

In the same year the assessments of garden lands in thirty villages and of dry-crop and rice-lands in four villages in the Purandhar subdivision were revised. The former highest rate of assessment on watered land was 10s. (Rs. 5) the bighar or about 13s. 4d. (Rs. 63) the ore. Under the revision survey twenty-seven villages contained 977 es of cultivated well-watered garden land which were assessed at average acre rate of 3s. $3\frac{7}{8}d$. (Re. 1 as. $10\frac{7}{12}$) or a total of £162 (Rs. 1625), and twenty-one villages contained 1153 acres of Livated channel-watered land which were assessed at an average $\frac{1}{2}$ rate of 4s. 6\frac{3}{4}d. (Rs. 2 as. 4\frac{1}{2}) or a total of £263 4s. (Rs. 2632). the four villages the cultivated dry-crop Government land unted to 4546 acres which were assessed at £86 16s. (Rs. 868) n average acre rate of 41d. (3 as.); and the cultivated rice-land nunted to 181 acres which were assessed at £27 16s. (Rs. 278) In average acre rate of 3s. $\frac{3}{4}d$. (Re. 1 as. $8\frac{1}{2}$). Along with the proposals Lieutenant Francis the Survey Superintendent posed to reduce the rice rates introduced in 1848 in the simlatdar's division of Purandhar from 6s. (Rs. 3), 4s. 6d. (Rs. 21), 1d 3s. (Rs. 1½) to 4s. 6d. (Rs. 2½), 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1¾), and 2s. 6d. Rs. 11). In confirming the settlement Government ordered the evision of assessment on the rice-lands as proposed by Lieutenant Prancis and Captain Wingate.2

The season³ of 1852 was most favourable. It was one of unusual success to all engaged in agriculture. At Indapur the rupeo price of Indian millet or jvári fell from about 80 to 112 pounds (40-56 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area rose from 1,273,394 acres to 1,316,767 acres; the remissions fell from £2835 Rs. 28,350) to £728 (Rs. 7280), and the outstandings from £326 (Rs. 3260) to £45 (Rs. 450); the land revenue collections showed a

1852-53.

Poona Collector's Compilation of 1853, 143, 355.

¹ The Collector Mr. Reeves, 2842 of 1st October 1849 para 13.

² Lieut. Francis, Survey Superintendent, 1363 of 30th June 1852, 155 of 21st July 1852, and 193 of 3rd September 1852; Mr. Courtney, Revenue Commissioner, 3109 of 21st December 1852; Government Letter 196 of 1853.

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Land.
THE BRITISH.
1852-53.

fall fronf £80,462 (Rs. 8,04,620) to £80,072 (Rs. 8,00,720).¹ In addition to repairs to five wells, one reservoir, nine village offices, and one rest-house, the new works authorized in the Collectorate during the fear were two wells, six village offices, one rest-house, and one road. The amount sanctioned for such works during the year ending the 30th of April 1853, under the standing orders of the 4th of September 1835, was £204 (Rs. 2040).²

The following statement shows the working of the 1841 survey rates in eleven villages of the Haveli sub-division between 1841 and 1853:

Eleven Haveli Villages, Survey Results, 1841-1853.

YEAR,	Tillage.	Rental.	Remis- sions,	Collec- tions.	Waste.	Rental.
	Acres.	Rs,	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.
1841-42	7013	5269	219	5050	2513	1114
1842-43	8350	5865	.,	5865	1238	531
1843-44	8845	6062		6062	743	361
1844-45	8328	5837		5837	1267	588
1845-46	8281	5846		5846	1283	577
1846-47	8310	5927		5927	1070	460
1847-48	8455	5991		5991	923	395
1848-49	8657	6082		6082	746	324
1849-50	8971	6273		6273	704	309
1850-51	9018	8315		6315	658	266
1851-52	9143	6367		6367	531	214
1852-53	9230	6383		6383	445	186

SURVEY.

Khed.

The details are .

In 1852 the thirty years' revenue survey settlement was introdu, into the Khed sub-division. Khed was one of the largest s divisions of Poona. It had two petty divisions Ambegian and K subordinate to the Khed mamlatdar. The survey settlement

IIIO WOVAI	TO MIG	is tale .								
	1		1851-52.				·	1652-5	3.	
Sub-Division.	1 7727 1	Tillage	Remis- aions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	Vil- lages	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.
Shlvner Indápur Khed Pábal Purandbar Bhimthadi Haveli	99 187 58 773 73 89		Rs. 1074 1603 15,422 4 4687 2808 2759	Rs. 67 52 580 17 348 88 2166	Rs. 1,32,059 1,07,461 1,05,919 1,00,260 1,07,398 80,936 1,00,209 70,886	176 99 1871 58 771 73 89 182		Rs. 14 134 4257 996 1601 276	Rs. 92 1 18 841	Rs. 1,31,681 1,10,179 96,379 99,829 1,06,669 84,359 99,30 72,43
Total	942	1.279 904	29 359	8258	8.04.643	942	1.316.767	7278	452	8,00,72

Poona Tillage and Revenue, 1851-1859.

The remissions in the whole district amounted to 0.9 per cent. In Khed, where the new survey settlement was introduced this year, they amounted to 4.23, in Bhimthadi to 1.86, in Purandhar to 0.92, in Haveli to 0.27, in Indapur to 0.12, in Shivner or Junnar to 0.01, in Pábal and Mával there were no remissions. Mával was an unsurveyed subdivision and in it all the revenue was collected without difficulty. Poons Collector's Compilation of 1853, 26, 361. According to early or kharif and late or rabi crops there were two divisions of instalments for the collection of revenue, 15th of Dec. 1852, 1st of Feb. 1853, 15th of March 1853, and 1st of May 1853, for early crops; and 15th of Jan., 1st of March, 15th of April, and 1st of June, for late crops. Poons Collector's Compilation of 1853, 370.

* Poons Collector's Compilation of 1853, 370.

* Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 10.

failure of rain.4

introduced into the Ambegaon group of fifty-eight villages in 1851-52.1 For the remaining 129 villages, forty-seven under the Khed mámlatdár which stretched further east into the plain country and eighty-two under the Kuda mahálkari, survey rates were proposed in December 1852 and sanctioned in May 1853. The lands included in these 129 villages stretched about forty miles from west to east with a breadth of twelve to eighteen miles. It was bounded on the north by Ambegaon lying south of Junnar, on the east by Pabal, on the south by Haveli and Mával, and on the west by the Sahyadris. It was separated by a wide chain of hills from Ambegaon on the north and by a second chain of hills from Mával on the south : and besides, two other ranges of hills which passed through its centre. divided it into the three separate valleys of the Bhima and its two feeders the Indrávani and Bám.3 The Kuda group lay close to the Sahyádris and contained a considerable area of rice. The mamlatdár's group lay further east where the climate was not moist enough for rice, but was well suited for dry crops. The climate of the mámlatdár's villages was fully equal to that of Poona-Haveli; it was better than that of Pabal, and was not quite so good as that of the Junnar valley. In respect of markets Khed was not so well placed as Haveli but was better off than either Pábal or Junnar. husbandry was good for the Deccan, and the people were better off than elsewhere. The better condition of the people was perhaps partly due to the fact that Mr. Pringle's assessment in the villages near the Sahyadris was more liberal than his assessment of the east; it was chiefly because the country seldom suffered from a

From the sorvey diagram for 127 villages of this Khed group it appears that the area under tillage was 76,000 acres in 1829-30 and 66,000 in 1830-31 and 1831-32. It rose to 73,000 in 1833-34 and with a slight fall in the next year continually increased till it reached 84,000 acres in 1837-38. With a slight fall in the next year it rose to 86,000 in 1839-40. After 1839-40 it continued to shrink until it reached 79,000 in 1844-45 and 1845-46. During the next five years (1846-1851) it stood at about 85,000 acres, and rose to 88,000 acres in 1851-52. That is during the twenty-three years before the introduction of the revenue survey there was an increase in the area under tillage of 12,000 acres or 15 per cent. During the same twenty-three years (1829-1852) remissions varied considerably. In the first four years they rose from £1200 (Rs. 12,000) in 1829-30 to £1700 (Rs. 17,000) in 1832-33. In the next three years they were £300 (Rs. 3000). In the next four years they rose from £1200 (Rs. 12,000) in 1836-37 to £2500 (Rs. 25,000) in 1838-39 and again fell to £100 (Rs. 1000) in 1839-40. Between 1840 and 1848, except in 1841-42 when they were £1500 (Rs. 15,000).

Chapter VIII Land. SURVEY. Khed. 1852-53.

¹ Gov. Letter 1624 of 9th March 1852, Comp. 48 of 1852; Lieut. J. Francis, Survey. Superintendent, 299 of 24th December 1852; Rev. Rec. 172 of 1853, 95.

² Gov. Res. 2543 of 3rd May 1853, Poona Collector's Compilation of 1853, 37.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 172 of 1853, 79, 96.

⁴ Captain G. Wingate, Survey Commissioner, 31 of 13th January 1853; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 172 of 1853, 85-87.

Chapter VIII.
Land.
SURVEY.
Khed,
1852-53.

they vafied from £200 to £500 (Rs. 2000-5000). In the remaining four years (1848-1852) they fell from £1800 (Rs. 18,000) in 1848-49 to £1100 (Rs. 11,000) in 1851-52. In the first four years collections fell from £5500 (Rs. 55,000) in 1829-30 to £4800 (Rs. 48,000) in 1832-33. In the next six years they fell from £6500 (Rs. 65,000) in 1833-34 to £5500 (Rs. 55,000) in 1838-39. In the next nine years, except 1841-42 when they were a little below £6500 (Rs. 65,000), they rose from £7000 (Rs. 70,000) in 1839-40 to £7700 (Rs. 77,000) in 1847-48. In 1848-49 they fell to £6300 (Rs. 63,000) and from that rose to £7200 (Rs. 72,000) in 1851-52.1

Under the revenue survey settlement the 129 villages of this Khed group were arranged in five classes with highest dry-crop acre rates varying from 3s. 3d. (Rs. 1) in the first class to 2s. (Re. 1) in the fifth class. The highest rate was applied to a group of villages lying along the Poona-Junnar road. These villages possessed superior advantages for the carriage of produce to Poona and also enjoyed a climate favourable to dry crops. The lower rates were for groups lying east of the Poona-Junnar road where the climate became drier and to the west where the moisture was excessive; the lowest rates were for the Sahyadri villages where jvári and bájri could not grow. The highest acre rates for rice land were fixed at 8s. (Rs. 4) in the villages near the Sahyadris, 7s. (Rs. 31) for the next group, and 6s. (Rs. 3) for the group further east where the fall of rain was hardly enough for rice. There were 4425 acres of rice with an assessment of £720 (Rs. 7200), that is an average acre rate of 3s. 3d. (Rs. 15). The area of garden tillage was The highest rates fixed for garden land were, 6%. (Rs. 3) for channel-watered or patasthal and 4s. (Rs. 2) for well-watered 851 acres of channel-watered land were assessed or motasthal. at £112 (Rs. 1120) and 676 acres of well-watered land at £125 (Rs. 1230). No change was made in the management of hill land; inaccessible to the plough. They continued to be let for cultivation on the billhook or koyta system. The following statement shows the effect of the survey:

Khed Settlement, 1852-53.

		1			Form	ER.			SURVEY.	
,	4		VIL-	,	1829 - 1852.				1851-52.	
	Lass.		LAGRS.	Dry-Crop, Rice and Garden.	Dali and Grass.	Total.	1851-52.	Dry-Crop and Rice.	Garden.	Total.
A 111 71 1	***		, 18	Rs. 17,842 4004 26,075 9139 11,858 2270	Rs. 741 125 1355 649 1054 521	Rs. 18,063 4129 27,430 9788 12,912 2791	Rs. 20,823 4467 83,602 11,850 13,867 2550	Ra. 14,422 2591 23,188 10,909 12,612 2104	Rs. 1879 63 659 160 98	Rs. 15,801 2654 23,841 11,069 12,710 2104
	Total	•••	129	70,688	4445	75,133	87,159	65,826	2353	68,179

^{*} Of these one lapsed in 1844-45 and the other in 1848-49. Rev. Rec. 172 of 1853, 109.

POONA.

Khed Settlement, 1852-53-continued.

			SURVEY.											
(CLASS.		Dry-Crop and Garden,		Rice.		Total.		Ddli and Grase Lands.	Total.	Highest Dry-crop Acre Rate.			
I III IV V	 Total	: ::	Acres. 21,883 5277 43,197 24,179 48,402 12,746	Ra. 16,944 9411 27,105 11,592 16,186 2206	Acres. 1 135 599 2549 1142 4426	Rs. 1 199 898 4283 1622 7198	Acres. 21,884 5277 43,332 24,778 50,951 13,887	Rs. 16,945 8411 27,304 12,485 20,469 4028 84,642	Rs. 932 163 1344 609 1496 635	Rs. 17,877 3574 28,648 13,094 21,965 4663	Rs. a. } 1 10 1 8 1 6 1 4 1 0			

1853-54.

Land.
SURVEY.
Khed,
1852-52.

1853-54 was an unusually bad season. The south-west monsoon bogan with excessive rain followed by drought, relieved in some places by a few showers. Large sums had to be remitted. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári was the same as in the last year, about 112 pounds (56 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area rose from 1,316,767 to 1,368,430 acres and the collections fell from £80,072 (Rs. 8,00,720) to £72,476 (Rs. 7,24,760); £8294 (Rs. 82,940) or 10.2 per cent were remitted and £250 (Rs. 2500) left outstanding.

In 1853-54 the survey settlement was introduced into the 180 Government villages of the Mával sub-division in the south-west corner of the district. Mával was bounded on the west by Thána, on the north by Khed, on the east by Haveli, and on the south by Bhor. The sub-division contained a main group of 102 villages called Mával, and to the south of the main group a minor group of 78 villages called Mulshi. In general features Mával was like the Sahyádri sub-divisions which had been settled before. Except the range which was strengthened by the forts of Lohogad and Visápur the Mával hill ranges were not so large as those further north, and, except in the western Mulshi villages, the valleys were more open, broader, and leveller. Close to the Sahyádris the rainfall was very much heavier than in any other part of the sub-division. The

chief products of the dry-crop or jiráyat lands were náchni, sáva, and

Survey. Mával, 185**3-**54.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1858, 10, 167, 200, 238. The details are : *Poona Tillage and Revenue, 1852-1854.*

	1852-53,						1853-54.						
SUB-DIVISION	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- etand- ings.	Collec-	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions,	Out. stand- ings.	Collection			
Shivner Indapur Khed Pabal Purandhar Bhunthadi Haveli Mával	73	Acres	Rs. 14 134 4257 996 1601 276	Rs. 92 1 18 341	Rs. 1,31,685 1,10,179 96,379 99,824 1,06,664 84,350 99,308 72,332	176 99 187 <u>1</u> 58 77 <u>1</u> 78 90 180	Acres	Rs. 9659 11,553 14,096 489 6896 5875 10,772 23,662	Rs. 3 8 8 8 8 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	Rs. 1,18,764 1,01,619 87,314 99,519 1,00,938 -86,767 87,269 42,682			
Total	942	1,816,767	7278	452	8,00,721	941	136,8430	82,942	2498	[7,24,762			

² Capt. Francis, Surv. Supt. 33 of 31st January 1854; Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX.

Chapter VIII.

Land.

Survey.

Mával,
1853-54,

til for the early harvest, and wheat and gram for the late harvest. Small areas of bájri and jvári were grown in a few of the eastern villages. The black soil lands were suited only for late crops. Rice was the crop from which the landholders paid their revenue. Most of the rice went to Poona, a little went below the Sahyadris, and a still smaller share was kept for local retail sale at Varangaon, Khandala, and other chief halting places along the Bombay-Poona The only manure was wood and grass ashes with which the rice nursery beds were covered. Mr. Pringle's settlement of the Mával villages had been a success. During the twenty-three years it had been in force not more than-five per cent of remissions had been required. In the ten years ending 1852 the spread of tillage had been steady, and in 1852 it was rapid. As in several other parts of the Presidency, where light rates were in force, the light assessment had brought with it a plague of Márwári Vánis, kcon calculators, who did not make advances to the people unless they knew that they could make money out of the land if it was thrown on their hands. The villages along the Bombay road were filled with Marwaris who had managed to get the great body of the people deep in their books. The people were more oppressed with debt in that part of the mamlatdar's division than in any other sub-division of the collectorate. A Márwári or a Márwári's agent generally lurked about the landholder's stackyard when any thrashing was going on, ready to step in and carry off the bulk of the produce. Some change in the relations between the landholders and the moneylenders was urgently wanted. In the Mulshi group though the rates were higher, there were no Márwáris and the

Maval Tillage and Revenue, 1830 - 1853.

			Dry-Crop	•		RICE.		TOTAL.		
YE	AR.	Tillage.	Remis-	Collec-	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Collec-	Tillage.	Remis-	Collec-
,		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Bs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.
1830-81		25,000	2000	15,500	11,000	3000-	81,000	86,000	5000	47,500
1831-82		21,000	500	15,000	10,000	500	81,000	31,000	1000	46,000
1832-88	***	21,000	3000	11,000	10,000	5500	27,000	81.900	8500	38,000
1833-34		21,000	200	14,500	10,500	200	33,000	31,500	400	47,500
1834-85	•••	23,000	200	15,000	10,500	200	33,000	83,500	400	48,000
1835-36		26,000	200	17,500	10,500	5 0 0	83,000	86,500	700	50,500
1836-87	***	25,500	8000	14,500	10,500	4000	28,500	86,000	7000	43,000
1837-88		24,500	3000	14,000	10,500	3500	29,000	85,000	850 0	43,000
1838-89		24,000	8500	13,000	11,000	4000	29,500	85,000	7500	42,500
1839-40		24,500	3000	13,000	11,000	4000	81,000	85,500	7000	44,000
1840-41		24,000	1000	15,000	11,000	1500	92,500	85,000	2500	47,500
1841-42		23,000	2000	13,000	11,000	2500	81,500	84,000	4500	44,500
1842-43	,	23,500	500	15,000	11,500	1000	84,000	85,000	1500	49,000
1848-44		22,000	800	14,000	11,000	700	83,500	83,000	1500	47,500
1844-45		22,500	200	14,200	11,000	200	84,000	33,500	400	48,200
1845-46		28,500	500	14,500	11,500	500	84,500	35,000	1000	49,000
1846-47		24,000	200	15,000	11,500	500	84,500	35,500	700 600	49,500 51.000
1847-48	.,,	25,00 0	800	15,500	11,700	800	85,500	86,700		51,000
1848-49		24,400	300	15,500	11,800	300	85,500	36,200	600	52,000
1849-50		25,500	200	16,500	11,000	800	35,500	86,500	500 800	53,500
1850-51	•••	27,000	800	17,500	11,800	500	86,000	88,800	400	57,200
1851-52	***	28,000	200	21,000	11,500	200	86,200	89,500	. 200	58,300
1852-53		88,400	100	22,000	11,800	100	86,300	45,200	. 200	00,000

¹ The survey diagram for 178 Mával villages gives the following details for the twenty-three years since Mr. Pringle's settlement in 1830-31:

people were much better off.1 Government did not agree with Captain Francis in explaining the impoverished state of the Mával landholders by the excessive exactions of moneylending Márwáris.3 In the west the rainfall was too heavy for dry-crops; the best dry-crops were grown in the eastern villages. Captain Francis proposed four classes of dry-crop land. The first class with an acro rate of 3s. (Rs. 12) included the villages in the extreme east of the Mával group touching on Khed; the second class rate of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 13) was applied to the group of villages lying immediately west of the first class villages; the third class rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs.11) was applied to a group west of the second class villages; and the fourth class rate of 2s. (Re. 1) was applied to the villages lying along the crest of the Sahyadris and on the sides of the hills. villages along and at a short distance from the Bombay-Poona road made considerable profits from their uplands or máls by selling grass to the numerous cart and pack bullocks that were daily halting at the different stages on the road. For this reason Khandála and some other villages near the Sahvádris were brought into the third instead of the fourth class.

As abundant rainfall is one of the most important elements in successful rice growing, it might be supposed that rice lands would be valuable in proportion to their nearness to the Sahyadris. Local inquiry showed that this was not the case. The best rice lands were not in the Sahyadri villages, nor were the least productive rice lands in the most easterly villages. Both in the main Maval group and in the smaller Mulshi group the best rice lands were near the middle of the tract.4 In classing the rice lands, with Captain Wingate's approval, Captain Francis adopted the system introduced by Mr. Fraser Tytler into the Nasik and Ahmadnagar hilly rice lands. The chief change introduced was in basing the valuation on the kind of rice grown and not on the character of the embankment.5 Under these principles the rice lands were arranged under four classes with acre rates of 9s. 8s. 7s. and 6s. (Rs. 4½, Rs. 4, Rs. 3½, and Rs. 3). In distributing these rates the rate of 9s. (Rs. 41) was applied to some villages of the Mulshi group whose dry-crop lands belonged to the first and second classes. The rates of Ss. and 7s. (Rs. 4 and Rs. 31) were applied to the Mulshi villages whose dry-crop lands brought them into the third and fourth classes and to all villages of the main, Maval group whose dry-crop lands brought them into the first second and third classes. The rate of 6s. (Rs. 3) was applied to all the fourth class dry-crop villages in the main Mával group.

Compared with the twenty-three years ending 1852-53 the survey rental of the land held for tillage at the time of the survey showed a rise from £4832 (Rs. 48,320) to £5289 (Rs. 52,890); compared with the ten years ending 1852-53 it showed a rise from £5191 (Rs. 51,910) to £5289 (Rs. 52,890); and compared with the year 1852-53

Chapter VIII. Land. SURVEY.

> Mával, 1853-54.

Captain Francis, 31st January 1854, Bom. Gov Sel. LXX. 6-7.

²Govt. Letter 3588 of 28th Augt. 1855, Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 64-65.

³Capt. Francis afterwards (246, 10th July 1854) did away this first class by lowering the rate to 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1§). Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 55-56.

⁴Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 5.

⁵Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 5.

Chapter VIII. Land. SURVEY. Mával. 1853-54.

it showed a fall from £5823 (Rs. 58,230) to £5289 (Rs. 52,890).1 The survey rental on the entire arable land amounted to £7056 (Rs. 70,560). There was therefore a considerable margin of waste from the cultivation of which the survey reduction might be made The following statement gives the details of this settlement:

'Mával Settlement, 1853-54.

Division.	Vil-	Class	DRY-	CROP.	Ri	CB,	To	TAL.	Grazing	
Division.	lages.	Class	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Bental.	Ares.	Rental.	and Dali.	Total.
		,	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
120 24 20 4	9	I	11,151	4658	1134	2176	12,285	6834	325	7159
Mámlatdár's	51	II	27,298	14,999	4163	9232	81,461	24,231	1312	28,543
division)	24	III	9824	8757	2187	5342	12,011	9099	720	9519
1	16	ΙV	5959	1220	1178	2912	7137	4132	768	4898
35	4		3946	1848	755	2130	4701	8978	268	4246
Mulshi petty	18	II	4286	1735	1695	47887	5981	6422	835	6757
division)	29	III	3506	1187	2688	8804	6144	9991	667	10,658
,	32	IV	10,836	1927	1552	8950	12,388	5877	899	6776
Total	178		76,806	81,331	15,802	39,238	92,108	70,564	5292	75,856

The effect of lowering the first class dry-crop rates from 3s. (Rs. 11) to 2s. 9d. (Rs. $1\frac{3}{8}$) which has been noticed above, was to reduce these totals by £39 (Rs. 390) in the main Mával group and by £15 (Rs. 150) in the Mulshi group.²

- 1854 · 1866.

The eighteen years ending 1854 was a period of little improvement. In Indapur and Bhimthadi the people were few and poor. Over almost the whole of the district about half of the eighteen years, 1838, 1840, 1841, 1844, 1845, 1850, 1851, and 1853, were bad seasons; and except when its price was raised by a general failure of crops grain was ruinously cheap, the rupee price of Indian millet varying from 30 to 144 and averaging 104 pounds.3 In spite of these obstacles the tillage area rose from 895,438 acres in 882 villages in 1839-40 to 1,368,430acres in 941 villages in 1853-54, and the collections from £63,612 (Rs. 6,36,120) in 1837-38 to £72,476 (Rs. 7,24,760) in 1853-54. The turning point was passed about 1852 and there was a marked and steady improvement in the next twelve years 1854-1866. Towards the close of this period, owing to the continuation of the American war and several years of short crops, produce prices were higher than they had been since the beginning of British rule. Ivári sold at Indápur at about 26 to 36 pounds (13-18 shers) the rupee in 1862-1866 in place of about 48 pounds (24 shers) in 1818, 88 pounds (44 shers) in 1826, 96 pounds (48 shers) in 1835, and 112 pounds (56 shers) in 1854. During the twelve years ending 180' the tillage area rose from 1,368,430 acres in 941 villages in 1853-5+ to 1,743,179 in 988 villages in 1865-66; and collections from £72,476 to £105,521 (Rs.7,24,760 - Rs. 10,55,210). In Indapur, which before

²Survey Superintendent, 33 of 31st January 1854 and 246 of 10th July 1854; Rev. Comr. 2542 of 14th Augt. 1854 and 576 of 23rd February 1855; Gov. Letter 3588 of 28th Augt. 1855. Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 1-66.

Bom. Gov, Sel, CVII. 71.

These figures are for 178 out of the 180 villages of this survey group. Including two villages which came into British possession in 1848, the survey rental when compared with the previous year shows a reduction from Rs. 59,358 to Rs. 53,947. Bom. Gov. Sel. LXX. 9.

1846 was one of the most distressed subdivisions, collections showed a rise from £6522 (Rs. 65,220) between 1836 and 1846 to £8305 (Rs. 83,050) between 1856 and 1866 or an increase of 27 per cent, the average remissions were reduced from £1222 (Rs. 12,220) to 12s. (Rs. 6), and during the ten years ending 1865-66 there was hardly any waste. The yearly details are:

Chapter
Land.
THE BRITISH.

1854-55.

In 1854-55 in the plain or desh, part of the collectorate much distress was caused by the late setting in of the rains. In the ricegrowing tracts along the Sahyádris, where failure of rain would have caused serious distress, the usual showers fell during the whole of June and July; on the whole 1854 was a favourable season. In December some damage had been done to the crops by hailstorms in parts of Junnar and Purandhar. At the beginning of the season many cattle died of starvation in consequence of the scarcity of fodder. In August 1854 the Revenue Commissioner sanctioned the grant of advances to landholders, and they were enabled to renew their stock of cattle and to keep up their cultivation which must otherwise have fallen. Of £1385 (Rs. 13,850) the total sum advanced, £1143 (Rs. 11,430) were for cattle and £242 (Rs. 2420) were for water works. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári rose from about 112 to 58 pounds (56-29 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area rose from 1,368,430 to 1,395,080 acres, and the collections from £72,476 to £81,486 (Rs. 7,24,760-Rs. 8,14,860); £612 (Rs. 6120) or 074 per cent were remitted and £24 (Rs. 240) left outstanding.1

In 1855-56 twenty-three villages lapsed and raised the number of Government villages from 947 to 970 and reduced the number of alienated villages from 247 to 224. Rain began in the mouth of June and continued to fall seasonably until the middle of July. After this none fell in Indápur and Bhimthadi until the end of August, and the other sub-divisions had little or no rain till about the middle of September. A favourable change took place after

1855-56,

¹ Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1859, 1325, 1367, 1432, 1433, 1459, 1461, 1484, 1522, 1527. The details are:

Poons Tiliags and Revenue, 1853-1855.

		Ì	1	858-54-			1854-55.					
SUB-DIVISION	r. 	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- mgs	Collec- tions.	Vil- lages	Tillage.	Remis- sions	Out- stand- ings	Collec- tions.	
Shivner Indápur Khed . Pabal . Purandhar Bhimthadi Haveli Mával .		176 99 1874 58 774 73 90 180	Acres 205,147 295,081 164,253 153,579 217,924 167,773 108,206 55,868	Rs 9659 11,553 14,096 489 6536 5875 10,772 23,662	8s. 3 3 320 2046 126	Rs. 1,18,764 1,01,619 87,314 99,619 1,00,938 86,707 87,269 42,632	99 187] 59 80] 74 90	Acres. 200,851 297,106 157,931 158,795 223,748 180,345 113,849 62,455	Rs. 1246 11 212 14 265 2469 121 1785	Rs. 66	Rs 1,27,32- 1,13,566 99 81: 1,03,84' 1,08,826 94,92' 99,85' 66,70:	
Total		941	1,368,430	83,942	2498	7,24,762	947	1,395,080	6123	244	8,14,86	

Of 1,395,080 acres the total area under tillage, 439,125 acres or 31.5 per cent were under jvári, 447,153 or 32 per cent under bájri, 74,503 or 5.3 per cent under wheat, 64,031 or 4.5 per cent under gram, 60,167 or 4.3 per cent under math, 37,941 or 2.7 per cent under kardai, 18,606 or 1.3 per cent under sugarcane, 14,488 or 1 per cent under rice, 1597 under udid, 4123 under cotton, 229 under hemp, 166 under linseed, and 232,951 or 16.7 per cent under miscellaneous crops.

