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CHAPTER VIII.

THE LAND.

SECTION I.—ACQUISITION.

THE lands of the district of Dhárwár have been gained by cession, lapse, and conquest. Except the city of Dhárwár which was ceded under the treaty of Poona (June 1817), most of the district fell to the British on the overthrow of Bájiráv Peshwa in November 1817.¹ In June 1821 the chief of SÁNGLI, under articles dated the 12th of December 1820, ceded New Hubli, Taras, and Samat Bammigatti, instead of pay due to British troops. In 1837, on the death of the Chinchni chief, one village in Kundgol lapsed; in 1839, on the death of the Nipáni chief, thirteen villages in Annigeri lapsed; in 1842, on the death of the chief of the fourth share of the Miráj estate, eight villages in Lakshmeshvar lapsed; in 1845 on the death of the Soni chief, the village of Behatti lapsed; and in 1848, on the death of the Tásgaon chief, one village in Ingalhali and seventeen villages in Mulgond lapsed. In 1858, under a proclamation dated the 3rd of June 1858, five villages in Savanur, two in Bádámi, one in Saundatti, thirteen in Nargund, two in Navalgund, and two in Shirol were taken from the rebel chief of Nargund.

SECTION II.—HISTORY.

The earliest government whose influence on the system of land management remained at the beginning of British rule was the government of Anegundi or Vijayanagar, which, from about the middle of the fourteenth to the middle of the sixteenth century, 1333 to 1573,

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Acquisition,
1817-1858.

History.

Anegundi,
1533-1573.

¹ Materials for the Land History of Dhárwár include, besides a memorandum by the Survey Commissioner Colonel Anderson, November 1879, on the revenue history of Dhárwár, Mr. Elphinstone's Report dated the 25th of October 1619 (Ed. 1872); Mr. Chapin's Report dated the 20th of August 1822 (Ed. 1877); East India Papers III. and IV. (Ed. 1826); Survey Reports in Bom. Gov. Sel. CXLVIII. CLIV. CLV. CLVI. CLIX. CLX. CLXI. CLXII. and the Survey Commissioner's Files of Hubli Navalgund and Nargund Survey and Settlement Reports; Annual Jamábandi, Administration, Season, and other Reports and Statements in Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 74 of 1823, 95 of 1824, 123 of 1825, 167 of 1827, 549 of 1834, 627 of 1835, 771 of 1837, 866 of 1838, 972 of 1839, 1097 of 1840, 1236 of 1841, 1342 of 1842, 1451 of 1843, 1566 of 1844, 90 of 1861, 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; Gov. Res. on Revenue Settlement Reports for 1873-74, Rev. Dept. 6092, dated the 27th of October 1875; Bom. Pres. Genl. Adm. Reports from 1872 to 1883; and the printed Acquisition Statement of the Bombay Presidency.

² The greater part of the present (1884) district of Dhárwár became British territory under a Proclamation dated the 11th of February 1818.

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Anegundi,
1333-1573.

ruled the south and east of Dhárwár as far as the Krishna.¹ The foundation of the system of assessment in force under the Bijápur (1573-1686), the Savanur (1686-1752), and the Marátha (1752-1817) governments, was laid during the reign of the great Anegundi king Krishnaráya (1508-1542). With Krishnaráya and his minister Solu Appáji originated the unit of land assessment and measurement known as the *ráya-rekha* or royal line, also called the *hulmár* or field-measure, which, on their assumption of power about 1570, the Bijápur princés took as the *rakam* or basis of their settlement. In the original Anegundi settlement dry-lands were alone measured and the survey even of the dry-lands seems not to have been completed. In 1833 in many parts of the west, bordering on the *malnád* or wet land villages, the land units bore peculiar names and varied considerably from each other. In 1833 Mr. Elliot noticed that a standard of the *ráya-rekha-már*, cut on a post in the gateway of the Gadag fort, measured 7 feet $9\frac{1}{10}$ inches. Twenty of these units made a *bigha* and thirty-six *bighás* a *ráya-rekha-már* or royal-line plot of sixteen to eighty acres.² A second unit standard line in the Basvana temple at Navalgund measured 7 feet $6\frac{6}{10}$ inches. Vithalpant a later governor introduced into many black soil villages a new unit of measurement, which, after his own name, he called the Vithalpanti *már*. This standard, which was cut in the temples of Annigeri and Aminbhávi, and on a stone at Hebli, measured 10 feet $6\frac{3}{10}$ inches in the Annigeri temple, 10 feet $11\frac{8}{10}$ inches in the Aminbhávi temple, and 10 feet 6 inches on the stone at Hebli.³ The Vithalpanti plot may be roughly estimated to be equal to three *ráya-rekha-márs* or royal-line plots that is it varied from forty-eight to 240 acres. Other Anegundi dry land measures were the *patti* or pole, the *galla*, and the *chigga*. Another probably an older dry land measure was the *kulvan* or *hun kulvan*, which in Mr. Elliot's opinion was originally the area which yielded one *hun* of rent.⁴

¹ Mr. Elliot, Sub-Collector of Hubli, 29th Oct. 1833 with Appendix. The subdivisions of Dhárwár in 1833 were Dhárwár, Parasgad, Navalgund, Páchhápúr, Dambal, Bankápur, Hángal, Hubli, Ránebennur, Kod, Sampgaon, Bidi, Chikodi, Bágalkot, Bádámi, Hungund, Indi, and Muddebihal. Of these five were under the sub-collector of Hubli, six under the sub-collector of Bágalkot, and the rest under the Collector of Dhárwár. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 90-91, 233-239; Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 222.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 94-95. *Rekha* also termed *ráya-rekha*, from *ráya* the title of the Vijayanagar rulers, was the fixed standard assessment of the lands of the Karnátak according to a survey measurement and classification of the soils, and a register of the money rates of payment drawn up by order of the government of Vijayanagar in the reign of Krishnaráya (1508-1542); the account was so arranged that the assessment of each plot of land was shown on a separate line, whence the term *rekha* a line or row. *Hul-már*, the other name for the assessment, came from *hola* a field and *már* a land measure varying from sixteen to eighty acres or 4 to 20 *kurgis*, the *kurgi* being the area a drill plough can sow in a day. Wilson's Glossary of Indian Terms, 210, 331, 443.

³ Mr. Elliot, Sub-Collector of Hubli, 1833, in Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 94-95. According to Mr. Elliot, Vithalpant was an Anegundi governor; according to Ráv Bahádúr Tirmalráv, he was a Bahmani (1343-1490) officer.

⁴ Mr. Elliot, Sub-Collector of Hubli, 29th Oct. 1833, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 94-95. The *hun* was a gold coin current in the south of India. It was a *pagoda* usually about 50 grains in weight, but of different standard and value according to the place where it was coined. The *hun* or star *pagoda* of the Company's currency was intrinsically worth 7s. 5d., but was rated in the public accounts at 8s. Wilson's Glossary of Indian Terms, 211.

Thus in Anegundi times, the dry land was assessed either on the measure of its actual extent by the *rāya-rekha* standard or by some local measure, or it was estimated by the area to which the payment of a certain sum was attached, which was stated in *huns* or in fractions of *huns*. In the wet or *malnād* lands under the seed or *bijvari* system, the area of land was estimated by the number of *khandis* and *kudus* of seed required to sow it.¹ According to Mr. Elliot this seed assessment also was part of the Anegundi land system. To fix the government share under the seed system, the rent was taken in kind for a series of years, the fees of village officers and all other charges were taken from the grain on the threshing floor, and the rest was divided into two equal shares, of which the landholder was allowed to take his choice. The average money proceeds of the government share formed the assessment on the area which the seed which produced the whole could sow.² Gardens were estimated by the space occupied by a certain number of trees and were called *thals* or estates. In all the modes of assessment whether by the *chāhur* of about ninety acres, the *mār* of sixteen to eighty acres, the local *kulvon* that is the *hun* rent unit, or the *bijvari* or seed system, the area of the unit of measurement varied according to the quality of the soil, while the amount which each unit paid was always the same.³ Thus Shiggaon in Bankāpur had three *mārs* or plots all assessed at the same *rakam* or rate. The first or standard *mār* for good soil was four *kurgis* that is sixteen to twenty acres, the second for medium soil was six *kurgis* that is twenty-four to thirty acres, and the third for poor soil was eight *kurgis* that is thirty-two to forty acres.⁴ Unlike the other lands, the *bijvari* or seed system lands were further divided into classes paying different rates, and difference of rate was also sometimes found in dry land particularly in Chikodi.⁵ In 1846 the names of king Kṛishnarāya and of his minister Solu Appāji, by whom this system of assessment was completed, were still held in high reverence.⁶

In 1573 the Anegundi possessions in Dhárwár passed to Bijāpur. Unlike other parts of Bijāpur, where the land unit was the *chāhur* of about ninety acres, in Dhárwár the different methods, which were introduced or completed by Solu Appāji about 1530, were continued.⁷ Though they adopted the Anegundi settlement, the Bijāpur government were not satisfied with the share which the Anegundi system secured to the state. They increased the original share or *rakam* by cesses which were nominally introduced from time to time for special objects and to last only a short time but most of which in

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1333-1673.Bijāpur,
1573-1686.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 96. A *kudu* of seed-land was considered equal to the fourth part of the *chāhur*. Ditto, 97.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 96.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 97.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV. 75.

⁵ Mr. Elliot, Sub-Collector of Hubli, 29th Oct. 1833, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 97. In Hubli and Navalgnnd the usual local land measures were *mārs* containing four to eight or even twelve *kurgis*, a *kurgi* being the area which a drill plough could sow in a day. Captain Wingate, Surv. Supt. 15th Oct. 1844 para. 32.

⁶ Bankāpur Survey Report, 1846, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV. 75.

⁷ Mr. Elliot, Sub-Collector of Hubli, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 96.

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Bijápur,
1573-1686.

practice became permanent. An excellent village system known as the *cháli*,¹ apparently meaning either permanent or managing, enabled the Bijápur officers to increase the government share of the revenue without stopping the spread of tillage or impoverishing the landholders. The backbone of the Bijápur *cháli* or lasting system was a managing body of village landholders called *chálíkar*s, who, in return for certain privileges and concessions, agreed to hold specially heavily assessed land, and, in addition, to be responsible for the balance of the village rental. Besides the social respect which attached to them as sharers in the village management, the *chálíkar*s were allowed to till waste and private lands on unusually favourable terms. As any village landholder who rose to independence was freely admitted to be a *chálíkar*, the system offered the ordinary landholder a strong inducement to thrift and forethought, and, as the body of *chálíkar*s was responsible for any failure in the village revenue, they were careful to see that the cultivation of the village did not decline. With this object they were active in bringing settlers, and ready to help needy or unlucky villagers with seed or with the loan of their ploughs, oxen, or servants.²

About the middle of the seventeenth century, when the power of Bijápur had grown weak and when the needs of the state forced its officers to raise their demands, the people of Dhárwár grew discontented, and under local *desáis* or hereditary land managers rose in revolt.³ Baylol Khán, the founder of the house of Savanur, who was sent from Bijápur to restore order, put down the revolt. At the same time he found that the state demands were pressing so heavily on the people that to secure order the revenue demands must be greatly reduced. In 1670 (H. 1080) during the reign of Ali Adil Sháh II. the rates were revised, and a new standard was fixed which has since been known as the *asul* that is the original and also as the *tankha* a name apparently adopted from Sháh Jahán's settlement of the north Deccan. Though the new rates were higher than the former Anegundi prime standard or *rakam*, all cesses were stopped and the whole demand under the new settlement was less than under the former settlement. In the disorders which had preceded this settlement, much arable land, especially in the west, had passed out of tillage and large tracts were entered as *jhád-khand* or forest.⁴

Savanur,
1686-1752.

About sixteen years later (1686) when the territories of Bijápur passed to Aurangzeb, the revised settlement of 1670 was accepted as the basis of the Moghal collections. Along with the other Bijápur possessions south of the Krishna, which formed the three districts or *sarkárs* of Belgaum or Assadnagar, Torgal, and Bankápur, the lands of Dhárwár were not managed direct by Moghal officers, but were continued to the chief of Savanur.⁵ On the establishment of the Nízám as an independent ruler in 1723, the allegiance of the Savanur

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 97, 100.

² Farther details of the *cháli* village system are given under the Marátha period as the available information belongs to the Marátha rather than to the Bijápur period.

³ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV, 75-76. See Sel. CXIII, 207.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 98-99, and Rec. 698 of 1836, 52.

⁵ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 91, 93.

chief passed from the Moghal emperor to the Nizám. Still Savanur continued practically independent,¹ till in 1752-53 (*Fasli* 1162) Peshwa Báláji Bájiráv (1740-1761) wrested from the Nawáb half of his territories.² After the overthrow of Bijápur in 1686 the country was much disturbed, and, in spite of the lowering of the state demand, little improvement was made. A few years later Aurangzeb placed Abdul Rauf Khán in charge of the three districts south of the Krishna. With the help of his minister Ali Khán, this chief brought the waste under tillage by liberal leases or *kauls*. He kept the *már*, or sixteen to eighty acre plot, as the unit of measurement in the revenue accounts, but changed the *rakam* that is the fixed sum or standard, and styled his new rate, which included part of the cess revenue in addition to the original Anegundi standard, *aináti* that is the original standard assessment.³ In 1833 the people still remembered and praised the fairness and liberality of Ali Khán's settlement.⁴ This settlement did not last long. Under Hatim Khán the son-in-law and successor of Ali Khán, Ali Khán's rate or *aináti* in government land was doubled, the increase being styled a cess or *patti*. In private or *inám* lands the quit-rent was raised to a fourth or even a half of the full assessment.⁵ This enhancement of the government demand reduced the country to great distress.⁶ The detailed collection of the land assessment seems to have been left to local *desáís* who had to pay the Nawáb a lump sum as tribute or *peshkush*.⁷ After Hatim Khán's time the ministers were Bráhmans and one of them Khandaráv made great reductions in Hatim Khán's total.⁸ Still compared with the amount fixed in 1670 the assessment levied by the Savanur chief between 1686 and 1752 was very high, the increase being due to the levy of extra cesses or *isáfa tawfer* which, at first levied as special and temporary, were continued as part of the regular demand.⁹

In 1752-53 (*Fasli* 1162), as already noticed, Peshwa Báláji Bájiráv (1740-1761) forced the Nawáb of Savanur to yield him half of his territory. As regards the management of the land the sixty-five years of Marátha rule in Dhárwár (1752-1817) form two periods before and after the accession of Peshwa Bájiráv in 1796. During most of the first forty years of the first period of Marátha rule, the country was unsettled by the struggles between the Peshwás and Haidar Ali of Maisur (1762-1782). Even in times of public peace, in many parts of the district Marátha authority was limited to the levy of lump sums as quit-rent or tribute from local chiefs called either *desáís* or

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1686-1752.

Maráthas,
1762-1817.

¹ Compare Survey Supt. 445 of 25th October 1844 para. 22, and Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 91, 98-99.

² For details see Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 91. See also Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 208, 209, and Major West's Southern Marátha Country (1878), 22, 23.

³ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV. 76; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 99.

⁴ Mr. Elliot in Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 99. According to stories current in 1821 Ali Khán the Nawáb of Savanur let the lands at nominal rents, two pounds of butter and a horse bag or *tobra* full of grain for a field. In seven or eight years the whole waste was taken for tillage. East India Papers, IV. 790.

⁵ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV. 76.

⁶ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 99.

⁷ Survey Supt. 445 of 25th October 1844 para. 22.

⁸ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 99.

⁹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 98.

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Maráthás,
1752-1817.

páligárs.¹ Three grades of Marátha officers were employed in managing the country and gathering the revenue: A *sarsubhedár* or provincial manager, *mámlatdárs* also called *amildárs* or divisional managers, and *kamávisdárs* or village managers. In 1752 Báláji Bájiráv appointed as his provincial manager or *sarsubhedár* Náráyan Vyankatesh Ichalkaranjkar whose chief divisional managers or *amildárs* were Yesájiráv Hervádkar for Dhárwár and the west, and Rámchandra Náráyan Huparikar for Gadag, Dambal, and the east. This arrangement nominally remained undisturbed for nearly twenty-five years until Haidar Ali's conquest of Dhárwár in 1777 (*Fasli* 1187).² Under the Maráthás a *sarsubhedár's* charge was a province yielding a yearly revenue of £20,000 to £30,000 (Rs. 2,00,000 - Rs. 3,00,000).³ When a *sarsubhedár* or province manager, and this also applied to *amildárs* or division managers, was appointed, the probable receipts and charges during the year were calculated and one-fourth of the estimated revenue was taken in advance. Before the arrangement was concluded, one per cent was taken off because the officer paid the instalment in advance, and a second deduction of one per cent was granted to make up to him for the premium he had to pay in sending money to Poona. Remissions on account of bad seasons were promised, though in practice the government seem to have rarely remitted any of their claims on the province manager; the *subhedárs* and *amildárs* engaged to do their utmost to spread tillage, and promised to treat the landholders with moderation, and were warned that complaints of oppression would cause the serious displeasure of government.⁴ So long as he paid to the Peshwa the amount which was held to be the proper rent of his charge, the *sarsubhedár* was left practically independent.⁵ Under the *sarsubhedár* came the *subhedár*, *mámlatdár*, or *amildár*. These officers were of three classes, holders on a lease from government, nominees of the *sarsubhedár*, and bankers who had advanced money to the *sarsubhedár* and were allowed to collect the revenues of a district with the powers of a *mámlatdár* till the amount advanced was realized.⁶ Before entering on their duties, which generally began in August, the *mámlatdárs* advanced one-fourth of the revenue as security.⁷ Under Nána Fadnavis (1763-1800) the *mámlatdárs* or *amildárs*, with the help of a jury or *pancháit*, had power to settle all disputes regarding contracts,

¹ Capt. Wingate, Survey Supt. 445 of 25th October 1844 para. 22. Few of the first twenty-five years of Marátha rule in Dhárwár (1752-1777) were years of peace. In 1762 Haidar ravaged Savanur and levied tribute from the petty Marátha chiefs or *páligárs*. Marátha authority was restored in 1770. A few years later the struggle again began and ended in 1778 by the conquest by Haidar of nearly the whole country south of the Ghatrabha and Krishna. Between 1779 and 1786 most of the country was held by the Nawáb of Savanur the ally and son-in-law of Haidar. The hostility between the Nawáb of Savanur and Tipu in 1787 ended in the transfer of Hubli and Navalgund to Tipu and the retreat of the Savanur Nawáb to Poona. Tipu held the country destroying the power of the local chiefs or *desáts* till 1790. It was then overrun by Parashurám Bháu and continued under Marátha management till 1818. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 86-87. Captain Wingate, Survey Supt. 25th October 1844 paras 22, 23. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 90-94.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 92.

³ Survey Supt. 445 of 25th October 1844 para 25.

⁴ East India Papers IV. 786.

⁵ Mr. Thackeray in East India Papers, IV. 784.

⁶ Mr. Thackeray in East India Papers, IV. 794. ⁷ East India Papers, IV. 794.

sales, and inheritance; to punish thieves except in cases deserving death or mutilation; and to fine up to £10 (Rs. 100). They had power to confiscate the private lands or *ináms* of *pátils* and *kulkarnis*; and they might add to or reduce the village rental.¹ A *mámlatdár* or *amildár* superintended a division yielding £1000 to £10,000 (Rs. 10,000-Rs. 1,00,000). He fixed the rental due from each village according to the tillage area and the state of the landholders. The distribution of the village rental among the village landholders was left to the village officers and to the *kamávisdár* or government village manager. From their decisions the village landholders had the right of appeal to the *mámlatdár* and from the *mámlatdár* to higher authority.² To the *kamávisdár* or village manager was entrusted the duty of collecting the revenue and encouraging tillage. Their connection with the *mámlatdár* enabled the *kamávisdárs* to develop the resources of the country, but they were a badly paid body and usually spent more revenue than they brought to light, often made the villagers work for their private gain, and did mischief by meddling with the inner affairs of the village.³ They often so lowered the authority of the village headman or *pátíl*, that the headman's only care was to enjoy his allowance, pay his quit-rent, and act on the orders of the *kamávisdár* or village-manager.⁴ With the headman or *pátíl* and the village clerk or *kulkarni* the manager arranged how much of the whole village rental each landholder should pay.⁵ Between the stipendiary divisional officers or *amildárs* and the stipendiary and hereditary village officers, came the district hereditary revenue officers. These were the *deshmukhs* or *desáís* and the *deshpándes* whose Kánarese names, the *deshmukhs* of *nád gauda* or district head and the *deshpándes* of *nád shánbhog* or *nád kulkarni*; that is district clerk, explain the original nature of their duties. Their names show that the institution of hereditary district revenue officers dates from before the Musalmáns. Their authority was confirmed and in some cases extended by the Bijápur government. Even under the Maráthás the *deshmukhs* and *deshpándes* were used, as they were used in the home or strictly Marátha Deccan districts, as a check on the *amildárs* or stipendiary officers.⁶ They kept accounts of the tillage, produce, and revenue; encouraged poor landholders and recalled deserters. The position of Dhárwár, the southern fringe of Bijápur, Moghal, and Marátha rule, gave a political importance to the hereditary district officers which they did not possess in the more settled Marátha Deccan districts. The frequent changes of rulers in Dhárwár raised the stronger and more pushing *desáís* to be independent or tributary chiefs. In times of trouble some of them were loyal to their overlord, driving out invaders and keeping the peace; others took advantage of disorder to found independent chiefships or *sumnáthárs*. Among

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Maráthás,
1752 - 1817.

¹ East India Papers, IV. 798.

² Capt. Wingate, Surv. Supt. 445 of 25th Oct. 1844, para 25; East India Papers, IV. 782.

³ East India Papers, IV. 782.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 797.

⁵ East India Papers IV. 788.

⁶ Colonel Wilks derived *deshmukh* from *dasmukar* or a tenth land-plot. Mr. Thackeray, 1821-22, East India Papers IV. 798, 'with more regard to the spelling of the word and to the Marátha way of collecting the revenue,' humorously traced it to *das mukka* or *buka* that is ten blows.

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1752 - 1817.

the loyal *desái* was the *desái* of Dhárwár, whom in 1696 the local Moghal governor made *nád gauda* or district head in reward for defeating the rebellious *desái* of Navalgund. Of rebel or independent *desáis*, besides the chief of Navalgund, are mentioned the chiefs of Shirhatti, Havkannar, and Dammat.¹ Between 1787 and 1790 Tipu is said to have destroyed the power of the Marátha *desáis* of the Dhárwár district.² The allowances of the *nád gaudás* or district heads and of the *nád kulkarnis* or district clerks were drawn from private villages and grants to enable them to maintain the honours of the *gádi* or cushion, the *pálkhi* or litter, the *chhatrí* or umbrella, and the *chauri* or fly-whisk. They also received fees in butter, in labour, and in grain, and cesses from craftsmen and shopkeepers. When they visited a village the people had to make them a present under the name of *nazar*.³

Fifteen public village servants are mentioned, though the whole number were found in few perhaps in no villages.⁴ These village office-bearers were the *pátíl* or chief landholder who collected the revenue, tried to spread tillage, encouraged landholders, and carried out government orders; the *kulkarni*⁵ or village clerk; the *lohár* or ironsmith, who made ironfield tools; the *barhái* or *sutár*, the carpenter who made wooden tools; the *dhobi* or washerman; the *hajám* or barber and apothecary; the *talvár* or village watchman and guide; the *bárikí* or crop-watcher who acted as the *kamávisdár's* servant; the *dhór* who supplied leather articles, cut grass and wood, swept yards, and carried baggage; the *potdár*, who was a goldsmith or *sonár* and assayed the coins in the market; the *mathápati* or Lingáyat beadle, who brought food to the people at the yearly rent settlement or *jamábandi* and catered for government officers when they came to the village; the *pújári* or village ministrant; the *joshi* or village fortune-teller and astrologer; the *hire mathadaiya* or Lingáyat priest; and in some villages the *bágiválds* who held festivals in honour of the gods. The village staff were known as *bára balutás* or the twelve sharers. According to some accounts the number twelve referred to the strength of the staff, the twelve being the *pátíl*, *kulkarni*, *lohár*, *barhái* or *sutár*, *dhobi*, *talvár*, *dhór*, *mathádhikári*, *hajám*, *bárikí*, *mathápati*, and *potdár*. According to other accounts they were called twelve sharers, because the sum allotted to them was divided into twelve shares. The distribution was six to the *dhór*, one and a half to the *lohár*, *sutár*, and *talvár*, and one-half to the *hajám*, *dhobi*, and *bárikí*. When the village staff were to receive their shares of grain, the husbandman twice thrashed his crop. He thrashed it a third time, gathered the grain in a heap, and divided it among the staff. Sometimes the landholder paid them so much for every plough or for every man in his family. In some places when the landholder began to sow, he divided fourteen pounds of grain (4 *shers*) between the *lohár*, *sutár*, and *dhór*, and when he began to reap, the same three office-bearers went to the field and got

¹ Mr. Thackeray, 1821-22, East India Papers IV. 798-799.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 86-87.

³ East India Papers, IV. 798.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 795, 804.

⁵ Mr. Thackeray derives *kulkarni* from the Kanarese *kul* a landholder and *karni* an account. East India Papers, IV. 795.

half as much grain and straw as each could carry.¹ When the reaping was over, the village servants in some places went to the field and each got a horse's grain bag or *tobra* full of grain heads. When a landholder emptied his grain-pit, he left two or three grain bags full for the Dhor. In some villages the watchmen were each given a blanket. The coin-tester or *poddár* was paid one or two *pace* for each *pagoda* assayed.²

In 1752 when Ichalkaranjekar the first Marátha province-manager or *sarsubheddr* took charge, his first act was to remodel the assessment. The basis of the new assessment was the *rakam* or *aináti* that is apparently Ali Khán's 1690 standard. At the same time customary or *mámul* and extra or *jásti* cesses raised the nominal total rental, the *jama* or *berij*, to double or treble the original standard.³ This total or *berij* was seldom realised and deductions were made for villages which could not afford to pay their full rental.⁴ The *cháli*, apparently meaning the lasting or managing, Bijápur village system was continued.⁵ As has been noticed in the Bijápur period, the backbone of the *cháli* system were the *chálíkars* a class of responsible and privileged village landholders. The *cháli* lands were supposed to take their name from the Hindustáni *chal* to go or remain with, because the holder was not allowed to throw them up. These lasting or *cháli* lands were generally the best in the village and paid a special cess in addition to the regular rental. The holders of the lasting lands were further bound to make good any failure of the other village lands to pay their proper rent. The other arable village lands were held under one of four tenures all of which paid something less than the full rental. These four short-rent tenures were: *kattguta*⁶ or short-rent lands which paid only the original standard or *aináti* without any or with few additions, and were usually, but not-always, held by the lasting holders or *chálíkars* to make up for the high rates they paid on the *cháli* land; *makta*, also called *khandmakta* that is

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¹ East India Papers, IV. 796

² East India Papers, IV. 796. Of smaller perquisites chiefly enjoyed by the village headman and the village clerk, were a share in the customs revenue; a due on every bullock-load of merchandise; the right to more than one house, to a sheep at *Dasara*, and to the Dhor's services as sweeper; in some villages a percentage on the revenue; a fee from money-changers and traders; fees from gardeners, weavers, and liquor-sellers; a mint fee; a dole of molasses on the Cobra's Fifth or *Nágpanchmi*; a perquisite from things sold in the market, from oil, and from cattle; the right to have a jacket washed; a supply of stationery; and a marriage fee. East India Papers, IV. 796-797.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 99; Survey Supt. 445 of 25th October 1844 para 25. It is not certain whether the Anegundi *rakam* or Ali Khán's *aináti* was adopted as the basis of the new assessment. The passages in the original run, 'All the lands under cultivation were entered in each landholder's name at the *aináti* or standard rent only, this being generally the old *rakam* or *ráya rekha* assessment.' Mr. Elliot, 1833, Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 101. 'The assessment was made up of the *rakam* or *aináti* that is the original standard rate, the *mámul patti* or customary cess, and the *jásti patti* or extra cess.' Capt. Wingate, 445 of 25th October 1844 para 25.

⁴ There were many *pattis* or cesses, the *aináti mámul* or customary cess, the *gaon-sádbhárd* or contingent cess, the *darbár kharch* or state expense cess, and the *tashrif* or complimentary presents cess when a new manager came to a district. In addition to these customary cesses, special cesses were levied on particular occasions. Mr. Thackeray in East India Papers, IV. 788.

⁵ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 100.

⁶ *Kattuguttagai*, corruptly *kattguta*, is land held in farm at a permanently fixed money rent which is usually light. Wilson's Glossary of Indian Terms, 270.

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agreement lands, generally arable waste taken for tillage which never paid more than the original standard or *aináti* assessment; *hursul* or *paikári*, light-rented lands which could be held only by *chálíkar*s; and *kaul* or lease land also light rented and a perquisite of the *chálíkar*s. It was chiefly because the *chálíkar*s had the uncontrolled power of arranging for the tillage of the light rented *paikári* and lease or *kaul* lands that they were able to bear the burden of making good any shortcoming in the village rental.¹ In fixing the village rental the lands were entered in the holders' names at the *aináti* or original standard, that is, apparently, Ali Khán's standard which was introduced about 1690. Apart from enhancements due to the greed and the necessities of Marátha rule, the fall in the value of money, between the middle of the sixteenth and the middle of the eighteenth century, had made the original Anegundi rental represent a much smaller share of the produce than the state had a right to claim.² In any year to fix how much of Ichalkaranjkar's *berij* or total rental a village could pay, the public officers examined former collections and other records and, with the consent of the permanent holders or *chálíkar*s, fixed a sum in addition to the *aináti* total. This addition was called the cess or *patti*. It was generally known as the *mámul* or customary cess as opposed to the extra or *jásti patti*s which were being constantly levied as special charges but always tended to become permanent demands. The customary cess was fixed in proportion to the *aináti* or standard rental of the permanent holders or *chálíkar*s. The customary cess sometimes amounted to as much as and sometimes to double the original standard. Strictly no one but a *chálíkar* should have been called to pay the customary cess. Occasionally short-rent or *kattguta* holders who were not *chálíkar*s paid, according to their means, a cess or *patti*, a quarter of, or a half of, and in all cases something less than the customary cess paid by the *chálíkar*. Though the customary cess or *mámul patti* was a regular and admitted charge, the amount was never entered in the village accounts.³ Lands held by ordinary villagers, without paying any part of the customary cess, were called contract or *makta* lands. Except lease or *kaul* land no land paid less than the regular standard or *aináti*. As the *chálíkar*s had to make good any failure in the village rental they took care to prevent the tillage from declining. They kept landholders from leaving the village, persuaded new men to join it, helped newcomers or unfortunate villagers by advances of seed or by granting them the use of their oxen and servants, and, to induce them to bring arable waste under tillage, till the field was in working order, gave them leases on easy terms known as *haryáli kauls* that is grass-clearing leases. When with this or similar help or by his own exertions a villager was established as

¹ Mr. Elliot, 1833, Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 100-101; East India Papers, IV, 782.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 101. In consequence of the working of the rich South American gold and silver mines (1545), between 1570 and 1640 the price of corn rose in Europe from about two to six or eight ounces the quarter. During this period Mr. Hume makes the general rise in European prices threefold or fourfold. Walker on Money, 135. See East India Papers, IV, 426 and Rev. Rec. 117 of 1825, 489.

³ Mr. Elliot, 29th October 1833, writes, 'I have hardly seen one tillage paper before the Maisur conquest in 1778, in which the *mámul patti* was shown.' Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 103-104.

an independent holder, he was allowed to share in the gains and the risks of a *chálíkar*. If a *chálíkar* through ill-health or ill-luck failed to pay his share, he was charged only standard or a little over standard rates. If he could not pay even standard rates, some of the *chálíkar*s advanced the amount on his account and were repaid the advance by instalments. The class of leading or managing landholders or *chálíkar*s was found both to the north and the south of the Krishna. The system to the north of the Krishna was more exclusive than the system to the south of the Krishna. In Indi and Muddebihal, now in Bijápúr, the *chálíkar*s all belonged to the head or *pátíl* family. They divided the village into shares or *bhás*s and each became responsible for the rental of one or more shares. The constitution of these villages to some extent resembled the sharehold, called *bhágdári* and *narvádári*, villages of central Gujaráť.¹ In the lands to the south of the Krishna the constitution of the village was more democratic. They were more like the villages of the Madras Karnatak where the whole body of landholders had a share in the management of the village. Any man who rose to be an independent landholder, was allowed to join the managing body of *chálíkar*s.² The privileges of a *chálíkar* in the north Krishna villages differed from the privileges of a *chálíkar* in a south Krishna village. In the northern or more exclusive villages, in proportion to the amount of heavily assessed and responsible *chálí* land which he held, the *chálíkar* was allowed to hold rent-free land, called *sarv inám* or wholly alienated; if he reduced the amount of his stake in *chálí* land, he forfeited a corresponding share of his rent-free land.³ In the less exclusive south Krishna villages where any landholder might be admitted, the position of a *chálíkar* was much sought after. Among the gains which overweighed the risks of a *chálíkar*'s position, were that the best lands and the best houses in the village could be held only by *chálíkar*s; plough leases or *nángar kauls* for breaking long waste land were granted only to *chálíkar*s; the right of letting *inám* or private lands, which were always rented on lighter terms than government land, was confined to *chálíkar*s.⁴ As the fulfilling of the duties of a *chálíkar* carried with it the respect of the villagers, so a *chálíkar*, who through his own fault failed to fulfil his duties, was shunned and despised; a special house-tax was levied from him and he was liable to lose his privilege of grazing cattle on the village waste or of tilling private or *inám* lands.⁵ In bad years it was usual for the Marátha officers to forego part, an eighth, a quarter, or a half, of the customary cess. Except in very extreme cases the district manager had to pay the full amount to the provincial manager, and granted these remissions only on the understanding that the

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¹ Mr. Elliot, 1833, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 105.

² Mr. Elliot, 1833, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 102, 105.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 104.

⁴ Bráhmans, Musalmáns, and other holders of village grant or *inám* lands were forced to allow the friends of the village headman to till their lands at low rents. If the proprietor let his land to any one else the tenant was not allowed to till it. Mr. Thackeray, 1821-22, East India Papers IV. 801. A common origin of village grant or *inám* land was to the relations of those who had lost their lives in village boundary fights. Ditto, 795.

⁵ Captain Wingate, Survey Supt. 445 of 25th October 1844 para 28.

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amount forgone would be recovered in the next season.¹ The police of the country were the village militia or *shetsanadis* who also carried letters and served summonses. When employed beyond the limits of the district, they were entitled to an allowance of 1½d. (1a.) a day.² The *sarsubhedár*, when he reached his district and made the rent settlement or *jamábanli*, fixed how much each *amildár* was to collect, and the *amildár* fixed how much in each village the *kamávisdár* or in some cases the village headman and the village clerk were to collect.³ In fixing the rental of the village, the *mámlatdár* with the help of the village manager or *kamávisdár*, the village head, and the village clerk, found the area under tillage and compared it with former rentals and the state of tillage in the last year, and on this fixed the standard rental or *aináti*, the customary cess or *mámul patti*, and the extra cesses and additional items for *nemnuk* or fixed allowances and *sádilvár* or contingent expenses. From this estimate the village manager, the village head, and the village clerk, fixed what share each landholder was to pay. From the amount to be realized they took the amounts which were to be spent in the village in *nemnuk*s or fixed allowances and in *sádilvár* or contingent charges, and handed over a statement of the remainder. In a village most of whose arable land was under tillage, the whole rental was levied; in a village with much arable waste, reductions had to be made. The village manager or *kamávisdár* examined into the actual state of tillage. If he found much less land under tillage than had been supposed, a certificate was taken from the village headman, the clerk, and the leading landholders, and a remission was granted in the last payment, and an equal remission was made by government in the *subhedár*'s favour. The landholders paid their rents through the village-headman and clerk. If a landholder from death, flight, or beggary, failed to pay, at the end of the year the manager either levied the amount from other landholders if the village was populous, or, if there were few landholders, he remitted the amount and the *sarsubhedár* confirmed the remission.⁴ Except in the case of a few villages in the extreme west of the district where the crop was uncertain, in one year wet, in another year dry, and no rate could be fixed, the Marátha land revenue was taken in cash.⁵ It was sometimes taken by a bill from a money-lender or shroff; sometimes in detail in cash from the landholders.⁶ The coins in which collections were usually made were Dhárwár *pagodás* in Dhárwár, Navalgund, Hubli, Mishrikot, Betgeri, and Belgaum; Pirkhání rupees in Chandgad and Kalánidhigad; Sikka rupees in Bágalkot and Bádámi; Jeary (?) *pagodás* in Alsor, Kod, Bankápur, Gutal, Hángal, Kágnelli, Ránebennur, and Dambal; Sikka, Chándvadi, and Ankushi rupees were received in Bijápur. Other coins were taken at their market value.⁷

The revenue was collected from the landholders by weekly instalments.⁸ The proportion in which a black soil village, whose whole

¹ Mr. Thackeray, 1821-22, East India Papers, IV. 793; Mr. Elliot, 1833, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 104.

² East India Papers, IV. 795.

³ East India Papers, IV. 787.

⁴ Mr. Thackeray in East India Papers, IV. 785.

⁵ East India Papers, IV. 789-790.

⁶ According to Mr. Thackeray (East India Papers, IV. 794) it was usual to take a bill for the assessment from a shroff.

⁷ East India Papers, IV. 792.

⁸ East India Papers, IV. 794.

rental was £10 (Rs. 100), paid, was £1 (Rs. 10) from the 26th of October to the 26th of November, £1 (Rs. 10) from the 25th of November to the 26th of December, £1 10s. (Rs. 15) from the 25th of December to the 23rd of January, £1 10s. (Rs. 15) from the 24th of January to the 21st of February, £1 10s. (Rs. 15) from the 22nd of February to the 30th of March, £1 10s. (Rs. 15) from the 3rd of April to the 1st of May, £1 (Rs. 10) from the 2nd of May to the 31st of May, and £1 (Rs. 10) from the 1st of June to the 19th of June. If any arrears remained, they were collected in September and October, and the monthly instalments were made up by weekly collections. In a red soil village yielding £10 (Rs. 100) the proportion was £1 (Rs. 10) in October, £1 (Rs. 10) in November, £1 10s. (Rs. 15) in December, £1 10s. (Rs. 15) in January, £1 10s. (Rs. 15) in February, £1 10s. (Rs. 15) in March, £1 (Rs. 10) in April, and £1 (Rs. 10) in May. Arrears were collected in August and September.¹ The instalments due from the *kamávisdár* or village manager to the *amildár* or division manager were for black soil villages yielding £100 (Rs. 1000), £25 (Rs. 250) in advance in August, £27 (Rs. 270) in November, £10 (Rs. 100) in December, £15 (Rs. 150) in January, £15 (Rs. 150) in February, £10 (Rs. 100) in March, £17 (Rs. 170) in April, £5 (Rs. 50) in May, and £5 (Rs. 50) in June.² In red soil villages yielding £100 (Rs. 1000) the proportion was £25 (Rs. 250) in August, £7 10s. (Rs. 75) in October, £10 (Rs. 100) in November, £15 (Rs. 150) in December, £15 (Rs. 150) in January, £10 (Rs. 100) in February, £7 10s. (Rs. 75) in March, £5 (Rs. 50) in April, and £5 (Rs. 50) in May. The *amildár* paid the *sarsubhedár* or province manager a quarter of the collections in advance in August, and paid the rest by instalments within fifteen days after each receipt from the *kamávisdár*. The *sarsubhedár* paid the Peshwa about a quarter of the revenue or a bill for a quarter of the revenue in advance in August. If the Peshwa required an advance for the rest, he borrowed it from the Poona bankers, and gave them an order on the *sarsubhedár*, which the *sarsubhedár* discharged by six monthly instalments, beginning in January and ending in June. Afterwards in Bájiráv's time the *kamávisdár* and others collected the assessment in the same way, except that when the landholder was a man of substance two or three instalments were sometimes collected at once; also the manner of payment from the *kamávisdár* to the *amildár* and from the *amildár* to the *sarsubhedár* was the same. The *sarsubhedár* advanced a quarter to the Peshwa; or if he was a man of substance, and the Peshwa wished it, he paid the whole by instalments within eight months beginning in November and ending in June. Frequently the *sarsubhedár* lived at Poona in which case he received the assessment from the *amildár* in bills.³

The chief change between the system of land management during the first (1752-1796) and the second (1796-1817) periods of Marátha rule, was the introduction by Bájiráv in 1796 of the system of farming the land revenue. For the first five or six years of Bájiráv's reign the revenue was farmed at a fixed rent, the farmers taking all

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¹ East India Papers, IV. 790.

² East India Papers, IV. 790-791. The total of these items is Rs. 1290 instead of Rs. 1000.

³ Mr. Thackeray, 1821-22, East India Papers, IV. 791.

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risks. The country was full of disorder; the *mámlatdárs* failed to put down disturbances, and the troops sent from Poona to restore peace proved a grievous burden to the people, in some cases ruining and plundering the villages they were sent to guard; the landholders were impoverished and large tracts fell waste. In the early years of the nineteenth century these evils were increased by farming the revenue to the highest bidder. The new farmers cared nothing for the state of the country; their one object was to realize more than they had paid. With this object the head farmer, who was often a Poona courtier, sublet his farm to another, who went to the district, sent to the original farmer the share he had promised, and proceeded to collect as much as he could by subletting groups of villages and even single villages.¹ The village managers or the village farmers in fixing the sum to be recovered from a village no longer compared former payments and present tillage or attempted to distribute the amount due in accordance with the paying power of the different landholders. The revenue farmer called villagers whom he knew to be at enmity with each other; and empowered any one of them to collect the rental who agreed to raise the required sum.² The villager or the under-farmer, who undertook to collect the village rental, paid no attention to the different tenures under which the lands were held or to the rights and privileges of the landholders. He was guided solely by interest and caprice. If the oppressed landholder complained he received no redress.³ In the beginning of the year only a small rental was asked but when the landholders had sown their fields and could not leave, heavy additional sums were exacted.⁴ The landholders were unable to pay; and the keep of the duns was added to their other burdens. They had to borrow from moneylenders, were ruined, and forced to leave their villages. Every year the area under tillage shrank.⁵ In the last years of Bájiráv's reign the Bombay Karnatak was a prey to a rapid succession of revenue farmers. When a new farmer came, he had often to drive out the last farmer by force. As soon as he had the country to himself, the farmer lost no time in making good the amount he had paid in Poona. Rapid and heartless exaction was the farmer's only safeguard from loss as at any moment his successor might be on his way from Poona. There was little inducement even to maintain public order, and the district, especially Kod and other remoter

¹ East India Papers, IV. 785, 788.

² East India Papers, IV. 786.

³ In the agreements between Bájiráv and the revenue farmers, the former provision enforcing moderation on the part of the revenue collectors was left out (East India Papers, IV. 786-787). Under Bájiráv the great farmers lived in Poona and had agents or *kárkuns* in Dhárwár. If a complaint was brought against one of the under-farmers, he bought over the local agent. In this way the under-farmers were able safely to practise the most glaring oppression. The landholders were harassed by the perpetual fear of exactions. Even if their crops were seized, they had no redress. East India Papers, IV. 800-802.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 786. These exactions took the form of fresh cesses. Besides the old cesses there are mentioned a number of *tut* or deficiency cesses levied to make up for defalcations; *tashrif* or a clothes cess for the farmers; *darbár kharch* to travelling officers of state; *ghás dána* grass and grain to buy off an enemy; *shibandí* or militia cess; *galla-tota* or crop-share deficiency cess. There were many other cesses on special articles, a cattle cess, a butter cess, and others. Lastly, there was a *jásti áádilváar* or fresh contingent cess to meet the expense of persons sent to receive debts. Mr. Thackeray, 1821-22, East India Papers, IV. 788.

⁵ East India Papers, IV. 786.

parts, was overrun by freebooters.¹ During these years of suffering large numbers of landholders fled to Maisur; village clerks retired with their accounts to other districts, and all rules settling the assessment were forgotten. The hereditary village and district officers who remained, taking advantage of the confusion, seized large areas of government land to which they had no claim.²

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SECTION III.—BRITISH MANAGEMENT.

From the acquisition of Dhárwár in 1818 till 1843 the Marátha assessment remained without revision.³ During the first ten years of British rule a survey was attempted and the measurements were to a small extent adopted, but no revision of assessment was carried out.³ During the first twenty-five years of British rule, 1818-1843, the principal features of the land-rent settlement were a very high nominal demand and large remissions granted every year after an inspection of the crops. The assessment was exceedingly unequal both on whole villages and on individual holdings. Little that was in the smallest degree trustworthy was known about the areas of individual holdings. Natural boundary marks were rare and artificial boundary marks were unknown. The old land measures were not area measures but seed or *bijvari*⁴ measures, that is the area which a certain quantity of seed was estimated to sow. In each village the assessment on the unit was the same but the unit varied in area according to the supposed productiveness of the land.⁵ Before the survey settlement was begun in 1843-44 less than half of the arable Government area was held for tillage. The rest was waste. Large sums were remitted or left outstanding. During this period Indian millet or *javári* prices at Dhárwár fell from 50 pounds the rupee in 1819 to 102 pounds in 1842.⁶ In 1843-44, when the survey settlement was introduced in thirty villages of Hubli, the occupied

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1818-1884.

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 89; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 85-86.

² Mr. Thackeray, 1821, East India Papers IV. 798; Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 89. An examination of the registers of grant or *inam* lands at the beginning of the Marátha rule showed that great additions had been made between that time and 1833. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 86.

³ Col. Anderson, Surv. Comr. 6th November 1879.

⁴ *Bydvari* or *bijvari* means extent of land computed according to the quantity of seed required to be sown in it. Wilson's Glossary of Indian Terms, 86.

⁵ Col. Anderson, Surv. Comr. 6th November 1879.

⁶ The details are: Dhárwár Indian Millet Prices, 1817-1842.

YEAR.	POUNDS THE RUPEE.					YEAR.	POUNDS THE RUPEE.				
	Hubli.	Naval-gund.	Hán-gal.	Kod.	Dhár-wár.		Hubli.	Naval-gund.	Hán-gal.	Kod.	Dhár-wár.
1817 ...	100	..	150	1830 ...	80	120	185	241	98
1818 ...	95	56	103	240	...	1831 ...	75	144	169	241	105
1819 ...	90	60	106	240	50	1832 ...	60	84	22	243	129
1820 ...	96	64	100	240	49	1833 ...	40	74	96	35	54
1821 ...	92	60	153	240	51	1834 ...	50	52	105	123	60
1822 ...	80	90	184	241	73	1835 ...	45	108	109	150	111
1823 ...	95	92	137	240	114	1836 ...	45	124	163	164	90
1824 ...	80	96	158	246	102	1837 ...	47	172	167	147	90
1825 ...	71	70	179	244	84	1838 ...	60	104	169	198	102
1826 ...	83	64	167	248	63	1839 ...	70	100	218	213	78
1827 ...	95	72	144	244	96	1840 ...	75	104	180	240	102
1828 ...	100	96	128	240	102	1841 ...	65	108	172	240	120
1829 ...	90	130	179	240	99	1842 ...	70	112	198	241	102

Compiled from Survey Reports.

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area was even less than in the preceding year. Owing to the introduction of lower rates under the survey settlement, during the seven following years, compared with the year before the survey settlement, in spite of an increase in tillage, the collections in the settlement year showed a fall of about thirty per cent. In 1850 when the survey settlement was completed, the occupied area was a little less than two-thirds of the whole arable area, remissions had fallen to £18 (Rs. 180), and at the close of the year only £4 (Rs. 40) were outstanding. Two years later in 1852-53 the revenue under the survey settlement for the first time exceeded the revenue in 1842-43 the year before the survey settlement was begun. Since 1852-53, except during the famine of 1876 and 1877, the progress of the district under every head has been rapid and unbroken. In 1882 the occupied area was more than double what it was in 1843-44, and comprised more than nine-tenths of the whole arable area of the district. Remissions and outstandings had practically ceased. The collections had risen from £104,986 (Rs. 10,49,860) in 1843-44 to £142,807 (Rs. 14,28,070) in 1873-74 or 36 per cent, and arable waste had fallen from 769,376 to 115,323 acres or 85 per cent. During the thirty-two years ending 1874 Indian millet prices at Dhárwár rose from 123 pounds the rupee in 1843 to 44 in 1874, an increase of 180 per cent.¹ At the end of thirty years, that is in 1874-75, the revision of the 1843 survey assessment was begun, and by 1880-81 the 1173 villages of the district were brought under the revised assessment. During the seven years ending 1881 the only large remissions were £635 (Rs. 6350) in 1876-77, and the only large outstandings were £3732 (Rs. 37,320) in 1876-77 and £3480 (Rs. 34,800) in 1877-78. These were due to the losses in the 1876-77 famine which caused severe suffering especially in the east of the district. The rupee price of Indian millet at Dhárwár was 50 pounds in 1875, 47 in 1876, 14 in 1877, and 23 in 1878.² At the close of 1881-82 the collections amounted to about £190,000 (Rs. 19,00,000) or nearly double what they were before the survey

¹ The details are :

Dhárwár Indian Millet Prices, 1843-1874.

YEAR.	POUNDS THE RUPEE.					YEAR.	POUNDS THE RUPEE.				
	Hubli.	Naval-gund.	Hán-gal.	Kod.	Dhár-wár.		Hubli.	Naval-gund.	Hán-gal.	Kod.	Dhár-wár.
1843 ...	111	120	235	243	123	1850 ...	77	94	100	212	100
1844 ...	132	120	280	243	111	1860 ...	50	82	112	208	96
1845 ...	144	184	228	243	128	1861 ...	47	48	100	128	84
1846 ...	96	128	192	324	96	1862 ...	49	48	48	76	60
1847 ...	64	216	180	324	108	1863 ...	21	28	44	36	44
1848 ...	96	136	192	320	111	1864 ...	29	22	40	38	20
1849 ...	102	130	132	320	120	1865 ...	28	22	44	46	28
1850 ...	121	176	356	320	126	1866 ...	11	24	48	32	22
1851 ...	162	162	172	320	144	1867 ...	45	84	56	62	52
1852 ...	103	128	160	336	148	1868 ...	77	112	100	98	84
1853 ...	121	98	320	320	116	1869 ...	59	62	104	146	96
1854 ...	88	76	144	316	140	1870 ...	66	68	96	72	44
1855 ...	71	94	120	276	92	1871 ...	63	56	64	72	56
1856 ...	83	94	104	260	76	1872 ...	40	44	48	72	38
1857 ...	88	96	112	260	124	1873 ...	42	60	56	72	43
1858 ...	81	96	96	242	98	1874	84	80	44

² Bom. Gov. Sci. CLXI. 20.

Compiled from Survey Reports.

settlement was introduced. This enhanced revenue was raised on a tillage area more than double the area held for tillage before the survey settlement, and with Indian millet prices averaging more than double the prices of 1840.¹

At the beginning of British rule the revenue farming system was stopped and in its stead the personal or *rayatvār*, then known as the Madras system, was introduced.² The ruin which Bājirāv's revenue farming had wrought in the district, made the introduction of a personal settlement a work of very great difficulty. There was no record of individual payments. In many cases the village accounts had been removed to distant places of safety, in others they had been destroyed, and in other and far more numerous instances the account holders kept them back because they knew that the accounts would bring to light many usurpations on the part of hereditary district and village officers. The only documents forthcoming were general accounts, called *tālebānds* and *patraks*, of the assessments imposed in the years before the conquest. These generally showed little more than the sums imposed on villages or village groups without specifying the detailed assessment paid by individual holders or by particular fields. Even such information as they gave was of little value as it belonged to a time of exact and oppression. As this was the only available information, assessment had to be fixed on what seemed as nearly as possible average rates. In addition, the performance of many services the supply of various articles were turned into money payments and added to the rental or *jama*. The anxiety which the village officers showed to withhold their accounts, raised the suspicion that their object was to turn some hidden revenue to their own advantage. To prevent this, under the name of *mūndsab* or fitting enhancements, arbitrary additions were made to the rental or *jamābandi*, and the landholders were left to arrange shares among themselves. These fitting enhancements were not realized. Heavy outstandings in 1820-21 and 1821-22 showed that the assessment had been fixed at too high not at too low a

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¹ The rupee price of Indian millet at Dhárwār was 102 pounds in 1840, 50 pounds in 1873, and 46 pounds in 1880. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXI. 20.

² All the Collectors abolished *jāsi pattis* or arbitrary taxes having no reference to land or trade, and all regulated the *ādālvār* or contingent charges, doing away with all such levies on that account, more than were necessary for the village expenses. All Collectors paid great attention to the circumstances of the *rayats*, and made their assessments as liberal as possible. There were, however, some points of difference in their proceedings. Mr. Chaplin in the Karnatak and Capt. Grant in Sātara contented themselves with ascertaining the extent of the land under cultivation, by the information of the *patils* and of rival village officers, aided by the observation of their own fields. Capt. Pottinger in Ahmadnagar and Capt. Robertson in Poona had the *patils* of some villages measured but only in cases where they suspected fraud; and Capt. Briggs in Khāndesh began by a measurement of the whole cultivation. All Collectors kept up the principle of the *rayatvār* settlement and some carried it to a greater extent than had been usual with the Marāthās. Mr. Chaplin, after settling the *patil* for the whole village, settled with each landholder and gave him a written agreement paper for his field. Captain Grant and Captain Robertson settled with the *patil* and gave him a *patta*, but first ascertained the amount assessed on the village and enquired if he was satisfied with it; and Captain Briggs, though he settled with each field, did it all with the *patil*, taking an engagement from him to state at the end of the year how much he had levied on each *rayat*. Mr. Elphinstone, October 1819, Edition 1872, 32.

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figure. To remedy this evil Mr. Thackeray, who was then Collector, proposed that a fresh survey and settlement should be started.¹ On the establishment of order large numbers of the landholders returned who had fled from Marátha oppression to Maisur.² To ensure their settling to tillage and to tempt others to follow their example, arable waste was granted on liberal leases or *kauls*. These specially low rented lands and the remissions granted at the yearly village rent settlement or *jamábandi*, prevented the actual demand rising to more than one-half of the nominal total survey rental or *taram* assessment.³

In 1818 the British district of Dhárwár was about 240 miles long and seventy to 150 miles broad,⁴ and included 2152 villages and 285 hamlets.⁵ In 1818-19 of a gross revenue of £239,454 (Rs. 23,94,540) a net revenue of £220,014 (Rs. 22,00,140) was realised.⁶ In 1819-20, including the trade or *mohtarfa* and other taxes, the land rent amounted to £235,423 (Rs. 23,54,230), excise or *abkári* yielded £3825 (Rs. 38,250), and customs £14,900 (Rs. 1,49,000), that is a total revenue of £254,148 (Rs. 25,41,480).⁷ A variety of claims amounting altogether to £31,150 (Rs. 3,11,500) reduced the revenue to £222,998 (Rs. 22,29,980).⁸ From this the expenses of administration, amounting to £76,663 (Rs. 7,66,630),⁹ left a net revenue of £152,151 (Rs. 15,21,510). Of £222,998 (Rs. 22,29,980) the revenue for collection, £222,401 (Rs. 22,24,010)¹⁰ were collected and (Rs. 5970) were left outstanding at the end of the year 1819. According to orders issued in 1819-20, the proportion in which the land assessment was to be paid was in the case of a red village yielding £1 (Rs. 10), 3s. (Rs. 1½) to be paid within five days after September 25th, 4s. (Rs. 2) within fifteen days, October 26th, 5s. (Rs. 2½) within fifteen days from November 2d, 4s. (Rs. 2) within fifteen days from December 25th, 2s. (R

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834. 86-88.² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 89.³ Captain Wingate, Surv. Supt. 554 of 20th September 1845, about Dambal Gov. Sel. CLIV. 74-75.⁴ The territory since obtained from the Nizám in the Kolhápúr division was seventy-five miles by twenty. East India Papers, IV. 776.⁵ East India Papers, III. 792.⁶ East India Papers, IV. 776.⁷ East India Papers, IV. 321. In 1819-20 of a gross revenue of £239,454 (Rs. 23,94,540), the net revenue amounted to £222,998 (Rs. 22,29,980) or an increase on the previous year of £2974 (Rs. 29,740). East India Papers, IV. 776.⁸ The details of the claims are: Lands held by the police militia called *shet* or *shibandis* £15,002 (Rs. 1,50,020), *mokdas* and other rights enjoyed by proprietors and others £785 (Rs. 7850), rights of hereditary district officers £4950 (Rs. 49,500), rights of village officers £3370 (Rs. 33,700), allowances to temples and mosques (Rs. 47,380), annuities or *varsháns* £1632 (Rs. 16,320), village expenses £6,6280; total deductions £31,150 (Rs. 3,11,500). East India Papers, IV. 321.⁹ The charges were: Head-quarters office and contingent that is *huzur-kach* *sábilivár* £17,847 (Rs. 1,78,470) or seven per cent; *asham* or *shibandis* peons (Rs. 3,33,300) or thirteen per cent; irregular horse £6983 (Rs. 69,830) or 7 per cent; *táluka shibandis* and *shilivár* £9067 (Rs. 90,670); extra charges (Rs. 10,990); pond repairs £181 (Rs. 1810); pensions £177 (Rs. 1770); *Sá* or August allowances £978 (Rs. 9780); annuities or *varsháns* and charities (Rs. 14,000); court or *adilat* charges £149 (Rs. 1490); political charges (Rs. 27,200); post office charges £999 (Rs. 9990); and loss from exchange (Rs. 3980); total £76,663 (Rs. 7,66,630). East India Papers, IV. 321-322.¹⁰ Collections of judicial fines and extra revenue amounted to £6413 (Rs. 64,130) making a total of £228,814 (Rs. 22,88,140). East India Papers, IV. 321-322.

within fifteen days from January 24th, and 2s. (Re. 1) to be paid in March. In the case of a black-soil village yielding £1 (Rs. 10), the proportion was 2s. (Re. 1) to be paid within fifteen days from October 26th, 3s. (Rs. 1½) from November 25th, 4s. (Rs. 2) from December 25th, 4s. (Rs. 2) from January 24th, 4s. (Rs. 2) from February 25th, and 3s. (Rs. 1½) from March 25th to the end of April.¹ The landholders were made to pay their instalments in the presence of the village headman and clerk who passed receipts specifying the amount and the coin in which the instalment was paid. The *amildárs* or divisional officers took care that receipts were passed and themselves gave a similar receipt for the remittances made by the village officers. All payments were forwarded to the treasury in the same coin in which they were received from the landholders, except in the case of small coins, which could be changed in the sub-division with the sanction of the *amildár*. In 1820-21 most of the land revenue was collected through bankers or *sickárs* whom the landholders had to repay in kind at an enormous loss. The *akoih* (?) or crop share settlement was never resorted to, except when all attempt at a money settlement had failed.² In 1820-21 the 2217 villages and 290 hamlets³ of the district yielded a gross revenue of £271,096 (Rs. 27,10,960), and a net revenue of £255,627 (Rs. 25,56,270), an increase over 1819-20 of £32,639 (Rs. 3,26,390).⁴ The yearly rent settlement or *jamábandi* for 1820-21 yielded £27,322 (Rs. 2,73,220) more than the settlement of 1819-20. Part of this increase was due to the acquisition of fresh territory and part to a change in the mode of keeping accounts, which, by substituting the calendar for the *Fasli* year, threw two instalments of 1819-20 (*Fasli* 1229) into the following year.⁵ The average total collections from each sub-division during the three years ending 1820-21 were £14,433 (Rs. 1,44,330). In 1821 the Collector Mr. Thackeray expected, apparently from increase of territory, that in future they would be £15,121 (Rs. 1,51,210).⁶ In 1821 Mr. Thackeray the Collector found that to compete successfully with the neighbouring chiefs and with local proprietors who were in want of tenants, the specially favourable terms which had been granted in the 1819 leases or *kauls* must be extended from five to nine years.⁷ It was also deemed advisable to encourage cultivation by granting specially favourable rising or *istára* leases for all villages which had fallen to one-third of their former rental.

A subject of importance in the first settlement of the district was the local militia or *shetsanadis*. They had a total strength of 13,246 and yearly allowances in money and land amounting to £15,558 (Rs. 1,55,580) or seven per cent of the land revenue. In consequence of political and local changes the militia was badly distributed. Mr. Thackeray thought the best plan was to assess their lands so liberally that they would not be inclined to give them up.⁸

Shetsanadis,
1821.

¹ East India Papers, IV. 787.

² East India Papers, III. 792.

³ East India Papers, III. 792.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 392.

⁵ East India Papers, IV. 789.

⁶ East India Papers, IV. 776.

⁷ East India Papers, IV. 777.

⁸ East India Papers, IV. 395.

ter VIII.
Land.

BRITISH.
and Measures,
1821.

In Dhárwár, as in other parts of the country, the variety of land measures in every group of villages and often in every village, caused serious inconvenience in making the revenue settlements.¹ According to Mr. Thackeray there was perhaps no district in India where a standard land measure was more required than in Dhárwár. Some sub-divisions had no fewer than nine land measures. These again varied in almost every village; and as none of them had reference to any fixed length, there was not one of them that would answer as a standard. The Dhárwár sub-division contained 123 villages. In fifty-eight of these the pole or *patti* was the usual measure; but there was one pole or *patti* for the black soil, a second for the mixed or *masab* soil, and a third for the *tari* or rice land. Even in black soil the pole or *patti* varied from twenty-four to forty-eight *kurgis* or drill-plough's days' work.² From its inherent uncertainty and from the roguery of village officers, the *kurgi* was found to vary from two to eight acres; its average size was about five acres. In villages where dry and mixed or *masab* lands prevailed, the rod or *patti* contained two to twelve variable *kurgis*. The rod or *patti* in *tari* or rice villages was still smaller, containing only two to eight *kurgis* generally of one and a half to four acres.

Kul.

In nineteen villages in the Dhárwár subdivision the lands were divided into shares each of which was termed *kul*. *Kul* meant a landholder. As a land measure it might mean the area which one landholder was expected to plough. It contained six to eight *kurgis*. In seven villages the *sthal* was the land measure. According to Mr. Thackeray the *sthal* answered to the Marátha *thekina*³ apparently *thikán* or place, and was about the same size as the *kurgi*. In five villages the lands were divided into parcels called *phalnis* each equal to about two *kurgis*. In Mr. Thackeray's opinion the *phalni* probably originally meant the area of land that paid a tax of one *fanam*⁴ in one-tenth of a *pagoda*. In seventeen black-soil or *regad* villages of Dhárwár the lands were divided into *márs* of six to twenty *kurgis* each *kurgi* of two to eight acres. In Mr. Thackeray's opinion *már* the Kánarese for a fathom was probably the origin of this measure. Twenty fathoms made a *bigha*, and thirty-six *bighás* made a *már*. But the fathom varied so greatly in length that the *már* was of very uncertain size. The *vája rekha* or Anegundi fathom appears to have been equal to four and a half *háths* or cubits. This was formerly the common Karnátak fathom; and Vithalpant, an officer of one of the Bahmani kings, immortalised his name by increasing the fathom length from four and a half to five and three-quarters *háths*, and twenty of the new *márs* made the side of a Vithalpanti *bigha*. The average five and three-quarters *háths* fathom was about ten and a half feet, and the side of a Vithalpanti *bigha* was two hundred feet long. In

Sthal.

Phalni.

Már.

¹ East India Papers, IV. 320.

² The *kurgi* was the space which a drill-plough could sow in one day. East India Papers, IV. 389.

³ East India Papers, IV. 389. *Theki* is a land measure in use in some parts of the Deccan, of an indefinite area from one to twenty *bighás*. Wilson's Glossary of Indian Terms, 519.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 389. *Phalam* or *fanam* is a small silver coin formerly current in Madras; 12½ were equal to one rupee. Wilson's Glossary of Indian Terms, 155.

thirteen sub-divisions the *rāja rekhi mār*, and in five sub-divisions the *Vithalpanti mār* were the usual measures. Both varied considerably. The side of a *bigha* according to the *rāja rekhi* rate would be twenty times four and a half *hāths* or ninety *hāths*; but, in order to stretch it, an addition of twelve *hāths* was usually made as an allowance for *hinjel munjit* or the leap supposed to be taken from each end of the side of a *bigha* by the measurers. To appease the landholders half a *hāth* more to each fathom or ten *hāths* to each *bigha*, were usually added, so that the *rāja rekhi bigha* was stretched to one hundred and twelve *hāths* or about 181 feet.¹ In twelve villages of the Dhárwār sub-division the lands were divided into plots called *gules*. The word meant a one yoke plough, and had the same reference to ploughing that the *kurgi* had to sowing. The *gule* was usually equal to thirty-two *kurgis*. In one village each division was called *chakli* or a piece; the *chakli* was about half a *kurgi*.²

Thus there was no local standard measure which could be made the basis of a survey. The *kurgi* was a nominal measure and the *bigha* though more satisfactory in some places was so variable that Mr. Thackeray thought much discontent would be caused by adopting an average *bigha* as the standard. In villages where an average *bigha* took the place of the large *bigha*, there would be great discontent.³ Mr. Thackeray thought that all the local measures should be given up and the English acre used in their place. He had measured several villages by the acre with satisfactory results.⁴ He thought that the survey rules introduced into the ceded districts of Madras might be applied to Dhárwār. He proposed to measure one sub-division in the first year, four in the next, six in the third, and the rest in the fourth year. A number of *amildárs* who had studied the survey rules and helped in surveying several villages were (1821) ready to take the field. With the Commissioner Mr. Chaplin's permission Mr. Thackeray proposed to begin the survey at once. The gradual progress of the work would enable him to correct mistakes before they multiplied, to find remedies, and to make improvements, and would give him time to superintend the work, which he could not do if a more extensive survey were at once attempted. By starting with a heavily assessed sub-division, he would be able to make reductions which would please the landholders, and make the survey popular. He estimated the expense of the survey at about five per cent of a year's revenue. The landholders everywhere asked for some assurance that so much tax and no more should be levied on each field. The irregularity of the land measures made it impossible to comply with this reasonable demand. At present it was necessary not hope that kept the landholder at work. The decline in the revenue made an enhanced

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Land Measures,
1821.

Gule.

Chakli.

Survey,
1821.

¹ *Raja rekhi bigha* originally ninety *hāths*, *hinjel munjit* twelve, for *rayats* satisfaction ten, total 112. East India Papers, IV. 390.

² East India Papers, IV. 399-390.

³ East India Papers, IV. 390. Vithalpant an officer of one of the Bahmani kings had increased the length of the rod by which the side of his *bigha* was 200 feet instead of 156 feet.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 390.

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Survey,
1821.

1818-21.

Condition,
1821.

assessment necessary. It was the frauds of the hereditary district and village officers which had lowered the revenue, and, unless a survey was introduced which fixed the rent of a field apart from the position of its holder, these powerful classes would turn all enhanced assessment from themselves to their weaker neighbours.¹ Mr. Chaplin the Commissioner agreed with Mr. Thackeray that a survey was the only cure for the present evils. A survey would show Government the resources of the district and would prevent over-assessment which in their existing ignorance it was impossible to avoid. Mr. Chaplin recommended that the survey should be begun early in 1822 and that the rules which Sir T. Munro had laid down for the Madras ceded districts should be adopted as the ground work.² In 1821-22, as noticed in a despatch dated the 27th of November 1822, a revenue survey was begun in the Karnátak. In November 1823 the Bombay Government in a despatch to the Court of Directors held that a survey was necessary because of the general destruction of all village accounts. Still the evils of a crude and hasty survey were so great that unless it was superintended by able revenue officers, the survey would cause more harm than good.³

Three evils, short crops, cholera, and a murrain prevented Dhárwar from making any progress in the first years of British management. In 1818-19 and 1819-20, of the population of about 550,000 the loss from cholera was estimated at 25,000 of whom about 10,000 were landholders. The number of landholders had been further reduced by the panic caused by this deadly sickness. Flight seemed the one chance of safety and numbers fled from their homes.⁴ In 1818-19 1819-20 and 1820-21 the crops were so scanty⁵ that the smaller landholders and field labourers suffered severely,⁶ and their resources were further crippled by a murrain among their cattle. The Peshwa's government had favoured trade at the expense of agriculture. As most of the revenues were collected through moneylenders, their interest was much more regarded than the landholders' interests. Substantial farmers were (1821) very rare. In many villages, partly on account of the murrain, the landholders had not stock enough to keep up the usual cultivation. Advances helped the people to some extent; but Government could not afford to raise the stock to anything like its proper strength.⁷ The transit duty on grain pressed very heavily on the landholder. The accumulation of road dues completely barred the landholder from exporting his surplus produce to distant markets. The landholder was obliged to sell on the spot to carriers

¹ East India Papers, IV. 391.² Mr. Chaplin, Comr. 5th Nov. 1821; East India Papers, IV. 323.³ East India Papers, III. 810.⁴ East India Papers, IV. 388.⁵ East India Papers, IV. 320.⁶ Indian millet or *javári* rupee prices were, at Hubli, in 1817, 100 pounds; in 1818, 95; in 1819, 90; in 1820, 95; in 1821, 92; for Navalgund the corresponding figures were 56 in 1818, 60 in 1819, 64 in 1820, 60 in 1821; for Hángal 150, 163, 166, 160, and 153; for Kod 240 in each of the four years from 1818 to 1821; in Dhárwar they were 50 in 1819, 49 in 1820, and 51 in 1821. These prices are from survey reports.⁷ East India Papers, IV. 392.

or to grain-merchants who alone could afford to carry on the whole-sale trade and to advance the road duties.¹

(In 1821 the principal division of Dhárwár contained eighteen sub-divisions and the Kolhápúr division four sub-divisions. In future the principal division was to contain only sixteen, and the Kolhápúr division five sub-divisions.²) Of the agriculture and other resources of the district in 1821-22 Mr. Thackeray gave the following account.³ There were three leading divisions of land, dry crop or *khushki*, wet or *tari*, and garden. Of sixteen parts $13\frac{1}{2}$ were dry crop, $2\frac{1}{2}$ wet, and $\frac{1}{2}$ garden.⁴ There were two classes of dry crop land, the black or *regad* and the mixed or *masab*. Of black there were three varieties *san-yeri* or pure-black, *kart-yeri* or stony black, and *halak-yeri* or patchy black. Of mixed there were four varieties, *hit* or flour-like, *kempu* or reddish, *kallu* or stony, and *kosak* or sandy. Wet or *tari* land was of two classes *kadarnaibh* watered by rain and *miraumbh* channel or well-watered. Most of the wet land was red. Gardens were of three classes vegetable, betel-leaf, and palm gardens. Of these the palm-gardens were the best. Since the beginning of British management no new reservoirs had been dug, but many old ones had been repaired, and many more required repair. The old Hindu rulers had left few suitable sites without a lake or a reservoir. But to the east the land was not suited for storing water and in the west the south-west rains were so abundant that water was of comparatively little value. Ponds and wells were much required in the Navalgund and some other sub-divisions where the people had to bring their water from great distances; but in these tracts the porousness of the cotton soil scarcely admitted of reservoirs. There were no rules regarding the repairs of ponds and water-courses. After the conquest many were repaired by Government, part of the cost being afterwards recovered from alienated landholders in proportion to the benefit they derived from the repairs. When any village benefited by the repairs, a general subscription or *tafrik* was made. Land grants or *ináms* were in some instances given by Government to public-spirited persons who repaired ponds at their own cost. Some of the wet or *malnád* west lands, watered by new or repaired reservoirs, had been given on seven to twelve year leases or *kauls* to the builders or repairers of the reservoirs. Short rent leases for nine to twelve years were granted to the builders of wells which turned dry land into garden.⁵

¹ Mr. Chaplin, Commissioner in the Deccan, 5th November 1821; East India Papers, IV. 323-324.

² Revenue Enclosure in Mr. Chaplin's Report of 20th August 1822, East India Papers, IV. 777. The names of the eighteen and four sub-divisions are not given. In 1835-36 the eighteen Dhárwár sub-divisions were Dhárwár, Parasgad, Navalgund, Páhhápúr, Dambal, Bankápur, Hángal, Hubli, Ránebnur, Kod, Sampgaon, Bili, Chikoli, Bágalkot, Bádami, Hungund, Indi, and Muddebihal. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 42.

³ East India Papers, IV. 779.

⁴ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 para. 56. The details in *kurgis* were, dry crop 119,795, wet 8732, garden 996, total 129,523. East India Papers, IV. 779-780.

⁵ The details of the well-digging lease or *kaul* were: A dry land assessment or *khushki tirva* for six years if the cost was £2 10s. to £25 (Rs. 25-250), seven years if £25 to £35 (Rs. 250-350), nine years if £35 to £50 (Rs. 350-500), and

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Great reservoirs could be undertaken only by the state or by individuals and village communities richer than those of Dhárwár. Where there were large reservoirs, a channel-man or *narkatti* distributed the water and received fees in grain; in small reservoirs the landholders helped themselves according to custom under the control of the head of the village.¹ The leases or *kauls* which had been granted to the tillers of waste land by the British were much the same as the leases granted by the Maráthás. It had been found necessary to raise the term of the lease from five to nine years.² The breaking up of waste land was costly and required capital. Waste land was granted on leases or *kauls* subject to increasing rent till the full assessment was paid. The term of light rents lasted four to eight years according to the length of time the land had been waste. Extra cesses were not always levied till some time after the lease had expired. To prevent the *jágirdárs* drawing off Government landholders, more favourable terms were held out in Dhárwár, which, with Government advances or *tagdí*, were effectual and a rapid spread of tillage was (November 1823) expected. *Istáwás* or rising leases for deserted villages had hitherto (November 1823) been granted only to a limited extent.³

Tenures,
1821.

Except in parts of Kolhápur, as far as Mr. Thackeray could find, Dhárwár had none of the hereditary or *mirás* land which in the Deccan carried with it the right of selling and of taking back. Mr. Thackeray thought that the absence of *mirás* land was due to the abundance of waste and to the very high rates of assessment which had deprived the land of any sale value. Under the Peshwa a man who changed dry land into garden by digging a well, would not have been turned out so long as he paid his rent, nor would the government have objected to his selling his garden, but the assessment was so high that garden lands had seldom any sale value.⁴ The term *sheri* or Government land was scarcely known in Dhárwár. The corresponding Dhárwár word seemed to be *kamat*⁵ under which term were included lands reserved by Government officers for their own use; lands kept by proprietors and tilled by their private servants; and lands held by great men and tilled by forced labour.⁶ In dry crop lands in regular tillage the names of the three old tenures the *cháli* or over-assessed, the *katguta* or short-rent, and the *makta* or contract were preserved. A landholder's fields were

eleven years if £50 to £75 (Rs. 500-750). If it cost between £75 and £150 (Rs. 750 and 1500), one-fourth of the land under the well was to be permanently free of rent or *inám* and when more than £150 (Rs. 1500) were spent, one-third of the area was to be free of rent. East India Papers, III. 811; Ditto, IV. 777-778.

¹ East India Papers, IV. 778.

² East India Papers, IV. 784; Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 para 97.

³ East India Papers, III. 806-807.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 781. Mr. Chaplin informs us that *mirásdárs* do not exist at all in the Karnatak. Mr. Elphinstone, 25th Oct. 1819, Ed. 1872, 17.

⁵ *Kamatamu*, *kamat*, or *kamatam* means the cultivation which a cultivator carries on with his own stock, but by the labour of another; the land which a *zamindár jágirdár* or *inándár* keeps in his own hands cultivating it by labourers in distinction to that which he lets out in farm. In Upper India *kamat* signifies lands held by a non-resident tenant, who cultivates by a hired servant. Wilson's Glossary of Indian Terms, 254.

⁶ East India Papers, IV. 782.

generally nominally divided into these three classes, but all traces of the original assessment were lost.¹

Slavery was uncommon though it had somewhat increased under the Peshwa. A woman guilty of theft or fornication was sometimes kept as a state slave or sold. In famines people sometimes sold their girls to be slaves. The slave could not leave the master and might be sold to another owner. Still the form of slavery was very mild. The master was bound to feed and clothe any children he had by a slave-girl, and to perform their marriage ceremonies. The son of a slave-girl acted as a house servant and the daughter, if not married, became a slave or a prostitute. The son was his mother's heir. On failure of a son the master inherited the slave girl's property except what she had earned by prostitution which she was free to leave to her daughter. The master might beat a female slave or her son if they behaved badly. If he caused their death he was heavily fined. Slavery saved many lives during times of famine, and did not shake the affections of parents or encourage oppression. Bondmen were hereditary servants rather than slaves. Some slaves were imported. The position of all slaves was governed by the same rules. A child, after being sold, and eating with or marrying with a low caste buyer, could not be redeemed.²

Between 1818 and 1821 seventy-one villages were re-peopled. In 1821 the revenue of these villages was small but it was growing.³ Owing to the oppression of the revenue contractors in many villages the landholders though frugal and provident were much in debt to moneylenders and merchants. Many of these debts were of long standing and were often made of compound interest and fresh occasional aids which went on growing so as to make the accounts exceedingly complicated. A landholder once embarrassed could seldom free himself. The landholder's fields were sometimes mortgaged for these debts. In some cases the landholders and in others the mortgagees paid the Government dues.⁴

All *amildárs* or stipendiary officers were appointed by Government.⁵ Their charges yielded a yearly rental of £8000 to £15000 (Rs. 80,000-Rs. 1,50,000). The village managers or *kamávísdárs* had been dismissed, and their duties given to the village officers with a *zilládár* to check twenty to forty villages. The hereditary feemen or *darakdárs* were replaced by stipendiary clerks styled *shirastedárs* and *pehhkárs*, and shroffs.⁶ The removal of the village managers or *kamávísdárs* had added to the duties of the village headman and clerk. The headman collected each instalment and sent it to the *amildár* or divisional authority and once a year attended at head-quarters to settle the rent settlement or *jamábandi* of his village. The village clerk or *kulkarni* had to send to the *amildár* monthly tillage returns, to attend at head-quarters and present his accounts to the Collector at the yearly rent settlement,

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¹ East India Papers, III. 806; IV. 780. ² East India Papers, IV. 806-807.

³ East India Papers, IV. 785.

⁴ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 para 341.

⁵ Under the Peshwa the division authorities were sometimes chosen by government, sometimes by the *sarvabhedár*, and were sometimes bankers who had made advances.

⁶ East India Papers, IV. 794.

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to send a note to the *amildár* of each individual payment, stating the coin in which the payment was made, and to give a similar receipt to the landholder. When the *amildár* made the *kulvâr* or personal settlement of the village rental, the clerk had to write a paper or *patta* for each landholder; he was obliged to write a census or *khânesumdri* and all extraordinary returns when called upon; he had to attend the alienation and inquiry clerks called *inâm* and *daryâft mutsaddis* and furnish them with old land accounts.¹ The village clerks were supposed to keep fourteen accounts, but their habits were so irregular that they seldom prepared them when they were due.² The *shetsanadis* or militia were employed to escort remittances of treasure for which they received an allowance.³ The introduction of order and the restoration of the village headman's authority reduced the power of the heads or *nâiks* of Vadders Korâvars and other wandering and turbulent tribes.⁴

In 1821 of twenty-two *mâmlatdârs*, one only was a native of Dhârwâr. The rest of the *mâmlatdârs* and all their *shirastedârs* or head clerks were natives of the country to the south of the Tungbhadra. The majority of the *peshkârs* or treasury clerks were also foreigners. Of the ordinary clerks three out of four were natives of the Marâtha country. The rest came from the older British provinces of Madras. The servants of the late government had been so corrupted by the renting system that it was unsafe to employ them in situations of importance or trust.⁵ The *mâmlatdârs'* salaries were less than two per cent on their collections.⁶ In Mr. Thackeray's opinion, the existing type of revenue officer was more inclined to bully than to encourage the villagers; their object was rather to display their zeal by showing an increase of tillage on paper than to add to the resources of the country. Where advances and remissions were called for, the advantages which they caused depended chiefly on the judgment of the *mâmlatdâr*. When he was friendly and popular, his influence gave the poorer villages confidence and was a check on the oppression of bad village headmen.⁷

It was difficult to find employment for the hereditary district revenue officers the *desâis* or district heads, and the *deshpândes* or district clerks. Places were given to some *desâis*, but they had no business habits and almost all were corrupt. They kept no regular accounts, and many of their imperfect records were false. In some cases their *mutâlikis* that is agents or deputies were caught fabricating

¹ East India Papers, IV. 797-798.

² The fourteen village accounts were: A monthly cultivation return; a register of increase or decrease of cultivation; a general cultivation return; a statement of extra cesses; a statement of the individual distribution of the assessment; an account of daily collections; a general half-yearly statement of daily collections; a monthly account of the same; a statement of arrears; a general statement of receipts; a general statement of receipts and expenditure for the year; a separate statement of the *nemruk* or village religious allowances; a register of the village militia or *shetsanadis*; the land accounts of the village; and if necessary a census. East India Papers, IV. 797.

³ East India Papers, IV. 795.

⁴ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 para. 371.

⁵ East India Papers, IV. 783.

⁶ East India Papers, IV. 799.

⁷ East India Papers, III. 811.

substantiate false claims. Their influence had considerably lessened. They had less to do with the settlement and the collection of the revenue; the landholders were more independent of their agents or *mutálik*s had in many places superseded them. Mr. Chaplin's experience was that the power of the *zamindárs* and hereditary officers was always exercised to the prejudice of the Government and of the landholders. All they had to do was to furnish information, and as members of juries or *pancháits* their rights and privileges were continued. Most of them were said to be better off than under the former government, though those who had lost employment by the change were dissatisfied.¹

The chief improvements in the revenue system were substituting *tagái* or *takái*; that is advances for *havála* or crop-assignments; restoring the authority of village officers; stopping vexatious interference; fixing the yearly assessment and taking no more than a fixed amount; securing to every landholder the benefit of his labour; allowing each landholder to pay his rent in any coin so long as the coin was good; and granting remissions in years of failure of crops.²

The tillage returns were so grossly falsified both before and for some time after the British accession that up to 1820 the area held for tillage was uncertain. During 1821-22 fresh tillage yielded a revenue of £3431 (Rs. 34,310); on the other hand deaths and poverty and the temptation of short-rent leases led to the abandonment of land yielding £2287 (Rs. 22,870). As the lease or *kaul* lands paid only half to two-thirds of the full rate, husbandmen were always anxious to increase their area of lease land. To check this evil in 1821 rules were introduced making concessions to the landholders who continued to till their old lands. During 1819-20 and 1820-21 about 12,000 acres of land were held on *istáva* or rising leases. In 1819-20, 3840 acres of waste land were taken on *kaul* or lease, and in 1820-21 26,000.³

Complainants usually attended in the afternoon. The registrar filed civil suits on three days of the week, and revenue cases were registered every other day. The registry of revenue cases helped business and supplied a valuable record which was (1821-22) regularly kept both in Maráthi and in English. Querulous persons

¹ East India Papers, IV. 799. *Mutálik* is the agent or deputy of a *deshpánde*. Wilson's Glossary of Indian Terms, 359.

² Extract Revenue Letter from Bombay, 5th November 1823; East India Papers, III. 811-82.

³ East India Papers, IV. 783. In November 1823 the Government of Bombay (East India Papers, III. 812) thus summarised the changes which had been made in Dhárwar. The revenue farming system was abolished; the legitimate authority of village headmen or *patils* was now substituted for much arbitrary power; rents were collected more directly from the landholders; landholders enjoyed greater security of property and protection from exactions; the amount and the mode of their payments were more defined, and when necessary they were aided with advances or *tagái*. The minute scrutiny of the new system and the curtailment of disbursements on account of village charges was felt as a set-off against these benefits. The greater strictness in insisting on prompt payment and on the indiscriminate exaction of village balances was also unpopular.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 784-785.

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who could write and had much to say, were sometimes assisted in their complaints in writing. This had some effect in reducing falsehood and litigation, for the complainant who talked was often afraid of committing himself on paper.¹

The lands of every village were classed and allotted so that the landholder had a share of the good the indifferent and the bad; of the highly the moderately and the lightly assessed land. Thus a landholder cultivating about forty acres (8 *kurgis*)² might have half a *kurgi* or 2½ acres of *cháli* or over-rented, half a *kurgi* or 2½ acres of *katguta* or moderately rented, three *kurgis* or fifteen acres of *khatmakta* or low-rented, and four *kurgis* or twenty acres of *kaul inám* which was always held on specially easy terms. The lots of land and the assessment on each were distributed by the village officers with the concurrence of the village community. A landholder, who refused to till his share of *cháli* or over-rented land, might appeal to the *amildár* or to a *pancháit* or jury. At the same time he had to throw up the good and the bad land together. He was not allowed to keep the good unless he agreed to take the bad as well. It was chiefly on the *cháli* land that the extra cesses were imposed. This land was always taxed above its value. It agreed closely with the *vaita* of Gujarát and the *appanam* of the ceded districts. The division into separate classes of land had become almost nominal. All traces of the original assessment of the several parts were confounded.⁴

The Dhárwár rate of dry land varied from 6*d.* to 14*s.* (Rs. ¼-7) the *bigha* or about three-quarters of an acre. This included the very best rich black land, and all the varieties of mixed soil. Seven rupees the *bigha* was a very high rate for dry crop land, and was seldom paid unless some lightly assessed land was held with it. Well-watered garden land paid 6*s.* to £1 (Rs. 3-10) the *bigha*, and channel-watered garden land 8*s.* to £1 6*s.* (Rs. 4-13) the *bigha*. Rain-watered rice land paid 4*s.* to £1 4*s.* (Rs. 2-12) the *bigha*.⁵

The share of the produce which went to the landholder and to Government varied greatly in different places and under different circumstances. If the land was rich and well placed, after allowing for the cost of tillage, the holder without any distress could pay Government one-half of what was left. If the land was poor, to pay so large a share as half would not leave the landholder enough to keep himself, his family, and his cattle. Assuming that a middling landholder kept four bullocks and two ploughs, that he held thirty *bighás* of dry land, each *bigha* yielding a gross produce of 144 *shers* of grain, or in the aggregate 4320 *shers* the average price of which might be forty-eight *shers* the rupee which would

¹ East India Papers, IV. 779.

² *Kurgi*, a measure of land, as much as may be ploughed and sown in one day with a pair of bullocks and a drill plough; the extent varies from about two to about eight acres; the average is said to be about five. Wilson's Glossary of Indian Terms, 303.

³ East India Papers, III. 806; East India Papers, IV. 782.

⁴ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 para. 93.

⁵ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 para. 103; East India Papers, III. 807; compare East India Papers, IV. 781.

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of £9 (Rs. 90), and that he also held one *bigha* of garden on an average an outturn of about £3 (Rs. 30) that is an outturn of £12 (Rs. 120); of this whole amount the Government share would be, of the dry land crop £3 10s. (Rs. 35) and of the garden 14s. (Rs. 7) or about one-fifth, that is a total Government share of £4 4s. (Rs. 42). This would leave the landholder a balance of £7 16s. (Rs. 78). From this balance the landholder had to meet the following expenses. His share of the prime cost of his four bullocks valued at £10 (Rs. 100). These bullocks were estimated to be serviceable for eight years, so that the yearly share of the cost would be £1 5s. (Rs. 12½). The cost of his ploughs and the occasional hire of a help about 16s. (Rs. 8), seed for his dry and garden lands about 19s. (Rs. 9½), fees to district and village officers and his share of village charities about 12s. (Rs. 6), that is a total expenditure of £3 12s. (Rs. 36). The cost of keeping the landholder's family was: Food grain, four *sheers* daily, £2 4s. (Rs. 22); clothes £1 10s. (Rs. 15); sundries at the rate of half a rupee a month, 12s. (Rs. 6); total £4 6s. (Rs. 43). Against the total expense of £7 18s. (Rs. 79), might be set 14s. (Rs. 7) gained by the sale of butter, milk, sheep, manure, buffaloe, calves, and sometimes poultry; and by his own or his wife's labour in the field or in spinning cotton. These extra gains might lower the cost of the family keep from £7 18s. (Rs. 79) to £7 4s. (Rs. 72). This taken from £7 16s. (Rs. 78) his share of the gross produce, would leave a profit of 12s. (Rs. 6), after paying his rent and all charges. Reducing the amount of the total outturn to the scale of 100 the Government share was thirty-five and the landholder's share sixty-five per cent. Of the landholder's sixty-five per cent, fees, village officers' dues, and the cost of tillage accounted for thirty per cent; the keep of his family of six persons accounted for thirty per cent more, and left a saving of five per cent.¹

After paying the current year's revenue, no law prevented a landholder throwing up his fields provided he threw up the highly and the lowly assessed lands together. Still the ties which forced every landholder to till the land allotted to him by custom and the village community were stronger than laws. The landholder must till. If he ceased to till, he subjected himself to a house-tax, became hateful to his neighbours, and was considered an alien. If a landholder threw up his lands, he generally left the village. At the same time as it was the interest of the village to keep him, the obligation became mutual and gave rise to a feeling which bound the landholder to his village and his village to him. This was the best safeguard against the decline of tillage and the best preventive to emigration.² Every year a *patta* or agreement was given to each landholder stating what he had to pay. The village officers were also obliged to give him receipts. These precautions in time would prevent extra exactions. If exactions came to light, the village officers were obliged to repay the landholder and were also severely fined.³

¹ Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 paras. 104-105.

² East India Papers, IV, 782.

³ East India Papers, IV, 794.

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Every year as he moved about the district, on matters by the different village officers and checked by the *mán* Collector or the assistant collector fixed what increase each village had to pay compared with the rental of the year.¹ The Collector generally superintended the personal settlement of a few villages in each sub-division; the rest was made by the *mámílatdár* subject to the Collector's revision. After the *mauzevár jumábandi* or yearly village settlement had been fixed, the *mámílatdár* went to each village, made minute inquiries as to each landholder's tenure, field, family, and property. When the village rental was fixed, the Collector told the leading landholders what was the rise or the fall in the village rental compared with the year before. On their return to their village the leading landholders told their neighbours and apportioned the individual rent of each landholder under the immediate superintendence of the *mámílatdár* who confirmed the allotment if it gave general satisfaction. The *aináti* or standard rent, the *mámul pattis* or usual cesses of the late government, and such items of the *jásti pattis* or extra cesses as seemed fair, were ascertained; the extra cesses were embodied with the original rental and usual cesses, and the endless Marátha divisions and subdivisions were abolished. Extraordinary levies, contrary to the terms of the agreement papers or *pattás*, were never allowed. The rent was thus clearly marked and unauthorized levies made most difficult. In many parts of the district the landholders wished to have their assessment permanently fixed except that remissions should be granted on extraordinary occasions. The town lands or *kasba* of Dhárwár were surveyed and the lands assorted and assessed. The landholders approved of this measure which prevented changes of rental.² Disputes in the yearly rent settlement were settled by a *pancháit* or jury of landholders. Notice of the landholder's intention to throw up land was required, and his return to such as might have been improved by him was allowed on favourable terms. Great encouragement was held out to improvements in irrigation. The grass lands were rented but a common was kept for the village cattle. Distraint of field and craft tools was not allowed. In each village the landholders were collectively responsible for outstanding balances, but, except under special circumstances, this responsibility was not enforced. All balances that were not realized before the first instalment of the next season were remitted. Unemployed soldiers were encouraged to take to husbandry.³

As bills for the amount of the assessment were no longer taken, a treasury establishment and a large body of messengers or peons had to be kept. Bonds and receipts were exchanged between Government and the landholders.⁴

The new system of collecting the instalments of revenue from the individual holders was beneficial, but it could not work smoothly till the village officers learned their duties and the landholders were

¹ East India Papers, III. 893.

² East India Papers, IV. 739.

³ East India Papers, III. 603.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 724.

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ent on moneylenders. In the years before 1821 failure of crops, murrain, and movements of troops had combined to make the revenue very difficult to collect.¹ Except when payments were made in small coins, the same coin which the landholders brought to the village officers was delivered into the treasury.² The standard of each coin was established according to a fixed standard and all coins were received at that standard in whatever coin they were paid. The company's rupees were scarce and at a premium, and they were the currency in which public accounts were kept.³ The *shroffs* or money-changers were in the habit of combining to raise or depress the value of the coins as suited their business. The leading bankers in New Hubli, Bágalkot, Kolhápúr, and other large market towns negotiated bills to a large amount. If in a particular town the quantity of goods or any other cause enhanced the value of the current coin, the bankers immediately sent notice to their partners or agents in other towns that a certain coin was at a premium, and their agents bought the coin required and sent it where it was in demand.⁴ Distraint of property took place only when a landholder was able but unwilling to pay his rent. The officers were ordered to confine distraint to these cases and not to enforce it without authority.⁵ The rates of interest (1821-22) usually paid by landholders to moneylenders were two to four per cent a month. Under the late government a landholder paying £10 (Rs. 100) used generally to borrow £2 10s. (Rs. 25) from an outside moneylender, to raise £5 (Rs. 50) by a village loan, and to pay £2 10s. (Rs. 25) ready money. The premium or *manuti* charges paid on the village loan generally amounted to one and a half per cent, and the interest on the outside loan to six per cent calculated for three months at two per cent a month.⁶ Under the Peshwa the landholder usually paid four, six, or eight-sixteenths in grain; if he paid in grain he lost six and a quarter to twelve and a half per cent more than if he had paid in money, as the banker received the grain at twelve and a half to eighteen and three quarters per cent below the market price.⁷

Under the Peshwa it was a common practice for the landholder to assign his crop to the moneylender and get the moneylender to advance the rental. This was known as the assignment or *havála* system.⁸ This system could not be at once abolished, and so long as it lasted, the loss of interest fell on the landholder. Light assessments and timely instalments went far to remove the evil. The

¹ East India Papers, IV. 778.

² East India Papers, IV. 792.

³ East India Papers, IV. 778.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 793.

⁵ East India Papers, IV. 792.

⁶ The passage in the original is confused. It runs thus: 'The usual rates of interest now paid by *royals* to *shroffs* for loans are from two to four per cent. A *royal* paying a hundred rupees used generally, under the late government, to borrow twenty-five, to obtain fifty by means of a village loan (*mutádam*), and to pay twenty-five ready money. The charges for *manuti* in general amounted to one and a half per cent, and for interest sixteen per cent, calculated for three months at two per cent per mensem.' East India Papers, IV. 792.

⁷ East India Papers, IV. 792.

⁸ The term *havála* is also used of the practice of keeping the crops under the charge of a village officer until the instalment was paid. The passage in the text seems to refer to the assignment of a crop to a moneylender.

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landholder who still paid by assignment, lost two to five per cent by interest; but, as a little indulgence was shown regarding the coin in which payments were made, he lost little by borrowing. A landholder in moderate circumstances formerly borrowed at seventy-five per cent of his instalments, and on this scale at five per cent he had to pay seven and a half per cent interest. Under the British the share he borrowed was reduced to fifty per cent and the interest he paid to two to four per cent¹.

As regards village expenses, *nemnuks* that is fixed sums payable to Bráhmans, temples, and mosques, were sent to the treasury and then paid to the claimants. Petty village charges were paid as before by the village officers.² Allowances to village gods of whom the chief were Durga, Hanumán, and Basvana, were continued.³ Except where they were found to have fallen below the original amount, the quit-rents paid by village and hereditary district officers were continued unchanged.⁴

The increase of liquor drinking was an evil. The only means of discouraging it was to make liquor as dear as possible and to punish open drunkenness severely.⁵

Cesses.

Of the items of revenue, besides the revenue from the land and from excise, the chief was the house and trade cess known as the *mohtarfa* tax. This included a house and shop tax and a cess on weavers traders and professional men. The tax was very irregular in incidence and was higher than the corresponding taxes in Poona Ahmadnagar and Khándesh.⁶ One banker or *sávkár* in Bágalkot paid £15 (Rs. 150). Still, compared with the land tax, the *mohtarfa* tax was light. Mr. Chaplin was of opinion that the best system to adopt in a trade cess was to fix a lump sum to be paid by each class of traders in each centre of trade, and leave the traders to arrange the individual payments. Mr. Thackeray was attempting to introduce this practice in the Karnátak.⁷ In June 1823 a number of vexatious duties which yielded only a small revenue, £35 to £50 (Rs. 350 - 500), were abolished.⁸ The exclusive privilege of weighing and measuring had been rented in some places. This monopoly did not seem vexatious. It provided a public measurer who was responsible for frauds, and it tended to the uniformity of weights and measures at the same place.⁹ Under the former government many monopolies for the sale of articles had been granted. Mr. Thackeray proposed to abolish all monopolies that affected the necessaries of life.¹⁰

1823.

In 1823 both the south-west and the north-east rains were very scanty. In November 1823 the wet or rice crops which depended

¹ East India Papers, IV. 791-792.

² Mr. Chaplin, 20th August 1822 para. 36.

³ East India Papers, IV. 779.

⁴ East India Papers, IV. 794.

⁵ East India Papers, III. 793.

⁶ In Khándesh, though there was less traffic than in Poona and Ahmadnagar, the *mohtarfa* taxes were higher than in the other districts. They varied from 2s. to £7 (Rs. 1-70), the mode of levying them was without system. East India Papers, III. 811.

⁷ East India Papers, III. 792, 811.

⁸ Among the duties abolished were cesses on grindstones, leaves used as platters, straw, chaff, cotton seed, fodder, butter, cement, dyeing barks, charcoal, earthenware, wool, shoes, cordage, and *saul matti* or brackish earth. Rev. Rec. 74 of 1823, 177-182.

⁹ East India Papers, III. 793.

¹⁰ East India Papers, III. 793.

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... he had almost entirely failed, and the supply of water the land usually watered from ponds, was exhausted ... the grain ripened. Near Dhárwar the red Indian ... less, but in many sub-divisions even this hardy crop ... Till the 16th of November much of the land which was for the late harvest was unsown. Since October rice had thirty per cent and Indian millet twenty-five per cent.¹

In 1824 the early rains again held off. In July a large number of cattle in the district were sent for forage to the western forests. To help the cattle and men, especially in the east, all restrictions on the use of the meadows or *kurans* as pasture grounds were removed. Besides from the failure of rain and want of forage the district suffered in a severe plague of cholera. In July 1824 cholera raged in many parts of the district; twenty-five deaths had occurred within three days at one village and in that village nineteen were still sick. Mr. Thackeray asked leave to entertain a native dresser with a supply of medicine in each sub-division where the epidemic prevailed.² From the close of July the season's prospects began to improve. The showers fell in many parts of the district; some of the rice or *tari* crops were sown; and though in the dry villages the early harvest had been greatly kept back, by the middle of August there was ground to hope that no serious failure would occur in the later crops. Forage was scarcer than ever. Though so many cattle had died, food was so hard to get that the price of bullocks had fallen twenty-five to fifty per cent. The price of grain was (August 1824) about thirty-five per cent higher than in the previous year, and, but for the abolition of the grain duties, it would probably have been much dearer. The deaths from cholera were much more numerous than the returns showed.³ In January 1825, in reviewing the state of Dhárwár, Mr. Chaplin noticed that since 1819 the land revenue had increased by 40,000 (Rs. 4,00,000).⁴ He thought that this increase in the rental combined with seasons of bad health and short harvests, was pressing heavily especially in the east of the district. Prices also in spite of short harvests remained low and the people had suffered by the withdrawal of the Government commercial agent who had formerly bought large quantities of cotton. The increase in the outstanding balances from £3291 (Rs. 32,910) in 1818-19 to £13,435 (Rs. 1,34,350) in 1823-24 showed a difficulty in realizing the Government demand.⁵ He thought that the next year's settlement should be extremely moderate. At the same time Dhárwár had suffered less than the Deccan districts from the failure of the early rains of 1824. A large proportion of cattle had been saved by sending them to the Dhárwár forests, the late rains were specially well timed, and (January,

1824-25.

¹ Mr. Thackeray, Collector, 16th Nov. 1823, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 74 of 1823, 185-6.

² Mr. Thackeray, 25th July 1824; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 95 of 1824, 435-444.

³ Mr. Thackeray, 13th August 1824, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 95 of 1824, 445-456.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 123 of 1825, 235-252.

⁵ In 1818-19 £3291 (Rs. 32,910), in 1819-20 £2171 (Rs. 21,710), in 1820-21 £3650 (Rs. 36,500), in 1821-22 £5570 (Rs. 55,700), in 1822-23 £8010 (Rs. 80,100), and in 1823-24 £13,435 (Rs. 1,34,350). Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 123 of 1825, 236.

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1825) the late crops of wheat, cotton, *javari*, linseed and other produce were most promising.

In 1826-27 Dhárwár consisted of nineteen sub-divisions. The average yearly rental for collection of £6506 (Rs. 65,060) details were, in the principal division, Dhárwár with a rental collection of Rs. 72,430, Mishrikot with Rs. 46,180, Parasgaon with Rs. 80,940, Navalgund with Rs. 83,110, Páchhápur with Rs. 46,980, Dambal with Rs. 54,980, Bankápur with Rs. 63,630, Hángal with Rs. 57,960, New Hubli with Rs. 63,630, Ránebennur with Rs. 75,400, Gutal with Rs. 76,330, Kod with Rs. 64,040, Kittur with Rs. 74,210, Sampgaon with Rs. 86,930, and Bidi with Rs. 64,900; and in the subordinate division Bágalkot with Rs. 69,940, Bádámi with Rs. 44,350, Hungund with Rs. 70,500, and Ron with Rs. 38,070; total Rs. 12,36,090.¹ The rains of 1826 were variable. Some parts of the district suffered from want of rain while in others the crops were ruined by excessive and untimely falls. There was no cattle-disease and slight cholera in Dhárwár, Navalgund, Páchhápur, Dambal, New Hubli, Kod, Kittur, Sampgaon, and Bidi. In several parts of the district the crops suffered greatly from the ravages of rats; in some places the fields had to be sown two or three times over. The rupee price of Indian millet (*javari*) varied from about 116 pounds (29 *shers*) to about 96 pounds (24 *shers*) and the revenue was about £4820 (Rs. 48,200) less than the revenue of the preceding year; £21,649 (Rs. 2,16,490) were remitted and £2390 (Rs. 23,900) were left outstanding.

Land System,
1828.

In 1828 Mr. J. Nisbet, the Principal Collector, gave the following account of the Dhárwár system of land management.² To lessen expenses the number of sub-divisions had been lately reduced from twenty-one to nineteen. Each sub-division was under an *amiltdár* or *mámlatdár*, who, under orders from the Collector or the assistant collector, and in some cases on his own responsibility, had the control of all revenue and magisterial affairs within his sub-division. The *mámlatdár's* first duty was to make himself acquainted with the circumstances, habits, and character of the people under his charge. With this object, at the beginning of the cultivating season, that is during May and early June, he was expected to visit every village, prepare an account of the area of land tilled by each landholder, and, by settling disputes and granting advances, enquire into and try to remove causes of decrease. He should pay a second visit to villages where disputes remained unsettled or where fresh troubles had sprung up. About October when the crops began to ripen he should make a second circuit, and learn from his own knowledge the result of the season and the effect of his former arrangements. In each village his clerks, chiefly the treasury clerk or *peshkár* and the village group clerks or *villáddars*, should prepare a detailed statement of the fields tilled by each landholder to be compared with the agreements which the villagers had passed at the beginning of the tillage season. This comparison was the basis of

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 167 of 1827, 411.² Mr. Nisbet, Principal Collector, 1st December 1828.

he yearly rent settlements and formed the ground work of the mámlatdár's future proceedings. If the accounts were carefully prepared, and the enquiries honestly conducted, the mámlatdár would find little difficulty in settling all questions which might afterwards arise regarding the collection of the revenue. Besides his main part of his work the mámlatdár had many calls on his attention from proprietors or *inándárs*, claimants or *haddárs*, and their classes of the people under his charge.

Under the mámlatdár was his chief clerk or *shirastedár*. The chief clerk's duty was to keep the accounts of the mámlatdár's office comprising the details already noticed, the demands collections and balances, the issue of pay, the repairs to public works, and all other receipts and charges. In these duties the chief clerk was helped by a staff of four or five writers or *kárkuns*. The third revenue officer in a sub-division was the *peskhár* or treasury clerk who acted as the mámlatdár's confidential assistant. These, together with the shroff or coin-testing clerk and other inferior servants, formed the sub-divisional head-quarters staff. Every sub-division, besides the head-quarters clerks, had five or six *zilládárs* or village group clerks. When well chosen, these village group clerks were the most useful class of revenue servants. As they had only a moderate charge and were almost constantly on the move from one village to another, they were acquainted with every material circumstance connected with the welfare of their charges. The last in the list of the revenue administration were the village officers, the *pátils* village headmen, and the village clerks. In the revenue management of a district nothing was more necessary than to prevent the offices of village headman and clerk falling into the hands of improper persons; every family of village officers had always some member of good name and popular with the people. Accounts the most minute exactness was required. No account was recognised as valid until it had been examined in the Collector's office or *kacheri*, nor was any final order passed upon it until it had been read to the Collector. All collections were made in cash and paid in the first instance to the mámlatdárs by whom they were remitted monthly to the Collector's treasury.

In making the yearly rent settlement or *jamábandi*, after the cultivation accounts were prepared, the settlement was first made by villages or *manjevár* and afterwards by individuals or *kulvár*. The *manjevár* or village settlement was made by the Collector or by the assistant collector when on their yearly tour between October and February. This general settlement was made only with the heads of villages, and such leading landholders as chose to attend. It was usual to settle two or more sub-divisions at one place with reference to the distance which the village representatives had to travel. This saved time and the presence of representatives of different neighbouring villages was often of great value in settling disputes. The first process of the village settlement was to compare the actual state of the tillage of each village with the engagements entered into with the mámlatdár in the early part of the season, and with the settlement of the previous year. If these

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engagements were entirely fulfilled and there were no claims to remissions, the aggregate stood for the village rental and no further inquiry was necessary. If, on the other hand, land had been left waste, and it was shown that the landholders were prevented fulfilling their engagements by failure of rain, loss of cattle, or other sufficient reason, a deduction was made. Further remissions were allowed on account of all claims which, without further inquiry, could be certified to be just. To the rental which remained after these deductions, was added any increase which might have arisen from landholders' tilling in excess of their engagements. The total then formed the amount due to Government. As a rigid exaction of this demand would often ruin persons who had suffered from the season, or from private losses, a third series of deductions was admitted. These special deductions could not be made until after minute local enquiry, the claimants being present to answer for themselves. The settlement was therefore postponed until the *kulvâr* or personal settlement was made. To prevent any reduction of the *manjevâr* or village settlement, the Collector merely listened to these objections, and entered them in the accounts as *tahkub* or suspended. The village officers, the headman and the clerk, were given to understand that the lump village rental could not be changed except under very particular circumstances and by the Collector's direct order, and they received a *patta* or agreement paper from the Collector to this effect. When all the village settlements of a sub-division were finished, an abstract for each village was furnished to the *mâmlatdâr* with instructions to investigate and report on each case included in the *tahkub* or suspense list. The *mâmlatdâr* was told to bring account such items as had no claim for remission, and to give orders regarding the rest. At the close of the year, the whole was shown in a comparative statement of the village and personal settlements. As except in extraordinary cases no decrease was allowed, the result of this comparison was always in favour of the *manjevâr* or village settlement. In a subdivision whose survey was completed, there remained little more to be done at the personal or *kulvâr* settlement than to compare the statements of the village headmen and accountants with the actual condition of the landholders, to take account of the details of each individual holding, to make known the result to him, and lastly to take his *muchalka* or agreement to pay the rent as the counterpart of the *patta* or agreement paper which he received bearing the Collector's seal and signature. Where the survey had not been made, the *kulvâr* or personal settlement involved considerably more labour. The rates paid by cultivators holding the same sort of land, even in the same village, frequently varied greatly, owing sometimes to deceit on the part of the village officers and sometimes to negligence or dishonesty in the person who had made the former year's personal settlement. Where these inequalities were numerous, the simplest mode of adjusting them was to require the whole body of landholders, beginning with the lowest and taking the vote of every individual, to name a *panchâit* or council from among themselves by whose decision they would agree to abide. To this council

all the details were handed, and they were required to make a fair distribution of the amount of the village settlement apportioning to each person what they thought from their knowledge of the real value of his land and of its crops he could afford to pay. The result of this arbitration was almost always satisfactory, provided the council were at once made to set to work, without holding communication with the other landholders. Objections were occasionally made, but the objections were easily settled by asking the grounds of the council's opinion, and sometimes by referring to a landholder occupying a neighbouring field, who had assented to the settlement and might be trusted to give an unbiassed judgment. Where, but this rarely happened, the council was found to have acted with clear injustice, the members were made to pay the amount improperly imposed. Though most of the personal settlements had of necessity to be left to the mámlatdárs, the Collector took care that he and his assistants should settle a few villages in each sub-division as a pattern to the mámlatdár.

(In 1832 of the eighteen¹ sub-divisions of Dhárwár, five² were under the sub-collector of Hubli, six³ under the sub-collector of Bágalkot, and the rest under the Principal Collector of Dhárwár.) In 1832 the latter rains almost completely failed and large remissions had to be granted especially in Dhárwár, Chikodi, and Páhhápúr. In addition to the extreme drought, parts of Chikodi and Páhhápúr were visited by two remarkable flights of locusts which destroyed every green herb on which they alighted.⁴ In 1824 the district suffered a great loss by the murder of Mr. Thackeray in the rising at Kittur. Partly from the loss of his supervision the attempt to introduce a survey failed. In October 1833 Mr. Elliot the sub-collector of Hubli wrote:⁵ 'What might have been the success of the survey assessment, had Mr. Thackeray succeeded to carry his own proposals into effect, it is impossible to say. So far as the survey assessment has been yet tried in Dhárwár, Navalgund, Dambal, and Parasgad, it has proved utterly inefficient.' The only part of the operation executed under Mr. Thackeray's eye was the part of the measurement of the land, and this, though often incorrect, proved the most useful, indeed the only useful result, by affording a standard for the comparison of the various native land measures. The classification of fields and the rates of assessment applied to each class were altogether defective. The classification of fields was a frequent subject of complaint from its general incorrectness; the rates of assessment were framed entirely by native agents on wrong principles. The accounts of collections

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¹ Dhárwár, Parasgad, Navalgund, Páhhápúr, Dambal, Bankápur, Hángal, Hubli, Ránebennur, Kod, Sampgaon, Bidi, Chikodi, Bágalkot, Bádámi, Hungund, Indi, and Muddebihál. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 28; Rec. 771 of 1837, 58.

² Hubli, Bankápur, Hángal, Ránebennur, and Kod. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 143, 152.

³ Bágalkot, Bádámi, Hungund, Indi, Muddebihál, and Parasgad. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 213, 222. This sub-collectorate was abolished between 1833 and 1836. It is doubtful whether Parasgad was or was not a part of this sub-collectorate.)

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 7-11.

⁵ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 88-90.

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during the latter years of Marátha rule were again adopted and assumed as the basis of the operation. But the rates so obtained were found to vary materially from the rent actually levied; and the Government servants, actuated by a dread of displeasing the Collector on the one hand and by the difficulty of conciliating the landholders on the other, endeavoured to modify the conflicting results by expedients of their own. Wherever the new rates effected an increase in the old rent, reductions were made on the score of imperfect cultivation, poverty, or some similar excuse under the names of *nuttu uza*, *hungatu paemoli*, *teyazgori*, or *nadam*. If the survey rates fell short of former payments, a proportion of waste land was added to the reduced field, by which the total rent was kept up to its former amount. This patch work assessment now (October 1833) existed in the sub-divisions of Dhárwár, Navalgund, Dambal, and Parasgad. In the remaining fourteen sub-divisions¹ the assessment continued (1833) to be realised as originally imposed in 1818-19 and 1819-20. Meantime great encouragement had been given to the cultivation of waste lands and leases were granted to an unlimited extent. When the leases expired, in the absence of information and proper accounts, the full tax was apportioned very unequally and generally at low rates. As new lands were reclaimed, the old highly taxed fields were neglected, and often thrown up; and that they might not fall waste and show a decrease of cultivation, the district officers granted them anew at reduced rents. More substantial landholders unwilling to throw up their established fields generally consisting of the best lands near the village, retain them on the high rent that had been imposed in the beginning. A general inequality thus came to pervade the whole assessment while no data had been procured for reforming it, and the plans, attempted to be introduced for that purpose, had signally failed.²

The inequality of the assessment made yearly remissions necessary. This yearly grant of remissions had grown into a great evil. It was a source of loss to Government and a fertile cause of the corruption of native servants. The landholders considered (1833) yearly remissions as a right and the district officers were never wanting in arguments for their necessity. They were granted for poverty, misfortune, and many trifling causes, as well as for bad crops, but a considerable proportion of what was granted under the plea of failure of crops, was occasioned by abuses in cultivation. The unauthorised reductions made to the poor landholders to induce them to continue their cultivation, had thrown large farms into their hands at nominal rents which they had neither capital nor stock to keep under tillage. The land had consequently become so overrun with grass and bindweed, that it could never produce a full crop even in the best of seasons.³

¹ The details were: Páhhápur, Bankápur, Hángal, Hubli, Ránebennur, Kod, Sampgaon, Bidi, Chikodi, Bágalkot, Bádami, Hungund, Indi, and Muddebihal. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 238.

² Mr. Elliot, Sub-Collector of Hubli, 29th October 1833; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 88-90.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 109.

In 1833-34 the season was generally favourable except in parts of Dhárwar, Parasgad, Samppaon, Chikodi, and Bidi. In 1834 a new form of accounts was introduced which showed at one view the highest rate which had been paid on every field in the district since the beginning of British rule. This rate was assumed as the basis of the settlement and it was to be realized except in cases where there appeared evident grounds for levying a lower rate, which grounds were to be entered under the proper heads. The effect of this scrutiny had been to detect many unnecessary reductions caused either by the indolence or by the fraud of the district and village establishments. The rental of Government lands left waste owing to deaths desertions and poverty amounted to £3111 (Rs. 31,110). This decrease, considering the state of suffering to which the landholders were reduced in many parts of the district more particularly in the Bágalkot sub-collectorate, was less than might have been expected, and would have been far more but for the timely relief afforded by Government which kept many cultivators employed in the district who would have otherwise emigrated. The total remissions amounted to £12,835 (Rs. 1,28,350) of which £9984 (Rs. 99,840) were granted on account of failure of crops.¹

The revenue settlement of 1834-35 showed an increase over the previous year.² In every sub-division there was an increase, in some nearly as high as eighteen per cent on the whole collections, in others as low as one per cent. The abuses of the lease or *kaul* system had been most extensive. At the same time it was a system indispensable in a personal or *rayatwár* settlement. Government ordered that in giving leases either the village and district officers should in the first instance be called on to state their opinion of the capability of the landholder to fulfil his agreement, or the landholder should be required to furnish security that he would not throw up his land for a certain period after the lease had expired. Government also ordered that the native establishment should be required to make yearly reports of the land held on lease and to bring to the Collector's particular notice cases where Government had been defrauded or the rules for the prevention of abuses evaded.³

1834-35.

In some parts of the Bágalkot sub-collectorate tigers and wild animals abounded. In Bádami alone the sub-collector Mr. Shaw had in a week seen two or three tigers brought in. He recommended that the same rewards as were granted in Khándesh and the Konkan should be allowed in Bádami.⁴

The season of 1835-36 was unfavourable. A large fall in tillage was explained by over-assessment and short rain and consequent want of forage and water. Many cattle were lost from starvation and others were preserved only by being driven to the western forests and hills.⁵ Bidi, Samppaon, and Páchhápúr were all suffering from over-

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¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 549 of 1834, 218-221.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 627 of 1835, 163, 165.

³ Government Letter, 2867 of 7th Dec. 1835; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 627 of 1835, 165, 66, 195.

⁴ Mr. Shaw, 1st June 1835, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 627 of 1835, 34.

⁵ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 25.

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assessment. Considerable areas of land had been thrown out of tillage in consequence of the landholders being obliged to sell their cattle to pay the revenue of former years.¹ In Bágalkot Mr. Dunlop did not meet with many complaints of over-assessment. Still the revenues had been gradually declining since the beginning of British rule. This fall was attributed to various causes, cholera, deficient crops, and increase of weeds. Cholera, Mr. Dunlop thought, was certainly one cause. The deficient crops and the increase of weeds were, he feared, symptoms of bad cultivation arising from the people's poverty. The lands of Bágalkot had been measured but no assessment had been fixed and the variations in the revenue and in the tillage area did not correspond.² This showed that the rates of assessment varied, a serious evil that required a remedy. In Bádámi a survey assessment called *taram*³ or assortment had been introduced. The acre rates varied in dry land from 3*d.* to 4*s.* 4½*d.* (Rs. ¼ - 2⅓), in garden land from 8*s.* to £1 (Rs. 4-10), and in wet land from 8*s.* to 16*s.* (Rs. 4-8). Before the survey settlement, the custom of the over-assessed or *cháli* land and the under-assessed or *katguta* land prevailed in Bádámi as in other places, and the unit of measurement was the *már* of about twenty-seven acres (36 *bighás*), and the *patta* of four *márs*.⁴ According to the people the survey had little effect on the cultivation, and Mr. Dunlop found this opinion confirmed by the notes of his settlements of fifteen villages in Bádámi. Mr. Dunlop added that in Bádámi the general good circumstances of the people, and the uniform scale of the revenues, varying little from year to year, formed a most gratifying contrast with the sub-divisions of Bidi, Sampgaon, Páchhápúr, and Bágalkot, which he had visited before Bádámi. In Bádámi, 1837 had been a favourable season; it was the only sub-division where remissions on account of short crops were not required. In the greater part of Dambal a survey assessment had been fixed but had not been attended with such favourable results as in Bádámi. In the settled villages, there had been much fluctuation, and not a few had fallen off considerably. Still the revenues of the Dambal sub-division had on the whole increased. All the villages on the Moghal frontier had formerly suffered so much by disturbances as to be either wholly or partially deserted, and their lands waste. These had been reoccupied chiefly through the judicious measures and encouragement offered by Mr. Thackeray; and cultivation and prosperity were extensive.⁵ The new inhabitants, who had generally come from the Nizám's country, enjoyed their lands on very favourable terms and were the best off of any class of British subjects in Dhárwár. They showed a willingness to contribute to improvements, and other signs of flourishing condition. As much

¹ Mr. Dunlop, Principal Collector, 5th September 1836; Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 3, 7.² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 8, 9.³ *Tarām*, sort, kind, class; it is especially applied in the south of India to mark the different classes of village lands, and the heads under which they are arranged in the village accounts. *Taramdár* means an assessor or a surveyor and classifier of land. Wilson's Glossary, 511.⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 9.⁵ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 11, 12.

land remained waste, there was still (1836) a field for further improvement. In Dambal (1836) Mr. Dunlop noticed that certain villages under Kalkeri, which had been leased to a certain Rangráv were populous and thriving. He hoped that more men of capital might come forward and embark in similar undertakings.¹

The sub-collectorate of Hubli including the sub-divisions of Ránebennur, Kod, Hángal, Bankápur, and Mishrikot, were (1836) very different from the rest of Dhárwár. The country suddenly changed from the monotonous, almost sterile bare black plains; the village sites and the lands near the villages were filled with coco-palms, jack, and the broadleaved vegetables of the Konkan. It was a land of ponds; Ránebennur, Kod, Hángal, and Bankápur were full of them. In 1835 upwards of £1900 (Rs. 19,000) had been sanctioned for repairing these reservoirs, and the engineer had made considerable progress. Like the eastern districts Hubli was suffering from over-assessment. The season of 1832-33 had been extremely unfavourable, the dearth had almost amounted to famine, and grain had risen enormously high. The next two years, 1833-34 and 1834-35, were uncommonly favourable, and, combined with the increased cultivation caused by the stimulus of high prices, soon reduced the price of grain, which drove some land out of cultivation. Besides the fall in prices the rates in force in 1835-36 had been introduced by taking the highest from a statement of ten years' contributions. These rates had begun to tell; many complained that they were too high, and land was given up. In 1835-36 a reduction of £312 (Rs. 3120) was made; and it was calculated that a further reduction of at least £500 (Rs. 5000) was required to reduce the rates to a proper standard.² The survey or *taram* assessment of Dhárwár, Parasgad, and Navalgund, had been settled by Mr. Thackeray. In Dhárwár the *malná*d or wet west lands continued (1836) to pay according to his rates. In the east of Dhárwár, and in Parasgad and Navalgund, Mr. Thackeray's rates had proved too high, and some general measure of abatement seemed necessary, as the prosperity of the people and the public revenue had materially suffered.³

Bádámi was the only part of the district where the survey assessment or *taram* had succeeded. Its effects in Parasgad and Navalgund had been very injurious. Its great success in Bádámi had been owing in some degree to the soil, but mainly to the lightness of the assessment. Mr. Dunlop held that the inspection of the survey officers had been much too hurried to give them any sufficient knowledge of the actual productiveness of the land. They had accordingly in most cases to fall back on former payments. This explained how Mr. Thackeray's survey had caused misery in Navalgund and prosperity in Bádámi. Bádámi had suffered from disturbances and had yielded but a small revenue, therefore the new rates were low; Navalgund had enjoyed peace and had formerly been prosperous and yielded a large revenue, therefore the new rates were so high

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 11-12.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 12-14.

³ Mr. Dunlop, 5th Sept. 1836, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 15.

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that the people were ruined. Results showed defects in the survey. These defects probably could not have been foreseen. Now that time had brought them to light, an attempt ought to be made to remove them.¹

Compared with 1834-35, the land revenue of 1835-36 showed a fall of £8341 (Rs. 83,410) on account of lands left waste, and £30,330 (Rs. 3,03,300) on account of remissions. Mr. Dunlop (September 1836) remarked that the item which showed most strongly that the distress of the people had arisen from over-assessment, was the large area of land which had passed out of tillage. As landholders had no other way of earning their living, the giving up of land showed that the land was so highly assessed that its cultivation did not pay.²

1836-37.

The season of 1836 was in every respect most unfavourable and the fall in revenue was great.³ The calls for remissions due to the actual character of the season and to the condition of the landholders, were loud and urgent.⁴ On the 25th of September 1837 Mr. Blane, the assistant collector in charge of Ránebennur and Kod, wrote: 'These sub-divisions have unfortunately been visited by several successive indifferent and bad seasons. The consequences are deplorable. A number of gardens containing trees, the growth of years, have been laid waste and thrown up. Land that has usually grown sugarcane rice and other rich crops has been sown with *javári* and *rági* and other poor grains. This has been added the serious loss of cattle from the failure of forage and the absence of the people from their villages, tending their herds in the forests.' The result was not only temporary loss but a despondency which almost paralysed the landholders and caused the worst effects. The landholders reduced the area under tillage and rather than run the risk of the failure of more valuable crops, they contented themselves with sowing the poorer grain feeling more secure of some return. In 1836-37 unusually large remissions were granted in Ránebennur and Kod. The assessment was excessively unequal both on account of the ever varying ancient rates and because these rates were little attended to. It was most difficult to estimate the circumstances of a landholder and to decide to what extent his rent should be reduced. At present (September 1837), rather than allow a landholder to throw up a field, it was given him at a trifling rent or upon any terms he chose to ask.⁵ The mismanagement of leases or *kauls* had been a fertile source of abuse and loss to Government. The rules laid down had not been attended to, leases had been given too freely and improperly, and no strict account of them was kept. According to the rules full assessment ought to be stipulated for in every instance. Instead of

¹ Mr. Dunlop, Principal Collector, 5th Sept. 1836, Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 16-20.

² Mr. Dunlop, Principal Collector, 5th Sept. 1836, Rev. Rec. 771 of 1837, 24-25.

³ In this year the district consisted of eight sub-divisions, Dhárwár, Navalguni, Dambal, Hubli, Bankápur, Hángal, Ránebennur, and Kod. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 86 of 1838, 151, 153, 173, 194.

⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 866 of 1838, 150.

⁵ Mr. Blane, assistant collector in charge of Ránebennur and Kod, 25th Sept. 1837, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 866 of 1838, 174-177.

1836 ✓

this, leases had been granted at reduced rates and frequently for extended periods. Land that had been waste only for one or two years was given on terms which applied to land which had been waste for five or six years. Many of these leases seemed to have been granted by the village authorities without the sanction of the mámlatdár or the assistant collector.¹ The failure of water and over-assessment were yearly reducing the area under garden tillage.² On the 29th of September 1837 Mr. Ravenscroft the first assistant collector in charge of Hubli, Bankápur, and Hángal wrote that the land revenue had declined by £8680 (Rs. 86,800). Most of this was remitted in consequence of the almost unparalleled failure of all kinds of crops. The rice crop had been an almost complete failure. It had grown about a foot high and then withered, even the best watered fields had not yielded more than an eighth of a crop. In the dry grain or *belval* country, the *javári* and the late crops had been killed by the drought. In Hubli there had been no rain. In the middle of October 1836 all the crops were perishing. In 107 Bankápur villages the rice crops gave no return.³

In 1837, an abundant fall of rain and an unusually productive season extended tillage in Hubli, Bankápur, and Hángal.⁴ Compared with 1836-37 the revenue showed an increase of £12,978 (Rs. 1,29,780). Notwithstanding this large increase, it was found necessary to grant remissions of £9406 (Rs. 94,060) on account of waste land and unproductiveness. Two points essential to the maintenance of the land system were a yearly local scrutiny and that Government should bear the loss caused by unfavourable seasons and the poverty of the husbandmen. Taking the value of the soil as the proper standard for a land tax, the existing rates were much too high. They could not but operate as a check to improvement, and to the more general growth of valuable products. In December 1838 the Collector Mr. Mills wrote: 'To keep up the highest possible rate of taxation on land used for the growth of sugarcane is at variance with the principles of British management, and must prove extremely hurtful to Government and to the landholder. A fixed assessment without reference to the produce is the only method calculated to establish confidence in the mind of the landholder and thereby best promote the interests of Government. Landholders can never prosper if they have both to pay high rates and to face years of scanty crops. The paralyzing effect which such a combination causes soon shows itself and Government have at last to retrace its steps with loss of revenue and a pecuniary concession to the poverty which its own management has produced, and which a more liberal policy would have prevented.'⁵

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1837-38.

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 866 of 1838, 179-180.² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 866 of 1838, 185.³ Mr. Ravenscroft, 29th Sept. 1837; Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 866 of 1838, 154-155.⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 972 of 1839, 3. (The Dhárwar district at this time consisted of eight sub-divisions, Dhárwar, Navaigund, Dambal, Bankápur, Hángal, Hubli, Ránebenur, and Kod. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 972 of 1839, 40.)⁵ Mr. Mills, Collector, 11th Dec. 1838, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 972 of 1839, 7-8.

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Land.

THE BRITISH.
1837-38.

In Ránebennur, Kod, and Dambal, taken together, notwithstanding the large remissions £9375 (Rs. 93,750) granted, the revenue was considered to have reached a fair average, and the increase £8739 (Rs. 87,390) was as much as could have been anticipated, under the circumstances of the season. The increase of revenue £2000 (Rs. 20,000) in these three sub-divisions within the past five years (1833 - 1838) was satisfactory. When the three sub-divisions were taken separately the result showed that the Dambal subdivision was alone progressing. The progress in Dambal was due to its very moderate assessment and the encouragement thereby held out to extend cultivation. In 1833-34 the revenue of Dambal amounted to £8749 (Rs. 87,490), and it had been gradually rising till it reached £11,907 (Rs. 1,19,070) in 1837-38. The season of 1837 was considered only an average one, and the increase of £3148 (Rs. 31,480) during the five years ending 1837-38 was deemed much in favour of the lenient course which had been pursued in Dambal and showed that in reality a light assessment was no ultimate sacrifice of revenue. The result of the five years ending 1837-38 in Ránebennur showed some little change, but on the whole the revenue seemed to maintain its ground. The revenue of 1837-38 had reached that of 1833-34, £12,416 (Rs. 1,24,160); it was short of 1834-35 by £1000 (Rs. 10,000). The next two years 1835-36 and 1836-37 showed considerable decrease of revenue chiefly caused by unfavourable seasons. The assessment of Ránebennur was not deemed high. The Kod sub-division showed nearly the same results as Ránebennur except that the 1837-38 revenue was short of 1833-34 by £868 (Rs. 8680) and below that of 1834-35 by £1314 (Rs. 13,140). The two following years 1835-37 showed a great falling off from unfavourable seasons. The land-tax in the Kod sub-division was not deemed high and it was (1838) thought that under favourable circumstances the revenue would increase.¹

The garden assessment in Kod, Ránebennur, and Dambal was high and required to be reduced. In the remaining two sub-divisions Dhárwár and Navalgund, which were settled on the same principles as the preceding three, the revenue during the five years ending 1837-38, showed an increase in Dhárwár from £12,482 (Rs. 1,24,820) in 1833-34 to £15,822 (Rs. 1,58,220) in 1837-38, and in Navalgund from £12,113 (Rs. 1,21,130) in 1833-34 to £15,227 (Rs. 1,52,270) in 1837-38.² In the Collector's opinion the gradual increase in Dhárwár and Navalgund during these five years proved that the landed interests were not declining.

Mr. Mills thought that in its present condition the personal or *rayatwár* settlement was not likely to promote the interests either of Government or of the landholders. In Mr. Mills' opinion unless a cultivator held under a fixed tenure, he had no stimulus to exertion. The complications in the existing system were a great

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 972 of 1839, 9-12.

² The details are : Dhárwár, 1833-34, Rs. 1,24,822; 1834-35, Rs. 1,59,333; 1835-36, Rs. 1,41,188; 1836-37, Rs. 1,32,740; and 1837-38, Rs. 1,58,222. Navalgund, 1833-34, Rs. 1,21,130; 1834-35, Rs. 1,43,051; 1835-36, Rs. 86,072; 1836-37, Rs. 1,51,495; and 1837-38, Rs. 1,52,270. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 972 of 1839, 15-17.

evil, as they fostered dishonesty and extortion in the native agency. To get rid of this rapacious agency Mr. Mills suggested that simple acre rates should be introduced. He thought that more care should be taken to preserve to the holder the advantage of any improvements he might make in his land. He thought that the heads of villages had been overlooked in Dhárwár, and that much improvement might have been secured by giving them villages in lease.¹ Of the whole land revenue of about £100,000 (Rs. 10,00,000) the early or rain crops yielded about £60,000 (Rs. 6,00,000), and the late or cold weather harvest about £40,000 (Rs. 4,00,000). Garden lands yielded about £5000 (Rs. 50,000). Mr. Mills thought that the garden rates were much too high. The garden land acre rates varied from 8s. to £6 8s. (Rs. 4 - 64); the acre of early crop or *khariif* land paid 3d. to 6s. (Rs. $\frac{1}{2}$ - 3); the acre of late or *rabi* crop land paid 1s. to 10s. (Rs. $\frac{1}{2}$ - 5); and the acre of wet or rice land, 2s. to £1 12s. (Rs. 1 - 16).² In October 1838 Mr. Blane the assistant in charge of Ránebennur expressed the opinion that the mámlatdárs, to get for themselves a name for zeal, had unduly pressed the extension of tillage. Many men had been persuaded or bullied into taking land who would have been much better employed as labourers.³ He thought the present system most unsatisfactory. An enquiry into details showed that neither the mámlatdár nor the *peshkár* his assistant exercised an efficient check on their subordinates. The village group clerks had a wide and safe field for fraud and partiality.⁴

In 1838 another failure of rain caused great loss over most of the district. Navalgund perhaps suffered most. Its black soil depended chiefly on the late rains which had entirely failed. Dambal and part of Bankápur suffered in the same way as Navalgund.⁵ Hubli suffered severely. It had passed through a succession of bad seasons and cultivation had greatly declined.⁶ The details of the revenue⁷ are :

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Land.
THE BRITISH.
1837-38.

1838-39.

Dhárwár Land Revenue, 1837-1839.

Sub-Division.	Villages.	1837-38.			1838-39.		
		Remissions.	Outstandings.	Collections.	Remissions.	Outstandings.	Collections.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Dhárwár	190	19,598	16,051	1,42,171	41,127	6198	1,12,623
Navalgund	59	18,596	23,464	1,28,516	66,524	19,841	79,944
Dambal	118	7365	25,147	93,920	22,185	1664	1,05,823
Bankápur	128	16,319	22,309	1,11,027	87,980	800	1,11,463
Hángal	195	26,641	19,288	90,860	35,594	4032	93,949
Hubli	241	24,044	26,095	1,32,336	43,491	11,543	1,36,840
Ránebennur	179	30,815	2956	1,21,202	37,459	1431	1,13,123
Kod	230	27,928	8179	97,790	26,205	4881	1,06,302
Total	1342	1,71,176	1,06,377	9,18,422	3,10,566	49,840	8,65,087

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 972 of 1839, 19-21. ² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 972 of 1839, 24-25.

³ Mr. Blane, assistant collector, 30th Oct. 1838, Rev. Rec. 972 of 1839, 100 - 102.

⁴ Mr. Blane, assistant collector, in charge of Ránebennur, Kod, and Dambal, 30th October 1838, Rev. Rec. 972 of 1839, 104-105.

⁵ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1097 of 1840, 4-5.

⁶ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1097 of 1840, 49-50.

⁷ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1097 of 1840, 40, 41.

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THE BRITISH.
1838-39.

This fresh failure of rains showed the advantage of garden lands and that they were at present assessed at unduly high rates. Dambal was a most thriving sub-division. Navalgund seemed stationary and the assessment was higher than in other sub-divisions. The soil was rich but the sub-divisions suffered greatly from the want of water.¹ The Hángal sub-division was not declining. At the same time its garden lands were much too highly assessed. On the superior land which paid £1 4s. (Rs. 12) and as high as £1 12s. (Rs. 16) and in a few instances £2 (Rs. 20) the acre, Mr. Mills the Collector proposed acre rates of £1 (Rs. 10) and £1 4s. (Rs. 12) to be levied permanently when irrigated from a pond or river, and, when this was not the case, from 16s. to £1 (Rs. 8-10).² The village accounts were kept better and with greater correctness than in any of the sub-divisions of the Dhárwár district. In the Dhárwár sub-division scarcely any of the superior products were raised. Considering its local advantages Mr. Mills the Collector thought it ought to have shown more signs of improvement.³

1839-40.

In 1839-40 the fall of rain was unusually abundant and such of the dry crops as required little or no water and had been sown on wet and garden lands were almost entirely destroyed. The system of making each village responsible for the amount of its pasturage or *vancharát*, instead of farming it sub-division by sub-division, came into general use. The Maráthi language was being gradually superseded by Kánarese in official proceedings. The total collections for the year were £115,329 (Rs. 11,53,290), remissions £,650 (Rs. 86,500), and outstandings £1292 (Rs. 12,920). The revenue details for 1838-39 and 1839-40 are⁴:

Dhárwár Land Revenue, 1838-1840.

SUB-DIVISION	Vil- lages.	1838-39.			1839-40.		
		Remis- sions.	Outstand- ings.	Collec- tions.	Remis- sions.	Outstand- ings.	Collec- tions.
		Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.
Dhárwár ...	190	41,127	6198	1,12,623	8211	1204	169,194
Navalgund ...	59	66,624	19,341	79,944	22,864	6839	175,112
Dambal ...	118	22,185	1864	1,06,823	5385	1090	122,985
Bankápur ...	135	37,980	800	1,11,468	7307	110	142,508
Hángal ...	196	8,564	4082	98,949	15,887	650	1,2,568
Huhl ...	241	48,491	11,643	1,36,840	11,375	2264	178,213
Ráneennur ...	179	37,459	1431	1,13,123	8021	651	141,923
Kod ...	230	26,205	4881	1,06,802	7559	198	126,788
Total ...	1342	3,10,566	49,840	8,65,067	86,509	12,916	11,53,291

The increase thus amounted to £28,822 (Rs. 2,88,220). In this increase were included £3749 (Rs. 37,490), the revenue of the thirteen villages of the newly attached Nipáni territory of Annigeri. In explanation of the large remissions, the Collector observed that the difficulty of reaching the coast shut out the local markets from foreign trade. In ordinary years the land did not yield more than enough for home use and in abundant seasons the local markets were glutted and the agricultural interests suffered severely. Again

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1097 of 1840, 9-14. ² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1097 of 1840, 17.³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1097 of 1840, 22-23.⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1235 of 1841, 151, 157-158, 170, 172-175.

the landholders often held more land than they could manage and in this way subjected themselves to pecuniary difficulties.¹

The season of 1840 was considerably above the average, and all the sub-divisions except Navalgund had a nearly adequate supply of rain. In two or three villages in Yávgal, the petty division of Navalgund, little or no rain fell. The assessment on the whole district averaged 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) the acre. The average on Government land was 2s. 8¼d. (Re. 1 as. 5½) the acre and 2s. (Re. 1) the acre on quit-rent lands. The collections during the year were £114,707 (Rs. 11,47,070), the remissions £7743 (Rs. 77,430), and the outstandings £1875 (Rs. 18,750). The revenue details for the years 1839-40 and 1840-41 are²:

Dhárwár Land Revenue, 1839-1841.

Sub-Division.	Villages.	1839-40.			1840-41.		
		Remissions.	Outstandings.	Collections.	Remissions.	Outstandings.	Collections.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Dhárwár	190	5211	1204	1,59,194	4901	1533	1,62,206
Navalgund	74	22,864	6939	1,75,112	24,800	6954	1,72,932
Dambal	115	5385	1090	1,22,885	4569	2598	1,20,769
Bankapur	185	7307	110	1,42,508	14,612	1671	1,35,316
Hángal	195	15,887	540	1,12,543	6408	1655	1,18,412
Hubli	241	11,275	2294	1,73,313	9800	3572	1,69,131
Ránebennur	179	80 21	551	1,41,928	7043	821	1,41,878
Kod	230	75 82	198	1,25,788	4794	950	1,26,420
Total	1357	86,502	12,916	11,53,291	77,427	13,754	11,47,066

In 1841-42 many irregularities in accounts were brought to light. No proper receipts had been given to landholders, leases had been granted without sanction, remissions had not reached those for whom they were intended and vast discrepancies occurred in the account of balances of former years according to the sub-divisional and district accounts. Many changes had to be made in the native establishment. Some of the mámlatdárs were discharged and others pensioned, and some of the lower officers shared the same fate. The season on the whole was favourable except that at the close of the year the *javari* and wheat crops were injured by heavy rain. The landholders also suffered in consequence of the low price of and the small demand for cotton. The sub-divisions of Navalgund and Dambal suffered severely from over-assessment and mismanagement. Sugar was manufactured for the first time by a private person in Hángal. The town duties in Dhárwár, Navalgund, Betgeri, Hubli, Dhundsi, and Ránebennur caused much hardship. Since the duties in the smaller towns had been abolished, the buyers and sellers of foreign grains and produce, who had frequented the markets of the larger towns, flocked to the markets which were free of duties. The total collections were £116,655 (Rs. 11,66,550), the remissions £8245 (Rs. 82,450), and the outstandings £2424 (Rs. 24,240). The revenue details³ for 1840-41 and 1841-42 are:

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Land.

THE BRITISH.

1840-41.

1841-42.

¹ The Collector Mr. Mills, 141 of 23rd Nov. 1840, Rev. Rec. 1238 of 1841, 131-148.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1342 of 1842, 3-10, 22-25.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1451 of 1843, 230-242, 275, 277, 278, 300, 451.

DISTRICTS.

Chapter VIII.

Dhárwár Land Revenue, 1840-1842.

Land.
THE BRITISH.
1841-42.

Sub-Division.	Villages.	1840-41.			1841-42.		
		Remissions.	Outstandings.	Collections.	Remissions.	Outstandings.	Collections.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Dhárwár ...	190	4901	1533	1,82,208	12,520	459	1,57,158
Navalgund ...	81	24,800	5954	1,72,932	16,260	15,711	1,90,516
Dambal ...	113	4569	2598	1,20,769	4847	4326	1,25,102
Bankápur ...	185	14,612	1671	1,35,316	13,600	1059	1,35,513
Hángal ...	195	6908	1655	1,18,412	8460	470	1,17,420
Hubli ...	241	9800	3572	1,69,131	13,282	1382	1,69,410
Ránebennur ...	179	7403	821	1,41,873	4086	285	1,41,427
Kod ...	230	4794	950	1,26,420	4400	463	1,30,008
Total ...	1364	77,427	18,754	11,47,066	82,455	24,245	11,66,554

1842-43.

In 1842-43 the system of granting rising leases or *istáva kauls*, which had been found to be attended with many evils, was abolished. The prospect of a survey settlement had a great effect on cultivation. The estate-holders or *zamindárs* were tilling their lands to the greatest possible extent, not knowing what might take place, and were inducing Government cultivators to take their lands by offering more favourable terms. The landholders had an idea that the new assessment would be calculated on the gross amount of the village rental and that consequently the smaller the amount paid by the village, the lower would be the new rates of assessment. The early *javári* crops suffered from excessive rain chiefly in the *mámlatdár's* division of Bankápur. The collections during the year amounted to £115,082 (Rs. 11,50,820), the remissions to £7199 (Rs. 71,990), and the outstandings to £2012 (Rs. 20,120). The revenue details¹ of 1841-42 and 1842-43 are :

Dhárwár Land Revenue, 1841-1843.

Sub-Division.	Villages.	1841-42.			1842-43.		
		Remissions.	Outstandings.	Collections.	Remissions.	Outstandings.	Collections.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Dhárwár ...	194	12,520	459	1,57,158	12,741	784	1,50,389
Navalgund ...	81	16,260	15,711	1,90,516	6877	11,226	1,85,258
Dambal ...	113	4847	4396	1,25,102	1973	4643	1,29,376
Bankápur ...	144	13,900	1059	1,35,513	12,045	856	1,45,781
Hángal ...	195	8460	470	1,17,420	3254	1026	1,21,708
Hubli ...	241	16,282	1382	1,69,410	21,597	1150	1,69,010
Ránebennur ...	181	4086	285	1,41,427	4695	501	1,31,996
Kod ...	231	4400	489	1,30,008	2109	434	1,33,603
Total ...	1380	82,455	24,245	11,66,554	71,991	20,120	11,50,821

SURVEY,
1843-1860.

The first thirty years' revenue survey settlement was introduced into forty-seven villages of Hubli between 1843 and 1845, and by 1850-51 the whole district was surveyed and settled.² After their acquisition in 1858, the thirty-one Nargund villages were surveyed and settled in 1859-60. Compared with the collections in the year before the survey, the collections in the settlement year showed, for the whole district, a fall of about thirty per cent. The following statement gives the chief available details of the revenue survey settlements introduced into Dhárwár between 1843 and 1860 :

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 1566 of 1844, 225, 230, 234, 246-249, 308.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CXLVIII. CLIV. CLV. CLVI. CLIX. CLX. CLXI and CLXII. ; Survey Commissioner's Files of Hubli, Navalgund, and Nargund Survey Settlements.

Dhárwár Survey Settlements, 1843-1860.

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Land.

SURVEY,
1843-1860.

GAOUP.	VILLAGES.	SETTLEMENT YEAR.	HIGHEST DRY-CROP ACRES RATES.	COLLECTIONS.			
				Before Survey.	After Survey.	Increase percent.	Decrease percent.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
Hubli	47	1843-45	2, 1½, 2½ ...	49,610	47,929	...	3·4
Navalgund	77	1844-45	1½, 1½, 1 ...	1,63,072	1,10,989	...	32·1
	4						
Dambal	86	1845-46	1½, 1 ...	1,23,944	70,860	...	42·8
Bankápur	137	1846-47	1½, 1½, 1½, 1½ ...	1,25,761	98,901	...	21·3
Ránebanur	130	1847-48	1½, 1½ ...	1,02,280	56,393	...	45·8
Hángal	161	1847-48	1½, 1½, 1½, 1½, 1½ ...	1,22,989	93,674	...	23·8
Taras	64	1847-48	1½, 1½, 1½, 1½, 1½ ...				
Kod	245	1848-49	1½, 1½, 1½, 1½ ...	1,08,930	96,019	...	11·8
Dhárwár	132	1848-49	1½, 1½, 1½, 1½ ...	1,62,392	90,266	...	40·7
	1						
Mishrikot	99	1848-49	1½, 1½, 1½, 1½ ...	47,767	25,249	...	47·1
Mulgund	29	1850-51	1½, 1½, 1 ...	49,616	37,622	...	24·1
Nargund	31	1859-60	1½, 1½, 1½ ...	35,770	637,838	5·8	...
Total	1238	10,82,131	7,64,440	...	29·3

a Survey rental on area under tillage.