в 1327-59

DISTRICTS.

C. Chapter VIII.

Land.

THE BRITISH.

1855-56.

the 20th of September. There were several heavy falls of rain through nearly every part of the collectorate, and the crops which had not suffered beyond recovery revived. On the whole the season of 1855 was fair. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári fell from about 58 to 64 pounds (29-32 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area rose from 1,395,080 acres in 947 villages to 1,447,006 acres in 970 villages, and the collections from £81,486 to £85,429 (Rs.8,14,860-Rs.8,54,290); £1032 (Rs.10,320) or 1.19 per cent were remitted, and £41 (Rs.410) left outstanding.

1856-57.

In 1856 general but slight rain fell early in June. From the end of June till late in July the fall was very slight and partial. During early August rain fell seasonably everywhere in the collectorate. But for the rest of the season it was partial and scanty. Considerable and general failure resulted in some parts of the district. On the whole the season was below the average. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári was the same as in 1855-56 about 64 pounds (32 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area rose from 1,447,006 to 1,534,473 acres and the collections from £85,429 to £87,928 (Rs. 8,54,290-Rs. 8,79,250); £1649 (Rs. 16,490) or 1.8 per cent were remitted and £35 (Rs. 350) left outstanding.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 15 of 1860, 4-6, 29, 32, 56. The details are:

Poona Tillage and Revenue, 1854-1856.

		1	854-55.			1855-50.					
Sub-Division.	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remissions	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	
		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Shivner	176	200,851	1246		1,27,824	177	202,717	231	1 . 1	1,30,468	
Indápur	99	297,106	11	66	1,18,566		301,390	27	· · · · ·	1,15,094	
Khed	1871	157,931	212		99,813		157,554	859	1 1	1,00,118	
Pábal	59	158,795	14		1,03,847	59	16 1,999		1 • 1	1,05,93	
Purandhar	803	273,748	265		1,08,826		249,174	8460		1,32,72	
Bhimthadi	74	180,345	2469	'	94,927	74	198,000	2641	413	1,02,18	
Haveli	90	113,849	121	178	99,857		114,135	1231	1	99,24	
Mával	181	62,455	1785		66,703	181	63,037	1871	•	68,53	
. Total	947	1,395,080	6128	244	8,14,863	970	1,447,006	10,320	413	8,54,29	

Of the total area under tillage 36 per cent were under jvari and 27 under bajri.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 15 of 1860, 201, 227, 230, 362. The details are:

Poona Tillage and Revenue, 1855 - 1867.

•		i	.855-56.			1856-57.					
Sub-Division.	Vil. lages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Colleg-	Vil- lages.	Tiliage.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec-	
Shivner Indapur	99 1901 59	Aores. 202,717 301,890 157,554 161,999 248,174 198,000 114,135 68,087	Rs. 231 27 859 8460 2641 1231 1871	Rs 413	Rs. 1,80,468 1,15,094 1,00,118 1,05,930 1,32,724 1,02,185 99,235 68,638 8,54,292	99 1901 59 991 74 91 182	Acres. 218,831 304,749 168,120 168,378 274,513 217,918 115,889 66,586	Rs. 8159 176 4316 1273 3208 2233 169 1955	Rs. 91 5 113 113 29 851	Rs. 1,23,069 1,16,099 1,00,880 1,08,001 1,85,175 1,10,513 1,06,317 70,225	

Of the total area under tillage 30 per cent were under jvdri and 33½ under bdjri.

In October 1857 Mr. Leighton, the first assistant collector who had charge of Khed Haveli and Mával, wrote that the object of improving the state of the people by lowering the Government demand had been defeated by the extortionate demands of moneylenders. He thought that a law should be passed to prevent the levy of extortionate interest. He knew the objections which were urged against usury laws in England. He was satisfied that these objections did not apply to the state of affairs in Western Poona. The borrowers were poor ignorant and simple, the lenders were sharp unscrupulous strangers. Mr. Leighton thought that no bond passed by a landholder should be binding unless it was registered in an assistant collector's court; that the rate of interest should be limited by law and that all holders indebted beyond a certain amount should be obliged to give up their land. These measures would at first be unpopular; in time the people would see that they were for their good. Until indebtedness was checked it was hopeless to attempt to improve the state of the people. Native officers anxious to please said the people were much better off since the revised survey had come in. He saw no sign of improvement. All that Government had sacrificed had gone to the Marwari. Moreover now that a light assessment had made land valuable, every year numbers of fields passed from the husbandman to the moneylender whose slave he became.

Except in Indápur and Bhimthadi 1857 was on the whole a favourable season. Though there were considerable failures in various parts of Indápur and Bhimthadi the revenue had been collected without undue stress. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet fell from about 64 to 78 pounds (32-39 shers). Over the whole district the tillage area rose from 1,534,473 to 1,566,231 acres and the collections from £87,928 to £91,919 (Rs. 8,79,280-Rs. 9,19,190), £291 (Rs. 2910) or 0.31 per cent were remitted, and £61 (Rs. 610) left outstanding.²

The season of 1858 was on the whole favourable. Rain began early in June, visiting the districts generally but slightly. It afterwards fell seasonably up to mid-July. From the middle to the end of July there was abundant rain throughout the collectorate,

Land.

THE BRITISH. 1856-57.

1857-58.

1858-59.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec 15 of 1860, 315-320.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1861, 5, 37, 40, 68. The details are:

Poona Tillage and Mevenue, 1856-1858.

			1856-57.			1857-58.					
Sub-Division.	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Remis- sions,	Out- stand- inga	Collec- tions,	Vil- lages.	Tillage.	Re- mis- sions.		Collections	
Shivner Indápur Khed Pábal Purandhar Bhumthadi Haveli Mával	178 99 190j 59 99j 74 91	Acres, 218,331 304,743 168,378 274,518 217,918 115,889 66,586	Rs. 3159 176 4316 1273 3208 2233 169 1965	Ra. 91 5 113 29	Rs. 1,33,069 1,16,099 1,00,880 1,08,001 1,35,178 1,10,518 1,05,317 70,225	178 99 1948 59 1004 74 92 184	167,898	Rs. 20 567 20 26 2274	Rs	Rs. 1,87,719 1,16,256 1,10,279 1,09,698 1,37,433 1,15,438 1,16,848 75,825	
Total	973	1,584,473	16,489	851	8,79,282	981	1,566,231	2907	607	9,19,191	

Of the whole area under tillage 36 per cent were under jodri and 29 per cent under bajri.

DISTRICTS.

Chapter VIII. Land. THE BRITISH. 1858-59.

1859-60.

ESUU-b1.

except in Indápur, Supa, and a few villages of Pábal and Bhimthadi. During August the fall was partial but after August the supply was general and satisfactory. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet or jvári rose from about 78 to 64 pounds (39-32 shers). Over the whole district tillage rose from 1,566,231 to 1,598,885 acres and collections from £91,919 to £93,305 (Rs. 9,19,190-Rs. 9,33,050), £243 (Rs. 2430) or 0.25 per cent were remitted, and £9 (Rs. 90) left outstanding.1

The season of 1859 was an average but an unhealthy season. Tillage rose from 1,598,885 to 1,654,399 acres and collections from £93,305 to £95,663 (Rs. 9,33,050 - Rs. 9,56,630), £36 (Rs. 360) were remitted, and £1 (Rs. 10) left outstanding.2 At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet fell from about 64 to 78 pounds (32-39 shers).

In the opinion of the Deccan Riots Commissioners's notwithstanding the pressure of debt and the hardships which the laws inflicted on borrowers, about 1860 the landholders of Poona were better off than they had been for years. The conditions of agriculture had been For nearly twenty years most of the district had favourable. enjoyed a fixed and moderate assessment, large tracts of waste had been brought under tillage, ordinary communications and means of transport were improved, and the railway had been brought within easy reach. The construction of the railway had poured into the district a sum of not less than £200,000 (20 lákhs of rupees) in wages of transport and labour. Above all a series of fair seasons had richly rewarded the husbandman's labours. Although the lender might have recourse to the civil court, there was a possibility of the borrower being able to borrow from another lender in order to pay him and the court would give time; if a decree passed against the landholder his stock and field tools were safe, and his land was not in real danger. He might be imprisoned until he signed a new bond, but he was not likely to be pauperised.

In 1860-61 the rainfall was partial but timely, and the season was on the whole favourable.4 Tillage rose from 1,654,399 to 1,664,802 acres and collections from £95,663 to £96,618 (Rs. 9,56,630 to

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev, Rec. 17 of 1861, 174, 210, 214, 242. The details are: Poona Tillage and Revenue, 1957-1859.

	1	857-58.	1858-5	59.
Sub-Diverion.	Village.	Re- mis- sions. Out- stand- ings. Collec- tions.	VII- lages Tillage.	s- stand tions.
Shivner	99 806,100 1941 178,926 59 167,898 1001 282,833 74 217,687 92 117,493	Rs. Rs. 1,87,719 20 1,10,256 567 1,0,279 1,0,9,693 20 1,37,633 26 1,15,483 2274 7.75,345 2907 607 9,19,191	178 228,481 99 366,008 186,433 3: 59 173,224 1024 239,021 274 220,806 92 120,536 1183 74,875 15:	30 1,16,458 30 1,14,569 84 1,40,468 87 1,16,866 81 3 1,21,056 74,611

Of the whole area under tillage 27.4 per cent were under jours and 36 per cent under blyri.

Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 13 of 1862-64, 103, 152, 176, 265, 273, 284, 308.

Deccan Riots Commissioners' Report, 1875, para 51 page 35.

Rev. Comr. S. D. 42 of 9th January 1861, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 90 of 1861, 177.

Rs. 9,66,180), £24 (Rs. 240) were remitted, and £5 (Rs. 50) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet rose from

about 78 to 66 pounds (39-33 shers).

In 1861-62 the rainfall was 23 inches at Indapur, 47 at Poona, 35 at Junnar, and 12 at Khadkála. The season was favourable and healthy.2 Tillage rose from 1,664,802 to 1,691,352 acres and collections from £96,618 to £99,933 (Rs. 9,66,180-Rs. 9,99,330), 8s. (Rs. 4) were remitted, and £330 (Rs. 3300) left outstanding. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet rose from about 66 to 54 pounds (33-27 shers).

In 1862-63 a scarcity of rain caused much damage to the early harvest; but an abundant fall in September and October gave a rich late crop. The rainfall was 12 inches at Indapur, 27 at Poona, 10 at Junnar, and 63 at Khadkala. Public health was good.3 Tillage rose from 1,691,352 to 1,696,097 acres, collections fell from £99,933 to £99,699 (Rs. 9,99,330 - Rs. 9,96,990), £42 (Rs. 420) were remitted, and £42 (Rs. 420) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet rose from about 54 to 32 pounds (27-16

In 1863-64 a scanty early fall was, except in Indápur and Bhimthadi, followed by a satisfactory late supply. So serious was the failure of rain in Indápur and Bhimthadi, that relief works had to be opened. The rainfall was 3 inches at Indápur, 23 at Poona, 17 at Junnar, and 95 at Khadkála. Cholera was prevalent particularly in the city of Poona in November after the Alandi fair. Tillage rose from 1,696,097 to 1,720,335 acres, collections fell from £99,699 to £98,879 (Rs. 9,96,990 - Rs. 9,88,790), £147 (Rs. 1470) were remitted, and £3438 (Rs. 34,380) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet rose from about 32 to 26 pounds (16-13 shers).

In 1864-65 the rainfall was 10 inches at Indápur, 17 at Poona, 15 at Junnar, and 50 at Khadkála. The season was on the whole unfavourable though better than the year before, and public health was good. Tillage rose from 1,720,335 to 1,736,582 acres and collections from £98,879 to £100,641 (Rs. 9,88,790-Rs. 10,06,410), £23 (Rs. 230) were remitted, and £1536 (Rs. 15,360) left outstanding. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet fell

from about 26 to 32 pounds (13-16 shers).

In 1865-66 the rainfall though not seasonable, was sufficient, and the early crops were good except in parts of the east. The late harvest was also good except in a few villages of Purandhar, Bhimthadi, and Indápur. On the whole the season was more favourable than any of the three previous years. The rainfall was 6 inches at Indápur, 31 at Poona, 20 at Junnar, and 65 Public health was good.6 Tillage rose from at Khadkala. 1,736,582 to 1,743,179 acres and collections from £100,641 to £105,521 (Rs. 10,06,410 - Rs. 10,55,210), £13 (Rs. 130) were remitted,

1 Indapur is 90 miles from the crest of the Sahyadris, Poona 32, Junnar 12, and Khadkála in Mával II.

Chapter VII Land.

THE BRITISH 1861-62.

1869 63.

1863-64.

1864-65.

1865-66.

² Rev. Comr. 247 of 1st February 1862, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 235 of 1862-64, 199. 3 Rev. Comr. 598 of 18th March 1863, Bom, Gov. Rev. Rec. 235 of 1862-64, 223.

Rev Comr. S. D. 475 of 6th February 1864, Rev. Rec. 235 of 1862-64, 247.
 The Collector, 3027 of 10th December 1864.

⁶ Rev. Comr. S. D, 530 of 16th February 1866, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 75 of 1866, 50.

pter VIII. Land. BRITISH. 1866-67. and £1255 (Rs. 12,560) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet fell from about 32 to 36 pounds (16-18 shers).

In 1866-67 only in Maval was the rainfall seasonable. In Shivner, Khed, and Haveli, in some parts of Pábal, and in many parts of Purandhar, though the rainfall was short and ill-timed, the crops were not much below the average. In Bhimthadi and Indapur and in the rest of Pábal and Purandhar the rainfall was so short. that both the early and late crops almost entirely failed. The rainfall was 5 inches at Indapur, 19 at Poona, 24 at Junuar, and 66 at Khadkála, Public health was on the whole good; and, except in some villages of Khed, cattle were free from disease.1 lage rose from 1,743,179 to 1,784,390 acres and collections fell from £105,521 to £93,730 (Rs. 10,55,210 - Rs. 9,37,300), £8004 (Rs. 80,040) were remitted, and £7177 (Rs. 71,770) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet fell from about 36 to 46 pounds (18-23 shers). In 1866-67 relief works were opened and more than 108,000 poor landholders and labourers were employed in Indápur, Bhimthadi, and Sirur. Up to the 10th of November 1867 £1876 (Rs. 18,760) were expended on relief works.² Considerable remissions were also granted. The help given by Government by grants, remissions, and postponements, was of the greatest service to the people, enabling them to tide over their difficulties and start afresh.3

Revision Survey, 1867-1884. In 1867 the thirty years' leases of the original survey settlement began to fall in and arrangements were made for a revision survey. The revision survey was begun in Indápur in 1867. Since then, except during the 1876 and 1877 famine when survey operations were at a stand, the revision has been gradually extended as the leases fell in. Now (1st July 1884) all, except 162 Haveli villages and the Khed and Mával sub-divisions, is completed. The result of the revision has been an increase in the assessment from £61,161 to £81,683 (Rs. 6,11,610 - Rs. 8,16,830) or 34 per cent. The details are:

Poona Revision Settlement, 1867-1884.

	Group. Vil- Surve				ey Settle	y Settlement.				
YEAR.	Group.	lages.	Former.	Revised.	In- creased.	Amend- ed.	In- creased			
1866-67 1871-72 1872-73 1872-73 1872-73 1873-74 1879-80 1879-80 1888-84 1894-85	Indapur Bhimthadi Pabal Haveli Supa Purandhar Purandhar Sirur Junnar	78 48 59 83 39 17 18 87 142	Rs. 81,184 74,222 1,02,228 80,965 57,461 18,733 18,486 57,831 1,20,500 6,11,610	Rs. 1,24,506 1,28,971 1,51,511 1,33,794 81,713 28,617 25,631 72,005 1,49,172	48 48 65 42 52 89 24 23	Rs. 1,11,866 1,03,982 1,39,479 1,13,773 72,303 28,617 25,631 72,005 1,49,172	40 36 41 26 52 89 24 23			

¹ Rev. Comr. S. D. 824 of 5th March 1867.

² INDAPUR, 32 miles executed, 69 remained to be executed on 10th November 1867, amount expended Rs. 8340. BHIMTHADI, 21 miles executed, 13 remained, amount spent Rs. 9420. SIRUR, 18½ miles executed, and amount spent Rs. 970. Cost of tools and plant Rs. 30, Total Rs. 18,760.

³ Mr. Oliphant, Collector, 3990 of 12th December 1867.

Mr. Stewart, C. S., Surv. Comr. 1351 of 28th June 1884.

Chapter VIII

Land.

REVISION SURVEY.

Indápur,

1866-67.

An examination of the history of the Indapur villages ddring the survey lease satisfied Colonel Francis that between the cheapness of grain and the occurrence of bad seasons the original rates continued to 1846 as high as the people could afford to pay.1 During the second period of ten years (1846-1856) the average yearly collections increased but little; at the same time a decline in remissions showed that the landholders were better off than before. During the next or last ten years of the survey lease (1856-1866) the whole subdivision of Indapur may be said to have been regularly under tillage, the highest return of arable waste in any year being only 1176 acres.2 The revenue returns for this period were perhaps even more satisfactory. Of £83,054 (Rs. 8,30,540) the total revenue demand for these ten years, only £6 (Rs. 60) had to be remitted.3

Besides by the moderateness of the assessment, during the survey lease, Indapur had been enriched by the introduction of carts; by the ing of roads; and, in 1862, by the opening of the Peninsula _allway through its northern villages. Till 1852-53 produce prices continued low or uncertain. In that year Indian millet was selling at about 112 pounds (56 shers) the rupee. By 1855-56 it had risen to about 64 pounds (32 shers). From that it remained pretty steady till 1862-63 when it rose to about 32 pounds (16 shers) and continued at about thirty-two pounds till 1867.4 The increase of wealth among the Indápur landholders during the survey lease was shown by the sinking of 625 new wells and the repairing of 184 old wells which together might be estimated to represent an outlay of £30,000 (Rs. 3,00,000). During the same time fifty-nine village offices or chavdis had been built at a cost of £1342 (Rs. 13,420), and twenty-seven rest-houses at a cost of £1284 (Rs. 12,840). Of this whole outlay Government had paid £451 (Rs. 4510) and the people £2175 (Rs. 21,750). At the beginning of the survey lease land had no sale value. At its close, an examination of a number of sales satisfied Colonel Francis that the land was on an average worth

Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII, 21, 39. The details are:

Indapur Revinue, 1826 - 1866.

Year.	YEAR. Settle- ment.		Remis-	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions.	Increase.	
Former. 1826 - 1836		Rs. 76,930	Rs. 23,200	Rs. 13,474	Rs 40,256	Rš.	Per Cent.
Survey. 1886 - 1846 1846 - 1856 (a) 1856 - 1866 (b) 1836 - 1866	***	83,054	12,223 865 6 4865	•••	65,220 77,054 83,048 75,107	24,964 36,798 42,793 34,851	62 91 106 86

re and six per cent respectively should be deducted from the revenues of these periods

(a) & (b). Fi. collections from two lapsed villages not included in the ten years' average preceding as a set-off for the strength of
¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 37.

In 1866 only 930 acres were under the head of waste. This total included some tracts of assessed grazing or gayran made over to the villagers as free grazing but which, as they bore an assessment, were included in the arable waste. with this undue increase the arable waste bore the insignificant proportion of one-third per cent to the total arable area of the sub-division, Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 38.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Sen. 311s 201 were sunk during the six years ending 1866. Bom.

Of the 625 new Gov. Sel. CVII. 50-51.

hapter VIII.

REVISION SURVEY. 1866-67. seventeeff years' purchase that is a total sale value of about £138,000 (Rs. 13,80,000).¹ During the thirty years of the survey lease population increased from 40,179 to 52830 or 31 per cent, farm bullocks from 17,673 to 20,976 or 19 per cent, carts from 291 to 1165 or 300 per cent, and ploughs from 1454 to 1820 or 25 per cent.² Cattle other than farm bullocks showed a decrease from 27,002 to 24,565 or 9 per cent. Because of inaccuracies in the former measurements, and still more from changes made afterwards when boundary marks were fixed, it was found necessary to resurvey the whole tract. In order that it might afterwards be of use in the Trigonometrical Survey the traverse system was adopted.³

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 53. The following sales are quoted by Colonel Francis:

VILLAGES.	Sales.	Area Sold.	Assess- ment.	Price.	Years' Pur- chase.
Indápur Gágargaon Pimpri Khurd Daus Ponavri Udhat Palasdev Bigvan Kalas Redni Nirvángi Bhat Nimbgaon Varkhuta Budrukh Gopi Saráti A'goli Nimbgaon Ketki Ajota Madanvádi Rui Bábulgaon Total	251142211312212121	A. g. 841 2 29 27 41 21 74 4 32 89 11 24 108 89 23 87 78 81 80 88 82 6 74 85 8 8 8 69 82 4 50 89 85 7 8 22 4 50 89 85 7 8 21 22 11 6	Rs. a. 83 11 4 10 5 10 22 1 12 6 5 13 54 11 6 10 22 6 7 12 12 12 28 8 7 14 18 7 28 11 15 15 24 11 18 4 9 11 4 8 404 12	Rs. 1948 200 175 470 199 160 6304 20 150 100 800 275 75 115 550 300 128 200 300 124 40 50 6898	28 42 31 21 16 27 11 3 7 13 66 10 9 7 64 10 8 8 16 1 10

Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII, 52. A. stands for acres and g. for gunthas 40 of which make an acre.

² The addition of 19 per cent under bullocks is also small compared with the spread of tillage. The season in which the enumeration was made was very unfavourable in the Kalas petty division of Indapur and many cattle had been sent to other parts to graze. A good many had been sold for want of fodder. Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 54.

⁸ Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 57-62. In twenty survey numbers of two to thirty-five acres the error in Mr. Pringle's measurements was found to vary from one to ninety-four per cent. The details are:

	Area acco	rding to	Differe	nce.	į .	Area acco	rding to	Difference.	
Survry Numbers.	Mr. Pringle's Survey.	Present Survey.	In Area.	Per Cent.	Survry Numbers.	Mr. Pringle's Survey.	Present Survey.	In Area.	Per Cent.
1 2 3 5 6 5 9 10	1 9 9	A. g. 8 11 85 4 18 7 16 30 24 18 2 88 4 6 8 24 14 0	A. g. 1 11 10 4 1 14 5 22 8 24 0 18 0 9 0 9 0 84 0 26	13 40 8 27 17 16 2 6 31 5	11 12 13 14 15 17 18 19 20	18 17 17 20 22 2 16 8 29 26 35 19 9 6	A. g. 16 38 10 6 9 6 18 39 16 12 50 25 36 17 44 3	4 17 6 31 9 20 8 22	1 6 32 8 24 89 23 27 94 15

Chapter VL

Land.

REVISION SURVEY. Indápur, 1866-67.

The result of the survey was to show in the whole area an error only 63 per cent in the old measurements. The details are:

Indapur Area, 1826 and 1866.

								,	
	G	OVERNMI	eny Lakd		Alie	nated I	AND.	ROADS	GRAND
	Arable.	Un- arable.	Grazing and Un- assessed.	Total.	Arable.	Unar- able,	Total.	PONDS.	TOTAL.
Present Survey	Acres. 270,076	Acres. 18,095	Acres. 18,679	Acres. 306,850	Acres. 13,854	Acres	Acres. 15,017	Acres. 13,805	Acres. 335,672
Mr. Pringle's Survey	238,135	17,912	43,653	299,700	13,884	765	14,649	272	314,621
Increase	31,941	183		7150		398	868	13,533	21,051
Dorrease			24,974		30		•••		٠

It was also found advisable to reclass the lands. Apart from the errors and confusion which were inseparable from a first attempt to introduce a new system, changes of market, new lines of trade, and the opening of the railway compelled a fresh grouping of villages. In re-grouping the villages the classing was based on the permanent distinctions of climate, markets, and husbandry. The state of the landholders was not allowed to affect their position.2 In fixing fresh rates care had to be taken that improvements made with the holder's capital were not considered grounds for enhancing his rental. In revising the Indápur assessment one of the chief points to consider was the effect of improved communication. When the original survey was introduced there was not a mile of made road in the subdivision. About 1852 the Poona-Sholapur road was completed and made Indápur an important centre of trade. Indápur was still a local centre but it had suffered by the opening of the railway in 1863. The second leading element in fixing revised rates was the change in produce prices. During the five years before the original settlement, the average rupee price of Indian millet was about 106 pounds (53 shers). During the first ten years of the lease little change took place. Indian millet rupee prices ranged from about 144 pounds (72 shers) in 1843-44 to about 72 pounds (36 shers) in 1837-33 and 1845-46, and averaged 113 pounds (56½ shers). In the first year of the next period of ten years (1846-47) crops failed and Indian millet rose to 30 pounds (15 shers) the rupee. But the price again speedily fell to 144 pounds (72 shers) in 1848-49 and 1849-50. From 1850 it steadily rose to 64 pounds (32 shers) in 1855-56. The average for the ten years ending 1855-56 was 91½ pounds (45¾ shers). From 1856-57 to 1861-62 the price of Indian millet varied from 64 to 54 pounds (32-27 shers) the rupee. During the remaining four years partly on account of the abundance of money in consequence of the American war, but chiefly because of several years of local failure of rain Indian millet. remained at 32 pounds (16 shers) the rupee. For the ten years

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CVIL 62. в 1327-60

Bom, Gov. Sel, CVII, 66.

Chapter VIII.

REVISION SURVEY. Indápur, 1866-67.

ending 1865-66 the average price was 53 pounds (261 shers).1 The third question for consideration was climate. The uncertain rainfall had prevented the Indapur landholders from realizing the wealth which ought to have accompanied so great a rise in the value of produce. The rainfall was most precarious. For two and three years at a time it was either so scanty or so untimely that no crop came to maturity. In the Kalas group a good crop might be expected once in three years. Of the other two years one was generally middling and the other utterly bad. During the five years ending 1867 the average rainfall was only 5.85 inches.2 As regards the weight to be given to the three elements of change, improved communication enhanced prices and rainfall, the rainfall might be dismissed as, though bad, the climate was no worse than it had been at the beginning of the former lease. Communications might also be dismissed as the only tangible way in which they acted on the landholder was the rise in the price of produce.3 Prices have been shown to have risen from 132 pounds (66 shers) to an average of 52 pounds (26 shers) during the ten years ending 1866, that is a rise of 150 per cent. Up till about 1852 grain prices were so low that the original rates remained heavy. No considerable increase of capital had taken place. The years between 1852 and 1856, in spite of some indifferent seasons caused a steady and large increase of wealth. The average rupee price of jvári during the five years ending 1856 was 84 pounds (42 shers) and this price, Colonel Francis thought, might be taken as the basis at which the former rates left the landholder a liberal margin. During the ten years between 1856 and 1866 the average rupee price of jvári stood at 52 pounds (26 shers) instead of 84 pounds (42 shers) that is a rise of 611 per cent. Colonel Francis therefore considered that as far as change in the price of grain went, the existing rates should

be raised fifty to sixty per cent.⁴
The rates proposed by Colonel Francis were for sixty-two of the seventy-six villages a highest dry-crop acre rate of 2s. (Re. 1);

Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 71. The details are:

Indupur Produce Prices, 1836-1868.

YEAR.	YEAR. Shers THE RUPES.		YEAR			THE PER.	Year.	Shers THE RUPEE.		
	Jvári,	Bázri.			Jodri.	Bayri.		 Joári	Bun	
1836-87 1887-38 1838-39 1839-40 1840-41 1841-42 1842-43 1843-44 1844-45	30 67 44 64 56 68 72 60	84 44 80 30 44 40 42 44 86 25	1846-47 1847-48 1848-49 1849-50 1850-51 1851-52 1852-53 1853-54 1854-55 1855-66	**************************************	72 38 40 56 56 29	13 82 56 56 34 82 40 86 26	1856-57 1857-59 1858-59 1859-60 1860-61 1861-62 1862-63 1863-64 1864-65 1865-60	 32 39 32 39 33 27 16 13 18	28 37 29 81 23 19 16 12 14 15	
Average	561	37	Average		453	95	Average	26}	23	

In 1836-37 the price of jears is given at 66 shers the super and of beign at 49. Sel.

VII. 70,118.

The details are: 1861-62 inches 2.50; 1862-63, no returns; 1863-64, 3.18; 1864-65, 11.40; 1865-66, 6.95; 1866-67; 5.24; total 29.27; average 5.85. Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 73.

The fall in the cost of imports is also a consideration.

Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 74-75.

for thirteen villages near Kalas whose distance from the Mahádev hills made the rainfall specially scanty, 1s. 9d. (14 as.); and for the market town of Indápur 2s. 3d. (Rs. 11). Close to the banks of the Bhima were some lands which were occasionally specially enriched by flood deposits. In these the highest acre rate was fixed at 3s. (Rs. 11). The new rates raised the existing assessment by 53 per cent. With this addition the average acre rate on the whole arable area was only 111d. (71 as.).1 The rate of increase varied considerably in individual villages. In one case it amounted to 150 per cent, in several it was about 100 per cent, and in some it was only 17 or 18 per cent. Among the villages whose highest acre rate was 2s. (Re.1) the increase ranged from 50 to 100 per The village of Nimbgaon Ketki near Indápur showed one of the smallest increases, 18 per cent. The reason was that it had a considerable area of well-garden land, bearing a special rate for which there was no corresponding entry in the new assessment, as no special rate was to be imposed on wells. In the villages whose highest acre rate was 1s. 9d. (as. 14), the increase varied from 25 to 50 per cent. Colonel Francis ended his report by dwelling on the loss which Indapur suffered from its uncertain and scanty rainfall. He nrged that measures should be taken to introduce a large scheme for watering the lands of the sub-division. The proposed settlement was sanctioned by Government in March 1868.2

In 1867-68 the rainfall was 20 inches at Indápur, 27 at Poona, 26 at Junnar, and 50 at Khadkála. In the sub-divisions along the range of the Sahvádris the rainfall was abundant and favourable and the general state of the early crops was good. In the eastern sub divisions after the first falls of rain in June, which enabled the cultivators to sow their early crops, there was in July August and September a great want of rain and at one time a scarcity was feared. Scarcity was averted by a heavy fall of rain in October which in a great measure saved the early crops and produced a more than average late crop. The late harvest in all the sub-divisions was good. In Bhimthadi the landholders admitted that they had not had such fine late crops for many years. The Indian millet was often six and seven feet high, more like Gujarat than Deccan jvári. Public health was good.3 Tillage rose from 1,781,390 to 1,803,708 acres and collections from £93,730 to £111,609 (Rs. 9,37,300 - Rs. 11,16,090), £4432 (Rs. 44,320) were remitted, and £101 (Rs. 1010) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet fell from about 46 to 82 pounds (23 -

41 shers).

In 1868-69 the rainfall was 8 inches at Indápur, 31 at Poona, 25 at Junnar, and 77 at Khadkála. Except in Sirur Bhimthadi and Indapur, the rainfall, though not seasonable was generally good,

Chapter VIII.

Land.

REVISION SURVEY. Indápur, 1866-67.

1867-68.

1868-69.

The original settlement, cultivated land Rs. 81,184, waste Rs. 207, total Rs. 81,391; revised settlement, cultivated land Rs. 1,24,506, waste Rs. 194, total 1,24,700; increase, cultivated land Rs. 43,322, decrease in waste Rs. 13, total increase Rs 43,309 or 53 per cent. Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. 77.

Surv. Comr. Lt. Col. Francis' Reports of January 1867 and 147 of 12th February 1867, and Gov. Letter 1211 of 27th March 1868. Bom. Gov. Sel. CVII. and CLI.

Mr. Edlasis Rayana Commissioner 146 of 16th January 1868. Bom. Gov. Rev.

³ Mr. Bellasis, Revenue Commissioner, 146 of 16th January 1868, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 59 of 1868, 318.

Land.
THE BRITISH.
1868-69.

1869-70.

and the early crops on the whole did well. Owing to the want of a fall towards the close of the season the yield from the late crops was scanty. Cholera slightly prevailed in a few of the sub-divisions, but on the whole public health was good.1 Owing to the serious failure of rain in part of Indapur remissions to the extent of fifty per cent were granted in forty-three villages, and twenty-five per cent in thirteen villages. In sanctioning an expenditure of £100 (Rs. 1000) on clearing prickly pear from the lands near Allegaon, Government observed that the Khadakvásla water works, on which it was calculated 10,000 men would be engaged; would afford employment enough for those in search of employment.2 Tillage rose from 1,803,708 to 1,814,896 acres and collections from £111,609 to £115,578 (Rs. 11,16,090-11,55,780), £4859 (Rs. 48,590) were remitted, and £43 (Rs. 430) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet rose from about 82 to 70 pounds (41-35 shers).

In 1869-70 the rainfall, 26 inches at Indápur, 29 at Poona, 25 at Junnar, and 57 at Khadkála, was sufficient and seasonable. Except that rice suffered slightly both the early and the late crops were good. Locusts appeared in a few villages of Junnar, Khed, Maval, and Haveli; but they passed without causing any appreciable damage. Public health was good, though slight cholera appeared in parts of the district. There was no great mortality among cattle.3 Tillage from 1,814,896 rose to 1.819.237 and collections from £115,578 to £120,148 (Rs. 11,55,780. Rs. 12,01,480), £479 (Rs. 4790) were remitted, and £27 (Rs. 270) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet

rose from about 70 to 58 pounds (35-29 shers).

In 1870-71 the rainfall though abundant was not seasonable. The fall at Indápur was 24 inches, at Poona 41, at Junnar 30, and at Khadkála 66 inches. The outturn of the early crops in Khed, Mával, Purandhar, and Haveli was fair, but excessive rain caused loss in Indápur, Bhimthadi, Sirur, and Mulshi. Except in Indápur and Bhimthadi where it was indifferent the late harvest was good. Public health was generally good, though in a few villages fever ague and cholera were prevalent. The cattle were generally free from disease. Tillage rose from 1,819,237 to 1,831,953 acres, collections fell from £120,148 to £111,138 (Rs. 12,01,480-Rs.11,11,380), £476 (Rs. 4760) were remitted, and £255 (Rs. 2550) left outstanding. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet rose from about 58 to 50 pounds (29-25 shers).

In 1871-72 the rainfall was 15 inches at Indápur, 27 at Poona, 27 at Junnar, and 66 at Khadkála. The rainfall was much below the average, especially in the east. In the west the yield of the kharif or early crops was fair except in Junnar where it was not more than half a crop. The rabi or late crops throughout the district were at first very unpromising but a slight fall of rain

1871-72.

¹ Revenue Commissionor Mr. Ashburner 1264 of 12th April 1869, Bombay Rev. Rec. 65 of 1869, 253.

Gov. Res. 715 of 19th Feb. 1869, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 65 of 1869, 341.
 Rev. Comr. S. D. 74 of 7th Jan. 1870.
 Rev. Comr. S. D. 38 of 4th Jan.

November revived them. In Indápur the late or rabi harvest was about half a crop and in Bhimthadi even less. Some Haveli villages suffered from a failure of water. Except for a few scattered cases of fever and cholera the season was healthy and cattle disease in a few Mával villages. Tillage rose from 1,831,953 to 1,842,863 acres, collections fell from £111,138 to £96,737 (Rs. 11,11,380-Rs. 9,67,370), £5778 (Rs. 57,780) were remitted, and £12,450 (Rs. 1,24,500) left outstanding. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet fell from about 50 to 60 pounds (25-30 shers).

In 1871-72 revised rates were introduced into fifty-four villages of Bhimthadi. Of these fifty-four villages, twenty-three formerly belonged to the Pimpalgaon and thirty-one to the Kurkumb group. At the time of revision survey, with some villages formerly in Purandhar and Bárámati, they formed the subdivision of Bhimthadi.2 The villages of this group stretched east and west in a long narrow belt from the western boundary of Indápur to within twenty miles of Poona. The belt was bounded on the north and east by the Bhima; on the south by a range of hills which divided it from Purandhar and from villages which formerly belonged to Supa, and on the west by the Haveli su-bdivision. Of the fifty-four villages six had fallen to Government at intervals during the survey lease. Of the remaining forty-eight, which had been settled by Lieutenant Nash in 1840, the area was 382 square miles or 244,623 acres and the population 28,467 that is a pressure of 74 to the square mile. The south-east and south were rough and hilly. The north along the Bhima was level with much fine black soil. In spite of Government offers of rent-free lands for a term of years if the holders would plant them, the whole group was very bare of trees.8 At Pátas the average rainfall in the eight years ending 1870 was 13.23 inches.4

The only water-work of any size was a reservoir at Kásurdi which that been built in 1838 at a cost of £1182 (Rs. 11,820). A flood in 1843 had swept away its earthen dam which had been repaired by Government shortly before 1870. The supply was believed to be enough to water 250 acres. The chief products were bájri and jvári which together formed four-fifths of the whole. The remaining fifth was under math, gram, wheat, and kulith and a little sugarcane, cotton, tobacco, linseed, and vegetables. The Pimpalgaon

Pátas Rainfall, 1863 - 1870.

	YKAR.	Raınfall.		YEAR.	Bainfall.
1863 1864 1865 1866		 Inches, 9-52 7-83 11 69 6 57	1868 1869 1870	***	 Inches. 10 32 22 76 26 31
1807	٠	 10.88	1	Average	 13-23

Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 212.

Chapter VIII.

REVISION SURVEY.

Bhimthadi, 1871-72,

¹ The Rev. Comr. 1084 of 2nd March 1872, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 81 of 1872, 336.

² In consequence of the late redistribution of villages, the 1871 Bhimthadi subdivision, part of which was now (1871) under revision, did not correspond with the Bhunthadi sub-division of 1832-39. Surv. Supt. 440A of 12th July 1871, Bom. Gov.

³ Lieut, Colonel Waddington, Surv. Supt. 440A of 12th July 1871, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 196.

The details are:

In 48 villages bajri was 43:4 per cent, jvári 35:6, math 2, Lulith 0:8, wheat 1,

Chapter VIII.

REVISION SURVEY. Bhimthadi, 1871-72. villages grew about twice as much bájri as jvári and the Kurkumb villages grew about one-sixth more jvári than bájri. The revenue was collected in two equal instalments. In the early harvest or kharif villages these instalments fell on the 10th of January and the 10th of March; in the late harvest or rabi villages they fell on the 10th of February and the 10th of May.

During the survey lease communication in the Bhimthadi villages had been improved by the making of the Poona-Sholapur road and the Peninsula railway. Besides these main lines there were good roads from the station at Kedgaon to Sirur by Pargaon, and to Supa and Jejuri by Padvi. There were three market towns, Patas the mamlatdar's station, Kurkumb, and Yevat, all on the Poona-Sholapur high road. The people were almost all husbandmen. Their chief market was Poona and to a less extent Bombay. Along the Poona-Sholapur road grass and straw fetched good prices. The railway had reduced the road traffic. The toll revenue at Hadapsar had fallen from £1760 (Rs. 17,600) in 1859-60 to £901 (Rs. 9010) in 1870. Still the amount of traffic was considerable.

During the ten years ending 1850-51, that is the first ten years of the survey lease, the rupee price of jvári averaged 91 pounds (45) shers) and of bajri 73 pounds (361 shers). In the ten years ending 1860-61 the average rate was jvári 72 pounds (36 shers) and bájri 58 pounds (29 shers) or a rise of 26 per cent in both cases over the ten previous years. In 1851-52 the first year of this decade, the 1850-51 prices were maintained, but they fell again in 1852-53 though not to the same extent as in 1849-50. They then rose in 1858-59, juini to 52 pounds (26 shers) the rupee and bajri to 42 pounds (21 shers), and, in the next two years they fell, jvari to 80 and 73 poppds (40 and 36½ shers) and bájri to 65 and 56 pounds (32½ and 28 shers). The ten years ending 1870-71 began with jvari at 60 pounds (30 shers). and bájri at 47 pounds (23½ shers). During the next four years prices rapidly rose and during the five closing years (1865-71) they fluctuated, jvári never falling below 65 pounds (32½ shers) or bájri below 39 pounds (194 shers). Jvári closed at 36 pounds (18 shers) and bájri at 30 pounds (15 shers). The average rates for this third decado were jvári 39 pounds (19½ shers) and bájri 30 pounds (15 shers) that is 133 and 143 per cent over the corresponding averages of the first decade and of 85 and 93 per cent over those of the second decade.1

gram 1, sugarcane 0.1, tobacco 0.1, cotton 0.4, miscellaneous 5.1, and occupied waste 10.5. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 197.

1 The details are : Venut Produce Prices, Shers the Runes, 1841-1871

YEAR.	Jodn	Bájri	YEAR.		Jvári.	Bari.	YEAR.	Jodri	Bájri
1841-42 1842-43 1843-44 1844-45	. 55 64 50	36 841 48 38	1851-52 1852-53 1853-54 1854-55 1855-56	•••	37 57 27	25½ 29 44½ 23 81	1861-62 1862-63 1863-64 1864-65	21 154 11	231 18 10 101 101
1847-49 1848-49	151 37	23 15 30 52 52 37	1856-57 1857-58 1858-59 1859-60 1360-61		1 20	24 26 21 31 32 28	1866-67 1867-68 1868-69 1869-70 1870-71	22 14 32 35	19 <u>1</u> 12 19 <u>1</u> 13 <u>1</u> 15
Average .	. 45}	361	Average		851	281	Average	167	15

The average collections during the ten years ending 1850 were £4341 (Rs. 43,410). In the first year of the settlement (1840-41) the cultivated area was 123,000 acres, and the waste 43,000 acres or about one-fourth, and the assessment was £5307 (Rs. 53,070) of which £160 (Rs. 1600) were remitted, and £5147 (Rs. 51,470) were collected. No great change took place during the next three years. In 1844-45, £2293 (Rs. 22,930) were remitted and in 1845-46 £3134 (Rs.31,340) in which year the collections were only £1772 (Rs.17,720). During the remaining four years (1846-1850) the collections were steady at about £5000 (Rs. 50,000), and the remissions small. During the ten years ending 1860 the average collections were £5785 (Rs. 57,850) or an increase of 33 per cent on those of the first ten years. This period (1850-1860) began with a year (1850-51) marked by the large remission of £1863 (Rs. 18,630) or 29 per cent From 1850 things began to mend. Cultivation of the revenue. continued steadily to rise from 96,000 acres in 1850-51 to 164,000 acres in 1859-60, and revenue from £2500 to £7365 (Rs. 25,000-Rs. 73,650); between 1854 and 1860 remissions averaged only £2 (Rs. 20). During the ten years ending 1870 the average collections were £7259 (Rs. 72,590) or an increase of 25 per cent on those of the ten years ending 1860 and of 67 per cent on those of the ten years ending 1850. During the ten years ending 1870 the whole of the arable land had been taken for tillage, and, except in 1866-67 when £2073 (Rs. 20,730) were granted, no remissions had been required. The following statement shows the revenue collections Chapter V
Land.
REVISION
SURVEY.
Bhindhau
1871-72.

Poona Produce Prices, Shers the Rupee, 1841 - 1871.

and remissions during each decade of the survey lease:

YEAR.	Ivari.	Bá/ri	YEAR.	Jvár.	Bájri	YEAR.	Jvári	Bájri.
1841-43 1842-43 1843-44 1841-45 1845-46 1840-47 1847-48 1848-49	32 30 27 21 16 31 55 47	24 28 30 23 18 14 27 41 37	1851-52 1872-53 1853-54 1854-65 1855-56 1856-57 1857-58 1858-59 1859-60	37 42 25 28 25 26 27 34	25 29 36 22 25 21 23 23 23	1869-70	20 11 12 13 18 13 23 16	19 15 9 10 11 16 11 16 13
1850-51 Average .	80	25	1860-61 .	30	21 25	1870-71 . Average .	17	134

Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 211.

1 During the survey lease (1840-1870) tillage rose from 122,000 acres in 1840-41 to 125,000 in 1841-42 and fell to 107,000 acres in 1845-46. In the next year it rose to 111,000 and again fell to 91,000 in 1849-50. After that it steadily rose to 105,000 in 1852-53, to 120,000 in 1853-54, to 135,000 in 1855-56, to 158,000 in 1866-67, and to 165,000 in 1861-62. In the last two (1868-1870) of the remaining eight years it slightly declined. Collections rose from Rs. 51,000 in 1840-41 to Rs. 55,000 in 1842-43 and fell to Rs. 51,000 in the next year. In 1844-45 they were Rs. 29,000 and in 1845-46 Rs. 19,000. In the next five years they fell from Rs. 46,000 in 1846-47 to Rs. 25,000 in 1850-51. In the next en years they steadily rose from Rs. 45,000 in 1851-52 to Rs. 75,000 in 1860-61. In the next nine years, except 1866-67 when they were Rs. 55,000, they stood at about Rs. 75,000. Remissions were Rs. 22,000 in 1844-45, Rs. 30,000 in 1845-46, Rs. 19,000 in 1850-51, Rs. 20,000 in 1866-67, and Rs. 3000 in 1853-54. In other years remissions were few or none. Survey Diagram. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 203.

DISTRICTS.

Land. Levision Survey. himihadi, 1871-72.

Bhimthadi Collections, 1840-1879.

YEAR.		erenue Rev		Land Revenue		Revenue from other sources.			other sources. Total Re-		Other sources. Total Re-		Collec-		ahle sete.
I BAR.	Area.	Rental	Grass	Miscel- laneous	Total	Reve- nue.	mis- sions.	tions.	Arca.	Rente					
1840-50 . 1850-60 . 1860-70	A ^e res. 121,127 132,332 165,744	Rs 49,726 60,156 74,665		Rs. 5995 5606 5005	Rs. 6209 6709 8012	Rs 55,935 66,865 82,677	2306	Rs. 49,616 64,569 80,600	Acres 51,147 32,168 1415	14,40					

In forty-eight villages during the survey lease population increased from 20,401 in 1840-41 to 28,467 in 1870-71 or 391 per cent; farm-bullocks from 11,568 to 13,792 or 19 per cent; other cattle from 36,931 to 39,050 or 5% per cent; carts from 273 to 1011 or 2'70 per cent; and ploughs from 1115 to 1365 or 221 per cent. Wells in working order increased from 527 to 727 or 38 per cent. Of the addition of 200 wells, 141 were new and 59 were repaired. Of the 141 new wells eight were made in the ten years ending 1850, forty-one in the ten years ending 1860, and ninety-two in the ten Years ending 1870. From a very depressed state at the beginning of the survey lease the Bhimthadi villages had in 1860 reached a high state of wealth and prosperity. The short rainfall in 1863 and 1864 caused severe loss, and in 1866-67 another season of scanty rainfall the loss was so great that as much as £2000 (Rs. 20,000) or about 27 per cent of the collections had to be remitted. Though prices had considerably fallen during the four I/ears between 1866 and 1870 the bulk of the people seemed to be Comfortably off, and a record of sales of land showed prices varying from ten to fifty-two times the assessment. In estimating the probable standard of grain prices during future years Colonel Waddington, the survey superintendent, chose as his basis the average of the five years ending 1860 and of the five years ending 1870. This gave a rupee price of about 52 pounds (26 shers) for jvári and about 40 pounds (20 shers) for bájri. These prices were for jvári 68 per cent and for bájri 72 per cent higher than the average prices during the fifteen years ending 1855. As their copations were so much alike Colonel Waddington thought that ' increase of fifty to sixty per cent which had been introduced to Indapur might be applied to Bhimthadi. This result would be obtained by fixing on the Kurkumb group the highest dry-crop acre rate in sixteen villages at 2s. 6d. (Rs. 11) and in nine villages at 1s. 3d. (Rs. $1\frac{1}{8}$). Their nearness to the Poona market and their surer rainfall made the Pimpalgaon villages so much better off than Indápur that to equalize them, in twenty-two of the Pimpalgaon villages the highest dry crop acre rate should be raised to 3s. (Rs. 1½) and in seven villages to 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1¾). Under this arrangement, of fifty-four villages seven were in the first class with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 3s. 6d. (Rs. 13); twenty-two were in the second class with a highest rate of 3s. (Rs. 11); sixteen were in the third class with a highest rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 11); and nine

Chapter VIII.

Land.

REVISION '

SURVEY.

Bhimthadi, 1871-72.

were in the fourth class with a highest rate of 2s. 3d. (Rs. 14). The effect of these rates in forty-eight villages was an increase of 73 per cent. Of this whole increase about £1533 (Rs. 15,330) or twenty per cent was due to the discovery of land held in excess of the recorded area. The following statement shows the effect of the survey:

Bhimthadi Revision Settlement, 1871.

	Voc	CULATVA	ted Land	WA	STA.	TOTAL		
Settlement.	LAGES.	Area.	Rental	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	
Proposed Existing	40	Acres. 186,776 164,618	Rs. 1,28,971 74,222	Acres, 2019 1884	Rs. 871 644	Acres. 188,796 166,502	Rs. 1,29,842 74,866	
Increase		22,158	54,749	1.35	227	22,293	54,976	

In individual villages the increase varied considerably. In one case it was as high as 120 per cent; in another it was as low as 16 per cent. No rate beyond the highest dry-crop rate was laid on well watered lands. On channel watered land the acre water rate varied from 2s. to 12s. (Rs. 1-6) in excess of the dry-crop rate. This channel water cess yielded £119 (Rs. 1190). Into the six villages which had lapsed to Government since the introduction of the 1840 settlement, the survey had been introduced, leases being granted for terms which would end at the same date as the thirty years? lease of the rest of the sub-division. The cultivated area of these six villages was 23,908 acres. Compared with the preceding year's payments their rental under the proposed rates showed an increase from £1160 (Rs. 11,600) to £1675 (Rs. 16,750) or 44 per cent. Under the new survey the total cultivated land in the fifty-four villages was 212,703 acres or an increase of 22,293 acres or 11 per cent. The assessment including the rates on channel watered lands was £14,660 (Rs. 1,46,600) against £3646 (Rs. 86,460) or an increase of 69 per cent. Government sanctioned the proposed rates in January 1872.2

In 1872-73 in Junnar and Khed the rainfall was much below the average. In the rest of the district the season was favourable. A heavy fall early in September damaged the early crops especially in Khed, Junnar, and Haveli. In the west the yield of the early crops was fair. The late crops started badly, but a fall early in December did them much service and the outturn was good. The Mávals and the north were the only parts which suffered. The rainfall was 26 inches at Indápur, 22 at Poona, 15 at Junnar, and 79 at Khadkála. Cholera was present in Poona and its suburbs, and a few cases occurred in Bhimthadi, Purandhar, and Sirur. Dengue fever was general in Poona, Bhimthadi, and Purandhar. Tillage rose from 1,842,868 to 1,848,831 acres and collections from £96,737 to £112,689

^{1872-75.}

Lt.-Col. Waddington, Surv. Supt. 440A of 12th July 1871. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 195-210.
 Gov. Res. 385 of 26th Jan. 1872 in Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 271.
 Revenue Commissioner S. D. 6369 of 31st December 1872.

B IST-OF

DISTRICTS.

Chapter VIII.
Land.
Revision
Survey.

Pábal, 187**2 -** 1874. (Rs. 9,67,370 - Rs.11,26,890), £547 (Rs. 5470) were remitted, and £4552 (Rs. 45,520) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet rose from about 60 to 28 pounds (30-14 shers).

Between 1872 and 1874 the revised settlement was introduced into Pábal. In 1866 the villages of the old Pábal sub-division had been distributed among Khed, Junnar, Parner, and Sirur. Revised rates were introduced into a group of fifty-six villages of the old Pabal sub-division, and new rates into three villages received from H. H. Holkar. The fifty-six villages had an area of 353 square miles or 225,613 acres and a population of 53,525 or 151 to the square mile. A range of hills running west and east divided the lands of this group into two. To the south was the valley of the Vel bounded southward by a range running from Guláni to Keudur, where it sank into the plain. The eastern border from Nimbgaon to Chincholi was broken and hilly, the rest of the valley was waving and there was much fine land with many water channels. The tract to the north of the central line of hills included the two large valleys of the Ghod and the Mina, the villages lying chiefly along the banks of these streams. The parts to the west were better wooded, and from their nearness to the Sahyadris enjoyed a heavier and less uncertain supply of rain. During the four years ending 1866 the Pábal rainfall averaged 14.91 inches; 11.38 inches fell in 1863, 17.68 in 1864, 16.91 in 1865, and 13.67 in 1866.1

The lands of this group were drained by four rivers, the Bhima, Mina, Ghod, and Vel. As their sources were in the Sahyádris, the Bhima, Mina, and Ghod had an unfailing supply of water, though in consequence of the depth of their channels they were not used for irrigation. The Vel, which rose in a small range about nine miles north-west of Khed and in the hot weather occasionally failed, was of more value to the landholders as its banks were so low that its water could be stopped and used for irrigation by building temporary dams.

The price returns for Talegaon in the south-east and for Manchar in the north-west corner of the Pábal group showed that at Talegaon, the average rupee price of bájri during the ten years ending 1871 was about 32 pounds (16 shers) compared with about 74 pounds (37 shers) during the ten years ending 1851, that is a rise of 131 per cent. At Manchar the corresponding rates were 32 pounds (16 shers) instead of 76 pounds (38 shers) that is a rise of 137.5 per cent. Compared with the prices of the fifteen years ending 1855 the average price of bájri during the ten normal years, five ending

¹ The western and northern villages of Pábal had more rain than the eastern villages. The following details of the rainfall at Khed, Ghod, and Junnar on the west and north and at Sirur on the east show that the fall increased towards the west. From Párner northward the fall of rain was generally good and certain. Bom. Gov. Sel, CLI. 303, 304:

1860-61 and five ending 1870-71, that is leaving out the five American war years, showed a rise of 52.1 per cent.

In the five years (1836-1841) before the former settlement, in the

Land.

Revision
Survey.

Pabal,
1872-1874.

Poons Rainfall, 1863-1871.

YEAR.	_	Khed.	Ghode.	Junnar.	Sirur.	Pábal	Up to
1863 1864 1865 1866 1867 1868 1969 1870		14-62 10-63 18-77 16-75 11-56 26-38 28-05 33-05 23-93	18 38 14 30 17-75 22 27 12-90 23 34 26-0 28-67 22-29	13.56 14.78 13.18 21.38 25.81 23.92 29.02 26.75	7.86 5.38 14.61 7.93 13.88 17.60 25.95 17.47	11:33 17:68 16:91 -18:67	30th Sept. Do. Do. 4th Nov. 30th Do. Do. Do.
Average		19 86	20 10	21 06	13.83	- 14 91	

The details are:

Pabal Produce Prices: Shers the Rupes, 1841-1871.

					T	ALBO	AON.							
YEAR.	Jean.	Bayri.	Wheat	Gram.	YB AR.	Sedri	Bafr.	Wheat	Gram,	YEAR.	Judni.	Bájri.	Wheat.	Gram
1841-42 1842-43 1843-44 1844-45 1845-46 1846-47 1847-48 1848-49 1849-50 Average	100	35 38 39 30 23 23 55 66 38 27	26 26 30 27 20 13 17 31 23 24	24 23 34 28 15 16 34 28 26	1851-62 1852-53 1863-54 1854-55 1855-56 1856-57 1856-69 1856-61 Average.	40 52 35 23 39 31 31 37 67 43	84 89 26 28 85 26 27 29 40 26	27 80 26 17 22 19 19 22 23 17	26 20 22 18 26 24 20 19 23 16	1861-62 1862-63 1862-63 1863-64 1864-65 1865-66 1866-67 1867-68 1868-69 1869-70 1870-71	28 15 16 12 27 16 20 20 22 19	28 18 18 10 20 16 16 22 17 15	19 12 11 9 8 10 9 13 9 12	13 18 11 10 10 10 15 11 18
Manchar.														
1841-42 1842-43 1843-44 1845-46 1845-47 1847-48 1848-49 1849-50	0.0	42 34 43 42 23 26 44 58 42 28	30 26 34 21 20 17 26 38 38 25	23 34 38 22 23 17 29 41 35	1851-52 1852-53 1853-54 1854-55 1856-56 1866-57 1857-58 1859-60 1860-61	84 44 30 26 24 84 30 85 44 84	80 42 27 28 29 30 26 31 34 27	28 30 27 21 20 22 22 26 23 18	28 26 27 28 26 24 19 25 24	1861-62 . 1862-63 . 1863-64 . 1864-65 . 1866-67 . 1867-68 1868-69 . 1869-70 1870-71	29 17 16 13 23 24 19 34 19	23 15 14 10 17 19 12 21 14 16	19 15 14 8 10 10 10 16 9	14 17 14 10 19 9 20 9
Average	47	38	27	29	Average	83	29	24	24	Average	21	.16	12	15

Manchar Potato Prices: Rupees the Palla, 1848-1871.