The survey settlement was introduced into forty-seven Hubli villages between 1843 and 1845.¹ With the exception of three *phutgaons* or detached villages and four of the *Sar Deshgaṭ mahál*, the forty-seven Hubli villages formed part of the petty divisions of New and Old Hubli. They lay along the border of a hilly tract stretching west to the Sahyádris, which in Hubli sank somewhat suddenly into a broad level plain. The hilly portion of Hubli was formed of low flat-topped ranges of an iron clay stone, which, from the friableness of the rock, were rarely steep or rugged. Most of the hills were covered with herbage and brushwood. They were separated by flat-bottomed valleys to which and the lower slopes tillage was confined. Many small ponds which had been formed by throwing dams across the narrower valleys, served to water patches of rice ground and to supply the wants of the village cattle. Except near Hubli where were numerous gardens and large mango groves, wells were few and water was scanty. Though tame, the country was green and pleasing. Close to the hills was a coarse grained red soil, and, at greater distances, every variety of finer grained red, dark-red, and richer soil, until they merged in the black cotton soil of the great eastern plain. The Hubli river drained the west, and, on its way to the sea, hurled its waters over the great Gersappa Falls. Several Hubli villages lay well within the hills; others were partly in the hills and partly in the plain; the rest were altogether in the plain. The climate and soil were remarkably well suited to one another. In the hilly parts where the red soil required constant watering, rain fell in frequent showers from June till October. Over the plains whose moisture-holding black soils were content with one or two wettings, the clouds floated east high above the plain and rarely yielded a shower. The chief products of the red hill lands were *bájrí*, the early or rain variety of Indian *javári*, and a poor kind of rice. The black soil, in addition to the early or *kharif* crop of early *javári*, was well suited to cotton, gram, wheat, linseed, white *javári*, and all the ordinary products of the late or *rabi* harvest. The red land

Hubli,
1843-45.

¹ Captain Wingate, Survey Superintendent, 445 of 25th October 1844; Government Letter, 1024 of 27th February 1845.

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SURVEY.

Hubli,
1843-1845.

yielded grass and weeds in abundance and needed to be well manured. The black land, when once brought into proper tillage, was remarkably free from grass or weeds. In the town of Hubli all the local produce found a market. Hubli, with a population of 33,000 in 5458 houses, had long been an important trade centre. It had a number of old established banking and trading firms, who issued bills for large amounts on Bombay, Madras, and other trade centres. Its export trade chiefly consisted of local cotton cloth, raw cotton mostly sent to Bombay by Kumta, and tobacco, betelnuts, and chillies. There was also a considerable trade in grain, oil, butter, and other local produce. The imports were large quantities of salt, metals, British cloth and hardware, and coconuts, from the coast. Under British management, the personal or *rayatvār* distribution of the rent-settlement or *jamābandi* had been made by the Collector, his assistant, and the *māmlatdār*, instead of, as it had been under the Peshwa, being left to be adjusted by the village officers and the leading or *chālī* landholders. With this exception, the British management did not materially differ from that of the Peshwa. The extra cesses or *jāsti pattis* had been excluded from the assessment. The result was that, with no better guides than the mutilated and fictitious accounts of the Peshwās, the local decisions with regard to assessment were little better than guess work.¹ To compensate for the injustice of the distribution when it was found to bear too hard on individuals, yearly remissions were granted. Much of these remissions were appropriated by the native officers and never reached those for whom they were intended. The average rate paid by an acre of dry-crop land in three villages was 1s. 11³/₄d. (15¹/₃ as.). In seventeen villages the average number of acres in cultivation and the amount of assessment from 1820-21 to 1843-44 were 4818 acres and £717 (Rs. 7170); those from 1834-35 to 1843-44 were 4626 acres and £669 (Rs. 6690); and those from 1839-40 to 1844-45 were 4431 acres and £675 (Rs. 6750).²

¹ Of the entries in the rent-settlement or *jamābandi* accounts, those specifying the sum total of revenue could alone be depended on. The cultivation returns were entirely untrustworthy. The incorrectness and want of system in the accounts may be judged from the fact that in 1841-42 the discrepancies between the head-quarters or *huzur* and the sub-divisional books on account of outstanding balances amounted to £25,000 (Rs. 2,50,000). Survey Superintendent, 445 of 25th October 1844 paras 63-64.

² The details are: In the seventeen villages which the settlement grouped into the first class, the assessment rose from about Rs. 11,900 in 1820-21 to about Rs. 12,800 in 1822-23 and from that steadily fell to Rs. 7400 in 1825-26. After a rise to about Rs. 11,500 in 1826-27 it again fell to about Rs. 9600 in 1828-29. It rose to about Rs. 10,300 in 1829-30 and fell to about Rs. 8600 in 1831-32. After a rise to about Rs. 13,100 in 1834-35 it steadily fell to about Rs. 6400 in 1836-37. It rose to Rs. 12,000 in 1837-38 and fell to about Rs. 10,900 in 1838-39. From about Rs. 12,100 in 1839-40 it steadily fell to Rs. 8500 in 1842-43. In the ten villages which the settlement grouped into the second class, the assessment rose from about Rs. 15,500 in 1820-21 to about Rs. 17,100 in 1822-23. From that it fell to about Rs. 15,400 in 1823-24. After a slight rise in the next year it again fell to about Rs. 10,200 in 1825-26. From about Rs. 15,700 in 1826-27 it steadily fell to about Rs. 12,000 in 1828-29, and from about Rs. 13,000 in 1829-30 to Rs. 11,000 in 1831-32. After a rise to about Rs. 18,000 in 1834-35, it rapidly fell to about Rs. 8400 in 1836-37. It rose to about Rs. 17,300 in 1837-38 and fell to about Rs. 13,300 in 1838-39. From about Rs. 16,700 in 1839-40 it steadily fell to about Rs. 12,000 in 1842-43. Diagram in Survey Report, 445 of 25th October 1844.

The survey ascertained the area of each field and made its limits permanent by constructing proper land marks. The fields were mapped and the quality of the soil and the advantages and disadvantages of the situation were ascertained. All fields were referred to one of nine classes of soils. The value of the highest class was fixed at 16, to correspond with the number of *annas* in a rupee. The remaining classes diminished in value from 16 to $1\frac{1}{2}$, the amount fixed for the poorest soil considered arable. Of the forty-seven villages, thirty, which were close to the head-quarters of the district, were first surveyed, on account of the variety of soil surface and climate in them, which rendered them well suited for general experiment, as well as for training the measuring and classing native establishments. These thirty villages were arranged into three classes. The first class included seventeen villages which either lay among the hills and enjoyed an ample supply of rain, or were close to the town of Hubli and had the advantage of its market. The second class included ten villages skirting the hills, but with the larger portion of their area in the plain and at some distance from Hubli. The third class included three villages in the plain, far from the hills and with an uncertain and scanty rainfall. In the first class the survey dry-crop acre rates varied from 4s. to 4½d. (Rs. 2-as. 3). In the second class they varied from 3s. to 4½d. (Rs. 1½-as. 3). The highest dry-crop acre rate adopted in the third class was 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1½). Garden land inclusive of alienated land amounted to seventy-seven acres. Soil of sufficient extent for rotation was assessed at 10s. (Rs. 5), 7s. (Rs. 3½), and 4s. 6d. (Rs. 2½) the acre, according as the soil was good, medium, or poor. Soil, not of sufficient extent for rotation, was assessed at 8s. 6d. (Rs. 4½), 6s. (Rs. 3), and 4s. (Rs. 2) the acre, according as it was good, medium, or poor. Rice lands amounted to 403 acres. Where it was watered from a pond, the soil was rated at 6s. (Rs. 3), 5s. (Rs. 2½), and 4s. (Rs. 2) the acre, according as the soil was good, medium, or poor. Where it was watered from hill drainage, the soil was assessed at 5s. (Rs. 2½), 4s. (Rs. 2), and 3s. (Rs. 1½) the acre, according as it was good, medium, or poor. For the three classes of villages the result of the new rates on the whole arable land was an increase of £64 (Rs. 640), compared with the average collections in the twenty years ending 1844-45, and an increase of £395 (Rs. 3950) or thirteen per cent on the 1842-43 collections. The details are :

Hubli Survey Settlement, 1845-1845.

CLASS.	VILLAGES.	FORMER.		SURVEY.		
		1825-1845.	1842-43.	Area.	Rental.	Highest Dry-crop Acre Rate.
		Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.
I	17	10,397	8535	6630	8778	2
II	10	13,639	12,733	13,064	14,757	1½
III	3	10,236	6640	11,447	11,374	1½
Total	30	34,272	30,968	31,161	34,909	...

Compared with the previous year, the average acre rate in the settlement year shows a fall from 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1½) to 2s. 1d. (Rs. 1¼). In the three years ending 1844-45, the tillage area in these thirty

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villages was 22,338 acres assessed at £3075 (Rs. 30,750) or an average acre rate of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1½) in 1842-43 the year before the settlement; 22,850 acres assessed at £2389 (Rs. 23,890) or an average acre rate of 2s. 1d. (Rs. 1¼) in 1843-44 the settlement year; and 24,237 acres assessed at £2732 (Rs. 27,320) or an average acre rate of 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) in 1844-45. The remaining seventeen villages were in the mámlatdár's share of the Hubli sub-division. Some of them were close to the town of Hubli and others were among the hills. They were considered to possess equal advantages with the first class of villages and were assessed at the same rates, 4s. to 4½d. (Rs. 2-as. 3).

Navalgund,
1844-45.

The survey settlement was introduced into seventy-eight Navalgund villages in 1844-45.¹ The Navalgund sub-division was close to the Hubli sub-division. It stood on a broad level plain of deep alluvial soil, stretching west to the Sahyádris, broken by one steep quartz rock overlooking the town of Navalgund. The slope of the country was north-east to the small river Benni, which joined the Malprabha in the north of the district beyond Yávgal. The water of the Benni and in the few local wells was brackish and good water was so scarce that the people suffered severely during droughts. Tillage was almost confined to dry-crops. There was no watered land, except a few gardens; only a few scattered half-grown *bábhul* trees saved the country from being absolutely bare. The rain was uncertain and fell at long intervals. Morab and Rotigvád received more and Yávgal received less of the south-west rains than the rest of the sub-division. The soil was suited to cotton, gram, wheat, linseed, and white *juári*. The only thriving town was Navalgund but its trade was little beyond what was required for supplying the surrounding population with their necessaries. The cotton yarn spun by the women of the Navalgund villages found a ready market in Hubli. Navalgund contained seventy-eight villages, thirty-five of which were under the mámlatdár of Navalgund, thirty under the mahálkari of Yávgal, and thirteen under the mahálkari of Anni-geri. During the twenty-one years ending 1843-44, the tillage area in the eleven Rotigvád villages varied from about 19,200 acres in 1837-38 to about 12,000 acres in 1832-33. During the fourteen years ending 1831-32 the rental varied from about £1810 (Rs. 18,100) in 1822-23 to about £1280 (Rs. 12,800) in 1829-30 and averaged about £1490 (Rs. 14,900), and during the ten years ending 1843-44 it varied from about £2320 (Rs. 23,200) in 1839-40 to about £1080 (Rs. 10,800) in 1835-36 and averaged about £1960 (Rs. 19,600).² In the ten

¹ Survey Supt. 445 of 25th Oct. 1844; Gov. Letter 1024 of 27th Feby. 1845.

² The details are: The TILLAGE AREA in 1823-24 was about 13,600 acres; between 1824-25 and 1831-32 it varied from about 16,800 to about 16,000 acres; from about 12,000 acres in 1832-33 it steadily rose to about 19,200 in 1837-38; and between 1838-39 and 1843-44 it varied from about 18,800 acres to about 14,900. From about Rs. 14,200 in 1818-19, the RENTAL steadily rose to about Rs. 18,100 in 1822-23; between 1823-24 and 1831-32 it varied from about Rs. 15,100 to about Rs. 12,700; in 1832-33 it fell to about Rs. 3200; it rose to about Rs. 20,100 in 1834-35; and from about Rs. 10,800 in 1835-36 to about Rs. 22,200 in 1837-38. After a fall to Rs. 16,000 in 1838-39 it again rose to about Rs. 23,200 in 1839-40. From this it almost steadily fell to Rs. 17,500 in 1843-44. Diagram in Survey Rep. 445 of 25th October 1844.

Morab villages, during the twenty-one years ending 1843-44, the tillage area varied from about 28,900 acres in 1827-28 to about 15,200 acres in 1843-44. During the fourteen years ending 1831-32, the rental varied from about £3560 (Rs. 35,600) in 1822-23 to about £1550 (Rs. 15,500) in 1830-31 and averaged about £2880 (Rs. 28,800); and during the ten years ending 1843-44 it varied from about £2900 (Rs. 29,000) in 1837-38 to about £1400 (Rs. 14,000) in 1838-39 and averaged £2380 (Rs. 23,800).¹ During the twenty-one years ending 1843-44 the tillage area in the twenty-five Naval-gund villages varied from about 35,700 acres in 1837-38 to about 24,700 acres in 1843-44. During the fourteen years ending 1831-32 the rental varied from about £3250 (Rs. 32,500) in 1821-22 to about £2090 (Rs. 20,900) in 1818-19 and averaged about £2820 (Rs. 28,200); and during the ten years ending 1843-44 it varied from £4164 (Rs. 41,640) in 1836-37 to about £1890 (Rs. 18,900) in 1835-36 and averaged about £3220 (Rs. 32,200).² During the twenty years ending 1843-44, the tillage area in sixteen Yavgal villages varied from about 24,100 acres in 1837-38 to about 17,100 acres in 1843-44. During the fourteen years ending 1831-32 the rental varied from about £1120 (Rs. 11,200) in 1831-32 to about £810 (Rs. 8100) in 1818-19 and averaged nearly £1000 (Rs. 10,000); and during the ten years ending 1843-44 it varied from nearly £2800 (Rs. 28,000) in 1838-39 to about £1140 (Rs. 11,400) in 1835-36 and averaged £1910 (Rs. 19,100).³ In Konnur the average acre rate between 1839-40 and 1843-44 was 1s. 5½d. (11½ as.); in Chilakvád it was about 2s. 11½d. (Re. 1 as. 7½); in Tirlápúr, Halkusgal, and Álagvád it was 3s. 7½d. (Re. 1 as. 13½), 2s. 4d. (Re. 1 as. 2½), and 2s. 2½d. (Re. 1 as. 1½)

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1844-45.

¹ The details are: From about 22,600 acres in 1823-24, the TILLAGE AREA rapidly rose to about 28,900 acres in 1827-28; from that it steadily fell to about 17,200 acres in 1832-33; between 1833-34 and 1841-42 it varied from about 24,000 acres to about 18,200 acres; and from about 18,000 acres in 1842-43 it fell to about 15,200 acres in 1843-44. The RENTAL steadily rose from about Rs. 22,200 in 1818-19 to about Rs. 35,600 in 1822-23; from about Rs. 29,100 in 1823-24 it again steadily rose to about Rs. 34,100 in 1826-27; from this it rapidly fell to about Rs. 15,500 in 1830-31; after a rise to about Rs. 25,200 in 1831-32 it again fell to about Rs. 8500 in 1832-33; it rose to about Rs. 28,100 in 1834-35; from about Rs. 15,200 in 1835-36 it rose to Rs. 29,000 in 1837-38; in 1838-39 it was about Rs. 14,000; and from 1839-40 to 1843-44 it varied from about Rs. 27,600 to about Rs. 20,600. Diagram in Survey Rep. 445 of 25th October 1844.

² The details are: From about 27,600 acres in 1823-24 the TILLAGE AREA steadily rose to about 35,500 acres in 1826-27; it again slowly fell to about 25,700 acres in 1832-33; from this it steadily rose to about 35,700 acres in 1837-38; from about 32,100 acres in 1838-39 it rose to about 34,000 acres in 1839-40, and from this steadily fell till in 1843-44 it was about 24,700 acres. The RENTAL rose from about Rs. 20,900 in 1818-19 to about Rs. 32,500 in 1821-22; from 1822-23 to 1831-32 it varied from about Rs. 32,200 to about Rs. 24,100; in 1832-33 it was about Rs. 15,500; and between 1833-34 and 1843-44 the variations were frequent ranging from about Rs. 41,600 to about Rs. 18,900. Diagram in Survey Rep. 445 of 25th Oct. 1844.

³ The details are: From about 18,200 acres in 1824-25 the TILLAGE AREA steadily rose till it was about 22,100 acres in 1830-31; from about 22,000 acres in 1831-32 it fell to about 17,500 acres in 1832-33; and from this slowly rose to about 24,100 acres in 1837-38; it fell to about 22,100 acres in 1838-39 and again steadily rose to about 23,100 acres in 1841-42, and then fell to about 17,100 acres in 1843-44. From 1818-19 to 1831-32 the RENTAL varied from about Rs. 11,200 to about Rs. 8100; in 1832-33 it was about Rs. 3400; and from 1833-34 to 1843-44 it varied from about Rs. 28,000 to about Rs. 11,200. Diagram in Survey Rep. 445 of 25th Oct. 1844.

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respectively; in Kolivád it was 1s. 9½*d.* (14½*as.*); in Bhoplápúr, 1s. 1½*d.* (8½*as.*); and in Annigeri 1s. 6¼*d.* (12½*as.*).

For settlement purposes seventy-seven of the Navalgund villages were arranged into three classes. The first and most westerly class included most of the Morab and Rotigvád villages; the second class included the remaining villages of these groups, with the whole of Navalgund, the petty division of Annigeri, and a few Yávgal villages; the third class included the remaining villages of Yávgal. In the first class of villages the highest survey dry-crop acre rate was 2s. 7½*d.* (Rs. 1⅞) and the average rate 1s. 10½*d.* (15*as.*). In the second or central class the highest dry-crop acre rate was 2s. 3*d.* (Rs. 1½) and the average rate 1s. 7½*d.* (13*as.*). In the third or eastern class of villages the highest dry-crop acre rate was 2s. (Re. 1) and the average rate was 1s. 5¼*d.* (11½*as.*). The remaining village of Halihál was assessed at a highest acre rate of 3s. (Rs. 1½) and was proposed to be transferred to Hubli. The 171,353 acres of Government arable land were estimated to yield £14,382 (Rs. 1,43,820). The claims or *haks* of hereditary officers were consolidated in the new assessment. The result of the introduction of the survey rates in the seventy-seven villages forming the three classes was that, compared with the rental on the tillage area in 1843-44, the survey assessment on the whole arable area showed an increase of £3370 (Rs. 33,700) or thirty per cent. The details¹ are:

Navalgund Survey Settlement, 1844-45.

DIVISION.	VILLAGES.	FORMER RENTAL ON TILLAGE AREA.			TOTAL SURVEY RENTAL.
		1818 - 1832.	1834 - 1844.	1843 - 44.	Rs.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Navalgund ...	25	34,055	38,058	31,748	40,000
Morab ...	10	30,615	23,603	21,991	29,874
Rotigvád ...	11	14,801	19,586	17,571	20,780
Yávgal ...	16	11,887	21,140	17,051	34,319
Annigeri ...	12	20,075	26,561
Phutgaon ...	2	1844	1775
Konnur ...	1	336	611
Total ...	77	91,358	1,04,397	1,10,116	1,43,820

Compared with the previous year the effect of the survey settlement was a fall in the average acre rate from 3s. 3¼*d.* (Re. 1 *as.* 10½) in 1843-44 to 1s. 9¼*d.* (14½*as.*) in 1844-45.

In 1845-46 the survey settlement was introduced into the eighty-six villages of the Dambal sub-division in the east of the district.² Of the eighty-six Dambal villages into which the survey rates were introduced in 1845-46, forty-three were under the mámlatdár of Gadag and forty-three under the mahálkari of Dambal. Dambal was the most easterly and also the largest sub-division in the Dhárwár district. It was of very irregular shape, tapering southwards almost to a point, and having a long narrow outstanding spur to the north, besides a few detached villages. Dambal was bounded on

Dambal,
1845-46.

¹ Capt. Wingate, 445 of 25th October 1844 para. 125. The figures in this statement do not agree with those given on the preceding page from the survey diagram.

² Captain Wingate, Survey Supt. 554 of 20th September 1845. Government Letter 778 of 21st February 1846. Bom. Gov. Scl. CLIV.

the north by the Ron petty division of Bádámi, on the east by the Nizám's country, on the south by the Tungbhadra river, and on the west for a distance of thirty miles by a range of rugged hills and then Navalgund which stretched from the north end of the hills to Ron on the north of Dambal. The total area of the eighty-six villages according to the 1825 survey was 358,277 acres of which 343,189 were arable and 15,088 unarable. Of the arable acres, 224,390 were Government, 61,578 were alienated, 37,269 paid quit-rent or *judi*, and 19,952 were service land or *shetsanadi*. Except the hilly tract to the south-west and one or two villages in the extreme north, Dambal, like Navalgund, was an unbroken plain of black soil. The only large stream was the Tungbhadra. The southern half of Dambal sloped towards the Tungbhadra; the rest sloped north towards the Malprabha. In the first or south half water was good and abundant; in the second or north half, especially on the side of Navalgund, water was scanty and bad. Differences of soil and climate separated Dambal into two well marked natural divisions. The climate of the level parts of Dambal which included three-fourths of the whole was like that of Navalgund and the fall of rain was perhaps equally uncertain. The chief supply came late in the season from the September and October thunderstorms. In consequence of this the harvest of the plain villages was almost wholly of late crops among which the leading products were, white *javári*, gram, wheat, and cotton. Safflower and linseed were also largely grown. The remaining fourth, which consisted of villages lying within and immediately around the western hills, differed from the plain both in soil and in climate. These hills, which in parts rose more than a thousand feet above the plain, gathered the south-west monsoon vapours in frequent showers during June July and August. The same wind equally charged with moisture for weeks together swept over the neighbouring plain without bringing a drop of rain. In this moist hilly tract, the soil was mostly reddish, poorer and coarser than the black loam of the plain. Captain Wingate thought (1845) this was due to the uneven surface of the land, washing the finer particles of soil into water-courses which bore them to lower levels. Even in the midst of the red soil of the hills when, as in a pond bed, finer particles found no way of escape, a fine black-soil deposit was almost always present. Its frequent monsoon showers and the inability of the red soil to support long continued droughts, nearly confined the husbandry to early crops. The lands of some villages were of both kinds; those nearest the hills being red, cultivated with early or monsoon crops, and those further in the plain black growing late or *rabi* crops. Tillage in Dambal was almost confined to the ordinary dry-crop husbandry. Watered lands occurred in a limited number of villages; but they were of inconsiderable extent and importance. They were partly watered from wells and partly from streams lying mostly along the Pápnáshani Halla which crossed the south of Dambal.

The chief markets were Gadag, Betgeri, and Mundargi. Besides these towns were four large villages, Naregal, Sudi, Saudi, and

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Hombal, in the mámlatdár's charge; and three, Dambal, Lakundi, and Harlápúr in the maháلكar's charge. Gadag and Betgeri, which were not half a mile apart, were both flourishing towns. The Gadag and Betgeri markets were the great resort of the people of the villages round, who disposed of bundles of cotton yarn and received cash to buy weekly supplies. The two towns contained a large population, a considerable portion of whom made their living by weaving cotton robes and bodice cloths whose strength and fastness of colour were greatly admired. Mundargi, though in 1845 it was not equal to Gadag or to Betgeri, had a growing trade and promised to become the most important town in Dambal. Dambal had some trade in coarse cloth which was used locally. Iron was also smelted in Doni and Chikvadvatti and prized by the people for field tools. It sold at fifteen pounds (25 *shere*) the rupee. Field produce was largely exported, but most of the trade was in the hands of strangers. The chief article was cotton which was bought by agents of commercial houses at Hubli, Belgaum, and Kumta for the Bombay market. A few Gadag and Betgeri traders and even some of the wealthier landholders of particular villages sent cotton to Kumta on their own account. In Belvanki, Saudi, and Sudi two or three landholders always sent their own cotton to Kumta and generally bought as much as they could from their neighbours and carried it with their own. Instances of this kind occurred in other villages also but the whole quantity of cotton exported by the local growers and traders was trifling compared with what was taken away by strangers. Wheat was the export of next importance. It was bought in considerable quantities for the Belári markets by traders who came to Dambal for the purpose. Wheat was also occasionally sent to the Hubli, Dhárwár, Nargund, and Bádámi markets. Cotton and wheat were both usually paid for in cash and were therefore of chief importance to the landholder by enabling him to raise money to pay his assessment. Other grains and oilseeds were exported but to no large extent. The bread corn of the subdivision and perhaps the most widely grown crop was the white *judri*. It was of so little value as an export, as to be sometimes unsaleable for cash at any price. The village moneylenders took it in repayment of grain advances, and it was also a common substitute for money in the village markets where it freely exchanged for vegetables, fruit, and other trifling necessaries. Landholders could seldom, without a great sacrifice, raise money on Indian millet to pay their assessment.

Dambal suffered severely during the disorders of the Marátha rule, and several villages had not yet (September 1845) recovered from the devastations then committed. When the sub-division came into British hands population was much reduced and a great part of the arable land was overrun with brushwood. The Madras personal or *rayatvár* plan of management was introduced on the British accession, and, to encourage settlers to bring the arable waste under tillage, Mr. Thackeray, when Collector, gave leases or *kauls* on liberal terms. The survey settlement followed in 1825 and

1826,¹ but the native officers managed matters so that the settlement caused little change in the amount of assessment previously levied. The lease system continued, and the abatement it produced in the standard assessment, together with other yearly remissions, prevented the collections ever rising much above half of the full survey or *taram* assessment. The survey diagram for sixty-four villages² shows that up to the 1832-33 (*Fasli* 1242) scarcity, the cultivation and assessment gave no sign of improvement. Captain Wingate thought this stationary condition was partly due to the impoverished state of Dambal when it came under British management and partly to a systematic under-rating of the tillage area by the village officers. Without attaching much importance to these conjectures he felt convinced that the very moderate assessment collected during the early years of British management had been one main cause of Dambal's subsequent prosperity by allowing the growth of the resources which enabled it to bear, without injury, the gradually rising rental of later years. Since 1832-33 tillage and land revenue in Dambal showed a steady increase, the best proof of moderate assessment. The fall of tillage and assessment in the two years (1843-1845) before the revenue survey, was not due to any fall in the resources of the sub-division but to the removal of restrictions on throwing land out of tillage, and discountenancing the existing evil and universal system of forcing tillage beyond the wants of the people. In the sixty-four villages for which details were available the net assessment or revenue for collection during the twenty years ending 1845 averaged £6295 (Rs. 62,950) that is an average acre rate of 1s. 3½d. (10 $\frac{5}{12}$ as.). These twenty years showed a decline during the first eight (1825-1833) and an improvement during the last twelve (1833-1845). The average during the ten years ending 1845 was £7787 (Rs. 77,870) or an acre rate of 1s. 4½d. (10⁶ as.). This was a period of improvement. During the five years ending 1845 the

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¹ In the thirteen Sudi and Saudi villages, the survey measurements were alone introduced. In 1845 the standard assessment was the *jāsi sāl berij* or highest rate of any year of British management before 1833-34. Captain Wingate, 554 of 20th Sept. 1845, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 74.

² The survey diagram was prepared for the sixty-four of the eighty-six Dambal villages, which remained after deducting the twenty-one villages of the Kalkeri farm and the village of Harlápúr whose accounts were incomplete. The twenty-one villages of the Kalkeri farm were held by Bhimráv Rangráv of Mundargi at a yearly rent of Rs. 12,000. This farm was originally granted in 1833, and the lease was renewed for a further period of twelve years in 1844. The accounts of these farmed villages were for several years wanting, and in other respects Captain Wingate was not prepared to give them full credence. The accounts of the village of Harlápúr were also wanting for twelve years when it was held in *saranjám* by the late Hari Govind Siddhe Deshmukh. These twenty-two villages were therefore excluded from the diagram. As regards the accounts of the remaining sixty-four villages, which, with two exceptions, were complete for all the years of British management, Captain Wingate (1845) thought particularly as regarded the area of land under tillage and the gross assessment thereon that their correctness should not be implicitly relied on. Still they furnished the best available information on these subjects. The amount of each year's rent or *jamábāndi* set apart for collection might be relied on as correct. Captain Wingate, Survey Superintendent, 554 of 20th September 1845; Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 77.

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average was £8547 (Rs. 85470) or an acre rate of 1s. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. (11 $\frac{5}{8}$ as.). This period was nearly stationary but prosperous.¹

On the whole the British management had been liberal, and the assessment was far from heavy. The population and the wealth of the villages had steadily increased. In these respects Dambal offered a pleasing contrast to the neighbouring sub-division of Navalgund, which had been seriously impoverished by the levy of a burthensome assessment. Other circumstances favoured Dambal. The Nizám's country bounded it for upwards of fifty miles and the oppressions incident to the rackrenting system over the border had drawn many settlers into Dambal. It was not uncommon for the people of the Nizám's border villages to have houses and lands in British villages as well as in their own villages in order to remove their families and cattle from the Nizám's territory, when the renter's exactions passed the limits of endurance. These movements were termed *parasthals* or out-settlements. They were more than usually numerous in 1845.

With such neighbours and the contrast between the complete freedom of trade in British territory and the restrictions placed upon trade across the border, it was not surprising that British rule should be popular in Dambal. The people were well disposed and were generally in easy circumstances. A large proportion of landholders were independent of moneylenders and some of the more substantial could afford to keep the whole of the year's produce by them, until the arrival of a merchant at the village or some other contingency enabled them to dispose of it to advantage. These remarks were not of universal nor even of very general application. As might be expected in a sub-division where new settlers were numerous and which was yet only recovering from the injuries received before the beginning of British management, many, perhaps most, Dambal landholders were needy. Notwithstanding the favourable description of the circumstances of the people, Captain Wingate was of opinion that the survey and assessment were as necessary in Dambal as in other less prosperous sub-divisions. Much of the land under tillage was held on leases or subject to other abatements. These leases were yearly falling in. The holders were unwilling to continue the land at the full rates, though to what extent the full rates required to be modified, there were no means of ascertaining. The area of land held by each landholder was equally uncertain. It was frequently found to be very different from the area entered in the village books. All that was known was, that, taken with its existing abatements, the assessment as a whole was not heavy. There was no guide to administer its details. The yearly settlements and

¹ The details are: From about 75,000 acres in 1825-26 TILLAGE steadily rose to about 82,000 acres in 1829-30, and from that steadily fell to nearly 70,000 acres in 1832-33; after this, tillage steadily and rapidly rose to about 122,000 acres in 1837-38; and from this slowly declined to about 106,000 acres in 1844-45. For the eight years ending 1831-32 the RENTAL varied from about Rs. 54,000 in 1827-28 to about Rs. 42,000 in 1830-31; from about Rs. 27,500 in 1832-33 it steadily rose to about Rs. 62,500 in 1834-35, and after a fall to about Rs. 52,500 in 1835-36 again rose to about Rs. 77,000 in 1837-38; from about Rs. 68,000 in 1838-39 it slowly rose to about Rs. 89,000 in 1844-45. During the nine years ending 1834-35 REMISSIONS varied from about Rs. 53,000 in 1829-30 to about Rs. 31,000 in 1833-34; for the ten years ending 1844-45 they varied from about Rs. 63,000 in 1837-38 to about Rs. 32,000 in 1844-45. Diagram in Survey Rep. 554 of 20th September 1845, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV.

the general land management had been without system. They depended on the varying opinions of the officers in charge of the sub-division, a state of things most unfavourable to lasting prosperity.¹

According to the 1825 survey the total area of the eighty-six villages was 343,189 acres of arable land and 15,088 of unarable land, while the 1845 survey showed 364,857 acres of arable and 50,228 of unarable. Of the arable area 238,179 acres were Government land and the rest was alienated.² Of the eighty-six Dambal villages, sixty-four were divided into two groups, twenty-six northern villages beyond the climate influence of the western hills and thirty-eight villages further west which enjoyed a better climate owing to the nearness of the hills or the better markets of Gadag and Betgeri. Of the remaining twenty-two villages, Halikeri and Harlápúr came into the first group and twenty others into the second group. The highest dry crop survey acre rates proposed were for the first group 2s. (Re. 1) and for the second group 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½).³ The effect of the proposed rates on the sixty-four villages for which past revenue figures were available was, compared with the preceding year, a reduction of between £800 and £900 (Rs. 8000 and Rs. 9000) or between seven and eight per cent. The total new rental on the entire arable area of these sixty-four villages was £11,500 (Rs. 1,15,000), which was £3000 (Rs. 30,000) or thirty-five per cent in excess of the average-net rental of the five years ending 1845 and £2000 (Rs. 20,000) or twenty-one per cent above the rental of 1844, the highest ever realized under British management. Under the new settlement the highest rental of the Government lands in the twenty-one farmed villages amounted to about £1400 (Rs. 14,000) while the rent paid by the farmer every year was £1200 (Rs. 12,000). Of these £400 (Rs. 4000) were obtained from *judi* or quit-rent on alienated lands, and consequently after the survey settlement all that could be realized beyond £800 (Rs. 8000) for the Government land would be the farmer's profit.⁴ The existing garden assessment varied from £1 16s. (Rs. 18) the acre downwards. This had

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¹ 'The present nominal assessment has been so influenced by the abatement by means of leases and uncertainty of the area held, as to render it of little value as a standard of comparison.' Mr. Blane, Rev. Comr. S. D. 1734 of 31st Oct. 1845; Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 89.

² Capt. Wingate, 135 of 10th Sept. 1846; Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 96-97.

³ The rates fixed for the Navalgund villages bordering on Dambal were Re. 1 the acre for the best dry crop soil in the northern villages and Re. 1½ in the southern villages. The plain parts of Dambal, both in respect of climate and markets, were much on an equality with north Navalgund. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 81.

⁴ The farm was originally granted in 1833 at which period the net rental of the Government land was £740 (Rs. 7400). By an extension of cultivation the same rental in 1844-45 increased according to the farmer's accounts to £1130 (Rs. 11,300) or fifty-three per cent in twelve years. This was a very large increase; but in the same period the villages of the sub-division under Government management showed a still more rapid rate of improvement, their cultivation having increased no less than sixty-four per cent. And the farmed villages, which were close to the tax-ridden Moghalái or Nizam's country and to the Belári markets, were at least as well placed as the rest of Dambal. Captain Wingate was opposed to the farming system in surveyed districts. Regarding the present case he remarked (September 1845): 'The effect of this farm has been to enrich an individual with some thousands of rupees a year which otherwise would have passed into the Government treasury.' Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 82.

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been so high in particular instances that yearly abatements were required. In 1845 the net assessment on 221 acres of garden land was £145 (Rs. 1450) or an acre average of nearly 14s. (Rs. 7). As nearly all the garden land was under tillage, this rate seemed to be easily payable. Still Captain Wingate thought it did not leave garden tillage so marked an advantage over drycrop tillage as to encourage the sinking of wells and the spread of gardens. He proposed to adopt for Dambal the Hubli survey garden acre rates which varied from 10s. to 4s. (Rs. 5-2) and averaged 8s. 3½d. (Rs. 4 *as.* 2½). From the limited area of garden land this reduction would have little influence on the Dambal revenues, while they would encourage sinking of wells for which Dambal possessed many facilities. The existing rice land rates were equally high with the garden rates. Much larger abatements amounting to nearly one-half were required to admit of the land being cultivated. The Hubli rice land acre rates of 6s. to 3s. (Rs. 3-1½) were proposed. Under these proposed rice rates it was estimated that the existing average 9s. (Rs. 4½) would be reduced to 5s. (Rs. 2½). The total survey rental on the whole Government arable land of the eighty-six villages amounted to £14000 (Rs. 1,40,000) against £9958 (Rs. 99,580) the net rental of the tillage area of 1844-45 or a prospective increase of £4042 (Rs. 40,420) or forty-one per cent. Though the whole of this increase might never be realized, Captain Wingate had little doubt that an addition of £2500 to £3000 (Rs. 25,000-Rs. 30,000) or thirty per cent over the highest recorded collection would be permanently secured.¹ The new rental absorbed all direct levies of raw produce formerly made by hereditary officers. In 1842-43 the total value of these levies was estimated at about £160 (Rs. 1600). Government sanctioned the proposed rates, and the plan suggested by the Revenue Commissioner for transferring the management of the twenty-one farmed villages to Government officers for the introduction of the new assessment.²

Bankápur,
1846-47.

In 1846-47 the survey settlement was introduced into 137 villages of the Bankápur sub-division in the centre of the district.³ Of 143 Bankápur villages, 137 were Government and eleven were alienated. Of the eleven alienated villages, seven paid a quit-rent and four were held rent-free. Besides these, upwards of twenty *jágir* or alienated villages were scattered over the sub-division, nearly all of which belonged to the small principality of Savanur. The survey settlement was introduced into 137 Government villages, eighty-one of which were under the *mámlatdár* of Shiggaon, forty-eight under the *mahálkari* of Karajgi, and eight under the first *kárkun* of Kalas. Bankápur was the most central sub-division of Dhárwár. On the north, a strip of *jágir* or alienated land separated it from Navalgund and Dambal, on the east it was bounded by Ránebennur, on the south

¹ Capt. Wingate, Survey Supt. 554 of 20th Sept. 1845, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 84.² Gov. Letter 778 of 21st February 1846, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 91-94.³ Capt. Wingate, Survey Superintendent, 146 of 29th Sept. 1846; Gov. Letter 5007 of 3rd Dec. 1847; Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV.

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by Kod, and on the west by Hángal. It was of very irregular shape. The western half, forming the greater part of the Shiggaon mámlatdár's charge, was the basin between the Taras hills to the west and the Savanur high grounds to the east. This was drained by a large *nála* or stream which fell into the Varda near Devgiri. From Devgiri the eastern half, forming the Karajgi mahálkari's charge, occupied the valley of the Varda and the high grounds on either side of the Varda valley to the borders of the Gutal *mahál* or petty division of Ránebennur. The eight Kalas villages, which lapsed in 1842,¹ and one or two more were scattered over the *jágir* or alienated territory to the north of the sub-division. Bankápur was generally flat, though it was skirted by hills or rising grounds on nearly every side. The low lands were generally of good quality, except near the hills, where was much poor soil. The scenery was tame, but from the greater number of trees was much more pleasing than the bare plains of Navalgund and Dambal. The climate of Bankápur was superior to that of Navalgund and Dambal and was much like that of the mámlatdár's division of Hubli. The greatest fall of rain was along the line of western hills where a group of seventeen villages were locally known as *malnád* or wet-land. The belt of plain next to the wet-land or *malnád* held the next most favourable position in respect of rain. East of this the rainfall became gradually lighter and less certain as there were no hills high enough to check the passing clouds of the south-west monsoon. The chief products were *javári* and cotton from the black soils and *javári*, *náchni*, *sáva*, and oil seed from the red soils. The ordinary husbandry was good. Manure was applied to all the land under tillage, and considerable care and skill were shown in gathering and preparing it. For black soils the general course of cropping was an alternation of Indian millet or *javári* with cotton, as wheat, which was a frequent third crop in Navalgund and Dambal, seldom succeeded in Bankápur. The cotton crop was of even more importance in Bankápur than in Navalgund and Dambal. It was the chief export of the sub-division and provided the cash required to pay the assessment. Besides the ordinary dry crops there was a considerable area of rice and garden land. The rice lands amounted to about 1200 acres almost all in the wet western villages. The better soils yielded a crop after the rice was reaped, and in low and moist sites were well suited for sugarcane. According to the former survey the garden lands were somewhat in excess of 400 acres and were very valuable, yielding a Government revenue of upwards of £600 (Rs. 6000). Their chief products were sugarcane, plantains, betel-leaf, betelnuts, and cocoanuts.² The gardens mostly lay under the large reservoirs of Shiggaon, Háveri, Hatti-Mattur, and Karajgi, from which they were watered by canals. When, as some-

¹ The village of Ingalgi lapsed in 1836 and the eight villages of the Kalas group lapsed in 1842. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV. 71.

² The gardens of Shiggaon, which were full of cocoa and betelnut palms, were destroyed by Tipu's soldiery when encamped in the neighbourhood (1786) during the siege of Savanur. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV. 83.

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times happened in the hot season, the canals failed, the gardens were watered from wells sunk in the wet soil below the reservoirs. Canals from the mighty dams or *bandhárás* built by the sovereigns of Anegundi, supplied irrigation to many miles of garden land. The gradual silting of reservoirs led to the abandonment of garden tillage. The prospects of the cotton trade were depressed and manufactures were confined to the weaving of coarse cotton and woollen fabrics. Much of the surplus produce found its way to the important market of Dunchi in the Taras petty division of Hubli. The chief exports were to Kumta in North Kánara for shipment to Bombay. The Vánis and other merchants of the market towns of Karajgi, Háveri, and Savanur, were the chief buyers of the local *jvári*. Through their agents the Kumta merchants also created a great demand for cotton. A market was held once a week in Karajgi, Háveri, Riti, and Devgiri. Karajgi and Háveri carried on a wholesale trade in grain and coarse sugar or *gul*. The merchants of Homnabad in the Nizám's country sent agents to Háveri to buy cardamoms, clean them, and prepare them for market. About 300 *gonis* or bullock-loads of cardamoms, estimated at £7200 (Rs. 72,000), were yearly bought by the Homnabad merchants chiefly from Sirsi, Bilgi, and Siddápur, of which the Háveri merchants bought about £500 (Rs. 5000) worth or twenty bullock-loads. The Savanur and Van-Sigli markets in the Savanur Nawáb's district afforded a ready market to the Hattimattur cultivators for the sale of garden produce.

Since the former survey, the accounts had been kept in acres instead of in *márs*.¹ The practice of entering in the accounts the gross rental or *kamál* of the land under tillage began in 1834-35 and the full *kamál* was shown in 1841-42. The Bankápur survey diagram shows that during the nineteen years ending 1845-46, out of the total 122,000 Government arable acres in 128 villages of the sub-division, the tillage area varied from about 73,000 acres in 1834-35 to about 52,000 acres in 1845-46. During the twenty-six years ending 1845-46, the net rental varied from about £9600 (Rs. 96,000) in 1821-22 to about £5600 (Rs. 56,000) in 1832-33 and averaged £7700 (Rs. 77,000).²

¹ The *már* varied from 16 to 80 acres (4-20 *kurgis*). Wilson's Glossary, 331.

² The details are: The TILLAGE AREA fell from about 63,000 acres in 1827-28 to about 61,000 acres in 1829-30; from 1830-31 there was a gradual increase till in 1834-35 it amounted to about 73,000 acres; in 1835-36 it fell to about 69,000 acres; the next two years brought a little more land under tillage but in 1838-39 the tillage area again fell to about 63,000 acres. In 1839-40 it rose to about 68,000 acres and then gradually declined till it reached 52,490 acres in 1845-46. From about Rs. 91,000 in 1820-21 the NET RENTAL rose to about Rs. 96,000 for the next two years; from about Rs. 79,000 in 1823-24 it rose to about Rs. 86,000 in 1824-25 and again fell to about Rs. 76,000 in 1825-26; from nearly Rs. 90,000 in 1826-27 it steadily fell to about Rs. 56,000 in 1832-33. It rose to about Rs. 86,000 in 1834-35 and again fell to about Rs. 51,000 in 1836-37; from about Rs. 82,500 in 1837-38 it fell to about Rs. 62,000 in 1838-39 and rose to about Rs. 86,000 in 1839-40; from this it slowly fell to about Rs. 72,000 in 1845-46. From about Rs. 26,000 in 1834-35 REMISSIONS rose to about Rs. 53,000 in 1836-37; for the four years ending 1840-41 they varied from about Rs. 35,000 in 1838-39 to about Rs. 15,000 in 1839-40; for the five years ending 1845-46 they varied from about Rs. 68,000 in 1842-43 to about Rs. 45,000 in 1845-46. Diagram in Survey Rept. 146 of 29th September 1846, Bom, Gov. Scl. CLV.

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During the whole course of British administration Bankápur had been suffering from over-assessment. In spite of nearly thirty years of peace and security, the abolition of transit duties and taxes, and the improvement of roads, cultivation was more limited in 1845-46 than at any former period of British rule. The average dry crop acre rate for the five years ending 1833-34 was about 1*s.* 9*d.* (14*as.*) and the average dry crop acre rate for the seven years ending 1845-46 was 2*s.* 3½*d.* (Re. 1 *as.* 2½). The average garden acre rate in Háveri was £2 18*s.* (Rs. 29). But a large proportion of irrigated land was classed as rice ground though cultivated with the usual garden products, and the average rate of assessment for this was only 14*s.* (Rs. 7). This reduced the general average rate for the whole land watered from the Háveri reservoir to about £1 9*s.* (Rs. 14½). At Shiggaon the garden rate varied from £1 1*s.* to £4 (Rs. 10½-40); the average for 1844-45 was £1 10½*s.* (Rs. 15½). The general average rate for the whole garden land of the survey group was £1 8*s.* 7½*d.* (Rs. 14½). The higher of the rates could be paid only by gardens cultivated with cocoa and betel palms or with the betel creeper. This took long to come to bearing, twelve years for the cocoa-palm, eight for the betel-palm, and three for the betel-vine. The highest acre rate for well gardens was 10*s.* (Rs. 5). The rice land amounted to about 1200 acres chiefly in the first class villages along the western border of the sub-division and yielded a revenue of between £400 and £500 (Rs. 4000 and 5000). The acre assessment varied from £1 (Rs. 10) to 2*s.* (Re. 1). The average acre rate for 1844-45 was about 8*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. 4¼). The landholders were not all poor. Especially in the mámlatdár's villages substantial farmers had eight to twenty bullocks and one or two large crop-carts, and paid yearly rentals of £10 to £30 (Rs. 100-300). To landholders of this class the existing rates were not oppressive, as their means enabled them to keep their lands in a high state of tillage and to raise crops far superior to those grown by the ordinary local husbandmen. At the same time the body of the landholders were poor and the farm stock was so scanty that it did not amount to more than one bullock for every thirty acres of tillage.

The proposals for a fresh assessment were to have four classes of villages assessed at highest dry crop acre rates varying from 3*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. 1¼) to 2*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. 1¼). The first class was to comprise fifteen rice villages lying along the western border and to have a highest dry crop acre rate of 3*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. 1¼); the second class was to contain fifty-five villages, lying east of the first class with a highest dry crop acre rate of 3*s.* (Rs. 1½); the third class of thirty-six villages still further east was to have a highest dry crop acre rate of 2*s.* 9*d.* (Rs. 1½); and the fourth or the most easterly class of thirty-one villages was to be assessed at a highest drycrop acre rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. 1¼). The rates of inferior soils were to be proportionally lowered according to their relative values as fixed by the survey classification. The proposed highest acre rate for pond gardens was £1 10*s.* (Rs. 15) and for well gardens 10*s.* (Rs. 5). The proposed highest rate for the best rice-land admitting of an occasional sugarcane crop was 10*s.* (Rs. 5) falling to 2*s.* (Re. 1). The auction

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sale of the produce of fruit trees was to be abolished. All levies in kind by the village headmen and accountants and hereditary officers, styled *áya-mira*, were to be absorbed in the new assessment. The survey assessment yielded an average drycrop acre rate of 1s. 7½d. (13 as.) which was about 7½d. (5 as.) less than the average of the collections of the seven years ending 1845-46 and 1½d. (1 a.) less than that of the five years ending 1833-34. The effect of the survey settlement on the revenue from gardens was to reduce it by one-third. The effect of the settlement on the entire tillage area was to reduce the average acre rate from 3s. 2d. (Re. 1 as. 9½) to 2s. Re. 1). The details are :

Bankápur Survey Settlement, 1846-47.

YEAR.	FORMER.				1846 SURVEY RENTAL.
	128 Villages.	Grazing Fees.	Nine Villages.	Total.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1818-1846	77,406	1966	10,707	90,069	1,15,000
1829-1834	63,280	1508	10,707	75,495	1,15,000
1834-1846	76,188	2158	10,707	89,053	1,15,000
1845-46	71,820	4983	10,131	86,939	1,15,000

The proposed settlement was sanctioned by Government in December 1847.¹

Ránebennur,
1847-48.

In 1847-48 the survey settlement was introduced into the 130 villages of old Ránebennur in the south-east of the district.² Ránebennur was bounded on the north by Bankápur, on the east by the Tungbhadra river, and on the south and west by the sub-division of Kod. Besides the Tungbhadra river, it was watered on the north by the Varda and on the south by the Kumadvati. The sub-division included 142 villages, twelve of which were alienated. Of the whole number, sixty-nine Government and six alienated villages were under the mámlatdár of Ránebennur, and sixty-one Government and six alienated villages under the mahálkari of Gutal. The general aspect of this sub-division which was very partially cultivated was bare and sterile. The mámlatdár's division was crossed in several directions by low barren ridges. The soil varied greatly in different parts. Except some land near the river, and an open level tract between the hills of the Gutal petty division and the town of Ránebennur, the country to the east of the road from Dhárwár to Harihar was hilly or waving ground of which a small portion only was fit for tillage. The rest, though in parts rocky, was generally covered with a thin coating of earth and afforded a scanty pasturage for cattle and sheep. The soil in the Gutal petty division was mostly red, and the waste parts of it were mostly covered with low brushwood. The climate was nearly uniform. There was not rain enough for rice, but an ample supply for the ordinary drycrops. Droughts were

¹ Gov. Letter 5007 of 3rd Dec. 1847, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV. 155-160.

² Capt. Wingate, Survey Superintendent, 15 of 26th Jan. 1848; Gov. Letter 2773 of 16th May 1848; Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI.

unusual. The chief products belonged to the *mungári* or early harvest. The most important crops were *jadri* and cotton; and chillies were raised in a few villages bordering on Kod. The watered lands were of some extent, the most important being garden grounds under the lakes of Ránebennur, Gutal, and Honatti. These reservoirs were filled with mud and the supply of water failed in the hot season. The wells that were then used had rarely springs and were capable of supplying water only for a limited period. The garden products were coconuts, betelnuts, betel leaves, and sugarcane. Two years' rotation was generally practised. Rich land was manured every fourth or fifth, and sloping or poor land every second or third year. Byádgi was the most important market town. Ránebennur, Hulgeri, Bisarhalli, Airani, Kadarmandalgi, Kárdgi, Reti, and Agri were among the others. The chief manufactures were cotton stuffs such as *rumáls*, *dhotárs*, and *sádís*, and woollen blankets. About 400 looms were worked in Ránebennur, 250 in Byádgi, 140 in Hulgeri, 74 in Airani, and 69 in Bisarhalli. Silks were made in Ránebennur from raw silk brought from Maisur. They were chiefly for home use, but were also sent to Maisur and Kánara. The trade of the petty division centred in Ránebennur and Byádgi and was chiefly in the hands of merchants of these towns who carried on a considerable exchange trade between Belári and Maisur on the one side and Kánara on the other. The yearly value of the Ránebennur trade was estimated at £20,000 (Rs. 2,00,000) and that of Byádgi at £9000 (Rs. 90,000). The leading imports were betelnut, *jágrí*, and sugar from Anavatti, Sorál, and Shikárpur in Maisur, and from the Kod and Hángal sub-divisions; rice from Chikkerur and Haunsbhavi in Kod, and from the Nagar sub-division of Maisur; indigo from Belári; coconuts and tobacco from Davangeri, and salt from Kumta and Dhundshi. Mild intermittent fevers prevailed at the beginning of the rains and during the cold weather; guineaworm was less common than in other parts of Dhárwár. The landholders were a well disposed intelligent and industrious class. They were not wanting in enterprise but their enterprise had been checked by the want of any permanent interest in the land.

The diagram for 129 Government villages shows that, during the twenty-one years ending 1846-47, of a total of about 190,000 arable acres, the tillage area varied from nearly 75,000 acres in 1835-36 and 1836-37 to about 46,000 acres in 1845-46. During the nine years ending 1828-29 the rental varied from about £9600 (Rs. 96,000) in 1821-22 to about £8300 (Rs. 83,000) in 1823-24 and averaged about £9100 (Rs. 91,000). During the ten years ending 1838-39 it varied from about £8300 (Rs. 83,000) in 1834-35 to about £3900 (Rs. 39,000) in the two years ending 1832-33, and averaged about £6400 (Rs. 64,000). During the eight years ending 1846-47 it varied from nearly £9000 (Rs. 90,000) in the three years ending 1841-42 to about £6400 (Rs. 64,000) in 1845-46, and averaged nearly £8000 (Rs. 80,000).¹

¹ The details are: From about 67,000 acres in 1826-27 TILLAGE rose to about 69,000 acres in 1827-28 and steadily fell to about 62,000 acres in 1829-30; from about 64,000 acres in 1830-31 it fell to about 58,000 acres in 1831-32; from this it rose to about

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The revenue history of the Ránébennur sub-division may be divided into three periods. The first embraces the nine years ending 1828-29 when tillage and collections remained nearly stationary and the average acre rate was high, 2s. 8½*d.* (Re. 1 *as.* 5 $\frac{5}{8}$); the second period, the ten years ending 1838-39, was marked by a slight advance in tillage and great fluctuations in revenue, with an average acre rate of 1s. 10½*d.* (15 *as.*). The third period, the eight years ending 1846-47, showed a steady decline in tillage and revenue. The average acre rate was 2s. 8¾*d.* (Re. 1 *as.* 5 $\frac{7}{8}$). The high and steady average of collections in the nine years ending 1828-29 were due partly to the establishment of peace and confidence and partly to an arrangement which acted as an indirect tax on holders of alienated lands by allowing no one to till them who did not hold some fully assessed land. The fluctuations of the revenue and the advance in tillage during the ten years ending 1838-39 were due to bad seasons, liberal remissions, and efforts to prop up an excessive assessment by grants of arable waste on favourable terms. The decline in the eight years ending 1846 was due to the giving up of the *kaul* or lease system and to stricter management. The slight advance in tillage and collections in 1846-47 was due to landholders taking fields in anticipation of the lower survey rates. The removal of the old Marátha restriction on any one tilling alienated land who did not hold highly assessed government land, had helped the holders of alienated lands at the expense of the Government revenue. At the same time it had been of some use in lightening the pressure of the very high rates on Government land.¹ Except in a few villages the people, though poorer than in neighbouring sub-divisions, were not depressed.

For the survey settlement, the villages were arranged into two classes with dry-crop acre rates varying from 2s. 9*d.* to 3*d.* (Rs. 1 $\frac{3}{8}$ - 2 *as.*).

74,000 acres in 1834-35 and continued about the same during the next three years; and then almost steadily fell to about 46,000 acres in 1845-46; in 1846-47 it rose by about 3000 acres. From about Rs. 91,000 in 1820-21 the NET RENTAL rose to about Rs. 96,000 for the next two years; from about Rs. 83,000 in 1823-24 it rose to about Rs. 93,000 in the two years ending 1827-28; from this it rapidly fell to about Rs. 39,000 in the two years ending 1832-33; after rising to about Rs. 83,000 in 1834-35 it steadily fell to Rs. 55,000 in 1836-37; from about Rs. 78,000 in 1837-38 it fell to Rs. 70,000 in 1838-39; during the next three years it was nearly Rs. 90,000; and from this steadily fell to about Rs. 64,000 in 1845-46. In 1846-47 it rose by about Rs. 6000. During the nine years ending 1828-29 REMISSIONS varied from about Rs. 16,000 in 1823-24 to about Rs. 3000 in 1821-22; during the six years ending 1834-35 they varied from about Rs. 32,000 in 1833-34 to about Rs. 20,000 in 1830-31; during the six years ending 1840-41 they varied from about Rs. 56,000 in 1836-37 to about Rs. 18,000 in 1840-41; during the six years ending 1846-47 they varied from about Rs. 49,000 in 1841-42 to about Rs. 30,000 in 1846-47. Diagram in Survey Rept. 15 of 26th Jan. 1848, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI.

¹ Among the most striking cases of over-assessment were the neighbouring villages of Mehdur and Gudgur in the Gutal petty division. Taking the average of the ten years ending 1830 the yearly revenue of Mehdur was about Rs. 1200; for the ten years ending 1840 the average was Rs. 600; and in 1845-46 the total revenue was Rs. 154. The average of Gudgur for the ten years ending 1830 was Rs. 850, and for the ten years ending 1840, Rs. 500; the total revenue for 1845-46 was Rs. 140. The lands of both villages were nearly waste in 1846-47. There were not more than four or five Government landholders and these held their lands on favourable terms. Ruins of houses in 1846-47 showed that people had been driven away. The rates in these villages were not higher than in other villages, only the people had no other resources to help them. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 88.

The first class contained forty-four villages in the south-west which was assessed at dry crop acre rates varying from 2s. 9d. to 3d. (Rs. 1½ - 2 as.) The second class contained the remaining eighty-six villages and was assessed at dry crop acre rates varying from 2s. 6d. to 3d. (Rs. 1½ - 2 as.). The highest garden acre-rates were £1 10s. (Rs. 15) in the case of pond-gardens, and 10s. (Rs. 5) in the case of well gardens. The highest rice acre rate was 10s. (Rs. 5); all acre rates beyond 4s. (Rs. 2) were confined to soils capable of yielding the superior products, sugarcane and vegetables, in addition to rice. These survey rates included the levies hitherto made by the landholders for the village officers. In the case of quit-rent land, whenever the quit-rent exceeded the survey assessment of the whole land whether paying quit-rent or rent-free, the excess was cut off, and the survey assessment of the whole land was levied in lieu of the quit-rent. The immediate effect of the survey settlement, compared with the 1846-47 net rental, was a fall from about £7000 to £5000 (Rs. 70,000 - Rs. 50,000) or twenty-nine per cent. If all the arable area was brought under tillage, the survey assessment showed an increase of fifty-nine per cent over the average collections of the twenty-seven years ending 1846-47. The details¹ are:

Ráneennur Survey Settlement, 1847-48.

YEAR.	COLLECTIONS ON ACCOUNT OF				Total Collections.	1848 Survey Assessment.
	Tillage area, 193 villages.	Murdur Village.	Grazing Fees.	Village Officers' Fees.		
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
1820-1847	77,302	300	2236	1000	81,838	1,30,000
1820-1829	90,660	300	2787	1000	94,737	1,30,000
1829-1839	62,591	300	2206	1000	67,097	1,30,000
1839-1847	79,424	300	4276	1000	85,000	1,30,000
1845-46	63,785	300	5920	1000	71,005	1,30,000

In 1847-48 the survey settlement was introduced into 161 Government villages of Hángal in the south-west of the district.² Hángal was bounded on the north by the Taras petty division of Hubli and by Bankápur, on the east by Bankápur and Kod, on the south by Maisur, and on the west by Kánara. Of its 193 villages, thirty-two were alienated of which thirty paid a quit-rent. Of the whole number 103 Government and thirty-one alienated villages were under the mámlatdár of Hángal, and fifty-eight Government villages and one alienated village were under the mahálkari of Adur. Nearly the whole mámlatdár's division was broken by low almost detached hills. To the west and south the hills were covered with thick forest, and to the north and east some were bushy and others were rocky. Through its greatest length Hángal was crossed by the rivers Varda and Dharma. The bed of the Varda was too deep to be used in irrigation. The Dharma was dammed in two places. The upper dam was thrown across the stream at the village of Mantgi where the Dharma entered Hángal from the west. The canal from the Mantgi lake was carried through the lands of seven villages Sevalli, Herrur, Govrápur, Gighalli, Sirmápur, Doleshvar, and Surlleshvar, a distance of nearly twelve miles. At Surlleshvar it

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1847-48.Hángal,
1847-48.¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI, 95.² Capt. Wingate, Survey Superintendent, 15 of 26th January 1848; Gov. Letter 2773 of 16th May 1848; Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI.

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divided into two branches. One branch passed south-east through the lands of Giglikop, Alur, Havasgi, and the alienated village of Mulgund, and emptied itself into the Varda. The other branch passed north-east through Akivalli and Arleshvar, and, after passing two villages of the Ádur petty division, again entered Hángal and emptied itself into the present (1846) bed. The second dam was near the village of Kenchi Neglur about twelve miles below Mantgi. This dam turned the river water into a canal, which, after running more than five miles, emptied into the Naregal lake. Besides supplying the Naregal lake which overflowed every year and watered the rice lands of Vardi, this canal also watered the rice lands of Nellibid. From the main canal minor ones branched in every direction, fed the ponds of villages through whose lands they passed and, in times of failure or of cessation of rain, watered rice fields and gardens. The prevailing soil was a light brown whose surface was rarely broken in the hot season except in wastes which the rains had carved into fissures and hollows. In the mámlatdár's division the soil was light and the climate moist. The greatest fall of rain was along the border villages to the west, where was a large area of uncleared land. The watered crops were the only crops of importance. Most of the mahálkari's division was a level plain of black soil. The climate was much drier than in the mámlatdár's division and was well suited for dry crops. As it lay so near the Sahyádris, the supply of rain in Hángal was generally certain and regular. For their full supply of water the rice lands depended on ponds. The garden products were plantains, betel and cocoa palms, and the betel-vine. In plain black soil villages the early, called *mungári* or *kharif*, harvest included *yellu* Sesamum, *uddu* Phaseolus mungo, *jola* Sorghum vulgare, *dhod talli navani* Panicum italicum, *mulligi sáve* Panicum miliare, *rági* Eleusine corocana, *togari* Cajanus indicus, *mataki* Phaseolus aconitifolius, *hesaru* Phaseolus radiatus, *avari* Dolichos lablab, and *hurli* Dolichos biflorus. The *hingári* or late harvest included *sialu jola*, *godí* wheat, *kadli* gram, *hatti* cotton, *kusumbi* safflower, *audla* castor seed, *guralu* an oil plant, *karra sáve* Panicum aniliacum, *navani* Panicum italicum, and *agashi* also an oil plant. In the *malnád* or wet villages the early harvest included *bhatta* rice, *rági*, and *mulligi sáve* Panicum miliare. The *hingári* or late harvest included *audla* or castor seed, *hesaru* Phaseolus radiatus, *uddu* Phaseolus mungo, *agashi* an oil plant, *avari* Dolichos lablab, and *kadli* gram.¹

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 150-153. The estimate of the amount and value of the produce is :

Hángal Crops, 1847.

GRAIN.	Acre Outturn.		Bag of 128 shevs.	GRAIN.	Acre Outturn.		Bag of 128 shevs.
	Greatest.	Least.			Greatest.	Least.	
	Shevs.	Shevs.	Ra. &		Shevs.	Shevs.	Ra. &
Jola	240	120	3 0	Kadli	30	40	12 0
Cotton-wool	48	...	Uncertain.	Uddu	20	16	7 0
Cotton-seed	144	...	Ditto.	Huris	40	20	2 8
Kusumbi	60	30	3 8	Avari	36	24	4 0
Navani	120	60	2 8	Yellu	80	40	4 0
Sáve	160	80	2 8	Mataki	80	40	2 8
Hesaru	20	15	5 0	Godí	40	20	3 12
Rági	160	80	1 10	Malbhatta	400	200	3 8
Audla	40	20	4 0	Sanbhatta	350	200	3 8
Togari	30	40	5 0	Dodginbhatta	200	100	2 0

The chief market towns in the mámlatdar's division were Hángal, Bomanhalli, Alur, and Mahárájpeth, and in the maháلكari's charge Ádur and Naregal. The manufactures were confined to the weaving of a few coarse cotton and woollen stuffs for local use. The imports were, *javári*, wheat, gram, *kusumbi*, and *agushi* oil from the north; cloths from Hubli and Belári; salt, dried and fresh cocoanuts, betelnuts, dried and fresh dates, pepper, cardamoms, and plantains from Kumta. The exports were rice, *javári*, and raw sugar to Navalgund, Dambal, Nargund, Hubli, and Bádámi. A little raw cotton also went from the plain villages of the maháلكari's division. The products of the dry crop tillage commanded equally good prices with those of the neighbouring parts of Bankápur to the north. The prices of the products of watered land were considerably lower, as the produce was greatly beyond the local demand and nearly all the surplus passed north. As rice and raw sugar were the chief exports, and their prices ruled lower in Hángal than in Bankápur and still more than in Hubli, rice and garden soils were at a disadvantage.

The diagram for the 160 Hángal villages shows that, during the twenty-one years ending 1846-47, of a total of about 92,000 Government arable acres, the tillage area varied from about 44,000 acres in 1834-35 and 1837-38 to about 32,000 acres in 1846-47. During the five years ending 1824-25 the net rental varied from about £8900 (Rs. 89,000) in 1822-23 to about £7200 (Rs. 72,000) in 1823-24 and averaged about £8200 (Rs. 82,000). During the twenty-two years ending 1846-47 it varied from about £7300 (Rs. 73,000) in 1842-43 to about £4100 (Rs. 41,000) in 1836-37 and averaged about £6200 (Rs. 62,000).¹ From 1826-27, the first year in which the tillage area was entered in acres, to 1837-38, that is for twelve years tillage had slowly spread and again from 1837-38 to 1846-47 it had slowly shrunk. The change was chiefly due to the stoppage of the practice of granting waste on specially easy terms. For 1846-47 the collections on account of drycrop land were £1945 (Rs. 19,450) and those on watered land £3742 (Rs. 37,420). Of the latter sum £2994 (Rs. 29,940) were obtained from the rice and £748 (Rs. 7480) from the garden cultivation. The assessment was unequal rather than excessive.

¹ The details are : From nearly 36,000 acres in the two years ending 1827-28 TILLAGE rose to about 37,500 acres in 1828-29, and after falling to about 36,000 acres in 1829-30 again rose to about 37,500 in 1830-31; from about 36,000 acres in 1831-32 it steadily rose to about 44,000 acres in 1834-35; during the six years ending 1840-41 it varied from about 44,000 acres in 1837-38 to about 42,000 acres in 1835-36; and from about 43,000 acres in 1841-42 it steadily fell to about 32,000 in 1846-47. From about Rs. 82,000 in 1820-21 the NET RENTAL steadily rose to about Rs. 89,000 in 1822-23, and, after a fall to about Rs. 72,000 in 1823-24, again rose to about Rs. 77,000 in 1824-25; from about Rs. 62,500 in 1825-26 it steadily rose to about Rs. 68,000 in 1828-29 and steadily fell to about Rs. 47,500 in 1831-32; after steadily rising to about Rs. 71,000 in 1834-35 it again fell to about Rs. 41,000 in 1836-37; from this it steadily rose to about Rs. 73,000 in 1842-43 and fell to about Rs. 57,000 in 1846-47. During the ten years ending 1832-33 REMISSIONS varied from about Rs. 21,000 in 1831-32 to about Rs. 5000 in 1828-29; during the three years ending 1835-36, they were about Rs. 15,000; during the five years ending 1840-41 they varied from about Rs. 37,000 in 1836-37 to about Rs. 10,000 in 1840-41; during the six years ending 1846-47 they varied from about Rs. 46,000 in 1841-42 to about Rs. 31,000 in 1846-47. Diagram in Survey Report 15 of 26th January 1848, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI.

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The average drycrop acre rate varied from 7s. 1½*d.* (Rs. 3 *as.* 9) to 1½*d.* (1¼ *as.*); and that of rice land from £1 7s. 1½*d.* (Rs. 13 *as.* 9) to 1s. 9½*d.* (14 $\frac{1}{17}$ *as.*). The average garden acre rate was £1 17s. 10½*d.* (Rs. 18 *as.* 15). As regarded the cost and profit of rice and sugarcane tillage in a *malnád* or wet village, the estimates¹ showed, in the case of three acres of rice and one and a half acres of sugarcane, a rental of £2 5s. (Rs. 22½) for 4½ acres at Rs. 5 an acre; a cost of tillage amounting to £7 3s. (Rs. 71¼); and a crop return worth £16 4s. (Rs. 162); that is, a balance of £6 16s. (Rs. 68). With respect to cotton and *javari* tillage in plain villages, the estimates showed, in the case of seven acres of *javari* and six acres of cotton, a rental of £1 15s. 9*d.* (Rs. 17½) for thirteen acres at 2s. 9*d.* (Rs. 1½) the acre; a cost of tillage amounting to 1s. (8 *as.*); and a crop return worth £6 17s. 6*d.* (Rs. 68½); that is a balance of £5 0s. 9*d.* (Rs. 50½)².

The Hángal sub-division was thinly inhabited and the villages were generally small. Everywhere were large tracts of waste and especially in the west much land was covered with dense forest. Though the landholders were better off than in the neighbouring districts, sickness had for many years checked the increase of population. The prevailing diseases were cholera and small-pox, guineaworm and fever were also common.

The 161 Government villages were divided into four classes with drycrop acre rates varying from 3s. to 2½*d.* (Rs. 1½-1½*as.*). The first or plain class contained thirty-six villages to the east of Ádur enjoying a climate well suited to drycrops. The second class included thirty-one villages lying west of the first class in which the fall of rain was slightly but not seriously too heavy for drycrops. The third class contained fifty-one villages still further west in which the fall of rain was still more prejudicial to drycrop husbandry. The fourth class contained forty-three villages in the immediate neighbourhood of the Kánara forests. The drycrop acre rates varied in the first class from 3s. to 3*d.* (Rs. 1½-2*as.*); in the second from 2s. 5½*d.* to 3½*d.* (Rs. 1 *as.* 8½ to 2½*as.*); in the third from 1s. 10½*d.* to 3¾*d.* (15-2¼ *as.*); and in the fourth from 1s. 3¾*d.* to 2¾*d.* (10½-1½ *as.*). These rates lowered the existing drycrop assessment on cultivated land in the first and second classes of villages and raised it in the third and fourth. The details³ are:

¹ These estimates do not include the additional expense on account of bullock-hire and wages for labour. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 164.

² In the case of a wet village the details were: Rent for 4½ acres at Rs. 5 the acre, Rs. 22½; cost of 6000 pieces of sugarcane for seed, Rs. 6; cost 27 *chittás* of rice for seed, Rs. 2½; cost of making raw sugar at Rs. 3½ the *goni*, Rs. 63; total, Rs. 94. Three acres of rice yielding 12 *gonis* of 32 *chittás* each at Rs. 3 the *goni*, Rs. 36; 1½ acres of sugarcane yielding 18 *gonis* of *gul* at Rs. 7 the *goni*, Rs. 126; total Rs. 162. Balance to the landholder, Rs. 68. In the case of a plain holding the details were: Rent of 13 acres at Rs. 1½ an acre, Rs. 17½; cost of 2 *mans* of seed cotton at 2 *as.* the *man*, Re. 4; cost of *tur* and *javari* for seed (say) Re. 1; total Rs. 18½. Seven acres of *javari* yielding 10½ *gonis* at Rs. 2½ the *goni*, Rs. 26½; 3½ *gonis* of *tur* grown between the drills of the *javari* at Rs. 2½ the *goni*, Rs. 8½; 6 acres of cotton yielding 18 *mans* of clean cotton at Rs. 1½ a *man*, Rs. 27, and 54 *mans* of seed at 2 *as.* a *man*, Rs. 6½, total Rs. 33½; total Rs. 68½. Balance to the landholder, Rs. 50½. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 164.

³ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 109.

Hánga! Dry-crop Land Settlement, 1847-48.

CLASS.	Villages.	1846-47.				SURVEY.		
		Dry Crop.	Tillage.	Assessment on Tillage.	Average Acre Rate.	Dry Crop.	Total Assessment.	Average Acre Rate.
I....	36	Acres. 24,500	Acres. 9223	Rs. 12591	Rs. a p. 1 6 4	Acres. 24,500	Rs. 24,500	Rs. a p. 1 0 0
II....	31	18,518	4730	4371	0 14 9	17,000	11,687	0 11 0
III....	51	22,442	4784	1585	0 5 1	17,000	9582	0 9 0
IV....	43	43,199	2710	656	0 3 10	38,000	10,812	0 5 0
Total	161	108,849	21,447	19,453	0 14 5	91,500	56,061	0 9 9

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Hánga!,
1847-48.

The rice acre rates varied from 10s. (Rs. 5) to 1s. 6d. (12 as.). The higher rates above 4s. (Rs. 2) were for rice and sugarcane lands, and the lower rates for rice lands only. These survey settlement rates reduced the average rate of assessment on the whole rice lands under tillage from 5s. 10½d. (Rs. 2 as. 14½) to 4s. 4½d. (Rs. 2 as. 3), or, inclusive of waste, from 5s. 7d. (Rs. 2 as. 12½) to 4s. 3d. (Rs. 2½). This was equal to a reduction of seven per cent in both cases. The principal garden villages were Naregal, Alur, and Hánga! in the mámlatdár's charge. Of these Naregal and Alur were supplied with water from the dams on the Dharma river. The highest pond garden acre rate was £2 (Rs. 20), and the well garden rate 10s. (Rs. 5). These survey settlement rates lowered the assessment on garden lands tilled and waste from £858 to £600 (Rs. 5580-6000), or the average garden acre rate from £1 17s. 9d. to £1 6s. 6d. (Rs. 18¼-13¼). On paying an assessment equal to the drycrop rate on soil of the same quality in cleared parts of the village, landholders were allowed to clear and till forest land, unless it was set apart for timber. The *haks* or rights of hereditary officers were absorbed in the new rates. The survey rates also included the taxes on sheep and the sale of the produce of fruit trees. The immediate effect of the settlement compared with the land revenue of 1846-47, was, on the same tillage area, a fall of rental from £6400 (Rs. 64,000) to £4800 (Rs. 48,000) or twenty-five per cent. When the whole arable area was brought under tillage the survey rental would show an increase of sixty-eight per cent on the average collections of the twenty-two years ending 1846-47, and of seventy-five per cent on the 1846-47 collections. The details² are:

Hánga! Survey Settlement, 1847-48.

YEAR.	COLLECTIONS ON ACCOUNT OF			Total.	1848 Survey Assessment.
	Tillage Area.	Grazing Fees.	Hereditary Claims.		
1825-1847 ..	Rs. 61,881	Rs. 1199	Rs. 4000	Rs. 63,680	Rs. 1,12,000
1846-47 ..	56,876	3208	4000	64,084	1,12,000

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 114.² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 119.

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Taras,
1847-48.

In 1847-48 the survey settlement was introduced into fifty-four villages¹ of the Taras petty division of Hubli.² Taras was a belt of sixty-three villages lying north and south of the town of Taras. Of the sixty-three villages, fifty-four were Government and nine were alienated subject to a quit-rent. The climate was like that of Hángal. Heavy thunderstorms fell at intervals in May, during which the fields were ploughed and prepared for seed. By about the 10th or 15th of June the regular rains generally set in. The late or *kingári* rains were so slight and uncertain that there was hardly any late or cold weather harvest. Hale Taralgat was the only village with lands suited to the growth of drycrops. The watered lands were of most importance, the revenue derived from them in 1846-47 being about £1100 (Rs. 11,000), compared with £700 (Rs. 7000) from unwatered land. The chief field produce was rice, sugarcane, *rági*, *sáva*, *til*, and *kulthi*, of which rice and sugarcane were the most important. The manufactures were limited to cotton and woollen stuffs. There were three markets at Taras, Arlikatti, and Dhundshi. From the Taras market, which was held every Tuesday, rice worth about £10 (Rs. 100) was exported and wheat, *bájri*, and other articles worth about £2 10s. (Rs. 25) were imported chiefly from Hubli, Kundgol, Shirhatti, and Mulgund. From the Arlikatti market, the chief northern centre of trade, every Thursday, coarse cotton cloth worth about £30 (Rs. 300) was sent to Hubli, and oil worth about £15 (Rs. 150) to Sirsi. The Dhundshi market, which was held every Wednesday and Thursday, was the most important in the subdivision. During the six months from the first of December to the setting in of the rains the weekly imports amounted to about £480 (Rs. 4800); during the other six months, the state of the roads prevented traffic. Nearly all the *gul* or raw sugar and rice of the sub-division and of the neighbouring parts found a market in Dhundshi. Cholera and small-pox were prevalent and mortality was unusually great in Taras. The people were well off. The population, though scattered, was about 228·8 to the square mile.³

The diagram for the fifty-four Taras villages shows that during the twenty-two years ending 1846-47, of a total of about 40,000 Government arable acres, the tillage area varied from about 16,000 acres in 1834-35 to about 11,000 acres in 1825-26; and that the net rental varied from about £2700 (Rs. 27,000) in 1834-35 to about £1000 (Rs. 10,000) in 1836-37, and averaged £2000 (Rs. 20,000).⁴

¹ Before the survey the Taras petty division contained fifty-seven villages, but, at the time of the survey settlement, no trace could be found of three villages. The missing lands were probably measured into those of the surrounding villages. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 121.

² Capt. Wingate, Survey Superintendent, 15 of 26th January 1848; Gov. Letter 2773 of 16th May 1848; Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI.

³ Exclusive of forest, the area was ninety square miles and the population 20,593. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 177.

⁴ From about 11,000 acres in 1825-26 TILLAGE steadily rose to about 15,500 in 1829-30 and fell to about 14,000 acres in 1832-33; it rose to about 16,000 acres in 1834-35; from about 14,000 acres in 1835-36 it rose to nearly 15,000 acres for the next two years, and after a slight fall in the two years ending 1839-40 again rose to nearly 15,000 acres in 1841-42; during the five years ending 1846-47 tillage was nearly stationary at about 14,000 acres. From about Rs. 21,000 in 1825-26 the NET RENTAL

During the twenty years ending 1846-47, there were no remarkable fluctuations either in tillage or in collections. Captain Wingate attributed this to the comparative certainty of the rain and to the large proportion of watered land in the group. That in spite of these advantages tillage had not spread and population had steadily declined was due partly to the prevalence of fatal disease, and partly to the very high rates at which arable waste had been assessed. The average acre rate for drycrop land was 9½*d.* (6½*as.*) and for rice 6*s.* 6½*d.* (Rs. 3 *as.* 4½*as.*). Under the survey settlement, for drycrop lands the villages were divided into four classes on account of difference in climate, the rates being lowered as heavier rain made drycrop husbandry less successful. The highest drycrop acre rate was 3*s.* (Rs. 1½) and the average over the whole four classes was 1*s.* 0½*d.* (8½*as.*). The details¹ are:

Taras Dry-crop Land Settlement, 1847-48.

CLASS.	Villages.	1846-47.				SURVEY.		
		Dry-crop.	Cultivated	Assess- ment on Cultivated Area.	Average Acre Rate.	Total Dry-crop Area.	Total Assess- ment.	Average Acre Rate.
		Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs. s. p.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs. s. p.
I	1	795	787	1569	1 15 10	795	894	1 2 0
II	24	12,349	7897	4818	0 10 5	12,349	9265	0 11 6
III	19	14,190	2159	528	0 8 11	13,000	4875	0 7 0
IV	10	6415	369	46	0 2 9	5660	1719	0 5 0
Total	54	24,249	10,612	6959	0 6 4	32,144	16,728	0 8 3

In rice lands the highest proposed acre rate was 11*s.* (Rs. 5½), and the average rate on the whole rice land was 4*s.* 3*d.* (Rs. 2½) and on the tilled portion 4*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. 2¼), or about thirty per cent less than the former rate. Garden land was limited to fifteen acres. The highest acre rate for pond gardens was £1 (Rs. 10) and for well gardens 10*s.* (Rs. 5). On paying an assessment equal to that of drycrop soils of the same quality in cleared parts of the village, landholders were allowed to clear and cultivate any part of the forest, unless it was set apart for the growth of timber. The extent of land so tilled was to be determined at the yearly inspection of the village lands, and the rate of assessment to be levied was to be settled at the *jamābandi*.

rose to about Rs. 23,000 in 1826-27; from this it steadily fell to about Rs. 19,000 in 1832-33; after a rise to about Rs. 27,000 in 1834-35 it rapidly fell to about Rs. 10,000 in 1836-37; from about Rs. 22,000 in 1837-38 it fell to about Rs. 17,500 in 1838-39; for the next three years it was about Rs. 22,000, and after a fall of about Rs. 2000 in 1842-43 again rose to about Rs. 22,000 in the two years ending 1844-45; from this it steadily declined to about Rs. 19,000 in 1846-47. During the four years ending 1828-29 remissions varied from nearly Rs. 5000 in 1825-26 to about Rs. 1000 in 1827-28; there were no remissions in 1829-30; in 1830-31 there were about Rs. 5000; during the five years ending 1835-36 they varied from about Rs. 6000 in 1835-36 to about Rs. 1000 in 1831-32; in 1832-33 they were about Rs. 15,000; during the ten years ending 1846-47 they varied from about Rs. 7500 in 1846-47 to about Rs. 2000 in 1839-40. Diagram in Surv. Rept. 15 of 26th January 1848. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 124. The highest dry-crop acre rates for the four classes were Rs. 1½, Rs. 1¼, *as.* 15, and *as.* 10½.

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Taras,
1847-48.

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The immediate effect of the survey assessment was that, compared with the 1846-47 revenue, the survey rental on the same tillage area fell from £2050 (Rs. 20,500) to £1660 (Rs. 16,600) or nineteen per cent. If the whole arable area were brought under tillage, the survey rates would show an increase of thirty-four to thirty-six per cent. The details¹ are :

Taras Survey Settlement, 1847-48.

YEAR.	COLLECTIONS ON ACCOUNT OF			Total Collections.	1848 Survey Assessment.
	Cultivated Land.	Grazing Fees.	Hereditary Claims.		
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1825-47 ...	20,467	377	1500	22,344	30,000
1846-47 ...	18,701	1828	1500	22,029	30,000

Kod,
1848-49.

In 1848-49, the survey settlement was introduced into the south and north-west portions of the Dhárwár district, including 245 villages of Kod, 136 villages of Dhárwár, and 100 villages of the Mishrikot petty division of Hubli.² Kod formed the southern border of Dhárwár from the Varda to the Tungbhadra. In general shape it was an irregular four-sided oblong figure, with an average length of thirty miles and an average breadth of about sixteen miles. It was bounded on the north by the Bankápur and Ránebennur subdivisions, on the east by the Tungbhadra, on the south by Maisár, and on the west by the Varda river and Hángal. The villages of Kod were numerous and thickly set, especially towards the south-west, but they were (1848) thinly peopled and in some instances were empty. Of 266 villages, 245 were Government and twenty-one alienated. Of the whole number 157 Government and twelve alienated villages were under the mámatdár of Rattehalli and eighty-eight Government and nine alienated villages were under the mahalkari of Kágnelli. The climate of Kod varied considerably in different parts. The south-west villages which chiefly belonged to the Tilvalli petty division were rainy during the south-west monsoon months (June-October) and the tillage was chiefly rice and other watered crops. A belt of villages close to, and inland of these, had a somewhat drier climate, and in this division both dry and watered crops were commonly grown. Not unfrequently the two kinds of crop were grown together in the same field that, if the season proved too dry for rice, a crop of *javári* might be obtained instead. The rest of the sub-division to the north and east of the survey group obtained still less rain. It was unsuited for rice unless with the help of irrigation, but was favourable for drycrops. Long droughts during the rainy season were rare; still, especially in the middle two crop zone, partial failures of the harvest occurred rather frequently owing to the position of the subdivision and the nature

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 127.

² Captain Wingate, Survey Superintendent, 235 of 21st Dec. 1848, Gov. Letter 1908 of 19th March 1849, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 83, 155.

of the crops grown ; because when the rain was heavy enough for rice, it was generally too heavy for drycrops, and when the dry-crops flourished the rice languished. Most of Kod consisted of fine swelling plains stretching from the Varda to the Tungbhadra. The only hilly tracts were the small valley of the Masur in the extreme south which was enclosed by rather rugged ranges of hills of considerable height, and a small tract of hilly country west of Kágnelli as well as to the north of Chin-Mulgund where was a picturesque isolated hill in whose stream-beds small quantities of gold were (December 1848) found. Its plains were well watered, being crossed by numerous streams. Many sites on these streams had once been used for making reservoirs of which there were many fine specimens, though mostly in disrepair. The chief rivers were the Varda, the Tungbhadra, and the Kumadvati. All the crops grown in Kod belonged to the early harvest and were sown between June and August. Manure was used in every soil and the husbandry was like, though, perhaps on account of the very high assessment, inferior to that of the neighbouring subdivisions of Hángal, Bankápur, and Ránebennur. To the slovenly character of the ordinary husbandry, the cultivation of the chilli was an exception. It was carried on with great care and success in a limited number of villages for the most part to the north of a line connecting the villages of Kod and Kágnelli where the soil and climate seemed particularly well suited to the crop. The chilli was sown in May or in early June in a small plot of well prepared ground, often the backyard of the cultivator's house. From the seed plot, when of some little height, the plants were moved to the field, where they were planted in carefully prepared rows at intervals of two feet. After the field was planted manure was applied by the hand to the root of each plant, and at intervals of eight or ten days the small two bullock plough was carefully passed between the rows of plants, first lengthwise and then across. This ploughing kept the field free from weeds and heaped the earth round each plant. The ploughing was repeated at intervals for about three months until the branches of adjoining plants began to touch and the fruit began to show. The crop was picked by the hand, generally in two pickings of which the first was by far the largest. An acre of good crop was said to yield two loads of eight *mans* each, and the load occasionally sold as high as 16s. (Rs. 8), a price which yielded the husbandman a most handsome return. The demand was limited and the price was liable to extreme fluctuations. It not unfrequently happened that a year of short crops was better for the cultivator than one of unusual abundance and in consequence of great fall in value. The chilli in Kod was a dry crop and some of the land best suited for its growth was assessed as high as 10s. (Rs. 5) the acre and upwards. Kod had no manufacture of any importance. Nearly the whole population lived on agriculture. Its chief exports were chillis, rice, *gul* or raw sugar, sugar, oil and oil-seeds, and cotton from the black soil villages. Some of these exports went west to the coast ; the rest went north to supply the inland markets. Chillis were also sent east to Madras and Maisur. These exports were not made by the cultivators but by

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traders who bought either at the cultivators' villages or in some of the local markets of which the chief were those of Chikkerur and Tilvalli in Kod, and of Byádgi in Ráneennur. Considerable quantities of raw sugar had lately begun to be sent to Kumta for shipment to Bombay. The outlying position of Kod and the want of roads made the prices of produce, especially of the bulkier field products, much lower than in other parts of the district. Fodder enough to keep a horse for a month sometimes sold for a rupee.

Before the beginning of British rule Kod was almost deserted as most of the people had fled to Maisur. At first they were miserably poor. Since the beginning of British management, population and cattle had been slowly increasing chiefly from the cultivation of alienated land, nearly all of which had fallen waste. Progress had been grievously delayed by the enormous assessment of the Government land of which there was less in cultivation (1848) than there had been twenty years before. Pestilence had had its share in keeping down the population whose numbers at many times during the preceding thirty years (1818-1848) had been greatly thinned by cholera. Throughout the thirty years of British management the area of arable waste was about four times as great as the tillage area. During the ten years ending 1848, in spite of peace security and freedom, the waste was steadily gaining on the tilled land till the tillage area fell to less than one-sixth of the whole arable area. This shrinking of tillage was due to the grievous land assessment. The landholders had lived on remissions. The demand was greater than they could pay in an average season. If by large remissions or by a season of unusual fruitfulness the landholder was able to lay by or to add to his stock, all might be sacrificed to meet the next year's demands. Under these circumstances steady hopeful industry was not to be looked for. If it had not been for the relief given by the lower rates in force in alienated land, Captain Wingate believed that Kod would have been nearly waste. Its thickly crowded villages, the number and size of its irrigation reservoirs, the frequently occurring fruit trees marking the sites of former gardens, and its enormous land assessment which could not have been borne except by very prosperous agriculture, supplied abundant evidence that Kod was once a populous and flourishing sub-division.¹ In 1848 all was changed. Its fine plains for the most part lay untilled yielding nothing but rank herbage, and some of its richest valleys, suited for rice and sugarcane, were overgrown with date. Its reservoirs were choked with mud; its once populous villages had dwindled to a few wretched huts, and its active and flourishing landholders were the most poverty-stricken and spiritless peasantry in Dhárwár. Even in ruin the country was beautiful. An eye accustomed to the tameness of the Bombay Karnátak, delighted in its glistening lakes and grassy glades, fringed with palms

¹ Most of the reservoirs were probably built by the Anegundi kings. The chief of them was the Madag lake whose bank formed the boundary between Dhárwár and Maisur. It lay about two miles south of Masur town. The bed of the lake was within Maisur limits, but its waters were intended for the irrigation of Kod. Rom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 87. Details are given above under Agriculture, 260-263.

mangoes and tamarinds.¹ The three years ending 1827-28, which were years of gradual increase of tillage, were succeeded by four years of steady decline. During the ten years ending 1840-41 the tillage area was constantly though slightly changing and in 1840-41 it was about 56,000 acres. From this it almost steadily fell to about 38,000 acres in 1847-48. From 1828-29 there were four years of steady decline in the rental followed by three years of steady advance. During the five years ending 1839-40, the rental varied from about £9700 to about £8900 (Rs. 97,000-Rs. 89,000). The seven years ending 1847-48 were marked by a nearly steady fall in the rental from about £12,000 to about £8500 (Rs. 1,20,000-Rs. 85,000). The details² are :

Kod, 245 Villages : Tillage and Revenue, 1820-1848.

YEAR.	TILLAGE.			Waste Revenue	Quit Rent.	Net Land Revenue.
	Area.	Rental.	Remissions.			
	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1820-21	4130	59,018	1,61,060
1821-22	4209	60,550	1,59,024
1822-23	4465	58,975	1,56,261
1823-24	4171	56,884	1,47,908
1824-25	600	54,667	1,40,578
1825-26	...	48,024	...	2826	49,123	1,29,580
1826-27	...	54,841	...	3100	57,733	1,49,544
1827-28	...	56,741	...	3116	56,990	1,53,460
1828-29	...	56,499	98,615	3241	66,362	1,52,418
1829-30	...	53,601	91,187	3327	43,225	1,28,964
1830-31	...	51,918	86,573	4120	39,764	1,12,180
1831-32	...	49,184	79,267	1436	31,862	83,077
1832-33	...	49,443	81,699	1475	40,101	1,03,381
1833-34	...	53,088	1,11,344	34,362	46,121	1,24,601
1834-35	...	59,254	1,11,344	20,374	47,541	1,31,978
1835-36	...	53,374	95,388	25,961	46,839	1,16,740
1836-37	...	54,397	91,206	52,536	1702	29,305
1837-38	...	54,175	93,995	24,728	1833	45,806
1838-39	...	55,601	97,131	24,710	1838	47,492
1839-40	...	55,453	99,161	5247	3046	1,39,047
1840-41	...	53,539	3853	52,667
1841-42	...	55,879	1,18,711	3269	2799	54,598
1842-43	...	53,160	1,20,271	38,635	3398	51,797
1843-44	...	44,419	99,043	26,581	4805	49,690
1844-45	...	39,587	87,437	23,704	6862	45,460
1845-46	...	37,863	82,938	29,745	3460	40,117
1846-47	...	38,137	85,833	24,305	9203	41,673
1847-48	...	37,873	85,269	24,138	9063	43,059

A comparison of the collections and the tillage area during the twenty-three years ending 1848 shows that the average drycrop acre rate was 2s. 2½d. (Rs. 1 as. 1½), the average rice acre rate 5s. 3½d. (Rs. 2 as. 10½), and the average garden acre rate 15s. 7½d. (Rs. 7 as. 12½). The details³ are :

Kod Tillage and Revenue, 1825-1848.

LAND.	AVERAGE, 1825-1848.			AVERAGE, 1843-1848.		
	Tillage.	Collections.	Acre Rate.	Tillage.	Collections.	Acre Rate.
	Acres.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.
Drycrop	41,790	45,619	1 1 6	23,008	33,538	1 2 5
Rice	7993	21,222	2 10 6	6983	18,617	3 1 9
Garden	846	6660	7 12 10	746	6378	8 9 2

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 85.² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 134-135.³ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 97.

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Kod,
1848-49.

At the time of the settlement (1848) the Kod sub-division was impoverished, its population was scanty, and the area of arable waste was immense. The chief causes were over-taxation and cholera. The survey measurements and classification were begun in 1846 and finished in 1848. The plan followed for the classification of the soil in Kod was the same as that described in the Joint Report by the survey superintendents, dated the 2nd of August 1847 and afterwards approved by Government. A new system was adopted for valuing the supply of water to rice lands. The method was very simple and quite as systematic as that adopted for the valuation of the soil. The varying supplies of water obtainable for the irrigation of rice lands were by this system referred to one or other of the following six classes which were found sufficiently numerous for an equitable distribution of the assessment. Consistently with the attainment of this object it was desirable to have the number of classes as few as possible, as by this means the distinctions between each were more strongly marked and the work rendered at once simpler and more easily tested. The six classes were: (1) A supply of water abundant for rice and alternating crops of sugarcane; (2) a supply of water abundant for rice and in ordinary seasons sufficient for alternating crops of sugarcane; (3) a supply of water abundant for rice and sufficient for sugarcane in seasons when the fall of rain was unusually heavy; (4) a supply of water sufficient for rice and when the soil was suitable for an after green crop but not sufficient for sugarcane; (5) a supply of water independent of rain that is from ponds or streams for an after green crop; (6) a supply of water wholly dependent on the fall of rain and therefore very risky for rice. The consideration of the results of past revenue management, climate, markets, and relations to other sub-divisions already settled, led Captain Wingate to arrange the Kod villages into four classes and propose highest drycrop acre rates of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1½), 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1¼), 2s. (Rs. 1), and 1s. 6¾d. (12¼ as.) The details¹ are:

Kod Dry Crop Land Settlement, 1848-49.

CLASS.	VILLAGES.	FORMER, 1843-1848.				SURVEY.			
		Total Dry-crop Land.	Tillage.	Collec-tions.	Average Acre Rate.	Total Dry-crop Land.	Rental.	Average Acre Rate.	High-est Acre Rate.
I ...	30	Acres. 22,685	Acres. 4829	Rs. 5441	Rs. a p. 1 2 0	Acres. 22,500	Rs. 16,875	As. 12	Rs. a. 1 6
II ...	134	112,724	20,947	25,464	1 4 3	113,500	78,031	11	1 4
III ...	64	35,331	6462	6202	0 15 2	39,000	21,937	9	1 0
IV ...	17	3534	678	431	0 8 11	5000	2187	7	0 12½
Total ...	245	174,274	33,006	38,538	1 2 8	180,000	1,19,030	10½	...

The rice lands were both extensive and valuable but like the dry crop lands most of them were (1848) waste. As in Hángal the rice lands consisted partly of land suited for sugarcane as well as rice from having a command of water for irrigation during part of the dry season. This more valuable land was limited in area and most of the land was unfit for rice, because of the ruin of the lakes. The difference in the area of rice lands according to the (1825) former and the (1847) present survey was no less than 7000 acres. Much of this

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 99-100.

difference was probably due to land having been entered as rice in the 1825 survey merely because it had once grown rice and was entered as rice land in the village accounts. Still there could be no question that the state of many of the reservoirs had greatly declined in the twenty-three years ending 1848, and that a considerable area had become incapable of irrigation. In 1848 the area of land suitable for rice was estimated at 20,000 acres. The highest acre rate proposed was 9s. (Rs. 4½). Upon the tillage the new rates effected a reduction of about thirty per cent. The details are :

Kod Rice Land Settlement, 1848-49.

YEAR.	Total Rice Land.	Tillage.	Rental.	Average Acre Rate.
	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs. s. p.
1843-1848 ...	27,500	6983	18,617	3 1 9
Survey ...	20,000	...	40,000	2 0 0

The depressed condition of agriculture in Kod (1848) was nowhere more strikingly visible than in the garden cultivation. This was not so much shown by a decline of cultivation and revenue which were less subject to fluctuation than in drycrop and rice lands. It was chiefly apparent in the neglected state of the gardens. In many villages the gardens had been gradually declining for years, and in some they were nearly destroyed from neglect. This was owing to the absence of a superior class of landholders rather than to excessive assessment. The garden assessment of Kod, while extremely unequal and in many instances excessive, was on the whole moderate, the average acre rate for the five years ending 1848 being 17s. 1¼d. (Rs. 8 as. 9½). Gardens which had fallen out of cultivation under British management owing to the heaviness of the former assessment had in several instances been given out again at rents so greatly reduced that these could be paid from the produce of the cocoanut and other fruit trees without any labour. Several of these gardens though entered in the accounts as cultivated were really waste. The trees were uncared for and from year to year their produce was growing less. The highest acre rate proposed for the pond watered gardens of Kod was £1 10s. (Rs. 15). In Kod the filling of the ponds was wholly dependent on the local rainfall. The highest acre rate for gardens watered entirely from wells was proposed at 10s. (Rs. 5). The well garden cultivation of Kod was insignificant. The garden assessment at the proposed rates was estimated to yield £700 (Rs. 7000) or an average acre rate of 13s. (Rs. 6½) on the entire garden land, and 14s. (Rs. 7) on the existing (1848) cultivation. The full survey rental of the whole Government land of the sub-division was estimated at £16,600 (Rs. 1,66,000). Compared with the average of the five years ending 1848 (£7314), the survey rental showed an increase of 127 per cent and compared with the average of the twenty-eight years ending 1848 an increase of 102 per cent. The immediate effect of the settlement on the area under tillage in 1847-48 was a reduction of about fifty-two per cent. The proposed settlement was sanctioned in 1849.¹

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 83-110, 155-161.

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SURVEY.
Dhárwár,
1848-49.

In 1848-49 the survey settlement was introduced into 132 villages of Dhárwár in the north-west of the district. Dhárwár was bounded on the north by Parasgad, on the east by Navalgund, on the south by Hubli, and on the west by Kánara and Bidi. It contained 136 Government and thirty-three alienated villages.¹ In appearance and climate the different parts of Dhárwár varied considerably. The Belgaum-Hubli road divided Dhárwár into two parts. To the north of the road was a level black soil plain peculiarly suited to the growth of drycrops and containing little watered land; to the south of the road the country was hilly, and the valleys generally given to rice, drycrop culture being for the most part confined to the light soiled uplands. This difference was chiefly due to the moister climate of the south division, in which the rainfall gradually increased towards the Kánara forests. In the north or black plain portion the climate was suited for drycrops. The rain though generally sufficient was rarely excessive, and droughts, to which the Navalgund villages a little further north-east were very subject, were rare. Tobacco grew freely in some villages, and several vegetables, which in most places required watering, grew well as drycrops. The climate of the north of Dhárwár was equal to any in the collectorate; and the neighbourhood of the camp and city of Dhárwár and the presence of the Dhárwár-Hubli road made it as regards markets the most favoured part of the district. In the south of the sub-division the climate was too damp for drycrops; and to the west *juári* gave way to *rági* and other inferior grains. The camp and town of Dhárwár used almost the whole local produce. A large trading and manufacturing population in different villages throughout the sub-division increased the local demand and kept the prices of produce above the level of any other part of the district. From the same cause little cotton was grown, though the climate was well suited for cotton. The landholders found it more profitable to raise *juári*, from which besides the grain a large return was obtained by the sale of the straw in Dhárwár and in the villages along the Belgaum-Hubli road. Considerable quantities of tobacco were grown in certain villages and it was considered a paying crop. Wheat also was grown sparingly throughout the black plain or north portion of the sub-division, but the early or monsoon *juári* was the great staple, except in two or three of the most outlying villages where, in consequence of the more precarious fall of rain, the cultivators occasionally tried the white or cold weather variety. In the hilly or south division, rice and sugarcane were the most valuable crops and like the products of the plain division found a ready sale at Dhárwár. In this Dhárwár sub-division the drycrop land revenue was much more important than that obtained from the rice and garden lands. Manure was everywhere used except in a few villages which had the benefit of wood ashes.

¹ Of the Government villages three had long been lost sight of in the forest tracts and could not be traced. Their lands were therefore included within the limits of adjoining villages. One village was surveyed and assessed before its transfer from Navalgund to Dhárwár. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 111, 117.

For about 113 years after the fall of Anegundi (1573) Dhárwár, under the nominal rule of Bijápúr, was in a great measure left to the hereditary officers. This period is described as one of unbroken suffering. It next fell under the Moghals whose rule lasted sixty-six years and was generally liberal and prosperous. The Maráthás succeeded, and one of their first measures was to raise the assessment by trebling the ancient Anegundi *rakam* or standard. The new standard could not be collected and required the constant aid of leases or *kauls* and similar abatements to give it even a nominal existence. In 1790 the town of Dhárwár and many neighbouring villages were plundered and burnt by Parashurám Bháu Patvardhan and from 1790 to 1817 the whole sub-division continued to suffer from similar outrages.¹ Though the importance of Dhárwár fort made the neighbourhood specially liable to the spoliation of contending armies, the presence of the garrison secured to the husbandmen a good local market for their produce. On the whole it seemed to have suffered less than most parts of the district from the disorders that preceded the occupation of the country by the British. Under British management the sub-division generally prospered though its agriculture remained stationary if not declining. The large thriving town of Dhárwár may be said to have grown up within this period, and the population of other places also considerably increased. According to Captain Wingate over-assessment had prevented an advance in agriculture. As in other sub-divisions the collections in the first few years of British rule were very high; this gave rise to an exaggerated estimate of the capabilities of the sub-division, and this was made the basis of the assessment of the first survey which was introduced in 1825-26 and had since formed the ground work of the yearly settlements. Cultivation declined steadily for the first eight years (1825-1833) subsequent to the introduction of the former survey when the collections were generally high. In the nine years ending 1842 owing to remissions and leases the collections were smaller and tillage spread. In the three years ending 1845 the cultivation once more rapidly declined. Finally in the three years ending 1848 there was a considerable increase due chiefly to the survey and the approaching revision of assessment. The details² are:

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SURVEY.
Dhárwár,
1843-49.

Dhárwár, 131 Villages: Tillage and Revenue, 1820-1848.

YEAR.	Tillage.			Waste Revenue	Quit Rent.	Net Land Revenue.
	Area.	Rental.	Remissions.			
	Acrea.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1820-21	1560	61,101	1,73,745
1821-22	2407	61,886	1,75,820
1822-23	2181	57,729	1,79,001
1823-24	1952	54,065	1,50,701
1824-25	...	1,45,976	57,559	1030	65,181	1,44,629
1825-26	62,140	1,47,717	55,321	1696	54,014	1,43,105
1826-27	62,647	1,48,366	46,942	2102	55,848	1,56,874
1827-28	61,896	1,46,112	40,200	1835	54,910	1,62,687
1828-29	58,092	1,38,842	39,632	2129	53,726	1,54,664
1829-30	53,202	1,29,024	34,830	2108	52,106	1,48,468
1830-31	50,977	1,24,681	39,157	2608	55,920	1,44,030
1831-32	51,574	1,25,099	31,853	2412	56,115	1,51,773

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 113.² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 136-137.

Chapter VIII.

Dhárwár, 131 Villages: Tillage and Revenue, 1820-1848—continued.

Land.
SURVEY.
Dhárwár,
1848-49.

YEAR.	Tillage.			Waste		Quit Rent.	Net Land Revenue.
	Area.	Rental.	Remis- sions.	Revenue	Rs.		
1832-33	48,051	1,14,880	52,470	2804	49,593	1,14,607	
1833-34	53,942	1,28,611	59,977	2816	52,962	1,24,312	
1834-35	55,835	1,28,985	29,357	2394	56,733	1,52,755	
1835-36	56,139	1,21,897	40,116	2577	56,316	1,40,674	
1836-37	57,016	1,20,451	43,712	2615	53,799	1,33,153	
1837-38	62,337	1,27,539	28,832	2850	66,177	1,57,834	
1838-39	55,558	1,10,317	45,804	2897	51,680	1,18,790	
1839-40	61,888	1,21,530	19,531	3610	54,540	1,60,149	
1840-41	61,738	1,22,433	17,653	3195	55,134	1,63,119	
1841-42	62,469	1,22,732	24,067	3294	54,988	1,56,397	
1842-43	58,695	1,15,149	23,077	3841	54,702	1,50,815	
1843-44	58,361	1,05,366	17,008	4661	54,606	1,45,684	
1844-45	50,390	99,916	13,445	4316	53,213	1,44,979	
1845-46	51,158	99,726	9730	6941	53,253	1,50,196	
1846-47	59,434	1,18,575	7610	6193	54,460	1,71,618	
1847-48	64,309	1,30,182	10,699	5730	54,312	1,79,625	

The survey was begun in 1846 and finished in 1848. The 132 Government villages were arranged in seven classes with highest drycrop acre rates varying from 4s. 6d. to 1s. 9d. (Rs. 2½ - 14 as.). The details are :

Dhárwár Dry Crop Land Settlement, 1848-49.

CLASS.	VIL- LAGES.	FORMER, 1825-1848.				SURVEY.			
		Total Drycrop Land.	Tillage.	Collec- tions.	Average Acre Rate.	Total Drycrop Land.	Rental.	Average Acre Rate.	Highest Acre Rate.
		Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
I ...	7	3338	3312	6996	2 1 10	5840	6000	1 9	2 4
II ...	53	48,774	33,777	59,350	1 12 1	49,000	67,375	1 6	2 0
III ...	3	4474	3056	4371	1 6 4	4475	5748	1 5	1 12
IV ...	23	16,183	4412	3364	0 14 0	16,000	10,500	0 10½	1 12
V ...	19	11,901	3448	1991	0 9 3	10,000	5312	0 8½	1 8
VI ...	18	19,724	5641	1791	0 5 2	17,000	7989	0 7½	1 11
VII ...	9	12,479	1286	270	0 3 4	11,000	4408	0 6½	0 14
Total ...	132	117,373	54,832	78,633	1 6 11	111,315	1,07,373	0 15½	...

As the sixth and seventh classes were close to forests, and had a rainy climate, the poorer lands in them yielded an abundant herbage during seven or eight months of the year. In these places the new rates enhanced the drycrop assessment. In other lands the proposed rates were below the past averages. The area of rice land in Dhárwár was not large. It was nearly confined to the portion of the sub-division south of the Belgaum-Hubli road, that is to the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh classes of villages. At the introduction of the 1825 survey settlement 3804 acres were under rice. An unbearable assessment had reduced this to 2874 acres in 1845-46. During the two years ending 1848 a portion of the waste had been brought under tillage in anticipation of the new settlement. There were (1848) in all about 6000 acres of rice land of which nearly half were waste owing to the oppressive nature of the existing assessment. The highest acre rate was £1 4s. (Rs. 12) and the average acre rate on the cultivation of the twenty-three years ending 1848 was 7s. ¼d. (Rs. 3 as. 8½), and on that of the five years ending 1843, 7s. 11½d. (Rs. 3 as. 15½). The highest acre rate proposed in the 1848 settlement was 16s. (Rs. 9) for the first,

second, fourth, and fifth classes of villages; there was no rice land in the third class; the sixth and seventh classes were less favourably situated, being removed ten to fifteen miles from Dhárwár and the high road to Belgaum; on this account the highest acre rate proposed for them was 14s. (Rs. 7). The details are:

Dhárwár Rice Land Settlement, 1848-49.

FORMER, 1825-1848.				SURVEY.			
Total Rice Land.	Tillage.	Collec-tions.	Average Acre Rate.	Total Rice Land.	Rental.	Average Acre Rate.	Highest Acre Rate.
Acres. 5125	Acres. 3154	Rs. 11,150	Rs. a. p. 3 8 7	Acres. 6000	Rs. 15,750	Rs. a. p. 2 10 0	Rs. { 8 7

Garden lands were of very limited extent, 360 acres, of which 287 were under tillage at an average acre rate of 16s. $\frac{2}{3}$ d. (Rs. 8 *as.* $\frac{2}{3}$). This land was generally inferior to that of the southern sub-divisions and was for the most part devoted to the raising of vegetables for the Dhárwár market. The highest acre rates proposed were £1 10s. (Rs. 15) for pond-watered gardens and 10s. (Rs. 5) for well-watered gardens. The average acre rate was estimated at about 10s. (Rs. 5). The full survey rental of the whole Government arable land of the sub-division was estimated at £12,500 (Rs. 1,25,000) which, compared with £10,044 (Rs. 1,00,440) the average collections of the twenty-eight years ending 1848, showed an increase of 24½ per cent, and, compared with £9872 (Rs. 98,720) the average collections of the five years ending 1845-46, an increase of 26½ per cent.¹ As cultivation was more widespread in Dhárwár than in any previously settled sub-division, the new settlement did not hold out so large a prospect of eventual increase of revenue. The immediate effect of the settlement on the average collections of the five years ending 1845-46 was a reduction of about ten per cent. The proposed settlement was sanctioned in March 1849.²

In 1848-49 the survey settlement was introduced into 100 Mishrikot villages in the west of the district. These 100 Government villages together with twenty-four alienated villages formed the Mishrikot petty division of Hubli. It was bounded on the north by Dhárwár, on the east by the mámlatdár's and Taras mahálkari's divisions of Hubli, and on the south and west by Kánara. The surface of Mishrikot was waving and much of the south and west was (December 1848) overrun with forest. Passing from the north-east to the Kánara forests the climate rapidly became more rainy. It was in all parts overmoist for drycrops, though drycrops were much grown along the eastern border. The westerly villages were very thinly

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1848-49.

Mishrikot,
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¹ The period of five years ending 1845-46 has been taken for comparison, because, according to Captain Wingate, from 1846-47 the effect of the present survey operations in increasing the revenue first became decidedly apparent. Captain Wingate, Survey Superintendent, 235 of 21st December 1848, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 122.

² Captain Wingate, Survey Superintendent, 235 of 21st December 1848, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 111-123; Government Letter 1908 of 19th March 1849, Ditto 155-161.

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peopled and many of them were empty. There was very little tillage, and no great spread of tillage could (1848) be looked for without an increase of population. The chief produce was rice and the revenue from watered lands was more than double the drycrop revenue. All over the petty division were many small neglected reservoirs. Owing to a moderate assessment and to a good market for their rice, the landholders were better off than in other rice-growing parts of Dhárwár. From the introduction of the 1825 survey, tillage had fluctuated very little. At the same time it had steadily though slowly spread. The amount of yearly remissions was small. The assessment was therefore comparatively moderate but it had not been light enough to allow any rapid spread of tillage or the proper development of the agricultural resources of the petty division which were very great. During the twenty-three years ending 1847-48, the tillage area slowly rose from about 15,500 acres in 1825-26 to about 22,500 acres in 1847-48. During the twenty-eight years ending 1847-48 the net rental varied from about £6500 (Rs. 65,000) in 1843-44 to about £2440 (Rs. 24,400) in 1836-37, and remissions varied from about £1850 (Rs. 18,500) in 1836-37 to about £4 (Rs. 40) in 1821-22. The details¹ are :

Mishrikot, 100 Villages : Tillage and Revenue, 1820-1848.

YEAR.	Tillage.			Waste Revenue.	Quit Rent.	Net Land Revenue.	YEAR.	Tillage.			Waste Revenue.	Quit Rent.	Net Land Revenue.	
	Area.	Rental.	Remissions.					Area.	Rental.	Remissions.				
1820-21...	Acres.	Ra.	Rs.	Rs.	Ra.	Ra.	1834-35...	Acres.	Ra.	Rs.	Rs.	Ra.	Rs.	
1821-22...	82,234	574	160	12,848	44,163	12,848	20,305	138	15,555	51,269	15,555	
1822-23...	38,531	41	141	15,355	58,986	58,986	17,756	34,153	6685	146	14,990	42,903	14,990	
1823-24...	146	15,544	55,465	1836-37...	18,497	32,640	18,520	134	10,115	24,369	10,115
1824-25...	41,251	10,799	169	14,987	45,608	45,608	1837-38...	29,168	147	14,201	39,360	14,201
1825-26...	41,208	3946	154	14,320	62,245	62,245	1838-39...	19,450	143	12,486	31,170	12,486
1826-27...	15,519	36,772	3446	147	17,078	50,551	1839-40...	18,498	197	14,394	43,771	14,394
1827-28...	16,973	145	16,432	60,484	1840-41...	20,238	191	14,627	44,690	14,627
1828-29...	17,128	35,675	4478	138	14,723	46,056	1841-42...	21,960	35,348	1619	1104	29,960	64,813	29,960
1829-30...	18,396	34,087	210	137	14,703	48,717	1842-43...	21,639	34,710	2312	1188	30,221	63,807	30,221
1830-31...	18,183	138	13,216	39,869	1843-44...	21,896	35,328	1862	1239	30,456	65,110	30,456
1831-32...	18,393	34,530	5274	126	14,405	43,777	1844-45...	20,215	31,164	480	1835	30,603	64,177	30,603
1832-33...	17,277	136	13,300	39,163	1845-46...	21,229	32,335	4322	1770	29,910	59,693	29,910
1833-34...	17,044	122	12,446	37,193	1846-47...	22,163	33,263	3996	2106	29,472	60,851	29,472
1834-35...	17,439	33,881	3333	134	14,304	44,937	1847-48...	22,510	42,417	9450	1639	30,143	64,799	30,143

The survey was begun in 1846 and finished in 1848. The area of Government drycrop land in the 100 Mishrikot villages was about 76,000 acres of which only 14,500 acres were (1848) under cultivation at an average acre rate of 1s. 3d. (10 as.) as deduced from the collections of the preceding five years. It was proposed to divide the villages into four classes with highest drycrop acre rates of 2s. 7½d. (Rs. 1¼) diminishing to 1s. 3d. (10 as.), as the climate became more rainy and unfavourable for drycrop culture. The details are :

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 133-139.

Mishrikot Dry Crop Land Settlement, 1848-49.

CLASS.	Villages.	FORMER, 1848-1848.				SURVEY.			
		Total Drycrop Land.	Tillage.	Collec-tions.	Average Acre Rate.	Total Drycrop Land.	Rental.	Average Acre Rate.	Highest Acre Rate.
I ...	3	Acres. 3844	Acres. 944	Rs. 954	Rs. a. 1 0 4	Acres. 3800	Rs. 2925	Rs. 13	Rs. a. 1 5
II ...	21	17,109	8847	5958	0 12	17,000	9663	9	1 1 1/2
III ...	27	18,850	4011	2321	0 9	18,000	8500	6 1/2	0 14
IV ...	49	46,594	1990	732	0 6 1/2	40,000	11,250	4 1/2	0 10
Total ...	100	84,997	13,792	9060	0 10 1/2	78,600	80,287	6 1/2	...

The 8397 acres less of the drycrop land according to the 1848 survey were owing to tracts of land which had become covered with dense forest. Rice lands were of considerable extent in Mishrikot amounting to about 15,000 acres of which about 8000 were (1848) under tillage. The rainy climate of the greater part of Mishrikot made it particularly suited for rice. For the rice and sugarcane lands a highest acre rate of 12s. (Rs. 6) was proposed. The details are :

Mishrikot Rice Land Settlement, 1848-49.

FORMER, 1848-1848.				SURVEY.			
Total Rice Land.	Tillage.	Collec-tions.	Average Acre Rate.	Total Rice Land.	Rental.	Average Acre Rate.	Highest Acre Rate.
Acres. 14,603	Acres. 8245	Rs. 21,958	Rs. a. 2 11	Acres. 16,500	Rs. 31,969	Rs. a. 2 1	Rs. 6

There was no Government garden land in Mishrikot. If any should be found in the villages remaining to be classified, the ordinary standard, adopted for the collectorate in general, was proposed, that is a highest acre rate of £1 10s. (Rs. 15) for pond gardens and 10s. (Rs. 5) for well gardens. Besides these, as in Dhárwár, some of the lands of Mishrikot were covered with forest. Large tracts of this forest land in particular villages in both groups, Dhárwár and Mishrikot, were merely measured and their external boundaries marked off without being divided into fields. No assessment was proposed for these forest tracts. Captain Wingate had suggested through the Military Board that a portion of them or other convenient waste should be set apart as public forest for the growth of timber and managed under special instructions distinct from the ordinary administration of the survey settlements. The timber of these forests was being recklessly destroyed. For the rest of the forest-covered arable land it was proposed that if such fields were brought under tillage, the mámlatdár should fix rates of assessment on the area under tillage equivalent to the assessment of similar soils in the same village. Captain Wingate was of opinion that cultivation should not be allowed to extend to these tracts until the arable waste, which had been divided into fields and assessed, was brought under tillage. Till then the natural products of the land in question might be sold on behalf of Government as in the case of ordinary waste subject to assessment. The full survey rental on the Government arable land amounted to £6200 (Rs. 62,000), which,

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compared with £3304 (Rs. 33,040) the average collections during the twenty-eight years ending 1847-48, showed an increase of 87½ per cent, and compared with £3510 (Rs. 35,100) the average collections of the five years ending 1847-48, an increase of 76½ per cent. The immediate effect of the settlement was a reduction of about twenty per cent. The proposed settlement was sanctioned in March 1849.¹ For some years before 1848 wild elephants had yearly visited the western borders of Dhárwár and done much damage to the crops especially to rice. The people knew no way of killing wild elephants and allowed them to ravage the fields undisturbed. It was proposed to grant a reward of £5 to £10 (Rs. 50-100) for every wild elephant that might be killed.²

Mulgund,
1850-51.

In 1850-51 the survey settlement was introduced into a group of twenty-nine villages in the Dambal sub-division in the east of the district. The survey of these villages was begun in 1850 and finished in 1851. Their area amounted to 106,773 acres of which 10,763 acres were unarable and 96,010 acres were arable.³ When Government took possession of the eighteen Mulgund villages no accounts for previous years were forthcoming. During the time of the Patvardhans, that is from 1790 to 1847, the revenue management of these villages was personal or *rayatvâr*. The assessment was nominally very high, but was never realized in full unless in a year of extraordinary abundance. The collections were made by six instalments which fell due between November and June. A yearly inspection of crops was made, and remissions from one-eighth to three-fourths were given to each landholder according to the state of his crop and his general means. These remissions were granted almost every season, so that in effect the collections were made according to the state of the crop. As the landholders could never hope to pay the full assessment they were always at the mercy of the revenue officers. The officers seldom pressed their exactions beyond endurance. They were generally ready to defer their demands rather than compel a landholder to part with his farm stock. Though so far considerate they allowed the cultivator no freedom of action. He was not allowed to give up any part of his holding when so inclined. He was even required to increase it when the authorities thought he had the means of cultivating more land than he had under tillage. Such extra lands he was allowed to hold at low rates, so as in some

¹ Captain Wingate, Survey Superintendent, 235 of 21st December 1848, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 123-132; Government Letter 1908 of 19th March 1849, Ditto 155-161.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 131, 147.

³ Of these twenty-nine villages, eighteen were villages of the Mulgund petty division which formed part of the estate of the late chief of Tásgaon and lapsed to Government at his death in 1848; six were villages of the same petty division formerly held as hereditary by the *desái* and *desáhpánde* of Mulgund but resumed by Government in 1850 in consequence of investigations by the Inám Commissioner. At the time of settlement these twenty-four villages formed the charge of the mahálkari of Mulgund in the Dambal sub-division; of the remaining five villages, four were formerly held as an hereditary grant by the Shirhatti *desái* and resumed in 1847, after enquiry by the Inám Commissioner, and at the settlement time they formed part of the charge of the mahálkari of Dambal; one village was held by an agent of the Dambal *desái*, but on investigation by the Inám Commissioner was resumed in 1847 and at settlement time was attached to the charge of the Gadag mámlatdár. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 187.

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measure to compensate for the high rents levied on the rest of his holding. The chief objects of the management were to prevent any diminution of cultivation and to extend it by all available means, so as to exact for the landlord the whole surplus produce beyond what was necessary for the tenant's support, but yet so cautiously and carefully as not to disable the tenant from continuing his cultivation. The two years (1848-50) during which these villages were under British management showed the impossibility of realizing the assessment of the preceding period. In the first year one-fourth of the whole assessment, £1285 (Rs. 12,850) out of £5066 (Rs. 50,660) were remitted. Still the landholders complained loudly. When they found that they were free to give up their land they at once threw up one-fourth of the entire cultivation. In the following season, when the introduction of the new assessment had been promised, a portion of this land was again taken for tillage. In the absence of any trustworthy information as to the amount of past collections in all the twenty-nine villages, in settling the new rates it seemed safest to be guided by those already introduced into the neighbouring villages of the Hubli, Navalgund, and Dambal sub-divisions. The lands were similarly situated in respect of climate and markets, and in those villages the new settlements had been attended with fair success.

The twenty-four Mulgund villages were divided into two classes. The first or the more westerly class, consisting of thirteen villages, formed an elongated belt stretching from the neighbourhood of the town of Navalgund southwards along the Benni Halla; for this group a highest drycrop acre rate of 2s. 7½d. (Rs. 1¼⁸), sanctioned for the neighbouring villages of Navalgund, was adopted. The second class contained the remaining eleven villages of the Mulgund *pargana*, which were clustered around Mulgund town and occupied a position immediately south of the Navalgund villages and west of the Dambal villages. For these a highest drycrop acre rate of 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) was adopted. In this class were also placed the four villages resumed from the Shirhatti *desái* near the Tungbhadra river, a few miles west of the Dambal hills and among Dambal villages. To the village of Niralgí resumed from the Dambal *desái's* agent in the north-east of Dambal, a highest drycrop acre rate of 2s. (Rs. 1) was applied. For the few acres of garden land a highest acre rate of 10s. (Rs. 5), the same as that sanctioned for well gardens throughout the collectorate, was adopted. The immediate effect of the survey settlement was an increase from £4127 (Rs. 41,270) to £5105 (Rs. 51,050) or twenty-three per cent. There were besides 13,297 acres of waste assessed at £667 (Rs. 6670), to be brought under tillage. Government sanctioned the proposed settlement in April 1852.¹

The following statement shows the results of the survey settlement in certain groups of villages, in the neighbourhood of the Mulgund group in Dambal :²

SURVEY
RESULTS,
1843-1850.

¹ Captain Wingate, 51 of 31st Dec. 1851, and Gov. Resolution 2509 of 12th April 1852. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 187-198.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV, 193.

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Dhārwar Survey Results, 1843-1850.

Land.
SURVEY
RESULTS,
1843-1850.

YEAR.	Three Villages of Hubli, Highest Acre Rate Rs. 1½.				Fourteen Villages of Naval- gund, Highest Acre Rate Rs. 1½.				Ten Villages of Navalgund, Highest Acre Rate Rs. 1½.			
	Waste	Tillage.		Re- mis- sions.	Waste	Tillage.		Re- mis- sions.	Waste	Tillage.		Re- mis- sions.
		Area.	Rental.			Area.	Rental.			Area.	Rental.	
	Acres.	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Ra.	Acres.	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.
1843-44 ...	2661	8787	9742	1233
1844-45 ...	2566	8988	8926	186	9048	30,648	20,221	3616	4246	12,549	18,165	1800
1845-46 ...	1997	9498	8874	13	5914	34,262	29,157	118	2523	14,967	15,118	51
1846-47 ...	1037	10,467	10,363	166	3124	38,215	32,160	8	749	16,900	17,110	808
1847-48 ...	793	10,701	10,619	10	1034	39,603	33,159	17	172	17,132	17,376	806
1848-49 ...	240	11,292	11,215	30	846	41,565	34,734	174	2	17,496	18,367	669
1849-50 ...	466	11,472	11,875	...	1573	42,094	35,127	...	581	17,022	17,904	...
Increase	2685	1633	11,446	8906	4473	4739	...
Decrease ...	2195	7475	3715

YEAR.	Thirteen Villages of Dambal, Highest Acre Rate Rs. 1½.				Twelve Villages of Bankāpur, Highest Acre Rate Rs. 1½.			
	Waste	Tillage.		Re- mis- sions.	Waste	Tillage.		Re- mis- sions.
		Area.	Rental.			Area.	Rental.	
	Acres.	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.	Acres.	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.
1843-44
1844-45
1845-46 ...	8864	17,003	11,564	943
1846-47 ...	8946	22,094	14,638	362	8502	13,097	7705	677
1847-48 ...	4657	21,113	14,058	242	8186	12,470	7772	4
1848-49 ...	8702	22,071	14,692	251	7451	18,200	8147	90
1849-50 ...	4888	21,066	14,042	...	7339	13,537	8270	...
Increase	4083	2488	1440	665	...
Decrease ...	1976	1163

1843-1855.

In 1854 the settlements were described as wonderfully successful in relieving the landholders from debt and enabling them to secure land-property.¹ In spite of the great spread of tillage, produce prices had remained high. Landholders and field labourers had been greatly enriched. Especially near market towns land had risen greatly in value. This rise in the value of land was due to the light assessment, the constancy of tenure, the levying of the land-tax after harvest time, and improved communications which helped the export of surplus produce. The care and labour they gave to their fields, the cost they underwent in watering them, and their readiness to grow fruit trees near wells, on unarable spots, and round their fields, showed that the landholders valued the advantages of the new tenure. Their increased means enabled them to keep more livestock and consequently the fields received more manure and yielded heavier crops. Land might be expected to suffer from the freedom granted to holders to contract or extend their holdings at will. In practice this freedom in no way injured the land. The competition for land was great, and the tenure was safe and good. There was no abandoning of land after it was once taken. Many landholders held spare land which was sometimes allowed to be overgrown

¹ The Collector Mr. Ogilvy, 2106 of 31st December 1855, and the Rev. Comr. Mr. Reeves, 609 of 26th February 1857. Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1859, 1399-1406.

with grass, sub-leased, sold, or sub-divided among heirs and relations. Outstandings and remissions had nearly ceased. The prosperous state of the landholders was not accompanied by any loss to Government. On the contrary in 1854 the land receipts were higher than they had been since 1840 and Government further gained by the extension of trade in the district. The returns for the fifteen years ending 1854 showed that over the whole district the area under tillage had risen from 610,392 acres in 1840 to 998,084 acres in 1854, that the revenue for collection had risen from £116,891 (Rs. 11,68,910) to £129,933 (Rs. 12,99,330), and that outstandings had fallen from £2184 (Rs. 21,840) to £17 (Rs. 170). The details are :

Dhárwár Survey Results, 1843-1855.

YEAR.	Tillage.		Remissions.	For Collection.	Outstandings.
	Area.	Rental.			
	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.
1840-41...	610,392	12,46,336	77,427	11,68,909	21,843
1841-42...	660,977	14,76,344	82,455	11,93,889	27,334
1842-43...	684,874	12,46,026	71,991	11,74,034	23,911
1843-44...	587,693	11,74,230	82,574	11,21,656	10,180
1844-45...	570,820	11,07,609	44,259	10,53,843	9084
1845-46...	595,879	10,89,838	1,36,221	9,54,162	6008
1846-47...	685,324	11,54,483	40,996	11,23,486	4934
1847-48...	729,867	11,74,526	67,349	11,07,177	7733
1848-49...	794,046	11,32,650	21,209	11,01,641	2522
1849-50...	816,490	11,69,026	32,204	11,36,222	1544
1850-51...	843,177	11,68,197	31,290	11,36,907	1573
1851-52...	918,261	12,13,623	31,732	11,51,891	175
1852-53...	946,136	12,25,107	31,691	11,93,416	...
1853-54...	952,974	12,74,249	738	12,73,511	1305
1854-55...	998,084	12,99,333	520	12,99,332	166

From 1849-50 remissions on account of failure of crops, poverty, and other reasons ceased to be granted; the sums entered under the head of remissions were compensation for abolished perquisites. In 1843-44 the year of the survey settlement, the tillage area was 587,693 acres and the revenue for collection was £112,166 (Rs. 11,21,660), while in 1854-55 the tillage area was 1,076,350 acres and the revenue for collection £137,923 (Rs. 13,79,230). Even after deducting from the tillage and revenue of 1854-55, 78,266 acres of quit-rent lands and lapsed lands not included in the above statement and their revenue of £7990 (Rs. 79,900), there remained an excess of 410,391 acres in tillage area and £17,767 (Rs. 1,77,670) in revenue over those of 1843-44. The town of Hubli was thriving. The wealth, the crowded assemblage, and the earnestness observable on market days at Hubli were (1857 February) truly gratifying.¹

In 1856 Dhárwár contained 5178 square miles, 1546 towns and villages, and 754,385 people or an average of 145.69 to the square mile. Cotton tillage had greatly increased since the Belgaum-Dhárwár and Kumta road had been finished. The road from Dhárwár to Kalghatgi opened out the town of Dhárwár by the best route to Kárwár in North Kánara. The line joining Hubli with the Kánara frontier by Kalghatgi was turned into a trunk road. The road from Hubli to

1856.

¹ The Rev. Comr. 609 of 26th Feby. 1857, Rev. Rec. 17 of 1859, 1399-1406.

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THE BRITISH,
1856.

Annigeri placed in communication with the western coast, the north-eastern cotton growing districts of Dhárwár and the neighbouring territories of the Nizám and the Madras Government. The Haliyál road joining Dhárwár with the Kánara frontier was useful for carrying timber to Dhárwár. Several other roads had also been opened. Some English merchants had formed a project of making a railway from the port of Kánara or Sadáshivgad, which, passing by the town of Hubli, was intended to join the Madras and Bombay railway at Belári. At Dhárwár, Indian millet or *javári* rupee prices had risen from 123 pounds in 1843 to 76 pounds in 1856.¹ There were no canals in the district; 1177 ponds and reservoirs were used to water 50,000 acres yielding a yearly revenue of £11,760 (Rs. 1,17,600). Many other ponds and reservoirs supplied drinking water only. The rules introduced in 1835, enabling the Collector to help the people to make wells, village offices, and other works, had done much good. In 1854-55, £3654 (Rs. 36,540) were spent on public improvements, of which the people contributed £1450 (Rs. 14,500). Buildings for a cotton gin factory were erected in Dhárwár in 1850 at a cost of about £431 (Rs. 4310) and placed under the care of a superintendent of cotton experiments. The culture of New Orleans cotton was yearly increasing. In 1854-55 it covered 63,298 acres. About 300 saw-gins were made in the factory and sold to the cotton growers. The character of Dhárwár cotton was raised in the market and a new impulse given to the cotton trade. In 1854-55, of a total of 2,436,647 acres 1,459,455 were arable, 329,465 waste, and 647,727 alienated. Of the arable acres, 1,076,350 or seventy-four per cent were under tillage, 347,644 acres were in pasture, and 35,461 acres were forest reserves. Of the area under tillage 3340 acres were watered garden land, 64,810 rice land, and 1,008,200 drycrop land. The chief field products were *javári*, wheat, *rála*, *sáva*, *náchni*, gram, *bájrí*, pulses, and oilseeds.² The exports included cotton, vegetable oils, grain, sugar, chillies, silk, cotton cloths, hides, and horns. The imports were, from the west coast and Kánara, salt, spices, broadcloth, cotton prints, yarn, metals, and timber; and from the interior, handkerchiefs, turbans, and other fabrics, and dyes. Iron ore was found and smelted in considerable quantities in the western laterite ridges and in the Dambal hills. During 1854 the

¹ The details are :

Dhruvdr Indian Millet Prices, 1843-1856.

YEAR.	POUNDS THE RUPEE.					YEAR.	POUNDS THE RUPEE.				
	Hubli.	Naval-gund.	Hán-gal.	Kod.	Dhár-wár.		Hubli.	Naval-gund.	Hán-gal.	Kod.	Dhár-wár.
1843...	111	120	235	243	123	1850...	121	176	356	320	126
1844...	132	190	239	243	111	1851...	162	162	173	320	144
1845...	144	184	228	243	123	1852...	108	128	160	336	148
1846...	96	128	193	324	96	1853...	121	96	320	320	146
1847...	84	116	180	324	108	1854...	88	76	144	316	140
1848...	96	136	192	320	111	1855...	71	94	120	276	92
1849...	162	130	132	320	120	1856...	88	94	104	260	76

Compiled from Survey Reports.

² Of these *javári* covered 39 per cent, wheat 12 per cent, and rice 6 per cent.

rainfall was below the average. The harvest was short, but as prices were high and the Government assessment light, landholders did not suffer. The rains of 1855 were still less favourable though the failure did not cause scarcity. A deficiency in the latter thunder showers left the wells and reservoirs without their usual stores of water, and, as the dry months advanced, many villages suffered from want of drinking water.

In 1843-44 the tillage area was 587,693 acres yielding a revenue of £112,166 (Rs. 11,21,660). In 1854-55 the area under tillage had increased to 1,076,350 and the revenue to £137,922 (Rs. 13,79,230). Deducting the acquisitions of land from lapses and other causes, the actual increase of tillage since the revenue survey settlement in 1844 amounted to 410,391 acres and the augmentation of land revenue to £17,767 (Rs. 1,77,670). The Collector estimated the acre profit of tillage in watered land at £2 14s. (Rs. 27), in rice land at 16s. 9d. (Rs. 8½), in cotton land at 8s. (Rs. 4), and in light soil at 6s. (Rs. 3). The details are:

Dhárwár Tillage Cost and Profit, 1856.

Soil.	Acre Cost.		Assessment.		Profit.		Total.	
	Rs.	s. p.	Rs.	s. p.	Rs.	s.	Rs.	s. p.
Watered Land.	20	4 0	6	12 0	27	0	54	0
Rice ...	6	4 6	2	1 6	8	6	16	12
Cotton ...	2	0 0	1	0 0	4	0	7	0
Light soil ...	2	0 0	0	12 0	3	0	5	12

Of late years the sale value of land especially near towns had risen considerably. A landholder who had more land than he could till with profit made money by sub-letting it, by selling it, or by selling its grass. Between 1846 and 1851 the number of oxen had increased by 34,078 or thirteen per cent; male buffaloes by 10,563 or twenty-five per cent; ploughs by 364; carts by 4137; and reservoirs and ponds by 129. The landholders were being gradually freed from debt and showed a tendency to accumulate wealth. Traders were benefited by a sustained demand and a plentiful supply, and labourers by a small rise in wages and still more by continuous employment.¹

(In consequence of his rebellion during the 1858 mutinies and his murder of Mr. Manson, the Political Agent of the Southern Marátha States, the Bráhma chief of Nargund was hanged and his estate of forty villages in the north of the district was taken over by Government. Of the forty Nargund villages, thirty-two were under Government management and eight were alienated.) In 1859-60 the survey settlement was introduced into thirty-one of the Government villages.² Nargund lay between Dhárwár and Belgaum to the north of Navalgund, to the east of part of Parasgad, and to the

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THE BARRISSE,
1856.

SURVEY.
Nargund,
1859-60.

¹ The Collector Mr. Ogilvy, 814 of 13th June 1856, Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 17 of 1856, 265-375.

² Capt. Anderson, Survey Superintendent, 147 of 29th March 1860, Gov. Res. 1536 of 24th April 1860.

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SURVEY.

Nargund,
1859-60.

south of Rámdurg and of parts of Parasgad and Bádámi. The villages did not form one unbroken tract, but to some extent were mixed with the Government villages of the neighbouring sub-divisions. From the extreme west to the extreme east of Nargund was about twenty-five miles and from the extreme north to the extreme south about sixteen miles. The river Malprabha ran through the northern part of the sub-division. The soil was chiefly black modified by clay and lime nodules. Near the hills there was quartz land and decomposed felspar of considerable richness. Near the Malprabha and Benni some of the land was subject to overflow and gained by a good alluvial deposit. The soil was suited to the late or *rabi* crops. It was more particularly favourable to the growth of cotton, wheat, white *javári*, gram, and oil-giving plants. The climate was healthy though Nargund town suffered from fever. The rainfall was heaviest at the villages on the Malprabha towards Rámdurg and at Nargund itself, and lightest in the villages to the east from Karamadi to Bairanhatti. A little coarse cloth and a few cotton carpets were made in Nargund. There were nearly 400 looms of which one-half were in Shirol. The chief market town was Nargund. To it came turmeric from Humnabad, buffaloes from Vairág and Bársi, blankets from Bágalkot, cloth and blankets from Belári and Hubli, betelnut and other garden products from Sirsi, and rice from Dhárwár. Cotton worth about £2500 (Rs. 25,000) went every year to Kumta, and wheat and gram to Dhárwár. The sales of goods in the local Wednesday market averaged about £150 (Rs. 1500). Except after heavy rain the town of Nargund had good communication by cart tracks across about thirty miles of black plain to Dhárwár and Hubli. The population was dense, 224 to the square mile. In 1858-59 the total land revenue was £5328 (Rs. 53,280) and of this £126 (Rs. 1260) were remitted.

The thirty-one Nargund villages were divided into three classes, eleven western villages with a highest drycrop acre rate of 2s. 10½d. (Rs. 1 7/8), eighteen central villages with a highest drycrop acre rate of 2s. 7½d. (Rs. 1 3/8), and two eastern villages with a highest drycrop acre rate of 2s. 4½d. (Rs. 1 3/8). These rates included one anna in the rupee of road fund.¹ On the same area under tillage, the survey rental showed an increase of £207 (Rs. 2070) or six per cent. The details are:

Nargund Survey Settlement, 1859-60.

CLASS.	VIL- lages.	GOVERNMENT ARABLE LAND.			
		Collec- tions, 1858-59.	Survey Assessment.		
			Tillage.	Waste.	Total.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
I	11	19,954	20,054	219	21,168
II	18	15,235	14,368	429	14,797
III	2	2581	2516	15	2531
Total	31	36,770	37,838	656	38,494

¹ The levy of the road fund was directed by Gov. Res. 954 of 9th March 1860 paras 12-20. Capt. Anderson, Survey Superintendent, 147 of 29th March 1860 para 16.

The thirty-seven acres of Government garden land were rated at 5s. 6d. (Rs. 2½) the acre. The settlement period was limited to twenty years.

The terms of thirty or twenty years for which the original survey had been introduced began to come to an end in 1874. Between 1874 and 1881 the revision of the survey was completed. The result of the revision was an increase in the different blocks from sixty-eight per cent in Hubli to thirty-four per cent in Mishrikot, or over the whole district an increase of forty-seven per cent. The details are:

Dhárwár Revision Survey, 1874-1881.

GROUP.	VIL- LAGRS.	YEAR.	RENTAL.		
			Former.	Revision.	Increase.
			Rs.	Rs.	Per Cent
Hubli	47	1874-75	48,178	81,178	68·51
Navalgund	81	1874-75	2,00,801	3,20,047	59·38
Dambal	93	1874-75	1,67,566	2,48,446	48·20
Banikápur	187	1876-77	1,07,951	1,61,402	49·60
Hánga-Taras	215	1878-79	1,27,704	1,86,605	46·10
Ránebennur	130	1878-79	1,15,035	1,61,177	40·10
Kod	247	1878-79	1,51,033	2,09,861	39·00
Dhárwár	134	1878-80	1,38,343	1,93,400	39·80
Mishrikot	106	1878-80	98,216	91,967	34·30
Mulgund	29	1880-81	61,888	86,192	55·40
Total	1219	...	11,86,710	17,49,878	47·46

The first part of the district into which the revised settlement was introduced was, in 1874-75, into forty-seven villages of old Hubli and eighty-one villages of old Navalgund.¹ The eighty-one villages which formerly belonged to Navalgund had been distributed so that in 1874 sixty remained in Navalgund, seven were handed to Hubli, eight to Ron, three to Dambal, one to Dhárwár, and two to Bádámi in South Bijápur. The forty-seven Hubli villages continued in Hubli.

The forty-seven Hubli villages lay close round the town of Hubli, from which they stretched some distance south. The rainfall in Hubli was, in 1870, 29·44 inches, in 1871, 28·49 inches, in 1872, 25·93 inches, and in 1873, 20·99 inches. At the introduction of the first settlement, the traffic between the Dhárwár district and the coast had been carried on pack bullocks. The Rám pass between Belgaum and the Vengurla roadstead was the only cart-road between the Bhor pass near Poona and the extreme south of the Presidency. Several lines of road had since been made converging on Hubli: one to Dhárwár and Belgaum, one from Gadag through Annigeri, one from Sholápur through Nargund, and two from Hubli to the coast, of which one was to Kumta by Sirsi and the other to Kárwár by Yellápur. These lines caused a convergence of cart traffic to Hubli from all sides. Produce prices showed a rise in uncleaned rice from 111 pounds the rupee in 1819-1823 to 46 in 1873; in *javári* from 90 pounds to 42; in wheat from 78 pounds to 25; in linseed from 48 pounds to 31; and in unginned cotton from 1s. 3½d. (10½ *as.*) a *man* of 27½ pounds to 4s. (Rs. 2). Under these influences the value of

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1874-1881.

Hubli-Navalgund,
1874-75.

Hubli.

¹ Colonel Anderson, Survey Commissioner, 151 of 29th January 1874, Gov. Res. 2157 of 28th April 1874, Bom. Gov. Sel. CXLVIII.

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1874-75.

land had greatly risen. Comparing the average of the ten years ending 1854 and of the nine years ending 1873, the tillage area had spread from 36,494 acres to 44,404 acres, and collections from £4042 to £4808 (Rs. 40,420-Rs. 48,080). The details are :

Hubli Land Revenue, 1834-1873.

YEAR.	OCCUPIED LAND.			ARABLE WASTE.		OUT- STAND- INGS.
	Acres.	Collec- tions.	Remis- sions.	Acres.	Asses- ment.	
		Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
1834-1843 ...	28,973	42,707	11,558	10,665	110	8560
1844-1854 ...	36,494	40,424	55	3591	3344	1688
1854-1864 ...	43,878	46,939	...	343	220	...
1864-1873 ...	44,404	48,078	..	1750	870	...

In the forty-seven villages, exclusive of the town of Hubli, the returns showed a rise in population from 23,159 in 1847 to 28,826 in 1873; in flat roofed and tiled houses from 4003 to 5074, in carts from 747 to 1596, in watering wells from forty-eight to 151, in drinking wells from 123 to 181, in drinking ponds from forty-seven in 1844-45 to 100 in 1872, and in watering reservoirs from fifty-seven to sixty-seven. There was a fall in thatched houses from 1027 in 1847 to 736 in 1873; in field cattle from 6101 to 5537, in cows and buffaloes from 9062 to 7704, and in sheep and goats from 4496 to 3687. The fall in the number of cattle and sheep was due to the great decrease in the area of waste land.

The climate of Hubli was fair. The villages to the south and west of Hubli generally enjoyed plentiful rain which gradually grew less in the villages north and east of Hubli towards Navalgund. Of the dry soil crops, 60·94 per cent belonged to the early or *kharif* harvest and 39·06 per cent to the late or *rabi* harvest.¹ Rice was largely grown, and, when natural advantages allowed, was followed by second green crops of gram, *catane*, *mug*, and *parite*. Sugar-cane gardens were few. Hubli continued a manufacturing centre of some importance; 4982 hand-loom were at work in 1873-74 against 2263 in 1843. The value of the raw silk yearly used was about £12,000 (Rs. 1,20,000), and of the cotton thread about £29,000 (Rs. 2,90,000). The fabrics manufactured were cotton and silk cloths of all kinds used by the people of the country. Their estimated values were, of silk £1500 (Rs. 15,000), of cotton thread £5000 (Rs. 50,000), and of mixed silk and cotton £50,000 (Rs. 5,00,000), that is a total of £56,500 (Rs. 5,65,000). The country town of Mishrikot furnished a market to the south-west villages which lay furthest from Hubli, Kundgol to those to the south-east, and Dhárwár was within easy reach of villages to the west and north of Hubli. The landholders were generally well-to-do, comfortable, and independent; their houses were well built and they had a fair stock of good cattle. Considering the capability of the land, tillage was slovenly. This was due partly to want of people, partly to the very low rates of assessment which enabled landholders

¹ Of the *kharif* 60·94 per cent the details were *juári* 40·63, *báiri* 1·04, *tur* 3·65, *mug* 1·56, *rági* 2·60, *malki* 1·56, and minor crops 5·26. Of the *rabi* 39·06 per cent the details were cotton 26·21, wheat 5·21, *kusumba* 2·08, gram 3·13, and minor crops 2·08. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXLVIII. 160.

to occupy a larger area of ground than they had either hands or cattle to till properly.