Talegaon, average of fifteen years (1841-42 to 1855-56), Judii 46, bajri 35, wheat 24, gram 24; average of ten years (1856-57 to 1860-61 and 1866-67 to 1870-71), judii 30, bajri 23, wheat 15, gram 16. Manchar, fifteen years' average, judii 42, bajri 35, wheat 26, gram 28; ten years' average, judii 23, wheat 16, gram 17; potato eight (1848-1856) years' average, Rs. 2 as. 15 the palla of 120 shers and ten years' average, Rs. 33. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLL 307.

DISTRICTS.

Chapter VIII.

Revision Survey. Pabal, 1872-1874.

fifty-six villages for which the revision survey prepared a diagram, the average collections amounted to £6651 (Rs. 66,510) and the average remissions to £2276 (Rs. 22,760). The assessment of unoccupied land during the four years ending 1840 varied from £4632 (Rs. 46,320) to £4323 (Rs. 43,230) or about one-third of the whole. In 1841, 10,000 acres of waste were taken for tillage but the very large amount of £3604 (Rs. 36,040) of remissions had to The introduction of the rates was not completed be granted. until 1844-45 and in 1845-46 a considerable area was set apart for free grazing. The first five years shewed no increase of tillage or other improvement. In 1846-47 the cultivated acres were 142,000 and the waste 21,600 or about one-seventh, the assessment on occupied land was £8121 (Rs. 81,210), and the remissions only £6 (Rs. 60). The years 1847-48 and 1848-49 show a slight increase in cultivation and collections, but, during the three years ending 1852, both cultivation and collections decreased; in 1851-52 the collections amounted to only £8038 (Rs. 80,380). The average cultivation during the six years ending 1852 was 144,742 acres and the average collections £8178 (Rs. 81,780). During the ten years ending 1862 the cultivation and the collections steadily The cultivation rose from 137,673 acres in 1852-53 to 158,556 acres in 1861-62 and averaged 145,251 acres, and the collections from £8083 to £9129 (Rs. 80,830-Rs. 91,290) and averaged £8549 (Rs. 85,490); the only remissions granted were £54 (Rs. 540) in 1853-54.1 During the ten years ending 1872 the cultivation and collections remained nearly steady, the average area under cultivation being 161,336 acres, and the average collections £9230 (Rs. 92,300); the only remission during this third term of ten years was £4 (Rs. 40) in 1871-72. The waste land in the last year of the lease was only 508 acres or 0.003 of the total arable area or 0 3 per cent. The following statement gives the average revenue for the thirty-six years ending 1871-72:

Fifty-six Pabal Villages : Revenue, 1836-1872.

**	_			RENTAL.	REMIS-	COLLEC- TIONS.	
Yha	mak,		Occupied.	Waste.	Total.		
		•	Ra.	Rs.	Ra.	Ro.	Rs.
1836-37	***	***	87,560	46,818	1,33,878	18,764	68,796
1837-8 3	7.00	***	1 00 401 1	44,480	1,30,901	16,591	70,830
1838-39	***		85,907	45,162	1,31,069	26,443	59,464
1839-40	***		89,557	43,234	1,82,791	16,980	72,577
1840-41	-		ו מבי מים ו	83,185	1,30,101	86,043	60,873
1836-1841	í	٠	89,272	42,476	1,81,748	22,764	66,508
1846 - 1852	***	•••		iven	144100		81.784
1852-1862	***	***			******)	85,487
1862-1872	***	***	, ,	***	*****		92,297

In this survey group of fifty-six villages during the survey lease population increased from 48,102 in 1841 to 53,525 in 1871 or 11.27 per cent; bullocks from 18,131 to 18,634 or 2.7 per cent; other

A part of the increase was due to bringing to account the assessment of alienated lands, which attended the introduction of Captain Wingate's scale of remuneration of village officers in 1853-54. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 310.

cattle from 49,656 to 53,393 or 7.5 per cent; carts from 754 to 1304 or 73 per cent; ploughs from 2715 to 3052 or 12.4 per cent; and wells in working order from 1493 to 1977 or 32.4 per cent.

The land was more regularly and carefully tilled in the Pábal villages than in East Poona. Both light and heavy soils were ploughed every year. A six or eight-bullock plough was used for heavy soils, and a four-bullock plough for light soils, January or February ploughing was considered more useful than ploughing later in the season. Besides ploughing them it was usual to harrow all kinds of soil before sowing, and to weed with the hoe once or twice after the crops had sprung up. Garden lands, as a rule, were ploughed twice, once lengthways and once crossways before each crop, and 25 to 30 cartloads of manure an acre were always given though the price varied from 1s. to 4s. (Rs. 1-2) and was sometimes even as high as 6s. (Rs. 3) the cartload. Dry-crop lands occasionally received ten to fifteen cartloads of manure the acre. The use of manure on dry-crop lands was much more general than it had been some years before. In the dry-crop soils either late or early crops were grown. Of the early or kharif crops the lighter soils yielded year after year bajri mixed with hulga, math, jvári, ambádi, and mug; in the better soils were grown bájri, with every fourth furrow bájri and tur; bájri only, followed in good seasons by a late crop of gram; udid and mug grown separately, followed in good seasons by wheat or gram after udid, and by kardai or jvári after mug; potatoes, which when raised as an early crop, in good seasons, were succeeded by gram wheat or jvári. As a rule rabi or late crops were grown only on the best soils. They included jvázi generally mixed with kardai, or wheat mixed with kardai, or gram, followed in the fourth year by bájri, and in good geasons by a second crop. The above were the only rotations. In garden land the usual rotation was in the first year bajri or potatoes with a late crop of wheat, gram, or vegetables; in the second year earthnut or chillies; in the third year sugarcane or bajri with a late crop. In most villages large numbers of sheep were reared as Poona furnished a certain and convenient market. The wool was sold to the weavers, and the droppings formed one of the best manures and were carefully collected in the pens in which the sheep were folded Especially in gardens the sub-divisions of land were very minute and the right of occupancy was jealously guarded. The land bore a high sale value. In some instances dry-crop land was sold or mortgaged for as much as 116 to 160 years' purchase of the assessment.

Though the line did not pass through any part of it, the Pábal group had gained by the opening of the Peninsula railway. The stations at Uruli and Talegaon Dábháde afforded easy access to the Bombay market. The group was also crossed from south to

Land.
REVISION

SURVEY.

Pábal,

1872-1871

¹ Between 1861 and 1871, 386 wells were sunk. The well cess imposed in 1840 was most unpopular. In 1843 it was revised, but complaints still continued. Many wells in good repair fell into disuse, the landholders, in some cases building new wells, exempt from the cess, rather than use old wells on which the tax was imposed. In 1853-54 the sum of Rs. 1875 was remitted on account of unused wells and water channels. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 306,

ter VIII.

Tand.

UNION

TRVEY.

Pabal,

10. *-1874.

north bycthe Poona-Nasik road, and from west to east by the Poona-Ahmadnagar road. There were also several good fair-weather roads, and two metalled high roads, one branching from Shikrapur and forming a direct line to Talegaon on the railway, the other connecting the town of Pabal with Poona. A fair-weather road from Pábal to Sirur by Malthán was nearly completed. The Bhima at Koregaon and the Ghod at Kalamb were crossed by ferries during the rainy season and a substantial bridge spanned the Vel at Shikrápur. The only road which remained to complete the system of communication was the road from Sirur to Náráyangaon. The fall in the toll farm from £2250 (Rs. 22,500) in 1865-66 to £520 (Rs. 5200) in 1872-73 showed how greatly railway competition had reduced cart traffic.1 The chief towns, none of which were of any considerable size, were Pábal, Talegaon, Manchar, and Kauta. Weekly markets were held at each of these towns and also at Vápgaon; and Náráyangaon and Khed were convenient markets for the villages near them. On the whole the people had great advantages in disposing of their field produce; no part of the group was more than five or six miles from a market town. Tillage was almost the only industry. There were 217 looms some for blankets others for coarse cottons. Lavish expenditure on marriages and other social ceremonies had kept the people dependent on the money-Still their state had greatly improved since 1841. chief causes of their improvement were a sufficient and a fairly certain rainfall, unbroken peace, low assessment, the extended use of the potato, the opening of the railway and of roads, and the rise in grain prices.2

The fifty-six villages were arranged in six classes with highest dry-crop acre rates varying from 6s, to 3s. 6d. (Rs. 3-13). two elements for reducing rates were less certain rain and more distant markets. The first class contained one village with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 6s. (Rs. 3); the second class contained sixteen with 5s.6d. (Rs. $2\frac{3}{4}$); the third class, thirteen with 5s. (Rs. $2\frac{1}{4}$); the fourth class, twolve with 4s. 6d. (Rs. 21); the fifth class, eight with 4s. (Rs. 2); and the sixth class, six with 3s. 6d. (Rs. 12). Of the three villages received from Holkar one was placed in the first, one in the third, and one in the fifth class. There were no masonry dams, but, especially along the Vel, the people made temporary The chief crops grown under the channels were embankments. sugarcane, potatoes, earthnut, chillies, vegetables, and garlic in a few villages. The highest acre rate proposed for channel water was 12s. (Rs. 6) and the lowest 2s. (Re. 1). The assessment on this account amounted to £563 (Rs. 5630) or an average acre rate of 58. 3d. (Rs. 23). The total former assessment on wells and channels together was £1343 (Rs. 13,430) of which only £1203 (Rs. 12,030) were

¹ Lieut. Col. Waddington, Surv. Supt. 689 of 10th October 1872. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 301. The toll amounts were (farmed) 1865-66 Rs. 22,500, 1866-67 Rs. 19,500, 1867-68 Rs. 16,000, 1868-69 Rs. 14,000, 1869-70 Rs. 12,000, 1870-71 Rs. 10,500; (managed by Sirur mamlatdar) 1871-72 Rs. 6295, and (farmed) 1872-73 Rs. 5200.

² Lieut. Col. Waddington, Surv. Supt. 689 of 10th October 1872, and Col. Francis, Surv. Comr. 273 of 13th Feb. 1873. Bom. Gov. Sci. CLI, 305, 351-352.

collected in 1871-72, the remainder being remitted as the wells were not in use. Under the revision survey no extra assessment was imposed on well lands, a change which, on the 10,047 acres of well land, represented a loss to Government of £2000 to £2500 (Rs. 20,000-25,000). Of rice land, there were only ninety-two acres. As it was of superior quality the highest acre rate was fixed at 10s. (Rs. 5), and the average at 6s. $2\frac{1}{3}d$. (Rs. 3 as. $1\frac{1}{12}$). The proposed rates increased the assessment on Ausari, the only village in the first class by 70 per cent; on the villages of the second class by 74 per cent; on those of the third class by 94 per cent; on those of the fourth class by 90 per cent; on those of the fifth class by 95 per cent; and on those of the sixth class by 103 per cent. The average increase on all the fifty-six villages was 88 per cent over the previous year's payments. The following statement shows the effect of the survey:

Pábal. Fifty-six Villages: Revision Settlement, 1872.

_	Occu	PIED.	Unoce	DUPIED	TOTAL.		
SETTLEMENT.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	
	Acres.	Ra.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	
Proposed	181,076	173,898	567	360	181,643	174,258	
TD 2 A av	160,692	92,359	548	230	161,240	92,589	
Increase	20,884	81,539	19	130	20,403	81,669	

Compared with the average collections between 1862 and 1871 the revised survey rental showed an increase of £8160 (Rs. 81,600) or 88 per cent; and compared with the average collections from 1836 to 1843 they showed an increase of £10,739 (Rs. 1,07,390) or 161 per cent. The rental of the three villages received from Holkar was raised 60 per cent. The greatest individual increase was a rise of 159 per cent in Eklahara. The largest general increase, 103 per cent, was in the lowest or sixth class in which the average drycrop acre rate was only 1s. $3\frac{1}{8}d$. $(10\frac{1}{12} as.)$. The highest dry-crop acre rate, which occurred in Pimpalgaon, was $3s. 10\frac{3}{4}d$. (Re. 1 as. 15 $\frac{1}{6}$). The average dry-crop acre rate in the fifty-six villages was $1s. 10\frac{1}{4}d$. $(14\frac{5}{6} as.)$.

In forwarding the Superintendent's proposals, the Survey Commissioner Colonel Francis made some changes in the grouping of villages and removed the first class rate of 6s. (Rs. 3). His proposals reduced the increase in the total rental of the fifty-six villages from 88 to 85 per cent and of the three villages received from Holkar from 60 to 45 per cent. He next suggested that in addition to this a reduction of four annas a class for the first four classes and of two annas in the fifth or last class might be made in the highest dry-crop acre rates. This would reduce the rates to 5s. (Rs. 2½), 4s. 6d. (Rs. 2½), 4s. (Rs. 2), 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1¾), and 3s. 3d. (Rs. 1¾), and bring the increase down to 65 or 66 per cent. Government adopted a somewhat different grouping from that proposed by the

Chapter VIII

R. N

Pábe 1872 - 1

Lt.-Col. Waddington, 689 of 10th Oct. 1872. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 297-314.
 Col. Francis, Surv. Comr. 273 of 13th Feb. 1873, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 349-356.

Land.

REVISION
SURVEY.

Pábal,
1872-1871.

survey officers. They sanctioned the following highest dry-crop acra rates, 5s. (Rs. $2\frac{1}{2}$) for nine villages, 4s. 3d. (Rs. $2\frac{1}{6}$) for nine villages, 4s. (Rs. 2) for twenty-four villages, and 3s. 3d. (Rs. $1\frac{1}{6}$) for seventeen villages. With these rates the increase on the whole fifty-nine villages amounted to about 75 per cent beyond the old assessment in place of the 88 per cent proposed by the Superintendent. The final result of the revised settlement introduced into the fifty-nine villages of the Pábal group was as follows: Under the revised settlement, the average dry-crop acre rate was 1s. $6\frac{2}{3}d$. ($12\frac{1}{2}as$.), the water rate 4s. $7\frac{1}{6}d$. (Rs. 2as. $5\frac{1}{12}$), and the rice land rate 6s. 8d. (Rs. 3as. $5\frac{1}{3}$). The total assessment on occupied lands was £15,151 (Rs. 1,51,510) or £3819 (Rs. 38,190) less than that originally proposed by the Superintendent, and £4928 (Rs. 49,289) or 48 per cent more than the former assessment.

Haveli, 1872-73.

The revised survey settlement was introduced into Haveli in 1872-73. Of the eighty-four villages under revision, twenty-one of which formerly belonged to Bhimthadi and seven had since the first settlement been transferred to Mával, three villages were omitted as survey rates had been introduced into them within the preceding fifteen years. The Haveli or mamlatdar's group was bounded on the north by the Bhima and Indrayani; on the east by Bhimthadi; on the south by the Sinhgad-Bhuleshvar hills; and on the west by the Nane Maval, the Mulshi petty division, and the Pant Sachiv's territory. Nearly in the centre was Poona a city of 90,436 people from which no part of the group was more than eighteen miles distant, and which formed a ready and convenient market for all kinds of produce. The total area of the eighty-one villages was 319 square miles or 204,135, acres. these 10,198 acres or 4.8 per cent was unarable land included in numbers, and 18,346 or 8.8 per cent was alienated. There were also 6673 acres of grass or kuran land, chiefly in the villages to the west of Poona and near the Sahyadris. The Haveli sub-division was more varied than any of the sub-divisions yet resettled. East of Poona the country was flat, open, and almost bare of trees; to the west it was rugged and hilly, and much of it well wooded, especially along the south side of the Mutha river where were large numbers of fine mangoes and a sprinkling of jack trees which were unknown to the east of Poona. Teak occurred on the hill sides but never grew to any size. The climate varied much, the rainfall increasing towards the west, until, in the border villages rice and nágli took the place of jvári and bájri. The lands to the east of the city were divided into two nearly equal portions by the Mutha-Mula. The tract lying between the Mutha-Mula and the Bhima comprised some of the poorest villages. It was chiefly stony sterile upland, better fitted for sheep grazing than for tillage. The people made the most of their barren inheritance, every available gorge in the ravines being blocked with rough stone embankments to gather and hold the scanty soil washed

¹ Gov. Res. 2158 of 16th April 1873, Bom, Gov. Sel. CLI, 361-364.

² Bom, Gov, Sel, CLL 364-379.

from the higher grounds. The district to the south between the Mutha and the hills was much more level, and contained a large proportion of rich soil. Even the villages under the hills were not unfertile, the more plentiful rainfall which they enjoyed making up for their somewhat poorer soil. Towards the west the rainfall was heavier. During the nine years ending 1871, compared with an average of 27.07 inches at Poona, Patas about forty miles to the east had an average of 14:18 inches and Mulshi about twenty-five miles to the west, of 4699 inches. The country was well watered. Besides by minor streams it was crossed by five considerable rivers including the Bhima and the Indrayani on the north.2 During the survey lease (1841-1871) Poona produce prices had doubled. The rupee price of jvári rose from about 631 pounds (313 shers) in the ten years ending 1851 to 60 pounds (30 shers) in the ten years ending 1861, and to 34 pounds (17 shers) in the ten years ending 1871; the corresponding averages for bájri were 53½, 50, and 27 pounds (26², 25, and 13¹ shers).³

Chapter VIII.

REVISION SURVEY. Haveli, 1878-73.

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 406. The details are:

4	P	ona	-Páte	28-Mu	lshi .	Rainfall	l, 1863-1871.

Y	EAR.	l	Poona.	Patas.	Mulshi.	Upto
	•		Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	
1863	***	1	23.55	9 51	54 20	30th Sept.
1864	••		16.55	7 83	45.34	Ditto.
1865	***		31 28	11.69	43 96	Ditto.
1866			18-90	6 57	54.70	4th Nov
1867			27-29	10.38	26.69	Ditto.
1868	•••		80.91	10 82	51 48	30th Nov.
1869	***	". 1	28-16	22.76	89-28	Ditto
1870	•		40.60	26.31	61.50	Ditto.
1931	• •		27 38	21.75	45 80	Ditto.
Av	erage		27:07	14.18	46 99	

The Bhima, the Indrayani, the Mula, the Pauna, and the Mutha.

In 1840, at the time of the first settlement, Capt. Wingate and Lt. Nash estimated that the price of grain ranged about 25 per cent higher in Poona than in the adjoining sub-division of Bhimthadi. The statement given below shows that from 1841 to 1851 the average price of judii was 30 and of bdjri 35 per cent higher in Poona than in Yevat; from 1851 to 1861 the price of judii was 19 and that of bdjri 15 per cent higher, but during the last ten years (1861-1871), owing to the levelling influence of railways, the difference fell to 13 per cent on judii and 11 per cent on tdjri, while in 1871 it was only 5.9 on judii and 7 on bdjri. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 409. The details are:

Poona-Yevat-Talegaen Produce Prices, 1841-1871.

	Poo	NA.	YEV	AT.	TA GA	LE- ON.		Poc	MA.	Yevat.		TALE- GAON.	
YBAR.	Jedrí.	Báyri.	John.	Bafri.	Jedri.	Bahri.	YEAR.	Judri.	Bdjrl.	Judrí.	Bdjrú,	Judri	Bdfri.
1841-42 1842-48 1843-44 1844-45 1846-47 1847-48 1848-49 1849-50 1850-51 Average	30 82 80 27 21 16 81 55 47 30	24 28 30 23 18 14 27 41 87 25	471 55 64 50 25 151 87 63 64 96	36 34 48 38 23 16 30 52 52 37 36	44 53 67 84 27 24 67 93 53 34	35 88 39 30 23 23 55 66 38 27	1851-52 1852-53 1858-54 1858-54 1858-55 1856-57 1856-57 1856-59 1858-60 1859-60 1860-61	42 25 28 25 26 27	25 29 36 22 25 21 23 25 21 25	36 37 57 27 40 26 83 26 40 36 1	251 29 441 23 31 24 26 21 321 28	40 53 35 23 39 31 31 37 57 48	84 39 24 22 35 26 27 29 40 26

Land.
Revision
Survey.
Haveli,
1872-73.

In the group of eighty-one villages the average collections during the five years before the first settlement were £6445 (Rs. 64,450), and the average remissions £2534 (Rs. 25,340). During the eleven years ending 1852 the average collections were £6974 (Rs. 69,740) or 8.2 per cent more than the collections of the five years ending 1841 and the average remissions were £42 (Rs. 420). In 1841-42 the first year of the survey settlement the total area of Government assessed land was 124,500 acres and the rental £7450 (Rs. 74,500); of which 16,000 acres or nearly oneeighth was waste. In 1843-44 the levy of a well-cess raised the assessment to £7708 (Rs. 77,080); but the same year £100 (Rs. 1000) and in the succeeding year £199 (Rs. 1990) of the newly imposed cess were remitted. After 1849-50 the whole amount was collected except about £40 (Rs. 400). In 1851-52 the arable waste was reduced to 10,000 acres or one-twelfth of the whole arable area. During the ten years ending 1862 the arable waste fell from 9777 to 1922 acres, and the average remissions on account of well-cess were £18 (Rs. 180). The largest remission during the thirty-one years ending 1861 was £679 (Rs. 6790) in 1853-54. The average collections during the ten years ending 1862 were £7626 (Rs.76,260) or 9.3 per cent more than the collections of the eleven preceding years and 18.3 per cent more than those of the five years before the settlement. The average remissions were £73 (Rs. 730). Since 1862 the arable waste was gradually absorbed until in 1871-72 only 634 acres of arable land remained unoccupied. Since 1856 there were almost no remissions, and the average collections for the ten years ending 1872 were £7815 (Rs. 78,150) or 2.5 per cent more than the preceding ten years, and 21.3 per cent more than the five years (1836-1841) before the settlement. They would have been greater had not a considerable quantity of land been taken for forest and other Government purposes, such as the powder works at Kirkee and for Lake Fife.16

Poona, Yenat-Talegaen Produce Prices, 1841-1871-continued.

•		Pòo	na,	Yay	/AT.	TALEGAON.		
Year.		Judri.	Bájri.	Fodri.	Bdyri.	Joari.	Bdyri.	
1661-62	•••	26	19	30	281	28 15	23 13	
1862-63 1863-64	••	20 11	15 9	21 154	18 10	15	13	
1864-65		12	10	11	101	12	10	
1865-66		13	11	16	12	27	20	
1866-67		18	16	22	194	10	15	
1867-68		19	11	14	12	20	16	
1868-69		23	16	324	19}	20	22	
1869-70	}	16	18	15	13	22	17	
1870-71	***	17	1,4	18	15	19	15	
Average		17	181	191	15	19	16	

1 The TILLAGE area rose from 109,000 acres in 1841-42 to 117,000 acres in 1846-47, fell to 115,000 in 1852-53, and again rose to 125,000 acres in 1860-61. Since 1866 it began to decline and reached 121,000 acres in 1871-72. The largest remissions were about Rs. 6800 in 1853-54. In other years there were little or no remissions. The collections rose from Rs. 65,000 in 1841-42 to Rs. 71,000 in 1846-47. They fell to Rs. 70,000 in the next five years, rose to Rs. 71,000 in 1852-53, and again fell to Rs. 67,000 in 1853-54. They then rose to Rs. 77,000 in 1857-58 and stood at Rs. 79,000 during the next six years. Since then they began to decline and reached Rs. 76,000 in 1871-72. Survey Diagram, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 410.

Hapeli, Eighty-one Villages: Revenue, 1836-1873.

			Rental	•	J	a. v.	
YEAR.		Occu- pred.			Remis-	Collec- tions.	
		Rs.	Rs.	Re.	Rs.	Rs.	
1896-37		90,118	44.948	1,35,066	19,089	71,029	
1837-38		88,976	88,017	1,26,993	26,567	69,409	
1838-39		89,503	36,060	1,25,563	35,097	54,406	
1839-40		90,543	35,904	1,26,447	27,677	62,866	
1840-41	•••	89,834	36,268	1,26,103	18,281	71,558	
1836-1841		89,795	38,239	1,28,094	25,342	64,452	
1841-1852		***			419	69,744	
1952-1863		•••		•••	729	76,262	
1862-1579		•••		l ::-		78,152	

Chapter VIII.
Land.
REVISION
SURVEY.
Havel,
1878-73.

During the survey lease, in the eighty-one villages, population had increased from 37,695 in 1840-41 to 53,829 in 1871-72 or 42.8 per cent; houses from 6598 to 7079 or 7.3 per cent; carts from 1146 to 2655 or 131.7 per cent; ploughs from 1907 to 2284 or 19.8 per cent; draught and plough bullocks from 15,899 to 17,811 or 12 per cent; cattle, sheep, and horses from 26,890 to 34,845 or 296 per cent; and working wells from 799 to 1091 or 36.5 per cent. Of 418 new wells 276 had been sunk during the ten years ending 1872. The liberal remission of the well cess was beginning to have the best effect. Several landholders in the Haveli group, on being assured by the Survey Superintendent that the wells were not to be taxed under the revision survey and that Government were prepared to help them with advances, took to sinking wells. Especially in the north-east villages many dams were also built with the object of collecting soil to prevent the fields being damaged by floods. The style of tillage showed more energy and care than in parts of the district at a distance from good markets. Manure was eagerly sought for and brought from long distances. The city and. cantonment of Poona furnished a large supply in the shape of nightsoil which, after being buried in trenches for three or four months, was bought by the landholders of the surrounding villages. A few years before no Kunbi would touch this form of manure. The price paid at the trench was 2s. (Re. 1) for three carts. Of dry-crops both early and late were grown. They included bájri, jvári, gram, tur, wheat, khurásni, udid, and mug. Near Poona those crops were grown which were calculated to meet the daily demands of a large city. Thus early jvuri and maize for green fodder to a great extent superseded grain. In garden lands, for some miles round Poona, oranges, limes, guavas, plantains, figs, pomegranates, grapes, and mangoes, and vegetables of all kinds both local and foreign were reared to a large extent. Lucerne grass was much grown and was a profitable crop. It required watering once in twelve or fifteen days, and continued to yield for three years. The guava also gave a good return; it preferred a light soil and required water only during the bearing seasons, between October and December and again between April and May. The tree was very hardy and generally yielded a certain crop. It was usual for the husbandmen to sell the crop of oranges, limes, and mangoes on the tree as soon as the young frrit was fairly set. But figs were

Chapter VIII:
Land.

Revision
Survey.
Haveli,

1872-73.

so uncertain that the crop was seldom bought until it was well developed. L vine gardens or pán malás were numerous especially in the villages of Kondva, Undri, Mahamadvádi, and Phursangi. These gardens required a large outlay at starting, and, throughout the year, constant attendance for weeding, watering, insect-killing, and leaf-gathering. They paid well, the returns being constant, as the rows of vines were arranged so as to come into bearing in regular rotation. A betel garden or pan mala continued to yield from ten to fifteen years. The potato was not grown, apparently because the eastern villages had too small a rainfall and the western villages too much moisture. In the western villages the early harvest was the most important, the chief crops being early jvári and bájri, supplemented by tur, til, náchni, and wheat. Rice was also grown in a few of the border villages, notably in Ráhátaunda, Arvi, Márunji, Kásársai, Mulkhed, and Bhukam. villagers complained that, owing to the recent transfer of large tracts of hill land to the Forest Department, they had not sufficient brushwood to burn on their rice lands; the Survey Superintendent thought this would seriously interfere with the growth of rice, as cowdung, which the people were forced to use, was too expensive on account of the large city demand for cowdung fuel. The western villages had little garden land, probably because a certain rainfall ensured a regular return on the dry-crop lands. They also left much land under grass, which, from the plentiful rainfall, grew freely, and found a ready sale. Every day long strings of men and women brought bundles of grass, firewood, cowdung-cakes, and milk to the camp and city. In 1871-72 of the whole rent-paying area early crops covered 521 per cent, late crops 34 per cent, and occupied waste 131 per cent. The area of occupied waste held for private grazing was large. Vágholi, Khorádi, Vadgaon, Sheri, Kesnand, and Lohogaon, from their nearness to Poona, had considerable tracks under grass, which probably paid better than if they had been Except some villages to the north-west of Poona. Haveli was abundantly provided with means of communication. The Peninsula railway ran through the middle of it and had five stations within Haveli limits and a sixth just beyond. The high roads were numerous and good, the chief being those to Bombay, Ahmadnagar, Sholapur, and Satara. To Satara there were three routes, by the Kátraj, Bábdev, and Diva passes, all made with great skill and in the most substantial manner, the top of the Kátraj pass being pierced by a long tunnel. Many miles of excellent made road crossed the Poona cantonment, and connected it with Kirkee and There was also a second class road by Náráyangaon to Junnar and Násik. All these roads converged on the city and afforded easy access from all parts of the sub-division to the vast quantity of supplies required by a population of over 90,000. In the opinion of Mr. Fletcher the classing officer, the people to the

¹ The details were: Of the early crops, Bijri 34.5 per cent, jwiri 13.5, rice 1.8, nágli 0.9, til and rála 0.5, tur 0.3, chillies 0.3, hulga 0.3, and bhuimug 0.2, total 52.3 per cent. Of the late crops, jvári 26.9, wheat 3.2, gram 1.3, castor seed 0.6, sugarcane 0.6, miscellaneous 1.6, total 34.2; occupied waste 13.5. Bom. Gov, Sec. CLI. 403.

west of Poona were poorer and less thriving than those in the east. The holdings were smaller, there was a want of roads, and the land was less fertile. Colonel Waddington thought this might be true of a few exceptional villages. But on the whole the people of the sub-division were better off than the people of any other part of the district.\(^1\) As regards the value of land, as much as one hundred times the amount of the assessment was obtainable in 1871.