The eighty-one Navalgund villages all lay in a stretch of black plain country, broken only by the high rocks of Navalgund and Nargund. The Benni stream flowed through the country north to the Malprabha. The area was 347,720 acres. The rainfall in Navalgund was 29·31 inches in 1870, 19·04 inches in 1871, and 20·46 inches in 1872, or an average of twenty-three inches. The means of communication were improved. Average produce price returns showed a rise, in clean rice, from 43 pounds the rupee in 1819-1823 to 22 pounds in 1869-1873; in *javari* from 73 pounds to 40 pounds; in wheat from 67 pounds to 32 pounds; and in unginned cotton from 1s. 11½d. (15⅞ as.) a *man* of 27½ pounds to 3s. 1½d. (Rs. 1⅞). Linseed had also risen from 68 pounds the rupee in 1819-1823 to 20 pounds in 1871. The result was that land had risen so greatly in value that fifty years' purchase and more were constantly paid even for drycrop soils.¹ Comparing the average of the ten years ending 1854 and of the nine years ending 1873, the tillage area had risen from 182,875 acres to 232,532 acres, and collections from £15,414 to £20,069 (Rs. 1,54,140-Rs. 2,00,690). The details are :

Navalgund Land Revenue, 1834-1873.

YEAR.	OCCUPIED LAND.			ARABLE WASTE.		OUT- STAND- INGS.
	Acres.	Collections.	Remissions.	Acres.	Assessment.	
1834-1844 ...	130,765	Rs. 1,61,440	Rs. 26,578	32,014	Rs. 56,116	Rs. 47,986
1844-1854 ...	182,875	1,54,142	5706	23,194	18,340	9803
1854-1864 ...	223,872	1,83,493	3	2083	1529	...
1864-1873 ...	232,532	2,00,694	...	87	66	...

In 1874 about seventy-two per cent of the Government lands were tilled by the men whose names appeared as holders in the Government books or by members of their families. The holders tilled about one per cent in partnership with others and let about twenty-five per cent to tenants on a money-rent and about one per cent on a produce or grain rent. One per cent was waste.² The population returns showed an increase from 71,419 in 1846-47 to 91,323 in 1872-73 or twenty-eight per cent. Flat-roofed houses had risen from 14,252 in 1846-47 to 19,025 in 1872-73 or thirty-three per cent, cows and buffaloes from 18,165 to 18,293 or 0·7 per cent, carts from 870 to 4660 or 435·63 per cent, horses from 450 to 497 or ten per cent, wells from forty-two to ninety, and ponds from 103 to 219. On the other hand, thatched houses had fallen from 139 in 1846-47 to ninety-two in 1872-73 or thirty-four per cent, field cattle from 18,025 to 16,326 or nine per cent, sheep and goats from 14,994 to 12,923 or fourteen per cent, and ploughs from 2288 to 1726 or twenty-five per cent.³

¹ Captain Godfrey reports a case in which the same piece of land was sold in 1846-47 for £6 12s. (Rs. 66) and in 1870 for £50 (Rs. 500). Bom. Gov. Sel. CXLVIII. 198.

² Captain Godfrey, 148 of 24th Decr. 1873. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXLVIII. 201.

³ Considering the great spread of tillage, Colonel Anderson (January 1874) doubted the correctness of the apparent fall in the number of ploughs. He thought the early returns had confused between ploughs and scarfers. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXLVIII. 106-107.

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REVISION SURVEY.
Navalgund,
1874-75.

Rain was scarcer in Navalgund than in Hubli. The best placed villages for rain were those south-west of Annigeri and in the direction of Morab. The rainfall gradually lightened towards Navalgund, and beyond Navalgund near Yávgal it was slight and uncertain. In this part the chief supply was from the north-east or Madras monsoon. There were no means of watering the land. The water of the Benni river was always brackish and became salt in the hot weather. The great difficulty was the supply of drinking water which was laden with salt and lime. The produce was almost entirely dry-crop, 19·33 per cent belonging to the early or *kharif*, and 80·67 per cent to the late or *rabi* harvest.¹ Of rice lands there were only two acres. The garden products were cocoanuts, plantains, Indian corn, onions, pepper, carrots, garlic, radishes, cucumbers, greens, and sometimes guavas and a little sugar-cane. Both American and country cotton was grown largely in the black plains. The manufactures were confined to cotton cloths and woollen fabrics for local use. In 1873, 403 cloth looms and 139 blanket looms were at work. There was only one made road from Hubli to Annigeri and thence through Gadag to Belári. The roads from Annigeri to Navalgund and from Hubli to Sholápur were neither bridged nor metalled and in the rains were impassable. When required to bring in the crops and to export grain to market, they were generally in good order. The value of the sales in the weekly markets was in Shelvádi £25 to £30 (Rs. 250-300), in Hanshi £10 to £15 (Rs. 100-150), in Annigeri £100 (Rs. 1000), in Morab £70 to £80 (Rs. 700-800), in Yávgal £70 to £80 (Rs. 700-800), and in Yammur £10 to £15 (Rs. 100-150). The sales at the Navalgund half-weekly markets were worth £500 to £600 (Rs. 5000-6000). Many other markets round the eighty-one villages were frequented by the landholders of the villages which were nearest to them. The landholders were generally well off, but as in Hubli and for the same reasons tillage was slovenly.

Hubli,
Navalgund.

New roads running through fields compelled their division into separate numbers, and the removal or addition of land from the action of streams made remeasurement necessary. All survey numbers in excess of thirty acres were divided into two or more survey numbers, so as to make all drycrop survey fields held by one occupant range from about fifteen to thirty acres. All survey fields held by more than one occupant recognized in the Government books were divided according to the boundaries of each man's share so as to give each a separately defined and assessed survey field. The total area of the 128 villages was 423,875 acres against 424,690 recorded by the last survey. The first class of villages were sixteen close round the town of Hubli, for which a highest drycrop acre rate of 6s. (Rs. 3) was adopted. The second class contained nineteen villages further from Hubli, which were assessed at a highest drycrop acre rate of 5s. (Rs. 2½); the third class contained ten villages

¹ The details of the early 19·33 per cent were, red *javári* 14·69, *tur* 2·04, *mug* 1·10, *matki* 0·35, *rála* 0·38, and minor crops 0·77; and of the late 80·67, exotic cotton 11·9, local cotton 20·42, white *javári* 16, wheat 22·23, gram 3·96, linseed 2·43, *kusumba* 3·64, and minor crops 0·09. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXLVIII, 194.

to the south-west of Hubli and on the margin of the rice country, for which the highest dry-crop acre rate was 4s. 6d. (Rs. 2½); the fourth class with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 4s. (Rs. 2) contained three Hubli villages, Kusugal, Sul, and Mulhalli, and five old Navalgund villages; the fifth class included twenty-three villages forming the west centre of Old Navalgund for which a highest dry-crop acre rate of 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) was adopted; the sixth class contained forty villages forming the east centre of Old Navalgund which were assessed at 3s. (Rs. 1½) the acre of best dry-crop; the seventh class contained twelve villages in the extreme north-east of Old Navalgund forming part of the old Yavgal mahalkari's division of Navalgund; for these a highest dry-crop acre rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) was adopted. A highest acre rate of 16s. (Rs. 8) was fixed for rice lands. All purely well garden land, except that watered by *budkis* or water-lifts, was assessed at not more than the highest dry-crop rate on the land which had been garden at the time of the last settlement, and at the simple dry-crop rate on the land under wells which had been made since that settlement. The lands watered by *budkis* or water-lifts were assessed at not more than 1s. 6d. (12 as.) the acre above the dry-crop assessment. Pond-watered gardens were assessed at a highest acre rate of 16s. (Rs. 8). The new rates gave an estimated revenue of £40,122 against £24,897 (Rs. 4,01,220 against Rs. 2,48,970) collected in 1873-74, that is an increase of £15,225 (Rs. 1,52,250) or 61.15 per cent. The details are:

Hubli and Navalgund, 128 Villages: Revision Settlement, 1874-75.

CLASS.	Vil- lages.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.							
		Occupied Land.		Occupied Land.		Arable Waste.		Total.		In- crease on Oc- cupied Land Rent.	Highest Dry- crop Acre Rate.
		Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.		
I ...	16	9125	11,131	9385	19,300	839	882	10,224	19,682	73.39	3 0
II ...	19	19,697	21,546	20,000	36,206	2308	886	22,308	37,092	68.0	2 8
III ...	10	4723	5879	6358	8172	1400	601	6756	8778	51.92	2 4
IV ...	8	29,143	28,843	29,263	60,013	34	31	29,297	50,044	73.4	2 0
V ...	28	81,289	75,616	81,594	1,24,844	110	114	82,104	1,24,958	66.1	1 12
VI ...	40	102,222	84,904	183,748	1,31,760	288	168	104,086	1,31,929	56.2	1 8
VII ...	13	30,663	21,556	30,879	30,924	15	10	30,891	30,934	43.46	1 4
Total ...	128	277,242	2,46,974	280,625	4,01,225	4994	2187	286,619	4,03,412	61.15	...
Hubli ...	47	44,602	46,173	45,954	81,178	4575	1891	59,529	83,069	68.51	...
Navalgund.	81	232,640	2,00,801	234,671	3,20,047	419	296	255,090	3,20,343	59.98	...

During the nine years before the original survey settlement (1834-1843), the tillage area in the forty-seven Hubli villages varied from about 31,800 acres in 1837-38 to about 26,800 acres in 1842-43, and collections from about £6203 in 1839-40 to about £3570 in 1836-37 (Rs. 62,000 - Rs. 35,700). During the first ten years of the survey lease (1843 - 1853), tillage rose from about 27,000 acres in 1843-44 to about 39,000 acres in 1852-53, and collections from about £4770 to about £5580 (Rs. 47,700 - Rs. 55,800); during the next ten years (1853-1863) tillage rose from about 39,600 acres in 1853-54 to about 44,000 acres in 1862-63, and collections from about

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£5730 to about £6150 (Rs. 57,300 - Rs. 61,500) ; and during the last ten years (1863-1873) tillage rose from about 44,000 acres in 1863-64 to about 44,600 acres in 1872-73, and collections from about £6160 to about £6400 (Rs. 61,600 - Rs. 64,600). The details¹ are :

Hubli, 47 Villages : Survey Results, 1834-1873.

YEAR.	Rain-fall.	TILLAGE.			WASTE.			Quit-Rent.	Out-standings.	Collections.	Judri Rupee Prices.
		Area.	Rental.	Remissions.	Area.	Rental.	Grazing Fees.				
<i>Before Survey.</i>	In.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Ra.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Lbs.
1834-35...	...	28,762	58,241	5691	10,660	842	405	16,085	14,434	54,556	45
1835-36...	...	27,283	53,379	15,551	12,153	258	426	13,713	2318	49,647	45
1836-37...	...	29,665	56,107	25,442	9774	174	241	12,187	7359	35,684	47
1837-38...	...	31,778	58,196	7240	7660	151	234	16,989	25,841	41,338	60
1838-39...	...	30,365	58,386	17,950	9275	68	303	14,956	13,821	41,824	70
1839-40...	...	29,596	54,497	4933	10,036	...	540	16,154	4060	62,198	75
1840-41...	...	28,034	49,942	4694	11,614	...	1001	15,695	2590	59,354	65
1841-42...	...	28,498	51,648	11,132	11,551	...	1069	15,405	5111	51,879	70
1842-43...	...	26,774	48,035	11,380	13,262	...	1201	13,220	1466	46,610	111
<i>Survey.</i>											
1843-44...	...	27,081	37,769	3871	13,457	...	1015	14,591	1245	47,759	132
1844-45...	...	28,631	32,573	504	10,035	10,021	2120	14,333	593	47,929	144
1845-46...	...	31,842	36,161	41	7055	7526	1628	12,288	1401	47,634	94
1846-47...	...	35,389	39,218	10	3488	3477	828	12,742	112	52,666	86
1847-48...	...	36,320	40,286	...	3096	3001	924	12,551	...	53,761	96
1848-49...	...	38,168	42,179	...	1186	1143	494	12,803	...	55,476	102
1849-50...	...	38,328	42,339	...	1289	1249	406	12,866	...	55,411	121
1850-51...	...	38,308	42,471	...	2372	2434	578	11,605	13,639	41,215	162
1851-52...	...	39,139	43,288	...	1569	1637	629	11,733	...	55,550	108
1852-53...	...	39,231	43,453	...	1546	1556	558	11,774	...	55,785	121
1853-54...	...	39,591	43,827	...	1385	1398	599	13,000	131	57,295	88
1854-55...	...	40,331	44,639	...	977	913	391	12,880	...	57,910	71
1855-56...	...	41,740	46,196	...	396	318	163	12,875	...	59,234	88
1856-57...	...	42,039	46,521	...	167	98	37	12,817	...	59,375	88
1857-58...	...	42,237	46,634	...	153	78	22	12,873	...	59,529	81
1858-59...	...	43,080	47,117	...	605	323	107	12,338	...	60,667	77
1859-60...	...	43,408	47,366	...	625	218	86	12,881	...	60,323	50
1860-61...	...	43,755	47,552	...	134	67	14	13,435	...	61,001	47
1861-62...	...	43,870	47,672	...	134	67	15	13,740	...	61,427	49
1862-63...	...	43,981	47,769	...	134	67	80	13,727	...	61,536	21
1863-64...	...	44,127	47,896	...	101	58	13	13,684	...	61,593	29
1864-65...	...	44,155	47,937	...	101	58	130	13,608	...	61,790	28
1865-66...	...	44,201	47,976	...	1339	957	1124	14,155	...	63,255	21
1866-67...	...	44,269	48,036	...	1697	861	974	14,072	...	63,082	45
1867-68...	...	44,289	48,036	...	1697	862	740	14,072	...	62,848	77
1868-69...	...	44,324	48,084	...	1690	858	612	14,105	...	62,801	69
1869-70...	...	44,530	48,134	...	2002	963	1312	14,116	...	63,563	65
1870-71...	29.44	44,636	48,182	...	2304	1065	1290	14,027	...	63,499	53
1871-72...	28.49	44,639	48,184	...	2243	1085	1630	14,028	...	63,542	40
1872-73...	26.83	44,602	48,173	...	2278	1099	1974	14,019	...	64,166	42

Navalgund.

During the ten years before the original survey settlement (1834-1844), the tillage area in the eighty-one Navalgund villages fell from about 135,000 acres in 1834-35 to about 106,700 acres in 1843-44, and collections varied from about £21,190 in 1839-40 to about £10,400 in 1838-39 (Rs. 2,11,900 - Rs. 1,04,000). During the first ten years of the survey lease (1844-1854) tillage rose from about 128,000 acres in 1844-45 to about 205,000 acres in 1853-54, and collections from about £11,070 to £21,770 (Rs. 1,10,700 - Rs. 2,17,700); during the next ten years (1854-1864) tillage rose from about 210,000 acres in 1854-55 to about 232,000 acres in 1863-64 and collections from about £22,200 to about £24,000 (Rs. 2,22,000 - Rs. 2,40,000); and during the nine years ending 1872-73 tillage rose from about 232,000 acres in 1864-65 to about 233,000 acres in 1872-73, and collections from about £24,200 to about £24,700 (Rs. 2,42,000 - Rs. 2,47,000). The details² are :

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CXLVIII. 98, 142-143, 146-147.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CXLVIII. 98, 144-145, 148-149.

Navalgund, 81 Villages. Survey Results, 1854-1875.

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REVISION SURVEY.
Navalgund,
1874-75.

YEAR.	Rain-fall.	TILLAGE.			WASTE.			Quit-Rent.	Out-standings.	Collections.	Jodri Rupee Prices.
		Area.	Rental.	Remissions.	Area.	Rental.	Grazing Fees.				
	In.	Acres.	Ra.	Rs.	Acres.	Ra.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Lbs.
Before Survey.											
1834-35	...	135,009	1,91,325	88,404	27,450	51,838	1180	45,931	36,546	1,63,486	108
1835-36	...	135,009	1,93,253	82,995	27,450	50,125	966	36,997	23,109	1,25,401	124
1836-37	...	135,009	2,02,791	44,921	27,450	41,818	1033	50,965	52,490	1,56,879	172
1837-38	...	135,009	2,10,000	49,330	27,450	39,099	876	48,878	59,267	1,51,157	104
1838-39	...	135,009	1,95,409	73,008	27,450	48,148	477	39,959	58,386	1,03,953	100
1839-40	...	135,009	2,05,964	20,690	27,450	41,818	622	49,789	20,799	2,11,888	104
1840-41	...	135,009	2,03,695	23,073	27,450	49,468	665	45,649	46,993	1,82,178	108
1841-42	...	135,009	2,02,951	17,238	27,450	49,157	813	49,898	73,452	1,62,727	112
1842-43	...	120,876	2,00,295	6078	42,696	78,816	2689	48,549	62,372	1,83,938	120
1843-44	...	106,704	1,74,686	11,384	57,943	1,07,387	3209	48,640	47,079	1,63,072	120
Survey.											
1844-45	...	123,850	1,13,715	12,147	57,650	47,307	1067	37,427	29,373	1,10,690	134
1845-46	...	149,016	1,85,930	45,013	47,650	85,128	3256	26,802	9358	1,09,742	138
1846-47	...	182,959	1,59,316	461	18,316	14,975	3371	84,446	2325	1,94,447	216
1847-48	...	192,350	1,87,248	4	10,317	8197	1828	34,344	1929	2,01,487	188
1848-49	...	194,896	1,99,454	4	13,231	10,436	2008	36,669	690	2,06,467	130
1849-50	...	188,505	1,64,272	17	22,229	17,842	2855	33,873	23	2,00,965	176
1850-51	...	186,946	1,62,872	4	24,788	20,096	3123	33,394	49,114	1,50,271	162
1851-52	...	196,413	1,72,519	...	14,177	11,124	2328	34,664	268	2,09,243	123
1852-53	...	202,450	1,75,764	...	11,978	8967	2281	33,213	14	2,11,244	98
1853-54	...	204,979	1,77,983	8	11,547	8992	2119	37,645	41	2,17,700	75
1854-55	...	210,216	1,82,515	30	9693	7181	1681	37,438	...	2,21,684	94
1855-56	...	213,954	1,85,541	...	7281	5340	1417	37,598	...	2,24,551	94
1856-57	...	219,480	1,89,642	...	2000	1442	467	38,117	...	2,28,226	96
1857-58	...	222,700	1,92,177	...	416	305	73	38,203	...	2,30,453	96
1858-59	...	225,657	1,94,868	...	436	322	69	37,796	...	2,32,732	94
1859-60	...	226,333	1,95,487	...	439	317	82	38,425	...	2,33,944	82
1860-61	...	228,245	1,97,168	...	232	172	26	39,595	...	2,36,789	49
1861-62	...	229,447	1,98,110	...	214	162	28	40,626	...	2,38,764	48
1862-63	...	231,050	1,99,404	...	86	64	10	40,710	...	2,40,124	26
1863-64	...	231,745	2,00,006	...	38	27	5	41,243	...	2,41,544	22
1864-65	...	232,343	2,00,532	...	39	27	5	41,758	...	2,42,395	23
1865-66	...	232,439	2,00,612	...	37	27	5	45,743	...	2,46,360	24
1866-67	...	232,482	2,00,650	...	60	40	7	43,630	...	2,44,287	34
1867-68	...	232,546	2,00,698	...	61	40	9	44,013	...	2,45,620	113
1868-69	...	232,604	2,00,748	...	56	38	7	43,377	...	2,44,180	62
1869-70	...	232,515	2,00,670	...	132	108	10	43,361	...	2,44,041	68
1870-71	29-31	232,451	2,00,801	...	132	103	11	46,174	...	2,46,987	56
1871-72	19-04	232,665	2,00,731	...	136	107	12	46,372	...	2,47,015	44
1872-73	13-35	232,641	2,00,801	...	136	107	12	46,576	...	2,47,368	40

In 1874-75 the revision survey settlement was introduced into ninety-three Government villages of Old Dambal.¹ Of these eighty-six had been originally settled in 1845-46 and the remaining seven in different years since 1858. At the time of the revision settlement seventy-three of these villages were in Dambal, two in Navalgund, and eighteen in Ron.² In 1874 Old Dambal was bounded on the north by Ron, on the east by the Nizam's country, on the south by the Tungbhadra, on the south-west by Sangli and Miraj, and on the west by Navalgund. The total area was 691 square miles or 442,321 acres. For many years the health of this sub-division had been remarkably good. During the four years ending 1873 the death-rate was 1.97 per cent and the birth-rate 2.80 per cent. In none of the villages had cholera been known from eight to twenty years.

Dambal,
1874-75.

¹ Colonel Anderson, Survey Commissioner, 129 of 1st February 1875, Gov. Res. 1679 of 19th March 1875, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV.

² In 1862, some of the villages to the north and north-west, which were inconveniently distant from the head-quarters of the sub-division, were handed to the neighbouring sub-divisions of Ron and Navalgund. In 1872 the mahalkari's head-quarters at Dambal were moved to the more central, healthier, and more important town of Mundargi. In 1874 the name of the sub-division was changed to Gadag and its head-quarters station was called after its chief town. Mr. E. P. Robertson, Collector, 162 of 27th February 1875, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV, 104.

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REVISION SURVEY.

*Dambal,
1874-75.*

Except in the village of Doni in 1872, cholera was unknown during the eight years ending 1874.¹ During the five years ending 1873 the rainfall at Gadag varied from 8.36 inches in 1869 to 25.26 inches in 1870 and averaged 17.84 inches. In 1874 it was 40.81 inches.

From the backward state of the country in 1844 when it was introduced, the former assessment of Gadag had been very light. At that time the 350 miles between the Bor pass near Poona and the southern frontier of the Presidency had only one cart road across the Sahyádris. That one cart road was through the old Rám pass between Belgaum and Vengurla. It was three miles in length and for long stretches had an incline of one in five or six. Carts went up and down by lightening loads and clubbing together the bullocks of two or three carts. Most of what traffic went from Dhárwár, was carried on bullock-back along the different tracks down the Sahyádris to Kumta, Ankola, and other smaller ports in North Kánara. At that time at no point south of Poona were both the country below and the country above the Sahyádris in Bombay districts which could have worked together to make a through line between the sea and the inland plains. In the north the states of Sátára and Kolhápúr separated Poona from Ratnágiri, and further south the coast line was either Portuguese or in Madras. In 1845 a pass to Honávar in North Kánara was improved, and, several years later, the Devimani pass opened communication with Kumta which had then risen to be the leading roadstead. The opening of the Devimani pass was the beginning of a time of marked prosperity for Dhárwár. The opening of the railway to Belári provided a new market for the eastern Dambal villages. But the distance of about seventy miles to Belári was very difficult with much black soil and many unbridged rivers. Still in 1874 a large cart traffic passed east to Belári. The Hubli-Belári road was the only made-road in the sub-division. It passed through Annigeri, Gadag, and Dambal to the Tungbhadra river. It was good from Annigeri to Gadag, fair from Gadag to Dambal, and bad from Dambal to the Tungbhadra at Hesrur sixty-eight miles west of Belári. The best part of this road was good only in the fine weather. It was bridged but not metalled, and as soon as rain fell 'grew muddy and heavy. From Gadag to Dambal it was neither bridged, metalled, nor cared for, except close to Gadag itself; beyond Dambal it was a very bad country track, in places almost impassable. The country cart tracks were numerous, especially in the northern plain villages. They spread from every village to all the villages round and as a rule were good enough for all purposes. In the black plain they became more or less impassable during the rains, but in the fine weather the plain roads were better for carts than the roads in the villages near

¹ In February 1875 Colonel Anderson the Survey Commissioner wrote: Thirty years ago cholera was prevalent in this sub-division. At that time troops were constantly passing between Belári and Dhárwár to Kolhápúr and Sávantvádi which were disturbed. They generally brought cholera in their train. Of late years in Dambal, as in other parts of Dhárwár, cholera had much decreased, partly because troops no longer marched through the district and partly from the improvement in the water supply. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 28, 39.

the hills where the dips and rises as well as the stones made the roads bad. In the villages between Sortur, Gadag, and Dambal as well as Chikvadvatti, the cross country roads were bad, in places impassable to carts. In these villages the number of carts was much less than elsewhere. Since 1844 great progress had been made in road making and opening the country to traffic. Hundreds of carts passed with ease in places where they never went before. During the survey lease grain prices had risen considerably. Since 1842 *javari* and wheat had risen more than 150 per cent, linseed about 50 per cent, and *kardai* or safflower and other chief oil seeds more than 200 per cent. During the four years ending 1874 prices had been steady.¹ Between 1863 and 1865 the prices of grain and oil-seeds were much more than double the 1874 prices and the price of cotton was more than four times as high. Still there was no reason to suppose the prices would fall to the 1842 level. In February 1875 Colonel Anderson was satisfied that in all exportable articles the Gadag landholders were more than 100 per cent better off than they had been when the former survey rates were fixed. The opening of the country by railways and roads must continue to prevent the gluts of produce from which landholders used formerly to suffer.

In the eighty-six villages settled in 1844-45 the area of occupied Government land during the ten years ending 1845 averaged about 140,000 acres. The year or two before the former survey settlement had showed a marked tendency to a decline in tillage, and, in 1844, the year of the settlement only half of the arable area was held for tillage. From the first year of the settlement a change set in. The occupied area and the revenue together steadily increased year by year, and in 1860-61, two years before the great inflation of prices due to the American War, the occupied and unoccupied area, instead of being equal, were represented by acres 261,338 and 4519, the Government revenue had risen from £9552 (Rs. 95,520) in 1845-46 to £15,653 (Rs. 1,56,530) in 1860, and of this all but £2 (Rs. 20) were collected. From 1860-61 there was little change; in fact there was little room for change. The occupied area in 1873-74 was acres 265,240 and the unoccupied arable area 3654 acres. Since 1847-48, with the exception of the single year of 1856-57, remissions were nominal, and, when they occurred, were confined to the most trifling amounts. Since 1854 there were no outstandings.

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REVISION SURVEY.

Dambal,
1874-75.¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 14-15. The details are :

Gadag Grain Rupee Prices, 1842-1874.

YEAR.	Javr.	Wheat.	Linseed.	Safflow- er.
	Shers.	Shers.	Shers.	Shers.
1842-1844 ...	73½	49½	84	62
1845-1850 ...	52½	42½	27	51½
1856-1860	23	46½
1861-1865	16½
1871 ...	44	11	12	17
1872 ...	22	12	16	18
1873 ...	24	16	18	18
1874 ...	26	20	21	16

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REVISION SURVEY.

Dambal,
1874-75.

The following statement gives the average tillage area¹ and the collections for periods of ten years between 1835 and 1874 :

Dambal Tillage and Revenue, 1835-1874.

YEAR.	GOVERNMENT VILLAGES.	OCCUPIED.		ARABLE WASTE.	COLLECTIONS.		REMISSIONS.	OUTSTANDINGS.
		Government.	Alienated.	Government.	Government.	Alienated.	Government.	
		Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1835-1845 ...	86	140,170	119,288	76,733	1,08,366	23,529	23,260	19,602
1845-1855 ...	86	182,408	119,462	68,681	1,08,998	27,282	3383	3641
1855-1865 ...	86	255,902	108,932	7402	1,52,882	29,370	34	...
1865-1874 ...	86	265,087	99,836	3805	1,55,082	34,002	5	...

In 1873-74 the sum obtained for the grazing of the arable waste was very low, £16 (Rs. 160) for 4353 acres assessed by the survey at £110 (Rs. 1100). The reason why this land fetched so low a price was that it was scattered in small detached patches near to or mixed with tillage. These small plots were of little use for grazing except to neighbouring landholders. On the other hand the unarable grazing tracts, though of much worse quality, had the advantage of an extensive range of area and consequently gave an average rate nearly double the lowest rate for land recorded as arable.

Except near the sandstone capped hills in the north-east and in the clay slate Kapat hills of the south-west, where it was a sandy or gravelly red, the soil was the black cotton soil. The sandy formation ran down in a south-easterly direction to the Tungbhadra. The tillage was fair. The best tilled villages lay between Sudi and Kotumachgi, near Gadag south of Hombal, and from near Mundargi to the Tungbhadra. The hill villages, those near the main Dambal-Gadag road and those west of Hombal, were less carefully tilled and had large patches of *hariáli* grass which in a few places half choked the crops. The use of manure was general. In the black plain all the fields near the villages were manured every year; those further off had some manure once in three or four years, and outlying fields, unless without help they refused to yield anything, were never manured. The red soils which wanted much more enriching than the black, received as much manure as the landholder could manage to give them. The staple products were *javári*, wheat, and cotton. Pulses were grown to some extent and oilseeds were mixed with grain. The *javári* was eaten locally and most of the wheat, and cotton and some of the oilseeds were exported. Of the whole outturn about one-third belonged to the early or red soil and two-thirds to the late or black soil.² Cotton was the great local staple. In 1873-74

¹ In 1875 Mr. Robertson the Collector noticed that the spread in tillage was not due to the American War, as most of the land was taken before the effects of the American War were felt. The spread of tillage was the result not of any unusual causes but was due to the general prosperity of the sub-division. The almost entire absence of remissions and outstandings was a further proof of this prosperity. Mr. E. P. Robertson, Collector, 162 of 27th February 1875. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 116.

² The 1874 details were early crops *javári* 22.27 per cent, *bdjri* 1.68, *tur* 2.27, *mug* 2.34, *kulthi* 0.91, *matki* 0.33, *ráda* 1.88, miscellaneous 5.50, total 37.18; late crops *javári* 14.21 per cent, cotton 30.34, wheat 11.66, gram 2.27, *kusumba* or safflower 2.18, linseed 1.99, miscellaneous 0.17, total 62.82. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 6-7, 41.

less than 111,219 acres or nearly one-third of the whole tillage area were under cotton. Of the whole area 76,963 acres were American and 34,256 local. At 1874 prices the local value of the cotton crops averaged £1 to £1 2s. (Rs. 10-11) an acre or more than four times the revised survey rates. The chief imports were English piece goods from Bombay both by the coast and by Belári; cocoanuts, betelnuts, cocoanut oil, spices, and salt, from Kánara and the coast; coarse sugar or *gul* and rice from South Dhárwár and Kánara; silk from Belári; and tobacco from Hubli. The leading exports were cotton, oil-seeds, and wheat. Most of the cotton went to Hubli and from Hubli to Kumta or Kárwár on the coast. Of late years a considerable quantity of cotton had taken the eastern route to meet the rail at Belári. Much more would have gone by this route but for the badness of the road between Dambal and the Tungbhadra. The chief industry was the weaving of cotton cloth and of blankets. Much cotton and silk was dyed at Gadag and Betgeri, and cotton was also made into thread and sold in the local markets. Some villages made country carts, earthen vessels, and oil, and in most field tools were made and mended. River bed stones rich in iron, were smelted in Chikvadvatti, Doni, and some of the smaller villages in the Kapat hills. Iron smelting had once been a large industry but cheap English iron and dear local fuel had ruined it between them. After rain the sands of some of the Kapat hill streams were washed for gold but the yield did not do more than repay the labour. Cotton ginning or seed separating was an important industry. The local cotton was separated from the seed by the foot-roller, the American cotton by the saw-gin. Thirty-eight of the ninety-one inhabited villages had sawgins, 203 in all, worth about £4575 (Ra. 45,750). A cotton press was worked at Gadag by Messrs. P. Chrystal and Company and a second European firm Messrs. Robertson and Company bought and exported cotton.¹

In 1874 there was a brisk trade in land. In many cases land was sold at fifteen to twenty times and in some cases at thirty to forty times the survey assessment. These were high prices considering that money was worth about twelve per cent. In the records of sales where a small price was entered, five or six times the assessment, there was always the doubt whether the entries correctly represented the sale value of the land.² During the thirty years ending 1874 population had increased from 82,842 to 121,482 or 46·6 per cent,³ flat roofed⁴ houses from 14,717 to 25,266 or 74·4 per cent, farm cattle from 23,194 to 25,473 or 9·8 per cent, carts from 673 to 3998 or 494 per cent, watering wells from 97 to 138 or 42·2 per cent, and drinking wells from 290 to 483 or 66·5 per cent. On the other hand there was a decrease in thatched houses from 750 to 461 or 31·9 per cent; in cows and buffaloes from 41,035 to 29,106 or 29 per cent; in sheep and goats from 49,167 to 24,571 or 50 per cent; in horses from

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1874-75.¹ Captain Godfrey, 1874, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 35-36.² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 13, 45-55.³ In fifty-nine Government surveyed villages in 1874 the agricultural population was 25,677 or 55·33 per cent, partly agricultural 6615 or 14·27 per cent, and non-agricultural 14,072 or 30·35 per cent. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 43.⁴ Tiled houses were almost unknown. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 10.

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924 to 684 or 25·9 per cent. The small increase in well irrigation was chiefly due to the brackishness of the water and to the great thickness of the waterless surface layer. Round Gadag water was good, plentiful, and near the surface; but the people failed to use the water as they were satisfied with the returns given by dry-crops. In 1874 the population gave a density of 175 to the square mile, a fair rate for a country with little watered land. The rate of increase, 46·6 per cent, was considerably greater than in the Hubli and Navalgund villages, perhaps because people had come from the neighbouring Nizám's country. In 1844 and 1845 when Colonel Anderson was carrying out the first measurements, some persons were shown him who had come from the Nizám's villages. The move had to be made with great care as the people were closely watched and the property and families of those who were suspected of inclining to move into British territory were liable to be seized. This immigration ceased in 1852 when the neighbouring Nizám's villages passed to the British.¹ It was known that this inflow of people from the Nizám's villages had never been on any very large scale. Mr. Robertson the Collector thought that the increase was solely due to the general prosperity of the sub-division which was shown by the rapid rise of houses had greatly increased, and though there was little rise in the number of farm cattle the style of animal had greatly improved. The landholders took pride in their bullocks, and bad cattle were rarely seen. The bringing of great stretches of waste under the plough had reduced grazing and lowered the number of sheep and goats. Large flocks still found good grazing on the Kapat range. There was no former record of ploughs; 6227 the 1874 number was doubtful; whatever the number, it was enough to keep the land in fair cultivation. As in every other part of the country the number of carts had enormously increased. In 1844 the common two-bullock cart or *chhakdi* was almost unknown; the large eight-bullock waggon or *hali bandi* which was only used for home purposes, was the only cart of the country. There was no direct road to the coast and all the coastward trade was carried on pack bullocks.² One-half of the new wells had been sunk between 1864 and 1874. One reason for the small increase was that over about three-fourths of the area the waterless surface stratum was very thick, and, even when water was reached, it was commonly brackish. The chief supply of water was from ponds and stream-beds. Of 151 ponds all but four were used for drinking. Of the whole number in ordinary years probably not one-tenth held water at the end of the hot weather. To a great extent the people depended on holes dug in river beds. Fortunately early in May a succession of thunderstorms usually furnished a fresh supply. The northern villages especially near Navalgund suffered most from the want of good drinking water.

¹ Colonel Anderson, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 9-10.

² Mr. E. P. Robertson, Collector, 162 of 27th February 1875, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 111.

³ In February 1875 Mr. Robertson wrote: 'A cart and pair of bullocks is usually calculated to represent a profit to its owner of about £10 (Rs. 100) a year. An increase of 3325 carts, therefore, represented a yearly addition of nearly £35,000 (Rs. 3½ lakhs) to the income of the sub-division.' Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 113.

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The large village of Kotumachgi, with about 2700 people, had only one well. Except what this well yielded, the rest of the water had to be brought several miles. In the south water was plentiful, the streams often held water all the year round. The rainfall varied slightly in different parts of the sub-division. In the extreme north-west villages it was uncertain. Further east, though not more abundant, it was more seasonable. The whole centre of the sub-division had a fair rainfall. Except under the lee of the higher part of the range south of Dambal, the Kapat hill villages had an unusually large share of the early rains. The four reservoirs which were used in watering land were a lake of 465 acres at Dambal and small ponds at Navali, Balganur, and Hulkot. The Dambal lake had once been a large expanse of water even in the hot weather. It still (1874) watered 124 acres of good garden land. But it was much silted. It was dry by the end of March and even when full, was not more than six feet deep. More than half of it was overgrown with a thorny thicket of *bábhul* bushes a favourite resort of pig, peafowl, and other wild animals. After the rains the drying of the decayed undergrowth caused much fever of a deadly type.¹ The traffic between Dambal and Belári was large and growing. The exports to Belári included some cotton, a good deal of wheat, and, in years of short rainfall in Belári and Kadapa, considerable quantities of the common grains. The landholders of Dambal were well off for local markets. The joint town of Gadag-Betgeri with a population of over 18,000 was a place of large trade. Gadag was the chief local cotton centre and one of the leading trading towns in the Bombay Karnátak; Mundargi was a large market with a rapidly growing trade; Dambal and Naregal were good minor markets; and there were several more well placed village markets. Gadag-Betgeri had long been one of the leading weaving centres. In spite of the competition of English and Bombay steam-made yarn and cloth, the weavers had nearly held their own, the number of looms showing a fall only from 1507 to 1399.

The ninety-one inhabited villages had 806 temples, 133 mosques, 103 *gardí-manis* or sport-pits, and 17 distilleries. The small number of distilleries and the large number of sport-pits said much for the temperance and the manliness of the people. The sport-pits were for coolness built partly underground, where the young villagers wrestled, worked dumbbells, lifted and threw weights sometimes with great skill and success. The elders looked on with interest. To have the best wrestler in the country-side was an honour of which his village was extremely proud.²

In 1874 about 75 per cent of the Government lands were tilled by the man whose name appeared as holder in the Government books or by members of his family. The holders tilled about five per cent in partnership with others and let twenty per cent to tenants.

¹ Captain Godfrey, 1874, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 37.

² Captain Godfrey, 1874, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 39.

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In private or *inám* lands about forty-three per cent were used or tilled by the proprietor or the members of his family, about seven per cent by the proprietor in partnership with others, and fifty per cent were let to tenants. The rent of tenant-tilled fields was paid in cash in five cases out of six in Government lands and in nine cases out of ten in private lands. When rent was taken in grain, as a rule the quantity of grain was not fixed. It was a share of the crop. Except in poor land where it was somewhat less, the share of grain rent was usually one-half.

During the thirty years' settlement the Dambal sub-division had on the whole thriven greatly. It had good soil, a fair climate, largely improved communication, excellent markets, and easily sold and high priced produce. The people were hardworking and had a natural turn for trade and thrift.

The ninety-three villages were entirely remeasured. Every separate occupancy was made into a separate survey field and all very large numbers were broken into acre fields. The former classing of the soil had been carried out under many difficulties. Much of even the better black soil had for years lain waste. In these waste tracts the wash of many rains had left the surface strewn with pebbles and lime knobs and the lowness and extreme thorniness of the *bábhul* scrub seemed to support the evidence of the pebbles that the soil was wretched. Large areas were much under-classed. Long before the end of the survey lease the thorns had been cut down and ploughing had shown that rich land lay under the layer of surface pebbles. The rule regarding classing, which had been adopted in Hubli and Navalgund in 1874, was followed in Dambal. In fields whose old classification was higher than $10\frac{1}{2}$ *annas*, only ten to fifteen per cent of the whole number of fields were reclassified; fields whose valuation was lower than $10\frac{1}{2}$ *annas* were all reclassified.

The ninety-three villages were divided into four classes and charged highest dry-crop acre rates varying from *2s. 3d.* to *3s.* (Rs. $1\frac{1}{4}$ - $1\frac{1}{2}$). The first class, whose highest dry-crop acre rate was fixed at *3s.* (Rs. $1\frac{1}{4}$), included besides Gadag and Betgeri fifteen villages bordering on the belt of villages on the east of Navalgund. The second class whose highest dry-crop acre rate was *2s. 9d.* (Rs. $1\frac{3}{4}$) included thirty-three villages forming a belt which ran north-west and south-east in the centre of the sub-division and on or close to the Gadag-Dambal road a line of great traffic; the third class, whose highest dry-crop acre rate was *2s. 6d.* (Rs. $1\frac{1}{4}$), included twenty-nine villages in the north close to the Yávgal villages and villages along the eastern frontier, which were badly placed for the seaward cotton trade; the fourth class, whose highest dry-crop acre rate was *2s. 3d.* (Rs. $1\frac{1}{4}$), included fourteen outlying villages in the extreme north-east and south-east. During the settlement the area of rice land had risen from 108 to 292 acres. This land was chiefly channel-watered land in the extreme north-east and south. For the rice land a highest acre rate of *12s.* (Rs. 6) and an average acre rate of *6s. 3d.* (Rs. $3\frac{1}{4}$) instead of *4s. 4d.* (Rs. $2\text{ as. }2\frac{3}{4}$) were proposed. These rice lands were often watered from ponds and

on much of them sugarcane was grown once in three years. Only the best soil with an unfailing water-supply would pay 12s. (Rs. 6); rice land which depended solely on rain would pay the same rate as that on dry-crop land. The rice lands were arranged under the four intermediate classes according to the periods for which water was available.¹ Of channel-watered garden land or *pátasthal bágáyat* there were 603 acres. The plain part of the subdivision had little or no garden land and where there was garden land the crops were poor, vegetables and dry grains. The south, chiefly Dambal, Doni, Sortur, Bennihalli, Mundargi, and Yelli-Serur had some fine sugarcane and betel-vine gardens. The Dambal gardens were watered from the lake which though in bad order held water till the end of March. The fine gardens in the other villages were watered by channels from streams some of which lasted throughout the year. For garden land a highest acre rate of 16s. (Rs. 8) was proposed. The existing acre rate was in some cases 16s. (Rs. 8), and the rate before the existing settlement had been £1 16s. (Rs. 18). Of purely well watered garden land there were 1250 acres. The well watered garden land, recorded in the former settlement, was assessed within the highest dry-crop acre rate, and the area that had since been turned into garden was assessed at the simple dry-crop rate in accordance with Government Resolution 1028 dated the 25th of February 1874. Some of the well watered land yielded betel-vine, sugarcane, and other superior crops. In 1845 the whole area of garden crops of all kinds, well watered and channel watered, was 954 acres. The 1875 total amounted to 1853 acres. That the increase was so small was due to the absence or the brackishness

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¹The Irrigation Revenue Report for 1879 contains the following account of the survey system of assessing the water rate on lands watered from the old Dhárwár reservoirs. On a revision of settlement the survey officers inspect the land and such fields as are found to have been actually watered from the reservoir within a few years of the inspection, are assessed as irrigated. No attempt is made to gauge the capabilities of the reservoir by calculating its storage capacity in proportion to the yearly rainfall. The area found to be actually watered is taken to be the area which the reservoir is capable of watering, and rice or garden rates, as the case may be, are assessed accordingly. The water-supply is divided into six general classes according to the time which the water is estimated to last and to the situation and quality of the land. In this way rates are assessed on a sliding scale. The usual settlement is for thirty years. When once introduced the rates are levied whether the fields are watered or not. In fact, for this term of years, the rate is a fixed settlement on a fixed area, allowing of no change unless, which rarely happens, reclassing is required to meet some change in the reservoir either for better or worse. The assessments are consolidated and are gathered by the Revenue Department in the usual manner. The settlement gives the people, who hold the area assessed as irrigated, the exclusive right to the water of the reservoir, as they and they alone pay water rates. The watered area cannot be enlarged except by private arrangement among the landholders, and during a season of drought no special use of the water can be made without the consent of the landholders in whom the property of the water is vested. Should any dry-crop lands be watered under an agreement with the landholders, no extra rates are levied, but, at the next settlement, the land is liable to be included in the watered area. In this way much land may be watered for a considerable number of years without paying anything but dry-crop rates. Works often irrigate much larger areas than those assessed as irrigated. The survey system had the benefit that the people thoroughly understood it; under it Government often lost revenue by the extension of irrigation during the survey lease. Dambal Tank, Dhárwár Collectorate, Irrigation Revenue Report (31st July 1880) of the Bombay Presidency excluding Sind, for 1878-79, Appendix V.

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of surface water over a great part of the sub-division, which made well watered gardens impossible. The proposed revised rates raised the rental on the area under tillage from £16,757 to £24,845 (Rs. 1,67,570-Rs. 2,48,450), an increase of 48·2 per cent. The details are :

Dambal Revision Settlement, 1874-75.

CLASS.	Vil- lages.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.							
		Occupied.		Occupied.		Unoccupied.		Total		In- crease Per cent.	High- est Acre Rates.
		Area.	Collec- tions.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.		
I...	17	50,778	34,153	51,428	52,356	204	54	51,632	52,410	53·2	1½
II...	38	96,026	55,789	92,313	86,535	1414	466	93,727	87,001	55·1	1½
III...	39	106,741	61,582	108,208	90,357	2119	524	110,322	90,551	46·7	1½
IV...	14	26,443	16,042	26,568	19,198	1918	383	28,786	19,581	19·6	1½
Total	93	279,988	1,67,566	278,812	248,446	5655	1427	284,467	249,873	48·2	...

Compared with the first three classes, the increase in the fourth class was very small, only 19·6 per cent; the villages in this class were outlying and badly placed and much of the soil was poor. The largest increases were in Chikop, a good black soil village close to the north of Gadag, and in Hombal and Gadag town. Hombal was an exceedingly well placed purely black soil village and in Gadag the whole of the lands to the north of the town were black soil. In four villages the increase was between sixty and seventy per cent. In all the remaining villages it was less than sixty per cent. Three villages showed a decrease, Kalignur of 6·2 per cent, Bevinkatti of 0·7 per cent, and Dindur of 3·6 per cent. Of these Kalignur and Bevinkatti were in the extreme north-east where was much poor soil, and Dindur was among the Kapat hills where the soil was very poor. The following statement shows the total area and assessment of the sub-division under the original and the revised survey settlements :

Dambal Survey Settlement, 1874-75.

LAND.	EXISTING.		PROPOSED.		
	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Quit Rent.
Government { Occupied ...	Acres.	Ra.	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.
Unoccupied ...	279,988	1,67,566	278,812	2,48,446	...
Alienated ...	435½	1174	6655	1,427	...
Unarable ...	104,200	66,279	108,062	93,106	34,363
	54,170	...	48,792
Total	442,771	235,016	442,921	342,779	34,363

The decrease in the unarable area from 54,170 to 48,792 acres was chiefly due to the transfer to the arable of the lands in the villages on the slopes of the Kapat hills. The average acre rate all over the occupied land amounted to 1s. 9½d. (14½ as.) against 1s. 2½d. (9½ as.) under the former settlement. The proposed revised settlement was sanctioned by Government in March 1875.¹

¹ Bom. Gov. Res. 1679 of 19th March 1875, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 142-145.

During the ten years before the original survey settlement (1835-1845), the tillage area varied from about 113,700 acres in 1835-36 to about 148,600 acres in 1840-41, and collections from about £9500 (Rs. 95,000) in 1841-42 to about £14,500 (Rs. 1,45,000) in 1839-40. During the first ten years of the survey lease (1845-55) tillage rose from about 151,000 acres in 1845-46 to about 206,000 acres in 1854-55 and collections from £7086 to about £15,300 (Rs. 70,860-Rs. 1,53,000); during the next ten years (1855-1865) tillage rose from about 222,300 acres in 1855-56 to about 266,800 acres in 1864-65, and collections from about £16,100 to about £19,200 (Rs. 1,61,000-Rs. 1,92,000); and during the last ten years (1865-1875) tillage fell from about 266,600 acres in 1865-66 to about 265,200 acres in 1874-75 and collections varied from about £19,100 (Rs. 1,91,000) in 1871-72 to about £19,400 (Rs. 1,94,000) in 1874-75. The details are:—

Dambal, 86 Villages: Survey Results, 1835-1880.

YR. AN.	TILLAGE.			WASTE.			Quit-Rent.	Out-standings.	Collections.	Judri Rupee Prices.
	Area.	Rental.	Remissions.	Area.	Rental.	Grazing Fees.				
<i>Before Survey.</i>	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Pomda.
1835-36	113,689	1,11,980	19,148	91,477	83,484	178	18,473	6563	1,04,918	...
1836-37	127,757	1,23,578	8,447	76,745	63,106	139	21,543	24,258	1,12,599	...
1837-38	143,043	1,37,258	6,075	64,728	53,552	132	23,351	46,408	1,07,683	...
1838-39	147,442	1,46,968	25,562	68,486	55,291	53	22,793	22,020	1,25,142	...
1839-40	146,365	1,36,774	4174	67,068	59,669	249	23,418	11,218	1,45,049	...
1840-41	148,579	1,37,642	42,263	70,668	7,257	240	23,363	16,893	1,02,609	...
1841-42	147,561	1,35,821	36,581	71,774	76,433	394	24,904	28,913	95,315	...
1842-43	144,490	1,34,831	32,616	78,719	33,259	987	25,002	17,891	1,09,813	...
1843-44	144,400	1,38,280	31,715	80,010	37,459	705	24,342	17,665	1,08,897	...
1844-45	137,472	1,39,077	25,417	87,690	34,611	100	24,396	4221	1,23,944	...
<i>Survey.</i>										
1845-46	151,291	95,518	33,009	86,930	45,308	2577	13,935	13,159	70,890	147
1846-47	172,989	1,07,831	442	72,122	37,000	3533	21,656	12	1,37,292	120
1847-48	174,019	1,08,493	118	70,931	36,233	7775	21,543	32	1,37,663	120
1848-49	181,500	1,12,677	16	63,811	32,147	6938	21,496	17	1,41,075	126
1849-50	176,571	1,08,457	15	66,868	36,573	6184	21,263	...	1,35,891	120
1850-51	178,278	1,09,554	16	68,206	36,150	5094	20,742	28,065	1,12,310	130
1851-52	189,632	1,16,340	16	67,311	29,659	5135	20,675	8	1,42,127	146
1852-53	197,560	1,20,525	105	50,215	25,954	4638	20,704	1	1,45,761	98
1853-54	196,584	1,19,871	25	52,967	27,543	4901	25,479	122	1,50,104	92
1854-55	206,024	1,24,997	76	46,615	34,066	4008	24,664	...	1,53,294	52
1855-56	222,267	1,32,988	42	30,223	16,894	3449	25,224	...	1,61,029	80
1856-57	246,496	1,47,417	196	11,071	6572	1613	26,144	...	1,74,978	80
1857-58	253,641	1,51,488	15	45,226	1910	612	25,727	...	1,77,312	92
1858-59	254,968	1,58,304	15	5642	1755	425	25,487	...	1,79,201	84
1859-60	258,721	1,56,136	15	5132	1502	390	26,167	...	1,80,678	76
1860-61	261,838	1,56,530	15	4619	1177	349	27,027	...	1,83,891	62
1861-62	263,943	1,57,550	15	4184	1058	360	32,319	...	1,90,214	62
1862-63	264,598	1,56,061	14	4021	886	330	32,094	...	1,90,461	36
1863-64	266,523	1,58,556	14	2234	496	306	32,772	...	1,94,519	24
1864-65	266,809	1,58,139	...	3155	489	181	33,823	...	1,92,734	24
1865-66	266,620	1,58,623	...	2380	599	240	34,040	...	1,92,903	19
1866-67	264,904	1,57,729	...	3493	1422	340	33,311	...	1,91,389	22
1867-68	265,066	1,57,990	...	3738	1154	312	34,306	...	1,92,608	72
1868-69	264,628	1,57,841	...	4280	1305	368	34,141	...	1,92,345	80
1869-70	264,775	1,58,089	...	4132	1060	396	34,232	...	1,92,717	64
1870-71	264,847	1,58,097	...	3363	994	1000	33,729	...	1,92,638	56
1871-72	264,264	1,58,104	14	4024	1018	145	32,785	...	1,91,020	56
1872-73	264,841	1,58,108	14	4048	1017	283	32,794	...	1,91,146	40
1873-74	265,240	1,58,309	14	2654	925	103	33,018	...	1,91,309	52
1874-75	265,230	1,58,189	...	3394	877	2631	33,661	...	1,94,351	...
<i>Revision Survey.</i>										
1875-76	268,308	2,32,729	...	4179	943	1674	36,929	...	2,71,332	...
1876-77	268,269	2,32,677	...	4117	955	1968	36,642	14,807	2,55,584	...
1877-78	269,730	2,34,556	...	6158	1966	817	37,009	4504	2,67,878	...
1878-79	268,887	2,34,230	...	6694	2374	990	36,749	4025	2,67,944	...
1879-80	261,729	2,30,903	...	14,347	5936	1116	36,909	622	2,68,006	...

1 Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 56, 60-61.

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Land.

REVISION SURVEY.

Bankápur,
1876-77.

Bankápur, which had been settled in 1846-47, was resettled in 1876-77.¹ After the first survey, a redistribution had taken place, by which eighty villages remained in the Bankápur sub-division, fifty-two had been transferred to Karajgi, four to Hángal, and one to Hubli. Old Bankápur was much broken by villages belonging to the Savanur state and to other sub-divisions. From the extreme west to the extreme east was about forty miles. During the thirty years ending 1875-76 communications had been greatly improved. A cart road had been opened between Hubli and Sirsi and another joining Bankápur with Sirsi and passing near Hángal. Roads had also been made leading by the Árbail pass to Kárwár and Kumta. A line ran between Háveri and Sirsi by Samasgi which opened communication with Kumta. A road from Háveri to Hávanur joined Bankápur with Belári. The rupee price of *javári* had risen from 262 pounds in 1844 to 86 pounds in 1874, of wheat from 100 to 28 pounds, of gram from 82 to 28 pounds, and of rice from 86 to 42 pounds. Cotton had risen from £7 10s. (Rs. 75) the *khandi* of 784 pounds in 1846 to about £16 (Rs. 160) the *khandi* in 1876.

Comparing the nine years ending 1855 with the eight years ending 1874, the area held for tillage had risen from 189,690 acres to 223,304 acres and the collections from £3614 to £10,857 (Rs. 86,140-Rs. 1,08,570). The details are:

Bankápur Tillage and Revenue, 1835-1874.

YEAR.	Occupied Land.	Arable Waste.	Collections.	Remissions.	Out-standings.
	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1835-1845	156,158	55,269	86,849	14,935	7107
1846-1855	189,690	35,620	86,143	637	4257
1856-1866	221,632	3664	1,06,943	1	...
1866-1874	223,304	1933	1,08,573

The average notices issued in default of timely payment of revenue from 1872-73 to 1874-75 were 162. During the same period land had only twice been sold. In 1875 about seventy-five per cent of the Government lands were tilled by the men whose names appeared as holders in the Government books, either solely or in partnership with others. The holders sublet about fourteen per cent on money rents and four per cent on produce or grain rents. Three per cent were arable assessed waste, a proportion of which consisted of valuable grass lands which were not allowed to be taken for tillage but were yearly sold by auction. Three per cent was unarable unassessed waste. In eighty-eight villages of the sub-division there was not a single waste survey field. What waste there was was generally in the villages to the west, bordering on the forest, where grazing was abundant and in the eastern villages where there was much poor hilly land. The returns showed a rise in population from

¹ Col. Anderson, Surv. Comr. 7 of 4th Jan. 1876, Gov. Res. 1031 of 16th Feb. 1876. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV.

67,722 in 1846-47 to 88,869 in 1875 or thirty-one per cent; in flat roofed and tiled houses from 10,481 to 14,908 or forty-two per cent; in carts from 1641 to 4115 or 150 per cent; and in horses and ponies from 912 to 939 or three per cent. On the other hand thatched houses had fallen from 2854 to 2089 or twenty-seven per cent; farm cattle from 21,877 to 21,624 or one per cent; cows, buffaloes, and their young from 38,400 to 34,740 or nine per cent; and sheep and goats from 18,064 to 12,976 or thirty-four per cent. The number of looms had risen from 395 in 1845 to 867 in 1875. The soil and climate varied greatly. In the west red clay slate soils were common like the Hubli red soils. The centre of the sub-division was black soil with occasional hills and patches of red. In the east were outcrops of granite or rather of gneiss. The black soils were of a superior quality and were excellently suited for the growth of cotton, especially of New Orleans cotton. In the west the rainfall was rather heavy for superior dry-crop tillage. The centre of the sub-division, passing from west to east, enjoyed an excellent and certain rainfall, and was well suited for the growth of dry crops. In the north and south belt of villages, the rainfall was somewhat less certain and seasonable, as the villages, especially the eastern villages, got more of the later heavy rains and less of the early June rains. Rice was grown in the western and to a less extent in the centre villages. *Jvári*, *bájrí*, wheat, *tur* and other pulses, and oil-seeds as well as cotton were abundant in the centre and east, especially in the central tract stretching from the extreme southerly point, south of the Varda, through a line passing near the town of Savanur, to the extreme northern villages of the sub-division. Cotton was the great exportable produce and as the soil and the damp air were specially favourable to it, New Orleans had to a great extent supplanted the local variety. 123 ponds and reservoirs were used for watering land, but none of them held water during the hot weather. The garden products were cocoa and betel palms, sugarcane, and the betel vine. Rice was also grown as a change crop in garden land. The chief industries were the weaving of coarse cotton cloth and blankets. Karajgi, Nave Riti, and Bankápur had the largest hand-loom weaving population. Háveri was a great centre of the cardamom trade, as cardamoms were supposed to have no value until they were soaked in the water of a well at Háveri. The other trading towns were Bankápur, Karajgi, and Hulgur. The people were well fed, well housed, and well clad, and generally strong and healthy. Their field tools and cattle were good. Tillage was careful especially in gardens and in the fields of Ingálgí and its neighbouring villages.

All fields both dry and watered had to be remeasured. The number of survey fields in the 137 villages of the sub-division was raised from 11,685 to 17,396. The total area was 259,776 acres against 258,988 acres according to the old survey. Of rice there was a total area of 6680 acres against 6160 recorded by the old survey. Of this 3105 acres were Government land against 2655 according to the last survey. The garden area was returned at 1516 acres of which 965 were Government against 1458 acres and 866 Government according to the former survey. A highest dry-crop acre rate of

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3s. (Rs. 1½) was adopted for four isolated villages among the Hángal villages; 4s. (Rs. 2) for fifty villages of which sixteen were on the western border of the main block of the sub-division and thirty-four were to the east of the third class of villages; 4s. 6d. (Rs. 2¼) for fifty-two villages lying to the west of the sub-division; 3s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) for twenty-five villagee lying to the east of the thirty-four villages of the second class; and 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1½) for six villages in the extreme east of the sub-division. The highest rice acre rate was fixed at 16s. (Rs. 8), and the highest garden acre rate at £1 4s. (Rs. 12). The average acre rate over the whole Government occupied land of every kind according to the revised settlement was 2s. 4½d. (Re. 1 as. 2½) or 9½d. (6¼ as.) higher than 1s. 6½d. (12¾ as.), the existing average rate. The effect of the revised settlement was an increase of 49·5 per cent. The following statement gives the details :

Bankápur Revision Settlement, 1876-77.

CLASS.	Vil- lages.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.							
		Occupied Land.		Occupied Land.		Arable Waste.		Total		Increase of Asses- ment Per cent.	Highest Dry- crop Acre Rate.
		Area.	Asses- ment.	Area.	Asses- ment.	Area.	Asses- ment.	Area.	Asses- ment.		
		Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.		Rs. a.
I ...	4	3142	3437	3476	4951	245	369	3731	5349	44·1	1 8
II ...	50	48,164	36,291	50,960	54,478	2732	1250	52,992	55,729	50·1	2 0
III ...	52	44,019	47,976	44,975	74,991	528	302	45,509	75,293	50·3	2 4
IV ...	25	20,365	16,233	31,441	22,134	2747	667	34,183	22,971	35·8	1 10
V ...	6	7061	3964	7181	4848	4	1	7185	4849	22·6	1 6
Total...	137	132,771	1,07,961	1,37,333	1,61,402	6256	2638	143,589	1,64,040	49·5	...

There were no cases of excessive increase on whole villages. In three villages only did the enhancement exceed eighty per cent. These as well as half of the villages in which the enhancement was between seventy and eighty per cent, were villages of the third class with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 4s. 6d. (Rs. 2¼). In other cases large enhancements were mostly due to increase in the area of rice or garden land.

During the ten years before the original survey settlement (1836-46), the tillage area fell from about 73,000 acres in 1836-37 to about 54,000 acres in 1845-46, and collections varied from about £7800 in 1836-37 to about £14,100 in 1839-40 (Rs. 78,000-Rs. 1,41,000). During the first ten years of the survey lease (1846-56), the tillage area rose from about 78,000 acres in 1846-47 to about 114,000 acres in 1855-56, and collections from about £9900 to about £14,300 (Rs. 99,000-Rs. 1,43,000); during the next ten years (1856-66) the tillage area rose from about 124,000 acres in 1856-57 to about 135,000 acres in 1865-66 and collections from about £15,000 to about £16,000 (Rs. 1,50,000-Rs. 1,60,000); and during the last ten years (1866-76), the tillage area fell from about 134,800 acres in 1866-67 to about 132,800 in 1875-76 and collections from about £16,000 to about £15,800 (Rs. 1,60,000 - Rs. 1,58,000). During the four years

after the revision survey (1876-80) the tillage area varied from about 137,000 acres in 1877-78 to about 131,000 acres in 1879-80, and collections from about £21,800 (Rs. 2,18,000) in 1878-79 to about £21,100 (Rs. 2,11,000) in 1876-77. The details are:¹

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Bankápur, 157 Villages : Survey Results, 1836-1880.

YEAR.	TILLAGE.			WATER.			Quit-Rent.	Out-standings.	Collections.	Jedri Rupee Prices.
	Area.	Rental.	Remissions.	Area.	Rental.	Grazing Fees.				
	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.	Rs.	Ra.	Rs.	Lbs.
<i>Before Survey.</i>										
1836-37	72,924	1,08,508	46,417	45,818	22,586	218	35,944	17,912	73,341	...
1837-38	73,665	1,16,394	21,965	45,039	22,070	152	43,764	32,038	1,03,407	...
1838-39	66,481	1,06,502	34,909	52,157	29,421	274	32,937	701	1,07,103	...
1839-40	69,784	1,04,415	67,401	51,877	27,433	329	43,953	1043	1,40,909	...
1840-41	70,197	1,04,349	11,829	50,495	27,261	390	43,222	1166	1,35,026	244
1841-42	65,394	1,03,249	10,535	52,272	27,561	459	43,070	6929	1,29,514	244
1842-43	66,342	1,01,298	9323	55,633	32,300	1205	42,091	3762	1,31,480	244
1843-44	60,208	93,850	3209	62,462	42,471	73	42,528	4662	1,28,503	224
1844-45	56,691	88,836	836	66,938	47,164	46	41,847	2073	1,27,620	262
1845-46	54,077	85,671	3695	69,999	50,754	3461	41,114	790	1,25,761	250
<i>Survey.</i>										
1846-47	78,833	78,836	6536	50,571	27,877	2683	37,620	13,202	98,911	244
1847-48	82,314	79,644	126	46,411	24,527	5660	37,442	31	1,22,989	240
1848-49	87,311	89,533	102	45,144	30,973	7195	37,632	43	1,28,820	224
1849-50	89,219	84,067	10	41,844	21,459	7229	37,069	...	1,28,375	302
1850-51	91,943	84,823	10	39,508	20,961	5534	36,368	20,181	98,344	218
1851-52	100,510	89,450	14	31,560	16,833	5186	36,398	...	1,31,020	202
1852-53	101,844	89,848	10	30,300	16,854	6212	36,183	...	1,31,233	46
1853-54	103,965	89,466	...	28,626	17,449	5618	42,611	47	1,37,708	96
1854-55	107,744	92,716	48	25,430	14,860	5125	42,332	72	1,40,038	96
1855-56	114,429	96,386	19	19,004	11,464	3660	42,247	...	1,42,613	43
1856-57	124,167	102,355	1	9289	5525	2166	42,624	...	1,47,144	73
1857-58	127,498	104,492	...	9019	3433	1364	42,553	...	1,48,399	90
1858-59	127,579	104,707	...	9006	3216	1403	42,799	...	1,48,959	109
1859-60	128,947	106,497	...	4723	2572	1408	42,365	...	1,49,895	86
1860-61	131,782	107,410	...	2443	1164	979	46,046	...	1,53,435	55
1861-62	133,230	106,681	...	2901	902	912	49,843	...	1,59,439	45
1862-63	133,638	108,878	...	1956	757	1032	49,847	...	1,59,737	24
1863-64	134,990	109,083	...	1292	532	2058	49,854	...	1,60,996	14
1864-65	134,990	109,083	...	1197	629	2113	49,675	...	1,60,871	18
1865-66	134,827	109,307	...	1204	634	1481	49,391	...	1,60,079	48
1866-67	134,827	109,178	...	1155	482	1506	49,350	...	1,60,034	64
1867-68	134,698	109,103	...	1189	456	1760	49,371	...	1,59,178	80
1868-69	134,682	109,024	...	1395	578	841	49,278	...	1,59,356	72
1869-70	134,122	108,640	...	1713	895	1438	49,278	...	1,59,356	80
1870-71	133,998	108,628	...	1837	947	1823	49,258	...	1,59,714	96
1871-72	133,887	108,547	...	1902	984	1275	49,244	...	1,59,066	96
1872-73	133,081	108,090	...	2694	1368	2142	49,147	...	1,59,379	52
1873-74	132,909	107,907	...	2762	1363	757	49,122	...	1,57,876	34
1874-75	132,771	107,961	...	2779	1408	616	49,114	...	1,57,681	86
1875-76	132,778	107,936	...	3049	1667	963	48,844	...	1,57,742	...
<i>Revision Survey.</i>										
1876-77	136,791	161,637	67	4495	3162	1052	48,828	...	2,11,450	...
1877-78	137,273	162,270	...	4667	3442	1277	51,543	258	2,14,832	...
1878-79	134,491	161,044	...	6426	4701	986	56,980	962	2,17,937	...
1879-80	131,402	159,172	...	11,900	6939	1136	57,110	600	2,16,921	...

In 1878, 215 villages of the old Hángal sub-division and the old Taras petty division were revised.² Under a new distribution of these villages, 119 had gone to New Hángal, sixty-five to Bankápur, twelve to Karáji, twelve to Hubli, and seven to Kalghatgi. The

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¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV. 50, 52-53.
² Col. Anderson, Surv. Comr, 178 of 3rd February 1877, Gov. Res. 2854 of 3rd May 1877. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV.

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country included in this Hángał-Taras block of villages contained 399·45 square miles and was about forty-two miles from north to south. The narrower strip to the north as far south as Dhundshi comprised the old Taras petty division, and the country to the south of Dhundshi comprised the old Hángał sub-division. Since 1847, when the former survey was introduced, communications had greatly improved. The main road from Hubli to the port of Kumta by Sirsi passed through the Taras villages; another road between the Dhárwár plains and Kumta led from Bankápur by Hángał to Sirsi. From Bankápur a main line of road passed west to Mundgod in Kánara, from Mundgod two roads led to the coast one by Sirsi to Kumta, the other by Yellápur and the Árbail pass either to Kumta or to Kárwár. The south of Hángał was crossed from east to west by a main line of road from Maisur through Harihar to Sirsi. A fifth line of road ran from south to north from Maisur through Hángał, Dhundshi, and Taras to Hubli. Minor lines and cross lines were numerous. The average rupee price of husked rice had risen from 256 pounds in 1817-26 to 76 pounds in 1867-76; of *juári* from 154 pounds to 70 pounds; of *rági* from 196 pounds to 102 pounds; of coarse sugar from 40 pounds to 16 pounds; of betelnut from 14 pounds to 6 pounds; and of cocoanuts from 4s. 11½d. (Rs. 2 as. 7½) the hundred to 9s. 0½d. (Rs. 4 as. 8½). The Shringeri Vad or dam across the Dharma at Shringeri, about six miles south-west of the town of Hángał, had a channel which ran about twelve miles filling many ponds on the way. A second dam near Kanchi Neglur, about thirteen miles lower down the Dharma, fed the large Naregal reservoir. The rain returns showed a rainfall at Hángał of 29·97 inches in 1873, of 54·64 inches in 1874, of 29·41 in 1875, and of 22·15 up to the 1st of October 1876. Comparing the ten years ending 1846-47 with the nine years ending 1875-76 the tillage area had risen from 54,071 acres to 125,171 acres; and collections from £8311 to £12,943 (Rs. 83,110-Rs. 1,29,430). The following is a summary of the details:

Hángał-Taras Land Revenue, 1837-1876.

YEAR.	Occupied Land.	Arable Waste.	Collections.	Remissions.	Out-standings.
	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Ra.	Ra.
1837-1847	54,071	114,128	83,106	11,152	4684
1847-1857	81,169	52,120	92,954	1166	5135
1857-1867	123,846	16,006	1,27,751
1867-1876	125,171	13,584	1,29,434	4	...

In 1877 about seventy per cent of the Government land was tilled by the men whose names were entered as holders in the Government books, or by members of their families. The holders tilled three per cent in partnership with others and let sixteen per cent to tenants on money-rents and eleven per cent on produce or grain rents. Between 1873-74 and 1875-76 an average of 213 notices had been issued in default of timely payment of rent, and in two cases land had been sold for failure to pay. The returns showed an increase in population from 73,608 in 1848-49 to 80,373 in 1876 or

nine per cent, in flat-roofed houses from 1688 to 4422 or 162 per cent, in tiled houses from 2285 to 3670 or sixty per cent, in field cattle from 27,541 to 27,789 or one per cent, in carts from 1615 to 4253 or 163 per cent, in drinking ponds from 102 to 107 or 4.9 per cent, and in watering ponds from 1106 to 1179 or 6.6 per cent. On the other hand thatched houses had fallen from 11,228 in 1848-49 to 8892 in 1876 or twenty per cent, cows and buffaloes from 55,401 to 42,000 or twenty-four per cent, sheep and goats from 10,339 to 7962 or twenty-three per cent, and horses and ponies from 880 to 557 or thirty-six per cent. The climate and products of the eastern and western villages varied greatly. The eastern villages had a large area of excellent soil yielding *javari*, cotton, and the other better class dry crops, and enjoying an excellent and certain rainfall. Though the early rains were the most important, the later or October rain was seldom wanting. The change in passing west was exceedingly rapid. While the eastern villages were pure dry-crop villages, the extreme south-west villages in old Hángal were pure rice villages. Every gradation of climate and tillage was passed through in the villages between the eastern and western extremes, every few miles increasing the rice element in the tillage. The change was specially marked and rapid in the old Taras petty division. The irrigational channels were in good repair. Cocoa and betel palm cultivation thrived well, and sugarcane and betel vine were also grown. Dhundshi in the north and Alur in the south were the most important markets. 351 looms of which about one-fifth were blanket-looms were at work; the rest made coarse cloth for local use. Produce went to the coast and to the north and east. Rice went both to the coast and north to Hubli; sugar cocoanuts and betel went chiefly to Hubli, and some went east; cotton went to the west coast. During the fair season fodder was in great demand. The husbandry and condition of the people were generally good, but, from their nearness to the Kánara forests, the western villages were poor and feverish.

Of the 215 villages, sixty-nine were entirely and 143 were partially reclassified. The following statement gives a comparison of the area of the different kinds of land according to the first and according to the second survey:

Hángal-Taras Arable Area.

LAND.	Revision Survey, 1877-78.	First Survey, 1847-48.
	Acres.	Acres.
Arable Dry-crop ...	142,575	140,245
Rice Land ...	50,921	52,957
Garden ...	1101	807
Unarable ...	61,059	60,834
Total ...	255,656	254,843

For revision purposes, the 215 villages were divided into six classes. The first class contained six eastern detached villages; the second contained thirty-two villages on the east margin of the old Hángal sub-division and the Taras petty division of Hubli; the third

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contained thirty-two villages immediately to the west of the second class; the fourth consisted of thirty-seven villages to the west of the third class; the fifth contained fifty-seven villages to the west of the fourth class; and the sixth class consisted of fifty-one villages on the western border in and on the margin of the forests. The highest dry-crop acre rates were 4s. 6d. (Rs. 2½) for the first class, 4s. (Rs. 2) for the second, 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) for the third, 3s. (Rs. 1½) for the fourth, 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) for the fifth, and 2s. (Rs. 1) for the sixth. There was no rice land in the first class. Rice lands in the next four classes were assessed at 16s. (Rs. 8) an acre at the highest; and those in the sixth class at 14s. (Rs. 7). Garden land was assessed at a highest acre rate of £1 10s. (Rs. 15). The effect of the revised rates on the tillage area was an increase of 46·1 per cent. The details are:¹

Hāngal-Taras Revision Settlement, 1878-79.

CLASS.	Villages.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.						In-crease of Assessment. Per cent.	Highest Dry-crop Acre Rate.
		Occupied Land.		Occupied Land.		Arable Waste.		Total.			
		Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.		
		Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.		
I ...	6	3542	3823	3568	6318	62	25	3630	6343	65·3	2 4
II ...	32	28,256	31,657	28,593	46,664	283	412	28,576	47,068	47·8	3 0
III ...	32	20,508	17,322	21,326	24,971	494	188	21,810	25,169	44·2	1 13
IV ...	37	23,397	24,250	23,696	35,133	2066	1735	25,762	36,863	40·5	1 8
V ...	67	29,338	30,388	30,027	44,583	5627	3956	35,654	48,539	46·7	1 4
VI ...	61	18,097	20,364	18,348	28,844	1897	1310	20,245	30,164	41·6	1 0
Total...	215	138,137	1,27,704	135,563	1,86,505	10,419	7626	135,977	1,94,131	46·1	...

During the ten years before the original survey settlement (1837-1847), the tillage area fell from about 59,000 acres in 1837-38 to about 46,000 acres in 1846-47, and collections varied from about £13,800 (Rs. 1,38,000) in 1840-41 to about £9600 (Rs. 96,000) in 1837-38. During the first ten years of the survey lease (1847-57), the tillage area rose from about 52,600 acres in 1847-48 to about 108,300 acres in 1856-57 and collections from about £9400 to about £16,000 (Rs. 94,000-Rs. 1,60,000); during the next ten years (1857-67), the tillage area rose from about 114,000 acres in 1857-58 to about 127,000 acres in 1866-67, and collections from about £16,500 to about £18,100 (Rs. 1,65,000-Rs. 1,81,000); and during the eleven years ending 1877-78, the tillage area varied from about 127,000 acres in 1867-68 to about 123,000 acres in 1876-77 and collections from about £18,000 to about £17,300 (Rs. 1,80,000 - Rs. 1,73,000). During the two years after the revision settlement (1878-80) the tillage area fell from about 125,000 acres in 1878-79 to about 124,000 acres in 1879-80, but collections rose from about £24,000 to about £25,000 (Rs. 240,000 - Rs. 2,50,000). The details are:²

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 30.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLVI. 37-39, 54.

Hángal-Taras, 215 Villages : Survey Results, 1837-1880.

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YEAR.	Rain-fall.	TILLAGE.			WASTE.			Quit Rent.	Out-standings.	Collections.	Jodri Rupee Prices.
		Area.	Rental.	Re-missions.	Area.	Rental.	Grasing Fees.				
Before Survey.	In.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Lbs.
1837-38	...	50,020	1,02,858	27,608	104,536	...	367	47,175	26,346	96,446	157
1838-39	...	50,241	1,06,654	32,724	105,186	...	172	44,066	7,651	1,11,087	169
1839-40	...	57,963	1,00,442	14,467	108,260	...	411	47,322	1384	1,52,304	213
1841-42	...	57,128	96,822	7175	109,224	...	653	48,636	907	1,38,019	180
1842-43	...	55,319	96,761	8420	110,134	...	466	47,713	2,196	1,34,454	172
1843-44	...	55,819	96,761	8270	113,602	...	1447	47,002	8,720	1,38,220	198
1843-44	...	58,594	94,771	4836	116,931	...	1212	48,621	4,267	1,35,921	236
1844-45	...	48,900	86,783	3295	122,048	...	851	44,968	51	1,29,986	239
1845-46	...	46,317	80,163	3502	126,839	...	4086	41,232	159	1,21,810	228
1846-47	...	45,916	80,442	4751	126,490	...	4591	43,449	742	1,24,089	192
Survey.											
1847-48	...	52,676	81,419	11,479	75,528	55,343	3995	40,684	20,938	93,674	180
1848-49	...	53,948	77,902	109	65,483	48,113	19,426	39,381	858	1,33,722	192
1849-50	...	77,916	90,451	6	64,327	87,318	13,503	36,202	8	1,40,142	132
1850-51	...	77,837	89,674	12	55,000	88,435	11,362	35,711	30,532	1,06,403	356
1851-52	...	81,916	93,832	8	51,406	34,986	10,611	35,650	...	1,39,985	172
1852-53	...	82,797	94,856	15	51,012	34,414	9840	35,279	...	1,39,979	180
1853-54	...	82,975	94,612	18	51,740	35,747	10,964	38,943	18	1,44,488	220
1854-55	...	86,594	98,209	7	49,250	33,254	10,278	38,638	...	1,47,116	144
1855-56	...	97,138	1,05,893	18	39,252	26,260	9,320	38,054	...	1,54,004	120
1856-57	...	108,269	1,14,164	...	28,192	18,088	6784	39,003	...	1,59,951	104
1857-58	...	113,894	1,19,653	...	23,646	14,424	5393	40,048	...	1,65,031	112
1858-59	...	116,311	1,22,036	...	22,366	13,517	5681	38,890	...	1,68,827	96
1859-60	...	121,325	1,25,243	...	18,007	10,681	4703	38,788	...	1,68,822	100
1860-61	...	124,421	1,28,800	...	14,859	8138	4288	40,400	...	1,78,488	112
1861-62	...	125,397	1,29,464	...	14,729	8183	4777	42,208	...	1,76,447	100
1862-63	...	127,187	1,31,077	...	12,927	7628	5638	42,228	...	1,77,963	48
1863-64	...	126,960	1,30,869	...	13,200	7009	5758	42,203	...	1,78,330	44
1864-65	...	126,439	1,30,594	...	13,555	7313	6662	42,857	...	1,80,108	40
1865-66	...	126,560	1,30,511	...	13,614	7308	6298	43,369	...	1,80,184	44
1866-67	...	126,879	1,30,357	...	13,119	6338	6919	43,333	...	1,81,109	48
1867-68	...	127,008	1,30,976	...	12,983	6697	6907	43,153	...	1,80,196	56
1868-69	...	127,021	1,30,926	...	12,970	6758	4925	44,142	...	1,79,993	100
1869-70	...	126,584	1,30,454	...	13,437	7290	4245	43,207	...	1,77,906	104
1870-71	...	126,059	1,30,279	...	14,049	7672	4490	43,169	...	1,77,939	96
1871-72	...	125,273	1,29,544	...	14,813	8256	4413	42,956	...	1,76,933	64
1872-73	...	124,246	1,28,482	...	15,771	9077	4398	42,950	...	1,76,025	48
1873-74	29.97	123,630	1,28,254	...	12,964	8012	3471	42,895	...	1,74,620	56
1874-75	54.64	123,579	1,28,103	83	12,501	7915	3093	42,894	...	1,74,057	66
1875-76	29.41	123,137	1,27,704	...	12,770	8156	2669	42,858	...	1,73,261	66
1876-77	...	123,029	1,27,587	66	12,878	8267	2573	42,896	12	1,72,978	61
1877-78	...	123,728	1,28,271	...	13,298	8457	3011	43,921	329	1,74,776	...
Revision Survey.											
1878-79	...	125,273	1,27,936	...	11,033	9,171	2,517	40,872	628	2,39,697	...
1879-80	...	124,294	1,24,661	...	12,088	10,956	2,252	40,909	815	2,48,437	...

In 1878, the revision settlement was begun in 130 villages of the old Ráneennur sub-division, which had been settled in 1847-48. Of these villages, at the time of the revision settlement, ninety-four were in Ráneennur and the remaining thirty-six were in Karajgi. According to the old survey the area of these 130 villages was 304,559 acres, and according to the revision survey it was 306,276, of which 53,441 were unarable. Except its neighbour Kod, Ráneennur was the most southern sub-division of the Bombay Presidency above the Sahyádris. It was bounded on the east and south by the Tungbhadra which, excepting two villages on the eastern bank, separated it from Belári on the east and from Maisur on the south.

Ráneennur,
1878-79.

¹ Col. Anderson, Surv. Comr. 75 of 21st January 1878, Gov. Res. 1546 of 26th March 1878. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIX.

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Rānebennur,
1878-79.

On the west there were the old Bankāpur and Kod sub-divisions and on the north the alienated district of Sāngli. During the thirty-two years ending 1877 local produce prices had varied for husked rice from 160 pounds the rupee in 1850 and 1851 to 24 pounds in 1865 or an increase of 566 per cent; for Indian millet or *javari* from 256 pounds in 1852 to 18 pounds in 1865 or an increase of 1322 per cent; and for wheat from 84 pounds in 1848 to 6 pounds in 1865 or an increase of 1300 per cent. The following statement gives a summary of the prices during the twenty-nine years ending 1876. The average of the ten years ending 1867 was much raised by the exceptional prices which prevailed from 1862 to 1865, the years of the American War during which cotton had risen to over £70 (Rs. 700) the *khandi*:¹

Produce Rupee Prices, 1848-1876.

YEAR.	Husked Rice.	Javari.	Wheat.
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
1848-1857 ...	136	174	74
1858-1867 ...	56	72	36
1868-1876 ...	57	76	28

When the original survey was introduced these villages did not contain one mile of made road. Since 1846 the tract had been crossed by two main lines; one from Bangalor and Harihar, where there was a bridge over the Tungbhadra, to Hubli, the old made road from Poona to Bangalor; and one which branched from the Poona-Bangalor road about four miles north-west of Harihar and passed through Kod and Sirsi to Kumta. A third road ran east and west through the north of the tract from Hāvanur to Hāngal and Kumta, and carried much traffic between Belāri, from which Hāvanur was about ninety miles distant, and south Dhārwar. All these three routes especially the Poona-Bangalor trunk road carried a heavy cart traffic during the greater part of the year, and created a great demand for fodder. Other local roads joined large markets and formed feeders to the main lines. A comparison of the average of the ten years ending 1856-57 and 1876-77, shows a spread from 96,179 to 157,603 acres in the tillage area, a fall from 86,388 to

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIX. 13-14, 43. The details of the thirty-two years are:

• Rānebennur Produce Rupee Prices, 1846-1877.

YEAR.	Husked Rice.	Javari.	Wheat.	YEAR.	Husked Rice.	Javari.	Wheat.	YEAR.	Husked Rice.	Javari.	Wheat.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.		Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.		Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
1846 ...	112	96	60	1857 ...	140	112	...	1898 ...	48	96	44
1847 ...	128	162	80	1858 ...	128	120	60	1899 ...	48	70	16
1848 ...	140	192	84	1859 ...	92	108	64	1870 ...	72	112	14
1849 ...	142	162	71	1860 ...	56	1871 ...	43	68	22
1850 ...	160	238	80	1861 ...	64	80	...	1872 ...	48	84	24
1851 ...	160	238	80	1862 ...	40	...	76	1873 ...	64	76	28
1852	256	...	1863 ...	32	...	13	1874 ...	64	80	38
1853 ...	108	128	72	1864 ...	32	38	12	1875 ...	66	72	38
1854	128	...	1865 ...	24	18	6	1876 ...	64	49	32
1855 ...	104	108	64	1866 ...	40	44	24	1877 ...	28	16	11
1856	64	1867 ...	48	96	34				

31,279 acres in the waste arable land, and a rise in collections from £8076 to £11,569 (Rs. 80,760-Rs. 1,15,690). The details are:¹

Ránebennur Land Revenue, 1837-1877.

YEAR.	Tillage.	Waste.	Collec- tions.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.
	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1837-1847	82,825	142,371	78,914	8238	4179
1847-1857	96,179	86,388	80,760	2142	5219
1857-1867	149,680	38,117	1,11,851
1867-1877	157,608	31,279	1,15,694	1	476

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REVISION SURVEY.
Ránebennur,
1873-79.

In 1878, eighty-one per cent of Government land was tilled by the men whose names were entered as holders in the Government books, of which they tilled three per cent in partnership with others. The holders let to tenants fourteen per cent on money rents and five per cent on grain rents, generally one-half of the crop. During the thirty years ending 1877, the returns showed a rise in population from 66,064 in 1847 to 82,469 in 1877 or 24·8 per cent; in flat-roofed and tiled houses from 9160 to 14,784 or 61·4 per cent; in field cattle from 18,042 to 20,110 or eleven per cent; in carts from 899 to 3114 or 246 per cent; in wells and water-lifts from 687 to 1032 or fifty per cent; and in drinking ponds and reservoirs from fifty-six to sixty-eight or twenty-one per cent. Thatched houses showed a fall from 3704 to 2710 or 26·8 per cent; cows, buffaloes and their young from 37,342 to 26,635 or 28·7 per cent; sheep and goats from 36,118 to 22,761 or thirty-seven per cent; horses and ponies from 623 to 427 or thirty-one per cent; and watering ponds and reservoirs from eighteen to seventeen or five per cent. The north and west of the tract was chiefly black cotton soil, and in the centre and west black and red gravelly and stony soils were mixed, and the country was broken by several ranges and patches of low stony red hills. All the better rice land bore sugarcane every third year or an after-crop of grain or pulse. The climate of the east and the west of the tract differed greatly. In the west and centre, the rainfall was generally sufficient and favourable and much more certain than in the east and north-east. The extreme north-east of the tract lay on the edge of the belt subject to uncertain rainfall. The rest of the tract shared in both monsoons and enjoyed an unusually large supply of the eastern or Madras monsoon. Of the whole crops about sixty-two per cent belonged to the early and thirty-eight per cent to the late harvest. It was essentially a dry crop tract *javari*, *tur*, wheat, oilseeds, and cotton being the chief crops. The New Orleans variety of cotton was more largely grown than the native sort and thrived well. What rice was met with was mostly grown in the west. Only five villages had large reservoirs with water lasting till late in the hot weather, when the supply was restored by the early May thunderstorms. The chief crops were *javari* covering thirty-four per cent, *tur* 3·8 per cent, castor 2·9

¹ The average outstanding balance Rs. 476 in the ten years ending 1877 is due entirely to the outstandings of the famine year 1876-77. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIX. 15.

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Ráneennur,
1878-79.

per cent, *kulthi* 4·9 per cent, and American and country cotton fourteen per cent of the area under tillage. Cotton was the largest and most valuable export. Besides cotton, grain of all kinds was exported, and oil-seeds, sugar, cocoanuts, and betelnuts were all valuable products most of which were grown for export. The tract was well supplied with markets, those of Byádgi, Ráneennur, and Gutal being the chief. Throughout the tract tillage was good, the fields were fairly cultivated, and manure was freely used. The people were well-to-do.

Changes caused by Tungbhadra floods made revised measurements necessary over a large area. For revision purposes the villages were arranged into four classes. The first class comprised thirty-five villages close to the great Poona-Bangalor road. The second class included twenty-four villages to the south-west of the first class. The third class contained sixty-three villages to the east and north-east of the sub-division. The fourth class consisted of the eight extreme north-eastern villages. The highest dry-crop acre rate for the first was 4s. (Rs. 2) ; for the second 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) ; for the third 3s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) ; and for the fourth 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1½). The rice lands were assessed at one uniform highest acre rate of 16s. (Rs. 8). For garden lands a highest acre rate of £1 4s. (Rs. 12) was adopted. The effect of the revision settlement was an increase of 40·1 per cent. The details are :

Ráneennur Revision Settlement, 1878-79.

CLASS.	Vil- lages.	FORMER SURVEY.				REVISION SURVEY.					
		Occupied Land.		Occupied Land.		Arable Waste.		Total.		Increase of Assess- ment. Per cent	Highest Drycrop Acre Rate.
		Area.	Assess- ment.	Area.	Assess- ment.	Area.	Assess- ment.	Area.	Assess- ment.		
		Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.		Rs. a.
I ...	35	52,175	43,521	53,067	64,752	15,314	6597	66,331	71,349	48·8	2 0
II ...	24	22,255	18,757	22,512	24,337	1554	833	24,066	25,170	29·7	1 12
III ...	63	74,617	49,387	77,326	67,580	19,393	6504	96,719	74,384	37·4	1 10
IV ...	8	6746	3370	7152	4208	168	92	7320	4300	24·9	1 6
Total...	130	155,793	1,15,035	160,057	1,61,177	34,429	14,036	194,486	1,75,203	40·1	...

During the ten years before the original survey settlement (1837-1847) the tillage area fell from about 75,000 acres in 1837-38 to about 50,000 acres in 1846-47, and collections varied from about £12,450 (Rs. 1,24,500) in 1839-40 to £9450 (Rs. 94,500) in 1845-46. During the first ten years of the survey lease (1847-1857), the tillage area rose from about 65,000 acres in 1847-48 to about 125,000 acres in 1856-57, and collections from about £5500 to about £13,000 (Rs. 55,000 - Rs. 1,30,000) ; during the next ten years (1857-1867), the tillage area rose from about 131,000 acres in 1857-58 to about 163,000 acres in 1866-67 and collections from about £13,200 to about £15,600 (Rs. 1,32,000 - Rs. 1,56,000) ; and during the eleven years ending 1877-78 the tillage area fell from about 163,000 acres in 1867-68 to about 156,000 acres in 1877-78 and collections from about £15,500 to about £13,500 (Rs. 1,55,000 - Rs. 1,35,000). During the four years after the revision settlement (1878-1882), the

tillage area fell from about 147,000 acres in 1878-79 to about 135,000 acres in 1881-82 and collections from about £18,200 to about £16,000 (Rs. 1,82,000 - Rs. 1,60,000). The details are :¹

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REVISION SURVEY.
Ranebennur,
1878-79.

Ranebennur, 150 Villages : Survey Results, 1837-1882.

YEAR.	TILLAGE.			WASTR.				Quit Rent.	Out-stand-ings.	Collections.	Judri Rupee Prices.
	Area.	Rental.	Remissions.	Area.	Rental.	Gras- ing Fees.	Rs.				
	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Pounds.	
<i>Before Survey.</i>											
1837-38 ...	75,384	1,07,711	29,152	126,974	22,183	104	30,827	11,525	97,965	...	
1838-39 ...	74,004	96,483	27,383	128,982	24,734	165	28,351	4556	96,064	...	
1839-40 ...	72,275	99,246	5241	130,737	25,374	871	34,399	546	1,24,527	...	
1840-41 ...	69,513	94,214	4095	131,874	28,157	779	34,199	6833	1,18,264	...	
1841-42 ...	67,838	92,900	3272	136,223	31,082	1396	33,404	8512	1,15,916	...	
1842-43 ...	63,985	86,839	2848	142,260	35,504	1697	30,903	2758	1,13,830	...	
1843-44 ...	58,781	78,393	1715	150,236	42,051	1948	29,986	2418	1,06,194	...	
1844-45 ...	52,319	74,094	1018	151,774	44,591	2349	27,174	712	1,04,287	...	
1845-46 ...	47,425	68,434	5239	156,702	51,078	5201	27,477	2973	94,500	96	
1846-47 ...	49,650	72,795	2412	159,564	50,981	5743	27,712	1568	1,02,280	162	
<i>Survey.</i>											
1847-48 ...	65,196	78,095	20,905	110,797	57,878	4974	23,266	30,037	55,893	192	
1848-49 ...	78,107	89,937	166	108,242	51,431	9700	20,929	...	1,00,450	162	
1849-50 ...	78,926	70,905	45	103,320	51,449	8654	20,593	...	99,807	238	
1850-51 ...	81,538	72,809	9	100,523	49,379	8528	20,496	22,109	79,715	256	
1851-52 ...	97,378	83,028	8	85,314	39,250	8346	20,370	...	1,11,736	123	
1852-53 ...	101,634	85,590	8	81,211	36,891	7334	20,400	...	1,13,816	128	
1853-54 ...	102,364	85,567	222	81,638	37,936	6415	22,884	45	1,16,599	108	
1854-55 ...	111,257	99,545	45	73,298	33,334	9637	22,987	...	1,23,174	126	
1855-56 ...	119,387	94,726	11	65,045	29,465	8031	23,099	...	1,25,755	...	
1856-57 ...	125,397	98,032	...	59,545	26,168	8063	23,073	...	1,28,168	112	
1857-58 ...	130,740	1,02,118	...	54,237	22,197	6875	23,273	...	1,32,268	120	
1858-59 ...	135,297	1,05,023	...	50,870	20,441	6823	23,329	...	1,36,174	108	
1859-60 ...	139,455	1,07,247	...	46,771	18,229	6767	23,527	...	1,37,581	...	
1860-61 ...	147,144	1,11,139	...	39,249	14,478	5683	23,942	...	1,40,804	80	
1861-62 ...	142,996	1,09,012	...	45,622	17,295	7491	27,719	...	1,44,219	...	
1862-63 ...	149,107	1,12,062	...	39,767	14,519	7153	27,446	...	1,46,861	...	
1863-64 ...	151,533	1,17,493	...	27,499	9174	3736	27,449	...	1,52,218	38	
1864-65 ...	154,022	1,18,297	...	25,125	8567	11,093	27,693	...	1,56,993	18	
1865-66 ...	158,217	1,18,009	...	26,054	8896	9840	28,179	...	1,56,028	44	
1866-67 ...	163,250	1,18,035	...	25,983	8856	10410	27,616	...	1,56,061	96	
1867-68 ...	163,239	1,18,021	...	26,014	8884	9774	27,611	...	1,56,406	70	
1868-69 ...	166,446	1,16,863	...	28,832	10,079	8106	27,661	...	1,52,630	112	
1869-70 ...	159,780	1,16,570	...	29,871	10,466	6904	27,686	...	1,50,890	68	
1870-71 ...	159,165	1,16,393	7	30,540	10,693	7786	27,778	...	1,51,950	64	
1871-72 ...	156,823	1,16,326	...	32,934	11,769	5418	27,721	...	1,48,467	76	
1872-73 ...	154,022	1,14,090	...	35,004	13,001	8099	27,724	...	1,43,792	79	
1873-74 ...	154,554	1,14,390	...	35,058	12,770	5149	27,631	...	1,47,089	72	
1874-75 ...	165,998	1,15,146	...	33,946	12,285	5574	27,485	...	1,48,207	49	
1875-76 ...	156,193	1,15,228	...	33,772	12,232	5589	27,553	...	1,48,320	49	
1876-77 ...	155,793	1,15,035	...	26,214	9597	2870	27,593	4756	1,40,747	16	
1877-78 ...	156,913	1,15,245	...	23,834	8929	2014	27,524	10,177	1,34,606	...	
<i>Revision Survey.</i>											
1878-79 ...	147,132	1,55,793	...	36,677	15,567	1693	29,639	4941	1,82,094	...	
1879-80 ...	136,848	1,49,296	...	42,249	23,114	1376	29,610	448	1,79,774	...	
1880-81 ...	134,710	1,46,306	47	50,558	24,344	1363	29,518	162	1,79,028	...	
1881-82 ...	136,381	1,49,122	15,270	50,505	33,764	1458	29,220	4858	1,69,672	...	

In 1878-79 the revised survey settlement was introduced into 247 villages of the old Kod sub-division.² The thirty years' survey settlement had been introduced into 245 of these villages in 1848-49 and into the two remaining villages in 1861-62. At the revision survey 178 of these villages belonged to Kod, twenty-three to Ranebennur, twenty-eight to Karajgi, and eighteen to Hingal. The total area of the sub-division was 334,267

Kod,
1878-79.

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIX. 43-45.

² Col. Anderson, Surv. Comr. 150 of 14th February 1879, Gov. Res. 1678 of 27th March 1879. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX.

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REVISION SURVEY.

Kod,
1878-79.

acres.¹ The old Kod sub-division was the most southern part of the Presidency above the Sahyádris. It formed a projection into Maisur which bounded it on the east south and west separating it from North Kánara and the coast. The north and east of the sub-division had some black cotton land, but the soil was generally gravelly and sandy. The surface was waving and broken by small hills. In the south a well marked chain or ridge of hills 300 to 400 feet high, ran across the sub-division from west to east, beginning on the Maisur border and ending a little short of the Tungbhadra. On the south between Kod and Maisur was a similar and nearly parallel chain. Between these two chains ran a valley four to ten miles wide. Different parts of Kod varied considerably in climate. In the east the rainfall was seldom so heavy as to damage the best dry-crop tillage; further west the rains were heavier and in the extreme west the villages were rice villages. Its southerly as well as its westerly position gave Kod a share both in the south-west and in the north-east monsoon. The south-west was the chief stand-by and rarely failed. In common with the rest of the district, in late April and during May, heavy thunderstorms often several days in succession put water into the ponds and soaking the ground allowed ploughing and other field work to be begun. Hence about nine-tenths of the whole cultivation was early or *kharif*. Entire failure of crops from drought was unknown though it often happened that the monsoon was more favourable for one kind of cultivation than for another. The climate was in general singularly temperate. In March and April beyond a few hours in the middle of the day there was no real heat, and the nights were always cool and pleasantly moist. This and the steady and certain monsoon rainfall were due to the fifty miles of woodland that lay between it and the crest of the Sahyádris. In the east the bulk of the tillage was dry-crop *javari*, cotton, and oilseeds; in the west rice and for dry crop *ragi* instead of *javari* were the main crops. Much sugarcane, the 1876 area was 1262 acres, was grown in the lower rice lands watered from ponds; cocoa and betel palms were also grown in the gardens. Kod's special crop was the red chilly or capsicum which was grown as a dry-crop, sometimes in fields of several acres. No fewer than 1217 ponds were used for irrigation, but few of them were in good repair. Of the total popu-

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 1. The details are :

Kod Area, 1848 and 1878.

LAND.	1848 Survey.	1878 Survey.
	Acres.	Acres.
Dry-crop... ..	237,495	244,650
Rice	86,650	32,553
Garden	1299	1968
Unarable... ..	57,522	55,096
Total	332,957	334,267

The increase in the total arable area and decrease in the unarable was due to the removal of land from unarable to arable in consequence of its being of a quality which could now be cultivated with profit. The decrease in the rice land was due partly to the transfer of a portion to the garden head, but mainly to a transfer from the rice head to that of dry-crop. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 4.

lation of 92,675 about sixty-five per cent were purely agricultural, fourteen per cent were partly agricultural, and twenty-one per cent were non-agricultural.

Returns prepared in 1876 showed 17,018 or 60 per cent Government and 11,354 or 40 per cent alienated survey fields in occupation. Of the Government fields 13,053 or forty-six per cent were tilled by the man who appeared as holder in the Government books, 436 fields or 1·54 per cent were tilled by the occupant in partnership with other persons, and 3529 fields or 12·43 per cent were let to tenants. Of the tenant-tilled holdings 2411 were held on money rents and 1118 on grain-rents, which generally consisted of one-half to one-third of the produce.¹ The registration records seemed to show that private sales of land were less common than in other parts of the district. Prices, though registration prices have to be taken with caution, ranged from five or six to twenty times the assessment. Large sums were advanced on land mortgages. In 1848 at the beginning of the survey settlement the sub-division had not a mile of made road. During the thirty years' lease the opening of the old Bombay-Madras mail road which passed through the north-eastern villages secured communication with Hubli, Dhárwár, and Belgaum to the north and with Maisur to the south. Coastward one line led by Kod, Haunsbhavi, and Tilvalli through Sirsi to Kumta; and a second line from Hirekerur by Sitálkop, a large trade centre about ten miles within the Maisur frontier, by Siddápúr in North Kánara, whence one road went to Sirsi and Kumta and another went down the Gersappa pass to Honávar. Cross roads were numerous. There was no want of good markets both within and at no great distance beyond the boundaries of the sub-division. Tuminkatti, Másur, Chik-Basur, Hirekerur, Chikkerur, Rattihalli, and other minor market towns lay within the sub-division, and Byádgi, Hángal, Háveri, Sirálkop, and Ránebennur were all first class places of trade at no great distance over the border. The manufactures were confined to the usual cotton and woollen hand-loom weaving. Of 437 looms 394 were used for making cotton cloth and forty-three for making blankets.

In 1848-49 Kod was in a state of extraordinary depression, considerably worse than that of the neighbouring parts of Dhárwár. This depression was owing to its isolated position. The neighbourhood of Maisur and the want of roads entirely cut it off from markets. It was not till 1872 that roads were opened from Kod through Maisur territory to North Kánara. But from 1848 lines between Dhárwár and Kánara began to be opened and between 1850 and 1860 much progress was made. Taking the average for three of the chief markets of the sub-division, Kod, Rattihalli, and Hirekerur, the produce prices during the fifty-nine years ending 1876 were for Indian millet or *jeári* 243½ pounds the rupee during the ten years ending 1827, 188½ during the ten years ending 1837, 244 during the ten years ending 1847, 302½ during the ten years ending 1857, 105 during the ten years ending 1867, and 77½ during the nine years ending 1876. The details are:

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¹ Col. Anderson, Surv. Comr. 150 of 14th Feb. 1879, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 13.

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Kod Rattihalli Hirekerur Produce Rupee Prices, 1818-1876.

YEAR.	Rice in Husk.	Jedri.	Nadni.	Coarse Sugar.	Betelnuts.	Cocoanuts per 100.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Rs. s. p.
1818-1827 ...	149	244½	297	60	13½	2 0 0
1828-1837 ...	124	188½	231	44	13	2 2 1
1838-1847 ...	157½	244	307	42½	18½	2 2 0
1848-1857 ...	179	302½	363½	38	11	2 1 11
1858-1867 ...	67½	105	123	17½	8½	3 4 10
1868-1876 ...	47	77½	98	13½	7	3 15 2

The prices of the most valuable and least bulky articles showed a comparatively smaller advance. Cocoanuts and betelnuts had always been in high demand and were easily carried; even in these articles the increase in average price during the nine years ending 1876 compared with the ten years ending 1847 was not less than ninety per cent. In sugar and the different kinds of grain grown in the sub-division the increase in price ranged between 200 and 300 per cent. Even allowing that the prices of the nine years ending 1876 were in the earlier years somewhat influenced by the American war, the existing range of prices was still fully 150 per cent higher than it had been thirty-five years before. Cotton had also risen about 150 per cent.

(Excluding the two lapsed villages into which the survey settlement was introduced in 1861-62, in the 245 Kod villages settled in 1848-49, during the ten years ending 1847 the average occupied area of Government land was only 48,899 acres, that is less than one-third of 150,215 acres the corresponding area of arable waste. The revenue for these ten years averaged £7256 (Rs. 72,560) with average yearly remissions of £503 (Rs. 5030) and average outstandings of £153 (Rs. 1530). In 1847-48 only 38,447 acres were held for tillage and 159,278 arable acres were waste. After the introduction of the settlement the spread of tillage and the increase of revenue from the occupation of waste was steady and without check. The following statement gives the occupied area and revenue for the year 1847-48 and for every fifth year since 1848-49:

Kod Tillage and Revenue, 1847-1878.

YEAR.	Government Occupied Land.	Collec-tions.	YEAR.	Government Occupied Land.	Collec-tions.
	Acres.	Rs.		Acres.	Rs.
1847-48 ...	38,447	61,544	1863-64 ...	174,763	158,058
1848-49 ...	50,585	53,676	1868-69 ...	176,010	158,683
1853-54 ...	89,404	68,026	1873-74 ...	167,100	147,867
1868-69 ...	126,493	116,471	1877-78 ...	171,873	160,427

The increase of the occupied area which took place between 1863-64 and 1868-69 was not maintained. In 1866-67 the occupied area amounted to 183,298 acres. This great tillage area was due to the extremely high price of cotton. Under ordinary prices very little land in Kod grows a paying cotton crop. But prices were then so

high that the poorest crop, not more than eight inches high and with an acre yield of not more than ten pounds, paid. On the fall to normal prices which set in about 1868 some of the poorer land ceased to pay and was thrown up. Still during the four years ending 1878 the area held for tillage was over 170,000 acres a much higher figure than had been reached before the American war. In 1878 an area of 35,121 arable acres bearing a survey assessment of £2199 (Rs. 21,990) remained waste. Much of this land had been waste for generations, and could not be brought under tillage without considerable labour. The following statement shows the ten years' averages of tillage and revenue for the ten years before and the thirty years of the settlement :

Kod Tillage and Revenue, 1838-1878.

YEAR.	Tillage.	Waste.	Collections.	Remissions.	Out-standings.
	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1838-1848	48,999	150,215	72,568	5027	1529
1848-1858	87,865	115,460	86,461	44	2623
1858-1868	162,103	44,978	1,42,328
1868-1878	170,897	85,946	1,49,991	2	36

The total land revenue of the sub-division under every head, Government land assessment quit-rent and grass sales, fell from £10,902 (Rs. 1,09,020) in 1847-48 the year before settlement and rose to £9628 (Rs. 96,280) in 1848-49 the year of settlement, and rose to £20,681 (Rs. 2,06,810) in 1877-78 the last year of the settlement. During the survey lease population increased from 71,693 in 1848 to 92,675 in 1876 or 29·2 per cent; flat roofed and tiled houses from 3416 to 5381 or 57·5 per cent; farm cattle from 29,332 to 36,237 or 23·7 per cent; carts from 1626 to 4503 or 177 per cent; and watering ponds from 1195 to 1217 or 1·9 per cent. On the other hand thatched houses fell from 15,080 to 14,353 or 4·8 per cent; cows and buffaloes from 80,107 to 54,662 or 31·7 per cent; sheep and goats from 17,972 to 14,275 or 20·5 per cent; horses from 823 to 548 or 33·4 per cent; and drinking ponds from 183 to 175 or 4·3 per cent. In the famine year of 1876 the population was 92,675. Though Kod scarcely suffered from local failure of crops, the high price of grain forced perhaps two or three thousand of the poorer classes to leave the district in search of work. The increase in the population had not been great, only twenty-nine per cent in the thirty years. This, in Colonel Anderson's opinion, was chiefly due to epidemics of cholera which generally once in five years caused a large number of deaths. The increase in houses of the better class and in farm cattle proved a very considerable accumulation of agricultural capital. The decrease in cows and buffaloes and in sheep and goats was caused by the spread of tillage. The great increase in carts was an evidence of the development of trade. The carts were used in field work, but their chief object was to carry produce to market. Most of the watering ponds were very small; many of them did not water more than one or two fields. All over the country remains of embankments showed that at some former time not a single suitable

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site had remained unused. Of 2859 watering and drinking wells 653 had been made during the survey lease. During the three years ending 1876-77 in seventy-four villages an average of 182 notices to pay rent had been issued.¹ This Colonel Anderson thought was not excessive in a sub-division which was bounded by foreign territory separated by an artificial boundary. In 1879 the people seemed well-to-do. They enjoyed a climate above the ordinary risks of drought; their lands yielded a great variety of products many of which were always in demand at good prices; they had fair outlets for their produce to the coast and in other directions, and for thirty years had enjoyed a very moderate assessment. Especially in dry crop land the tillage was more careless than in almost any part of Dhárwár. Waste grass patches in a field supposed to be tilled were not uncommon. This roughness and imperfection were due to the very rapid spread of tillage and had been encouraged by the extremely low assessment. The thirty years' lease had raised the subdivision from a state of extreme depression to a state of extreme prosperity. In the south of the sub-division a good deal of hilly and broken ground at the time of the first survey had been measured with the cross staff and chain. In spite of this the total area under the two surveys showed a difference only from 332,957 to 334,267 acres. Though the gross area of the two surveys corresponded so closely some considerable differences occurred in detail. The Tungbhadra formed the eastern boundary for a distance of some twelve miles. This large river was subject to great floods, which often removed the boundary marks and both added to and took away land from neighbouring fields. The very numerous ponds were another cause of considerable changes in the areas of fields above them. The former survey showed 22,606 fields. In the revision survey the sub-division of large numbers and the making separate occupancies into separate survey numbers raised the whole number to 32,689 survey fields. Of the 22,606 old survey fields, the difference between the areas of the two surveys was within five per cent in 21,157, between five and ten per cent in 967, between ten and fifteen per cent in 268, between fifteen and twenty per cent in 90, and over twenty per cent in 124. As in other revised blocks the classing of land was changed no more than was required to obtain a base of assessment in accordance with the revision standard. As a rule fifteen per cent of the better drycrop and twenty-five per cent of the poorer soils were reclassified. More was done if the reclassified percentage showed that more was required. In watered land when the area of rice lands in a survey field differed one-half to one-third from the former area, the soil was reclassified. When the difference was less than one-third the old classification was confirmed with whatever adjustment the general examination of the soil classification of the village showed to be necessary. The changes in the water-supply during the thirty years' lease made a complete reclassing

¹ To collect the revenue, in 1874-75 forty-eight villages had 56 notices and one distraint; in 1875-76 sixty-five villages had 75 notices and 10 distraints; and in 1876-77 109 villages had 415 notices and 9 distraints. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 18.

everywhere necessary. Less soil had to be reclassified than in most revisions. Except that it had not allowed interval enough between the better and the poorer soil, the former classing was good. In entirely reclassified land, where the new classing was much higher than the former classing, a reduction of an eighth (2 *as.*) was made. In the 1848-49 settlement Captain Wingate divided the villages into four classes with highest dry-crop acre rates ranging from 2*s.* 9*d.* to 1*s.* 6½*d.* (Rs. 1¾ - 12½ *as.*) These classes divided the sub-division north-west and south-east into four parallel strips according to the variation of the rainfall from west to east. Under the revision survey the sub-division was divided into five classes instead of four. In making the five new classes the general idea of the original grouping was kept, but some detail changes had become necessary chiefly from the opening of roads and markets. In the first class, with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 4*s.* (Rs. 2), were placed twenty-three villages forming a projection in the extreme north-east of the sub-division, and having a moderate rainfall favourable for good dry-crop cultivation. In the second class, with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 3*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. 1¾), were placed eighty-nine villages forming the general north-eastern portion of the sub-division. The rainfall in these villages was not too heavy for good dry-crop tillage, though it was somewhat less suited than the climate of the first class. The villages were also worse off for communications. In the third class, with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 3*s.* (Rs. 1½), were eighty-seven villages to the south-west of the second class, and somewhat inferior in dry-crop climate and in communications. In the fourth class, with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* (Rs. 1¼), were placed the forty-four western villages either with too heavy a rainfall for dry crops or difficult to get at because of hills. In the fifth class, with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 2*s.* 3*d.* (Rs. 1¼), were placed four villages in the extreme south-west corner of the sub-division. They formed two projections into Maisur and both in regard to rain and to roads were less suited for dry-crop tillage than the neighbouring villages to the east. The highest acre rates proposed for rice lands were 16*s.* (Rs. 8) for the villages of the first three dry-crop classes, and 15*s.* (Rs. 7½) for those of the remaining two classes. The entire Government and alienated occupied and unoccupied rice land, according to the revision survey, was 32,553 acres. Of these the Government occupied land was 19,926 acres. Their assessment at the proposed rates gave an average acre rate of 6*s.* 4½*d.* (Rs. 3 *as.* 3½) against 4*s.* 1½*d.* (Rs. 2 *as.* 1½), the average rate of the rice land under the former settlement. For the garden lands the highest acre rate proposed was £1 10*s.* (Rs. 15). The entire garden lands were 1968 acres of which 1307 acres were Government occupied land. Their assessment at the proposed rates gave an average acre rate of 13*s.* 9*d.* (Rs. 6¾), against the former average of 12*s.* 11*d.* (Rs. 6 *as.* 7½) on an area of 833 acres. The following statement shows the effect of the revision settlement :

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CLASS.	Vil- lages.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.							
		Government Occupied.		Government Occupied.		Government Unoccupied.		Total.		Highest Dry-crop Acre Bate.	In-crease Per cent.
		Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.		
		Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Bs. a.	
I.	23	15,900	13,397	16,048	19,573	2986	1670	18,984	21,243	2 0	46.1
II.	89	69,452	56,234	70,173	78,194	13,516	9840	83,689	87,534	1 12	39.0
III.	87	58,301	58,412	59,054	74,124	12,802	10,852	71,656	84,976	1 8	38.8
IV.	44	26,768	26,401	26,866	36,750	5883	4396	32,254	40,149	1 4	35.4
V.	4	2237	1589	2389	2223	1569	1023	3958	3,251	1 2	39.9
Total	247	172,668	1,51,038	174,530	2,09,884	36,011	27,289	210,541	2,37,158	...	39.0

The total increase of revenue from the land in occupation in 1876-77 was £5883 (Rs. 58,830) or thirty-nine per cent. In two cases the increase was over 100 per cent. The village of Basrihalli was raised 103.6 per cent from a total of £44 8s. to a total of £90 8s. (Rs. 444 - 904). This increase was chiefly on the watered area, £18 to £49 (Rs. 180 - 490) a rise of nearly 200 per cent, from the increased valuation of irrigation entirely due to the reservoir being turned to better account than formerly. The second case was the village of Byathanhal which was raised 140.2 per cent. Here the rice land recorded at the first settlement was ninety acres with an assessment of £19 (Rs. 190). Now 135 acres of rice land were assessed at £56 4s. (Rs. 562), which, with the additional water assessment, accounted for the large increase. In two cases the increase of assessment was between 90 and 100 per cent. In Konápur the rise was from £6 6s. (Rs. 63) to £12 8s. (Rs. 124) or 96.8 per cent; this was chiefly due to the correcting of a former error in area. The second case of increase between 90 and 100 per cent was the village of Basápur where the increase was from £13 16s. to £27 6s. (Rs. 138 - 273) or 97.8. In eleven cases the increase was between sixty and ninety per cent. A considerable area of Government arable land was still waste. The details are :

Kod Waste Land, 1878.

LAND.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.	
	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.
	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.
Dry-crop	83,216	17,847	84,714	23,543
Rice	1894	3984	1235	3686
Garden	25	165	12	80
Total	85,134	21,996	86,011	27,289

The increase in the total area of unoccupied arable waste land was due to lands formerly classed as unarable being classed as arable. The bulk of the large area of the drycrop arable waste was poor uplands which for long were likely to be held only for grazing. The following statement shows the total area and assessment of the whole survey block of 247 Government villages of the old Kod sub-division :

Kod Land Area and Assessment, 1878-79.

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LAND.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.		Quit-Rent.
	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	
	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.
Government ... { Occupied ...	172,668	1,51,033	174,530	2,09,364	...
... { Unoccupied ...	35,124	21,966	38,011	27,289	...
Alienated ...	67,643	75,174	88,630	1,08,072	45,706
Government Unarable ...	57,522	...	56,095
Total ...	332,957	2,48,203	334,267	3,40,325	45,706

On the whole occupied Government land under every head, garden rice and dry crop, the assessment of the former settlement showed an average acre rate of 1s. 9d. (14 as.); under the proposed settlement the average acre rate would be 2s. 4½d. (Re. 1 as. 3½), an acre increase of 7½d. (5½ as.). The proposed settlement was sanctioned by Government in March 1879.¹ It was introduced into fifty-one villages in 1878-79 and into the remaining 196 villages in 1879-80.

During the ten years before the original survey settlement (1838-48), in 245 Kod villages the tillage area fell from about 58,000 acres in 1838-39 to about 33,000 acres in 1847-48, and collections from about £17,000 to about £10,900 (Rs. 1,70,000 - Rs. 1,09,000). During the first ten years of the survey lease (1848-1858) the tillage area rose from about 50,000 acres in 1848-49 to about 121,000 acres in 1857-58, and collections from about £9,600 to about £15,700 (Rs. 96,000 - Rs. 1,57,000); during the next ten years (1858-1868), the tillage area rose from about 126,000 acres in 1858-59 to about 182,000 acres in 1867-68 and collections from about £16,000 to about £21,200 (Rs. 1,60,000 - Rs. 2,12,000); and during the last ten years (1868-1878) the tillage area varied from about 176,000 acres in 1868-69 to about 166,000 in 1872-73, and collections from about £20,800 to about £19,900 (Rs. 2,08,000 - Rs. 1,99,000). During the four years after the revision settlement (1878-1882), the tillage area fell from about 170,000 acres in 1878-79 to about 165,000 acres in 1881-82, and collections varied from about £25,200 in 1879-80 to about £21,000 in 1881-82 (Rs. 2,52,000 - Rs. 2,10,000). The details are²:

Kod, 245 Villages: Survey Results, 1838-1882.

YEAR.	TILLAGE.			WASTE.			Quit Rent.	Out-standings.	Collections.	Jedra Rupee Prices
	Area.	Rental.	Re-missions.	Area.	Rental.	Grazing Fees.				
<i>Before Survey.</i>	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Lbs.
1838-39 ...	55,258	94,397	21,094	137,981	60,554	216	43,601	1611	1,69,509	213
1839-40 ...	57,300	89,096	4982	139,690	61,938	1737	59,460	2103	1,43,208	240
1840-41 ...	55,696	89,858	2673	140,693	62,197	1611	50,389	2240	1,35,840	240
1841-42 ...	55,312	90,383	3248	141,107	62,120	754	50,655	2148	1,36,398	241
1842-43 ...	52,325	89,709	6641	146,237	65,454	595	48,489	1141	1,29,011	238
1843-44 ...	45,212	74,777	971	151,132	72,872	126	47,291	4422	1,16,801	243
1844-45 ...	39,574	64,659	1029	162,269	78,727	293	41,600	456	1,05,067	243
1845-46 ...	37,719	60,594	7720	164,260	79,798	7931	36,857	516	96,429	324
1846-47 ...	48,949	62,993	1006	158,452	81,657	8458	39,963	571	1,08,937	324
1847-48 ...	38,447	62,446	901	159,278	82,708	8380	39,093	87	1,08,930	330

¹ Colonel Anderson, Survey Commissioner, 150 of 14th February 1879, and Gov. Res. 1678 of 27th March 1879, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 1-36, 192-202.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLX. 37-41.

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YEAR.	TILLAGE.			WASTE.			Quit-Rent.	Out-standings.	Collections.	Jedri Rupee Prices.
	Area.	Rental.	Remissions.	Area.	Rental.	Grazing Fees.				
Survey.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Ra.	Rs.	Lbs.
1848-49	50,535	53,877	201	139,276	97,288	8308	34,300	265	96,019	820
1849-50	67,835	72,199	40	133,623	93,131	12,976	30,002	3	1,13,134	320
1850-51	71,919	74,169	87	131,054	93,084	12,419	28,308	25,706	89,123	320
1851-52	81,714	82,114	67	121,763	85,573	11,774	28,011	1	1,21,831	3-6
1852-53	86,478	85,870	68	117,391	82,816	12,256	27,166	...	1,25,224	320
1853-54	39,404	88,026	...	114,985	90,648	14,524	33,049	248	1,35,351	310
1854-55	93,737	91,921	...	112,056	79,118	15,123	31,550	5	1,38,589	276
1855-56	100,937	97,151	...	105,745	74,319	14,967	31,476	...	1,43,594	290
1856-57	115,362	1,07,411	...	91,445	64,136	13,803	31,830	...	1,53,044	260
1857-58	120,671	1,12,315	...	86,164	59,249	12,645	32,124	...	1,57,064	243
1858-59	126,493	1,16,471	...	80,432	55,170	11,596	32,176	...	1,60,243	212
1859-60	135,948	1,23,828	...	71,000	47,875	11,259	36,100	...	1,71,167	308
1860-61	151,533	1,34,935	...	55,133	36,045	9462	35,040	...	1,79,435	128
1861-62	147,063	1,32,463	...	62,257	39,397	11,483	42,214	...	1,86,172	76
1862-63	156,665	1,41,150	...	59,673	32,459	10,086	42,136	...	1,93,372	36
1863-64	174,763	1,53,058	...	32,531	20,610	8548	42,185	...	2,03,791	38
1864-65	181,593	1,55,847	...	25,571	16,452	12,966	42,275	...	2,11,118	46
1865-66	181,420	1,55,951	...	25,427	16,140	11,446	42,187	...	2,09,584	52
1866-67	183,248	1,57,434	...	23,749	14,755	13,183	42,186	...	2,12,802	82
1867-68	182,249	1,57,125	...	24,798	14,962	12,365	42,067	...	2,11,557	98
1868-69	176,010	1,53,683	...	31,036	18,504	12,191	42,046	...	2,07,920	146
1869-70	172,949	1,51,334	...	34,109	20,747	11,474	42,011	...	2,04,819	72
1870-71	172,750	1,51,490	...	34,308	20,889	11,583	42,006	...	2,05,073	73
1871-72	169,611	1,49,126	...	37,465	22,903	9705	41,912	23	2,00,720	72
1872-73	165,748	1,46,571	...	41,325	25,586	10,758	41,838	...	1,99,161	72
1873-74	167,100	1,47,867	...	39,388	24,198	10,652	41,828	...	2,00,347	80
1874-75	170,323	1,49,721	...	36,202	22,109	10,122	41,824	...	2,01,667	60
1875-76	171,648	1,50,183	19	34,888	21,676	9989	41,781	...	2,01,934	67
1876-77	170,967	1,49,534	3	35,170	22,247	9737	41,753	237	2,00,804	...
1877-78	171,873	1,50,427	...	35,121	21,991	10,977	45,410	...	2,06,314	...
<i>Revision Survey.</i>										
1878-79	169,673	1,61,390	...	37,386	24,143	3713	42,399	1008	2,11,494	...
1879-80	167,206	2,02,083	...	41,0-2	32,503	5629	44,635	552	2,51,790	...
1880-81	165,771	2,00,367	96	43,322	35,234	5129	45,168	410	2,50,220	...
1881-82	164,850	1,99,381	34,244	44,421	36,453	4137	43,504	2709	2,10,069	...

Dhárwár,
1879-80.

In 1879 the settlement of the 134 villages of Dhárwár was revised.¹ Since the 1848-49 settlement the Dhárwár villages had been distributed. In 1879 two belonged to Kalghatgi, two to Parasgad in Belgaum, one to Hubli, and 129 to Dhárwár. The total area was 207,748 acres.² The old Dhárwár sub-division formed the

¹ Colonel Anderson, Surv. Comr. 374 of 19th April 1879 and Gov. Res. 2769 of 27th May 1879. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXI.

² The details are : Dhárwár Area, 1348 and 1878.

LAND.		Former Survey.	Revision Survey.
Arable.	Dry-crop	162,295	151,970
	Rice	12,797	14,647
	Garden	561	966
Unarable	...	31,263	37,821
Municipal	2224
Total		206,916	207,748

Considering how much hill and forest land lay in the west of the sub-division the increase in the total area was small. The considerable increase in unarable unassessed land was chiefly due to the inclusion of assessed lands in forest reserves. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXI. 2.

extreme north-west of the collectorate. The Dhárwár-Hubli road running north-east and south-west divided it into two very different sections. The country to the north-east was a waving plain with occasional small hills, in general a drycrop tract containing a large proportion of black cotton soil. The land to the south-west was full of hills and forest in the main of red soil, the regular rice country which is locally known as *malnáá*. During the eleven years ending 1878 at Dhárwár the rainfall varied from 47·98 to 26·28 and averaged 31·92 inches, and at Mugad it varied from 50·78 to 23·28 and averaged 34·71 inches.¹ The climate varied greatly in different parts of the subdivision. The east with a certain and fairly regular rainfall was admirably suited to drycrop tillage. As a rule during the month of May a succession of heavy thunderstorms thoroughly soaked the ground and allowed ploughing and other field work to begin in preparation for the regular south-west monsoon in June. In the end of October, after the setting in of the north-east or Madras monsoon, a very heavy fall of rain generally afforded a second chance in case the south-west monsoon happened to fail. In most years the rainfall in May and in October was greater than that of any other two months of the year. From the Belgaum road the rainfall increased with every mile to the west, till, near the western boundary, during the monsoon months it was fully fifty per cent heavier than at Dhárwár. In the west the constant succession of hill and dale was very favourable for rice, the drainage of the hill sides keeping the lowlands well supplied with water. The east of the sub-division was in the main a drycrop tract and *javári*, wheat, pulse, cotton, and oil seeds were the staple crops. Less than the whole area of cotton soil was given to cotton, as from the nearness of Dhárwár and still more because of the value of its straw as fodder for cartmen, Indian millet was a better paying crop than cotton. In the west, though Indian millet was still occasionally seen, *rági* took its place as a drycrop and rice became the staple. In low lying rice lands with a sufficient supply of moisture, sugarcane was commonly grown once every three years, and in other years a crop of pulse generally followed the rice. The land was generally well tilled, and, as far as it was available, manure was given first to the rice land and then to the drycrop soil. The garden lands were of comparatively small importance. As in other parts of northern Dhárwár, the areca palm and betel vine gardens of the south

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1879-80.¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXL 67. The details are :

Dhárwár Rainfall, 1868-1878.

YEAR.	Dhárwár	Mugad.	YEAR.	Dhárwár	Mugad.
	Inches.	Inches.		Inches.	Inches.
1868	31·46	...	1874	47·98	42·51
1869	29·70	29·81	1875	30·61	35·79
1870	32·54	...	1876	24·05	28·28
1871	29·37	38·00	1877	31·66	35·71
1872	30·16	31·19	1878	39·35	50·78
1873	26·28	30·33	Average ...	31·92	34·71

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gave way to sugarcane, fruit trees, and vegetables with a sprinkling of cocoa palms. On an average, between 1874 and 1878, 68,591 acres or 59·37 per cent of Government occupied land were under early or *kharif* crops, and 46,947 acres or 40·63 per cent were under late or *rabi* crops.¹ Of the total survey numbers 10,937 or 72·13 per cent were Government and 4225 or 27·87 per cent were alienated. Of the Government numbers, 6963 or 45·92 per cent were tilled by the occupants, that is the men whose names were entered in the Government books, 127 or 0·84 per cent were tilled by occupants in partnership with others, 1742 or 11·49 per cent were tilled by tenants on money rents, and 1210 or 7·98 per cent were tilled by tenants on produce or grain rents. Of the private or *inám* numbers, 1550 or 10·22 per cent were tilled by the proprietors or *inámdárs*, 66 or 0·44 per cent by proprietors in partnership with others, 2078 or 13·71 per cent were tilled by tenants for a money rent, and 531 or 3·50 per cent by tenants for a produce or grain rent. Of the remaining numbers 441 or 2·91 per cent were waste, and 454 or 2·99 per cent were *parampok* or unarable numbers. Taking the two classes of land together these returns give 63½ per cent tilled by the person holding directly under Government and 36½ per cent by others. The large area of tenant-tilled land, about eleven per cent above the average, was probably due to the neighbourhood of Dhárwár some of whose traders and gentry held large areas of land. The conditions in this Dhárwár sub-division differed from the conditions in most parts of the district. The two large towns of Dhárwár and Hubli were a peculiar feature, and scattered through the population was a large trading class anxious to own land. Considering that nearly half of the people 46·49 per cent were traders or craftsmen it was remarkable that a larger proportion of the land had not passed from the field working classes. The land in this subdivision possessed an exceedingly high value both for sale and as security for loans. As was to be expected in a country where the trading class was strong, and where a strong trading spirit pervaded the whole population, the cases of sales mortgages and leases of land recorded at the registration office were very numerous. The terms of sale mortgage and lease varied much. In sales ten to twenty times the survey assessment was a common rate and far higher rates were frequently recorded. Here as everywhere the thirty years of the survey settlement had seen a great change in communications. In 1848 there was but one made road in the sub-division that ran from Hubli to Belgaum. It passed through the town of Dhárwár and supplied the only communication by road with the coast by Belgaum

¹ The details are : *Kharif*, rice 11,150 acres or 9·65 per cent, *jadri* 34,330 or 29·71 per cent, *báji* 285 or 0·25 per cent, *tur* 4087 or 3·54 per cent, *mug* 1063 or 0·92 per cent, *tíl* 130 or 0·11 per cent, *rála* 1824 or 1·58 per cent, castor seed 1449 or 1·25 per cent, *kulthi* 1301 or 1·13 per cent, *udid* 24 or 0·02 per cent, tobacco 264 or 0·23 per cent, miscellaneous 12,684 or 10·97 per cent, total 68,591 or 59·37 per cent. *Rabi*, American cotton 853 or 0·74 per cent, country cotton 10,062 or 8·70 per cent, gram 2453 or 2·12 per cent, wheat 8846 or 7·66 per cent, sugarcane 158 or 0·14 per cent, *kusumba* 1532 or 1·33 per cent, linseed 76 or 0·07 per cent, cocoanut plantain and other fruits 21 or 0·02 per cent, miscellaneous 850 or 0·74 per cent, waste and fallow 22,096 or 19·12 per cent, total 46,947 or 40·63 per cent. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXI. 68.

and the old Rám pass which in many parts had a slope probably fully one in six. Soon after (1848-49) measures were taken to open communications with Kumta. In 1879 there were three ports on the coast immediately below Dhárwár accessible by good passes and roads, Kumta by the Árbail and Devimani passes, Kárwár by the Árbail pass, and Goa by the Tinai pass, a line of little trade. Local cross roads had also been made in every direction in which the country tracks were not easily passable to carts. The sub-division was well supplied with markets. Dhárwár with over 23,000 people was an exceedingly good market and other second class towns were scattered at convenient distances. Hubli one of the largest trading towns in the Bombay Karnátak was only twelve miles from Dhárwár and only six miles from the south-eastern villages of the subdivision. The local manufactures were of no great consequence, 733 looms were employed in weaving cotton cloth and blankets. Except for show purposes local hand-woven cotton cloth held its own with steam-woven Bombay and English cloth. Produce prices between 1848 and 1878 showed that during the ten years ending 1857 *juári* rupee prices averaged 122 pounds, in the ten years ending 1867 the average rose to 60 pounds, in the ten years ending 1877 to 52 pounds, and in 1878 the price was 20 pounds the rupee. The details are :

Dhárwár Grain Rupee Prices, 1848-1878.

YEAR.	Jodri.	Cleaned Rice.	Wheat.	Náchni.	Gram.	Tur.
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
1848-1857 ...	122	64	88	139	60	82
1858-1867 ...	60	80	46	70	80	42
1868-1877 ...	52	26	80	62	22	30
1878 ...	20	10	10	28	14	22

The high American war prices of 1862-1865 were reached, and in a few cases slightly exceeded, during the famine year of 1877. Leaving out 1877 the average of the ten years ending 1878 showed a rise, during the thirty years of the survey lease, in the price of cereals of 107 to 206 per cent and in pulses of 173 per cent. Compared with those of the ten years ending 1857 the average produce prices of the ten years ending 1877 were considerably over 100 per cent higher.

The Dhárwár sub-division differed from several of the lately revised sub-divisions because in 1848 at the time of the former settlement and for a long time before, it had an ample population, contained at least one large town with other towns near, and had a military cantonment. So large a non-producing population ensured a good demand for all articles of every-day use. In spite of these advantages in 1847-48 the year before the introduction of the first settlement, of the arable land only 64,044 acres were occupied, and 58,217 acres were waste. The unoccupied arable area fell to 8060 acres in 1856-57 and to 4758 acres in 1878.¹ In 1879 most of the

¹ The detailed yearly tillage and revenue statement given below shows for 1877-78 instead of 4758 acres 13,818 acres of unoccupied arable land. The explanation is that much of the 13,818 acres had from time to time been included in forest reserves which the revision survey excludes from the assessable area. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXI. 10.

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arable waste was in the west where was a considerable area of poor hill land. Remissions, which were very large before the first settlement, for twenty years had practically ceased, and, except during and after the 1876 famine, for twenty-five years outstandings had been practically unknown. During the ten years ending 1847-48 collections ranged from £12,000 to £13,000 (Rs. 1,20,000-Rs. 1,30,000), and in the two years ending 1847-48 they were £14,300 and £15,200 (Rs. 1,43,000 and Rs. 1,52,000). In 1847-48 the first year of the settlement £9027 (Rs. 90,270) only were collected. From this the revenue steadily rose to £17,786 (Rs. 1,77,860) in 1865-66. After 1865 came a slight fall. Still in the ten years ending 1878-79 the collections from Government occupied land ranged between £13,300 and £13,400 (Rs. 1,33,000 and Rs. 1,34,000). The two famine years 1876-77 and 1877-78 were years of considerable pressure on the poorer classes. In 1876-77 in ninety-nine villages 1412 notices were issued and sixteen cases of distraint occurred. In 1877-78 in ninety-one villages 996 notices were issued and there were thirty-seven distraints. Considering that many of the villages were on the frontier and that much of the land was held by people who lived beyond the frontier, these numbers for a year of such exceedingly high prices were not excessive. The corresponding figures for 1875-76, which may be considered a normal year, were that in sixty-four villages 228 notices were issued and four distraints were made. The following statement shows the average tillage and revenue in 133 villages of this old Dhárwár sub-division during each period of ten years between 1838 and 1878 :

Dhárwár Tillage and Land Revenue, 1838-1878.

YEAR.	Government Occupied Land.	Government Arable Waste.	Collections on Government Land.	Remissions.	Total Collections.	Outstandings.
<i>Before Survey.</i>	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1838-1848 ...	57,827	60,479	96,464	16,664	1,27,222	329
<i>Survey.</i>						
1848-1858 ...	97,180	21,226	1,15,719	228	1,46,825	6488
1858-1868 ...	116,964	7254	13,803	26	1,74,196	3
1868-1878 ...	113,984	12,526	1,33,976	23	1,69,419	513

During the thirty years ending 1878 flat roofed and tiled houses increased from 7589 to 14,708 or 93·8 per cent; carts from 2138 to 3131 or 46·44 per cent; wells and waterlifts or *budkis* from 845 to 1172 or 38·7 per cent; and ponds from 175 to 200 or 14·29 per cent. Population showed a decrease from 84,872 to 79,414 or 6·43 per cent; thatched houses from 8465 to 4046 or 52·2 per cent; farm cattle from 22,646 to 15,920 or 29·7 per cent; cows and buffaloes from 42,333 to 20,073 or 52·58 per cent; sheep and goats from 12,081 to 4865 or 59·73 per cent; and horses from 1299 to 519 or 60 per cent. In 1848 the population was 261·5 to the square mile a very high rate for those times. In 1878 it was 244·7 to the square mile. The decrease of 6½ per cent in the population was ascribed to a bad type of fever which had been prevalent in these

villages since 1860. Except by forcing craftsmen and labourers to leave their homes in search of work it was believed that the decrease was not due to the 1876 and 1877 famine.¹ The increase of 93 per cent in flat roofed and tiled and the decrease of 52 per cent in thatched houses showed what an advance the bulk of the people had made in comfort. The decrease in cattle was more apparent than real. The reckoning was made during the fair season when large numbers of cattle were absent from their villages, some employed in the carrying trade and others sent to the western forests to graze. The increase of 46 per cent in carts, was a proof that the cattle power of the sub-division had been materially strengthened. A decrease in other cattle had been caused by the increased cost of grazing and fodder. Here as every where in Dhárwár, sheep and goats showed a great decrease. The fall in the number of horses and ponies, according to Colonel Anderson, was due to the number of roads which made the well-to-do travel in vehicles instead of on horseback. The increase of wells from 845 to 1172 was fair, considering the thickness of the waterless surface layer. The rise from 175 to 200 ponds was due to the repair of ponds which had been breached in 1848. Especially in the centre and eastern or black plains, the condition of the people was exceedingly good. The western villages were not so well off though compared with their state in 1848 the advance in the western villages had probably been greater than in the centre and east.²

As in Bankápur lands were remeasured with the object of turning every separately recognized occupancy into a separate survey number; of, as far as possible, separating alienated from Government land; and of dividing unwieldy survey numbers into moderate and manageable fields. With these objects the local survey numbers had been raised from 11,760 to 15,102. The total area was 207,748 acres against 206,916 acres according to the former survey. Though the general result of the two surveys was so close, considerable differences were found in individual survey numbers. No less than 7½ per cent of the measurements differed by more than five per cent from the areas of the old survey. As in other parts of Dhárwár the reclassing was only partial. Only a small percentage of the better drycrop soils was reclassified and a larger percentage of the poorer soils enough to enable the survey officers to judge of the standard of the former classing, and to ascertain what adjustment was necessary to bring the former classing to the revision standard. The revision standard differed from the former standard chiefly by placing a greater difference between the better and the poorer soils. If the result of the area reclassified in the first instance proved unsatisfactory, a further area or if necessary the whole village was reclassified. As in other parts of the district, changes in the condition of the reservoirs made a reclassing of water rates necessary. Considering the improvement in communications and the rise of about 100 per

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¹ Colonel Anderson (Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXI. 7) thought migration to Bidi in Belgaum and to Kánara had helped the decrease. In this view Mr. Reid the Rev. Comr. (949, 17th May 1879, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXI. 84) did not agree.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXI. 12.

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cent in produce prices, the landholders could fairly be called on to pay a considerably enhanced rental. The 134 villages were arranged in six classes with highest drycrop acre rates varying from 6s. to 2s. 6d. (Rs. 3-1½). The villages of the fifth and sixth classes had gained more than any other part of the sub-division by the making of roads. In former times the western villages were without a single mile of made road and were almost entirely cut off from any leading market. In the first class, with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 6s. (Rs. 3), fourteen villages were placed comprising the town of Dhárwār and the villages round it. In the second class, with a highest dry crop acre rate of 5s. 3d. (Rs. 2½), were fifty-one villages including the whole eastern half of the sub-division. In the third class, with a highest dry-crop acre rate of 4s. 9d. (Rs. 2½), were twenty-four villages close to the west of the Belgaum road and to the west of the second class and also containing three villages somewhat far to the east. In the fourth class, with a highest dry crop acre rate of 4s. (Rs. 2) were nineteen villages to the west of the third class and with a climate less favourable for dry crops. In the fifth class, with a highest drycrop acre rate of 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½), were eighteen villages still to the west of the fourth class with a climate still less favourable for dry crops. In the sixth class, with a highest dry crop acre rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1½), were eight villages on the extreme western border of the sub-division in a climate which was badly suited for dry crop tillage. Under the 1848 settlement the rice lands which measured 12,797 acres were assessed at highest acre rates of 16s. (Rs. 8) in the villages of the first five classes, and at 14s. (Rs. 7) in the villages of the two remaining classes. At that time the occupied area of this land was 8281 acres which gave an average acre rate of 5s. 2½d. (Rs. 2 as. 9½). Under the revision survey the rice land measured 14,647 acres for which the highest acre rates proposed were 18s. (Rs. 9) in villages of the first and second classes, 16s. (Rs. 8) in villages of the third and fourth classes, and 15s. (Rs. 7½) in villages of the fifth and sixth classes. The occupied area of the rice land was 10,214 acres which at the proposed rates gave an average acre rate of 5s. 6½d. (Rs. 2 as. 12½). Under the 1848 settlement 561 acres were recorded as garden land of which 359 acres belonged to Government. Under the revision survey the total garden land was 986 acres of which 658 acres were Government. Most of it was watered from reservoirs and a small portion from stream channels. None of the garden land was specially rich. It did not materially differ from the best rice land, sugarcane being generally the best crop grown. For this garden land the highest acre rate proposed was 18s. (Rs. 9). The average acre rate was estimated at 8s. 9½d. (Rs. 4 as. 6½) against the old average of 7s. 9½d. (Rs. 3 as. 14½). Lands watered from wells were treated in the manner directed by Government Resolution 1028 of 25th February 1874. Those under wells existing at the time of the first settlement were assessed within the highest drycrop rate, and those lands which were under wells constructed since the last settlement were assessed at the simple dry crop rate. The lands under wells which drew their water from soakage from Government reservoirs were as usual assessed at rates not exceeding double the ordinary dry crop rate. The effect of the

revised settlement was to raise the assessment 39·8 per cent. The details are :

Dhárwár Revision Settlement, 1879-80.

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Class.	Villages.	FORMER SURVEY.				REVISION SURVEY.							
		Government Occupied Land.		Government Occupied Land.		Government Unoccupied Land.		Total.		In-crease Per cent.	Highest Acre Rate.		
		Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.		Dry-crop.	Rice.	
		Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.	
I	14	13,347	20,499	13,419	32,723	48	57	13,457	32,779	59·7	3	9	
II	51	53,032	70,088	52,028	96,731	654	355	52,682	97,086	38·6	2½	9	
III	24	19,628	19,807	19,469	27,746	697	433	20,165	28,177	40·1	2½	8	
IV	19	12,654	14,998	12,874	16,949	1148	731	14,022	17,680	30·3	3	8	
V	13	14,324	11,709	14,673	16,257	1745	1443	16,418	17,705	38·8	1½	7½	
VI	8	2778	2223	2805	2995	566	517	3371	3512	34·2	1½	7½	
Total	184	115,793	1,30,243	115,268	1,93,400	4758	3539	120,026	1,96,939	39·8	

The estimated increase of revenue resulting from the revision was £5506 (Rs. 55,060) or 39·8 per cent. This increase was a little less than what was obtained in the neighbouring sub-divisions in the north and centre of the district which had been settled three and four years before. This was not due to a lower revision standard but because the former Dhárwár rates were higher than those in neighbouring sub-divisions. There was a singular absence of cases of remarkable increase of assessment on individual villages. In the first class two villages had been raised between 70 and 80 per cent. Dandikop a village with good soil close to the town of Dhárwár was raised 72 per cent and Bagtaláv, which was not a village but a parcel of about seven acres close to Dhárwár, was raised 78·6 per cent. Six of the seven acres were garden land under a very good pond and the rental was raised from £2 16s. to £5 (Rs. 28·50) in consequence of a higher valuation of the water-supply. The only other cases of over 70 per cent increase were two villages in the sixth class. In both these villages there was a very large increase of rice land. Dabinkodla which was raised 129 per cent, had formerly but one acre assessed at 4s. (Rs. 2) while at the revision it had fourteen acres assessed at £4 4s. (Rs. 42), and the whole new rental of the occupied lands, 53 acres, of the village was £7 2s. (Rs. 71) against £3 2s. (Rs. 31) on the same area under the 1848 settlement. In Dhopenhatti which was raised 70·2 per cent or from £18 2s. (Rs. 181) on 298 acres to £30 16s. (Rs. 308) on 324 acres, there were formerly sixteen acres of rice land assessed at £3 18s. (Rs. 39), while according to the revision survey there were forty-seven acres assessed at £11 8s. (Rs. 114). The higher rates in these villages were due to increased water assessment. The 4758 acres of arable waste assessed under the revision settlement at £354 (Rs. 3540) were as a rule scattered in small areas over different villages. The greatest part of the waste was in the fourth and fifth classes and mostly comprised hill lands which were more suited for grazing than for tillage. Near Dhárwár much land was permanently occupied and used solely for grazing. In the more remote parts, where the demand for land was not so great, people wanting grazing lands preferred to take their chance at the yearly auction. To make

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it easier to take it up, all waste rice land was broken into small survey numbers. The following statement shows the total area and the assessment of the sub-division under every head :

Dhárwār Survey Settlements, 1849 and 1879.

LAND.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.			
	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Quit-rent.	
	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	
Government. {	Occupied ...	115,793	1,38,343	115,266	1,93,400	...
	Unoccupied.	13,818	7674	4768	8539	...
Alienated ...	46,042	65,929	47,577	93,479	34,238	
Unarable ...	81,263	...	37,921	
Municipal	2224	
Total ...	206,916	2,11,846	207,748	2,90,418	34,238	

The great fall in the area of arable and the corresponding rise in the area of unarable waste was due to the change under which assessed lands included in forests were entered in the revision survey as unarable instead of as arable. Under the revision survey, on the whole Government occupied land of every description, garden rice and drycrop, the average acre assessment was raised from 2s. 4½d. to 3s. 4½d. (Re. 1 as. 3½ to Re. 1 as. 10½) or an acre increase of 11½d. (7½ as.) The proposed settlement was sanctioned by Government in May 1879.¹

During the ten years before the original survey settlement (1838-1848), the tillage area varied from about 64,000 acres in 1847-48 to about 50,000 acres in 1844-45, and collections from about £15,200 (Rs. 1,52,000) in 1847-48 to about £9400 (Rs. 94,000) in 1838-39. During the first ten years of the survey lease (1848-1858), the tillage area rose from about 77,000 acres in 1848-49 to about 114,000 acres in 1857-58, and collections from about £9000 to about £15,900 (Rs. 90,000-Rs. 1,59,000); during the next ten years (1858-1868), the tillage area varied from about 119,000 acres in 1861-62 to about 115,000 acres in 1858-59 and collections from about £17,800 (Rs. 1,78,000) in 1865-66 to about £16,200 (Rs. 1,62,000) in 1858-59; and during the eleven years ending 1878-79, the tillage area varied from about 115,000 acres in 1878-79 to about 112,000 acres in 1876-77 and collections from about £17,300 (Rs. 1,73,000) in 1872-73 to about £16,300 (Rs. 1,63,000) in 1876-77. During the three years after the revision settlement, the tillage area steadily fell from about 153,000 acres in 1879-80 to about 112,000 in 1881-82, and collections from about £23,200 to about £19,000 (Rs. 2,32,000-Rs. 1,90,000). The details are² :

¹ Col. Anderson, Survey Comr. 374 of 19th April 1879 and Gov. Res. 2769 of 27th May 1879. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXI.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXI, 20-22, 67.

Dhárwár, 133 Villages : Survey Results, 1858-1882.