Under the revision survey the total area of the eighty-one villages was found to be 204,135 acres or 28,031 acres more than the former recorded area. This large discrepancy was mainly due to the fact that at the time of Lieutenant Nash's survey the area of free grazing lands was not measured.2 Of the total number of eightyfour villages, seventy-four were arranged in eight classes with highest dry-crop acre rates varying from 8s. to 3s. 6d. (Rs. 4-13). Three villages, Vanori Ghorpuri and Kirkee, adjoining the cantonment were placed in the first class with a rate of 8s. (Rs. 4). Six villages on the skirts of the city and across the Mutha river were placed in the second class with a rate of 7s. (Rs. 31). Twenty-six villages adjoining the first and second classes were placed in the third class with a rate of 6s. (Rs. 3). Thirteen villages formed the fourth class with a rate of 5s. 6d. (Rs. 23). Nine villages formed the fifth class with a rate of 5s. (Rs. $2\frac{1}{2}$). Five villages formed the sixth class with a rate of 4s. 6d. (Rs. $2\frac{1}{4}$). Nine villages formed the seventh class with a rate of 4s. (Rs. 2). Three villages, across the Mutha-Mula in the north-east corner of this survey group, formed the eighth class with a rate of 3s. 6d. (Rs.13). Of the remaining ten villages, seven villages transferred to the Mával sub-division were placed in the fifth class with a rate of 5s. (Rs. 21), and the three villages, of which the existing settlement had been carried out subsequent to that of the rest of the sub-division, were placed one in the third, one in the fourth, and one in the fifth class.

There was little channel watered land, and except in the village of Páshánthe water-supply in none of the channels was of superior quality. In Páshán, in consequence of the improvement in the supply of water caused by the recent construction of a large pond, the Survey Superintendent proposed to apply a highest acre rate of 16s. (Rs. 8) in excess of the dry-crop rate. The highest rate in other villages was 11s.(Rs. 5½) and in some lands it was as low as 2s. (Re. 1). The existing assessment on well-watered and channel-watered land was £470 (Rs. 4700); the proposed channel watered assessment was £223 (Rs. 2230) or

¹ Lieut.-Colonel Waddington, Survey Superintendent, 840 of 30th November 1872. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 404.

Chapter VIII.

Land.

REVISION SURVEY. Hareli, 1872-73.

² Of this large increase in area Col. Francis (Survey Comr. 497 of 24th March 1873, Bom. Gov. Sec. CLI, 457) wrote: In no reassessed district has been found the former survey so imperfect as it has been found to be here. This is owing chiefly to the general adoption of Mr. Pringle's measurements at the first settlement in place of a fresh survey. The largest differences of area, compared with the present survey, occur in hilly lands, which in some cases seem to have been left unmeasured, and in others shown as unarable, though producing grass, and most valuable for grazing on account of their nearness to Poona. In one case the arable area, according to the new survey is shown to be more than double what was charged for under the original settlement; in another case it is 90 per cent more, and in many cases it is between 20 and 30 per cent in excess.

Land.

Revision
Su X.

reli,
73.

an average acre rate of 5s. 3½d. (Rs. 2 as. 10⅓) exclusive of dry-crop Rice was grown to some extent in the villages on the western border, but the total area under rice was only 1095 acres. Colonel Francis' highest rice acre rate for the contiguous Mával villages was 9a. (Rs. $4\frac{1}{2}$), the average acre rate on them being $4s.3\frac{1}{2}d$. (Rs. $2as.2\frac{1}{2}$). For the Haveli group the highest rice acre rate proposed was 12s. (Rs. 6) which when applied gave an average acre rate of 7s. 31d. (Rs. 3 as. 101). The effect of the proposed rates in eighty-one villages was to raise the assessment on occupied land from £7686 (Rs.76.860) collected in 1871-72 to £15,312 (Rs. 1,53,120) or an increase of 99 Of this sum £14,689 (Rs. 1,46,890) was the assessment on dry-crop land, giving an average acre rate of 2s. 1d. (Re. 1 a. 2). £223 (Rs. 2230) were on account of a water cess, and £400 (Rs. 4000) on rice land. In the remaining three villages the assessment was raised from £361 (Rs. 3610) to £532 (Rs. 5320) or not quite 48 per cent, but the average dry-crop acre rate amounted to 2s. 3d. (Re. 1 a. 1) or nearly the same as the general average.

The following statement shows the effect of the survey in eightyone villages:

Haveli Revision Settlement, 1872.

		Occo	PIED.	Unoce	UPIRD.	TOTAL.		
SETTLEMEN	٠.	Area.	Rental.	Area,	Rental	Area.	Rental.	
Proposed Existing	:::	Acres. 142,200 122,340	Rs. 1,53,118 76,862	Acres. 844 634	Rs. 399 490	Acres. 142,544 122,974	Rs. 1,58,517 77,352	
Increase		19,860	76,256	-290	91	19,570	76,165	

Compared with the average collections of the five years before 1841, the rental under the revised rates was 138 per cent higher; compared with the average collections of the eleven years ending 1852 it was 119 per cent higher; compared with those of the ten years ending 1862 it was 101 per cent higher; and compared with those of the ten years ending 1872 it was 96 per cent higher. The largest increase was in the village of Bhávdi which was raised 228 per cent. Of this amount the increase in the occupied arable land hitherto not shown in the accounts was 90 per cent. In Dhankauri the increase was 175 per cent and in Vadgaon Sheri 177 per cent.

Should these proposed rates appear too high and the increase in rental be not in accord with the Government policy of moderation, the Survey Superintendent submitted a modified scale to be substituted in their place. He reduced the highest dry-crop acre rates of the first and second classes by 1s. (8 as.) and the remaining classes by 6d. (4 as.) each except in one or two cases in which the reduction made was 1s. (8 as.). The effect of the changes was to lower the proposed assessment on dry-crop land from £15,209 to £13,679 (Rs. 1,52,090-Rs. 1,36,790) and the total assessment from £15,884 to £14,354 (Rs. 1,58,840 - Rs. 1,43,540). This was an increase of 79 per

¹ Lieut. Col. Waddington, Survey Superintendent, 840 of 30th Nov. 1872. Bom-Gov. Sel. CLI 400-414.

Chapter VIII.

Land.

REVISION

SURVEY.

Haveli.

1872-73.

cent on the preceding year's collections in eighty-one villages; of this increase 16 per cent was due to the greater area brought under assessment, leaving 63 per cent as the increase caused by the new rates. The Survey Commissioner suggested a highest rice acre rate of 10s. (Rs. 5) instead of 12s. (Rs. 6), and made some changes in the grouping of villages. According to his proposals the increase in the total rental was reduced to about 75 per cent. Government sanctioned the proposals of the Survey Commissioner.

As the Government of India intimated their satisfaction that the rates originally proposed by the Survey Superintendent had been modified, and expressed their readiness to make further reductions, should reductions appear necessary, the Survey Superintendent made some further changes in individual villages and brought the total assessment on the cultivated lands of the eighty-four villages to £13,419 (Rs. 1,34,190) showing an increase of 67 per cent on the preceding year's payments. The average dry-crop acre rate was 1s. $9\frac{1}{4}d$. $(14\frac{1}{6}as)$ channel water rate 4s. $5\frac{1}{8}d$. (Rs. 2as. $3\frac{5}{12}$) and rice rate 5s. $11\frac{5}{8}d$. (Rs. 2as. $15\frac{3}{4}$).

The following statement shows for the eighty-four Haveli villages under the revision settlement originally proposed by the Superintendent of Survey, the revised settlement advocated in the transmitting report of the Survey Commissioner and sanctioned by Government in June 1873, and the settlement finally proposed by the Survey Superintendent in September 1873. Government sanctioned the final proposals in October 1873:

Eighty-four Haveli Villages: Settlement, 1873.

Former 1871-72.	Proposed 1872-78.	Increase.
Rs.	Rs.	Per Cent.
80,965	1,58,836	96
80,966	1,43,544	77
80,965	1,34,189	66

In 1873-74 the rainfall was 14 inches at Indápur, 32 at Poona, 13 at Junnar, and 68 at Khadkála. Except in Mával, Purandhar, and the late crop part of Indápur, the rainfall was not favourable either for the early or for the late harvest. In the west the early crops were good in Mával and in the south-west and north of Haveli, and fair in Junnar and Khed. In Mulshi insufficient rainfall in the early part of the season, and an excessive fall near the close caused much damage. In the east the early crop was fair in Purandhar, middling in Sirur, and indifferent in Bhimthadi and Indápur where the outturn was very trifling. The late harvest was good in Purandhar, fair in Indápur, and middling in the rest of the east. Public health was generally good. Slight cattle disease was

1873-74.

Gov. Res. 3516 of 20th June 1873. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 465-469.
 Lieut.-Col. Waddington, Survey Superintendent, 824 of 27th Aug. 1873 and 314 of 18th April 1874. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 471-473, 485.

Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 476.
 Gov. Res. 5495 of 3rd Oct, 1873. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 479.

Chapter VIII.

Land.

Revision
Survey.

present in Mával, Junnar, Haveli, and Khed.¹ Tillage rose from 1,848,831 to 1,901,205 acres, collections fell from £112,689 to £99,117 (Rs. £1,26,890-Rs. 9,91,170), £17,796 (Rs. 1,77,960) were remitted, and £9125 (Rs. 91,250) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee frice of Indian millet fell from about 28 to 48 pounds (14-24 shers).

Supa, 1873-74.

In 1873-74 the revised survey settlement was introduced into a group of thirty-nine villages settled in 1843-44. These villages formerly belonged to the Supa petty division of Purandhar. the first settlement in 1843-44 thirty of these villages had been handed to Bhimthadi and nine to Purandhar. The country sloped southwards in a waving plain watered by the Karha and other streams none of which flowed throughout the hot weather. In capabilities and climate these villages differed little from each other, cept that those lying along the Nira had a larger proportion of eep black soil. The early crops were bájri, math, and muy; the only late crop was jvári among which a good deal of kardai was sown broadcast. In the northern and eastern villages the late crops, and in the western and southern villages the early crops, predominated. Except in a few villages cultivation was careless. The fields were overrun with weeds; the land was not ploughed more than once in three or four years; and the use of manure on drycrop lands, except to a limited extent by the folding of sheep, of which great numbers were reared, was apparently unknown. The garden lands, which were almost exclusively under wells, were by no means of a high class. agarcane was grown in the few places which had a twelve month's water-supply. The usual garden crops were wheat, gram, vegetables, and jvári; of these jvári was a special favourite under interior wells. As regards communication and markets considerable changes had taken place since the former settlement in 1843. that time, of the four markets which gave Supa an advantage ov& Indápur and Kurkumb, three, Wái Bhor and Sátára, were thirty miles across the country from the nearest part of the group and more than twice as far from the most distant; while the fourth, Sasvad, was not less than twenty miles from the nearest point. By the new roads from the Nira bridge to the railway station at Kedgaon, from Bárámati to Pátas, and from Sátára to Poona by the Diva and Kátraj passes, many of these villages had been brought within a day's march of the railway. Poona, which was still as formerly the great market for produce, was more accessible than from Indápur, and not much less accessible than from Kurkumb. The town of Supa itself was only ten miles from the Kedgaon station. The local markets were Bárámati, Supa, Pátas, and Jejuri, of which Bárámati was the most important especially as a cattle market.

During the survey lease the Supa price of jvári rose from about 80 pounds (40 shers) the rupee in the first ten years to about 34 pounds (17 shers) the rupee in the last ten years of the lease that is an increase of 135 per cent. The corresponding increase in the

price of bijri was from about 68 to 28 pounds (34-14 she?s) or 143 per cent.

At the introduction of the 1843 settlement the Supa group was passing from a state of great depression to one of comparative prosperity. This was due to the revision of assessment carried out. some years before by Lieutenant Shortrede. Under Lieutenant Shortrede's rates the assessment which had been fixed by the former survey at £12,270 (Bs. 1,22,700) on thirty-seven villages was reduced to £10,140 (Rs. 1,01,400) on 391 villages. In spite of this reduction the average yearly collections, during the seven years (1836-1842) after the introduction of Lieutenant Shortrede's modified rates, were only £3498 (Rs. 34,980) of a total assessment on Government lands of £8850 (Rs. 88,500) or less than 40 per cent; and, though cultivation spread from 40,696 acres in 1836 to 111,768 acres in 1842, there was a progressive increase in remissions. No less than £5000 (Rs. 50,000) of a total of £7400 (Rs. 74,000) of remissions were allowed during the last two years (1841-42) of the settle-The fixed survey settlement for thirty years was introduced in 1843, the new rates being the same as in Kurkumb or ten per cent higher than in Indapur. During the first year (1843-44) of this thirty years' settlement, of a total assessed area of 141,310 acres, 26,302 arable acres were waste. In the next year the arable waste was reduced to 17,191 acres, in the succeeding year to 14,146, and in 1847 it had fallen to 8690 acres. From this time until 1852 the arable waste gradually increased until in 1852 it amounted to nearly 15,000 acres. The collections varied from £4206 (Rs. 42,060) in 1844-45 to £5310 (Rs. 53,100) in 1847-48 and £5194 (Rs. 51,940) in 1852-53. Large remissions were granted in two of the first ten years, £417 (Rs. 4170) in 1844-45 and £828 (Bs. 8280) in I850-51. The average collections during the ten years ending 1853 were £4886 (Rs. 48,860) and remissions £171 (Rs. 1710), and the area under tillage was 126,604 acres. Between 1853 and 1858 the arable waste was reduced to 1000 acres; in 1862 it had risen to 1787 acres. The collections in 1862-63 were £5723 (Rs. 57,280). The average area under cultivation was 139,966 acres. During the ten years ending 1873 the arable waste averaged 1843 acres, and the occupied area, 142,225 acres, but the collections amounted to £5550 (Rs. 55,500). The fall in average revenue was

1 The details are : Supa Produce Rupes Prices, 1844-1873.

YEAR	-	Jeári.	Bájri.	YEAR	٠.	Judri.	Bájri.	YBA	₽.	Joari.	Bárri
		Shere.	Shers.			Shers.	Shere.			Shers.	Shers.
1844		44.7	36-5	1854		25	23-62	1864		12-12	10-2
1845		25-25	23 25	1855		80.75	28	1865		17.50	11 7
1846]	15-62	15-25	1856		22-5	20	1866		13 87	14
1847		85 75	30	1857		28.5	24.25	1867		14	13
1848		60-5	\$0-25	1858		26	21-1	1848	***	3.1	215
1649		64	52	1859	***	38.2	3%	1869	***	13 5	18 5
1850		83	29.5	1860		56	26-5	1870		18-5	15.7
1851		36	29-25	1861		#8.2	22	1871		165	14 i
1852		39-5	88	1862		19 -	15	1872	. 1	11.5	11
1853		53.5	40	1863	**	13-6	10	1873		26	20

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Chapter VIII.

Revision Survey. Supec, 1873-74.

n 1327-63

Chapter VIII.
Land.
REVISION
SURVEY.
Supa,
1873-74.

due to the very large remission allowed in 1866-67, which amounted to £1859 (Rs. 18,590) or one-third of the entire assessment. With this exception the remissions since 1854 were nominal. The following statement gives the average tillage and collections during the survey lease:

Supa Tillage and Revenue, 1843 - 1873.

Year.	Occu	PIED.	Unoc	CUPIED.	3	OTAL.	Remis-	Coll oc-
	Area.	Rentaļ.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	SIONS.	TIONS
1843 - 1853 1853 - 1863 1863 - 1873	189,966	Rs. 50,564 56,498 57,890	Acres. 15,190 2825 1843	Rs. 6162 1212 612	Acres 141,794 142,791 144,068	1te 56,726 57,710 58,002	Rs. 1707 416 1889	Rs 49,856 56,082 55,500

During the survey lease population increased from 22,795 in 1843 to 32,722 in 1873 or 43.5 per cent; houses from 3804 to 4304 or 13 per cent; wells from 1003 to 1720 or 71 per cent; carts from 191 to 578 or 202 per cent; ploughs from 1110 to 1457 or 31.2 per cent; buffaloes from 1252 to 1654 or 32 per cent; cows from 9946 to 11,649 or 17 per cent; bullocks, draught and plough, from 12,907 to 14,256 or 10.4 per cent; and sheep and goats from 18,934 to 24,663 or 30.3 per cent. Horses showed a fall from 1150 to 844 or 266 per cent. Of the new wells 44 were built in the first ten years, 148 in the second ten years, and 225 in the last ten years of the survey lease.

The condition of the people was on the whole good. Few of them were hopelessly involved and every village had some families who were free from debt. At Pandára there were many stacks of straw two years old still undisposed of, though the third year's crop was in the ground and ready to cut. Many of the villages especially the larger ones showed signs of having once been more populous. In numerous instances this apparent fall in the population and ruined appearance of the larger villages was owing to the fact that landholders whose fields lay far from the village site, had built themselves huts and lived there permanently, allowing their village houses to go to ruin. Thus the apparent desolation was in many cases a sign of increased security of life and property.

It was a common practice in this as in other sub-divisions for the cultivators to sell their crops in a lump or *khoti* while still unripe. In 1872 in the Supa group the prices realized varied from 31 times to a little less than 1½ times the new assessment. The highest sum realized was from the poorest field the classification of which was only 1½ annas. The total collections in twenty cases of lump or

The tillage area rose from 115,000 acres in 1843-44 to 133,000 acres in 1847-48 and fell to 123,000 in 1849-50. After 1849-50 it rose to a little over 140,000 in 1857-58 and stood at about 142,000 during the remaining fifteen years. The remissions were about Rs. 5000 in 1844-45, Rs. 8000 in 1850-51, and Rs. 18,000 in 1866-67. In other years there were little or no remissions. The collections rose from Rs. 44,000 in 1843-44 to Rs. 54,000 in 1847-48 and fell to Rs. 44,000 in 1850-51. They then rose to Rs. 56,000 in 1855-56 and stood at about Rs. 57,000 during the next ten years. In 1866-67 they were Rs. 39,000 and again stood at about Rs. 57,000 during the next six years. Survey Diagram. Bom. G. Sel. CLI. 514.

khoti sales were £217 16s (Rs. 2178) on which the proposed assessment came to £37 (Rs. 370) or about one-sixth. This did not represent the gross produce of the land, since the middle-man must, besides the element of risk, cover the expenses of watching,

reaping, and harvesting.1

Thirty-nine villages were arranged in four classes with highest drycrop acre rates varying from 2s. 9d. to 2s. (Rs. 13-1). Two villages close to the road from Sátára by the Nira bridge to Poona were placed in the first class and charged a rate of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 13); twelve villages along the western boundary and on the road to the Kedgaon station were placed in the second class and charged a rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 11); twelve villages to the east and south of the preceding class were placed in the third class and charged a rate of 2s. 3d. (Rs. 11); and thirteen villages in the south-east of this revision survey group were placed in the fourth class and charged a rate of 2s. (Re. 1). No rice was grown in any of these villages and the channel irrigation was very poor. The proposed highest channel water acre rate was 4s. (Rs. 2). Compared with the preceding year's collections the revised survey rental showed an increase from £5746 to £8171 (Rs. 57,460-Rs. 81,710) or 42 per cent. The following statement shows the effect of the survey:2

Supa Revision Settlement, 1873.

e	Occu	PIED.	Unoc	CUPIED.	Total		
Septlement.	Area.	Kental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental	
Proposed Existing	Acres. 156,828 142,235	Rs. • 81,713 57,461	Acres. 1558 1830	Rs. 230 443	Acres. 158,386 144,065	Ra. 81,943 57,904	
Increase	14,593	24,252	-272	-213	14,321	24,039	

The Survey Commissioner proposed a few modifications. He removed the first class, and transferred a few villages from the second to the third class, and from the third to the fourth class. Government sanctioned the settlement as modified by the Survey Commissioner.⁸

In 1874-75 the rainfall was 27 inches at Indápur, 38 at Poona, 25 at Junuar, and 92 at Khadkála. The season was on the whole favourable both for early and late crops. In some villages of Haveli, Indápur, Bhimthadi, and Khed the early crops were slightly damaged by excessive rain in September and October. In a few villages of Junnar considerable damage was caused by insects called náktodás. Public health was generally good. Slight cattle disease was present in some sub-divisions. Tillage fell from 1,901,205 to 1,884,679 acres, collections rose from £99,117 to £118,333 (Rs. 9,91,170-Rs. 11,83,330), £4061 (Rs. 40,610) were remitted, and £720 (Rs. 7200) left outstanding. At Indapur the rapee price of Indian millet fell from about 48 to 60 pounds (24-30 shers).

Chapter VIII. Land.

> Rev ton Su y. Su

¹ Born. Gov. Sel CLI. 512.

Lt.-Col. Waddington, Surv. Supt. 846 of 5th Sept. 1873. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 507-521.

Gov. Res. 6377 of 22nd Nov. 1873, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI. 552-554.

⁴ Rev. Comr. S. D. 4718 of 29th Dec. 1874.

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DISTRICTS.

Chapter VIII.

Land.

REVISED
SETTLEMENT
REDUCED,
1874.

About the close of 1874 a fall in the price of grain led Government to set limits to the amounts by which the former rates might be enhanced and to reduce some of the enhanced settlements which had been introduced into Poons. It was right that Government should take advantage of the discovery of land held without payment, should correct mistakes in measuring and in classing, should share with the people the benefits derived from better roads and from the opening of railways, and should receive a share of the profit which the rise in produce prices caused to the landholders. As it no longer seemed probable that the high prices which ruled during the ten years ending 1872 would continue, Government ordered that the increase in revenue in any village group should never be more than thirty-three per cent; that the increase in a single village should never be more than sixty-six per cent, and that the increase in an individual rental should never be more than 100 per cent. To bring the amounts of enhancement, which had been sanctioned in some of the revised portions of Poona,2 into accord with these rules. Government proposed that the necessary changes should be made on the following principles. The highest rates in the group were to be so reduced as to bring the increase in the total revenue of the group within the limits of fifty per cent. When this was done, any case in which the increase in a village was still above 75 per cent, or in an individual holding above 100 per cent, should be reported for orders with distinct recommendations from the survey officers whether further changes were necessary, and if so how they should be made. Government hoped that in groups originally settled after 1848, little or no field operations would be required, and that the revision of the assessment by a mere readjustment of the highest rates would be found to be sufficient.8

In accordance with these instructions in 1875-76 the survey officers made proposals for reducing the revised assessment of Indápur, Bhimthadi, Haveli, Pábal, and Supa. The actual settlements finally sanctioned by Government are given below, showing their

Poena Survey Settlements, 1836 - 1844 and 1866 - 1874.

. •	ORIGINA	L Settl	BMBNT.	Revisi			
Sub-Division.	Arabie.	Rental.	Average Acre Rate.	Arable.	Rental,	Average Acre Rate.	INCREASE
Indápur Bhimthadi Haveli Pábal Supa	190,410 127,610 161,240	Rs. 81,391 86,464 80,965 102,228 59,926	A. p. 5 5 7 8 10 2 10 1 6 6	Acres 270,076 212,703 146,745 192,411 159,227	Rs. 124,700 146,596 184,768 152,108 78,788	A. p. 7 4 11 0 14 7 12 7 7 11	Per Cent. 63 69 66 48 31

² Gov. Res. 5739 of 29th October 1874 and 4506 of 10th August 1875, Bom. Gov. Sel. CL. 133-138 and CLI. 174-179.

¹ Indian millet rupee prices were in Bhimthadi 14½ shers in 1868-69, 19½ in 1869-70, 17½ in 1870-71, 12 in 1871-72, 22½ in 1872-73, 30 in 1873-74, 39 in 1874-75, and 36 in 1875-76; in Indápur 15 in 1871-72, 17 in 1872-73, 30 in 1873-74, 46 in 1874-75, and 37 in 1875-76. Collector of Poona, 4376 of 7th June 1884. The Indápur figures here given differ from those given in the statement on page 512.

² The details (Bom. Gov. Sel. CLI, 174) are:

percentage increase on the original thirty years' acttlements introduced between 1836 and 1844:1

Chapter VII Land.

THE BRITISH.

		Settlements 1836 - 1844.	REDU SETTLE	CED REVI MENTS, 18	75-7 6 .	
Sub-Division.	VIII- LAGES.	Amount.		Increase over 1836-44.	Average Dry-crop Acre Rate	
Indápur Bhunthadi Haveli Pábal Supa	78 48 83 59	Rs. 81,184 74,222 80,965 1,02,228 57,461	Rs. 1,11,866 1,03,983 1,13,773 1,89,479 72,303	Per Cent. 38 40 41 36 26	As. p 6 8 8 9 11 10 11 2	

In 1875-76 the rainfall was 21 inches at Indápur, 38 at Poona, 34 at Junnar, and 116 at Khadkála, a full supply, but, as the falls were ill-timed, the season was unfavourable. An excessive fall, when the early crops were still young, did so much damage that many tracts had to be resown. In a few villages of Haveli and Sirur the crops were slightly injured by locusts. The rice in Mával suffered from early floods and later from want of rain. The outturn of the early crops was not more than ten-sixteenths to twelve-sixteenths; in many places it was much less. In the eastern or late crop parts the rainfall was short, and the crops were far below the average. In Indápur, Bhimthadi, and south Sirur jvári withered for want of rain, and in many places did not grow more than eighteen inches The late harvest was less than a half crop and the outturn of cotton was not more than a fourth. The district suffered from a severe outbreak of cholera which began in the hot weather and continued until October (1875). More than 4000 seizures were About 1000 head of cattle died from disease.2 Tillage fell from 1,884,679 to 1,875,669 acres and collections from £118,333 to £112,673 (Rs. 11,83,330 - Rs. 11,26,730), £3480 (Rs. 34,800) were remitted, and £703 (Rs. 7030) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet rose from about 60 to 56 pounds .(30 - 28 shers).

In 1876-77 the rainfall was 5 inches at Indápur, 15 at Poona, 17 at Junnar, and 77 at Khadkála. In the east 1876-77 was a year of famine. The rainfall was very scanty and the crops failed. The Mával rice suffered considerably, In the west of Junnar Khed and Haveli the early crops were fair perhaps six to seven-sixteenths. In the east of these sub-divisions and in Indapur and Bhimthadi, except in watered land no early crops were grown. Late crops were sown in parts of Mával, Haveli, Sirur, and Purandhar, but none were sown in Indápur or in Bhimthadi. All over the district the late harvest was an almost complete failure. Great distress prevailed and relief works had to be provided.8 Public health on the whole 1875

1876-77.

¹ Bombay Gov. Sel. CLI. The highest dry-crop acre rates finally sanctioned were Indapur, Rs. 1½, Rs. 1½; Bhimthadi, Rs. 1½, Rs. 1½, Rs. 1½, Re. 1; Haveli Rs. 3¼, Rs. 2½, Rs. 2½, Rs. 2½, Rs. 2½, Rs. 2½, Rs. 1½, Rs

A summary of the 1876-77 famine details is given under A mi without the

Land.
THE BRITISH.

was good. Cholera appeared in some parts and caused 651 deaths. Cattle disease prevailed slightly. In the east many cattle died of starvation and thousands were driven to the west for grazing. Tillage fell from 1,875,669 to 1,864,475 acres and collections from £112,673 to £70,321 (Rs. 11,26,730 - Rs. 7,03,210), £174 (Rs. 1740) were remitted, and £45,683 (Rs. 4,56,830) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet rose from about 56 to 38 pounds (28-19 shers).

1877-78.

In 1877-78 the rainfall was 28 inches at Indápur, 20 at Poona, 17 at Junnar, and 51 at Khadkála. In the east and south-east a long break damaged the early crops but in the west the early harvest was above the average. The late crops were much injured by blight and in some places towards the east they entirely failed. Fever was very prevalent, and there were 3196 deaths from cholera. Tillage rose from 1,864,475 to 1,868,193 acres and collections from £70,321 to £110,148 (Rs. 7,03,210 - Rs. 11,01,480), £135 (Rs. 1350) were remitted, and £6866 (Rs. 68,660) left outstanding. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet rose from about 38 to 18 pounds (19-9 shers).

1878-79.

In 1878-79 the rainfall was 29 inches at Indápur, 33 at Poona, 39 at Junnar, and 73 at Khadkála. In the west the early crops were good; in the east they were almost destroyed by untimely rain and to some extent by locusts. In the west the late harvest was an average one; in the east it was almost destroyed by rats. Numbers of the poorer husbandmen took work on the Nira Canal. Public health was generally good. Tillage fell from 1,868,193 to 1,861,631 acres and collections from £110,148 to £104,030 (Rs. 11,01,480-Rs. 10,40,300), £25 (Rs. 250) were remitted, and £10,864 (Rs. 1,08,640) left outstanding. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet fell from about 18 to 20 pounds (9-10 shers).

Revision Survey. Purandhar, 1879. In 1878-79 revised assessments were introduced into thirty-five Government and one reversionary or dumála village, and survey rates were for the first time introduced into four reversionary or dumála villages in Purandhar. Most of these villages had belonged to the Sásvad mámlatdár's division of Purandhar which was settled in 1847. Of the thirty-five Government villages the revised settlement was proposed for a group of seventeen villages in April 1878 and for a group of eighteen Government villages in February 1879. The Purandhar sub-division was bounded on the

¹ Rev. Comr. S. D. 945 of 27th Feb. 1877.

Bom. Pres. Genl. Adm. Rep. for 1877-78, 76-78.
 Bom. Pres. Genl. Adm. Rep. for 1878-79, 78-79.

⁴ Purandhar formerly included two divisions, the subha or mamlatdar's charge with the head-quarters at Sasvad and the peta or mahalkari's charge with the head-quarters at Supa. The Supa group which was settled in 1844 included fifty-nine villages, forty-five Government and fourteen alienated. The Sasvad group which was settled in 1847 included seventy villages, thirty-two Government and thirty-eight alienated. In 1861-62 the office of mahalkari was abolished and the villages of his division were included within the limits of the mamlatdar's division. In the following year 1862-63 eight villages were transferred from the adjoining sub-division of Haveli and finally in 1866-67 forty-five valages, thirty-seven Government and eight alienated were made over to the Bhimthadi sub-division, These changes left for Purandhar in April 1878 ninety-two villages, sixty-seven Government and twenty-five alienated.

north and north-east by Haveli and Bhimthadi which we've separated from Purandhar by the Bhuleshvar range which rose about 1000 feet from the plain. Purandhar was bounded on the east by Bhimthadi, on the south by the river Nira which separated Poona from Satara, and on the west by the Pant Sachiv's territory and a The rainfall in the Purandhar sub-division portion of Haveli. varied from 14.62 inches in 1872-73 to 31.26 inches in 1874-75 and The husbandry in Purandhar did not averaged 20.24 inches.1 differ from that in the neighbouring sub-divisions except that the land was oftener ploughed, the light soils yearly and the heavier black soils once in two years. The landholders showed more energy in the cultivation of their fields. The sub-divisions of land property, as a rule, were minute and its market value was high. Manure was applied to the drycrop soils only when the farmer found he had it to spare. Watered lands when made ready for sugarcane generally got as much as fifty cartloads the acre, while twenty to thirty cart loads the acre sufficed for ordinary garden crops. The manure consisted of the usual farm-yard refuse or sheep droppings. In most of the first group of nineteen villages, seventeen Government and two alienated, it was customary to raise a second crop of grain after bájri or other kharif crops had been cleared. According to Mr. Whitcombe the classing assistant who reported on these nineteen villages, the sugar manufactured in this sub-division was much prized for its firmness which enabled it to stand travelling. It fetched about 4s. (Rs. 2) the palla of 120 shers more than the jágri manufactured elsewhere. The Purandhar sugarcane had the peculiarity of being kept eighteen months on the The people said that by keeping it so much longer the sugar-making power of the juice was greatly increased. The cane was planted in May or June and cut in November or December of The early crops were 51.5 per cent and the the following year. late crops, including 14 per cent of fallow land, were 485 per cent. The chief crop was bájri 48 per cent and the next was jvári 27.2 per cent.2

During the term of the survey lease road communications had been greatly improved. In 1847 the Poona-Sátára road by the Bápdev pass was the only made road. This pass was very steep and

The details are: Purandher Rainfall, 1871-1877.

YEAR.	 Puran- dhar.	Pátas.	Bárá- mati	Haveli.	
1871-73 1872-73 1878-74 1874-75 1875-76 1876-77	 Inches. 17-77 14-62 17-77 81 26 23-50 17-54	Inches. 12 60 19 10 14 18 25 84 12 28 6 0	Inches 12 30 30 77 10 17 26 31 9 61 7 54	Inche 19 88 20·20 26 80 37·75 87·48 14 90	
Average	 20:24	15.0	14-45	26 16	

² The 1875-76 details for seventeen Government and one alienated village were: Early or kharif, bajri 48 per cent, rice one per cent, matki 04, kulga 03, udid 01, and miscellaneous 1.7, total 51.5. Late or rabi, jvári 27.2, wheat 2, sugarcane 1.1, gram 0.7, miscellaneous 3.5, waste or fallow 14, total 48.5.

Land.
REVISION

SURVEY.

Purandhar.

1879.

Chapter VIII.

REVISION SURVEY. Purandhar, 1879.

little used by carts. Pack bullocks brought most of the surplus produce to the Poona market. In 1878 the Bapdev pass road was used by local carts as a means of communication from the villages near it to the chief market town of Sasvad. Here the road joined the comparatively new road to Poona over the Diva pass. From Sásvad numerous roads branched, one to Jejuri where it was joined by the main road from the Diva pass. Half-way from the Bapdev pass on the road to Sasvad branched off another road to the fort of Purandhar, but since the completion of the Diva pass road this was not much used. Another road fairly metalled but not bridged, left Sasvad to the south-west, and, after passing through the Safgir pass, joined the main road from Poona to Satara by the Katraj pass. The Katraj pass road, after passing through the lands of some of the south-western villages of Purandhar, crossed the Nira river not far from the market town of Kikvi. Another unbridged made road left Sásvad on the south and crossed the Pimpla pass close to the village of Parincha and thus on to the river Nira not far from the village of Tondla. Another road practicable for carts left the main road from the Diva pass, close to the village of Belsar, and crossed the Bor pass to the Urali railway station. Besides these metalled roads, during the 1876-77 famine three other fair weather roads were laid out as relief works. One of them joins Sásvad with Supa, and the other two start from Jejuri and pass east. Where thirty years before there was only one made road, in 1878 there were numerous lines of communication affording every facility for the conveyance of surplus produce to the different large markets the chief of which was Poona. The chief manufactures were cotton cloth or lugdis, blankets or kámblis, and bangles. One hyndred looms were devoted to the weaving of lugdis and twenty-one to the making of kámblis. The best of both were taken to the Poona market where they found a ready sale. The prices for lugdis ranged from 5s. to £1 (Rs. 21-10), and the highest price that the best class of kámblis fetched was 6s. (Rs. 3). At the village of Mandar coarse glass bangles were made costing about 6d. (4 as.) the hundred. The local markets were at Sasvad, Vala, Parincha, and Kikvi. Except Sasvad they were of no great importance. Almost the whole of the surplus field produce went to Poona.

During the thirty years ending 1877 the Sasvad produce prices had risen from an average of 85 pounds of jvári the rupee during the ten years ending 1857 to 42 pounds during the ten years ending 1867 or 102 per cent. The average for the next ten years (1867-1877) 44 pounds showed a fall of 5 per cent compared with the ten years ending 1867 and a rise of 93 per cent compared with the ten years ending 1857. The corresponding figures for bájri were 70 pounds in the ten years ending 1857, 36 in the ten years ending 1867, and 36 in the ten years ending 1877; for wheat 58 pounds, 29 pounds, and 27 pounds; for gram 61 pounds, 28 pounds, and 29 pounds; and for rice 36 pounds, 20 pounds, and 20 pounds. Thus, as regards the three chief grains jvári bájri and wheat, the landholder was nearly 100 per cent better off in the last ten than in the first ten years of the 1847 settlement. Compared with those of the second ten years (1857-1867) the average prices during the last ten years (1867-1877) showed a

Chapter VIII

Land.

REVISION

SURVEY.

Purandhar,

1879.

slight fall. But the high average of the ten years ending 1867 was chiefly owing to the extreme dearness of grain between 1861 and 1866. In 1862 the price was higher even than in the 1877 famine. Compared with the ten years before the 1847 settlement the average waste acres in fifteen Government villages during the ten years ending 1857 showed a fall from 2046 to 1148, in the next ten years to 373, and in the last ten years ending 1877 to 214 acres. Average remissions fell from £230 (Rs. 2300) in the ten years before the settlement to £8 (Rs. 80) in the first ten years and to 4s. (Rs. 2) in the second ten years. In the last ten years there were no remissions. The occupied acres of Government and alienated land rose from 19,834 in the ten years ending 1847 to 40,209 in the ten years ending 1857, to 41,225 acres in the ten years ending 1867, and to 41,420 acres in the ten years ending 1877. The average collections on these lands did not show much rise, the amounts being £1792 (Rs. 17,920) during the ten years (1837-1847) before the settlement, £1693 (Rs. 16,930) during the first ten years, £1813 (Rs. 18,130) during the second ten years (1857-1867), and £1839 (Rs. 18,390) in the last ten years ending 1877. The following tabular statement gives the results:

Purandhar Tillage and Revenue, 1837-1877.

YRAR.	Govern- ment Villages.	Tillage.	Waste.	Remis- sions.	Out- standings.	Collec-	
1837-1847 1847-1857. 1857-1867 1867-1877	15 15 15 15 16	Acres, 10,884 40,200 41,225 41,420	Acres. 2046 1148 373 214	Rs. 2300 81 2	Ra. 852 1 521	Rs. 17,924 16,932 18,130 18,390	

According to Colonel Laughton there was a gradual and steady rhe in collections until 1874 when the receipts reached within £1 2s. (Rs. 11) of the total survey rental. During the thirty years' lease in the fifteen Government villages settled in 1847-48, population increased from 15,482 in 1847-48 to 18,895 in 1876-77 of 22 per cent. and the density to the square mile from 184 to 224; flat roofed and siled houses increased from 2239 to 2680 or 19.7 per cent and thatched houses from 259 to 298 or 151 per cent; ploughs from 555 to 757 or 364 per cent; and carts from 60 to 315 or 425 per cent. The value of land was very high. Though the information cannot be considered more than a rough indication of the true value it is worthy of note that in fifteen mortgages sums ranging from eight to 420 times and in seven sales sums ranging from seven to 389 times the yearly land assessment were realized.2 Subletting was common but nowhere for cash payments. was chiefly on the ardhali that is half-share plan, by which the holder who paid the Government assessment exacted half of the produce from the tenant, and supplied half of the seed, and, in

as paid may include the accumulated interest of years of outstaiding accounts.

¹ Col. Laughton has shown that the apparently doubling of the area held for tillage during the first ten years is partly due to the conversion of bights into acres at the rate of 3ths of an acre equal to one bigha,

2 Col. Laughton shows that these returns may mislead because the sums entered

Jhapter VIII.
Land.

REVISION
SURVEY.
Purandhar,
1879.

the case of garden land, half of the cost of ropes and of manure. Under the revision survey the seventeen Government villages were arranged in four classes with highest dry-crop acre rates of 3s. 6d., 3s, and 2s. 9d. (Rs. $1\frac{3}{4}$, $1\frac{5}{8}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$, and $1\frac{3}{8}$). The effect of the proposed settlement was an increase of 45.7 per cent and a rise in the average acre rate from 1s. $\frac{1}{4}d$. to 1s. $5\frac{7}{8}d$. ($8\frac{1}{6}-11\frac{1}{12}$ as.). The details are:

Purandhar Proposed Settlement, 1878.

1		Govern-	, (GOVERNMENT OCCUPIED LAND.							
	CLASS.	MENT VIL-	Former	Survey.	Rev	rvey.	HIGHEST DRY CROP ACRE				
L		LAGES.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	In- crease.	RATE.			
	L II III IV	1 2 10 4	Acres 3613 1701 23,252 8023	Rs. 8257 158 6 10,633 3257	Acres. 8560 1686 23,510 8001	Rs. 5715 2168 15,188 4216	Per Cent 75 5 36.7 42 8 29 4	Rs. s. 1 12 1 10 1 8 1 6			
	Total.	17	36,589	18,733	36,757	27,287	45 7				

The Government unoccupied waste was 133 acres assessed at £2 18s. (Rs. 29) or an average acre rate of $5\frac{1}{4}d$. $(3\frac{1}{2} as.)$.¹ Government ordered that the proposed rates might be adopted with such modifications as the Survey Commissioner might think necessary, reporting them for the sanction of Government.³. The details of the settlement finally sanctioned are:³

Purandhar Revision Settlement, 1879.

					Day	CROP L	AND,						
	- 1	Govern-	Former.	ner. Revision Survey.									
CLASS	1	MENT VIL-		1	Proposed.		8	anctioned					
. 114		Lages.	Rențal.	Rental	Rental Increase. Acre Rates.		Rental. Increase.		Highrest Acre Rates.				
			Rs.	Rs.	Per Cent	Rs. a.	Rs,	Per Cent	Rs. a.				
I. II.		1 2	8257 1586	4840 1963	48 6 23 8	1 12 1 10	5114 2067		2 0 1 14				
III.	•••	1 2 9 1	11,244	18,718	22.0	1 8	14,820	27.4	1 10				
IV.	• • •	1	1273	1382	8.6	1 8	3 1446		18				
₹.	***	2,	1373	1785	80.0	`16	1721	25.8	1 6				
Total	•4•	17	18,783	23,688	26 5		24,668	81.7					

The proposed dry-crop rental was increased by £98 (Rs. 980) or 4·14 per cent. The proposed water cess was increased from 15s. to 16s. (Rs. 7½-8) and the total rental from £590 to £625 (Rs. 5900-6250), that is a rise of £35 (Rs. 350) or 5·9 per cent. Taking dry-crop and water rates together the proposed rental was increased by 4½ per cent. Compared with the former survey the sanctioned revision showed an increase of 52·8 per cent.

a Col. Laughton, Survey Supt. 324 of 9th April 1878.
Sov. Res. 2969 of 11th June 1878; and Col. Anderson, Surv. Comr. 406 of 4th

^{*} Col. Laughten, Strv. Supt. 119 of 1st Feb. 1879; Col. Anderson, Surv. Comr. 370 of 2nd April 1879; and Gov. Res. 2159 of 23rd April 1879.

The lands of the second group of eighteen Government villages were close to or mixed with the lands of the first group. In climate, husbandry, productions, communications, markets, and manufactures there was no difference. The early crops were 446 per cent of which bájri was 34.3 per cent; and the late crops, including 8.2 per cent of waste or fallow, were 55.4 per cent of which 43 per cent were jrart. There were ten looms, one for cotton cloth and nine for blankets. During the thirty-one years of the settlement the area of arable waste fell from 5238 in the ten years ending 1847, to 1293 in the ten years ending 1657, to 404 in the ten years ending 1867, to 176 in the ten years ending 1877, and to 4 in 1877-78. During the ten years before the settlement (1837-1847) remissions amounted to £464 (Rs. 4640) which were reduced to £7 (Rs. 70) in the next ten Tillage rose from 20,029 acres in the ten years ending 1847 to 41,550 in the ten years ending 1877, and collections from £1816 (Rs. 18,160) in the first ten years of the settlement (1847-1857) to £1961 (Rs. 19,610) in the ten years ending 1877. The details are:

Purandhar Tillage and Revenue, 1837-1878.

YEAR.	Govern- ment Villages.	Tillage Area. (a)	Waste.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.	Collec- tions,
1837 - 1847 1847 - 1857. 1857 - 1867 1867 - 1877 1877-78	18 18 18 18 18	Acres. 20,029 89,926 41,238 41,550 41,612	Acres, 5238 1293 404 176 4	Rs. 4636 67 1	Rs. 1380 278 5 999 22	Rs. 20,525 18,158 19,273 19,609 19,595

(a) Much faith cannot be placed in the return of area before the introduction of the revenue survey. The record of area was always kept in bighus, which has been turned into acres at ithis of an acre to the bigha. This is not correct, for the bigha varied according to the nature of the soil. Probably in the best black Sill the assumed proportion was fair enough. In the poor or barad soils the bigha represented duce or more access. Colonel Laughton, Feb. 1879.

During the first settlement lease population increased from 9451 in 1847-48 to 11,617 in 1877-78 or 22.9 per cent; flat roofed and tiled houses from 1219 to 1441 or 18.2 per cent; carts from 105 to 232 or 121 per cent; and watering wells from 201 to 275 or 36.8 per cent. Thatched houses decreased from 326 to 250 or 23.3 per cent; farm cattle from 4828 to 3878 or 19.7 per cent; and ploughs from 615 to 505 or 17.9 per cent. Under the revision survey these eighteen Government villages were arranged into six classes with highest dry-crop acre rates varying from 5s. 6d. to 2s. 9d. (Rs. 23-13). The effect of the proposed settlement was an increase of 34.3 per cent exclusive of water cess or 39 per cent inclusive of water-cess. The average acre rate rose from 1s. 1d. (81 as.) to 1s. 43d. (111 as.). The considerations which justified the increase were the improvement in communications, in the price of food grains, and in the value of land. There were only fifty-two acres of rice in which a highest acre rate of 16s. (Rs. 8) was proposed, and the actual highest acre rate was 6s. (Rs. 3) and the lowest 101d. (7 as.). The average acre rate amounted to 4s. $5\frac{3}{8}d$. (Rs. 2 as. $3\frac{7}{12}$); all new rice land was assessed at simple dry-crop rates. Garden land was found in every village and amounted to a total of 1435 acres. the channel-watered portion of this land a highest acre rate of 16s. (Rs. 8), combining soil and water, was proposed. The details of the proposed settlement are:

Chapter VIII.

Land.

Revision Survey. Purandhar 1879.

Chapter VIII.

Land.
REVISION
SURVEY.
Purandhar,
1879.

Purandhar Revision Settlement, 1879.

			Gove	rnment Oc	CUPIED LA	ND.			
-	GOVERN-	Former	Survey.	Revision Survey.					
CLASS	VIL- LAGES.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Increase	Highest Dry Crop Acre Rates.		
I	. 2	Acres 4475 1844 5721 242 1887 22,936	Rs. 2812 1125 8003 124 869 10,553	Acres 4406 1990 5908 245 1481 22,930	Rs, 4481 1693 4/16 127 1128 13,486	Per Cent 59 4 50 5 57 0 2 4 29 8 27 8	Rs a 2 12 2 0 1 14 1 12 1 8 1 6		

Ten acres of Government arable waste were assessed at 4s. (Rs 2) or an average acre rate of $4\frac{3}{4}d$. $(3\frac{1}{6}as.)$. The proposed settlement was sanctioned in April 1879 with an intimation that the new rates should not be levied till the next year.²

1879-80.

In 1879-80 the rainfall was 21 inches at Indápur, 34 at Poona, 36 at Junnar, and 57 at Khadkála, but the falls were untimely. The rice and other early crops were damaged by drought and by rats, and the outturn was middling. From the ravages of rats and from want of moisture, the late crop was only partial and the outturn poor. Government sanctioned a payment of 2s. (Re. 1) for every 100 rats killed and over 350,000 were destroyed. Public health was generally good, except a violent outbreak of cholera in Poona city which caused over 500 deaths. Tillage fell from 1,861,631 to 1,775,553 acres, collections rose from £104,030 \$\frac{1}{2}\$\$£110,776 (Rs. 10,40,300 - Rs. 11,07,760), £397 (Rs. 2070) were remitted, and £2445 (Rs. 24,450) left outstanding. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet rose from about 20 to 18 pounds (10-9 shers).

SURVEY RESULTS, 1836-1880. As many territorial changes took place after the first revenue survey was begun in 1836, to show the results of the survey settlements in the villages of the present (1884) Poona district, special returns were prepared by the survey department in 1880-81. These returns show that the survey settlement has been introduced into 9924 Government and 1603 alienated villages of the present Poona district which contains 9964 Government and 2043 alienated villages. Between 1867 when the survey leases of the different groups began to fall in, up to 1880 when the special returns were prepared, revised settlements had been introduced into 3764 Government and seven alienated villages.

¹ Colonel Laughton, Surv. Supt. 119 of 1st Feb. 1879.

⁸ Res. 2159 of 23rd April 1879. ⁸ Bom. Pres. Genl. Adm. Rep. for 1879-80, 79-81.

⁴ Mr. R. B. Pitt, Asst. Supt. of Survey, 21st July 1881.

b Of the 1153 villages into which survey rates were introduced, complete details were not available for thirty-eight Government and forty-seven alienated villages. The rate of the progress of the survey was asshown below. In 1836-37, 29 Government villages were settled; in 1837-38, 47; in 1838-39, 26; in 1839-40, 36; in 1840-41, 7; in 1841-42, 70; in 1842-43, 39; in 1843-44, 51; in 1844-45, 1; in 1845-62; in 1846-47, 31; in 1847-48, 54; in 1848-49, 23; in 1849-50, 5; in 1850-51, 112; in 1851-52, 87; in 1852-53,

The returns for 9541 Government villages, for which complete details were available, show that, compared with the average of the ten years before the survey, the average for the whole period during which the survey settlement was in force shows a fall in waste from 526,857 to 141,623 acres or 73 per cent and in remissions from £25,717 to £2012 (Rs. 2,57,170 - Rs. 20,120) or 92 per cent, and an increase in occupied land from 1,071,585 to 1,794,197 acres or 67:43 per cent, and in collections from £75,592 to £91,586 (Rs. 7,55,920-Rs. 9,15,860) or 21 per cent. Compared with the ten years before the survey, the figures for 1879-80 show a fall in-waste from 526,857 to 159,583 acres or 69.7 per cent, and in remissions from £25,717 to £393 (Rs 2,57,170-Rs 3930) or 98.17 per cent, and an increase in occupied land from 1,071,585 to 1,855,765 acres or 73.18 per cent: and in collections from £75,592 to £102,415 (Rs. 7,55,920-Rs. 10,24,150) or 35.48 per cent. The returns for 113\frac{3}{2} surveyed alienated villages, for which complete details were available, show that, compared with the ten years before the survey, the average for the whole survey period shows a fall in waste from 21,590 to 7382 acres or 65.8 per cent and in remissions from £5630 to £245 (Rs. 56,300 - Rs. 2450) or 95.6 per cent, and an increase in occupied land from 200,727 to 276,114 acres or 37.5 per cent, and incollections from £14,498 to £17,614 (Rs. 1,44,980 - Rs. 1,76,140) or 21.49 per cent. Compared with the ten years before the survey the figures for 1579-80 show a fall in waste from 21,590 to 6029 acres or 72 per cent and in remissions from £5630 to £11 (Rs. 56,300 - Rs. 110) or 99 80 per cent, and an increase in occupied land from 200,727 to 277,607 acres or 38:30 per cent, and in collections from £14,498 to £17,614 (Rs. 1,44,980-Rs. 1,76,140) or 21:49 per cent. The following statement shows for the Government and the alienated or inam gillages of each sub-division the chief changes in tillage area, remissions, collections, and outstandings, since the introduction of the revenue survey

Chapter VIII.

Survey Results, 1836-1880.

Government and alienated occupied land in Government villages. The fall in waste is 385,234 acres while the increase in occupied area is 722,612 acres. The discrepancy is due to imperfect measurements in former years.

^{133;} in 1853-54, 199; in 1854-55, 4; in 1856-57, 32; in 1857-58, 1; in 1858-59, 7; in 1863-64, 5; in 1864-65, 10; in 1868-69, 3; in 1869-70, \(\frac{1}{3}; \) in 1873-74, 3; in 1874-75, 2; total Government villages 992\(\frac{1}{4}. \) In 1837-38 one alterated village was settled; in 1841-42, 3; in 1842-43, 1; in 1846-47, \(\frac{1}{4}; \) in 1847-48, 1; in 1848-49, 1; in 1852-53, 2; in 1853-54, 2; in 1854-55, 9; in 1856-57, 6; in 1857-58, 2; in 1858-59, 2; in 1860-61, 1; in 1861-62, 2; in 1863-64, 11; in 1864-65, 48; in 1865-66, 1; in 1863-69, 34; in 1869-70, 10\(\frac{1}{4}; \) in 1870-71, 2; in 1871-72, 3; in 1875-76, 12; in 1878-79, 2; in 1879-80, 4; total alterated villages, 160\(\frac{3}{4}; \) total Government and alterated villages 1153. The revised survey settlement was introduced in 1867-68 in 76 Government villages; in 1871-72 in 53; in 1873-74 in 179\(\frac{1}{4}; \) in 1874-75 in 1\(\frac{1}{4}; \) in 1878-79 in 9\(\frac{1}{4}; \) in 1879-80 in 1873-74, half in 1878-79, and two in 1879-80.

² In this statement before Survey means the average of the ten years before the revenue survey settlement, and Survey means the average of the whole period during which the original and revised revenue survey rates were in force.

DISTRICTS.

Chapter VIII.

Land.

SURVEY RESULTS,
1836-1880.

Poona Survey Results, 1836-1880.

SUB-DIVISION.			Assa	SSED.	Таміз -	Co	LLECTIO	NS.	Our-
SUB-DIVIS	ION.	YRAR.	Occupied.	Waste.	BIONS.	Assessed.	Un- arable.	Total	BTAND- Ings.
Governme Villages	mŧ i.		Agres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Ra
Mával -	(Before Survey	48,272	41,271	1644	46,038	2958	48,996	974
TAT MA SOFT	" 1	Survey 1879-80	105,809	17,935	778	59,037	2342	61,879	252
	ì	Before Survey.	115,078 148,561	12,533 44,829	23,199	62,648 1,85,354	790 2050	68,483 1,87,404	13,473
Junnar -	- }	Survey .	208,358	17,809	951	1,36,110	2997	1,49,107	641
	- 9	1879-80	218,221	14,282	7	1,43,030	480	1,43 510	
Sirur		Before Survey. Survey	149,927 224,014	2 74,768 14,925	35,364 2316	80,148 1,08,853	1468 1646	81,616	5047
	·" (;	1879-80	237,252	6405	10	1,27,084	178	1,10 499 1,27,262	5103
	(Before Survey.	178,298	54 698	22,664	1,30,695	5109	1,35,804	2755
Khed		Survey -	259,676	27,616	1997	1,35,540	8203	1,48,743	904
	i	Before Survey.	278,651 72,504	8257 18,660	32,037	1,48,649	1085 2923	1,49 734 67,650	4246
Puroudhar	}	Survey	144,513	1500	165	63,548	2923 8461	67,009	
	- !	1879-80	142,716	4152	660	78,875	1042	79,917	1424
Indápur	- 3	Before Survey Survey	139,481	78,817 9,02	60,456	60,662 79,483		62,937	5615
THOMPOT	·" {	1879-80	226,084 191,699	63,022	8256 1119	79,341	1435 5112	84,433	7013 12,676
	(Before Survey	220,850	161,252	57,086	1,08,545	3098	1,06,698	
Bhimthadi	{	Survey	413,228	89,005	57,086 7073	1,72,124	3661	1,75,785	16,943
	- }	1879-80 Before Survey.	426,582	47,855	704	2,08,879		2,19,421	1915
Haveli		Survey	123,692 212,520	57,562 13,631	24,716 8590	1,08,673 1,29,655	6208 7869	1,14,879 1,87,524	72 70
	<i>"''</i> (1879-80	245,571	8577	1435	1,55,448	971	1,56,419	."
		D. 0 C				7 20 040			
Total	- 5	Before Survey	1,071,585 1,794,197	526,857 141,623	2,57,166 20,121	7,29,842 8,84,350		7,55,924 9,15,864	43,1 2 31, 419
20001	(1879-80	1,855,765	159,583	3935	10,03,449	20, 700	10,24,149	
T. N			, ,						-
Inom Ville	ngos,	Before Survey	449	321	71	665	8	668	
Mával	}	Survey .	661	97	' 2	900	š	908	4
	(1879-80	758		•••	977	21	998	
Junnar	<u> </u>	Before Survey.	9225	1466	2609	4829	102	4931	247
o an mar	5	Survey	16,541 16,725	1314 930	128 23	6126 6146	28	6154 6146	145
_	Č	Before Survey.	38,725	10,561	6789	20,058	828	20.380	984
Sirur	}	Survey	52,224	1635	216	27,641		27,986	2426
	- 7	1879-80 Before Survey.	52,006 18,141	1849 775	13,299	27,922 25,772	9275	27,997 90,147	2019 2574
Khed	}	Survey	41,206	778	13,299	25,112	3375 32 5	82,694	21H4
		1879-80	41,515	1039	56	30,378	2787	33,165	2:18
Dumandhan	S	Before Survey.	88,248	1750	5404	26,054	1508	27,560	
Purandhar	··· [Survey 1879-80	52,778 58,074	801 567	41 9	29,154 29,917	1345 878	80,499 80,795	8758 4210
	č	Before Survey.	4658		177	2576	48	1 3010	4
Indápur	}]	Survey	6349	11	331	2854	48	2002	541
	- 5	1879-80	6316	44 992	7442	\$180 12,799	10 893	3190 13,692	
Bhimthadi		Before Survey. Survey	20,835 35,493	579	7442 580	17,530	950	18,480	4206
	(1879-80	86,128	1		17,959	894	18,855	2716
TT 77	- (Before Survey	75,456	5725	20,512	40,357	5621	45.979	65 1
Haveli	1	Survey	70,862	2172 1599	339 24	50,781 51,362	5752 8636	56,533 54,998	
	1	1879-80 .	71,090	1988		01,002	8080		
_ -	c	Before Survey.	200,727	21,590	56,303	1,93,110		1,44 981	10,009
Total		Survey	276,114 277,607	7382 6029	2453 112	1,64,448 1,67,841	11,688 830 3	1,76 136 1,76,144	

In 1880-81 the rainfall was 18 inches at Indápur, 20 at Poona, 18 at Junnar, and 36 at Khadkála. On the whole the rainfall was considerably below the average; but except in the western subdivisions and in north and west Purandhar, the early crops were fair. A seasonable fall in September caused a good late harvest everywhere except in Sirur. The scanty rainfall occasioned a drought during the hot weather in parts of the district. Public health was generally good, but cholera prevailed to a slight extent in Haveli, Purandhar, and Mával, causing 461 deaths. Tillage rose from

¹ Bom. Pres. Genl. Adm. Rep. for 1880-81, 85-87.