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YEAR.	Rain-fall.	TILLAG.			WASTE.			Quit Rent.	Out-sta-nd-nga.	Collec-tions.	Judri Rupee Prices.
		Area.	Rental.	Remis-sions.	Area.	Rental.	Graz-ing Fees.				
	Inches	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.	Acres.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Lbs.
<i>Before Survey.</i>											
1838-39	...	56,004	1,09,940	48,777	59,899	58,357	2965	25,290	58	95,760	78
1839-40	...	62,535	1,20,386	18,104	58,094	49,373	2640	27,942	18	1,32,351	102
1840-41	...	60,249	1,19,601	16,067	53,851	48,221	2660	28,282	20	1,34,436	120
1841-42	...	61,963	1,21,236	18,109	55,987	48,214	2634	28,636	62	1,34,325	102
1842-43	...	58,535	1,13,898	15,972	60,351	64,051	415	28,684	130	1,26,890	122
1843-44	...	58,850	1,02,554	15,970	62,582	83,049	148	26,379	...	1,13,111	111
1844-45	...	50,282	99,126	12,877	69,257	77,040	2537	26,319	1203	1,14,842	123
1845-46	...	51,118	99,014	9196	68,435	76,920	6198	27,793	915	1,22,864	98
1846-47	...	59,069	1,18,963	6982	60,872	60,513	5369	28,502	497	1,43,455	103
1847-48	...	64,044	1,28,569	9569	68,217	49,294	6292	28,452	332	1,52,392	111
<i>Survey.</i>											
1848-49	...	76,910	1,81,848	216	37,415	25,296	5501	22,871	30,740	90,266	120
1849-50	...	89,276	1,08,818	38	26,135	17,738	8181	24,137	...	1,41,098	126
1850-51	...	92,686	1,10,896	858	28,966	17,595	7649	22,828	33,638	1,07,286	144
1851-52	...	92,447	1,15,269	129	24,964	16,063	7017	22,700	...	1,42,357	148
1852-53	...	94,482	1,14,692	275	23,452	15,446	6244	22,784	...	1,43,415	116
1853-54	...	88,094	1,13,658	194	24,752	16,944	7824	26,856	89	1,47,905	140
1854-55	...	98,298	1,18,796	292	21,143	12,015	6350	28,578	...	1,51,521	92
1855-56	...	106,406	1,26,112	831	14,891	6271	4718	28,404	4	1,56,399	76
1856-57	...	113,203	1,30,097	21	8060	4442	3320	25,960	461	1,58,795	124
1857-58	...	114,488	1,31,418	20	7461	3908	2696	24,734	...	1,58,823	98
1858-59	...	115,399	1,32,532	20	7496	3994	2647	26,798	...	1,62,052	100
1859-60	...	116,764	1,33,827	21	6328	3342	2886	26,793	...	1,63,485	96
1860-61	...	118,319	1,35,083	30	6299	2759	2344	28,292	...	1,66,179	84
1861-62	...	113,714	1,35,893	21	5494	2867	2884	28,585	...	1,67,141	60
1862-63	...	117,694	1,36,514	21	6753	3325	4612	28,645	...	1,68,950	44
1863-64	...	117,517	1,36,576	20	6906	3472	5460	29,018	27	1,69,957	20
1864-65	...	117,160	1,36,455	27	7639	3955	9405	30,172	...	1,75,005	28
1865-66	...	116,338	1,34,959	63	8519	4548	7858	35,111	...	1,77,865	22
1866-67	...	115,988	1,34,772	24	8917	4746	8011	32,516	...	1,75,275	52
1867-68	...	115,846	1,34,606	20	9144	5039	5311	32,035	...	1,72,122	84
1868-69	31.46	114,557	1,33,990	28	10,444	6673	4643	33,059	...	1,71,664	96
1869-70	29.70	118,452	1,33,418	21	11,754	6507	3793	32,589	...	1,69,983	44
1870-71	32.54	113,039	1,33,232	...	12,169	6706	4361	30,503	...	1,68,126	56
1871-72	29.37	113,091	1,33,273	...	12,236	6747	4560	30,197	...	1,70,080	38
1872-73	30.16	113,165	1,33,851	...	12,849	7156	4961	29,784	...	1,72,596	43
1873-74	26.28	113,275	1,34,011	...	12,754	7085	5400	29,784	...	1,69,195	44
1874-75	47.98	113,196	1,33,993	4	12,721	7018	5149	29,825	...	1,68,963	50
1875-76	30.61	113,149	1,34,038	...	12,619	6909	4368	29,906	...	1,68,307	47
1876-77	22.05	112,214	1,33,419	161	13,808	7574	1045	29,996	1112	1,63,137	14
1877-78	31.86	114,743	1,36,767	...	13,818	7574	499	34,112	4014	1,67,354	23
1878-79	39.35	114,979	1,36,973	...	13,734	7312	684	34,015	885	1,70,737	...
<i>Revision Survey.</i>											
1879-80	...	153,357	1,97,640	708	5274	4128	855	34,333	284	2,32,341	...
1880-81	...	113,917	1,96,391	43	6994	5928	1166	34,354	1085	2,31,333	...
1881-82	...	112,446	1,94,804	80,295	6529	7620	232	36,239	11,068	1,90,022	...

In 1879-80 the revised survey settlement was introduced into the old Mishrikot petty division of Old Hubli.¹ At the 1848-49 settlement this group contained 100 villages. At the revision survey it included 106 villages of which 104 were in Kalghatgi and two in Dhárwár. The area was 148,720 acres. The country was generally waving, and in the west exceedingly woody, the horizon being bounded by a succession of hills two to three hundred feet high, more or less wooded to the top. The extreme west and south-west border was a continuation of the Kánara forest country. In 1870 little timber remained. All had been cleared many years before the days of forest conservancy. Much young wood clothed the surface, and promised to become timber. Two streams which contained water more or less throughout the year, crossed the tract, joining and passing into Kánara under the name of the Bedtinála, and flowing into the sea under the name of the Gangávali river. In Mishrikot the rainfall varied from 42.95 inches in 1874 to

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¹ Colonel Anderson, Survey Commissioner, 233 of 13th March 1880, Gov. Res. 1969 of 15th April 1880, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXII.

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18-22 in 1871.¹ At the time of the original settlement, except along one or two main tracks like those from Kalghatgi to Dhárwár and Hubli, it was next to impossible to take a cart anywhere but by most circuitous routes through the fields. Even these roundabout routes were possible only when the ground was free from crops. Cart traffic there was little or none, most of the produce was carried on pack bullocks. Almost the only carts then in use were the Vadars' carts about eighteen inches high with solid wooden wheels often not more than two feet in diameter, as a rule without any metal tyre. A large number of Vadars carried wood to the plains from the villages on the edge of the forest which they were allowed to cut with little or no restriction. Of traffic with Kánara and the coast there was almost none. In 1880 the villages were rich in roads. The great road from Hubli to the coast at Kunta which was opened about 1848, passed close by the eastern edge of this tract. An equally great road, from Hubli to Kunta and Kárwár by the Árbail pass, ran diagonally through the centre of these villages, which again had communication with Dhárwár by a good road. There were also several country roads in connection with the main lines. The average produce prices showed a rise in unhusked rice from 294 pounds in 1820-29 to 50 pounds the rupee in 1870-79; *javari* from 138 pounds to 42 pounds; *rági* from 270 pounds to 52 pounds; *gul* or coarse sugar from 24 pounds to 16 pounds. The average tillage area had risen from 20,638 acres in 1838-47 to 62,469 in 1878-79 and collections from £2953 to £6151 (Rs. 29,530 - Rs. 61,510). The following is a summary of the details:

Mishrikot Land Revenue, 1838-1879.

YEAR.	Occu- pied Land.	Arable Waste.	Collec- tions.	Remis- sions.	Out- stand- ings.
	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1838-1847...	20,638	78,296	29,530	3319	289
1848-1857...	41,226	31,379	49,415	181	2074
1858-1867...	56,207	19,507	52,535
1868-1877...	60,006	12,498	58,604	11	9
1878-79 ...	62,469	2191	61,510	...	117

Between 1875-76 and 1877-78 the notices to pay revenue averaged 183 and the sales of land averaged two. In 1880, 64.6 per cent of Government land were tilled by the men whose names were entered as holders in the Government books; and 35.4 by their tenants.² The proportion of tenant tilled land was larger than usual. A good deal of land had been taken by Bráhmans and others as an investment who tilled it by tenants. The common terms on which rice land was let were at least half the produce, the holder paying the

¹ The details are: 1869, 30.64 inches; 1870, 40.86; 1871, 18.22; 1872, 31.70; 1873, 23.60; 1874, 42.95; 1875, 30.72; 1876, 20.43; 1877, 26.69; 1878, 34.05. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXII, 49.

² In 99 villages the holder tilled 40.55 per cent of Government land by himself and 1.46 per cent in partnership with others. He let to tenants 8.96 on money rent and 7.25 on produce or grain rent, 7.08 per cent was waste, and 7.25 was *parampok* or unarable. In five villages, 50.14 per cent of Government land was tilled by the holder himself and 0.10 was tilled by him in partnership with others, 9.40 per cent was let to tenants on money rents, 3.80 was sublet on produce or grain rents, 13.48 was waste, and 7.98 was *parampok* or unarable. In two villages 57.45 per cent of Government land was tilled by the holder himself, 0.36 per cent was tilled by him in partnership with others, 7.00 per cent was let to tenants on money rent, 2.40 per cent on produce or grain rent, 6.88 was waste, and 4.25 *parampok* or unarable. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXII, 61.

assessment. More than half the produce was paid when the holder provided seed and bore a share in the other expenses.

During the thirty years of the survey settlement, flat roofed and tiled houses increased from 1695 in 1848 to 4999 in 1878 or 194·92 per cent; carts from 926 to 1678 or 81·20 per cent; wells and water-lifts from 258 to 622 or 141·80 per cent; and watering ponds from 423 to 460 or 8·74 per cent; population showed a slight fall from 31,974 to 31,817 or 0·49 per cent; thatched houses decreased from 4273 to 2529 or 40·83 per cent; farm cattle from 13,476 to 12,909 or 4·20 per cent; cows and buffaloes from 25,830 to 17,920 or 30·62 per cent; sheep and goats from 1669 to 1102 or 33·97 per cent; and horses from 334 to 215 or 35·62 per cent. Mr. Fletcher the deputy superintendent of survey attributed the decrease or rather the absence of increase in population to the 1876-77 famine. Colonel Anderson, the Survey Commissioner, admitted that the very high famine prices must have forced some of the labouring and non-agricultural population to leave their homes in search of work. At the same time he thought that the loss of population was chiefly due to the fever which had wasted the villages for several years, and to a less extent to settlers moving to Kánara and to other districts. Except on the banks of the Bedtinála where was some superior black and brown soil, excellent for every kind of tillage, the soil was generally a stiff red well suited for rice and sugarcane, but less suited for dry crops. In the extreme eastern villages the rainfall was not too heavy for excellent dry-crop tillage, *javári*, *bájri*, cotton, and oilseeds.¹ Further west the country gradually changed into a purely rice-growing tract, the dry crop cultivation being for the most part confined to *rági* or *náchni*. Rice dependent on rainfall alone was everywhere an uncertain crop. But most of the rice lands had the benefit of water storage which could at the worst give them one watering and in many cases furnished them with a constant supply. Much rice was also watered by drainage from neighbouring high grounds guided by *kálvás* or water-courses. As regards dry crops each division from east to west had its own staple, *javári* in the east, *rági* in the west, and a mixture of both between the two extremes. For these dry crops the rainfall was always sufficient. Even in 1876 the worst year on record the dry crops were generally good and in some villages excellent. The main crop of rice was often followed by pulse; and in the better rice lands sugarcane was grown once in three years. The dry crops were *javári*, *bájri*, a little cotton, and some oil-seeds in the eastern villages where the rainfall was moderate, and *rági* in the western villages. The rice lands were usually well tilled and all available manure was used. In the east where the chief tillage was dry crop, the cultivation was also good. In the western villages *rági* which was chiefly grown as a dry crop was secondary to rice which claimed the first care and attention; still what manure could be spared from the rice was applied to the *rági*. The whole garden area was only fifteen acres. This tract was just north of the line below which both in Dhárwár

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¹ The cultivation details are : *kharif* 70·09 per cent, *rabi* 1·92, and waste and fallow 27·99. Of the 70·09 per cent of *kharif* the details are : cereals 53·44, pulse 1·02, oil-seeds 1·64, miscellaneous 13·99; of the 1·92 of *rabi* the details are : cereals 0·03, pulse 0·27, fibre 0·60, miscellaneous 1·02. Mr. Fletcher, Deputy Superintendent of Survey, Bom, Gov. Sel. CLXII. 39.

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and in Kánara betel and cocoa-palm gardens were found. All exportable produce was readily carried to market. The very great cart traffic from the inland parts to the coast created constant demand for fodder. Kalghatgi and Bammigatti were both good market towns and were centres of the rice trade. Dhárwár and Hubli were at no great distance, and, at any time of the year, could be reached by good roads. There were no manufactures except a few cotton and woollen looms. There was fever owing chiefly to bad water. But the people suffered less than strangers. On the whole the people were well off. The villages were remeasured and reclassified. The following is a comparison of the area of the different kinds of lands according to the original and the revision surveys :¹

Mishrikot Area, 1849 and 1880.

LAND.	First Survey Acres.	Revision Survey Acres.
Arable Dry-crop	59,525	60,948
Rice Land	32,587	31,631
Garden Land	6	15
Unarable Unassessed Forests	56,851	56,076
	149,268	148,720

For revision purposes, the villages were grouped into five classes. The first contained three villages, close to and west of the old Hubli villages. The other classes were formed of twenty-three, thirty-one, thirty-six, and thirteen villages each further west than the class before it. The highest dry crop acre rates adopted in these classes were 4s. (Rs. 2), 3s. 3d. (Rs. 1½), 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1¼), 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1¼), and 2s. (Rs. 1). The highest rice acre rate was 16s. (Rs. 8) in the first three classes, 15s. (Rs. 7½) in the fourth, and 14s. (Rs. 7) in the fifth class. The garden land was considered little better than rice land and was rated accordingly. The effect of the revision was an increase of 34·3 per cent in assessment. The details are² :

Mishrikot Revision Settlement, 1879-80.

CLASS.	Villages	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.								
		Occupied Land.		Occupied Land.		Arable Waste.		Total.		Increase of Assessment Percent.	Highest Acre Rate.	
		Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.	Area.	Assessment.		Dry Crop.	Rice.
		Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
I ...	3	8224	2559	3347	8772	69	20	3406	3792	47·4	2	8
II ...	23	22,008	18,063	22,257	26,593	191	73	22,478	26,666	47·2	1½	8
III ...	81	26,636	27,553	26,887	36,268	1779	1485	28,646	37,753	32·0	1¼	8
IV ...	86	14,422	18,337	14,540	22,920	3316	3990	17,856	25,910	25·0	1¼	7½
V ...	13	953	1704	1004	2114	602	446	1606	2500	24·7	1	7
Total.	106	67,243	68,216	68,045	91,667	5947	5014	73,992	96,681	34·3

Four villages showed an increase of more than seventy per cent in assessment, Sangatikop of 200 per cent, Kale Devarkop of 110·4 per cent, Galginkati of 84·9 per cent, and Sidápúr of 71·8 per cent. All of these villages had a large increase in land liable to water-rates.

During the ten years before the original survey settlement, (1838-1848), the tillage area slowly rose from about 19,000 acres in

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXII. 2-3.

² Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXII. 13-20.

1838-39 to about 22,000 acres in 1847-48 and collections varied from about £4780 (Rs. 47,800) in 1847-48 to about £3100 (Rs. 31,000) in 1838-39. During the first ten years of the survey lease (1848-58), the tillage area rose from about 25,000 acres in 1848-49 to about 51,000 acres in 1857-58 and collections from about £2520 to about £6320 (Rs.25,200-Rs.63,200); during the next ten years (1858-68), the tillage area rose from about 52,000 acres in 1858-59 to about 58,000 acres in 1867-68, and collections from about £6440 to about £7550 (Rs. 64,400-Rs.75,500); and during the eleven years ending 1878-79, the tillage area slowly rose from about 58,000 acres in 1868-69 to about 62,000 acres in 1878-79 and collections varied from about £7950 (Rs. 79,500) in 1872-73 to about £7400 (Rs. 74,000) in 1869-70. During the three years after the revision settlement (1879-1882), the tillage area steadily rose from about 62,700 acres in 1879-80 to about 63,000 acres in 1881-82, and collections varied from about £10,100 (Rs. 1,01,000) in 1880-81 to about £8700 (Rs. 87,000) in 1881-82. The details are¹:

Mishrikot, 99 Villages: Survey Results, 1838-1882.

YEAR.	Rain-fall.	TILLAGE.			WASTE.			Quit Rent.	Out-stand-ing.	Collections.	Jedri Rupee Prices.
		Area.	Rental.	Remis-sions.	Area.	Rental.	Graz-ing Fees.				
	Inches	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Lbs.
<i>Before Survey</i>											
1838-39	...	19,165	32,515	12,853	72,755	27,568	...	12,510	1031	31,141	...
1839-40	...	18,459	29,745	2151	71,329	27,334	14	14,464	844	41,733	...
1840-41	...	19,996	31,424	1763	71,826	25,849	25	14,691	108	44,269	...
1841-42	...	21,471	34,748	1594	72,066	28,996	45	14,184	187	47,196	...
1842-43	...	21,240	34,118	2198	69,315	10,638	27	14,370	92	46,225	...
1843-44	...	21,498	35,526	2300	73,670	29,396	450	14,602	623	47,156	...
1844-45	...	19,867	31,376	899	75,323	32,239	821	14,625	84	46,339	...
1845-46	...	20,858	31,859	3617	75,228	28,716	1451	14,133	228	43,598	...
1846-47	...	21,737	32,334	3960	75,735	25,692	1726	13,930	75	44,285	...
1847-48	...	22,133	33,304	1359	75,640	25,775	1380	14,111	119	47,767	...
<i>Survey.</i>											
1848-49	...	25,249	29,348	1449	44,172	25,031	1300	13,822	17,773	25,249	120
1849-50	...	27,437	33,303	6	34,034	20,300	3435	12,640	9	54,369	112
1850-51	...	28,958	39,245	48	33,060	20,011	4643	12,477	12,962	43,255	120
1851-52	...	39,766	39,661	05	32,375	19,723	3481	12,459	...	55,507	168
1852-53	...	40,250	40,025	49	31,903	19,434	3327	12,425	...	55,728	100
1853-54	...	41,331	41,255	...	30,969	18,494	3713	13,103	...	61,076	112
1854-55	...	42,078	42,448	86	31,025	19,258	4000	15,233	...	61,693	80
1855-56	...	45,378	44,356	77	28,259	17,360	3225	15,170	...	62,673	88
1856-57	...	49,928	45,719	48	24,275	16,995	2867	15,079	...	63,617	128
1857-58	...	60,332	45,601	...	23,629	17,664	2334	14,751	...	63,186	120
1858-59	...	61,954	47,135	...	23,002	17,132	2648	14,580	...	64,363	112
1859-60	...	64,098	45,533	...	20,970	15,890	2446	14,616	...	65,344	112
1860-61	...	65,560	51,345	...	19,579	13,238	2149	17,052	...	70,546	64
1861-62	...	65,959	51,630	...	19,379	13,323	2110	17,318	...	71,068	48
1862-63	...	67,234	53,922	...	18,220	11,845	2220	17,192	...	73,234	36
1863-64	...	67,159	53,724	...	18,416	11,614	2289	17,175	...	73,138	20
1864-65	...	67,044	53,696	...	18,581	11,736	2423	17,512	...	73,631	36
1865-66	...	67,690	55,051	...	19,015	12,296	2335	17,069	...	74,955	18
1866-67	...	67,591	55,008	...	19,045	12,246	3004	16,950	...	74,957	44
1867-68	...	67,801	55,361	...	18,894	11,943	3194	16,997	...	75,552	72
1868-69	...	67,789	55,401	...	18,922	12,002	3291	17,120	...	75,812	72
1869-70	30.64	67,313	54,958	...	19,388	12,427	2098	17,012	...	74,068	60
1870-71	40.59	67,414	64,812	...	19,224	12,691	3003	16,947	...	74,722	66
1871-72	18.23	67,021	64,680	...	19,635	12,724	3770	16,781	...	75,231	54
1872-73	31.70	61,370	60,446	...	20,145	13,133	4565	14,512	...	79,522	60
1873-74	23.60	61,368	60,544	...	6140	4578	1990	14,512	...	76,966	48
1874-75	42.95	61,843	60,961	...	5611	4352	1987	14,512	...	77,480	48
1875-76	30.72	62,085	61,172	32	5386	4180	1893	14,497	16	77,514	56
1876-77	20.43	62,284	61,428	74	5294	4058	1505	14,561	...	77,418	18
1877-78	26.69	62,532	61,690	...	5194	3900	1423	14,375	86	77,902	22
1878-79	34.96	62,469	61,610	...	5151	4014	1373	14,305	117	77,576	...
<i>Revision Survey.</i>											
1879-80	...	62,735	75,566	...	5340	4024	1251	15,335	18	99,456	...
1880-81	...	62,795	84,257	18	4994	3733	1337	15,532	...	1,01,308	...
1881-82	...	63,088	84,639	18	4732	3613	280	15,905	13,695	87,111	...

¹ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLXII. 26, 49, 71.

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In 1880-81 the survey settlement was revised in a group of twenty-nine villages which had formed the old Mulgund petty division of the old Dambal sub-division and had been settled by Captain Wingate in 1850-51.¹ Since the original settlement the group had been broken up. At the time of revision eleven of the villages were in Hubli, sixteen in Gadag, and two in Navalgund. These villages were widely scattered. One group or strip came to within six miles east of Hubli; a second group was about eighteen miles further east and to the south of Gadag, and a third small group lay on the Tungbhadra, eighteen miles south-east of the nearest point of the second group. One village Niralgi was detached from the rest about ten miles north-east of Gadag. The three main groups of villages which this survey block included differed greatly from each other. The western group was one of the very best parts of the Dhárwár district consisting entirely of deep black soil and all within the line of good rainfall.² The central group round Mulgund also consisted chiefly of black soil, through which masses of granite or rather gneiss sometimes large enough to form small hills protruded. The extreme eastern villages of this group as well as the villages on the Tungbhadra in the east touched the Kapat range, which stretched from the river close to Gadag. The rainfall of the three groups differed greatly. The western villages had a good fall, the central a fair fall, and the south-eastern a poor fall. The products of these villages were the common products of the Dhárwár cotton plain. Cotton the staple was grown once in three years in turn with wheat and *javari* with which safflower and linseed were mixed in occasional rows. They chiefly trusted to the late or *rabi* crops.³ In all ordinary times tillage was good and especially in the western and central groups the people were very well-to-do. The 1876-77 famine had pressed heavily on the villages in the east of the central group and on the south-eastern group near the Tungbhadra. By 1880 they had considerably improved, and it was thought that with existing high prices and a year or two of good crops the effects of the famine would pass away. The villages of the south-east group were worst off and were far removed from the main lines of traffic. Communication was opened westward by country tracks which were available for traffic during the whole fair season. The western group was crossed by two main made roads from Gadag to Dhárwár and from Annigeri to Hubli. The Annigeri-Hubli road was a main line of communication from all the country inland to Hubli and the coast. Another road ran from Hubli by Hebsur to Navalgund. It had been begun during the 1876-77 famine, and without a very heavy outlay on bridges could not be of

¹ Colonel Anderson, Survey Commissioner, 311 of 8th April 1880 and Gov. Res. 2601 of 18th May 1880, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV.

² Ingahlali one of the western villages was for fifty miles round considered a model village. Others near it were nearly, if not quite, as good. Colonel Anderson, Survey Commissioner, 311 of 8th April 1880, Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 150.

³ Between 1874 and 1879 the yearly averages were *kharif* or early 29,500 acres or 38.75 per cent, and *rabi* or late 46,623 acres or 61.25. The details are: *Kharif*, red *javari* 19,640 or 25.80, *lavari* 142 or 0.19, rice 116 or 0.15, *tur* 237 or 2.90, *mug* 1926 or 2.53, miscellaneous 5469 or 7.18; *Rabi*, white *javari* 4873 or 6.40, wheat 9340 or 12.27, American cotton 17,893 or 23.51, country cotton 5957 or 7.83, gram 1324 or 1.74, linseed 560 or 0.74, *kardai* or safflower 1626 or 2.13, miscellaneous 89 or 0.12, garden cultivation 117 or 0.15, waste and fallow 4344 or 6.36. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 166.

much use. The central group of villages had free communication with Hubli, the main local trade centre, by country tracks across the black plain during all the fair season. Except during or for a few days after rain, these tracks were for all practical purposes as good as the best made roads. A main line also ran from Gadag to Kumta through Mulgund by Savanur and Bankápur. It was a useful line but the road had not been brought into good order.

(The mass of these villages, including all the western and nearly all the central group, had formed part of the estate of the Tásgaon branch of the Patvardhans. It lapsed to Government on the chief's death without heirs in 1848.) The revenue management of the Tásgaon chief according to native ideas had been fairly good. There was a high nominal demand and as much as possible was collected, and cultivation to the full extent of a landholder's power was to a certain extent compulsory. The chief objects of the management were to prevent any diminution of cultivation and to extend it by all available means so as to exact for the landlord the whole surplus produce beyond what was necessary for the support of the landholder, but yet so cautiously and carefully as not to disable him from continuing his cultivation. Shortly after the chief's death, in anticipation of the lapse of the estate to the British Government, severe pressure was put on the landholders, and after the lapse, from the absence of any trustworthy data on which to base the collections, the pressure on individuals was very heavy and yet much less revenue was realized than under the chief. In 1850 when the first survey of these villages was introduced the people showed a keen anxiety for the introduction of the settlement. From the two years of British management before the settlement, 1848-50, no conclusions can be drawn, except that it was fortunate that the state of things then existing did not last long. There was no certainty about any of the figures except those of collections. The areas of occupation were obtained by a conversion of the old *bijvari* or seed area recorded as cultivated, on the proportion obtaining between the *bijvari* or seed area and that ascertained by the survey to be occupied in the year of settlement. It appeared, however, to the Survey Commissioner that about one-fifth of the area occupied in 1848-49 was thrown up in the following year. In 1850-51 when the survey settlement was introduced, 49,508 acres were occupied, with a full survey rental of £4127 (Rs. 41,270) of which £3762 (Rs. 37,620) only were collected. The difference between the new and old rates was as usual remitted in the year of the introduction of the settlement. From that year progress was rapid. In the next year, 1851-52, the occupied area rose to 60,475 acres and the collections to £5057 (Rs. 50,570). In 1860-61 the occupied area had risen to 74,255 acres and the collections to £5922 (Rs. 59,220). Then progress went on without check and in 1878-79, 77,466 acres were occupied and £6189 (Rs. 61,890) were collected. From 1855 till the 1876 famine there were neither remissions nor outstandings. After the famine there were small remissions and outstandings. In 1877-78 and 1878-79 there were no remissions and at the end of 1878-79, only £18 (Rs. 18) were outstanding. In 1878-79 the unoccupied arable waste

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amounted to acres 2351 bearing an assessment of £45 (Rs. 450) and most of this was in the south-eastern group where there was much poor land. The western villages had only ten acres of arable waste. During the original settlement, as in the rest of Dhárwár, produce prices rose more than 100 per cent; flat roofed and tiled houses rose from 5180 to 6290 or 21·4 per cent; carts from 309 to 1142 or 269·5 per cent; and watering wells from 50 to 95 or 90 per cent. The survey census was taken in the monsoon of 1879, after the close of the famine. The return showed a decrease under population from 25,761 to 22,794 or 11·1 per cent; under thatched houses from 67 to 34 or 38·8 per cent; under farm cattle from 6539 to 5265 or 19·5 per cent; under cows and buffaloes from 11,262 to 4619 or 59 per cent; under sheep and goats from 6753 to 3620 or 47 per cent; and under horses from 241 to 147 or 39 per cent. In 1879 there were 1614 ploughs and eighty-three drinking wells. These figures show a large increase in the better class of houses and in carts. The reduction of population and cattle appears to have taken place in the years of famine. In the western villages the pressure of the famine was not great, the people had some crops, and there were large accumulations of fodder from back years. In the central group the distress was more severe, and in the south-eastern group it was extremely severe.

About half of these twenty-nine villages were entirely remeasured. In the rest the system of partial remeasurement was adopted. The total area of the old and new surveys differed only by 577 acres or 0·5 per cent. In individual fields a considerable number of large differences were found. On a total of 5678 survey fields, differences between five and ten per cent were found in 297 fields, and differences above ten per cent in 209 fields. A large proportion of these differences were caused by gains or losses near rivers in black soil. The reclassing was only partial and on the plan hitherto adopted in Dhárwár, enough being reclassified to show the general standard of the former work. As in other cases the old classification was lower than the 1879 standard in the better soils and higher in the poorer soils. Of 6999 survey numbers in twenty-eight villages in 1879, 5768 or 82·41 per cent were Government and 1231 or 17·59 per cent were alienated. Of the Government numbers 3751 or 53·59 per cent were cultivated by the occupant, 123 or 1·76 per cent by the occupant in partnership with others, 1146 or 16·38 per cent by tenants on a money rent, 439 or 6·27 per cent by tenants on a grain rent, 192 or 2·74 per cent were waste, and 117 or 1·67 per cent were unarable or *parampok* numbers. Of the alienated numbers 506 or 7·23 per cent were tilled by proprietors or *inámzárs*, 65 or 0·93 per cent by the proprietor in partnership with others, 553 or 7·90 by tenants on money rents, and 107 or 1·53 by tenants on produce or grain rents.

The western group of thirteen villages for which, under Captain Wingate's settlement in 1850-51, a highest dry crop acre rate of 2s. 7½d. (Rs. 1½) was adopted, were now (1880) divided into two classes. For three villages near the great road and nearest to the town of Hubli a highest dry crop acre rate of 4s. (Rs. 2) was proposed to assimilate it to the rate sanctioned in 1874 for the

neighbouring villages of Hubli; for the remaining ten villages a highest dry crop acre rate of 3s. 6d. (Rs. 1½) was proposed to assimilate it to the rate sanctioned in 1874 and 1875 for the neighbouring villages of Hubli and Navalgund. The central group of eleven villages for which a highest dry crop acre rate of 2s. 3d. (Rs. 1½) had been adopted in 1850, was divided into two classes; for the eight western villages a highest dry crop acre rate of 3s. (Rs. 1½) was proposed, and for the three eastern villages in and close to the hills a highest dry crop acre rate of 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1½) was proposed. These rates were the same as those sanctioned for the neighbouring villages of the Gadag subdivision in which the revised settlement had been introduced in 1875. For the four detached villages in the south-east near the Tungbhadra, which under the 1850 settlement had been put in the same class as the preceding eleven villages of the central group, a highest dry crop acre rate of 2s. 6d. (Rs. 1¼) was proposed. For the detached village of Niralgi the highest dry crop acre rate was raised from 2s. to 2s. 9d. (Rs. 1-1½). The area of rice land had risen from ninety-four acres in 1850 to 220 acres in 1880 of which 212 were Government land. For this land a highest acre rate of 12s. (Rs. 6) similar to the rate sanctioned for the Gadag sub-division was proposed. There was no stream watered garden land. The area of well watered garden land had risen from 135 acres in 1850 to 275 in 1880. As was usual in revision settlements, well watered land was charged no extra rate for water. The well garden land was almost entirely confined to the eastern villages, the deep black soil in the west being unfavourable for well sinking. The effect of the revision was a rise of 55·4 per cent in the assessment. The details are :

Mulgaud Revision Settlement, 1880-81.

CLASS.	Villages.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.							
		Occupied.		Occupied.		Waste.		Total.		Increase Per Cent.	Highest Drycrop Acre Rate.
		Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.		
I	3	Acres. 6644	Rs. 6301	Acres. 6758	Rs. 10,796	Acres. 6758	Rs. 10,796	68·9	Rs. 2 0
II	10	35,338	32,908	35,313	52,951	10	11	35,323	52,962	60·9	1 12
III	8	25,098	16,994	24,515	25,046	800	74	26,115	25,120	47·3	1 8
IV	4	4615	3013	4733	4238	146	55	4879	4303	41·0	1 6
V	4	5171	2532	5326	3151	2524	525	7860	3076	22·0	1 4
Total...	29	77,466	61,838	77,945	96,192	2980	665	80,925	96,857	55·4	...

The effect of the settlement on Government occupied land was an increase of 55·4 per cent in the rental. This average rate of increase was not equally distributed; in the three villages of the first class it amounted to 68·9 per cent, which was about the same or perhaps a little less than the increase in the neighbouring villages settled in 1874. In the lower classes the percentage of increase was still less, and in the lowest class, which was in all respects the most inferior, it was least of all. This fifth class had one village Chaginkeri which showed an increase of 52·6 per cent. This increase was due to the making of a reservoir by Government under which ninety-two acres were watered. Except in Chaginkeri the average percentage increase in the villages of the fifth class

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was only 10·2.¹ The new survey showed an extra area of 2980 acres of Government unoccupied arable assessed waste bearing a survey assessment of £66 (Rs. 660). This was almost without exception, poor land in the eastern villages near the hills. The following statement shows the total area and the assessment under every head :

Mulgund Revision Settlement, 1880-81.

LAND.	FORMER SURVEY.		REVISION SURVEY.		
	Area.	Rental.	Area.	Rental.	Quit Rent.
Government. (Occupied ...	Acres. 77,466	Rs. 61,888	Acres. 77,945	Rs. 96,192	...
ment. Unoccupied ...	2351	454	2980	665	...
Alienated... ..	16,088	13,401	15,762	26,576	8071
Unarable	10,868	...	9509
Total ...	108,773	75,743	106,196	117,433	8071

According to the old rates the average acre rate in all kinds of land was 1s. 7d. (12½ as.); under the proposed rates it amounted to 2s. 5½d. (Re. 1 as. 3¼) or an increase of 10½d. (7½ as.). The proposed rates were sanctioned by Government in May 1880.²

During the two years before the survey settlement (1848-1850), the tillage area fell from about 54,000 acres in 1848-49 to about 43,000 acres in 1849-50 and collections from about £5800 to about £5000 (Rs. 58,000 - Rs. 50,000). During the first ten years of the survey lease (1850 - 1860), the tillage area rose from about 49,500 acres in 1850-51 to about 73,000 acres in 1859-60, and collections from about £3760 to about £6560 (Rs. 37,600 - Rs. 65,600); during the next ten years (1860 - 1870) the tillage area varied from about 75,700 acres in 1864-65 to about 74,300 in 1860-61 and collections from about £6800 (Rs. 68,000) in 1863-64 to about £6600 (Rs. 66,000) in 1860-61; and during the last ten years (1870-1880), the tillage area varied from about 77,500 acres in 1878-79 to about 75,200 in 1870-71 and collections from about £6990 (Rs. 69,900) in 1878-79 to about £6760 (Rs. 67,600) in 1871-72. The details are :³

¹ The increase of assessment in these twenty-nine villages was higher than that which had occurred in the more recent revision settlements in Dharwar and more on a par with that of the earlier revisions, for the reason that the later revised subdivisions were originally settled on a slightly higher standard than the sub-divisions first settled and first revised. These Mulgund villages, in consequence of their very depressed condition, were originally assessed on the low standard adopted by Captain Wingate in the sub-divisions first settled by him, such as Hubli and Navalgund. The increase of assessment in Mulgund therefore was more on a par with that in Hubli and Navalgund which was 61·15 per cent than with that of Dharwar where it was only 39·8 per cent. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 156.

² Colonel Anderson, Survey Commissioner, 311 of 8th April 1880 and Gov. Res. 2601 of 18th May 1880. Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 149-160, 202-207.

³ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 162-163.

Mulgund, 29 Villages : Survey Results, 1848-1880.

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YEAR.	TILLAGE.			WASTE.			Quit-Rent.	Out-standings.	Collections.
	Area.	Rental.	Remissions.	Area.	Rental.	Grass-ing Fees.			
<i>Before Survey.</i>	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1848-49...	54,130	60,794	18,335	9872	2113	419	16,404	6267	57,965
1849-50...	43,282	44,144	6568	19,110	3331	2007	10,171	138	49,616
<i>Survey.</i>									
1850-51...	49,508	41,296	2419	20,889	12,969	1692	8620	11,687	37,622
1851-52...	60,475	60,688	...	15,892	6996	343	8765	...	57,176
1852-53...	61,796	51,581	12	12,617	6121	914	6748	...	68,211
1853-54...	61,406	51,238	7	13,371	6771	1246	6316	...	58,793
1854-55...	64,650	53,459	...	10,255	4674	1851	6365	50	61,126
1855-56...	60,887	54,661	...	8215	3636	1073	6521	...	62,245
1856-57...	70,529	56,723	...	4717	1666	508	6742	...	68,973
1857-58...	71,600	47,375	...	3633	1145	424	6565	...	64,365
1858-59...	72,492	47,905	...	3157	807	363	6812	...	64,980
1859-60...	72,937	58,230	...	2927	673	243	7147	...	66,620
1860-61...	74,255	59,219	...	2550	890	214	6614	...	66,047
1861-62...	75,083	59,820	...	3371	461	294	7419	...	67,443
1862-63...	76,875	60,036	...	2298	417	180	7414	...	67,630
1863-64...	76,731	60,220	...	2031	848	173	7592	...	67,985
1864-65...	75,744	60,215	...	2013	345	210	7484	...	67,859
1865-66...	75,792	60,207	...	2056	353	212	7347	...	67,766
1866-67...	75,639	60,187	...	2121	373	222	7377	...	67,798
1867-68...	75,596	60,179	...	2161	381	181	7382	...	67,742
1868-69...	75,456	60,138	...	2301	424	190	7422	...	67,748
1869-70...	75,288	60,071	...	2473	492	184	7601	...	67,866
1870-71...	75,129	60,080	...	2593	533	183	7483	...	67,675
1871-72...	75,916	60,048	...	2569	511	110	7401	...	67,559
1872-73...	75,154	60,028	...	2393	525	174	7393	...	67,600
1873-74...	75,294	60,074	...	2433	468	169	7397	...	67,590
1874-75...	75,304	60,075	...	2415	460	298	7396	...	67,596
1875-76...	75,367	60,080	...	2327	434	292	7429	...	67,801
1876-77...	75,368	60,071	134	2326	422	223	7502	1073	66,520
1877-78...	77,386	61,826	...	2351	454	66	8113	268	69,736
1878-79...	77,498	61,898	...	2351	465	110	8071	176	69,893
1879-80...	77,059	61,710	...	2708	633	104	8070	202	69,682

In 1881 in consequence of the effects of the 1876-77 famine and the existing low prices of field produce Government decided to give the holders of land temporary relief from a portion of the revision settlement enhancements. With this object Government ordered that in all village groups in which an enhanced revision settlement had been introduced, during the three years ending 1882-83 such temporary remission should be granted on each *kháta* or holding as would bring the revision enhancement down to about twenty per cent advance on the former assessment. After 1882-83 the full revision rates were again to be realised.¹

The following statement² shows for the whole district the chief changes in tillage, remissions, collections, and outstandings, since the introduction of the revenue survey. It appears from these details that the tillage area has risen from 568,328 acres in 1843-44 to 1,273,432 acres in 1881-82, the Government demand from £32,456 (Rs. 8,24,560) to £159,661 (Rs. 15,96,610), and collections from £96,750 (Rs. 9,67,500) to £157,976 (Rs. 15,79,760). During the same period remissions have fallen from £7546 (Rs. 75,460) to £27 (Rs. 270) in 1880-81 and outstandings from £8236 (Rs. 82,360) to £256 (Rs. 2560) in 1880-81.

SURVEY RESULTS,
1843-1882.¹ Gov. Letter 2468 of 3rd May 1881.² Supplied by the Survey Commissioner.

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Dhárwár, 1173 Villages : Survey Results, 1843-1882.

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SURVEY RESULTS,
1843-1882.

YEAR.	TILLAGE.			WASTE.			ALIENATED.			Out-standings.	Collec-tions.	Settled Villages.	
	Area.	Rental.	Remis-sions.	Area.	Rental.	Graz-ing Fees.	Area.	Rental.	Quit Rent.				
<i>Before Survey.</i>	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
1838-39...	646,554	8,53,206	2,80,258	661,624	...	4025	699,485	...	2,64,378	1,03,763	6,22,583	...	
1842-43...	609,786	9,02,247	91,326	721,570	...	10,263	681,131	...	2,98,310	93,332	10,26,162	...	
<i>Survey</i>													
1843-44...	563,328	8,24,556	75,458	769,376	...	8866	690,694	...	2,91,880	82,361	9,67,503	30	
1846-47...	694,657	7,50,584	26,560	725,408	...	41,232	668,825	...	2,58,890	18,994	10,05,202	351	
1849-50...	843,985	7,79,531	177	855,646	2,96,934	63,428	662,612	6,49,105	2,28,450	...	37,10,71,192	1173	
1852-53...	946,562	8,30,592	530	400,092	2,42,722	32,219	635,584	6,32,191	2,19,928	...	16,11,22,185	1173	
1857-58...	1,170,716	10,05,281	35	206,221	1,23,228	35,051	599,084	5,96,051	2,54,266	...	12,92,583	1173	
1862-63...	1,291,379	10,98,727	35	184,528	71,087	31,831	572,023	5,71,519	2,64,026	...	14,12,048	1173	
1867-68...	1,322,737	11,12,116	20	98,535	50,062	39,563	588,573	5,66,893	3,04,315	...	14,56,173	1173	
1872-73...	1,293,650	10,98,776	14	134,948	71,604	41,076	561,409	5,67,063	2,99,343	...	6,14,39,175	1173	
1878-74...	1,295,199	11,00,194	14	115,328	60,255	28,945	561,238	5,67,612	2,98,939	...	14,28,068	1173	
<i>Revision Survey.</i>													
1874-75...	1,301,941	12,38,794	37	107,716	56,213	29,230	561,387	6,18,568	3,11,851	...	15,79,838	129	
1875-76...	1,306,412	13,13,857	51	107,047	55,083	27,147	562,657	6,45,281	3,15,487	...	16,16,56,424	214	
1876-77...	1,308,562	13,66,271	6348	102,409	56,055	20,622	562,110	6,88,090	3,14,601	...	37,824	15,58,022	351
1877-78...	1,324,898	13,87,434	...	102,433	56,512	20,630	543,247	6,65,709	3,30,012	...	34,803	17,02,873	361
1878-79...	1,312,102	14,97,236	...	122,648	63,606	18,006	543,738	7,27,393	3,39,605	...	18,310	18,41,637	747
1879-80...	1,287,825	15,98,265	726	142,724	89,857	14,627	542,062	7,60,565	3,43,540	...	2789	19,53,517	1119
1880-81...	1,278,106	16,01,090	272	154,147	98,613	15,853	540,433	7,61,412	3,46,542	...	2647	19,00,656	1173
1881-82...	1,273,432	15,98,606	86,903	156,477	1,03,683	10,392	539,423	7,79,223	3,46,729	...	2,37,060	15,79,764	1173

WASTE,
1884.

In 1879 the arable lands of Dhárwár were fairly tilled though there was still room for improvement. Everywhere except in the black cotton lands a considerable area of land was held and instead of being tilled was kept under grass. No data are available to show what proportion of the whole occupied area is kept under grass; in the western and southern sub-divisions it must be considerable. In the black soil tracts no land is kept under grass. In many villages in the north and centre of the district which have nothing but black soil, there is no grazing and the cattle are all stall fed.¹ The finest cattle are generally found in villages which have no grazing. A considerable amount of the arable waste is at present used for grazing. But as the people prefer to take it at the yearly grazing sale for one year only, it does not come under the head of occupied. Some of these unoccupied arable lands are valuable grazing lands which are not allowed to be occupied, as, for grazing purposes they fetch a considerably higher yearly auction rent than the survey assessment. Some also consist of odd fields near village sites much intersected by paths and roads and therefore liable to suffer from the trespass of cattle. In 1878 the area of unoccupied land was extremely small and what there was was of poor quality. Since 1878, partly in consequence of loss of cattle during the famine and the damage caused by rats and locusts in 1879 and 1880, and chiefly, especially in the hilly and sandy soils of some of the eastern sub-divisions, from the low price of field produce in 1881 and 1882, the area of arable waste has steadily spread from 102,433 acres in 1877-78 to 160,654 in 1882-83.²

¹ Colonel Anderson, 6th November 1879.

² Mr. Stewart, C. S. Survey Commissioner, 811 of 15th April 1884. The details are: Arable waste 102,433 acres in 1877-78, 122,648 acres in 1878-79, 142,724 in 1879-80, 154,147 in 1880-81, 156,477 in 1881-82, and 160,654 in 1882-83.

The area of alienated or *inám* land fell from 680,964 acres in 1843-44 to 543,297 acres in 1877-78. This reduction is due to the resumption of encroachments during the first settlement, and since then to the gradual falling in of the *ináms* which the Inám Commission confirmed as life grants. The decrease in alienated land has also been largely caused by the resignation of parts of quit-rent or *judi ináms* at the first settlement. When the survey rates were introduced, it often happened that they were lower than the former *judi* or quit-rent rates. The quit-rent was reduced to the survey assessment. But as much of these lands were waste and yielded the owner no return, a considerable share of them was resigned in the early years of the settlement before land had begun to be valuable.¹

Chapter VIII.

Land.

ALIENATED
LANDS,
1884.

SECTION IV.—SEASON REPORTS.

In 1861-62 thirty-two inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. Over most of the district the fall was favourable and the harvest large. Except for slight cholera public health was good.² The collections rose from £166,581 (Rs. 16,65,810) to £169,323 (Rs. 16,93,230); £9 (Rs. 90) were remitted and there were no outstandings. The price of Indian millet rose from seventy-nine pounds the rupee in 1860-61 to fifty-six pounds.

SEASON REPORTS,
1861-62.

In 1862-63 twenty-four inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. Throughout the district the early rains were scanty and the early or *narif* crops poor. Heavy showers in September and October enabled the people to sow so large an area of late crops that the fullness of the late harvest made up for the failure of the early harvest. Public health was good; though some parts especially in the west suffered from cholera fever and ague.³ The collections rose from £169,323 to £177,741 (Rs. 16,93,230 - Rs. 17,77,410), £14 (Rs. 140) were remitted, and there were no outstandings. The price of Indian millet rose from fifty-six pounds the rupee to forty-one pounds.

1862-63.

In 1863-64 twenty inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. Scanty early rains were again followed by an abundant late supply and the harvest did not fall below the average. Cholera was prevalent over the whole district and bad fever and ague prevailed in the west. There was slight loss from cattle disease.⁴ The collections rose from £177,741 to £184,745 (Rs. 17,77,410 - Rs. 18,47,450), £17 (Rs. 170) were remitted, and £247 (Rs. 2470) left outstanding. The price of Indian millet rose from forty-one pounds the rupee to nineteen pounds.

1863-64.

In 1864-65 twenty-nine inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The early rain though abundant was unseasonable and damaged some of the early crops; the late harvest especially the cotton was good. Except in Ránebnur, Kod, and Karajgi, where the public health was good, cholera fever and ague prevailed.⁵ The collections rose from

1864-65.

¹ Col. Anderson, 6th Nov. 1879.² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 235 of 1862-64, 199.³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 235 of 1862-64, 223.⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 235 of 1862-64, 247. ⁵ The Collector, 21st December 1864.

Chapter VIII. £184,745 to £188,134 (Rs. 18,47,450 - Rs. 18,81,340), £14 (Rs. 140) were remitted, and nothing was left outstanding. The price of Indian millet fell from nineteen pounds the rupee to twenty-six pounds.

1865-66.

In 1865-66 eighteen inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. A large proportion of the grain crops failed. In Navalgund Dambal and Ron about five-eighths (10 *as.*) of the early crops were lost from grubs and want of rain; in Dhárwár Hubli and Karajgi about half (8 *as.*) were lost; and in Bankápur, Ránebennur, Hángal, Kalghatgi, and Kod about a quarter (4 *as.*). Of the late harvest in Navalgund, Dambal, and Ron about one-half (8 *as.*) and in the rest of the district about an eighth (2 *as.*) were lost. Except for a little cholera public health was good.¹ The collections fell from £188,134 to £187,153 (Rs. 18,81,340 - Rs. 18,71,530), £13 (Rs. 130) were remitted, and there were no outstandings. The price of Indian millet rose from twenty-six pounds the rupee to twenty pounds.

1866-67.

In 1866-67 thirty-two inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The early harvest proved a nearly complete failure, but timely later rains enabled a large area to be sown and the late harvest was excellent. Except in Navalgund and Kalghatgi there was much cholera and Hángal suffered greatly from fever.² The collections rose from £187,153 to £188,991 (Rs. 18,71,530 - Rs. 18,89,910), £13 (Rs. 130) were remitted, and there were no outstandings. The price of Indian millet fell from twenty pounds the rupee to forty-one pounds.

1867-68.

In 1867-68 twenty-nine inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The June fall was favourable but especially in Dambal the July August and September supply was scanty. Public health was good; fever prevailed but there was no cholera or cattle disease.³ The collections fell from £188,991 to £186,872 (Rs. 18,89,910 - Rs. 18,68,720), there were no remissions, and 4s. (Rs. 2) were left outstanding. The price of Indian millet fell from forty-one pounds the rupee to seventy-nine pounds.

1868-69.

In 1868-69 thirty-one inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The fall was timely and both the early and the late crops yielded a fair return. Except in Hángal and in parts of Dhárwár and Dambal where fever and ague were prevalent, public health was good. Cattle disease prevailed slightly in some of the sub-divisions.⁴ The collections fell from £186,872 to £186,163 (Rs. 18,68,720 - Rs. 18,61,630), £5 (Rs. 50) were remitted, and there were no outstandings. The price of Indian millet fell from seventy-nine pounds the rupee to ninety pounds.

1869-70.

In 1869-70 twenty-seven inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The rains began well but the failure of the September and October supply injured the early crops especially the rice. Timely and abundant rain in November secured good cold weather crops except that *juári* was injured by blight. Public health was good.⁵ The collections

¹ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 75 of 1866, 50. ² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 57 of 1867, 6, 8.

³ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 59 of 1868, 318. ⁴ Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 65 of 1869, 253.

⁵ Rev. Comr. 74 of 7th Jan. 1870.

rose from £186,163 to £188,547 (Rs. 18,61,630 - Rs. 18,85,470), £5 (Rs. 50) were remitted, and there were no outstandings. The price of Indian millet rose from ninety pounds the rupee to forty-one pounds.

In 1870-71 thirty-one inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The supply was plentiful and seasonable. The early crops did well and the late harvest did not fall below the average. Except slight fever public health was good. There was a bad outbreak of cattle disease in Kalghatgi.¹ The collections fell from £188,547 to £183,894 (Rs. 18,85,470 - Rs. 18,38,940), £1 (Rs. 10) were remitted, and there were no outstandings. The price of Indian millet fell from forty-one pounds the rupee to sixty pounds.

In 1871-72 thirty inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. In Navalgund, Dambal, Ránebennur, Karajgi, and Ron the early rains either from scantiness or unseasonableness wholly or in great measure destroyed the early crops. Except in Dambal the late harvest was good. Public health was fair, but cattle disease prevailed in most of the sub-divisions.² Collections fell from £183,894 to £181,817 (Rs. 18,38,940 - Rs. 18,18,170), £2 (Rs. 20) were left outstanding, and there were no remissions. The price of Indian millet rose from sixty pounds the rupee to thirty-nine pounds.

In 1872-73 twenty-seven inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. Except local failures of rice both the early and the late harvests were good. There was slight cholera, fever, and ague, and a deadly outbreak of cattle disease in Kod.³ The collections rose from £181,817 to £183,790 (Rs. 18,18,170 - Rs. 18,37,900), £2 (Rs. 20) were remitted, and 12s (Rs. 6) left outstanding. The price of Indian millet fell from thirty-nine pounds the rupee to forty-one pounds.

In 1873-74 twenty-seven inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The early rain was so scanty and untimely that in Navalgund and Ron no crops were sown and the Navalgund cattle had to be sent to the western forest lands. The late harvest was also poor. In Karajgi and Savanur cotton was injured by insects. Fever and ague prevailed in Navalgund, Dambal, Bankápur and Kalghatgi and there was widespread but mild cattle disease.⁴ The collections fell from £183,790 to £182,051 (Rs. 18,37,900 - Rs. 18,20,510), there were no remissions and no outstandings. The price of Indian millet fell from forty-one pounds the rupee to forty-seven pounds.

In 1874-75 forty-eight inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The fall was timely and beneficial to all the early crops. In September October and part of November excessive rain injured some crops and flat roofed houses. On the whole the harvest was good. Except in Ránebennur, fever and ague were widespread, and cattle disease prevailed in Kalghatgi and in the west of Dhárwár.⁵ Collections rose from £182,051 to £196,064 (Rs. 18,20,510 - Rs. 19,60,640), £4 (Rs. 40) were remitted, and there were no outstandings. The price of Indian millet fell from forty-seven pounds the rupee to fifty-two pounds.

¹ Rev. Comr. 38 of 4th Jan. 1871.

² Bom. Gov. Rev. Rec. 81 of 1872, 342.

³ Rev. Comr. 6369 of 31st Dec. 1872.

⁴ Rev. Comr. 5026 of 29th Dec. 1873.

⁵ Rev. Comr. 4718 of 29th Dec. 1874.

Chapter VIII.

Land.

SEASON REPORTS.

1870-71.

1871-72.

1872-73.

1873-74.

1874-75.

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Land.

SEASON REPORTS,
1875-76.

In 1875-76 thirty-one inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The early harvest in most of the district was poor and the late harvest fair. In some parts rats caused damage by eating the seed. Navalgund, Dhárwár, Hubli, and Kalghatgi suffered rather severely from cholera; fever and ague prevailed everywhere, and cattle disease caused loss in Kod.¹ The collections rose from £196,064 to £204,997 (Rs. 19,60,640 - Rs. 20,49,970), £13 (Rs. 130) were remitted, and £34 (Rs. 340) left outstanding. The price of Indian millet continued at fifty-two pounds the rupee.

1876-77.

In 1876-77 sixteen inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The first fall was good, but rain afterwards held off so completely that the early crops failed in half of the district and in the other half were very poor. As the late harvest failed as well as the early, the scarcity passed to famine, and the labouring classes had to be supported. Water was scarce, and large numbers died of cholera in Dhárwár, Hángal, Karajgi, Gadag, and Bankápur.² Collections fell from £204,997 to £201,648 (Rs. 20,49,970 - Rs. 20,16,480), £852 (Rs. 8520) were remitted, and £7242 (Rs. 72,420) left outstanding. The price of Indian millet rose from fifty-two pounds the rupee to nineteen pounds.

1877-78.

In 1877-78 thirty-five inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The June fall was general and plentiful. But July and August passed with only one fall and the crops in some places perished. Copious rain in September and October saved the harvest and the outturn of the early crops was abundant. Over large areas early *javari* yielded a second crop. The late crops were also abundant though damaged by insects. Cholera fever and ague prevailed.³ Collections rose from £201,648 to £208,252 (Rs. 20,16,480 - Rs. 20,82,520), £5 (Rs. 50) were remitted, and £4259 (Rs. 42,590) left outstanding. The price of Indian millet fell from nineteen pounds the rupee to thirty-five pounds.

1878-79.

In 1878-79 forty inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. It fell late and was somewhat unfavourable for the early grain sowings, but yielded an abundant supply of fodder. Most of the cold weather harvest especially of the cotton was eaten by rats. Malarious fever prevailed in the east.⁴ Collections rose from £208,252 to £222,272 (Rs. 20,82,520 - Rs. 22,22,720), £1490 (Rs. 14,900) were left outstanding and there were no remissions. The price of Indian millet fell from thirty-five pounds the rupee to forty-four pounds.

1879-80.

In 1879-80 thirty-eight inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The season was good. The rats which had done much damage in the year before were destroyed during the monsoon and the crops saved. Public health was good.⁵ Collections rose from £222,272 to £233,049 (Rs. 22,22,720 - Rs. 23,30,490), £84 (Rs. 840) were remitted, and £322 (Rs. 3220) left outstanding. The price of Indian millet fell from forty-four pounds the rupee to forty-six pounds.

1880-81.

In 1880-81 thirty-five inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The season

¹ Rev. Comr. 3876 of 31st Dec. 1875. ² Rev. Comr. 330 of 10th Feb. 1877.³ Rev. Comr. 138 of 19th Jan. 1878.⁴ Bom. Pres. Gen. Adm. Rept. 1878-79, 85-86.⁵ Bom. Pres. Gen. Adm. Rept. 1879-80, 87-88.

was favourable. About August the rains held off, but a supply came in time to save the early harvest. There was a marked fall in produce prices. Fever and ague prevailed, but public health was fair.¹ Collections rose from £233,049 to £239,521 (Rs. 23,30,490 - Rs. 23,95,210), 52 (Rs. 520) were remitted, and £292 (Rs. 2920) left outstanding. The price of Indian millet fell from forty-six pounds the rupee to sixty-four pounds.

In 1881-82 thirty-two inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The season was unfavourable. Except in Hángal and Karajgi, the rainfall was considerably below the average and at the same time it was unseasonable. The rice crops failed completely in Kalghatgi and Kod and suffered much in other sub-divisions. The early or *kharif* crops were generally poor, and, except wheat, the late or *rabi* crops were also on the whole below the average. Cotton suffered from blight and insects. There was a general rise in the price of all articles except cotton. The public health was good. There were few cases of cholera and malarious fever was less prevalent than usual.² The tillage area fell from 1,512,972 to 1,507,941 acres, and collections from £239,521 to £193,418 (Rs. 23,95,210 - Rs. 19,34,180), £7800 (Rs. 78,000) were remitted, and £39,008 (Rs. 3,90,080) left outstanding. The price of Indian millet rose from sixty-four pounds the rupee to sixty pounds.

In 1882-83 fifty inches of rain fell at Dhárwár. The rainfall was above the average in all the sub-divisions and in Hángal it was more than double the average. In some places considerable damage was caused by floods and the bursting of ponds.³ The heavy rain

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Land.

SEASON REPORTS.

1881-82.

1882-83.

¹ Bom. Pres. Genl. Adm. Rept. for 1880-81, 93-94.

² Gov. Res. 8276 of 27th November 1882.

³ In July 1882 the rainfall in Dhárwár was 5.65 inches during the week ending the 8th, 7.51 inches during the week ending the 15th, and 5.03 inches during the week ending the 22nd; the corresponding falls in Hubli were 2.94, 4.13, and 2.48 inches; in Kalghatgi 5.99, 6.84, and 4.56 inches; in Bankápur 4.45, 4.82, and 5.45 inches; and in Hángal 5.52, 9.24, and 8.15 inches. This excessive rainfall caused much damage to Government ponds, embankments, roads, and buildings. In the town of Dhárwár many houses and five buttresses supporting the main wall of the Jail fell, the Moti Talav which had not filled for several years was filled to overflowing, and the Nigli pond burst its bank. In Kalghatgi, one of the bastions of the mámlatdár's office fell, the provincial road running alongside of the embankment of the pond at Devikop sunk to the level of the rice fields and the rivers Varda and Tungbhadrá flooded many of the villages on their banks. In Bankápur, the three villages of Halsur, Manangi, and Koni-Melehalli, were flooded; in Halsur only five houses escaped damage and forty houses fell; at Koni-Melehalli the Varda rose almost to the crown of the arches of the bridge on the provincial road from Poona to Harihar. In Hángal, the banks of nine ponds and of the canal which feeds the Tilvalli pond burst; the alienated village of Lakámpur was flooded by the Varda, about fifty head of cattle were drowned, and forty out of forty-four houses fell, the damage was estimated at £200 (Rs. 2000); nine other villages on the Varda also suffered. Of the twenty-seven villages flooded by the Varda and the Tungbhadrá in the Karajgi sub-division Chik-Mugdur, Rámápur, Miralgi, Haralhalli, and Kanchargatti were completely washed away; ninety-five houses either fell or were damaged in the town of Karajgi, the loss being estimated at about £635 (Rs. 6350); and the large Hegeri pond at Háveri burst its bank. The total damage caused by the floods in the Karajgi sub-division was estimated at £3866 (Rs. 38,660), including £2660 (Rs. 26,600), the value of the houses destroyed. In Ránebennur, sixteen villages on the Tungbhadrá and two on the Kumadvati were flooded; in Hiladhalli only five houses were left standing; in Maknár, Hirebidri, Medleri, and Udgatti, 108 houses fell fifty-five partly fell and more were damaged. Besides the destruction of houses, great loss

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SEASON REPORTS.
1882-83.

at the beginning of the season favoured rice but injured *javari*. The wheat crop was also inferior and in the south of the district the cotton crop was not good. The prices of wheat and *javari* rose, while those of *tur* and rice fell. Except slight outbreaks of cholera and small-pox and the prevalence of malarious fever caused by the heavy rainfall, public health was good.¹ The tillage area fell from 1,507,941 to 1,503,011; collections rose from £193,418 to £195,961 (Rs. 19,34,180-Rs. 19,59,610), £44,419 (Rs. 4,44,190) were remitted,² and £120 (Rs. 1200) left outstanding. The price of Indian millet rose from sixty pounds the rupee to fifty-two pounds.

REVENUE,
1860-1883.

The following statement³ shows the chief available yearly statistics of rainfall, prices, tillage, land revenue, collections, remissions, and balances during the twenty-three years ending 1882-83:

Dhárwár Tillage and Land Revenue, 1860-1884.

YEAR.	Rainfall.	Tillage.	LAND REVENUE.				Indian Millet Rupee Prices.
			Remitted.	For Collection.	Outstand- ing.	Collected.	
1860-61	Inches.	Acres.	16,65,806	16,65,806	79
1861-62	32	94	16,93,227	16,93,227	56
1862-63	24	138	17,77,410	17,77,410	41
1863-64	20	174	18,49,919	2465	18,47,454	19
1864-65	29	135	18,81,341	18,81,341	26
1865-66	18	131	18,71,528	18,71,528	90
1866-67	32	130	18,89,906	18,89,906	41
1867-68	29	18,68,717	2	18,68,715	79
1868-69	31	52	18,61,629	18,61,629	90
1869-70	27	51	18,85,467	18,85,467	41
1870-71	31	7	18,38,937	18,38,937	00
1871-72	30	1,522,225	18,18,190	23	18,18,167	39
1872-73	27	1,521,255	21	18,37,909	6	18,37,903	41
1873-74	27	1,523,430	18,20,513	18,20,513	47
1874-75	48	1,530,236	87	19,60,635	19,60,635	52
1875-76	31	1,539,097	128	20,50,310	335	20,49,975	52
1876-77	16	1,543,567	8515	20,88,904	73,423	20,16,481	19
1877-78	35	1,565,896	54	21,25,103	42,587	20,82,516	35
1878-79	40	1,549,850	22,37,623	14,905	22,22,718	44
1879-80	38	1,524,030	338	23,33,704	5216	23,30,488	46
1880-81	35	1,512,972	522	23,98,128	2915	23,95,211	64
1881-82	32	1,507,941	77,998	23,24,300	3,90,050	19,34,150	60
1882-83	50	1,503,011	4,44,194	19,60,814	1199	19,59,615	52

SECTION V.—STAFF.

STAFF,
1884.

District Officers.

The revenue administration of Dhárwár is entrusted to an officer styled Collector on a yearly pay of £2160 (Rs. 21,600). This officer who is also Political Agent, Chief Magistrate, District Registrar, and 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 uncovenanted servants of Government. The sanctioned

was caused by the flooding of grain pits, both in the flooded villages and in other places where the long continued rain soaked the ground to such an extent that the water found its way into the pits. The grain was either damaged or completely destroyed. Mr. Middleton, Collector, 2945 of 9th August 1882, Bom. Gov. Rev. Comp. 1447. of 1882.

¹ Gov. Res. 7458 of 6th October 1883.² Most of these remissions were sums granted to lower revision enhancements to within twenty per cent of the former assessment. Gov. Res. 7453 of 6th October 1883. See above p. 587.³ Compiled from yearly Revenue Administration Reports.

yearly salary of each of the covenanted assistants is £1080 (Rs. 10,800), and that of one of the uncovenanted assistants is £480 (Rs. 4800) and of the other £600 (Rs. 6000). For fiscal and other administrative purposes, the lands under the Collector's charge are distributed over eleven sub-divisions, eight of which are entrusted to the covenanted assistant collectors and three to one of the uncovenanted assistants, who is styled the district deputy collector. As a rule no sub-division is kept by the Collector under his personal supervision. The other uncovenanted assistant, who is styled the head-quarter or *huzur* deputy collector, is entrusted with the charge of the treasury. These officers are also magistrates, and those who have revenue charge of portions of the district, 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 assistant and deputy collectors, the revenue charge of each fiscal sub-division or *taluka* is placed in the hands of an officer styled *mámlatdár*. These functionaries who are also entrusted with magisterial powers, have yearly salaries varying from £180 to £300 (Rs. 1800-3000). Three of the fiscal sub-divisions contain petty divisions, *pethás* or *maháls*, under the charge of officers styled *maháلكaris*, who have no treasuries to superintend, but exercise the revenue and magisterial powers generally entrusted to a *mámlatdár*. The *maháلكari's* yearly pay is £72 (Rs. 720).

In revenue and police matters, the charge of the 1284 Government villages is entrusted to 1353 headmen or *pátils*, of whom 184 are stipendiary and 1169 hereditary. Of the stipendiary headmen three perform police duties only, and 181 perform both police and revenue duties. Of the hereditary headmen 104 perform revenue duties, 109 perform police duties, and 956 perform both revenue and police duties. The headmen's yearly emoluments, which are in proportion to the revenue of the village, consist partly of cash payments and partly of remissions of land assessment. The cash emoluments vary from 7s. to £18 6s. (Rs. 3½-183) and average about £3 18s. 7½d. (Rs. 39 ½), while the remissions from the land tax range from 1s. to £127 10s. 6d. (Rs. ½-1275½) and average about £4 13s. 8½d. (Rs. 46 as. 13½) a year. In some cases in Dhárwár and Navalgund the headman's quit-rent is as high as the full survey assessment. Of £10,797 (Rs. 1,07,970), the total yearly charge on account of village headmen, £5318 (Rs. 53,180) are paid in cash, and £5479 (Rs. 54,790) of which £398 (Rs. 3980) are on account of combined headmen and village accountants' grants, are met by grants of land and remissions of assessment.

To keep the village accounts, prepare statistics, and help the village headmen, there is a body of 970 village accountants or *kulkarnis*. Of these 171 are stipendiary and 799 hereditary. Each has an average charge of about one village, containing about 844 inhabitants, and yielding an average yearly revenue of about £237 (Rs. 2370). Their cash emoluments vary from £1 to £24 6s. (Rs. 10-243) and average about £8 (Rs. 80) a year, and the remissions from the land tax range from 6d. to £47 7s. 6d. (Rs. ½-473½)

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Land.

STAFF,
1884.Sub-Divisional
Officers.

Village Officers.

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and average about £4 4s. (Rs. 42) a year. Some accountants in Dhárwár and Naval Gund pay a quit-rent equal to the full survey assessment. Of £11,103 (Rs. 1,11,030) the total charge on account of village accountants, £7745 (Rs. 77,450) are paid in cash and £3358 (Rs. 33,580) are met by grants of land and by remissions of assessment.

Village Servants.

Under the headmen and accountants are the village servants with a total strength of 4619. These men are liable both for revenue and police duties. They are generally Hindus of the Bedar and Kurbar or shepherd castes. The total yearly grant for the support of this establishment amounts to £12,969 (Rs. 1,29,690), being £2 16s. 1½d. (Rs. 28 as. 1½) to each man or a cost to each village of £10 2s. (Rs. 101). Of this charge £6762 (Rs. 67,620) are met by grants of land and £6207 (Rs. 62,070) are paid in cash. In alienated villages the village officers and servants are paid by the alienees, and perform police duties for Government. The average yearly cost of the village establishments may be thus summarised :

Dhárwár Village Establishments.

	£	Rs.
Headmen	10,797	1,07,970
Accountants	11,103	1,11,030
Servants	12,969	1,29,690
Total	34,869	3,48,690

This is equal to a charge of £27 3s. 1½d. (Rs. 271 as. 9) a village, or fifteen per cent of the district land revenue.

SECTION VI.—ALIENATED VILLAGES.

ALIENATED
VILLAGES,
1884.

The holders of alienated villages are mostly Bráhmans, and in addition a few Lingáyats and Musalmáns.¹ Of 157 alienated villages eighty-five are held by hereditary district officers under Gordon's settlement, and are continuable only to the descendants of the original grantees, a quit-rent of three-eighths or six annas in the rupee on the profits being levied instead of service. Twenty-six villages have been brought under the Summary Settlement Act (II of 1863), and turned into transferable private property. Six villages have been changed from a grant for a certain number of lives to private transferable property on payment of a yearly quit-rent equal to two-thirds of the former rental. The remaining forty villages are held under individual orders passed by the Inám Commissioner and by Government. Of these forty villages ten are held by temples, twenty-one by *svámis* or high priests, three are *jágir* or private estates, and six are miscellaneous. With few exceptions the proprietors live in their villages and manage them. The eighty-five villages held by hereditary district officers and the thirty-one held by temples and high priests are not transferable. The families holding the eighty-five hereditary villages are generally subdivided into branches who enjoy separate shares of the land or receive certain

¹Mr. Middleton, Collector, 1789 of 10th May 1884.

shares of the revenue. Other alienated villages are also generally in the hands of the family to which they were originally granted, though much divided among different branches. The alienated villages or village shares which have been made private property, though often mortgaged, are almost never sold except under decrees of the civil court. The husbandmen in alienated villages are not so well off as in neighbouring Government villages, and tillage is generally more slovenly, as the tenants have no confidence that they will reap the benefit of improvements. Alienees seldom grant *tagái* or advances to help their tenants, but they show considerable indulgence in recovering their rents. In Begur and Gamangatti the survey settlement has been introduced and the alienees cannot levy more than the settlement rates or oust their tenants so long as they pay these rates. In other villages the rates can be raised at the alienee's pleasure and the husbandmen are mere tenants-at-will holding the land from year to year, or in some cases for a term of years. The tenants generally pay a fixed rent in cash, with in some cases the addition of a certain quantity of grain. Rents are almost never levied entirely in grain. A common arrangement is the *kor* or share system by which the proprietor and his tenant divide the produce equally, the proprietor supplying the seed and paying the Government demand and the tenant contributing the labour. The rates vary greatly. In good soils they are generally higher than in Government villages, and in poor soils they are the same or lower. Wells and other improvements are seldom made in alienated villages, and never by the tenant except under some special agreement. If there are waste numbers, the tenants are allowed to graze their cattle over them free. Tenants are not allowed to cut timber without the proprietor's leave. In alienated villages into which the survey settlement has been introduced, the Collector aids the alienee in recovering his rents up to the survey rates. In other cases if any written or oral agreement is clearly proved, aid is given up to the amount specified. If the agreement is not proved, the rates in force in similar fields are taken as the limit. In intricate and doubtful cases the parties are referred to the civil courts.

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Land.

ALIENATED
VILLAGES,
1884.

CHAPTER IX.

JUSTICE.

Chapter IX.
Justice.
CIVIL COURTS.
1818-1846.

AFTER his proclamation of the 11th of February 1818 General Munro introduced civil administration into Dhárwár or as it was then called the Southern Marátha Doáb. Under the title of Principal Collector and Political Agent he exercised the functions of chief judicial, police, and revenue officer over the whole of it. The head-quarters of the district were at Dhárwár. The Southern Marátha Doáb was divided into twenty-one sub-divisions, in each of which a mámlatdár assisted by three or four *zilledárs* or village group clerks conducted the revenue, magisterial, and police administration.

At the beginning of British rule petty civil claims and disputes were disposed of by the village officers; claims of more importance were entertained by the mámlatdárs and referred for final decision to *pancháyats* or juries; the highest class of claims were filed before the Collector and were referred by him to *pancháyats* for decision subject to final trial on appeal before himself. About the year 1820 or 1821 a separate judicial officer called the *adúlat peshkár* or court's clerk was appointed to each sub-division, but he appears to have been little more than a clerk to the mámlatdár. His office was soon abolished and *munsifs* were appointed who gradually introduced the judicial system prescribed in the General Regulations of 1827 for the Bombay Presidency. The Principal Collector was aided by a judicial assistant under the title of Registrar. (In 1822 some of the sub-divisions of the Southern Marátha Doáb were formed into the separate district of Šholápur.) By Regulation VII of 1830 the remaining portions of the Southern Marátha Doáb were brought under the General Regulations of 1827 for the Bombay Presidency, and were called the Dhárwár Zilla. As the administration developed the district was found too large for a single charge, and, in 1836, the northern portion was for revenue purposes made into the separate district of Belgaum, the district and sessions court at Dhárwár keeping its jurisdiction over both districts.

In 1846 the district of Dhárwár, excluding the ten sub-divisions of the judicial division of Belgaum, consisted of eight sub-divisions Bankápur, Dambal, Dhárwár, Hángal, Hubli, Kod, Navalgund, and Ránebennur.) The court of the District Judge was held at Dhárwár and his jurisdiction extended over the district of Dhárwár and the judicial division of Belgaum. The Assistant Judge also held his court at Dhárwár and his

jurisdiction extended over the same territory as that of the District Judge. The principal *sadar amin* held his court at Dhárwár and his local jurisdiction extended over the sub-division of Dhárwár and over certain villages in Belgaum. The *sadar amin* of Hubli held his court at Hubli, and his local jurisdiction extended over the sub-division of Hubli and over certain villages of the Bankápur and Navalgund sub-divisions. The *munsif* of Háveri held his court at Háveri, a town in the Ránebennur sub-division, and his local jurisdiction extended over the three sub-divisions of Hángal, Kod, and Ránebennur and over certain villages of Bankápur. (In 1869 the Belgaum division was made a separate judicial district, and the subordinate courts of the Dhárwár district were redistributed.) The District Judge of Dhárwár held his court at Dhárwár and his local territorial jurisdiction extended over the eleven sub-divisions of the Dhárwár District. The first class sub-judge of Dhárwár held his court at Dhárwár, and his local jurisdiction extended over the four sub-divisions of Dhárwár, Hubli, Bankápur, and Kalghatgi. The second class sub-judge of Háveri held his court at Háveri, a town in the Karajgi sub-division, and his local jurisdiction extended over the sub-divisions of Karajgi, Hángal, Kod, and Ránebennur. The sub-judge of Gadag held his court at Gadag and his local jurisdiction extended over the three sub-divisions of Gadag, Navalgund, and Ron.

In 1870 the number of courts was four, one district and three subordinate courts, the number of suits disposed of was 2303, and the average duration was 158 days. In 1875 the number of courts was five, one district and four subordinate courts, the sub-judge's court of Hubli being the additional court, the number of suits disposed of was 3760, and the average duration of contested suits was 143 days and of uncontested forty-eight days. In 1880 the number of courts was the same as in 1875, the number of suits disposed of was 3334, and the average duration of a contested suit was 120 days and of an uncontested suit eighty days. At present (1883) the district has a District Judge and four sub-judges. Of the four sub-judges the first class sub-judge of Dhárwár besides special jurisdiction above £500 (Rs. 5000) over the whole district has ordinary jurisdiction over the Dhárwár and Kalghatgi sub-divisions, the second class sub-judge of Hubli has jurisdiction over the Hubli and Bankápur sub-divisions, the second class sub-judge of Gadag has jurisdiction over the Gadag, Navalgund, and Ron subdivisions, and the sub-judge of Háveri has jurisdiction over the Hángal, Karajgi, Kod, and Ránebennur sub-divisions. The average distance of the Dhárwár court from its furthest six villages is eighty-five miles as respects its special jurisdiction and twenty-eight miles as respects its ordinary jurisdiction, of the Hubli court thirty-two miles, of the Gadag court thirty miles, and of the Háveri court thirty-five miles.

During the thirteen years ending 1882 the average number of suits decided was 3395. Except in 1871 when the total rose from 2303 in 1870 to 2800 in 1871, and in 1875 when the total suddenly rose from 2577 in 1874 to 3831 or an increase of nearly fifty per cent, during the six years ending 1875, the totals varied from 2303 in

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Justice.

CIVIL COURTS.

1846-1870.

1870-1883.

CIVIL SUITS.

1870-1883.

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Justice.
CIVIL SUITS.
1870-1882.

1870 to 3831 in 1875 with small rises and falls. Except in 1879 when the total fell from 4212 in 1878 to 4073 in 1879, during the next seven years, the totals show alternate rises and falls, the lowest total being 3332 in 1880 and the highest 4769 in 1876. Of the total number of cases decided, fifty-eight per cent have on an average been given against the defendant in his absence, the lowest percentage being forty-two in 1882 and the highest sixty-eight in 1872. For the first three years the figures of percentage are above the average by eight per cent in the first two years and ten per cent in the third year. During the next eight years the proportion of cases decided in this way showed slight variations from the average, the rise or fall being generally one to three per cent and only in 1878 as much as five per cent. During the last two years there were unusual falls to forty-six or twelve per cent and to forty-two or sixteen per cent below the average, in 1881 and 1882 respectively:

Dhároár Ex-parte Decrees, 1870-1882.

YEAR.	Suits.	Deci- sions.	Percent- age.	YEAR.	Suits.	Deci- sions.	Percent- age.
1870 ...	2303	1581	68·4	1877 ...	3460	2131	61·3
1871 ...	2800	1852	66·1	1878 ...	4212	2682	63·6
1872 ...	2516	1726	68·6	1879 ...	4073	2454	60·2
1873 ...	2493	1415	56·7	1880 ...	3332	1876	56·3
1874 ...	2577	1512	58·6	1881 ...	4024	1869	46·4
1875 ...	3831	2190	57·1	1882 ...	3742	1675	42·0
1876 ...	4769	2919	61·2	Total ...	44,132	25,782	58·3

Of contested cases, during this period of thirteen years an average of 27·8 per cent have been decided for the defendant, the percentage varying from 35·11 in 1875 to 18·05 in 1877, and the number keeping below 200 during the whole period except in 1875, 1881, and 1882 when the number was above 200. In 160 or 4·27 per cent of the suits decided in 1882 the decree was executed by putting the plaintiff in possession of the immovable property claimed. The number of this class of cases varied from 108 out of 4073 in 1879 to 397 out of 3831 in 1875. In 430 or 11·49 per cent of the 1882 decisions, decrees for money due were executed by the attachment or sale of property. Of these 372 or 9·94 per cent were executed by the sale of immovable property and 58 or 1·54 per cent by the sale of movable property. The number of the attachments or sales of immovable property varied from 1378 in 1872 to 372 in 1882, and of movable property from 220 in 1876 to fifty-three in 1880. During the thirteen years ending 1882 the number of decrees executed by the arrest of debtors varied from 127 in 1871 to sixteen in 1878. Except in 1871 when the number rose from 112 in 1870 to 127 and in 1876 when it rose to thirty-four from twenty-three in 1875, during the first nine years the number gradually dwindled from 112 in 1870 to sixteen in 1878. From sixteen in 1878 it rose to forty in 1880 and from forty it fell to seventeen in 1882. The following table shows that during the same thirteen years (1870-1882) the number of civil prisoners varied from forty-three in 1876 to fifteen in 1878:

Dhárwár Civil Prisoners, 1870-1882.

YEAR.	PRISONERS.	DAYS.	RELEASE.				
			Satisfying Decrees.	Creditors' Requests.	No Sub-sistence.	Disclosure of Property.	Time-Expired.
1870	40	2175	6	...	34
1871	25	1102	...	4	21
1872	20	996	2	5	13
1873	23	766	2	3	14	...	4
1874	18	568	1	1	15	...	1
1875	34	1791	2	6	23	2	1
1876	43	546	2	3	31	...	2
1877	20	913	3	1	14	...	2
1878	15	414	1	3	8	...	2
1879	17	1085	...	4	8	...	5
1880	29	943	2	6	16	...	3
1881	28	1029	...	4	20	...	4
1882	18	472	...	5	13

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CIVIL SUITS.
1880-1882.

The following statement shows in tabular form the working of the district civil courts during the thirteen years ending 1882 :

Dhárwár Civil Courts, 1870-1882.

YEAR.	SUM.	AVERAGE VALUE IN £.	UNCONTESTED.				Total.
			Decreed Ex-parte.	Dismissed Ex-parte.	Decreed on Confession.	Other-wise.	
1870	2305	21.3	1531	17	62	179	1789
1871	2900	24	1852	42	67	227	2188
1872	2516	30.6	1726	33	86	235	2080
1873	2493	24.6	1415	100	103	325	1943
1874	2577	16.2	1512	103	115	314	2044
1875	3331	30.4	2190	131	173	583	3082
1876	4789	18.5	2919	247	205	605	3976
1877	3460	14.9	2131	142	123	406	2801
1878	4212	15.9	2682	278	191	418	3569
1879	4073	13.6	2454	186	142	624	3406
1880	3332	15.6	1876	296	133	485	2760
1881	4024	15.1	1869	263	97	629	2861
1882	3742	14.7	1675	105	138	799	2617

YEAR.	CONTESTED.				EXECUTION.			
	For Plaintiff.	For Defendant.	Mixed.	Total.	Arrest of Debtor.	Possession by Decree Holder.	Attachment or Sale of Property.	
							Immovable.	Movable.
1870	813	158	43	514	112	113	752	150
1871	890	199	23	612	127	163	1018	151
1872	255	136	45	436	88	160	1378	191
1873	390	170	...	550	72	151	697	127
1874	854	179	...	533	69	158	625	104
1875	486	263	...	749	23	397	351	168
1876	600	193	...	793	34	181	1013	220
1877	540	119	...	659	17	133	732	91
1878	508	135	...	643	16	119	680	63
1879	562	165	...	667	18	108	1065	55
1880	455	117	...	572	40	116	732	53
1881	900	283	...	1163	22	130	489	73
1882	778	347	...	1125	17	160	372	53

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Justice.
SMALL CAUSE
COURTS.

Till the 1st of June 1869 when a redistribution of subordinate courts in Dhárwár was made and the Dhárwár and Hubli Small Cause Court was established, there was a *sadar amin's* court at Hubli. After the experience of six years it was found that there was not sufficient work for a separate Small Cause Court at Hubli and Dhárwár and the Court was abolished on the 31st of July 1875, and a second class subordinate judge's court was established at Hubli. The Small Cause Court business of Dhárwár town and neighbourhood is performed by the first class subordinate judge of Dhárwár, who is invested with the Small Cause Court powers under the provisions of section 28 of Act XIV of 1869.

REGISTRATION.

The work of Registration employs eleven sub-registrars all of them special or full-time officers. One of these sub-registrars is stationed at each sub-divisional head-quarters. In addition to supervision by the Collector as District Registrar, a special scrutiny under the control of the Inspector General of Registration and Stamps is carried on by the divisional inspector. According to the registration report for 1882-83 the gross registration receipts for that year amounted to £891 (Rs. 8910) and the charges to £698 (Rs. 6980) thus leaving a credit balance of £193 (Rs. 1930). Of 4505, the total number of registrations, 4331 related to immovable property, 135 to movable property, and thirty-nine were wills. Of 4331 documents relating to immovable property were 1171 mortgage deeds, 1930 deeds of sale, forty-one deeds of gift, 942 leases, and 247 miscellaneous deeds. Including £102,202 (Rs. 10,22,020) the value of the immovable property transferred, the total value of the property affected by registration amounted to £107,103 (Rs. 10,71,030).

MAGISTRACY.

At present (1884) thirty officers share the administration of criminal justice. Of these, seven, including the District Magistrate, are magistrates of the first class and twenty-three are magistrates of the second and third classes. Of the magistrates of the first class three are covenanted European civilians, one is a European uncovenanted civil officer, and three are Natives including two mámlatdárs exercising first class powers. The District Magistrate has a general supervision of the whole district, while, except the two mámlatdars each of the other four first class magistrates as assistant or deputy collector has an average charge of 1133 square miles and 22,027 people. In 1882, the five first class magistrates decided 185 original criminal cases and 124 criminal appeals. The average charge of the twenty-three second and third class magistrates, all of whom are Natives, was 197 square miles with a population of 38,387. In 1882 these magistrates decided 1798 original criminal cases. Besides their magisterial duties these officers exercise revenue powers as mámlatdárs, maháلكaris, or head clerks of mámlatdárs. In 1882-83, 1392 village headmen received average yearly emoluments amounting altogether to £4633 (Rs. 46,330). Of the whole number, twenty-four, under section 15 of the Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867) can in certain cases fine upto 10s. (Rs. 5). The others, under section 14, cannot fine and can imprison for only twenty-four hours.

There is no regular village police, the revenue headman or *pátíl* as a rule performs the duties of a police headman. His office is generally hereditary and his pay is in proportion to the land revenue of the village under his charge. The headman is assisted by the *shetsandis* or watchmen who are generally paid in land, and as a rule are Bedars and Kurubars or shepherds.

The chief local obstacles to the discovery of crime and the conviction of offenders are the unwillingness of people to give information regarding crimes and offenders, the tampering with witnesses, the neighbourhood of Maisur in the south and of the Nizám's country in the east, and the existence of the Patvardhan *jágir* villages in the heart of the district. People are unwilling to give information because they are summoned as witnesses from their homes to attend distant courts; and the *batta* or allowance they are given does not make up for the cost and trouble to which they have been put. Gambling, receiving stolen property, sheltering criminals, assaults, riots, breach of trust, forgery, and occasional murders through spite are the characteristic crimes of the higher classes. There are a few agrarian offences, such as plundering standing crops and setting hay, houses, and corn-bins on fire. A few crimes arise from the pressure of creditors. Cases of professional poisoning are unknown.

Korvárs or basket makers, Lavánás or carriers, and Vaddars or earth diggers, wander over the district and are more or less given to thieving. Besides these tribes gang robbers armed with stones and slings come from the neighbouring native states into the district, commit robberies, and return to their homes.

In the year 1882 the total strength of the district or regular police force was 733. Of these, under the District Superintendent, two were subordinate officers, 111 inferior subordinate officers, and twenty-five mounted and 594 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was for the Superintendent a total yearly salary of £960 (Rs. 9600); for the subordinate officers on yearly salaries of not less than £120 (Rs. 1200), and the inferior subordinate officers on yearly salaries of less than £120 (Rs. 1200), a total yearly cost of £2976 6s. (Rs. 29,763), and for the foot and mounted constables a cost of £6150 14s. (Rs. 61,507). Besides their pay a total sum of £240 (Rs. 2400) was yearly allowed for the horse and travelling allowances of the Superintendent; £463 (Rs. 4630) for the pay and travelling allowance of his establishment; £247 (Rs. 2470) for the horse and travelling allowances of subordinate officers; and £1125 4s. (Rs. 11,252) a year for contingencies and petty charges. Thus the total yearly cost of maintaining the police force amounted to £12,162 4s. (Rs. 1,21,622). On an area of 4534 square miles, and a population of 882,907, these figures give one constable for every six square miles and 1205 people, and a cost of £2 13s. 8d. (Rs. 26½) to the square mile, or 3d. (2 as.) to each head of the population. Of the total strength of 733, exclusive of the Superintendent, four, one officer and three men, were in 1882 employed as guards at district, central, or subsidiary jails; seventy-seven, eleven

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of them officers and sixty-six men were engaged as guards over treasuries and lock-ups, or as escorts to prisoners and treasure; 575, ninety-three of them officers and 482 men, were stationed in towns, municipalities, and cantonments. Of the whole number, exclusive of the Superintendent, 367 were provided with firearms and forty-two with swords or with swords and batons; and 323 were provided with batons only; 246, of whom seventy-eight were officers and 168 men, could read and write; and 281 of whom twenty were officers and 261 men, were under instruction.

Except the Superintendent who was a European, the members of the police force were all natives of India. Of these fifty-four officers and 330 men were Muhammadans, eleven officers and twelve men Bráhmans, nine officers and thirty-three men Rajputs, three officers and eight men Lingáyats, twenty-seven officers and 178 men Maráthás, eight officers and forty men Hindus of other castes, and two officers and three men Christians.

OFFENCES.
1874-1882.

The returns for the nine years ending 1882 show a total of 217 murders, sixty-three culpable homicides, 221 cases of grievous hurt, 727 gang and other robberies, and 32,938 other offences. During these nine years the total number of offences gave a yearly average of 3796 or one offence for every 211 of the population. The number of murders varied from thirteen in 1880 and 1882 to sixty-three in 1877 and averaged twenty-four; culpable homicides varied from none in 1874 to sixteen in 1878 and averaged seven; cases of grievous hurt varied from fourteen in 1879 to thirty-nine in 1874 and averaged twenty-five; gang and other robberies varied from forty in 1875 to 189 in 1877 and averaged eighty-one; and other offences varied from 2859 in 1874 to 6661 in 1877 and averaged 3660 or 96.4 per cent of the whole. Of the whole number of persons arrested the convictions varied from thirty-five per cent in 1874 to sixty-two in 1877 and averaged forty-seven per cent. The percentage of stolen property recovered varied from twenty-five in 1875 to forty-seven in 1876. The details are:

Dhárvár Crime and Police, 1874-1882.

YEAR.	OFFENCES AND CONVICTIONS.															
	Murders and Attempt to Murder.				Culpable Homicides.				Grievous Hurts.				Dacoities and Robberies.			
	Cases.	Arrests.	Convictions.	Percentage.	Cases.	Arrests.	Convictions.	Percentage.	Cases.	Arrests.	Convictions.	Percentage.	Cases.	Arrests.	Convictions.	Percentage.
1874	19	33	12	36	39	62	22	35	43	69	8	11
1875	26	55	28	50	11	16	5	31	18	27	11	40	40	69	16	23
1876	19	83	16	19	8	12	7	58	28	54	24	49	106	280	67	26
1877	68	116	49	42	9	13	9	28	84	66	33	55	189	750	233	31
1878	29	60	24	40	16	22	17	53	27	36	30	77	92	183	94	51
1879	18	25	13	52	9	13	6	46	14	16	12	80	47	78	18	25
1880	13	27	9	33	4	6	2	32	17	22	11	50	76	81	10	12
1881	17	26	5	19	4	7	2	28	26	30	17	57	71	53	17	30
1882	13	30	20	100	2	2	18	33	23	70	63	41	24	30
Total	217	445	176	40	63	101	42	39	221	335	161	48	727	1599	487	81

Dhárwár Crime and Police, 1874-1882—continued.

YEAR.	OFFENCES AND CONVICTIONS—continued.										
	Other Offences.				Total.				Property.		
	Cases.	Arrests.	Convictions.	Percentage.	Cases.	Arrests.	Convictions.	Percentage.	Stolen.	Recovered.	Percentage.
1874 ...	2859	4160	1468	35	2960	4324	1510	35	6595	1721	26
1875 ...	3124	3898	1438	45	3279	4065	1493	37	8211	2018	25
1876 ...	3818	4807	1809	40	3979	5016	1920	39	8080	3773	47
1877 ...	6661	9600	6392	65	6956	10,545	6510	62	11,140	5082	46
1878 ...	4099	4420	2808	69	4233	4721	2763	59	6741	3007	45
1879 ...	3028	3745	1950	52	3116	3876	1993	52	5027	1724	34
1880 ...	3092	3455	1569	45	3112	3571	1591	45	6194	1637	26
1881 ...	3040	3415	1415	41	3158	3536	1456	41	5394	1590	29
1882 ...	2277	2772	1463	38	2373	2868	1530	40	4958	1712	35
Total ...	32,938	41,062	19,911	48	34,166	43,922	20,771	47	62,240	22,274	35

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1874-1882.

JAILS.

Besides the lock-up at each mámlatdár's office, there is a district jail at Dhárwár and three subordinate jails, one each at Shevgaon Karajgi and Ron. The number of convicts in the Dhárwár jail on the 31st of December 1882 was 207 of whom 171 were males and thirty-six females. During the year 1883, 478 convicts, of whom 399 were males and seventy-nine females, were admitted, and 467, of whom 400 were males and sixty-seven females, were discharged. During the year the daily average of prisoners was 199 and at the close of the year the number of convicts was 218 of whom 170 were males and forty-eight females. Of these 338 males and fifty females were sentenced for not more than one year, seventeen males were for over one year, and not more than two years; five males were for more than two years and not more than five years; and none were for more than ten years. Eight males and two females were under sentence of transportation and six male prisoners were sentenced to death. The daily average number of sick was 4·8. During the year four prisoners died in hospital. The total yearly cost of diet was £323 4s. (Rs. 3232) or an average of £1 12s. 1½d. (Rs. 16½) to each prisoner.

CHAPTER X.

FINANCE.

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Finance.

THE earliest balance-sheet of the district as at present constituted is for 1868-69. Exclusive of £54,760 (Rs. 5,47,600), the adjustment on account of alienated lands, the total transactions entered in the district balance-sheet for 1881-82 amounted under receipts to £387,336 (Rs. 38,73,360) against £358,605 (Rs. 35,86,050) in 1868-69 and under charges to £482,307 (Rs. 48,23,070) against £384,561 (Rs. 38,45,610). Leaving aside departmental miscellaneous receipts and payments in return for services rendered such as post and telegraph receipts, the revenue for 1881-82 under all heads, imperial, provincial, local, and municipal, came to £308,477 (Rs. 30,84,770),¹ or, on a population of 882,907, an individual share of 6s. 10½d. (Rs. 3 as. 6½). During the last fourteen years the following changes have taken place under the chief heads of receipts and charges.

Land Revenue receipts, which form 73·42 per cent of the entire revenue of the district, have risen from £183,784 (Rs. 18,37,840) to £225,831 (Rs. 22,58,310), and charges from £32,629 (Rs. 3,26,290) to £45,616 (Rs. 4,56,160). The following statement shows the land revenue collected in each of the twenty years ending the 31st of March 1882 :

Land Revenue, 1868-69-1881-82.

YEAR.			£.	YEAR.			£.
1868-69	183,784	1875-76	204,997
1869-70	183,547	1876-77	201,848
1870-71	183,894	1877-78	208,252
1871-72	181,817	1878-79	222,273
1872-73	183,790	1879-80	233,049
1873-74	182,051	1880-81	239,521
1874-75	196,063	1881-82	236,631

STAMPS.

Stamp receipts have fallen from £16,430 (Rs. 1,64,300) to £10,444 (Rs. 1,04,440), and charges from £634 (Rs. 6340) to £321 (Rs. 3210).

EXCISE.

During the five years ending 1876-77 the excise revenue of Dhárwár averaged £23,262 (Rs. 2,32,625). The revenue suffered heavily from the effects of the famine of 1876-77 from which it did not fully recover until 1881-82. In 1877-78 the receipts fell to the low figure of £10,962 (Rs. 1,09,620), and after a sluggish progress during the next three years, rose to £19,744 (Rs. 1,97,440) in 1881-82 and to £24,149 (Rs. 2,41,490) in 1882-83.

Six shops for the sale of foreign imported liquor are each licensed on payment of a fee of £5 (Rs. 50); one of these was first opened in 1880-81. The country liquor revenue is realized by the sale of yearly farms by sub-divisions. The number of shops and their localities are announced at the time of the sale, and the farms

¹ This total includes the following items : £257,126 land revenue, excise, assessed taxes, forest, and opium ; £12,720 stamps, justice, and registration ; £11,450 education and police ; £27,181 local and municipal funds ; total £308,477.

are then sold to the highest bidders. Formerly some shopkeepers were allowed to sell country spirit as well as palm-juice or toddy; others were allowed to sell country spirit alone or toddy alone. In 1881-82 toddy farms were separated from the spirit farms. In that year the toddy farm realized £5759 (Rs. 57,590) and £7312 (Rs. 73,120) in 1882-83, and the spirit farm £13,461 (Rs. 1,34,610) in 1881-82, and £16,206 (Rs. 1,62,060) in 1882-83. From the 1st of August 1883, a tree-tax of 2s. (Re. 1) has been imposed on each toddy tree tapped for the fermented juice, and the toddy farm has been sold on condition that the farmer guarantees a certain minimum revenue to be paid in the shape of a tree tax on the trees which he taps. From the 1st of August 1884 Government have also decided to introduce the central distillery system in the Dhárwár district, and to subject the liquor issued from the distillery to a still-head duty of 5s. (Rs. 2½) the gallon of 25° under proof,¹ that is under London proof, and of 2s. 8d. (Rs. 1½) the gallon of 60° under proof, leaving the farmer to sell the liquor at any prices he pleases up to 9s. (Rs. 4½) the gallon of liquor 25° under proof and 5s. (Rs. 2½) the gallon of liquor 60° under proof. The still-head duty rates on liquor issued for sale in the towns of Dhárwár and Hubli will be somewhat higher, namely 5s. 6d. (Rs. 2¾) and 2s. 11½d. (Rs. 1½½), but the highest selling prices will be the same as in the rest of the district. One condition of the next farm will be to require the farmer to build a distillery according to a plan approved by the Ábkári Commissioner and to hand it over to Government on receipt of cost as estimated by the Executive Engineer.

The number of liquor shops in 1882-83 was 208 of which 107 were for the sale of spirits and 101 for the sale of toddy. Formerly there were 165 shops of which sixty-four were for spirits, fifty-eight for toddy, and forty-three for both spirits and toddy.

From the year 1881-82 to prevent smuggling the excise management of 110 villages belonging to native states adjoining the district has been placed in the hands of the Collector the Chiefs receiving yearly compensation at fixed rates. The excise management of these villages is conducted on exactly the same principles as that of the district villages. The intoxicating drugs revenue amounted to £600 (Rs. 6000) in 1883. The drugs retailed are chiefly *bháng* or drinking hemp and *gánja* or smoking hemp, imported from Sholápur and from Belgaum. No special establishment is employed in Dhárwár for the collection or protection of the excise revenue.

Law and Justice receipts, chiefly fines, have risen from £1133 (Rs. 11,330) to £1525 (Rs. 15,250), and charges, owing to an increase in the pay of the offices and staff, from £10,741 (Rs. 1,07,410) to £12,560 (Rs. 1,25,600).

Forests receipts have risen from £2288 (Rs. 22,880) in 1868-69 to £5967 (Rs. 59,670) in 1881-82, and charges from £1638 (Rs. 16,380) to £3525 (Rs. 35,250).

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Finance.

Excise.

Justice.

Forest.

¹ The alcoholic strength of liquor is denoted by degrees over or under the standard of London proof which is taken as 100 degrees. Thus 25° U. P. that is under proof, is equivalent to 75 degrees of strength, 60° U. P. is equivalent to 40° degrees of strength; and 25° O. P. or over proof, is equivalent to 125° degrees of strength.

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Finance.
ASSESSED
TAXES.

The following table shows the amount realised from the different assessed taxes levied between 1868-69 and 1881-82. Owing to the variety of rates and incidence it is difficult to make any satisfactory comparison of the results :

Dhárvar Assessed Taxes, 1868-1881.

YEAR.	Amount.	YEAR.	Amount.
	£		£
<i>Profession and Trade Tax.</i>		1874-75	1
1868-69	8605	1875-76
1869-70	10,468	1876-77
		1877-78
<i>Income Tax.</i>		<i>License Tax</i>	
1870-71	12,823	1878-79	13,024
1871-72	3411	1879-80	12,254
1872-73	2440	1880-81	6242
1873-74	141	1881-82	6078

No tax was levied between 1873-74 and 1877-78. The amounts of £141 (Rs. 1,410) and £1 (Rs. 10) received in 1873-74 and 1874-75 are on account of previous years.

Customs.

Opium receipts have risen from £694 (Rs. 6940) in 1868-69 to £871 (Rs. 8710) in 1881-82. The increase is due to increase in the amount realised on account of fees for licenses to sell opium by retail.

Military.

Military receipts have risen from £515 (Rs. 5150) to £1609 (Rs. 16,090), and charges have fallen from £14,673 (Rs. 1,46,730) to £14,651 (Rs. 1,46,510).

Mint.

The amount of £10 (Rs. 100) received during 1881-82, represents the sale proceeds of cut copper coins. Mint charges amounted to £40 (Rs. 400).

Post.

Post receipts have risen from £2358 (Rs. 23,580) to £16,894 (Rs. 1,68,940) and post charges from £1562 (Rs. 15,620) to £9431 (Rs. 94,310). The receipts and charges shown in the 1881-82 balance sheet, besides letters books and parcels, include money received and paid under the money order system.

Telegraph.

Telegraph receipts have risen from £330 (Rs. 3300) to £392 (Rs. 3920), and charges have fallen from £1181 (Rs. 11,810) to £786 (Rs. 7860).

Registration.

Registration receipts have fallen from £985 (Rs. 9850) to £751 (Rs. 7512), and charges from £844 (Rs. 8440) to £653 (Rs. 6530).

Education.

Education receipts, including local funds, have risen from £4415 (Rs. 44,150) to £11,061 (Rs. 1,10,610), and education charges from £7007 (Rs. 70,070) to £14,681 (Rs. 1,46,810).

Police.

Police receipts have risen from £349 (Rs. 3490) to £389 (Rs. 3890), and police charges from £11,549 (Rs. 1,15,490) to £16,387 (Rs. 1,63,870).

Medicine.

Medical receipts have risen from £57 (Rs. 570) to £248 (Rs. 2480), and medical charges have fallen from £2362 (Rs. 23,620) to £2338 (Rs. 23,380), and jail charges from £2655 (Rs. 26,550) to £1765 (Rs. 17,650).

Transfer.

Transfer receipts have fallen from £110,262 (Rs. 11,02,620) to £79,763 (Rs. 7,97,630) and transfer charges have risen from £251,056 (Rs. 25,10,560) to £294,507 (Rs. 29,45,070). The increase

Chapter X.
Finance.
LOCAL FUNDS.

(Rs. 2,63,610), and expenditure to £31,494 (Rs. 3,14,940). The local fund revenue is derived from three sources, a special cess of one-sixteenth in addition to the land tax, the proceeds of certain subordinate local funds, and certain miscellaneous items. The special land cess, of which two-thirds are set apart as a road fund and the rest as a school fund, in 1881-82 yielded a revenue of £17,619 (Rs. 1,76,190). The subordinate funds, including a cattle pound fund, a toll fund, a ferry fund, and a school-fee fund, yielded £3678 (Rs. 36,780). Government municipal and private subscriptions, interest on Government securities and receipts of the School of Industry amounted to £4499 (Rs. 44,990), and miscellaneous receipts, including certain items of land revenue, to £564 (Rs. 5640). In 1881-82 this revenue was administered by district and sub-divisional committees partly of official and partly of private members. The district committees consist of the Collector, the assistant and deputy collector, the executive engineer and the educational inspector as official, and the proprietor of an alienated village and six landholders as non-official members. The sub-divisional committees consist of an assistant collector, the mámlatdár, a public works officer and the deputy educational inspector as official, and the proprietor of an alienated village and three landholders as non-official members. The sub-divisional committees bring their local requirements to the notice of the district committee who prepare the yearly budget.

For administrative purposes, the local funds of the district are divided into two main sections, one set apart for public works and the other for instruction. The receipts and disbursements during the year 1881-82 were :

Dhárwár Local Funds, 1881-82.
PUBLIC WORKS.

RECEIPTS.	Amount.	CHARGES.	Amount.
	£		£
Balance	5377	Establishment	3777
Two-thirds of Land Cess...	11,746	New Works	9641
Tolls	1103	Repairs	4434
Ferries	377	Medical	188
Cattle-pounds	922	Miscellaneous	592
Contributions	1201	Balance	2637
Miscellaneous	486		
Quarry Fees	57		
Total	21,269	Total	21,269

INSTRUCTION.

RECEIPTS.	Amount.	CHARGES.	Amount.
	£		£
Balance	4814	Establishment	8342
One-third of Land Cess...	5873	School Charges	1285
School-fee Fund	1276	School-houses	2036
Contributions { Government... ..	2477	Miscellaneous	699
{ Municipal and		Balance	2421
{ Private	204		
Miscellaneous	21		
Interest	73		
Industrial School Receipts	545		
Total	15,238	Total	15,238

Since 1863, the following local funds works have been carried out. To improve communications about 522½ miles of road have been made and kept in order, and partly planted with trees. To improve

the water-supply, 175 ponds and reservoirs, ninety wells, seventy-five cisterns and seventeen water-courses have been either made or repaired. To help village instruction, seventy-nine schools, and for the comfort of travellers, thirty-five rest-houses and six staging bungalows have been either built or repaired. Besides these works one cholera and infectious diseases hospital, 177 cattle pounds, sixty-one *chávdís* or village offices and eighteen toll-houses have been either made or repaired.

In 1881-82 of nine municipalities, six in Dhárwár, Gadag-Betgeri, Hubli, Navalgund, Nargund, and Ránebennur were established under Act XXVI of 1850. The remaining three of Byádgí Hángal and Háveri were established under Act VI of 1873. Since 1881-82 the Hángal municipality has been abolished. In 1881-82 each of these municipalities was administered by a body of commissioners with the Collector as president and the assistant or deputy collector in charge of the sub-division as vice-president. The Dhárwár and Hubli municipalities have since been made city municipalities. In 1881-82 the district municipal revenue amounted to £10,467 (Rs. 1,04,670), of which £4396 (Rs. 43,960) were recovered from octroi dues, £2226 (Rs. 22,260) from house-tax, £792 (Rs. 7920) from toll and wheel taxes, and £3053 (Rs. 30,530) from other sources.

The following statement gives for each municipality the receipts, charges, and incidence of taxation during the year ending the 31st March of 1882 :

Dhárwár Municipal Details, 1881-82.

NAME.	DATE.	PEOPLE.	RECEIPTS.				TOTAL.	INCIDENCE.
			Octroi.	House Tax.	Tolls and Wheel Tax.	Miscellaneous.		
Dhárwár	1st Jan. 1856 ...	26,471	£ 710	£ 602	£ 208	£ 1254	£ s. d. 2734 2 0	
Hubli	1st Aug. 1855 ...	86,041	1467	628	632	458	8085 1 8	
Navalgund	19th Dec. 1870 ...	7812	181	155	...	700	1036 2 8	
Nargund	30th Jan. 1871 ...	7883	284	100	...	52	436 1 1	
Gadag-Betgeri ...	1st May 1859 ...	17,001	711	428	...	439	1578 1 10	
Ránebennur	1st Jan. 1858 ...	10,748	253	158	52	49	512 0 11	
Háveri	11th Sept. 1879 ...	5490	242	95	...	42	379 1 5	
Byádgí	16th Sept. 1879 ...	4116	548	50	...	46	644 3 2	
Hángal	1st Oct. 1879 ...	5272	...	50	...	13	63 0 8	
Total	4396	2226	792	8053	10,467 ...	

NAME.	CHARGES.							TOTAL.	
	Staff.	Safety.	Health.	Schools.	Works.		Miscellaneous.		
					New.	Repairs.			
Dhárwár	£ 727	£ 178	£ 1269	£ ...	£ 123	£ 172	£ 615	£ 8085	
Hubli	510	118	1796	79	206	119	574	8371	
Navalgund	115	4	417	...	81	20	65	720	
Nargund	75	12	124	...	63	2	538	519	
Gadag-Betgeri ...	313	10	836	24	...	126	170	1479	
Ránebennur	167	9	176	2	47	80	42	513	
Háveri	106	9	198	...	28	2	8	351	
Byádgí	128	9	161	1	365	...	18	680	
Hángal	17	7	86	...	3	5	9	73	
Total		2146	357	4983	106	920	526	1753	10,701

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INSTRUCTION.

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Instruction.

IN 1882-83 there were 356 Government schools or an average of one school for every four inhabited villages with 29,711 names and an average attendance of 19,206 or 7.93 per cent of 242,943 the whole population between six and fourteen years of age.

STAFF.

Under the Director of Public Instruction and the Educational Inspector Southern Division, the schooling of the district was conducted by a local staff 960 strong. Of these one was a deputy education inspector drawing a yearly pay of £180 (Rs. 1800), with general charge over all the schools of the district except the high school, the two first grade anglo-vernacular schools, the training college, the jail school, the police school, and the school of industry.¹ Of these the jail school, the police school, and the school of industry were under the inspection of the deputy educational inspector. The deputy educational inspector was aided by two assistants each drawing a yearly pay of £90 (Rs. 900); and the rest were masters and assistant masters.

COST.

Excluding superintendence charges, the total expenditure on account of these schools amounted to £14,559 (Rs. 1,45,590) of which £3597 (Rs. 35,970) were paid by Government and £10,962 (Rs. 1,09,620) from local and other funds.

INSTRUCTION.

Of these Government schools one was a training college, one a high school teaching English and Sanskrit up to the matriculation standard, and having a drawing class attached to it, one an industrial school, one a police school, and one a jail school; two were first grade anglo-vernacular schools, one teaching English up to the fifth standard and the other up to the third standard; and eight were second grade anglo-vernacular schools, that is vernacular schools with an English class teaching English up to the third standard; and the remaining 341 were vernacular schools of which 324 were boys schools and seventeen girls school. Of the 341 vernacular schools 334 taught Kánarese, three taught Maráthi, and four taught Hindustáni.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

Besides the 356 Government schools there were thirty-six private schools. Of these fifteen were aided by Government and twenty-one were *jágirdárs* or estate-holders schools inspected by the Education Department. Of the fifteen aided schools eight were under the Basel German Mission, five boys schools and three girls schools; one Dhárwár European and Eurasian girls school supported by the European community of Dhárwár; and six boys schools. Of the five Mission boys schools one taught Kánarese and English up to the fifth standard, and the remaining four boys schools and the three girls schools taught Kánarese to the fourth standard. The European and Eurasian girls school taught English to the fifth standard. The six boys schools taught the vernacular first and second standards. Of the twenty-one inspected schools six were in the Sávanur State, one anglo-vernacular boys school teaching

¹ It was closed on the 1st of September 1883. Boys were taught carpentry, smith's work, fitting, and turning. They were also taught to read and write.

English up to the third standard, four boys vernacular schools, and one girls school teaching four vernacular standards; ten in the Lakshmeshvar division of Miraj one anglo-vernacular teaching English to the third standard, six boys vernacular schools and three girls schools, all teaching the four vernacular standards; and the remaining five in the Miraj Mala state, four boys vernacular schools and one girls school all teaching the four vernacular standards.

As early as 1826 two Maráthi schools were opened one at Dhárwár and the other at Hñbli. In 1835 two Kánarese schools were opened in the same towns; and a third Kánarese school at Ránebennur in 1836. In 1848 the first English school was opened at Dhárwár. In 1855-56 there were fourteen Government schools, of which twelve were vernacular schools, one an English school, and one a training college, with 1410 names on the rolls and an average attendance of 1226. In 1865-66 the number of schools had risen to forty-nine with 4267 names on the rolls and an average attendance of 3391. Of these forty-nine schools forty-eight were vernacular schools and one was an English school. In 1875-76 the number had further risen to 164¹ with 8926 names on the rolls and an average attendance of 6774.65. In 1879-80 the number of schools had reached 300 with 13,856 names and an average attendance of 9014.80. Compared with 1855-56 the returns for 1882-83 give an increase in the number of schools from fourteen to 356, in the names on the rolls from 1410 to 29,711, and in the average attendance from 1226 to 19,206. Besides these Government schools thirty-six aided and inspected schools were founded by estate-holders or *jágirdárs*, private persons, and missionaries.

In 1867 the first girls school was opened at Dhárwár. During the six years ending 1873-74 the number of girls schools rose to eleven in 1873-74 with 429 names on the rolls and an average attendance of 295.2. Of these two were maintained by the Basel German Mission Society and the rest were Government schools. In 1880 the number was twenty with 979 names on the rolls and an average attendance of 625. Of these schools three were Basel German Mission Schools, two estate or *jágir* schools, one each at Lakshmeshvar and Sávanur, and the rest were Government schools. In 1880 four new girls schools were opened, and in 1881-82 the number of schools reached twenty-four, of which seventeen were Government, three Mission, and four estate schools, with an attendance of 1484. In 1882-83 two new estate schools were opened and the attendance rose from 1484 in 1881-82 to 1859 in 1882-83. Besides these separate girls schools 2450 girls attend boys schools, so that the number of girls attending school is 4309.

The 1881 census returns gave for the chief races of the district the following proportion of persons able to read and write. Of 779,875, the total Hindu population, 15,491 (males 15,031, females

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PROGRESS,
1826-1883.

GIRLS' SCHOOLS.

READERS AND
WRITERS.

¹ Of 164 schools, one was a High School, one a training college, one a school of industry, three were first grade anglo-vernacular schools, one a second grade anglo-vernacular school, fourteen were girls schools, one was a jail school, and 142 were vernacular schools.

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Instruction.
READERS AND
WRITERS.

460) or 1·98 per cent below fifteen, and 2815 (males 2791, females 24) or 0·36 per cent above fifteen were under instruction; 1286 (males 1214, females 72) or 0·16 per cent below fifteen and 28,751 (males 28,536, females 215) or 3·68 per cent above fifteen were instructed; 275,599 (males 133,100, females 142,499) or 35·33 per cent below fifteen and 455,933 (males 209,526, females 246,407) or 58·46 per cent above fifteen were illiterate. Of 100,622, the total Musalmán population, 1370 (males 1323, females 47) or 1·36 per cent below fifteen and 236 (males 226, females 10) or 0·23 per cent above fifteen were under instruction; 109 (males 97, females 12) or 0·10 per cent below fifteen and 1924 (males 1879, females 45) or 1·91 per cent above fifteen were instructed; 37,537 (males 18,596, females 18,941) or 37·30 per cent below fifteen and 59,446 (males 28,478, females 30,968) or 59·07 per cent above fifteen were illiterate. Of 2356 Christians, 279 (males 118, females 161) or 11·84 per cent below fifteen, and 38 (males 27, females 11) or 1·61 per cent above fifteen were under instruction; 26 (males 17, females 9) or 1·10 per cent below fifteen and 274 (males 195, females 79) or 11·62 per cent above fifteen were instructed; and 663 (males 342, females 321) or 28·14 per cent below fifteen and 1076 (males 502, females 574) or 45·67 per cent above fifteen were illiterate:

Dhárwad Education, 1881.

AGE.	HINDUS.		MUSALMÁNS.		CHRISTIANS.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
<i>Under Instruction.</i>						
Below Fifteen ...	15,031	460	1323	47	118	161
Above Fifteen ...	2791	24	226	10	27	11
<i>Instructed.</i>						
Below Fifteen ...	1214	72	97	12	17	9
Above Fifteen ...	28,536	215	1879	45	195	79
<i>Illiterate.</i>						
Below Fifteen ...	133,100	142,499	18,596	18,941	342	321
Above Fifteen ...	209,526	246,407	28,478	30,968	502	574
Total ...	390,198	389,677	50,599	50,023	1201	1155

RACE.

Before 1855-56 no returns were prepared arranging the pupils according to race and religion. The following statement shows that of the two races of the district the Hindus have the larger proportion of their boys and girls under instruction:

Pupils by Race, 1855-56 and 1882-83.

RACE.	1855-56.		1882-83.			
	Pupils.	Per-centage of Pupils.	Pupils.	Per-centage of Pupils.	School-going Popula-tion.	Per-centage on School-going Popula-tion.
Hindus ...	1294	92·36	23,061	88·48	213,344	13·12
Musalmán's ...	107	7·64	3653	11·52	23,392	12·86
Total ...	1401	100	31,714	100	242,236	13·09

Of 28,136, the total number of pupils in Government boys schools at the end of March 1883, 3435 or 12·20 per cent were Bráhmans; 204 Kshatriyás, and fifty Káyasth Prabhus; 13,858 or 49·25 per cent Lingáyats; 486 or 1·72 per cent Jains; 593 or 2·10 trading castes including 304 shopkeepers; 1067 or 3·78 per cent Kunbis; 1597 or 5·67 per cent craftsmen; 480 or 1·70 per cent labourers; 297 or 1·05 per cent depressed classes; and 2730 or 9·02 per cent other Hindus; 3298 or 11·72 per cent Musalmáns; thirty-seven Native Christians, three Pársis, and one Eurasian. Of 1575, the total number of girls on the rolls in 1882-83 in the seventeen Government girls schools 1506 or 95·61 per cent were Hindus, sixty-six or 4·19 Musalmáns, two Pársis, and one a Native Christian.

The following tables, prepared from special returns furnished by the Educational Department, show in detail the number of schools and pupils, the school fees, and the cost to Government:

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Instruction.
CASTE.

SCHOOLS,
1855-1883.

Dhárwar School Return, 1855-56, 1865-66, and 1882-83.

CLASS.	SCHOOLS.			PUPILS.		
				Hindus.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>						
Training College...	1	...	1	9	...	94
High School	1	194
Anglo-vernacular Schools ...	1	1	10	50	90	431
Vernacular Schools ...	12	48	341	1235	3845	25,470
Industrial School	1	34
Police and Jail Schools...	2	80
<i>Aided.</i>						
English	2	70
Vernacular	18	389
<i>Inspected.</i>						
English	3	97
Vernacular	19	1252
Total ...	14	49	392	1294	3935	28,061

CLASS.	PUPILS—continued.					
	Musalmáns.			Pársis and Others.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>						
Training College...	13	2
High School	2	2
Anglo-vernacular Schools ...	1	4	15	9	6	8
Vernacular Schools ...	106	319	3231	...	8	36
Industrial Schools	21	1
Police and Jail Schools	32	2
<i>Aided.</i>						
English	13	13
Vernacular	40	179
<i>Inspected.</i>						
English	10
Vernacular	227
Total ...	107	323	3653	9	9	236

DISTRICTS.

Dhárwad School Return, 1855-56, 1865-66, and 1882-83.

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SCHOOLS,
1855-1883.

CLASS.	PUPILS—continued.			AVERAGE ATTENDANCE.		
	Total.			1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.			
<i>Government.</i>						
Training College	9	...	107	92.7
High Schools	198	115.
Anglo-vernacular Schools	60	100	449	46	76	34.4
Vernacular Schools	1341	4167	28,737	1160	3315	134.6
Industrial School	56	44.2
Police and Jail Schools	164	14.4
<i>Aided.</i>						
English	95	89.23
Vernacular	568	460.24
<i>Inspected.</i>						
English	107	62.
Vernacular	1479	935.
Total ...	1410	4267	31,950	1236	3391	1312.37

CLASS.	FEES.			COST TO EACH PUPIL.			RECEIPTS.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	Government.		
							1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>									
Training College	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£	£	£	8.5
High Schools	2s to 4s.	8 12 2	6	...	613
Anglo-vernacular Schools	3s.	1s.	6d to 2s	...	1 13 2	1 17 0	33	69	137
Vernacular Schools	1d.	1d to 2 1/2d	1 1/2d to 6d	...	0 16 6	0 10 7	255	1612	1643
Industrial School	20 15 1	15.0
Police and Jail Schools
<i>Aided.</i>									
English	9d to 2s.	3 10 4
Vernacular	1 1/2d.	0 12 3	11.9
<i>Inspected.</i>									
English	1 1/2d.
Vernacular	3d to 3d.
Total ...	298	1681	3697						

CLASS.	RECEIPTS—continued.							
	Local Cess.		Municipalities.			Private.		
	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>								
Training College... ..	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
High Schools	53
Anglo-vernacular Schools	21	14	...	139	60	23	...
Vernacular Schools	440	6638	...	116	4	5	836	453
Industrial School	1867
Police and Jail Schools...
<i>Aided.</i>								
English	109
Vernacular	140
<i>Inspected.</i>								
English
Vernacular
Total ...	440	8634	14	116	143	65	873	702

Dharwar School Returns, 1855-56, 1865-66, and 1882-83—continued.

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Instruction.

SCHOOLS,
1855-1883.

CLASS.	RECEIPTS—continued.						EXPENDITURE.		
	Fees.			Total.			Instruction.		
	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Training College	6	...	885	6	...	751
High School	386	979	895
Anglo-Vernacular Schools ...	17	45	281	133	136	633	97	123	623
Vernacular Schools ...	93	313	1071	353	3337	10,469	346	1946	8701
Industrial School	2007	863
Police and Jail Schools
<i>Aided.</i>	89	189	314
English	13	272	308
Vernacular
<i>Inspected.</i>
English
Vernacular
Total ...	110	358	2353	483	3473	15,429	449	2072	12,400

CLASS.	EXPENDITURE—continued.						Cost to		
	Buildings.		Scholarships.	Total.			Government.		
	1855-56.	1882-83.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.
<i>Government.</i>	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Training College	762	6	...	1513	6	...	885
High School	145	1040	613
Anglo-Vernacular Schools	10	97	126	633	82	69	187
Vernacular Schools ...	798	1126	...	346	2744	9827	265	1612	1648
Industrial School	116	919	160
Police and Jail Schools
<i>Aided.</i>	314
English	308	119
Vernacular
<i>Inspected.</i>
English
Vernacular
Total ...	798	1126	1023	449	2870	14,569	393	1681	8697

CLASS.	Cost to—continued.								
	Local Cess.		Other Funds.			Total.			
	1855-56.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	1855-56.	1865-66.	1882-83.	
<i>Government.</i>	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Training College	629	6	...	1513	
High School	118	309	1040	
Anglo-Vernacular Schools	10	65	57	441	97	196	638	
Vernacular Schools ...	16	6509	91	1116	1875	346	2744	9827	
Industrial School	61	718	919	
Police and Jail Schools	
<i>Aided.</i>	314	314	
English	20	189	308	
Vernacular	
<i>Inspected.</i>	
English	
Vernacular	
Total ...	16	7386	166	1173	3626	449	2870	14,569	

Chapter XI.
Instruction.
TOWN SCHOOLS.

A comparison of the 1882-83 provision for teaching the town and country population gives the following result :

In Dhárwár in 1882-83 eighteen Government schools had 2179 names on the rolls and an average attendance of 1481.5. Of these schools one was a training college, one a high school, one a second grade anglo-vernacular school, one an industrial school, one a police school, one a jail school, one a Maráthi school, one a Hindustáni school, two girls schools, one teaching practising school attached to the training college, and the rest were Kánarese boys schools. The Dhárwár training college was established at the cost of Government. At the end of March 1883, 107 names were on the rolls. The number of scholars, almost all of whom board at the college, depends on the demand for teachers in the education department, no more than the required number being admitted. The college has a building of its own which was made in 1875. The average yearly cost of each pupil in the training college was £15 14s. (Rs. 157), in the high school £6 4s. (Rs. 62), and in the school of industry £20 14s. (Rs. 207). In the other schools the cost was 9s. 4½d. (Rs. 4½). Since 1872 nine pupils a year have on an average passed the University Entrance Examination from the Dhárwár high school.¹ In addition to the Government schools in 1882-83 three private schools were maintained in the town of Dhárwár by Missionaries with 214 names on the rolls and an average attendance of 182. The average yearly cost² for each pupil varied from £2 10s. to 8s. (Rs. 25 - 4). Besides these there was one Eurasian girls school with ten names on the rolls. In Navalgund in 1882-83 one second grade anglo-vernacular and two Kánarese schools had 231 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 158, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 9s. 6d. (Rs. 4½).

In Nargund in 1882-83 four schools had 269 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 200, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 9s. 1½d. (Rs. 4½). Of the four schools one was a Maráthi school, two were Kánarese schools, and one was a girls school. In Shalvadi in 1882-83 one Kánarese school had 153 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 101, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 7s. 1½d. (Rs. 3½). In Annigeri in 1882-83 one second grade anglo-vernacular school had 171 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 120, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 8s. 6d. (Rs. 4½). In Hebli in 1882-83 one Kánarese school had 150 names on the rolls, an average attendance of ninety-five, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 6s. 9d. (Rs. 3½). In Ron in 1882-83 one Kánarese school had 238 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 154, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 8s. 8d. (Rs. 4½). In Náregal in 1882-83 one second grade anglo-vernacular school

¹ The details are : In 1872 three, in 1873 thirteen, in 1874 five, in 1875 fifteen, in 1876 eight, in 1877 five, in 1878 seven, in 1879 eight, in 1880 two, in 1881 ten, in 1882 fifteen, and in 1883 nineteen.

² The cost for each pupil shown in these statements is what the pupil costs the State not what the pupil pays in fees. The rates of fees are given in the School Return page 616.

had 191 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 101, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 5s. 1d. (Rs. 2½). In Gadag in 1882-83 five schools had 511 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 354, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 8s. 4d. (Rs. 4½). Of the five Gadag schools one was a second grade anglo-vernacular school, two were Kánarese schools, one was a Kánarese girls school, and one a night school. In Betgeri in 1882-83 two Government schools had 205 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 118, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 8s. 7d. (Rs. 4¼). Of the Betgiri schools one was a Kánarese boys school and the other a Kánarese girls school. Besides these two vernacular schools, one for boys the other for girls were supported by the Basel Mission with 103 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 78, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of about £1 10s. (Rs. 15). In Mulgund in 1882-83 were two schools, one a second grade anglo-vernacular school for boys the other a Kánarese school for girls with 345 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 203, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 7s. 6d. (Rs. 3¾). In Kustkot in 1882-83 was one Kánarese school with 123 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 97.5, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 6s. 7d. (Rs. 3¼). In the town of Hubli in 1882-83, were fourteen schools with 2296 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 1347, and an average yearly cost for each pupil varying from £3 to 8s. (Rs. 30-4). Of the fourteen Hubli schools one was a first grade anglo-vernacular school, one a Hindustáni school, one a Maráthi school, two Kánarese girls schools, one a night school, and eight Kánarese boys schools. Besides these schools in 1882-83 three Kánarese schools, two for boys and one for girls, were supported by the Basel Mission with 182 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 151, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of about £2 10s. (Rs. 25). In Bankápur in 1882-83 were three schools with 442 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 340, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 7s. 11d. (Rs. 3¾). Of these one was a second grade anglo-vernacular school and of the other two schools one was a Hindustáni school and the other a girls school. In Háveri in 1882-83 were three schools, one Kánarese branch school, one first grade anglo-vernacular school, and one girls school with 332 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 299, and an average yearly cost for each pupil of 9s. 8d. (Rs. 4¾). In Ránebennur in 1882-83 five schools had 440 names on the rolls, an average attendance of 340, and an average yearly cost for each pupil varying from 17s. 5½d. to 8s. 5d. (Rs. 8½-4½). Of the five Ránebennur schools, one was a second grade anglo-vernacular school, one a Hindustáni school, one a Kánarese girls school, and two Kánarese primary schools.

In 1882-83, exclusive of the sixteen towns, Dhárwár was provided with 288 schools, or an average of one school for every 4.5 villages. The following statement shows the distribution of these schools by sub-divisions :

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Instruction.
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Chapter XI.

Instruction.

VILLAGE
SCHOOLS.

Dhárwár Village Schools, 1882-83.

SUB-DIVISION.	Villages.	Popu- lation.	Schools.		SUB-DIVISION.	Villages.	Popu- lation.	Schools.	
			Boys.	Girls.				Boys.	Girls.
Dhárwár ...	133	95,420	19	...	Karajgi ...	131	89,752	23	1
Navalgund ...	91	79,971	34	...	Hangal ...	163	67,390	28	1
Ron ...	59	68,070	20	...	Ránebennur ...	123	74,978	24	...
Gadag ...	100	99,094	34	1	Kod ...	150	79,069	35	1
Hubli ...	81	63,277	25	...					
Kalghatgi ...	108	53,129	14	...					
Bankápur ...	140	76,907	24	2	Total ...	1300	841,687	285	6

Before the establishment of Government village schools, such children as got any schooling generally went to private schools kept by Bráhmans and Lingáyat priests. The pupils were Bráhmans or Lingáyats as other castes were not admitted into these schools.

NEWSPAPERS.

The town of Dhárwár has three local vernacular papers, the Dhárwár Vrittá or Dhárwár News printed in Maráthi and published on Thursday; the Chandrodaya or Moon Rise printed in Kánarese and published on Saturday; and the Chháva or Elephant Calf published on Sunday. The Dhárwár News is said to be a fairly ably managed paper with about 450 subscribers; the Moon Rise has only lately appeared and has about 150 subscribers; the Elephant Calf, which is said not to be well conducted, seldom goes beyond the limits of Dhárwár town.

LIBRARY.

In the district are three libraries and four reading rooms. The three libraries are one each at Dhárwár, Hubli, and Ránebennur. The Native General Library at Dhárwár is the largest and oldest. The Dhárwár Native General Library was established in 1854 by Mr. Lakshman Shripád Nágpurkar a *pandit* or vernacular teacher. For some years after its establishment the library prospered, it then declined, but since 1872 through the efforts of some of the principal educational officers, the pleaders, and a few others it again is fairly successful. The library was once fairly stocked with books which during its time of depression were stolen. At present it has 451 books, 414 are English, thirty Maráthi, and seven Kánarese. The books are not classified and in spite of their experience are said not to be carefully kept. The books are kept in a small and inconvenient rented house. It is supported solely by subscriptions raised from about fifty-four subscribers at monthly rates varying from 6d. to 4s. (Rs. ¼-2). The 1882-83 receipts amounted to nearly £30 (Rs. 300). Two English daily papers are taken by the library. Besides these the well-wishers of the library give for its use one English, three anglo-vernacular, and ten vernacular papers and one Maráthi periodical. It also occasionally receives from the educational department copies of books free of charge. The Hubli library dates from 1865. It is partly supported from municipal funds and partly from subscriptions. It is prosperous. It contains 424 English, twenty-eight Kánarese, twenty-four Sanskrit, eight Gujaráti, five Hindustáni, and 343 Maráthi books. The library owns a fine building built from funds subscribed by the people of the town. The Hubli municipality pays a yearly subscription of £14 18s. (Rs. 149), and there are sixteen subscribers at monthly rates varying from 6d. to 2s. (Rs. ¼-1). The 1882-83 income was £15 15s. 6d. (Rs. 157¼).

The library subscribes to two English papers one daily and one weekly, three Anglo-Maráthi, four Maráthi, and two Kánarese papers in addition to three Maráthi monthly magazines. The library at Ránebennur was established in 1873. The books are kept in a rented and inconvenient building. It is supported from the interest of a sum of £150 (Rs. 1500) which was collected by public subscription. It takes in two anglo-vernacular, six vernacular, and one English paper, and occasionally receives presents of books from the educational department. Its 1882-83 income was £18 (Rs. 180). Besides these libraries there are reading rooms at Gadag, Háveri, Nargund, and Navalgund. The details are :

Dhárwár Reading Rooms, 1882-83.

NAME.	Date.	Subscribers.	Papers taken.	Sub- scription.
Gadag ...	1876	20	8	£. d. 3 to 3
Háveri ...	1880	45	4	4 to 3
Nargund ...	1873	88	3	8 to 1
Navalgund ...	1882	...	5	2 to 6

Except Bráhmans who read Maráthi prints no class of the Kánarese population has shown any taste for newspaper reading. For the depressed classes Mhárs or Holayás and others, whose touch other Hindus consider impure, a school of 105 boys has been opened in Dhárwár and another of fifty boys in Hubli. In village schools boys of these classes are allowed to attend if there is room to keep them by themselves. Besides those in Dhárwár and Hubli about 150 low caste boys are being taught in village schools.

CHAPTER XII.

HEALTH.

Chapter XII.
Health.
DISEASES.

EXCEPT a fatal form of intermittent fever which came from Kánara about 1862 and for years wasted the western sub-divisions Dhárwár is a healthy district. *The commonest and most fatal disease is intermittent fever. It is caught in forest and watered tracts and is often fatal. In the latter half (July - December) of 1818 cholera prevailed to a frightful degree causing immense mortality in the army and among the people generally.¹ At Hubli in three days two officers and upwards of one hundred men were carried off by cholera.² The next serious outbreak of cholera which has been traced was in 1865-66 when between November 1865 and October 1866, 10,024 fatal cases occurred. In 1869 between January and October, of 2712 cases reported 1459 proved fatal. During this outbreak in the town of Dhárwár, 305 of 557 seizures were fatal. In 1876 and 1877 during the famine large numbers died of a cholera which was brought on by bad water and want of food. Small-pox visits the district periodically and usually during the hot months causing many deaths. Guineaworm is more or less common during the hot months. Probably from the scarcity and the badness of the water it took an epidemic form during the 1876-77 famine.

HOSPITALS,
1882.

In 1882 besides the civil hospital at Dhárwár there were three grant-in-aid dispensaries one each at Hubli, Gadag, and Háveri. The number of patients treated was 44,307, of whom 43,692 were out-door and 615 in-door patients; the cost was £2565 (Rs. 25,650). The following details are taken from the 1882 reports :

Dhárwár.

The Dhárwár civil hospital was removed to the new hospital building on the 1st of June 1882. The prevailing diseases are parasitic diseases, ague, skin diseases, chest eye and ear affections, rheumatism, and bowel-complaints. In 1882 cholera appeared in a sporadic form in some parts of the sub-division. 5276 out-patients and 356 in-patients were treated at a cost of £1427 (Rs. 14,270).

¹ Bombay Courier, 19th December 1818.

² The following story of the origin of the great plague of cholera in 1818 and 1819 is widely known and believed in Sátára and in the Bombay Kánarese districts. Adil Sháh of Bijápúr was a magician. He had power over spirits and diseases. At Bijápúr he built a house with strong walls and a round stone roof. The house had no windows and no doors. He left a little hole and by his power over them he drove in all diseases cholera, small-pox, and fever, and shut the whole. After this the people were free from disease. When the English took Bijápúr an officer saw this strong building without a window or a door. He thought it was to store money. He asked the people what was the use of this strong house with neither a window nor a door. The people said cholera and small-pox and fever were shut in the house and no one should open it. The English officer thought that this showed there was money in the house and that the king had told the people this story so that no man might touch his treasure. The officer broke down the wall and the house inside was empty. Cholera and small-pox spread over the land and especially in Dhárwár many soldiers and many officers died.

The Hubli dispensary was established in 1859. The commonest diseases are fevers, skin-diseases and ulcers, rheumatic and syphilitic affections, ophthalmia, and intestinal worms. In 1882 no epidemic occurred. 12,490 out-patients and 143 in-patients were treated at a cost of £442 (Rs. 4420).

The Gadag dispensary was opened in 1864. The principal diseases are malarious fevers, rheumatic and syphilitic affections, ophthalmia and inflammation of the ear, chest affections, bowel-complaints, and skin-diseases. In 1882 13,052 out-patients and 52 in-patients were treated at a cost of £341 (Rs. 3410).

The Háveri dispensary was opened in 1878 in a hired house; but a new dispensary is being built. The commonest diseases are skin-diseases, malarious fevers, intestinal worms, and ulcers. In 1882 cholera prevailed in the neighbourhood during the month of May. During the year 12,874 out-patients and 59 in-patients were treated at a cost of £355 (Rs. 3550).

In 1883 twenty-four persons seven of whom were new admissions, were confined in the Dhárwár Lunatic Asylum. Of these four improved and were made over to their relatives, and two died. The remaining eighteen, eleven men and seven women, were under care on the 31st of December. Of these seven suffered from acute mania, three from chronic mania, two from acute dementia, and twelve from chronic dementia. The general health of the inmates was fair. Of sixteen cases of illness admitted for treatment ten were discharged, two died, and four remained in the hospital.

According to the 1881 census 1686 persons (males 981, females 705) or 0·19 per cent of the population were infirm. Of the total number 1541 (males 894, females 647) were Hindus; 139 (males 83, females 56) Musalmáns; and 6 (males 4, females 2) Christians. Of 1686 the total number of infirm persons 130 (males 85, females 45) or 7·71 per cent were of unsound mind, 810 (males 474, females 336) or 48·04 per cent were blind, 584 (males 300, females 284) or 34·63 per cent were deaf and dumb, and 162 (males 122, females 40) or 9·60 per cent were lepers. The details are:

Dhárwár Infirm People, 1881.

	HINDUS.		MUSALMÁNS.		CHRISTIANS.		TOTAL.	
	Males.	Females	Males.	Females	Males.	Females	Males.	Females
Insane	77	41	6	4	85	46
Blind	432	309	40	26	2	2	474	336
Deaf-Mutes	276	264	23	30	1	...	300	284
Lepers	109	84	12	6	1	...	122	40
Total	894	647	82	66	4	2	981	705

In 1883-84 under the supervision of the Deputy Sanitary Commissioner Southern Deccan Registration District the work of vaccination was carried on by eighteen vaccinators with yearly salaries varying from £16 16s. (Rs. 168) to £28 16s. (Rs. 288). Of the operators fourteen were distributed over the rural parts of the district, and, of the remaining four, one was posted at each of the towns of Dhárwár, Gadag, Hubli, and Ránebennur. Besides the vaccinators

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Health.

DISPENSARIES.

Gadag.

Háveri.

LUNATIC ASYLUM.

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VACCINATION.

the medical officer of the Háveri dispensary carried on vaccine operations. The total number of operations was 28,430 besides 738 re-vaccinations compared with 13,744 primary vaccinations in 1869-70.

The following statement shows the sex, religion, and age of the persons primarily vaccinated :

Dhárwár Vaccination Details, 1869-70 and 1883-84.

YEAR.	PRIMARY VACCINATIONS.									
	Sex.		Religion.					Age.		Total.
	Males.	Females	Hindus.	Musal-máns.	Pársis.	Christians.	Others.	Under One Year.	Over One Year.	
1869-70 ...	7398	6351	11,598	1901	2	63	180	2262	11,482	13,744
1883-84 ...	14,624	13,806	23,542	3907	1	59	921	12,163	16,267	28,430

In 1883-84 the total cost of these operations, exclusive of those performed in one dispensary was £331 14s. (Rs. 8317) or about $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ ($4\frac{1}{2} as.$) for each successful case. The charges included supervision and inspection £279 12s. (Rs. 2796), establishment £506 18s. (Rs. 5069), and contingencies £45 8s. (Rs. 727). Of these the supervising and inspecting charges were met from Government provincial funds, while £500 8s. (Rs. 5004) were borne by the local funds of the different sub-divisions and £51 18s. (Rs. 517) were paid by the municipalities of Dhárwár, Gadag-Betgeri, and Hubli for the services of three vaccinators.

CATTLE DISEASE.

The most fatal and widespread form of cattle disease is that locally known as *hirebeni*. In this disease, which is prevalent at all seasons but is most fatal during the hot weather, the animal refuses food but drinks freely. A fluid discharges from the eyes and nostrils, the stools are frequent and bloody, and the urine scanty and highly coloured. The disease lasts three or four days and is generally fatal. The disease prevails in the black soil plain as well as in the hilly west; it seems to be worse where the soil is red and hard.

BIRTHS AND DEATHS.

The total number of deaths shown in the Sanitary Commissioner's yearly reports, for the eighteen years ending 1883, is 475,035 or an average mortality of 26,391, or, according to the 1881 census, of thirty in every thousand of the population. Of the average number of deaths 13,401 or 50.77 per cent were returned as due to fevers, 1891 or 7.16 per cent to cholera, 743 or 2.81 per cent to small-pox, 4259 or 16.13 per cent to bowel complaints, and 5747 or 21.77 per cent to miscellaneous diseases. Deaths from violence or injuries averaged 346 or 2.81 per cent of the average mortality. An examination of the returns shows that fever, which, during the eighteen years ending 1883 caused an average yearly mortality of 13,401 or 50.77 per cent, was below the average in twelve years and above the average in the six years ending 1880. Three years 1866 1867 and 1870 had less than 7000 deaths, the lowest total being 6183 in 1866; two years 1868 and 1869 had between 7000 and 8000; two years 1871 and 1873 between 9000 and 10,000; two years 1872 and 1883 between 10,000 and 11,000; and three years 1874 1881 and 1882 between

11,000 and 13,000. Of the six years above the average, 1876 had 13,515, 1880 had 13,917, 1879 had 17,802, 1875 had 17,818, 1878 had 29,082, and 1877 the famine year 39,915. Of the deaths from cholera, which amounted to 34,045 and averaged 1891, 11,192 or 32·87 per cent happened in 1866, 8779 or 25·78 per cent in 1877, and 7092 or 20·83 per cent in 1876. The only other years which were over the average were 1869 with 2691 deaths and 1875 with 2288. Except in 1878 when the number was 1790, and in 1882 when it was 130, in none of the other years were there more than thirty deaths, and four years, 1871 1874 1879 and 1880, were free from cholera. Of the deaths from small-pox, which amounted to 13,377 and averaged 743, 2653 or 19·83 per cent happened in 1872, 2642 or 19·75 per cent in 1877, 1645 or 12·29 per cent in 1868, and 1250 or 9·41 per cent in 1873. Besides these years three years had a more than average mortality from small-pox, 1869 with 894, 1871 with 845, and 1867 with 816. Four years 1870, 1874, 1876 and 1883 had between 500 and 400 deaths, 1866 had 393, 1875 had 238, 1878 had 109, 1882 had thirteen, 1880 had two, and the remaining two years 1879 and 1881 were free from small-pox. Of the deaths from bowel-complaints which amounted to 76,666 or 4259 a year, eleven years were below the average, and seven, the seven years ending 1877, were above the average. The smallest number of deaths from bowel-complaints in any one of the eighteen years was 2084 in 1867 and the largest was 12,230 in 1877. Injuries, with a total of 6251 and an average of 346, varied from 257 in 1869 to 658 in 1877. Other causes with a total mortality of 103,453 and an average mortality of 5747 varied from 3394 in 1867 to 19,633 in 1877.

Birth returns are available only for the thirteen years ending 1883. During these thirteen years the number of births averaged 27,197. The yearly totals vary from a lowest of 9966 in 1878 to 38,927 in 1883. The details are:

Dharwar Births and Deaths, 1866-1883.

YEAR.	DEATHS.							BIRTHS.
	Cholera.	Small-pox.	Fevers.	Bowel Com-plaints.	In-juries.	Other Causes.	Total.	
1866	11,192	303	6188	2508	233	4366	24,925	...
1867	6	816	6710	2084	296	3394	13,306	...
1868	2	1645	7692	2791	278	4172	16,750	...
1869	2691	894	7005	3911	257	4737	19,195	...
1870	1	491	6834	3817	304	4620	16,297	...
1871	845	9240	5283	319	5892	21,579	26,481
1872	24	2653	10,395	5898	299	6582	25,841	28,966
1873	17	1250	9126	4509	327	6165	21,394	28,477
1874	485	11,165	4529	362	5304	21,845	28,371
1875	2238	238	17,818	4696	350	6168	30,538	27,794
1876	7898	408	13,515	4718	299	5694	31,726	28,568
1877	8779	2642	33,915	12,230	658	19,633	53,857	21,208
1878	1790	109	29,082	4072	577	6735	42,365	9966
1879	17,802	2461	446	3850	24,558	16,927
1880	13,917	3038	325	3982	21,264	28,458
1881	5	...	12,868	3167	302	4132	20,492	33,315
1882	130	13	11,448	3511	282	4564	19,938	36,357
1883	28	493	10,340	3763	288	4283	19,195	38,927
Total	34,045	13,377	241,243	76,666	6251	103,453	478,035	338,568
Average	1891	743	13,401	4259	346	5747	26,891	27,197

¹ The death returns are believed to be fairly correct and the birth returns to be incomplete.

CHAPTER XIII.

SUB-DIVISIONS.¹

Chapter XIII.

Sub-Divisions.

BANKÁPUR.

Bankápur is in the west centre of the district. It is bounded on the north by Hubli and the Kundgol and Lakshmeshvar divisions of Jamkhandi and Miraj, on the east by the Lakshmeshvar division of Miraj and Karajgi, on the south by Hángal, and on the west by North Kánara and Kalghatgi. It contains 155 Government and sixteen alienated villages with an area of 343 square miles, a population of 76,554 or 223 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £19,875 (Rs. 1,98,750).²

Area.

Of the 343 square miles, all of which have been surveyed in detail, twenty-four square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest, according to the revenue survey returns, contains 167,338 acres or 83·57 per cent of arable land, 6159 acres or 3·07 per cent of unarable land, 1938 acres or 0·96 per cent of grass, 17,715 acres or 8·84 per cent of forests, and 7084 acres or 3·53 per cent of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 167,338 acres of arable land, 66,004 acres have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages.

Aspect.

West Bankápur is broken by small hills and much of it is under forest, the centre is flat, and most of the east and north are full of bare low ridges. Some plots in the valleys are under tillage, but most of the ground is rugged, unfit for cultivation, and overgrown with grass. In the west small villages of poor husbandmen stand close together on shady knolls; in the east large settlements of rich husbandmen are scattered far apart in a bare open plain.

Soil.

In the west the soil is chiefly red, in the south and north chiefly black, and in the east a mixed black and red. Bankápur has many low ranges and detached hills. From the north of the sub-division the country falls sharply into Kalghatgi on the north-west and Kánara on the west. It is covered with low ranges and detached hills general richly wooded with many small villages and rice-fields. Deer and wild pig are found in different parts of the forest.

Climate.

Except Shiggaon and at a few other places, which are surrounded by rice fields and where during the cold months, the climate is feverish, Bankápur is healthy. All over the sub-division the rainfall is fairly constant and sufficient. At Shiggaon the sub-division head-quarters, during the ten years ending 1881, the rainfall varied

¹ The sections on aspect, soil, climate, and water have been contributed by Messrs. J. F. Muir, C. S. and F. L. Charles, C. S.

² The sub-division, population, and revenue figures are throughout for 1881-82.

from 15·23 inches in 1876 to 38·75 inches in 1877 and averaged 25·30 inches.

In the south-east corner the chief water supply is a stream which flows south-east into the Varda. The Varda, which, for about eight miles, forms the south boundary of Bankápur, passes over a stony sandy bed about 300 feet broad between steep earthy banks. The rest of the sub-division draws its water from reservoirs and ponds. The water of the largest ponds, as at Nagnur, Hire Bendigeri, and Yelvigi is good.

According to the 1882-83 returns farm stock included eleven riding and 4020 load carts, 8222 two-bullock and 712 four-bullock ploughs, 23,272 bullocks and 15,218 cows, 4747 he-buffaloes and 8597 she-buffaloes, 564 horses, 12,996 sheep and goats, and 354 asses.

In 1881-82 of 95,799 acres the whole area held for tillage, 16,540 acres or 17·26 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 79,259 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 46,190 acres or 58·27 per cent of which 24,300 were under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *javári* (M.) Sorghum vulgare, 8913 under rice *bhatta* (K.) or *bhát* (M.) Oryza sativa, 4057 under *navani* (K.) or *káng* (M.) Panicum italicum, 3493 under *rági* (K.) or *náchni* (M.) Eleusine corocana, 3273 under *sáve* (K.) or *vári* (M.) Panicum miliare, 1894 under wheat *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) Triticum æstivum, 127 under spiked millet *sejje* (K.) or *bájri* (M.) Penicillaria spicata, and 133 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 6558 acres or 8·27 per cent of which 2422 were under *togari* or *tuvari* (K.) or *tur* (M.) Cajanus indicus, 1727 under *hurli* (K.) or *kulthi* (M.) Dolichos biflorus, 1603 under *hesaru* (K.) or *mug* (M.) Phaseolus radiatus, 459 under gram *kadli* (K.) or *harbhara* (M.) Cicer arietinum, 10 under *uddu* (K.) or *udid* (M.) Phaseolus mungo, and 337 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 2910 acres or 3·67 per cent of which 428 were under sesame *yellu* (K.) or *til* (M.) Sesamum indicum, 53 under linseed *agashi* (K.) or *javas* (M.) Linum usitatissimum, and 2429 under other oil seeds. Fibres occupied 22,484 acres or 28·36 per cent, of which 22,464 were under cotton, *hatti* or *arale* (K.) or *kápus* (M.) Gossypium herbaceum, and 20 under Bombay hemp *sanbu* (K.) or *tág* (M.) Crotalaria juncea. Miscellaneous crops occupied 1117 acres or 1·40 per cent of which 533 were under chillies *menasinakái* (K.) or *mirchi* (M.) Capsicum frutescens, 251 under sugarcane *kabbu* (K.) or *us* (M.) Saccharum officinarum, 4 under tobacco *hágesoppu* (K.) or *tambáku* (M.) Nicotiana tabacum, and the remaining 329 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 76,554 people 65,313 or 85·31 per cent were Hindus, 11,234 or 14·67 per cent Musalmáns, and 7 Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are 1876 Bráhmans; 27,692 Lingáyats; 1676 Jains, 757 Lavánás, 476 Telugu-Banjigárs, 163 Láds or South Gujarátis, 25 Komtis or Váishyás, and 25 Nárvekars and Bándekars, traders; 5374 Maráthás, 560 Radders, 330 Rajputs, and 31 Dásárs, husbandmen; 1642 Páñcháls, metal-workers; 803 Gavandis, masons; 371 Kumbhárs, potters; 350 Shimpis, tailors; 193 Medars, bamboo-workers; 159 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 126 Kammárs, blacksmiths; 111 Badiges, carpenters;

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111 Ilgerus, palm-tappers; 141 Lád-Suryavanshis, butchers; 24 Killikiatars or Chhatris, labourers; 2655 Gánigárs, oilmen; 772 Kostis, weavers; 6098 Kurubars, shepherds; 33 Gaulis, cowherds; 4210 Bedars, hunters; 1124 Ambigs, fishermen; 848 Nádigárs, barbers; 521 Parits, washermen; and 278 Chelvádis, Lingáyat beadles; 1118 Vaddars, diggers; 470 Koravars, basket-makers; 16 Dombars, rope-dancers; 107 Gollars, 26 Jogis, 25 Helávárs, 23 Gondhalgárs, 19 Bairágis, 20 Kshetridásás, and 4 Bháts, beggars; 2429 Mádigárs, leather-workers; 798 Holayás or Mhárs, labourers; 458 Kotegárs, beggars; 199 Samagárs or Chámbhárs, shoemakers; 36 Dhors, tanners; and 10 Bhangis, scavengers.

DHÁRWÁR.

Dhárwár, in the north-west corner of the district is bounded on the north by Belgaum, on the east by Navalgund, on the south-east by Hubli, on the south by Kalghatgi, on the south-west by Haliyál in North Kánara, and on the north-west by Belgaum. It contains 179 Government and thirty-four alienated villages, with an area of 425 square miles, a population of 111,137 or 261 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £27,705 (Rs. 2,77,050).

Area.

Of the 425 square miles, 398 have been surveyed in detail. According to the revenue survey returns, seventy-eight square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contain 179,078 acres or 80·70 per cent of arable land, 6697 acres or 3·00 per cent of unarable land, 839 acres or 0·37 per cent of grass, 28,965 acres or 13·00 per cent of forests, and 6477 acres or 2·90 per cent of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 179,708 acres of the arable land 97,995 acres have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages.

Aspect.

From rugged and hilly land in the west and south the country gradually passes north and east into a black soil plain broken by an occasional peak or group of bare hillocks. In the east and north, except a few *bábhul* and mango trees along the borders of fields the plain is bare. In the south and west the waste is covered with forest and the hills with brushwood and grass.

Hills.

In Dhárwár sub-division are seven hills, Durgadgudda, Hullimardi, Peddakanvi, Sidráyanmardi, Tákarinpur, Tolanmardi also called Vankimardi, and Topinhatti. Of these Durgadgudda is in Durgatkeri about eighteen miles west of Dhárwár, Hullimardi in Holikot about thirteen miles south-west of Dhárwár, Peddakanvi in Kalkeri about twelve miles south-west of Dhárwár, Sidráyanmardi in Nirliagi about thirteen miles west of Dhárwár, Tokrinpur in Kedianhatti about six miles west of Dhárwár, Tolanmardi or Vankimardi in Vudvánagalvi about sixteen miles south-west of Dhárwár, and Topinhatti in Kivdibail sixteen miles south-west of Dhárwár. Tolanmardi the highest of these hills rises nearly 300 feet above the plain and the rest from 150 to 200 feet.

Soil.

Except some black soil valleys almost the whole west of the sub-division is red, while the whole east is black except occasional red ridges. The black eastern soil is best suited to late crops, and the red western soil to rice.

Climate.

On the whole the climate is good. The cold months from November to February and the early rains are cool even chilly. Showers often fall in April and usually by the middle of May the

hot weather is over. In the west the rainfall is heavier than in the east. Except that in the cold months the west is rather feverish, the sub-division is healthy. At Dhárwár, during the ten years ending 1881 the rainfall varied from 22·05 inches in 1876 to 52·19 inches in 1874 and averaged 32·38 inches.

Water is scanty. The only stream that holds water throughout the year is the Tuprihalla. Most villages have ponds, which fill twice in the year, during the April thunderstorms and during the north-east rains in October. Only a few have sweet wholesome water; the water of the rest is brackish and unwholesome. Besides ponds some of the larger villages have draw wells, but in most wells as in the ponds the water is brackish. In seventeen large villages the eighteen reservoirs water about 3902 acres.

According to the 1882-83 returns the farm stock include 177 riding and 4614 load carts, 8547 two-bullock and 1126 four-bullock ploughs, 23,982 bullocks, 15,482 cows, 5526 he-buffaloes, 11,126 she-buffaloes, 904 horses, 16,237 sheep and goats, and 509 asses.

In 1881-82 of 124,045 acres the whole area held for tillage, 22,040 acres or 17·76 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 102,005 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 72,597 acres or 71·17 per cent of which 31,189 were under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *javári* (M.) Sorghum vulgare, 16,527 under wheat *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) Triticum æstivum, 12,472 under rice *bhatta* (K.) or *bhát* (M.) Oryza sativa, 6562 under *navani* (K.) or *káng* (M.) Panicum italicum, 3542 under *rági* (K.) or *náchni* (M.) Eleusine corocana, 1196 under *sáve* (K.) or *vari* (M.) Panicum miliare, 397 under spiked millet *sejje* (K.) or *bójri* (M.) Penicillaria spicata, and 712 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 10,079 acres or 9·88 per cent of which 3982 were under *togari* or *tuvari* (K.) or *tur* (M.) Cajanus indicus, 2953 under gram *hadli* (K.) or *harbhara* (M.) Cicer arietinum, 2172 under *hurli* (K.) or *kulthi* (M.) Dolichos biflorus, 673 under *hesaru* (K.) or *mug* (M.) Phaseolus radiatus, 37 under *udlu* (K.) or *udid* (M.) Phaseolus mungo, and 262 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 4266 acres or 4·18 per cent, of which 88 were under sesame *yellu* (K.) or *til* (M.) Sesamum indicum, and 4178 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 13,326 acres or 13·06 per cent of which 13,069 were under cotton *hatti* or *arale* (K.) or *kápus* (M.) Gossypium herbaceum, and 257 under Bombay hemp *sambu* (K.) or *tág* (M.) Crotalaria juncea. Miscellaneous crops occupied 1737 acres or 1·70 per cent of which 841 were under chillies *menasinakai* (K.) or *mirchi* (M.) Capsicum frutescens, 360 under tobacco *hagesoppu* (K.) or *tambáku* (M.) Nicotiana tabacum, 130 under sugarcane *kabbu* (K.) or *us* (M.) Saccharum officinarum, and the remaining 406 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 111,137 people 95,155 or 85·61 per cent were Hindus, 15,011 or 13·50 per cent Musalmáns, 924 or 0·83 per cent Christians, 24 Pársis, 18 Jews, and 5 Buddhists. The details of the Hindu castes are: 4525 Bráhmans; 37,624 Lingáyats; 2608 Jains, 363 Láds or South Gajarátis, 95 Nárvekaras and Bándekaras, 34 Chunáris, 21 Lavánás, 17 Telugu-Oshnámarus,

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and 6 Márwáris, traders; 12,668 Maráthás, 753 Rajputs, 71 Radders, 44 Dásárs, and 10 Kámátis, husbandmen; 2062 Páncháls, metal-workers; 850 Gavandís, masons; 702 Shimpis, tailors; 478 Medárs, bamboo-workers; 447 Lad Suryavanshis, butchers; 432 Kumbhárs, potters; 391 Badiges, carpenters; 415 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 364 Kammárs, blacksmiths; 136 Ilgerus, palm-tappers; 46 Niláris, indigo-dyers; 41 Killikiatars, labourers; 27 Jingars, saddle-makers; 2922 Kostis, weavers; 1600 Khattris, silk dyers; 1285 Gánigárs, oilmen; 493 Devángs or Hatgárs, weavers; 7645 Kurubars, shepherds; 144 Gavlis cowherds; 5714 Bedars, hunters; 966 Nádigárs, barbers; 681 Parits, washermen; 381 Bhois, litter-bearers; 274 Chelvádis, Lingáyat beadles; 269 Ambigs, fishermen; 41 Kalávants, dancing-girls; 939 Vaddars, diggers; 565 Koravars, basket-makers; 50 Shikalgárs, armourers; 29 Dombars, rope-dancers; 1060 Kábáligárs, 102 Gollárs, 77 Gondhalgárs, 63 Jogis, 35 Bairárgis, 19 Gosávis, 6 Helávárs, 5 Kshetridásás, and 4 Devdásás, beggars; 2360 Mádigárs, leather-workers; 1358 Holayás or Mhárs, labourers; 572 Samagárs or Chámhbárs and 115 Mochigárs, shoe-makers; 81 Dhors, tanners; 37 Kotegárs, beggars; and 33 Bhangis, scavengers.

GADAG.

Gadag, in the east of the district, is bounded on the north by Ron, on the east by the Nizám's territory, on the south by the Shirhatti division of Sánгли and the Kundgul division of Jamkhandi, and on the west by Navalgund. It contains 114 Government and fourteen alienated villages, with an area of 699 square miles, a population of 100,333 or 143 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £25,740 (Rs. 2,57,400).

Area.

Of the 699 square miles, 697 have been surveyed in detail. According to the revenue survey returns, fifty-three square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contains 353,166 acres or 85·38 per cent of arable land, 6648 acres or 0·16 per cent of unarable land 552 acres or 0·13 per cent of grass, 40,723 acres or 9·84 per cent of forests, and 12,529 acres or 3·02 per cent of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 353,166 acres of arable land 88,221 acres have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages.

Aspect.

Compared with Navalgund to the north-west and Ron to the north Gadag is hilly and fairly wooded. The north and east are level. But the Kappatgudd hills roughen about thirty-three miles of the south-west. In the west at Mulgund are some low curiously shaped hills with a confusion of large granite boulders, and in the south close to Mundargi is a bare mass of grayish stone partly granite. In the south the villages are small and close together; in other parts they are three to four miles from each other. Most of the village sites are bare and the people are poor.

Soil.

In the south and on both sides of the Kappatgudd hills the soil is red, further from the hills black soil appears often mixed with red and whitish grey. In the west north and east the soil is rich black

Hills.

The chief hills are the Kappatgudd range on the south-west. They are of strongly iron charged clay slate, which in the west shows traces of gold. They rise a little to the south-west of Gadag and covering a tract four to five miles broad, stretch about thirty

miles south-east till they end sharply on the Tungbhadra. Except near Dambal, about fifteen miles south-east of Gadag, where is a short flat-topped ridge about 1000 feet high, the range is formed of three or four parallel lines of bare conical hills 300 to 400 feet above the plain separated by valleys about 500 yards wide. The sides are generally steep and in parts bare even of brushwood. The tops are either pointed or ridged. Two passes cross them from Doni and Kalkeri on the east to Sortur and Bágevádi on the west. Almost no traffic passes along either route.

Except the Mundargi petty division in the south-east which during the cold months is notoriously feverish, and in the east and south during the hot months the climate of Gadag is on the whole temperate and healthy. At Gadag during the ten years ending 1881 the rainfall varied from 11·22 inches in 1876 to 38·76 inches in 1878 and averaged 24·86 inches.

Except in years of drought, Gadag is fairly off for water. It draws its supply from rivers, streams, ponds, and wells. The chief rivers are the Tungbhadra and its feeder the Hirehalla. The Tungbhadra flowing east forms the south boundary of the sub-division with a breadth of a quarter of a mile. It flows all the year round, and is fordable only during the hot months. A ferry plies from Hesur to Sovinhalli in Belári. The bed is gravelly in some places and of black earth in others; and the banks are generally sloping. The Hirehalla flows south into the Tungbhadra with a course of about thirty miles, and, a little above its meeting with the Tungbhadra, is about 500 feet broad. It flows all the year round in a gravelly bed between sloping banks of earth and gravel. Streams in different parts of the sub-division generally hold a small store of water even in the hot season. Besides many small village ponds there are two large reservoirs at Doni and at Dambal. The water of the black soil wells is brackish and unfit for drinking.

According to the 1882-83 returns farm stock included ninety-one riding and 4470 load carts, 7206 two-bullock and 1449 four-bullock ploughs, 28,533 bullocks and 12,289 cows, 2835 he-buffaloes and 9630 she-buffaloes, 519 horses, 48,616 sheep and goats, and 797 asses.

In 1881-82 of 247,451 acres the whole area held for tillage, 23,101 acres or 9·33 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 224,350 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 110,538 acres or 49·27 per cent of which 63,551 were under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *javari* (M.) Sorghum vulgare, 31,949 under wheat *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) Triticum aestivum, 5765 under *navani* (K.) or *kang* (M.) Panicum italicum, 1749 under spiked millet *eeje* (K.) or *bajri* (M.) Penicillaria spicata, 662 under *sáve* (K.) or *vari* (M.) Panicum miliare, 632 under *rági* (K.) or *náchni* (M.) Eleusine corocana, 191 under rice *bhatta* (K.) or *bhat* (M.) Oryza sativa, and 6039 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 19,437 acres or 8·66 per cent of which 7487 were under gram *kadli* (K.) or *harbhara* (M.) Cicer arietinum, 4154 under *hesaru* (K.) or *mug* (M.) Phaseolus radiatus, 4018 under *hurli* (K.) or *kulthi* (M.) Dolichos biflorus, 3755 under *togari* or *tuvari* (K.) or *tur* (M.) Cajanus indicus,

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8 under *uddu* (K.) or *udid* (M.) *Phaseolus mungo*, and 15 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 13,923 acres or 6·20 per cent, of which 4294 were under linseed *agashi* (K.) or *javas* (M.) *Linum usitatissimum*, 875 under sesame *yellu* (K.) or *til* (M.) *Sesamum indicum*, and 8754 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 79,591 acres or 35·47 per cent, of which 79,537 were under cotton *hatti* or *arale* (K.) or *kápus* (M.) *Gossypium herbaceum*, 45 under Bombay hemp *sanbu* (K.) or *tág* (M.) *Crotalaria juncea*, and 9 under Indian hemp *pundi* (K.) or *ambádi* (M.) *Hibiscus cannabinus*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 861 acres or 0·38 per cent of which 170 were under sugarcane *kabbu* (K.) or *us* (M.) *Saccharum officinarum*, 99 under tobacco *hágesoppu* (K.) or *tambáku* (M.) *Nicotiana tabacum*, 661 under chillies *menasinakai* (K.) or *mirchi* (M.) *Capsicum frutescens*, and the remaining 531 under various vegetables and fruits.

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The 1881 population returns show that of 100,333 people 89,551 or 89·25 per cent were Hindus, 10,314 or 10·28 per cent Musalmáns, and 468 or 0·46 per cent Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are: 3432 Bráhmans; 29,305 Lingáyats, 698 Jains, 497 Lavánás, 492 Telugu-Banjigárs, 345 Komtis, 125 Gurjars, 110 Láds, 29 Telugu-Oshnámarus, and 5 Márwáris, traders; 5028 Radders, 2481 Maráthás, 494 Rajputs, 75 Malavars, husbandmen; 2183 Páncháls, metal-workers; 704 Shimpis, tailors; 687 Gavandis, masons; 407 Kumbhárs, potters; 228 Ilgerus, palm-tappers; 172 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 101 Badiges, carpenters; 97 Kammárs, blacksmiths; 81 Killikiatars, labourers; 72 Lád-Suryavanshis, butchers; 52 Jingars, saddle-makers; 17 Medars, bamboo-workers; 4018 Gánigárs, oilmen; 2346 Hatgárs, weavers; 1850 Kostis, weavers; 1568 Khattris, silk-dyers; 14,507 Kurubars, shepherds; 45 Gavlis, cowherds; 6274 Bedars, hunters; 1082 Nádigárs, barbers; 918 Parits, washermen; 206 Bhois, litter-bearers; 156 Chelvádis, Lingáyat beadles; 1680 Vaddars, diggers; 687 Koravars, mat and basket makers; 27 Dombars, rope-dancers; 572 Gollárs, 24 Jogis, 10 Gosávis, 7 Budbudkis, beggars; 3680 Mádigárs, leather-workers; 1409 Holayás, labourers; 383 Samagárs and 105 Mochigárs, shoe-makers; 64 Dhors, tanners; and 16 Bhangis, scavengers.

HÁNGAL.

Há'ngal is in the south-west centre of the district, it is bounded on the north by Bankápur, on the east by Karajgi and Kod on the south by Maisur, and on the west by North Kánara. It contains 175 Government and thirty-six alienated villages with an area of 298 square miles, a population of 65,787 or 220 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £18,449 (Rs. 1,84,490).

Area.

Of the 298 square miles, 293 have been surveyed in detail. According to the revenue survey returns, forty-three square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contains 126,994 acres or 77·76 per cent of arable land, 944 acres or 0·57 per cent of unarable land, 159 acres or 0·09 per cent of grass, 15,368 acres or 9·41 per cent of forests, and 19,831 acres or 12·14 per cent of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 126,994 acres of arable land, 35,226 acres have to be taken on account of alienated land in Government villages.

Aspect.

The east is bare, but much of the south and west is covered with forest leaving openings round the villages for tillage. The surface is

uneven and much of it is watered by ponds. The villages are small and close together generally at some distance from the banks of streams: Some of the villages are walled, and others are open. In the east the soil is black, in the west and south it is red, and in the north it is a mixture of black and red. The country is covered with thickly wooded knolls and risings giving cover to pig and spotted deer, and to a few panthers. Sixty years ago wild elephants used to come north from the Maisur and Kánara forests.

Though, on account of the large area of watered land, it is rather feverish during the cold months, the climate of Hángal is temperate and healthy. The thermometer seldom rises above 100°, and after April falls rapidly to 85° in the middle of May and to 70° in June. At Hángal during ten years ending 1881 the rainfall varied from 22·68 inches in 1876 to 54·64 inches in 1874 and averaged 35·47 inches.

The Varda flows for about twelve miles through the south-east of the sub-division. It is fordable during the dry months. Of local streams the Dharma is the largest rising in the west and flowing north-east for about twenty miles. It runs all the year round in a small stream, and has a dam at its source from which twelve square miles of sugarcane and rice fields are watered. Besides the river and streams many ponds and some miles of ancient channels bring water to villages at a distance from the head pond.

According to the 1882-83 returns farm stock included eight riding and 3075 load carts, 8791 two-bullock and 158 four-bullock ploughs, 23,152 bullocks and 18,954 cows, 5840 he-buffaloes and 6819 she-buffaloes, 403 horses, 9936 sheep and goats, and 150 asses.

In 1881-82 of 80,259 acres the whole area held for tillage, 23,493 acres or 29·27 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 56,766 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 41,449 acres or 73·01 per cent of which 20,813 were under rice *bhatta* (K.) or *bhát* (M.) *Oryza sativa*, 12,836 under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *jeári* (M.) *Sorghum vulgare*, 3833 under *rági* (K.) or *náchni* (M.) Eleusine corocana, 1987 under *navani* (K.) or *káng* (M.) *Panicum italicum*, 1880 under *sáve* (K.) or *vári* (M.) *Panicum miliare*, 40 under spiked millet *sejje* (K.) or *bájri* (M.) *Penicillaria spicata*, and 10 under wheat *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) *Triticum aestivum*. Pulses occupied 3978 acres or 7 per cent of which 1715 were under *hurli* (K.) or *kulthi* (M.) *Dolichos biflorus*, 1256 under *togari* or *tuvari* (K.) or *tur* (M.) *Cajanus indicus*, 442 under *hesaru* (K.) or *mug* (M.) *Phaseolus radiatus*, 356 under *gram kadli* (K.) or *harbhara* (M.) *Cicer arietinum*, 99 under *uddu* (K.) or *udid* (M.) *Phaseolus mungo*, and 110 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 2741 acres or 4·82 per cent of which 205 were under sesame *yellu* (K.) or *til* (M.) *Sesamum indicum*, 121 under linseed *agashi* (K.) or *javas* (M.) *Linum usitatissimum*, and 2415 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 5752 acres or 10·13 per cent of which 5668 were under cotton *katti* or *arale* (K.) or *kápus* (M.) *Gossypium herbaceum*, and 84 under Bombay hemp *sanbu* (K.) or *tág* (M.) *Crotalaria juncea*; Miscellaneous crops occupied 2846 acres or 5·01 per cent of which 1259 were under sugarcane *kabbu* (K.) or *us* (M.) *Saccharum officinarum*, 818 under chillies *menasinaká* (K.)

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or *mirchi* (M.) *Capsicum frutescens*, 3 under ginger *shunti* (K.) *alla* (M.) *Zinziber officinale*, and the remaining 766 under various vegetables and fruits.

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People,
1881.

The 1881 population returns show that of 65,787 people 56,433 or 85·78 per cent were Hindus, 9341 or 14·19 per cent Musalmáns, 12 Christians, and one a Pársi. The details of the Hindu castes are : 1948 Bráhmans; 27,397 Lingáyats; 971 Jains, 440 Lavánás, 163 Láds, 59 Telugu-Oshnámarus, 10 Chunáris, and 2 Márwáris, traders; 3280 Maráthás, 992 Kámátis, 126 Halepáiks, 124 Rajpnts, 120 Radders, 100 Malavars, 37 Haslárs, and 35 Dásárs, husbandmen; 1237 Páncháls, metal-workers; 634 Shimpis, tailors; 246 Ilgerus, palm-tappers; 221 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 122 Lád Suryavaushis, butchers; 177 Gavandis, masons; 117 Badiges, carpenters; 84 Kumbhárs, potters; 56 Nágliks, dyers; 32 Kammárs, blacksmiths; 28 Killikiátars, labourers; 26 Medars, bamboo-workers; 549 Gánigárs, oilmen; 292 Kostis and 181 Hatgárs, weavers; 2778 Kurubars, shepherds; 9 Gavlis, cowherds; 4183 Bedars, hunters; 577 Parits, washermen; 553 Chelvádis, Lingáyat beadles; 151 Nádigárs, barbers; 123 Ambigs, fishermen; 42 Bhois, litter-bearers; 2831 Vaddars, diggers; 518 Koravars, mat and basket-makers; 3 Dombars, rope-dancers; 621 Gollárs, 253 Jogis, 122 Helávans, 10 Gondhalgárs, and 8 Kshetridásás, beggars; 2012 Holayás, labourers; 1231 Mádigárs, leather-workers; 519 Kotegárs, beggars; 43 Samagárs, shoemakers; and 40 Dhors, tanners.

HUBLI.

Hubli lies a little to the north-west of the centre of the district. It is bounded on the north by Dhárwár and Navalgund, on the east by Navalgund and Gadag, on the south by the Kundgul division of the Jamkhandi State and Bankápur, on the south-west by Kalghatgi, and on the west and north-west by Dhárwár. It contains eighty-six Government and eight alienated villages with an area of 311 square miles, a population 91,997 or 295 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £26,056 (Rs. 2,60,560).

Area.

Of the 311 square miles, 308 have been surveyed in detail. According to the revenue survey returns, fifteen square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contains 174,697 acres or 92·12 per cent of arable land, 768 acres 0·40 per cent of unarable land, 3006 acres or 1·58 per cent of grass, 1278 acres or 0·67 per cent of forests, and 9873 acres or 5·20 per cent of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 174,697 acres of arable land 48,549 acres have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages.

Aspect.

The water-shed of South India runs through the sub-division from north to south dividing it into two unequal parts. To the west of the water-shed the country is broken by a few low hills with many small villages of poor hardworking people on rising ground. To the east of the watershed is a bare black level broken by a few straggling *bábhul* trees, and, far apart on the banks of streams, are large settlements of rich skilful husbandmen.

Soil.

In the north and east the soil is black and rich well suited for cotton. Most of the western black soil fields have bands of red mixed with the black and the soil of the rolling uplands is red.

Of two hills Doddagudd and Burdsinghi, Doddagudd in Unakall two miles north-east of Hubli, rises steep and bare about 300 feet above the plain. Burdsinghi is four miles south of Hubli where the general level is about forty feet lower than to the north of Hubli.

The climate of Hubli is temperate, neither very hot nor very cold, the west being wetter and cooler than the east. In a year of excessive rainfall the eastern black soil remains damp long after the rains are over and during the cold months the climate becomes feverish. A small tract between Behatti and Hebsur to the north, though it does not get a good rainfall oftener than once in four years, is so rich that it repays the husbandman. At Hubli, during the ten years ending 1881, the rainfall varied from 14·58 inches in 1876 to 43·55 inches in 1874 and averaged 28·25 inches.

In the west the chief source of water are west-flowing streams. Of these the Shalmalla, which lower down is called the Kallhalla is the largest, flowing over sand and gravel forty to fifty feet broad between sloping earthy banks. In the east the north-flowing Bennihalla passes along a muddy bed 150 to 200 feet broad between steep and earthy banks. During the hot season both of these streams cease to flow but the water stands in pools. Almost every village has a pond. The western ponds are small, but the water, which is good and plentiful, is used for drinking and for watering rice fields. In the east the water of the ponds and smaller streams is often brackish and unfit for drinking; and in dry years the supply fails.

According to the 1882-83 returns the farm stock included 162 riding and 4396 load carts, 5144 two-bullock and 336 four-bullock ploughs, 17,562 bullocks, 8066 cows, 2268 he-buffaloes and 7424 she-buffaloes, 484 horses, 13,988 sheep and goats, and 1313 asses.

In 1881-82 of 125,024 acres the whole area held for tillage, 7331 acres or 5·86 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 117,693 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 59,579 acres or 50·61 per cent of which 28,338 were under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *javari* (M.) Sorghum vulgare, 24,042 under wheat *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) Triticum aestivum, 2635 under *navani* (K.) or *kang* (M.) Panicum italicum, 2071 under rice *batta* (K.) or *bhat* (M.) Oryza sativa, 1163 under *ragi* (K.) or *nachni* (M.) Eleusine corocana, 1028 under *savu* (K.) or *vari* (M.) Panicum miliare, 57 under spiked millet *sejje* (K.) or *bajri* (M.) Penicillaria spicata, and 245 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 7443 acres or 6·32 per cent of which 3280 were under gram *kadli* (K.) or *harbhara* (M.) Cicer arietinum, 1906 under *togari* or *tuvári* (K.) or *tur* (M.) Cajanus indicus, 1516 under *hesaru* (K.) or *mug* (M.) Phaseolus radiatus, 570 under *hurli* (K.) or *kulthi* (M.) Dolichos biflorus, and 171 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 5045 acres or 4·28 per cent of which 1207 were under linseed *agashi* (K.) or *javas* (M.) Linum usitatissimum, 131 under sesame *yellu* (K.) or *til* (M.) Sesamum indicum, and 3707 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 44,910 acres or 38·15 per cent of which 44,865 were under cotton *hatti* or *arale* (K.) or *kapus* (M.) Gossypium herbaceum, and 45 under Bombay hemp *sanbu* (K.) or *tug* (M.) Crotalaria juncea. Miscellaneous

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crops occupied 716 acres or 0·60 per cent of which 275 were under chillies *menasinakai* (K.) or *mirchi* (M.) *Capsicum frutescens*, 104 under tobacco *hāgesoppu* (K.) or *tambāku* (M.) *Nicotiana tabacum*, 54 under sugarcane *kabbu* (K.) or *us* (M.) *Saccharum officinarum*, and the remaining 283 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 91,997 people 75,739 or 82·32 per cent were Hindus, 15,884 or 17·26 per cent Musalmāns, 368 or 0·40 per cent Christians, and 6 Pārsis. The details of the Hindu castes are: 2554 Brāhmans; 31,438 Lingāyats; 1540 Jains, 163 Lāds, 68 Kōmtis, 11 Gurjars, 9 Tāmbolis, and 8 Lavānās, traders; 3482 Marāthās, 1947 Raddars, 309 Rajputs, and 17 Dāsārs, husbandmen; 1860 Panchāls, metal-workers; 1662 Shimpis, tailors; 310 Gavandis, masons; 300 Kumbhārs, potters; 245 Sonārs, goldsmiths; 238 Badiges, carpenters; 181 Lād-Suryavanshis, butchers; 170 Medars, bamboo-workers; 158 Jingars, saddle-makers; 91 Kammārs, blacksmiths; 65 Nilāris, indigo-dyers; 4749 Kostis, weavers; 2127 Gānigārs, oilmen; 9215 Kurubars, shepherds; 119 Gavlis, cowherds; 3332 Bedars, hunters; 652 Nādigārs, barbers; 432 Parits, washermen; 315 Chelvādis, Lingāyat beadles; 52 Bhois, litter-bearers; 1025 Vaddars, diggers; 277 Koravars, mat and basket makers; 68 Shikalgārs, armourers; 67 Dombars, rope-dancers; 333 Gollārs, 78 Jogis, 9 Gosāvis, 6 Helāvārs, 6 Bhāts, and 5 Joshis, beggars; 3942 Mādigārs, leather-workers; 1506 Holayās, labourers; 484 Samagārs, shoemakers; 89 Dhors, tanners; 25 Bhangis, scavengers.

KALGHATGI.

Kalghatgi is in the west of the district. It is bounded on the north by Dhārwar, on the east by Hubli and Bankāpur, on the south by Yellāpur in North Kānara, and on the west by Yellāpur and Haliyāl in North Kānara. It contains 121 Government and twenty alienated villages with an area of 279 square miles, a population of 50,769 or 181 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £12,985 (Rs. 1,29,850).

Area.

Of the 279 square miles, 269 have been surveyed in detail. According to the revenue survey returns, thirty-six square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contains 97,868 acres or 62·85 per cent of arable land, 499 acres or 0·32 per cent of unarable land, 1618 acres or 1·03 per cent of grass, 46,434 acres or 29·82 per cent of forests, and 9282 acres or 5·96 per cent of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 97,868 acres of arable land 20,926 acres have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages.

Aspect.

Most of Kalghatgi is broken by woody hills. The east and south are open and rolling with bushy uplands. The north and west are wilder with one long ridge about 700 feet above the plain and several lower ranges, which, especially in the west, are thick covered with trees to the tops. The villages are unwalled, and are close together, generally on rising ground shaded by tamarind trees.

Soil.

Except a small tract in the east, the soil is red, with in parts a mixture of crumbly trap or *murum* and gravel.

Hills.

The only two large hills are Budangudd and Ganigudd with ridged tops and bush-covered sides. Budangudd, about twelve miles north-east of Kalghatgi, is eight miles from north to south

and has an average breadth of one mile. Ganigudd about four miles west of Kalghatgi, is half a mile long and a quarter of a mile broad.

The rains are damp and the cold weather which lasts till the end of February is cool and pleasant. After February the climate grows dry and hot, and disagreeable east winds set in. The dryness and heat last till May when thunderstorms with hail and heavy rain cool and soften the air. The rainfall in the woody west is heavier than in the rest of the sub-division. At Kalghatgi during the ten years ending 1881 the rainfall varied from 20·43 inches in 1876 to 42·95 inches in 1874 and averaged 29·25 inches.

The supply of water is on the whole plentiful. The Bidtihalla from the north and the Kalhalla from the north-east meet in the middle of the sub-division, and, over a rocky and sandy bed about a hundred feet broad, between steep earthy banks, flow south in a single stream at first under the name of the Bedti, and near the coast of the Gangávali. During the hot season the stream ceases but pools of water remain in the bed. Besides the streams each village has its pond most of which hold water through the year.

According to the 1882-83 returns farm stock included fifty-nine riding and 2444 load carts, 7822 two-bullock and two four-bullock ploughs, 22,781 bullocks and 17,747 cows, 6230 he-buffaloes and 5514 she-buffaloes, 463 horses, 4725 sheep and goats, and 281 asses.

In 1881-82 of 70,616 acres the whole area held for tillage, 20,913 acres or 29·61 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 49,703 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 45,860 acres or 22·26 per cent of which 23,990 were under rice *bhatta* (K.) or *bhát* (M.) *Oryza sativa*, 12,897 under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *javári* (M.) *Sorghum vulgare*, 5429 under *rági* (K.) or *náchni* (M.) *Eleusine corocana*, 2364 under *sáve* (K.) or *vari* (M.) *Panicum miliare*, 1165 under *navani* (K.) or *káng* (M.) *Panicum italicum*, 11 under wheat *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) *Triticum aestivum*, 3 under spiked millet *sejje* (K.) or *báji* (M.) *Penicillaria spicata*, and one under maize *mekke jola* (K.) or *makai* (M.) *Zea mays*. Pulses occupied 1093 acres or 2·19 per cent of which 681 were under *togari* or *tuvari* (K.) or *tur* (M.) *Cajanus indicus*, 232 under *hurli* (K.) or *kulthi* (M.) *Dolichos biflorus*, 87 under gram *kadli* (K.) or *harbhara* (M.) *Cicer arietinum*, 56 under *hesaru* (K.) or *mug* (M.) *Phaseolus radiatus*, 35 under *uddu* (K.) or *udid* (M.) *Phaseolus mungo*, and two under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 1066 acres or 2·14 per cent of which 213 were under sesame *yellu* (K.) *til* (M.) *Sesamum indicum*, and 853 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 871 acres or 1·75 per cent of which 753 were under cotton *hatti* or *arals* (K.) or *kápus* (M.) *Gossypium herbaceum*, 112 under Bombay hemp *sanbu* (K.) or *tág* (M.) *Crotalaria juncea*, and 6 under Indian hemp *pundi* (K.) or *ambádi* (M.) *Hibiscus cannabinus*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 813 acres or 1·63 per cent of which 500 were under chillies *menasinakai* (K.) or *mirchi* (M.) *Capsicum frutescens*, 187 under sugarcane *kabbu* (K.) or *us* (M.) *Saccharum officinarum*, 6 under tobacco *hágesoppu* (K.) or *tambáku* (M.) *Nicotiana tabacum*, and the remaining 120 under various vegetables and fruits.

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The 1881 population returns show that of 50,769 people 45,491 or 89·60 per cent were Hindus, 4725 or 9·30 per cent Musalmáns, and 553 or 1·08 per cent Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are: 946 Bráhmans; 20,493 Lingáyats; 1272 Jains, 843 Lavánás, 143 Láds or South Gujarátis, 132 Nárvekars and Bándekars, and 16 Gurjars or Gujarát Vánis, traders; 6516 Maráthás, 623 Radders, and 484 Rajputs, husbandmen; 743 Páncháls, metal-workers; 342 Gavandis, masons; 264 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 205 Shimpis, tailors; 194 Badiges, carpenters; 155 Kumbhárs, potters; 139 Lád Suryavanshis, butchers; 105 Ilgerus, palm-tappers; 102 Medars, basket-makers; and 55 Kammárs, blacksmiths; 375 Gánigárs, oilmen; 258 Kostis and 189 Hatgárs, weavers; 2160 Kurubars, shepherds; 121 Gavlis, cowherds; 2902 Bedars, hunters; 500 Ambigs, fishermen; 431 Parits, washermen; 259 Nádigárs, barbers; and 165 Chelvádis, Lingáyat beadles; 1104 Vaddars, diggers; 445 Koravars, basket-makers; 8 Dombars, rope-dancers; 36 Gollárs, 30 Jogis, 19 Gondhalgárs, and 9 Gosávis, beggars; 1250 Mádigárs, leather-workers; 1246 Holayás or Mhárs, labourers; 225 Samagárs or Chámbhárs, shoemakers; and 37 Dhors, tanners.

KARAJGI.

Karajgi, in the south-east of the centre of the district, is bounded on the north by the Lakshmeshvar division of Miraj and the Shirhatti division of Sánгли, on the east by the Tungbhadra which separates it from Belári in Madras, on the south by Kod and Ránebennur, and on the west by Hángal and Bankápur. It contains 141 Government and six alienated villages with an area of 442 square miles, a population of 83,216 or 188 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £19,232 (Rs.1,92,320).

Area.

Of the 442 square miles, 436 have been surveyed in detail. According to the revenue survey returns, twenty-four square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contains 229,189 acres or 86·02 per cent of arable land, 4269 acres or 1·60 per cent of unarable land, 8359 acres or 3·13 per cent of grass, and 24,595 acres or 9·23 per cent of villages sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 229,189 acres of arable land, 72,377 acres have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages.

Aspect.

Except in the south-west where it is broken by hills, Karajgi is flat. It is crossed from east to west by the Varda. The centre and south have a scanty covering of brushwood, but the rest of the subdivision except close to village sites is bare of trees. In the east the villages are large and far apart; in the west they are smaller and closer. Some stand on the banks of streams and some which have walls stand in the open plain. The people are fairly off.

Soil.

In the north and east the soil is black and in the south and west mostly red with an occasional plot of black.

Hills.

From the northern boundary of Ránnebenur in the south-east a few spurs pass north into Karajgi. They make little show as the level of the south of Karajgi is higher than the level of the plain parts of Ránebennur. The Devgiri hill rises about 300 feet above the plain and has a temple of Tirmalláppa on the top. The Kanvali hill rises 400 to 500 and the Kabur hill in the south-west

about 150 feet above the plain. Bush-covered hills in the west give cover to antelope and wild hog. The other hills are bare.

In some places in the south and west the climate is hot and feverish, but on the whole it is good. The rainfall is much the same all over the sub-division. At Karajgi during the ten years ending 1881 it varied from 13·36 inches in 1876 to 34·06 inches in 1873 and averaged 27·04 inches.

The Varda with a winding course of twenty-five to thirty miles flows north-east through the sub-division over a muddy and gravelly bed 300 to 600 feet broad and between steep banks. During the rains it is not fordable; but in the dry months, the water is so low in places that carts can cross. At Kohu, Karajgi, Nave, Rite, and many other villages ferries ply during the rains. The Tungbhadra, which forms the eastern boundary of the subdivision, up to February is crossed by two ferries at Galgnáth and Havmar. Between February and the end of May the Tungbhadra is fordable at many places. Many large and small ponds scattered over the sub-division furnish it with a good supply of water.

According to the 1882-83 returns farm stock included twenty-one riding and 3718 load carts, 7320 two-bullock and 1726 four-bullock ploughs, 24,194 bullocks and 14,216 cows, 2761 he-buffaloes and 9791 she-buffaloes, 551 horses, 29,145 sheep and goats, and 389 asses.

In 1881-82 of 129,001 acres the whole area held for tillage, 25,550 acres or 19·80 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 103,451 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 51,210 acres or 49·50 per cent, of which 38,718 were under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *javari* (M.) Sorghum vulgare, 7702 under *navani* (K.) or *káng* (M.) Panicum italicum, 1959 under *sáve* (K.) or *vari* (M.) Panicum miliare, 1910 under rice *bhatta* (K.) or *bhát* (M.) Oryza sativa, 600 under wheat *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) Triticum aestivum, 267 under *rúgi* (K.) or *náchni* (M.) Eleusine corocana, and 54 under spiked millet *sejje* (K.) or *báyri* (M.) Penicillaria spicata. Pulses occupied 12,410 acres or 11·99 per cent of which 4198 were under *togari* or *tuvari* (K.) or *tur* (M.) Cajanus indicus, 3656 under *hurli* (K.) or *kullhi* (M.) Dolichos biflorus, 3051 under *hesaru* (K.) or *muq* (M.) Phaseolus radiatus, 491 under gram *kadli* (K.) or *harbhara* (M.) Cicer arietinum, 63 under *uddu* (K.) or *udid* Phaseolus mungo, and 951 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 5415 acres or 5·23 per cent of which 941 were under sesame *yellu* (K.) or *tíl* (M.) Sesamum indicum, 9 under linseed *agashi* (K.) or *javas* (M.) Linum usitatissimum, and 4465 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 30,815 acres or 29·78 per cent of which 30,497 were under cotton *hatti* or *arale* (K.) or *kápus* (M.) Gossypium herbaceum, 244 under Bombay hemp *sanbu* (K.) or *tág* (M.) Crotalaria juncea, and 74 under Indian hemp *pundi* (K.) or *ambádi* (M.) Hibiscus cannabinus. Miscellaneous crops occupied 3601 acres or 3·48 per cent of which 2810 were under chillies *menasinakai* (K.) or *mirchi* (M.) Capsicum frutescens, 221 under sugarcane *kabbu* (K.) or (M.) Saccharum officinarum, 21 under tobacco *hágesoppu* (K.) or *tambaku* (M.) Nicotiana tabacum, and the remaining 549 under various vegetables and fruits.

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The 1881 population returns show that of 83,216 people 75,116 or 90·26 per cent were Hindus, 8096 or 9·73 per cent Musalmáns, and 4 Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are: 2727 Bráhmans; 30,757 Lingáyats; 586 Lavánas, 427 Jains, and 123 Láds, traders; 2071 Maráthás, 1096 Radders, 246 Rajputs, 50 Malavárs, husbandmen; 1818 Páncháls, metal-workers; 583 Shimpis, tailors; 266 Gavandis, masons; 198 Niláris, indigo-dyers; 179 Lád-Suryavanshis, butchers; 179 Badiges, carpenters; 161 Ilgerus, palm-tappers; 115 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 82 Kammárs, blacksmiths; 57 Killikiatars, labourers; 53 Kumbhárs, potters; 28 Medars, bamboo-workers; 2343 Gánigárs, oilmen; 1170 Kostis, weavers; 844 Khattris, silk-dyers; 10,244 Kurubars, shepherds; 11 Gavlis, cowherds; 6614 Bedars, hunters; 2316 Ambigs, fishermen; 771 Nádigárs, barbers; 576 Parits, washermen; 150 Bhois, litter-bearers; 103 Chelvádis, Lingáyat beadles; 2207 Vaddars, diggers; 810 Koravars, mat and basket-makers; 12 Dombars, rope-dancers; 672 Gollárs, 102 Helávárs, 44 Devdásás, 18 Gosávis, 17 Jogis, 8 Kshetridásás, and 8 Gondhalgárs, beggars; 3323 Mádigárs, leather-workers; 233 Holayás, labourers; 113 Kotegárs, beggars; 89 Samagárs, shoemakers; and 16 Dhors, tanners.

Kod.

Kod is in the extreme south-west of the district. It is bounded on the north by Hángal and Karajgi, on the east by Ránebennur, and on the south and west by Maisur. It contains 193 Government and eleven alienated villages, with an area of 400 square miles, a population of 80,345 or 200 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £18,663 (Rs. 1,86,630).

Area.

Of the 400 square miles, 389 have been surveyed in detail. According to the revenue survey returns, fifteen square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contains 191,648 acres or 77·56 per cent of arable land, 2016 acres or 0·81 per cent of unarable land, 3774 acres or 1·52 per cent of grass, 25,829 acres or 10·45 per cent of forests, and 23,811 acres or 9·63 per cent of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 191,648 acres of arable land 46,810 acres have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages.

Aspect.

Kod is dotted with small hills and ponds some of which when full are two to three miles long. Many of the hillocks are bare but the range which separates Kod from Maisur is covered with brushwood and low forests. A great part of the country is watered and is covered with sugarcane fields and betel-palm gardens. The villages which are small and close together, are well shaded and lie in the open plain, most of them without walls.

Soil.

The soil is chiefly red; black soil scarcely occurs except in a few villages in the east.

Hills.

The north and west have many small hills and knolls and the south is full of hills. In the south two nearly parallel steep and narrow ranges run east and west 400 to 600 feet above the plain. The northern range, which is about fourteen miles long, shuts off the Masur valley from the rest of the sub-divisions. It has no wild animals and except of grass and brushwood is bare. Besides a few bullock and pony tracks two cart roads cross it one from Hirekerur to Maisur and the other from Ratihalli to Maisur. The southern range, five to seven miles

from the northern range, runs south-east falling gradually into the Tungbhadra. Its highest hill is Márávli which rises about 600 feet above the plain. Most of the range is steep and narrow. Two cart roads cross it, one close to and the other four miles west of the Márávli hill. Besides by these roads it is crossed by a few rugged pony and bullock tracks. The range is scantily covered with low forest which gives shelter to panthers, bears, and a few tigers.

As the greater part of the tilled land is watered, Kod, though cool and healthy in the hot weather is very feverish during the cold months. During the ten years ending 1881 the rainfall at Hirekerur the sub-division head-quarters varied from 15·96 inches in 1876 to 32·77 inches in 1877 and averaged 25·73 inches.

The Tungbhadra touches a few villages in the south-east corner. The Kumadvati rising in the Madak lake in Maisur, with a bed 150 feet broad and between steep banks, flows east across the sub-division. In the hot season it holds water in pools.* Besides these rivers Kod has so many ponds of various sizes that one-eighth of the area under tillage is watered.

According to the 1882-83 returns farm stock included eleven riding and 3895 load carts, 12,696 two-bullock and 1791 four-bullock ploughs, 34,801 bullocks and 23,224 cows, 5139 he-buffaloes and 11,608 she-buffaloes, 382 horses, 18,007 sheep and goats, and 239 asses.

In 1881-82 of 123,768 acres the whole area held for tillage 25,859 acres or 20·89 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 97,909 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 65,539 acres or 66·93 per cent of which 30,281 were under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *javári* (M.) Sorghum vulgare, 14,325 under rice *bhatta* (K.) or *bhát* (M.) *Oryza sativa*, 10,163 under *rági* (K.) or *náchni* (M.) Eleusine corocana, 6467 under *navani* (K.) or *káng* (M.) *Panicum italicum*, 4243 under *sáve* (K.) or *vari* (M.) *Panicum miliare*, 57 under wheat, *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) *Triticum aestivum*, and 3 under spiked millet *sejje* (K.) or *bájri* (M.) *Penicillaria spicata*. Pulses occupied 7018 acres or 7·16 per cent of which 3474 were under *hurli* (K.) or *kulthi* (M.) *Dolichos biflorus*, 1894 under *togari* or *tuvari* (K.) or *tur* (M.) *Cajanus indicus*, 778 under *hesaru* (K.) or *mug* (M.) *Phaseolus radiatus*, 453 under gram *kadli* (K.) or *harbhára* (M.) *Cicer arietinum*, 165 under *uddu* (K.) or *udid* (M.) *Phaseolus mungo*, and 254 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 3843 acres or 3·92 per cent of which 145 were under sesame *yellu* (K.) or *tíl* (M.) *Sesamum indicum*, 41 under Indian mustard *sáive* (K.) or *rái* (M.) *Sinapis dichotoma*, and 3657 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 3370 acres or 3·44 per cent of which 3100 were under cotton *hatti* or *arala* (K.) or *kápus* (M.) *Gossypium herbaceum*, 253 under Bombay hemp *sanbu* (K.) or *tág* (M.) *Crotalaria juncea*, and 17 under Indian hemp *pundi* (K.) or *ambádi* (M.) *Hibiscus cannabinus*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 18,139 acres or 18·52 per cent of which 16,219 were under chillies *menasinakai* (K.) or *mírchi* (M.) *Capsicum frutescens*, 1316 under sugarcane *kabbu* (K.) or *us* (M.) *Saccharum officinarum*, 91 under tobacco *hágesoppu* (K.) or *tambáku* (M.) *Nicotiana tabacum*, 4 under ginger *shunti* (K.) or *alla* (M.) *Zinziber officinale*, and the remaining 509 under various vegetables and fruits.

Chapter XIII.

Sub-Divisions.

Kod.

Climate.

Water.

Stock.

Crops,
1881-82.

Chapter XIII.
Sub-Divisions.

Kod.
People,
1881.

The 1881 population returns show that of 80,345 people 73,200 or 91·10 per cent were Hindus, 7138 or 8·88 per cent Musalmáns, and 7 Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are : 1851 Bráhmáns ; 35,778 Lingáyats ; 608 Lavánás, 441 Jains, and 42 Telugu Oshnámarus, traders ; 2173 Maráthás, 617 Kámátis, 502 Radders, 234 Rajputs, 96 Dásárs, 20 Halepáiks, husbandmen ; 1636 Pancháls, metal-workers ; 1270 Gavandis, masons ; 414 Shimpis, tailors ; 260 Sonárs, goldsmiths ; 220 Jingars, saddle-makers ; 186 Ilgerus, palm-tappers ; 142 Badiges, carpenters ; 137 Kumbhárs, potters ; 129 Killikiatars, labourers ; 77 Niláris, indigo-dyers ; 22 Kamnárs, blacksmiths ; 20 Medars, bamboo-workers ; 517 Kostis, weavers ; 400 Gánigárs, oilmen ; 271 Hatgárs, weavers ; 7003 Kurubars, shepherds ; 25 Gavlis, cowherds ; 8086 Bedars, hunters ; 904 Parits, washermen ; 900 Chelvádis, Lingáyat beadles ; 319 Nádigárs, barbers ; 97 Bhois, litter-bearers ; 2674 Vaddars, diggers ; 482 Koravars, mat and basket-makers ; 45 Dombars, rope-dancers ; 421 Gollár, 60 Helávárs, 18 Gosávis, 15 Másálars, 13 Jogis, 8 Budbudkis, and 2 Kshetridásás, beggars ; 3858 Mádigárs, leather-workers ; 141 Holayás, labourers ; 35 Dhors, tanners ; 31 Samagárs or Chámhárs, shoemakers.

NAVALGUND.

Navalgund in the north of the district is bounded on the north by Belgaum, Rámdurg, and Bádámi in South Bijápur, on the east by Ron and Gadag, on the south by Hubli, on the west by Dhárwár and on the north-west by Belgaum. It contains ninety Government and seven alienated villages with an area of 562 square miles, a population of 87,832 or 156 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £38,286 (Rs. 3,82,860).

Area.

Of the 562 square miles, all of which have been surveyed in detail, twenty square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest, according to the revenue survey returns, contains 334,212 acres or 96·08 per cent of arable land, 1980 acres or 0·56 per cent of unarable land, 106 acres or 0·03 per cent of grass, 294 acres or 0·8 per cent of forests, and 11,245 acres or 3·23 per cent of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 334,212 acres of arable land 94,025 acres have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages.

Aspect and Soil.

Navalgund is a stretch of black soil with a few straggling *bábhul* trees, and village sites far apart except along the banks of streams.

Hills.

From the black level rise three steep sharp-pointed hills, Great Nargund, Chik or Little Nargund, and Navalgund. Of the three hills Great Nargund which was formerly fortified, about twelve miles north of Navalgund, is the largest, rising about 700 feet above the plain. Next to it, about fifteen miles north of Navalgund, comes Chik Nargund or Little Nargund, rising about 250 feet above the plain. The Navalgund hill, close to Navalgund town, rises about 300 feet above the plain. All three hills run from north-west to south-west and have ridged tops and sides covered with prickly pear.

Climate.

The black-soil plain of Navalgund is hotter in the hot months and colder in the cold months than the red-soil lands. Showers at the end of April greatly relieve the heat. The rainfall is

uncertain. At Navalgund, during the ten years ending 1881, the fall varied from 7·05 inches in 1876 to 40·23 inches in 1874 and averaged 22·59 inches.

The water-supply is chiefly from rivers. For fifteen miles along the north-east boundary the Malprabha, over a muddy or sandy bed about 350 feet broad, between sloping earthy banks flows throughout the year. The river is fordable in the dry months and during the rains a ferry plies from Konur to Govankop in Bijápur. The Benniballa, a brackish stream, a feeder of the Malprabha flows north-east through the length of the sub-division. During the rains it flows over its banks and causes much damage, but in the hot months it dwindles to a thread. The fine earth of its bed whose softness is said to have given the river its name of Benihalla or the Butter Stream, in places forms quicksands in which cattle are sometimes lost. Many villages have ponds, only a few have wells.

According to the 1882-83 returns the farm stock included forty-seven riding and 3948 load carts, 2263 two-bullock and 419 four-bullock ploughs, 20,446 bullocks, 6962 cows, 1729 he-buffaloes and 7392 she-buffaloes, 500 horses, 26,005 sheep and goats, and 1047 asses.

In 1881-82 of 240,208 acres the whole area held for tillage, 1420 acres or 0·59 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 238,788 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 141,129 acres or 59·10 per cent of which 82,906 were under wheat *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) *Triticum aestivum*, 57,791 under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *javari* (M.) *Sorghum vulgare*, and 432 under *navani* (K.) or *káng* (M.) *Panicum italicum*. Pulses occupied 11,083 acres or 4·64 per cent of which 10,770 were under gram *kadli* (K.) or *harbhara* (M.) *Cicer arietinum*, 169 under *hesaru* (K.) or *mug* (M.) *Phaseolus radiatus*, 79 under *hurlí* (K.) or *kulthi* (M.) *Dolichos biflorus*, 58 under *togari* or *tuvari* (K.) or *tur* (M.) *Cajanus indicus*, and 7 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 18,525 acres or 7·75 per cent of which 6444 were under linseed *agashi* (K.) or *jaras* (M.) *Linum usitatissimum*, and 12,081 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 67,866 acres or 28·42 per cent the whole of them under cotton *hatti* or *arale* (K.) or *kápus* (M.) *Gossypium herbaceum*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 185 acres or 0·07 per cent of which 14 were under sugarcane *kabbu* (K.) or *us* (M.) *Saccharum officinarum*, one under tobacco *hágesoppu* (K.) or *tumbáku* (M.) *Nicotiana tabacum*, and the remaining 170 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 87,832 people 79,680 or 90·71 per cent were Hindus, 8145 or 9·27 per cent Musalmáns, and 7 Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are : 2513 Bráhmans ; 30,519 Lingávats ; 771 Jains, 394 Kóntis, 350 Telugu-Banjigárs, 95 Láds, 70 Lavánás, 8 Gurjars, and 4 Márwáris, traders ; 5639 Radders, 3395 Maráthás, 197 Rajputs, and 62 Dásárs, husbandmen ; 1587 Pancháls, metal-workers ; 660 Gavandis masons ; 590 Shimpis, tailors ; 469 Kumbhárs, potters ; 352 Sonárs, goldsmiths ; 336 Badiges, carpenters ; 191 Kammárs, blacksmiths ; 52 Medars, bamboo-workers ; 40 Lád Suryavanshis, butchers ; 40 Niláris, indigo-dyers ; 3880 Gánigárs, oilmen ; 1870 Kostis, weavers ; 12,106 Kurubars, shepherds ; 15 Gavlis, cowherds ; 3742 Bedars, hunters ;

Chapter XIII.

Sub-Divisions.

NAVALGUND.

Water.

Stock.

Crops,
1881-82.People,
1881.

Chapter XIII.

Sub-Divisions.

NAVALGUND.

People,
1881.

1335 Ambigs, fishermen; 905 Nádigárs, barbers; 756 Parits, washermen; 221 Bhois, litter-bearers; 51 Chelvádis, Lingáyat headles; 31 Kalávants, dancing girls; 1238 Vaddars, diggers; 419 Koravars, mat and basket-makers; 5 Dombars, rope-dancers; 117 Gollárs, 55 Budbudkis, 18 Másálars, 13 Joshis, 9 Helávars, 8 Jogis, 2 Kshetridásás, beggars; 2026 Mádigárs, leather-workers; 2007 Holayás, labourers; 449 Samagárs, shoemakers; and 18 Dhors, tanners.

RÁNEBENNUR.

Ra'nebennur is in the extreme south-east corner of the district. It is bounded on the north by Karajgi, on the east and south by the Tungbhadra which separates Ránebennur from Maisur and Belári in Madras, and on the west by Kod. It contains 131 Government and twelve alienated villages with an area of 405 square miles, a population of 74,213 or 183 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £15,804 (Rs. 1,58,040).

Area.

Of the 405 square miles, 395 have been surveyed in detail. According to the revenue survey returns, nineteen square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contains 194,476 acres or 78·67 per cent of arable land, 2568 acres or 1·03 per cent of unarable land, 26,594 acres or 10·75 per cent of grass, and 23,553 acres or 9·52 per cent of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 194,476 acres of arable land, 42,406 acres have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages.

Asp ct.

The country is generally flat with a low range on the north and a group of hills near Airáni in the east. Much of the land near the hills is covered with low brushwood. Except Ránebennur the villages, are small and close together chiefly along the banks of the Tungbhadra and other streams. Almost all villages are shaded by trees and the large ones are walled.

Soil.

The soil is black in the low-lying parts and red on the hills and uplands.

Hills.

In the low northern range the hills rise 200 to 500 feet above the plain generally with sloping sides covered with brushwood which give shelter to wolves and deer. The range is crossed by many cart tracks. Near Motebennur in the north several bare conical hills rise about 150 feet from the plain, and, with several breaks through which carts pass, a low narrow bare range stretches about ten miles from Byádgi in the north-west to Halgiri in the south-west. In the extreme east near Airáni on the Tungbhadra surrounded by groups of smaller hills, is the highest point in Ránebennur, a peak 600 feet above the plain with sloping bushy sides which give shelter to wolves.

Climate.

The climate is somewhat hotter in the east than in the west, and on the whole is good. In the beginning of April, the hottest part of the year, the thermometer rises to 100° or 102°. With the first rains in May the air cools till it falls to 75° or 70° in June, and from that seldom rises much before October. The rainfall is fairly equal over the whole sub-division. At Ránebennur, during the ten years ending 1881, the fall varied from 10·13 inches in 1876 to 35·4 inches in 1874 and averaged 22·40 inches.

Ránebennur is well supplied with water. The Tungbhadra flows between steep banks along a sandy bed about half a mile broad. It is bridged at Harihar and ferries ply at many places. The Kumadvati a feeder of the Tungbhadra flows east about fifteen miles along a sandy bed about 300 feet wide and between steep banks. Other streams flow south to join the Tungbhadra. Besides the rivers and streams are many ponds, the largest of which are at Ránebennur and Malápur.

According to the 1882-83 returns farm stock included fifteen riding and 3111 load carts, 7043 two-bullock and 2181 four-bullock ploughs, 23,646 bullocks and 12,409 cows, 2010 he-buffaloes and 9459 she-buffaloes, 419 horses, 31,619 sheep and goats, and 1305 asses.

In 1881-82 of 110,137 acres the whole area held for tillage, 15,077 acres or 13·68 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 95,060 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 49,862 acres or 52·45 per cent of which 38,940 were under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *javári* (M.) Sorghum vulgare, 8076 under *navani* (K.) or *kang* (M.) Panicum italicum, 963 under *sáve* (K.) or *vari* (M.) Panicum miliare, 359 under rice *bhatta* (K.) or *bhát* (M.) Oryza sativa, 337 under *ráji* (K.) or *náchni* (M.) Eleusine corocana, 314 under wheat *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) Triticum aestivum, 26 under spiked millet *sejje* (K.) or *bájri* (M.) Penicillaria spicata, and 847 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 11,580 acres or 12·18 per cent of which 6097 were under *hurli* (K.) or *kulthi* (M.) Dolichos biflorus, 3499 under *togari* or *tuvári* (K.) or *tur* (M.) Cajanus indicus, 1071 under gram *kadli* (K.) or *harbhara* (M.) Cicer arietinum, 452 under *hesaru* (K.) or *mug* (M.) Phaseolus radiatus, 9 under *uddu* (K.) or *udid* (M.) Phaseolus mungo, and 452 under other pulses. Oil-seeds occupied 2894 acres or 3·04 per cent of which 358 were under sesame *yellu* (K.) or *tíl* (M.) Sesamum indicum, 7 under linseed *agashi* (K.) or *javas* (M.) Linum usitatisimum, and 2529 under other oil-seeds. Fibres occupied 23,120 acres or 24·32 per cent of which 22,777 were under cotton *hatti* or *arale* (K.) or *kápus* (M.) Gossypium herbaceum, 181 under Indian hemp *pundi* (K.) or *ambádi* (M.) Hibiscus cannabinus, and 162 under Bombay hemp *sanbu* (K.) or *tág* (M.) Crotalaria juncea. Miscellaneous crops occupied 7604 acres or 7·99 per cent of which 6690 were under chillies *menasinakai* (K.) or *mirchi* (M.) Capsicum frutescens, 431 under tobacco *hagesoppu* (K.) or *tambáku* (M.) Nicotiana tabacum, 108 under sugarcane *habbu* (K.) or *us* (M.) Saccharum officinarum, and the remaining 375 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 74,213 people, 68,037 or 91·67 per cent were Hindus, 6172 or 8·31 per cent Musalmáns, and 4 Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are 1174 Bráhmans; 23,744 Lingáyats; 310 Lavánas, 78 Láds, 52 Jains, 11 Telugu-Oshnámarus, and 5 Chunáris, traders; 3141 Radders, 2089 Maráthás, 390 Kámátis, 204 Rajputs, 201 Dásárs, husbandmen; 2060 Páncsháls, metal-workers; 574 Shimpis, tailors; 315 Gavandis, masons; 141 Badiges, carpenters; 77 Kumbhárs, potters; 71

Chapter XIII.

Sub-Divisions.

RÁNEBENNUR.

Water.

Stock.

Crops,
1881-82.People,
1881.

Chapter XIII.

Sub-Divisions.

NAVALGUND.

People,
1881.

1385 Ambigs, fishermen; 905 Nádigárs, barbers; 756 Parits, washermen; 221 Bhois, litter-bearers; 51 Chelvádis, Lingáyat beadles; 31 Kalávants, dancing girls; 1238 Vaddars, diggers; 419 Koravars, mat and basket-makers; 5 Dombars, rope-dancers; 117 Gollárs, 55 Budbudkis, 18 Másálars, 13 Joshis, 9 Helávars, 8 Jogis, 2 Kshetridásás, beggars; 2026 Mádigárs, leather-workers; 2007 Holayás, labourers; 449 Samagárs, shoemakers; and 18 Dhors, tanners.

RÁNEBENNUR.

Ránebennur is in the extreme south-east corner of the district. It is bounded on the north by Karajgi, on the east and south by the Tungbhadra which separates Ránebennur from Maisur and Belári in Madras, and on the west by Kod. It contains 131 Government and twelve alienated villages with an area of 405 square miles, a population of 74,213 or 183 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £15,804 (Rs. 1,58,040).

Area.

Of the 405 square miles, 395 have been surveyed in detail. According to the revenue survey returns, nineteen square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contains 194,476 acres or 78·67 per cent of arable land, 2568 acres or 1·03 per cent of unarable land, 26,594 acres or 10·75 per cent of grass, and 23,553 acres or 9·52 per cent of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 194,476 acres of arable land, 42,406 acres have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages.

Asp. et.

The country is generally flat with a low range on the north and a group of hills near Airáni in the east. Much of the land near the hills is covered with low brushwood. Except Ránebennur the villages, are small and close together chiefly along the banks of the Tungbhadra and other streams. Almost all villages are shaded by trees and the large ones are walled.

Soil.

The soil is black in the low-lying parts and red on the hills and uplands.

Hills.

In the low northern range the hills rise 200 to 500 feet above the plain generally with sloping sides covered with brushwood which give shelter to wolves and deer. The range is crossed by many cart tracks. Near Motebennur in the north several bare conical hills rise about 150 feet from the plain, and, with several breaks through which carts pass, a low narrow bare range stretches about ten miles from Byádgi in the north-west to Halgiri in the south-west. In the extreme east near Airáni on the Tungbhadra, surrounded by groups of smaller hills, is the highest point in Ránebennur, a peak 600 feet above the plain with sloping bushy sides which give shelter to wolves.

Climate.

The climate is somewhat hotter in the east than in the west, and on the whole is good. In the beginning of April, the hottest part of the year, the thermometer rises to 100° or 102°. With the first rains in May the air cools till it falls to 75° or 70° in June, and from that seldom rises much before October. The rainfall is fairly equal over the whole sub-division. At Ránebennur, during the ten years ending 1881, the fall varied from 10·13 inches in 1876 to 35·40 inches in 1874 and averaged 22·40 inches.

Ránebennur is well supplied with water. The Tungbhadra flows between steep banks along a sandy bed about half a mile broad. It is bridged at Harihar and ferries ply at many places. The Kumadvati a feeder of the Tungbhadra flows east about fifteen miles along a sandy bed about 300 feet wide and between steep banks. Other streams flow south to join the Tungbhadra. Besides the rivers and streams are many ponds, the largest of which are at Ránebennur and Malápur.

According to the 1882-83 returns farm stock included fifteen riding and 3111 load carts, 7043 two-bullock and 2181 four-bullock ploughs, 23,646 bullocks and 12,409 cows, 2010 he-buffaloes and 9459 she-buffaloes, 419 horses, 31,619 sheep and goats, and 1305 asses.

In 1881-82 of 110,137 acres the whole area held for tillage, 15,077 acres or 13·63 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 95,060 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 49,862 acres or 52·45 per cent of which 38,940 were under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *javári* (M.) *Sorghum vulgare*, 8076 under *navani* (K.) or *káng* (M.) *Panicum italicum*, 963 under *sáve* (K.) or *vari* (M.) *Panicum miliare*, 359 under rice *bhattu* (K.) or *bhát* (M.) *Oryza sativa*, 337 under *rági* (K.) or *náchni* (M.) *Eleusine corocana*, 314 under wheat *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) *Triticum aestivum*, 26 under spiked millet *sejje* (K.) or *bájri* (M.) *Penicillaria spicata*, and 847 under other grains of which details are not given. Pulses occupied 11,580 acres or 12·18 per cent of which 6097 were under *hurli* (K.) or *kulthi* (M.) *Dolichos biflorus*, 3499 under *togari* or *tuwari* (K.) or *tur* (M.) *Cajanus indicus*, 1071 under gram *kadli* (K.) or *harbhara* (M.) *Cicer arietinum*, 452 under *hesaru* (K.) or *mug* (M.) *Phaseolus radiatus*, 9 under *ullu* (K.) or *udid* (M.) *Phaseolus mungo*, and 452 under other pulses. Oil-seeds occupied 2894 acres or 3·04 per cent of which 358 were under sesame *yellu* (K.) or *tíl* (M.) *Sesamum indicum*, 7 under linseed *agashi* (K.) or *javas* (M.) *Linum usitatisimum*, and 2529 under other oil-seeds. Fibres occupied 23,120 acres or 24·32 per cent of which 22,777 were under cotton *hatti* or *arale* (K.) or *kápus* (M.) *Gossypium herbaceum*, 181 under Indian hemp *pundi* (K.) or *ambádi* (M.) *Hibiscus cannabinus*, and 162 under Bombay hemp *sambu* (K.) or *tág* (M.) *Crotalaria juncea*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 7604 acres or 7·99 per cent of which 6690 were under chillies *menasinakai* (K.) or *mirchi* (M.) *Capsicum frutescens*, 431 under tobacco *hagesoppu* (K.) or *tambáku* (M.) *Nicotiana tabacum*, 108 under sugarcane *habbu* (K.) or *us* (M.) *Saccharum officinarum*, and the remaining 375 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 74,213 people, 68,037 or 91·67 per cent were Hindus, 6172 or 8·31 per cent Musalmáns, and 4 Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are 1174 Bráhmans; 23,744 Lingáyats; 310 Lavánas, 78 Láds, 52 Jains, 11 Telugu-Oshnámarus, and 5 Chunáris, traders; 3141 Radders, 2089 Maráthás, 390 Kámátis, 204 Rajputs, 201 Dásárs, husbandmen; 2060 Páncháls, metal-workers; 574 Shimpis, tailors; 315 Gavandis, masons; 141 Badiges, carpenters; 77 Kumbhárs, potters; 71

Chapter XIII.

Sub-Divisions.

RÁNEBENNUR.

Water.

Stock.

Crops,
1881-82.People,
1881.

Chapter XIII.**Sub Divisions.****RANEBENNUR.***People,
1881.*

Kammárs, blacksmiths; 71 Killikiatars, labourers; 53 Ilgerus, palm-tappers; 47 Niláris, indigo-dyers; 42 Sonárs, goldsmiths; 38 Lád-Suryavanshis, butchers; 17 Jingars, saddle-makers; 12 Medars, bamboo-workers; 3482 Kostis and 1986 Hatgárs, weavers; 962 Gánigárs, oilmen; 8926 Kurubars, shepherds; 47 Gavlis, cowherds; 5261 Bedars, hunters; 715 Parits, washermen; 456 Chelvádis, Lingáyat beadles; 294 Nádigárs, barbers; 17 Bhois, litter-bearers; 1177 Vaddars, diggers; 262 Koravars, mat and basket-makers; 73 Dombars, rope-dancers; 645 Gollárs, 85 Joshis, 3 Bháts, beggars; 3441 Mádigárs, leather-workers; 212 Holayás, labourers; 39 Kotegárs, beggars; 32 Samagárs, shoemakers; and 5 Dhors, tanners.

Ron.

Ron, in the north-east corner of the district, is bounded on the north by Bádámi in Bijápur, on the east by the Nizám's territory, on the south by Gadag, and on the west by Navalgund. It contains seventy Government and four alienated villages with an area of 370 square miles, a population of 60,724 or 164 to the square mile, and a yearly land revenue of £16,447 (16,14,470).

Area.

Of the 370 square miles, 334 have been surveyed in detail. According to the revenue survey returns, thirty-six square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contains 221,761 acres or 96·35 per cent of arable land, 6334 acres or 2·75 per cent of unarable land, 223 acres or 0·09 per cent of grass, and 1830 acres or 0·79 per cent of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. From the 221,761 acres of arable land 57,525 acres have to be taken on account of alienated lands in Government villages.

Aspect.

The sub-division is one stretch of rich black soil, without a hill and with hardly an upland, highly tilled, with bare large villages, on the banks of streams or in the open plain. The people are skilful hardworking and well-to-do husbandmen.

Soil.

Except a little tract in the east and north where it is red the soil is rich black.

Climate.

The rainy months are fairly pleasant, but of late years the cold weather has been feverish and the rest of the year is hot and dry. At Ron, during the ten years ending 1881, the rainfall varied from 7·53 inches in 1876 to 37·41 inches in 1874 and averaged 23·81 inches.

Water.

The Benihalla which flows into the Malprabha at the north-east corner of Ron and the Malprabha form the north-west boundary for about seventeen miles. The Malprabha flows east, over a muddy and sandy bed between sloping and earthy banks. The river is fordable except in the rains and has no ferry. Most villages have small ponds of drinking water and some villages have wells, but of brackish water. On the whole the water-supply is poor.

Stock.

According to the 1882-83 returns farm stock included five riding and 2574 load carts, 3734 two-bullock and 635 four-bullock ploughs, 16,141 bullocks and 6812 cows, 1438 he-buffaloes and 6082 she-buffaloes, 289 horses, 20,851 sheep and goats, and 435 asses.

*Crops,
1881-82.*

In 1881-82 of 163,295 acres the whole area held for tillage, 3452 acres or 2·11 per cent were fallow or under grass. Of the 159,843 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 72,081 acres or 45·09 per

cent of which 50,520 were under Indian millet *jola* (K.) or *javári* (M.) *Sorghum vulgare*, 16,519 under wheat *godhi* (K.) or *ghau* (M.) *Triticum æstivum*, 2982 under *navahi* (K.) or *káng* (M.) *Panicum italicum*, 1643 under spiked millet *sejje* (K.) or *bájri* (M.) *Penicillaria spicata*, 344 under *sáve* (K.) or *vari* (M.) *Panicum miliare*, and 73 under rice *bhatta* (K.) or *bhát* (M.) *Oryza sativa*. Pulses occupied 10,518 acres or 6·58 per cent of which 5628 were under gram *hadli* (K.) or *harbhara* (M.) *Cicer arietinum*, 1924 under *togari* or *tuvari* (K.) or *tur* (M.) *Cajanus indicus*, 1866 under *hesaru* (K.) or *mug* (M.) *Phaseolus radiatus*, 460 under *hurli* (K.) or *kulthi* (M.) *Dolichos biflorus*, and 640 under other pulses. Oilseeds occupied 9798 acres or 6·13 per cent of which 5599 were under linseed *agashi* (K.) or *javas* (M.) *Linum usitatissimum*, 310 under sesame *yellu* (K.) or *til* (M.) *Sesamum indicum*, and 3839 under other oilseeds. Fibres occupied 67,105 acres or 41·98 per cent all of them under cotton *hatti* or *arale* (K.) or *kápus* (M.) *Gossypium herbaceum*. Miscellaneous crops occupied 341 acres or 0·21 per cent of which 134 were under tobacco *hágesoppu* (K.) or *tambúku* (M.) *Nicotiana tabacum*, 32 under sugarcane *kabbu* (K.) or *us* (M.) *Saccharum officinarum*, one under chillies *menasinakai* (K.) or *mirchi* (M.) *Capsicum frutescens*, and the remaining 174 under various vegetables and fruits.

The 1881 population returns show that of 60,724 people, 50,160 or 92·48 per cent were Hindas, 4562 or 7·51 per cent Musalmáns, and 2 Christians. The details of the Hindu castes are : 4849 Bráhmans ; 19,750 Lingáyats ; 93 Láds or South Gujarátis ; 70 Jains and 24 Lavánás, traders ; 2959 Radders, 947 Maráthás, 143 Dásárs, and 91 Rajputs, husbandmen ; 1464 Páncsháls, metal-workers ; 312 Kumbhárs potters ; 310 Gavandis, masons ; 211 Shimpis, tailors ; 187 Sonárs, goldsmiths ; 147 Badiges, carpenters ; 88 Ilgerus, palm-tappers ; 88 Kammárs, blacksmiths ; 58 Killikiatárs, labourers ; 51 Lád-Suryavanshis, butchers ; and 24 Medars bamboo-workers ; 3926 Gánigárs, oilmen ; 1022 Kostis and 347 Hatgárs, weavers ; 8095 Kurubars, shepherds ; 6 Gavlis, cowherds ; 4068 Bedars, hunters ; 635 Nádigárs, barbers ; 581 Parits, washermen ; 307 Ambigs, fishermen ; 31 Bhois, litter-bearers ; and 19 Chelvádis, Lingáyat beadles ; 1067 Vaddars, diggers ; 381 Koravars, mat and basket-makers ; 2 Dombars, rope-dancers ; 142 Gollárs, 31 Budbudkis, 28 Gosávis, 11 Jogis, and 9 Gondhalgárs, beggars ; 2319 Nádigárs, leather-workers ; 1161 Holayás, labourers ; 95 Samagárs, shoemakers ; and 11 Dhors, tanners.

Chapter XIII.
Sub-Divisions.

Ron.
Crops,
1881-82.

People,
1881.

CHAPTER XIV.

PLACES.

- Chapter XIV.** **Abbigeri**, a large village seven miles south of Ron with in 1881 a population of 3268, has black stone temples of Ishvardev and Jotlingdev, each with an inscription.¹
- Places.**
- ABLUR.** **Ablur** village two miles west of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 752, has temples of Basappa and Somnáth. There are three inscriptions in the temple of Basappa, dated 1100, 1119, and 1144, and one in the temple of Somnáth to the right of the god dated 1168.²
- ADUR.** **Adur** is a large village ten miles east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 1151. It is mentioned in a twelfth century inscription under the name of Pándipur, and till 1862 was the head-quarters of a petty division. To the east of the village is the temple of Kálleshvar Mahádev with an inscription on the south face dated 1044. There are two other inscriptions one in a field dated 1034 and another undated. The undated inscription is in twenty lines on a stone tablet filling a space 3' 7" high and 2' 3½" broad. The first fourteen lines are in Sanskrit and the last five in Old Kánarese. The Sanskrit inscription records the grant of a field for the charity hall or *dánashála* and other purposes of a Jain temple built by one of the village headmen. In the fourth line *Vaijayanti* or *Banavási* in North Kánara seems to be mentioned; but lines two to five are too worn to be read. The Kánarese inscription in the last five lines is well preserved. It records that during the reign of Kirttivarma about A.D. 560 as supreme sovereign, and during the government of the city of Pándipura by a certain chief Sinda, Donagámunda Elagámunda and others, with the leave of king Mádhavatti, gave to the temple of Jinendra for worship and offerings, eight *matals* of rice land, by the royal measure, to the west of Karmagalur village. Though the inscription is not dated, the titles of Kirttivarma and the style of the characters leave little doubt that the Kirttivarma is the sixth Early Chalukya king of that name (A.D. 567). The existence of this inscription in the heart of the Kadamba territory supports the statement made in the inscription (A.D. 634) of

¹ The temple and inscription details in this chapter are from Dr. Burgess' Lists of Antiquarian Remains in the Bombay Presidency, pp. 11-48.

² Mr. Fleet (History of the Kánarese Districts of the Bombay Presidency, 52, 55, 59) also mentions inscriptions of the Western Chalukya kings Someshvar III. (1126-1138) and Someshvar IV. (1182-1189), and of the Kalachuri usurper Bijjala (1156-1167).

Kirttivarma's son Pulikeshi II. at Aihole in South Bijápúr that Kirttivarma defeated the Kadambas.¹ Adur has a fourth inscription dated 904 of the thirteenth Ráshtrakuta king Krishna II. (A.D. 875-911) or Akálarvarsha as he is called in the inscription. The inscription also mentions a chief noble or *mahásámanta* of the Chellketan family as governing the Banavási Twelve-thousand.² The first or 1044 inscription is of the sixth Western Chálukya king Someshvara I., of whose time forty inscriptions have been found varying in date from 1042 to 1068.³

Airani, twelve miles east of Ránibennur, is a large village on the Tungbhadra with in 1881 a population of 1778. Melons are grown in the river, and before the 1876-77 famine superior blankets used to be made for local use by Kurubars. The people died or left the place and the blanket-weaving has stopped. In 1790 Captain Moor, who accompanied an English detachment sent to help the Maráthás against Tipu Sultán, mentions Airani as a respectable little fort, a town of some note with a weekly market.⁴ In 1800 (20th June) Colonel Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, in his expedition against the notorious Marátha freebooter Dhundia Vágh, sent a patrol to reconnoitre Airani fort. He meant to attack the fort on the morning of the 21st June, but the garrison left it during the night of the 20th and the troops took peaceful possession on the 21st.⁵ In 1842 Captain Burgoyne and Lieutenant Bell, who were appointed to examine the Southern Marátha forts, described Airani as a work of considerable strength on the left bank of the Tungbhadra which ran close under the east front with high banks. The fort was built irregularly on a small knoll. It had an inner line of works surrounded for about fifty yards by an outer line with a ditch on the west and south-west fronts. The outer line of works consisted of a *faussebraye* or mound outside the rampart much injured on the north and south but in good repair on the east or river side. The entrance to the outer works was on the north by three gateways through the works leading over the ditch. All the gates as well as their flank defences were out of repair. Three ruined gateways led from the outer into the inner works. The inner fort stretched north-east to south-east about 250 yards long by 100 yards broad. The west and south-west defences, being the strongest parts of the inner fort, consisted of five large stone bastions about twenty-five feet high joined by stone curtains. The east face had no bastions, and like the north-east face its works were much ruined. There was nothing inside the fort except a ruined palace and a small well with a doubtful supply of water. A small passage led out of the fort to the river whence an ample supply could be obtained. The ditch on the west and south-west fronts of the outer line of fortifications was dry and useless, being easy of ascent and descent. The village of Airani lay above 100 yards to the north of the fort. To the south-west of the village, separated from the ditch by a road, was a large

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Places.

ADUR.

AIRANI. ✓

Fort.

¹ Compare Indian Antiquary, VIII. 237.² Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 36, 85.³ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 47.⁴ Moor's Narrative of Captain Little's Detachment, 236.⁵ Duke of Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, India (1797-1805), II. 28.

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Places.

pond, and about 800 yards further was a hill which commanded the fort. The greater part of the inner fort was in good order and strong, and the broken part was easy of repair. The outer line could not be held.¹

ALNÁVAR.

Alnávar, twenty miles west of Dhárwár, is a large village well placed in the south-east corner of the crossing of the Belgaum-Haliyál and Dhárwár-Goa roads. When the Marmagao-Belári railway is completed, Alnávar will have a third class station 165 miles west of Belári.

AMARGOL.

Amargol is a large village on the Dhárwár-Hubli road five miles north-west of Hubli, with in 1881 a population of 1547. In the middle of the village is a partly ruined temple of Shankarling built by Jakhanáchárya, who, according to one account, was a Kshatriya prince who atoned for the sin of Bráhma killing by building temples; according to another story he was a Páncshál pupil of Vishvakarma the divine architect who built the temples to try his skill. Near it is the temple of Bánshankari Devi. The Shankarling temple is built of black and light-coloured granite, and has walls and pillars carved with figures of gods. The expenses of the temple are met from alienated lands. In front of the temple is a broken and defaced inscription slab.

AMINBHÁVI.

Aminbhávi is a large village about seven miles north-east of Dhárwár, with in 1881 a population of 3392. Under the Peshwás it was the chief town of a group or *samat* of eight villages. To the north of the village is an old Jain temple of Nemináth the Twenty-second Tirthankar about 120 feet long, with numerous pillars. There are two small blackstone Shaiv temples of Kalmeshvar and Mallikárjun. On two wooden pillars of the Kalmeshvar temple nine feet apart is a record of the Vitthalpanti land measure.² Six inscriptions have been found in the village, one in each of the three temples, two dated 566 and 1113 near an old well to the south of the mansion of the Aminbhávi Desái, and one near the house of a barber dated 1547. The inscription dated 566 is on a stone-tablet which has disappeared. The name of the king is the early Chalukya Pulikeshi II. (610-634), the contemporary of the Chinese pilgrim Hiwen Thsang (629-645), but the date in the inscription appears from other evidence to be wrong.³

ANNIGERI.

Annigeri, on the Dhárwár-Gadag road with in 1881 a population of 7211, is an old petty divisional centre about ten miles south-east of Navalgund. The 1872 census showed a population of 7098, of whom 5371 were Hindus and 1727 Musalmáns. Annigeri is remarkable for a temple of Amriteshvar locally ascribed to Jakhanáchárya. It is in the middle of the town built of black stone, of considerable size, with a roof supported on seventy-six pillars. The walls are covered with interesting mythological sculptures. There are six inscriptions in the temple varying from 1157 to 1208. The

¹ Report dated Belgaum, 5th July 1842.

² The record is in Devnágari letters 'Shri Vitthalpanti Chammar don mekha,' that is the two marks of the illustrious Vitthalpant (?). See above p. 440.

³ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 23.

earliest is dated 1157; the next to the west of the south gateway of the temple is dated 1189; the third is dated 1200; the fourth, which is very long, is dated 1202; the fifth on a pillar in the south gateway is dated 1207, and the sixth to the east of the south gateway is dated 1208. There are seven smaller temples, each with one or two inscriptions. Banadashankari's temple has two inscriptions, one in front of the temple door dated 1162, the other in the temple yard dated 1186. Basappa's temple to the south of the Hubli gate has in front of it an inscription dated 1172. There is a Jain temple or *basti* with an inscription dated 1071. Gachchin Basappa's temple near the police station has two inscriptions, one on a pillar dated 1197, the other to the south of the temple dated 1539. The 1539 inscription is well preserved and belongs to the Vijaynagar king Achyutráy (1508-1542). Hiri Hanumant's temple has to the left of the temple door an inscription dated 1157. Mailar's temple has near a well close to the south wall of the temple an inscription dated 1097, and Puraddappa's temple, to the east of the town, has an inscription dated 1184.

The earliest date at Annigeri is 1071, but at present the earliest information regarding the town is that in 1161 the Kalachuri chief Bijjala, who overthrew the Western Chálukyas, made it his capital.¹ In that year Bijjala's governor Dandnáyak Shridhar is mentioned as governing at the capital of Annigeri. As inscriptions of Bijjala's son Someshvar (1167-1175) are found at Annigeri, it probably remained under the Kalachuris at least till 1175. In 1184 the Western Chálukya king Someshvar IV. (1182-1189), taking advantage of the religious dissensions between the Jains and the newly started Lingáyats at the capital Kalyán, succeeded for a short time in re-establishing the semblance of Chálukya sovereignty. In 1184 Someshvar's feudatory Dandnáyak Barmarasa is mentioned as governing at the capital of Annigeri.² In 1189 an inscription at Annigeri mentions it as the capital from which the Mahámandaleshvar Báchirája or Báchana, the feudatory of Bhillama the third Devgiri Yádav (1187-1191), was governing the Belvola country.³ Soon after Annigeri appears from one of his inscriptions to have passed with the greater part of Dhárwár to the great Hoysala Ballál ruler Vir Ballál or Ballál II., whose inscriptions range from 1192 to 1211. Annigeri appears in the inscriptions as one of Vir Ballál's capitals in Dhárwár.⁴ On the 17th of July 1800, Dhundiah Vágh the Karnátak freebooter, when pursued by Colonel Wellesley, is mentioned as encamping at Annigeri in his flight from Dambal.⁵ In October 1800 Colonel Wellesley gave orders for making tents at Annigeri, Dhárwár, and Hubli, three places famous for cloth.⁶ At the beginning of British rule Annigeri and the villages belonging to it formed the *jághir* of the Nipáni chief. It lapsed to Government in 1839 from failure of heirs. In 1827 Annigeri had 450 houses, fourteen shops, and some wells.⁷

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ANNIGERI.
Temples.

History.

¹ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 54.² Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 55.³ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 72.⁴ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 67, 68.⁵ Supplementary Despatches, II. 57.⁶ Supplementary Despatches, II. 203.⁷ Clunes' Itinerary, 72.

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ARLESHVAR.

Arlekatti, a small village five miles north of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 465, has three inscriptions in Old Kánarese characters.

Arleshvar, a small village five miles north-east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 779, has a stone temple of Kadambeshvar with three inscriptions, one on a pillar dated 1076 to the south of the image, the second dated 1088 on the alligator arch of the temple, and the third on a pillar in front of the chief temple gate whose date is of doubtful accuracy.

ARTAL.

Artal, nine miles north-west of Bankápur, has several temples and old inscriptions.¹

ASUNDI.

Asundi, a small village three miles south-west of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 848, has a temple of Bommappa with an inscription dated 1027 and a temple of Hanumant with an inscription dated 1053.

ASUNDI.

A'sundi, a small village about five miles west of Ránebennur, has a temple of Kalleshvar outside village limits. The temple has three inscriptions, two of them dated 1112 and 1143 (*S.* 1034 and 1065). The third is much worn.

BALAGNUR.

Balagnur, a large village fourteen miles north of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 1734, has behind the wall of a temple of Virbhadrá an inscription dated 1192 in the reign of the great Hoysala king Ballál II. or Vir Ballál (1192-1211).²

BALAMBID.

Balambid, a small village about five miles south-west of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 391, has a temple of Vishpariháreshvar and Basava in the Jakhanáchárya style.³ The temple has five inscriptions, one to the left of the god dated 1057 (*S.* 979), another dated 1079 (*S.* 1001), the third on the south of the temple door dated 1087 (*S.* 1009), and the fourth and fifth dated 1118 and 1228 (*S.* 1040 and 1150).

BALAMBID.

Balambid, a small village eight miles east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 845, has a temple of Kallameshvar (30 × 22) with carvings both inside and outside and a temple of Rámeshvar. In front of the Kallameshvar temple are two inscriptions dated 1122 and 1165. The Rámeshvar temple also has two inscriptions one to the south dated 1117, the other to the north whose date has not been read.

BÁLEHALLI.

Bálehalli, or the Village of Plantains, a small village six miles south-west of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 270, has temples of Mailárdev and Mallikárjun and eleven inscriptions. Mallikárjun's temple has two inscriptions one on a hero-stone or *virgal* dated 1076, and the other dated 1049. Mailárdev's temple has one inscription dated 1144, which, like the 1148 inscription, is in the reign of the Western Chálukya king Jagadekamalla II. (1138-1150).⁴ The other six inscriptions have not been read. Outside of the village in survey number 136 is a twelfth inscription.

¹ Mr. J. R. Middleton, C.S.

² Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 67.

³ Part of the stones of the temple have been used to build a pond at Hirekerur about two miles to the south.

⁴ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 52. Under the Sanskrit name Kadalipura, Bálehalli is mentioned in the 1148 inscription as a minor capital of Jagadekamalla II. Ditto, 53 note 2.

Balur, a small village three miles south-east of Hángal, with in 1881, a population of 251, has a temple of Rámling with an inscription dated 1125 (S. 1047). To the south of the village near a pond is an inscribed hero-stone or *virgal* dated 1242.

Banikop, a small village two miles north-east of Shiggaon, with in 1881 a population of 269, has a temple of Dharvaráy, with two inscriptions one 2' x 1' on its wall, and the other 2' 6" x 1' 9" in front of it.

Bankápur or SHÁHÁRÁZÁR, with in 1881 a population of 6037, is the chief town in the Bankápur sub-division about forty miles south of Dhárwár. The 1872 census showed a population of 6268, of whom 4498 were Hindus and 1770 Musalmáns. The 1881 census gives 6037 or a decrease of 231. Of the 1881 total 4298 were Hindus and 1739 Musalmáns. The greater part of the Hindus were Lingáyats. Bankápur has a ruined fort, a post office, and two temples. A weekly market is held on Tuesdays when coarse cloth, blankets, oil, and metal vessels are sold.

In 1826 a committee of inspection described Bankápur fort as once a strong fortress with a large and deep ditch, but either allowed to go to decay or demolished on several sides. The granite ramparts and gateways on one side were in good order, the rest was out of repair.¹ The two temples are a Jain *basti* or dwelling, that is shrine, of Rangasvámi Nagareshvar, and a Shaivite temple of Siddheshvar. The Jain shrine, which is usually called Arvattukambhada-basti or the sixty column temple, is a fine large old building partly ruined and a good deal buried. The temple is in a corner of the old fort.² One of the fort walls runs across the back of the shrine and is built on it. The great open hall of this temple is supported by sixty columns, which give it its name. These are all very carefully wrought in close-grained dark slate. Most of the middle pillars have round finely polished shafts. The outer face of the low parapet wall which runs round the hall is towards the top divided into small panels by pairs of little pilasters. Below the panels is a band of little *shikhars* or spires of the northern type set so close together that there are upwards of 200 of them round the building. About the outer pillars runs a fine deep carved cornice ribbed underneath. Between the hall and the shrine have been one or two smaller rooms, but they are so ruined that their outline cannot be made out. Traces remain of two beautiful open carved windows once filled with florid work. Just in front of the shrine is a small closed hall. The doorway under the porch on the south side of this hall is one of the best doorways in the Bombay-Karnátak. Unfortunately the human figures which adorned the bottoms of each side have been removed leaving unsightly sockets. If this temple were less ruined and overgrown, it would rival, if not surpass, the Trikuteshvar and Sarasvati temples at Gadag. There are six inscriptions four within and two without the temple in Old Kánarese character and language. Of the four within the

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BANIKOP.

BANKÁPUR.

Fort.

Temples.

¹ In 1750 Tieffenthaler (Description, 500) notices Bankápur as a well guarded fort.

² Mr. H. Cousens, Head Assistant Bombay Archaeological Survey.

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BANKÁPUR.

Temples.

temple three are let into the wall to the right of the shrine door and one is on the left wall. Of the first three the uppermost on the right is in thirty-nine lines of about twelve letters each. It records grants made to the god Nagareshvardev of Bankápur in 1138 the twelfth year of the reign of the Western Chálukya king Bhulokamalla.¹ The next below consists of sixteen lines of about twenty-three letters each. It records a grant by a private individual named Bhammagávunda of Kiriya or Little Bankápur to the god Nagareshvardev of Bankápur. The lowest of the three is in twelve lines of about twenty-three letters each. It records a grant made by a local governor or Dandanáyak in the reign of the Western Chálukya king Tribhuvanmalla II, better known as Vikramáditya VI. (1073-1126). The date is effaced, but, as the name of the year is Shrimukh, it must be the eighteenth year of Vikramáditya's reign or A.D. 1091. The inscription on the left hand is in thirty-seven lines of about sixteen letters each. It records grants made by one Mádigávunda and other headmen to the Jain temple of Kiriya Bankápur in the *Shubhakrit samvatsar* being the forty-seventh year (1120) of the Chálukya king Vikrama that is Vikramáditya VI. (1073-1126). The two outside inscriptions are one above another on the walls to the left of the south entrances of the shrine. They are both in Old Kánarese character and language and are well preserved. The upper inscription is in nine lines and has several rudely cut emblems at the top. In the centre are a *ling* and priest, on their right a cow and a calf, and on their left a figure of Basava. The inscription is incomplete. After a salutation to Shiv it appears to record something regarding a Kádamba chief, who, among other titles, is called the excellent supreme lord of Banavásipur, and the favoured of the god Jayanti Madhukeshvar.² Two blank stones separate the lower inscription from the upper with which it seems not to be connected. It is in six lines of verse, each line about twenty-three letters and two letters over in the seventh line. The verses are in praise of a certain Simha or Singa of whom no details are given. The verses contain nothing of interest and the inscription is undated.

The temple of Siddheshvar is smaller than the Jain shrine, and is not so old. It is built of black stone with three doors on the east. The walls have carved figures and the roof is supported on eight pillars. The temple enjoys a Government grant of land. Leaning against a wall to the right of the east entrance of the fort is a large inscribed stone tablet of fifty-nine lines each line of about thirty-seven letters in Old Kánarese. At the top of the tablet are defaced emblems, a *ling* in the middle, a seated or kneeling figure on the right, with the sun above and a cow and calf beyond it. To the left of the *ling* is an officiating priest with the moon above him, and, beyond the moon, a figure of Basava. The inscription is dated 1055-56 (S. 977 *Manmatha samvatsara*), and records a grant of land to a Jain temple while the Chálukya king Gangapermánadi

¹ This is Someshvar III. (1126-1138). Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 52.

² Madhukeshvar is the great temple in Banavási in North Kánara. Details are given in Bombay Gazetteer, XV. Part II, 261.

Vikramádityadev,¹ son of Trailokyamalladev, was ruling the Gangavádi Ninety-six thousand and the Banavási Twelve-thousand, and while the great chieftain Harikesaridev, the glory of the family of the Kádamba emperor Mayurvarma, was governing the Banavási Twelve-thousand as his underlord. The grantors are Harikesaridev and his wife Lachchaládevi, the assemblage of the five religious colleges of Bankápur, the guild of the chief townspeople or *nagarmahájan* and The Sixteen.²

The earliest known mention of Bankápur is in a Kolhápúr Jain MS. dated 898 where the famous city of Bankápur, the greatest among cities, is described as having been called after himself by the Chellaketan chief Bankeyaras or Bank the Dhárwár underlord of the Ráshtrakuta king Amoghvarsh (851-869).³ In 1055 Bankápur was governed by the Kádambas (1050-1200) as vassals of the Western Chálukyas (973-1192). At that time Bankápur seems to have been an important Jain centre with a Jain temple⁴ and five religious colleges. In 1071 Udayáditya of the Ganga family was reigning at the city of Bankápur.⁵ In 1091, 1120, and 1138 grants were made to the Jain temple, which is called in the inscriptions the temple of Nagáreshvar, during the rule of the Western Chálukya kings Vikramáditya VI. (1073-1126) and his son Someshvar IV. (1126-1138). In the latter part of the fourteenth century the third Bahmani king Mujáhid (1375-1378) demanded Bankápur fort from the Vijaynagar king Bukka (1350-1379), who refused to give it up.⁶ In 1406 the eighth Bahmani king Firoz Sháh (1397-1422) sent a party of troops to besiege Bankápur which is described as the most important fortress in the Karnátak. The fort fell, and in the treaty which followed, it was agreed that, to prevent disputes, the fort and its valuable dependencies should be ceded to the Bahmanis for ever.⁷ In 1443 Dev Ráy, the fourth Vijaynagar king (1401-1451) sent an expedition to reduce Bankápur, but Alá-ud-din I. (1435-1457) sent Malik-ul-Tujár with the Daulatabad division to oppose him, and the Vijaynagar troops were forced to raise the siege.⁸ In 1472, at the instigation of the Vijaynagar king, the Hindu chief of Bankápur and Vikram Ráy the chief of Belgaum sent troops to retake the island of Goa, but the attempt failed.⁹ In 1512 the Vengápur, that is Bankápur, chief is noticed as sending an embassy to the great Portuguese general and statesman Dalboquerque (1508-1512) to congratulate him on his success at Goa. The ambassadors

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BANKÁPUR.

History.

¹ This is the Western Chálukya king Vikramáditya VI. As 1055 falls during the reign of his father Someshvar, Vikramáditya was probably at this time his father's viceroy in charge of the two districts mentioned in the inscription. *Indian Antiquary*, IV. 203; *Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties*, 87.

² *Ind. Ant.* IV. 203; Compare *Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties*, 45, 87.

³ *Ind. Ant.* XII. 217; *Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties*, 35.

⁴ This is probably the great sixty column temple of Rangasvámi. See above, p. 653.

⁵ *Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties*, 48.

⁶ *Briggs' Ferishta*, II. 330. *Ferishta* calls the Vijaynagar king Krishna Ráy. Unless Krishna Ráy is another name of Bukka, this cannot be right, as the great Krishna Ráy ruled from 1508 to 1542. *Caldwell's Tinnevely*, 47.

⁷ *Briggs' Ferishta*, II. 385.

⁸ *Briggs' Ferishta*, II. 432-433; *Waring's Maráthás*, 21.

⁹ *Briggs' Ferishta*, II. 491.

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BANKÁPUR.

History.

brought sixty beautifully trapped horses and asked that they might have 300 horses a year and the management of the land of Goa. Dalboquerque gave them the horses, because their chief was a useful ally as his land was a veritable and safe road to Vijaynagar, and as his people were skilful saddlemakers.¹ In 1573 Ali Adil Sháh the fifth Bijápur king (1557-1579) took Dhárwár and marched on Bankápur which was then the capital of Velapa Ráy formerly a servant of the Vijaynagar kings, but now independent. After vain appeals for help to Venketádri, the brother of his former master, Velapa Ráy defended himself with such vigour that he nearly forced the Bijápur troops to raise the siege. The Musalmáns were especially annoyed by night attacks from the Karnátak infantry, who, valuing their lives but little, entered the tents at night naked and covered with oil and stabbed the Musalmán soldiers in their sleep. This unusual form of warfare caused a panic among the Musalmáns and their sufferings were increased by the activity of the enemy in cutting off supplies. Mustapha Khán, the able Bijápur general, with the help of his Berji, apparently Badagi or northern that is Marátha-Telugu cavalry, reopened his lines of communication and, by placing a strong cordon of sentries round the camp, checked the night attacks. The siege was pressed, and, after a year and three months, the Musalmáns were rewarded by the surrender of Bankápur. The king ordered a superb temple within the fort to be destroyed and himself laid the foundations of a mosque on the site of the temple. Many towns and districts were conferred upon Mustapha, and, till his assassination in Bankápur in 1579, the whole of the conquered country remained under his management.² In 1673 Abdul Karim Khán, the ancestor of the present Nawáb of Sávanur was appointed governor of the province of Bankápur on behalf of Bijápur.³ In 1747 the Nawáb of Sávanur made a treaty with the Maráthás and gave up the whole of the present subdivisions of Dhárwár, Navalgund, and Gadag, and parts of Ráne-bennur and Kod, keeping Hubli Bankápur Hángal and other districts together with his family possession the fort of Bankápur.⁴ In 1755 Sávanur was besieged by the French general Bussy, and so heavy a fire was opened on the town that to buy off the withdrawal of the Marátha troops the Nawáb had to pledge Bankápur fort to Holkar.⁵ In 1776 Haidar took Bankápur and Sávanur and returned to Maisur, leaving a chosen body of troops in Bankápur with directions to watch, and, as far as possible, prevent supplies

¹ Commentaries of Dalboquerque, III. 246, 247.

² Briggs' Ferishta, III. 135-139; West's History, 11-12.

³ Orme's Historical Fragments, 276; Stokes' Belgaum, 42. The Bankápur *sarkár* included sixteen subdivisions or *pargands*, of which Waring (Maráthas, 246) gives a list taken from a Marátha statement prepared about 1790. The details are: Bajgal £3750, Banehalli £6876, Dhárwár or Nasratabad £12,013, Gadmi £31,310, Haliyál £2458, Harihar £1036, Haveli or Bankápur £25,745, Karajgi £12,000, Kumdaran £4125, Kundgol £90,903, Lakshmeshvar £25,953, Másur £1500, Misrikota £9750, Naregal £54,377, Rainabeli £8250 and Rishalli £13,190.

⁴ Stokes' Belgaum, 46; West's History, 22.

⁵ Grant Duff's Maráthas, 287; West's History, 23. The artillery practice during this siege so astonished the people that the year when one and a quarter *lakhs* of balls were fired against Sávanur is still a local era. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 210.

passing to the Dhárwár garrison which had not been reduced.¹ In 1780 Tipu (1783-1799) took Sávanur and retired to Bankápur to celebrate the Muharram festival.² According to a statement prepared from Marátha records of about 1790 Bankápur was the head-quarters of a *sirkár* of sixteen *parganá*s with a yearly revenue of about £254,299 of which the Haveli or Bankápur sub-division had a revenue of £25,745 (Rs. 2,57,456).³ In 1792 Bankápur is mentioned as a large town with a ruined fort to the west. Before it was dismantled by Tipu's army Bankápur fort was the chief fortification in the province of Sávanur which lay five or six miles north-east and the two were together known as Sávanur-Bankápur. The fort seemed to have been well built and strong. The ditch was deep and faced with stone and the curtains and bastions showed skill. Outside of the town to the south was a large reservoir and a handsome but neglected well.⁴ In 1802, in accordance with the terms of the treaty of Bassein, the Sávanur country with twenty-six *tálukás* and a yearly revenue of £102,284 and the Bankápur *táluka* with a revenue of £55,676 were ceded to the British by the Peshwa. They were restored to him in 1803 in exchange for territory in Bundelkhand.⁵

Bannihatti, a small village about ten miles north of Kod, with, in 1881 a population of 309, has in a field an inscribed slab dated 1314.

Bardur, a small village twenty miles south-east of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 659, has a temple of Bharateshvar with an inscription dated 1382.

Belgal, a village seven miles north-east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 1387, has three inscriptions, one near the waste weir and two on the dam of a large pond.

Belvantra, a small village three miles south of Kalghatgi, with in 1881 a population of 686, has two inscriptions one to the north between the village and a pond, and the other to the west.

Belvatgi, a small village three miles north-east of Navalgund, has a ruinous temple of Rámaling and inscriptions.

Belvatti, a small village eight miles north-east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 285, is said to be the site of an old city called Lilávati. It has a large black stone temple of Gokuleshvar with carved walls and five inscriptions. Three other inscriptions occur in the village.

Benkankond, a small village about five miles south of Ráne-bennur, with in 1881 a population of 914, has a temple of Kalmeshvar with four inscriptions. Two of the inscriptions to the south of the temple are dated 1033 in the reign of the Western Chálukya Jayasimha III. (1018-1042) and 1202 in the reign of the Hoysala

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History.

BANNIHATTI.

BARDUR.

BELGAL.

BELVANTRA.

BELVATGI.

BELVATTI.

BENKANKOND.

¹ Wilks' South of India, II. 179; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 400.

² Wilks' South of India, II. 555.

³ Waring's Maráthás, 246. See above p. 656 note 3.

⁴ Moor's Narrative, 51.

⁵ Aitchison's Treaties, V. 59-60; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 580.

- Chapter XIV.** Vir Ballál (1192-1211); the third on the lamp pillar is dated 1109; the fourth is on a hero-stone or *virgal* dated 1284 (S. 1206).
- Places.**
- BHAVIHÁL.** **Bhavihá1**, a small village about twelve miles north-west of Dhárwár, has a black stone temple of Siddheshvar with twenty-four square pillars and an inscription. The temple enjoys a grant of land.
- BIDARKATTI.** **Bidarkatti**, about twelve miles west of Ránebennur, with in 1881 a population of 193, has a temple of Sangameshvar with an inscription dated 1032.
- BOKYÁPUR.** **Bokya pur**, a small uninhabited village thirteen miles north-west of Dhárwár, has a temple of Virbhadradev built of black stone with an inscription.
- BYÁDGI.** **Byá'dgi** is a municipal town on the old Bankápur-Ránebennur road about ten miles north-west of Ránebennur, with in 1881 a population of 4117. A weekly market, one of the largest in the district, is held on Saturdays when rice, molasses, groceries, and chillies are sold in large quantities. Byá'dgi has a post office and a municipality. The municipality was established in 1879. In 1882-83 it had an income of about £482 (Rs. 4823) and an expenditure of £383 (Rs. 3834). The income is chiefly from octroi, house, and other taxes. The municipality has done good work. From being a dirty town with streets full of holes and with filthy pits in all empty places, Byá'dgi has become clean and has a number of good roads. The water-supply is from six public cisterns or *hauds* and one well within the village, and several private wells in the village and surrounding betel and cocoa palm gardens. Byá'dgi has two schools, a Government and a private school, and a temple of Rámeshvar with two inscriptions, one in front dated 1092, the other to the left dated 1620. In 1847 Byá'dgi was described as the most important market town in Ránebennur with 250 looms.
- BYÁHATTI.** **Byá'hatti** with in 1881 a population of 3084, is a large village on the Dhárwár-Gadag road about eight miles north-east of Hubli. It has a temple of Virbhadradev of hewn stone said to be about 200 years old and another of Rámling with an inscription. There are two Lingáyát religious houses called Kambhalli Math and Charanti Math, each with an inscription. There is a fourth inscription near a well called Dhumakarva. The people of Byáhatti have two copper-plates one recording a grant by Singhana the last son of the Kalachuri Bijjala (1183), and the other by a minister of Kanharadev (1247-1269) the seventh Devgiri Yádav. The Kalachuri grant consists of three plates ($1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 7\frac{3}{4}''$) strung together by a heavy ring, the seal of which bears a figure of the bull Nandi with the sun and moon above it. The inscription, which is in the Sanskrit language and is written across the breadth of the plates, covers the inside of the first plate, both sides of the second plate, and the inner and part of the outer side of the third plate. The inscription mentions eight princes of the Kalachuri family, Krishna, Jogama, Paramardi, Vijjana or Bijjala, and Vijjana's four sons Soma, Sankama, Ahavamalla, and Singhhanadeva. The object of the inscription is to record the grant of Kukkanuru village in the Beluvala (Belvola)

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Three-hundred, to one thousand Bráhmans by Singhanadeva, in the year 1184-85 (S. 1106 *Shubhákrit samvatsara*).¹ The Devgiri Yádav plates record that in 1253-54 (S. 1175 *Pramáthi samvatsar*) Kukkanurn, the chief town of a circle of thirty villages, was bestowed or rather re-bestowed upon one thousand and two Bráhmans by Kanharadeva's minister Chaundarája.² In 1827 Byáhatti had 600 houses, twelve shops, and some wells.³

Chabbi, with in 1881 a population of 1615, is a large village about eight miles south of Hubli. The old name of Chabbi is said to be Shobhanpur. In early times it was the capital of a Jain prince when it had seven Jain temples of which one is now left in the middle of the village. The earliest known mention of Chabbi is in a stone inscription dated 971 at Adargunchi four miles to the north which records a grant made by one Pánchala who governed the Sebbi or Chabbi Thirty.⁴ The Vijaynagar kings (1348-1567) are said to have improved Chabbi. Krishna Ráya (A.D. 1509-1529) is said to have lived in it and built a fort as at Hubli. Under Musalmán rule it formed part of the territory of the Sávanur Nawáb and the Peshwás had an arsenal in it. A small but old temple of Mallikárjun stands near a pond, and, to the north-east of the village, is a plain temple of Nettagalla Basvanna. In the middle of the fort is an old well with an inscription. Another inscription occurs near a temple of Kálkádevi.

CHABBI.

Chalmati, a small village about ten miles north-east of Kalghatgi, with in 1881 a population of 155, has a temple of Budangudd Basappa. About a mile and a quarter from the village is a much frequented den called Ajvankatti.

CHALMATI.

Chaudada'mpur, a village of 376 people, on the left bank of the Tungbhadra about fifteen miles north of Ránebennur, has temples of Mukteshvar, Ishvar, and Gopdevsvámi and eight inscriptions. Mukteshvar's is a black stone temple less graceful than the Dodda Basappa temple at Dambal, but a fine bold building of the same age and style (1000-1100) with its detail more completely finished than in the Dambal temple.⁵ Mukteshvar's temple contains three inscribed stones, one dated 899 (S. 821 *Siddhárthi samvatsara*), another dated in the reign of the Western Chálukya king Vikramá-ditya Tribhuvanamalla (A.D. 1076-1127), and a third with three inscriptions dated 1226, 1259, and 1262. Ishvar's temple on the bank of the Tungbhadra has an inscription of the great chieftain Vikramá-ditya of the lineage of Chandragupta. It is dated 1191, the solar eclipse on the no-moon of *Kártik* (December-January). Four other inscribed slabs occur, one bearing three Devgiri Yádav inscriptions dated 1242, 1263, and 1263, another behind the image of Vir Bhadra in the temple of Gopáldevmuni dated 1262, a third dated 1264, and a fourth dated 1291.

CHAUDADÁMPUR.

¹ Ind. Ant. IV. 274. Kukkanuru is the town of the same name in the Nizám's territory about nine miles south of Yelburga and twenty miles north-east of Mundargi.

² Fleet, 73.

³ Clunes' Itinerary, 72.

⁴ Ind. Ant. XII. 255.

⁵ See below, p. 660. As a design the chief defects of the Mukteshvar temple are the form of its dome, and the smallness of its crowning pot or *kalash*. Fergusson in Architecture of Dhárwár and Mysore, p. 57 photograph 39.

- Chapter XIV.** **Chhapardhalli**, a small village about ten miles south-east of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 179, has an old temple of Hanumán. Outside of the village to the north stands an inscribed slab.
- CHIKANJI.** **Chikanji**, a village two and a half miles west of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 218, has four inscriptions outside of a Smárt temple of Amritling. The temple has carved pillars and walls, and is said to be 500 years old.
- CHIKKANARTI.** **Chikkanarti**, a small village about eleven miles south-east of Hubli, with in 1881 a population of 401, has a temple of Kalmeshvar with a stone inscription.
- CHIKKERUR.** **Chikkerur**, with in 1881 a population of 1550, is a market town about ten miles west of Kod. A large weekly market is held on Wednesdays. Chillies and rice are the chief articles sold. Chikkerur has a large pond called Hirikere with two inscriptions dated 1094 and 1163, and temples of Bânshankari, Hanumant, and Someshvar each with an inscription dated 1053, 1101, and 1101. It also has two hero-stones or *virgals* dated 1077 and 1222, and two other inscribed stones dated 1125 and 1129.
- CHIN MULGUND.** **Chin Mulgund**,¹ a large village of 1584 people about six miles north-west of Kod, has a black granite temple of Chikeshvar to the north-east of the village. The walls of the temple are carved with figures and the roof is supported on forty-four pillars. On a small hillock to the east of the village is a self-made *ling* of Siddheshvar. A little to the left of the *ling* is said to be an underground cave. Two inscriptions occur, one in eighteen lines of Old Kánarese characters to the left of the central door of the temple of Chikeshvar; the other dated 1243 is near a temple of Ishvar outside of the village.
- DAMBAL.** **Dambal**, in north latitude 15° 12' and east longitude 75° 50', with in 1881 a population of 3770, is an old town on the Gadag-Mundargi road about thirteen miles south-east of Gadag. Till 1862, when it was removed to Mundargi, Dambal was the head-quarters of a petty division. Guavas and grapes are grown in large quantities at Dambal and sent to various parts of the district. Dambal has temples of Dodda Basappa, Káleshvar, and Someshvar, all much injured. The² temple of Dodda Basappa, outside the town to the north-east, is of a different style from any other temple either at Gadag or Lakkundi. The base both of the shrine and of the hall is star-shaped. As explained by Dr. Burgess, a star-shaped form is obtained by the overlapping of a number of equal squares over a common centre, with their corners all equi-distant from one another, in a circle whose radii are the semi-diameters of the squares. These projecting corners form the perimeter of the building. The interiors of both the shrine and hall are square. In the shrine, which as usual is dark, is a *ling*. In front of the shrine door is a large flat

¹ The village takes its name from the gold or *chin* dust which is found in the neighbouring hills. According to a tradition a hermitage of the sage Machhakandaríya stood on the site of the village.

² Contributed by Dr. J. Burgess.

door step beautifully carved in low relief with rosettes, festoons, and small figures. This is perhaps the most beautifully designed door step in any temple in Western India. Above the entrance to the little antechamber, immediately in front of the shrine, is another piece of fine work, a sculptured architrave spanning the two slender pillars on either side of the entrance. It is one block about eight feet across and three to four feet deep. On each side, close above the pillars, is carved the conventional griffin-like monster, often called a *makara* or alligator, with an elaborate florid tail coiling over his back, and great square jaws from which issues an ornamental wreath or arch. Under the wreath was some figure or group of figures which have been broken. Four carefully finished pillars support the dome of the hall which has two entrances one on the south the other on the east. Outside of the east door, in continuation of the length of the building, a long porch or room of rough material has been built over a gigantic bull or *nandi* who sits facing the shrine. The outer face of the walls both of the shrine and of the hall are carried up from the star-shaped base in vertical projecting corners. The horizontal basement mouldings are very deeply cut, and, with their strong lights and shadows, surround the building by an effective series of light and dark bands. These are slightly broken by little ornaments on the face of each angle. Along the top of the upper moulding of the basement are little groups of elephants and lions fighting or feeding. The facets of the walls, above this and up to the eaves have long slender double pilasters with little tops or *shikhars*. Above each is a group of tiny figures dancing or playing instruments. The recesses between the corners have also pretty carving. Unlike most Chálukyan temples this has no cornice except round the porch which is in advance of the south doorway. The spire runs direct from the eaves as a truncated cone. The step-like appearance disappears, the storeys dwindling into mere horizontal mouldings. The doorway on the south is very richly carved but has been covered with plaster and paint till the carvings are nearly hid. The two pillars in this porch are very minutely moulded in an abundance of perpendicular projecting and recessed angles. Close to the temple of Dodda Basavanna is a little temple of Dabgadi or Someshvavar. It is very plain, its most marked feature being a very deep flat straight-lined cornice which runs round over the eaves of the hall or *mandap*. The temple includes an open hall or *mandap*, an antechamber, and a shrine. The antechamber is separated from the hall by a perforated stone screen through which is a doorway. A bull or *nandi* lies in the antechamber and a *ling* is set in the shrine.

Outside of the town on the Gadag-Mundargi road is the Totadsvámi *math* or monastery a large modern building of black stone. Over the tomb of Totadsvámi the founder of the monastery is a well worked stone lotus. The pillars are hewn in imitation of the turned pillars of older times, and the door is carved with a pattern in very low relief. A door into a side cloister was brought about 1870 from Lakkundi about seven miles to the north. The Lakshmi on the door has been hewn into a *ling*, but elephants remain. The present head of the Totadsvámi monastery is one Andavisvámi

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DAMBAL.

Temples.

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DAMBÁL.

Fort.

and under him are branch monasteries in most of the villages near Dambal, all endowed with lands.

To the west of Dambal is a ruined stone rubble fort with a Jain temple much out of repair. The fort is a large enclosure with walls in fair repair. The walls are high, and for the most part are built of large cut stone blocks into which are built parts of pillars, door lintels, and side posts. In 1750, Tieffenthaler notices it as a stone fort surrounded by a ditch between which and the wall was a rampart of earth.¹ In 1800 Colonel Wellesley described the fort as strong and well built with a dry and in some places deep ditch and walls about thirty feet high. In 1826 a committee of inspection described it as a square stone fort of some strength. It was surrounded by a dry ditch about ten feet deep and by a glacis or raised earthen mound which covered the works to a considerable height except on the south where a large pond exposed the ramparts. The ditch was well flanked by round towers projecting about twenty feet from the ramparts and situated about fifty feet apart. There were a few unserviceable guns. The committee found the works well built and wanting little repair. They recommended that a garrison of one or two companies of sepoy should be stationed in the fort with a hundred irregulars and a brace of twelve pounders.² In 1842 Captain Burgoyne and Lieutenant Bell, who were appointed to examine the Bombay-Karnátak forts, described Dambal as a large stone fort about 100 yards west of the town. It was nearly round, being about 420 yards long by about 400 broad. The chief entrance was on the east by four gateways, one within the other, all covered and flanked by strong works. On the north and west were single gates, both from within. There was a covered way with a parapet and a blocked small glacis out of repair. The defences of the fort consisted of eleven unequal faces with angular bastions strongly built and fit for ordnance. The curtains were of the same material and were in good order. The ramparts were seven to fourteen feet wide and had three to four feet high parapets. The entire height of the works including the parapet varied from sixteen to thirty feet. The south face of the fort, where was a small berm eight feet round, was entirely destroyed. The counterscarp of the fort was revetted or faced with stone work generally in good order. Round the fort was a ditch about fifty feet wide and fifteen feet deep. Inside of the fort were a few inhabited houses and the court of the petty divisional officer. There was a palace and the ruins of a number of houses. The water-supply was from a large pond on the west, the dam of which ran obliquely north and south to within a hundred feet of the south-west corner of the fort. On the north large gardens came to within a short distance of the works. The committee found that, if the south parapets were put in order, from its general good condition and the strength of its masonry, the fort was strong enough to face heavy ordnance.³ By 1862 the fort had

¹ Description, I. 501.² MS. Report, pp. 38-39.³ Report dated Belgaum 5th July 1842.

fallen into ruin: To the west of the town is a pond covering 455 and watering 143 acres. Its dam was raised at a cost of £993 (Rs. 9930) by the Irrigation Department. It now holds 108,402,000 cubic feet of water and is largely used for watering the neighbouring crops.

Of five inscriptions at Dambal the earliest and the most important is an excellently preserved inscription in forty-five lines dated 1095, on a stone-tablet to the left of the small Jain shrine in the fort. At the top of the stone are several emblems. In the centre is the figure of a woman, apparently the Buddhist goddess Tárá or Tárá-devi who is mentioned in the inscription. She is seated in a shrine facing full front, and holds in her left hand an opening water-lily, and in her right hand some other objects. To her right are a cow and calf with the sun above them; and to her left is the standing figure of a man with his hands joined and held to his face in the act of salutation. In front of his hands is the flower of an eight-leaved water-lily, behind him are two lamp-stands with burning flames, and above him is the moon. The body of the inscription which is in the Old Kánarese language, in finely engraved and well preserved characters of the end of the eleventh century, covers a space about 3' 1" high by 2' 1" broad. Round the top of the tablet are also two long lines of writing in the same character and containing three Sanskrit verses. The inscription begins with a salutation to Buddha and Tárá. It records that on Sunday the fifth day of the bright half of *Mágh* or February-March in the nineteenth year (1095) of the reign of the Western Chálukya king Tribhuvanamalla II. or Vikramáditya VI. (1076-1127), grants were made to two Buddhist monasteries or *viháras* at Dambal. One of the monasteries is mentioned as built in honour of Buddha by the sixteen *settis* or head merchants of Dambal, and the other as having been built in honour of the Buddhist goddess Tára by the merchant Samvágayya of Lökkigundi the modern Lakkundi about eight miles north of Dambal. The head merchants who built and endowed the monasteries are said to be of the Vira Balanja sect,¹ the class of merchants or traders who afterwards, became the chief supporters of the Lingáyat religion. The inscription mentions Lakshamádevi the chief queen as governing the district called the eighteen *agraháras* and the city of Dharmápura or Dharmavolal apparently Dambal.² The second inscription at the temple of Dodda Basavanna is dated 1184 in the reign of the Western Chálukya king Someshvar IV. (1182-1189) with whom ended the supreme power of the Western Chálukyas. Of the three other inscriptions two are on pillars at the entrance of the temple of Káleshvar, and the third is on a stone built into the wall of a well close by and nearly buried. The present *desái* of Dambal has nine copperplates of the

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DAMBAL.

Inscriptions.

¹ Other forms in inscriptions are Balanju, Banauja, and Bananju. The modern form is Banajiga and Banijiga. There is still a division of the Banajigas called Jain Banajiga. Mr. J. F. Fleet, C.S., C.I.E., in Ind. Ant. X. 185.

² The eighteen *agraharas* appear to have been eighteen important towns scattered over the Belvola Three-hundred. Huli in Belgaum was one of them, Nargund another, and Dambal was perhaps a third. Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 48 note 3; Ind. Ant. XII. 47.

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*Inscribed
Copper-plates.*

third Vijayanagar king Harihar II. (1379-1401). The plates are about $7\frac{1}{2}$ " broad by $10\frac{3}{4}$ " long, and are strung on a massive ring, the seal of which bears the figure of a boar with the sun and moon above it. The plates are strung very irregularly though some of them are numbered. The inscription in Sanskrit characters and language is written across the breadth of the plates. It records how in the year 1379 (*Shak* 1301 *Siddhārthi samvatsar*) Harihar II., while ruling at Vijaynagar, divided the district of Gadag consisting of sixty-six villages in the kingdom of Hastināvati into three equal shares. One was kept as the king's share, the second was bestowed for the religious rites of the gods Trikuteshvar and Virnārāyan, and the third was granted to minor village gods and to Bráhmans.¹

History.

In the eleventh and twelfth centuries Dambal called Dharmápura or Dharmavolal, that is the city of religion, was under the Western Chálukyas. In 1095 it had two Buddhist monasteries to which grants were made by merchants who professed the Buddhist faith. About 1690 under Aurangzeb's governor of Sávanur Dambal was the head of a revenue division managed by an hereditary Hindu officer called the *desái* of Dambal.² In 1778 Haidar Ali (1763-1783) took Dhárwár, Bádámi, and eventually the whole country south of the Krishna, but left Dambal, Nargund, Navalgund, and Sirhatti in the hands of their chiefs on their acknowledging his supremacy and agreeing to pay tribute.³ In April 1800 Dhundia-Vágh the great Marátha freebooter laid siege to Dambal. During the course of the siege Áppa Sáheb, the son of Parashurám Bháu, detached against him a force of 5000 cavalry and a large body of infantry. Dhundia defeated the detachment and took possession of Dambal on the 5th of May. On the 20th of July Colonel Wellesley appeared before Dambal. He describes Dambal fort as strong and well built, the wall about thirty feet high, with a dry ditch, in some places of considerable depth. In the fort were about 1000 men who were summoned to surrender. An hour was given them to consider the offer. They declined to accept the summons and the place, which had held out against Dhundia for several weeks, was attacked and carried by escalade with the loss of a very few men wounded. The fort was surrounded by a body of cavalry under Colonel Stevenson and by the Maráthás under Gokhla. It was attacked in three places: at the gateway by Major Deese with the piquets supported by two companies of the second detachment of the Second Regiment; on one face by Lieutenant-Colonel Capper with the grenadiers and light infantry of the 73rd and the second company of the Second Regiment; and on the other face by Captain Macpherson with the grenadiers and light infantry of the 77th and the remainder of the second detachment of the Second Bombay Regiment. It was impossible to force the gateway, and the party on that attack entered the fort by escalade; the other two attacks succeeded nearly at the same time.⁴ Almost the only loss to the

¹ Journal Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society, XII. 338-339.

² Stokes' Belgaum, 44; West's History, 21.

³ Wilks' South of India, II. 187.

⁴ Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, India (1797-1805), II. 73.

assailants was caused by the breaking of a ladder. The commandant of the fort, a Smárt Bráhma named Shrinivas Venkatádri Bahádur Desái was summarily hanged, apparently because he refused to give up the fort.¹ During the Third Marátha War General Munro appeared before Dambal on the 7th of January 1818. After about four hours' firing from two batteries, on the morning of the 8th, the garrison amounting to 450 men capitulated and engaged not to serve against the British during the war.² In 1827 Captain Clunes notices Dambal as a usual halting place on the Dhárwár-Belári road with 500 houses, twelve shops, and wells.³ In the 1858 mutinies the chiefs of Mundargi and Sirhatti attacked the Dambal treasury. But as on the previous day all the money had been sent to Gadag the insurgent chiefs gained but little.⁴

Devar Hubli village, on the Dhárwár-Haliyál road six miles south-west of Dhárwár, with in 1892 a population of 674, has a Jakhanáchárya temple of Shri Ranganáth.

Devgiri, with in 1881 a population of 2618, is a large village on the Bankápur-Ránebennur road about six miles west of Karajgi. Devgiri has an assistant collector's bungalow and temples of Hanumán, Basavanna, and Yellamma. Yellamma's temple is said to have been built by Jakhanáchárya. It has an inscription dated Monday the bright half of *Ashádh* or June-July 1533 (S. 1460 *Vilambi gmvatsara*). In 1875-76 three sets of copper-plates of three and four plates each were found in digging the bed of a pond at Devgiri. They are all early Kadamba grants, and, though not dated in any era, are placed by Mr. Fleet about the close of the fifth century after Christ. One of these grants is on three plates about 7"·5 long by 1"·8 broad. The ring joining the plates is 0"·2 thick and is an oval 2"·4 by 1"·8. The seal also is oval 1"·7 by 1"·4. The device on the seal is a good deal worn. It is an animal standing towards the right with its head turned to the left, with the figure of a god or a man leaning against it or sitting on it. The first plate has four lines of writing on the inner side, the second has four lines on each side, and the third has four lines on the inner side. All are in Old Kánarese characters in the Sanskrit language. The plates record a grant of a field for the use of a Jain temple by the heir apparent Devavarma, son of Krishnavarma, who is styled the great Kadamba king. The second grant is in three plates, about 2"·5 long by 2"·3 broad. The ring which joins the plates is about 0"·3 thick and is almost a circle 2"·3 in diameter. The seal is oval, 1"·5 by 0"·9; the device or writing cannot be read. The first plate has five lines on the inner side, the second five lines on either side, and the third five lines on the

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DAMBAL.

DEVAR HUBLI

DEVGIRI.

Inscribed
Copper-plates.

¹ Governor General to Secret Committee of the Board of Directors, 31st August 1800; Wellington's Despatches, I. 69. General Wellesley seems to have afterwards regretted that the commandant was hanged without further inquiry. Before he left India Colonel Wellesley induced the Government of Bombay to allow the widow of the commandant to adopt a son and the son to bear the hereditary title of the family. The commandant's grandson joined the rebellion of 1858 and forfeited his life and estates. See above, p. 425.

² Blacker's Marátha War, 237.

⁴ Mr. F. L. Charles, C.S.

³ Clunes' Itinerary, 72.

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DEVGIRI.

inner side. The language is Sanskrit and the characters are Old Kánarese, small and neatly cut and mostly well preserved. The grant is issued from Vaijayanti or Banavási and records the gift of fields for the use of a Jain temple by Mrigeshvarma, the great king of the Kadambas, the son of Shri Shántivarma in the family of Kákustha, on the tenth lunar day in the dark fortnight of *Kártik* or November-December in the third year of the king's reign. The third grant is on four plates about 8" long by 2⁷/₅ broad. The ring on which the plates are strung is rather bent. It seems to have originally been circular about 2⁷/₅ in diameter and 0²/₂ thick. The seal is oval 1²/₂ by 1". The device, which is very indistinct, seems to be a sitting or a kneeling figure of a god or man, probably of the Jain Jinendra. The first plate has four lines on the inner side, the second five each on either side, the third four on the inner and five on the outer side, and the fourth has five on the inner side. The language is Sanskrit, and the character is Old Kánarese, large bold and well preserved. The grant is issued from Vaijayanti that is Banavási. It records the gift of a village to a Jain temple and two Jain sects by Mrigeshvarma the pious great king of the Kadambas on the full-moon day, the eighth fortnight of the rainy season, in the fourth year of his reign.¹

DEVIHOSUR.

Devihosur village, about ten miles south-west of Karajgi, with in 1881 a population of 1286, has temples of Bānshankari, Basvanna, and Bhogeshvar, the Bānshankari temple with four inscribed slabs, the Basvanna temple with one, and the Bhogeshvar temple with two of eleven and twenty lines. Four other inscriptions occur in the village, two in the yard of one Kajannivali, one in a field, and one on the dam of a pond to the east of the village.

DHÁRWÁR.

Dhárwár,² in north latitude 15° 27' and east longitude 75° 6', forty-eight miles south-east of Belgaum, 110 miles south-west of Bijápúr, and about 300 miles south-east of Bombay, is the headquarters of the Dhárwár sub-division and district. The 1881 census returns show that Dhárwár is the fifteenth city in the Bombay Presidency, with a town site of 735 acres and a population of about 27,000 or thirty-six to the square acre.³

Aspect.

Dhárwár stands 2580 feet above the sea, about seventy miles north-east of the coast town of Kárwár in North Kánára, forty-eight miles south-east of Belgaum, and twelve miles north-west of Hubli. To the north-east, east, and south-east the country round Dhárwár is open for upwards of thirty miles. On the west and south-west, within a mile of the town, are several small waving hills. From the north-east, east, and south-east, the town and fort hardly show until close at hand. From the south, the Collector's office, the temple of Ulvi Basappa, a few trees on the north-west, and Mailarling hill on the north first catch the eye, and on nearer approach, the upper parts of the German Mission Chapel, and the south of the town come into view. The approach from the west shows nothing until the

¹ Ind. Ant. VII. 33-38; Jour. Bom. Br. Roy. As. Soc. XII. 300-325.

² Contributed by Ráo Bahádúr Tirmalráv Venkatesh.

³ This includes 671 the population of Dhárwár Cantonment.

high ground is climbed on which are the Collector's office and Ulvi Basappa's temple. The crest of this high ground commands an excellent view. The Collector's office, which is probably the highest point for miles round, occupies a most prominent position and commands a view of the surroundings of the town and of the country near. Immediately below the office, is Ulvi Basappa's temple and beyond Ulvi's temple the Mailarling hill slopes to the Bâgh pond on the south of the town. The town itself, with its seven straggling villages, is half hidden by the rising ground above the Lál pond, and by the fort and station which are embosomed in trees.¹ Beyond the town a wide and rich plain, about sixty miles long by thirty-six broad, stretches east and north-east to a low range of hills, among which, in the far distance, appear the holy hill of Yellamma and the hill fort of Parasgad. Between April and mid-May the whole of this plain is one vast sheet of bare black soil, dotted with green village sites. During the rest of the year the plain is green with Indian millet cotton and wheat. To the north-east the country rolls thirty miles to the hill fort and town of Nargund. To the west the plain rises in low hills to the eastern end of a spur which stretches thirty-seven miles from the Sahyádris.

The rock on which Dhárwár is built belongs to the metamorphic series and is composed of layers of schist so twisted in places as to be almost vertical. This stone is unfit for building houses or drains, and house-building stone has to be brought from a distance. Its position on a slight rise gives Dhárwár excellent natural drainage. The storm-water discharges north into a water-course which runs north-east to the Govankop brook, about three miles north of Dhárwár. The surface drainage, from the quarter of the town which lies to the south-east of the hill, falls into the Bâgh pond and the rice fields below it.

The station of Dhárwár may be divided into five parts the fort, the town, the civil station, the cantonment, and the suburbs. The fort covers about seventy-six acres, and has an outside diameter of about 800 yards. It has ruinous mud fortifications, which were partially destroyed by Government after the 1857. mutinies. In 1826 Grant Duff described the fort as guarded by an outer and inner ditch twenty-five to thirty feet wide and nearly as many deep. The defences were of mud and were irregular and much decayed.² When built in 1403 (*Shak* 1325 *Subhánu samnatsara*) the fort had only one entrance from the east with four gateways one inside the other. In 1660 the gates were improved by order of the

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Aspect.

Dhárwár
Fort,

¹ The municipal limits of the city of Dhárwár include the village site of Kasba Dhárwár, together with fifty-two full and parts of four survey numbers; the village site of Hosyellápur, together with forty-five full survey numbers; the village site of Náráyanpur, together with four full survey numbers; the village site of Gulganjikop, together with eight full and part of one survey numbers; the village site of Saiddápur, together with two full survey numbers; the village site of Málápur together with six full and parts of nine survey numbers; four full survey numbers belong to the uninhabited village of Saptápur; and sixteen survey numbers belonging to the uninhabited village of Bágataláo.

² First Preface, Third Edition (1873), and p. 486.

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DHÁRWÁR.

Fort.

eighth Bijápur king Ali Adil Sháh (1656-1679). The four gateways remain, but are much out of repair. From the inside of the fort the first gateway, built in a line with the inner fort wall, is in fair order. It is $12\frac{1}{2}$ feet high and $11\frac{1}{2}$ feet broad. The arch above the gateway and the sides are built with cut granite and iron stone and mortar. Its wooden doors, three inches thick, still stand but cannot be shut. The inner ditch surrounds the inner fort wall. The second gate from inside, thirteen feet high and $15\frac{1}{2}$ broad, is the largest in the fort and looks fresh and handsome. Its massive wooden doors are four inches thick, and have several beautifully carved wooden bars fastened to them by strong iron nails. The upper part and sides of the gateway are built with good cut granite stone cemented with mortar. On the top is an oblong slab with, in a large oblong space in the middle of the slab, the following writing in Persian :

When torn by sorrow and ill fortune, call on the famous and wonderful Ali. Through the favour of Ali and the might of Muhammad, you are sure to find instant relief.

At the right ends of the text are two small circles, the upper circle recording the date 11th *Muharram* of the year H. 1071 that is A.D. 1659, and the lower recording :

On Friday Ehidi Sittine-O-Allah 1071 (that is 1659).

At the left ends of the square are two similar circles the upper circle recording :

Abdul Gaffar Commandant of the fort of Dhárwár.

And the lower circle recording :

Abdulla Captain of the fort of Dhárwár.

The workmanship of this gateway is different from that of the fort wall, the gate being Muhammadan and the wall Hindu. This gateway is built in a line with the outer fort wall. Beyond are the third and the fourth gateways both of which are totally ruined. The four gateways are so placed that an assailant attempting to enter has after forcing each gate to pass some distance to one side before reaching the next. The three inner gateways face east, and the fourth or the outermost gateway faces north. Between the second and third gateways, a little towards the east of the road, stands a thick slab of stone about five feet high and one and a half broad called the Field Pillar or *Ran-Stambh*. Prisoners condemned to death were formerly beheaded in front of this pillar. The practice has been continued till within the last few years, heads of sheep being offered instead of human heads.

The residences in the fort were formerly occupied by officers of the Native Infantry Regiment stationed at Dhárwár. Since 1875 when new lines were built they have been occupied by officers in the civil employ of Government. The water-supply of the fort is from a large reservoir or *haud*. Outside the fort is surrounded by a broad earthen mound or glacis.

Town.

The town occupies the ground to the east and south of the fort and includes the lowest part of Dhárwár with its suburbs. The original town or *petta* attached to the fort was to the south-east outflanking the fort on the east. It was defended by a low mud

wall with a poor ditch. It included the streets now called Mangalvár, Shukravár, and Kamánkatta and their intermediate cross lanes. The mud wall round the town had five gates, on the north the Kille gate leading to the fort; on the north-east the Mudi-Hanumán gate near Mudi-Hanumán's temple leading to the village of Hebli; on the south-east the Navlur gate leading to Navlur and Hubli; on the south-west the Nuchambli gate leading to the Nuchambli well; and on the north-west the Tegur gate leading to Tegur village on the Poona road. There was a small private gate somewhere between the Kille and Tegur gates for the garrison to escape if suddenly surprised. The Navlur gate alone remains and it is ruined. Originally the town did not extend much beyond the present municipal office, where were the houses of Mhárs and Chámhbárs. The suburb of Dhárwár stretched from these houses to the Halkeri or Moti pond. At present the native portion of the city of Dhárwár may be divided into two chief parts, the town proper or *kasba* and the suburbs of Dhárwár including Saidápur, Háveripeth, Madihall, Gulganjikop, Málápur, Kamlápur, Náráyanpur, Hos-Málápur, and the European Civil Station. The town or *kasba* proper of Dhárwár is bounded on the east by the laúds of Dhárwár; on the north by the open space between the town and Háveri peth, on the north-west and west by the fort and the European station, and on the south by the large Hirekeri pond. Two long streets, an eastern and a western running almost parallel to each other from south to north, divide the town into three parts, east, middle, and west Dhárwár. Three large streets run east and west almost parallel to each other and crossing the north and south streets almost at right angles. The first east and west street, towards the north of the town, is called the big pond road. The second in the middle of the town is called the Kamánkatta, and the third is to the south of the town. These cross streets divide the town into two distinct parts, one on the north of the Kamánkatta street and the other to the south. Each of these parts may be considered to include three sub-divisions, a western, a middle, and an eastern, as divided by the two main north and south streets. Thus the town proper includes six sub-divisions, a western middle and eastern to the north of Kamánkatta street, and a western middle and eastern to the south of Kamánkatta street. The northern portion is known as Mangalvár peth that is Tuesday town, because in former days a market was held there on Tuesdays; the southern portion is known as Shukravár peth or the Friday town, because a market was held there on Fridays. At present Tuesday is the market day for the whole city; no Friday market is held. All the streets and lanes of the town proper are well made. Portions of them have been metalled and the rest well beaten. On both sides of the roads are drains partly built with stone and mortar to carry off storm and sullage water. In most of the main streets and in several of the lanes kerosine lamps are lit on moonless nights. About seven-eighths of the houses are flat roofed, with roof openings for light and air. The rest are tiled. Windows on the side walls of houses are rare.

The limits of the wards or divisions of the town are complicated and in some cases disputed. Each division has several lanes running

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Town.

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Town.

east and west. The south-east division has ten lanes.¹ It is inhabited by Bráhmaṇ priests and Government servants, the hereditary astrologers of Dhárwár, a large number of Lingáyat and Marátha husbandmen, labourers, and Bedars, two or three goldsmiths, one or two Lingáyat priests, and a few Muhammadans. It has two Lingáyat monasteries, and three Hindu temples of Ráyar Hanumán, Gopálkrishna, and Mahádev.

The north-eastern division has eleven lanes.² It is inhabited by Pendháris, Musalmán labourers, betel leaf sellers and gardeners, Lingáyat grain merchants, retail shopkeepers and husbandmen, goldsmiths, weavers, and shoemakers, and two Vadars. In this subdivision is the chief native liquor factory, a few Bráhmaṇ priests and Government servants, a Lingáyat and a Vellál mason, a few blacksmiths, rope-makers, and dealers in skin, and three temples of Ishvar Hanumán and Kalva, and a goldsmiths' and three Lingáyat religious houses.

The north middle division has seven lanes.³ It is inhabited by several Bráhmaṇ priests, Government servants, the *desái* of Dhárwár, several rich Bráhmaṇ Lingáyat and Muhammadan merchants, Komti merchants, Jingers, retail shopkeepers and grain merchants and their shops, a few oil pressers, some copper and brass vessel sellers, and a few Lingáyat priests. In this division are the mámlatdár's office, Government Maráthi and Kánarese schools, the old market, the chief police station, two Lingáyat monasteries, Hindu temples of Vithoba, Venkoba, Mudi-Hanumán and Ishvar, Rághavendra Swámi's shrine, a Lingáyat temple of Basvanna, Náiband's mosque, and a few lime kilns.

The south middle division has ten lanes.⁴ It is inhabited by Mádhva Bráhmaṇ priests, Government servants and pleaders, Marátha Lingáyat and Jain husbandmen and labourers, a few Musalmáns and cotton cleaners, goldsmiths, earthen-pot makers, Lingáyat merchants weavers and priests, three or four retail shops, and dancing girls. The chief objects of interest in this division are three Bráhmaṇic temples of Kalmeshvar, Hanumán, and Ishvar, a Jain temple, a Lingáyat temple of Virbhadrá, two Lingáyat monasteries, and a mosque.

The south-western division has seven lanes.⁵ The chief inhabitants are Lingáyat merchants priests and husbandmen, Bráhmaṇ

¹ Beginning from the Navlur gate, the names of the lanes are two Bedar lanes, Kolikera, Udpiraya-galli, Marátha-galli, Kalli-voni, Attikole-voni, Shadra Joshi's vadha, Korvars' or musicians' galli, and Gondhli's galli.

² Muchandya-galli, Gavachari-galli, Madansetti-galli, Adki-galli, Bhus-galli, Gunari-galli, Mensinkai-galli, Viraktmath-voni, Ghall-voni, Motchigerri, and Kambar-galli or blacksmith's lane.

³ Mudihanumán-galli, Dattobrao's galli, Táluk Kacheri-galli, Hiremath lane, Desai-galli, Javali or cloth-seller's bazar, Vibhutí-galli, Nandikole-galli, Zingar-galli, and Rajput-galli.

⁴ Kumbár-galli, Lukmánhalli, Basti-galli, Deshpándi-galli, Hembli-galli, Mondgalli and Hosvoni.