1,775,553 to 1,777,153 acres and collections from £ $\mathbf{1}$ 10,776 to £112,790 (Rs. 11,07,760 - Rs. 11,27,900), £133 (Rs. 1330) were remitted, and £1231 (Rs. 12,310) left outstanding. At Indápur the rupee price of Indian millet fell from about 18 to 28 pounds (9-14 shers).

Chapter VIII.

Land.
THE BRITISH.

1881-82.

In 1881-82 the rainfall was 25 inches at Indápur, 25 at Poona, 22 at Junnar, 58 at Khadkála, and 26.52 over the whole district. June the rainfall was short in the west and good in the east where the sowing of the early or kharif crops was begun. In July the fall was abundant especially in the centre and east, and sowing was general. In a few Junnar and Khed villages the early or kharif crops were slightly injured by insects which the people called nosecutters or náktodás. Over the whole district the outturn was about a three-quarters crop (12 as.). The late or rabi crops were seveneighths (14 as) of a full crop in Indápur, and three-fourths (12 as.) in Bhimthadi, Purandhar, and Sirur. Grass and water were plentiful in Indápur, but want of water was felt in Bhimthadi, Haveli, Junnar, and part of Purandhar. The Indápur cotton was about a three-Tillage rose from 1,777,153 to 1,786,064 quarters (12 as.) crop. acres and collections from £112,790 to £115,069 (Rs. 11,27,900-Rs. 11,50,690), £339 (Rs. 2390) were remitted, and £282 (Rs. 2820) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet fell from about 28 to 50 pounds (14-25 shers).

1882-83.

In 1882-83 the rainfall was 27.82 inches at Indápur, 36.23 at Poona, 33.99 at Junnar, 80.27 at Khadkála, and 35.93 over the whole district. The early rains were good and general. In Haveli, including the Mulshi petty division, excessive rain at the burst of the monsoon destroyed some dams and washed away rice-seed. In the rost of the west the early harvest was good; in the east the Carly harvest was fair, about a three-eighths (6 as.) crop. The late harvest was nearly ruined but was saved by a heavy fall late in November, and yielded from a five-eighths to a seven-eighths (10-14 as.) crop. Except in Indápur and Bhimthadi, from the end of September, locusts destroyed from a sixth to a quarter of the crop. The damage was most serious in the western Mávals where the náchni, vari, and other hill grains suffered severely. Tillage fell from 1,786,064 to 1,775,583 acres and collections from £115,069 to £103,672 (Rs. 11,50,690 - Rs. 10,36,720), £10,865 (Rs. 1,08,650) were remitted, and £966 (Rs. 9660) left outstanding. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet fell from about 50 to 62 pounds $(25-31 \ shers).$

1883-84,

In 1883-84 the rainfall was 37.48 inches at Indápur, 47.42 at Poona, 37.58 at Junnar, 73.14 at Khadkála, and 40.91 over the whole district. The fall was abundant except in Khed, Khadkála, and the petty divisions of Mulshi and Ambegaon. In the plain or desh villages of Junnar a heavy and timely rainfall favoured the early or kharif crops. They were slightly injured by excessive damp in September and October, and the bájri was tinged red. The outturn was about a three-fourths (12 as.) crop. In Bhimthadi and Indápur the late harvest suffered from excessive rain in October and did not yield more than a half (8 as.) crop. Except in Indápur

DISTRICTS.

Chapter VIII. Land.

locusts were everywhere in the district but did little harm. At Indapur the rupee price of Indian millet fell from about 62 to 64 pounds (31-32 shers).

-EVENUE STATISTICS, 1837 - 1884.

The following statement² shows the available yearly statistics of rainfall, prices, tillage, and land revenue during the forty-seven years ending 1883-84:

Section Sect									ıd Revenu	e, 1837 - 1	884.		
Section Sect		SNT.	RAIN	FALL.	Mı			THE		•	LAND E	RVENUE	
	YEAR.	GOVERNMI VŲLAGE	ndkpur.	unnar.	}		L		THEAGH.	Remitted.	For Collection		Collected.
1837-88				<u> </u>	-	<u> ~</u>	-	-	Acres	Ra .	Rø	Pa	Re
1838-39	1937-99	900	1		oa	44	1	!	120200	,			
1839-40. 882	1838-39			F .			•	1				10 204	
1840-41			ł						895,438	1.06.399			
1841-42. 889	1840-41.		7	,			•	3					
1842-43 892½ 68 42 1,000,881 20,987 7,792,125 90.50 7,404,522 1844-45 933 60 36 45 46 1,003,127 92,395 7,22,720 33,321 6,80,366 1845-40 938 36 25 32 30 1,102,088 1,05,947 7,103,220 27,933 6,84,737 1847-48 939 48 32 56 57½ 1,223,804 24,622 8,25,637 7176 5,15,666 1847-48 939 48 32 56 57½ 1,223,804 24,622 8,25,637 7176 51,5,456 1849-90 25 66½ 69½ 1,106,719 31,483 7,73,188 10,759 7,03,483 1850-51 942 36 51 43 1,273,394 28,852 8,07,881 8,07,881 8,07,881 8,07,881 8,07,881 8,07,279 4,29 7,49 4,29 7,22,20<	1841-42.		,	ı			ł .					24,409	6,42, 361
1848-44 9004 60 36 45 7 51 1,055,282 42,917 7,48,920 44*3 7,44,429 1845-46 938 60 36 45 46 1,068,127 92,395 7,2270 3232 1,64,339 60 36 45 46 1,068,127 92,395 7,27270 3232 1,64,339 88 25 85 75 1,128,755 19,283 8,38,479 22,473 8,15,666 85 85 87 85 1,227,896 40,610 7,87,193 11,583 7,75,755 8,15,666 7,87,193 11,583 7,75,755 8,15,666 7,87,193 11,583 7,75,755 8,15,666 11,583 7,75,755 8,15,666 7,84,492 4168 7,75,755 8,15,666 11,583 7,75,755 8,15,666 11,583 7,75,755 8,15,466 10,787,193 11,583 7,75,755 8,15,466 10,787,193 11,583 7,75,755 8,04,622 8,07,881 10,759 7,04,489 8,762 8,07,813 8,162 8,07,881 8,07,891	1842-43.	8924	ł	,	68		1		1,000,881				7,69,580
1846-47 937 18	1843-44	9003					57		1,055,282	42,917	7,48,920		7,44,422
1845-46 988 36 25 82 30 1,102,088 1,065,947 7,16,820 27,9-3 6,85,878 1847-48 989 48 32 58 57\$\$ 1,122,98,304 24,622 8,25,627 7176 8,15,606 8,15,606 87 88 1,227,898 40,610 7,87,188 10,759 7,04,498 4168 7,75,755 35,606 860-61 987 38 34 44 82 1,227,898 40,610 7,87,188 10,759 7,04,498 4168 7,03,394 4168 7,03,394 4168 7,03,394 4168 7,03,394 4168 7,03,394 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168 7,04,498 4168	1844-45.			}									6,89,399
1848-49	1845-46												
1.484-9 940	1846-47									19,283			
1.													
1850-61			•••										
1851-52			• • • •	•••									
1852-53				••									
1858-54			•										
1854-55													
1855-86													
Section Sect			,	,									
1867-58													
1868-69													
1869-60, 983													
1860-61 983 23 35 27 19 36 29 1,684,802 238 0,66,230 327 9,09,326 3287 3287			1 1				411					13	9,56 631
1861-62				i									9,66,143
1862-63 989 12 10 16 16 21 17 1,696,097 422 9.07 414 429 9.07 114 1861-64 17,720,335 1467 10,23,171 15,357 10,064,414 11,736,582 2.28 10,21,771 15,357 10,064,414 11,784,390 1866-64 988 6 20 18 15 21 19 1,784,390 80,038 10,09,061 17,1766 1868-69 992 8 25 22 21 18 1,801,708 44,325 11,17.101 1011 11,16,090 1868-70 992 26 25 29 22 21 18 1,619,237 4766 12,01,745 12,576 11,15,764 1870-71 993 24 30 25 19 21 18 1,831,958 4756 11,13,931 1,25,749 1871-72 992 15 27 27 29 24 1901,207 1,842,868 17,779,170 10,91,870 45,521 1,25,497 1,26,490 1,26,744 1,26,248 1,26,497 1,26,581 1,26,497 1,26			28										9,99,326
1868-64. 990 8 17 13 12 16 12 1,720,335 147 167 10,23,771 34,578 98.57,29 1866-66. 988 10 15 16 14 20 164 1,7736,582 2.28 10,21,771 15,557 10,05,213 1866-66. 988 6 20 18 15 21 19 1,7743,179 123 10 67,770 12,557 10,05,213 1866-67. 9864 5 24 23 21 24 19 1,784,390 80,038 10,09,061 11,16,071 11,16,071 11,11 1011 11,11 11,11 11,11 11,11 11,16,784 1869-70. 9922 26 25 29 22 21 18 1,519,237 4766 12,1745 299 1,11,13,931 253 11,11,15,784 253 11,11,15,784 253 11,11,15,784 253 11,11,15,784 259 11,11,15,784 259 11,11,15,784 259<									1,696,097				
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1871-72	1869-70.												
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AGRICULTURAL BANKS, 1884.

The objects of the promoters of the agricultural bank scheme is to form an association of local moneylenders and others who will advance money at a comparatively low rate of interest not to exceed twelve per cent to landholders, who, though hampered by

¹ Details regarding locusts are given above under Agriculture Chap. IV.

Grain prices were supplied by the Collector, 1011 of 8th Feb. 1884.

Mr. Moore, C. S. Collector of Poona, 1884.

debt, are not insolvent. It is proposed that as a preliminary, an experienced covenanted revenue officer be appointed to inquire into the condition of the landholders of the Purandhar sub-division. All who are hopelessly insolvent will be put on one side and with such the bank will have no dealings. As regards others, the special officer will endeavour to effect a compromise with the creditors for the settlement of old debts. If he can succeed in coming to terms with the creditors, they will be paid in money down from the Government treasury in satisfaction of all claims, and the debts will form a rent charge on the lands of the debtors, second to the Government The instalments are to be fixed at a reasonable amount assessment. including interest at nine per cent, with a sinking fund of three per cent to extinguish the original debt. The rent charge, it is suggested, should be taken over by the bank, who would repay Government the amount advanced to meet old debts and would make loans to agriculturists for improvements, for cattle, and for seed; provided the security is sufficient, and provided that Government consent to such loans forming a lien on the crop to be recoverable as arrears of land revenue. The loans would be made on mortgages executed by the agriculturists receiving them and the money advanced would not exceed 60 per cent of the full value of the security. It is believed that the scheme is being delayed owing to doubts on the part of the Government of India of the wisdom of recovering loans made by the bank as arrears of land revenue.

Chapter VIII.

AGRICULTURAL BANKS, 1884.

A

Account Books: 103.

Acquisition: (1817-1868), 310.

Adıl Shahis: Bijapur kings (1490-1686), 224-238.

Administrative Reforms: of Madhavrav Peshwa

(1761 - 1772), 253.

Advances: to landholders, 423. Afzulkhán: murder (1659) of, 228.

Agates: 285 note 9.

Agricultural Banks: 512-513.

Ahmadnagar: founding (1490) of, 221; fall (1636) of, 224; plundered (1657) by Shiváji, 228, (1664), 231; betrayed (1759) into the hands of the Peshwa, 249; Nána Fadnavis imprisoned (1797) in, 275.

Alá-ud-din Khilji: Delhi emperor (1295-1316), 215 note 2

Alienated Villages: (1884), 312-313.

Ambegaon : survey, 455-457.

Ambuli : pass, 151.

Ammunitions : Shivaji's supply of, 229.

Amritráv: Bajirav's half brother (1797), 275, 276, 282, 283.

Anandibái: Raghunáthráv's wife, 255-256.

Anandveli: Ragbunáthráv at (1764), 252.

Anderson: Mr. David, English plenipotentiary (1782), 267.

Andhrabhritya : see Shatkarni. Angria : Kolaba chief (1713), 242.

Arable Land · 5.

Arás · battle (1775) of, 259.

Asadkhán . governor of Junnar (1468-1474), 218-219.

Ashok: edicts of (B.C. 250), 212. Ashta: battle (1818) of, 303. Assessment: (1820-21), 367.

Athanasius Nikitin: Russian traveller (1468-1474), 218,

Aurangzeb. Moghal Viceroy (1650); insulted (1657) by Shiváji; emperor (1657-1707); his wars against Bijápur; sends (1663) a large army against Shiváji; sends a second army (1665); takes Shiváji into imperial service; invites (1666) Shiváji to Delhi; levies a poll-tax (1684), his march through the Deccan; executes (1689)

Sambhají; halts at Poona (1.05) (17 Purandhar; his death (1707), 227-24 Áyáne: pass, 151.

B.

Bahiropant: Shahu's minister (1713), 242.

Bahmanis: Musalman kings of the Deccan (134 1490), 215-219.

Báji Ghorpade: killed by Shiváji (1649), 229, Báji Mohite: manager (1647) of Supa, 226.

Báji Prabhu: commandant (1665) of Purandh 231.

Bájiráv I.. second Peshwa (1720-1740); succeedus father; leads an army into Khándesh; returto Sátára; his ambitious designs; his victo over his rival Trimbakráv Dábháde; founds Dakshina fund; his success in North India; success of his brother Chimnáji in the Konka death; character, 243-244.

Bájiráv II.: ninth Peshwa (1796-1817); is i prisoned by Nana in the fort of Junnar (179his condition; Nana's intrigues for preventing accession to the Peshwaship on the death Mádhavráv (1774-1795); Bájiráv asks Sindi help: deserts Sindia in favour of Nana; his brot! Chimnaji is raised to the Peshwaship by Sindi minister; Nána's schemes to restore Bájiráv w is sent to North India by Báloba Tátya, Sindi minister; Bájiráv is brought back and install Peshwa : appoints Nana his prime minister : t principles which guide his conduct; is tired Sindia and Nána; Nána's house is plunde od a Nána sent to Ahmadnagar fort; his half broth Amritrav becomes prime minister; Sindia plu ders (1797) Poona; disorders in Poona; Nana set free and is induced to become Bájiráv's prit minister; Nána's death; Bájiráv gratifies revenge by throwing into confinement Nan former supporters; Bájiráv entirely in the han of Sindia; his cruelties and general disconten Yashvantráv Holkar's brother Vithoji is dragg to death and his nephew is imprisoned at Asirga Yashvantráv marches on Poona and defeats Ba ráv and Sindia; Bájiráv flees to Sinhgad, then to Raygad, Suvarndurg, Revdanda, and Bassel

nters into the treaty of Bassein; General Welesley's march to Poona; Bájiráv is restored; ondition of the Deccan (1803-1863); estimate of łájiráv's character by Sir James Mackintosh, ord Valentia, Mr. Elphinstone, and General Vellesley; his disloyalty to the English; raises brigade of Native Infantry; Bájiráv's adviser, rimbakji Denglia; strengthens his force; influnce of Trimbakji in Bájiráv's court; is haunted y the ghost of Nàrayanrav Peshwa who was urdered by his father; plants several hundred sousand mango trees apparently to get rid of the host; his intrigues against the English; adjustient of his claims on the Gaikwar; Gangadhar hástri in Poona; murder of Gangádhar Shástri; Ir. Elphinstone demands the surrender of Trimakji Denglia; Bájiráv's professions of regard to the inglish; organizes a league against the English; warned by Mr. Elphinstone who demands the irrender of Trimbakji; treaty of Poona; measures r crushing the Pendháris; Sir John Malcolm ieets Bájiráv at Máhuli; Bápu Gokhale Bájiív's chief adviser; Bájiráv's attempts to murder Ir. Elphinstone; preparations for the rupture; attle of Kirkee (1817); Bájiráv's defeat; Poona urrendered; Bájiráv's flight; is pursued by eneral Smith; fight at Koregaon; Satara protamation; fall of all the Poona forts; battle of shta; Bájiráv's flight; surrenders to Sir John falcolm, 270-303.

kshindabaksh : name given to Sinhgad, 240. láji I.: first Peshwa (1714-1720); early life; is rise; rivalry with Chandrasen, Shahu's comnander-in-chief; flees to Sasvad; his perilous ondition; is dignified by Shahu with the title of Sena-kurt or army-agent; is imprisoned by Damáji Thorát; his release; success against Ingria; is appointed Peshwa; is presented the ort of Purandhar by the Pant Sachiv; goes to Delhi to assist the Syeds; obtains for Shahu bree imperial grants chauth, sardeshmukhi, and varáj; receives several districts near Poona in personal jagir; death, 241-243.

láfi II; third Peshwa (1740-1761); succeeds his ather: improves the civil administration; death f Shahu; usurps the sole authority; is opposed y Tarabal; makes Poons the capital of the Maátha empire; quarrels with his cousin Sadáshiv. ay: their reconciliation; imprisons the Gaikwar nd Dábháde families in Lohogad: his wars with he Moghals supported by the French; the Mohals attack the Marátha camp at Rajápur, plunler Ranjangaon and destroy Talegaon Dabhade: Báláii leads an army into the Karnátak; Damáji a released on condition of paying a tribute to the 'eshwa; expeditions in Gujarat; comes in con-

tact with the English; enters into a treaty with the English; sends an army to Hindustán which breaks the power of Abmad Abdalli; leads again an army into the Karnátak; attitude towards the English; his intrigues at the Haidarabad court; family feuds: war with the Nizam; battle of Udgir; battle of Panipat; death; character, 244-250.

Báláji Janárdan : see Nána Fadnavis.º

Bálájipant Nátu: Mr. Elphinstone's friend, 299. Báloba Tátya: Sindia's officer (1796), 271-273. 276, 279, 280.

Bankers : 101-102.

Bápu Bhángria: Koli rebel (1844), 307-308. Bápu Gokhale: Marátha commander (1815-1817),

296, 298, 299, 303.

ł Bárámati : survey, 444-445.

Barcelor: plundered (1664) by Shivaji, 231.

Barley: grain, 41. Bárti : gram, 36.

Bassein: captured (1780) by General Goddard, 266; treaty (1802) of, 282-283.-

Beam-harrow: field tool, 9.

Bedsa: Buddhist inscriptions (A.D. 100-200), 212-

213.

Betel Vines: 49.

Bhádalvádi reservoir at, 27.

Bhádli: grain, 36,

Bhagva Jhenda: Shiváji's saffron banner, 229.

Bhagvánlál Indraji: Pandit, 211 pote 2. Bhandarkar: Professor, 211 note 2,213.

Bhati . see Kolamb.

Bháu Khare: Bráhman rebel (1839), 307.

Bhaváni: Shiváji's goddess, 228; his sword, 240 note 4.

Bhimáshankar: pass, 151; holiness of, 211 and note 1.

Bhimthadi: survey, 392, 393, 396, 418-419, 420, 421, 425-426, 477-481.

Bhojas: Hindu kings of the Konkan (A.D. 100), 213 and notes 1 and 5.

Bhonsles: origin of the family, 223.

Bijápur: war against (1665), 234; fall of (1686),

Black gram : pulse, 44.

Black soils: 4. Blights: 80.

Bombay Bank: branch of the, 101.

Bonds: moneylenders', 125.

Bor: pass, 152-153; old trade (B.C.100 - A.D. 100) along, 211.

Bori: survey, 446 447.

Botrowerz: 108-133.

Botanical Gardens: at Ganesh Khind, 77-80.

Bráhmanyádi: survey, 448-450.

Brass Work: workmen, tools, process, articles, changes in trade, 174-185.

Bridges . 154-156

Brigade of native infantry (1813), 291. British: land history under the, 341-513. British Management (1817-1884): 304-305.

Brokers: 165.

Brown Hemp: tillage of, 45.

Buddhism: influence of (B c. 90), 212.

Bulb Vegetables: 55-57. Bungalows: travellers', 158. Burr: Colonel (1817), 300-301. Bussy. French general (1751), 246.

Byfield: Mr. Thomas, visited (1756) Poona, 247.

C.

Camp: description of a Marátha, 284 note 1.

Campbell Mr. John M., 149 note 1.

Canals · 15-24. Capitalists 97-100.

Carnac: Mr., English commander (1778), 263-264,

Carrot: growing of, 56.

Carts: 9-10, 424.

Castor seed: tillage of, 45.

Caves: Buddhist (s. p. 100-200), 212-213.

Cay: Colonel, English commander (1778), 263-264.

Census: famine (1877), 92.

Cereals . 35-41.

Cesses: 323 note 1, 368, 416.

Chákan: mutary post (1443), 217; captured (1400) by Malik Ahmad, 220; (1647) by Shivan 2226 : (1662) by the Moghals, 230 ; restored (1667) to Shivaji, 235; again captured (1671) by the Moghals, 236; Bábáráv Phadke commandant of the Peshwa's household troops imprisoned (1796) in, 273; siege (1818) of, 303.

Chalukyas: Hindu dynasties (550-760), 214 and note 1.

Chandrasen Jádhav: Sháhu's commander-inchief, (1710), 241.

Channel: irrigation, 14.

Character: Bájiráv L's, 244; Báláji IL's, 250; Mádhavráv's, 254; Náráyanráv's, 256; Nána Fadnavis', 272, 280; Bajiráv II.'s, 274, 288 and notes 1 and 2, 293; Colonel Close's, 290 and note 1.

Chataraphana: Andhrabhritya king (A.D. 20), 213.

Chanth: Maratha levy, 234, 239, 241, 243.

Chavand: fall (1818) of, 303.

Chavli : pulse, 42, 43. Chillies: tillage of, 51.

Chimnáji Ápa: Bájiráv Ballál's (1720-1740) bro-

ther, 243-244.

Chimnáji Jádhay: Bráhman rebel (1839), 307.

Chimnáji Mádhavráv: eighth Peshwa (17\$ 272 - 274.

Cholera: 345, 469, 476, 477, 481, 501, 502, 5

510.

Clay figures. making of, 202 - 204.

Clerke: Mr. W., 14 note 1, 20, 25, 26, 27. Close: Colonel, British Resident at Poons (186

282, 285, 289.

Coats: Dr. (1819), 110, 127 note 1.

Cochineal: insect, 64.

Cockburn: Colonel, English commande

263-264.

Coffee: experimental cultivation of, 63-64.

Coins: Shátkarni (A.D. 160), 213. Combs making of, 201-202.

Complaints against moneylenders, 127-128.

Condiments: tillage of, 50-55.

Condition: of husbandmen, 2; of the distr (1429) 217, (1468 - 1474) 218 - 219, (1490 - 16 221, (1636) 224 - 225, (1673) 236 - 237, (1680) 2 (1745) 245, (1750) 250, (1801) 281, (303-18 284 - 289, (1815) 292 - 293, (1819 - 1826, 306 note 4, (1821) 353-354, (1825) 375-376.

Coronation · Shivaji's (1674), 236.

Cotton: cultivation 46-48; weaving, 196-198. Conssmaker: Major G., conducted (1875-184

tasar silk experiments, 67-76.

Crafts: brasswork, silk-weaving, gold and sild thread, cotton goods, glass-bangles, combs, c figures, paper, iron pots, tape, felt, wood-turni 173 - 210.

Crop : area, 7 ; details, 34-64.

Currency: 103-104.

Dádáji Kondadev : Shiváji's teacl 1637-1641 225 - 226.

Dádu Narsu Kále: land settlem n 217.

Daily Life · Mr. Elphinstone's, 291 not Dakshina Fund: origin of the, 244.

Dakshinapatha: old name of the Deccan, L.

Damáji Gáikwár: imprisoned (1751) by Ba. Peshwa, 245; released (1754), 246.

Damáji Thorát: Marátha noble (1714), 242.

Dandaka: forest, 211. Daniell: Major H., 309.

Dasara: Hindu festival, 286 note 1, 299

Daulatráv Sindia: (1794), is prese: of Kharda (1795), 270; promises to accession of Bajirav, 271'; Bajiráv deser. whose minister sets up Chimnaji in his place, Nána's negotiations with Sindia who imprise his minister and procures the accession of Bajiraw 273; his influence in Poona, 274; he plunder (1797) Poons, 275; family quarrels, 276-279

ndia all powerful at Poona, 280; his wars ith Yashvantráv Holkar who defeats his army Ujain, 281; assists Bájíráv in repelling olkar who is master of Poona, 282.

ridson: Mr. J., 80 note 5. .con : Colonel (1818), 302.

can Riots: 119-123.

can Riots' Commission: members, inquiries, commendations, 123-128.

hi: Shiváji's visit to, 234.

hi governors: of the Deccan (1318-1347), 215.

ingars : husbandmen, 2.

trnikot: Shátkarni capital (A.D. 10 - 140), 212

nukákat : see Dharnikot. dap: action near (1768), 253. iculties: famine, 94-95.

. Khan: Moghal general (1665), 231-234.

tle of (1780), 266. zac

ga Devi: famine (1396-1407), 216.

38 : **48.**

E.

erton: Colonel, English commander (1778). 63 - 264.

z-plant : growing of, 60. tridge: Major (1818), 303.

phinstone: Mr. Mountstuart, is appointed 1811) Resident at Poona; his former services; is plan of life at Poona; upholds Bájiráv's uthority over the estate-holders; intrigues f Khusruji an agent at the Residency; allows Bájiráv to strengthen his force; Gangadhar shastri in Poona; Mr. Elphinstone's estimate of his character; murder of the Shastri at Pandharour; Trimbakji's share in the murder; Mr. Elphinstone demands the surrender of Trimbakji; Bájiráv's plans of a general rising of all the Marátha powers; Mr. Elphinstone warns Bájiráv of the danger he was running; demands the surrendef Trimbakji and the immediate delivery of Sinhgad, Purandhar, and Raygad as a pledge; treaty of Poona; the three forts restored to Bajiráv on the suggestion of Sir John Malcolm who had an interview with Bájiráv at Máhuli; Bájiráv's attempt to murder Mr. Elphinstone; preparations for the battle; battle of Kirkee; his share in the victory; Poona surrendered; Bájiráv's flight; fight at Koregaon; Sátára proclamation: fall of the Peshwa's forts in Poona; Mr. Elphinstone appointed Commissioner; settlement of the country; the country between Chandor hills and the Nira river under two Collectors, Captains-Robertson and Pottinger; Mr. Elphinstone's policy with regard to existing institutions; posi-

tion of the Sardars; administrative changes; condition of Poons under the British, 290-306.

Exchange Bills : 102-103.

Experiments : sugarcane, 53-54. Experimental Gardens: 76.77.

Exports: 169-170.

F.

Fairs: 166. Fa_lows: 31.

Famines: (1397-1877), 84-96, 224, 285.

Felt :making of, 208-209.

Ferries: 157-158. Fibre Plants: 46-48. Field Plagues: 80-84. Field Tools: 8-10. Fife: lake, 17-18.