⁵ Kodanpur-galli, Weavers' lane, Dundi-galli, Velligar-galli, Hanumán-galli, Kasba Dyamava-galli, and Mollia-galli.

priests, merchants, Government servants and pleaders, weavers, a blacksmith and several goldsmiths, carpenters, a few Muhammadan washermen, dancing girls, and a few indigo dyers. The chief objects of interest are four Lingáyat monasteries, a temple of Chauri-Basappa, two Bráhmanical temples of Bánshankari and Venkoba, and a mosque.

The north-western division has ten lanes.¹ The chief inhabitants are Muhammadan merchants husbandmen and labourers, Government messengers, tinmen, coppersmiths, traders, water-carriers, grass-cutters, washermen, barbers, cow-keepers, a few Bráhman priests, Government servants and pleaders, indigo-dyers, a few Marátha and Lingáyat husbandmen, and labourers, goldsmiths, dancing girls, carpenters, earthen-pot makers, and Lingáyat priests. The chief objects of interest are Bráhmanical temples of Dattátraya, Narsinh and Hanumán, a Lingáyat monastery, the Jáma and four or five minor mosques, the Persian school-house, and the German Mission school-house, on the bank of the Halkeri Pond.

The suburbs fall under five divisions. To the north of the main east and west street, and to the east of the Hirekeri or Moti pond, are nine lanes.² This part is peopled by Muhammadan and Marátha husbandmen, labourers, Government messengers, constables, and some Hindustán Bráhmans. There are three temples of Báláji Hanumán and Ganesh, and three mosques. To the north of this nine-lane sub-division is the European Protestant burying ground, and north of this burying ground is the European cricket ground. Beyond the cricket ground to the east is Háveripeth. On the extreme north-east about a mile distant is the new village of Madihall. It is bounded on the north, east, and south by Dhárwár lands and open country, and on the west by Háveripeth. In 1832, under the patronage of Mr. Josiah Nisbet the Principal Collector, Judge and Sessions Judge, and Political Agent in the Southern Marátha Country, Bráhman public officers and agents of landholders built the new village of Madihall towards the east of Háveripeth. For some time it was called Nisbetpur after Mr. Nisbet but it is now called Madihalla, from the neighbouring brook or *halla* on the banks of which the long and strong grass called *madi*, used in making ropes and sweeping brooms, is grown. Madihalla includes two long streets running parallel to each other east and west. There are no cross lanes. All the houses here are built of sun-dried bricks, and covered with tiles. The higher public servants and agents of landholders and sardárs built several good houses on both sides of the southern street. Many are now in ruins, and the few that remain are occupied by Bráhman priests and poor public servants. In the northern street live several Marátha husbandmen messengers and constables. At the end of the village is a large temple of Narsinh which was built by the late Báu Bahádur Shrinivásráo

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Madihall.

¹ Pendhári-galli, Tadkode-galli, Gavli-galli, Langoti-galli, Kumbhár-galli, Daroga-galli, two Rassálpur-galli, Sodágar-galli, and Bisti-galli.

² Mutgar lane, Haddukhán's lane, Bára Imám lane, Bhovi Mandi lane, Mankalváda, Mochi-galli, Kodi lane, Kirpáram lane, and Marátha lane.

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Háveripeth.

Sangit, *diwán* to the Principal Collector and Political Agent in 1832, in front of his house where his family now lives. There are four or five houses of Muhammadans. The population is entirely dependent on the Dhárwár market. The well water is sweet and close to the surface.

About three-quarters of a mile north of the town is the modern village of Háveripeth. It is bounded on the north by the lands of Dhárwár and Madihall, on the south by the open ground between Háveripeth and Dhárwár, and on the west by the open ground between Háveripeth and Náráyanpur. Under Bijápur (1489-1636) and afterwards under Aurangzeb (1658-1707), Dhárwár fort was in charge of a commandant, who had a small territory assigned to him for the maintenance of the garrison. The town or *petta* was placed under the manager or *sarsubhedár* of the district. The same form of government was continued under Peshwa Báláji after he took the fort in 1753. The merchants lived in the *petta* and the markets were there. Owing to continual dissensions between the commandant and the civil authorities in the town, the garrison were not allowed access to the *petta* and had much difficulty in getting provisions. The commandant represented the matter to the Peshwa, who ordered a new *petta* or market to be built for the use of the garrison. It was built towards the north-east of the fort in 1753, and was called *Sadáshiv peth*, in honor of the Peshwa's cousin Sadáshivráv, who had obtained the order for its building. As the market days in the Mangalvár and Shukravár street in the town of Dhárwár were Tuesdays and Fridays the new market was ordered to be held on Sundays. It was therefore also called *Áditvár peth* or the Sunday street. When and why the old names were changed into the present Háveripeth is not known. In Háveripeth two long streets, one north and south, and the other east and west, cross each other almost at right angles. The chief inhabitants are Lingáyat merchants shopkeepers and oil-pressers, Pendháris, cotton-cleaners, carpenters, and blacksmiths. Some rich Muhammadans, several Lingáyat and Marátha husbandmen and labourers, and Lingáyat priests and Musalmán beggars also live in this division. The chief objects of interest are four Bráhmanical temples of Hanumán, Ishvar, Kareva, and Dyámava, a Lingáyat temple of Basvanna, two Lingáyat monasteries, and three mosques. Outside the northern entrance of Háveripeth are the Purmankatti pond and a rest-house.

Gulganjikop.

About a mile and a half to the north of the town is a group of five hamlets Gulganjikop, Kamlápur, Hosmálápur, Málápur, and Náráyanpur, all near one other and forming one large village. Gulganjikop lies to the east, Málápur and Kamlápur to the north, Hosmálápur to the west, and Náráyanpur to the south. The boundaries of this group are on the north the lands of Gulganjikop and Málápur, on the east the lands of Málápur between this group and Háveripeth, on the south the open space between this group and the fort, and on the west the lands of Gulganjikop and the jail. The whole group is more like a separate

village than a portion of the city. The streets are more like lanes than roads, being neither paved nor metalled. Except about ten with tiles the houses are small and flat roofed. They are chiefly peopled by Lingáyat and Marátha husbandmen and labourers. There are ten or twelve houses of carpenters and as many more of blacksmiths and earthen-pot makers. There are four or five retail, but there is no large wholesale shop. Four rich merchants three Lingáyat and one Rajput, several Musalmán and Marátha Government messengers and constables, eight or ten families of Musalmán beggars, and about ten families of Lingáyat priests live in these villages. The headman of Málápur is a Musalmán, and the headmen of the other villages are Lingáyats. The accountants of these villages are Bráhmans who live in the town. The only objects of interest in the group are two temples of Hanumán, a Lingáyat temple of Basvanna, two Lingáyat monasteries, and two mosques. A little trade in cotton is carried on in these villages.

To the south-west of the Gulganjikop group is Saidápur village. It is bounded on the north by the open ground south of Gulganjikop, on the east by the fort, on the west by the ground behind the jail, and on the south by the Dhárwár-Belgaum road. It is peopled by poor Musalmán, Marátha, and Lingáyat husbandmen and labourers. There are some tiled and several small flat-roofed houses, but no merchants or Bráhmans live here. The village has a Roman Catholic chapel, with a few resident Catholic Christians. To the south-east and west of Saidápur is the civil station and the fort. Between the south-east of the Collector's garden and the west of the town, almost in a line with the middle Kamánkatta street, is a small nameless village. It is bounded on the north by the road from the town to the Collector's office, on the east by the north and south main road from Hubli to Belgaum and the west of Dhárwár, on the south by the Kempgeri pond, and on the west by the Collector's garden. About 1824, the private servants and messengers of the Principal Collector, and the military officers of the regiments then stationed in the fort, built several small huts and houses at this place. Several Musalmán labourers, and Government servants of the messenger and constable class, several Bhois formerly palanquin-bearers but now fishermen, some Roman Catholic Christians, clerks in Government offices, and some Hindustáni Bráhmans live here. About 1833 the jailor dug a public well with the help of a few convicts, and his family enjoy a piece of rent-free land for its repair. To the south-west of the town is a village originally called Baberpur after Mr. T. H. Baber the Principal Collector who built it. It does not now retain that name. The boundaries of this village are on the north the southern slope of the Madármardi hill, on the east the south-west of the town, on the south the Hirekeri pond, and on the west the open country towards the main Belgaum-Hubli road. The great south-east and west road of the town passes through this village towards the west to

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Suburbs.

the Collector's office, District Judge's, and First Class Subordinate Judge's courts, Ulvi Basappa's temple, the European part of the town, and the main road from Belgaum to Hubli. On the south side of this street are Ráo Bahádúr Tirmalráv Inámdár's dwelling, Satya Bodh's Hanumán's temple, and four or five houses of Bráhmañ priests and others. On the northern side are Venkatráv Bahádúr's large well, Tirmalráv's rest-house, and houses of three or four Bráhmañ Government servants and others. The smaller lanes in this new village are one called the Chávni, and three Bedar lanes. The Chávni was originally occupied by the *savárs* or horsemen of the Political escort. It was next occupied by police constables until when they were removed to the new police quarters. Maráthá labourers and others now live there. The three Bedar lanes are so called from about a hundred Bedars and some Hulsars who live there. The Bedars hire themselves for daily labour or sell firewood. Some trade in mango and guava fruit in their season. There is a small Hanumán's temple in the Chávni lane occupied by a Bairági ministrant. To the north of the new village and towards the west of the town are several small and irregular lanes of Holerus or Mhárs, Talvarus or village constables, Kurbarus or shepherds, weavers, basket-makers, and Kasberus or prostitutes. There is an Akhani lane, where live Muhammadan sellers of beads and needles and some workers in silk, Gaulis' or cowherds' lane, the two market lanes of the old regimental lines where live two or three Muhammadan cloth merchants, Kákar lane where live some Pendhári fishers, firewood sellers and pony hirers who give ponies on hire and buy and sell fish, Madrási lane and Korvarus' or low musicians' lane where live Native Christians from Madras most of them employed as servants in European households. Most of the people of this locality are poor and live chiefly on labour or service and some by begging. Most of the houses in these lanes are small clumsy and dirty and the lanes themselves are not clean. Of religious buildings the Holerus have three temples of Durgava the goddess of cholera and her sister Mátáji, the Muhammadans have one or two mosques, and the Roman Catholics have a chapel and a burying ground. To the north of the lanes in the west of the town are the new police lines down the north slope of the rising ground towards the south-west of the fort. The police force consists of Muhammadans, Maráthas, a few Rajputs, and a very few Bráhmañs. Close to the lanes are a small temple of Murgamma and a mosque. Beyond the Police lines are the civil station on the north and west, and the fort on the east. Outside to the south-east of the town are two Lingáyat monasteries called Churmuri and Chilal, several houses of Bedars and Lingáyats, Ráo Bahádúr Venkatráv Principal Sadar Amin's cenotaph, a public sweet water round well known as Kopramma's Well and a rest-house both built by Ráo Bahádúr Tirmalráo Inámdár the former in memory of his mother.

Population.

The 1872 census returns showed a population of 27,136, Hindus

19,836, Musalmáns 6797, Christians 493, and ten Others. The 1881 census returns showed a population of 27,191, including 671 in the cantonment, of whom 19,709 were Hindus, 271 Jains, 6545 Musalmáns, 618 Christians, twenty-four Pársis, and twenty-four Others. Excluding the 671 in the cantonment, the remaining 26,520 give an average density of thirty-six to the square acre over 735 acres the whole area of Dhárwár town. As regards condition the people of Dhárwár town may be arranged under four classes, the rich with yearly incomes of more than £100 (Rs. 1000), the upper middle with £100 to £50 (Rs. 1000-500), the lower middle with £50 to £20 (Rs. 500-200), and the poor with less than £20 (Rs. 200). Of the rich there are 125 to 150 families. They are chiefly priests, Government servants, lawyers, landlords, pensioners, traders, moneylenders, liquor and toll contractors, and copper or brass smiths. Of the upper middle class there are 200 to 400 houses belonging to almost the same classes as the rich. Of the lower middle class there are 500 to 1000 families, belonging almost to the same classes, with the addition of some oilmen and tailors. Of the poor there are 2000 to 2500 families, chiefly retail dealers and craftsmen, excepting copper and brass smiths; a few oilmen and tailors, husbandmen, labourers, wanderers, and beggars.

Except Government servants, whose office hours last from ten to five, men of all classes work from seven to twelve, dine and rest for two hours, work from two to six, sup about eight or nine, and retire to rest about ten. Among the rich the women rise about six, clean the gods' room, light lamps before the house gods, help to make ready the midday meal, dine after their husbands, rest till two, go to the temple to worship or hear sacred books or sew or embroider at home, help in making supper, and retire to rest about ten. In many families, servants clean the hearth, bring water and cook, while the women supply them with provisions for cooking, feed anoint and dress their children and do other light work. Except that they rise before six and bring water and cook, middle class women pass the day like the rich. Poor women, except among Bráhmans and other high classes, rise about four and grind grain till daylight. After a light breakfast, they work till about twelve, dine, and rest. After two they work till six, make supper ready, and, after supping, go to bed about nine. A husbandman's wife takes his breakfast to the field about nine, goes home, and makes dinner ready about twelve. In the afternoon, she does house work and in the evening makes supper ready and sups. In busy times, the men carry their breakfast with them to the fields at about six in the morning. The wife takes her husband his dinner at twelve, and after two hours' rest, works with him in the fields till evening. She bathes at home on Mondays and Thursdays, anoints herself with oil and warm water once in a fortnight, and goes to the temple on every Monday, and on *Makarsankranti* that is January 12th, *Maháshivrátri* in February, *Diváli* in October or November, and the first *Kártik Ekádashi* or eleventh in November.

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Population.*Daily Life.*

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Living.

The rich generally live in their own houses, which, if let, might command a yearly rent of £3 to £10 (Rs. 30 - 100). They have one or two servants to cook and bring water, each at a yearly cost of £10 to £15 (Rs. 100 - 150) and their dinner,¹ and one or two buffaloes and a cow, whose milk curds butter and buttermilk are used by the family. Buttermilk is sometimes distributed in charity. Few keep either a horse or a bullock carriage or a pony cart. The yearly cost of food for a family of five, a man a woman, two children, and an aged member of the family, varies from £25 to £50 (Rs. 250 - 500), and the cost of clothes from £10 to £20 (Rs. 100 - 200).² A son's marriage costs £80 to £200 (Rs. 800 - 2000), and a daughter's, because no ornaments are given, £60 to £120 (Rs. 600 - Rs. 1200). The dowry given to the bridegroom is not included in the latter sum. A death costs £15 to £30 (Rs. 150 - 500); and a birth £5 to £15 (Rs. 50 - 150).³ Upper middle class families live in houses with a yearly rent of £3 to £5 (Rs. 30 - 50); servants cost them about £3 to £6 (Rs. 30 - 60) a year besides dinner. They keep a cow or a buffalo, whose milk is used by the family. Most of them if Bráhmans, Maráthás, Jains, or Musalmáns, keep a small pony, and if Lingáyats, a bullock to ride on, food costs £20 to £40 (Rs. 200 - 400), clothes £6 to £12 (Rs. 60 - 120); a son's marriage £40 to £100 (Rs. 400 - 1000), and a daughter's, exclusive of the dowry paid to the bridegroom, £30 to £50 (Rs. 300 - 500); a death about £12 to £20 (Rs. 120 - 200); and a birth £4 to £12 (Rs. 40 - 120).⁴ Lower middle class families live in houses with

¹ The average wage details are: Cook £10 (Rs. 100) and dinner, water-bearer same, house servant £6 to £10 (Rs. 60 - 100), stable servant £7 8s. (Rs. 74), barber and washerman £2 (Rs. 20), and family priest £5 (Rs. 50), and dinner and clothes. If the priest's wife lives with the family her cost will be £2 8s. (Rs. 24), and dinner and clothes.

² The clothing details are: The woman two robes or *sádis* Rs. 12 each, four bodices Rs. 1½ each, one *pitámbar* or silk robe Rs. 125 and one *paithani* or silk and cotton robe Rs. 120 lasting five years. The man a lace-bordered *rumál* or handkerchief Rs. 40 lasting six years, a coat or *angarkha* of broadcloth Rs. 20 or Rs. 30, and twelve cotton coats Rs. 1 each, two pairs of waistcloths Rs. 10 - 15 a pair, and a pair of shoes Rs. 2 each. A child's clothes cost Rs. 10 - 15.

³ The ceremonial expenses are: Marriage for a boy, ornaments to the bride Rs. 2000, clothes Rs. 500, food Rs. 1000, charity Rs. 200, fireworks Rs. 75, musicians Rs. 50, *yelládaki* or betel leaves and nuts and dancing girls Rs. 100 and dinner, labour Rs. 75, miscellaneous Rs. 500, and in the case of a girl a dowry of Rs. 1500 to the bridegroom, total Rs. 6000. Death, wood Rs. 7, priest Rs. 75, money gifts to begging Bráhmans and *dashudán* or ten gifts Rs. 100, and *annakharch* or dinner to Bráhmans Rs. 100, total Rs. 282. Birth, confinement charges Rs. 30, gifts to Bráhmans Rs. 25, sweetmeats Rs. 15, betel leaves and musicians Rs. 10, clothes for the mother and babe Rs. 50, total Rs. 130. The charges for a girl are Rs. 25 to Rs. 30 more than for a boy.

⁴ The total details are: Cook Rs. 72, house servant Rs. 60, stable servant Rs. 60, and barber and washerman Rs. 15, household priest Rs. 36, *muttáidi* or priestess Rs. 12. Clothes, the woman two robes at Rs. 8 each and four bodices at Rs. 1 each, *pitámbar* Rs. 100, good robe Rs. 30 or Rs. 40; the man two pairs of waistcloths Rs. 8 each, lace headscarf Rs. 25, coat of *bandi* Rs. 15 - 20, eight *ángis* or small coats Rs. 1 each, and a pair of shoes Rs. 1½ each; the boy's and the girl's clothes cost Rs. 8 each. Marriage, a son's marriage, ornaments Rs. 800, clothes Rs. 300, food Rs. 500, charity Rs. 75, fireworks Rs. 30, *yelládaki* and dancing girls Rs. 75 and dinner, labour Rs. 50, miscellaneous Rs. 300, and dowry to bridegroom in the case of girls Rs. 1000. The expense of a daughter's marriage is the same except that there are no ornaments. Death, wood Rs. 7, priest Rs. 50, beggars Rs. 75, *padadán* Rs. 10, *annakharch* Rs. 75, miscellaneous Rs. 50. Birth, confinement charges Rs. 25, Bráhman beggars Rs. 20, sweetmeats Rs. 15, *yelládaki* Rs. 10, clothes Rs. 30.

yearly rent of £2 10s. to £3 (Rs. 25-30); their servants cost them about £2 (Rs. 20) and dinner, and the barber and washerman cost them 12s. (Rs. 6). They keep a cow or a buffalo about half of the produce of which is used in the house and the rest they sell; their food costs them £18 to £30 (Rs. 180-300), their clothes £4 to £8 (Rs. 40-80), a son's marriage £30 to £60 (Rs. 300-600) and a daughter's, exclusive of the dowry paid to the bridegroom, £20 to £40 (Rs. 200-400); a death £8 to £10 (Rs. 80-100); and a birth £3 to £6 (Rs. 30-60).¹ The poor live in houses with a yearly rent of 12s. (Rs. 6), the barbers and the washermen costing them 6s. (Rs. 3) a year. They keep a cow or a buffalo about one-fourth of whose produce is used in the house and the rest is sold; food costs them £10 to £15 (Rs. 100-150); clothes £2 to £3 (Rs. 20-30); a son's marriage costs £4 to £8 (Rs. 40-80) in addition to the dowry or *terunu*; a daughter's marriage costs £5 to £10 (Rs. 50-100); a death £3 to £5 (Rs. 30-50); and a birth £1 to £1 10s. (Rs. 10-15).²

The following is a short summary of the present strength and condition of the different classes of townsmen :

Priests, of whom there are about 400 families, are found in all parts of the city. They are of two main classes Hindus and Musalmáns. There are about seven-sixteenths of Bráhma priests of sects, one-sixteenth of goldsmiths carpenters and blacksmiths, four-sixteenths of Lingáyats, and four-sixteenths of Musalmáns. As it is not a holy place like Násik or Pandharpur, Dhárwár has no Bráhma priests with hereditary supporters or *yajmáns*. Several priests are attached to families as family priests, and officiate at all their religious ceremonies. Some hold *ináms* or rent-free lands, others are temple priests and beggars. Very few of the priests are well off and able to save and occasionally to lend money. Their wives do nothing but house work. Many send their boys to school, teaching them Kánarese, Maráthi, Sanskrit, and English, and striving to get them into Government service. They live chiefly

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Living.

Priests.

¹ The total details are : House servant Rs. 43, barber and washerman Rs. 8. Clothes, the woman two robes at Rs. 6 each, four bodices at 12 *annas* each, two good robes Rs. 20; the man a two or four year simple headscarf Rs. 10, two pairs of waistcloths each at Rs. 3, four *angis* at 12 *annas* each, one coat at Rs. 5, and one pair of shoes 12 *annas*; the children cost Rs. 6 each. Marriage for a boy, ornaments Rs. 400, clothes for both boy and girl Rs. 100, food Rs. 100, charity Rs. 50, fireworks and oil Rs. 10, music Rs. 15, *yelladaki* and dancing girls Rs. 25 and dinner, labour Rs. 25, miscellaneous Rs. 100, and dowry to bridegroom in the case of girls Rs. 150. Death, wood Rs. 7, priest Rs. 25, gifts Rs. 40, *padadan* Rs. 10, *annakharch* Rs. 50. Birth, confinement Rs. 20, ceremonies Rs. 10, charity Rs. 5, sweetmeats and musicians Rs. 8, feast on twelfth day Rs. 8, clothes for mother and babe Rs. 15, total Rs. 66. The charges on account of the last three items are greater on the birth of a son than on the birth of a daughter.

² The total details are : Barber and washerman Rs. 4. Clothes, the woman two robes at Rs. 3 each and one bodice at *annas* 2, good robes Rs. 10; the man a simple headscarf Rs. 5, two pairs of waistcloths at Rs. 2 a pair, two *angis* at 12 *annas* each, and a 12 *annas* pair of sandals, the boy and girl together cost Rs. 4. Marriage for a son, ornaments Rs. 100, clothes for both boy and girl Rs. 25, food Rs. 50, oil gift and music Rs. 5, labour Rs. 5, miscellaneous Rs. 5, and dowry to bridegroom in the case of girls Rs. 100. Death, wood Rs. 5, priest Rs. 5, gifts to beggars in money Rs. 10, in food Rs. 25. Birth, confinement charges Rs. 10, gifts to Bráhmans Rs. 5, sweetmeats Rs. 4, *yelladaki* and musicians Rs. 4, and clothes Rs. 10.

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in the north, south-east, and middle parts of the town, and in the Madihall village. Goldsmiths, blacksmiths, and other craftsmen support their own priests. Some Lingáyat priests hold *inám* or rent-free lands and others are beggars. Of Musalmán religious officers, some are Kázis or marriage registrars, Mullás or priests, Khatibs or scripture readers and mosque servants, who hold rent-free lands. The rest live by begging.

Lawyers.

Lawyers or Vakils, of whom there are about fourteen houses, chiefly in the town, are Mádhva, Smárt, Konkanasth, and Sáravat or Shenvi Bráhmans. Some of them are rich and save. The rest are just able to make a living. Their wives do house work generally with the help of servants. Their boys go to school and learn Maráthi Kánarese or English. Few of them have risen to high places in Government service.

Government
Servants.

Government servants numbering about 1000 houses live in all parts of the town. They are Bráhmans of different classes, Maráthás, Lingáyats, Musalmáns, Pársis, and Christians. Of the Bráhmans and Maráthás some hold high places in the revenue judicial police and educational branches of the service, others are clerks and a few especially Maráthás are messengers and constables. A few Lingáyats hold high places in the revenue department and the rest are clerks. The Musalmáns are messengers and constables. Three or four of them are clerks, and a few hold higher posts. Of the Pársis and Christians a few hold high positions and the rest are clerks. Of Government servants those in high positions are alone able to save. Their wives do nothing but house work, and all but a few messengers and constables send their boys to schools.

Practitioners.

Besides the Civil Surgeon and hospital assistants, there are about eight practitioners, four of them Bráhmans, one a goldsmith, and one a Marátha, known as *vaidyas*, one a Musalmán *hakim*, and one is a Pársi who is a licentiate of medicine and surgery of the Bombay University. The *vaidyas* live in the Hindu quarter of the city, the *hakims* in the Musalmán quarter, and the Pársi in the European station. There are also two female medical practitioners one a Marátha and the other a Telinga woman. They belong to the prostitute class and live in the Hindu quarter of the city. Except the Pársi none of these practitioners perform surgical operations. They are called in cases of sickness and are generally paid 2s. to £5 (Rs. 1-50) including all presents, besides the price of the medicine. They neither save nor lend money; but are fairly off, free from debt, and live in rented houses. The wives of the male practitioners do nothing but house work and their boys go to school. Besides these regular doctors, three or four barbers bleed and set dislocated bones, three or four Marátha and Lingáyat women act as midwives, and about four wandering Vaidus prescribe pills or *mátrás*.

Men of Means.

Of men of means, there are about one hundred and twenty-five landlords, including Desáis, Deshpándes, Inámdárs, and Government pensioners. Of the landlords some are Bráhmans, and some Lingáyats who live in the Hindu quarter of the city, and the

rest Musalmáns who live in the Musalmán part of the town. Partly from the number of dependants and partly from the large sums they are obliged to spend on marriages and other ceremonies, men of this class are badly off. Some of them are in debt. They send their boys to school and some of them have risen to high posts in Government service. The Government pensioners are Bráhmans, Maráthás, Musalmáns, Lingáyats, and Christians. They educate their children chiefly for Government service and as pleaders.

Of moneylenders there are four Bráhmans of all subdivisions, a Komti, a Musalmán, and a Lingáyat. All are settled in Dhárwár. They are sober, fairly thrifty and hardworking, and well-to-do, some of them with capitals of £500 to £800 (Rs. 5000-8000), and one with nearly £5000 (Rs. 50,000). No Dhárwár moneylender is worth more than £5000 (Rs. 50,000). They live in their own houses worth a yearly rent of £4 to £8 (Rs. 40-80). Their women do nothing but house work and are helped by servants, and their boys go to school from seven to fifteen learning Kánarese, Maráthi, and a few English. They lend money to traders, husbandmen, and brass-workers, chiefly for trade purposes; but sometimes to meet marriage and other special private expenses. Advances are made sometimes on the security of land houses and ornaments, and sometimes on personal security. Their rates of interest vary from nine per cent when gold and silver ornaments are pledged, to twenty-four per cent on personal or landed security. Either bonds, or signature in the day books, with a *6d.* (4 *as.*) stamp affixed, are always taken. Two books are kept, a day book called *rojnama* or *kiráti* and a ledger or *kháta*. Though they often take their debtors into the civil courts, the moneylenders bear a good name for patience and fair dealing. Márvádi moneylenders number four to six houses, chiefly in the town of Dhárwár. They are most hardworking sober and thrifty, but very harsh and grasping. They are well off, some of them with capitals of £200 to £400 (Rs. 2000-4000), living in rented houses worth a yearly rent of £1 16*s.* to £2 8*s.* (Rs. 18-24). Their women do nothing but house work. Their boys are in Márwár. They make advances to traders shopkeepers and husbandmen, chiefly for trade purposes and sometimes to meet marriage and other expenses. They always require bonds and mostly take houses, fields, and ornaments in mortgage. Their nominal rates of interest are the same as those charged by Bráhman, Lingáyat, and Musalmán moneylenders, but in addition to interest, when making an advance, under the name of discount *manoti* and *batta*, they levy special cesses each of two to five per cent on the amount borrowed. They keep the same books as Bráhman moneylenders. As creditors they have a bad name for harsh and unscrupulous if not dishonest practices. Besides these moneylenders, an oil-seller and one or two pulse-sellers lend money. Moneylenders' clerks are almost all Bráhmans. They write Modi and Kánarese and are paid £7 4*s.* to £9 12*s.* (Rs. 72-96) a year.

Moneychangers or *saráfs*, numbering about twelve houses, are chiefly Bráhmans, Komtis, and one or two Lingáyats. They are patient and thrifty and fairly well-to-do with capitals of £10 to £50 (Rs. 100-500). They live in houses of their own, worth a

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Moneylenders.

Moneychangers.

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Money changers.

yearly rent of 12s. to £1 4s. (Rs. 6-12); their women do nothing but house work, and their boys go to school, where many of them learn English. They enter Government service and one has risen to the post of deputy collector. The moneychanger sits in his shop or by the roadside, buying and selling ornaments, and changing copper and silver coins or copper coins. Those who sit by the roadside are called *chinvárs*. They give copper for silver and silver for copper and levy a charge of ($\frac{1}{8}d.$) ($\frac{1}{15}a.$) on each rupee. *Kavdis* or shells are never used in Dhárwár. Besides the above classes one or two *Shimpis* earn their living as moneychangers.

Grain Dealers.

Grain-dealers, numbering 200 to 300 families, are found all over the town and suburbs. They include Lingáyats, Bráhmans of all classes, Maráthás, Musalmáns, Shimpis, Gavlis, and Kurubars. They belong to two classes, wholesale and retail dealers. The wholesale merchants, of whom there are altogether about twelve or thirteen, are chiefly Lingáyats with two or three Musalmáns. They are rich, bringing or buying wheat and millet from Bágalkot in North Bijápúr and Ránebennur and Gadag in Dhárwár and the neighbouring villages; and rice from Haliyál and Mundgod in Kánara, Hulkop, Honigatti, Karkop, Kalghatgi, and other neighbouring villages. They dispose of the grain to retail sellers. They live in their own houses worth a yearly rent of £2 4s. to £6 (Rs. 24-60). Their wives do nothing but house work and their boys go to school. The retail grain dealers, who are chiefly Lingáyats, Maráthás, Musalmáns, and a few Bráhmans, are found all over the city. They often carry on their trade partly by borrowed capital. As a class they are poor, living some in their own and others in hired houses worth a yearly rent of 6s. to 10s. (Rs. 3-5). The wives of some of them sell in their shops. They buy partly from husbandmen in the markets, and partly from wholesale grain dealers. They are hardworking, sober, and thrifty. Some have a bad name for cheating their customers by using more than one set of measures.

Vegetable Sellers.

Vegetable-sellers, of whom there are about one hundred houses in different parts of the city are Lingáyats, Maráthás, Musalmáns, and Bedars. They are hardworking, thrifty, honest, and sober. As a class they are poor, living from hand to mouth in houses of a yearly rent of 1s. to 2s. (Re. $\frac{1}{2}$ - 1). Their wives work as saleswomen, and their boys do not go to school. The gardeners grow their own vegetables, and the others buy from gardeners. They sell to all consumers and to neighbouring villagers, who buy on market days. Head-loads of fuel in the morning and of grass in the evening are brought for sale in the market or in the town by Bedar, Kákar, Pendhári, Mhári, and other women. Bedars and Mhárs bring fuel from eight or nine miles and do not get more than 6d. ($\frac{1}{2}as.$) the head-load. They live from hand to mouth. The grass is their own property or is brought from wholesale sellers who buy up entire meadows or *kurans* and stock the grass in large heaps or *banris* outside the town.

Sugar and Spice Dealers.

Sugar and Spice dealers are of two classes, wholesale and retail. The wholesale dealers Lingáyats and Komtis number about eight houses. They live chiefly in Dhárwár town in Háveripeth. They

are thrifty, sober, hardworking, and well-to-do with capitals of £100 to £200 (Rs. 1000 - 2000), living in houses worth a yearly rent of £1 4s. to £1 16s. (Rs. 12-18). Their women do nothing but house work and their boys go to school from seven to fourteen. They bring spices from Belári, Kadapa, Bangalur, and Bombay and sell them to retail dealers. Of retail sugar and spice dealers there are about thirty houses chiefly Lingáyats, Komtis, and one or two Musalmáns. The retail dealers are not well off. Their capitals vary from £10 to £20 (Rs. 100 - 200), and they live in houses worth yearly rents of £1 4s. to £1 10s. (Rs. 12-15). Their women do house work and sometimes sell in their shops; their boys are sent to school. They buy from wholesale dealers and sell to consumers. Dealers in sugar and spice also deal in salt. There are no separate salt sellers.

Oil-sellers are of two classes, Lingáyat Ganigerus and others of all castes. About eight families of professional oil pressers and sellers are scattered over the town, besides four families in Náráyanpur. All of these are Lingáyats. Each family or group of families has one or two oil presses in their houses, in which they press sweet oil from the seed of the *yellu* and *gur yellu* varieties of sesamum, from *pundi* or hempseed, *agsi* or linseed, and *helkadli* or groundnuts. Many of them are wholesale dealers. They buy large quantities of imported sweet oil, as well as oil pressed in Dhárwár and sell it retail. Besides these most grain and other merchants deal in sweet oil. They live in substantial houses of their own worth a yearly rent of £2 8s. to £4 16s. (Rs. 24-48). The retail sellers live in houses yielding a yearly rent of 6s. to 12s. (Rs. 3-6). Their wives sell oil in their own houses or in the market. Their boys seldom go to school. Of late the Dhárwár oil-pressers and dealers in country oil have suffered greatly from the competition of kerosine oil. Almost every shopkeeper, and every other person who has a few rupees to spare, imports and sells kerosine oil. Even some of the professional oil-pressers themselves sell kerosine. So keen is the competition that some professional oilmen have been obliged to give up their hereditary trade in oil and take to new pursuits.

Of Butter-sellers there are about twenty-seven houses of Gavlis or cowherds living in Dhárwár town and in Saidápur. Their women sell milk and curds or *mbsaru*. As their buttermilk is mixed with water, Bráhmans, Lingáyats, Jains, Komtis, and Rajputs do not buy it as they hold it impure. They live in houses worth a yearly rent of 6s. to 12s. (Rs. 3-6). Their wives do house work, churn buttermilk and make and sell butter. Their boys do not go to school. The local supply of butter falls short of the demand and large quantities of butter are brought by the Hindu market women from the surrounding villages in small earthen jars called *hatgis* to the Tuesday market. People buy and clarify this butter and use it. Grain and spice dealers also buy a good deal of this butter on market days, clarify it, and keep it for retail sale, in large round earthen jars called *kodás*. They sometimes export the clarified butter in tin cans to Bombay.

Milk-sellers or Gavligerus, numbering about fifty houses, are Lingáyats and Maráthás. They are settled in Dhárwár and Saidápur.

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Sugar and Spice
Dealers.

Oil Sellers.

Butter Sellers.

Milk Sellers.

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They are poor but not in debt living in their own houses with a yearly rent of 12s. to £1 4s. (Rs. 6-12). The women sell milk and their boys do not go to school. They keep cows and buffaloes and sell milk to all classes.

Liquor Sellers.

The liquor contract of the Dhárwár sub-division is farmed every year to the highest bidder. In 1883-84 it was let for £3400 (Rs. 34,000). The contractor manufactures country liquor in his distillery in the north-east of the town and sells the liquor in two retail shops. The liquor is made by boiling coarse sugar or *gul* with a bark called *biallad toti*, or *ippi* that is *Bassia latifolia* flowers, or with the kernel of the woodapple. Country liquor is sold at 1s. to 1s. 6d. (8-12 *as.*) a bottle, according to its strength and quality. Except Bráhmans, Lingáyats, Komtis, and Jains, all classes drink openly. The chief consumers are Musalmáns, and Holerus, Bedars, and other low caste Hindus. European liquor is imported into Dhárwár and sold in retail by two or three Pársi merchants in the town. Besides country spirits toddy or fermented palm juice is sold at 1½d. (1 *a.*) the bottle. The right of tapping wild-date palms in the Dhárwár sub-division was sold in 1883-84 for £1102 10s. (Rs. 11,025).

Honey Gatherers.

Bedars and Maráthás gather honeycombs when in the forests and hills cutting firewood. They sell the honey to townspeople or sugar and spice merchants at about 6d. to 2s. (Re. ½-1) according to the size of the comb and the kind and quantity of the honey. Honey is of two sorts, a superior kind gathered by large bees and an inferior kind gathered by small bees. Up to about 1840, the privilege of gathering honey from the forests of each revenue sub-division of the district of Dhárwár was yearly sold to the highest bidder. About 1840 Government abolished honey sales. Within the last ten years the officers of the forest department every year sell the right of gathering forest honey to the highest bidders. During the three years ending 1882-1883, the honey farm yielded £60 16s. 6d. (Rs. 608½) in the four sub-divisions of Dhárwár, Kalghatgi, Bankápur, and Hángal. Sugar and spice merchants buy honey from the honey-gatherers and keep it in earthen jars or glass bottles and sell it to consumers at about 6d. (4 *as.*) a *sher* of twenty *toldás* or rupees. Sometimes the honey-gatherers sell the honey direct to consumers.

Cloth Sellers.

Sellers of cotton wool and silk clothes number about fifty. They live chiefly in Mangalvár Peth street, while some who live in Háveripeth have shops in Mangalvár peth. They are chiefly Lingáyats, a few Bráhmans, eight or ten Shimpis, and about fifteen Márvádís. All the Lingáyat and Márvádi merchants are wholesale traders, five or six of them rich with capitals of £500 to £800 (Rs. 5000-8000). The rest have little capital and carry on their business by borrowing. There are also two joint stock company cloth shops. They sell both hand-loom and factory-made cloth, and besides importing from Bombay, Bangalur, Belári, Belgaum, Gadag, Hubli, and Tadpatri, buy cloth from the hand-loom weavers in Gadag, Hebli; and the neighbouring villages of the Dhárwár district and in Kittur, Hongal, and other neighbouring villages in Belgaum.

They sell the cloth to retail dealers and consumers. The women of the cloth sellers do nothing but house work and most of their boys learn to read and write. The retail sellers are Shimpis and Márvádís, of whom there are about twenty houses. The woollen cloth is chiefly flannel, and broadcloth brought from Bombay, and used by Government servants, lawyers, and others of the richest class. White blankets called *dháblis* are in great demand both among the rich and poor, as all high caste Hindus wear them after bathing. Silk waistcloths, bodices, and handkerchiefs are brought from Bombay and Poona and sold to almost all the rich and middle classes who buy them at the time of weddings and when a woman comes of age. Besides by the regular dealers, cotton cloth is sold by one or two Bombay Bohora peddlars. The Sális sell the produce of their looms in the market on Tuesdays. Rough blankets or *kámblis* are brought from the neighbouring villages and sold by Kurubars or Dhangars. All the leading cloth shops are in Javli Peth, which is a portion of the old market in the Mangalvár part of the town. Most of the valuable cloths are sold here. Hand-woven cloth of small value, brought by weavers living in the neighbouring villages on market days, is sold in the new Robertson market outside of the town.

Shoe-sellers are all Madegerus and Mochigararus. Details are given under Leather Workers.

Ornament-sellers of whom there are about fifty houses in all parts of the city include five moneylenders or *saráfs*, twenty goldsmiths, five Manigars, and fifteen bangle-sellers. Some account of them has been given under these heads. Saráfs and goldsmiths sell gold and silver ornaments, Manigars sell lac and China glass bracelets, and bangle sellers sell glass bracelets of different colours, description, and sizes.

Animal-sellers are generally poor though some of them are men of capital. They bring cows, bullocks, buffaloes, ponies, sheep, and goats on Tuesdays to the market from the surrounding villages, and from Nargund, Nayalgund, Hubli, Ránebennur, and Maisur. They are Lingáyats, Maráthás, Musalmáns, and Jains. The cattle of this country is of the common sort and costs £2 to £6 (Rs. 20-60) for bullocks and buffaloes, £1 10s. to £3 (Rs. 15-30) for cows, and 2s. to 8s. (Rs. 1-4) for sheep. Maisur cows and bullocks of superior breed are brought only by Maisur people. They cost £10 to £30 (Rs. 100-300) a head.

Besides sugar, kerosine oil, and furniture, Pársis, Bombay Musalmáns, one or two Dhárwár Shimpis and a few ordinary tradesmen sell drugs, hardware, paper, and almost all European articles except liquor which is sold by Pársis and Bombay Musalmáns only. The miscellaneous articles of European make which are most used by natives are paper, castor oil, lavender-water, scents, quinine, penknives, scissors, needles, inkstands, and match-boxes.

There are about twelve brokers or *daldás* in Dhárwár. Two or three Komtis are employed exclusively upon this work, and get from the sellers a commission of 3d. to 6d. (2-4 as.) for each cartload.

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Places.

DHÁRWÁR.
Cloth Sellers.

Shoe Sellers.

Ornament Sellers.

Animal Sellers.

Europe Shops.

Brokers.

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Places.

DHÁRWÁR.

Husbandmen.

of goods other than grain, such as sugar, coarse sugar or molasses, betelnuts, cocoanuts, cocoa-kernels, salt, turmeric, dates, and spices. The remaining ten brokers are Lingáyats, who keep their own shops and act as brokers to other shopkeepers and traders.

Husbandmen, of whom there are about 400 houses, are found in all parts of the city. They are Lingáyats, Maráthás, Bedars, Mhárs, and Musalmáns. They are hardworking and sober, and are not extravagant on marriage and other occasions. At the same time they are careless and wanting in thrift and wasteful in many of their ways, and free-handed to excess in their gifts to village servants. Except in ploughing, the women help in almost every process of husbandry, and after they are eight years old, the boys are too useful in minding cattle and watching fields to be spared to attend school. They have houses of their own worth a yearly rent of 8s. to 12s. (Rs. 4-6); they have generally two pairs of bullocks and sometimes four and a pair of two he-buffaloes. Some Maráthás Lingáyats and Mhárs employ themselves as farm servants; others have rich watered land well tilled and yielding valuable crops. Still most of them are in debt, foolishly taking advantage of the money-lender's readiness to make them advances. The chief fruit and vegetable growers are Maráthás, Lingáyats, and Musalmáns.¹

Several moneyed men, Lingáyats, Maráthás, Gavlis, and Musalmáns purchase yearly from Government the grass grown on meadows, and hire servants to cut, sheave, and carry the grass, which is stored in large heaps or *banvis* outside of the town. The grass is sold at about 6s. to 10s. (Rs. 3-5) the thousand bundles.

Rice Pounders.

Rice is pounded or ground in wooden grinding-mills by Lingáyats Musalmáns and Maráthás of the labouring class. They pound or grind and clear the rice and sell it throughout the year. They also sell rice wholesale and sometimes in retail. Their women help in cleaning rice. They are fairly well-to-do and live in all parts of the town. Sometimes the rich employ them in pounding and cleaning rice for home use.

Almost all sellers of articles of native furniture, earthen pots

¹ The vegetables grown in the rainy season are: (1) Vegetables whose fruit only is used *bendi*, *mullsavati*, *savati*, *hagal*, *heri*, *padval*, *chavalli*, *mensin*, *donmensin*, *tottal*, *badni*, *kumbal*, *chepar-badni*, *cembi*, *alasaná*, *advi-hagal*, *tupad-hiri*, besides such European vegetables as peas and beans. (2) Vegetables whose leaves only are used *rajiger*, *harvi*, *menthe*, *chuki*, *kadigargu*, *siarvi*, *kirakáli*, *gholi*, *kiresoppu*, *sabaki*, *chakott*, *pullumpuchi*, *chandrabatvi*, *honganni*, *vanderya*, *kottambri*, *chitgonni*, *kaki*, *agatmaru*, and *gorji*, besides such European vegetables as cabbage. (3) Vegetables whose roots only are used *ullegaddi*, *mulangi*, *gajri*, *urlegaddi*, *savarugaddi*, *bátrakshagaddi*, *sambranigaddi*, *margenasu*, and *siaragigaddi*.

The vegetables grown in the cold season are: (1) Vegetables whose fruit only is used *avari*, *badni*, *chegachi*, *savati*, *bendi*, *nuggi*, *tottal*, *halgumbal*, *sandigumbal*, *kasiavari*, *cheparadavari*, *baladavari*, *batkadli*, and *chellavari*. (2) Vegetables whose leaves only are used *kadli*, *kusibi*, *genasu*, and *pundi*. (3) Vegetables whose roots only are used *genasu*, *uralegaddi*, and some other roots grown in the rainy season.

In the hot season, except where pond, well, brook, or river water is available, vegetables are seldom grown. The fruits are: *nirala*, *mavin*, *pidarla*, *halsin*, *anjur*, *dálím*, *staphalla*, *ramphala*, *bali*, *nimbi*, *paragi*, *bori*, *kavalli*, *atti*, *belvi*, *putti*, *black* and *white* grapes, water and musk melons, *pappai*, *kaki*, *kambli*, *papelmous*. Pine-apples and oranges do not grow except in one or two gardens at Dhárwár.

wooden boxes, bedsteads, stools, carpets, and mats, are makers as well as sellers. They are settled all over the town living in houses worth a yearly rent of £1 4s. to £2 8s. (Rs.12-24). Brass and copper vessels are made at Dhárwár only by two Muhammadan families. But they are imported from Hubli, Poona, and Násik by Jain Bogars who sell them retail. The Bogars live in houses worth a yearly rent of £2 8s. to £4 16s. (Rs. 24-48). Couches, chairs, and other articles of European furniture are sold by about three Pársi merchants and two or three Hindu carpenters.

The women of the rice pounding and grinding class purchase *togari*, *kadli*, *uddu*, *hesaru*, and other pulse from husbandmen or shopkeepers and prepare *biáli* or split pulse. They grind the pulse and separate the fine parts called *biáli* from the husk and sell the *biáli* wholesale or retail to consumers, of whom there are many from the neighbouring villages. The husk is sold and given to cattle. Pulse-sellers live in all parts of the town. Sometimes rich people employ them in grinding pulse and making it into *biáli* for home use.

Grain is roasted by Pardeshis, Lingáyats, Maráthás, and Komtis, who roast rice, gram, and peas. Roasted rice is prepared in three forms, *avalaki*, *churmuri*, and *aralu*. Roasted *kadli* pulse is called *putháni*. Some of the grain-roasters have shops. They are poor and live in different parts of the town.

Sweetmeat-makers also called Halvais or Mitháigars, of whom there are about twenty-five families, are Maráthás, Pardeshis, Lingáyats, and Konkani Bráhmans living in Mangalvár Peth and in the old Regimental Lines. Many of them are old settlers in Dhárwár. They prepare *pedhes*, *barfis* of three kinds, *haliva*, *kheabri*, and *keshri*, and *bathása*, *bandhu*, and *kalliansáí*. At fairs and during the *Holi* festivals in March - April they prepare necklaces of figures of sugar and milk as also sugar figures of cocoanuts, temples, palanquins, horses, elephants, and fruit. All classes buy these. Pardeshis and Bráhmans prepare *bundeda* and other *laddigi* or sweetmeat balls and three other kinds of sweetmeats *jilibi*, *chekli*, and *gillginchi*. Very religious Bráhmans do not eat these as they are considered impure.

Some account of oil and liquor makers and sellers has been already given.

There are about sixty families of butchers. About twenty of them are Láds and the rest Musalmáns. The Láds are mutton butchers alone, and of the Musalmáns some are mutton and some beef butchers. They live in the north-east and north-western parts of the town and a few live in Háveripeth. They buy cattle and sheep market days from shepherds or other cattle dealers. Lingáyats and Bráhmans object to sell their animals to these men. A mutton and a beef market have been newly built by the municipality. There are also two slaughter houses; one for slaughtering sheep and goats and the other for slaughtering cows and bullocks.

Fishermen, numbering about twenty houses, belong to the Bhoi or Ambikar that is river sailor classes and are all settled in the town.

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Places.

DHÁRWÁR.

Furniture Sellers.

Pulse Sellers.

Grain Roasters.

Sweetmeat
Makers.

Butchers.

Fishermen.

Chapter XIV.**Places.****DHÁRWÁR.***Fishermen.*

They are hardworking and orderly but fond of liquor, and poor, living in houses with a yearly rent of not more than 6*s.* to 8*s.* (Rs. 3-4), and earning about 6*d.* to 9*d.* (4-6 *as.*) a day. They are generally in debt. Their women help in selling fish; their boys do not go to school. Besides selling fish the men carry palanquins. Several Bhoi women buy dried fish from the neighbouring Portuguese territory and sell it to consumers.

Hens and eggs are sold by Musalmáns, Maráthás, and Bhois, on market days or daily in their houses. Some Maráthá and Musalmán husbandmen also sell hens and eggs.

Stone-cutters.

Stone-cutters or Kallukattakarús are Maráthás and Vaddars. There are about twenty families. They live in different parts of the town. They are sober and hardworking and earn 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* (8-12 *as.*) a day. They prepare carved stone work, stone idols, and all stone work. The women gather and sell dried cowdung cakes and help the men.

Brick-makers.

Bricks are made by about twenty families of Maráthás Musalmáns and Lingáyats. They live chiefly in the town of Dhárwár and in the village of Málápúr, and make burnt bricks and small red tiles in the neighbourhood of the Gulganjikop and Kempkeri ponds. The bricks sell at about 14*s.* (Rs. 7) and tiles at 8*s.* to 14*s.* (Rs. 4-7) the thousand. They are sober, honest, well behaved, and hardworking but dirty. They are a poor class, living in their own houses worth a yearly rent of 6*s.* to 12*s.* (Rs. 3-6). With the help of their wives they gather rubbish for their kilns and bring it either on their heads, on asses, or carts. Their boys, who never go to school, help them when about ten years old. They earn 6*d.* to 7½*d.* (4-5 *as.*) a day. They make no earthenware. People of the labouring class make sun-dried bricks but not tiles, and sell them at 6*s.* to 8*s.* (Rs. 2-3) the thousand.

Tilers.

See Brick-makers and Earthen-ware makers.

Carpenters.

Carpenters, all Páncháls, number about seventy houses and live in all parts of the town and in Saidápúr and Hosityellápúr. They are hardworking and sober, and have steady and well-paid employment. They have no capital and live in houses worth a yearly rent of 6*s.* to 12*s.* (Rs. 3-6). Their wages are high varying from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* (8-12 *as.*) a day and they are seldom without work. They do not work as labourers. Their women do not help except in looking after the house. Boys begin to work from ten or twelve. Some go to school. Besides house-building, which is their chief occupation, they make carts, field tools, and furniture. They have no special skill and only make articles to order.

Blacksmiths.

Of Blacksmiths who make hinges, locks, and other fittings, some account is given below under Iron-workers.

Lime-burners.

Lime-burners or Sungardrus, of whom there are about forty houses living chiefly in the town, prepare lime or chunam. The lime is prepared by burning in kilns two parts of small pieces of limestone and three parts of charcoal. The limestone they bring in carts from fields about two miles east of Dhárwár and the charcoal is brought from charcoal-makers. They buy

manure in Dhárwár, at about ten cartloads the rupee, carry it, and spread it on the fields. In return, the owners of the fields allow the lime-burners to dig for limestone in different parts of their fields, and to carry away as many cartloads of it as they can so long as they fill the holes. Thus limestone costs the burners as much as they pay for the manure and the hire of labour, that is about 6*d.* (4 *as.*) for a cartload of ten baskets full. Each basket holds about eight Dhárwár *shers* of twenty *tolás* or rupee-weights each, and one hundred and twenty *shers* make one *heru*. Charcoal is bought at a rupee for a *phara* of eight baskets full. One hundred and twenty-eight *shers* of limestone and 192 of charcoal are put into a kiln and the kiln is lighted. In twelve hours the limestone is turned into one hundred and twenty-eight *shers* of lime, which fetches about 6*s.* (Rs. 3). Each lime-burner's house has three or four kilns in front of it. The kilns are circular in form and about five feet high with an inner diameter of two and an outer diameter of four feet. The women help in doing the kiln work and selling the lime either in the market or in their houses. They are poor, but have houses of their own worth a yearly rent of 8*s.* to 12*s.* (Rs. 4-6). Their boys do not go to school; they begin to help their parents when twelve years old.

Thatcers are Lingáyats Maráthás or Musalmán labourers. They are employed to thatch houses in the beginning of the rainy season. They are engaged either by contract or daily wages averaging about 9*d.* (6 *as.*) a day. The thatching season lasts for about six weeks from early April to mid-May.

There are about eleven houses of painters called *chitrakars* or *jingars*. They live in their own houses worth a yearly rent of 6*s.* to 12*s.* (Rs. 3-6). They paint house fronts with well drawn and well coloured figures of considerable grace and naturalness. They also draw similar figures on paper and paint wooden cradles and figures of native idols, especially earthen figures of Ganpati and Kám during the *Ganesh-chaturthi* in September-October and the *Holi-kunvi* in February-March. The figures sell at 1*s.* to £5 (Rs. ½-50).

There are about 400 houses of weavers, most of them Lingáyats. They are hardworking sober and orderly. Some live in their own, and others in hired houses, paying a yearly rent of 6*s.* to 12*s.* (Rs. 3-6). They work on borrowed capital and are generally in debt. The women arrange the threads and do almost every part of the process of weaving. The children are early useful and are seldom spared to go to school. They weave waistcloths, women's robes or *stris*, and all sorts of coarse cloth with silk or cotton borders. They suffered much in the 1877 famine, but are again (1884) well employed though poorly paid. Most of the cloth used at Dhárwár is brought from Hubli.

Tailors or Shimpigerus, numbering about 120 houses, are mostly in the town of Dhárwár. They are hardworking sober and thrifty, but have a bad name for stealing portions of cloth given to them to sew. A few are fairly off, free from debt, having credit and being able to save. The rest are poor, some free from debt, and others in debt.

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DHÁRWÁR.

Lime-burners.

Thatchers.

Painters.

Weavers.

Tailors.

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Places.

DHÁRWÁR.

Leather Workers.

They live in houses of their own, worth 12s. to 16s. (Rs. 6-8) a year. They make and sell clothes. Some are employed on regular wages in European families and all have steady employment. The men earn about 6*d.* (4 *as.*) and the women 1½*d.* (1 *a.*) a day.

Leather-workers, numbering about seventy-five houses are of four classes, Holerus, Madigerus, Dhorarus, and Mochigararus. Most of them live in the outskirts of Dhárwár town and in the village of Hosyellápur. They are hardworking and fairly sober and well behaved. But they are very dirty, quarrelsome, and fond of liquor and amusement. Many of them are in debt, and live in small houses and huts worth a yearly rent of 4s. to 8s. (Rs. 2-4). They have steady employment, the men earning about 6*d.* (4 *as.*) a day and the women about 3*d.* (2 *as.*). Boys help after they are ten and are almost never sent to school. The Dhors tan and dye leather red, the Madigerus and Mochigararus make shoes, boots, sandals, water-bags, leather ropes and whips, and sell their wares partly in the market place and partly in their houses.

Ornament Makers.

Ornament-makers are chiefly goldsmiths of whom there are about eighty-eight houses in all parts of the city. They are fairly sober and hardworking but have a bad name for cheating and delay. Many live in their own houses and are well-to-do. Others live in hired houses worth a yearly rent of 6s. to 12s. (Rs. 3-6), and many are in debt. When at work they earn about 1s. (8 *as.*) a day, but work is not constant, and some of them, both men and women, have to eke out their living by labour. They make gold and silver ornaments to order and also a few brass vessels for sale. People have no faith in their honesty, and when they employ them, either call them to their houses or watch them when at work. A goldsmith is paid 1½*d.* to 3*d.* (1-2 *as.*) for gold work and sometimes as high as 2s. (Re. 1) the *tola* or rupee weight, and for silver work ¾*d.* to 6*d.* (½-4 *as.*). Though not prosperous as a class some of them send their children to school and one of them is in the service of the Dhárwár municipality.

Casters.

There are six casters' houses in the town of Dhárwár. They make bellmetal toe-rings which are worn by women of the labouring class. They are fairly off and have shops. The women do house work and sometimes help the men.

Brass and Copper Workers.

Except by two Musalmáns, no brass or copper ware is made in Dhárwár. About thirty families in Dhárwár bring brass and copper vessels from Hubli, Terdal, Poona, and other places and sell them in Dhárwár. Of these about ten are Jains. They obtain soldered copper and brass vessels from Hubli and entire ones from Terdal. There are two Telingás and a few Musalmáns who obtain soldered brass and copper vessels from Poona. All of them are settled in Dhárwár in their own houses, worth a yearly rent of £1 4s. to £2 8s. (Rs. 12-24). They are intelligent, sober, prosperous, and hardworking. Some of them have capital and all are free from debt. The women do house work. Jain women purchase glass bangles and fit them on to the wrists of other women. Their boys go to school. Their net yearly earnings vary from to £10 to £50 (Rs. 100-500).

Iron-workers, numbering about thirty houses, are found in different parts of the city. They are of three classes, Kambars Nálbands and Ghisádis. The Kambars of whom there are about twenty houses, live in different parts of the city. They are dirty hardworking and fairly thrifty, but fond of liquor. They live in hired houses paying yearly rents of 6s. to 12s. (Rs. 3-6). Their state is middling; most are in debt. The women help by blowing the bellows, and sometimes by working in their own fields, or as labourers. Their boys are seldom sent to school, and begin to help their parents about ten. Their daily earnings are not more than 6d. to 1s. (4-8 as.). They make hooks, nails, and iron bands, links for swinging cots and cradles, iron baskets, buckets, large sugarcane pans, field tools, stone chisels, carpenter's tools, razors, country knives, scissors, and padlocks. The competition of cheap English hardware has greatly reduced the demand for their work and presses heavily on them. The Ghisádis are a wandering tribe, poor, dirty, and unthrifty. They make horse-shoes and field tools, but are chiefly employed as tinkers. Nálbands or farriers are Musalmáns. They are paid 1s. 6d. to 3s. (Rs. $\frac{3}{4}$ - 1 $\frac{1}{2}$) for shoeing a horse or bullock, and, as their number is small, they are well-to-do.

Basket-makers, Miadars by caste, numbering about ninety families, are all settled in Miadar Street in the town of Dhárwár. They are fond of liquor and amusement, quarrelsome, and unthrifty. Several of them live in their own houses, but most of their houses are mortgaged and many of the Miadars are in debt, having wasted their earnings in show and pleasure. They have good employment, some of them bringing bamboos from Haliyál in North Kánara, and the rest making baskets, matting, and wicker work. The women do nearly as much work as the men; between them a family earns about 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. (5 as.) a day.*

Barbers or Navalgerus, numbering about eighty-five houses, are of four divisions, Maráthás, Lingáyats, Musalmáns, and Pardeshis. Of the Maráthás, there are about twenty-five houses in Hosyellápur, and of the Pardeshis about three houses; of the Musalmáns there are about twenty houses in the Musalmán quarter and the rest live in the town of Dhárwár. Barbers as a class are hardworking, sober, and thrifty. Besides shaving, some of the Marátha barbers act as torch-bearers, and a few of the Musalmáns bleed and practise some other branches of surgery. The women do house work. The boys do not go to school and begin to help their fathers after they are fifteen. They are hardworking, sober, and thrifty, and though poor, few are in debt and most have credit. They live in their own houses which are worth 4s. to 8s. (Rs. 2-4) to rent. They make about 6d. (4 as.) a day, charging about 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. (1 a.) for a shave.

Washermen or Agsarus, numbering about a hundred houses, are found chiefly in the town of Dhárwár. They are of five divisions Lingáyats, Maráthás, Pardeshis, Tamals, and Musalmáns. They are hardworking, sober, thrifty, and free from debt, but have little credit. Their houses are worth a yearly rent of 12s. to £1 4s. (Rs. 6-12). The women do nearly as much work as the men, and

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their boys do not go to school, but after twelve help their fathers. They wash all clothes and have constant work, making with the help of their wives about 7½*d.* (5 *as.*) a day. The great fault of the washermen is that when good clothes are given to them to wash, they wear them for three or four days before they wash and return them to their owners.

Bedars.

The Bedars who correspond to the Rámoshis, Kolis, and Bhils of the Deccan are not like them employed as watchmen. Some are settled towards the east of Dhárwár near the Navlur gate and others to the west of the town near Tirmalráo's street. They live in small tiled and thatched houses. Both men and women act as labourers. During the tamarind season they gather the ripe fruit from the trees and separate the pulp from the berries. They sell the pulp to shopkeepers and consumers and the berries to blanket-makers. In their season (April-June) they buy and sell mangoes and guavas. At other times they bring sticks, banyan and *muttala* leaves from the forests and sell them to the townspeople, the sticks as fuel and the leaves as plates and for cups. The men go to hunt regularly in January. Both men and women are fond of liquor and of quarrelling. Bedars have given up robbing and open violence but still steal to some extent.

Labourers.

Labourers live in all parts of the town. They are chiefly Lingáyats, Maráthás, Musalmáns, Bedars, and Mhárs. When other work fails the destitute of almost all classes take to labour.

Field Workers.

Field workers generally Lingáyats or Kánarese, Marátha, Musalmán, Bedar, and Holeru women earn 3*d.* (2 *as.*) a day for weeding, and, in harvest time, are paid five sheaves out of every hundred. By grinding grain and pounding rice poor women of almost all classes make 2¼*d.* to 3*d.* (1½ - 2 *as.*) a day.

Carriers.

Carriers of bundles chiefly Maráthás, Lingáyats, and Musalmáns are paid 1½*d.* (1 *a.*) for a trip to any place within the town and 1¼*d.* (1 *a.*) a mile outside the town within municipal limits. There is a special class of carriers known as Motligars, who store grain and unload carts getting 6*d.* (4 *as.*) a day for their labour. There is a considerable demand for labour on the earth work now in progress, for the Marmagoa-Belári railway and on public roads. The workers are chiefly Holerus, Bedars, Musalmáns, Maráthás, and Lingáyats. The men earn daily 6*d.* (4 *as.*), the women 3*d.* (2 *as.*), and the children 2¼*d.* (1½ *a.*).

House Builders.

House-building causes a considerable demand for unskilled labour chiefly in making cement and helping the bricklayers and masons. The ordinary wages are 6*d.* (4 *as.*) for a man, and 3*d.* (2 *as.*) for a woman. Every year before the rains, tile-turning employs a large number of Lingáyats, Maráthás, Bedars, and Musalmáns.

Players.

Players or Bájantigararus, include Kshetridásás and Korvars who play on three flutes two called *bájantris* and the third *suti*, a drum called *sambal* worn at the waist, and cymbals or *jhampali*, *sárangiválás* or harpers, and *tableválás* or drum beaters, who play for dancing girls, and, if Bráhmans, perform in temples or houses when the religious service called *Harikatha* is going on; Dasaru

players, who play a drum called *daf*, a musical stringed instrument called *tuntune* and cymbals or *jhanji*; and Rádha players who play on the drum called *madli* and strike the *tála* a small and massive cymbal. No actors or Bahurupis live in Dhárwár.

Among animal-trainers are the Gárudis who go about with serpents, and the Nandiyeth-navarus who have performing or misshappen bullocks.

There are no resident professional athletes in the town of Dhárwár; but several young Lingáyats, Maráthás, Musalmáns, and Bedars perform athletic exercises and wrestle with each other in public for pleasure's sake on great festivals.

Besides the large class of the old destitute and idle of almost all castes, there are in Dhárwár three leading schools of ascetics, Sanyásis, Bairágis, and Gosávis. There is only one Sanyási at Dhárwár, who belongs to the Smárt sect. He lives in a temple and goes for his meals to any Bráhma's house of his sect. He eats only once a day between sunrise and sunset. He does not accept any money offerings. His clothes are of a red ochrey colour and are supplied to him as gifts. His wardrobe includes a white blanket, two waist and two shouldercloths and two loincloths or *langotis*, and a covering cloth for use at night. He has a vessel to hold water called *kamandal* made from a dried gourd, and a staff called *dand*, to hold in his hand. He never cooks. Some Sanyásis worship idols and others do not. Bairágis marry and form a distinct sect but there are some celibates among them. There are four families of Bairágis in Dhárwár who live in their own houses. They do not eat from the hands of Bráhmans. They keep the rules regarding ceremonial cleanliness and worship idols. They do not drink liquor or eat animal food. They marry among themselves. Bráhmans and Maráthás may become Bairágis. But a Bráhma Bairági will not eat at the hands of a Marátha Bairági. Some travel and the others remain in one place. The travelling Bairágis move as pilgrims over the whole of India staying for months together at any place which takes their fancy, or where they can get plenty to eat. The settled Bairágis do not travel. At Dhárwár they dress like Bráhmans and worship idols. If they have no children of their own they adopt boys of their own sect, and failing this their property goes to the chief disciples. There is only one Gosávi in Dhárwár. He belongs to the sect of Puri and lives in a temple of Hanumán. He is poor and lives by begging. He does not wear the sacred thread. He eats animal food and drinks liquor, and takes food from Bráhmans and Maráthás. It is from the Marátha caste that Gosávis are chiefly recruited. They worship idols. Their birth and marriage customs are the same as those of Maráthás and they bury their dead. They rub ashes on their body and gather alms in a wallet called *jolgi*, which hangs from the left shoulder. At Marátha caste dinners Gosávis are given the first seats, and are treated with more respect than any other class except Bráhmans.

Potters, of whom there are about fifty families, are all

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*Animal Trainers.**Athletes.**Religious
Beggars.**Bairágis.**Gosávis.**Potters.*

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Potters.

Lingáyats. They live in different parts of the town of Dhárwár, Háveripeth, Saidápur, Málápur, and Náráyanpur. They bring earth on asses from the Kopadkeri pond and the valley of Attikole about a mile south of Dhárwár, mix the two earths together and from the mixture make pots, cups, and dishes of various shapes and sizes to hold water, to cook in, and to eat from. They do not make bricks. They also bring earth from the Herekeri pond and from it make large tiles, which they sell at about 14s. (Rs. 7) the thousand. Their women and boys who do not go to school help their parents. They are poor and live in their own houses worth a yearly rent of 8s. to 12s. (Rs. 4-6). They are sober, honest, well behaved, and fairly hardworking but dirty.

Cart Hirers.

Of cart-hirers there are about 133 families, who live upon hiring their carts at about 18d. to 2s. (Re. $\frac{3}{4}$ - 1) a day. If they have to go any distance the hire is arranged by contract. By caste the hirers are Lingáyats, Maráthás, and Musalmáns and one or two Rajputs. Their women do not help; and their boys do not go to school. They are settled all over the town. Altogether about 500 country carts are owned by the townspeople and about 133 are offered for hire.

Betel Leaf Sellers.

Betel-leaf Sellers, numbering about twenty-six are settled chiefly in the town of Dhárwár. Some of them are Musalmáns and others Chatris and Maráthás. They buy betel leaves wholesale at Ránebennur, Háveri, Shiggaon, and one or two other places, bring them in cart-loads, and sell them retail at Dhárwár at the average rate of 1½d. (1a.) for a hundred leaves. Their women help them in keeping the leaves clean and selling them in their shops. Their boys go to school. Their net monthly earnings are 8s. to 12s. (Rs. 4-6).

Cooks.

Of Bráhman cooks and water-bearers, there are about forty-four. Some of them are employed in Bráhman families on monthly wages varying from 10s. to £14s. (Rs. 5-12). Others work on contract when dinners are to be given to large parties of Bráhmans. The hire of watermen, in such cases, is three-fourths the hire of the cook. The contract is made according to the kind of dinner and the number of guests. They live in houses yielding a yearly rent of 6s. to 12s. (Rs. 3-6). Very few have families; the rest are bachelors. They dress in such rich clothes that it is difficult for a stranger to know that they are cooks and watermen. Only when at work do they appear in dirty clothes.

Pony Hirers.

About 200 Pendháris and 100 Kákars let ponies on hire at about 1s. (8as.) a day. For greater distances their hire is about 6d. (4as.) the kos of three miles. They are settled in two or three parts of the town and in Háveripeth. All are Musalmáns and they eat together. The Kákars do not marry with the Pendháris. Those who have no ponies bring firewood or grass and sell it at 4½d. (3as.) a head-load. They sometimes work as labourers. The women help the men, and the boys do not go to school.

Snuff Makers.

Three snuff-makers in the town of Dhárwár all belong to the Velál or Modliár caste. They make fine snuff like Belári snuff

and sell it at 3*d.* (2 *as.*) the quarter *sher* weighing six rupees. They speak the Tamil language and came from the Madras Presidency about fifteen years ago. Since their arrival all the old Lingáyats snuff-makers have lost their trade. One of the three Veláls also binds books and another sells stamps in addition to making snuff. As snuff-makers their yearly profits are about £10 (Rs. 100). Their women help in making snuff, and their boys go to school.

Of four stamp-vendors one is a Velál, one a Komti, and two Bráhmans. They are settled in the town of Dhárwár. The women of the Komti and Bráhmans do nothing but house work. Their yearly profits are about £15 (Rs. 150). Their boys go to school.

Five private printing presses are employed in the town and lithograph newspapers and other small papers in Kánarese Maráthi and English.

Of gold washers there are thirteen houses in the town of Dhárwár. They belong to the fishermen caste. Both men and women collect the sweepings of the houses of goldsmiths and the rubbish of the bath-room watercourses of the houses of the rich and wash it in hopes to find particles of gold which they melt and sell. Each family earns about £10 (Rs. 100) a year. They also sometimes work as labourers. Their boys do not go to school.

About sixteen Musalmán families of Bhistis carry water in large leather bags on bullocks and in smaller bags on their shoulders. They are settled in the Musalmán quarter of Dhárwár. Their wages amount to £1 to £1 10*s.* (Rs. 10-15) a month. Their women do not help and their boys do not go to school.

Nine Musalmán and one Lád perfumer are settled in the town of Dhárwár. They make native perfumes and sell them to the townspeople. The yearly profit of each family is about £10 (Rs. 100). Their women help in their work and their boys do not go to school.

Of fifty-five timber traders two are Pardeshis, one a Konkanasth Bráhmañ, and the rest are Lingáyats and Musalmáns. The Pardeshis and the Konkanasth are settled in the Hindu quarter, and the Musalmáns in the Musalmán quarter of the town. They bring timber from Haliyál in North Kánara and other Government wood stores, and sell it in retail at Dhárwár. Much of this timber is exported to East Dhárwár. The yearly profit of each family of timber-dealers is £10 to £50 (Rs. 100-500). Their women do not help except by minding the house and their boys go to school.

About twenty sellers of beads, small looking-glasses, thread, needles, small tin boxes, and wooden combs, are called Manigararus and are settled in the town of Dhárwár. About half of them are Telangis and the rest Musalmáns. Their women do house work and sell some of the articles. Their boys do not go to school. Each family earns about £10 (Rs. 100) a year. Some of them are very poor.

Seventeen Musalmán bakers are settled in the Musalmán quarter of the town. They make bread for the use of Europeans and Eurasians

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*Stamp Vendors.**Printing Presses.**Gold Washers.**Bhistis.**Perfumers.**Timber Sellers.**Bead Sellers.**Bakers.*

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Chalvadi.

in the civil station and for some Musalmáns, The women help and do house work. Some of their boys go to school. The profit of each family is about £10 (Rs. 100) a year.

In the whole of Dhárwár town there is one family of Chalvadis which is of the Holeru or Mhár caste. He is the religious servant of the Lingáyat community. His duties are to walk before Lingáyat processions and to stand at all Lingáyat meetings and marriages with a huge brass spoon on his shoulder to the end of which a bell is fastened with a long brass chain. Every now and then he loudly sings the praises of Basava, the founder of the Lingáyat religion, and gives a jerk to the bell. The community gives him presents in coin, cloth, and money. His profits are estimated at about £20 (Rs. 200) a year. His wife does house work and his boys go to school.

Basvi.

There is also a female religious servant called the Basvi. She is a Lingáyat and attends all Lingáyat meetings where women assemble, serves them with betelnuts, flowers, and perfumes, and calls Lingáyat ladies to these meetings. It is her duty also to invite Lingáyat women to dinner on important occasions. She never marries and is allowed to practice prostitution. She receives presents from the Lingáyat community and her profits amount to about £10 (Rs. 100) a year. No Lingáyat assembly is considered complete without the Chalvadi and the Basvi. When a Chalvadi has no son or a Basvi no daughter, he or she adopts a boy or girl of their own class.

Tanners.

Two Musalmán tinner families at Dhárwár tin all copper and brass cooking vessels. Their women do not help and their boys do not go to school. The profit of each family is about £20 (Rs. 200) a year.

Blanket-makers.

Two Kurubar or shepherd families employ themselves in edging country blankets with silk or woollen thread. They are paid 1s. to 2s. (Re. $\frac{1}{2}$ - 1) for each blanket. Their yearly profits are about £5 (Rs. 50) each. Their women help, and their boys do not go to school.

Vibhuti or White
Ash-makers.

Dhárwár has four Lingáyat families who make white cowdung ashes, and sell them to Lingáyats. Their women help and their boys do not go to school. They are poor earning just enough to live on.

Cotton Cleaners.

Of cotton cleaners in the town of Dhárwár there are thirty-six Musalmán families. They beat and clean cotton at the rate of about 1s. (8 *as.*) a *man* a day. They are poor and live in their own houses worth a yearly rent of about 12s. (Rs. 6). The women help and roll the beaten cotton into rolls about a foot long and half an inch thick, which the women of the Lingáyat husbandmen spin into thread.

Cotton Traders.

Twelve families of cotton traders are settled in Dhárwár. They live in houses yielding a yearly rent of £1 4s. to £2 8d. (Rs. 12-24). Besides these, grain and other merchants trade a little in cotton.

Private Servants.

About 300 Bráhmaṇ, Bedar, Jain, Kurubar, Lingáyat, Marátha and Musalmán families serve in the houses of the rich as horse-

keepers, carriage drivers, cow-dungers, cloth-washers, and messengers. Their yearly wages vary from £3 12s. to £9 12s. (Rs. 36-96). They are sometimes paid by the month and sometimes by the year.

Indigo-dyers number about six, of whom two are Maráthás and the rest Lingáyats. They are settled in the town. They dye cloths in indigo, and the women help. Their boys go to school. Each family saves £10 to £20 (Rs. 100-200) a year. They are well-to-do and able to save.

About nine Lingáyat families import for sale cocoanuts from Nandgad, Háveri, and Ránebennur, and lemons from the two last places. The cocoanuts sell at the rate of about 1d. to 1½d. (¾-1 a.) each, and 100 lemons for 9d. (6 as.). Their women help and their boys go to school. Their yearly profits are about £3 (Rs. 30).

Bangle-sellers number about twenty-five families, who have settled in Dhárwár. About ten of them are Musalmáns and the rest Jains. They buy glass bangles of various colours and fit them to the wrists of women in the town. The price of the bangles vary according to their quality and size from ½d. to 1d. (½-¾ a.) a bangle. Their women help; their boys do not go to school. They are poor and unable to save. They earn just enough to maintain themselves. Besides these in Háveri the one family makes glass bangles.

Two Lingáyat families in Dhárwár make marriage crowns or *bhásings* literally brow-horns. The Lingáyat marriage crowns are very large and ornamental, and are made of a light spongy water-plant and coloured paper and tinsel. Each crown costs about 2s. (Re. 1). The marriage crowns of other Hindus are triangular in form and are made of paper and cost about 1½d. (1 a.). Their women help, and their boys do not go to school. They are poor and unable to save.

About forty families of blanket weavers, belonging to the shepherd caste, are settled in the town of Dhárwár. Their blankets cost 2s. to 8s. (Rs. 1-4). They are well-to-do but unable to save. Their women help and their boys after twelve.

Of professional dancing and singing women, there are fifteen families, Maráthás, Lingáyats, and Musalmáns by caste. The Hindu and the Musalmán women who dress like Hindus and bear Hindu names, live in the Hindu quarter, and the Musalmán women who dress like Musalmáns and bear Musalmán names, live in the Musalmán quarter of the town. They sing Kánarese Maráthi and Musalmáni songs and dance both Karnatic and Hindustáni dances. They are a thrifty and well-to-do class with property worth £50 to £500 (Rs. 500-5000) and live in houses worth a yearly rent of £2 8s. to £4 16s. (Rs. 24-48). Their boys and girls go to school from seven to twelve and learn to read and write. At home the girls learn to sing and dance. The women also practise prostitution. Besides these, there are 105 families of women, who cannot sing or dance and gain their livelihood by prostitution alone. They are Maráthás, Lingáyats, Kurubars, Holerus, and Rajputs, and live in all parts of the city, in small houses or huts

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*Indigo Dyers.**Cocanut and
Lemon Sellers.**Bangle Sellers.**Marriage Crown
Makers.**Blanket Weavers.**Dancing Girls.*

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Rope Makers.

worth a yearly rent of 12s. to £1 4s. (Rs. 6-12). They do not save, and their children go to school. They are not held in the same respect as the professional dancing and singing prostitutes.

Seven Musalmán families are employed in making hemp or coir rope. The ropes are six to eighty feet long and of varying thickness. A rope half an inch thick and eighty feet long costs 4s. (Rs. 2). They are a poor class and are unable to save. The women help and the boys do not go to school. They are settled in the town of Dhárwár.

Midwives.

Two Marátha and two Musalmán midwives are settled in the town and in Háveripeth. They charge 4s. to 10s. (Rs. 2-5) for each lying-in and also get the robe worn by women at the time of childbirth. Their husbands are labourers. They are poor and unable to save.

Bookbinders.

Two families of bookbinders, one a Musalmán and the other a Velál or Modliár family, are employed in the public service as bookbinders.

Cane Workers.

Two Chinamen settled in Dhárwár make and sell cane chairs and boxes. They are poor and have no credit.

Bamboo Sellers.

Three bamboo dealers bring bamboos wholesale from forests and sell them retail at Dhárwár, each making a profit of about £10 (Rs. 100) a year. They live in houses yielding a yearly rent of £1 to £1 4s. (Rs. 10-12).

Tinmen.

Three tinmen in Dhárwár make lanterns and small tin boxes. The lanterns, including glass panes, are sold according to size at 6d. to 4s. (Rs. $\frac{1}{4}$ - 2). Their yearly profits clear of all expenses are about £20 (Rs. 200) each. Their women do not help, and their boys do not go to school.

Nightsoil Men.

Bhangis or Sweepers, mostly Musalmáns, number about sixty families. They live chiefly in Saidápur. Several of them are employed by the Dhárwár municipality to clear privies and remove nightsoil, and some are employed by the townspeople on similar duties. Their women do not help, and their boys do not go to school. They earn 6s. to 8s. (Rs. 3-4) a month.

Houses.

The 1881 census showed 5331 houses in Dhárwár, of which 1331 were of the better and 4000 of the lower class. The better class of houses are built with sun-dried bricks of reddish earth, and, except about one hundred with whitewashed walls, the walls of all are plastered with mud. The lower class of houses are built with sun-dried bricks of black or reddish earth. The walls are strong and suited to the climate as they keep out the heat. As they have no windows the ventilation is imperfect, air coming in through the main door when open, through skylights in the case of flatroofed houses and through the tile partings in tiled houses. Most of the houses have a back courtyard, usually dirty and spoilt by a pit privy which sometimes remains uncleaned for years. Almost all the better built houses are modern. Not a single substantially built house is more than sixty or seventy years old. Owing to the anarchy which prevailed at the close of the eighteenth century, the

country was so often overrun and plundered that most of the houses were either pulled down or burnt. People were chary of building large and substantial houses. In 1818 when the British took Dhárwár, the houses were small and few. The only two large buildings were the mansion of Bápuji Sindia, the commandant of Dhárwár fort, and the mansion of Trimbakráo Anna the Sar Subhedár of Dhárwár which was built about 1792. During the first fifteen years of British rule, the number of houses began to increase, but they were not of any size or beauty, as people were not sure how long British rule would last. Since then, though Dhárwár has fallen from its position, a good many new houses have sprung up on all sides and landed property has risen greatly in value.

Within the limits of the Dhárwár municipality, are estimated to be about one hundred roads and lanes with an aggregate length of about sixteen miles, of which $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles are metalled. Besides the great north and south Poona-Harihar road which passes between the town of Dhárwár and the civil station, and the east and west Bijápur-Haliyál road which passes between the town and the fort of Dhárwár and thence through the civil station, there are seven or eight chief roads in the city. Two east and west roads, the northern and the southern, run parallel to each other in Madihall. The northern road joins the southern at the west end of Madihall by a small cross lane and passes west through Háveripeth, then turns a little to the south, and passing between the fort and the town, goes straight to the Collector's office and to all the bungalows in the civil station. It branches in two directions near the south gate of the fort, the north-west branch leading to the District Court, post office, travellers' bungalow, and the jail. Near the jail it joins the main Poona-Harihar road. The southern branch goes into the town of Dhárwár. The east and west Hubli main road, entering the town on the east, proceeds westward through the town, first under the name of Mochigar lane, and, farther on, under the name of the big pond road, to the Kempkeri pond. From the pond it passes west to the German Mission house, Ulvi Basappa's temple, the Collector's office and other bungalows, and on to Haliyál in North Kánara. The great road known as Kamánkatta in the middle of the town starting from the east of the town, passes west as far as Kempkeri, from whence it follows the east and west Hubli main road. The eastern Hubli road enters the town on the east at Navlur gate and under the name of Hosvoni lane, passes the street bearing that name, turns a little to the north and then again to the west, under the name of Kodanpur street, and turns to the south to the Nuchambli well. From its turning point it passes west, under the name of Tirmalráo's street, as far as the end of the new village. It then branches in three directions, to the south to Mailaring hill Someshvar temple and Hubli, to the west to Ulvi Basappa's temple and Haliyál, and to the north-west to the Kempkeri reservoir, from where it follows the east and west Hubli main road. The Aminbhávi road enters Háveripeth in the north, passes south, and crossing the east

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Hubli road, crosses the town under the name of Mangalvár street until it reaches the Kamánkatta cross street, and then under the name of Shukravárpeth street passes through the Navlur gate to Hubli. The sixth is another parallel north and south road which from the European burying ground near the fort, passes south through the town first under the name of Mangalvár street road, as far as the cross Kamánkatta street, and then under the name of Shukravár street road, joins the east Hubli road at the point where it turns a little to the north and then follows it. Two or three north and south roads pass through the civil station and cross as many more east and west roads in the same locality. Several smaller lanes join the above main roads throughout the city and serve as short cuts to the main roads. Many of these lanes are extremely narrow and winding.

Gates.

Before the beginning of British rule the old town of Dhárwár was surrounded with a mud wall six or seven feet high with bastions at intervals. The town had five entrances adorned with square topped gateways, which were closed at night, and watched by the village police. These bastioned walls have fallen. In some parts they have completely disappeared, in others the ruins give an idea of what they formerly were. The town has grown so much on all sides that there are no traces of the old gateways. Even the exact position of four of the gateways is not easily traced. The fifth gateway to the south-east of the town, known as the Navlur gate is also in ruins. The tops of the gateway and the doors have vanished. The two sides alone remain and they are much out of repair. The only two gateways in the city of Dhárwár which have any top arches are the two in the east entrance to the fort of Dhárwár.

Management.

Dhárwár is throughout the year the seat of a District Judge and Sessions Judge, a first class subordinate judge, and a Civil Surgeon. During the rains it is the seat of the Collector, the assistant and deputy collectors, the officers of the Southern Marátha revenue survey, the police superintendent, the district engineer, and officers of the forest and railway departments. It is also the head-quarters of the chief revenue and police officers of the Dhárwár subdivision and is provided with a jail, two court-houses, a municipality, and civil hospital, a high school, a training college, an Anglo-vernacular school, post and telegraph offices, a travellers' bungalow, and four rest-houses for native travellers.

Municipality.

The municipality was established in 1856 and was raised to a city municipality from the 1st of April 1883. In 1882-83 besides a balance of £321 (Rs.3212) the municipality had an income of £2510 (Rs.25,104) or a taxation of about 1s. 11d. (15 as.) a head on the population within municipal limits. The income is chiefly drawn from octroi, house, wheel, and other taxes. During the same year, the expenditure amounted to £2299 (Rs.22,990) of which £499 (Rs.4986) were spent in conservancy and cleansing, and the rest in repairing and lighting roads, in police charges, and in other miscellaneous objects. In 1876 the municipality

borrowed £3600 (Rs. 36,000) from Government to improve its water-supply. The chief works which have been carried out since the establishment of the municipality are sixteen miles of made road, of which three and a half are metalled, vegetable beef and mutton markets and slaughter-houses, an improved water-supply, three miles of drains, and three latrines.

Within municipal limits are six reservoirs, three ponds or *kuntas*, two cisterns, and 614 wells. Of the six reservoirs five Hirekeri or Bág, Kempkeri or Lál, Kopadkeri, Halkeri or Moti, and Parman-katti are large, and are the chief sources of the city's water-supply. The sixth is a new large reservoir made by the municipality. The three ponds or *kuntas*, Margamma Saidápur and Ulvi Basappa, are small and used for watering cattle and trees, and for washing.

The Hirekeri or Bág reservoir is on the south of the town near the village of Hosiellápur. It is the largest of the six reservoirs, being $42\frac{3}{8}$ acres in area, and capable of holding 568,332 cubic feet of water. It is much filled with silt and is used only for bathing washing and watering some lands to the east of it. The eastern part of the reservoir was once banked with huge stones and mud; but the whole is in ruins. If the embankment was repaired, and the silt removed, it would be able to hold three times as much water as at present. This reservoir has no steps. The temple of Ráyar Hanu-mán stands close by on the north-east bank of the reservoir. It becomes dry as early as December. The Kopadkeri pond between the villages of Málápur and Gulganjikop on the north-west of the town has an area of $24\frac{1}{10}$ acres and is capable of holding 356,388 cubic feet of water. It is divided into two by a dam, the part on the high ground being used by the people of Málápur, Gulganjikop, and Kamlápur for drinking, and the part on the low ground for washing and for watering cattle and trees. At the end of 1881-82 there remained in it 48,333, and at the close of 1882-83 about 32,000 cubic feet of water. This pond has a strong mud and stone embankment, but no steps. The Halkeri or great reservoir, the chief source of the water-supply of the town, lies between the fort and the town. It has an area of $6\frac{1}{10}$ acres and can hold 564,648 cubic feet of water. At the end of the south-west monsoon of 1881-82 it contained 483,984 cubic feet of water, and at the end of March 1882, 322,656 cubic feet; at the end of the south-west monsoon of 1882-83 it contained about 338,460 cubic feet, and at the end of March 1883, 315,500 cubic feet of water. It has stone and mud embankments in good order. Four flights of stone steps lead to the water's edge. On the southern embankment stand the German Mission Anglo-vernacular school, temples of Hanu-mán and Dattátraya, and two rest-houses. Formerly this reservoir used to fail in the hot season but it does not now, as it is fed by the new municipal reservoir on the south-west of the town, which is built from the Government loan of £3600 (Rs. 36,000) and is intended to supply the town with water through pipes. The Kempkeri or Lál reservoir, in the west of the town and to the south of the road from the town to the Collector's office, has an area of $3\frac{9}{10}$ acres and is capable of holding 138,996 cubic feet of water. It is used

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Reservoirs.

for drinking and washing by the lower classes who live near it. It has embankments built of clay, stone, and mud, and on one side are steps. It dries in December. The Parmankatti reservoir, to the north of the town and Háveripeth street, and on the west of the Dhárwár-Aminbhávi road, has an area of $2\frac{1}{2}$ acres and can hold 112,220 cubic feet of water. In March 1882 it contained 33,666 cubic feet. It is used for drinking by the people of the neighbourhood and on one side is furnished with steps. It dries by December. The new reservoir to the south-west of the town which is intended to supply the town with drinking water by pipes was built in 1880 from a Government loan of £3600 (Rs. 36,000). It has an area of $16\frac{1}{8}$ acres. It contained 361,665 cubic feet of water in November 1882. As it is more than a mile from the town it is not directly used. When necessary its water is led to the Halkeri or Moti reservoir. Of the three smaller ponds, Margamma, called from a small temple of Margamma or the Hindu cholera goddess lies a little to the west of the Dhárwár fort. It is used for watering cattle and trees. The Saidápur pond to the north-east of the village of Saidápur is used only for watering cattle. Ulvi Basappa's pond, to the west of the town and near the Lingáyat temple of Ulvi Basappa is used for washing and watering cattle and also for watering a small garden.

Cisterns.

There are two large cisterns or *hondas* in the west part of the fort. The smaller cistern, about 2833 square yards and thirty-six feet deep, is in the ditch between the outer glacis and the fort wall. Water collected in the catchment of the western parts of the fort runs into this reservoir through a channel built on a level with the ground, under the outer glacis of the fort. From this the water runs into the inner and larger cistern within the fort, by means of another channel, on a level with the ground, built under the fort walls. The larger cistern is within the inner wall of the fort. It has an area of 5856 square yards and is about eighty feet deep from the surface of the ground. It is cut out of the hard schistic rock on which the fort stands. Except at a few places near the surface the sides are not built but in the upper and eastern side are some rude steps. In very hot seasons both cisterns run dry. In the inner cistern is a well about ten feet square and twenty feet deep, and round the big well are smaller wells each three or four feet square. All these wells had sweet water springs. The big well had solid wooden shutters which can be opened or shut at pleasure. From these wells people used to draw their water-supply. A temple of Vithoba or Pándurang stands close to the north-east bank of the cistern.

Wells.

Of the 614 wells within municipal limits in December 1883, 485 contained brackish water fit only for bathing and washing, and 129 contained sweet water fit for drinking. Of the sweet wells twenty-two were step-wells, and 107 were draw wells. All the wells inside the town and villages are draw wells and are four to six feet square and seventy-five to eighty feet deep. All the wells inside the town of Dhárwár and the village of Hosyellápur are brackish. The people of this part of the town use the water of the Moti reservoir and of thirteen sweet water wells outside the town, six on the west, five on the south, one on the north, and one on the

south-east. The villages of Háveripeth, Kamlápur, Málápur, and Náráyanpur have 153 wells all brackish and they therefore depend on the Kopadkeri and Moti reservoirs. The Madihall, Saidápur, and Gulganjikop villages have 116 sweet wells each about twenty-five feet deep. Besides these there are thirty-eight sweet wells in the European part of the station. They are ten to twelve feet square and vary in depth from seventy to eighty-eight feet. Agsar Bhávi a draw well on low ground to the west of the town is about six feet square and twenty-six deep. It is chiefly used by washermen. It had thirteen feet of water in December 1883. The Jekni well to the north of the town takes its name from a Jekni or female spirit who haunts it. Thirty years ago it looked more like a pit than a well. Since then the Municipality have built stone steps on the east and south sides and the townspeople use its water for drinking. It is sixty-two feet deep, and has an area of 484 square yards on the top and about 150 square yards at the bottom. In December 1883 it had twenty-six feet of water. The Nuchambli well is to the south-west of the town near the village of Hosyellápur. It is called after a mixture of *javári* and *ragi*, called *nuchambli* or millet gruel which was given to the labourers who dug it in a season of great drought about 120 years ago.¹ The well looked like a large pit till 1832 when it was repaired by public subscription. Steps have been built towards the north and east sides of the well, and its water is used for drinking. It occupies an area of 523 square yards, and is thirty feet deep. In December 1883 it contained seventeen feet of water. Ráyar Bhávi, on the south-east of the town near the Navlur gate was built by Vyásráy a Vaishnav Mádhva pontiff. It covers an area of about 500 square yards and is lined with deep steps from the surface to the water's edge. It had seventeen feet of water in December 1883. For want of cleaning and repairs the water is dirty and is used only for washing. The temple of Ráyar Hanumán stands on the northern brink of this well. Three wells were built between 1835 and 1860 by Ráo Sáheb Shrinivásráo Hanumant now a retired Government pleader. One of the wells built about 1835 is in the old District Judge's office. Its water is excellent and is generally used. The other built about 1842 is on the Dhárwár-Hubli road near a garden planted by Mr. Shrinivás. This well covers an area of about twenty-five square yards and is forty-eight feet deep with steps on the southern side. The well is now chiefly used by wayfarers. The third well was sunk by Mr. Shrinivás in 1861-62 in the present District Judge's office. The Udpiráyar well on the south-west of the town was built about 1780, by one Udpiráo an officer under the Peshwa's governor or sarsubhedár. It covers an area of thirty square yards and is about thirty feet deep with steps on the west side. Its water is used by the people of the neighbourhood. A temple of Hanumán, built by Satya Bodh Svámi, a great pontiff of the principal sect of the Mádhva Bráhmans about 1780, stands on the north side of this well. Venkatráo Bahádur's well, to

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¹ *Nuchu* is *javári* boiled in water and made into a hard mass, and *ambli* is the gruel of *ragi* flour.

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the south-west of the town was begun by the late Ráo Bahádúr Venkatráo Subáji principal sadar amin or native judge of Dhárwár, after a succession of three years of drought ending in 1840. Mr. Venkatráo died in 1846, and his son Ráo Bahádúr Tirmalráo Inámdár, formerly a Judge of the Small Cause Court at Dhárwár and Hubli and now a pensioner and a honorary magistrate of the first class, completed it in 1847 at a great cost. The Bombay Government expressed themselves gratified at the public-spirited liberality shown by Mr. Venkatráo Subáji in making the well. In 1849 they conferred on his son Ráo Bahádúr Tirmalráo forty acres of rent-free land in perpetuity as a reward for completing and for maintaining the well. The well is used by all classes of people and did not fail even in the great drought of 1874, when almost all other wells were dry. The well has an area of about 610 square yards and is seventy-nine feet deep. On the eastern side five cut stone steps lead from the surface to the water's edge. In December 1883 the water in the well was thirty-five feet deep. Kopramma's well on the south-east of the town, and near the Navlur gate, was built by the same Ráo Bahádúr Tirmalráo in 1880, at a cost of about £140 (Rs. 1400) and named after his late mother Kopramma. The well is circular, about six feet in diameter and forty-seven feet deep, and is very substantial being built from top to bottom jentirely with dry plate stones. The water of the well is sweet and is used by the people of the neighbourhood, by travellers, and by market people on market days. It had twenty feet of water in December 1883. Two large circular wells are within the jail limits, one in the jail itself, the other in front of the jail gate. The water of both wells is sweet and is used by the inmates of the jail for drinking and washing as well as for watering the jail garden where European and native vegetables are grown. The finer vegetables are sold for the benefit of Government, and the country vegetables are used by the prisoners. The wells are each about twenty-five feet in diameter, and about eighty-eight feet deep. In December 1883 they had sixteen feet of water.

Markets.

Outside of the town on the north, and between it and the fort, are the Robertson Fruit and Vegetable Markets. They are most convenient and spacious and next to the new market at Hubli, are among one of the finest up-country markets in the Bombay presidency. They include a quadrangular building with a corrugated iron roof containing on each side of the square twenty stalls back to back. Each of the forty stalls on the southern and western sides is provided with an enclosed brick wall covered with a wooden lid, in which the dealers keep their goods at night. The remaining forty stalls on the northern and eastern sides have no such enclosures. Outside the quadrangle are three blocks of shops one on the north-western, another on the south-western, and the third on the south-eastern sides, each block containing fourteen shops or rows, with a stall seven feet broad, and a veranda in front also seven feet broad. The space on the north-eastern side of the quadrangle is still empty. The right to trade in this vacant space is sold every year to the highest bidder. Besides these, two other blocks of shops one on each side of the public road lead from the market into the

town, each block containing fifteen shops or rows, and a veranda in front of the same breadth as the shop. The present total number of stalls is eighty, and of shops seventy-two, and the total building cost to the municipality has been £2775 (Rs. 27,750). The privilege of occupying and trading in each of the eighty stalls and seventy-two shops and on each of the separate portions of empty ground to the north-east of the quadrangular building, is sold by public auction every year to the highest bidder. In 1883-84 the rents amounted to £193 (Rs. 1937). No shop tax is levied on these stalls, shops, or empty plots, as they form municipal property. The average yearly cost of repairing the stalls and shops is about £20 (Rs. 200). The remaining twenty shops were sold to different persons, who occupy and trade in them, paying the municipality a yearly shop tax of £6 4s. (Rs. 62). Mutton and beef markets were built by the municipality in 1881. The mutton market is a square building with thirty-four stalls and cost £92 8s. (Rs. 924). The beef market is a square building with twelve stalls and cost £49 (Rs. 492). There are two slaughter houses one with a paved floor for slaughtering sheep and goats, and the other for slaughtering cows and bullocks. The old market within the town of Dhárwár consists of rows of shops on each side of two long streets known as the north and south Mangalvár Píati-voni and the east and west street known as Javlivoni, crossing each other at right angles. Each shop consists of a room with a veranda in front and a store room behind. Articles for sale are kept in baskets and shown in the veranda.

The only industries in the town are the weaving of coarse woollen blankets and coarse cotton cloth. The jail manufactures are carpets, towels, table cloths, quilts, cane chairs, and boxes. The Government cotton gin factory, which used to repair cotton gins and do miscellaneous iron work, was closed in July 1883.

Dhárwár has thirteen large Hindu temples and three Muhammadan mosques. The temples, which are mostly plain and modern are three of Hanumán, two each of Durgádevi, Narsinh, Pándurang, and Venkatesh, and small shrines of Dyamava and Rághavendra Svámi. The oldest is Ráyar or Vyásráy Hanumán's temple near the Navlur gate. It is said to be one of 360 temples which were built throughout the Vijaynagar territory about A.D. 1510 in honour of Hanumán.¹ Vyásráy who built the temples was a Mádhav pontiff, who is said to have managed the country for twelve years during the minority of a Vijaynagar king. The temple is held in much reverence. The other two temples are Mudi Hanumán's shrine near the old gate of that name, and Hanumán's shrine near the reservoir built about 1790 by Satya Bodh Svámi another great Mádhav pontiff. Of the two Durgádevi shrines one is in the fort and the other in the town. Of the Narsinh temples one is in the town and the other at Madíhall within a mile of Dhárwár; the latter was built by the late diwán Ráo Bahádur Shrinivésráo

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¹ This date falls in the reign of the famous Krishna Ráy (1508-1542) the ninth king of Vijaynagar.

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Temples.

about 1832. Of the two temples of Pándurang one in the fort was built by the Peshwa's last commandant Bápuji Sindia (A.D. 1800), and the other in the town was built about 1820 by Ramanna Náik a rich Dhárwár merchant. Dyamava's and Rághavendra Svámi's are two minor shrines, the latter built by a Dhárwár priest about 1830. There is also a small temple of Tripurling near the 262nd mile-stone where the Dhárwár road branches from the Hubli-Belgaum road. It is an old and substantial building of stone and mortar and has lately been repaired and whitewashed. There is also a Jain temple in Dhárwár, and Lingáyat temples of Virbhadra and Ulvi Basappa.

Mosques.

Of three chief mosques, two the Jáma and the Bára Imám's are in the town, and one Hatel Pátchá's is in the fort. The *panjús* or iron hands which are worshipped in Hatel Pátchá's mosque are said to have been brought from Bidar in the Nizám's dominions.

Maths.

Within municipal limits are twenty-five large and small Lingáyat monasteries or *maths* built by different Lingáyats at different times.¹ Six of these monasteries are of special importance, Hire's, Dodya's, Charanti's, Huchya's, Javatiavara's, and Karibasya's. These were built by different Lingáyat merchants at different times and are used only by Lingáyat priests. The Lingáyat laity never live in these monasteries.²

Chapel.

Dhárwár has a German mission chapel and two Roman Catholic chapels. The German Mission chapel is seventy-six feet long by forty-two broad and twenty-four high and has a forty-foot high tower. It was built in 1844-45 and dedicated on the 14th of December 1845. The service by the missionaries is in Kánarese and once in English on Sundays. Attached to the chapel is a small cemetery in which several missionaries and their wives and children have been buried.

Travellers'
Bungalow.

There is one travellers' bungalow and four rest-houses within municipal limits. One of the rest-houses was built by the municipality, and the other three by private persons one of whom a Muhammadan enjoys a grant of rent-free land from Government for the repair of his rest-house. The best of the three rest-houses is that built by Ráo Bahádur Tirmalráo Venkatesh near his father's big well at a cost of £500 (Rs. 5000). The rest house is commonly used by travellers, and, on important occasions, by townspeople for holding caste dinners and other entertainments.

European
Grave Yard.

The European grave-yard is a little to the south-east of the fort. It has a tablet to the nephew of Sir Thomas Munro with this inscription:

'To the memory of John Collins Munro Esquire of the Madras Civil Service who being present with the force assembled for the reduction of Kittur, was unfortunately carried by his ardent temper to share in the storm of the enemies works on the 3rd of December 1824, when he received a mortal wound, of which he

¹ To consecrate a Lingáyat monastery a priest is brought into the new building. His feet are washed and the floor is sprinkled with the water. Four *lings* are consecrated and one is buried under each corner of the building with prayers. A few priests are fed and the building is fit for use as a monastery.

² Details are given above pp. 108-110.

died on the 11th of December 1824, at the early age of 26 years. This monument was erected by his uncle, Major General Sir Thomas Munro.

There are tablets also to Captain Black and Lieutenants Sewell and Dighton of the Madras Horse Artillery,

"Who lost their lives in gallantly attempting to quell the insurrection at Kittur, on the 23rd of October 1824. This monument was erected by their three friends who witnessed their devoted conduct at that unfortunate affair."¹

To the south-east of the town near the Navlur gate is a monument raised in memory of the late Ráo Bahádur Venkatráo Subáji Principal Sadar Amin of Dhárwár who died in 1846.

The monument of most historical interest at Dhárwár is an obelisk about sixty yards from the travellers' bungalow. The obelisk which is twenty-eight feet high, was built in memory of Mr. Thackeray and Mr. Munro two officers in the civil employ of Government who lost their lives in the Kittur insurrection in 1824. The obelisk has inscriptions in Persian on the south face, in Kánarese on the west, in Sanskrit on the north face, and in English on the east face. The English inscription is

"Erected by their friends to the memory of St. John Thackeray, Esquire, Principal Collector and Political Agent, Southern Mará'tha Doab killed in the insurrection at Kittur, October 23rd 1824, and of John Collins Munro, Esquire, Sub-Collector who died December 11th of a wound received at the reduction of that place."

The civil station occupies the extreme west of the town and the fort. It is bounded on the north and east by the road from the town to the village of Málápur and by the open country on the south and west. The station is about a mile and a quarter from east to west and a mile from north to south. It is crossed by broad streets shaded by beautiful avenues of trees. Most of the bungalows, of which there are about eighty outside of the fort, are substantial buildings in large enclosures each with a well, and most with flower, vegetable, and fruit gardens. The bungalows in the fort are smaller, are not so strongly built, and have no wells and smaller gardens. According to its size and position the cost of a bungalow varies from about £30 to about £2000 (Rs. 300 to Rs. 20,000). Forty-six of these bungalows yield yearly rents varying from £3 to £100 (Rs. 30 - Rs. 1000). They pay a yearly municipal house tax of 6s. to 12s. (Rs. 3 - 6). The remaining thirty-four bungalows are either public offices or churches, yield no rent, and pay no municipal tax. The Collector's office lies at the extreme south of the station and the Government treasury is kept there. The Collector's residence is close to his office. To the north of the Collector's garden are the training college and the high school. To the west is the executive engineer's office, and to the north the revenue survey office, and the residence of the Judge. Towards the east of the Judge's residence is Thackeray and Munro's obelisk and the European church. To the east and south-east of these are the new District Court, post office, and a Roman

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European Grave
Yard.

Civil Station.

¹ Murray's Bombay Handbook (2nd Edition), 240.

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Civil Station.

Catholic chapel. The rest of the civil station is filled with bungalows occupied by other officers and gentlemen. Three of the bungalows are used by Pársi shopkeepers. At the eastern gate of the Collector's garden is the first class subordinate judge's court, and to the south are other bungalows and the chapel and residence of the German missionaries. At the extreme north-west corner of the civil station are the lunatic asylum and the jail. The jail is surrounded by a high quadrangular wall with its chief entrance on the north. Outside the building are working sheds for the prisoners and these, with the gardens, are surrounded by a strong fence of prickly pear, a deep ditch, and for some distance, a dry stone wall. Up to 1882, the Civil hospital was in the same enclosure as the lunatic asylum. It has since been moved into a new building in the fort, which forms the eastern part of the civil station. Inside the fort are several houses of Europeans, Eurasians, and others, the new Civil hospital and the station library. A few Muhammadans, one of whom is the Káji of Dhárwár town and a few native servants also live in the fort. The chief Muhammadan mosque called the Hatel Páthá's *Dargha*, the Hindu temples of Durgádevi, Yithoba, Hanumán, and Margamma, and the mansion of Bápuji Sindia (1800) the last Peshwa's commandant are also within the fort.

Military
Cantonment.

The Military Cantonment, in the open country about a mile and a half north-west of Dhárwár, and on the west of the Belgaum road, occupies an area of 331 acres, just enough to accommodate one Native Regiment. The cantonment is open to the prevailing breeze and being built on a slope has a good natural drainage. In 1872 it had a military population of 1634 of whom 661 were fighting men and 973 were followers. In 1876 of a total of 1655, 720 were fighting men and 935 were followers. In December 1883 there was a total strength of 506, of whom 310 were fighting men and 196 followers.

Mailargudda
Hill.

About two miles south of Dhárwár is the Mailargudda hill on whose top is a small square stone temple facing east built in the Jain style. It has round pillars and square massive stone beams, with a somewhat plain ceiling. It is not known who built the temple but on the front pillars are two Persian inscriptions. The inscription on the (visitor's) right pillar is lost; the left pillar inscription runs:

In the reign of Muhammad A'dilshah king of Bijapur this building acquired by the favour of God, was converted into a mosque by Muhammad Khan Ulla Sar Hava'ida'r of the fort of Dhárwár, for the use of all Muhammadans to offer up prayer without fear, in the year Rhide Samanin va Allaf 1081 (that is A.D. 1670).

When the Maráthás took Dhárwár in 1753 this building was turned into a Hindu temple and dedicated to the god Mailarling. Its chief worshippers are Dhárwár Komtis.

History.

Dhárwár is not an old town. In a legendary account of the old temple of Someshvar two and a half miles south of Dhárwár, Navlur and other places in the neighbourhood are said to be noticed but there is no mention of Dhárwár. The local belief is that the

Dhárwár fort was built in 1403 and called after its builder Dhárráv¹ an officer of the Vijaynagar king Rám Rája.² The first certain notice of Dhárwár is in 1573 when the fifth Bijápur king Ali Adil Sháh (1557-1579) is mentioned as marching on Dhárwár one of the strongest forts in the Karnátak. It was then held by an officer of the late Rám Rája of Vijaynagar who had assumed practical independence. The fort fell after a siege of six months and the surrounding country was annexed to Bijápur.³ In 1660 one of the Dhárwár fort gates was re-built with well cut granite stones. Over this gateway is a Persian inscription dated A.D. 1660 (H. 1071) giving the name of one Abdul Gaffar as the commandant of the fort under Bijápur. In 1662 lands were granted to the Káji of Dhárwár by the Bijápur king and the Káji's descendants still hold that grant dated H. 1073 that is A.D. 1662.⁴ An inscription dated 1670 in the temple on the Mailaring hill two miles south of Dhárwár is another local remnant of Bijápur rule.⁵ In 1673 Abdul Karim Khán, the ancestor of the present Nawáb of Sávanur was appointed governor of the Bijápur district or *sarkár* of Bankápur with sixteen sub-divisions or *parganá*s. The chief of these sub-divisions were Nasratabad or Dhárwár and Gadag.⁶ In 1674 Shiváji fortified Nargund thirty miles north-east of Dhárwár and took Dhárwár.⁷ In 1685 Sultán Muazzim, Aurangzeb's son, marched, in the name of the Delhi emperor, to regain the south-west parts of the Bijápur kingdom which Shiváji had overrun. He took Hubli and Dhárwár, a place of respectability and strength, and placed garrisons in them.⁸ During the sixty-eight years of Moghal supremacy, from 1685 to 1753, Dhárwár was held by four commandants sent from Delhi, and acting under the orders of the Moghal Governor at Bijápur.⁹ The last commandant surrendered Dhárwár in 1753 to the third Peshwa Báláji Bájráo (1740-1761) who presented the commandant with £4000 (Rs. 40,000) as arrears

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¹ It is said that Dhárráv meant at first to fortify Navlur two miles south-east of Dhárwár and began the work, traces of which remain. The widespread legend that the founder when hunting started a hare which turned on and killed his dogs is told of Dhárwár. It seems probable that Dhárráv, after making a beginning at Navlur, found that the neighbouring hills would give cover to an enemy and accordingly chose the more open site of Dhárwár.

² This date is probably correct as it has been handed down according to four different chronological systems, *Shah 1325 Subhánu Samantsar, Sursan Arab Miya Sumani 804, Hijri 806 and Fasi 813*. The name of the king appears to be wrong as the Vijaynagar king in 1403 was Deva Rája Vijaya Rája Vijaya Bukka or Bukka II, who ruled from 1401 to 1451. The only Rám in the Vijaynagar list is the regent of the eleventh chief Sadashiv (1542-1573) who usurped the throne from 1542 to 1565. Caldwell's Tinnevelly, 46.

³ Briggs' Ferishta, III, 135 ⁴ Ráo Bahádur Tirmalráv. ⁵ See above p. 706.

⁶ Orme's Historical Fragments, 286; Stokes' Belgaum, 42.

⁷ Stokes' Belgaum, 42; Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII, 173.

⁸ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 148; Stokes' Belgaum, 43; Orme's Historical Fragments, 144; Moor's Narrative of Captain Little's Detachment, 42.

⁹ The first Moghal commandant of Dhárwár was Mirza Saifulla valad Muhammad Murda from 1685 to 1699, the second commandant was Alaf Khán Kallandukhán from 1700 to 1718, the third was Muhammad Nasrullákhán from 1719 to 1733, and the fourth was a Hindu Pritivising son of Bhagirathasing from 1734 to 1753. During the rule of the second and third commandants the peace of the district was twice disturbed once by the Nawáb of Sávanur, and once by a rising of *destitis* and *páligárá*. In both cases the insurgents proved too strong for the Government and had to be bought off. Ráo Bahádur Tirmalráv.

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of pay due to the garrison. In 1764, as the Nawáb of Sávanur refused to separate from the Maráthás, Haidar marched to Sávanur and reduced the Nawáb to submission, while his general Fazl Ullah Khán took Dhárwár and overran the country as far north as the Krishna.¹ On the approach of Mádhavráv Peshwa's (1761-1772) army of 30,000 horse and as many foot, Fazl Ullah had to fall back on Haidar's army leaving a strong garrison at Dhárwár.² After Haidar's defeat at Annavatti in Maisur twenty-five miles south of Bankápur³ Mádhavráv laid siege to Dhárwár which capitulated after a breach had been made.⁴ In 1776 Haidar left a chosen body of troops in Bankápur to watch and, as far as possible, prevent supplies passing to the Dhárwár garrison which had not been reduced. In 1778 Haidar took Dhárwár after a protracted siege.⁵ In 1784, Tipu, then in the height of his glory, compelled the Maráthás to cede Dhárwár with other forts and districts, he agreeing to pay a tribute for them. In 1788 Dhárwár was besieged and taken by the Maráthás. In a Marátha revenue statement prepared about 1789 Dhárwár or Nasratabad appears as a *pargana* or sub-division of the Bankápur *sarkár* with a yearly revenue of £12,013 (Rs. 1,20,130).⁶ In September 1790 as part of the joint attack of the English and Maráthás on Tipu of Maisur, during the Third Maisur War (1790-1792), a Marátha force of about 20,000 horse and 10,000 foot under Parshurám Bháu, a man rather under the common size about fifty years old not well looking though with an air of interest and much good nature,⁷ with an English detachment of 1600 bayonets and three companies of artillery commanded by Captain Little appeared before Dhárwár which was held by Badr-al-Zamán Khán⁸ one of Tipu's most trusted generals,⁹ with a garrison of seven thousand regulars and three thousand militia armed with matchlocks and swords. The army took up its ground near Narendravillage about three miles north-west of Dhárwár. On the 18th of September the Maráthás and English advanced against the fort but were forced to withdraw with considerable loss. After this for about six weeks the Maráthás contented themselves with dragging guns to a rising ground about 2000 yards from the fort, firing during the day, and dragging them back at night. On the 30th of October the assailants moved from the north to the south of the fort and the English detachment attacked a body of the enemy who were posted outside of the walls. The enemy were driven from the post within the walls of the town with the loss of three guns. The defendants' loss was considerable. Of the English ten were killed and fifty-nine wounded. After this success until the 13th of

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 330.

² Grant Duff's Maráthás, 330-332; Wilks' South of India, I. 461-464.

³ See above p. 412.

⁴ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 331.

⁵ Wilks' South of India, II. 186; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 401.

⁶ Hamilton's Description of Hindustán, II. 238.

⁷ Rice's Mysore I. 282, 284.

⁸ Waring's Maráthás, 246.

⁹ Moor's Narrative, 17.

¹⁰ Badr-al-Zamán is described as a man of fifty-five of good appearance and middle stature with a handsome beard dressed very neatly in plain white. Moor's Narrative, 37.

¹¹ The details of the English detachment were the 8th Battalion of Native Infantry under Capt. Little and the 11th Battalion under Capt. Alex. Macdonald of 800 bayonets each, and one company of European and two companies of Native Artillery with six-pounder field pieces. Moor's Narrative, 1.

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December nothing was done beyond daily dragging guns to the high ground to the north of the town and firing at the walls. On the 13th of December a smart attack was made on the town and the enemy were driven out of it. The English detachment drove the enemy out and the Maráthás followed and burnt and plundered the greater part of the town and then retired. The English lost sixty-two killed and wounded and the Maráthás 100 killed and several hundreds wounded. When the Maráthás returned the defendants again took possession of the town but were driven out by the Bháu's infantry on the 18th, who plundered the town so completely that not a piece of wood was left standing. As the siege made such poor progress an additional force under Colonel Frederick was sent from Bombay on the 19th of November and reached Dhárwár by Sangameshwar and the Ámba Pass on the 29th of December 1790.¹ On that day the attacking force had a slight success taking a battery about 200 yards to the south-east of the fort. On the 2nd of January 1791 there was a formal meeting between Colonel Frederick and the Bháu at a temple on Parshurám's hill a mile to the south of the fort. During the next ten days the Maráthás continued to batter the fort but without doing much harm. The English meanwhile were preparing a battery and received three good guns from the Maráthás a twenty-two, a twenty-four, and a thirty-six pounder. The battery opened fire on the 14th and continued till the 16th, making a breach, but the defendants were able to repair it. The ammunition then failed and little more was done till the 28th. The battery again fired at a fresh part of the wall and caused a breach which it was determined to storm. The English detachment was strengthened by the corps of Mr. Yvon's, an English gentleman in the Peshwa's service, about 300 strong fifty of them being Europeans of all nations and the rest natives. The storming party moved out at four in the morning of the seventh. But as the Maráthás failed to make a separate attack the whole of the defendant's fire was directed against the storming party and the attack failed. During the next ten days little progress was made. In spite of the length of time the Maráthás had been firing there was little appearance of a breach. With twenty guns the Maráthás could not approach and breach Dhárwár in seven years. The English detachment were unable to be of much assistance as the Maráthás failed to keep them supplied with ammunition. On the 13th of March Colonel Frederick died. The siege was continued till the end of March when the defendants made offers to capitulate and a truce was concluded. Negotiations were completed, the garrison marched out of the fort on the third of April, and the fort was finally handed over on the seventh. During the siege from casualties and desertions the garrison had been reduced from 10,000 to 3000. The loss of the English detachment was 500 killed and wounded of whom one hundred were Europeans. The Maráthá loss was estimated at 3000. Mr. Moor gives the following details of the fort. The fort was an irregular circle. The entrance was on the

¹ The details were, the 2nd Bombay Regiment, the 9th battalion of Native Infantry with European Artillery and lascars and a light field piece. Moor's Narrative, 7-8.

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eastern side through three pretty strong gates the middle of which was very handsome. The gateway was defended by a battery of three guns. The outer ditch was twenty to twenty-five feet deep and twenty-five to thirty-five feet wide with a stone facing in places. The curtain of the outer wall was thick and strong and the rampart though too narrow had guns mounted on it. Behind the rampart was a second ditch twenty-five feet wide and deep. The inner rampart and curtain were much the same as the outer. In both curtains were many towers mounting twenty-two guns two mortars and a number of fixed wall pieces called *jingals*. The area inside was small and the whole most forlorn. The powder magazine was underground in the rear of the cavalier tower. The commandant's residence and his office were near the centre of the fort and were much battered. There were no handsome or convenient buildings. It was very dirty as so many people had been so long living in it. There were several guns of iron bars hooped round and beaten into shape which were known as Malabár guns.¹ The town which stretched from about 250 yards to the south and east of the fort was enclosed by a weak wall in bad repair and a shallow ditch. The wall was square each face a little less than half a mile. Part of it was strengthened by a thick hedge. Before the sack of the town the space inside the wall had been well filled with houses though few or none of them had been handsome. A stone mosque in the middle of the town had escaped without much damage.²

In October 1800 Colonel Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, expressed his opinion that Dhárwár could be taken by a coup-de-main, and he drew up a plan of attack on the south-west side.³ Some officers of Colonel Wellesley's army rode to Dhárwár, and one party was received in the fort by Bápuji Sindia the commandant. Another day Colonel Wellesley rode near the fort and examined it. The commandant remonstrated, and at the Peshwa's request Colonel Palmer, the British Resident at Poona, wrote to Colonel Wellesley for an explanation.⁴ In 1803 the same commandant invited Colonel Wellesley to an entertainment in the fort and to his surprise the invitation was accepted. Bápuji afterwards expressed astonishment that he had allowed Colonel Wellesley to leave the fort, adding 'Am I not a Marátha.'⁵ In 1814 Bápuji Sindia came to pay his respects to Bájiráv, who was then

¹ Moor's Narrative, 1-41.

² Moor's Narrative, 41.

³ Supplementary Despatches (India, 1797-1805), II. 198. In one despatch (dated Hubli 9th October 1800) Colonel Wellesley mentions Dhárwár with Hubli and Annigeri as places famous for cloth. Ditto, 203.

⁴ To calm the commandant's suspicions Colonel Wellesley gave him to understand that if he had wished to know anything about Dhárwár he would have referred to his own plan of the place, or would have made inquiry of one of the British officers who had taken Dhárwár for the Maráthas of whom there were several in his camp. He reminded the commandant that, except Dhárwár, all the forts in the Marátha territory had passed through his hands, and that after getting hold of them he never kept them a moment but gave them over to their owners, as became a faithful ally. Supplementary Despatches, II. 280-281.

⁵ Supplementary Despatches, II. 280-282.

⁶ Despatches (Gurwood's Edition), II. 332; Murray's Handbook of Bombay (2nd Ed.), 239; Mrs. Guthrie's Western India, 319-320.

on his way to the Madras Karnátak. He was told to give up the fort to Trimbakji Denglia. Bápuji answered 'If your Highness will send a gentleman to relieve me in the command, or if you will send my clerk in your own name, I will deliver the keys to him, but I will never give over the fort to such a person as Trimbakji Denglia.' For this speech as soon as he left the Peshwa's tent Bápuji was seized, bound and tortured by Trimbakji until a promise of surrender was extorted. Bápuji gave the keys to his clerk, a Bráhmán on whom he could rely, and the clerk, accompanied by a body of troops, started for Dhárwár. As they drew near the fort the clerk asked leave to go in advance. As soon as he entered the fort he closed all the gates and opened such a fire that Trimbakji and his men were forced to retire. The faithful clerk did not surrender until an order was obtained from his imprisoned master through the interposition of Bápu Gokhle.¹ On the 13th of June 1817 under the treaty of Poona the Peshwa among other cessions agreed to hand to the British Dhárwár and Kushgal about fifteen miles south of Dhárwár and other districts south of the Yarda.² To take possession of this territory, General, afterwards Sir, Thomas Munro marched to Dhárwár. Major Newall who was sent in advance at the head of a battalion of Native Infantry managed matters with such address that though in a state of mutiny, he prevailed on the garrison to yield. In July 1817 when General Munro and his party arrived they found the fort in the hands of the Company's troops.³ A battalion of Native Infantry and two six-pounder field pieces were left under the command of Major Newall to hold Dhárwár, Kushgal, and Ránebennur.⁴ During the Third Marátha War, Dhárwár was taken on the 15th of June 1818 by Lieutenant-Colonel Newall with the second battalion of the Fourth Regiment, and all the heavy guns and ordnance stores were thrown into the fort.⁵ In 1837 Dhárwár was the scene of such violent feuds between the Bráhmans and Lingáyats that Government were forced to interfere.⁶ During the 1857 Mutinies, on account of the disaffection of the surrounding chiefs, especially the chiefs of Nargund and Mundargi, in case it might fall into the hands of mutineers, it was thought advisable to breach Dhárwár fort. Since 1833 from various causes Dhárwár has lost its importance as a place of trade. The opening of a station on the Marmagoa-Belári line, 150 miles from Marmagoa and 142 miles north-west of Belári, will probably increase the trade of Dhárwár. Still Hubli will remain the commercial centre of the district.

Dhundshi, on the Kánára frontier, six miles north-west of Shiggaon, is an important market town in the Bankápur sub-division with in 1881 a population of 2374. It has a large number of shops, and at the weekly Thursday market, betelnuts, black pepper, cardamoms, chillies, cocoa-kernels, molasses, rice, salt, sugar, and tobacco are sold in large quantities.

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¹ Grant Duff's Maráthas, 623-624.² Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 460.³ Blacker's Marátha War, 314.⁴ Grant Duff's Maráthas, 635.⁵ Blacker's Marátha War, 59-60.⁶ Murray's Handbook, 240.

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Didgur, about fifteen miles south-west of Karajgi, with in 1882 a population of 598, has a temple of Hanumán with six inscriptions. Two other inscriptions occur one in the yard of one Pujar Bandiya, and the other on the waste-weir of the village pond.

EDLABAD.

Edlabad is an uninhabited village about four miles west of Shiggaon, the head-quarters of the Bankápur sub-division. Within its boundary is a holy well called Gangábhávi or the Ganges Well where a yearly fair attended by about 2000 persons is held in January. The well is thickly shaded by mangoes in a pleasant spot surrounded by woody hillocks. A small brook rises from the well and flows down the valley. On the edge of the well is a domed stone and mortar temple of Kámeshvar with a self-made or *svayambhu ling*. To the north-west of the well is a cave said to have been used as a hermitage by the sage Janhu, who used to drink the well dry, and let it trickle from his ear. The three holes from which the well water oozed are still shown on the north side of the well. The temple has a Government grant of £9 6s. (Rs. 93) in land and £2 4s. (Rs. 22) in cash, enjoyed by a ministrant who is charged with the worship and the lighting of the temple. Pilgrims to the number of 2000 mostly Bráhmans, Vaishyas, Sonárs, and Lingáyats, come from all parts of Dhárwár, from Bádámi and Bágalkot in South Bijápur, and from Mundgod and Sirsi in Kánara. The fair is held for one day on the 13th of January, the day following the sun's passage into Capricornus that is the *Makarsankránt*. Pilgrims bathe in the well and worship Kámeshvar. The bath and worship are said to be an unfailing cure for fever. The fair is not of any trading importance, the only things sold are plantains and cocoanuts which pilgrims buy to offer to the god.

GADAG.

Gadag, north latitude 15° 96' and east longitude 75° 43' usually called Gadag-Bettigeri from the village of that name a mile to the east, is a municipal town, the head-quarters of the Gadag sub-division with in 1881 a population of 17,000. Gadag is a noted cotton mart and its trading importance will greatly increase when it is the junction of the South Deccan or Marmagao-Belári and the East Deccan or Hotgi-Gadag railways. The 1872 census returns showed within municipal limits a total population of 19,035, of whom 15,604 were Hindus, 3349 Musalmáns, and eighty-two Christians.¹ The 1881 census showed a population of 17,000 or a decrease of 2034. Of these 13,493 were Hindus, 3176 Musalmáns, and 331 Christians, giving a density of ninety-one to the square acre on 178 acres the total municipal area. The average cotton trade at Gadag, which is carried on by nine large traders with capitals of 500 to £20,000 (Rs. 5000-Rs. 2,00,000), is worth upwards of £50,000 (Rs. 5,00,000) a year. Gadag has two steam cotton presses owned by the West Patent Press Company and Messrs. Framji and Company and a hand or half press belonging to Messrs. Robertson Brothers and Company. There is also a Government Sawgin factory. Gadag is also noted for its fine deep

¹ The details were: In Gadag Hindus 8266, Musalmáns 2046, and Christians seven, total 10,319; and in Bettigeri, Hindus 7333, Musalmáns 1303, and Christians seventy-five, total 8716.

coloured robes or *sádis*. Weekly markets are held at Gadag and at Bettigeri on Saturdays when cloth and rice are chiefly sold.

Besides the sub-divisional revenue and police offices Gadag has a municipality, a sub-judge's court, post and telegraph offices, a dispensary, a ruined fort, two temples, and twenty inscriptions. There is also a branch of the Basel German Mission at Bettigeri and eight schools. The municipality was established in 1859. In 1882 it had an income of £1548 and an expenditure of £1268. The income is chiefly from octroi and miscellaneous direct taxes. The dispensary was opened in 1864, and treated in 1882-83 forty-six in-patients and 13,703 out-patients at a cost of £343 8s. (Rs. 3434) or 6d. (4 as.) a head. In 1842 the fort was described as a small rectangular work with a mud and stone wall about eighteen feet high and a dry ditch and glacis round part of the works. The committee of inspection recommended that a company of regular troops with fifty or sixty irregulars should be stationed at Gadag to be withdrawn as the country grew more settled. In 1750 Gadag fort is described as a well guarded fort of stone and mortar on slightly raised ground. The height of the wall varied. The old wall was 6½ yards high; the new wall was half a yard less. The inner circuit was 1534 yards. It had twenty-one towers. Inside was a large reservoir of rain water and there were several wells some with and some without steps.¹

Gadag² has the remains of some of the most richly carved temples in the Dhárwár district. The chief temples are of Trikuteshvar, Sarasvati, Náráyan, Someshvar, and Rámeshvar. The temples of Trikuteshvar and Sarasvati are in one large court. Trikuteshvar's is the principal and occupies the centre; and Sarasvati's is built on the south side of the court at right angles to and almost touching Trikuteshvar's central hall. Perhaps of all Dhárwár buildings the little temple of Sarasvati takes the first place for delicacy and beauty of detail. The richness and grace of some of its columns are not surpassed. The whole temple, even to the figure of Sarasvati in the shrine, has been wrought with immense care and elaboration. The building consists of an open hall or *mandap* and a shrine, which has long lost its spire. As in all Chálukyan temples the walls are broken into vertical projecting and recessed panels, which with the deep overhanging cornice and other horizontal mouldings, allows of a pleasing balance of light and shade on the faces of the building. The panels are ornamented with pairs of little pilasters surmounted by miniature spires throwing numerous light shadows which harmonise with the leading lights and shades and unite them in one well balanced whole. The hall or *mandap* is surrounded by a low plinth wall whose outer face is minutely and lavishly carved. It is a repetition of little pilasters separating recessed niches in each of which is a tiny female figure. Along the edge of the plinth a low parapet wall slopes outwards and forms a back on the upper surface of the plinth which may be used as a seat. The outer face of this parapet is adorned with little groups of pilasters with circular

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¹ Tieffenthaler's Description Historique et Geographique de l' Inde, I. 500.

² Contributed by Dr. J. Burgess.

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medallions between them. From the top of the plinth rise the pillars which support the eaves round the hall. The entrance is between the two front pillars. Fourteen pillars round the hall support the eaves and four other pillars standing in the floor support the central dome. The four pillars at the entrance, two on either side, and the four supporting the dome are exquisitely worked. The first pair in front have a band of pure and elegant diaper pattern. It is of lozenge shaped flowers separated by very deep clear cut lines. It occurs nowhere but on a small portion of the upper parts of the shafts of these pillars and strikes the visitor as an exceedingly choice bit of design, so effective and so pretty, that more of it would have been welcome. The next pair of pillars are like the first pair of square shafts with notched corners, but are totally unlike the former in their details. The carving on these two pillars is perhaps the most delicate stone carving in the Bombay Presidency. The whole shaft is a series of horizontal bands of carving, each band of little pilasters separated by niches holding figures in high relief. Each little pilaster is complete with all its vertical and horizontal mouldings, bases, and capitals. The pilasters on the lower band are surmounted by little ornamental spires. The figures are most delicately chiselled. Though but two to three inches high they stand in almost full relief, connected with the pillar only by a small portion of their backs. The brackets above the capital that support the ends of the cross beams of the roof are no less carefully finished than the rest of the pillar. The flower scroll which fringes them is deeply cut and effective. The four pillars which support the central vault are of one pattern quite different in design from the entrance pillars. The upper half of the shafts with the capitals are round and beautifully wrought with horizontal bands of bead festoons, scroll *Fame Faces*, figures, niches, and leaves, the niches forming the most striking ornament. Eight of the niches are enclosed by eight little pilasters with florid arches thrown over from top to top of each, and each pilaster is again crowned with a miniature spire. In the niches, in high relief and carved with spirit, are prancing horses with riders and dancing figures. The band of niches is octagonal in plan each niche occupying a face of the octagon the pilasters being at the corners. Below this are four larger niches and pilasters each niche occupying the face of a square, and each pilaster surmounted by a miniature spire. Along the upper edges of the architraves over the pillars has been a band of fretwork. This, which is about six inches deep and about an inch thick, is carved so as to stand out from the architrave and is connected with it by only a few little blocks left here and there. Most of this delicate fret has broken away. The central ceiling is vaulted on the square of the four pillars, and is unlike the usual ceilings which are generally domes formed of horizontal circular courses of mouldings. It is prettily ribbed with principal horizontal and vertical and subordinate horizontal vertical and diagonal ribs. Between these, where the minor ribs cross each other, little knobs depend. In the shrine sits *Sarasvati* cross-legged on a throne. It is a life-sized figure in black stone most delicately and carefully wrought. At first sight the figure seems naked but examination shows a fine textured garment with a

prettily wrought pattern passing over the limbs. Sarasvati wears a very elaborate head-dress like a high crown. Round her neck a lavish profusion of necklaces, carved in imitation of beads, pearls, and other precious stones falls gracefully over the bosom. Like her neck her wrists and arms are heavily laden with ornaments. The cornice of the hall or *mandap* is made of large flat straight stones sloping downwards at an angle of almost 45° and projecting considerably over the pillars. Above the cornice is a moulding of horse-shoe arches surmounted by Fame Faces.

In front of and at right angles to Sarasvati's temple, filling the centre of the courtyard, is the larger temple of Trikuteshvar. This consists of two halls, or a double hall, running east and west, with a shrine at each end and a small minor shrine attached to the north side of the double hall. In the west and principal shrine a *shábumkha* or *ling* case holds three *lings* from which the temple takes its name of Trikuteshvar the Three-pointed Lord. The building is really a double temple or rather two temples facing one another and joined together. Between the two halls is a small space with a doorway to the north and south. The doorway to the north enters the small attached shrine while the south doorway enters on the courtyard. This small *ling* shrine has been built on the north doorway at some time later than the building of the temple. In the shrine on the east is an unused throne on which a figure was originally placed. The inside of the temple on the whole is plain, but the workmanship of the outside claims attention. The outside of the east hall is specially good. Its south doorway is a few feet in front of, and looks into the entrance of, the temple of Sarasvati. Its north door enters the courtyard. A plinth, surmounted by a low sloping parapet like that of Sarasvati's hall, runs round the north and south sides of the hall. Instead of the little pilasters on Sarasvati's plinth is a close succession of figured niches representing mythological personages, and the medallions of the parapet are replaced by niches with figures. Between the top of the parapet and the eaves and from pillar to pillar completely enclosing the hall, are slabs of stone on which is worked a diaper pattern of squares with scroll-work running through them. Alternate squares have a lozenge-shaped flower set into them, with the corners of the square perforated and thus in addition to the doorways allowing air and a faint light to pass into the hall. The profusion of small figures averaging six inches in height which abound on the outside of this hall is remarkable. They are neatly and carefully cut in high relief and their limbs are in many cases detached from the back ground. The door on the south side of the west hall is beautifully worked, but paint and plaster almost hide its delicate traceries. The rest of the walls are the usual style of vertical mouldings pilasters and niches found in almost every Chálukyan temple. The spire or *vimán* above the shrine is an ugly late addition of brick and plaster.

The temple of Somesvar is now used as a school-room. It has one of the most profusely decorated exteriors in Dhárwár. Not a square foot on the walls but has some moulding or ornament. The sanctuary is square outside with four thin parallel projections

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added to each face, the outermost projection being about one-fourth the length of the side of the square and the others going back in lessening steps. These projections are carried right up the walls and the spire, the corners of the square being more strongly marked than the other corners. The great amount of moulding and ornament on the walls and spire break and to a certain extent hide the continuity of these projections. The very strongly marked horizontal recessed mouldings in the basement, a deep overhanging cornice, and deep step-like storeys in the roof give the architecture a horizontal accentuation as strongly marked as its vertical accentuation. The lines of the basement are covered with scrolls of little elephants, tigers, and horses. Miniature spired shrines or niches fill the centre of each face one in each. The walls above the basement are carried all round with pairs of pilasters supporting small spires. On the front of each pair of pilasters is a little niche with an arch of scroll-work over each. The centres of the north, west, and south walls have a large principal niche, each of which held an image at least eighteen inches high. The hall or *mandap* is square with a porch and doorway on the south and a doorway on the east. The ornamentation and the moulding round the shrine are carried over the south and north walls of the hall. The east wall is plain rubble with pilasters and projecting brackets, which show either that the building originally stretched beyond its present limit or that the original wall, like the north and south walls, has fallen away and the end been closed by a plain wall. The doorway on this side is very finely carved, after the style of the doorway of the Káshivishveshwar temple at Lakkundi, though perhaps not so elaborate. The ceiling of the south porch is very richly wrought in slabs of arabesque with a lotus in the centre of each panel. The interior of the temple is plain and the dome in the hall rests on four central pillars. To the south of Someshvar's is Rámeshvar's temple. Like Someshvar's only two courses of the spire are left. The walls are plain but little of them can be seen, so thickly built round by dwellings is the temple, which is now used as a store room.

Virnárdyan.

Virnárdyan's temple in the market is built of black hornblende. It is remarkable neither for its architecture nor for its age, as it probably belongs to the thirteenth or fourteenth century. The chief point of interest is a large and lofty gateway or *gopur* in the eastern wall of the courtyard, built in the South Indian style. The gateway is over 100 feet high and has a richly decorated brick top. Some curious carvings supposed to be the remains of earlier buildings have been worked into it.

Hero Stones.

In a walled enclosure in Bettigeri village is a group of fifteen old hero-stones which look like the huge old head-stones which have been found in some English graveyards. Of the fifteen stones the largest stands about thirteen feet above the surface of the ground. The faces of the stones are generally divided into three sculptured panels or compartments. The lowest panel shows a battle scene where the deceased met his death, he himself figuring in the panel as the hero of the fight. Some of the stones have a plough or an oil-mill carved in this panel perhaps to mark the caste of the deceased. The second panel shows the deceased being carried to

the gods between winged figures. The first or topmost panel shows a god or the hero seated on a throne. The tops of the stones are cut into long Dravidian roofs with an urn on the top. Several of these stones have inscriptions in Old Kánarese characters, and one with the largest inscription is just in front of the village gate. A platform has been built round it and a small *ling* set before it. The stone itself is black and caked with dry oil which is daily applied.¹

In the Gadag mámlatdár's office are several copperplate grants and about twenty inscriptions occur in or near the temples. Of the twenty inscriptions ten are in or about the Trikuteshvar temple seven of which vary from 1002 to 1539 and of the other three the dates have not been made out. The first inscription consists of thirty-two lines in the Old Kánarese character and language, each line containing about forty-three letters. The characters are large and slanting and the tablet is chipped in places. Though not easy to read the inscription on the whole is well preserved. It records a grant in 1002 (S. 924 *Shubhkrit samvatsar*) to Trikuteshvar while the great chieftain king Sobhan was governing the Belvola Three Hundred and some other districts under the Western Chálukya king Satyáshraya II (997-1008). The emblems at the top of the stone are in the middle a shrine containing a *ling* with a priest to its right and Basav to its left. To the right of the shrine are two seated figures, a man with a lute and a woman. To the left of the shrine is a cow and calf and above it are the sun and moon. The second inscription, also in the Old Kánarese character and language consists of forty-five lines, each line containing about fifty-one letters. There are many flaws in the tablet and the inscription is rather hard to read. It gives the names of the Chálukya kings Jayasimha III. (1018-1042), Áhavamalla II. (1042-1068), and Vikramáditya VI. (1075-1126) and of a princess Báchaldevi who appears to be the wife of Vikramáditya VI. The inscription records a grant made in 1100, the twenty-fifth year of the reign of Vikramáditya VI. by a subordinate chieftain. The emblems at the top of the tablet are a *ling* and a priest in the middle, a cow and a calf to the right, and Basav to the left. The third inscription is in the Old Kánarese character and language. It has about fifteen lines above the ground, each line of about thirty-seven letters. It is fairly preserved and refers to the time of the Kalachuri chief Sankamdev (1175-1180), one of the sons of Bijjala. The emblems at the top of the tablet are in the middle a *ling* with a seated figure on its right and a standing figure on its left. To the right of this central group is a figure of Basav with the sun beyond it, and to the left is a cow and calf with the moon beyond them. The fourth inscription in Old Kánarese characters and the Sanskrit language consists of fifty-six lines each of about fifty-four letters and well preserved. It records in 1193 (S. 1115 *Paridhavi samvatsar*) a grant to the god Trikuteshvardev by the Hoysala chief Vir Ballál

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¹ Details of Konkan memorial battle-stones are given in Bombay Gazetteer, XIV. 57-59, 309-311. A representation of a battle-stone is given by Mrs. Guthrie in her *Life in Western India*, II. Title-page.

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(1191-1213), who, having wrested Kuntala from the Devgiri Yádavs, is mentioned as fixing on Lökkigundi, the modern Lakkundi, as his capital. The emblems at the top of the tablet are, in the middle, a man worshipping three heads on an altar.¹ To the right of the central group is a figure of Ganpati, and beyond Ganpati a figure of Basav; and to the left a female deity with a cow and a calf and a crooked knife beyond. The fifth inscription also in Old Kánarese characters and language is on a tablet which lay on the edge of a small pond outside the temple enclosure, but was removed and placed against the outer side of the south wall of the temple courtyard. The inscription is in fifty-seven lines each of about thirty-eight letters. It records a grant in 1199 (S. 1121 *Siddhárthi samvatsar*) by the great chieftain Ráydev the supreme lord of Ásatimayurpur, the prime minister of Vir Ballál (1191-1213) the son of Hamuidev who was the son of Ráydev and the governor of the Belvola Three Hundred. The emblems at the top of this tablet are a *ling* and a priest in the middle; Basav with the moon above to the right and a cow and a calf with the sun above to the left.

The sixth inscription is in Old Kánarese characters and is partly Sanskrit and partly Old Kánarese in language. It consists of fifty lines, each line containing about thirty-seven letters. Except in one or two places where the surface of the tablet has been chipped the inscription is well preserved. It begins with a description of the gift village² of Krataka that is Gadag in the Belvola Three Hundred,³ and records a grant made in 1213 (S. 1135 *Ángirasa samvatsar*) to the god Trikuteshvardev, while the governing king was the fifth Devgiri Yádav Singhana II. (1209-1247). The emblems over the inscription are a *ling* and a priest within a shrine in the centre, to the right a cow and a calf with the sun above them, and to the left a figure of Basav with the moon above it.

The seventh inscription is in the Kánarese character and language on a tablet standing just inside of the west gateway of the temple courtyard. It consists of fourteen lines each of about thirty-five letters. It is dated 1539 (S. 1461 *Vikári samvatsar*) and records a grant made by or at the order of the Vijaynagar king Achyutráy. A few badly cut emblems adorn the top of the tablet, a *ling* in the middle, a figure of Basav with the sun above it to the right, and a cow and a calf with the moon above them to the left.

Of the three inscriptions, whose dates cannot be made out, the first is a very short inscription in an angle outside the temple shrine. Perhaps it records the name of the builder. The second inscription is in the Devnágari character and Sanskrit language. Eleven lines are above ground each of about thirty-one letters. The inscription

¹ The three heads probably denote Shiv as representing the Brahma Vishnu and Shiv triad. The female deity to the left of the altar appears to be Shiv's wife or the female principle Párvati.

² The word in the original is *agrahára* which means lands or villages granted to Bráhmans for religious purposes.

³ Belvola Three-Hundred means the Belvola subdivision of three hundred villages. Belvola or Belpola is an old Kánarese word meaning a field of standing corn. The name was given to the fertile district near the centre of which are Dambal, Gadag, and Lakkundi.

is in good order, but the portion above ground is not enough to make out its contents. The emblems at the top of the tablet are a *ling* and a priest in the middle. To the right of this central group are a cow and a calf with the sun or moon above them, and to the left Basav with the moon or sun above it. The third inscription is in Old Kánarese characters and language, and has above ground eighteen lines each of about twenty-five letters. The first seven or eight lines are in good order; in the lines that follow the letters are rather faint and a large portion of the face has been chipped off in the centre of the tablet. The emblems at the top are a *ling* and priest in the middle; to the right a cow and a calf with the sun above them, and to the left a figure of Basav with the moon above it.

Of seven inscriptions in or about the Virnáráyan temple, four vary from 1037 to 1539 and of the other two the dates have not been made out. The first inscription dated 1037 (S. 959) is behind the temple on a stone built into the lower part of the enclosing wall; the second dated 1098 (S. 1020), is on the roof of a room in or at the same temple; the third, dated 1100 (S. 1022), is in the enclosure to the north of the temple; and the fourth is dated 1539 (S. 1461). Of the three inscriptions whose dates cannot be made out one is in the enclosure wall short and partially effaced. The second inscription is on a stone leaning against the western wall of the temple courtyard. It consists of seventy-two or seventy-three lines, each line containing about sixty-three letters. The characters are Old Kánarese rather small. The surface of the stone is too worn to be read, but the inscription appears to be about 400 years old. Emblems over it represent Ganpati, Náráyan, Sarasvati, and Virbhadrá, a cow and a calf, and the sun and moon. The third inscription, also in Old Kánarese characters, stands up against the east wall of the courtyard. At the top is a well carved representation of Krishna playing the pipe to which men women and animals dance. It is in sixty-nine lines, each of about forty-two letters. It appears to be about 400 years old but is more legible than the first. On a stone lying on the threshold of the temple of Narsimh to the south of the Virnáráyan temple is an inscription dated 1539 (S. 1461), and at the small rest-house east of the south gateway behind the temple of Narsimh is a partly hewn-out inscription dated 1124 (S. 1016). A stone inscribed in Devnágari characters lies on its face on the bank of the Gadag pond.

The old, perhaps the Sanskritised, name of Gadag was Krátuka. The two temples of Trikteshvar and Virnáráyan¹ are of about the tenth or eleventh century, and the inscriptions in them, varying from 973 to 1539, show that Gadag was at different times under the Western Chálukya (973-1190), Kalachuri (1161-1183), Hoysala Ballál (1047-1310), Devgiri Yádav (1170-1310), and Vijaynagar kings (1336-1587).² About 1673 Gadag appears with Nasaratabad or Dhárwár as one of the chief districts in the Bankápur district or

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History.

¹ According to a local manuscript account of Shrávan Belgola in Maisur, the Virnáráyan temple is one of the five Náráyan temples built about 1117 by the fourth Hoysala king Vishnuvardhana (1117-1137) on his conversion to the Rámánuj faith, *Indian Antiquary*, II, 131.

² See above, pp. 717-719.

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sirkar.¹ On the capture of Dambal fort on the 26th of July 1799, Colonel Wellesley marched on the 27th to Gadag, but found it evacuated by Dhundia's men. Colonel Wellesley gave over charge of both the Dambal and Gadag forts to the Peshwa's commandant, whom Dhundia had confined in chains at Gadag.² In the last Marátha war General Munro invested Gadag on the 5th of January 1818. It surrendered on the 6th after a few shells had been thrown and a battery raised.³ In 1827 Captain Clunes notices Gudduck as a usual halting place with 800 houses, thirteen shops, and wells.⁴ In 1844, Gadag-Bettigeri had 2090 houses and 12,302 people, 3468 of them weavers with 1507 looms; in 1874 there were 3453 houses with 18,154 people, 5043 of whom were weavers with 1399 looms.⁵

GALAGNÁTH.