Fife: Lieutenant-Colonel, 15. Fitzgerald Bridge: 155,

Fletcher: Mr. W. M., 1 note 1, 93.

Flight: Bájiráv's (1802) 282, (1817) 301 - 303. Ford: Captain John (1813-1817), 291, 295, 297, 300.

Frederick: Major, English commander (1779), 265.

French: intrigues in Poona, 261. Fruit Vegetables: 57-60.

Fryer: English physician (1675) 150, 236 - 237.

G.

Gáikwár : origin of the family, 244,

Gambier: English civil governor & Surat (1774).

Gangábái; Narayanrav resnwa's widow (1774), 257-258.

Gangádhar Shástri: Gáikwár's agent in Poona (1815), 294-295.

Gangápur: old name of Tulápur, 224.

Gardening: soil, tillage, field tools, manure, sowing season, flowers, vegetables, plants, grafting, pruning, 31-34.

Gardens: experimental, 76-77; botanical, 77-80.

Garlic: growing of, 56. Gell: Lieutenant (1848), 308. Ghásdána : Marátha levy, 241.

Gháshirám: head of the Poona city police (1800),

Giberne: Captain (1844), 307.

Glass Bangles: making of, 198-201.

Goddard: General, his march (1779), 266-267. Gold and Silver Thread: making of, 191-196. Gopálráv Mairál: Gáikwár's agent in Poona

(1815), 294-295.

Gopikábai: Balaji II.'s wife, 248-249. Government Securities: 100-101.

Gram: tillage of, 42.

Grapes: 62-63.

Gujarát Vánis: moneylenders, 98-99.

H.

Haibatráv Nimbálkar . Marátha noble (1714), 242.

Haidar Ali: Maisur ruler (1763-1782), 252-254.

Hand Tools: 10. Harik: grain, 39.

Haripant Phadke: Poona minister (1773), 255-257, 259.

Hartley: Captain, English commander (1779), 265.

Hasan Gangu: founded (1347) the Bahmani kingdom, 215 and note 5.

Haveli : survey, 431-432, 488-495.

Heber: Bishop (1825), 152, 375, 376.

Hemádpant: Yádav minister (1271-1318) and builder of temples, 214 note 3,

Hemp: tillage of, 48.

Hereditary Officers: 366-367.

Hetkaris: Ratnágiri Maráthás in Shiváji's army, 231-232.

Hill Passes: 149-154.

Hoe field-tool, 9.

Holdings . 6. Holkar : origin of the family, 244.

Holland: Mr. H. L., 93. Honya: Koli rebel (1873), 309.

Hornby: Mr., Governor of Bombay (1776-1784),

261, 266.

Horse Gram pulse, 42.

Husbandmen: classes, condition, character, 1-3; condition (1910, 1809, 1832, 1843, 1855-1875) 109-122, (1879) 129-133,

I

Imperial grants: made (1719) to Shahu, 243.

Imports: 167 - 169.

Incline: the Bor, 159 note 1.

Indápur: survey, 389-392, 394, 396, 414, 425, 435, 471-475.

Indian Corn: grain, 40.

Indian Millet: tillage of, 39-40.

Inscriptions on the Mutha Canal, 20; on the Nira Canal, 23-24; on the Mátoba tank, 25-26; on the Shirsuphal tank, 27, on the Bhádalvádi tank, 27; Nána pass (B.C. 90 - A.D. 30), 212; Shátkarni (B.C. 90) 212 and note 1; other Buddhist (A.D. 100-200), 212-213.

Insurance 105-106.

Interest rates of, 107-108.

Iron Pots making of, 206-207.

Irrigation: motasthal or bag-watered, patasthal or channel-watered, Government water works, reservoirs, 12-28.

Isápur: fall of (1818), 303.

J.

Jacquemont. French traveller (1830-1832) note 5, 112.

Jánoji: Berár ruler (1753), 247, 252, 253.

Jasvantsing · Moghal general (1663), 230-231

Jatha. land system, 313 317.

Jávli · murder (1655) of the Raja of, 227.

Jejuri: Yashvantráv Holkar near (1801), 281

Jijibái · Shiváji's mother, 223-225. Jivdhan . fall (1818) of, 303.

Jizia: Aurangzeb's poll-tax, 238.

Joyner . Mr. R. B., 20.

Junnar: proposed identification with Tagar, note 2; old trade centre (B.C. 90 - A.D. 30), Buddhist inscriptions (A.D. 100 - 200) at, 212 - Nahapána's capital, 213 and note 10; milli post (1443), 217; subordinate to Daulatal 218 - 219; Malik Ahmad's (1490 - 1508) he quarters, 220; plundered (1657) by Shiváji, 2 Bájiráv confined (1794) in, 270; survey, 384 - 451 - 454.

Justice: administration of (1808), 290 and note

K.

Kála Chabutra: platform at Junnar buil wei; heads of Koli rebels, 228.

Kalusha: Sambhan's favourite (9-1689), .

Kamál highest land rent, 316 n , 325.

Kárle: Buddhist inscriptions (A... 100-200) 212; action (1779) at, 264.

Karnátak: Báláji II.'s expedition (1752) into, 24 (1755), 247; (1757), 248.

Kásurdi: reservoir at, 24.

Katraj . reservoir at, 28; r 3, 154.

Kávar Sen: first Hindu l of Burhán Nig

(1508-1553), 222. Keyser: Mr. A., 1 note 1, 93.

Khadakvásla: lake at, 17-18.

Khandála: English camp (17. at, 263. Khán Jahán: Moghal general (1685), 238.

Kharda: battle (1795) of, 270.

Kharif: early season, 3,

Khed action (1708) at, 240; survey, 392-393, 43

Kheni: Koli rebel (1657), 227-228.

Khopivli: General Goddard at (1781), 266,

Khorasanians: in the service (1468-1474)
Musalmans, 281.

Khusrnji: Poona Resident's agent (1811), 29 292.

Kirkee: battle (181., 301.

Koári . fall (1818) of, 303.

Kelamh: pass, 152.

lis: their condition under Bahmani rule (1347-490), 218; their risings (1657) \$\infty\$227-228, (1839-844), 307-308.

ndhána: modern Sinhgad fort, 215; captured 1647) by Shiváji, 226.

pargaon: Raghunáthráv at (1782), 267.

regaon: fight (1818) at, 302.

rondi: pass, 153, nbis: husbandmen, 1. sur: pass, 152,

L.

nd: plough of, 7; acquisition (1817-1868), 310; dministrative staff (1884), 310-312; alienated illages, 312-313; revenue history under the arly Hindus—thal or jatha system—313-316; nder Malik Ambar, 317-320; under the Maráhás, 320-341; under the Moghals, 321, under the itish (1818-1884) 341-513; Mr. Pringle's sur-379-411; revenue survey, 412-464; revision

ey, 470-508; survey results, 508-510; revestatistics, 512; agricultural banks, 512-513.

holders: (1821), 353, 359. rken: Mr. A. L. P., 93. af Vegetables: 61-62.

atils: pulse, 43. lense-tax: returns, 97. 1seed: tillage of, 45.

custs: 80-82, 424, 432, 476, 502, 511, 512. hogad: place of confinement in 1564, 222;

aptured (1670) by Shiváji bnt retaken (1671) by the Moghals, 236; Gáikwár and Dábháde amilies imprisoned (1751) in 245; fall (1818), 103.

rd Valentia: English traveller (1803), 285, 886 note 1.

18: Mr., reared (1876) silk-worms, 71-72.

M.

tckintosh: Sir James, in Poona (1805), 287-288, 1808) 289-290. idhavráv I.: fourth Peshwa (1761-1772); succeeds his father; Raghunáthráv becomes regent: war with the Nizám; quarrels with Raghunáthcáv who defeats Mádhavráv; Raghunáthráv in power and places Mádhavráv in confinement: Raghunáthráv's unpopular measures; war with the Nizam who plunders Poona; battle of Rakis. bon: war with Haidar Ali; success of Madhavrav: Mr. Mostyn, the envoy from the Bombay Government, at Poona; Mádharáv defeats Raghunáthráv at Dhodap and takes him prisoner; his measures against Jánoji; sends an army to Málva; improves the civil government of tae country; sends an army against Haidar Ali in the Karnatak: his death: character, 250, 254.

Mádhavráv II: seventh Peshwa (1774-1795); minority; internal disorders; the ministry combine and act against Raghunáthráv who is helped by the English; treaty of Purandhar; French intrigues in Poona; rivalry amongst the ministers; Nána Fadnavis; English expedition; convention of Vadgaon; General Goddard's march; treaty of Salbái; Mahádji Sındia in power; war with the Nizám; Nána's height of prosperity; Mádhavráv's death, 258-271.

Mahád. treaty (1795) of, 273.

Mahádájípant Purandhare: Báláji's (1740. 1761) agent, 244-246.

Mahádji Sindia (1763-1794): 253, 263, 264-268, 269.

Mahálkaris: 311, 416.

Mahárathis: Great Rattas or Ratta kings of the Deccan and Karnátak (760-973), 213 note 1.

Máhmud Gáwán: Bahmani minister (1460-1481), 217-219,

Máhuli: Sir John Malcolm and Bájiráv (1817) at, 298.

Malcolm: Sir John (1817), 298, 303 and note 2. Malet: Mr. Charles, appointed (1785) British Resident in Poona. 268.

Malik Ahmad: first Nizám Sháhi king (1490 - 1508), 220

Malik Ambar: Ahmadnagar regent (1605-1626), 223, 317-320,

Malik Káfur: Alá-ud-din's general (1290-1312), 215 note 2.

Malik-ul-Tujár: Bahmani noble (1429), 216-217. Mális gardeners, 1.

Máloji Bhonsle: Shiváji's grandfather (1595), 222-223.

Málsej: pass, 149-150.

Mámlatdárs: 311, 325 note 2.

Mánáji More: Sháhu's commander-in-chief (1710),... 242.

Manure: 11,12, 32.

Maráthás: land history under the, 320-341.

Marátha Chiefs: (1795), 269.

Marátha Horse: description (1805) of the, 287. March: Duke of Wellington's, 154 and note 1.

283 and note I; Parashurám Bhau's. 271.

Markets: 165-166.

Márwáris: moneylenders, 99.

Materials: for the land history chapter, 810 note

Math: pulse, 43.

Mátoba : reservoir, 53-54. Mauritius : sugarcane, 53-54.

Mával: survey, 461-464.

Mávalis : Shiváji's soldiers, 231 - 232, 235 - 236.

Merchants: 164-165. Millet: tillage of, 35.

Mins: name for Yavans, 213 note 10.

Mixed sowings: 30.

Mohiabad: name given to Poona in memory of Kambaksh's son, 240.

Money. Shahaji weighed (1636) against, 224.

Moneylenders: 106, 124-128.

Moore: Mr. J. G., 1 note 2, 12 note 1, 21, 80 note 3, 106 note 1.

Moroba Fådnavis: Poona minister (1773), 257, 258, 262, 263.

Motasthal well-irrigation, 12-13.

Mostyn: Mr., British envoy at Poona (1768-1779), 253, 256, 261.

Mudáji Bhonsle: Berár Chief (1784), 267.

Mudhol: burnt (1649) by Shivaji, 229.

Mug: pulse, 43.

Mukadam: village headman, 315 and note 1, 316.

Mulberry: see Silk.

Mund : tenure, 313 note 1.

Murárpant. Bijápur minister (1637), 225.

Murshed Kulikhán: introduced (1637) Todar Mal's revenue system into the Deccan, 225.

Mutha Canals 15 20.

N.

Náchni . grain, 40-41.

Nág Náik: Koli chief (1340) of Sinhgad, 215.

Nágphani : pass, 153.

Nahapana: Parthian Viceroy (A.D. 10?), 213 and

note 8.

Náktodás : 432, 499, 511.

Nána · pass, 150-151; old trade (B.C. 100-A.D. 100)
3 along, 211, imperiptions, 212.

Nána Darbáre: Bráhman rebel (1839). 307.

Nána Fadnavis: Kárkun (1762) of Madhavráv (1761 - 1772), 251; is appointed (1763) Fadnavis. . 252; opposes (1774) Raghunáthráv, 257; jealousy among the Poons ministers, 258; treaty of Purandhar (1776), 260; his hate of the English, 261; fresh dissensions among the ministerial party and Nana's triumph (1778), 262-263; convention of Vadgaon (1778), 264-266; Nána crushes a conspiracy (1784) for deposing the Peshwa Mádhavráv, 267; rivalry between Nána and Mahadji Sindia (1794), 268-269; Nana's taiumph over the Nizám at Kharda (1795), Nána's conduct towards the Peshwa Madhavrav, 270-271; Nana's intrigues to prevent the accession of the last Peshwa Bájiráv, 271; changes sides and quarrels with Parashurám Bhau and is forced to reture to Mahad, 272; secures the co-operation of the Nizam, 273; resumes the duties of prime minister to Bájiráv who shortly afterwards enters into a plot to free himself from Nána's control, 274; Nána's house is plundered and himself confined in Ahmadnagar fort, 275; Nána set free by Sindia (1798), 277; Nána is induced by Bájiráv to take his post as minister, 278; 7 11 and character, 280.

Nánaguna: Ptolemys 1500 name of the Nána pass, 213 note 10.

Náráyanráy: fifth Peshwa (1772-1773), succeeds his brother Mádhavráy; changes in the ministry; disturbance; the Peshwa murdered; perpetrators of the crime, 255-256.

Náropant Chakradev: Poons courtier (1797), 276.

Narsing Khanderáv: chief of Vinchur (1801),

Narso Rámchandra: Ráv Sáheb, 98 note 3, 101 note 1.

Navy: Shivaji's, 229, 231. Niger seed: tillage of, 45.

Nimtána: test-system, 319 note 2.

Nira Canal: 20-24.

Nizám Sháhis: Musalmán rulers (1490-1636) of Ahmadnagar, 219-224.

Nizám-ul-Mulk: founder of the family of Haidarabad Nizáms, 243.

O.

Obollah: mentioned in a Kárle inscription (A.D. 100-200), 213.

Officers: famine (1877), 93-94. Oil-seeds. tillage of, 44-46.

Omenagar: Ptolemy's name (A.D. 150) of Junnar,

213 note 10.

Onions: tillage of, 56.
Ozanne: Mr. E. C., 93.

P.

Pabal: survey, 384-389, 426-430, 482-488.

Páligárs: Marátha and Koh hill chiefs (1190 1295), 214-215.

Palmer: Colonel, British Resident (1797) at Poons 276, 279.

Pánádis . water-showers, 13.

Pandharpur: action (1774) at, 257; Gangadha; Shastri murdered (1815) at, 295.

Panipat: battle (1761) of, 249.

Paper-making . 204-206.

Parashurám Bháu: Poona courtier (1796-1799) 270-273.

Párthians: see Persians. Páshán: reservoir at, 28. Pátas: reservoir at, 28.

Patasthal: channel-watering, 14.

Patils: village headmen, 311, 313 note 1, 315 an

note 1, 316 and note 1.

Pávta: pulse, 43.

Páyin Ghát: lowland Karnátak, 248.

Pea: pulse, 44.

ms (1816) for crushing the,

u in old caves and Junnar in-"""DLEO.IS . A.D. 100-200), 213.

eshwa origin of the term, 222 note 1.

etenikas. rulers of Paithan (e.c. 250), 213 note 5. "lough · neld tool, 8.

Cloughing 10-11.

'od Vegetables: 60-61.

oona: captured (1662) by the Moghais, 229; Moghais surprised (1663) by Shivaji at, 230; restored to Shiv'ji (1667), 235; taken (1685) by Khán Jahán, .238; became (1750) capital of the Maratha empire, 245; destroyed (1763) by the Nizám, 252; Mahádji Sindia (1792) in, 268-269; plundered (1797) by Sindia, 275, (1802) by Holkar, 282; treaty (1817) of, 297; surrendered (1817) to the English, 301. "ost Offices 162-163.

otatoes: tillage of, 55-56.

otinger · Captain Henry, Collector (1818), 304.

ovirs origin of the Dhar, 244.

building of, 227. r

38, 373, 374, 376, 415, 438 note 1, \$4 8 note 1, 479, 512.

his survey and settlement, 379-393,

r onel (1818), 303. FITE

wulse. tillage of, 42-44.

tulumávi: Ándhrabhritya king (A.D. 100-150), 1213.

'urandhar: captured (1647) by Shiváji, 226-227; siege (1665) of, 231-232; taken (1705) by the · Moghals, 240; action (1711) near, 241; granted (1714) to Báláji by the Pant Sachiv, 242; treaty (1776) of, 260; ceded (1817) to the English. 1 297; siege (1818) of, 302; survey, 392, 393-394, 396, 442-414, 457, 502-508.

Labi: late season, 3. adish: tillage of, 57.

aghu Bhángria: Koli rebel (1844), 307-308.

laghuji Bhonsle: Sena Saheb Subha (1753), 247. aghunáthráv: sixth Peshwa (1773-1774); leads (1754) an army in Gujarát, 246; in North India (1756), 248; quarrels with Sadáshivráv and becomes the head of civil affairs (1759), 249; becomes regent of Madhavrav I, 250; refuses to cede Salsette to the English, 251; quarrels with Madhavrav and retires to Nasik, 251; is supported by the Nizam, regains power and keeps Madhavráv in confinement, 251; his corropular measures; is defeated by Madhavray Dhodap and is kept in confinement, 253;

intrigues with Hardar Ali and the Nizam, 254;

is released and placed in charge of the young Peshwa. Náráyanráv, 254; his share Náráyanráv's murder, 255 - 256; becomes Peshwa, 256; is opposed by the ministers, 257; is helped by the English and signs the treaty of Surat, 259; the English attempt to restore him to power, 263-266; Sindia keeps him in power and his flight to Surat, 266: treaty of Salbai; fixes his residence at Kopargaou; he death. 267.

Railway: 159-162; traffic, 170-172.

Rája Jaysing: Moghal general (1665), 231-234.

Rájápur. plundered (1661) by Shiváji, 228. Rajáram. Regent (1690-1700); fall of Raygad;

Rajaram's novements; his resources; his death, 239.

Rajgad: captured (1711) by Shahu, 240.

Rajmachi: pass, 152; impostor Sadashiv Chimnáji defeated (1776) at, 261.

Rakisbon: battle (1763) of, 252.

Rála: grain, 41.

Ramchandra: Yadav king (1271-1310), 214 note 3, 215 note 2.

Rámchandra Malhár: administrative (1755) reforms of, 250.

Rámdás Svámi: Shiváji's spiritual guide, 228-

Rámoshi Rising. (1826), 306-307.

Rám Shástri: Poona judge (1761-1773), 253, 256, 257.

Ránjangaon: plundered (1751) by the Moghals,

Ranshil: see Phimachankar.

Rástrakutas: Hindu dynasties (760-9/3), 214 and note 2.

Rat Plague: 82-84, 502, 508.

Rattas: kings of the Deccan and Karnátak (760-973), 213 note 1.

Raw Sugar: making of, 52-53,

Ráygad: fall (1690) of, 239; ceded (1817) to the English, 297.

Reaping: of crops, 29.

Reddis: probably Rattas. 213 note 1, 214 note 2.

Red soils: 4-5.

Reforms: Báláji 11.'s (1740-1761) administrativos 250.

Relief Act: Deccan 'Agriculturists', 129-Relief Houses: famine (1877), 92-93.

Remains: Hemádpanti, 214 note 4.

Reservoirs: 24-28.

Residency: at Sangam (1805), 287.

Rest Houses: 158.

Revenue : Bajirav's (1815), 292.

Revenue system: Malik Ambar's, 223; Todar

Mal's, 225, 369-372, 377-379.

Rice tillage of, 36-37.

Richey Mr. J. B., 21.

Robertson. Mr. E. P., 21; Captain Henry Dundas, first Collector of Poons (1818), 304.

Rock Temples Sharvite, 214 note 4.

Rose. Mr., assistant collector (1839), 307.

Rotation: of crops, 30-31.

Routes 141-149.

Rudd: Lieutenant (1839), 307.

Russel. Mr., English Resident at Poona (1811),

S.

Sacrifices: Vedic, 212.

Sadáshiv Mánkeshvar: Bájiráv's agent (1808),

288, 291, 295.

Sadáshivráv: Chimnáji Ápa's son (1749-1761); assists Balaji Peshwa (1740-1761) in his scheme of usurping the sole power; quarrels with Báláji; is reconciled and becomes the Peshwa's minister; reforms the civil administration; character; enmity with Gopikábái, Báláji's wife; quarrels with Raghunáthráv; attempt on his life; is at the head of the Marátha army in North India; battle of Pánipat; his death, 245-249.

Safflower: tillage of, 46.

Sakhárám Báput Poona minister (1761-1778), 251, 254, 257, 258, 262, 263, 264.

Sakhárám Ghátge: Poona noble (1796), 273, 275, 276, 277, 280, 281.

Sakhárám Hari . Poona courtier (1778), 263 note

Sálhai treaty (1782) of, 267.

Sálsette. cession refused (1760) to the English, 251.

Sambháji second Marátha ruler (1680-1689); his dissipation; oppression; associates himself with the rebel prince Sultan Akbar; is surprised by Takarrib Khán; is disgraced; his insolence and execution, 238-239.

Sardárs position (1818) of the, 305.

Sardeshmukhi: Marátha levy, 234, 239, 241, 243.

Sarsubhedár. 325 note 2.

Sátára: proclamation (1818), 302.

Sáva: grain, 41.

Sávants: Vádi chiefs, 228, 229.

Saving Classes: 100-101.

Savings Bank: deposits in the, 101.

Savle: pass, 152. Scoop: field tool, 9. Seasons: field, 3.

Seed-drill. field tool, 8-9.

Senna: plant, 64. Sesame: tillage of, 46.

Sháháji Bhonsle (1594-1664): Shivaji's father; his marriage with Jijibái; succeeds (1629) to his father's estates of Poona and Supa; breaks his

connection with the Nizam Shahis and goes over to the Moghals; leaves Moghal service and sides with Bijapura on the fall of Ahmadnagar over runs the country and seizes places of strength weighs himself against money; is hunted (1637 by the Moghals; is confirmed in his estates in Poona and Supa; leads an expedimentation into the Karnatak; visits Poona (1649); much respected by his son Shivaji; his death, 223-231.

Shahu: Marátha ruler (1707-1749); his imprisonment; release; marriage; arrives at Poona is established at Satára; Angria becomes tribu tary to Shahu; appoints Baláji Vishvanáth as his Peshwa; receives three imperial grants of chauth, sardeshmulhi, and svaráj; Bájiráv an Báláji, the second and third Peshwás; his death 239-245.

Sháistekhán: Moghal governor (1662-1663), 229 230.

Shaiv Temples: the ten great, 211 and note 1. Shámrájpant: Shiváji's minister (1655), 227, 228 Shankráji Náráyan Pant Sachiv (1711), 240 241.

Shanvár Váda: Peshwa's palace (1805), 287 Shátkarni Hindu dynasty (B. C. 200 - A. D. 30: 212 and note 1.

Shearer: Mr., 8 note 1.

Shekhdars group-clerks, 326.

Shenvi Bráhmans · influence (1797) of, 276.

Shidgad: pass, 151.

Shirsuphal: reservoir at, 26-27.

Shivaji (1627-1680): his birth; early life und. Dádáji Kondadev, manager of his father's est: 'esi takes Torna, Rájgad, Chákan, Kondhána, Supaj and Poona; plunders a Bijapur caravan; capture Rájmáchi and Lohogad forts and most places c strength in the Konkan; enters the Moghal ser vice; his schemes for possessing himself of th whole of the Ghatmatha; murder of the Raja o Jávli; builds Pratapgad; insults Aurangzeb, the the Moghal Viceroy of the Deccan; plunder Junnar and Ahmadnagar; strengthens his cavalry the repulse of his army against Janjira; erter into a treaty with the Savanti of Tadi; assassi nates Afzulkhán, the Bijápur 🔏 🥻 ; takes som of the Kolhapur forts, levie acon ions alon the banks of the Krishna, and spre Pror ove the whole country; his respect Rémda Svámi, his religious guide; his conduoward Báji Ghorpade of Mudhol; fits out a . ; hi conduct towards his father; changes h)ita from Rájgad to Ráygad; extent of his er his wars with the Moghals; his defence . .nh gad; takes the title of Raja; plunders A ad nagar; his success against Bıjápur; burns m. gurla and plunders Barcelor; Dilei jan

Moghal general, lays siege to Purandhar; gallant conduct of the besieged; Mávalis and Hetkaris; proposes to enter the Moghal service; his inter-" w with Jaysing and Dilerkhan; gives up several forts to the Moghals: levies chauth and sardeshmukhi; assists the Moghals in their attack on Bijápui; visits Delhi; escapes from Delhi; the districts of Poona, Chakan, and Supa restored to him; surprises Sinhgad and Purandhar; his coronation at Raygad; his appearance; death; extent of his territory at the time of his death, 223-238.

Shivner: captured (1486) by Malik Ahmad, 219; survey, 384-389,

'is: Janjira chiefs, 228, 250.

Mutti . silk-grower (1829-1847), 64-67. ۲۰۱۴ : . · "iments of silk cultivation; tasar silk : (1875-1882), 64-76.

" workmen, tools, process, articles,

e family, 244.

ven (1647) to Kondhána by urprised (1670) by Shivaji's army, ; e (1700-1703) of, 239-240; sur.

renderec to the English, 297; siege (1818) of, 302,

Slavery: (1820), 354. Slaves: 133-134.

'Sr 'th General (1815-1817), 296, 299.

Sui 3 3 5.

Sopára: mentioned in Kárle inscriptions (A.D. 100-

200), 213 and note 8. Sowing: 11, 32-33.

Soyrábái: Sháhu's mother, 239.

Spencer: Mr. John, visited (1756) Poona. 247-248.

Spies: system of, 253, 254.

Staff: (1884), 310-312. C+aunton: Captain (1817), 301-302,

Steve = 27 . Colonel (1802), 283.

Stewa. .: Captain James (1778), English commander. 263-264.

St. Lubin: supposed French ambassador (1777). 261 and note 3, 262,

Stock: farm, 6-7. Storing: of grain, 30. Subhedár: 325 note 2. Sugarcane: tillage of, 51.55.

Sultán Muázam: Moghal Viceroy (1667), 235. Sumersing: Náráyanráv's murderer, 255-256.

Sundt and Webbe: Messrs., growers of coffee (1839), 63.

Supa: reservoir at, 28; granted (1720) in jagir to Chimnáji Apa, 243; survey, 437-438, 496-499.

Surat: treaty (1775) of, 259 and note 1; General Goddard (1779) in, 266.

Survey: Mr. Pringle's, 379 - 410; thirty years' revenue survey, 410-411, 412-415, 418-422, 426 - 432, 437 - 438, 442 - 464; revision survey, 470-475, 477-508; results, 508-510.

Suryáji: Marátha commander (1670), 235-236. Svaráj: Marátha home-rule (1719), 243 and note 1.

Sweet Potatoes: growing of, 57.

Symonds: Mr. W. P., 93.

T.

Tagara: identification of, 211 note 2.

Takarrib Khán: Moghal general (1689), 238, 239 note 1.

Talegaon Dábháde: death (1590) of Salábatkhán, an Ahmadnagar noble at, 222; action (1779) near, 264-265; destroyed (1751) by the Moghals, 246.

Tánáji Málusre: Shiváji's general (1663), 230, 235 - 236.

Tándulja : see Rakisbon.

Tankha: land-rent, 318 note 2, 325.

Tape-weaving: 207 - 208.

Tárábái: Rájárám's widow (1700), 239-241, 245,

Tasar Silk: experiments of, 67-76.

Telegraph Offices: 163.

Tenevalege: Yádav capital, 214 note 3.

Tenures: 313 note 1, 355-359.

Territories: extent of Shivaji's (1664), 229 (1680), 238 note 1 : extent of Marátha (1699), 239.

Thal: land eyeborn, 913-317.

Theur: death of Madhavrav Peshwa (1761-1772) at. 254.

Thrashing: grain, 29.

Tika: tenure, 313 note 1. .

Tipu: Maisur ruler (1782-1799), 268.

Tobacco: tillage of, 50.

Todar Mal: revenue system of, 225.

Tolls : 159.

Tone: Mr., visited (1796) Poona, 274.

Torna: captured (1646) by Shivaji, 226.

Trade: changes, course, agencies, centres, imports, exports, railway traffic, 163-173; course of old (B.C. 100-A.D. 100), 211.

Trades Union: 173.

Traffic: railway, 170-172.

Transit Duties: 411-412.

Trimbakji Denglia : Bájiráv's adviser (1813-1817),

292, 294, 295.

Trimbakráv Máma: Poona minister (1761 - 1774);

251, 254, 257.

Tukárám: Váni saint (1664), 231.