Galagna'th on the left bank of the Tungbhadra about twenty miles north-east of Karajgi, with in 1882 a population of 342, has temples of Gárgeshvar and Hanumant. The Gárgeshvar temple to the north of the village, at the holy meeting of the Varda and the Tungbhadra, is built of black granite and is about eighty feet long by forty broad with four pillars supporting the roof, and walls covered with mythological figures. The temple has two inscriptions dated 1080 and 1147 (S. 1002 and 1069). The Hanumant temple has a monumental hero-stone or *virgal* to the right of the image dated 1011.

GARAG.

Garag, a large village about ten miles north-west of Dhárwár, with in 1872 a population of 4350 and in 1881 of 4465, has a district bungalow and a large trade in coarse country cloth. In 1827 Captain Clunes mentions Gurrug as a *kasba* and post station with 500 houses, fourteen shops, and a temple.

GEJJIHALLI.

Gejjihalli, a small village two miles south of Hángal, has a temple of Basaveshvar with two inscriptions, dated 1103, on either side of the image.

GUDGUDDÁPÜR.

Gudgudda'pur or DEVÆRGUD, a municipal village of 546 people, on the top of a steep hill eight miles north of Ránebennur, has a large fair in October with an attendance of 5000 to 10,000 people. The fair is held in honour of the god Mallári or Shiv, the slayer of the demon Malla. In the village is a temple of Mailár or Mallári built of black polished stone with a brick spire. The roof is supported on twenty pillars four of them round and sixteen square. The outer walls are adorned with carved figures. Near the main temple are several smaller shrines two of them of fair size, consecrated to the goddesses Mallasama and Malláridevi.⁶ The chief temple enjoys a yearly Government grant of £33 8s. (Rs. 334) in land and £1 (Rs. 10) in cash. Presents valued at about £100 (Rs. 1000) are made yearly by pilgrims. The temple also owns £1500 (Rs. 15,000) worth of clothes and ornaments. The local

¹ Orme's Historical Fragments, 286.

² Supplementary Despatches, II. 74-80. Six of Colonel Wellesley's despatches are dated Gudduck, 27th July 1800.

³ Blacker's Marátha War, 287.

⁴ Itinerary, 72.

⁵ Bom. Gov. Sel. CLIV. 8.

⁶ Dr. Burgess' Lists; Mr. F. L. Charles, C.S.; Ráv Bahádúr Tirmalráv.

story of Mallári is that he became incarnate here as Bhairav, and, with his fifteen feet long bow,¹ killed the demon Malla, who infested the neighbourhood. He thereupon won the title of Mallári or the Malla-slayer and was enshrined in the temple on the hill. Mallári used to go hunting with a pack of hounds. When he was enshrined on the Devargad hill, the dogs became men and served as his ministrants under the names of Vággyás and Goravarus. Sixty families of these dog-ministrants live on the hill round the temple. The fair begins on the day before *Dasara* in September-October and lasts two days. From 5000 to 10,000 people attend from all parts of Dhárwár and from Belgaum, Bijápur, and Maisur. On the fair days pilgrims pay their devotions to the god and feed the poor. Dancing girls dance before the god at the nightly lamp-waving or *árti*. The fair owes its chief interest to the Vággyás, who dressed in black woollen jackets or *kámli*s with quaint head-kerchiefs or *rumáls*, to the great amusement of the people, play the part of dogs in remembrance of their life with Mallári the huntsman. The Vággyás wear cowrie shell necklaces, tie bells and tiger and bear skins round their waists, hold in their hands a wooden bowl about eight inches square and four inches deep, and try to look as ugly and wild as possible. When pilgrims come the Vággyás bark most furiously at them and hold out their bowls. Each pilgrim pours a little milk and clarified butter into the bowl, throws in plantains sugar and other eatables, and gives each Vággya a farthing ($\frac{1}{2}$ a.). Sometimes ripe plantains milk curds clarified butter and sugar are mixed together and poured into the bowl. The Vággyás set the bowls on the ground, run each to his bowl, begin to bark and howl like dogs, quarrel between themselves, lie flat on the ground, and, putting their mouths into the bowl, eat like dogs. When they have finished eating the Vággyás sing a verse in honour of Mallári; loudly howl out *Elkote Mallári Mártand* that is Mallári Mártand (with his army of) seven crores, and bless the pilgrims for feeding them. This satisfies the pilgrims that Mallári has been pleased and has blessed them through his dog ministrants. At a fixed hour on Dasara Day the great bow of Mallári is brought out and set on the ground before the pilgrims. A ministrant climbs to the top of the bow, becomes possessed by Mallári, and calls out Thunderbolt strikes earth, Cat quarrels with dog, Head cut off, which foretell for the new year famine, war, or a change of rulers. Unlike Jejuri and Alandi in Poona no girls are married to the god and allowed to live near the temple as prostitutes. But a woman, who to get children or for some other reason has vowed to be the god's concubine, on the fair days, presents the god with betel as though he were her husband.² The trade at the fair is mostly local, chiefly in cattle, grocery, ironware, and pottery.

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GUDGUDDÁPUR.

Fair.

¹ This long bow is still preserved and daily worshipped.

² Among Hindus, women after a meal sit near their husbands, rub wet-lime on a betel leaf, divide the leaf in two, fold each piece in a fanciful shape, and present it to their husband, with betelnut cardamoms cinnamon and cloves. No modest woman will make up and give betel to any man but her husband. Ráv Bahádur Tirmalráv Vyaukatesh.

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GUDGUDDÁPUR.
Municipality.

On the 22nd of January 1878 a municipality was established at Gudguddápur. It is maintained from a pilgrim and shop tax levied during the fair days. Except during the two days of the fair there is almost no work. In 1882-83 the pilgrim tax and shop cess yielded £73 (Rs. 730) against £52 (Rs. 526) in 1881-82; the increase was due to a rise in the number of pilgrims of whom about 10,000 are estimated to have attended the fair. The expenditure in 1882-83 was £171 (Rs. 1710) most of which was spent in water works, repairing roads, and planting roadside trees. The municipality owns a rest-house built at a cost of £301 (Rs. 3010) and a pond for water-supply.

GUDGUDI.

Gudgudi, a small village five miles north-west of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 237, has a temple of Kallapa with two inscriptions dated 1038 and 1072.

GUTTAL.

Guttal, with in 1881 a population of 3176, is a large village about twelve miles east of Karajgi. Guttal was a petty divisional head-quarter till 1862. A weekly market is held on Mondays when all kinds of field produce are sold. Guttal has a black stone temple of Chudshekhar with two inscriptions of twenty-four and ninety-five lines; and an old irrigation reservoir with very handsome outlets through the dam formed of elaborately and handsomely carved stone work. Behind the reservoir are square ornamental cisterns with beautifully chiselled stone pavilions in the centre.¹ Guttal is perhaps the Guttavolal of a Kalachuri inscription dated 1181 (S. 1103 *Plava samvatsar*). The inscriptions mention the city of Guttavolal governed by the Gutta chieftain Vikramáditya as an underlord of the sixth Kalachuri king Áhavamalla (1176-1183). In 1237 in an inscription of the Devgiri Yádav king Singhan II. (1209-1247) a grant is mentioned as having been made near Guttal with the permission of the Gutta chieftain Joyidev.²

HALLUR.

Hallur, a village of 654 people on the left bank of the Tungbhadra about eighteen miles south-east of Kod, has an old temple of Rangnáth and an inscription. At the northern boundary of Hallur is the old village of Bhairavanpad with 100 people, the capital of the Sindhu Ballál dynasty, whose family god Bhairav gave his name to the village. The old temple of Rangnáth was ruined by Tipu Sultán (1782-1799); the present building was made by the Svámi of Kudálgi to whom the village was granted by Hanmant Gaud a chief of Hávnur.

HAMGI.

Hamgi near Sirhatti is the family residence of the *desáis* of Sirhatti. In 1858 Kenchangauda Bahádur Desái of Hamgi joined the Nargund rebellion, was killed at Kopal in the Nizám's dominions, and his estates confiscated.³

HÁNGAL.

Hángal, in north latitude 14° 46' and east longitude 75° 12' about fifty miles south of Dhárwár, is the head-quarters of the Hángal sub-division. Hángal is an old town the Pánungal of inscriptions. Besides the sub-divisional revenue and police offices, it has a Collector's bungalow, a ruined fort, temples, and inscriptions. In

¹ Mr. R. B. Joyner, C. E.

² Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 6 note 4.

³ Mr. J. R. Middleton, C.S.

1872 Hángal had a population of 4990. The 1881 returns showed a population of 5272 or an increase of 282. The 1881 details are Hindus 3271, Musalmáns 1997, and four Christians. A municipality was established in 1879 and abolished in 1883. The ruined fort is a mud *ghadi* about 1900 feet round with walls and sixteen bastions. Inside of the fort is a temple of Virbhadrá shaded by trees and brushwood. The walls are on all sides easy of escalade and the dry bottom in front hardly looks like a ditch. The village is near the fort and its streets would cover an attacking force. Round this inner tower are traces of a wall which is locally called the Halekot or old castle. The citadel is situated on the left bank of the Dharma river which flows round its southern and western faces, and turning to the west, falls into the Varda near Naregal about twelve miles further down the valley. The south-east corner of the citadel rests on the Anikeri pond,¹ after which the single outer wall is developed on the eastern face into three lines of defence, which, sweeping round the north side, join the works on the river, where it diverges to the west. Besides the outer defences the outermost line of the triple wall is carried onward, from the point where it turns to the west, to a low range of hills through which a ditch has been cut near a large tree from which the wall is continued round to the river. As the range of hills still commanded the place a further work can be traced, though very faintly in places, to a trench dug through the hill to a Musalmán tomb from which the rampart is continued till it joins the fourth wall, making in all, exclusive of the walls of the citadel, five lines of defence. Traces of other mounds can be seen beyond these stretching eastward, but whether connected with the defences of Hángal cannot be made out. The diameter of the fort wall is about seven or eight hundred yards and of the central tower about 350 yards. The circuit of the old fortified area is upwards of four and a half miles and the earthwork is on an unusually large scale. The lines have disappeared in places and can be traced with difficulty; in others they are well marked.

Hángal has thirteen temples, three of Hanumán and one each of Durga, Gopákráv Desái (the builder's name), Ishvar, Náráyan, Rámaling, Tárakeshvar, Virbhadrá, and Virupáksh. The other two, one of which is called Kichakájit's, are ruined. The Tárakeshvar temple is the most interesting.

It is a large and elegant cut stone building of black granite a little to the east of the modern village of Hángal. The temple is in four parts, a small anteroom (24' x 24') with four pillars, an audience hall or *sabhámandap* (60' x 40') with twenty pillars twelve pilasters and eight small pillars, the porch of the shrine (30' x 30') and the shrine which is irregularly round. The roof of the temple is so covered with plaster that it is difficult to make out its original form, but the plaster serves to protect the interior which is perfectly preserved. In the porch of the shrine is a beautiful lotus pendant. It is a solid octagonal stone, nearly thirty feet in diameter, carved like a lotus and supported on eight richly

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HÁNGAL,

Fort.

Temples.

Tárakeshvar.

¹ The stone facing of the long dam of the Anikeri pond is formed of old carved temple stones, some of which have writings upon them. Mr. R. B. Joyner, C.E.

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sculptured pillars. Round the walls of the interior of the same compartment, in panels pointing towards their respective stations, are figures of the eight guardians of the quarters in bold relief. The walls of the entire temple are covered with mythological sculptures. Two or three remarkable hero-stones or *virgals* rest against the outer wall near the south entrance. They are very large and contain many figures. One of the stones represents the storming of a fort. Near one of the Hanumán temples in the citadel is a small temple with some curious and interesting sculptures of Nāga men and women. About half a mile to the south of Hángal is the temple of Bileshvar. It is said to be 500 years old and contains some carving.¹

Inscriptions.

There are eleven inscriptions at Hángal of five of which the dates have been made out. The earliest is dated Wednesday the first of the bright half of *Chaitra* or March-April in 1113 (S. 1035 *Vijaya samvatsar*), the thirty-eighth year of the reign of the Western Chálukya king Vikramāditya Tribhuvanmalla. Two are of the Western Chálukya king Nurmadi Taila, but whether the first (973-997) or second (1150-1162) cannot be said as the inscriptions are both undated. There is a hero-stone or *virgal* at a monastery called the Budimath, dated 1175; two inscriptions in Tárakeshvar's temple dated 1179 and 1196, the latter of the time of the Hoysala king Ballál II. (1191-1211) and of the Kádamba chief Kámdev (1181-1203). This inscription is on a hero-stone or *virgal*, on which battle scenes are very vividly sculptured. It records that in 1196 Ballál II. came and pitched his camp at the Anikeri pond and thence besieged the city. He was defeated and repulsed for a time by Kámdev's forces under his generals Sohani and his son Padmayya or Padmana. As Sohani was killed in the battle, he is probably the hero of the stone.² Another undated inscription of Kámdev, and an undated hero-stone or *virgal* are inside of the temple. In the temple of Ishvar is an inscription dated 1189, and there are two undated inscriptions one on a dust-heap in front of the temple of Mailardev and the other at the temple of Hanumán in the citadel.

Old Mound.

About 600 yards west of modern Hángal is a remarkable conical mound locally known as Kuntina Dibba or Kunti's hillock. It is believed to have been formed of the husks of the grain ground for her sons by Kunti, the mother of the Pándav princes, during their twelve years of exile part of which they spent in Hángal.³ About 1830 Sir Walter Elliot ran a trench nearly into the centre of the mound at the base and also dug down a few feet from the top, but it appeared to consist entirely of earth.⁴

History.

Hángal, called Virátkote Virátnagari and Pánungal in inscriptions, is locally believed to be the place where the Pándavs lived during part of their exile from Delhi. The names Virátkote and

¹ Indian Antiquary, IV. 205, V. 177-180; Dr. Burgess' Lists, 22-23.

² Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 86.

³ In connection with the same local tradition a small ruined temple in Old Hángal within the citadel is dedicated to Bhim the giant Pándav as Kichakájit or the conqueror of the demon Kichak.

⁴ Indian Antiquary, V. 179.

Virátnagari the Fort and City of Virát which occur in inscriptions support the tradition, as, according to the Mahábhárat, Virát was the king at whose court the Pándavs spent the thirteenth year of their exile and whose daughter Uttara was married to Arjun's son Abhimanyu.¹ The dated inscriptions in Hángal vary from 1113 to 1196 and show that Hángal, generally called Pánungal² was the head of a subdivision of five hundred villages which was generally attached to the Banavási district of twelve thousand villages. Until conquered by the Hoysala king Ballál II. (1192-1211) about 1200, Hángal was governed, as vassals of the Western Chálukyas, by the dynasty of the Kádambas of Banavási and Hángal (1068-1203). Ballál II. (1192-1211) led an attack on Hángal in person, and, though repulsed for a time, he appears to have completely overcome the Kádambas and annexed their territory about the beginning of the thirteenth century. As late as 1251 a chief named Vir Mallidev or Mallikárjun is recorded as governing the Banavási Twelve-thousand and the Pánungal Five-hundred; whether he was independent or feudatory is not known.³ The four and a half miles of fortifications traced by Sir Walter Elliot, seem to belong to the Kádamba Hángal when it was the seat of government. No references have been traced to Hángal in the Musalmán and Marátha periods. In the Marátha war of 1818, on the seventh of February, General Munro detached a company of the 2nd Battalion of the 9th Regiment under Lieutenant Scott, to keep in check the Hángal garrison of about 800 men. The detachment drove in an outpost, and, on the afternoon of the eighth, was attacked by the garrison. The loss of the besieging force was two killed. The garrison retired and surrendered on the morning of the ninth.⁴

Haralhalli, a small village on the left bank of the Tungbhadra fifteen miles east of Karajgi, with in 1881 a population of 129, has black stone temples of Someshvar Káleshvar and Udchamma and three inscriptions of 76, 94, and 110 lines. In 1880 a copperplate grant, of the fifth Devgiri Yádav Singhan II. (1209-1247), was found buried behind the temple of Udchamma. The plates, which are now in the museum of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, are three in number each about 11½" high by 7½" broad. The edges of the plates are made into rims to protect the writing and except in a few places where the surface has badly rusted the inscription is fairly preserved and readable. The ring on which the plates were strung is about ¾" thick and 4¾" in diameter. The emblems on the seal are the man-eagle Garud carved in relief, kneeling with folded hands and facing full front. Over his right shoulder is the sun and over his left shoulder is the moon. The character is Devnágarí and the language Sanskrit in lines 1-91 and lines 99-100. The eight lines 92-98 describing the boundaries of

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HARALHALLI.

¹ Compare Virát Parv, 4th book of the Mahábhárat. Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 7 note 2. The position of Virát is not determined. Wilson places it in Berár and General Cunningham in the North-West Provinces. Indian Antiquary, V. 179.

² H. and P. change according to the usual Kánarese rule. Rice's Mysore and Coorg, I. 395.

³ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 84-85.

⁴ Blacker's Marátha War, 291.

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the land granted are in Old Kánarese. The inscription is dated the seventh day of *Phálgun* or March-April in the year 1237 (*Shak* 1160 for 1159) and records a grant of land in thirty shares of two *nivartanas* each at the village of Ritti the modern Ratteshalli about six miles east of Karagji. The granter is the Dandesh Chikkadev an underlord of Singhan II. and the names and family stocks or *gotras* of the grantees are given with the share of each. The inscription mentions the Varda river among the boundaries.¹

HATTI MATTUR.

Hatti Mattur five miles north of Karagji has an inscribed stone tablet which was found buried to the west of the village pond. The sculptures at the top of the stone are the Nandi bull and the sun and moon. Towards the bottom of the stone, dividing lines ten to nineteen of the inscription in half vertically, is a sculpture of a Jain flower vase with flowers or leaves hanging over its rims. Above the vase is a plain circle with a *svastik* or lucky cross work in the centre. The writing covers a space of about 2' 8" high by 2' 3½" broad in nineteen lines recording two inscriptions. The language throughout is Old Kánarese. Lines one to thirteen record an inscription in the reign of the eighth Ráshtrakuta king Indra IV. or Nityavarsh I. The inscription is dated 916 (*Shak* 838) and records a grant of Vutvur of Kachchavar Kádanuna by the *Mahásámant* Lendeyaras, governing the Purigere or Lakshmeshvar Three hundred in the presence of the assembly of 220 *mahájans* of Paltiya Maltavur the modern Hatti Mattur. The object of the grant is not stated; but the vase sculptured at the bottom of the stone shows that the grant must have been made to some Jain establishment. The second inscription, in lines fourteen to nineteen is undated, but appears to be of the eleventh or twelfth century. It records grants of oil and rice to the god Bhogeshvar. As both inscriptions are on the same stone it seems probable that, by the time of the second inscription, the Jain establishment to which the first grant was made, had been turned into a temple of Shiv under the name of Bhogeshvar.²

HAROGOP.

Harogop, a small village about eight miles south of Ránebennur, with in 1881 a population of 393, has a temple of Hanumán with a much worn inscription in twelve lines.

HAVASBHÁVI.

Havasbhávi, a large village on the Kod-Hángal high road about seven miles north-east of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 1273, has a hero-stone or *virgal* on the bank of a pond dated 1206 (S. 1128).

HAVANGI.

Havangi, about seven miles south-east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 839, has a temple of Rámeshvar, with, on its south face, three inscriptions dated 1026, 1117, and 1131, the first in the reign of the Western Chálukya king Jayasimh III. (1018-1042). Of four other inscriptions in the village the dates cannot be made out.

HÁVERI.

Háveri, about seven miles south-west of Karagji, is a large municipal town on the Dhárwár-Harihar trunk road with in 1881 a population of 5652. Besides the municipality, Háveri has a post office, sub-judge's court, dispensary, temples, and inscriptions. The

¹ Mr. J. F. Fleet, C.S., C.I.E., in Jour. Bo. Br. Roy. As. Soc. XV. 363-365.

² Ind. Ant. XII. 224-225.

1872 census gave a total population of 5463 of whom 4659 were Hindus and 806 Musalmáns. The 1881 census showed a population of 5652 or an increase of 187. Of these 4828 were Hindus and 824 Musalmáns. Háveri is noted for its trade in cardamoms which are brought from the Kánara uplands, washed, and sent to Dhundshi Hubli and Maisur. Háveri has a small well of brackish water impregnated with lime and possessing good bleaching properties. The bales of cardamoms imported from Kánara are unpacked and washed in the water of this well. When dry the husks become of a light cream colour. Besides this cardamom trade, Háveri has a considerable general traffic in cotton and other commodities.¹ The municipality was established in 1879. In 1882-83 it had an income of £146 (Rs. 1460) chiefly from a house tax. The expenditure of £219 (Rs. 2190) was chiefly on sanitation, roads, and improving the water-supply. The dispensary, the only one of its kind in South Dhárwár, was opened in 1878. It is in charge of an hospital assistant, and in 1882 treated fifty-nine in-patients and 12,874 out-patients. Háveri has temples of Halevur, Basvanna, and Kalappa, and a monastery of Rághavendra Svámi. Basvanna's temple has four inscriptions, two of them dated 1134 and 1157. Sidhe Devpur, about a mile east of Háveri, has a temple said to have been built by Jakanáchárya.

Hebli is a large alienated village about eight miles east of Dhárwár, with in 1872 a population of 4839, and in 1881 of 4592. The village stands on rising ground and has a ruined fort. A weekly market is held on Wednesday. Hebli was given in 1748 by Báláji Bájiráv Peshwa to an ancestor of the present *sirdár* in lieu of Nargund, of which the *sirdár* had been deprived by his servant. In 1818 Sir Thomas Munro gave the proprietor the neighbouring villages of Kurdápur and Talva for service to Government. To the south of the village is the temple of Shambhuling about fifty-seven feet long and in the Jain style of architecture. The temple has an inscription, dated the eighth of the bright half of *Bhádrapad* or August-September in the year 1244. Hebli has a ruined temple of Changalovádevi.

Heggeri, about sixteen miles south-east of Kod, has a temple of Kallapa with an inscription dated 1182.

Herebidri, a small village on the left bank of the Tungbhadra about ten miles north-east of Ránebennur, with in 1881 a population of 1177, has an old temple and three inscriptions one of them in fifty lines dated 1283.

Herur, a small village ten miles east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 553, has a temple of Basappa with, near a pond, a hero-stone or *virgal* bearing an inscription dated 1157.

Hire Básur, a small village fifteen miles south-east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 322, has a temple of Vishveshvar with an inscription (1'6" x 1'6"), and a temple of Hanumán also with an inscription (3' x 1'6"). On rising ground near the village is a cave which is believed to pass a great distance underground.

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HÁVERI.

HEBLI.

HEGGERI.

HEREBIDRI.

HERUR.

HIRE BĀSUR.

¹ Details are given above pp. 355-356.

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HIREBENDIGERI.

Hirebendigeri, about seven miles north of Shiggaon, is a large village in the Bankápur sub-division with in 1881 a population of 1362. A weekly market is held on Wednesdays when grain is chiefly sold. The village has a temple of Kalappa and two monasteries called the Hire and Koradya *maths*. Kalappa's temple has an inscribed stone (5'6" × 2'3") much worn; the Hire monastery has a second inscribed stone 6'6" long by 1'6" broad, and the Koradya monastery a third stone 6'6" long by 1' broad.

HIREHALLI.

Hirehalli, about twelve miles north-west of Kod, has an old temple of Ganpati and an inscribed slab.

HIREKERUR.

Hirekerur, 14° 28' north latitude and 75° 28' east longitude about seventy miles south-east of Dhárwár, is the head-quarters of the Kod sub-division, with in 1881 a population of 2348. It is the head-quarters of the *mámlatdár* and has the usual sub-divisional revenue and police offices. About two miles to the north of the village is a large pond used for irrigation. A weekly market is held on Mondays when rice and chillies are chiefly sold. The climate is unhealthy, and fever and ague generally prevail in the cold and rainy months. Hirekerur has four temples and eleven inscriptions varying in date from 1062 to 1172. The four temples are of Durga, Totad-Virbhadra, Varákháleshvar, and Vishpariháreshvar, the last of whom is believed to cure snakebites. Totad-Virbhadra's temple has four inscriptions, three of them dated 1065, 1099, and 1172. The large pond is ascribed to the Puránik king Janamejaya, and an inscribed slab near the Vishpariháreshvar temple is said to give an account of its construction. Five inscribed stones in different places on the banks of the pond vary in date from 1096 to 1131.¹ A stone in the burning-ground is dated 1062, and another to the east of the mosque near the village gate 1143.

HIRUR.

Hirur, a village four miles south of Hángal, has a temple of Sangam-Basaveshvar, with, to the left of the image, an inscription dated 1018.

HOLIANVERI.

Holianveri, about twelve miles south-east of Ránebennur, with in 1881 a population of 431, has a temple of Kalappa, with an inscription dated 1182 in the reign of Áhavamalla (1176-1183) a son of the Kalachuri Bijjala.

HOMBAL.

Hombal is a large village seven miles north-west of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 3226. It has a temple of Ishvar with an inscription dated 1049 (S. 971). To the south on a well near a temple of Bhogeshling is another inscription dated 1115.

HOSHALLI.

Hoshalli, about four miles south of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 461, has on its west a temple of Mallapa with two inscriptions, one of them dated 1242. The other inscription whose date has not been made out is on the south wall of the temple.

HOSUR.

Hosur, a small village ten miles south-east of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 510, has a temple of Balláleshvar with painted

¹ The details are: 1096, 1101, 1103, 1109 or 1131. The date on one stone is doubtful.

walls. It has three other old temples rapidly falling into decay, and one inscription dated 1207 recording a grant by one Yádav Ballál Náráyandev.

Hubli¹ correctly **Hubbali** in north latitude 15° 20' and east longitude 75° 13', the head-quarters of the Hubli sub-division, on the Poona-Harihar road, about thirteen miles south-east of Dhárwár with in 1881 a population of 36,677, is the most important town in the Bombay Karnátak, and the tenth in the Bombay Presidency. Besides the sub-divisional revenue and police offices, Hubli has a sub-judge's court, a municipality, post and telegraph offices, a dispensary, the establishments of two European firms, and cotton gins and presses. A station on the Marmagoa-Belári railway, about 112 miles east of Marmagoa and 132 miles west of Belári, and a steam spinning and weaving mill are being built.²

The town is in two parts Old Hubli and New Hubli, which together cover an area of 1778 acres or about 2½ square miles. Hubli stands about 2500 feet above the sea on a gently waving plain rising towards the west. Except a few small hills to the west, south-west, and north-west, the country round is a black soil plain. Old and New Hubli are not more than 400 yards apart, Old Hubli to the west and New Hubli to the east. Neither town is visible from any great distance. About 4½ miles from the north a large grove of trees and the chimney of the Southern Marátha Spinning and Weaving Mill come into sight. About a mile to the north of the two towns is a temple of Basvanna with a double-storeyed gateway.³ From the east the first signs of the town are within half a mile of New Hubli some gardens and mango groves. The entrances from this side are Ganeshpeth street from the north-east and Bhandivád street from the south-east. From the south a large stretch of trees can be seen from high ground about two and a half miles distant. From the west also groves of mango and other trees completely hide the town buildings. The town of Old Hubli stands on the village lands of Krishnapur, Marian-Timságar, and Ayodhia. In 1727 Basappa the head trader of Old Hubli quarrelled with the commandant of Old Hubli fort, and with the leave of Abdul Majid Khán Dilávarjang Bahádur Nawáb of Sávanur, built the town and fort of New Hubli on the site of Bomápur village. Afterwards the town spread on all sides and now covers portions of nine villages Bomápur, Marian-Timságar, Mádináikan Arikatti, Bidanhál, Yellápur, Virápur, Náráyanpur, Nágsettikop, and Keshavpur.

Between 1873 and 1882 Old and New Hubli were surveyed and divided into four parts A, B, C, and D. The inhabited portions of both towns together cover an area of about 755 acres of which Old Hubli occupies about 200 and New Hubli about 555 acres. The suburbs within municipal limits cover about 1023 acres more.

¹ Contributed by Ráv Bahádur Tirmalráv Vyankatesh.

² Details of the mill are given above under Trade.

³ In the early years of British rule when the Principal Collector came to Hubli, the officials and leading men of the town used to meet in Basvanna's temple, and with music and dancing girls, escort the Collector to his camp or to the old travellers bungalow which has since been pulled down.

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Position.

Divisions.

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An official account of the fort and town of Old Hubli in 1823-24 (*Fāslī* 1233) shows that the fort was then in good order with twenty-eight good and eight ruined bastions, and was surrounded by a dry ditch. There was a reservoir near the temple of Bhavānīshankar with bad water, two sweet water wells called Asārbāvdi and Kotarbāvdi, and seven brackish wells. The town had three main divisions Chennapeth, Kasba or the town proper, and Vithalpeth, and ten sweet water and thirty-eight brackish wells. The fort and town had between them twenty-nine Hindu temples, twenty-two Lingāyat monasteries, and twelve mosques. A market was held on Saturdays. The town had 416 houses, 345 families, 508 looms, eighty-nine shops, and eleven oil presses. The Government tax on houses amounted to £364 14s. (Rs. 3647).

✓ Old Hubli Fort.

Old Hubli Fort covers an area of about twenty-three and a half acres, and contains 225 houses and a population of about 1000. About two-thirds are Brāhmans, some of them landholders, but chiefly priests. The remaining one-third are Musalmāns, most of them weavers husbandmen and labourers. The fort had two covered entrances. The chief entrance was to the east with three doorways one inside the other, and the smaller entrance was towards the west with two doorways one within the other. All traces of these gates have been removed. Parts of the walls and bastions of the old fort fell down; other parts were pulled down during the 1876 famine as a famine relief work. Parts of the fort wall and the ditch remain overgrown with prickly-pear. Almost all the houses in the fort are old and ruined. The mansion of the Musalmān proprietor of Old Hubli, who belonged to the powerful Tārin family and was at one time a general in the Moghal army, was levelled to the ground about 1780 by Tipu and his officers.¹ The old town of Hubli seems never to have been walled, at least no traces of walls are left. The town has several gateways each called after the street to which it gives entrance. The southern entrance is called the Bankāpur gate, as it led to Bankāpur thirty-three miles to the south then the seat of the Bijāpur governor. A large covered gateway is said to have adorned the Bankāpur entrance, but no trace of it remains.² The houses in the town are old, but not so ruined as the houses in the fort. Three or four substantial dwellings and a temple have lately been built to the east of the old town on the road to New Hubli.

New Hubli Fort.

New Hubli Fort covers an area of eight acres, and contains 147 houses and a population of about 750 mostly Brāhman moneylenders pleaders and Government servants. The water-supply is from one hundred sweet draw-wells. The māmlatdār's office, the

¹ In a dirty room on the site of the palace lives Pādshāhmiya *alias* Fatedin Khān Tārin the seventh in descent from the original Jāgirdār Shāh Muhammad Khān Tārin, who received a part of Hubli about 1677. He maintains himself by tilling a Government field.

² In the centre of the gateway, where the halves of the shut door meet, a stone used to stand about six inches above ground. A few years ago, as it came in the way of carts, the stone was lowered to the level of the road. The poorer townspeople on festive days still pour milk over and otherwise worship this stone as the home of the guardian of the Bankāpur entrance.

subordinate judge's court, and the municipal office are held in the fort. The fort had only one entrance towards the south-east with two doorways one inside the other. The outer doorway was pulled down about 1864. The inner gateway which has an arched roof and immovable doors alone remains. About 1840 on the east wall of the fort a small door was opened to allow the fort people to fetch water from a small pond. The fort walls are neither strong nor high. They look more like a large bastioned garden wall than a fort. Several parts of the wall were pulled down in 1854 and 1856 and the ditch near them filled. In 1874 and 1875, the north and north-west parts were pulled down and a public road made. About half of the line of wall remains much ruined. New Hubli had never either walls or arched gateways. The only gateway, a plain structure at the west or Old Hubli entrance, was pulled down in 1830. The new town has several entrances or *agsis*, the chief of which are the Bhandivád *agsi* on the east, the Bankápur *agsi* on the south, the Bomápur *agsi* on the west, and the Dhárwár *agsi* on the north.¹

The original town built in 1727 by Majid Khán Dilávarjang Bahádur the Nawáb of Sávanur included six peths or sub-divisions Hirepeth, Ráchanpeth, Lingánpeth, Mangalvárpeth, Sidánpeth, and Kaulpeth. In time the limits of these sub-divisions were changed and parts of them came to be included in other subdivisions. Of the four city survey (1873-1882) sub-divisions A, B, C, and D, A includes the south-east of New Hubli and the lands of Bidanhál, Náráyanpur, Yellápur, Bomápur, and Virápur villages. Division A has thirty-seven streets and is peopled by Bráhman priests, money-changers, cloth dealers, Lingáyat merchants, shopkeepers, cotton dealers, weavers, husbandmen, and labourers; Musalmán carpet and cloth weavers, labourers, and cultivators; Patvegar weavers of silk and cotton cloths; and a few Jain and Marátha cultivators and labourers. The chief objects are the head police station, the Robertson market, and temples of Vithoba, Venkatraman, and Rádhákrishna. Sub-division B forms the town of Old Hubli. It is described later on. Sub-division C includes parts of the lands of the villages of Marian-Timságar, Nágsettikop, and Mádináikan-Arlikatti, and lies to the north-east of New Hubli fort. To the north of this sub-division are the German Mission house, church, and school-house. In the streets close to these buildings, live native converts many of them weavers, some gold and coppersmiths carpenters and labourers, some cultivators, and some of the workers in the Southern Marátha Spinning and Weaving mill. To the west of the mission buildings is the Southern Marátha Spinning and Weaving factory and to the east a cotton cleaning and pressing factory, and travellers' bungalow, and some private bungalows, and gardens. Further to the south are two public rest-houses, one built out of local funds, and the other built about 1840 by a rich merchant and endowed by Government with a piece of rent-free land. Further to the south are Gurshidappa's Math, the chief Lingáyat monastery,

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New Hubli Fort.

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¹ The Bhandivád and Bankápur *agsis* take their name from the towns of Bhandivád and Bankápur to which they lead. Bomápur takes its name from the old village of Bomápur on whose lands it was built in 1727.

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Sub-Divisions.

and the large reservoir known as Gurshidappa's Honda. To the south and west of the monastery and reservoir fifteen chief streets of the native town form part of sub-division C. The chief inhabitants are Jain traders in copper and brass vessels, merchants, cultivators, and labourers; Musalmán copper and brass vessel makers, cultivators, and labourers; Lingáyat cultivators, oil pressers, and weavers; blacksmiths, Jingar saddlers, and Patvegar weavers in silk and cotton. To the south of these is a large stone temple of Hanumán built by a tailor.

Sub-division D stands on parts of the lands of Mádináikan-Arlikkatti, Keshavpur, and Nágsettikop and includes in the middle the fort of New Hubli.¹ To the north of sub-division D are the bungalows of the First Assistant Collector and the Cotton Inspector, the Electric Telegraph office, and the new court-house, near which a new sub-divisional office is to be built. This sub-division has thirty-three chief streets forming part of the native town. Of the people of sub-division D, Marátha cultivators, labourers, and messengers live round the fort, and Patvegar weavers in silk and cotton Musalmán cultivators, labourers, weavers in cotton and silk, Vaddar stonecutters, shepherds, Biádarus, Lingáyat merchants, cultivators, labourers, weavers, and priests, pot makers, basket makers, some Bráhma priests public servants moneychangers, Jains and Gaulis inhabit the rest of the sub-division.

Sub-division B includes the fort and town of Old Hubli. It covers land belonging to the villages of Krishnapur, Ayodhia, Marian-Timságar, and Bomápur, on the west of New Hubli. The town consists of three parts with about forty chief streets. Of the people of sub-division B, Bráhma priests and village officers live in the fort; a few poor Bráhma moneychangers live in the town; Lingáyat merchants husbandmen and labourers, Musalmán weavers, Holerus, and shoemakers live in Krishnapur, and Hatkars or Devang weavers abound in Chennapeth. In Vithalpeth live a few landholding Maráthás and a few Bráhmans and in Berband street a large number of Musalmáns as well as a few Maráthás Lingáyats and Sungars or lime-burners. The whole town looks more like a large village, with crooked narrow and dirty lanes, and bad roads, with half-fallen and otherwise ruinous small flat-roofed houses along their sides. Vithalpeth has a Roman Catholic chapel where services are occasionally held by a priest from Dhárwár.

Population.

In 1872 Hubli had a population of 37,961 of whom 26,554 were Hindus, 11,270 Musalmáns, and 137 Christians. The 1881 census showed a decrease of 1284 that is to 36,677 of whom 25,471 were Hindus, 10,902 Musalmáns, 298 Christians, and six Pársis. The opening of the Marmagoa-Belári railway with a large station at Hubli, is likely to increase the importance of Hubli as a trade centre and to add to its population. The following is a short summary of the present strength and condition of the different classes in Hubli:

Priests.

Priests of whom there are about 250 families, are found in all parts of the city. They are of two main classes, Hindus and Musal-

máns. Among Hindu priests are about eighty Bráhmans, eighty Lingáyats, and three goldsmiths. The number of Musalmán priests is about eighty. Of the Bráhman priests some are attached to families as family priests and officiate at all their religious ceremonies. Some are temple priests, others are holders of rent-free lands, and the rest are religious beggars. Four or five are well off and able to save, and occasionally lend money; Many send their boys to school to learn Kánarese, Maráthi, Sanskrit, and English, and several of them strive to get their sons into Government service. They live chiefly in New Hubli, in Mangalvárpeth, Valvekar and Beláriavari streets, and also in Old Hubli. Some Lingáyat priests hold rent-free lands and others live on alms. Of the Musalmán religious officers some are Kázis, Mullás, Khatibs, and mosque servants, who hold rent-free lands; the rest live on alms.

Lawyers or *Vakils* of whom there are eight families of Mádhva and Konkanasth Bráhmans live in different parts of New Hubli. Three of them are rich and save; the rest just maintain themselves. Their boys go to school and learn Maráthi, Kánarese, or English. A son of one of the *Vakils* has risen to be a subordinate judge.

Government servants numbering about 426 include all the paid servants, *kárkuns* or vernacular clerks, messengers, bailiffs, and other paid servants in the sub-judge's court, and in the revenue, police, and municipal offices. They live in all parts of the town and are Bráhmans of different sects, Maráthás, Lingáyats, and Musalmáns. Of the Bráhmans some hold high places in the revenue, judicial, police, and educational branches of the service. Others are clerks and a few are messengers and constables. Of Maráthás one is an assistant surgeon in the Hubli dispensary and the rest are messengers and constables. One Lingáyat is a municipal overseer: Other Lingáyats are *kárkuns* in public offices and schoolmasters. Of Musalmáns one is the *Názir* of the sub-judge's court another a head constable and the rest are messengers and constables. Of Government servants only those in high positions are able to save. All but a few messengers and constables send their boys to school.

Besides the assistant surgeon and his servants there are about eighty-five country practitioners. About twenty Musalmáns who live in the Musalmán quarter of the city prescribe for ordinary diseases, while one of them has a large practice and treats difficult cases. Fifteen Lingáyats treat ordinary cases of fever and live in all quarters of the town. Six Bráhmans, ten Maráthás, eight Chetris, and six Jains also give medicines in cases of ordinary sickness. The Hindu leeches are called *Vaidyas* and the Musalmán leeches *Hakims*. They are generally paid about 6d. (4 as.) a visit, besides the price of the medicine, and a present of two shillings to two pounds (Rs. 1-20) when the patient is cured. The assistant surgeon performs all difficult operations and when sickness grows serious most people who can afford it call him in.

Of men of means there are about 100. About twenty are landholders including *desáis*, *deshpándes*, *inámdárs*, and Government servants. Of the landholders some are Bráhmans and some Lingáyats

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and the rest are Musalmáns. Partly from the number of dependants and partly from the large sums they spend on marriages and other ceremonies men of this class are badly off and some of them are in debt. They send their boys to school. Among Government pensioners are three Bráhmans and one Musalmán. They are well-to-do and educate their children chiefly for Government service.

Moneylenders.

Of moneylenders the chief are Bráhmans, Lingáyats, and Márwáris. The Bráhman moneylenders number eighteen families of whom about fifteen are settled in New Hubli and three in Old Hubli. Some of them have capitals of £1000 to £10,000 (Rs. 10,000-Rs. 1,00,000), and three have between £1000 and £2000 (Rs. 10,000-Rs. 20,000). They lend money to traders husbandmen and brass workers chiefly for trade purposes and sometimes to meet marriage and other special expenses. If the borrowers are men of credit advances are made on personal security, otherwise land, houses, and ornaments are taken as security for loans. The yearly rates of interest are nine to twelve per cent when gold and silver ornaments are pledged, and twenty-four to thirty-six per cent on personal security. Except when gold and silver are pledged bonds are always taken. Most moneylenders keep day and ledger books. Though they often take their debtors into the civil court, they bear a good name for patience and fair dealing. There are about thirty Márwári moneylenders in New Hubli. They are most hard-working, sober, and thrifty, but very harsh and grasping. They are well off some of them with capitals of £5000 to £10,000 (Rs. 50,000-Rs. 1,00,000). Their boys go to school from seven to sixteen and learn Kánarese and English at school and Márwári at home. They make advances to traders and others like other moneylenders but more carefully. They never, if they can avoid it, take houses and fields in mortgage. As creditors they have a bad name for harsh and unscrupulous, if not dishonest, practices. Besides professional moneylenders some poor people of all castes lend small sums of money varying from Re. 1 to Rs. 20 at a monthly rate of $\frac{1}{12}$ - $\frac{1}{8}$ a. the rupee that is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ to six per cent a month. Moneylenders' clerks are almost all Bráhmans and Lingáyats. They write Maráthi and Kánarese and are paid 16s. to £5 (Rs. 8-50) a month.

Moneychangers.

Moneychangers or *sarás*, numbering about forty-two houses, are Bráhmans of different sects settled in New Hubli. They are patient, thrifty, and fairly off with capitals of £10 to £100 (Rs. 100-1000). Their boys go to school where many learn English. The moneychanger sits in his shop or by the roadside, buying and selling ornaments, and changing copper and silver coins. Those who sit by the roadside are called Chinvars. They give copper for silver and silver for copper and charge a fee of $\frac{1}{12}$ a. or half a farthing on every two shillings exchanged. Shells or *kávdís* are not in use. Besides the Bráhmans one or two Patvegars earn their living as moneychangers.

Grain Dealers.

Grain-dealers chiefly Lingáyats number about eighty-seven families and are found all over the town. About ten Bráhmans, three or four Musalmáns, and three or four Maráthás also deal in grain. Besides these, men of all castes sell grain on market days. The grain-

dealers are either wholesale or retail. The wholesale merchants, of whom there are about ten Lingáyats and ten Bráhmans, are rich, buying grain in large quantities chiefly rice, wheat, and millets, and selling it to retail sellers. Their boys go to school. The retail grain-dealers, who are chiefly Lingáyats, are found in New Hubli. They often carry on their trade with the help of borrowed capital. The wives of some Lingáyats sell in their shops, and only a few of their boys go to school. They buy partly from husbandmen in the market and partly from wholesale grain-dealers.

Vegetable-sellers, of whom about fifty-five houses are in the Bágwáns' or vegetable seller's street in Peth Majidpur; except two Lingáyats, are all Musalmáns. They are hardworking thrifty and sober. As a class they are poor, living from hand to mouth, in houses with a yearly rent of 12s. to 16s. (Rs. 6-8). Their wives work as saleswomen and none of their boys go to school. Some grow vegetables, others buy from gardeners. They sell to consumers and to the surrounding villagers who retail the vegetables in their villages. Headloads of fuel are brought in the morning by Penthári, Biádaru, Holern, and other women. Headloads of grass are brought in the evening by women belonging to the cultivating and gardening classes. The grass is their own property or bought from wholesale sellers. It is stacked in large heaps or *banaviks* (K.) outside of the town. These grass stacks are generally the property of large dealers who buy entire meadows or *kávlás* (K.). Biádarus and Holerus bring firewood six or eight miles and do not get more than 4½d. (3as.) the headload. A number of cultivating women bring headloads of cow and buffalo dung cakes and sell them at about twenty cakes for a ¼ *anna* or 1½ farthing. None of the retail grass and fuel dealers are well-to-do.

Sugar and spice dealers are of two classes wholesale and retail. The wholesale dealers number about twenty-five houses. They live both in the new and old towns and are Bráhmans, Lingáyats, Jains, Komtis, and Devangs. They are thrifty, sober, hardworking, and well-to-do with capitals of £10 to £5000 (Rs. 100-50,000). They bring spices and sugar from Bombay, Belári, Bangalor, and Kárwár and sell to retail dealers. Of retail sugar and spice dealers there are about seventy-five houses chiefly Lingáyats, Komtis, Jains, and Devangs. Some retail dealers are well off. Their capitals vary from £10 to £20 (Rs. 100-200). Their women sometimes sell in shops. They buy from wholesale dealers and sell to consumers.

Hubli has no separate salt-dealers. Dealers in grain, sugar, and spices also deal in salt. The salt comes from Vengurla and Kárwár in carts and on bullock back. The wives of some of the retail traders sell salt in the market to consumers and make about 3d. (2as.) a day.

About ninety Lingáyat families, in all parts of the town, are oil pressers and sellers. Each family has an oil press in its house, in which sweet oil is pressed from the seeds of the *yellu* and *gurellu* varieties of sesame, *pundi* or hemp seed, *agsi* or linseed, and *nelagudi* or groundnut. Wholesale oil sellers buy some of these oils, as well as large quantities brought from Bársi and Vairág in Sholápur and retail it. Their wives sell oil in their own houses or in the market. Kerosine

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Salt Sellers.

Oil Sellers.

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oil has of late greatly interfered with the sale of country oil. Almost every shopkeeper in the city and every other person who has a few rupees to spare, imports and retails kerosine oil. Even some professional oil-pressers buy kerosine to maintain their trade. The competition of kerosine has forced some oilmen to give up their hereditary calling and take to new pursuits and a few have been ruined.

Butter Sellers.

Butter-sellers, Gavlis by caste, have about twenty-seven houses and live both in Old and New Hubli. Their women sell butter, curds, and milk. As the local butter supply is not enough for the wants of the town, on market day large quantities are brought in by Hindu women from the surrounding villages in small earthen jars or *chatgis*. As the Gavlis mix the buttermilk with water, Bráhmans, Lingáyats, Jains, Komtis, and Rajputs do not buy from them. Grain and spice dealers also buy a good deal of butter on market days, clarify it, and keep it in large round earthen jars or *kodás* and retail it.

Milk Sellers.

Hubli has no separate class of milk-sellers. The milk is sold by Gavlis as well as by several women of the labouring and cultivating classes who keep one or more buffaloes.

Liquor Sellers.

The liquor contract of the sub-division has been farmed for £3400 (Rs. 34,000) for the year 1883-84. The farmers make country liquor in their distillery in the west of the new town and sell it in four retail shops at about 1s. 3d. (10 as.) a bottle. The right of tapping palms for toddy in the Hubli sub-division has been farmed for £1050 (Rs. 10,500) for the year 1883-84. Except Bráhmans Lingáyats Komtis and Jains all classes openly drink country liquor and palm-juice. The chief consumers are Musalmáns Holerus Biádarus and other low caste Hindus. European liquor is not imported in any large quantity. Musalmáns and other consumers, when they want it, get small quantities from Dhárwár.

Cloth Sellers.

Sellers of cotton, wool, and silk cloth, Bráhmans, Lingáyats, Musalmáns, Shimpis, Patvegars, and Sális by caste, number about 660 houses. They live in all parts of the town. Many of them are wholesale traders with capitals of £500 to £5000 (Rs. 5000 - 50,000). The rest have little capital and carry on their business on borrowed funds. Their women do nothing but house work and most of their boys learn to read and write. They sell both handloom and steam-made cloths and besides importing from Bombay, Belári, Bangalor, Gadag, and Belgaum, employ handloom weavers of Hubli and the surrounding villages. They sell the cloth to retail dealers and consumers. The retail sellers are about fifty tailors and about fifty Lingáyats. The woollen cloth is chiefly flannel and broadcloth brought from Bombay and used by Government servants lawyers and other rich people. White blankets or *dháblis* are much in use. Silk waistcloths bodices and handkerchiefs are brought from Bombay and Poona and sold to almost all the rich and middle classes; who buy them for weddings and on other festive occasions. Besides by regular dealers, cotton cloth and silk are sold by tailors. Sális and Patvegars also sell the produce of their looms in the market on Saturdays. Rough blankets or *kambals* are brought from the neighbouring villages and sold by shepherd weavers.

Ornament-sellers, of whom there are about twenty-three houses both in the old and new towns, include fifteen *sarāfs* or money-changers and eight goldsmiths. Glass bangles are sold by Baligarus some of whom are Musalmáns and bring bangles from Bombay and also make and sell lac bracelets.

Animal-sellers number about sixty-eight houses. About fifteen of them are Lingáyats, five Maráthás, twenty-five Musalmáns, fifteen Jains, and eight Biádarus. As a class they are poor. They bring cows, bullocks, buffaloes, ponies, sheep, and goats from the surrounding villages and from Navalgund and Ránebennur and offer them for sale on market days. The bullocks and buffaloes cost £2 to £8 (Rs. 20 - 80), the cows £2 to £4 (Rs. 20 - 40), and the sheep 2s. to 8s. (Rs. 1 - 4). Some Maisur dealers bring valuable bullocks and cows worth £9 to £28 (Rs. 90 - 280) a head.

Almost all sellers of native house gear, earthen pots, wooden boxes, bedsteads, stools, carpets, and mats, are makers as well as sellers. They live both in the old and in the new town. Musalmáns, a few Maráthás, Lingáyats, and Páncsháls make brass and copper vessels, which are largely used at Hubli and the rest are sent to Poona, Sholápur, Belári, Maisur, and Kánara by Jain Bogars. Couches, chairs, and other articles of European furniture are not made at Hubli.

Besides sugar, sugarcandy, almonds, raisins, and furniture, the Bombay Musalmán shopkeepers of Hubli sell drugs, hardware, paper, and almost all European articles except liquor.

Of seventy-five brokers, thirty are Lingáyats, fifteen Bráhmans, fifteen Musalmáns, ten Maráthás, and five Jains. They are employed in all kinds of transactions between sellers and buyers.

Husbandmen, Lingáyats, Maráthás, gardeners, Kurubars, Holerus, and Musalmáns, with about 400 houses, are found in all parts of the city. They are hardworking and sober. Except in ploughing and working the water-bag, the women help in almost every field process. Boys over eight are too useful in minding cattle and watching fields to be spared to attend school. They have generally two or four pairs of bullocks. Some employ Maráthás Lingáyats and Mhárs as farm servants. Four or five have rich watered land well tilled and yielding valuable crops and several are in debt. The chief fruit and vegetable growers are Lingáyats and gardeners.

About twenty-two families of Jains, Maráthás, and Komtis roast Cicer arietinum or *kadli* pulse, and separate the inner split parts called *puthani*, from the bran. They sell the roasted gram to consumers and export large quantities to Dhárwár, Belári, Kánara, and Ránebennur. The bran is sold as cattle food. A measured *sher* of *kadli* weighs about three and a half pounds and costs 3d. (2 as.). When roasted and prepared it yields about two and a half pounds of *puthani* which is sold for about 4½d. (3 as.), leaving a profit of 1½d. (1 a.) in working one *sher* or three and a half pounds of *kadli*. Rice is also roasted and made into three kinds of eatables *avalakki*, *churmuri*, and *aralu*. None of these varieties is made at Hubli.

Chapter XIV.

Places.

HUBLI.

Population.

Animal Sellers.

Furniture Sellers.

Stationers.

Brokers.

Husbandmen.

Grain Roasters.

Chapter XIV.

Places.

HUBLI.

Population.

Ready-made *avalakki* is imported from Misrikot village about nine miles to the south-west, and *churmuri* is largely imported from Nandgad in Belgaam and Haliyál in North Kánara.

Butchers number about eighty families, fifty of them Hindu Ládés and thirty Musalmáns. Of the Musalmáns some are mutton and the rest beef butchers. About ten Lád and thirty Musalmán butchers live in Old Hubli and about forty Ládés live in different parts of New Hubli. The municipal slaughter-house is near Gulkava's pond to the north of New Hubli where the New Hubli Ládés slaughter their sheep. If they can avoid it, Hindus do not sell cattle to butchers.

Fishermen.

Fishermen number about twenty-two families ten of whom are Musalmáns and the rest Bhois. They are fond of liquor and are poor, making about 6*d.* (4 *as.*) a day. Their women help in selling the fish. When wanted the men also carry palanquins and several of the women sell dried fish brought from the neighbouring Portuguese territory.

Poulticers.

Hens and eggs are sold by Musalmáns, Maráthás, Koravarus, and Vaddars, both in the market and at their houses.

Stone-cutters.

Stone-cutters, or Kallukatakarus, number about fifty families of Páncsháls, Maráthás, Musalmáns, and Kurubarus. They earn 1*s.* to 2*s.* (Re. $\frac{1}{2}$ -1) a day. They carve stone pillars and stone idols, and make *ashikallu* and *gundakallu* or chilly and spice pounding and grinding stones. Their women gather and sell dry cowdung and carry bricks and tiles. The men also quarry stones and bring and sell them in the town.

Brick Makers.

Brick-makers number ten of whom five are Lingáyats and five Musalmáns. Some live in the old and others in the new town. They make burnt bricks and red tiles, both within and outside of the town. Good bricks are sold at about 14*s.* (Rs. 7) a thousand and small tiles sell at 5*s.* to 7*s.* (Rs. $2\frac{1}{2}$ - $3\frac{1}{2}$) the thousand. With the help of their wives, they gather rubbish for kilns and bring it either on their own heads or in carts. They make no earthenware. Sun-dried bricks are made by the labouring classes and sold at 6*s.* to 8*s.* (Rs. 3 - 4) the thousand.

Carpenters.

Carpenters numbering eighty-one houses are found in all parts of Hubli, but chiefly in the carpenter's street in the new town. About sixty of them are Páncsháls, ten Musalmáns, ten Maráthás, and one is a Lingáyat. They have no capital. Their wages vary from 6*d.* to 2*s.* (Re. $\frac{1}{4}$ -1) a day. The demand for their work is always great as the town is growing and several new houses are always being built. Except by minding the house and spinning a little yarn, the wives do not help their husbands.

Painters.

Painters, that is Chitragars or Jingars, number about fifty houses all in New Hubli. They adorn house fronts with well drawn and well coloured figures and also draw figures on paper. They paint wooden cradles and Hindu gods. They make earthen figures of Ganpati and paint and sell them. They also make children's caps

and ornamental cars of paper and tinsel. The women draw flowers and figures some of them with great taste on women's robes and bodices with a strong paint which does not fade when washed. This process of painting is called *chándrahákon*.

Wool is not woven in Hubli. The blankets which are sold in the market come from the neighbouring villages. Cotton and silk weavers number 1425 families of whom 500 families are Patvegars, 300 Devangs, 250 Musalmáns, 200 Sális, 150 Lingáyats, and twenty-five Native Christians. Many of them live in their own houses and others in lodgings paying a yearly rent of £1 to £6 (Rs. 10-60). Most of them have capitals of £10 to £2000 (Rs. 100-Rs. 20,000). The rest carry on their work by borrowed money and earn 6*d.* to 2*s.* (Re. $\frac{1}{4}$ -1) a day. The women, who arrange the threads and do almost every part of the process including weaving, earn 6*d.* to 1*s.* (4-8 *as.*) a day. Children are early useful and are seldom spared to go to school. The weaving classes suffered much during the 1876-78 famine, but are again (1884) well employed. Momins or Musalmán weavers live in large numbers in Old Hubli. The women help and the boys are too useful to be spared to go to school.

Tailors or Shimpigerus number about ninety houses. Most of them live in the middle of the new town and a few in the old town. They make and sell clothes and are mostly poor. Tailors have steady employment, but have a bad name for stealing part of the cloth given them to sew. Men earn 6*d.* to 2*s.* (Re. $\frac{1}{4}$ -1) and women 3*d.* to 6*d.* (2-4 *as.*) a day and their boys go to school.

Leather-workers, numbering about 150 houses, belong to four classes, Holerus, Madigerus, Dhorarus, and Mochigararus all of whom live in the outskirts of the town. The Holerus remove carcasses of cattle from the town and sell the skins to Dhors, who tan and colour them. The Madigerus buy uncoloured skins and make leather ropes and water bags. The Mochigararus make shoes and sandals. All four classes are dirty, quarrelsome, and fond of amusement. They are free from debt and live in small houses. One Dhor has a capital of about £500 (Rs. 5000) and lives in a house worth a yearly rent of £2 (Rs. 20). He is able to read and write, and, owing to his knowledge of astrology and power of scaring evil spirits, his services are in great demand and are well paid. All four classes have steady employment. The men earn 6*d.* (4 *as.*) and the women 3*d.* (2 *as.*) a day. Boys help after they are ten years old and some of them go to school. The Madigerus and Mochigararus sell part of their wares in the market and the rest in their houses.

Ornament-makers are chiefly goldsmiths of whom about 130 families are settled in Hubli. They are fairly sober and hardworking but have a bad name for cheating and for delaying work. When at work they earn about 2*s.* (Re. 1) a day, but their work is not constant. They make gold and silver ornaments to order and a few make brass and copper images. Goldsmiths are paid for gold work from 1*d.* to 1*s.* (1-8 *as.*) and sometimes as high as 2*s.* (Re. 1) the *tola* or rupee weight of gold and for silver work $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* to 6*d.* ($\frac{1}{2}$ -4 *as.*) the *tola*.

Chapter XIV.

Places.

HUBLI.

Population.

Weavers.

Tailors.

Leather
Workers.Ornament
Makers.

Chapter XIV.**Places.****HUBLI.***Population.*

Yarakadavarus, or casters, numbering about sixty houses, live in the west and north of the new town and all over the old town. Besides bellmetal brass and copper images they make bellmetal toerings which are worn by all classes of women except Bráhmans. They are fairly off and have shops. The women mind the house and sometimes help the men in their work.

Brass and Copper Workers.

Brass and copper work is a most prosperous industry in Hubli. It supports about 350 houses. The workers are of four classes Páncsháls, Musalmáns, Maráthás, and Kurubars. The Páncsháls or Kanchagárs numbering about fifty houses live in the north west and south of the new town and in several parts of the old town. The Musalmáns number about 200 houses and live in both New and Old Hubli. The Maráthás number seventy-five and the Kurubars twenty-five houses. Both classes are intelligent skilful sober and hardworking. They never work on festive or mourning days. They live in their own houses worth a yearly rent of £1 to £10 (Rs. 10-100) and are free from debt. Some of them have capital and buy brass and copper. Others work for hire. They get much work and earn 4½d. to £1 (3 as. - Rs. 10) a day. Besides brass vessels, bowls, and cups they make beautifully turned and polished images and ornaments. Visitors to Hubli take with them some brass ornaments or vessels, and Hubli brass work is in demand as far as Sholápur, Belári, Kadapa, Bangalor, Maisur, Shimoga, Udpi, Honávar, Kumta, and even Goa. The Páncsháls are a hardworking clever and prosperous class and do not drink liquor. They are cleverer and steadier workers than the Musalmáns and are well-to-do. They live in hired houses at yearly rents of £1 to £10 (Rs. 10 - 100). They make small and beautifully polished articles of brass or bellmetal which is made by mixing a little zinc and copper with brass.

Iron Workers.

Iron-workers numbering about fifty houses are of five classes Kambars or Páncsháls, Maráthás, Lingáyats, Musalmán Nálbands, and Vellals or Madras blacksmiths. Kambars with about thirty houses are dirty, hardworking, and fairly thrifty. The Nálbands shoe horses and bullocks. Most of them are in debt. The women help by blowing the bellows and sometimes by working in the fields on their own account or for hire. Their daily earnings are not more than 6d. to 2s. (Re. ¼ - 1). They make hooks, nails, and iron bands, links for swinging cots and cradles, iron baskets, buckets, and large sugarcane pans, field tools, stone chisels, carpenter's tools, razors, country knives, scissors, and padlocks. The competition of cheap English hardware has greatly reduced the demand for their work and presses heavily on them. Twenty persons trade but do not work in iron.

Basket Makers.

Basket-makers, Myadars by caste, numbering about forty families are all settled in Kaulpeth and Yellápur streets in the new town. They are well employed but are fond of liquor and amusement quarrelsome and unthrifty. They buy bamboos brought from Yellápur in North Kánara and make baskets, matting, and wicker work. The women do nearly as much work as the men. Between them a husband and a wife earn about 7½d. (5 as.) a day.

Barbers or Navaligerus, with about sixty-five houses, are of four classes Maráthás, Musalmáns, Lingáyats, and Telingas. The Maráthás with twenty-five houses live round the new fort. About eight Musalmáns live in the Musalmán quarters in the west of the new town. Lingáyats with twenty houses are scattered all over Old and New Hubli. Telingas from Belári have twelve houses four of them in the new and eight in the old town. As a class barbers are hardworking, sober, and thrifty. Besides shaving for which they charge $\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $3d.$ ($\frac{1}{2}$ - 2 *as.*), four of the Marátha barbers act as torch-bearers.

Washermen or Agasarus number eighty houses sixty of them Maráthás fourteen Musalmáns and six Lingáyats. They are hardworking, sober, thrifty, and free from debt. They wash all clothes and have constant work. With their wives' help they earn about $6d.$ (4 *as.*) a day.

Bedar labourers with 133 families are settled in all parts, of New Hubli. They live in small tiled or thatched houses. Both men and women act as labourers. During the tamarind season they gather the ripe fruit and separate the pulp from the berries. The pulp they sell to shopkeepers and consumers, and the berries to blanket makers. When they are in season they bring and sell mangoes and guavas. At other times they bring firewood, and banian and *muttala* or *Butea frondosa* leaves from the forests and sell them to townspeople, the banian leaves as fuel, and the *muttala* leaves for dining plates and cups. Every January the Bedars go out for a hunt. Both men and women are quarrelsome and fond of liquor. They have given up robbing and open violence but still steal and are under the eye of the police.

Labourers chiefly Lingáyats, Maráthás, Rajputs, Kurubars, Musalmáns, Bedars, and Mhárs with 350 families live in all parts of the town. When other work fails the destitute of almost all classes take to labour.

Field-workers, generally Lingáyat, Marátha, and Musalmán women, earn $3d.$ (2 *as.*) a day for weeding, and in harvest time are paid five or six sheaves out of every hundred. By grinding grain and pounding rice poor women of almost all classes make $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $3d.$ ($1\frac{1}{2}$ - 2 *as.*) a day.

Carriers of bundles, chiefly Jains, Kurubars, Lingáyats, Maráthás, and Musalmáns, are paid $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ (1 *a.*) for a trip to any part of the town and $3d.$ (2 *as.*) a mile outside of the town within municipal limits. A superior class of carriers known as Mattigars or load carriers, store grain, load and unload carts, and get $6d.$ (4 *as.*) a day for their labour. There is a considerable demand for labour in the Southern Marátha Spinning and Weaving Mill, on the earth-work of the Goa railway, and on the public roads. The labourers are chiefly Holerus, Bedars, Musalmáns, Maráthás, and Lingáyats. Men earn $6d.$ (4 *as.*) a day, women $3d.$ (2 *as.*), and children $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ (1 $\frac{1}{2}$ *as.*). House building causes a considerable demand for unskilled labour in making cement and helping the bricklayers and masons.

Chapter XIV.

Places.

HUBLI.

Population.

Washermen.

Bedars.

Labourers.

Field Workers.

Carriers.

Chapter XIV.**Places.****HUBLI.***Population.*

The ordinary day's wages are 6*d.* (4 *as.*) for a man and 3*d.* (2 *as.*) for a woman. Every year before the rains set in, the spreading of pond silt on flat-roofed houses and tile-turning employ a large number of Lingáyat Marátha Kurubar and Jain labourers.

Hubli has no resident animal-trainers but several Muhammadans occasionally visit the town with trained serpents fighting with murgoooses. Maráthás bring performing or misshapen bullocks and go about showing them in the town and get a pice or two ($\frac{2}{3}$ *d.* to $\frac{3}{4}$ *d.*) from each house.

Athletes.

There are two Musalmán resident athletes. On fairs and other festive occasions young men of the Marátha Lingáyat Musalmán Bedar and Kurubar castes, perform athletic exercises and wrestle with each other in public.

Religious Beggars.

Besides the large class of old destitute and idle of almost all castes, Hubli has two leading schools of ascetics, Sanyásis and Gosávis. About ten Lingáyat Sanyásis live in monasteries and go to Lingáyat houses for meals not more than twice a day. They wear red ochre-coloured clothes which are supplied to them by Lingáyats and consist of a blanket, two waist and two shoulder-cloths and two loincloths and a covering cloth to be used at night. They never cook and spend their time in bathing, praying, and expounding religious books. One of these Sanyásis is the head priest of the Mursavirad Math the chief Lingáyat monastery at Hubli. Only two Gosávi beggar families are settled at Hubli. They eat together but do not intermarry.

Potters.

Of fifty-five earthenware-makers about twenty-five are Maráthás and thirty Lingáyats. They live in all parts of the old and new towns. They bring earth on asses from the large pond to the west of Old Hubli, and from it make all varieties of water, cooking, and eating vessels. They make tiles at about 14*s.* (Rs. 7) the thousand.

Cart Hivers.

About eighty-four families of Jains, Komtis, Lingáyats, Maráthás, Musalmáns, and Rajputs live upon letting their carts at 2*s.* to 4*s.* (Rs. 1-2) a day. For longer distances the payments are arranged by contract.

Comb Makers.

Hubli has sixty-one families of weaving comb makers,¹ of whom forty-one are Sális living in New Hubli, and twenty are Musalmáns living in Old Hubli.

Betel Leaf Sellers.

Betel-leaf sellers numbering about seventy-six families, of whom except two Lingáyats all are Musalmáns, are settled both in the old and in the new town. They buy betel leaves wholesale from Ránebennur, Háveri, Shiggaon, Sávanur, and Soratur, export a part to Nargund, Navalgund, Gadag, Dhárwár, and Belgaum, and retail the rest in Hubli. Their women help in turning and keeping the leaves clean, and selling them in their shops. Their net earnings are about £1 (Rs. 10) a month.

¹ Details of comb-making are given above under Industries.

About fifty Lingáyat, twenty-five Musalmán, ten Bráhma, ten Jain, and ten Marátha cooks live in Hubli. A few of them are employed on monthly wages, varying from 10s. to £1 4s. (Rs. 5-12). Others work on contract when large caste parties are given. The contract is made according to the class of dinner and the number of guests. A few cooks have families, but most are bachelors.

About sixty Pendháris, all of them Musalmáns, let ponies on hire, and live in the northern and southern quarters of the new town. Some of them let ponies for hire at 1s. (8 as.) a day. For great distances they charge 6d. (4 as.) a kos of three miles. Such Pendháris as have no ponies bring headloads of firewood and grass and sell them.

The Hubli municipality grants yearly licenses to four Lingáyat makers and sellers of snuff after levying on every license a duty of £1 10s. (Rs. 15).

Four Musalmán Bhisti families carry water in large leather bags, on bullocks, and in smaller bags on their own hips. Their monthly wages are about £1 4s. (Rs. 12).

Twenty Musalmán and fifteen Lád perfumers prepare and sell native perfumes and flowers. Their net yearly gains are about £5 (Rs. 50).

Thirty-two families trade in timber twenty-three of them Musalmáns, six Biádarus, and one each a Marátha, a Shimpi, and a Páncál. They live both in the old and in the new town. They bring timber from the Government wood stores at Haliyál and Yellápur in North Kánara and retail it at Hubli. Much timber is also sent east to Madras and the Nizám's country. Their yearly profits vary from £10 to £50 (Rs. 100 - 500).

About twenty families of Manigararus sell beads, small looking-glasses, threads, needles, small tin boxes, and wooden combs. About half of them are Telingas and the rest Musalmáns. Their women besides minding the house sell in their shops. They are well-to-do and save on an average about £5 (Rs. 50) a year.

Kalaigars or tanners number nineteen families, fourteen of them Musalmáns and five Rajputs. All live in New Hubli. The yearly profits of each family are about £10 (Rs. 100).

Ten Kurubars or shepherds bind blankets with silk or woollen thread. They are paid 1s. to 2s. (Re. ½ - 1) for each blanket. Their yearly profits are about £10 (Rs. 100). Their women help them in their work.

Six Lingáyat families make and sell the white religious ashes called *vibhuti*. Their women help and their boys do not go to school. They are very poor.

Cotton dealers number about fifty families of whom fifteen are Lingáyats, fifteen Gujarátis, ten Bráhmans, five Jains, and five Musalmáns. Besides the cotton-dealers grain and other merchants who have a little spare money also trade in cotton.

Chapter XIV.

Places.

HUBLI.

Population.

Pony Hirers.

Snuff Sellers.

Bhistis.

Perfumers.

Timber Sellers.

Bead Sellers.

Tanners.

Blanket-binders.

White
Ash-Makers.

Cotton Traders.

- Chapter XIV.** Cotton-cleaners number thirty-six families all of whom are Musalmáns. They tease and clean cotton at a little less than a penny the pound (10 *as.* the *man* of twenty pounds). The women help by working the cotton into rolls about a foot long and half an inch thick, which the women of the cultivator class spin into thread.
- Places.**
- HUBLI**
- Population.*
- Indigo Dyers.* Indigo dyers number fifty-two families twenty of them Maráthás, fifteen Musalmáns, eight Patvegars, and nine Devangs. They dye yarn and cloth with indigo and their women help.
- Cocoanut Sellers.* About twelve Lingáyat families import cocoanuts from Nandgad in Belgaum and Háveri and Ráncbennur in Dhárwár, and sell them in Hubli at 1*d.* to 1½*d.* (¾ - 1*a.*) each. The women help in selling the nuts.
- Bangle Sellers.* Bangle-sellers number about twenty-six families in New Hubli, thirteen Jain and thirteen Musalmán. They sell and fit on coloured glass bangles. The price of bangles varies according to quality and size from ¼*d.* to 1*d.* (½ - ¾ *as.*) a bangle. The women help the men in selling the bangles.
- Marriage Crown Makers.* Bhásing, literally brow-horn that is marriage-crown, makers number seven families of whom five are Musalmáns and two Lingáyats. Lingáyat marriage crowns are very large and ornamental. They are of a light spongy plant called *hulibendu* which grows in water, and of coloured paper and tinsel. The price varies from 2*s.* to £1 (Rs. 1-10). They are poor and unable to save.
- Dancing Girls.* Dancing and Singing Women number twenty-seven families of whom fifteen are Musalmáns and twelve Hindus. All of them dress like Hindus, bear Hindu names, and live in New Hubli. They sing Kánarése Maráthi and Hindustani songs and dance in both the Karnátek and the Hindustáni style. They are thrifty and well-to-do with property worth £50 to £500 (Rs. 500 - 5000) living in houses worth a yearly rent of £1 to £3 (Rs. 10-30) and saving. Their boys and girls go to school from seven to twelve, and learn to read and write. At home the girls learn to sing and dance. The women practise prostitution. Prostitutes who cannot sing or dance number eighty families of Holerus, Kurubars, Lingáyats, Maráthás, and Rajputs. They do not save, and are not respected like the dancing and singing girls. Their children go to school.
- Farriers.* Farriers or Nálbands number sixty-three families fifty-three of them Musalmáns, five Chitragars, and five Páncháls.
- Armourers.* Armourers or Sikligars number twenty-three families all of whom are Musalmáns. They clean swords, sharpen knives, and grind razors. The charge for cleaning a sword is about 1*s.* (8 *as.*), and for sharpening a knife or a razor is ¼*d.* to ½*d.* (½ - ¾ *as.*). Their women do not help.
- House Servants.* House Servants number about 420 families. They are grooms, carriage drivers, cowdung plasterers, cooks, and washermen. Their monthly wages vary from 8*s.* to 16*s.* (Rs. 4-8). About 20% of them are Musalmáns, 100 Lingáyats, fifty Jains, fifty Maráthás and 120 Bráhmans.

Rope Makers number nine all of them Musalmán families, four of whom live in the old and five in the new town. They make hemp ropes six to eighty feet long and of varying thickness. A rope about three-quarters of an inch thick and eighty feet long costs about 3s. (Rs. 1½). They are poor and unable to save.

Midwives number sixteen of whom about eight are Maráthás and eight Musalmáns. They are wives of labourers and husbandmen and charge 4s. to 10s. (Rs. 2-5) for each lying-in. They also get the robe worn by the women whom they attend.

Silk Dyers number about 100 families all of the Patvegár caste. Raw silk is brought from Bombay by silk traders and sold to silk dyers who give it to Muhammadan women to wind round rollers. The silk is then doubled and twisted on a twisting wheel. The dyers soak the silk in a solution of lime-water and some other ingredient and make it white. They also dye silk in red and yellow and sell the dyed silk to weavers who make it into silk and silk and cotton cloths.

Bamboo Sellers number twenty-two families. They bring bamboos wholesale from the Yellápur forests in North Kánara and retail them in Dhárwár at a yearly profit of about £10 (Rs. 100).

Tin Workers number four families all of whom are Rajputs. They make lanterns and small tin boxes. Glass and tin lanterns are sold at 6d. to 4s. (Re. ¼-2). Their net yearly profits are about £10 (Rs. 100).

Tassel Makers or Patvegárs number ten families all of whom are Musalmáns. They string gold ornaments on silk. They are hard-working but given to drink.

Licensed tobacco sellers number twelve of whom eight are Lingáyats, two Musalmáns, and two Jains. Their women do not help in selling the tobacco, and their boys go to school.

Redpowder Makers number fifteen families of Belári Shudras, who have established themselves, at Hubli during the last thirty years. They make the redpowder with which unwidowed women mark their brows.¹ Besides the redpowder made by these families, a large quantity of inferior redpowder is brought from Bombay and Poona by spice merchants.

Fruit Sellers number about thirty families, Musalmáns, Maráthás, and Byádarus. They sell guavas, mangoes, lemons, and raw ginger, both in the market and at their houses. They are poor, but free from debt.

Hubli is the chief Dhárwár station of the Basel German Mission.² It was established in 1839, has two outstations at Unkal

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*Midwives.**Silk Dyers.**Bamboo Sellers.**Tin Workers.**Tassel Makers.**Tobacco.**Redpowder Makers.**Fruit Sellers.**Christians.*

¹ See above under Industries.

² The other stations are Dhárwár begun in 1837, with an out-station at Jodehalli and two missionaries and one mission lady; Gadag-Betgeri begun in 1841 with out-stations at Shagoti and Malsamudra and two missionaries and two mission ladies; Guledgud in South Bijápur begun in 1851 with ten out-stations and two missionaries and one mission lady. The mission have eight churches where service is held in Kánarese. Of 1351 Native Christians under the mission 747 are adults and 604 are children. Of the whole number six were converted by the London missionaries

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Christians.

on the Dhárwár-Hubli road and at Hebsur on the Dhárwár-Gadag road and has two missionaries and one mission lady. The Hubli settlement numbers 317 Christians, 178 adults and 139 children, all of whom live in separate houses close to the mission houses and maintain themselves by labour. A large number weave and some are employed in the Southern Marátha Spinning and Weaving factory. Some cultivate while some are goldsmiths, coppersmiths, carpenters, and labourers. At Hubli the mission has one boys' school with sixty-three boys and one girls' school with thirteen boys and twelve girls. The mission buildings at Hubli include two mission houses, two churches, two catechists' houses, and five school houses.

Pársis.

Three Pársis are settled in Hubli two with and one without their families. All are well-to-do. One is the agent and another an assistant in a cotton press, and the third is a carding master in the Southern Marátha Spinning and Weaving mill.

Houses.

The 1881 census returns showed 7468 houses 5563 in New Hubli and 1905 in Old Hubli. Of the 5563 New Hubli houses 2833 were of the better and 2730 of the poorer sort; and of the 1905 in Old Hubli 970 were good and 935 inferior. Of the 7468 houses about 5000 were flat roofed and 2468 tiled. Thirty-seven were shrines or rest-houses and small Hindu temples, twenty-seven were Lingáyat monasteries, and seventeen were mosques. Of the 2833 better class houses of New Hubli about ten are large and substantial buildings belonging to rich merchants and traders in copper and brass vessels. Of the 970 better class houses in Old Hubli three or four are large and substantial buildings belonging to merchants. One of them much out of repair belongs to the Desái of Old Hubli. Of the total number of better class houses there are about two three-storeyed houses in New Hubli and one three-storeyed house in Old Hubli; and about forty-five two-storeyed houses in New Hubli and about ten two-storeyed houses in Old Hubli. Besides these houses Hubli has thirteen bungalows outside of the town, seven of which are public or charitable buildings and six are private property. The houses are short and clumsy with stone foundations and brick or mud walls. They are of two kinds, the old style of mud-roofed house and the new style of tile-roofed house. The old style of house has little provision for air or light and looks like a building with a roof and walls standing on wooden posts. Houses of this kind are built in continuous rows the wall of one usually three to four feet thick often serving its neighbour on either side. The poor man's house usually includes a small *katta* or raised seat in front of the house, and inside, a small hall with one or sometimes two rooms on either side of it. Further in, is a cooking and dining room, with a place built of stone and lime for bathing, sometimes in the room and sometimes detached. Beyond at the back of the house is a

and 1345 by the German mission. A large number of converts were Lingáyats, and some were shepherds, coppersmiths, and goldsmiths. Under the mission are fourteen schools where upwards of 500 boys and girls are being taught. Of the schools seven are for boys, two for girls, and five for boys and girls.

yard with a well and a privy. The *katta* or front seat is generally used for an evening lounge, and for sleeping in the hot season. The inner hall is used for receiving friends, sleeping, storing grain, cotton, cotton seeds, molasses, and salt, and occasionally for dining. A rich man's house begins with a *katta* or raised seat outside of the front wall, which usually has a small door. The door leads to an open square with buildings on all sides. The central block of buildings, which is the chief part of the house, has the same arrangements as a poor man's house, except that there is a veranda, the divisions are more roomy, and the cook room is sometimes detached. The side blocks of the square are small buildings generally used by servants or as store rooms for articles of merchandise. The veranda of the central block is used for receiving men visitors, and the parlour inside the veranda for women visitors. The square in front is open at the top and admits light and air. Between these two specimens of rich and poor houses are numerous gradations.¹ The fronts of all Hindu houses in Hubli are whitewashed, and three or four inch broad red stripes are drawn from top to bottom at equal distances. Every morning the threshold is washed with red coloured water and a space five or six feet square in front of it is cowdunged and on this space several ornamental mathematical figures are drawn by sprinkling on the ground powdered quartz called *rāngoli*. A little turmeric and the red powder or *kunku*, worn on their brows by unwidowed women, are also sprinkled on the spot and sometimes some green and blue powders are strewn between the lines of the figures.² The front walls of all Musalmán houses are first coloured red, and then white spots are made on them at irregular intervals with lime and water. Except two or three small and badly-kept mosques in the old town there is no trace that Musalmáns held the town for about eighty years.

Both the old and the new towns are most irregularly built. Except in a few places, where they have been widened by the municipality, the streets in the two towns are narrow crooked and winding. There is not a single long and straight street in either town. Within municipal limits is an estimated length of about twenty-eight miles of thoroughfare, of which about six miles are metalled and much of the rest is roughly made. Besides the north and south Dhárwár and Harihar road which skirts it on the west, and the Kárwár and Gadag road which skirts it on the north, New Hubli has three chief north and south roads. From the point where the north and south Dhárwár and Harihar main road turns west near the municipal toll station, a north and south line called the Dhárwár road runs into

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Houses.

Roads.

¹ In most Hubli houses the roofs do not rest on the walls, but on posts built in the walls. Every veranda room and hall in a house is divided by partitions into rooms called *khans* or *ankana*. In the wall of each room about 3½ feet from the ground is a niche about a foot wide, eighteen inches high and six inches deep, in which articles are kept. A little above the niche on each side is a wooden peg, on which turbans jackets men's or women's robes and other clothes are hung.

² Further details of the use of quartz-powder or *rāngoli* are given in Appendix D.

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Roads.

the town and after passing Gurushiddappa's reservoir, under the name of Kanchagar street, winds to Bhuspeth street, and then runs straight to the south end of the town, where it joins the Dhárwár-Harihar line to Bankápur and Harihar. From the point where the Kárwár and Gadag road passes to the police station near the travellers' bungalow, a road enters the town under the name of Dájiba's street, and runs as far as the basket makers' houses, where, under the name of the basket makers' street, it turns to the east and runs as far as the police station near the north-west angle of the fort. From the police station under the name of Biádar street, the road runs south, until it meets the great east and west road, which runs from the Bhandivád entrance of the town on the east to the Bomápur entrance of the town on the west. From this point the road turns a little to the west, skirts the north of the Robertson market through the cloth seller's street under the name of Kubasadavar street, until it crosses the great Pagadi street. After that, under the names of the tailors', cotton cleaners', and shoemakers' streets, it reaches Yellápur Máruti's temple. From the temple it turns west and joins the Dhárwár and Harihar road to Bankápur. Another road called Ganesh Peth street runs from the Kárwár and Gadag road, south till it meets the Bhandivád entrance street. The great east and west street leaves the Bhandivád entrance of the town on the east, and crossing all the north and south streets, and turning sometimes north and sometimes south, reaches the Bomápur entrance of the town on the west and goes on to Old Hubli. Besides these main roads, the town has hundreds of small narrow and winding lanes.

Trade.

Hubli is one of the chief trade centres in the Bombay Karnátak. Till 1838, when Belgaum was made the head-quarters of a district, Hubli held the first place and this, with the opening of the Marmagoa-Belári railway, it will probably regain. Of late years the enlarging of Tirkárám's reservoir, the building of the Robertson markets, the German mission buildings, the Southern Marátha Spinning and Weaving mill, cotton gin and pressing factories, a dispensary, a post office, a court house, and several large substantial private houses have done much to improve the town. The only classes who have suffered severely by recent changes of trade at Hubli are dealers in money and money-changers. Twenty-five years ago many gold and silver coins were current and their values changed from day to day to the great profit of the money dealers. The richer money dealers were the only persons who were able to grant and cash bills of exchange. With the introduction of the Government money order system, Government paper currency notes, and the telegraph, the business of the money dealers is gone. They used to correspond by post with Bombay, Poona, Haidarabad, Madras, Benares, Nágpur, and Calcutta to ascertain the rates of discount and made thirty to forty per cent profit on their capital. Now the Government rupee is the only legal tender and the old coins are extremely rare. People remit money either by money orders or Government currency notes and nine-tenths of the money dealers' work is gone.

About 1870 the Bank of Bombay established a branch in New Hubli. As it was not found to pay, the branch was closed on the 1st of January 1881. It was reopened on the 1st of January 1882 and was again closed on the 31st of March 1884.

The staple of the trade is cotton. The leading exports are cotton, grain, cloth, hides, horns, and fat; the chief imports are Bombay and European machine made cloth, and plain and dyed silk and cotton thread, grain, indigo, molasses, coconuts, and salt. Estimates of the imports and products of Old and New Hubli framed by the chief local traders give for 1883 a total value of about £410,000 (Rs. 41,00,000) of which about £325,000 (Rs. 32,50,000) are imported and £85,000 (Rs. 8,50,000) are produced. Of the £325,000 (Rs. 32,50,000) imported about £185,000 (Rs. 18,50,000) are estimated to be used in the town and £138,000 (Rs. 13,80,000) to be sent elsewhere. The chief items of import are cloth estimated at £60,000 (Rs. 6,00,000), yarn at £50,000 (Rs. 5,00,000), rice wheat and *javari* at £40,000 (Rs. 4,00,000) each, and silk at £30,000 (Rs. 3,00,000). The details are:

Hubli Trade, 1883: Imports.

ARTICLE.	Value.	Used.	Exported.	ARTICLE.	Value.	Used.	Exported.
	£	£	£		£	£	£
Cloths ...	60,000	20,000	40,000	Salt ...	5000	4000	1000
Yarn ...	50,000	30,000	20,000	Chillies ...	5000	2500	2500
Silk ...	30,000	20,000	10,000	Butter ...	3600	3600	...
Javari ...	40,000	20,000	10,000	Copper and Brass Vessels...	10,000	2500	7500
Rice ...	40,000	20,000	20,000	Iron ...	2500	1500	1000
Wheat ...	40,000	20,000	20,000	Timber ...	2500	1500	1000
Kadi or Gram...	10,000	10,000	...				
Togri or Tur ...	10,000	10,000	...				
Molasses ...	10,000	7500	2500				
Sugar ...	5000	2500	2500				
				Total ...	323,600	185,800	138,000

Of the estimated £85,000 (Rs. 8,50,000) worth of local products £60,000 (Rs. 6,00,000) are cloth, £20,000 (Rs. 2,00,000) are copper and brass vessels, and £5000 (Rs. 50,000) are of wood cradles, cots, boxes, and toys. The details are:

Hubli Trade, 1883: Manufactures.

ARTICLE.	Value.	Used.	Exported.
	£	£	£
Cloth ...	60,000	20,000	40,000
Copper and Brass Vessels ...	20,000	2500	17,500
Wood Work and Travelling Sun-screens ...	5000	1000	4000
Total ...	85,000	23,500	61,500
Add Imports...	323,600	185,800	138,000
Total Trade ...	408,600	209,100	199,500

The Southern Marátha Spinning and Weaving Company, Limited, was formed and registered in September 1881 in Bombay. It is a joint stock limited liability company with a capital of £60,000 (Rs. 6 *lákhs*) divided into 2400 shares of £25 (Rs. 250) each, the secretaries and managers being Messrs. P. Chrystal & Company of Bombay and Hubli. All the shares are not yet taken though

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Trade.

Cotton Mill.

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Cotton Mill.

up to date (May 1884) the results have been satisfactory. Of the shares taken 396 are held in the district, 110 are held in Great Britain, and the remaining 700 in and near Bombay. When the capital is fully subscribed, the building will be extended as originally planned and the 18,000 spindles which the engine is capable of driving will be completed. Twelve acres of favourably situated land were secured and the foundation stone of the mill was laid on the 1st of September 1882. In spite of the difficulty of bringing heavy machinery from Kárwár by the Árbail pass, a one storeyed building, covering 4000 square yards and capable of holding 10,000 spindles besides the engine and boiler house, was finished and the machinery got ready by the 2nd of September 1883 when work began. The mill is worked by a 400 horse-power indicated compound engine by Hick Hargreaves & Company of Bolton which drives the 24 feet diameter fly-wheel fifty turns in the minute. In March 1884 4700 spindles were at work yielding a daily outturn of 1300 pounds of yarn. It is expected that by the end of June over 10,000 spindles will be at work. The machinery has all the latest improvements and is by the well known makers Messrs. Platt Brothers & Company Limited, Oldham. The mill has much in its favour. The cotton grows at the door and more yarn is used in the country round than the mill can supply. The yarn is already in great favour with the dealers and weavers of Belgaum, Gadag, Ránebennur, and most other local centres. Local, commonly called Kumta, cotton is found better suited for spinning than saw-ginned American. The factory (March 1884) gives employment to about 250 hands, men women and children chiefly Maráthás, Lingáyats, and Musalmáns. The daily earnings of the men vary from 6*d.* to 1*s.* (4-8 *as.*), the women earn about 4½*d.* (3 *as.*), and boys and girls 3*d.* to 4½*d.* (2-3 *as.*) a day. The only Europeans at present on the staff are the manager and the engineer.¹ During the cotton season (February - May) seven double roller machine gins, each estimated to cost about £80 (Rs. 800), work at Hubli. Each gin can gin at a charge of 16*s.* (Rs. 8) ninety-six *mans* or 2688 pounds of local seed cotton in a day or about as much as 186 women with foot rollers. As the fibre is not injured in the process the cotton fetches a higher price than that cleaned in other gins. Hubli has two Nasmyth's Patent Presses, each of which, when worked twelve hours a day, turns out 100 bales or 39,200 pounds of cotton, at a charge of 8*s.* (Rs. 4) for every fourteen *mans* or 392 pounds of local or thirteen *mans* or 364 pounds of American cotton. The gins and presses are in the cotton factory buildings at Hubli, originally built by the Kárwár Company, which, together with other buildings at Kárwár and Gadag, have been bought by Messrs. Framji and Company of Madras for £15,000 (Rs. 1,50,000).

Shops.

The chief places of trade and business are the large street called Bhuspeth in the middle of the new town and Pyati or native market street in the old town. On both sides of Pyati street many new

¹ Contributed by Mr. P. Chrystal.

shops have lately been opened. They are covered verandas in front of the houses encased in planks or shutters which fit into sockets at the top and bottom and are grooved at the sides. The shutters are put up at night and cannot be taken down except by removing the central plank which is fastened by a padlock. Cloths of all kinds are sold in some of the shops by Bráhmans Márwáris Shimpis and Lingáyats. Besides cloth shops, there are shops of bankers, coppersmiths, blacksmiths, sweetmeat makers, dyers, grocers, spice sellers, snuff makers, perfumers, and hardware dealers or *manigárs*. In the mornings and evenings women, chiefly gardeners' wives, sit in front of many of the shops selling vegetables and fruit. Besides on the main market road Lingáyat Komti and Marátha grocers and grain dealers have shops in different parts of the town.

The Robertson Market, in a central part of the new town said to be the finest market out of Bombay, was opened for use towards the end of 1874 at a cost of about £6500 (Rs. 65,000). The market has 264 stalls under one roof and all round the market place. It is intended in time to have a line of shops facing the central building. Thirty-seven of these shops have already been built by private persons on a plan laid down by the municipality. The total yearly municipal income from the Robertson Market and the neighbouring shops is £270 (Rs. 2700).

There are four municipal slaughter houses, three for sheep, one near Gulkaval's pond to the north of the new town, a second behind the dispensary close to the new town, and a third in Báburáv's field to the south of the old town. Close to the third is the cattle house.

Beef is sold in a few shops in Islámpur street in the old town. Mutton is sold in several places in the new town, chiefly in Linganpeth, Rachanpeth, Areravóni, and Mangalvárpeth in Birband street and on the bank of the Hubli brook in Old Hubli. Dry fish is sold to the east of the Robertson market in Hirepeth street on market days by fish dealers. On all days of the week women of the Bhoi or rivermen caste hawk fresh fish from house to house.

Hubli is throughout the year the head-quarters of the chief revenue and police sub-divisional offices and the seat of a sub-judge's court. It has a municipality, a lock-up, a civil hospital, an anglo-vernacular and twelve vernacular schools, post and telegraph offices, and an Assistant Collector's and a travellers' bungalow.

The Hubli municipality was established in 1855. In 1883-84 it had an income of £3314 (Rs. 33,140) and an expenditure of £3252 (Rs. 32,520). The income is chiefly raised from octroi house and other direct taxes, and miscellaneous receipts. The chief items of expenditure are conservancy and sanitation and public works including roads and water-supply. Since its establishment the municipality has built thirteen public latrines and the Robertson market. At a cost of about £12,080 (Rs. 1,20,800) it has made twenty-eight miles of

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Hubli.

Shops.

*Robertson
Market.**Slaughter
Houses.**Beef Shops.**Management.**Municipality.*

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Places.

HUBLI.

Water Supply.

thoroughfare within municipal limits, of which about six are metalled, and it has improved the water-supply at a cost of £6950 (Rs. 69,500).

The chief water-supply is from Tirkárám's lake covering about fifty-nine acres to the north of the new town. The local story is that about 100 years ago a Rajput landholder named Tirkárám built a dam across a hollow between two mounds and turned the hollow into a pond. About 1840 Government enlarged the pond on its west side and built a strong embankment. In 1855 when the Hubli municipality was started, a second dam enclosing about five acres of additional ground between the two embankments was made to the west of and parallel to the old embankment. The present Dhárwár and Harihar main road passes along the new embankment, the eastern or pond side being fenced with three feet high stone pillars. In a large clean catchment basin the rain water stands and deposits its silt and the clear water runs into the west or new part of the pond. From the new part by an open cutting water runs to Gurshiddapa's cistern and from Gurshiddappa's cistern a covered passage brings it to the Bhuspeth cistern in a central part of the town from which the people draw water. Towards the west of Old Hubli, in the lands of Krishnapur and covering an area of forty-four acres, is an old pond known as Heggeri or the large pond. From this pond water goes by a lately built underground passage to a reservoir opposite the Bhavánishankar temple in the old fort. About half a mile east of the new town is the Karkihalladkeri pond which was built in 1856-57 by Mr. Gordon, then first assistant collector, by damming the Karkihalla stream. The embankment is of mud with stone sluices. In 1883 the pond was repaired out of local funds. Its water is used for drinking washing clothes and watering cattle. Round the town are two or three other small ponds which dry in the hot weather and during the rainy season are used for washing and for watering cattle.

Wells.

New Hubli has about 386 sweet water and about 250 brackish water stepless wells and Old Hubli has 100 sweet water and about 150 brackish water stepless wells. The people of the new and the old towns wash clothes along the stream which runs between the two towns. During the rainy months one of the smaller ponds near the town, the sweet water wells within the limits of the Holeru and Madigeru quarters, and the stream between the old and the new towns, supply ample drinking water to low caste Hindus. During the hot weather these sources of water fail and low caste people are forced to go to the Gurshiddapa and Bhuspeth reservoirs for their daily supply of sweet water. They are not allowed to touch the water and the want of a separate reservoir for the lower classes is much felt. To the west of the old town are groves of mangoes tamarinds and guavas and a few gardens where vegetables, plantains, and sometimes sugarcane are grown. In the middle of one of the gardens is a large and deep cut-stone well about ten yards square. On the west side of the well stone steps lead to the water's edge. At the head of the steps facing east is a small three sided room built of fine cut-stone. On the top of the inner side of the west wall of the room is a small inscription in Sanskrit, dated 1728

recording obeisance to the spiritual guide Shri Satyapurna Tirth. It is said that a rich Bráhmán merchant of Old Hubli built the well and dedicated it to Satyapurna Tirth the twenty-second Mádhavá-chárya guide (1706-1726).

On an open airy and central site in a large enclosure close to the west of the Dhárwár-Haribar road, and to the south of the public road from the new to the old town, is the Hubli charitable dispensary. Within the dispensary enclosure is the assistant surgeon's house, out-houses, and a brackish well. In front of the dispensary is a small flower garden. In 1883 the dispensary treated 142 in-patients and 15,896 out-patients. Government pay £200 (Rs. 2000) a year and the municipality meets the rest of the cost up to £300 (Rs. 3000).

Hubli has twenty-six schools, thirteen of them Government and thirteen private vernacular schools. Of the thirteen Government schools, which have an average attendance of 184 and are maintained at a monthly cost of £82 (Rs. 820), one is anglo-vernacular (118), six are Kánarese (318, 147, 89, 82, 73, 67), one Maráthi (79), one Hindustáni (243), three girls' schools (102, 84, 41), and one Kánarese school for low castes (63).¹ Of the private schools Kánarese is taught in seven Maráthi in four and Sanskrit and Hindustáni in one each. Of 2399 the total number on the rolls, 1907 or 79·5 per cent were boys and 492 or 20·5 per cent girls. Of the total number 1896 or 79·03 per cent were Hindus and 503 or 20·97 per cent were Musalmáns. Among Hindus 759 (545 boys 214 girls) were Lingáyats, 268 (229 boys 39 girls) Bráhmans, 139 (84 boys 55 girls) Patvegárs, 72 (49 boys 23 girls) Maráthás, 57 (30 boys 27 girls) goldsmiths, 53 (31 boys 22 girls) weavers, and 52 (36 boys 16 girls) were Jains. Devángs, tailors, dyers, shepherds, carpenters, painters, traders, coppersmiths, Rajputs, washermen, and lime-burners varied from 44 to 3. Other Hindus numbered 208 and low castes seventy.

The Native General Library and Reading Room with twenty-five subscribers paying subscriptions amounting in 1883 to £8 6s. (Rs. 83) has 278 English, Maráthi, Kánarese, Gujaráti, and Sanskrit books, and takes one daily and two weekly English, and six Maráthi and one Kánarese weekly newspapers. The library was established about 1867, chiefly by the exertions of Messrs. Reid and Cameron the Collector and First Assistant Collector of Dhárwár. The municipality makes the library a yearly grant of £9 6s. (Rs. 93).

Hubli has thirty-seven temples, twenty-seven monasteries, seventeen mosques, a Protestant Christian church of the German Mission, and a Roman Catholic chapel. Of the temples thirteen are in the old town and twenty-four in the new, of the monasteries twelve are in the old town and fifteen in the new, and of the mosques eight are in the old town and nine in the new. The Christian church and chapel are in the new town. The temples in Old Hubli fort are two to

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HUBLI.

*Dispensary.**Schools.**Native General Library.**Places of Worship.*

¹ The figures in brackets show the average daily attendance.

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Temples.

*Bhavánishankar's
Temple.*

the *grámdēvātás* or village goddesses, Dyámava and Durgava the cholera and small-pox goddesses, one each to Anantshayan, Bhavánishankar, Dattátraya, and Hanumán, a small memorial shrine to the twenty-second Mádhva head priest Shri Satyabodh Tirth who died in 1782 and a Jain temple of Anantnáth.

Bhavánishankar's is an old temple of the eleventh century with a *ling* an image of Ganpati and two or three other smaller gods. The images are roughly cut out of stone similar to that of which the temple is built. The workmanship of the temple and of the images is similar. The temple consists of a middle hall facing east, an inner and larger shrine to its west facing east, and two smaller and side shrines opposite each other one to the north of the middle hall facing north and the other to the south of the middle hall facing south. The *ling* appears to have been originally placed in the west larger shrine, the image of Ganpati in the smaller northern shrine, and some other image in the smaller southern shrine. Of these the image of Ganpati remains in its old place. The *ling* with its case has been removed from the western and larger to the southern and smaller shrine and placed there in a contrary direction, its left or water-running side facing east and the right side facing west. In the larger and western shrine from which the *ling* has been removed a beautifully carved and highly polished image of Náráyan about three feet high has been placed. All round the archway over the head of the chief image are smaller images. The whole is cut out of hard black stone different from the stone of the temple and of the older images. Near the temple is a stone slab (7' x 4' x 4") closely carved from top to bottom with Old Kánarese writing. The last few lines seem to have been lost; the rest is easy to read. The inscription is dated *Shak* 9 . . (976?) *Páarthiv samvatsar* and records, on the occasion of a sun-eclipse, on the no-moon day of *Vatishákh* or April-May, a grant of land to the god Bhavánish of Hallur by the Western Chálukya king Bhuvanaikamalla.¹ Outside the temple, and near it, two long side verandas have been built on a three feet high stone plinth. Between the verandas is a passage from the street into the temple. The verandas and passage between them are roofed with wooden work. The style of the roof and the carving on the faces of the beams support the local story that the additions were made about 1760. Parts of the roof and the gateway are in ruins. A small stone pond the stone work of which has disappeared was built in front of the temple. The municipality has widened the pond on all sides and surrounded it with earthen embankments. The water of the pond is used for drinking purposes.

Inscription.

¹ The substance of the inscription has been given by Pandit Govind Gangádhara, schoolmaster of Unkal. Only 9 the first of the three figures is clear in the date. The two other figures are worn-out but as the *samvatsar* can be clearly read *Páarthiv Shak* 967 is suggested to which the cyclic year *Páarthiv* corresponds and in which year Bhuvanaikamalla or Someshvar II. (1068-1075) falls though then only heir-apparent. The only other date which suits in the tenth century is *Shak* 907 in the reign of Taila II. (A.D. 973-997) the founder of the Western Chálukyas who is not called Bhuvanaikamalla.

Old Hubli town has four Bráhmancial temples to Bánshankari Hanumán Ishvar and Parvatáev, and two Lingáyat temples to Jangli Basvanna and Virbhadra. The Hatkars or Devángs have three religious houses or *maths* one in Old Hubli, one in Kaulpeth, and one in Vithalpeth. To the west and outside of the old town, in the lands of Krishnapur village, is a solitary tomb of Chitánand Svámi. One Siddappa, who is about forty years old, calling himself a saint or *sádhú*, lives in the tomb. He is said to have been a Lingáyat but has left his caste. He eats at the hands of persons of all classes but none of the higher caste people eat of his hands. He rubs ashes on his body and brow and worships no images. Hundreds of people go to him daily and give him money and food. A yearly fair is held in honour of Chitánand Svámi. Of the eight Musalmán mosques in Old Hubli two are in the fort, one the Safa mosque in the town, and five the Sadar Safa, Mastán Safa, Birband masjid, Islámpur masjid, and Jáma masjid in Náráyanpeth.

New Hubli fort and town has twenty-four temples three of them of Dattátraya, Ishvar, and Hanumán in the fort. Of the twenty-one temples in the new town fifteen are Bráhmancial, five Lingáyat, and one Jain. The Bráhmancial temples are of Vyankatraman, where a yearly fair lasting for ten days is held in *Ashvin* or September-October and the god's car is drawn on the last day; of Vithoba, Rám, and Krishna; a tailor's Vithoba and four temples of Hanumán in Adikivoni, Virápur, Timságar, and Yellápur;¹ Kalmeshvar in Adikivoni, three of Durgava in Dájibápeth Bomápur and Yellápur,² Tuljábhaváni in Dájibápeth, and Kálamma in Bogár street. The Jain temple is in Bogár street. The five Lingáyat temples are of Virbhadra in Pagdivoni, of Parvatdev in Bhusvoni, and three of Basvanna, one called Myanada Basappa in Hurkadlivoni, the other in Kaulpeth in whose honour a fair is occasionally held, and the third called Budengudda Basappa in Ghantikeri, in whose honour a yearly fair is held on the full-moon of *Chaitra* or March-April. A memorial shrine of Rághavendra Svámi, the chief priest of an under-sect of the Mádhva Bráhmans who died in 1671, completes the list of Hindu temples and memorial buildings in the new town.

Of the fifteen Lingáyat monasteries Mursavirad is the largest and most substantial with a large enclosure and a small garden. The local story about the origin of the monastery is that Basav's adherents, amounting to twenty-one thousand men, were divided into three bodies. The first body included three thousand ascetics or *viraktas*, the second six thousand *ayyas* or *jangams* that is ordinary priests, and the third twelve thousand laymen. Each body had a head officer of its own class. The head officer of the first or *virakta* body was a very holy ascetic who was styled Mursavirad Appanavaru or Father of the

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Temples.

Monasteries.

¹ A yearly fair lasting for ten days is held in honour of the Yellápur Hanumán in *Ashvin* or September-October.

² A yearly fair is held in honour of Yellápur Durgava in *Ashvin* or October-November.

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*Mursavirad
Monastery.*

Three Thousand.¹ Several disciples of the original head of the three thousand ascetics continued his religious title. One of these Mursavirad ascetics lived with the chief Lingáyat priest Murgi Svámi at Chitaldurg in Maisur. The two quarrelled and Mursavirad Svámi left Chitaldurg and came to New Hubli about 1727 soon after the fort was built by Basappáshetti. Basappa entertained the Svámi with great respect, built a monastery for him close to his house near the site of the Bhuspeth reservoir, and called it the Hiremath or High Monastery. The Svámi whose name was Gurusiddha Svámi, held spiritual control over all Lingáyat chief priests in the Bombay Karnátak. His successor was called Gangádhara Svámi and these two are the only names which succeeding heads of this monastery have borne.²

About 1820 Gurshidappa Svámi the chief Mursavirad priest at Hubli built by public subscription the present large Mursavirad monastery, and ever since he and his successors have lived there. Every Monday and Thursday Lingáyats of both sexes go and pay their devotions to Mursavirad Svámi. On every Monday in *Shrávan* or July-August and *Kártik* or October-November many Lingáyats go to the monastery, pay their devotions to the tombs of all former chief priests as well as to the present chief priest, and present him with fruit and money. They rub their brows and eyes with the ashes of cowdung burnt before the tombs, receive from Gurusiddha Svámi his blessing and a cocoanut, a plantain, or a date, and return home. On the third and fourth Mondays in *Shrávan* or July-August a great yearly service or *puja* is held. The monastery building is cleaned and whitewashed and decked with plantain trees and mango branches. The ground is spread with carpets and a large sofa with handsome cushions covered with lace is placed to the right of the middle of the building. In the middle of the building is set a large chair of state on which one of the chief priest's assistants sits richly dressed and ornamented. He is believed for the time to represent the god Shiv. His feet are washed and baskets of flowers are thrown over him. From

¹ Kánarese *mur* three, *savirad* thousand, and *appanavaru* father.

² Up to about 1810, whenever the chief priest of any of the smaller Hubli monasteries died, his body was first placed and worshipped in the Hiremath and was then carried in state to the site where the large Mursavirad monastery now stands and buried there. Since 1810 the body of each subordinate chief priest has been worshipped in his own monastery and buried in a piece of ground belonging to it. The origin of this change in practice was, that, about 1790, a question arose at Bágalkot in Bijápur as to whether Lingáyat priests should dine in the houses of Lingáyat barbers. Opinions were divided and the matter was referred to the Mursavirad Svámi at New Hubli. He held that Lingáyat priests should not dine with Lingáyat barbers, as the barbers were not the descendants of genuine Lingáyats before the time of Basav, but the descendants of barbers whom Basav had converted to Lingáyatism. The chief priests of all the monasteries at first abided by the Mursavirad's ruling. But some Lingáyat laymen of the opposite party prevailed on the chief priest of the Rudratchi monastery to join them, and the priest went and dined with Lingáyat barbers. The Mursavirad Svámi excommunicated the offending priest and privately got one of his servants to cut off one of the priest's toes a defect which debarred him from being worshipped. The Rudratchi priest complained to the chief of Sangli under whom New Hubli then was. The Sangli chief sent for Mursavirad Svámi and ordered him to be put into the stocks. Before the sentence could be carried into effect Mursavirad Svámi committed suicide and a new Mursavirad Svámi was appointed.

three to ten at night the chief monk sits on the sofa, surrounded by a large number of the subordinate Lingáyat clergy. Music is played, drums are beaten, and a couple or two of dancing girls sing and dance in front of the chief priest. At this time the whole of the townspeople, Lingáyats, Bráhmans, Maráthás, Patvegárs, and others, rich and poor, old and young, men women and children, attend, offer a small present of fruit and flowers, or a little money to the chief priest, and pay their respects to him. Except Bráhmans all prostrate before the Svámi. When a very respectable or rich Lingáyat comes, the chief priest puts forward his feet, and the worshipper leans his head on them, retires, and sits in the assembly. The chief priest then gives to the more favoured as his favour or *prasád*, some fruit or sweetmeat. The meeting ends with fireworks about ten. From time immemorial the Smárt Shankar Bháratí Svámi of Kudálgi in Maisur has enjoyed the privilege of riding in a *pálkhi* or open litter carried crossways through the public streets. In imitation of this practice about fifty years ago Gurnsiddha Svámi Mursavirad attempted to ride in a palanquin carried crosswise. The Smárt teacher filed a civil suit to stop this innovation. The court decreed that there was no objection to any one riding in a palanquin carried crossways in the public streets. The decree was appealed against but upheld by the late Sadar Adálat and subsequently by the Privy Council. Close to the monastery is a great wooden car intended to draw the *ling* and the chief priest through the public streets on the great festival, but the car is so heavy and the cost and the risk of accidents so great that it is seldom used. South-east of Old Hubli in the lands of Krishnapur, a new temple with a large square enclosure has lately been built by a *mádigia* or leatherworker named Yellia. He says that he went towards the coast and paid his devotions to the god Manjunáth, and was possessed by him, and that he has built this temple in honour of that god and called it *Dharmasthal* or the Holy Place. He has planted several conical stones round a central pyramid of earth. On these stones he strews flowers and perfumes and burns incense before them every day. He has also set apart a stone in honour of the goddess Yellamma at Saundatti. Hundreds of low caste people go to him every day and give him fruit and money considering him a holy man and a prophet.

New Hubli has nine mosques, eight of them called after the streets in which they are built Ganeshpeth, Kumbarvoni, Maháldárvoni, Mullárvoni, Pendhárvoni, Pinjarvoni, Virápur, and Yellápur, and the ninth Phaniband in Kaulpeth.

Christians are buried in a part of the German Mission enclosure. Lingáyats are buried in consecrated spaces of ground outside the town and belonging to the following eleven monasteries Dogal, Harasdevar, Hire, Hos, Kal, Kalburgi, Kavdi, Rudradevar, two Rudratchis, and Shiggaon. Musalmáns are buried to the west of the German Mission enclosure on the lands of the village of Marian-Timságar. The bodies of Bráhmans, Maráthás, Patvegárs and others, are burnt behind the Karkihallad pond and in some places along the Karkihalla brook which runs to the south of New Hubli and joins the Gabbur brook towards the south of Old Hubli.

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HUBLI.

History.

Hubli, properly Hubballi or Pubbleli that is Purvadvalli or old village, seems to centre in a plain old stone temple to Bhavánishankar which from an Old Kánarese inscription seems to belong to the eleventh century.¹ Of its two parts that known as Old Hubli is also locally called Ráyar Hubli that is Hubli made by the Vijayanagar kings (1330-1580).² The first reference which has been traced to Hubli is in 1547 in a treaty between Vijayanagar and the Portuguese where Obeli or Hubli appears as a place of trade in saltpetre and iron for the Bijápur country.³ In 1673 Hubli is mentioned as a place of much wealth and of great trade. It was plundered by Annaji Datto one of Shiváji's generals and the booty is said to have exceeded any previous Marátha plunder. Merchants of all nations were plundered and the Bijápur troops, which had been stationed for the defence of the town, destroyed any property which the Maráthás left. The English factory at Kárwár, which was said to have employed 50,000 weavers in the Dhárwár villages had a broker at Hubli to sell all kinds of cloth and to gather the cloth intended to be sent to England. The Hubli factory was plundered and according to English accounts goods were lost worth about £2762 18s. (*Pagodás* 7894 at 3½ Rs. the *pagoda*). The English claimed damages but Shiváji declared that, except some petty damages valued at about £70 (*pagodás* 200), his troops had done them no harm.⁴ In 1675 Aurangzeb (1656-1707) sent an army under the command of Muhammad Syed Khán, whose family name was Tárin, to conquer the western part of the Bijápur kingdom. Tárin besieged and took the fort of Sonda in North Kánara but was killed. About this time the English traveller Fryer notices Hubli as a market town in Bijápur.⁵ In 1677 Aurangzeb conferred upon Táriu's son Sháh Muhammad Khán, in *jághir* or as an estate, the fort and district of Old or Ráyar Hubballi, and the Devar-Hubballi petty division in the Dhárwár sub-division.⁶ In 1685 Sultán Muázzim Aurangzeb's son, marched, in the name of the Delhi emperor to regain the south-west portions of the Bijápur kingdom which Sambháji had overrun. He took Hubballi and Dhárwár and placed garrisons in them.⁷ About 1689 the *desái* of Kittur distinguished himself in battle and in reward the *Sardeshmukhi* of the district of Old or Ráyar Hubli was conferred upon him.⁸ He does not seem to have enjoyed this office for any length of time. In 1727 one Basappa of Old Hubli built the town and fort of New Hubli with the leave and by the aid of Majid Khán the Nawáb of Sávanur. In 1755 the Sávanur Nawáb Hakim Khán, attacked by the Maráthás and reduced to extremities, gave up territory worth £82,392

¹ Details of the temple and of the inscription are given above p. 754.

² Two other places are called Hubli one in Dhárwár and the other in Belgaum. The other Hubli in the Dhárwár sub-division is known as Devar or the Holy Hubli in honour of an old temple of Rangnáth and Gidad-Hubli or Hubli in the Wood. The Belgaum-Hubli which is about eighteen miles south-east of Belgaum is known as Mugutkhán-Hubli from a Bijápur governor of that name.

³ *Subsidios*, II. 255-257.

⁴ Orme's *Historical Fragments*, 34-36, 208; Grant Duff's *Maráthás*, 155; Hamilton's *New Account*, I. 267.

⁵ *East India and Persia*, 175.

⁶ *Local Information*. ⁷ Orme in Bruce's *Annals*, II. 63. ⁸ Stokes' *Belgaum*, 43.

(Rs. 8,23,930) with the forts of Hubli, and Kerur, and Belgaum with additional territory for their maintenance £110,000 (Rs. 11,00,000) in cash.¹ On this occasion the Peshwa wrested from the Tárin family the Devar Hubli petty division and allowed them to keep the fort and town of Old Hubli, fifteen large villages and two hamlets in the present sub-division of Hubli Taraf Kiarkope and the village of Mugad, in the Dhárwár sub-division. The Tárin family enjoyed the reduced *jághir* till 1778 when Haidar Ali conquered the whole of the Bombay Karnátak up to the Malaprabha. One of Haidar's officers Gangarám Risáldár invested and took the fort of Old Hubli from the Tárins and Haidar's Hindu minister Nanjappaya levied a fine of £3500 (10,000 *pagodás*) from the townspeople.² In 1779 Haidar married his daughter to the eldest son of Abdul Hakim Khán the Nawáb of Sávanur and his second son to the Nawáb's daughter. The half of Sávanur which was given up to Peshwa Báláji Bájrír in 1755 was now restored by Haidar to the Nawáb,³ and Diván Khanderáv the Nawáb's minister sent one Vyankáji Shrinivás as manager or *kamávisdár* to Old Hubli.⁴ In 1783 a quarrel arose between Tipu (1782-1799) and the Nawáb of Sávanur. Tipu retook Old Hubli and appointed as its commandant one Buddanbeg. Buddanbeg surrounded the fort with a strong thorn fence. In 1787 on behalf of Mádhavráv II. the seventh Peshwa, Tukoji Holkar took the country back from Tipu and restored the reduced *jághir* of Old Hubli to the Tárin family. In 1788 Tipu conquered all the country taken by Tukoji including Old Hubli. In 1790 Parshurám Bháu Patvardhan took the whole Bombay Karnátak from Tipu and conferred small portions of the Old Hubli estate upon different members of the Tárin family. The village of Mugad was granted to Hassankhán Tárin but he was allowed to live in the fort of Old Hubli. The village of Bád in the Dhárwár sub-division and about 160 acres of land in Adargunchi village four miles south of Hubli were given to Abdul Raufkhán Tárin. The Peshwa's officer at New Hubli first imposed a yearly tax of £5 5s. (Rs. 52½ or 15 *hons*) on Hassankhán the proprietor of Mugad and raised it to £8 15s. (Rs. 87½ or 25 *hons*). In default of payment Hassankhán was imprisoned in the fort of Old Hubli where he died and his estate of Mugad lapsed to Government. Abdul Raufkhán Tárin who (1884) is ninety-five years old is a third class Sirdár and enjoys the village of Bád and 160 acres of land at Adargunchi.⁵ His brother Hamidkhán went over to the Nizám under whom his family enjoys a grant of three villages.⁶

New Hubli was founded and the fort built in 1727. At that time

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¹ Clunes' Itinerary, Appendix p. 14.

² Marátha MSS. with the Patil of Old Hubli.

³ Stokes' Belgaum, 56.

⁴ Marátha MSS. with the Patil of Old Hubli.

⁵ From papers with Mr. Abdul Raufkhán Tárin.

⁶ Other members of the Tárin family are said to have gone to Maisur where they have sunk to be husbandmen. One of the family named Pádashámiya Tárin now (1884) lives in Old Hubli fort and tills some Government land. Rent-free lands conferred by the late proprietor while in power are still enjoyed by several persons in the present sub-division of Hubli.

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one Kalyánshetti was the head of the Lingayát community of Old Hubli. He was a very rich man and his sister's son Basappa lived long under his patronage. The uncle and nephew quarrelled and the nephew Basappa left the town with a few followers, and settled in the neighbouring village of Bomápur.¹ In 1727 Majid Khán Nawáb of Sávanur allowed Basappa to build a city on the site of Bomápur and the surrounding villages of Mádináikan, Arlikatti, part of Marian-Timságar, Bidanhal, Yellápur, and Virápur. The Nawáb laid out one main street at his own expensé and after himself called it Majidpur. Basappa built the fort of New Hubli at a cost of £250 (Rs. 2500). The fort and town of New Hubli seem to have been included in the military grant of lands yielding a yearly rental of £250,000 (Rs. 25,00,000) which the Patvardhans received from the Peshwa about 1764. When a partition was afterwards made in the Patvardhan family New Hubli appears to have fallen to the Sánghlikar's share by whom the fort of Old Hubli was held when it fell to General Munro on the 13th of July 1818. In 1790 Captain Moor described Hubli as the most extensive populous and respectable town in that part of the country. The country, round was wooded watered and highly tilled. The appearance of the place showed industry and happiness. There was a large traffic both inland and with Goa. To Goa they sent sandalwood and ivory and from Goa they brought silk, cotton, wool, and rice. From the silk large quantities chiefly of women's robes were woven, and the stock of goods for variety and taste exceeded that of any town in the country. The Saturday market had a great show of horned cattle, betelnut and grain, and cloth merchants flocked from a distance and so crowded were the streets that it was difficult to pass through them. The bankers were numerous and rich. They had dealings with Surat in the north, Haidarabad in the east, and Seringapatam in the south. Though the town was so prosperous, it had no fine buildings. Neither of the forts was of any strength. The people escaped being plundered in 1790 by paying Parshurám a large sum of money.² There was said to be an English merchant's tomb at Hubli, but Moor thought it was Muhammadan. There was a Musalmán prayer place or *idga* and a graveyard but very few Musalmáns.³ About this time Shiváji the Kolhápur chief, taking advantage of local disturbances, for a time carried the limits of his kingdom as far south as the Tungbhadra. In 1796 he plundered Hubli⁴ and made over the old town to one of his adherents the Desái of Kittur.⁵ But the Peshwa's officers won back the town. In 1800 General Wellesley mentions Hubli as the only place in Dhárwár where Dhundia Vágh had still a garrison.⁶ In 1804 Old Hubli was held by the Phadke family of Konkanasth Bráhmans.

●¹ As Basappa was of Kalyánshetti's family in some official papers he was called Kalyán Shettiavar or belonging to Kalyánshetti. This has led to quarrels between the descendants of Kalyánshetti and Basappa which are still (1884) unsettled.

² Moor's Narrative, 253-254.

³ Moor's Narrative, 253-254.

⁴ Stokes' Belgaum, 61.

⁵ Old Marátha MSS. with the Pátíl of Old Hubli.

⁶ Supplementary Despatches, India (1797-1805), II. 88.

When (1802) General Wellesley was marching south after his defeat of Sindia, Old Hubli was besieged by one of the Peshwa's provincial managers or *sarsubhedárs*. On hearing of General Wellesley's arrival, the fort garrison asked him to help them. They sent him a letter addressed to the *sarsubhedár* by the Peshwa directing him to give Old Hubli and its dependencies to Báu Phadke, the brother-in-law of the Peshwa the person for whom the garrison held it. On the other hand the *sarsubhedár* produced the Peshwa's order commanding him to besiege the place and take it by force from Phadke. The *sarsubhedár* had been employed against the mud fort for nearly six weeks. General Wellesley advised the siege to be stopped till they found out what the Peshwa really wished.¹ In the last Marátha war (1817-1818), after taking Dambal, General Munro came to Old Hubli on the 13th of January 1818. The commandant of Old Hubli fort was summoned and promised to surrender, and, on the following morning, marched out with 300 men the rest having deserted from want of pay.² At the close of the fair season (15th June 1818) General Munro's and General Pritzler's divisions of the grand army of the Deccan reached Old Hubli. A battalion with the heavy guns and ordnance stores went to Dhárwár; but the head-quarters and the remaining corps cantoned at Old Hubli for the rains.³ During the latter half of 1818 (July-December), cholera raged at Hubli. In General Pritzler's camp, in three days two officers and upwards of 100 Europeans were carried off by cholera.⁴ Most of the British tombs still seen near Old Hubli seem to have been raised to officers and men of the twenty-second Light Dragoons, and the 34th, 53rd, 69th, and 84th Regiments of foot.⁵ In 1820 New Hubli with forty-seven villages and a net yearly revenue of £6205 (Rs. 62,050) with several districts was ceded by Chintámanráv Áppa Sáheb of Sánгли instead of his contingent.⁶ In 1844 Captain Wingate found Hubli an important trade centre with a population of 33,000 living in 5458 houses. The town had a number of long established banking and trading firms who issued bills for large amounts on Bombay, Madras, and other trade centres. Its export trade consisted chiefly of local cotton cloth, raw cotton mostly sent to Bombay by Kumta, and tobacco betelnuts and chillies. There was also a considerable trade in grain, oil, butter, and other local produce. The imports were large quantities of salt, metals, British cloth and hardware, and cocoanuts from the coast.⁷

Hulgur, a large village on the Hubli-Sávanur road about eight miles north-east of Shiggaon, with in 1881 a population of 2973, is a noted place of Musalmán pilgrimage to a tomb of the saint Hazratsháh Káderi. Hazratsháh is said to have lived in Sávanur about 1800 under the Nawáb Abdul Khairkhán. Once while the saint was at Bankápur the Nawáb violated the daughter of one of the

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¹ Hamilton's Description of Hindustán, II. 238-239.² Blacker's Marátha War, 287.³ Blacker's Marátha War, 314.⁴ Bombay Courier of 19th December 1818.⁵ See above pp. 433, 622.⁶ Aitchison's Treaties, Engagements, and Sanads, V. 418.⁷ Survey Superintendent's 445 of 25th October 1844.

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saint's disciples. The saint cursed the Nawáb and retired to Hulgur about eight miles north-west of Sávanur. He died at Hulgur and the four tombs of himself and his relations are in a valley about half a mile west of the village. A fair attended by about 5000 people from all parts of Dhárwár and the neighbouring villages of Belgaum is held after the full-moon of *Mágh* or February-March. Most of the pilgrims come from the full-moon fair at Mailár in Belári twenty-seven miles south-west of Hulgur. Nawáb Abdul Dalilkhán (1834-1862) the grandfather of the present Nawáb was a firm follower of the saint and took a great interest in the fair. He used to attend every year and remain at the fair for a week when his gifts and dinners attracted large numbers of wrestlers, dancers, beggars, and visitors. Since his death in 1862 the number of people at the fair has greatly fallen off. The tombs enjoy a yearly grant of £50 (Rs. 500) in land and £15 (Rs. 150) in rent. Hulgur village has a temple of Siddhaling with eight stone inscriptions varying from 4' to 2' in length and from 4' to 1' 3" in breadth. All are clear and legible but have not been read. There is a well called the Kapilbávi with an inscription dated 1122.

HULIHALLI.

Hulihalli, a small village on the Bankápur-Ránebennur road, about three miles north-west of Ránebennur, with in 1881 a population of 943, has a fort and two temples. A temple of Rámeshvar in the fort has on the south an inscription dated 1143. The other temple of Rámeshvar outside the village has to its right an inscription dated 1182.

HURLIKOP.

Hurlikop, a small village six miles east of Bankápur, with in 1881 a population of 1090, has a temple of Ishvar with an inscription (5' x 1' 4"). There are three other inscriptions in the village.

HUVINSIGLY.

Huvinsigly village, fourteen miles north-east of Bankápur, with in 1881 a population of 1004, has a temple of Hanumán with two inscriptions.

HUYIGOL.

Huyigol village, six miles north of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 1375, has seven inscriptions, one in a temple of Rámaling, another in a temple of Kalmeshvar, a third near the village police station, and the remaining four in a temple of Máruti.

INGALGUNDI.

Ingalgundi, a small village about eight miles south of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 549, has a temple of Kalleshvar with an inscription on the bank of a pond dated 1049 (S. 971) in the reign of the Western Chálukya king Someshvar I. (1042-1069) and a Sati stone or *mastikal* the date on which could not be made out, except that it was in the cycle year *Bahudhánya*.

KACHIVI.

Kachivi, a small village about fifteen miles north-west of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 836, has temples of Rámeshvar and Ganappa. In front of the Rámeshvar temple is a hero stone or *virgal* dated 1254; and on the south front of Ganappa's temple is an inscription also dated 1254.

KADARMANDALGI.

Kadarmandalgi, a small village on the Bankápur-Ránebennur high road about nine miles west of Ránebennur, with in 1881 a population of 1753, has a temple of Máruti Kantesh whose image

is locally believed to have been consecrated by the Puránik king Janmejaya. On the flat pillar of the temple is an inscription dated S. 1498 (1576). In a neighbouring field is another weatherworn inscription.

Kadur, a small village about three miles east of Rattihalli in Kod, with in 1881 a population of 1412, has a temple and an inscription.

Kágneli, a large village about thirteen miles north-west of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 1232, is an old petty divisional centre. Kágneli has temples of Ádikeshav, Kalahasteshvar, Lakshmi Narsinh, Sangameshvar, Someshvar, and Virbhadra. Ádikeshav's and Lakshmi Narsinh's temples are two plain stone buildings in the same enclosure. Ádikeshav's temple is sixty-six feet long by twenty-three feet wide and has twelve pillars in the outer open porch. Narsinh's temple has a wooden pillared front porch. The temples are said to have been built by two persons Kondappa and Venkappa. The image of Ádikeshav is said to have been brought from Bád in Bankápur by Kanakdás a sixteenth century Kánarese poet (1564).¹ The temple priests who are partly Lingáyats partly Bráhmans enjoy a yearly allowance of £49 8s. (Rs. 494) to meet the cost of holding the car festival. In the court of the temples is a shrine of Bhandarigiri Svámi with four finely carved old pillars built into it. Three of the pillars have five short inscriptions. Other excellently carved fragments lie about. Kalahasteshvar's temple has a slab carved with figures of Shiv and Párvati and smaller figures of Ganpati and Kártiksvámi in entire relief. The pillars of the temples are carved with figures and festoons, the outer wall of the porch is of stone and mud, but the spire is old. There are four inscriptions in or near this temple one to the east of the temple dated 1120 on a stone sunk in the earth 3' 9" broad and 6' 10" above ground. The second dated 1282 is on a hero-stone or *virgal*. The other two on and near the flag pillar have not been read. Sangameshvar's temple has a rather unreadable inscription sunk in a mud platform. Someshvar's temple has three inscriptions, the dates of none of which have been made out. To the north of Virbhadra's temple are three inscribed stones sunk deep in the earth.

Kakur, a small village on the Tungbhadra, about thirty miles south-east of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 72, has in the court of a temple of Máuṛuti a well preserved inscription of thirty-two and a half lines.

Kalas, a large village fifteen miles north-east of Shiggaon in Bankápur, with in 1881 a population of 2125, was a petty divisional centre. It has good cotton soil and a weekly market is held on Saturday when the field produce of the surrounding villages is sold. The village has a temple of Náráyandev and five inscriptions. The inscriptions which vary in length from 7' to 2' and in breadth from 3' 1" to 2' 1" are all legible. One is dated 930 and belongs to the ninth Ráshtrakuta king Govind V.²

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Places.

KADUR.

KÁGNELI.

KAKUR.

KALAS.

¹ Compare Rice's Mysore and Coorg, I. 404.² Ind. Ant. XII. 249.

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Places.

KALGHATGI.

Kalghatgi, in north latitude $15^{\circ} 10'$, east longitude $15^{\circ} 3'$, the head-quarters of the Kalghatgi sub-division, with in 1881 a population of 3271, lies on the Kárwár-Dhárwár road twenty miles south of Dhárwár. Kalghatgi has a rest-house and a weekly market on Tuesdays when rice is chiefly sold. Under the Maráthás Kalghatgi was the head-quarters of a division or *samat*.

KALYÁN.

Kalyán, a small village four miles south of Shiggaon, with in 1881 a population of 381, has a tomb of a Musalmán saint Pir Pádsháh and on a stone on the south of the tomb an inscription dated 1025 in the reign of the Western Chálukya king Someshvar III. (1018-1042).

KÁMDHENU.

Kámdhenu, six miles north-east of Kalghatgi, with in 1881 a population of 577, has an old temple of Kalmeshvar built of black granite with ornamental mythological carvings on the outside of its walls. Near the temple are two inscriptions said to be much worn. About a mile to the south of the village is a water-course called Kalhalla. About 1850 a masonry weir to raise its water for irrigation purposes was built by Government at a cost of £1000 (Rs. 10,000).

KANCHINEGLUR.

Kanchineglur, seven miles north-east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 700, has on a mound of earth an inscription dated 1105.

KANVISIDGERI.

Kanvisidgeri, a small village about ten miles south-east of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 279, has a temple of Kanvisiddheshvar. The temple has four inscriptions three in the temple and one on a stone in a row of slabs to the south of the temple. Of the three inscriptions within the temple two are on pillars dated 1265 and 1269, and the third is dated 1152; the fourth inscription outside the temple is dated 1108.

KANNESHVAR.

Kanneshvar, a small village ten miles south-east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 208, has a temple of Kannapa with two inscriptions dated 1005 and 1145. The 1005 inscription belongs to the reign of the Western Chálukya king Satyáshraya II. and gives the name of his feudatory Bhimráj also called Tailapana-Ankakára as governing the Kisukád Banavási and Sántalige districts.¹

KANVALLI.

Kanvalli, village about ten miles south-east of Karajgi, with in 1881 a population of 1338, has old temples of Parmeshvar and Bhogesh. The Parmeshvar temple, a stone and brick building is about fifty feet long and seventeen broad. It has four pillars and a spire much out of repair. The village has three inscriptions of sixteen twenty-four and seventy-two lines.

KARADGI.

Karadgi, eight miles north-east of Bankápur, is a large village once the head-quarters of the Karadgi petty division. The *deshpánder* of Karadgi still hold *vatan* lands.² In a revenue statement of about 1790 Karadgi appears under the Bankápur *Sarkár* as the head-quarters of a *pargana* yielding a revenue of £12,000 (Rs. 1,20,000).³

KARAJGI.

Karajgi, north latitude $14^{\circ} 52'$, and east longitude $75^{\circ} 31'$, the head-quarters of the Karajgi sub-division with in 1881 a population of 3838, lies about fifty miles south-east of Dhárwár. It has a weekly

¹ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 42.² Mr. J. R. Middleton, C. S.³ Waring's Maráthás, 246.

market on Tuesday when field produce chiefly Indian millet and pulse are sold.

Kirgeri, a small village on the left bank of the Tungbhadra about fifteen miles south-east of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 362, has a temple of Hanumán built, it is said, about 300 years ago by one Konappa Sunkod a collector of customs. The roof of the temple is supported on sixteen pillars.

Kod, a large village in the Kod sub-division, with in 1881 a population of 1252, lies on the Samasgi-Harihar road about six miles north-east of Hirekerur the sub-divisional head-quarters. Kod has a trade in rice and chillies valued at about £200 (Rs. 2000) a month. The village has a temple of Hanumán with an Old Kánarese inscription.

Kodmagi, eleven miles south of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 468, has temples of Bayala Basappa and Siddharámeshvar. The Basappa temple has an inscription dated 1158; and the Siddharámeshvar temple two inscriptions one dated 1080, and another of which the date cannot be read.

Kolur, a small village three miles west of Karajgi, with in 1881 a population of 747, has a temple of Basavanna in the Jakhanáchárya style with twelve pillars and two inscriptions.

Konnur, a large village on the Malprabha, about twenty-five miles north of Navalgund, with in 1881 a population of 2026, has black stone temples of Parmeshvardev and Ráneshvar the latter a very large building.

Koranhalli, a village on the left bank of the Tungbhadra in Gadag about six miles south of Mundargi, has a large old weir of dry rubble stone built right across the Tungbhadra. The weir has been boldly built on a natural barrier of rock in the river formed by a trap dyke in the granite. Its crest is from twenty to twenty-two feet above the low water level of the river, and it is about twenty feet wide at the top. The large stones, many of them twelve feet long, three feet deep, and 2 feet 6 inches wide and some even sixteen feet long, which mostly form the crest of the weir, have been quarried out by wedges. The central part 200 to 300 feet wide has been breached and the weir is now useless. A contour running from it on the Bombay side was not favourable for commanding land for irrigation and the work has not been restored. The weir is supposed to have been built by the Vijaynagar kings. On the Madras side of the weir is the village of Modalkatta which means 'The first weir.' This weir is probably the first of a series of huge weirs built by the Vijaynagar kings. Some of them lower down in the Madras Presidency are still in use.¹

Kotumachgi, a large village on the Gadag-Ron road fifteen miles north-east of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 1937, has a temple of Somappa with two inscriptions dated 1112 and 1142, the first to the left of the image of Somappa. There is a ruined fort in the village.

Kudla, a small village at the meeting of the Dharma and Varda rivers, twelve miles north-east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population

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Places-

KIRGERI.

KOD.

KODMAGI.

KOLUR.

KONNUR.

KORANHALLI.

KOTUMACHGI.

KUDLA.

¹ Mr. R. B. Joyner, C. E.

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Places.

KURDÁPUR.

of 611, has a temple of Sangameshvar with an inscription and a large yearly fair.

Kurda'pur, a small village seven miles east of Dhárwár, has a black stone Lingáyat temple dedicated to Virbhadra, Someshvar, and Siddhaling. The temple has a central hall with three side shrines. The roof is supported on twelve pillars.

KUNTANHASHALLI.

Kuntanhashalli, a small village two miles north-east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 231, has a temple of Basappa with an inscription dated 1147.

KURTKOTI.

Kurtkoti, a town about eight miles south-west of Gadag, with in 1872 a population of 5901 and in 1881 of 4516, has temples of Gavareshvar, Keri Basappa, Shankarling, and Virupáksha and five inscriptions one near Gavareshvar's dated 1244, another at Keri Basappa's dated 1082, two at Shankarling's dated 1132 and 1138, and one at Virupáksha's dated 1087. About 1835 a copper-plate grant was found in digging a foundation at Kurtkoti. The grant professes to be dated in A.D. 610 in the sixteenth year of the Western Chalukya king Vikramáditya I., who appears on better evidence to have reigned from 670 to 680. Mr. Fleet has proved that the grant is a forgery of the ninth or tenth century A.D.¹

KUSUGAL.

Fort.

Kusugal, with in 1881 a population of 2071, is a large village about six miles north-east of Hubli. During 1870-75 large experiments for introducing New Orleans cotton were made; but as the result proved unsatisfactory they were given up in 1876.² Kusugal has the ruins of a large fort, part of which is kept in repair as a district bungalow. In 1790 Kusugal was described as a small fort about a mile and a half round, very handsome and well built, strongly placed on rising ground in a black plain. The fort seemed to have been built by a man of science and the builder or improver was said to have been Badr-ul Zamán Khán, Tipu's general, who held Dhárwár for seven months against a united Marátha and English force in 1790 and 1791. The outer defence was a ditch twenty feet wide and deep which was carried all round. Behind the outer ditch was a breastwork with a parapet and embrasures and a not very thick hedge. Between the hedge and the covert way was a second breastwork irregular and unfinished. The curtain was of stone flanked by bastions and commanded by cavaliers. The entrance was from the south through four or five strong gateways.³ In 1826 a committee of inspection described Kusugal as a strong stone fort, irregularly oblong, about 300 yards long and 200 yards broad.⁴ It was surrounded by a broad dry ditch and had

¹ Indian Antiquary, VII. 217; Kánarese Dynasties, 27. ² See above pp. 298-300.

³ Moor's Narrative of Captain Little's Detachment, 257.

⁴ The committee called it a place of considerable strength for three reasons, (1) the rampart was covered by an earthen mound or glacis to a height unusual in Marátha works; (2) the absence of water for five miles round which made a regular attack very difficult; (3) the little cover afforded by the neighbourhood to a hostile force. The committee recommended it as a good military depot, as its interior was of a dry hard soil and as a garrison even of 200 men could hold the place against a large force. There was one objection against this in the bad state of the roads in the neighbourhood during the rains, the soil being chiefly cotton-growing.

three or four guns and a few good buildings and materials specially stone quarries. A second committee of inspection in 1842 described Kusugal as a strong irregular fort about 200 yards long by 150 broad, with an inner and an outer line of fortifications. The inner works consisted of about eleven bastions joined by curtains all built of strong stone masonry and varying in height from twenty-four to thirty feet. The bastions were large and fit for ordnance especially a central bastion on the eastern face. This central bastion was sixty feet high and provided with parapets having embrasures or gunholes in good order. The entrance to this work was by a small door (10' x 5' x 6") strongly fitted in stone work near the north-east bastion on the east face. At a distance of thirty to forty yards this inner line of work was completely surrounded by an outer line of a twenty feet high rampart with parapet. The rampart had a small but steep glacis about fifty feet broad with at its foot a ditch about 15' broad and 10' deep. About thirty yards beyond the first ditch a second smaller ditch entirely surrounded the fort. The whole of the works were much ruined but from their height partly covered the inner fortifications. The entrance to the outer lines of works was by two gates in the north-east face; but the work about the gates was too much out of repair to render them of any use. There were two reservoirs in the fort, one of which never dried. Several quarries between the two lines of works from which the stone for the fortifications had been obtained also served as reservoirs and held water till March. There were a few inhabited houses and ruins of a palace within the fort, with no protection against shells. The committee found that the chief strength of the fort lay in the inner works. They were well built, were in good order, and were covered from ordnance by the outer line. The chief consideration for an invading force was, especially in the hot season, the absence of water in the neighbourhood.¹ Kusugal fort was taken by the Maráthás immediately after the capitulation of the Dhárwár garrison after a seven months' siege in 1791-92.² The territories of Kusugal and Dhárwár formed part of the land which the Peshwa ceded to the British under the Poona treaty of 1817.³

Lakkundi, about seven miles south-east of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 3263, is a place of antiquarian interest with about fifty temples and thirty-five inscriptions. The temples are of various degrees of size and beauty and are said to have been built by the mythic architect Jakhanáchárya. Great artistic skill is shown in the stone carvings of many of the larger temples, the work somewhat resembling Chinese ivory carving. The chief temples are of Chandramauleshvar, Ganesh, Gokarneshvar, Holgund, Basavanna Ishvar, Káshivishveshvar, Kumbhárgirishvar, Lakshmináráyan, Mallikárjun, Mánkeshvar, Nagardevár, Nanneshvar, Nilkantheshvar, Someshvar, Virbhadrá, Virupáksh, and Vishvanáth. The Chandramauleshvar temple has three inscriptions all dated 1184. Káshivish-

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Places.

KUSUGAL.

Fort.

LAKKUNDI.

¹ MSS.² Moor's Narrative, 41.³ Aitchison's Treaties, Engagements, and Sanads, V. 71; Prinsep's British India, 201. Hamilton notices that, though formally ceded, Kusugal fort continued to be held by the followers of Trimbakji. Description of Hindustán, II. 238.

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Places.

LAKKUNDI.
Temples.

veshvar is the finest and one of the largest temples in Lakkundi. It is a double temple, a western temple including a shrine, hall, and porch, and facing it is an eastern temple with a shrine and a small antechamber. The porch of the western temple is joined to the antechamber of the east temple by a little raised platform surrounded by a low parapet. The two doorways of the hall on the south and east are beautiful specimens of delicate chiselling. The mouldings up the sides and round the top are chiefly square; they are most elaborately wrought with scrolls and figures and in some of the mouldings the patterns are so cut away behind that the work has the appearance of beautiful fretwork standing forward from the door post and only fixed to it up the sides. Among these mouldings there are beautiful scrolls of foliage a scroll with a little figure in every twist, a line of little pairs of figures with conventional clouds between them, another of griffins rampant one above the other so arranged that their bodies form a scroll. Another scroll is a lozenge-shaped flower repeated with little beads with foliage filling the angles, and one is made of little squares in each of which snakes are most ingeniously twisted and knotted together. In the middle of these square mouldings on either side of the door runs a slender projecting pilaster whose shaft is in sections square, octagon, sixteen-sided, and round by turns and prettily hung with festoons of beads and ornamented in various other ways. On the central projecting blocks over the doorways is Gaja-Lakshmi or the Lakshmi with elephants. The southern doorway has had a row of detached and inserted small standing figures over the top under the cornice, and both doors have figures on either side at the bottom of the mouldings. The pillars in the interior, four of which support the dome of the hall, are elaborately worked. The shrine doorway rivals the others in design and workmanship. On a raised plinth on one side of the hall is a row of female figures representing the goddess Saptashati or Chandi in her angry mood. The ceilings are poor compared with the rest of the building being ornamented only with a central rosette or lotus and a little filigree work in the corners. The exterior of the wall of the hall is divided into panels by thin pilasters and in each of these pilasters is a little canopied niche. On each of the south, west, and north faces of the walls of the shrine is a prominent niche surmounted by a deep projecting cornice and a little tower above of the northern type. Above this again and embracing the top of the tower is a trefoil canopy dependent from a fame-face or *kirtimukh*. The tower or *shikhara* with canopy is repeated in each course of the spire. On either side of every niche are six panels each depicting a mythological scene. The niches round this shrine are empty, though several round the eastern shrine have figures in them. On a stone called *samadhikallu* in this temple is an inscription dated 1198.

Kumbhārgirishvar temple is now surrounded by buildings. It has three shrines with carved doors and four pillars with curiously sculptured bracket capitals. Of the interesting temple of Lakshminārāyan only the spire is preserved. Mānkeshvar has three shrines, of which only one is occupied. The upper parts of the building are destroyed. The temple has two inscriptions dated

1123 and 1241. Nagardevár temple has lost its spire and upper parts but what remains shows that, though not overloaded with ornaments, the temple has been finished with great care and elaboration. Inside of the shrine is a curious image of a cobra which appears to have been carved on the back of a Jina's throne. This temple has an inscription dated 1120. Nanneshvar temple has in the central hall four neatly carved pillars with square bases and in the porch sixteen pillars of four distinct patterns, one formed of eight slender round shafts clubbed together. The temple has three inscriptions one dated 1186, the other two have not been read. Nilkantheshvar temple, the outer wall of whose shrine is sculptured, is in ruins. Someshvar is a neat little deserted temple with three inscriptions one dated 1118. The other two are Jain slabs with much worn inscriptions. Virbhadrá with two doors in front and sloping eaves has three inscriptions two on two large slabs built into the left wall and one on a stone outside, all undeciphered. Virupáksh, now the chief temple in the village, is plain and half ruined. Vishvanáth's is a double temple, the smaller one facing the larger. It is partially ruined and is exquisitely rich in carving. The north door, north side, and back of the shrine and a sort of attached polygonal pillar between the shrine and the porch on the outside are fairly entire. Dr. Burgess considers them perhaps the finest existing specimens of Hindu decorative work. The temple has an inscription dated 868. There are two Jain temples or *bastis* in the village. In the west of the town is the largest temple in Lakkundi, the principal Jain temple. It consists of a shrine a closed hall and an open hall or *mandap*. The last has been built in and closed up of late with mortar and mud walls. In the sanctuary seated on a throne is an image of a Jina. A rosette is cut on the tread of the step before the shrine doorway. The temple is still in use. The only figure sculpture is a representation of a seated Jina in little ornamental niches in the courses of the roof and spire. The walls are plain being divided into panels by pilasters with canopied niches occasionally introduced. The spire is of the Dravidian type, the first storey rising with perpendicular walls to a height of seven or eight feet above the roof. From this the roof runs up in a pyramidal form to the crowning member, the Dravidian final. A little distance from this large temple or *basti* is a much smaller deserted Jain temple. It was evidently dedicated to Páreshvanáth, but the image has been removed leaving only the back of the seat with the hooded snake on it. Bráhmanic Hindus have appropriated the temple under the name of Nagardevár. It consists of a shrine a hall and a porch. Its exterior like the large Jain temple *basti* is very plain. The spire is completely gone. Several fragments of Jain figures lie about. One of the Jain temples has an inscription dated 1172.

The Lakkundi temples, afterwards rebuilt, suffered severely in a Chola invasion about A.D. 1070 when the Lakshmeshvar temples were destroyed. The feuds between the Bráhmans and Lingáyats contributed to their injury.¹ All the temples are being rapidly

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Places.

LAKKUNDI.

Temples.

¹ Colonel Meadows Taylor. See above p. 395.

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destroyed by trees growing on the roofs, and by the materials and sculptures being carried off for building purposes. Besides for its temples, Lakkundi is noted for its step-wells built in the Jakhanáchárya style. The chief of these wells are the Chhabir-bhánvi, Kanner-bhánvi, and Musukin-bhánvi. The best is the Musukin-bhánvi well near Mánikeshvar's temple. Three flights of steps lead down on three sides to the water. On the fourth side is a bag for drawing water. Projecting from the sides just above the water are small canopied niches.¹ There is also a ruined fort in and about which are five inscribed stones one of them under a tamarind tree dated 1120. There are six other inscribed stones in different parts of Lakkundi, the inscriptions on which except one dated 868 near the Kanner-bhánvi well have not been made out. Its numerous temples, some of them as early as the ninth and tenth centuries, and its thirty-five inscriptions, probably the largest number found to exist at any one place in the Bombay Karnátak districts, show that between the ninth and the fourteenth centuries Lakkundi was an important town. Of the thirty-five inscriptions the fourteen whose dates have been read vary from 868 to 1241;² three of these dated 1172, 1174, and 1175 probably belong to the reign of the Kalachuri Bijjala's son Someshvar IV. (1167-1175), while two dated 1184, and one dated 1186 probably belong to the last Western Chálukya king Someshvar IV. (1183-1192) who for a time re-established Chálukya supremacy after it had been usurped (1161-1183) by the Kalachuris. In 1192 the great Hoysala king Ballál II, better known as Vir Ballál (1191-1211) established himself at the capital of Lokkigundi (Lakkundi), and, according to a tradition, between 1187 and 1192 Lakkundi was the scene of a battle between Ballál II. acting as the commander of his father's forces and Jaitugi the son of the Devgiri Yádav Bhillam (1187-1191), in which Jaitugi was worsted.³

Inscriptions.**MADANBHÁVI.**

Madanbha'vi is a large village fifteen miles north-west of Dhárwár, with in 1881 a population of 1337. It has temples of Rámalingdev and Kallapdev the former in ruins and the latter small. Each of the temples has an inscription.

MAKARVALLI.

Makarvalli is a small village eleven miles south-east of Hángal with in 1881 a population of 440. Near a pond is an inscribed pillar called Garud Khámh or the Vulture's Pillar dated 1399.

MALGUND.

Malgund, a village eight miles south-east of Hángal with in 1881 a population of 645, has a temple of Kalleshvar with an inscription dated 1115.

MANGUNDI.

Mangundi, a large village on the Dhárwár-Yellápur road, six miles south of Dhárwár, with in 1881 a population of 1689, has ruined black stone temples of Siddhaling and a small black stone temple of Kalmeshvar. Each temple has an inscription.

¹ Mr. Henry Cousens, Head Assistant, Archaeological Survey.

² The details are two dated 868, one each dated 1116, 1118, 1120, 1123, 1172, 1174, and 1175, two dated 1184, and one each dated 1186, 1198, and 1241.

³ Fleet's *Kánarese Dynasties*, 68, 72.

Mankatti, a small village four miles north of Shiggaon, with in 1881 a population of 803, has a temple of Solbeshvar with three inscriptions on its pillars.

Mantigi, a small village six miles south-east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 624, has an inscription dated 1165.

Mantrava'di, a small village four miles east of Shiggaon, with in 1881 a population of 459, has three inscriptions one (5' x 3') in front of a temple of Hanumán the second (4' 9" x 2') near the east gate of the village and the third (1' 6" x 1') in the court of one Ráman Bhandári's house. One of them is dated 865 (S. 787) and belongs to the fourth Ráshtrakuta king Amoghvarsh I. (851-877).¹

Masur, a large village about seven miles south-east of Hirekerur, with in 1881 a population of 2646, has a ruined fort and a weekly market held on Sunday when rice and chillies are chiefly sold. According to a Persian and Arabic inscription stone built into the outlet of the Madag lake the fort was built in 1635 by Muhammad Khán bin Rája Farid an officer of the seventh Adilsháhi king Mahmud (1626-1656). The large artificial Madag lake is about three miles south-west of Masur almost entirely within Maisur limits but largely used for Dhárwár irrigation.² The lake is believed to have been designed and built by the Vijaynagar kings. To the upper sluice of the lake a tradition of human sacrifice is attached. Being the crowning point or finishing touch of the great work the Vijaynagar king and all his courtiers had assembled to see the erection of the first of the twenty-two monoliths for supporting the sluice. But all the effects of the workmen failed and though day passed after day the pillar would not move. A rumour got round that the goddess presiding on the lake was angry and that nothing but a human sacrifice would satisfy her. Lakshmi a virgin daughter of the chief digger stepped forward and she having been buried alive below the site of the stone no further trouble was found in erecting it.³ In a revenue statement of about 1789 Masur appears under the Bankápur *sarkár* as the head-quarters of a *pargana* or sub-division yielding a yearly revenue of about £1500 (Rs. 15,000).⁴

Medleri, a large village on the Tungbhadra eight miles north-east of Ránebennur, with in 1881 a population of 2085, is noted for

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MANTIGI.

MANTRAVÁDI.

MASUR.

MEDLERI.

¹ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 35.

² See above pp. 260-263. The stones of Masur fort have been largely used in rebuilding the Madag dam. The Persian and Arabic inscription may be translated:

³ With the name of God who is the most merciful of the merciful, do I begin. There is no god but God and Muhammad is his Prophet. This impregnable fortress was built in the reign of Sultán Máhmud Adilsháh bin Ibráhim Adilsháh. May his kingdom be eternal. Who is the asylum of faith of justice and of mighty power. The writer of this inscription Muhammad Khán bin Rája Farid the chief of the king's servants having lately exerted himself in abolishing infidelity and establishing Islám in which one may meet with the best in both worlds, by the inspiration of God and his own might began this fortress distinguished for victory in H. 1042 (A.D. 1632) for this his faithfulness and eminent services have been fully appreciated by the king and the public. This fort was finished in H. 1045 (A.D. 1635). All wished for success is from God. Let all Muhammadans know the glad news that God is the only guardian and he is the most merciful of the merciful. Mr. R. B. Joyner, C.E.

⁴ List of Archaeological Remains, 15-18.

⁵ Waring's Maráthás, 246.

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its melons and blankets. The melons are mostly used locally. The blankets are sold in the Byádgi market about fifteen miles to the west. An irrigation reservoir to hold 57,600,000 cubic feet of water has been built by Government in Medleri village.¹

MEDUR.

Medur village, eleven miles south of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 1120, has temples of the goddess Nilamma of Billeshvar and of Basappa. Basappa's temple has two inscriptions dated 1045 and 1047, and Billeshvar's temple has a hero-stone or *virgal* dated 1264.

MEVUNDI.

Mevundi, a small village eighteen miles south-east of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 993, has a temple of Vyankatraman with to the right of the image an inscription dated 1266.

MISRIKOTI.

Misrikoti, a large village on the Hubli-Kalghatgi road eight miles north-east of Kalghatgi, with in 1881 a population of 3226, was the head-quarters of a sub-division till 1838 and of a petty division till 1862. A weekly market is held on Fridays when rice is chiefly sold. Misrikoti has a large fort and a black stone temple of Rámeshvar with an inscription. During the Third Marátha War Misrikoti surrendered to Brigadier-General Munro on the 15th of January 1818.²

MOTIBENNUR.

Motibennur, on the Dhárwár-Harihar road about twelve miles north-east of Ránebennur, is a large village with a travellers' bungalow and, in 1881, a population of 2621. In 1790 Captain Moor the author of the Hindu Pantheon describes Motibennur as a market town of some extent and importance enclosed by a ditch and a wall of no strength.³ There were some handsome stone houses and a brisk traffic with Mysore chiefly in sandalwood. The market has ceased and the town seems to have declined. Close to the village is an unique megalithic structure apparently the remains of an enormous dolmen consisting of large rough unhewn stones resting horizontally on upright stones.⁴

MUDUR.

Mudur village, eight miles south of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 937, has in front of a temple of Brahma a hero stone or *virgal* with an inscription dated 1126. Outside the village is a temple of Mallikárjun with an inscription dated 1137.

MUGAD.

Mugad, seven miles west of Dhárwár, is the head-quarters of the Devar Hubli petty division, with in 1881 a population of 1512. In the neighbourhood of Mugad is an old artificial lake repaired by the British Government in 1849-50 and 1877-78. It is largely used for irrigation purposes.⁵

MULGUND.

Mulgund, about twelve miles south-west of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 5386, is an old town with several temples and inscriptions. Till 1848 when through failure of heirs it lapsed to Government, Mulgund belonged to the chief of Tásgaon. Till 1862 Mulgund was a petty divisional head-quarters. The 1872 census showed a population of 6844 of whom 5364 were Hindus and 1480

¹ Mr. R. B. Joyner, C. E.² Blacker's Marátha War Memoir, 287.³ Narrative of Captain Little's Detachment, 241-242.⁴ Mr. R. B. Joyner, C. E.⁵ See above pp. 258-263.

Musalmáns. The 1881 census showed 5386 people or a decrease of 1458. Of these 4421 were Hindus and 965 Musalmáns. There are nine chief temples, five Bráhmaṇ and four Jain. The five Bráhmaṇic temples are to Kálbhairav, Kumbeshvar, Nagaresb, Pete Basappa, and Siddheshvar; the four Jain temples are of Chandranáth, Párshvanáth, Hiri, and a fourth of which the name is not known. Kálbhairav's temple has a large Bhairav inside, and two inscriptions; Kumbeshvar has an inscribed stone sunk in the earth; Nagaresb has two inscriptions, one in front of the temple door dated 1062 and the other in the wall outside to the left of the temple whose date has not been made out; Pete Basappa has two worn-out inscriptions dated 1207. Siddheshvar has in the temple court, to the left of the entrance, a rudely cut inscription on a narrow stone. Chandranáth's temple has three inscriptions, one dated 902 belonging to the Ráshtrakuta king Krishnavallabha or Krishna II. (875-912),¹ the second dated 1275 records the death of Bhamatti wife of one Madaras ruling at Mulgund, and the third on a pillar in the temple bears date 1675. Behind the temple is a large rock with an unfinished carving of a figure twenty-five feet long and an inscription partly worn out. The Hiri temple has two inscriptions one of them dated 1275. The unnamed Jain temple has two inscriptions dated 902 and 1053. Three other inscriptions remain in Mulgund, two in a monastery called Andánsvámí's *math* both dated 1224, and the third dated 1170 is in a private house. To the east of the town is a small hill about 300 feet high where a large fair is held in *Kártik* or November-December. People take to the hill top a slipping stone or *jarbandi* and let themselves down on it.²

Mundargi, about twenty-four miles south-east of Gadag, is the head-quarters of a petty division with in 1881 a population of 3826, of whom 3328 were Hindus and 498 Musalmáns. The town lies at the base of a small hill on which stands a ruined fort. Its position on the Dhárwár-Nizám frontier has helped Mundargi to grow into a large market town with many shops and a market where chillies, molasses, tamarind, and turmeric are chiefly sold.

In 1842 a committee of inspection described Mundargi fort as on a rocky hill about 250 feet high, with a steep and much exposed ascent. The fort defences were irregular about 160 yards long by 100 broad. They included bastions connected by a wall five or six feet thick, with narrow ramparts, built of loose stone but sufficient to hold matchlock-men. The works were about sixteen feet high, and some of the bastions were able to hold guns. The works were in fair order and entirely commanded the hill which had no cover. There were two entrances to the fort one much ruined to the north with two gateways; the other on the west, a single small door in bad order. There was a good supply of water from a pond which held water throughout the year. The interior had no houses and no inhabitants and was perfectly exposed to hills. The committee found that though the fort defences were of little

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Fort.¹ Compare Fleet's *Kánarcse Dynasties*, 35-36.² Ráv Bahádur Tirmalráv Venkatesh.

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strength, as the ascent up the hill was much exposed a determined garrison might give much trouble. Before the 1857 Mutinies Mundargi was under a hereditary district officer named Bhimráv Nadgir. From some grievance, real or fancied, this man was in concert with the mutinous Bráhma chief of Nargund and murdered a British guard which had been placed over some of his ammunition and stores. He fled to Kopal in the Nizám's territory about twenty-five miles north-east of Mundargi and was killed in the siege of that town.¹ Bhimráv's private villages of Bennihalli and Haitápur were confiscated.

MUNVALLI.

Munvalli, a small village one mile north-west of Bankápur, with in 1881 a population of 156, has three inscriptions two in the village and the third in a field close by.

MUTTUR.

Muttur, a small village about nine miles north-west of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 552, has a granite temple of Shiv about thirty feet long by fifteen broad with a small shrine. The temple is built of black granite, with a roof supported on thirty-two pillars and walls carved with numerous figures. It has recently been repaired with brick and enjoys a Government grant. In front of the temple are eleven stones one of them a hero-stone or *virgal* with an inscription dated 1382.

NÁGÁMVE.

Nága'mve, five miles south-east of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 864, has a temple of Mahábaleshvar with four inscriptions, dated 1207, 1211, 1214, and 1255. The second belongs to the reign of the Hoysala king Ballál II. or Vir Ballál (1192-1211), and the fourth to the reign of the Devgiri Yádav king Krishna (1247-1260).²

NÁGVAND.

Nágvand village, about fifteen miles south-east of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 1110, has on the bank of a pond an inscription dated 1120.

NAREGAL.

Naregal, a large village fourteen miles north-east of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 1340, has an old temple and eight inscriptions. The temple of Sarveshvar is said to be very old; its roof is supported by twenty-four round polished pillars. Naregal has also a famous reservoir and small temple of Basappa. The reservoir is the largest in the Hángal sub-division and has an area of 302 acres. It is supplied with water by the Kanchineglur canal. There are four inscriptions in and about the Sarveshvar temple, three of them dated 1077, 1125, and 1130. Near the reservoir are three more inscriptions two on hero-stones or *virgals* dated 1099 and 1150 and one on a broken stone on the wall of its sluice dated 1186. The temple of Basappa has an inscription dated 1273. In a revenue statement of about 1790 Nurgul probably Naregal appears under the Bankápur *sarkár* as the head-quarters of a *pargana* yielding a yearly revenue of £5437 (Rs. 54,370).

NAREGAL.

Naregal, ten miles south-east of Ron, with in 1881 a population of 6071, is an old town with temples and inscriptions. The 1872 census showed a population of 5182 of whom 4668 were Hindus and

¹ See above pp. 434-437.² Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 67, 73.

514 Musalmáns. The 1881 census showed 6071 or an increase of 889 of whom 5422 were Hindus and 649 Musalmáns. Naregal has a weekly market on Mondays and blackstone temples of Chandramalleshvardev, Kalmeshvardev, Somesvardev, and Tripurántakeshvar and a fifth blackstone temple of Molle Brahmadev in the neighbouring hamlet of Kodikop. Somesvar's the chief temple has two halls, a shrine beyond them, and two long shrines one on either side of the first hall which is open in front. In these side shrines a long altar or bench runs the length of the back wall, the front of which is moulded. Along the top of this altar is a row of sockets for detached images and about the middle of the west shrine are two images in their places. On either side of the doors of these shrines is a panel of open screen work of a pretty diaper design. The pillars of the outer hall are much like those in the Dambal porch, star-shaped in plan with the corners running up through all the horizontal mouldings of base shaft and capital. The outer face of the temple has nearly all been thrown down, and mud walls have been built in and around it.¹ There are seven inscriptions, one of fifty-eight lines in Kalmeshvardev's temple, and another of forty-seven and a half lines in Tripurántakeshvar's temple. Both are in the times of the Sinda chief Permádi I. (1104-1144) and record grants by village officers made in 950.² The third inscription in front of a temple of Hanumán to the west of the ruined Naregal fort bears date 1044. The fourth is dated 1100, and the fifth is of the time of the Sinda chief Permádi dated 1104. The sixth and seventh are hero-stones or *virgals* dated 1197 and 1290. The Kodikop temple of Molle Brahmadev has two inscriptions. One, of which twenty-nine lines can be made out, is built into the wall on the right of the temple door. It belongs to the Sinda chief Achugi II. (1098-1122) a feudatory of the Western Chálukya king Vikramáditya VI. (1075-1126) and records a grant made in 1122. The inscription shows that Achugi was governing the Kisukád³ Seventy and several other towns the chief of which was Nareyangal Abbegere the chief town of the Nareyangal Twelve which was in the Belvola Nine-hundred. The other inscription is in thirty-seven lines to the left of the temple door. It is dated 1144 and belongs to the Sinda chief Permádi I. a feudatory of the Western Chálukya king Jagadekmalla II. (1138-1150). This and the other three Naregal inscriptions of Permádi I. show that his capital was Erambarge perhaps the modern Yelbúrga in the Nizám's territories thirteen miles east of Naregal, and that he had the government of the Kisukád Seventy, the Kelvádi⁴ Three hundred and the Nareyangal Twelve, as the feudatory first of the Western Chálukya king Vikramáditya VI. and then of his son Jagadekmalla II. The inscriptions record that Permádi I. defeated the Goa Kádambas (1007-1250), and the Hoysala Balláls (1137-1210) besieging the city of Dvárasamudra or Halebid in West Maisur.

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¹ Dr. J. Burgess.² Compare Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 96.³ Kisukád literally means a ruby forest. The name appears not to be known now; but it evidently denoted the country lying round Kisuvolal literally ruby city, which is Pattada-Kisuvolal or Pattadakal in Bijápúr twenty-five miles east of Naregal.⁴ Kelvádi is perhaps the modern Kelvádi in Bijápúr ten miles north-east of Bádámi.

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NARENDRA.

Narendra, a large village five miles north-east of Dhárwár, with in 1881 a population of 2114, was a petty divisional head-quarters under the Peshwás. The village has a temple of Shankarling rebuilt by the villagers. On a mound between the temple and the road is an inscribed stone tablet of the Goa Kádambas (1007-1250).¹ In 1827 Captain Clunes notes it as Nurendra on the Belgaum-Dhárwár road, a post runners' station with 994 houses, thirteen shops, and wells.²

NARGUND.

Nargund, 15° 43' north latitude and 75° 27' east longitude on the Hubli-Bijápúr road about twelve miles north of Navalgund, is the head-quarters of the Nargund petty division, with in 1881 a population of 7874. The town lies at the foot of a high steep hill which suddenly rises nearly 800 feet from the plain. The town is ill built and dirty and contains the palace of the late chief which is now used as the office of the petty divisional officer. The 1872 census showed a population of 9931 of whom 8622 were Hindus and 1309 Musalmáns. The 1881 returns showed 7874 or a decrease of 2057, of whom 6825 were Hindus and 1049 Musalmáns. Besides the revenue and police offices of the Nargund petty division, Nargund has a post office, a municipality, a ruined hill fort, and temples. The municipality was established in 1871. In 1882-83 it had an income of £179 (Rs. 1790) and an expenditure of £214 (Rs. 2140). The chief sources of income are house and other taxes, and most of the expenditure is on sanitation water-supply and roads. The water-supply is chiefly from three ponds called Halbhavi, Kumbar, and Padvangond, of which it is proposed to enlarge the Halbhavi pond when funds allow. Nargund, though not a manufacturing town, is a busy trade mart where merchants from Dhárwár and North Kánara exchange rice sugar and spices.

Fort.

The ruined fort is on the Nargund hill 388 acres in extent. The hill stands by itself, its sides are rocky and its top flat, while the lower slopes are covered with prickly pear. The way up is by a steep ascent about a mile and a half long with steps at the top. On the bare top are five unused ponds and remains of buildings granaries and magazines. There is also a temple of Venkatesh but no cannon. In 1826 a committee of inspection described the fort as very irregular and covering the top of a high rocky hill. The works appeared to have been faced with stone without cement. All round the fort the country was cultivated and the soil fit for cotton. In the hot season water was scarce.³ A second committee of inspection in 1842 described Nargund hill as lying north-west by south-east in a large plain of cotton soil almost waterless in the hot season. The hill was about 600 feet high at the end, and a little depressed in the middle, and had a plain top about 1200 yards long by fifty to 200 feet broad. To about half-way up the hill rose from the plain at nearly an even slope of thirty-five to forty feet. In the upper half the rocks rose sheer, in some places in tiers of natural scarps, one over the other, in other places in one sheer scarp of great height. The entire crest of the hill was fortified with stone bastions and

¹ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 90.² Itinerary, 27.³ MS. Report.

curtains, in some places in double lines. The works were in good order and though of no great height, coupled with the natural bold character of the rock, they made the fort look impregnable to assault. The south-west end was formed into a citadel by a stone curtain built across the crest of the hill. It contained one large strong gate leading into the outer fort. The bastions and works in the citadel were all in good order and capable of holding ordnance. The citadel overlooked the town and the rock on which it was built was the boldest point of the hill, a perpendicular scarp of very great height. The fort had two entrances, both from inside the citadel. One ran up the north-east side of the hill, the other led by a pathway up the south-west side. The north-east was the chief entrance and passed through strong gates well flanked and defended by bastions and loop-holed walls. The ascent near the gates was steep and stony. In the south-west entrance was a small gate with two small strong doors leading through a small rock-cut gallery. The fort contained two large cisterns holding much water and remains of a number of houses. In the citadel was a palace with a few lines and store-rooms for arms and ammunition. Some pieces of ordnance were mounted on carriages but not in good order. A few guards lived in the citadel. The committee were of opinion from its natural strength and from its efficiency for defence that the fortress was capable of making a strong resistance, specially because there were no heights attached to the hill and no available positions for batteries, while the great extent of the fort made mortars of no use. The only chances of attack were by a daring entrance by the main gate or an attempt to escalade the west point of the fort where the hill slope ran almost to the foot of the works, where however the works were double. The committee considered the fort one of the strongest in the Bombay Karnátak. If well defended its capture would require much time and trouble and a large invading force.

Nargund has a large temple of Shankarling and a smaller temple of Mahábaleshvar, both built of black stone and a small temple of Joda Hanumant with an inscription dated 1147. The temple of Venkatesh on the hill top in the fort was built in 1720 by Rámráv,¹ the founder of the Rámdurg chiefship, at a cost of £10,000 (Rs. 1,00,000) and enjoys a yearly grant of £221 (Rs. 2210) in land and £132 (Rs. 1320) in cash. In 1792 when the Rámdurg estates were divided, the temple with its endowment was made over to the Nargund branch. In 1858, in the sack which followed the flight of the Nargund chief, the temple was desecrated and the idol broken. When the Mutiny troubles had passed the Rámdurg chief spent a large sum in consecrating his ancestral temple and in consideration of the interest he took in it Government entrusted the temple with its endowment to the charge of the Rámdurg family. A yearly fair in honour of the god attended by about 10,000 people is held on the full-moon of *Ashvin* or September-October and lasts for twelve days.

¹ Rámráv is said to have built the temple at the desire of his family god Venkatesh. The god, wishing to save Rámráv from the trouble and fatigue of a long journey to his distant shrine, appeared to his devotee in a dream and told him that he would be content if Rámráv brought from Lakshmeshvar an image called Keshav Murti and enshrined it in Nargund as Shri Venkateshvar.

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A car procession takes place on the last day. The pilgrims come from Gadag, Hubli, Navalgund, and Ron in Dhárwár, Bádámi in South Bijápur, and Saundatti in Belgaum. About £200 (Rs. 2000) worth of goods are sold chiefly eatables and bangles. Nargund has four schools three of them two Kánarese and one Maráthi for boys, and one for girls. The Nargund priests are believed to have a valuable collection of Sanskrit manuscripts. The collection was made by the late chief Bháskarráv. The Bráhmans declare that all were destroyed during the sack of the town in 1858. But it is probable that most of them are still in existence.

The earliest known mention of Nargund is in 1674 when it is said to have been fortified by Shiváji.¹ In 1778 when Haidar became master of the whole country south of the Krishna, Nargund was left to its chief on condition that he acknowledged Haidar's supremacy and paid tribute.² In 1785 by demanding a higher tribute Tipu Sultán estranged Venkatráv, the chief of Nargund. As by himself he was unable to withstand Tipu, Venkatráv applied for help to the Bombay Government, and as they were unable to help him he turned to the Court of Poona. When Tipu pressed Venkatráv, Nána Fadnavis interfered. He declared that Tipu had no right to exact more than the former tribute, that landholders on the transfer of districts were liable to no additional payments and that the rights of Bráhman landholders, except when guilty of treason, were always respected. Tipu replied by sending two bodies of troops to demand more tribute than the Nargund chief could pay and thus give him a pretext for reducing the fort. In March 1785 when news reached Poona that the siege of Nargund was begun, a body of Maráthás was sent to relieve Venkatráv. Before the Poona detachment arrived, want of water had forced the Mairur troops to raise the siege. They were still in the neighbourhood and after some skirmishing compelled the Maráthás to retire, took Rámdurg about twenty miles north-west of Nargund, and resumed the siege of Nargund. On Tipu's assurance that only the regular tribute would be exacted, the Marátha army re-crossed the Krishna. The siege was pressed with vigour and on the strength of the terms promised by Tipu Venkatráv capitulated. As soon as the fort was taken Tipu broke his promise, sent Venkatráv and his family into captivity and took their daughter into his harem.³ In 1787, in accordance with the terms of a treaty made with the Maráthás, Tipu ceded them Nargund.⁴ In a Marátha revenue statement of about 1790 Nargund Bahádur appears under the Torgal district as the head-quarters of a sub-division with a revenue of £7500 (Rs. 75,000).⁵ On the conquest of the Peshwa's territory in 1818 Nargund was restored to Dádájiráv Áppa, the chief who was then in possession of it. In 1821 the chief was freed from a tribute of £347 (Rs. 3470) called Kunur Báb, and from rendering any service on condition that he acknowledged British supremacy and acted loyally to them. In

¹ Stokes' Belgaum, 42; Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 173. Local tradition also says that the fort was built by Shiváji and called Mabilgad. The traditional date is 1677 or three years after Shiváji's coronation.

² Wilkes' South of India, II, 187.

³ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 472.

⁴ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 466-467.

⁵ Waring's Maráthás, 243.

1827 Nargund town was described as well built with an excellent market in the fair season.¹ In 1842 it was described as a large and populous town with a large number of houses. It was surrounded by a mud wall with bastions and curtains in bad order.² In 1857 the Nargund chief was Bháskarráv Áppásáheb, commonly called Bába Sáheb, the most intelligent of the Bombay Karnátak chiefs. He had collected a library believed to contain between three and four thousand Sanskrit volumes. He conceived himself grievously wronged by the British Government as he was refused sanction to adopt a son. The idea that his state would be absorbed by the British Government seems to have hung heavily on him and to have made him a leader in the general movement of the time. As Nargund fort was known to be one of the strongest places in the Bombay Karnátak it was deemed politic to ask the chief to send his heavy guns and stores of powder to Dhárwár on the plea that in the unsettled state of the country it was advisable to prevent the possibility of their falling into the hands of insurgents. The chief could not refuse to deliver his guns without showing signs of disloyalty. On the 7th of May 1858 all but three of his guns and a large store of powder and saltpetre were received in Dhárwár. This attachment of his arms alarmed the chief and led him to suppose that Government were aware of his treasonable plans. Meanwhile news arrived of the revolt of the chief of Mundargi and Bháskarráv placed guns in position on his fort. A letter which he received about the same time from Mr. Manson of the Civil Service, the Political Agent of the Southern Marátha Country, greatly incensed him and fearing that his treasonable intentions were fully known to the Political Agent, he went with about seven or eight hundred horse and foot towards Rámdurg about twenty miles to the north-west. Learning that Mr. Manson was at Suribán village twelve miles north of Nargund, the chief surrounded the village at night and murdered Mr. Manson who had an escort of only a dozen troopers. Mr. Manson's head was cut off and fixed by the chief on the gate of Nargund town. The news of Mr. Manson's murder and of the insult to his body reached Dhárwár on the 30th May. On the 1st of June a force under Colonel, afterwards Major-General Sir, George Malcolm appeared before Nargund. A party of 100 horse went to reconnoitre the fort and retired. The armed rabble which the chief had collected to the number of 700 mistook this withdrawal for flight and came pouring out towards the British camp. On seeing the main body of the British force they retreated and were pursued by the cavalry who sabred them to within 500 yards of the town, inflicting a loss of about sixty killed. Skirmishers were afterwards thrown forward under cover of artillery and by evening the town was taken and the troops were moved forward to the chief's palace. Early next morning a storming party wound up the steep path to the fort gates which they were prepared to blow open. No resistance was offered. The place was found almost deserted as many of the garrison had jumped down the precipice rather than

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*History.*¹ Fort Inspection Committee's MS. Report.² Fort Inspection Committee's MS. Report.

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face the storming party. The chief himself had fled. His track was followed with great energy and skill by Mr., now Sir, Frank Souter, then Police Superintendent of Belgaum, and on the 2nd of June he was found in the Torgal forest with six of his chief followers disguised as pilgrims on their way to Pandharpur. He was taken to Belgaum and was there tried, convicted, and hanged on the 12th of June. On the 3rd of June a proclamation was issued declaring the Nargund state forfeited.¹ The fort was garrisoned for some time by a few British troops which were soon withdrawn. As the hill was well supplied with water, soon after the confiscation a proposal was made that the water cisterns and a few buildings should be kept in repair and the fort used as a health resort for Dhárwár invalids. The fortifications have been dismantled and the fort has been rendered untenable by destroying some of the chief reservoirs.²

NARSAPUR.

Narsa'pur, two miles north-east of Gadag, is a private or *inám* village with in 1881 a population of 583. The revenues of the village go towards the maintenance of the temples of Trikuteshvar and Virnáráyan at Gadag.³ The village has an old temple and an inscription of the Kalachuri chief Someshvar or Shivdev the son of Bijjala dated 1173. The temple has two windows adorned in a somewhat peculiar style with figures in deep relief. The figures seem taken from the Rámayán and Mahábhárat and are much like the elaborate sculptures on each side of the porch base in the Kailás temple at Elura. They are fine examples of the mode in which Hindu sculptors of the thirteenth century carved life in action, conventional and not without many defects, but free from any great extravagance, and telling with sufficient distinctness the tale they are meant to record. The way in which the bas reliefs are separated from one another is very beautiful, a dark line admitting light into the interior. But the way of breaking its monotony by medallions at intervals gives a sparkling effect to the whole in a very pleasing manner.⁴

NAVALGUND.

Navalgund, 15° 33' north latitude and 75° 25' east longitude, about twenty-five miles north-east of Dhárwár, is a municipal town the head-quarters of the Navalgund sub-division, with in 1881 a population of 7810. The 1872 census showed a population of 9578, of whom 7989 were Hindus and 1589 Musalmáns. The 1881 census showed 7810 or a decrease of 1768, of whom 6578 were Hindus and 1232 Musalmáns. The municipality was established in 1870. In 1882-83 it had an income of £462 (Rs. 4620), and an expenditure of £618 (Rs. 6180). The income was chiefly from an octroi house and other taxes; the chief heads of expenditure were sanitation roads and water-supply. The water-supply is chiefly from the Nilva pond. The want of a dispensary is badly felt. There are fifty-two wells all, except one, brackish. They are chiefly used for washing. Among the property of the municipality is a ruined fort called Lálgadi. Navalgund has five schools three

¹ Sir Le Grand Jacob's Western India, 222-226; Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 192-194; Mr. F. L. Charles C. S. from Mutiny Files. See below Suribán.

² Mr. J. R. Middleton, C. S.

³ See above pp. 715-716.

⁴ Dr. Fergusson in Architecture of Dhárwár and Mysore, 61.

Government and two private. Of the three Government schools, one anglo-vernacular and one vernacular are for boys and one vernacular is for girls. Navalgund is noted for its superior breed of cattle which are chiefly sold at its weekly cattle market on Tuesdays; and for its cotton carpets which are exported throughout Dhárwár and the neighbouring districts. Cradles and toys are also made and largely sold.

No remains of old temples or inscriptions have been found at Navalgund and it appears to be a new town. Its earliest mention is in 1454 as the head-quarters of a *sarkár* or province governed under the Bahmani king Alá-ud-din II. (1435-1457) by his brother-in-law Jalálkhán. In the same year Jalálkhán and his son Sikandar Sháh hearing a false report that the king had died, seized on several districts round Navalgund. The king promised a free pardon to the rebels if they submitted. Instead of submitting Jalálkhán called for aid to the Málwa king telling him that Alá-ud-din was dead and that the ministers were dividing the kingdom. The Málwa king crossed Khándesh and came to the Deccan in 1457 but learning that he had been deceived retreated leaving secret orders to capture Sikandar and bring him to Mándu. Sikandar retreated to Navalgund and on the promise of a free pardon gave up Navalgund fort. In the distribution of governorships and commands which followed the death of Alá-ud-din II. and the succession of his son Humáyun Zelim (1457), Sikandar Sháh suffered a disappointment and joining his father at Navalgund began to raise troops. He defeated the force sent against him. Then the king advanced in person, and offered to pardon the rebel father and son if they submitted. As they refused to submit, Humáyun ordered an attack. The insurgents fought with the greatest bravery. After a long indecisive action the king who was pressing forward in the centre mounted on an elephant was attacked by Sikandar. The king's life was saved by his elephant which seized Sikandar in his trunk, and threw him from his horse. Sikandar was killed and his followers fled. Next day the siege of Navalgund was begun; and at the end of a week, having no hope of relief, Jalálkhán submitted. His life was spared but he remained a prisoner for the rest of his days.¹ About 1690 under Aurangzeb's governor of Sávanur Navalgund was the head-quarters of a revenue division managed by an hereditary Lingayat officer called the Desái of Navalgund. In 1747 the Sávanur Nawáb was obliged to agree to a treaty ceding to the Peshwa the whole of the present sub-division of Navalgund along with other parts of the Dhárwár district.² In 1778 when Haidar Ali became master of the country south of the Krishna, Navalgund was left to its chief on condition that he acknowledged Haidar's supremacy and paid him tribute.³ In a Marátha revenue statement of about 1790 Navalgund appears in the Torgal district or *sarkár* as the head of a *pargana* with a revenue of £7542 (Rs. 75,420).⁴ Between 1795 and 1800 in the struggles which convulsed the Marátha state

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NAVALGUND.

History.

¹ Briggs' Ferihta, II. 447-456. ² Stokes' Belgaum, 44, 48; West's History, 21.
³ Stokes' Belgaum, 55; West's History, 22. ⁴ Waring's Maráthás, 243.

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NAVALGUND.

History.

Dhondho Pant Gokhla took Navalgund and Gadag from their hereditary Desái.¹ In November 1817 General Munro appointed one Rámráv as the military officer or *amildár* of Navalgund. After his appointment Rámráv quickly took possession of more than half the district, and on the 19th of December advanced from near Navalgund with 500 men to attack Gokhla's son who was in Navalgund with seven hundred horse. About 600 of the horse were picquetted in the streets and in the open space between the town and the fort. The rest were mounted and watching Rámráv who advanced at noon so rapidly that he entered the town before the horsemen could mount and leave. Struck with panic the Marátha horse fled without offering any resistance. Nineteen horses were taken alive and twenty were found dead. On hearing of his son's defeat Gokhla came from Bádámi to join him with 550 horse and 200 foot and after gathering the fugitives reached Navalgund on the 22nd of December. Rámráv retired into the fort, and on the 23rd, with ammunition nearly exhausted, he was hardpressed by Gokhla. On hearing that Gokhla had reached Navalgund, General Munro marched from Dhárwár with two flank companies one of the battalion guns and a five and a half inch mortar under the command of Major Newall. Within two miles of Navalgund small parties of horse were seen; and about a mile further the main body was discovered moving slowly alongside of a rising ground at the distance of about a thousand yards. As the enemy seemed to intend to attack General Munro's baggage, two shells were thrown and two horsemen were killed. At this the whole body moved off attended by about two hundred foot and were soon out of sight leaving about ten dead in the streets. After the blockade of Navalgund was raised General Munro and Major Newall returned to Dhárwár.² The *desái* family of Navalgund enjoy some *indám* lands. In 1838 on the death of the grandfather of the present chief adoption was allowed on condition that the chief abolished all duties on trade, and assimilated his administration to the system prevailing in the neighbouring Government villages.

NAVLI.

Navli, eight miles east of Navalgund, has a temple of Kalmesh-vardev with an inscription.

NILGUND.

Nilgund, a small village twelve miles south-west of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 819, has a temple of Náráyan built of polished stone with a large hall or *mandap* in front. The roof of the temple is supported on twelve round and highly carved pillars and the walls are adorned with mythological sculptures. To the east of the north gate of the village is an inscription dated 1044.

NIDGUNDI.

Nidgundi, a small village five miles west of Bankápur, has five inscribed stones varying in length from 4' 9" to 2' and in breadth from 2' to 1' 6". One of the inscriptions which bears no date belongs to the reign of the fourth Ráshtrakuta king Amoghvarsh I. (851-877) and records that his feudatory Bankeyaras of the Chellaketan family had the government of the Banavási Twelve-thousand, the

¹ Stokes' Belgaum, 63.² Gleig's Munro, I. 480-82.

Bellvola Three-hundred, the Kundur Five hundred, the Purigere or Lakshmeshvar Three-hundred, and the Kundarge Seventy.¹

Nidgundi, a small village nine miles east-south-east of Ron, has four small black stone temples of Rámalingdev, Dashameshvardev, Kalmathdev, and Náráyandev.

Nidnegal, about ten miles south of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 447, has a temple of Káleshvar said to have been built by Jakhanáchárya. The temple contains two images of Basava and one of Káleshvar. Near the temple are fifteen carved stones some of them inscribed.

Nidshingi, a small village ten miles north of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 79, has two inscriptions dated 1109 and 1110.

Ra'nebennur, 14° 37' north latitude and 75° 41' east longitude, on the Poona-Harihar road, about eighty miles south-east of Dhárwár, is a municipal town the head-quarters of the Ránebennur sub-division with in 1881 a population of 10,208. Till 1836 when it was merged into the Dhárwár collectorate, Ránebennur was the head-quarters of a sub-collectorate. Besides the usual sub-divisional revenue and police offices Ránebennur has a municipality and a travellers' bungalow. In 1882-83 the municipality had an income of £429 (Rs. 4290) chiefly raised from octroi house and other taxes; and an expenditure of £520 (Rs. 5200) chiefly on conservancy roads and water-supply.

The 1872 census showed a population of 11,623 of whom 9323 were Hindus and 2295 Musalmáns. The 1881 census showed a fall of 1421 that is a total of 10,202 of whom 8398 were Hindus and 1804 Musalmáns. Ránebennur is noted for the excellence of its cotton and silk fabrics which are largely exported to the neighbouring districts. There is a considerable trade in cotton and a weekly market is held on Sundays. The town has five schools, a temple, and a Musalmán saint's tomb. Of the five schools, three are Kánarese and one Hindustáni, and one is a girls school. Near the lamp pillar of the temple of Siddheshvar is an inscription dated 1489 giving the names of some of the Vijaynagar kings. The Musalmán tomb is said to belong to a saint Hazrat Jamálsháh Walo who came from Ajmir about 1785. The saint wore bangles up to his elbows and used to lead by one string a mouse a cat a dog a stag a snake and a mungoose. A large gathering of people chiefly of the town Musalmáns takes place at the tomb during the Muharram week. The tomb was repaired about 1850 at a cost of about £500 (Rs. 5000). The roof is supported on forty stone and numerous wooden pillars.

In 1791 Captain Moor describes Ránebennur as a market town of some extent and importance with large gardens and groves to the east and north.² While in pursuit of the Marátha freebooter Dhundia Vágh, Colonel Wellesley arrived before Ránebennur on the 27th of June 1800 with cavalry and advanced picquets. The garrison fired on the cavalry and an attack was ordered. The

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NIDGUNDI.

NIDNEGAL.

NIDSHINGI.

RÁNEBENNUR.

¹ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 35.² Narrative, 51.

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RÁNEBENNUR.

assault was made by advanced picquets of fifty Europeans and 150 natives under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Monypenny and the leading battalion the first of the line. Colonel Stevenson posted cavalry round the fort to cut off the garrison's retreat, and Lieutenant Colonel Monypenny led the attack with such dash that the place was escaladed without the loss of a man. Most of the garrison of 500 men were killed. The town was given to Áppa Sáheb. Colonel Wellesley remained six days at Ránebennur, and on the 2nd of July left for Háveri on his way to Sávanur.¹ On the 11th of October 1818 a party of General Munro's force occupied Ránebennur.²

RATTIHALLI.

Rattihalli, about ten miles south-east of Kod, is a large village with in 1881 a population of 2332. Till 1864 when it was transferred to Hirekerur, Rattihalli was the head-quarters of the Kod sub-division. Rattihalli has a ruined fort and a temple of Kadambeshvar in the Jakhanácharya style, built of sculptured slabs, and with three domes supported on thirty-six pillars. There is a weekly market on Fridays when chillies are chiefly sold. There are seven inscriptions in the village varying in date from 1174 to 1550. Four of them are in the temple of Kadambeshvar two on either side of the fort gate and one on the left of the village gate. The inscriptions in the temple are one dated 1174 in the reign of the Kalachuri king Someshvar (1167-1175),³ two dated 1238 in the reign of the Devgiri Yádav king Singhana II. (1209-1247), and one dated 1298 in the reign of the great Rámchandra or Rámdev (1271-1308) of the same dynasty.⁴ The inscriptions on the fort gate are dated 1547 and 1557, and on the village gate 1550, probably referring to the building of the fort and the village wall in the reign of the eleventh Vijaynagar king Sadáshivráy (1542-1573). In 1764 in the war between Haidar and the Maráthás, Rattihalli was the scene of a signal rout of Haidar's army. Uniting with the force under his general Fazl Ullah, Haidar took a strong position at Rattihalli with 20,000 horse and 40,000 foot of which one-half were disciplined infantry. The fourth Peshwa Mádhavráv (1761-1772) gaining through his cavalry correct information of the strength of Haidar's position determined not to attack it and instead employed his troops in driving out Haidar's garrison from the towns and villages north of the Varda. In the hope of bringing on a general engagement Haidar moved with 20,000 men intending to retire and draw the Maráthás towards the strong position which Fazl Ullah held with the main body of the army. The Maráthás threw out a few bodies of skirmishers who, retiring as he advanced, drew Haidar forward until their parties, always going away but steadily thickening, at last formed solid masses of horse, which gradually moved round Haidar and his camp and, not without heavy loss, forced him to turn his feigned retirements into a real retreat.⁵

¹ Wellesley's Supplementary Despatches (India, 1797-1805), II. 34-39. Fourteen of the despatches are dated Ránee Bednore, 27th June to 2nd July 1800.

² Blacker's Marátha War, 59-60.

³ About 1193 Rattapalli or Rattihalli fort was besieged by the great Hoysala king Ballál II. (1191-1211). Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 63.

⁴ Compare Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 59, 61, 73, 74.

⁵ Wilkes' South of India, I. 461-465; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 330-332.

Ron, 15° 48' north latitude and 75° 48' east longitude, about fifty-five miles north-east of Dhárwár, is the head-quarters of the Ron sub-division, with in 1881 a population of 5229. Till 1869 when it was transferred to Gadag, Ron had a subordinate judge's court. Ron has seven small black stone temples. In one, the temple of Chameshvardev, is an inscription dated 1180.

Sangur, a small village on the left bank of the Varda about twelve miles south-west of Karajgi, has a small temple of Ishvar with a roof supported on two octagonal pillars. The village has also a temple of Virbhadra and a ruined fort. Virbhadra's temple has two inscriptions dated 1164 and 1412. On the bank of the fort ditch is a hero-stone with an inscription dated 1234 and near it are two inscribed stones one dated 1264 and the other a fragment.

Sá'tenhalli, about ten miles north-west of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 523, has a large temple of Rámaling and smaller temples of Hanumán, Harihar, Kallappa, and Náráyan. The Rámaling temple has three inscriptions one on the south dated 1114, another on one of a row of stones also to the south of the temple dated 1203, and the third on a monumental hero-stone or *virgal* also dated 1203. Kallappa's temple on the bank of the Chikkonati reservoir about half a mile from the village has an inscription dated 1142. The Harihar temple has an inscription dated 1203 of the time of the Hoysala king Vir Ballál or Ballál II. (1191 - 1211). The inscription shows that Kámdev the last Banavási Kádamba chief, though subjugated by Vir Ballál was making active resistance.¹ Náráyan's temple has an inscription dated 1240, and outside the village in a row of stones is a hero-stone or *virgal* dated 1203. Leaning against the wall of Hanumán's temple is an inscribed stone dated 1580.

Savdi, a small village five miles south-west of Ron, has a temple of Brahmadev and Náráyandev each with an inscription. The Brahmadev temple is said to have been built of stone brought from Bádámi in Bijápúr. The roof of the temple is supported on numerous carved pillars and the outer walls are adorned with paintings.

Shiggaon, 14° 59' north latitude and 75° 18' east longitude, on the Poona-Harihar road, about forty miles south-east of Dhárwár is the head-quarters of the Bankápur sub-division, with a district bungalow and a population in 1881 of 4094. A weekly market is held on Wednesday. Shiggaon has temples of Kalmeshvar and Basappa and ten inscriptions. One in the temple of Basappa is dated 1121; of the others, four of which are in the temple of Kalmeshvar, the dates have not been made out.

Shringeri, a village, about six miles south-west of Hángal, has an old stone weir across the Dharma river. The weir forms the head-works of an old canal seventeen miles long irrigating over 7000 acres of garden and terraced land and feeding eighty-nine old reservoirs. The weir seventeen feet high and forty feet broad at top and about 100 feet long is founded on a ledge of rock. It is

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RON.

SANGUR.

SÁ'TENHALLI.

SAVDI.

SHIGGAON.

SHRINGERI.

¹ Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 87.

- Chapter XIV.** built of old carved temple stones said to be brought from Hángal. One of the stones has an Old Kánarese inscription of ninety-two lines fairly legible. There are parts of similar inscriptions on three other stones fixed upright.¹
- Places.**
- SIDENUR.** **Sidenur**, a small village about ten miles north of Kod, has a temple of Kalleshvar with an inscription slab.
- SIRGOD.** **Sirgod**, about eight miles south-west of Hángal, with in 1881 a population of 1158, has temples of Kalleshvar and Ishvar. In front of the temple of Kalleshvar is a hero-stone or *virgal* with an inscription dated 1143. In the temple of Ishvar is an inscription dated 1187.
- SIRUR.** **Sirur** village, four miles south-east of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 891, has temples of Maligi-Ishvasar and Torangalla-Brahmadev and four inscriptions. Two of the inscriptions dated 1040 and 1042 are in Torangalla's temple; one dated 1273 is in Maligi's temple and the fourth dated 1048 is at a gate called Kuruvagalagasi.
- SITIKOND.** **Sitikond**, about eight miles west of Kod, has an inscribed stone on the edge of a rice field to the east of a reservoir dated 1043. Just below the inscribed stone is a *sati* stone.
- SORATUR.** **Soratur**, a large village about ten miles south of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 2375, has Shaivite temples of Ishvar Malleshvar and Virbhadra and a Jain temple. There are five inscriptions in the village one dated 869 in the reign of the Ráshtrakuta king Amoghvarsh I. (851-877) and giving the name of his feudatory Áhaváditya; another dated 951 is in the temple of Virbhadra and belongs to the Ráshtrakuta king Krishna IV. (945-956). It gives the name of the village as Saratavura the city or village of lizards. A third dated 1071 is in the Jain temple, a fourth dated 1091 in the temple of Ishvar, and a fifth dated 1107 in the temple of Malleshvar. About 1193 Soratur was the scene of a Devgiri Yádav defeat by Narsimh the son of the great Hoysala king Ballál II. or Vir Ballál (1194-1290).²
- SUDI.** **Sudi** village, about nine miles north-east of Ron, with in 1881 a population of 1993, has a fort, temples, and inscriptions. There are three temples of Basvanna with an inscription dated 1084; one the Jodu Kalashada Gudi or the Two Spire temple with three inscriptions, one dated 1010 in the reign of the Western Chálukya king Vikramáditya V. (1010-1018), another dated 1059 and the third dated 1130; and one of Mallikárjun with one inscription dated 1068 in the reign of the Western Chálukya king Someshvar II. (1068-1075). There are two inscriptions dated 1069 and 1084 in a field outside the village and an inscription in the fort dated 1180 and belonging to the Kalachuri chief Sankama (1177-1180). Sudi has a little trade in cotton thread.
- SUL.** **Sul** village, on the Dhárwár-Gadag road, with in 1881 a population of 1749, has a large temple of Kalmeshvar and four inscriptions the dates of which have not been made out.

¹ Mr. R. B. Joyner, C. E.² Flect's Kánarese Dynasties, 35, 37, 68.

Suriba'n, a small village in Rámdurg territory about twelve miles north of Nargund, is noted as the place where in 1858 Mr. Manson, Political Agent of the Southern Marátha Country, was murdered by the Nargund chief. Mr. Manson, who was in the prime of life, intelligent energetic and decided, had incurred much ill-will from his connexion with the Inám Commission, but his frank and kind disposition gave him considerable influence with the Bombay Karnátak chiefs. Hearing that the Nargund chief had placed guns on his fort,¹ Mr. Manson moved with great speed to the threatened quarter, leaving his escort behind and taking with him only a dozen troopers of the Southern Marátha Horse. He came to Rámdurg where the chief a half brother of the Nargund chief received him cordially but advised him not to go to Nargund or through Nargund territory as the country all round was unsafe. In spite of this warning at five on the evening of Saturday the 29th of May Mr. Manson set off through the Nargund territory towards Dhárwár with an escort of twenty-one men. He pressed forward that night to Suribán about ten miles south of Rámdurg and lay down in his palanquin which had been placed on the raised platform of a rest-house. Meanwhile the Nargund chief who was greatly incensed at a letter sent by Mr. Manson from Rámdurg and who feared that the Political Agent had full knowledge of his treason went towards Rámdurg with seven or eight hundred horse and foot. On the way, hearing that Mr. Manson was at Suribán, he turned aside and came to the village about midnight. A band of armed men sent by the chief surrounded the village, came close to the spot where Mr. Manson and his party were asleep, killed the sentry and rushed upon Mr. Manson. Mr. Manson roused from sleep in his palanquin fired his revolver at his assailants and wounded one, but was immediately overpowered in the palanquin, his head was cut off taken to Nargund and exposed on the town gate, and his body was thrown into the fire that had been kindled by his party. Ten of Mr. Manson's party were killed and eleven wounded. On the 30th of May Lieutenant LaTouche came from Kaládgi to Suribán with a party of the Southern Marátha Horse and recovered Mr. Manson's body which was partly burnt, took it to Kaládgi where it was temporarily interred and finally sent to Bombay.²

Tadas is a large village on the Dhárwár-Kánara frontier, about ten miles north-west of Shiggaon, with in 1881 a population of 2701. It lies on the Dhárwár-Kumta road and has a Collector's bungalow. Till 1862 it was the head-quarters of a petty division. In 1827 it had 231 houses, ten shops, a temple, and wells.³

Tegur, about fifteen miles north-west of Dhárwár, is a large village on the Dhárwár-Belgaum road, with in 1881 a population of 1791. Tegur has a travellers' bungalow and an excellent camp for troops. Large quantities of iron ore are smelted in the village. The village has a temple of Kareva in great local repute. Outside the village is a den sacred to the goddess.⁴ In a table of military

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SURIBÁN.

TADAS.

TEGUR.

¹ See above Nargund.² Mr. J. R. Middleton, C. S.³ Clunes' Itinerary, Appendix, 87.⁴ Ráv Bahádúr Tirmalráv Venkatesh.

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routes prepared in 1862 Tegur appears as Taigoor with 500 houses, a market on Fridays, eight shops, seven wells, ponds, and a water-course. The camping ground is dry rough and strong; and towards the end of the hot weather water is scarce.

TIRLÁPUR.

Tirlápur is a large village on the Hubli-Bijápur road, about six miles west of Navalgund, with in 1881 a population of 1559. Tirlápur has a travellers' bungalow and is one of the chief halting places for the cart traffic from Bijápur and the Nizám's territories. The village is badly off for water especially in the hot weather. Near the village is a large reservoir which was built before the beginning of British rule.

TRIMALKOP.

Trimalkop, with in 1881 a population of 295, is a small village on the Poona-Harihar road about twelve miles south of Hubli. It is largely used as a halting place and has a travellers' bungalow.

TUMINKATTI.

Tuminkatti, on the Dhárwár-Maisur frontier about fifteen miles south of Ránebennur, is a large village on the Tungbhadra, with in 1881 a population of 4622 of whom 4221 were Hindus, 397 Musalmáns, and four Christians. Tuminkatti has a school and a weekly market on Wednesdays.

UKUND.

Ukund, a small village about five miles west of Ránebennur, with in 1881 a population of 730, has a temple of Kalleshvar with an Old Kánarese inscription slab (5' x 2' 6"). There is a copper-plate grant in the possession of one Shankar Ningapa Bájár.

UNKAL.

Unkal, on the Poona-Harihar road, about three miles north of Hubli, is a large village with in 1881 a population of 2975. The village has an outstation of the Basel German Mission. There are three temples in the village all said to have been built by Jakhanáchárya. Two of them, Kalmeshvar's and Virbhadra's, are small and modern looking, but the third Chandramauleshvar's is a large black stone temple with sculptured walls and pillars. There are three inscriptions in the village two of them on the road leading to the ruined fort of Unkal.

VADENPUR.

Vadenpur, a small village about five miles north of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 330, has to the north an inscribed stone dated Monday the twelfth of the bright half of *Kártik* (October-November) 1500 (S. 1422 *Dundubhi Samvatsar*). The inscription records the grant of Maypur (?) to the Lingáyats as an atonement for the murder of a woman named Kapite by a man whose name appears to read Lingakunteyavadar Kenidsannadnýak.

VANHALLI.

Vanhalli, a small village about two miles north of Shiggaon, has a temple of Ishvar with an inscription.

VARÁH.

Varáh, ten miles south-west of Kod, with in 1881 a population of 553, has a temple of Kalleshvar with a hero-stone or *virgal* bearing an inscription dated 1288. In the land belonging to one Mallá-rappa Desái within the limits of this village is a *sati* stone or *mástikal*¹ dated 1446 (S. 1368).

YALISIRUR.

Yalisirur village, about thirteen miles south of Gadag, with in 1881 a population of 912, has a temple of Ishvar with three inscrip-

¹ *Mástikal* is an abbreviation of *mahásatikal* or the stone of a great *sati*.

tions dated 1109, 1117, and 1144, and a temple of Hanumán near the village gate with an inscription dated 1115.

Yaungal, a large village about fifteen miles west of Ron, with in 1881 a population of 1709, was till 1862 the head-quarters of a petty division.

Yelival, a small village of 490 people, nine miles north of Hángal has a temple of Dyámava with an inscription dated 1404.

Yellur, a small village of 239 people, six miles north-east of Hángal, has a temple of Kallappa with near it on the bank of a pond an inscription, the date of which cannot be made out. The village has a second inscription dated 1248.

Yemnur,¹ three miles south-west of Navalgund, with in 1881 a population of 850, is the scene of a large yearly fair in March-April attended by 20,000 to 100,000 people. The fair is held in honour of Rájá Bágshavár a saint of Kulburga in the Nizám's territories. The story is that about 1690 shortly after the overthrow of the Bijápur Adilsháhi dynasty (1489-1687), there lived two famous saints, Khwája Band Nawáz at Bijápur and Sháh Mira Abdul Rajak Kádri at Kulburga in the Nizám's country. Kádri worked many miracles and rode with a snake-whip on a scorpion-bridled tiger which gave him the name of the Tiger-riding king or Rájá Bágshavár. Riding on his tiger Kádri once went to visit Khwája the Bijápur saint. As he drew near, Khwája's grandson, a miraculous boy of seven unwilling to be outdone by Kádri, jumped on an old wall and rode up on it to meet the tiger king. Humiliated by a power which could make a wall move Kádri returned to Kulburga without seeing Khwája and died of grief. Khwája cursed his grandson for causing the death of his saintly visitor and the boy too died. Since then the tiger-riding saint's fame has spread and various tombs have been raised in his honour. Betroji, a Marátha headman of Koregaon village in Sátára a great devotee of the saint, saw him in a dream. The saint asked him if he had any wish and Betroji prayed the saint to live near him and take care of him and his family. The saint told him that he would find impressions of the saint's hand or *panjás* lying near his pillow and that he was to take them to Yemnur and worship them there. On awaking Betroji found near his pillow two canes and a hand or *panja* riding on a silver tiger. He took them to Yemnur and began to worship them. About 1720 the present tomb a mud-walled whitewashed building with a wooden roof still standing was built by a descendant of Betroji. The present objects of worship are two hands or *panjás* on two small brass horses. The ministrants are descendants of Betroji who get about £120 (Rs. 1200) as offerings from the devotees at the fair. The fair is held on the fifth of the dark half of *Phálgun* or March-April and lasts about four days. Of the twenty or twenty-five thousand Hindus and Musalmáns who attend the fair only about 5000 are devotees, who come under vows to the saint to cure venereal disease. They come from various parts of the Dhárwár district, from Belgaum, Bijápur, Kánara, and the Nizám's

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YAUNGAL.

YELIVAL.

YELLUR.

YEMNUR.

¹ Mr. C. Wiltshire, C. S. and Ráv Bahádur Tirmalráv Venkatesh.

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YERNUR.

territories. Persons suffering from disease promise, if the saint cures them, to offer sheep and fowls and to feed Musalmán beggars. They take medicine in the name of the saint and if cured come to Yernur to fulfil the vows. On arriving the devotees bathe in the Benihalla which flows close by the town, smear their bodies with mud and swallow some incense burned before the sacred hands mixed with the water in which the sacred hands have been bathed. The promised sheep and fowls are slain by a Musalmán who is paid 1½d. (1 a.) a head. After being boiled and offered with a wheat cake to the saint, the animals are eaten by the payer of the vow if he is a flesh-eating Hindu. If he is not a flesh-eater he gives the animals to the Marátha ministrants or to the people. Sometimes brass and silver horses and hands are presented to the saint. These are kept near the original horses and hands and worshipped with them. The fair is a considerable centre of trade; about £2500 (Rs. 25,000) worth of goods are sold every year. About 200 booths are set up by Lingáyat Marátha and Musalmán dealers.¹ The articles sold are rice, pulse, sugar, sweetmeats, cooked food, country liquor, grapes, guavas, water and musk melons, plantains, flowers, matches, firewood, fodder, waistcloths, women's robes, jackets, small and large trousers, small carpets, thread, needles, combs, redpowder, perfumes, tooth-powder, false pearls, and coral beads, copper brass and iron vessels, metal lamps, small boxes of tin brass and copper, toys, and bamboo baskets. The buyers are chiefly consumers, and all payments are in cash. The people spend the four days of the fair in great merriment. Hindus buy sugar, flowers, and perfumes and if they have made a vow, offer them with animals to the saint, making a small money present to the ministrant. Musalmáns offer cooked food and presents in money to the Marátha ministrant and to the Musalmán beggars, but abstain from animal sacrifices. When they have paid these vows, the people form in groups and go to hear dancing girls and singing and playing beggars, or go to see wrestlers, or buy and eat sweetmeats and fruit, or buy toys for children, or combs matches needles and thread for home use. A municipality, which is managed by the Navalgunid commissioners and is maintained by a pilgrim and shop tax, has been opened since the 28th of January 1881.² The pilgrim tax, which in 1882-83 yielded £241 (Rs. 2410) is levied at the rate of 1½d. (1 a.) on each pilgrim. The shop tax, which yielded £32 (Rs. 320) is levied at 1s. to 2s. (Rs. ½-1) on each shop or booth according to its size and amount of business. The charges amounted to £381 (Rs. 3810) most of which was spent in improving the water-supply.

YERGUPI.

Yerguppi, a small village on the Benihalla about twelve miles south-east of Hubli, has a temple of Náráyan, with a stone inscription.

¹ The details are thirty booths of sweetmeat-makers: twenty-five each of brass vessels, sugar, and grocery sellers, and twenty each of dealers in cloth iron pots plantains sugarcane and glassware. Mr. C. Wiltshire, C.S.

² Government Notification, General Department, 3413 of 12th October 1881.

THE State of Sávanur, consisting of twenty-five villages scattered through the Dhárwár sub-divisions of Bankápur and Karajgi, has an estimated area of seventy square miles, a population according to the 1881 census of 14,700, and, during the five years ending 1883, an average yearly revenue of £5660 (Rs. 56,600). Round the town of Sávanur, which is about forty miles south-east of Dhárwár, the state lands stretch about thirteen miles west and east, and about nine or ten miles north and south. Except in the west where are low scrub-covered hills, the country is flat and rather bare of trees. No river with a flow of water throughout the year passes through Sávanur, but the Varda, on its way through Karajgi, touches the south-east boundary of the state. Several villages are provided with reservoirs and ponds, and on the supply of water stored in these during the rains, the people depend for the greater part of the year. As the hot season advances the supply of water in these ponds runs dry, and people have recourse to wells in neighbouring villages or to temporary wells sunk in the beds of small streams. Most of the state villages are provided with wells which are used both for drinking and for watering cattle. The climate is hot, but the rains are abundant though not excessive. The climate of the town of Sávanur, which has a rainfall of about twenty-five inches, is considered better than that of Dhárwár. Within Sávanur limits there is only one forest at Mulakari. Before the British management of the state began this forest was much injured. Lately a good deal has been done in planting timber trees and the forest is now more thriving. Besides this specially reserved forest, tamarind, mango, *nim*, and *bábhul* abound in all the villages. Road-side trees have lately been planted and are doing well. According to the 1881 census returns the population of the state was 14,763 of whom 10,904 were Hindus and 3859 were Musalmáns. The soil of the northern, eastern and southern villages is both red and black, and that of the western villages is red. The crops are the same as those grown in Dhárwár. Cotton is the chief crop in black soil villages, and large quantities of cocoa and betel palms and betel vines are grown at Sávanur. In the town of Sávanur moneylending is carried on by Bráhmans, Lingáyats, and Raddis. The other villages have few moneylenders. Villagers in need of money borrow either from Sávanur or Dhárwár moneylenders. The yearly rate of interest, when property is not pledged as security, varies from eighteen to twenty-four per cent. With a pledge of ornaments or other property the yearly rate is twelve to eighteen per cent. When husbandmen borrow they generally mortgage their land as security, or, in liquidation of the debt, promise to sell

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the creditor its produce at something less than the market rate. Formerly the Nawáb used to borrow money from lenders in the neighbouring Dhárwár sub-divisions of Gadag, Bankápur, Karajgi, and Ránebennur, and also from his own relations at a yearly rate of interest of twelve per cent. There is no mint at Sávanur. The Imperial rupee is the only coin in circulation. Before the state came under Tipu (1785) there was a mint at which gold coins called Sávanur Huns, bearing the name of the reigning Nawáb and valued at 6s. 8d., were made. No silver was coined at this mint. Prices and wages are the same as those in the neighbouring Dhárwár towns and villages. The Sávanur *sher* is equal to twenty *tolás* and the capacity *sher* is equal to about 170 *tolás*. Sávanur is not a place of much trade. There is some trade in cotton and grain, but not on nearly so large a scale as in the towns of Hubli and Gadag in Dhárwár. Cleaned cotton is the chief article of export to Kumta or Kárwár. The leading articles of import are rice, oil, sugar, and other groceries. The only Sávanur manufacture is the weaving of women's robes, cheap waistcloths, and other coarse cloth.

History.

The Sávanur family is said to belong to the Meyanna tribe of Patháns.¹ As far as is known from their family records, twenty generations passed between Abdul Karim Khán, the first Malik or head of their villages in Kábul, and Bahlóle Khán, the founder of the family in the Deccan. Malik Awtan Khán, the fifteenth in the line, entered Hindustán in the train of Timur's army. Doda Khán the seventeenth in descent first changed the title of Malik for that of Nawáb and rose in importance at the Imperial Court. Owing to the displeasure of the Emperor Jahángir (1605-1626), or perhaps to a difference with the nobles of the court, Bahlóle Khán left Delhi and went to the Deccan, where he remained for some years with Khán Jahán Lodi the Moghal viceroy of the Deccan. When Khán Jahán fell under Shah Jahán's displeasure and was harassed to death Bahlóle Khán entered Murtaza Nizám Sháh's (1605-1630) service, but quitted it soon after on the murder of Murtaza in 1631 by his minister Fateh Khán. He then went to Bijápur where he was favourably received by Máhmud Adil Sháh (1626-1656). His son Abdul Rahim Bahlóle Khán seems to have done good service under Ali Adil Sháh II. (1656-1672), and in 1660 was employed with Báji Ghorpade of Mudhol and afterwards with Kháwas Khán to check the growing aggressions of Shiváji. Abdul Karim, also called Abdul Karim Bahlóle Khán, the next in the line was one of the most powerful

¹ Of the Patháns who are of Afghan origin Orme wrote in 1803: They are the best troops and the most dangerous enemies of the throne when in arms against it. From a consciousness of their superiority in arms, together with a reliance on the national connection which exists among them, howsoever scattered into the services of different princes, they have acquired an insolence and audacity of manners which distinguishes them as much as the hardness of their features from every other race of men in the empire. They treat even the lords they serve with very little respect. From the known ferocity of their temper it is thought dangerous to inflict punishment on them even when they deserve it, as a strong spirit of revenge has familiarised them with assassination which they seldom fail to employ whenever the smallness of their numbers disables them from taking vengeance by more open attacks. Orme's History of the Military Transactions of the British Nation in Hindustán (Madras Reprint 1861), I, 6, 7, 55.

noblemen at the court of Bijápur.¹ His marriage with the daughter of Masáud Khán, the estate-holder or *jágirdár* of Adoni, procured for him as his wife's dowry the fort and subdivision of Bágalkot in South Bijápur, and, what was of still greater value, the support of the Abyssinian party at the Bijápur court of which his father-in-law was the head. Abdul Karim commanded the Bijápur armies during several campaigns against the Maráthás, and on some occasions met with success. On the death of Ali Adil Sháh II. in 1672 Abdul Karim Khán was appointed governor of the Bombay Karnátak, Sunda, and the Konkan, but the jealousy of the regent Kháwas Khán prevented him taking the appointment. In his wars with Shiváji he suffered defeats and had to return to Bijápur in disgrace. Taking advantage of the unpopularity attaching to the regent Kháwas Khán owing to his alliance with the Moghals, Abdul Karim procured the regent's assassination and succeeded to the chief power in the state, which he held till his death in 1678. Under his guidance, the Moghals, who came to secure the surrender of Bijápur, were repulsed and had to make a treaty. He also quelled a disturbance in the Karnátak, and his eldest son Abdul Nabi Khán conquered some country further south, and became the Nawáb of Kadappa about 240 miles south-east of Sávanur. His surviving son Abdul Ráuf Khán continued in Bijápur service, and, on the fall of Bijápur in 1686, he was sent to deliver the state seal to Aurangzeb. He then entered Aurangzeb's service receiving, with the command of 7000 horse, the title of Diláwar Khán Báhádur Diláwar Jang and an assignment of the twenty-two *maháls* or petty divisions of Bankápur, Torgal, and Ázamnagar or Belgaum yielding a yearly revenue estimated at £240,000 (Rs. 24 *lákhs*).² At first he made Bankápur his head-quarters, but afterwards taking a fancy to the site of a small village named Janmaranhalli, he founded there the town of Sávanur or Shrávanur, as the place is still locally called perhaps because the removal took place during the Hindu month of *Shrávan* or August. Abdul Ráuf Khán was employed on several occasions under the Moghals. He aided in reducing Venkappa Náik the Berad chief of Vakenkeri now Shorápur in the Nizám's territories and was afterwards sent to subdue the refractory estate-holders or *desáís* of Kittur in Belgaum and Navalgund, Shirhatti, Hávanur, and Dambal in Dhárwár. In 1715 Abdul Ráuf died leaving twelve sons. The two eldest Abdul Fateh Khán and Abdul Muhammad Khán came to the throne one after the other each for six months. The third son Abdul Ghaffar Khán (1716-1721), acting under the orders of the Moghal Viceroy of the Deccan, was successfully resisted at one time by the *desái* of Shirhatti and at another was forced to yield the fort of Misrikota about twenty-seven miles north-west of Sávanur to the Maráthás under Rástia. Still he must have been generally successful as at his death in 1721 he left his successor

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¹ The quarter occupied by this family outside the city walls is still shown at Bijápur covered with ruins which are called Bahlolpur.

² According to the Nawáb's account Abdul Ráuf Khán married Aurangzeb's daughter and received these districts in *jágir*. According to other local accounts he received these districts valued at £17,500 (Rs. 1,75,000) for the support of 4000 horse. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 207.

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1721-1748.

nearly the whole of the country between the Krishna and the Tungbhadra. The north-western portion of this tract belonged to the Maráthás and is part of ancient Maháráshtra where the Marátha language is still spoken.

In 1721 Ghaffar died leaving three sons Abdul Majid Khán, Abdul Suttar Khán, and Karim Khán, the second of whom usurped the succession but was displaced and put to death by the other two brothers. Majid Khán then became the head of the family. He began by incurring the enmity of the Mogal Viceroy the Nizám by neglecting to apply to the Nizám for investiture on his succession. A Moghal force marched against Sávanur and Majid Khán had to yield. In the wars (1720-1730) between Kolhápur and Sátára Majid Khán sided with Kolhápur and added parts of south and east Belgaum to his Dhárwár possessions. About 1730, as the deputy of the Nizám who in 1723 had thrown off his allegiance to the Emperor, he received Belgaum fort. He was also the master of Sunda in North Kánara and of Bednur beyond the Tungbhadra. Emboldened by these successes in 1746 Majid Khán ventured to resist single-handed the authority of the farmer of the Marátha dues from the country between the Krishna and the Tungbhadra. This brought on him a Marátha army under the Peshwa Báláji (1740-1761). In 1747 Majid Khán had to agree to a treaty by which he yielded the country comprised in the sub-divisions and old estate lands of Pádshápur, Kittur, Parasgad, Gokák, and Yádvád in Belgaum; of Bágalkot and Bádámi in South Bijápur; of Navalgund, Dambal, Annigeri, and part of Ránebennur and Kod in Dhárwár; of the state of Torgal; of Haliyál in North Kánara; of Harihar beyond the Tungbhadra and others, thirty-six districts in all. He was allowed to keep Misrikota, Hubli, Bankápur, Hángal, the greater part of Kod and Ránebennur, and the district of Kundgol, in all twenty-two together with the family forts of Bankápur, Torgal, and Belgaum or Ázamnagar. It was also agreed that the Maráthás should not molest Sunda and Bednur. Part of the country ceded by this treaty does not seem to have at once passed to the Maráthás.

In 1748 the great Nizám-ul-Mulk died and his second son Násir Jang became the ruler of Haidarabad. Násir Jang's claims were disputed by his nephew Muzaffar, a favourite grandson of Nizám-ul-Mulk, who allied himself with the French at Pondichery. To oppose his rival, Násir Jang aided by a small body of English troops under Major afterwards Major-General Lawrence, the father of the Madras army, marched into the Karnátak. He was also accompanied by Majid Khán and his kinsmen the Pathán Nawábs of Kadappa and Karnul. These three possessed the daring temper of their nation and had willingly taken the field with Násir Jang because they made no doubt of obtaining in reward for their military service a remission of large sums they owed to the Moghal treasury as well as considerable immunities in their states. But Násir Jang heeded not their claims and treated them as vassals who had done no more than their duty in going to the Moghal standard. Disappointed in their hopes they grew weary of a bootless war. On the eve of the battle Muzaffar Jang was deserted by his French allies, and, through the exertions of the three Nawábs, Muzaffar Jang gave himself up to his uncle on the

solemn assurance being given to the Nawábs that Muzaffar would not in any way be injured. Contrary to his promise Muzaffar was put in irons by Násir Jang. Násir Jang's faithlessness annoyed the three Nawábs, who from that day confederated and meditated mischief, but agreed to remain quiet until they could carry out their plans. They intrigued with the French general Dupleix who gained a Bráhman named Rámdás in the confidence of Násir Jang, and through him raised seditions in the army which Dupleix called into operation by an attack on the camp by a detachment commanded by M. De LaTouche. On the 5th of December 1750 Násir Jang was treacherously shot by the Nawáb of Kadappa. Muzaffar was set free and the three Nawábs began to demand the rewards they expected for their share in his success. During his imprisonment Muzaffar had promised everything the Nawábs thought proper to ask, not intending to fulfil more than what the necessity of his affairs should oblige him to. The presence of the French troops made him care little for the Nawábs' resentment, and to the French alone he entrusted the guard of his person and the care of his treasures. Not to irritate the Nawábs by an absolute rejection of their claims, he told them that his engagements with the French would not allow him to determine anything without the advice and participation of Dupleix, and encouraged them to hope that everything would be settled to their satisfaction at Pondichery. On the 16th of December 1750 the Nawábs waited on Dupleix at Pondichery, and desired him to determine what rewards they should receive for the services they had rendered. They demanded that the arrears of tribute which they had not paid for three years should be remitted; that the countries which they governed, with several fresh territories, should be exempted from tribute to the Moghal government; and that one-half of the riches in Násir Jang's treasury should be given to them. It was known that all the lords of Muzaffar's court waited to measure their demands by the concessions which Muzaffar should make to the three Nawábs; if these obtained all they asked, the whole of his dominion would scarcely suffice to satisfy the other claimants in the same proportion. On the other hand, if they were not satisfied it was much to be feared that they would revolt. Dupleix therefore postponed all other considerations to this important discussion, and conferred with the Nawábs for several days successively. He acknowledged Muzaffar's great obligations to them for their conduct in the revolution; but insisted that he himself had contributed as much to it as they, and was therefore entitled to as great rewards, and that if such concessions were extorted Muzaffar would no longer be able to maintain the dignity he had acquired. With the object of setting the example of moderation, in the last conference, Dupleix told the Nawábs that he would waive his own claims to any share of the treasures or to any other advantages which might distress the affairs of Muzaffar. Finding Dupleix determined to support the cause of Muzaffar the Nawábs agreed among themselves to appear satisfied with the terms he proposed. These were, that their government should be augmented by some districts much less than those they

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demand; that their private revenues should be increased by the addition of some lands belonging to the crown given to them in farm at low rates; and that the half of the money found in Násir Jang's treasury should be divided among them, but the jewels should be reserved to Muzaffar. This agreement was signed by the Nawábs who likewise took on the Kurán an oath of allegiance to Muzaffar declaring at the same time that Nizám-ul-Mulk himself had never been able to obtain from them this mark of submission. Muzaffar on his part swore to protect them so long as they remained faithful.

On the 4th of January 1751 Muzaffar left Pondichery accompanied by a French detachment commanded by Bussy and consisting of 300 Europeans and 2000 sepoys with ten field pieces. The march was continued without break until the end of the month when they arrived in the territory of Kadappa about sixty leagues from Pondichery. There some straggling horsemen quarrelled with the people of a village and set fire not only to that but to two or three other neighbouring villages. The Nawáb of Kadappa, pretending to be greatly annoyed by this outrage, ordered a body of his troops to revenge it by attacking the rear-guard of Muzaffar's division. A skirmish ensued, and the Kadappa troops, overpowered by numbers, retreated to their main body. Their attack, whether by chance or design is uncertain, had been directed against that part of the army which escorted the women; so that this defiance was heightened by the most flagrant affront that the dignity of an Indian prince could receive, for the persons of women of rank are deemed sacred even in war. Muzaffar no sooner heard of this insult than he ordered his whole army to halt, put himself at the head of a large body of troops, and prepared to march against the Nawáb of Kadappa. Bussy, who had been instructed to avoid if possible all occasions of committing hostilities on the route to Golkonda, interposed, and, with much difficulty, prevailed on Muzaffar to suspend his resentment until the Nawáb should explain the reasons of his conduct. Messengers were sent both from Muzaffar and Bussy. To Muzaffar's messengers the Nawáb of Kadappa answered that he waited for their master sword in hand; but to Bussy he sent word that he was ready to make submission to Muzaffar through his mediation. The difference of these answers stung Muzaffar to the quick, and nothing could now stop him from proceeding to take instant revenge. He told Bussy, who still attempted to calm him, that every Pathán in his army was a traitor; and in a very few minutes the truth of his assertion was confirmed. For his spies brought news that the troops of all the three Nawábs were drawn up together in battle array; that they were posted to defend a defile which lay in the army's line of march, and several posts leading to the defile were defended by cannon which had been brought some days before. These preparations left no doubt that the rebellion of the Nawábs was premeditated, and indeed they had begun to concert it from the very hour that they had taken the oath of allegiance at Pondichery. Muzaffar, in full march at the head of his cavalry, grew impatient with the slow pace of the French battalion, and hurried on to attack

the rebels without their aid. The Nawábs had in their service many of their own countrymen, who, though much inferior in number, stood the shock with great intrepidity and had even repulsed Muzaffar's troops before Bussy came up. The fire of the French artillery, after severe slaughter, changed the fortune of the day and obliged the Nawábs to retreat. Then Muzaffar, irritated by the repulse he had sustained, rallied his troops and heedless of Bussy's remonstrances pursued the fugitives and left once more the French battalion behind, who endeavoured to keep in sight of him but in vain. They soon after came up to some of his troops who were cutting to pieces the body of Majid Khán the Nawáb of Sávanur which lay dead on the ground. The Nawáb of Kadappa fled from the field desperately wounded, and in pursuing him Muzaffar came on the Nawáb of Karnul, who, finding he could not escape, turned with the handful of troops that surrounded him and pushed on towards Muzaffar's elephant. Exasperated by this defiance Muzaffar made a sign to his troops to leave the Nawáb to be attacked by himself. The two elephants were driven close to each other, and Muzaffar had his sword lifted to strike, when his antagonist drove the point of his javelin through his forehead into the brain. He fell back dead. A thousand fire-arms were aimed at the Nawáb, who in the same instant fell mortally wounded. The troops not satisfied with this atonement dashed with fury on the Nawab's body-guard and cut them to pieces. The French battalion was preparing to hail their return with acclamations of victory when the news of Muzaffar's fate struck them with the deepest consternation. They immediately marched back to the camp which they found in the utmost confusion. Large arrears of pay were due to the army, and it was to be feared that the soldiery would mutiny and plunder, and every general suspected the others of sinister intentions.¹

Majid Khán was a man of considerable talents and his memory is still held in esteem in the southern districts. He founded the large and flourishing town of New Hubli, the chief division or *peth* of which is named after him Majid Peth. Majid Khán's son Abdal Hakim Khán had not long succeeded before he had to face a formidable confederation and to give up much of his possessions. He imprudently received into his service one Muzaffar Khán who had first been under the Nizám, and then under the Peshwa Báláji (1740-1761), and when the Peshwa demanded his surrender, Abdul Hakim refused to give him up. He had also declined to acknowledge the supremacy of Salábat Jang the third son of the great Nizám-ul-Mulk who had been raised to the throne of Haidarabad through the influence of Bussy. The two powers combined against Hakim Khán and an army under the Peshwa Báláji marched against Sávanur, and was joined on the way by a force under Salábat Jang and Bussy with a splendid train of artillery. The Nawáb was aided by Muráriráv of Gutí who had also thrown off his

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¹ Orme's History of Hindustán, I. 142, 143, 156, 158-160, 163-165; Malleon's History of the French in India, 251, 263 and 272-273; Briggs' Nizám, I. 56-57.

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1766-1764.

allegiance to the Peshwa. The besieging force was too strong for the Nawáb, and, after a siege of three months during which the superiority of the European artillery was first displayed, the Nawáb came to terms partly owing to the sense of his weakness and partly under the influence of Muráriráv.¹ The French Company owned Muráriráv a large sum on account of his services in the Trichinopoly war (1740-1743) for which the government of Pondichery had passed a bond. He had often threatened mischief to their affairs whenever the opportunity offered if the money was not paid. Now, seeing the great force that was coming against him and the Nawáb, he privately offered to give up his claim upon the French Company if Bussy would effect his reconciliation with the Peshwa on moderate terms. A negotiation entirely conducted by Bussy ensued, the result of which was that Hakim Khán and Muráriráv made their submission to their superiors and Muráriráv gave to Bussy the bond of the French Company. This device of Bussy's came to the notice of Salábat Jang who, influenced by the Peshwa Baláji, not only dismissed him from his service but took measures for his destruction.² Under the terms of the treaty the Nawáb Hakim Khán gave up to the Peshwa the districts of Misrikota, Hubli including the new *peh* or town, and Kundgol yielding a yearly revenue of £82,393 (Rs. 8,23,930). To compensate the Nawáb the Gutal division of Ránebennur and Parasgad with the district of Annigeri were added to Sávanur raising his total revenue to £77,864 (Rs. 7,78,640) including Sunda in North Kánara. The Nawáb was obliged in addition to pay £110,000 (Rs. 11,00,000) in money for the balance of which Bankápur fort was made over to Holkar in pledge. On the other hand the Peshwa engaged to protect the Nawáb from all interference on the part of the Nizám.

Haidar Ali, who in 1763 had usurped the Maisur throne, within a short time enlarged his northern frontier. The province of Sávanur ran far south into Haidar's territory and Haidar formed the design of gaining the Sávanur Nawáb to his interest. Besides the Sávanur Nawáb he was anxious to gain the Nawábs of Karnul and Kadappa with the view of establishing a defensive cordon along his northern frontier and gaining three corps of hardy Pathán cavalry to serve with his armies. Abdul Hakim Khán, the Sávanur Nawáb, rejected Haidar's overtures, and in 1764, a large Maisur army under Haidar and his general Fazl Ulla Khán appeared before Sávanur. The situation of the Nawáb rendered it equally unnecessary and

¹ Grant Duff's Maráthás, 292-293.

² Orme's History of Hindustán, I, 427. While describing these operations Orme (Ditto, 426) writes of Sávanur: The city of Sávanur or Sánore lieth about 200 miles south-west of Golkonda and about thirty north-west of Bisnagar. It is extensive and well peopled, situated in a great plain and surrounded by a wall with round bastions and towers. On a rock about a mile and a half from the city is a very strong fortress called Bankápur whence the capital is generally called by the twin names of Sánore-Bankápur to distinguish it from another place belonging to a *páligár* in those countries, which is likewise called Sánore. Orme's details are incorrect. The situation of Sávanur with respect to Bisnagar is more than double the distance and is in nearly the opposite direction to that given by Orme; and the city is never called Sávanur Bankápur; though Bankápur is sometimes so called to distinguish it from a place of nearly the same name. Moor's Narrative, 246.

impracticable for him to maintain a large body of troops. Rather for the credit of not shutting himself up in the town without an effort than with any reasonable hope of success against Haidar's overwhelming force, the Nawáb moved out with 3000 to 4000 horse and a rabble of irregular foot. The foot were spread over the plain so as to make a show of greater numbers, and the Pathán horse were reserved in a compact body to take advantage of any opportunity that might offer. Haidar, holding this demonstration in contempt, made a disposition which was intended to envelope the whole and to cut off their retreat. Abdul Hakim charged the principal column when in the act of deploying, cut through it with considerable slaughter, and with great coolness and judgment prepared to overset the infantry, already formed in line, by a charge of their flank. At this moment a reserve of artillery opened with effect on this close and compact body of cavalry, and produced a degree of confusion which compelled the Patháns to disperse and retire. Haidar seized with promptitude this favourable moment for a charge with his own cavalry; the fugitives were pursued to the very gates of the city, and a small remnant only of the infantry, who stripped and passed as peasants, escaped the sabre on the plain. The immediate consequence of this gallant but imprudent effort was the unconditional submission of Abdul Hakim to all the demands which Haidar had previously made, and to a further military contribution of £20,000 (Rs. 2 *lákhs*). Hoarding treasure is not among the propensities of a Pathán, nor among the practices which escape the observation of a Marátha, and, as the Nawáb had unfortunately little credit with the moneylenders, he was obliged to make payment in shawls, silks, muslins, gold cloths, carpets and other valuables, equal according to Haidar's estimation to the stipulated sum but actually worth four times that amount.¹ The defeat of the Nawáb enabled Haidar to occupy the Marátha country as far north as the left bank of the Krishna. A Marátha army under the Peshwa Mádhavráv (1762-1773) marched against Haidar, drove him beyond the Tungbhadra, and, in 1765 forced him to come to terms under which Haidar agreed to give up all claims on Sávanur. In 1776, taking advantage of the confusion at Poona which followed the death of the Peshwa Mádhavráv in 1773 and of the murder of the young Peshwa Náráyanráv in the same year (1773), and under a secret agreement with Raghunáthráv, Haidar again crossed the Tungbhadra and possessed himself of about one-half of Sávanur. Before his campaign was over the monsoon burst with great violence and caused such destruction among his horses and cattle that Haidar was forced to seek shelter. The Poona ministers opposed to Raghunáthráv sent troops to drive Haidar across the Tungbhadra. The attempt failed and by 1778 Haidar was master of the whole country south of the Krishna. In 1779, to strengthen his hold on the country, Haidar opened an alliance with Abdul Hakim Khán by giving his daughter to Abdul Hakim's eldest son Abdul Kheir Khán, and taking Abdul Hakim's daughter for his second son Karim Sháh.

State.
SÁVANUR.
History.
1764-1779.

¹ Wilkes' South of India, I. 459-460.

State.
SÁVANUR.
History.
1779-1792.

On the occasion of this double alliance Abdul Hakim and his whole family visited Seringapatam. Haidar came out to meet them as a token of respect; and the marriages were celebrated with great splendour.¹ The half of Sávanur which in 1756 the Maráthás had left in his possession was restored to the Nawáb on the promise of paying a yearly tribute of £40,000 (Rs. 4,00,000); and as much of the remaining half as was under the Maráthás but was now under Haidar was also restored on condition of keeping in service 200 choice Pathán horse to be commanded by two of the Nawáb's sons. Till Haidar's death in 1782 Abdul Hakim prospered. Haidar's son Tipu, out of personal enmity to Abdul Hakim, took offence at his neglect in not sending messages of condolence, and demanded a large sum on the ground that the contingent had not been properly maintained. This greatly annoyed the Nawáb who allied himself with the Maráthás. In 1786 when the Maráthás began to recover their footing in the Bombay Karnatak, Tipu made a demand of £280,000 (Rs. 28,00,000) from the Nawáb in lieu of his contingent, and sent Rághvendra Náik his chief banker to receive it. Tukoji Holkar was at this time besieging Kittur then belonging to Tipu. The Nawáb sent to him for aid. He marched in one night to Sávanur in the hope of surprising the banker but only secured some of his followers from whom he exacted £20,000 (Rs. 2,00,000). Tipu, hearing of this movement, proceeded from Seringapatam, crossed the Tungbhadra, and advanced against Sávanur. Haripant, the commander of the Marátha army in the Deccan, joined the Nawáb's and Holkar's armies at Sávanur. Both armies met in the plain of Sávanur and in the war which followed Sávanur suffered severely. The prospect of an English-Marátha alliance led Tipu to ask for terms. An armistice took place on the 1st of February 1787, and peace was concluded in April. The Nawáb was restored to that portion of his territory which he held before his son's marriage with Haidar's daughter. But dreading Tipu's treachery the Nawáb did not venture to remain at Sávanur and went to Poona, where he subsisted on a monthly pension of £1000 (Rs. 10,000) allowed him by the Maráthás.

In the Third Maisur War (1790-1792) after Dhárwár was cleared of Tipu's troops Hakim Khán lived at Sávanur. At the end of the war in 1792 on their return from Seringapatam a party of Europeans of Captain Little's Detachment halted at Sávanur. Word was sent to the Nawáb telling him of their arrival and their desire to pay him their personal respects. A painful attack of illness prevented the Nawáb from showing his respect to the party and to the *Firangis* in general by himself attending and conducting them to the palace. On an appointed day the party went to the Nawáb's residence. At the door they were received by the head physician and the courtiers who detained them for a quarter of an hour in talk about the war. Several of the Nawáb's children, who were remarkably fine boys, were brought from their Persian and Arabic tutors to be introduced to the '*Firangis*.' Several chambers had

¹ Wilkes' South of India, II. 207.

to be passed before coming to the gardens in which was the Nawáb's residence. It was at the end of an enclosed piece of ground disposed in flower beds, with a handsome piece of water and fountain in the centre, round which the party had to pass as it were in review before the Nawáb, who, with a favourite son about seven years old, was sitting under an arch of the room on a seat raised about a foot from the ground. Being very hot (May) he was thinly clad and had on a small cap usually worn under a turban. He was old and wonderfully fat, vain, and talkative. The visitors were very graciously received and seated on carpets with their hats on their heads. They were detained about half an hour, during which he made many inquiries about the war, how it was ended, and what likelihood there was of his being restored to his former position. The party responded to the Nawáb's inquiries except on the last point for which for political reasons they confessed their ignorance. He appeared satisfied with this and expressed himself mightily pleased at hearing how Tipu was subdued and humbled. Turning to his attendants, as he often did particularly when relating any story in which his own exploits in hunting were displayed, he said 'None but the *Firangis* could have done this,' and pointed to the favourite son near him to observe the party. When speaking of Tipu he could not help showing his hatred of him. If he dared he would have shown equal dissatisfaction at the Maráthás whose parsimony had sadly curtailed his splendour and dignity. Although no language but Hindvi or Moora was spoken he was doubtless skilled in the learned and polite languages. He had the reputation of being a very well informed man, and, from what the visitors could learn, as good as it is usual for so great a man to be. He made several kind inquiries after the wounds of some of his visitors, how and where they received them, and appeared concerned when he understood there was no likelihood of their recovering the use of their limbs. His hubble-bubble, his constant companion, appeared to be of English glass curiously cut. There were several other pieces of European glass. He never drank any thing but water of the Ganges, that is the Godávári, not for its holiness but for its medicinal properties, all other water disagreed with him. He had several camels and *abdars* always employed in bringing water from that river. At the end of the visit the guests were perfumed with essences and presented with betel leaves. He pressed them to make a longer stay at Sávanur, but the approach of the rains prevented them. His many wives stayed in the gardens to the north of the city where he went in the evening. He was blessed with fine children of which he had at least six, the eldest not more than ten years old. He seemed very fond of them and they were his chief happiness, as he was too wise to be much gratified with the empty praise that courtiers paid to what, he was but too conscious, was the pageant of royalty. Exclusive of his harem his chief show and expense was in his tents and sports. On his former hawking and hunting parties few sovereigns in India made more magnificent display. He fondly dwelt on his old exploits at these exercises from which he was debarred by age and fatness. He keenly felt the difference between his present fallen condition and his former elevation, when, as he boasted, he had been known to challenge the sovereign of Maisur

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SÁVANUR.
History.
1792.

State.
 SÁVANUR,
 History.
 1792-1803.

even to a strife of arms. He was a man of vast dignity. When at Poona, imagining ceremonious compliments were not properly paid, he was very severe upon the Poona minister Nána Phadnavis himself, and that too at a time when he was expecting favour from, and indeed dependent on, that court. Enclosed by a wall and a ditch of no strength the town of Sávanur was neither large nor well built. Except the palaces which were chiefly in ruins, there were few elegant buildings. There were no fortifications of consequence. Outside to the north and east of the city wall were several long streets of houses mostly empty. To the south between the city and the gardens, which had the ruins of a handsome palace and elegant wells ponds and fountains, was a reservoir.¹

In 1795 Abdul Hakim died, and, as his eldest son Abdul Kheir Khán lived with his brother-in-law Tipu at Seringapatam, the Peshwa recognized his second son Husain Mia and gave him in *jágir* the town and district of Sávanur yielding a yearly revenue of £4800 (Rs. 48,000). For some years Husain Mia never enjoyed the revenue of these districts and still lived on the pension formerly granted to his father. Backed by Tipu Abdul Kheir Khán returned to Sávanur from Seringapatam and claimed Sávanur as his birth-right. Husain Mia resisted his claims and Abdul Kheir Khán went to Poona and got from Nána Phadnavis a decision in his favour as eldest son of Hakim Khán. Nána gave him a grant to take possession of Sávanur and ordered Dhondu Pant Gokhale the Peshwa's *sarsubhedár* or governor of the Bombay Karnátak to enforce obedience. Though recognized by the Peshwa Abdul Kheir Khán, like his brother, did not enjoy the revenue of his estate owing to the quarrels of estate-holders in the neighbourhood. He still lived on the monthly pension granted to his father and even this was irregularly and seldom paid. In 1800 the Sávanur country was the scene of the Marátha freebooter Dhundhia Vágh's outrages of which details are given in the Dhárwár History Chapter. When General Wellesley marched in pursuit of Dhundhia Vágh Abdul Kheir Khán placed himself under the protection of the British army. After Dhundhia's death General Wellesley made an arrangement to secure to Kheir Khán the receipt of the revenues of his estate. But the disturbed state of the country not only defeated General Wellesley's arrangements but forced Kheir Khán to retire to Sunda where he began to raise troops. Being prevented from completing his levies by General Wellesley he returned to Sávanur where he lived with his family in a miserable condition.² In 1803 when General Wellesley marched to Poona through Dhárwár, Kheir Khán was in a state of extreme misery. He represented his case to General Wellesley and pressed him to oblige Bápu Gokhale the Peshwa's *sarsubhedár* to pay him part of the arrears of his pension to prevent him and his family dying from sheer starvation. Bápu Gokhale's distress and difficulty, at a time when he was aiding General Wellesley with troops, prevented General Wellesley from pressing Kheir Khán's demands on Gokhale and therefore a present of £500 (Rs. 5000) was made to Kheir Khán by

¹ Moor's Narrative, 246-250. ² Transactions in the Marátha Empire (1802), 88.

General Wellesley in the name of the East India Company.¹ The Nawáb continued in the same miserable state, and, in 1806, two rival Marátha armies appeared before Sávanur. The leaders of both the armies by making rich presents to the Peshwa, one after the other had obtained deeds making the Sávanur country over to them. The Nawáb was closely besieged by the rival armies from two sides and the contest dragged on as their only means of attack were old honeycombed guns and unserviceable musketry. The evening was generally the only time for combat when they drew out their forces, fired a few shots, killed or wounded three or four of their men in sight of the walls, and then returned to their camps. Colonel Welsh, an English officer, happened to be near Sávanur when the disputants were camped before the town. He waited on the Nawáb who lived in the fort, his palace being in ruins. He and his family were in rags fine though they were. He was still a pensioner of the Maráthás and that pension as before was seldom or never paid.³ Some time after 1806 the Nawáb began to enjoy the revenue of the twenty-five villages originally granted to him. Of the twenty-five villages Barvankop, yielding a yearly revenue of £280 (Rs. 2800) was assigned to Husain Mia the Nawáb's brother and was held by his descendants till 1846 when it lapsed to the Nawáb. In the last Marátha War (1817-1818) the Nawáb's conduct seems to have been exceptionally good, as on the overthrow of the Peshwa Abdul Kheir Khán was confirmed in his villages by the British Government who gave him during his lifetime an additional yearly grant of £600 (Rs. 6000).

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History.
1806-1834.

In the earlier days of British connection with Sávanur, as the estate was rather a grant in lieu of pension than an independent *jágir*, the British Government exercised complete jurisdiction over it and its police administration was placed under a police constable or *kotwál* subordinate to the district magistrate of Bankápur. When the Nawáb's name was placed in the list of first class Sardárs the *kotwál* was withdrawn and the chief declared to be no longer subject to the magistrate's jurisdiction. The higher criminal powers were not delegated to him but were vested in the Political Agent Southern Marátha Country to whom also appeals lay in civil cases. Abdul Kheir Khán died on the 3rd of November 1827, leaving five sons all by *nika* or left-hand marriages of whom Abdul Feyáz Khán succeeded him and died within three months. Manawar Khán the next in age succeeded. As compensation for the loss of the British pension held by his father the revenue from the transit duties in his villages was given to him averaging about £70 (Rs. 700) a year. In 1832 the net yearly revenue of the state averaged between £1500 and £2000 (Rs. 15,000 - Rs. 20,000). On the 17th of August 1834 the Nawáb Manawar Khán died leaving no issue. As his widow was pregnant, the question of succession was kept over until the birth of a daughter, when the late chief's brother Abdul Dullel Khán, a man of high education and remarkably elegant manners, was raised to the chiefship. Nawáb

¹ Wellington's Despatches, I. 123.

² Welsh's Military Reminiscences, I. 254-256.

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SÁVANUR.
History.
1867-1884.

Abdul Dullel Khán impressed in the most favourable manner all who were brought into contact with him, and received several gratifying tokens of the confidence of Government. In 1857 he was invested with full criminal jurisdiction, including the power of life and death, and three years after he received full civil jurisdiction, Government reserving the right of cancelling these powers in the event of justice not being administered impartially. In January 1862 he was appointed a member of the Bombay Legislative Council. His administration appears to have been on the whole satisfactory. Among other improvements he caused a field survey of his villages to be made, which however was found afterwards to be too imperfect to form a basis for assessment. In August 1862 Abdul Dullel Khán died at the age of about fifty-five and was succeeded by his eldest surviving son Abdul Kheir Khán, who, after a career of extravagance that materially involved the estate, died of the effects of dissipation on the 11th of May 1868. His son Abdul Dullel Khán, a boy not quite six years old, was installed as his successor, and was placed under the guardianship of his grandfather Muhammad Ghous Khán, and was brought to Dhárwár to be educated. In 1878 he was sent to the Ráj Kumár College at Rájkot. He remained at Rájkot till 1880 when he was removed to the Rájárám College at Kolhápúr where he remained till 1882. Till 1883 when he was given charge, the state was managed by a *diván* acting under the direct superintendence of the Collector and Political Agent at Dhárwár. The Nawáb died in August 1884.

Administration.

In 1882-83 of the total area of 44,660 acres 31,428 acres were occupied, 8626 acres were unoccupied arable, and 4606 were unarable. Of the occupied area 15,919 were state and 15,509 were alienated or *inám* lands. Before 1869-70 the system of farming villages to the Nawáb's relatives and creditors while tending to a heavy reduction in the state revenue enhanced the landholders' burdens. In 1869-70, at a cost of £1049 (Rs. 10,490), the survey settlement was introduced in the twenty-five villages of the state. The acre rates of assessment vary from 6s. to £2 8s. (Rs. 3-24) on garden land, from 6s. 9d. to 8s. 9d. (Rs. 3½ - 4½) on dry crop land, and from 2s. 3d. to £1 4s. (Rs. 1½ - 12) on rice land. The state share of the revenue is collected by village officers, the headman and the accountant, under the control of the *diván* or minister.

Sávanur was rather a grant in lieu of pension than an independent state and therefore the British Government, on its accession to the sovereignty of the Bombay Karnatak in 1818, exercised complete jurisdiction over Sávanur and placed the police administration under a head constable subordinate to the district officer at Bankápúr. In 1832 a deed or *sanad* was issued to the Nawáb Manawar Khán granting him civil powers under Act XIII. of 1830. In criminal matters the Nawáb had full powers with the exception of capital punishment which sentence the Political Agent had alone power to award. In 1857 the Nawáb was invested with full criminal powers including life and death. The Bombay Government reserved to itself the right of appeal in civil cases, but, in 1860, in consequence of the special confidence reposed in Abdul Dullel Khán,

Government invested the Nawáb with full civil jurisdiction in his territory. Before the British management (1868) there were two civil courts, one a *sadar amin's* court and the other a *sadar* court. Cases up to £1000 (Rs. 10,000) were disposed of by the *sadar amin*, and appeals against his decisions were made to the *sadar* court over which the Nawáb presided. No appeals used to lie to the Political Agent Dhárwár but he had the right to review the Nawáb's decisions. In criminal matters there were three courts, the *sadar* court presided over by the Nawáb, a first class magistrate's court, and a second class magistrate's court. At present (1883) the minister or *diván* exercises the criminal powers of a district magistrate, and one of the young Nawáb's cousins is invested with the powers of a second class magistrate. Criminal cases which are not punishable by a district magistrate are committed to the Collector and Political Agent who reviews their decisions and hears appeals against the decisions of the *diván* and the second class magistrate. In civil matters the Collector and Political Agent is now the appellate authority and has the powers of a district judge; and the *diván* has the powers of a first class subordinate judge. Against the decision of the Collector and Political Agent both in criminal and civil matters appeals lie to Government. The laws and regulations of the British districts have been introduced into the state, and the procedure of the courts is regulated by the provisions of these enactments. In 1883 of thirty-one offences sixteen were tried by the *diván* and fifteen by the second class magistrate. Fifty-one civil cases were decided by the *diván*. There is also a registration office which registered sixty-eight documents.

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Administration.

Before the British management there was no regularly organized police. He retained a few men armed with muskets and dressed as soldiers. The pay both of the officers and the men was small, and they were employed as messengers and letter carriers rather than as constables. In 1882-83 the police force was thirty-eight strong, together with eighteen hereditary police *pátils* who serve in person besides five deputies of hereditary *pátils* and two stipendiary *pátils*. The hereditary *pátils* have rent-free lands as remuneration for their service. In 1882-83, including cash, the revenue of the state was £7773 (Rs. 77,730) of which £4380 (Rs. 43,800) or fifty-six per cent were from land. Except on account of certain lands in the state which were leased to the Nawáb in 1861 on a fixed yearly rental of £48 (Rs. 480), the British Government possesses no share in the state revenue. The state levies no customs or transit duties. Besides the proceeds of the land tax a local fund cess of one anna in the rupee of land revenue is levied from all landholders for works of public utility and general comfort. Sávánur is a municipal town, with in 1882-83 a revenue of £291 (Rs. 2910) and an expenditure of £191 (Rs. 1910). It has a Government post office which is under the charge of the inspector of post offices of the Kánara division. From Sávánur a runner carries the post to Bankápur in Dhárwár. In 1882-83 Sávánur had three schools, a second grade anglo-vernacular school with an average attendance

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of 112, a Kánarese branch school with an average attendance of thirty-two, and a girls' school with an average attendance of thirty. The prevailing diseases are fever, cholera, small-pox, and guineaworm. There is a vaccinator who in 1882-83 performed 551 operations.

Sávanur, with in 1881 a population of 7648, is the head-quarters of the Sávanur state forty miles south-east of Dhárwár. The town is nearly round and covers an area of three quarters of a square mile. It is enclosed by a ditch and has eight gates three of which are ruined. Beginning from the north and passing east, the gates in repair are the Aghádi in the north, the Lakshmeshvar in the east, the Hurlikop in the south, and the Bankápur in the west; the three ruined gates are the Delhi, Gudi, and Hallipatti. The chief objects of interest in the town are: the Nawáb's palace, nine mosques, a Vaishnav religious house or *math*, and some old ponds and wells. All of the nine mosques are in fair repair. The chief are Kamalballgadi and Khadarbág with the tombs of the Sávanur Nawábs. Outside of the town to the north is a small prayer place where the Nawáb goes in state twice a year on Ramzán and on the Bakar Id. The Vaishnav *math* of Satyabodhsvámi to the south of the town is a large building in good repair. A yearly fair in honour of the pontiff or *svámi*, attended by a large number of his Vaishnav followers, is held at the *Holi* time in March or April. To the south-west of the town is a large fruit and vegetable garden watered by a large pond called *Moti Taláv* or the Pearl Pond. The garden has many beautiful wells all of which except two called Sadáshivbhávi and Vishnu Tirth are in ruins. The Vishnu Tirth is held in great veneration by Bráhmans. Near the Vishnu Tirth is a Hindu temple in good repair built entirely of ashlar stone. To the west of the town near the Bankápur gate is a large and beautiful but ruinous well called Alli Khánbávdi after Alli Khán a minister of one of the Sávanur Nawábs. Outside the town is a newly built bungalow surrounded by a garden and especially intended for English visitors. Between 1868 and 1876 the town was greatly improved by Mr. E. P. Robertson, C. S. then Collector and Political Agent of Dhárwár who had the roads metalled and widened and many old wells and ponds repaired.

APPENDIX A.

THE following account of the village goddesses Durgava and Dayamava and their three-yearly fair is contributed by Ráo Bahádur Tirmalráo Venkatesh, pensioned Small Cause Court Judge, Dhárwár :

Durgava and Dayamava are the most widely worshipped deities in the Bombay Karnátak. Durgava is believed to be an incarnation of Párvati the hill-born the wife of Shiv, and Dayamava an incarnation of Lakshmi or wealth the wife of Vishnu. Durgava, in Dhárwár, is believed to preside over and cause cholera, and Dayamava to preside over and cause small-pox. The name of Durgava or Durga Devi appears in the Hindu *Puráns* and she is known and worshipped in all parts of the Bombay Presidency. Dayamava is not mentioned in any of the *Puráns* and she is little known or worshipped in any part of the Bombay Presidency, except in the Bombay Karnátak. According to the local story Dayamava was the daughter of a learned Bráhman. A sweeper of the Holaya or Mhár caste fell in love with her, and seduced her in the guise of a Bráhman. Dayamava, not knowing that her seducer was a Holaya, married him, and had several children by him. Dayamava once asked her husband to call his mother to his house that she might get to know her. Mátangi the mother-in-law came to dine. The dinner was perfect and was passing pleasantly when Mátangi said to her son, How these sweet cakes taste like to a roasted buffalo tongue? Dayamava was horrorstruck. She made inquiries and finding that her husband was a Holaya not a Bráhman, she set fire to Mátangi's house, killed all the children she had by the Holaya, and tried to kill her Holaya husband. He fled and hid in a buffalo. Dayamava found him out and killed both him and the buffalo.

The temples of Durgava and Dayamava are small buildings of brick and mud and are generally near the houses of the Badiges or village carpenters. Except in some old shrines where they are of stone the images are generally of wood. They are of the form and size of a Hindu woman with twelve hands. The six right hands hold the *chakra* or discus, the *trishul* or trident, a drawn sword, a spear, a dagger, and a long knife, and the six left hands hold a *shankh* or conch shell, a snake, a crooked dagger, a scabbard, a short knife, and a vessel either to hold blood or red *kunki* powder. The images are put together out of several pieces not carved out of a single block of wood. The two images are always set side by side, Durgava painted green and Dayamava painted red. The images are decked with ornaments like those worn by high and middle class Hindu women except that the nosering is the pink-like peasant woman's nose ornament not the upper class pearl ring. They are dressed in women's robes, but without bodices the sleeves of which are painted on their arms. The Badiges or carpenters are the hereditary ministrants or *pujáris* of these goddesses. Morning and evening they lay before them flowers and redpowder, light a lamp, burn incense, wave the incense-pot round their faces, and offer them cooked food or fruit. When a visitor comes to the temple he rings a bell, falls before the goddesses, receives a pinch of incense-ashes from the ministrant, and goes home. The

Appendix A.
VILLAGE
GODDESSES.

Appendix A.
 VILLAGE
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more pious break coconuts, offer cooked food or dry provisions and money, wave a lighted lamp round the goddesses' faces, and beat their own checks in token of atonement for sin.

Once every third or fourth year, in the month of *Vaishákh* or May, or in any other month appointed by the committee, a special festival is held in honour of the goddess Dayamava called the *Dayamavan játre* or Dayamava's fair. Though Durgava's name is not mentioned during the fair the image of Durgava is carried side by side with that of Dayamava and is treated with equal respect. When the people of a village agree to hold Dayamava's fair the leading men of the village the *desáí*, *deshpánde*, *pátíl*, and *kulkarni*, the potter, the money-counter, the *talvár* or watchman, the village carpenter, the blacksmith, the shoemaker, the Holaya or Mhár, the Mádígár or tanner, the potter, the barber, the washerman, the *mathpati* or Lingáyat beadle, the *joshi* or astrologer, the *bhát* or bard, the tailor, the leading landholders, Lingáyat priests, Bráhmans, and shopkeepers all go in a body with music on New Year's Day in the month of *Cháitra* or April to the temple of Dayamava and Durgava and there tell the people that Dayamava's fair will take place in two or three months. They worship with flower and redpowder a hatchet which is to be used in felling timber for the idol car and send men with the hatchet into the forest to fetch timber. Some of the leading villagers form a *panch* or committee to gather subscriptions to meet the expenses of the fair. Every husbandman, for every twelve acres of land, is required to pay 8s. (Rs. 4) in cash and 16½ lbs. of Indian millet worth about 4s. (Rs. 2). The *desáí*, *deshpánde*, and other village officers each pays 10s. to £2 10s. (Rs. 5-25) according to his means. The committee get a large copper pitcher and close its mouth with leather leaving a small slit to drop money through. The pitcher is marked with turmeric and redpowder and is called *dabbi* or the subscription-pot. One of the committee takes the pot from house to house and tells the villagers to drop in their contribution warning them if they do not pay, Dayamava and Durgava are likely to visit them with small-pox and cholera. In a large town like Dhárwár the subscriptions amount to about £100 (Rs. 1000); in villages they vary from £10 (Rs. 100) to £50 (Rs. 500). When the subscriptions are gathered the images are fresh painted, except the eyes which must not be painted till the first day of the fair. A twelve feet high wooden car is raised on four huge wheels, and on the car a shed, about twelve feet long twelve feet broad and twelve feet high, is built for the goddesses to sit in during the fair. Above the shed is a wooden pyramid with an ornamented dome and on the dome is fixed an open umbrella. One end of each of two or three strong ropes, each about two inches thick and a hundred yards long, is tied to the middle of the axles of the wheels. The other ends are left on the public road in front of the car that people may take hold of them and draw the car through the chief streets on the great day of the fair. The car is ornamented with coloured cloths, flags, plantain trees, fruit, flowers, and mango leaves, and generally one or two naked human figures are carved to keep off the evil eye. A large shed is built outside of the town, and, on one side of it, is a raised seat for the goddesses to sit on during the fair. Notice is sent through the village by beat of drum that all houses should be cleaned, cowdunged, and whitewashed, and that the streets should be kept clean for the fair. The townspeople send to friends and kinspeople within a day's journey to come to the fair. As the time draws near people from the neighbouring villages begin to pour in. Shopkeepers raise booths on the road sides from Dayamava's temple to the shed outside of the town, and athletes, songsters, jugglers, and dancing and singing girls begin to troop in. When the village is cleaned and the houses are cowdunged and whitewashed, nine

or ten days beforehand, a second notice is sent by beat of drum that the fair is to begin on Tuesday the tenth or whatever the date may be, that it will last for a fortnight, and that all the people of the village should prepare themselves for it. A lamp is lighted in the temple and kept burning for eight nights and eight days. This lamp-burning is called *ankihakona* or the beginning of the fair. As, during the fifteen days of the fair no corn may be pounded or ground, people grind millet and pound rice enough for their use during the fair, and as, except boiling rice and seasoning vegetables nothing else is to be cooked during the fair, people take care to prepare various cakes and other sweetmeats enough to last for a fortnight. At the close of every fair of Dayamava a fine he-buffalo is bought. His brow is rubbed with turmeric and redpowder, *nim* leaves are tied to his neck, and sandal paste and flowers are laid on him. He is set free and called *pattadakona* or the holy buffalo. He roams about the village streets and goes into the fields and feeds on anything he may find, no one doing him harm or hindrance. Some childless or sick persons vow to the goddess that if they have a child, or if their sickness is cured, they will set free a buffalo in the goddess' name. If their prayers are answered they set a buffalo free. Such buffaloes are called *harkikona* or vow buffaloes. Besides the holy buffalo and the vow buffaloes the fair committee buy eight or ten he-buffaloes and about a hundred sheep. These buffaloes especially the holy buffalo and the vow buffaloes, whose free roaming life has made them wild, are generally very troublesome. To quiet them they are tied to posts and starved for three or four days before the great day of the fair and are further weakened by being made to drink strong lime-water.

On Tuesday the eighth day from the *ankihakona* or lamp-lighting ten carpenter women whose husbands are alive are fed in the chief village carpenter's house, and ten Lingáyat women whose husbands are alive are fed in the house of the *meti* or chief village landholder. Early on Wednesday morning, the second day, Hindu men and women of all castes bathe, dress in their best, go to the goddesses' temple, and stand filling all the approaches. About eight the village painter paints the goddesses' eyes and besides his regular wages is given a sheep. The *desái* hands the *patil* two gold *mungalsutras* or lucky neck-threads and the *patil* ties one of them round Dayamava's and the other round Durgava's neck. The *deshpánde* hands the *kulkarni* two gold nose ornaments called *mugtis* one of which he puts on Dayamava's and the other on Durgava's nose. Next the *desái*, *deshpánde*, *patil*, and *kulkarni* are given betelnuts and leaves as presents from the goddesses. After this the *pujáris* or ministrants, that is the carpenters who made the images, lay flowers and redpowder on them, dress them in fine clothes, deck them with ornaments, burn incense before them, wave lighted camphor round their faces, and bring them out of the temple. As soon as the goddesses are brought out a man of the Mádigár or Tanner caste called the Ránigía, who is supposed to represent the brother of Dayamava's husband, comes forward and raising his right hand, in which he holds a stick with a bell and a handkerchief fastened to it, in front of the goddess shouts out before her the names of the private parts, and continues to shout until the car is drawn out of the village as far as the shed and the goddesses are placed on the raised seat built for them in it. Several cocoanuts are broken and two sheep are killed in front of the goddesses. The slaughtered sheep are carried round to the houses of all the leading villagers as an honour and are then brought back and kept near the car. A third sheep is killed and the images are set on the car. The village officers and other leading men stand before the goddesses with folded hands while the people offer cocoanuts, plantains, dates, and other fruit. The offerings are taken charge of by the carpenter ministrants and

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their assistants who stand on the car by the side of the goddesses. Incense is burnt before the goddesses and lighted camphor and lamps are several times waved round their faces. About eleven in the morning with the leave of the fair committee the ministrant allows the car-dragging to begin. About five hundred persons take hold of the ropes tied to the axle of the car, two sheep are killed, and amid shouts and yells the car is slowly dragged along. As it passes people pray to the goddesses to guard them from cholera and small-pox. Every time some roughness on the road stops the car the goddesses are supposed to be dissatisfied, and a sheep or two are slaughtered. At every turn and corner of the public streets through which the car is drawn a sheep is killed. As the car moves on carpenters masons and blacksmiths walk with it to clear the road. If any of them thinks that the goddesses are displeased he calls to the committee who order a sheep or two to be slaughtered. In this way the car reaches the shed outside of the village. On reaching the shed the goddesses are taken down from the car. Two sheep are killed and the goddesses are placed on the seats prepared for them and flowers and redpowder are laid on them. The laps of the goddesses are filled with rice, betelnuts and leaves, plantains, and a cocoanut. When the lap-filling is over the people shout in praise of the goddesses. In the evening women of the Asádi caste, a subdivision of the Mádígárs or Mángs, dress in fantastic clothes and dance before the goddesses singing their praises and telling their great deeds. The Asádi men beat drums and play music behind the women, while the Ránigia continues to shout filthy words chiefly the names of the private parts. In front of the shed a piece of ground, about ten feet long and ten broad, is coudunged and ornamented with figures drawn with different coloured powders. On the spot so decorated, about four o'clock on the Thursday morning, is brought the *pattadakona* or holy buffalo, who is supposed to represent Dayamava's Mhár husband.¹ Five or six Mádígárs or Tanners throw the buffalo on the ground and hold him down, some by the legs and some by the horns and face. A Mádígár comes with a long sharp knife and cuts the buffalo's throat while another holds an earthen vessel to catch the blood. Next the vow buffaloes and one or two specially bought buffaloes are led before the idol. The head of each is cut from the body by repeated blows with hatchets or sickles. When this is over one of the legs of the holy buffalo is broken and put in its mouth and the head is carried to a small grass hut called Mátangi's *gudsala* or cottage and laid in it. Several earthen lamps are lighted and one of them is set on the head of each of the buffaloes. A large quantity of rice is boiled and set on one side and the body of the holy buffalo is cut in pieces. The front right shoulder is the perquisite of the Ránigia and is handed to him and the other parts are distributed among the village officers according to the village custom. The village officers do not take these parts but make them over to the Holayas and Mádígárs. The boiled rice, which was laid near the body of the holy buffalo is now mixed with a part of the buffalo's blood and the undigested food found in its stomach. The whole is put into baskets and the baskets are set on a cart. Two Mádígárs strip themselves stark-naked and one of them sets on the heads of the other the pot filled with the holy buffalo's blood. The cart and the two naked Mádígárs, followed by hundreds of people and about fifty sheep and some Mádígárs to slaughter them, go to a spot outside the village called the *bhándeva* or

¹ The belief that the buffalo represents Dayamava's husband is perhaps a reminiscence of the time when, as among the Orissa Khonds, with much the same rites, men not buffaloes were the victims. Compare Macpherson's Khonds, 67.

boundary. On reaching the spot one of the naked Mádígárs throws on the ground part of the mixture in the baskets and sprinkles on the ground a few drops from the other's blood-pot as offerings to the evil spirits who live on the boundary. A sheep is slaughtered and the party go round the village boundary till they come back to the same spot. At every turn and corner of the village boundary a little boiled rice from the cart and a few drops from the blood-pot are thrown on the ground as offerings to spirits. While the party are going round the village boundary the two naked Mádígárs suddenly fall insensible being possessed by evil spirits. One or two sheep are slaughtered and the Mádígárs recover. The Holayas take charge of the sheep, give the largest share to the two naked Mádígárs, and divide the rest among themselves. The whole party then return to the goddess' temple and the people go to their homes, bathe, and eat. On Thursday the third day of the fair the *patil* or headman, the *barkí* or under-headman, and the Holaya or village messenger each take clay pots, draw red-white lines on them, fill them with rice Indian millet and wheat, close their mouths with betel leaves and flowers, and lay them before the goddesses. Each of the three is given a woman's robe and bodice as a present from the goddesses. The same evening large numbers come to the big shed. Some wrestle, some dance on long ropes and perform other athletic exercises, some sing songs, and some walk about looking at the fun, or joking and chatting with Suleru, Basavi, and other courtezans. Many are busy, buying different articles from the shops, or looking at Asádi women dancing. On Friday, which like Tuesday is sacred to the goddesses, the villagers lay cooked food or dry provisions before the goddesses, fill their laps with rice, fruit, betelnuts and leaves, and a copper or silver coin, burn incense, and wave lighted lamps round their faces. During the evenings and nights of Saturday Sunday and Monday the rites performed on Thursday evening and nights are repeated, and on Tuesday as on Friday people offer the goddesses cooked food and dry provisions. Nothing special is done on Wednesday. On Thursday the goddesses are taken in procession to a spot outside of the village. A plot of ground about two feet square is cowdunged and decked with devices in coloured powders, and a lamb is set on the square. A member of a subdivision of the Holayas called Potrájás, properly Pote-rájás or buffalo-kings, strips himself naked, ties a few *nim* leaves round his loins, comes running like a tiger, pounces on the lamb, tears its throat, drinks the blood, and runs off with the carcass towards the village-boundary. Some of the Holayas, Mádígárs, and others pretend to run after him to catch and kill him. The Potrája soon gets over the boundary and beyond the boundary he is safe. When the buffalo king's lamb-slaying is over the goddesses are taken in procession to the village boundary. The Ránigia comes forward, walks with the procession, and again in front of Dayamava shouts foul words. As soon as the goddesses are taken out of the shed, the grass hut called Mátangi's cottage, is burnt to ashes, and, on the spot where the hut stood, the heads of the slaughtered buffaloes are buried. When the goddesses reach the village boundary they are placed on a raised seat, and flowers, turmeric, and redpowder are rubbed on them. A curtain is drawn before the goddesses to show, as is said, that they have entered on a state of widowhood owing to the death of Dayamava's buffalo husband. The carpenter ministrants stand inside of the curtain, break the glass bangles on the goddesses' wrists, strip them naked, take the redpowder off their brows, pull off their heads hands and legs, and put them into two baskets, and with mourning carry the baskets to the goddesses' temple and lay them for three days in the idol room. The doors of the temple are locked from outside. On the third evening the ministrant opens the temple

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door, goes into the goddesses' room, puts the pieces together, dresses them in new robes, marks their brows with redpowder, puts fresh bangles on their wrists, decks them with flowers and ornaments, and surrounds them with lighted lamps. Many villagers come to the temple, bow before the goddesses, offer them fruit, flowers, betelnuts and leaves, and silver or copper coins, fill their laps with rice, fruit, betelnuts and leaves, and a silver or copper coin, burn incense before them, and wave lighted lamps round their faces. Prayers are offered to the goddesses asking that the village may be free from cholera and small-pox, and that the villagers may have many children and plentiful harvests. All night long Asádi women dance and sing and Asádi men beat big drums and play pipes. The Ránigia and the Potrája join the Asádis and keep up the merriment till daybreak. This merry-making is called *honnata* or the golden play. The same night a new buffalo is brought and worshipped, turmeric and redpowder are rubbed on his forehead, *nim* leaves are tied round his neck, and he is set free as the holy buffalo of the goddess Dayamava. If this buffalo dies before the next fair a successor is at once chosen.

The fruit, flowers, betelnuts and leaves, money, and clothes presented to the goddesses on the first day are taken by the carpenter ministrants. Under former governments the second day's offerings were taken by government, now they are taken by the village husbandmen. The offerings made on the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth days are taken by the *desái* the *deshpánde* the *pátel* and the *kulkarni*. The seventh and eighth day's offerings are distributed among the hereditary village servants and craftsmen as the carpenter, the blacksmith, the potter, the Holaya, and the Mádigár. The offerings made on the ninth day are taken by the carpenter ministrants.

APPENDIX B.

THE following account of the Dhárwár beliefs and practices regarding spirit-possession and spirit-seizures is contributed by Ráo Báhádur Tirmal-ráo Venkatesh pensioned Small Cause Court Judge, Dhárwár :

In the district of Dhárwár, if a person causelessly keeps on crying laughing or weeping; if he speaks freely and emptily on religious and other subjects of which he knows nothing; if without any apparent illness he eats nothing for days or over-eats without indigestion; if he speaks in a language or repeats verses which he is believed not to know; if children get fits; if grown people strip themselves naked in public; if a man suddenly becomes impotent or a woman is barren or miscarries; if a person grows suddenly dumb, faints or walks in his sleep; they are believed to be possessed by a spirit. The lower classes believe that all forms of disease are spirit attacks. When a disease puzzles a native leech either a Musalmán Hakim or a Hindu Vaid, he feels the patient's hand and says *Bhutnádi* or the fiend pulse, meaning that he can do nothing and that a spirit-scarer must be called in. If the exorcist fails the sick man's friends take him to the English doctor. If he dies they say the English doctor and his English drugs killed him. The men most liable to spirit-attacks are the impotent, the lustful, the lately widowed, bankrupts, sons and brothers of whores, convicts, the idle, brooders on the unknowable, gluttons, and starvers. The women most liable to spirit attacks are girls, young women who have lately come of age, young widows, idlers, whores, brooders on the unknowable, irregular or gluttonous eaters, and all sickly women. Women are specially liable to spirit-attacks during their monthly sickness, during pregnancy, and in childbed, and men women and children are all apt to suffer when dressed in their best they go to gardens or near wells. Intelligent and educated men and healthy intelligent women are freer than others from spirit-attacks.

From their earliest days Dhárwár children learn to believe in spirits. When a child cries its mother says 'There is a devil there. If you don't keep quiet, he will carry you off.' When they are a little older, their parents say 'Do not go under that tree, or to that house, it is haunted.' All religious Bráhmans daily, after worshipping their chief gods and the spirits of their forefathers, before they eat, and after they have eaten, offer food and drink to the evil spirits with the rites known as *baliharan* or offering-making. The most popular Sanscrit books on spirits are the Twelfth Chapter of the Garudpurán and the Tenth to the Thirteenth Chapters of the Váyupurán. According to the Garudpurán five classes of people become evil spirits. The eater of stale food becomes a *pariushita* or leavings-eater; a fault-finder or tale-bearer becomes a *suchimukha* or needle-faced; an avoider of hungry Bráhmans becomes a *sidhraga* or angry demon; the proud and selfish becomes a *rohaka* or leaper; and a rich neglecter of Bráhmans becomes a *lekhaka* or writer. According to the Váyupurán there are twenty-eight classes of spirits, fourteen male and fourteen female. Of the fourteen male spirits, seven are BRAHMARÁKSHASÁS or Bráhman ghosts with big fearful faces, red smoke-coloured eyes, small

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necks and thin bellies ; and seven are KUSHMÁNDÁS or headless trunks, with eyes on their shoulders and their necks welling blood ; and of the fourteen female spirits, seven are DÁKHANIS and seven are SHÁKHANIS some of whom have heads like wolves tigers or kites, and of others the heads are not on their necks but on their knees, thighs, shoulders, waists, breasts, or palms. The food and drink of all is phlegm, food-leavings, human excrement, urine, and mouth-water. Spirits haunt empty and tumbledown houses, cesspools, atheists, the shameless, the proud, the lazy, the miserly, the crazy, the wrathful, despisers of parents and priests, over-sleepers, over-weepers, and women-ruled men.

The every-day Dhárwár spirit beliefs differ greatly from those in the Sanscrit books. Spirits or ghosts are commonly known by the Sanscrit names of Bhut or the departed and Pisách or perhaps flesh-eaters and by the Kánaresé name of Devva that is deity. The Dhárwár people divide spirits into outside and house spirits. They do not greatly fear outside spirits. Every field, house, and tree has its evil spirits but they also have their guardian spirits or *devarus* and the guardians are the stronger. Some of the guardians are male spirits, others are females. The males are known as Bharmáppa, Kálláppa, and many other names ; the commonest female guardians are Lakshmi, Kareva, Kállava, and Kannava. They live in shapeless stones daubed with white-wash and red-earth in a corner of a field or in a house or under some big tree. On every no-moon day, over the male guardians, a few flowers and some sandalwood paste are thrown, and a cocconut is broken before them ; and over the female spirits, stones, turmeric, and redpowder are also dropped. Sometimes the guardians trouble their owners, sending fever, headache, rheumatism, or other slight sickness. The owners fall before their guardians and promise if they take away the sickness they will feed five or ten priests and their wives. When they get well they feed the priests and lay a waistcloth or a robe before the guardian, and themselves wear the robe as if it had never been offered. When they have these sicknesses they say *Bharmappa* or *Lukshmiavva kádtáne* that is Father Brahma or Mother Lukshmi vexes us, and when they have paid their vow they say *Bharmappaga madidivi* that is Father Brahma is propitiated. Maráthás, shepherds, and other flesh eaters offer their guardians a sheep or a fowl and cook and eat the flesh. Many Musalmán husbandmen have small shrines of saints in their fields, and worship them when they sicken. In this way three-fourths of the people worship guardians and think little of spirits.

House spirits are the ghosts of house people who have died a violent or an unnatural death, or who have died with a wish unfulfilled. An old man who leaves a young wife is apt to come back, and so is a young woman who has had to leave a fine husband, nice children, and a comfortable home. To keep away uneasy male ghosts special funeral rites are performed ; and to keep away a troublesome first wife's spirit the second wife wears a gold wire bracelet round her right wrist and every year in the name of the dead wife feeds a Bráhma woman whose husband is alive and gives her a robe and a bodice. This rite is called *jakni*. To keep away evil spirits on all no-moon days throughout the year, Bráhmans, Jains, Lingáyats, Vaishyas, and people of all castes offer cocconuts, plantains, dates, or other fruit to evil spirit-stones, burn frankincense before them, and feed Bráhma, Lingáyat, or Musalmán beggars. Sometimes a robe is offered and flesh eaters sometimes offer a goat or a fowl.

If a person feels uneasy or sick, the people of the house bathe him and make him walk a certain number of times round the house gods, and

Bráhmaṇ and Lingáyat priests or Musalmán beggars are fed. If the patient is no better, some great priest or a Bráhmaṇ is called in. He prays to God. If a Hindu, he waves camphor lights round the house gods five times and throws holy water on the patient, he engraves mysterious letters and figures on copper plates, and ties them to the patient's arm. If he is a Musalmán, he burns frankincense before his *panjás* or hands locally supposed to represent the open palms of the martyrs Hassan and Hussien, fumigates the patient, writes holy verses from the Kurán on a piece of paper, and ties the paper to the patient's neck. If these means fail, the friends of the sufferer take him to an exorcist, who is called *bhalbidsoava* or spirit-scarer. Strong cunning men who care not to work set up as spirit-scarers, and people believe them. The power of scaring spirits is not hereditary. Some gain it by studying spirit-scaring books, by fasting on no-moon days, and by standing up to their necks in cold water during eclipses and repeating verses in honour of Vetál the ghost lord. The means generally used by professional spirit-scarers to cure patients are to make them hold their heads in smoke made by burning chillies, resin, snake skin, and peacock feathers.

Two methods of scaring spirits are practised in Dhárwár, a Hindu plan and a Musalmán plan. The Hindu exorcist coudungs the ground, sprinkles quartz or *rángolá* powder on the ground in the form of giants, corpses, scorpions, and snakes, places lights on the figures and makes the patient sit near them, throws ashes, cold water, or oil on the patient, breaks cocoanuts, repeats verses, and orders the spirit to tell its name. At last the patient, that is the spirit in the patient, tells its name, its home, why it attacked the patient, and on what conditions it will leave. The friends and relations of the patient promise to fulfil the spirit's conditions, and some patients recover. The Musalmán plan differs little from this except that the spirit-scarer repeats verses from the Kurán and kills a goat or a fowl. Both plans are held equally effective. Hindus generally call Hindú exorcists and Musalmáns Musalman exorcists.

In Bankápur town are two famous Lingáyat spirit-scarers, Fakiráppa Sersangi a cotton merchant and Sivalingáppa the hereditary head or *mamleshethi* of the Bankápur Lingáyats. Outside of Fakiráppa's house is a large pillar or devil post in which Fakiráppa has imprisoned 1000 evil spirits. The house is often crowded with groups of spirit-possessed people and their friends. In a pot are several slips of red and blue paper each slip about an inch broad and three inches long. These papers are of great virtue. They have been soaked in charmed water and with the help of spells have great power over spirits. There are also three large boxes full of country medicines, a mortar and a pestle, and a pair of scales, for both Fakiráppa and Sivalingáppa admitted that they know a little medicine. When people come to be cured and all is ready Fakiráppa and Sivalingáppa ask Is any one suffering from evil spirits?

On one day when the writer was present several people came forward. The first was Gangavva a Lingáyat woman of about twenty. Her husband was with her. He complained that for six months his wife had been vexed by some evil spirit and begged Fakiráppa and Sivalingáppa to cast it from her. Fakiráppa and Sivalingáppa spoke to Gangavva. They warned her to tell the whole truth. If she told one lie, a devil out of the devil post would punish her severely. In her natural voice Gangavva complained that at times she had been haunted by evil spirits which would not allow her to speak, gave her much trouble, and severe bodily pain. Fakiráppa and Sivalingáppa gummed one of the charmed papers on her brow. Gangavva stopped speaking. They gummed a second piece of charmed paper on her

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nose ; she groaned as if some one was choking her. They applied a third piece to her chest ; she trembled violently as if in a hysteric fit. Fakirappa and Sivlingappa said that they had forced the evil spirit to show itself. They asked the spirit whether it was male or female. The woman, or rather the spirit in the woman, said she was the ghost of a kinswoman of Gangavva's and had been haunting her for six months. They asked her if she would leave Gangavva quietly or would prefer to be forced. She said she would leave if a robe was given to Gangavva in her name. The husband agreed to give the robe. Fakirappa told the spirit to swear she would leave Gangavva and to bow to the people. The spirit swore and bowed. Gangavva, who was still in a possessed state, was taken to the devil post and was told to walk thrice round it. At the end the spirit said I have left Gangavva and am in the post. The charmed papers were taken off Gangavva's brow, nose, and chest. She regained her usual look, and said she felt easy and free from pain. Fakirappa gave her three opening powders and told her to take one every day. Gangavva and her husband went home happy.

The next patient was a Musalmán woman Fatimáh thirty-five years old. She was married and her husband was with her. During the last nine months at night a spirit had at times come to her, pulled off her clothes, and beat and squeezed her. Fakirappa gummed a charmed paper on her brow. She ceased to speak. When a second charmed paper was gummed on her nose she groaned, fell on the ground, and writhed as if she was being beaten. When the charmed paper was put on her chest Fatimah, or rather the spirit, said she was a female and for nine months had been troubling Fatimáh at night. Fakirappa said 'Will you leave Fatimáh or shall I let loose one of my big spirits on you.' She said 'No Sir, No Sir, do not kill me, I fall at your feet. Pardon me, I will leave Fatimáh at once if she gets a silver armlet worth £1 12s. (Rs. 16) and wears it on her right arm in my name.' Fatimáh's husband agreed to buy the armlet and the spirit promised to leave at once. Fatimáh was made to walk round the devil post. The spirit, as in Gangavva's case, cried 'I have left Fatimáh and am in the post.' Fatimáh came to herself, said she felt free, and went off with her husband. In neither case did Fakirappa or Sivlingappa take any fee or present. Fakirappa and Sivlingappa keep a register showing, with the names and homes of the patients and the dates, about a thousand cases in which they have scared evil spirits without any charge.

Privately and alone the writer asked Fakirappa and Sivlingappa how they could compel evil spirits to talk and confess and come out. Fakirappa and Sivlingappa both said 'There are no evil spirits. It is some sickness of the body or of the mind that makes people and their friends think they are haunted by spirits. It is no use telling the people this. The only plan is to humour them, declare you can scare spirits, and order them into the post.' They added that they were generally able to give the people some medicine to help them.

In Dhárwár when an exorcist fails to drive out a spirit, the patient is taken to some holy place or shrine famous for its spirit-scaring powers. Among such shrines are Hanumán's temples at Kurubgatti in the Dhárwár subdivision and at Kadarmandali in the Ránebennur subdivision, Sattia Bodha Svámi's shrine in Sávanur, and other minor places in Dhárwár. When these local shrines fail the patient is taken to some distant holy place, the shrine of the saint Váderája Svámi at Swádi in Kánara, of the saint Rághvendra Svámi at Mantrálaya in Belari, to Narsobá's vádi near Miraj, to Pandharpur, to Kolhápur, to Tirupati in North Arkot, and to Rameshvar in the south of India. At these holy places

the patient is made to bathe daily, to walk a certain number of times round the temple or round a *pimpal* tree, or to bow before the idol or tree a hundred or more times, or to roll round the temple tree five or seven times a day. Some patients perform these exercises in wet clothes. Bráhmaṇ or Língáyat priests or Musalmán beggars and other poor people are also fed.

Within the last fifty years especially in Dhárwár, Hubli, Gadag, and other large towns, spirit attacks have grown much less common and much less severe. An increase of intelligence due to letter writing and travel has perhaps helped the people to shake off some of the load of their hereditary dread of ghosts. But more and more regular food, cleaner water, warmer clothes, airier houses, and cleaner surroundings have probably done more to help the people to throw off spirit-attacks.

Appendix B.

SPIRIT
POSSESSION.

APPENDIX C.

WRESTLING HOUSES.¹Appendix C.
WRESTLING
HOUSES

AN interesting feature of Dhárwár life is its Wrestling-Houses or Gardimanis. The word comes from *gardi* (K.) athletic exercise, and *mani* (K.) house. It corresponds to the Sanskrit *malla-griha* and the Persian *tálimkhána*.

The sport-house is an old Hindu institution. In one of these, dressed in woman's clothes, Bhim, the giant Pándhav, wrestled to the death with Kichaka who had insulted the sister-wife Draupadi. The Puráns also have many references to these wrestling pits and their exercises.

In Dhárwár in the east, and to a less extent in the west, every town and large village has its sport-house, and large towns often have several. In the eastern plain from the outside the sport-house looks like a flat roofed building about seven feet high. In the wet west, where they are rare, a tiled roof is built over the flat roof. In all cases the outer walls are whitewashed and the corners picked out with red. In many colours and sizes are figures of huntsmen, on foot and on horse, with spears and guns, shooting tigers and other wild animals, and wrestlers in fierce struggle. There are no windows and only one doorway with a strong wooden door. The top of the doorway runs two or three feet above the line of the roof and is coloured red, green, yellow, and blue. Along the sport-house wall is a raised earthen bench about two feet high and two feet broad where visitors sit and sing and smoke.

In front of the sport-house is a space for open-air wrestling. A strong door, the only opening in the walls, about $2\frac{1}{2}' \times 3'$, opens on three narrow steps which lead about four feet down to the floor. The house, whose walls are daubed with red earth, is about ten feet broad, eighteen long, and ten high. It is divided into three rooms each about six feet broad and ten feet long. Except one dim lamp all is dark as during exercise the door is always carefully closed. On one side of the house, on a seat two feet broad and three feet high, are clubs weighted with lead, stone weights, and iron-chains fastened to a stout bar. In a niche in one of the walls are the guardians of the house a small figure of the monkey-god Hanumán, and of the *Panja* or Ali's Hand. Before the guardians is a censer in which frankincense is burnt. Thursday is the Musalmán and Saturday the Hindu guardian's great day. On Thursday all athletes burn frankincense before the Hand or *Panja*, throw a flower garland over it, and offer red sugar. On Saturday all Hindu athletes bathe, go to the god Hanumán, throw themselves before the image, offer sandalwood paste and flowers, wave burning frankincense, and lay fruits or other eatables before the guardian. Some red earth called *kávi* (K.) is kept in a corner of the room and rubbed on the wrestlers' bodies when they perform.

¹ Ráv Bahádur Tirmalráv Venkatesh.

Youths who attend sport-houses are known as *gardimani hulagas* or sport-house boys. Except the depressed classes who have sport-houses of their own, boys of all castes Bráhmans, Vánis, Jains, Lingáyats, Maráthás, and Musalmáns attend the village sport-house. Boys begin to attend sport-houses about ten and go on till they are thirty or more. Athletes and boys when in training are well fed. Those whose caste rules allow it eat flesh. Those who cannot eat flesh take specially large quantities of sugar and clarified butter. Boys and men of all classes when in training are careful to drink a pint of milk every day, and soak overnight gram in water and eat it in the morning, and, if they can afford it, eat dates soaked overnight in clarified butter. Boys who are fond of athletic exercises do not marry till they are twenty-five and even then, if they are champions, they do not live with their wives. A champion who has been beaten once or twice generally gives up wrestling and begins to live with his wife. For a month before the yearly challenge meeting the champion lives on rich food. The winner generally gets a handsome prize, a bracelet, a turban, or a waistcloth. The usual yearly challenge-meeting is held in October on the day before Dasara. On the day of the meeting one or two sheep are slain in front of the guardian Hand, and the heads and legs are buried under a stone slab in front of the Hand, and the rest is eaten by Musalmáns Maráthás and other flesh-eaters. Bráhmáns, Lingáyats and Jains who may not touch flesh, feast on fruit and sweetmeat. Anything that is over is buried in a corner of the sport-house. When at exercise the athlete wears a tight pair of short drawers and a waistband tightly wrapped round the waist and one end passed between the legs and tightly tucked behind. When resting or before beginning a contest they sometimes cover themselves with a cloak. All articles worn by athletes are washed in red-earth water. The hours are four to six in the morning and eight to ten at night. As soon as a boy enters a gymnasium he takes off his head-dress, jacket, and other clothes except the tight drawers and the waistband. Eight to ten stand in one line and eight to ten in another line opposite to them. Each catches his right arm with his hollow left hand and smites it near the shoulder several times, making a loud noise. This is called *shaddá hodiya* or shoulder-smiting. They then touch the ground with their toes and palms and move their bodies backwards and forwards without bending the knees, if possible stretching so far that the nose can touch the ground. This is called by Hindus the *devarásám* or god's exercise and by Musalmáns *Maula Ali's sám* or the prophet Ali's exercise. While performing exercises at each motion of his body, the leader keeps shouting short unmeaning sentences in which the names of Bhim and the prophet Ali occur and the rest repeat the shout and copy the movement. The last words of every couplet or triplet are in rhyme. They also stand and walk on their hands and sit down and rise more than a hundred times. They jump and turn double somersaults. They perform with clubs, lift weights, and climb greasy poles, and generally end by wrestling in couples.

At the challenge meetings the champions rub their bodies with red earth, tie an amulet or evil-scarer to one of their arms, and hide themselves under a dirty robe or a blanket in case any sorcerer or evil-eye should sap their powers.

Girls of the prostitute class and professional athletes, learn athletic exercises in their homes, but do not go to public sport-houses. They wear tight drawers from the waist to the knee, and small bodices. When they are grown they perform in public but never wrestle. When a girl performs in public she wears a bodice and robe like an ordinary woman

Appendix C.
—
WRESTLING
HOUSES.

with one or two differences. She passes the skirt of the robe so tightly back between her feet that the leg is bare up to the knee, and, instead of drawing the other end of the robe over the chest and head, she binds it tightly round the waist. Besides the tight bodice over the breasts she passes a bright kerchief over the right and under the left shoulder and ties it tightly behind the neck, fastening the two lower ends of the tippet to the robe at the waist one at each side. As soon as the performance is over she unties the kerchief and draws the upper end of her robe over her shoulder and head. Girls perform the same exercises as men except that they never wrestle.

APPENDIX D.

QUARTZ-POWDER.¹

RÁNGOLI, the word used for the quartz lines and pictures which prudent housewives sprinkle in front of their house doors, is said to mean the brilliant line from the Sanskrit *rang* colour and *avali* a row. The orthodox explanation of the sprinkling of these lines and figures, as well as of white-washing cowdung and tying strings of mango leaves in houses, is that it is for beauty, because God dwells in the house.

The best *rángoli* is made by pounding white quartz into powder. Its colour is white and it may be used either while Bráhmans are in a pure state after bathing, or when they have not bathed. In the absence of quartz powder, rice-flour may be used. In addition to the white lines, dots or figures of yellow, red, black, green, and blue powder are also occasionally used. The yellow powder is made from turmeric, the red is the ordinary *gulál* of rice or *rági* flour dyed with red sanders, the green is from the ground dried leaves of the *Æschynomene grandiflora*, the black is ground charcoal, and the blue is indigo. Every day lines, dots, and figures are drawn on the floors of all Bráhma houses, three, four, or five straight lines parallel to the walls of rooms and verandas. Cross lines, circles with a dot in the centre, and elaborate figures are also drawn. On great occasions elaborate tracery and figures of men, animals, and trees are drawn. On *Nágar-chaut* or the Cobra's Fourth, that is the bright fourth of *Shrávan* or August-September, Bráhmans, in addition to making the usual figures, draw and worship single, double, and twisted forms of snakes sprinkled in quartz powder. During the leading days of the *Diváli* feast, the dark 14th and 15th of *Ashvin* or October-November, and during the bright half of *Kártik* or November-December, all Hindus set what they call the *Pandus*, five cowdung cones two or three inches high and about the same round the foot, outside to the right and left of the threshold, and on the top of the outer house door. Round each cowdung cone they draw double or treble white and red lines, set a flower of the *kumbal* (K.) *Cucurbita hispida* gourd on each of the cowdung cones, and throw over all turmeric and red powder. On the marriage day of Vishnu and the *tulsi* plant, that is the evening of the bright twelfth of *Kártik* or November-December, and when Lakshmi the goddess of wealth comes in *Shrávan* or August-September, besides the usual quartz figures, *gopad* or cow's footprints are sprinkled with *rángoli* powder all along the ground from the outer threshold of the house to the shrine which has been made ready for the god. When feasts are given in the open air, in front of and on each side of the board on which each guest sits, lines and arches are drawn in quartz and red powder. On birth, marriage, and other festive occasions, and when entertainments are given elaborate quartz powder figures are traced. On occasions of deaths, funeral ceremonies, yearly mind-rites or mind-dinners, no quartz lines, dots, or figures are drawn, except that at dinners in honour of saints a little quartz powder is occasionally used. No special

Appendix D.
QUARTZ-POWDER.

¹ Ráj Bahádúr Tirmaláj Venkatesh,

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quartz figures are drawn on no-moon or full-moon days. The coudunging of the ground and the drawing of fearful quartz powder figures is an important part in most exorcisms.

The great tracers of quartz powder figures, forming them simply by letting the powder drop from between the thumb and fingers, are Bráhma women. No Bráhma woman during her monthly sickness, for three months after childbirth, or when in mourning may draw quartz lines. Jains use Rángoli like Bráhmans, and Maráthas use it on special occasions. Some, but not all Lingáyats, draw a few lines every day in their houses. On moon-light nights and on great occasions, Lingáyats draw long double lines of dots, alternately of lime and water and red earth, and dine or play close by these lines. Lingáyats also draw one or two lines of quartz powder along the edge of the grave before burying the body. Pársis, like Hindus, decorate their house fronts by stamping them with quartz powder plates. Musalmáns and Native converts to Christianity are the only persons who do not use quartz decorations. Formerly the traceries were all made by letting the powder slip between the thumb and the fingers. Of late years tubes and plates with upturned edges pierced with designs have been filled with powder and either rolled or stamped over the place to be decorated.

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